

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

MASTER IN PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND POLICY

THE PRACTICES AND IMPACT OF PRODUCTIVE SAFETY NET PROGRAM (PSNP) ON THE HOUSEHOLD INCOME OF SMALLHOLDER FARMERS: THE CASE OF TULA SUB-CITY, HAWASSA

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ADVISOR: - ELIAS B. (PHD)

JUNE, 2016

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A THESIS SUBMITTED TO SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES OF ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR MASTER DEGREE OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND POLICY IN THE DEPERTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT

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ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

Approval Sheet

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Department Of Public Administration and Development Management

This is to certify that the thesis prepared by **Mary Abera** entitled the practices and impact of productive safety net program on the household income of small holder farmers: The case of Tula sub city, Hawassa Which is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master Public Managment and Policy (MPMP) complies with the regulations of the university and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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Acronyms

APEC- Asian Pacific Economic Cooperation

CCI- Complimentary Community Infrastructure Program

CCT- Conditional Cash Transfer

DANIDA- Danish International Development Agency

DAs- Development Agents

DRMFSS- Disaster Risk Management and Food Security Sector

DS- Direct Support

EUI- European University Institute

EWRD- Early Warning and Response Directorate

FAO- Food and Agricultural Organization

FSCD- Food Security Coordination Directorate

FSP- Food Security Program

GDP- Gross Domestic Product

HABP- Household Asset Building Program

HEP- House hold Extension Package

IDT- Impress Desa Tertinggal

IFPRI- International Food Policy Research Institute

ILO- International Labor Organization

IPCC- Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

MDER- Minimum dietary energy requirement

MDG- Millennium Development Goal

MFIs- Micro Finance Institution

MOARD- Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development

MOFED- Ministry of Finance and Economic Development

NGO- Non Governmental Organization

NRMD- Natural Resource Management Directorate

PASDEP- Plan for Accelerated and Sustained development to End Poverty

PROGRESA- Programa De Education Salud Y Alimenacion

PSNP- Productive Safety Net Program

PW- Public Work

RPS- Red De Protection Social Program

RUSACCOs- Rural Saving and Credit Cooperatives

SNNPR- South Nations Nationalities and Peoples Regional State

SSA- Sub Saharan Africa

TEO- The Ethiopian Observatory

UK- United Kingdom

VRP- Voluntary Resettlement Program

WFP- World Food Program

Abstract

The study was conducted to assess the practices and impact of productive safety net program on the household income of small holder farmers in Tula sub city, Hawassa. Though there are other rural sub cities in and around Hawassa town, due to the extended problem of food insecurity in the area this study mainly focused on the impact of PSNP on the household income of smallholder farmers in Tula sub city. For this study the researcher employed both primary data and secondary resources. The relevant primary data were collected through tools such as Household survey questionnaire, key informant interviews and observation. The secondary data were published and unpublished articles, journals, office records, books and thesis. The study participants were PSNP beneficiary farmers, development agents, kebele administrators and early warning and food security office coordinator and employees. The data collected through primary and secondary sources were thematically organized and analyzed through triangulation to increase the accuracy of the study finding.

The study has found out that the productive safety net program has registered some improvements on aspects like beneficiaries monthly income, number of meals per day, monthly food consumption and availability of community assets and no improvements on other many aspects like total crop production, number of livestock, availability of household assets, availability of production materials and the condition of using negative coping mechanisms that are put by the researcher as measures of to evaluate the impact of the program on the study area.

After examining the impact of PSNP on the house hold income of small holder farmers in the study area, some recommendations were suggested by the researcher. Majorly focused on taking disciplinary and corrective measures during the targeting process, timing of food distribution, improving quantity of food aid, restructuring the system, establishing community assets with better quality and quantity, creating community awareness and cooperation of all concerned bodi

Chapter One

1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. Household food security is the application of this concept to the family level, with individuals within households as the focus of concern. Food insecurity exists when people do not have adequate physical, social or economic access to food as defined above. Undernourishment exists when caloric intake is below the minimum dietary energy requirement (MDER). The MDER is the amount of energy needed for light activity and to maintain a minimum acceptable weight for attained height. (FAO, 2010)

The United Nation Food and Agriculture Organization estimate that about 805 million people of the 7.3 billion people in the world or one in nine were suffering from chronic undernourishment in 2012-2014. Almost all the hungry people 791 million live in developing countries, representing 13.5 percent or one in eight of the population of developing counties and there are 11 million people undernourished in developed countries (FAO, 2014)

Developing regions as a whole have registered significant progress towards the MDG 1 hunger target if the average annual decline of the past 21 years continues to 2015 the prevalence of undernourishment will reach a level close to the target. Meeting the target would require considerable and immediate additional efforts. Growth can raise incomes and reduce hunger, but higher economic growth may not reach everyone. It may not lead to more and better jobs for all, unless policies specifically target the poor, especially those in rural areas. In poor countries hunger and poverty reduction will only be achieved with growth that is not only sustained, but also broadly shared. Despite overall progress, differences across regions persist. Sub Saharan Africa remains the region with the highest prevalence of undernourishment, with modest progress in recent years. Western Asia shows no progress, while Southern Asia and Northern Africa show slow progress. Significant reductions in both the estimated number and prevalence of undernourishment have occurred in most countries of Eastern and South Eastern Asia, as Well as in Latin America (FAO, 2013)

Currently Africa ensures food supply a mix of domestic food production and overseas food imports. West Africa for example depends to 40% on imports in ensuring sufficient rice supply with Thailand as the main rice supplier (FAO, 2010). The total volume of cereal imports in Africa was around 66 million tons in 2010 (FAO, 2013) this means that for the whole of Africa 30% of all cereals consumed were imported. Despite domestic production and import efforts there were 239 million undernourished people living on the African continent in 2012, most of them in sub –Saharan Africa. During the last two decades the number of undernourished people in Africa has increased by more than 35%. This shows that food insecurity already now is of increasingly relevant concern (FAO, 2012).

Food insecurity resulting from poverty and recurrent droughts continues to be major challenge in sub –Saharan African countries (Nigussa and Mbrengwa, 2009). This has led to a shift in policy approaches where initiatives to sustainably resolve food insecurity are combined with social protection measures that aim to alleviate the impact of food insecurity. Social protection refers to all initiatives that provide income (cash) or consumption (food) transfers to the poor protect the vulnerable against livelihood risks and enhance social status and rights of the excluded and marginalized (Devereux and Sabates –wheeler, 2004).

It 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 (ibid). In general, there exists a broad range of social protection programmes. One form of social protection is social assistance which involves non-contributory transfers to those deemed eligible by society on the basis of their vulnerability or poverty (Farrington and Slater 2006). It includes food transfers (food stamps, food rations, food price subsidies), cash transfers (grants, non-contributory pensions, family allowance programmes), service subsidies (social housing programmes, utility subsidies and childcare centres), and conditional cash transfers (conditional on child and maternal health care practices, school attendance, and nutritional standards, or on the use of welfare programmes) (Tasew, 2009).

The PSNP is currently the largest operating social protection program in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), outside of South Africa. It differs from previous food-for-work programs, in that it focuses continuously on selected households over several years and in that the explicit objective was that it will eventually be phased out (Anderson et al. 2009). PSNP operates as a safety net, intended to enable households to smooth consumption so that they will not need to sell productive assets in order to overcome food shortages. It was targeting transfers to poor households in two ways, through public works (PW) and direct support (DS), Public works through which food-insecure people were employed in public works for five days a month during the agricultural slack season (MoARD 2006).

The public work was also intended to generate valuable public goods by reducing seasonal liquidity constraints; it was intended to stimulate investments as well. Approximately 80% of the beneficiaries receive these benefits through their involvement in public works. The PSNP provides benefits to households in cash and in-kind. These two options are available for the public works component as well as the direct support piece (ibid).

For several decades in the past, Ethiopia has been known as a country that is heavily reliant on emergency relief as a typical response to its widespread and persistent food insecurity. Although this humanitarian assistance was substantial (estimated at about US$265 million a year on average between 1997 and 2002) and saved many lives, evaluations have shown that it was unpredictable for both planners and households, and often arrived too little. The delays and uncertainties meant that the emergency aid could not be used effectively and did little to protect livelihoods, prevent environmental degradation, generate community assets, or preserve physical or human household assets (MoARD 2009a).

With 80 percent of its population dependent on rain fed agriculture, Ethiopia is particularly vulnerable to weather related shocks. Rain varies greatly by region and is particularly unpredictable (World Bank /United Nations, 2010). Although the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) predicts only a modest change in Ethiopia‘s rainfall patterns in future (Christensen et al, 2007), this can still adversely affect very poor small farmers –especially if such decreases are concentrated in the growing season (Oxfam International, 2010)

Over the past six decades Ethiopia has been particularly susceptible to drought, with a drought occurring every three to five years. Serious droughts and often famine, either widespread or localized, have occurred several times and affected millions of people. Environmental Degradation and poor natural management –together with a reduction in size of average landholdings due to high population growth and conflict, governance and institutional capacity issues –have exacerbated the impacts of these droughts. All of these factors have contributed to the productive assets and coping capacities of households and communities. Food insecurity is widespread and food aid needs have been sizable fluctuating between 0.4 -2.5 Percent of GDP between 1996 and 2001 (World Bank /United Nations, 2010)

Chronic food insecurity plagues many areas of Ethiopia, exacerbated by negative shocks such as drought, flood high input prices and or lack of input access and high food prices the consequences of these shocks for smallholders include lower household incomes; decreased food consumption, especially during the planting and rainy seasons and loss of productive assets, including those lost in distress asset sales in an effort to buy food. These consequences suggest that programs to reduce chronic food insecurity should address both the immediate lack of food (relief) and the need to build resilience among smallholder incomes and assets (development) (USAID, 2012).

Agriculture and social protection are inextricably interconnected in Ethiopia. Smallholder farming is the dominant livelihood activity for most Ethiopians, but it is also a major source of vulnerability to poverty and food insecurity. Ethiopian farmers have received enormous volumes of food aid in recent decades, and early warning and emergency programming have become institutionalized within government structures. From the agricultural policy perspective, the government‘s belief in agriculture as the backbone and main source of economic growth is reflected in its view that land is the ultimate _safety net‘ for rural households, who should therefore be prevented from selling it. From the social protection perspective, awareness that farmers are the main recipients of social assistance has fuelled the government‘s fear of creating _dependency‘ in rural communities, which explains the predominance of public works projects as their preferred delivery mechanism, as well as recent shifts in safety net thinking towards cash transfers rather than food aid, with predictable transfers expected to lead to _graduation‘ within 3-5 years. (Devereux, 2008)

The Government of Ethiopia, WFP and development partners work together to increase families‘ long- term resilience to food shortages. Established in 2005, PSNP is aimed at enabling the rural poor facing chronic food insecurity to resist shocks create assets and become food self-sufficient. PSNP provides multi –annual predictable transfers as food, cash or a combination of both, to help chronically food insecure people survive food deficit periods and avoid depleting their productive assets while attempting to meet their basic food requirements.The combination of cash and food transfers is based on season and need with food given primarily in the lean season between June and August. Vulnerable households receive six months of assistance annually to protect them from acute food insecurity. Additionally WFP extends food and cash assistance to an additional three months under its Risk financing mechanism during periods when food insecure people are affected by unpredicted shock (WFP, 2012).

Able bodied members of PSNP households must participate in productive activities that will build more resilient livelihoods, such as rehabilitating land water resources and developing community infrastructure, including rural road rehabilitation and building schools and clinics. PSNP operates in Afar, Amhara, Dire Dawa, Harare, Oromiya, SNNPR ,Somali and Tigray regions. WFP and eight other development partners including the Canadian international development Agency, Embassy of the kingdom of the Netherlands, European Commission, Irish Aid, Swedish International Development agency, the united states Agency for international Development, Uk department for international development, DANIDA and world Bank contribute to PSNP (ibid). The ministry of Agriculture (MoA) is responsible for program management, with the disaster Risk management and food security sector (DRMFSS) tasked with overall program coordination. Within the DRMFSS the food security coordination directorate (FSCD) facilitates the day to day management and coordination of the PSNP, while the Early warning and response directorate (EWRD) provides early warring information for Natural hazard events and ensures the PSNP‘s emergency responses are linked to other humanitarian response activities. The Natural Resource Management Directorate (NRMD) within MOARD provides coordination and oversight of the public works. The Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MoFED) oversees financial management (World Bank, 2010).

1.2.Statement of the Problem

Ethiopia is one of the poorest countries in the world with worst scenario of poverty and food insecurity. Close to a quarter of the population in Ethiopia is malnourished with the largest proportion suffering from chronic hunger. The country has been structurally food deficient over the last four decades. The food gap in the country, for instance, rose to 5 million tons in 1993/94 from 0.75 million tons in 1979/80 (Befekadu and Berhanu 2000). Between 1994 and 2003, an average of five million Ethiopians were considered at risk and in need of emergency assistance every year, and from 1998 to 2005 the annual number of food aid beneficiaries fluctuated between 5 and 14million (Devereux et.al.2006). In 2006, an estimated 15 million rural people were food insecure (Mitiku et al. 2013), while in 2012, an estimated 3.2 million people were reportedly food insecure, down from a peak of 4.5 million during the year 2011. In 2015 alarm bells are ringing for a food emergency in Ethiopia. The UN says 15 million people will need help over the coming months. The governments, wary of stigma and therefore hesitant to ask for help, has nevertheless said more than eight million Ethiopians need food assistance. Inevitably, comment and media coverage compare the current situation with 1984 – the year Ethiopia‘s notorious famine hit the headlines. Reports suggest this is the worst drought in 30 years. One declares it a ―eode red" drought. (IRIN, 2015)

When poor farmers encounter shocks, they suffer from the direct effects of poverty and hunger making them less productive and less able to earn a living. They are also forced to employ negative coping strategies such as reducing food consumption, selling productive assets, and removing children from school (Barret, 2001). Insights into vulnerability and risk have demonstrated the importance of combining economic growth strategies with social protection.

Food security is the major policy concern of the government and many other donors that are working in Ethiopia. These stakeholders have applied different strategies and approaches to achieve the common goal. Even though the impact of the various approaches and strategies have not been evaluated. There is a clear indication that vulnerability to food insecurity has increased and famine has evolved to be inert-generation. (Yohannes, 2015)

Although various policy measures have been designed to address the problem, and despite the implementation of major market liberalization in the country as well as surpluses in food grain production in recent years, there have been reports that food availability still remains at low

levels and food insecurity persists. Food insecurity emerged as a key problem and development challenge in Ethiopia in the early 1970s and became pervasive in the subsequent decades. A host of factors, including natural and man-made, have resulted in the growing food insecurity problem in many parts of the country. Frequently recurring droughts and erratic rainfall patterns, land degradation, rapid population growth, and poor rural infrastructure have also been cited as some of the causes of food insecurity and widespread poverty in the country. Other factors contributing to food insecurity are the low levels of technology employed in agriculture and the resulting low productivity of the sector (Sabates-Wheeler et al. 2012).

For over 30 years responses to food insecurity in Ethiopia were dominated by emergency food aid. While this food aid saved lives, it often failed to protect livelihoods and this became a growing concern. In response, during 2005 the Ethiopian Government revised its emergency food aid system and launched the productive safety Net programme (PSNP) - a more productive approach to providing a safety net to vulnerable populations. Furthermore, between2010 and 2014, the Ethiopian government stepped up its efforts to address both relief and development, with harmonized donor support. Through this more developmental approach, the PSNP provides for households that are both chronically food insecure and poor and often affected by shocks. With an objective to assure food consumption, and simultaneously to protect and develop assets along with services, PSNP operates across widespread geographies and rural communities to determine eligibility to receive payments, based on specific criteria. Such payments are made to households that can contribute to public works (labor) or if labor is limited or impossible, unconditional support is provided. Through this infrastructure PSNP contributes to a local enabling environment for community development though making a program of this magnitude well- targeted presents many challenges. (IFPRI, 2014).

In the absence of effective safety nets, people routinely fall not only into poverty, but beyond critical asset thresholds and into chronic poverty. (De Janvry and Kanbur, 2006)

There are also some empirical studies that have been worked by different researchers to assess the impact of PSNP in Ethiopia. Among these studies some of the works tried to assess the impact of the program one year after the onset of the program using cross sectional data - examples include Devereux et al. (2006) and Gilligan et al. (2008). But according to Devereux et al. (2006), since impact might not accrue in the short run, to fully and rigorously evaluate the PSNP, longitudinal data is needed. There are also studies that focus on change in beneficiary_s

status like Anderson et al. (2009) and Wheelers et al. (2010).Moreover there are some empirical evidences which focused on specific area of the country, example Yadete, (2008), Habtamu, (2011)and Yitagesu,(2014).

The present study area Tula is one of the chronically food insecure, drought-prone and food deficit sub city where PSNP has actively been implemented to change the life of households. Almost totally dependent on agriculture in a high risk environment makes them vulnerable to any external shock, such as drought. Drought and other climatic extremes are major factors contributing to vulnerability to poverty and food insecurity in the area.

According to the sub city EWFS office severe famines were registered in the area which highly affects the livelihood of the society, their livestock property and different assets. This was caused by lowest rainfall during rainy seasons, declining fertility of soil and lack of modern farming technology and irrigation system. In the study area PSNP extend since it has started at national level (2005) to assure food consumption and prevent asset depletion for food insecure households in chronically food insecure areas, while stimulating markets, improving access to services and natural resources, and rehabilitating and enhancing the natural environment. Throughout these years the Early warning and Food security office of the sub city have been delivering food assistance through direct support and cash transfers through public works.

Data available from Tula sub city EWFS office, 2016 indicates that from the total population of 96735, 7435 individual beneficiaries are registered to receive food assistance.

Even though several attempts have been made to evaluate the general impact of PSNP countrywide, there are limited empirical evidences whether or not the program efforts has the intended effect on house hold income of small holder farmers particularly in the study area.

Based on this, here the study will make attempts to assess the impact of Productive Safety Net Program on household income of smallholder farmers in Tula sub city, Hawassa.

1.3. Research Questions

Based on the above statement, the following questions were formulated in which this research attempted to answer:

- Does PSNP help to improve house hold income in the study area?
- Does PSNP help to improve food consumption of smallholder farmers in the area?
- How do beneficiaries identified for PSNP?
- What are the experienced challenges during the process of targeting and implementing PSNP?
- How do beneficiaries perceive the program?
- What must be done on PSNP transfers in the study area to reduce household vulnerability to food insecurity?

1.4. Objectives of the Study

1.4.1. General Objective of the Study

The study generally aimed at examining the impact of Productive Safety Net on household income of smallholder farmers in Tula sub city, Hawassa.

1.4.2. Specific Objectives of the study

- To examine whether PSNP helps to improve household‘s income of small holder farmers.
- To evaluate whether PSNP helps to improve food consumption of small holder farmers.
- To ascertain the process of identifying households for PSNP
- To identify the experienced challenges during the process of targeting and implementing the program.
- To assess the perception of beneficiaries towards the program.
- Finally, to draw conclusions and some policy implication and recommend viable means of reducing household vulnerability of small holder farmers to food insecurity in the sub city.

1.5. Scope of the Study

The PSNP is a social protection program undertaken currently by the Ethiopian Government Food Security Program. However, different but interrelated programs are there under the umbrella of FSP in many sub national levels of the country. One of these areas is Tula sub city. From the seven beneficiary kebeles of the sub city, three (Haranfama, Chefasine and Alamura)

would be focused. As said before, this study focused on assessing the impact of PSNP on income of smallholder farmers from different components of FSP. The program has different impacts both on the beneficiaries and non-beneficiaries. However, this study would focus only on the beneficiary households.

1.6. Significance of the Study

On the basis of the findings, this study attempted to provide some recommendations that would help the program implementation and outcomes in the study area. The findings and recommendations of this paper might provide information that would enable effective measures to improve the program and some policy suggestions that would help both the Government and those Non-Governmental organizations in the program implementation and serve as a reference to other concerned bodies that would like to deploy interventions in the area. The result of the study could also be utilized in other areas with similar physical and socioeconomic characteristics. Furthermore the sturdy could serve as a point of departure for further researches on the area. Ultimately all these efforts might help policy makers to know where and how to channel efforts in order to smooth household consumption, protect household assets and consider household variations and related issues in formulating national, regional and local policies. The study would also contribute to the thin literature of the country on the subject.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

While investigating this study, the researcher has faced constraints like difficulty of finding and locating beneficiaries/respondents, reluctant of respondent to fill and return the already distributed questionnaire, shortage of recent reference books and lack of well accessed internet services, being busy of managers and employees and unable to give interview just in time as per researchers‘ schedule, lack of accurate data base management and procedural time taking working system of the organization.

1.8. Organization of the paper

This research paper is organized in five chapters. Chapter one deals with the introductory part which includes background, statement of the problem, research questions, objectives, scope, significance and organization of the paper. Chapter two presents reviews of related literature to establish a background framework for the study. Chapter three describes the research

methodology of the study, which includes research design, sources of data and data collection tools, sampling techniques and sample size and methods of data description and analysis. Chapter four presents the data analysis, interpretation and presentation. Chapter five offers major findings, conclusion and recommendations or policy implications based on the preceding analysis of the collected data. Finally, references and appendices are attached.

1.9. Operational Definition of Terms

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 to be chronically food insecure (Ministry of Agriculture, 2010).

Food Security: All people at all times having both physical and economic access to sufficient food to meet their dietary needs for a productive and healthy life (Ministry of Agriculture, 2010).

Social Protection: refers to the public actions taken in response to levels of vulnerability, risk and deprivation which are deemed socially unacceptable within a given polity or society. (Norton et.al, 2001)

Safety Nets: Refer to noncontributory transfer programs targeted in some way to the poor or vulnerable (Grosh et al. 2008). Safety nets aim to increase households‘ consumption either directly or through substitution effects of basic commodities and essential services.

Productive Safety Net Program: The Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) is one of the Government of Ethiopia's (GoE's) flagship reform programmes and represents a significant transformation of the Government's strategy for meeting the Poverty and Hunger MDG in Ethiopia. (Instiute of development studies, 2008)

Small Holder Farmers: refers to farmers with limited resource endowments relative to other farmers in the sector (FAO, 2004a).

Chapter Two
2. Review of Related Literature
2.1. Theoretical Literature
2.1.1. The Concept of Social Protection

Social protection involves policies and programs that protect people against risk and vulnerability, mitigate the impacts of shocks, and support people who suffer from chronic incapacities to secure basic livelihoods. It can also build assets, reducing both short-term and intergenerational transmission of poverty. It includes social insurance (such as health, life, and asset insurance, which may involve contributions from employers and/or beneficiaries); social assistance (mainly cash, food, vouchers, or subsidies); and services (such as maternal and child health and nutrition programs). Interventions that provide training and credit for income-generating activities also have a social protection component (Adatoand Hoddinott, 2008).

Interest in social protection is growing across Africa, fueled by persistent high rates of poverty and malnutrition; the undermining of livelihoods and family-based support systems by shocks such as the AIDS epidemic; volatile food prices and the calamities of weather and war; extensive evidence that denying children basic nutrition, health, and education has lifelong, irreversible, and intergenerational consequences; and growing evidence of the effectiveness of social protection in low-income countries throughout the world—particularly in contributing to poverty reduction and improved health, nutrition, and education. Approaches vary across regions and countries, with a notable introduction or scale-up of cash transfers for the very poor in southern and East Africa. While many programs have been undertaken on a pilot basis, successful implementation of large-scale social protection programs in Ethiopia and South Africa—each with more than 8 million beneficiaries—has demonstrated that social protection systems are no longer only within the reach of rich countries (ibid).

Social protection has protective, preventative, promotional, and transformational functions. Programs are loosely placed under the objectives with which they are normally associated; for example, a food or cash transfer is often used to secure basic consumption. However, each type of program can be used to achieve any of these four objectives. For example, a cash transfer can also build assets by: 1) keeping children from leaving or missing school because fees are too expensive or children‘s labor is needed at home (for example, South Africa‘s Child Support Grant increased school attendance by 25 percent); 2) taking the form of a wage in exchange for

constructing social infrastructure (for example, South Africa‘s public works programs have built water systems, clinics, and schools); and 3) enabling people to invest in a small business (for example, Ethiopia‘s Productive Safety Nets Programme increased the likelihood of households operating nonfarm businesses). These programs can also transform relations between citizens and government when they work together in targeting, monitoring, or service delivery. There are trade-offs across goals, however protective and preventative interventions tend to require less capacity of implementers and beneficiaries, fewer inputs, and can be scaled up more quickly. Promotional and transformational interventions are more complex, require greater capacities and resources, and are more challenging to scale up. Countries with high levels of poverty and low institutional and financial capacities can start with simpler, protective interventions such as cash or food transfers, prioritizing interventions appropriate for the most vulnerable groups. As capacities advance, more complex interventions can be added (ibid).

2.1.2. The Concept of Safety Net

In many developing countries during the 1980s and 1990s poverty eradication was pursued through programs and policies that focused primarily on promoting economic growth. While this strategy continuous to be important, it is now widely accepted that growth is not sufficient on its own. Economic growth takes time to materialize and even when it does occur, its effect may be unevenly distributed leaving many poor people unable to take advantage of the opportunities it provided. As the result it is becoming important that vulnerability and risk reduction is possible through combination of economic growth with social protection measures. Social protection strategies are integrated system of institutionalized national measures, which included contributory pensions, insurance schemes and safety nets (Holzmann R., 2003).Safety nets are a form of social transfer that usually involves cash or in-kind payments to the most vulnerable sections of a population either gratuitously or through public works (Mesfin, B. and Brady, D. 1997). Food safety nets are a sub set of social safety nets, and aim to ensure a minimum amount of food consumption and/or protect households against shocks to food consumption (Rogers and Coates, 2002).

2.1.3. The Cash/Food Debate

The ‗cash or food?' debate has a long history in both the humanitarian relief and social discourses. Until recently, this choice was more often driven by availability of resources than an objective assessment of needs –donors had food surpluses to disburse – and by pejorative ‗elite perceptions' of poor people as incapable of managing cash responsibly. During the 1990s, the technical debate revolved around identifying the advantages and disadvantages of cash versus food transfers, and the conditions under which one should be chosen over the other. Food aid was increasingly criticized for being expensive to ship, store and distribute, competing unfairly with local production and trade, and being inflexible and paternalistic (Barrett and Maxwell 2005). By contrast, cash transfers were seen as cost-efficient to deliver, incentivizing agricultural production and market activity, and allowing recipients to meet a rangeof food and non-food needs (Creti and Jaspars 2006;Gelan 2006; Harvey 2007).

At a theoretical level, the case for cash transfers builds on Sen's analysis of ‗entitlement to food' (Sen, 1981), which argues that restoring access to food by boosting demand is a more effective and sustainable response to food insecurity – but only if markets are well functioning – than is delivering food aid. As the cash transfers lobby gained momentum in the early 2000s, the advantages of food transfers and the disadvantages of cash tended to be overlooked (Devereux 2006; Gentilini 2007). For example, food transfers are often controlled by women and benefit children directly, while cash is more likely to be controlled by men and can be diverted to various uses, not all of which benefit women and children. Crucially, cash transfers are vulnerable to price inflation of the commodities they are intended to purchase. In contexts where supplies are constrained and traders are slow to respond to demand signals, injecting cash transfers might even exacerbate inflation. This risk was highlighted when global commodity prices surged in 2007/08 (Benson et al. 2008; Tangermann 2008), undermining the purchasing power of people on low incomes and those who depend on cash-based transfers.

In one sense the ‗cash/food debate' remains unresolved – cash transfers and food aid can often be found within the same country, sometimes even within the same humanitarian relief or social protection programme (Ethiopia's PSNP being a case in point). On the other hand, perhaps this represents a kind of reconciliation. Government and donor positions are certainly less entrenched than they were a few years ago. Many governments are now adopting cash transfers for

socialprotection interventions, or even for emergency reliefpurposes. Large multilateral food donors (notably theWorld Food Programme) are piloting cash transfers and advocates of cash transfers (e.g. the UK‘s Department for International Development) recognize that food aid continues to have an important role, especially in contexts of commodity market failure (Devereux, 2010).

2.1.4. The Importance of Safety Net In Alleviating Poverty

Social safety nets provide regular and predictable transfers in cash or in-kind to poor and vulnerable people. They are critical for reducing poverty, boosting inclusive growth and shared prosperity, reducing food insecurity and malnutrition, increasing demand for education and health services, stimulating local economies and for helping households to better manage risks and cope with shocks. Social safety nets are not just about assistance – they are an important ingredient for building and strengthening social contracts between states and their citizens. (World Bank, 2014).

The report notes that the expansion of social safety net programs, particularly in the form of cash transfers, is particularly evident in Sub-Saharan Africa. For example, 37 African countries currently have unconditional cash transfer programs, almost double the number four years ago. Globally, the number of countries with a conditional cash transfer program increased from 27 countries in 2008 to 52 in 2013. Similar trends are notable for other types of safety net programs such as public works.

According to the World Bank report of 2015, social safety nets help achieve visible impacts in reducing poverty:

- 9 million people in 136 countries benefit from social safety net programs.
- Safety nets reduce the poverty gap (how far the poor are from the poverty line) by 15 percent on average of the poverty gap without safety nets.

Social safety nets have positive and significant impacts on education, health, and food security, but also promote households‘ ability to generate income that can lead to positive effects in local economies.

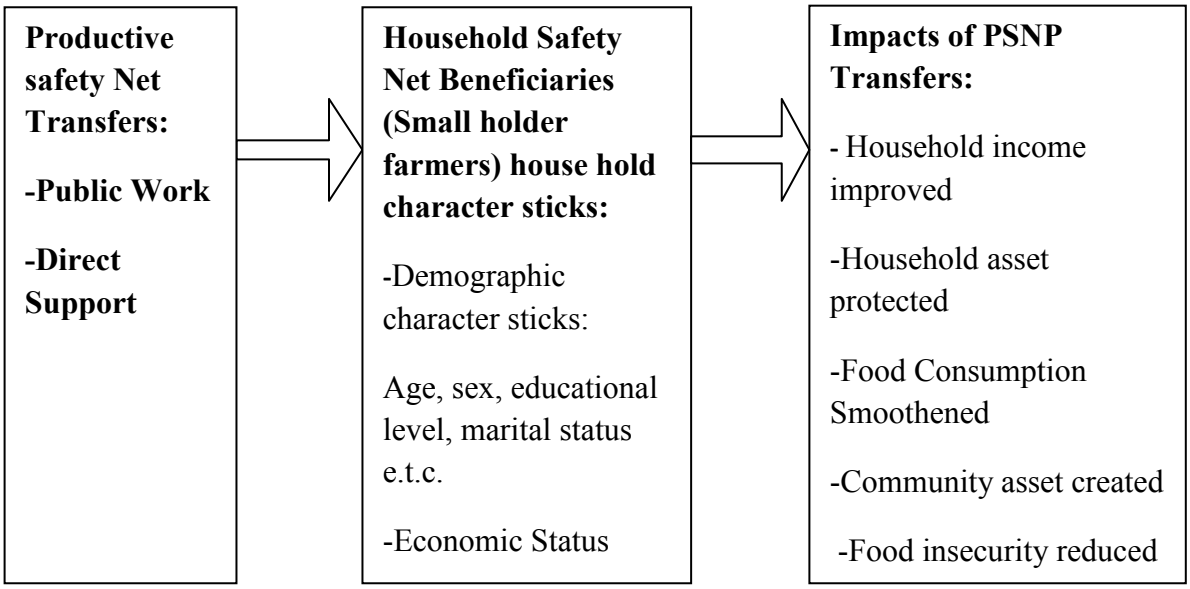
- Cash transfers helped increase enrollment rates of primary and secondary children by 18 percentage points in Burkina Faso.

- In Peru, women of child-bearing age enrolled in the cash transfer program were 91 percentage points more likely to have a doctor-assisted delivery.
- Cash transfer programs have positive spillover effects on the local economy, with total income multiplier ranging from $1.08 to $2.52 for each dollar transferred.
- In Nicaragua, Mexico, and Zambia, social safety nets beneficiaries are more likely to start up microenterprises by 3, 4, and 17 percentage points, respectively with respect to non-beneficiaries.

The growth of social safety nets has been bolstered by mounting evidence of their impact on reducing poverty, improving maternal and child health and nutrition, boosting school attendance and learning outcomes, and promoting sustained economic growth. Over the past three years, a total of 53 new impact evaluations on social safety nets have been completed, most of them in Africa. Robust evidence continues to mount on the merits of social safety nets, notes the report. (World Bank, 2014).

2.2. Conceptual Framework of the Impact of Productive Safety Net Transfers on Household Income of Small holder farmers

Figure 1. Impact of PSNP Transfers on Household Income of Small holder Farmers



Source: Own Construction, 2016

Poverty is the root cause for vulnerability to food insecurity. Low level of investment on social services and infrastructure facilities and drought coupled with increasing asset depletion are affected by extent of poverty and aggravate household food insecurity.

Poor household do not have enough access to agricultural production resources to produce their own food, nor sufficient income from other sources. Thus, as the figure indicates PSNP transfers are provided for these households. The extent to which individual households can be able to take advantages of PSNP transfers depends upon household characteristics (demographics, economic status, assets etc) and the use of PSNP transfers for asset creation, consumption smoothing and protect household assets. Finally PSNP transfers help the beneficiaries by improving their house hold income, protecting household asset, smoothening food Consumption, creating community asset and reducing food insecurity.

2.3. Empirical Literature

2.3.1. Safety Net in Asia and Latin America

Recent economic crises highlight the importance of effective social policies to cushion the impact of adverse economic developments. In particular, during recent crises many Asian (1997 99) and Latin American (1994–95, 1999) countries have suffered significant increases in the proportion of people in extreme poverty, without jobs or access to essential services, loss of physical assets among the poor, as well as rising rates of malnutrition and school dropouts among poor children. These conditions tend to aggravate chronic poverty and may lead to irreversible losses in human capital among the poor and vulnerable, undermining an economy‘s ability to sustain growth. This experience underscores the need to draw lessons that could help guide policy formulation and implementation of social safety nets more generally. (World Bank et.al, 2001)

In response to this need, the APEC (Asian Pacific Economic Cooperation) Finance Ministers want to establish guidelines on the implementation and use of safety nets in responding to crises, taking into account recent country experiences. In their September 1999 Memorandum to APEC Leaders, Finance ministers stressed the importance of social safety nets in addressing the distress suffered by the most vulnerable members of society and expressed support for the international financial institutions to incorporate this approach into poverty reduction efforts. The Finance Ministers support the view that social policies must ensure that all members of society have the chance to benefit from the globalized economy and well-functioning markets. (ibid)

In the Asian crisis countries, however, safety nets in practice behaved pro-cyclically. Except for Korea, none of the crisis countries had unemployment insurance or social safety net programs that automatically reacted to the changing social needs. The few transfer programs that did exist, such as the Livelihood Protection Program in Korea and the village-wide Inpres DesaTertinggal (IDT) in Indonesia, were very small. Further, the large dependence of governments for revenue from consumption and trade taxes and excessively narrow tax bases, reflecting the widespread use of tax incentives and exemptions, provided only limited automatic stabilization. Consequently, the Asian countries‘ fiscal response to the crisis was largely improvised and discretionary. As the crisis deepened, countries reduced the budget surplus by increasing spending on social programs and safety nets. However, it took time to establish largely new social safety nets programs, many of which were new. A long tradition of tight fiscal

management as well as governance concerns further lengthened the delays. The lag in implementation meant that the poor were not served as quickly as possible and the resulting economic stimulus coincided in some countries with an expanding economy, spurring pro-cyclical demand pressures. (ibid)

The major lesson can be taken from Asian countries is that properly designed and in place before crisis, social safety nets are an important automatic fiscal stabilizer. In addition to contributing to macroeconomic stability, such safety net programs are also less prone to the type of political pressures that make the reversal of temporary tax cuts or increased spending difficult after the crisis. Therefore, social safety nets should be in place before a crisis occurs. Permanent, rather than ad hoc, social safety nets can more effectively protect the poor from the adverse effects of crises without compromising longer-term goals. During good economic times, social safety net instruments help to alleviate poverty among the chronically poor and those suffering from the effects of non-economic shocks. Recent experience has demonstrated that social effects can become manifest very quickly after the onset of crisis. Within the space of a year after the initial signs of the Asia Crisis became evident, Korea experienced a 4.3 percentage point increase in the unemployment rate translating into 1.5 million jobless individuals. The headcount poverty ratio jumped from 3 percent in the last quarter of 1997 to 7.5 percent in the third quarter of 1998 among households headed by workers in urban areas. In Thailand, the headcount index increased by 1.4 percentage points to 12.7 percent of the active labor force between 1996 and 1998, implying that nearly 1 million people had been pushed below the poverty line as a result of the crisis. In the wake of the peso crisis in Mexico, the poverty headcount rose from 23.3 percent in 1994 to 28.6 percent in 1996 and the unemployment rate increased from 3.7 percent to 6.3 percent over the same period. These experiences in Asia and Latin America suggest that adequate planning is necessary before a crisis hits. (ibid)

In several Latin American countries, for example, conditional cash transfer programs provided much-needed funds to the poorest families and helped improve children's school attendance rates. "Countries that had prepared themselves during stable times by building permanent social safety nets—such as Chile, Colombia or Georgia—were better positioned to respond than those that had not when the crises hit," said Vinod Thomas, Director-General, Evaluation, World Bank Group. "The World Bank was more effective in helping countries where it had been already

engaged over the past decade through lending, advisory services or policy dialogue."(World Bank, 2011)

By way of example, reports show significant evidence of an uptick in consumption and, conversely, a drop in poverty in countries where socials safety nets are active. (ibid)

"Data from five conditional cash transfer programs implemented in five countries (Nicaragua, Honduras, Paraguay, Colombia, and Mexico) shows increases in consumption by 9-18 percent and reductions in extreme poverty (head count ratio) by 10-17 percent among program beneficiaries", the study states. It goes on to argue that cash transfer programs in Colombia and Mexico helped increase the rate of secondary school completion among beneficiaries by 4 to 8 percentage points. (ibid)

Child health and nutrition has also improved as a result of CCT programs. In Mexico, the PROGRESA evaluation shows a significant increase in nutrition monitoring and immunization rates. Infants under three years old participating in PROGRESA increased their growth monitoring visits between 30 to 60 percent, and beneficiaries aged 0 to 5 had a 12 percent lower incidence of illness compared to non-PROGRESA children. (Gertler, 2000).

In addition, the data suggest that PROGRESA has had a significant impact on increasing child growth and lowered the probability of child stunting for children aged 12 to 36 months old. (Behrman and Hoddinott, 2000).

In Colombia, the proportion of children under 6 enrolled in growth monitoring is up 37 percentage points. The incidence of acute diarrhea in children under 6 was reduced by 10 percentage points in urban areas and 5 percentage points in rural areas, but there has been no measured impact to date on the probability of malnutrition. (ibid)

In Nicaragua, approximately 60 percent of children less than 3 years old participated in nutrition monitoring before the RPS (The Red de Protection Social protection) was implemented. After a few months of program operation, more than 90 percent of children in RPS areas benefited from nutrition monitoring compared to only 67 percent in control areas. In terms of immunization rates, the RPS increased timely immunization among children 12-23 months old by 18 percentage points (IFPRI 2002a).

Consumption levels have also improved as a result of participating in CCT programs.

In Mexico, the average consumption level of PROGRESA households increased by 14 percent, and median food expenditures after just over a year of program operation were 11 percent higher compared to non-PROGRESA households. The increase in household consumption is in large part driven by higher expenditures on fruits, vegetables, and animal products. Median caloric acquisition in PROGRESA households increased by 7.8 percent.(Hoddinott, et. al. 2000).

In Colombia, an improvement in the dietary intake of treatment households was also observed. In Nicaragua, control households experienced a sharp decline in consumption due in part to low coffee prices and a drought, whereas the average per capita annual household expenditures in RPS areas did not change (IFPRI 2002a). The net program impact translates into a 19 percent increase in per capita consumption and suggests that CCT programs may help poor people protect consumption in times of crisis.

In general the following lessons can be taken from the two countries:

- The availability of timely and reliable information on poor and vulnerable groups is critical for the design and implementation of social safety net programs;
- Pre-crisis planning can contribute to the design of effective safety nets. Planning will include an assessment of risks and target populations together with identification of program instruments, financing and a strategy for reducing or phasing out programs after the crisis;
- Ideally, safety net instruments should be in place before a crisis occurs. It is essential that the programs are targeted; provide adequate protection to the poor; avoid creating a culture of dependency among beneficiaries; and are consistent with economic incentives and overall targets of macroeconomic and fiscal policy;
- Social safety nets should build on existing public programs and mechanisms for targeting and delivery. In practice, safety nets will typically comprise a variety of programs and targeting methods. Major social safety net programs include: cash or in-kind transfers, price subsidies, public works, fee waivers for social services, supplemental feeding and nutrition programs, targeted human development programs and microfinance programs, as well as social insurance programs that can reach the poor;
- If adequate pre-crisis planning has not been possible, social safety nets should concentrate on existing programs employing simple targeting methods that can be adapted quickly to increased utilization during crisis;

- Transparency and accountability in the design and implementation of programs and in the use of resources are critical to the effectiveness of social safety net programs.
- Public information on the different programs and the eligibility criteria should be made available as well as periodic and independent program evaluations;
- Social safety net programs should be coordinated across implementing ministries and departments as well as different government levels to avoid inefficient overlap and administrative waste;
- The building of adequate administrative capacity at the local level should precede decentralization;
- During crises, proportional cuts in social spending in general and safety nets in particular should be avoided. If possible, spending should be maintained or increased and key programs should be protected; and
- The involvement of NGOs, community groups and religious organizations can be promoted to enhance efficiency and accountability, provided their capacity to implement social safety nets is adequate.(World Bank et.al, 2001)

2.3.2. Safety Net in Europe

The highest public social spending levels are found in Central and North European countries. Sweden is heading the list with social expenditure of 50% of GDP, and most of the other Western European countries spend between 30 to 45 % of their GDP on social protection. Nevertheless, the emphasis on different types of benefits varies greatly between the different countries. The Italian system puts a great emphasis on old age benefits and survivor benefits, which leaves little resources to be spent on other types of benefits, particularly on unemployment benefits while the Italian unemployment rate is one of the highest in Western Europe. (Chris, 2007)

The Social Protection systems in Europe are almost equally financed by three types of contributions: employers‘ social contributions, social contributions by the protected persons and general government contributions. But on the national level these proportions vary considerably between the different countries. Notably, around 65% of contribution comes from contributions from employers and protected persons in Belgium, Spain, France, the Netherlands and Germany. On the other hand, taxes are the main source of financing Social Protection in United Kingdom

and Sweden. Finally, it appears that it is only in the Netherlands that protected persons contribute more than their employers. This 10% difference is quite considerable since in all other countries, employers contribute almost twice as much as protected persons. (ibid)

The impact of Social Protection systems in reducing poverty and inequality is large. Many studies have illustrated this by comparing (simulated) poverty and inequality levels before taxes and transfers, with post tax-and-transfer levels. While the Continental European countries show internationally the highest income inequality before taxes and benefits, they display smaller inequalities after taxes and benefits. The interventionist and universalistic oriented Social Protection systems play an important role in this ~~"c~~orrection". They also produce considerable lower poverty rates than other countries. Moreover, Social Protection systems in Continental Europe are more effective in the sense that they manage to reduce the duration of poverty and the incidence of poverty over the life-cycle of individuals and households. (ibid)

Lessons for other countries

Lesson 1: Building up the Social Protection system

Copying the European type of social assistance to other countries will not lead to a successful and pronounced decline in poverty and inequality. European social assistance systems are part of a larger social protection construct. Copying one element out of that construct will not yield European like poverty- and inequality levels. However, it does make sense to try to copy the design and architecture of the (whole) European Social Protection system. Improvements should then be considered and the systems should be locally adjusted. The idea is that Social Protection policy is a matter of design (besides sound and transparent implementation). The mature stage of a Social Protection system should be the starting point of the design exercise. (Chris, 2007)

Lesson 2: Institutional design

All systems will have to solve the problem of containing costs. Institutional design is an important element in this respect and the financial relations between sponsors and providers are of crucial importance. Incentives and administrative procedures towards the beneficiaries are the other important element. Some countries combine a high level of generosity in benefits with though administrative procedures to apply; other have less stringent rules but provide also less generous benefits. All systems will have to balance the regulations and incentives in order to reach the objectives set on the one hand but contain the costs on the other. (Chris, 2007)

Lesson 3: Implementation

Besides design, implementation is important. European systems all are characterized by a high density of regional social assistance offices operating in relative urbanized densely populated areas. The offices are well-equipped and employing well-trained staff with considerable discretionary power. The social workers dispose of an extended portfolio of non-cash benefits and assistance. (Chris, 2007)

Lesson 4: Further development and the setting of priorities

Having to make choices on the priorities in the development of a social protection system, four elements in the life course design stand out as basic and should be addressed first. These are

Child allowances, flat rate basic old age pensions, income loss insurance and means tested social assistance. (Chris, 2007)

2.3.3. Safety Net in Africa

The fiscal affordability of expanding social protection schemes in Africa has long been seen as a major impediment to implementing them. Recent experiences with cash transfers, free health care, and other programs in other parts of the developing world as well as some places in Africa, however, suggest that the affordability of social protection needs a fresh look. An expansion of social protection in middle-income African countries is feasible, as the examples of southern African countries demonstrate. It might be the case that a package of social protection initiatives might also be affordable in low-income African countries (Hoddinott et.al,2012).

South Africa‘s experience with social assistance is exceptional for a developing country for three reasons. First, at 3.5 percent of GDP, spending on cash transfers is more than twice the median spending (1.4 percent of GDP) across developing and transition economies (World Bank 2009). Second, South Africa is a middle-income country with little public debt, and cash transfer programs are financed from tax revenue rather than from donor funding or borrowing. Third, the country‘s government is firmly committed to reducing inequality and redistribution through progressive taxes, and pro-poor cash transfers are considered an efficient way to accomplish this. Notwithstanding the three aspects outlined above that set South Africa apart, there are lessons for other countries. (ibid)

Social assistance grants in South Africa play an important role in reducing money-metric poverty determined on the basis of income. More than half of households receive at least one cash transfer, and the grants are relatively generous. For example, the Old Age Pension (which goes to about four-fifths of individuals over the age of 60) is worth $230 (PPP) per month. This is 1.75

times the median per capita monthly income. The Child Support Grant (which goes to about two-thirds of all children) is worth $53 (PPP) per child per month. Not surprisingly, therefore, cash transfers have far-reaching implications for alleviating poverty, particularly for households that have little connection to the labor market. (ibid)

The inability of poorer households to invest in the productive capacity of their members, especially the education and health of children, has implications for the persistence of poverty. Cash transfer programs provide a predictable and reliable source of income, which significantly affects the capacity of households to invest in human and physical capital and thus break the intergenerational transmission of poverty. First, there is considerable evidence that cash transfers in South Africa have positive effects on the accumulation of human capital despite the unconditional nature of these transfers. Access to either a pension or a child grant can improve the health status of beneficiaries and other household members by improving their nutrition and access to health care. Second, there is some evidence that older people, particularly women, are inclined to allocate grant income in ways that directly benefit more vulnerable household members, such as young children. Evidence on the labor supply effects of the grants is more mixed, however. (ibid)

South Africa‘s experience with social security provides important lessons for other African countries concerning the practical implementation of social security schemes with regard to poverty reduction, reduction of gender inequalities, incentive effects, and improvements in education and health and also in terms of financing and fiscal sustainability. Mozambique, Namibia, Tanzania, and Zambia have recently begun to take the necessary steps toward a basic social security scheme, and Botswana, Lesotho, and Namibia have introduced an old-age pension scheme similar to South Africa‘s although less generous in terms of age eligibility and payouts (EUI 2010).

There are different lessons for two distinct groups of countries. For low-income African countries, the South African case demonstrates the potential and limitations of an extensive system of social assistance. In particular, it shows that such a system is, in principle, feasible and fiscally affordable; it generates great benefits in terms of poverty reduction. For most low-income countries, emulating the South African system in its entirety is not feasible or affordable. But elements of it, such as the social pension system, could well be a fiscally affordable and administratively feasible option to extend social protection even in rather low-income settings

(EUI 2010). But, even one such program will require the combination of firm political will, stable fiscal resources, and basic administrative capacity that have proved instrumental in the South African case.

For middle-income countries in Africa (and elsewhere), other lessons emerge. One is that an extensive system of cash transfers is feasible and sustainable. Another lesson is that an exclusive focus on social assistance might carry the risks of problematic interactions with social insurance systems and incentives for private provision of social security. It might also displace the expansion of social insurance from the policy agenda, which is particularly problematic for middle-income countries that will eventually need to graduate toward a system where social insurance plays an increasing role. In this sense, the complete reliance on social assistance to address social protection in South Africa is more of a cautionary tale. (Hoddinott et.al,2012)

2.3.4. Safety net in Ethiopia

The Government of Ethiopia‘s policies for agriculture and social protection follow a trajectory that can be interpreted as a kind of convergence. In the past, policies of _agricultural promotion‘ and interventions that might now be labeled _social protection‘ were more or less distinct, linked only by the fact that social protection – or more accurately, safety nets or humanitarian relief – was triggered as a response to agricultural failure. When harvests failed, safety nets intervened to protect farming families against the severest consequences. This sequential separation can be conceptualized as a _seasonal policy timeline‘, with agricultural policy (such as inputs provision) delivered during the farming season and safety nets (typically food aid or food-for-work) delivered during the _hungry season‘ several months later. In this sense, agricultural policy and social protection policy are mirror images: the more effectively farming fills household granaries, the smaller the annual appeal for humanitarian assistance, but several million Ethiopians need _emergency relief‘ for several months every year to see them through to the next harvest, and inures of catastrophic crop failure this figure rises to 12 or 14 million. (Devereux et.al, 2008)

Terminology matters: the phrase _social protection‘ is not yet current in Ethiopia, perhaps because of its close association with _social welfare‘ – and by extension, _dependency‘ – to which the government is strongly opposed because it believes in self-reliance at household and community levels, especially in rural areas where most people are either farming or have relatives farming or otherwise working for them. Instead, Ethiopia has decades of experience

with ‗safety nets', signifying transitory support mechanisms of last resort (rather than institutionalized permanent welfare systems), and more recently it has introduced ‗productive safety nets' (as discussed below), emphasizing the synergies that the government aims to achieve between ‗livelihood protection' and ‗livelihood promotion'.(ibid)

In the past, Ethiopian government has apparently been satisfied with the former approach, but recent policy statements, specifically the ‗Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty' (PASDEP), signaled its impatience with the evident failure of this strategy, and embarked on a significant and ambitious shift towards agricultural commercialization for income generation and wealth creation at household and national levels. (ibid)

Adopted around the same time, the ‗Productive Safety Net Programme' (PSNP) represents an impatience with decades of food aid that have failed even to sustain rural Ethiopians in their poverty, let alone generated growth, food security and poverty reduction. In a two-pronged attack on rural poverty in Ethiopia, therefore, the PSNP injects cash into a moribund agrarian economy, while PASDEP promotes market chains and export crops that will generate further cash income. This is a major move away from a ‗survivalist' preoccupation with growing food for subsistence and delivering food aid for survival when food production is inadequate. (ibid)

2.3.4.1.The Ethiopia Food Security Programme

The Food Security Programme was initiated by Ethiopia's ‗New Coalition for Food Security' after the 2002 food crisis. The programme aims to address food insecurity through interventions to boost agricultural productivity for the chronically (or ‗predictably') food insecure, and to provide protection against agricultural vulnerability for the transitory (or ‗unpredictably') food insecurity. (Devereux et.al, 2008)

The FSP represented an important change in government strategy for addressing the recurring annual needs of its most food-insecure population. For more than a decade, food aid had been provided through an early warning system that annually identified the depth of food shortages in traditionally vulnerable areas, followed by emergency appeals for international food assistance. This system had prevented sharp rises in food insecurity, including after a major drought in 2002–03. However, the system was inefficient (Jayne et al., 2002) and was failing to prevent asset depletion among the food-insecure population. The FSP replaced this system of emergency

appeals with a standing safety net programme targeted initially at the 282 most chronically food-insecure woredas in rural Ethiopia. (Hoddinott et.al, 2006)

The Food Security Programme has three components: (1) _Household Extension Packages‘;(2) _Voluntary Resettlement Programme‘ and(3) the _Productive Safety Net Programme‘, with two sub-components, Public Works and Direct Support (Devereux et.al, 2008).In _social risk management‘ terminology (Holzmann and Kozel, 2007), resettlement and extension packages are instruments of risk reduction, while social transfers (_direct support‘) contribute to risk coping, and public works has elements of risk reduction, risk mitigation and risk coping, depending on which public works are undertaken (Devereux et.al, 2008).

i. Household Extension Packages (HEP)

Household Extension Packages (HEP) are intended to assist PSNP participants to increase their incomes through diversifying into various agricultural and non-agricultural activities. Households select from 12 packages that range from livestock to improved vegetable seeds or treadle pump, to alternative livelihood packages such as beehives or silkworm raising kits. The packages are repayable at zero interest over 2-4 years (Vaitla, 2006). This is a two-pronged approach: social transfers are provided (usually with a work requirement) by the PSNP, while household incomes and assets are boosted through the extension packages. Although the packages are provided on credit, the knowledge that predictable transfers are also provided for up to 5 years should give households confidence to take on the loans. In practice, this thinking is undermined by two factors. (1) Budget constraints and political pressure to _graduate‘ PSNP participants means that retargeting occurs frequently and social transfers are not guaranteed for longer than one year. (2) The size of the HEP loans are disproportionately large relative to the PSNP transfers, raising questions about the ethics and efficiency of assisting chronically poor and vulnerable people to escape from food insecurity by imposing onerous debt burdens on them. For these and other reasons, take-up of the HEP has been slow, and the target of reaching 30% of PSNP households each year for 3 years looks unlikely to be reached. (Devereux et.al, 2008)

Three other concerns with the HEP should be noted. Firstly, skewed availability of packages means that choices are often constrained (Vaitla and Zerihun, 2006). Many participants in Tigray feel that beehives were imposed on them, rather than chosen (Slater et al, 2006). As a result,

there is a real risk of flooding the market, in this case with honey. Secondly, delays in PSNP payments, or _rotation' of households out of the PSNP, means that HEP assets and inputs might need to be liquidated for consumption needs (in the absence of PSNP cash transfers) rather than invested for income generation (Guenther, 2007). Thirdly, available evidence reveals that the packages were not well targeted, and even that poorest households were systematically excluded. The survey found that three in four packages were taken by households in the top two wealth quintiles (Devereux et al. 2006). Another study found that the poorest households were screened out of the programme due to a bad credit history or lack of land to absorb HEP livestock (Vaitla and Zerihun, 2006). This skewed targeting is explained by skewed incentives. Staff is under pressure to recover the loans and to ensure that households _graduate' rapidly out of food insecurity. This naturally leads to a selection bias towards households that are perceived as being creditworthy and have potential to generate income from the packages, rather than, say, labor constrained households that are perceived as likely to default and unlikely to graduate. (Devereux et.al, 2008)

ii. Voluntary Resettlement Programme (VRP)

Resettlement schemes have both social protection and agricultural goals. Relocating farming families from areas where land is constrained, productivity is low and agricultural risk is high, to areas where land is more abundant, agricultural productivity is potentially higher and agricultural risk is lower, seems like an effective strategy for reducing vulnerability (a core social protection objective) and raising farm yields (a core agricultural policy objective). In practice, however, resettlement schemes in Africa have invariably failed, mainly because they are implemented too quickly with inadequate preparation (e.g. no basic infrastructure and services at relocation sites). (Devereux et.al, 2008)

During and following the famine of 1984/85, the Derg regime imposed forced resettlement on many communities in drought-prone highland areas of Ethiopia that were designated as unviable for agriculture-based livelihoods. This policy was justified as a technical response to chronic food insecurity and acute vulnerability to weather shocks, but many analysts believed it was motivated by political expediency, and it caused great hardship and loss of life. Resettlement is also a component of the Food Security Programme, but the emphasis this time is on volunteering rather than coercion. The _Voluntary Resettlement Programme', also known as _Access to Improved Land', aims to relieve environmental stress and population pressure in the same

highland areas as before, by relocating 440,000 households or 2.2 million people. Each settler household is supposed to be allocated a package of assistance that includes access rights up to 2 hectares of fertile land, seed, oxen, hand tools, utensils, and food rations for the first eight months. Mindful of the failures of previous resettlement initiatives, settler communities should be well served with essential social infrastructure, including a clean water supply, health post and feeder roads. But the VRP is controversial and donors have been reluctant to support it, fearing the humanitarian consequences if it fails. Although some (critical) unauthorized reports have been written about the implementation and impacts of the resettlement programme, no independent evaluation has yet been conducted of its impacts, either as a social protection mechanism or as an intervention to stimulate smallholder agriculture.(ibid)

iii.Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP)

The flagship programme of the FSP was the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) (Hoddinott et.al, 2006).Ethiopia‘s Productive Safety Net Program is a development oriented social protection program aimed at solving the chronic food needs of rural households in the country. In 2005, the program commenced by covering four regions of the country (Tigray, Amhara, Oromiya and SNNPR) aiming to reach more than 1.6 million households (5 million people) in 263 woredas (districts) identified as chronically food insecure areas (Legovini, 2006; Gilligan et al., 2009; Siyoum, 2012). It is the largest social protection program in Sub Saharan Africa (excluding South Africa) and initially took up an annual budget amounting to 500 million USD (Legovini, 2006; Gilligan et al., 2008). Currently, the pastoralist areas of the country are included in the program and the size of the beneficiaries has increased to 8.3 million people in 319 weredas (Siyoum, 2012; Rahmato et al., 2013).The PSNP provided food or cash transfers through PW projects to more than 7 million poor and food-insecure Ethiopians in 2007. A smaller number of individuals eligible for the PSNP (roughly 15%) who were unable to supply labor to the PW projects due to disability, infirmity or a very high household dependency ratio received income transfers through a programme of _Direct Support‘. Initially, participants in PW under the PSNP received transfers of 6 birr per day or 3 kg of cereals. The cash transfers increased to 8 birr per day in 2008 and 10 birr per pay in 2010 to compensate for the steep rise in cereal prices over that period. The objective of the PSNP was to provide reliable access to transfers for food-insecure households in order to prevent household asset depletion while building community assets through PW. Most activities occur between the months of January

and June so as not to interfere with farming activities which primarily occur in the second half of the year. (Hoddinott et.al, 2006)

2.3.4.2. Origins of the PSNP in Ethiopia

Chronic poverty and chronic food insecurity are widespread in much of Ethiopia. Despite record rates of economic growth in recent years, the levels of poverty in rural Ethiopia remain high. From 1999/00 - 2004/05 Ethiopia experienced a 6-percentage point decline in rural poverty. Yet 38.5% of rural households still live below the food poverty line. Most of these households are engaged in subsistence farming on small fragmented plots of degraded land, a livelihood increasingly subject to weather fluctuations as a result of climate change. (MOARD, 2010)

Dramatic variations in the climate contribute to food insecurity. 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. 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. Many households are not able to fully meet their most basic consumption needs even in years when rainfall is adequate. As a result, every year for over two decades the Government has launched international emergency appeals for assistance. This annual emergency assistance was channeled to meet the consumption needs of all food insecure households. It did not distinguish between different types of food insecurity – whether it was temporary and caused by specific shocks, or whether it was regular and a reflection of general poverty. Although this humanitarian assistance was substantial (estimated at about US$265 million a year on average between 1997 and 2002) and saved many lives, evaluations have shown that it was unpredictable for both planners and households, and often arrived too little, too late. The delays and uncertainties meant that the emergency aid could not be used effectively and did little to protect livelihoods, prevent environmental degradation, generate community assets, or preserve physical or human household assets. In 2003, building on its National Food Security Strategy, the Government launched a major consultation process with development partners that aimed to formulate an alternative to 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. This culminated in the New Coalition for Food Security that proposed a Food Security Programme (FSP) aimed at shifting households out of the emergency

relief system while also enabling them to ‗graduate' to sustainable food security. Under the FSP, in 2005 the Government started a major new initiative - the Productive Safety Net Programme.(ibid)

The Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) was launched by the Government of Ethiopia, with donor support, in January 2005. The PSNP is the largest social transfer programme in Africa outside South Africa, reaching approximately 11% of the national population in 2006 (8.3 million out of 71 million people). Responses to food insecurity in Ethiopia had been dominated for decades by emergency food aid, which was mobilized for over five million Ethiopians every year between 1994 and 2003. Recognizing that a large component of this food insecurity is ‗chronic' rather than ‗transitory', and that decades of food aid have had no discernible impact on reducing rural poverty and vulnerability, the PSNP represents an innovative attempt to tackle chronic food insecurity and break Ethiopia's dependence on food aid. The PSNP aims to provide ‗predictable transfers to meet predictable needs.' Chronically food insecure households should receive support for six months each year for up to five years, bridging their annual food consumption gap, protecting their assets against ‗distress sales' and building their resilience against shocks. Transfers are delivered through two components. The ‗Public Works Programme' provides temporary employment to the majority of PSNP participants (84% in 2008), on rural infrastructure projects such as road construction. ‗Direct Support' delivers unconditional transfers to the minority of participants (16% in 2008) in households with no able-bodied members. Complementary programmes such as ‗livelihood packages' should generate secondary streams of income, until the household is assessed as ‗food sufficient' and ready to ‗graduate' from dependence on transfers. Although emergency relief would continue to be required in years of severe shocks, if the PSNP is successful then millions of people would be removed from the annual emergency appeal process, and there would be a gradual shift towards a flexible multi-year safety net that expands and contracts according to need. (Rachel Sabates-Wheeler and Stephen Devereux, 2010)

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. The PSNP recognizes that emergency responses to chronic food insecurity are not the most effective mechanism, because the same people require the same levels of support each year.

What is needed is a more developmental approach that assists people to overcome their poverty and become food secure. The PSNP delivers timely, predictable and appropriate transfers to assist this process. (MOARD, 2010)

Transitory food insecurity: When a shock has depleted the food stores and current income streams of household to the point that they are unable to meet their immediate food needs, these households are described as transitory food insecure. When people are subject to a shock it affects their livelihood, whether or not they are chronically food insecure. This has the potential to ruin any progress chronically food insecure households may have made towards food security, or to cause other households to become food insecure, and if they do not receive assistance, they become chronically food insecure. The PSNP includes measures to protect against transitory food insecurity, and transitory food insecurity is the focus of the emergency relief system.
(MOARD, 2010)

Importantly, another ambition of the PSNP was ―to shift the financing of the programme from food aid to cash." This was more than a signal of the government's intent to phase out non-emergency food aid; it also recognized the developmental potential of cash transfers. ―Through the provision of cash transfers rather than food, the programme will enable smallholders to increase consumption and investment levels and stimulate the development of rural markets". Initially, cash transfers were not introduced universally throughout the PSNP. The Programme Implementation Manual identified three preconditions for disbursing cash transfers. (Rachel Sabates-Wheeler and Stephen Devereux, 2010)

- ―Food is available for purchase in the local market (or traders, service cooperatives can be relied on to bring food in if people have cash to buy it);
- The local market will not be unduly distorted by the influx of cash, or the effects would be less detrimental than an influx of food; and
- The woreda administration has the required support systems in place (for transferring/ depositing funds, accounting and auditing)" .(ibid)

Before the programme was launched an assessment was made of the administrative capacity of each district (or woreda), specifically in terms of their ability to handle large amounts of cash, and local markets were assessed for their capacity to respond to the incremental demand pressure that cash injections into poor rural communities would create. District administrations were also required to consult local people for their preferences for cash or food. Cash was disbursed to

participants in _high capacity‘ woredas with well-functioning markets, while food was disbursed in _low capacity‘ woredas with weak markets. (Rachel Sabates-Wheeler and Stephen Devereux, 2010)

Chronic food insecurity at the woreda and households level is a defining feature of the eligibility criteria for PSNP participation. The household must have faced continuous food shortages (usually 3 months of food gap or more) in the last 3 years and received food assistance. The other criteria are: households that suddenly become more vulnerable as a result of a severe loss of assets and are unable to support themselves; and, households without family support and other means of social protection and support. (ibid)

2.3.4.3.PSNP Objective

The objective of the Productive Safety Net Programme (PSNP) is: _To assure food consumption and prevent asset depletion for food insecure households in chronically food insecure woredas, while stimulating markets, improving access to services and natural resources, and rehabilitating and enhancing the natural environment.‘ (MOARD, 2010)

More specifically, the PSNP delivers social transfers to some eight million Ethiopians, either through _public works‘ activities or as _direct support‘ for households that are labor-constrained, with three objectives:

1. **Smoothing food consumption** in food insecure households through food or cash transfers;
2. **Protecting household assets** by minimizing the need for damaging _coping strategies‘;
3. **Building community assets** through implementing developmental public works activities. (Devereux et.al, 2008)

These objectives correspond to _protection‘; _prevention‘ and _promotion‘. In terms of linkages between social protection and agriculture, the _promotion‘ component is most relevant. This is also a crucial indicator of success for the Ethiopian government, which intends to _graduate‘ PSNP participants out of the programme within 5 years of implementation. Importantly, graduation will be achieved primarily through linkages with _Other Food Security Programmes‘, especially the _Household Extension Packages‘ that generate complementary streams of income for farming families. This is because it is recognized that small transfers of cash or food are more likely to be consumed than invested, while the assets constructed by the public works activities will contribute to an improved enabling environment (e.g. feeder roads will stimulate trade) rather than directly generating additional income. Similarly, the _Voluntary Resettlement

Programme aims to ‗graduate' participants off chronic dependence on food aid by providing access to more and better land. It follows that the success of the PSNP in terms of graduation outcomes should be evaluated only in conjunction with these complementary programmes. The PSNP itself should be evaluated mainly in terms of whether it smoothed household food consumption and protected household assets. The available evidence for both these effects is significant and positive. (ibid)

This objective arises from the PSNP logical framework, which is the strategic planning tool used by the PSNP to ensure that what we do to implement the PSNP will help us achieve the desired objective of the programme. Looking deeper into the objective, it has the following elements:

· It focuses on chronically food insecure woredas;

· It focuses on food insecure households – primarily chronically food insecure households but also those who are transitory;

· It aims to assure food consumption, so that chronically food insecure people have enough food to eat throughout the year;

· It aims to prevent asset depletion, so that food insecure households do not have to lose their assets in order to provide food for themselves;

· It aims to address underlying causes of food insecurity by rehabilitating the natural resources base;

· It aims to have a positive impact by stimulating markets and injecting cash into rural economies and,

· While doing that it also aims to contribute to the creation of an enabling environment for community development by increasing access to services, such as health, education, roads and market infrastructure.

Looking at these elements of the objective it is clear that the PSNP provides a safety net to protect people falling further into trouble, while also providing a secure food and asset platform from which they may be able to improve their household status and become food secure. (MOARD, 2010)

2.3.4.4. PSNP Coverage

i.Woredas and kebeles

The Productive Safety Net Programme is implemented in woredas defined by the Government as chronically food insecure. Their eligibility for the PSNP was defined by the frequency with

which they required food assistance in the ten years preceding the design of the PSNP (the ten years up to 2004). This period has now been reduced to three years. The PSNP is rolling-out to new woredas in Somali Region, which were defined as chronically food insecure in 2004. Within each woreda, only kebeles that are chronically food insecure are included for regular PSNP transfers, but all kebeles in a PSNP woreda are eligible for transitory support through the Regional Contingency Budget and Risk Financing. In addition new woredas created from chronically food insecure woredas through the administrative division of woredas (‗splitting') are included in the PSNP, if they include kebeles with existing PSNP clients. Woredas that are not included in the PSNP receive support for food shortages through the emergency relief system. All PSNP woredas are also eligible to receive assistance from the emergency response system, if the level of transitory food needs exceeds PSNP capacity to respond. (MOARD, 2010)

ii.Clients

The clients of the PSNP are the food insecure populations living in these chronically food insecure woredas. The vast majority of PSNP clients are resource poor male- and female headed households who fail to produce or purchase enough food even in times of normal rains. Households with these characteristics are considered chronically food insecure, numbering around 8.3 million people. To ensure that the correct people are included in the programme at all times the PSNP makes regular adjustments to its client list. This follows the following formula:
This year's client number = caseload in previous year - graduation (deferred for 1 year) +adjustment based on assessment. The overall client number, or caseload, of the PSNP will not increase over time from the current maximum of 8.3 million people. The speed at which it reduces from this maximum number of clients will depend on the balanced effect of the following factors: Graduation from the PSNP is expected to reduce overall client numbers over time. Households that are identified for graduation will remain in the PSNP for one additional year to promote stability in their livelihoods and the building of resilience. (MOARD, 2010)
But, Community and Kebele Food Security taskforces will also assess the dynamics within households and community and adjust the client number as required. Specifically:

- Population growth, taking account of the difference between births and deaths among existing PSNP clients and in- and out-migration from the community may tend to an **increase** in client numbers;

- New chronically food insecure households, which are households whose assets have been reduced to the point that they are no longer able to meet their food needs, even during periods of normal rain, and may need to be added to the current client list which will **increase** numbers; and,
- Successful appeals, either from households identified for graduation or households not included in the PSNP through the targeting process, which lodge appeals to the Kebele
- Appeals Committee and are successful, will be included in the PSNP. This may cause **increased** client numbers.(ibid)

2.3.4.5.Elements of the PSNP

The PSNP has 5 main elements that combine to achieve the PSNP objectives.

1. Transfers for chronically food insecure households. The PSNP provides timely and predictable transfers to chronically food insecure households to allow them to ensure their food consumption without causing the sale of their household assets. Transfers may be in cash or food. PSNP clients qualify for transfers in two ways:

a. Conditional transfers: for households that face regular food shortages and that have members who are able-bodied (fit and healthy) and above 16 years of age. Such households receive transfers on condition that their able-bodied members (both male and female) contribute labor to Public Works.

b. Unconditional transfers: for households that face regular food shortages but who have no other means of support, and no labor to contribute to Public Works. Such households receive unconditional transfers through Direct Support, without the need to contribute labor of any kind to any activities.

2. Transfers for households affected by shocks: When there is a shock such as a drought or flood, the PSNP is able to expand temporarily (or _scale-up') to protect households which are affected by the shock. PSNP scales up to the level, and for the duration of time, required to ensure that livelihoods are adequately protected. This allows the livelihoods of households that are not PSNP clients to be temporarily protected. It also allows PSNP clients to gain additional protection if needed. Such transfers follow the same rules for conditionality as transfers to chronically food insecure households and are therefore categorized as either Conditional or Unconditional. The PSNP can scale-up to the level of contingency budget and Risk Financing resources; any response beyond this comes through the emergency response system.

3. Public Works to create sustainable infrastructure. The availability of labor from able-bodied PSNP clients is used to address underlying causes of food insecurity by rehabilitating the natural environment, and constructing social and market infrastructure. Sustainability of these community assets is ensured by establishment of appropriate management, operations and maintenance procedures. This contributes to the enabling environment for community development and addresses the underlying causes of food insecurity by transforming the natural environment. Planning of the PSNP public works sub-projects follows guidelines for community-based watershed management, and all activities are integrated within woreda development plans.

4. Strengthening the effectiveness of PSNP implementation: The PSNP invests in the people, systems, processes and procedures that deliver the programme. It also provides resources to ensure that the capacity of organizations is adequate to allow the effective delivery of the programme, and that staff have the knowledge and skills they require to carry out their duties. This is essential for timely and predictable transfers and quality public works.

5. Coordination between programme implementers and other development and relief efforts: The PSNP is a multi-sect oral programme that is implemented by a number of different organizations which need to work together effectively. The PSNP makes specific efforts to ensure PSNP clients are enabled to move towards graduation, through the linkages it makes with other programmes and the wider enabling environment. The PSNP also offers an opportunity to link with initiatives that aim to achieve the development objectives outlined in PASDEP, such as improved nutritional and educational outcomes, gender equality and HIV AIDS mainstreaming. (MOARD, 2010)

2.4.4.7. Phases of PSNP

The 1st phase of PSNP (the transition phase) implementation runs from January 2005 until December 2006, during which period the necessary institutional structures, implementation capacity, financing modalities and financial management systems are being put in place and delivered transfers to 4.84 million food insecure people in Ethiopia (Stephen Devereux, 2006). The 2nd phase (the consolidation phase) takes place from January 2006 to December 2009. During this phase the PSNP scaled up significantly to cover 7.57 million people (Yitagesu,2014) and the 3nd phase (the integration phase) was implemented from January 2010 to December 2014 increase the emphasis on PSNP and new complementary scheme called HABP (house hold

asset building program) as tools to address both relief and development objectives. The Ethiopian government spends 1.1 percent of GDP on PSNP and Household Asset Building program (HABP). Both schemes are largely donor funded. This phase of PSNP (2010 -2014) which includes HABP cost more than $ 2 billion. Currently the 4th phase of PSNP (the systems building Phase) is being implemented from 2015 -2020. (TEO, 2014)

2.4.4.8. The Concept of Graduation

Graduation from a safety net program is described as ―a process whereby recipients of cash or food transfers move from a position of depending on external assistance to a condition where they no longer need these transfers and can therefore exit the program" (Devereux, 2010).In the PSNP's program implementation manual, the term graduation was first introduced as a key goal of safety net program in 2004 (MOARD, 2004). Later in 2006 graduation was adopted as an overall goal of the government food security program (FSP) of which PSNP is the major component (MOARD, 2006).

In 2007 a definition of graduation was introduced into the food security program to guide its implementation. (MOARD, 2007).

Graduation is introduced as a two stage process. The first stage is graduation from PSNP and the second is graduation from food security program. Graduation from food security program is a much more complex and longer term issue that cannot be addressed on the basis of current context where only a small proportion have graduated even from 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 self-sufficient, it is no longer eligible for PSNP. Graduation from safety net is therefore defined as ―A household has graduated when in the absence of receiving PSNP transfer, it can meet its food needs for all twelve months and is able to withstand modest shocks" This state is described as being ―food sufficient" (ibid).

Graduation arises from the combined effect of FSP components and other development processes, not from the activities of the PSNP alone. Improvements in all of these contributors are required for graduation. Therefore, the success of the PSNP cannot be judged by graduation rates. In this phase the PSNP and wider FSP have been designed in such a way that there are greater prospects to achieve graduation at scale, through close complementarily between the different services that households have access to under the different components of the FSP.(MOARD, 2010).

Graduation has become central to the Government of Ethiopia's assessment of whether the Food Security Programme is succeeding in its objective of reducing chronic food insecurity in the country. In theory, all chronically food insecure households in Ethiopia should be registered on the PSNP, and those with labor capacity should exit from the programme (i.e. stop working on Public Works) when they have achieved a level of food security. In this sense, a crude indicator of the success of the PSNP could therefore be measured by the total number of households registered on the programme, which is expected to fall every year. (Devereux et.al, 2014)

A household is considered ready to _graduate' from the PSNP when it has achieved _food sufficiency', which was defined in the _Graduation Guidance Note' for the PSNP as follows: –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."Though conceptually clear, this definition raises several questions at an operational level, including how to assess whether a household is _food sufficient' over a 12-month period, and how to assess whether the household is resilient against modest shocks. These questions are important because Food Security Task Forces constituted at the local kebele level (KFSTF) are responsible for assessing the readiness of households to graduate, so clear guidelines are needed to implement graduation in practice.(ibid)

The challenges of operationalizing the definition of graduation in the Graduation Guidance Note led to the introduction of asset-based thresholds or _benchmarks', which serve as proxies for _food sufficiency' and _resilience'. Each region (e.g. Oromia, Tigray) is required to set a bench mark in Birr, which represents the local market value of a bundle of assets (such as livestock and farm tools) that are deemed to be adequate for a household to cover its food needs for at least 12 months and to buffer the household against modest shocks. The benchmark value could vary across and even between regions. For instance it could be adjusted by _livelihood zone', given that different livelihoods (e.g. food crop farming, cash crop farming, and pastorals) require different sets of assets to be viable and sustainable. (ibid)

i. The process of graduation

The critical steps envisaged in this vision for graduation are as follows: (MOARD, 2010)

- All chronically food insecure households will receive PSNP transfers. Under the HABP, they will also receive technical and business development support from

Development Agents (DAs) and woreda experts for the identification of potential new investment opportunities and the development of household business plans. They will then access financial services from Micro-Finance Institutions (MFIs) or Rural Credit and Savings Cooperatives (RUSACCOs) to enable them to make these investments. In addition, support will be provided to identify market outlets as well as potential value addition opportunities. In addition households will be encouraged to engage in regular savings either with village savings and credit groups or RUSACCOs.

- The most destitute households targeted by the PSNP (the ultra-poor; these may include female headed or labor poor households) are often unwilling and unable to take credit. In order to build their confidence as well as their creditworthiness, these households will receive not only access to extension and financial services as described above, but also an additional effort to include them in the FSP (intensive support and tailored support). What form this takes will be determined during implementation as required. Following this kick-start, households should be in a position to save and access credit in similar ways to other chronically food insecure households for further undertakings in their business plan. Some ultra-poor households will never move into food sufficiency and will always require unconditional transfers to meet their food needs.
- As their assets and incomes increase, chronically food insecure households will no longer need support from the PSNP (and may even voluntarily withdraw from the programme). This is the point at which they graduate from the PSNP (the first level of graduation). When this happens, they will continue to access HABP support from extension staff and financial institutions so that they can further build assets in order to become sustainably food secure. During this period they might take larger loans and may begin to choose financial products that are not linked with the Food Security Programme, but rather are mainstream products provided by financial institutions, particularly MFIs.
- Eventually, households will reach a point of sustainable food security and will no longer need the targeted support provided by the FSP. At this point they graduate

from the FSP (the second level of graduation). Meanwhile financial institutions will have increased their outreach as a result of the programme and should have an improved capital base (through savings and through capitalization channels independent of the Food Security Programme). Newly food secure households that have graduated from the FSP, along with existing food secure households will therefore continue to have access to mainstream credit and services.

- Throughout the household‘s trajectories toward graduation, the FSP will also support the creation of an enabling environment through the construction of community assets by PSNP public works and CCI. While every effort will be made to enable graduation, it is envisaged that some people will be unable to graduate.

2.4.4.9.Challenges of Ethiopian Small holder farmers

According to (AfDB, 2010) Smallholder farming is often referred to as family farming, subsistence farming and low-income farming.

Ethiopia has enormous potential for agricultural development. At present only about 25 per cent of its arable land is cultivated, and agriculture is dominated by subsistence rain fed farming, using few inputs and characterized by low productivity. The vast majority of farmers are smallholders. About 12.7 million smallholders produce 95 per cent of agricultural GDP. These farmers are extremely vulnerable to external shocks such as volatile global markets and drought and other natural disasters. Smallholder farmers form the largest group of poor people in Ethiopia. More than half cultivate plots of 1 hectare or less and struggle to produce enough food to feed their households. A large number of poor households face a prolonged hunger season during the pre-harvest period. Herders, like farmers, are vulnerable to increasingly frequent drought, which can wipe out their livestock and assets and bring on severe poverty. (IFAD, 2014)

The major problems of agriculture in Ethiopia are shrinking of agricultural land and high farm fragmentation due to high population pressure for the farm land that undermines the farm land productivity, farm income and agricultural growth in general.

A study by Nega et al (2003) shows that landholding is one of the factors that constrains farm income and the level of household food security. As landholding declines, per capita food

production and farm income also decline, indicating that extremely small sized farms cannot be made productive even with improved technology and certainly not enough to address rural poverty issues by the extension programs that primarily focus on technology diffusion. Such farmers have little or no surplus for investment and for input purchase. Because of high vulnerability to food and income insecurity, farmers with relatively small farm holdings turn frequently to trading crop residue and animal manure as a source of fuel, rather than applying them for soil fertility improvement. The increasing decline of farm size also leads to a reduction of fallowing practice or shortening of fallow cycles, and rotation, with a consequence of declining soil quality and fertility in some highland areas. The average farm size is considered by many to be small to allow sustainable intensification of smallholder agriculture.

Chapter Three
3. Research Methodology

3.1. Study Design

As Creswell (2003) discussed the application of multiple methods, both qualitative and quantitative, strengthens a given study as the findings of one method may be corroborated by the findings obtained by the other and particularly complex social phenomena have various dimensions and linkages in which they are best understood via a range of diverse methods. Therefore, triangulating qualitative and quantitative approach methodologies is the most appropriate method of study to reach a level of truth and it enables the researcher to come up with complementary and convergence of facts (Redinour and Newman 2008). It enables the researcher to crosscheck the error made in one method by the other data source. Quantitative research is based on the measurement of quantity or amount. It is applicable to phenomena that can be expressed in terms of quantity. Qualitative research, on the other hand, is concerned with qualitative phenomenon, i.e., phenomena relating to or involving quality or kind (Kothar, 2004). Hence, here to understand the impact of Productive Safety Net Program on household income of smallholder farmers both qualitative and quantitative approaches would be used in light with objectives of the study. Since it was difficult to answer these questions simply through one of the approaches, jointly applying both methods was very important. And, the research type that used in this study was descriptive type of research to describe the impact of Productive Safety Net Program on household income of smallholder farmers in Tulla sub city, Hawassa. This type was chosen because of the researcher would not control the variable but to describe the phenomenon that existed at the time of the study. The major purpose of descriptive research is description of the state of affairs as it exists at present. (Kothar, 2004).Description emerges following creative exploration, and serves to organize the findings in order to fit them with explanations, and then test or validate those explanations. (Krathwohl, (1993).

3.2. Target/ Study Population

A survey population is the aggregation of elements from which the survey sample is actually selected. Accordingly, in Tula sub city there are 12 kebeles and the PSNP has been given in 7 kebeles.

Table 1. Target/ Study Population

Name of beneficiary kebeles	Total population	No. of Individual Beneficiaries	No. of Household Beneficiaries
Haranfama	12999	642	135
Chefasine	16514	826	177
Tulla Geter	15434	981	238
Gemeto Gale	12579	1255	299
Alamura	13658	1521	347
Tullo	12948	1257	309
Finchawa	12603	953	252
Total	96735	7435	1757

Source: Tula sub city EWFS office, 2008

From the total number of individual beneficiaries in this sub city 3573 (48%) individuals were male and 3862 (52%) individuals were female. And from the total number of household beneficiaries participants of public works were 1054 (60%) and 703 (40%) households were directly supported (Tulla sub city PSNP Annual Action Plan 2008). In addition, in the Early Warning and Food Security Office of Tula sub city there are total of 9 employees, the manager of the program, one coordinator, two project workers, two financiers (cashier and accountant) from Finance and Budget Administration Directorate of the Ministry and two supportive staff. For the sake of this study, sample beneficiary households and the employees and manager of Early Warning and Food Security Office of the sub city were unit of analysis or a study population and the information would be collected from these informants.

3.3. Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

For the purpose of quantitative approach, a multistage Stratified sampling procedure would be used to select sample households. Multistage sampling is a further development of the idea of stratified sampling. This technique is meant for big inquiries extending to a considerably large geographical area. Stratified sampling involves grouping the population and then selecting the groups rather than individual elements for inclusion in the sample. (C.R Kothar, 2004). This sampling design is used when it is either impossible or impractical to compile an exhaustive list of elements comprising the target population. Accordingly, at first stage, 3 Kebeles were selected

randomly among 7 Kebeles of the subcity. These Kebeles were Haranfama, Chefasine and Alamura. Then, 20% beneficiary households were selected randomly (using random sampling technique) from each targeted Kebeles. This type of sampling is also known as chance sampling or probability sampling where each and every item in the population has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample and each one of the possible samples has the same probability of being selected. This was due to the rationale that the whole population under study would have equal chance to being the part of the study. Thus, a total of 131 households were selected for the survey as shown in the table below:

Table 2.Sample Kebeles and Respective Sample Size

Name of Kebele	Beneficiary households	Sample household
Haranfama	135	27
Chefasine	177	35
Alamura	347	69
Total	659	131

Source: Tula sub city EWFS office, 2008

On the other hand, from various offices administered under Sidama Zone Agriculture Office the Early Warning and Food Security Office employees (8) and the manager were selected purposively for qualitative approach. According to Creswell (2005) the aim of purposive sampling is to select respondents that will best answer the research question and no attempt is made to randomly select informant. Therefore, units of observations for the interview will be selected purposively to meet the objectives of the study. The purposely selected informants are supposed to be better source of information about the issue at hand.

3.4. Sources of Data and Data collection Instruments

This study has employed both primary and secondary sources of data. Primary data was collected through household survey questionnaires, interview and observation. The nature of the household survey questionnaire was both open ended and close ended. And the interview was semi structured. Secondary sources of data were obtained from journals, internet sources, reports, books, magazine, proclamations, organization‘s manuals/reports, published and unpublished materials, document, organizational archives, and other relevant sources.

3.4.1. Household Survey

A survey is a method of obtaining large amounts of data, usually in a statistical form, from a large number of people in a relatively short period of time. It usually takes two forms: (a) self-completion questionnaire and (b) interviewer read the questions to the respondent and fill in the questionnaire on behalf of the respondent (structured interview) (Bryman 2004). The main advantage of surveys over other research methods is that they allow the gathering of large amount of information from representative samples. The household survey method was believed to provide data that is reliable and most importantly used to address the majority of variables which were important to meet the specific objectives of the study. The researcher have prepared and administered both close and open ended structured questionnaire which would be filled by the beneficiaries at household level. Majority of the open ended questions were provided to give respondents a chance to give explanation for close ended questions. For this purpose survey was conducted with 131 beneficiary households.

3.4.2. Interview

Among important source of data collections, Interview has been used in the study. Using interview have the following advantages like detailed and rich data can be gathered in a relatively easy and inexpensive way, allows interviewer to establish rapport with the respondent and clarify questions, Provides an opportunity to build or strengthen relationships with important community informants and stakeholders, raise awareness, interest, and enthusiasm around an issue, contact informants to clarify issues as needed. (Mountain States Group, Inc 1999).For this purpose, semi-structured questions were used because it allows the researcher to go beyond systematically prepared questions. Moreover, the way respondents act and answer might lead the researcher to ask indifferent ways. Therefore, individuals who were expected to have background information on PSNP were interviewed. The potential respondents of the interview were the manager and eight employees of early warning and food security office of the sub city.

3.4.3. Observation

The observation method is the most commonly used method. The main advantage of this method is that subjective bias is eliminated, if observation is done accurately. Secondly, the information obtained under this method relates to what is currently happening; it is not complicated by either the past behavior or future intentions or attitudes. Thirdly, this method is independent of respondents‘ willingness to respond and as such is relatively less demanding of active

cooperation on the part of respondents as happens to be the case in the interview or the questionnaire method. (C.R Kothar, 2004). That is why the researcher used observation beside interviews and household survey questionnaire in order to see the ongoing activities because of the program**.** If there is a clear idea of what the research is about, the researcher could determine specific objectives for the observation activity. It might be useful to create a list of things to pay attention to. Therefore the researcher focused on the following points:

- The practice of PSNP in the area
- The state of household asset
- The condition of livestock
- The condition of crop production
- The situation of community assets

The researcher has recorded the observation in the research locality using observation notes, which constituted a scientific record of the experience for future reference. The researcher has also taken pictures to complement the observation notes.

3.5. Methods of Data Description and Analysis

The data analysis like the data collection methods was triangulated to get comprehensive conclusion of the finding. Through the analysis stage both the qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed. Qualitative data obtained were carefully translated and narrated. The researcher has documented interviews, house hold survey questionnaire and daily observations relevant to the study. The analysis of qualitative data, therefore, started during actual data collection because the process of qualitative data collection and analysis are interwoven. Based on this the data gathered through house hold survey, interview and observation methods were analyzed qualitatively. On the other hand, quantitative data were coded, categorized, organized and analyzed by organizing statistical scaling, chart, table, and figure where they were necessary.

3.6. Ethical Consideration

Ethical issues are crucial to social researchers who by the very nature of the research request individuals to share them their thoughts, attitudes and experiences. Ethics are the rules of conduct in a research where the value of honesty, frankness and personal integrity as well as ethical responsibilities to the subject of research such as consent, confidentiality and courtesy is measured (Walliman, 2006).

It is obvious and quite significant to consider issues of ethics mainly, informed consent and privacy of research subjects while conducting research which are basic ethical issues that arise in social science research (Dejong R., 2008). Therefore, due consideration was given to the ethical issues of research in order to keep best interests of the respondents and respect their dignity than focusing only on fulfilling the objectives of the research. Having this in mind, before going to the data collection process, an official support letter from Addis Ababa University, School of Business and Economics has been submitted to Tula sub city Early Warning and Food Security office. Next both questionnaire and interview respondents were informed about the aim of the study and their participation will only be based on their full consent and any of the information that is given by them will be used for the purpose of the study.

Chapter Four
4. Data Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation

4.1. Introduction

The data collected through different data collection methods and tools were discussed and analyzed carefully in order to show and assess the practices and impact of Productive Safety Net Program on the household income of small holder farmers in the study area. As the researcher has indicated in the methodology, the preceding chapter, primarily the questionnaires were prepared for 131 respondents. However, out of 131 questionnaires, 96 questionnaires were filled, returned and found useful for the study and 35 questionnaires were not returned. This amounts to a response rate of 73%. The information gathered through interview and observations was also used to complement the data collected through questionnaires. The data presentation was done in such a way that the responded questions and data were grouped according to the respective research questions. In view of that, the responses are presented as follows.

4.2. Description of the Study Area

Hawassa town is located in southern part of Ethiopia, Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Regional State, in Sidama zone at a distance of 275 k.m from Addis Ababa. It is bounded by Lake Hawassa on the west and north- west, Cheleleka swampy area on the east and south-east, Tikur wuha River on the North and Alamura mountain on the South. Its astronomical location is 07 03 north latitude and 30 29 east longitude. Hawassa is found on a total land of 50 k.m squar (20 sq miles), elevation of 1708 m. (5604 ft) and 29℃ tempreture. Its total population is 328,283 with density of 3300/ k.m square (8600/ square miles). The major ethnic groups in the town are Sidama, Amhara, Welayta, Oromo and Gurage; and the major languages spoken are Sidamo, Amharic,Welayta, Oromiffa and Guragigna. Hawassa can be considered as one of the best developed cities in Ethiopia. So far, there is remarkable progress in the socio economic development with integrated efforts of government bodies, residents and other organizations in Hawassa and abroad since its establishment. Hawassa town is one of the reform towns in the region and it has a city administration consisting of eight sub cities and urban as well as rural kebelles.The sub cities are named as Addis ketema, Hayk dar, Bahil adarash, Misrak, Menahreya, Tabor, Mehal ketema and Tula. Each sub city is consists of a minimum of 2, and maximum of 12 villages. Totally there are 32 kebles in the eight subcities.The study area Tula

was a cityadministration before it was affiliated to Hawassa as a subcity recently (http://www.mwud.gov>et>web>hawassa). Tula is one of the rural subcities in Hawassa in which PSNP has been delivered from its very beginning. Based on this the researcher present analyze and interpret the data collected on the impact of PSNP on household income of small holder farmers in Tula sub city.

4.3. Demographic characteristics of Respondents

Table 3.Distribution of Respondents by Sex and Age

No.	Item	Number of Respondents	Percent
1.	**Sex**		
	Male	56	58.3%
	Female	40	41.6%
	Total	96	100%
2.	**Age**		
	Under 25	7	7.2%
	25-35	41	42.7%
	35-45	34	35.4%
	Above 45	14	14.5%
	Total	96	100%

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

As shown in table 5 above, from the total respondents the majority or 56 (58.3%) of the population are male and the remaining 40 (41.6%) are female. This shows that most beneficiary households are headed by males.

With regard to age of the respondents, it is presented that from the total respondents 7 (7.2%) of the population are under the age of 25, majority or 41(42.7%) are within the ages of 25-35, 34(35.4) are within the ages of 35-45, while 14(14.5%) are above the ages of 45.From this we can understand that most of the respondents are in the productive age. This shows that the program is not addressing the targeted food insecure people due to targeting problems and rather than contributing to food self sufficiency, it is creating idleness and dependency.

Table 4. Distribution of Respondents by Level of Education and Marital Status

No.	Item	Number of Respondents	Percent
3.	**Level of Education**		
	Illiterate	21	21.8%
	Read and write	34	35.4%
	Elementary(1st cycle 1-4)	17	17.7%
	Elementary(2nd cycle 5-8)	22	22.9%
	High school(9-10)	-	-
	Preparatory(11-12	2	2%
	1st degree and above	-	-
	Total	96	100%
4.	**Marital Status**		
	Single	17	17.7%
	Married	67	69.7%
	Divorced	7	7.2%
	Widowed	5	5.2%
	Total	96	100%

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

As table 6 above reveals, from the total respondents 21 (21.8%) of the population are illiterate, majority or 34 (35.4%) can read and write, 17(17.7%) are 1st cycle (1-4), 22 (22.9%) are 2nd cycle (5-8), and the rest 2(2%) are preparatory (11-12). This shows that majority of the respondents have basic skills of reading and writing.

Concerning the marital status of respondents, from the total respondents 17(17.7%) of the population are single, majority or 67(69.7%) are married, 7(7.2%) are divorced and the remaining 5(5.2%) are widowed. From this we can understand that majority of the respondents are married and have households.

Table 5. Distribution of Respondents by Family Size and Role in the house hold

No.	Item	Number of Respondents	Percent
5.	**Family Size**		
	1-4	14	14.5%
	5-8	65	67.7%
	9-13	17	17.7%
	Above 13	-	-
	Total	96	100%

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

As table 7 depicts, from the total respondents 14 (14.5%) of the population have 1-4 family members, majority or 65(67.7%) have 5-8 and the rest 17(17.7%) have more than 13 family members. This shows that majority of the respondents have many family members.

Table 6. Distribution of Respondents by Experience (years) in safety net

No.	Item	Number of Respondents	Percent
6.	**Experience in years**		
	1-4	10	10.4%
	5-8	20	20.8%
	9-11	66	68.7%
	Total	96	100%

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

When we see the respondents experience in years, table 8 shows that from the total respondents 10(10.4%) of them use the program 1-4 years, 20(20.8%) of them use it 5-8 years and the rest majority or 66 (68.7%) use it 9-11 years. In line with this the data gathered from the interview, shows that the program was started in 2005 in the study area. This shows that majority of the respondents became beneficiaries since the beginning of the program. Based on this we can conclude that the program is failed in managing graduation of beneficiaries and helping them to be food self sufficient.

4.4. Household's Livelihood Activities and Sources of Income of the Beneficiaries

Table 7.Household's Livelihood Activities and Sources of Income of the Beneficiaries

No.	Items	Number of Respondents	Percent
7.	Availability of land for cultivation which is adequate to satisfy the beneficiary's family needs		
	Yes	36	37.5%
	No	60	62.5%
	Total	96	100%
8.	Beneficiary's land in hectare		
	Below 1 hectare	38	39.5%
	1-2 hectares	26	27%
	2-3 hectares	24	25%
	Above 3 hectares	8	8.3%
	Total	96	100%
9.	Whether agriculture is the main source of beneficiary's income		
	Yes	96	100%
	No	-	-
	Total	96	100%
10.	The amount of income they earn from agriculture per year before starting of PSNP		
	Below 500 birr	16	16.6%
	500-1000 birr	46	47.9%
	1000-2000 birr	20	20.8%
	Above 2000 birr	14	14.5%
	Total	96	100%

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

As can be seen from table 9 above, for question no.9 from the total respondents 36(37.5%) of the respondents replied that they have a land for cultivation which is adequate to satisfy their family needs and the majority or 60(62.5%) replied that they have no a land for cultivation which is adequate to satisfy your family needs. And for question no. 10 the majority or 38(39.5%) said that they have below 1 hectare, 26(27%) said that they have 1-2 hectares, 24(25%) said that they have 2-3 hectares and the rest 8(8.3%) said they have more than 3 hectares. This clearly indicates that the households haven‘t sufficient land for cultivation which is adequate to satisfy their family needs.

The researcher further examined if agriculture is their main source of income and how much birr did they earn from it per year. Results in the above table question no. 11 indicates that from the total respondents all or 96(100%) of them replied that agriculture is their main source of their income. And for question no. 12 16(16.6%) replied that they earn below 500 birr per year, majority or 46 (47.9%) replied that they earn 500-1000 birr per year, 20(20.8%) replied that they earn 1000-2000 birr per year and the rest 14 (14.5%) replied that they earn more than 2000 birr. From this one can conclude that the respondent‘s entire livelihood is mainly based on agriculture and majority of the respondents get low income from it.

4.5. Beneficiaries participation in PSNP and Reasons and Criteria for Selection

Table 8.Beneficiary’s participation in PSNP and Reasons and criteria for joining the program

No.	Item	Number of Respondents	Percent
11.	Reasons of joining PSNP		
	Shortage of food (hunger) due to low productivity	**67**	**69.7%**
	Sudden collapses in income and consumption due to climatic shocks, natural disasters, economic crises	**12**	**12.5%**
	Lack of labor power due to sickness and disability of household members	**17**	**17.7%**
	Other	**-**	**-**
	Total	**96**	**100%**

12.	Whether beneficiary households receive any food or cash from the government productive Safety Net Program		
	Yes	**96**	**100%**
	No	**-**	-
	Total	**96**	**100%**
13.	The type of program from which beneficiary households receive the support		
	Public Work	**60**	**62.5%**
	Direct support	**36**	**37.5%**
	Total	**96**	**100%**
14.	Number of household members participate in The public work		
	1-4	**42**	**70%**
	5-8	**18**	**30%**
	9-13	**-**	**-**
	Above 13	**-**	**-**
	Total	**60**	**100%**
15.	Number of days that the beneficiary households Participate in the public work per year		
	1-50 days	**37**	**61.6%**
	50-100 days	**13**	**21.6%**
	100-200 days	**10**	**16.6%**
	Above 200 days	**-**	**-**
	Total	**60**	**100%**
16.	The amount of income that the beneficiary households earn from the program per month		
	105-205 birr	**-**	**-**
	205-305 birr	**-**	**-**
	305-405 birr	**14**	**14.5%**
	Above 405 birr	**82**	**85.4%**
	Total	**96**	**100%**

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

The researcher was also interested in finding out the beneficiary‘s reason for joining the program. The result in Table 10 question no.14 shows that from the total respondents majority or 67(69.7%) of them said that shortage of food (hunger) due to low productivity was their reason for joining the program, 12(12.5%) said sudden collapses in income and consumption due to climatic shocks, natural disasters, economic crises was their reason for joining the program and the rest 17(17.7%) said lack of labor power due to sickness and disability of household members was their reason for joining the program. This indicates that shortage of food (hunger) due to low productivity is the major reason for joining the program in the area.

Regarding the beneficiary‘s participation in the program, table 10 question no. 12 and 13 reveals that, from the total respondents all or 96 (100%) of them replied that their household received both food and cash support from the government productive Safety Net Program in which majority or 60 (62.5%) of them are public work beneficiaries and 36(37.5%) are direct support beneficiaries. From these we can understand that all respondents received food and cash assistance from the program and majority of them are public work beneficiaries.

The above table question no. 14, 15 and 16 also depicts that in the majority or 42 (70%) of the respondent‘s household 1-4 members participate in the public work and in the remaining 18(30%) of the respondent‘s household 5-8 members participate in public work and majority or 37 (61.6%) of the respondents replied that their household participate in public work for 1-50 days per year, 13(21.6%) replied they participate 50-100 days per year and the rest 10(16.6%) replied they participate 100-200 days per year. On the other hand 14 (14.5%) of the respondents replied that they earn 305-405 birr from the program per month and the majority or 82 (85.4 %) replied that they earn above 405 birr from the program per month. This data indicates that even if most of the household members participate in the public work, majority of them participate for few days per year. We can also conclude that most of them earn good payment from the program when compared with their yearly income from agriculture.

Furthermore the interviewees stated that currently there are total of 1752 beneficiary households identified for PSNP in which 703 are direct support and 1054 public work beneficiaries. When we see the mechanisms used to identify the beneficiaries, first the Early Warning and Food Security Office make an assessment to pick out the most food insecure households who really need the support at the time. This identification is made based on some criterion like land tenure, family size, land productivity and income. Secondly the office will prepare a meeting and invite

the society and committee/taskforce which is established by it and consists of different parts of the society like kebele vice chairman, health extension worker, development agent, person from women, youth and children affairs office, local elders and religious fathers so as to give comments, nominations and complaints on the process of identification and identified households. Finally by making some changes on the identification based on the comments, nominations and complaints of the taskforce and the society, the office will make final decision on the number of beneficiaries to register as food insecure households under PSNP. The next task after identification is distinguishing and categorizes the households under direct support and public work. This is also done based on some pre conditions like the condition of health, age and capacity, which means those who are old, disabled and sick are identified for direct support and got 12 months of cash support (12 months per year). Those who are capable and productive are identified for public work and got 6 months of cash support (6 months per year January-June).The amount given for both is the same which is 105 birr per person. Before 2 years there was food support, 15 k.g of maize flour for each member of the beneficiary household, but due to coverage problem it is changed to cash.

Figure 2. People who are Involved in Public Work in Alamura Kebele



Source: Own field observation, 2016

As we can see from figure 2, the PSNP beneficiary farmers from Alamura Kebele of the sub city are involving in public work. This shows that public work is being implemented as part of PSNP in the sub city.

4.6. Impact of PSNP on the Household Income of the Beneficiaries

Table 9. Comparison of Monthly income

No.	Item	Before joining PSNP		After joining PSNP	
17.	Income per month	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	Below 500 birr	**3**	**3.1%**	**-**	**-**
	500-1000 birr	**46**	**47.9%**	**31**	**32.2%**
	1000-2000 birr	**37**	**38.5%**	**52**	**54.1%**
	Above 2000 birr	**10**	**10.4%**	**13**	**13.5%**
	Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

The monthly income of the beneficiaries before joining the program as presented in the above table 11, from the total respondents 3(3.1%) of the respondents replied that they earn below 500 birr per month, majority or 46(47.9%) of them replied that they earn 500-1000 birr per month, 37(38.5%) replied that they earn 1000-2000 birr per month and the rest 10(10.4%) replied that they earn more than 2000 birr per month. Regarding their monthly income after joining the program 31(32.2%) of the respondents replied that they earn 500-1000 birr per month, majority or 52(54.1%) replied that they earn 1000-2000 birr and the rest 13(13.5%) replied they earn more than 2000 birr. This indicates that the monthly income of the beneficiaries has improved after they join the program when compared with the time before they join the program.

Table 10. Comparison of Number of Meals per Day

No.	**Item**	**Before joining PSNP**		**After joining PSNP**	
18.	Number of meals per day	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	1 time	**31**	**32.2%**	**10**	**10.4%**
	2 times	**36**	**37.5%**	**21**	**21.8%**
	3 times	**29**	**30.2%**	**51**	**53.1%**
	4 times	**-**	**-**	**14**	**14.5%**
	Above 4 times	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
	Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

When we compare number of meals per day, as indicated in the above table 12, from the total respondents 31(32.2%) of them replied that they eat once a day, majority or 36 (37.5%) replied they eat twice a day and the rest 29(30.2%) replied that they eat three times per day before joining the program and 10(10.4%) replied they eat once a day, 21(21.8%) replied that they eat twice a day, majority or 51(53.1%) replied that they eat three times per day and the rest 14(14.5%) replied that they eat four times per day after joining the program. Thus from the above data one can understand that number of meal has increased in the beneficiaries household after they join the program when compared to the time before joining the program.

Table 11. Comparison of weekly food consumption

No.	Item	Before joining PSNP		After joining PSNP	
19.	Food consumption within a week	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	Below 15 k.g	**74**	**77%**	**29**	**30.2%**
	15-20 k.g	**22**	**22.9%**	**50**	**52%**
	20-25 k.g	**-**	**-**	**17**	**17.7%**
	Above 25 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
	Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

From the fact presented in table 13 above, before joining the program from the total respondents majority or 74(77%) of them replied that they consume below 15 k.g per week and the rest 22(22.9%) replied that they consume 15-20 k.g per week and after joining the program 29(30.2%) replied they consume below 15k.g per week, majority or 50(52%) replied that they consume 15- 20 k.g per week and the rest 17(17.7%) replied that they consume 20-25 k.g per week. So the data shows that the beneficiary‘s weekly food consumption has increased after they join the program when compared to the time before they join the program.

Table 12. Comparison of Total production Per Year

No.	Item		Before joining the program		After joining the program	
20.	Total production per year		**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	Teff	Below100 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		100-500 k.g	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		500-1000 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Above1000 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Barely	Below100 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		100-500 k.g	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		500-1000 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Above1000 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Wheat	Below100 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		100-500 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		500-1000 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Above1000 k.g	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**

		Total	-	-	-	-
	Maize	Below100 k.g	**12**	**12.5%**	**12**	**12.5%**
		100-500 k.g	**54**	**56.2%**	**54**	**56.2%**
		500-1000 k.g	**30**	**31.2%**	**30**	**31.2%**
		Above1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Sorghum	Below100 k.g	-	-	-	-
		100-500 k.g	-	-	-	-
		500-1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Above1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Total	-	-	-	-
	Kocho	Below100 k.g	**36**	**37.5**	**54**	**56.2%**
		100-500 k.g	**60**	**62.5**	**42**	**43.7%**
		500-1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Above1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Chick peas	Below100 k.g	-	-	-	--
		100-500 k.g	-	-	-	-
		500-1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Above1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Total	-	-	-	-
	Haricot beans	Below100 k.g	**55**	**57.2**	**38**	**39.5%**
		100-500 k.g	**41**	**42.7**	**58**	**60.4%**
		500-1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Above1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Horse beans	Below100 k.g	-	-	-	-
		100-500 k.g	-	-	-	-
		500-1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Above1000 k.g	-	-	-	-
		Total	-	-	-	-

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

The beneficiaries total production per year, before joining the program,as table 14 depicts, from the total respondents all or 96(100%) of the respondents replied that they produce 100-500 k.g of teff and barely, 12(12.5%) of them replied that they produce below 100 k.g of maize, majority or 54(56.2%) replied that they produce 100-500 k.g of maize and the rest 30(31.2%) replied that they produce 500-1000 k.g of maize, 36(37.5%) replied that they produce below 100 k.g of kocho and the majority or 60(62.5%) replied that they produce 100-500 k.g of kocho. On the other hand majority or 55(57.2%) produce below 100k.g of haricot beans and the rest 41(42.7%)

replied that they produce 100-500 k.g of haricot beans. After joining the program all or 96(100%) of the respondents replied that they produce 100-500 k.g of teff and barely, 12(12.5%) of them replied that they produce below 100 k.g of maize, majority or 54(56.2%) replied that they produce 100-500 k.g of maize and the rest 30(31.2%) replied that they produce 500-1000 k.g of maize, majority or 54(56.2%) replied that they produce below 100 k.g of kocho and the rest 42(43.7%) replied that they produce 100-500 k.g of kocho. On the other hand 38(39.5%) produce below 100k.g of haricot beans and majority or 58(60.4%) replied that they produce 100-500 k.g of haricot beans. Based on this we can say that the beneficiary‘s total production doesn‘t show significant improvement. Even if there is some increment on haricot beans production, it shows a decrement on kocho production and all the other remains the same after joining the program when compared to the time before. This shows that the program doesn‘t bring an important change in crop production of the beneficiaries.

Figure 3. Enset production in Chafasine kebele



Source: Own field observation, 2016

As Figure 3 depicts, Enset is the major production in Chefasine Kebele of the sub city. This indicates that there are fewer varieties of crops in the sub city which results in low productivity.

Table 13. Comparison of Number of Livestock

No.	Item		Before Joining the Program		After Joining the Program	
21.	Number of Livestock		**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	Cows	Below 5	**71**	**73.9%**	**71**	**73.9%**
		5-10	**25**	**26%**	**25**	**26%**
		11-20	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		20-30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Above 30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
	Oxen	Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Below 5	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		5-10	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		11-20	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		20-30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
	Goat	Above 30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Below 5	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		5-10	**69**	**71.8%**	**69**	**71.8%**
		10-20	**30**	**31.2%**	**30**	**31.2%**
	Sheep	20-30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Above 30	**-**		**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Below 5	**82**	**85.4**	**82**	**85.4**
		5-10	**14**	**14.5**	**14**	**14.5**
	Donkey	10-20	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		20-30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Above 30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Below 5	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		5-10	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		10-20	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		20-30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Above 30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Horse	Below 5	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		5-10	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		10-20	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		20-30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Above 30	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

The number of livestock, as it can be seen from table 15, before joining the program, from the total respondents all or 96(100%) of the respondents replied that they have less than 5 oxen, donkeys and horses, majority or 71(73.9%) of them replied that they have less than 5 cows and the rest 25(26%) replied that they have 5-10 cows, majority or 69(71.8%) replied that they have 5-10 sheep and the rest 30(31.2%) replied that they have 10-20 sheep and majority or 82(85.4%) replied that they have less than 5 goats and the rest 14(14.5%) replied that they have 5-10 goats. Similarly after joining the program, 96(100%) of the respondents replied that they have less than 5 oxen, donkeys and horses, majority or 71(73.9%) of them replied that they have less than 5 cows and the rest 25(26%) replied that they have 5-10 cows, majority or 69(71.8%) replied that they have 5-10 sheep and the rest 30(31.2%) replied that they have 10-20 sheep and majority or 82(85.4%) replied that they have less than 5 goats and the rest 14(14.5%) replied that they have 5-10 goats. This clearly implies that there is no any increment in the number of the beneficiary‘s livestock or all remains the same after joining the program when compared to the time before joining the program.

Figure 4. The condition of livestock in Chefasine kebele



Source: Own field observation (2016)

As figure 4 indicates, there is small number of livestock in grazing fields of the beneficiary farmers in Chefasine Kebele of the sub city. From this we can understand that, there is no improvement in the number of livestock.

Table 14. Comparison of Availability of Household goods/ assets

No.	Item Program		Before joining the		After joining the program	
22.	**Availability of Household goods/ assets**		**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	Mobile phone	Yes	**-**	**--**	**-**	**-**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Television	Yes	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Radio	Yes	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Modern table and chair	Yes	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Stove	Yes	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Cupboard	Yes	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Modern bed	Yes	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

The availability of household assets before joining the program, as table 16 reveals, from the total respondents, all or 96(100%) replied that they haven‘t mobile phone, television, radio, modern table and chair, stove, cupboard and modern bed . Similarly, after joining the program, all or 96(100%) replied that they haven‘t mobile phone, television, radio, modern table and chair, stove, cupboard and modern bed. This clearly implies that there is no any improvement in the availability of household assets of the beneficiaries or all remains the same after joining the program when compared to the time before.

Figure 5. The Condition of Household Asset in Haranfama Kebele



Source: Own field Observation

Figure 5 revealed that, house hold assets which are mentioned in the above table 16 are not available in the beneficiary‘s house. This implies that there is no improvement in the beneficiary house hold asset.

Table 15. Comparison of Availability of Production Materials

No.	Item program		Before joining the		After joining the program	
23.	**Availability of Production materials**		**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	Water pump	Yes	-	**-**	-	**-**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Spade	Yes	96	**100%**	96	**100%**
		No	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Plough	Yes	76	**79.1%**	**76**	**79.1%**
		No	**20**	**20.8%**	**20**	**20.8%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Animal cart	Yes	**16**	**16.6%**	**16**	**16.6%**
		No	**80**	**88.3%**	**80**	**88.3%**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Pick axe	Yes	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Farming Ox	Yes	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Improved seed	Yes	-	**-**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Fertilizer	Yes	**-**	**-**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**

Source: Survey Questionnaire, 2016

As shown in table 17, before joining the program from the total respondents, all or 96(100%) replied that they have spade, pick axe, farming ox. Regarding availability of plough and animal cart majority or 76(79.1%) replied that they have plough and 20(20.8%) replied that they haven‘t

plough, 16(16.6%) replied that they have animal cart and the majority or 80(88.3%) replied that they haven‘t animal cart and all or 96(100%) replied that they haven‘t fertilizer and improved seed. After joining the program all or 96(100%) replied that they have spade, pick axe, farming ox, fertilizer and improved seed. Regarding availability of plough and animal cart majority or 76(79.1%) replied that they have plough and 20(20.8%) replied that they haven‘t plough, 16(16.6%) replied that they have animal cart and the majority or 80(88.3%) replied that they haven‘t animal cart. This implies that there is no a significant change in the availability of production materials or all remains the same except fertilizer and improved seed after joining the program when compared to the time before.

Table 16. Comparison of Availability of Community Assets

No.	**Item program**		**Before joining the**		**After joining the program**	
24.	**Availability Community assets**		**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	Access to road	Yes	**-**	**-**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Access to drinking Water	Yes	**-**	**-**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Improved access to health service	Yes	**-**	**-**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Improved access to market	Yes	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		No	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
	Children Education	Yes	**-**	**-**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	Improved access to extension service	Yes	**-**	**-**	**96**	**100%**
		No	**96**	**100%**	**-**	**-**
		Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**

Survey Questionnaire, 2016

As table 18 depicts, from the total respondents all or 96(100%) of them replied that there was no improved access to road, drinking water, health service, market, children education and extension service before PSNP was started. But after the starting of PSNP all or 96(100%) of

them replied that there is improved access to road, drinking water, health service, market, children education and extension service. From this we can conclude that availability of community assets in the area improved after starting of PSNP when compared to the time before.

Figure 6. The condition of community asset in Alamura kebele



Source: Own field observation

Figure 7. The condition of community asset in Chefasine kebele



Source: Own field observation

Figure 8. The condition of community asset in Haranfama kebele



Source: Own field observation

Regarding community assets, as we can see from figure 6, 7 and 8 there are infrastructures like bridge, drinking water, terrace and first level road in the selected kebeles of the sub city. This indicates that there is improvement in the community asset of the sub city.

Table 17. Comparison of Using Negative Coping Mechanisms

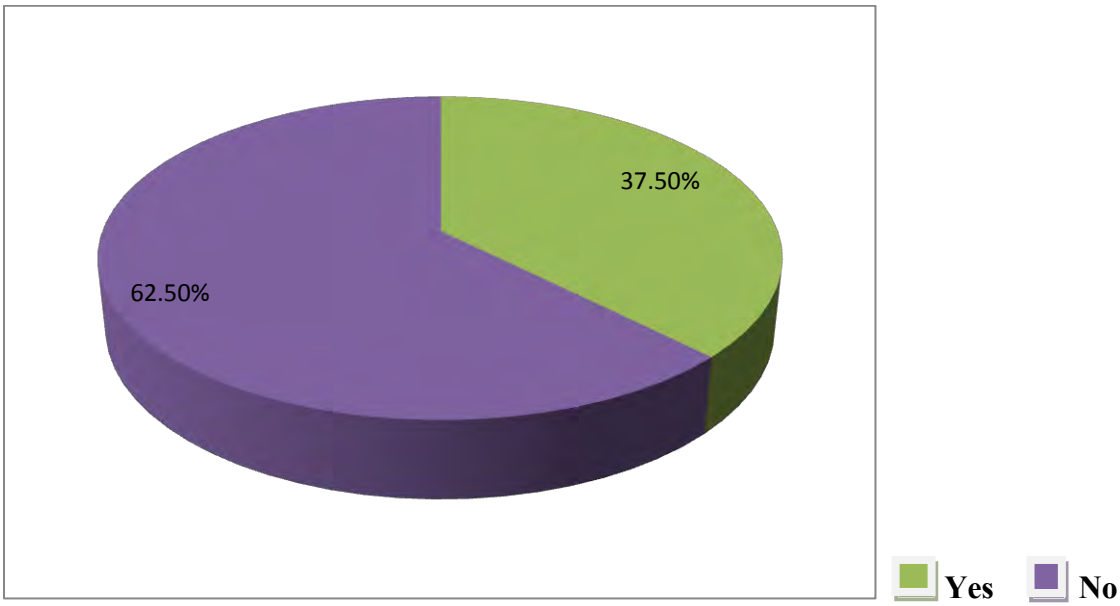
No.	Item	Before joining the program		After joining the program	
25.	The condition of using negative coping mechanisms i.e Selling assets/ livestock	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
	Yes	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**
	No	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
	Total	**96**	**100%**	**96**	**100%**

Survey Questionnaire, 2016

Concerning the condition of using negative coping mechanisms, according to table 19above, from the total respondents all or 96(100%) of them replied that they use negative coping mechanisms before joining the program. similarly all or 96(100%) of the respondents replied that they use negative coping mechanisms after joining the program. From this we can understand that the condition of using negative coping mechanisms does not show any change rather it remains the same after joining the program when compared to the time before joining the program.

4.7. PSNP Beneficiaries' and employees' Attitude towards the Program

Figure 9. Whether PSNP has a Contribution in Improving the Household income of the society



Survey Questionnaire, 2016

As revealed in figure 9 above from the total respondents 36(37.5%) of them replied that PSNP is contributing for the improvement of household income in their kebele and the majority or 60 (62.5 %) replied that PSNP is not contributing for the improvement of household income in their kebele. This indicates that PSNP is not contributing for the improvement of house hold income in the study area as intended in its beginning.

4.7.1. Beneficiaries General Opinion and Contributions of PSNP for the Society

According to the questionnaire respondents some beneficiaries have positive attitude towards the program and they said that they are benefited a lot from the program. Especially public work beneficiaries are satisfied because the support is delivered at the most important time in which shortage of food may occur (January-June) and some said that they are less benefited because of their reluctant to use the program according to guidelines given by the development agents. And they mention that PSNP is contributing for covering children school fees and costs of learning materials, food consumption, increased purchasing power, improved income, creating additional income sources like starting petty trading by using the credit service, provision of improved seeds and fertilizer and subsidizing livelihood activities. (Survey Questionnaire, 2016)

Similarly the interviewees also said that many positive outcomes are registered because of PSNP. And, they mention 1st level road, primary school, health center, farmers training center, drinking water, community pond, bridge, irrigation works, planting seedling, terracing, employment opportunity(by the money they get from the credit service many beneficiaries start their own business like petty trading, raring animals, Sinjer e.t.c and increased food consumption as positive outcomes. (Interview, 2016)

4.7.2. Major problems in Targeting and Implementing PSNP

In spite of the above contributions, the respondents also mention lack of awareness, reluctant to use the program according to guidelines given by the development agents, improper use of resources given from the program, delay of support and substitution of food by cash support (Because Food support is more important when compared to cash) as major problems of the program. (Survey Questionnaire, 2016)

Additionally according to the interviewees the major problems observed in targeting and implementing process are shortage of budget, lack of professional and administrative capacity, problems on input purchasing (Tender fraud), improper utilization of resources, problem of not handovering the infrastructures for the community at the right time, inclusion of beneficiaries who does not fulfill the criteria (who are food self sufficient), nepotism, lack of interest to graduate (even if they reach the bench mark prepared by the office), hiding assets during wealth registration and ranking in order not to graduate and leave the program, problem of deceiving (using the money they get from credit service for other purposes and not paying back for the government, Selling the livestock and seedlings which are given for the purpose of raring and planting, cheating and lying during the time of round) and problem of migrating after registration. (Interview, 2016)

4.7.3. Suggestions on Building Successful PSNP Transfers

The data gathered from the questionnaire respondents implies that there must be an effort to alleviate the above problems. Consequently they suggest improving the support (because of insufficient production due to shortage of rainfall in this year and inflation), change the cash support in to food, facilitation of better opportunities for arrangement in micro and small enterprises, avoiding delay of support, making follow-up in short period of interval, managing and controlling graduation of beneficiaries properly, proper utilization of resources provided by program, giving priority for building infrastructures, arrange the targeting process so that it focus

on those who really need the support, creating awareness in the society, increasing quotas in order to make the rest of food insecure households that are not beneficiaries, teaching the society benefits of saving and lead them to a better direction of work as solutions to alleviate the problems. (Survey Questionnaire, 2016)

The interviewees also give some suggestions like retargeting, providing awareness (education) to the community, punishing beneficiaries who commit fraud (i.e prohibiting them from using any support and service provided by PSNP, team revision, informing for concerned bodies like government and donor agencies, utilizing resources for the planned goal properly and making real evaluation, providing training and education for the staff, developing accountability and transparency, restructuring the system and finally local government, NG‘s and the community should work cooperatively to achieve the objectives of the program. (Interview, 2016)

Chapter Five

5. Summary of Major Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter includes the summary of the major findings of the study; it draws conclusions and forwards recommendations by the researcher.

5.1. Summary of Major Findings

Based on the pervious chapters and data analysis the findings of this study are summarized as follows:

5.1.1. Improvement in Households Income

- Concerning the monthly income of beneficiaries, before joining the program majority or 46(47.9%) of the beneficiaries earn 500-1000 birr per month and after joining majority or 52(54.1%) of them earn 1000-2000 birr per month.
- Looking in to the impact of PSNP on the number of livestock, the number of all types of livestock remains the same in all beneficiary households after joining the program when compared to the time before.
- Concerning the impact of PSNP on the availability of household assets, all types of assets remains unavailable in all beneficiary households after joining the program when compared to the time before.
- Data gathered on the impact of PSNP on the availability of production materials reveals that all types remains unavailable except fertilizer and improved seed after joining the program when compared to the time before.
- When we look the impact of PSNP on the availability of community assets, availability of community assets in the area has improved after starting of PSNP when compared to the time before.

5.1.2. Improvement in Food Consumption

- Regarding number of meals per day, before joining the program majority or 36 (37.5%) eats meals twice a day and after joining majority or 51(53.1%) eat meals three times per day.
- When we see their monthly food consumption, before joining the program majority or 74(77%) of them replied that they consume below 15 k.g per week and after joining majority or 50(52%) replied that they consume 15- 20 k.g per week.
- Regarding the impact of PSNP on the total crop production, in all beneficiary households, almost all types of crops produced remains the same after joining the program compared to before.
- Concerning the condition of using negative coping mechanisms, it remains the same after joining the program when compared to the time before joining the program.

5.1.3. Beneficiaries Perception on PSNP

- Data gathered on the contribution of PSNP implies that the program doesn‘t have much contribution for the improvement of household income in the kebele.

5.1.4. Beneficiaries' Targetting

- When we see the mechanisms used to identify the beneficiaries, it is through the assessment made by early warning and food security office to pick out the most food insecure households. This identification based on some criterion like land tenure, family size, land productivity and income.
- On the issue related to the reason for joining the program Majority 67(69.7%) of the beneficiaries has joined the program because of shortage of food (hunger) due to low productivity.
- All or 96 (100%) of the beneficiary‘s household received both food and cash support from the government Productive Safety Net Program.
- About the participation of beneficiaries in public work in most or 42 (70%) of the beneficiary‘s household nearly all members of the family participate in the public work and majority of them participate 1-50 days per year
- Majority or 82 (85.4 %) of the beneficiaries earn more than 405 birr from the program per month.

5.1.5. PSNP Challenges

- About the problems in targeting and implementing PSNP, shortage of budget, lack of professional and administrative capacity, improper utilization of resources, lack of awareness and delay of support were mentioned as major problems.

5.1.6. Suggestions on PSNP Transfers

- Change the cash support in to food, avoiding delay of support, proper utilization of resources from the program and creating awareness in the society were major suggestions for building successful PSNP Transfers.

5.2. Conclusion

The Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP), which was launched in 2005, was mainly designed to achieve the following three major objectives:

- **Smoothing food consumption** in food insecure households through food or cash transfers;
- **Protecting household assets** by minimizing the need for damaging ‗coping strategies‘;
- **Building community assets** through implementing developmental public works activities

Accordingly, the program is striving to achieve the above objectives through direct support (delivering cash or food support) and public work.

Tula sub city is one of the areas affected by shortage of rainfall, a recurrent drought, livestock diseases and many other disasters over the years. Like other regions of the country PSNP was started in 2005 in SNNPR as well. Based on this, it has been applied through both direct support and public work on the selected vulnerable households in the sub city since its beginning.

This study explored the practices and impact of productive safety net program on the household income of small holder farmers. Since the study mainly focuses on whether the program improved the household income of the farmers on the study area, the researcher try to show the impact of the program by comparing the beneficiary‘s status before and after joining the program based on different criteria.

From the findings of the analysis it is possible to conclude that the implementation of productive safety net program in the sub city, in spite of improvements on some aspects, does not bring a

significant change in many other aspects in the sub city due to obstacles faced by both the beneficiaries and the employees during the targeting and implementation of the program. As we can see from the major findings, in aspects like beneficiaries monthly income, number of meals per day, monthly food consumption and availability of community assets, some improvement was registered. The findings also indicated that aspects like total crop production, number of livestock, availability of household assets, availability of production materials and the condition of using negative coping mechanisms, nearly all remains the `same except some insignificant changes in some of them after joining the program when compared to the time before.

5.3. Recommendations

Based on the findings, the study suggests the following necessary recommendations to build a successful PSNP transfers:

- ✓ In order to benefit the real food insecure part of the society, the office should take corrective actions on the targeting process i.e. retargeting, ensure that the beneficiaries are permanent dwellers during registration, make some discipline decisions on beneficiaries who use the support without fulfilling the criteria and those who use the support improperly as well as on the authorized body that use his/ her power for biased targeting.
- ✓ The office should provide training and education for the staff and community, develop accountability and transparency, make real evaluation, restructure the system, make team revision, report for concerned bodies like government and donor agencies timely and utilize resources for the planned goal properly so as to fill the gap in professional and administrative capacity of employees (like development agents) and alleviate the ethical problems in implementing the program.
- ✓ The researcher recommends that the government should increase the support, change the cash support in to food, avoid delay of support, facilitate better opportunities to engage in micro and small enterprises, make the follow-up in short time of interval, increase quotas to include more beneficiaries and manage the graduation of beneficiaries properly (ensuring the graduation of households that became food self sufficient by using the bench mark and replace another households on their foot**)** in order to make a better delivery.

- ✓ The government needs to give high attention for establishing infrastructures in better quality and quantity and handover it to the society at the time.
- ✓ The community should also use the cash support and other resources provided by the office according to the guideline given by D.As and for the proper goal.
- ✓ Finally, the writer suggests that PSNP requires Local government, development agents, selected committees, donor agencies and the community to work cooperatively together as partners in identifying, targeting, implementing, controlling, evaluating and reporting to achieve the objectives of the program.

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Appendices
Appendix I- Questionnaire

Addis Ababa University

College of Business and Economics

Department of Public Administration and Development Management

Master of public Management and Policy Analysis

(MPMP)

Productive Safety Net Program Household Survey Questionnaire Administered For Beneficiary Household Holds

General Introduction

Dear respondent, my name is Mary Abera. I am master's student at Addis Ababa University in the department of Public Administration and Development management. Currently, I am conducting research for my thesis in the special field of "Public policy and management; my research topic entitled "The practices and impact of productive safety net program (PSNP) on the household income of small holder farmers in Hawassa: the case of Tulla subcity".

The objective of this study is to assess the practices and impact of productive safety net program on the household income of small holder farmers in the area. The answer given by the respondents for this research will be kept confidentially and only used for the purpose of this study. The researcher also believes that real answers that the respondents give possess high importance that might be used by policy makers, planners and other aid and development agents that work on PSNP as poverty reduction program of the country hence, I ask you to be honest and forthcoming in your response. Furthermore, any information that you provide is valuable to this study. I would like to extend my appreciation and thanks for tour cooperation and committing your precious time.

General Instruction

Dear respondents, there are five parts of questions to be completed by you in the subsequent sections. Thus follow the specific instructions which are illustrated under each section and try to indicate your position for that relatively represent your idea from the possible alternatives, that in the case of close ended items and try to explain your ideas freely when you encounter with open ended items. \

Part One: Background Information

Please tick your answer on the given alternatives (boxes).

1. Sex**:** Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Age: Under 25 years old ☐ 25 – 35 years old ☐
   35 – 45 years old ☐ 45 and above ☐

3. Educational Level: Illiterate ☐

   Read and Write ☐

   Primary level (first cycle 1-4) ☐

   Primary level (second cycle 5-8) ☐

   Secondary levels (9-10) ☐

   Higher secondary levels or Preparatory (11-12) ☐

   Bachelor degrees and above ☐

4. Marital Status: Single ☐ Married ☐

   Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐

5. Family Size: 1-4 ☐ 9-13 ☐

5-8 ☐ Above 13 ☐

6. Experience with safety net: 1-4 ☐

5-8 ☐

9-11 ☐

Part Two: Household's Livelihood Activities and Sources of income of the beneficiaries

Please tick your answer on the given alternatives (boxes).

7. Do you have a land for cultivation which is adequate to satisfy your family needs?

Yes ☐ No ☐

8. How many hectares do you have?

Below 1 hectare ☐ 2-3 hectares ☐

1-2 hectares ☐ above 3 hectares ☐

9. Is Agriculture the main source of your income?

Yes ☐ No ☐

10. If your answer for question number 11 is ―Yes" how much birr do you earn from it per year?

Below 500 birr ☐ 1000-2000 birr ☐

500-1000 birr ☐ Above 2000 birr ☐

11. If your answer is ―No" for question no. 11 what is the main source of your income?

No.	Activities	Total income per year (Specify in birr)
1	Raring and selling animals	
2	Petty trading	
3	Selling labor	
4	Handicraft	
5	Selling fire wood and charcoal	
6	Income from rented out land	
7.	Other (Specify)	

Part Three: Beneficiaries participation in PSNP and Reasons for Selection

Please tick your answer on the given alternatives (boxes).

12. What are your reasons for joining PSNP?

Shortage of food (hunger) due to low productivity ☐

Sudden collapses in income and consumption due to climatic shocks, natural disasters, economic crises or conflict. ☐

Lack of labor power due to sickness and disability of household members ☐

Other reason (specify)

13. Has your household received any food or cash from the government productive Safety Net Program?

Yes ☐ No ☐

14. From which program have you received support?

Public Work ☐ Direct support ☐

15. If your answer for question number 16 is public Work, how many of your household members participate?

1-4 ☐ 9-13 ☐

5-8 ☐ Above 13 ☐

16. If your answer for question number 16 is public Work, how many days did you participate in the work per year?

1-50 days ☐ 100-200 days ☐

50-100 days ☐ Above 200 days ☐

17. How much birr did your household earn from the program per month?

105-205 birr ☐ 305-405 birr ☐

205-305 birr Above 405 birr ☐ ☐

Part Four: Impact of PSNP on the household income of the beneficiaries

Choose and write the appropriate answer for the questions in the table.

Measures			Before joining PSNP	After joining PSNP
18.Income per month		A. Below 500 birr		
		B.500-1000 birr		
		C.1000-2000 birr		
		D. Above 2000 birr		
19.Number of meals per day		A.1 time		
		B.2 times		
		C.3 times		
		D.4 times		
		E. Above 4 times		
20.Food consumption within a week		A.Below 15 k.g		
		B.15-20 k.g		
		C.20-25 k.g		
		D.Above 25 k.g		
21.Total production per year	Teff	A.Below100 k.g		
		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
	Barely	A.Below100 k.g		

		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
	Wheat	A.Below100 k.g		
		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
	Maize	A.Below100 k.g		
		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
	Sorghum	A.Below100 k.g		
		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
	Kocho	A.Below100 k.g		
		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
	Chick peas	A.Below100 k.g		
		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
	Haricot beans	A.Below100 k.g		
		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
	Horse beans	A.Below100 k.g		
		B.100-500 k.g		
		C.501-1000 k.g		
		D.Above1000 k.g		
22.Number of livestock	Cows	A. Below 5		
		B.5-10		
		C.11-20		
		D.20-30		
		E.Above 30		
	Oxen	A. Below 5		
		B.5-10		
		C.11-20		
		D.20-30		
		E.Above 30		
	Sheep	A. Below 5		
		B.5-10		
		C.11-20		
		D.20-30		

		E.Above 30		
	Goat	A. Below 5		
		B.5-10		
		C.11-20		
		D.20-30		
		E.Above 30		
	Donkey	A. Below 5		
		B.5-10		
		C.11-20		
		D.20-30		
		E.Above 30		
	Horse	A. Below 5		
		B.5-10		
		C.11-20		
		D.20-30		
		E.Above 30		
23.Availability of Household goods/assets	Mobile phone	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Television	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Radio	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Modern table and chair	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Stove	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Cupboard	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Modern bed	A. Yes		
		B. No		
24.Availability of production materials	Water pump	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Spade	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Plough	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Animal cart	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Pick axe	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Farming Ox	A. Yes		

		B. No		
	Improved seed	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Fertilizer	A. Yes		
		B. No		
25.Availability of community asset	Access to road	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Access to drinking water	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Improved access to health service	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Better access to market	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Improved access tochildren education	A. Yes		
		B. No		
	Improved access to extension services	A. Yes		
		B. No		
26.Using negative coping mechanisms i.e Selling assets/ livestock	A. Yes			
	B. No			

Part Five: PSNP beneficiaries' attitude towards the program

Please tick your answer on the giving alternatives (boxes) and explain your answers for the open ended questions.

27. What is your general opinion about PSNP?

_____

_____

_____

_____

28. Do you think PSNP is contributing to the improvement of household income in your kebele?

Yes ☐ No ☐

29. If your answer for question number 30 is ―yes" please explain its contribution:

_____

_____

_____

_____

30. If your answer for question number 30 is ―No" what problems do you observe in the whole process of PSNP implementation and what do you recommend to alleviate the problem?

_____

_____

_____

_____

31. What do you suggest on building successful PSNP transfers in order to reduce household vulnerability and contribute towards the improvement of the household income in the study area in the future?

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Appendix II- Amharic Version Questionnaire

Addis Ababa University

College of Business and Economics

Department of Public Administration and Development Management

Master of public Management and Policy Analysis

(MPMP)

ለኘሮዳክቲቭ ሴፍቲኔት ኘሮግራም ተጠቃሚዎች የተዘጋጀ መጠይቅ

መግቢያ

ወድ መላሾች ስሜ ሜሪ አበራ ይባላል፡፡ በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ በህዝብ አስተዳደርና ልማት አመራር ትምህርት ክፍል የፖብሊክ ፖሊስና ማኔጀመንት የሁለተኛ ዲግሪ ተማሪ ስሆን በአሁን ሰአት የመመረቂያ ፅሁፌን እያዘጋጀሁ እገኛለሁ፡፡ የመመረቂያ ፅሁፌም ርዕስ “የሮዳክቲሽ ሴፍቲኔት ሃሮግራም ልምድና አነስተኛ የእርሻ መሬት ባላቸው ገበሬዎች የቤተሰብ ገቢ ላይ ያው ተፅዕኖ በሀዋሳ ከተማ ቱላ ክፍለ ከተማ” የሚል ነው፡፡ የዚህ ጥናት አላማ በአከባቢው ያለውን የሴፍቲኔት ልምድና አነስተኛ የእርሻ መሬት ባላቸው ገበሬዎች የቤተሰብ ገቢ ላይ ያመጣውን ለውጥ መገምገም ነው፡፡ ለዚህ መጠይቅ በመላሾች የሚሰጠው መልስ ለዚህ ጥናት ብቻ የሚውል መሆኑን ላረጋግጥላችሁ እወዳለሁ፡፡ የሚሰጡትም መልሶች በጣም ጠቃሚና በሴፍቲኔት ላይ የሚሰሩ ህግ አውጪዎች እቅድ አውጪዎች እንደዚሁም ሌሎች የእርዳታና የእድገት ወኪሎችና ድርጅቶች የሚጠቀሙበት እንደሚሆን ይታመናል፡፡ በተጨማሪ በመልሳችሁ እውነተኛ እና ታማኝእንድትሆኑ በአክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ፡፡ የምትሰጡት እያንዳንዱ መረጃ ለዚህ ጥናት በጣም ጠቃሚ ነው፡፡ በመጨረሻም ለምታደርጉልኝ ትብብር ከወዲሁ ላመሰግን እወዳለሁ፡፡

አጠቃላይ *መመሪያ*

ውድ መላሾች ጥያቄዎቹ በምስት ክፍል የተከፈሉ ሲሆን በመጀመሪያ ለእያንዳንዱ ክፍል የተሰጡትን መመሪያዎች ካነበባችሁ በኃላ ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ መመሪያው በሚያዘው መሰረት መልሱ፡፡

ክፍል አንድ

የመላሾች መነሻ መረጃዎች

መልሶቻችሁን በተዘጋጁት ሳጥኖች ውስጥ የ “√ ”ምልክት በማድረግ መልሱ፡፡

1.ፆታ ወንድ ☐ ሴት ☐

2.እድሜ ከ25 አመት በታች ☐ ከ25 – 35 አመት ☐

ከ35 – 45 አመት ☐ ከ45እና ከዛ በላይ ☐

3.የትምህርት ደረጃ ያልተማረ/ች ☐

ማንበብ እና መፃፍ ☐

አንደኛ ደረጃ /አንደኛ ሳይክል 1 – 4/ ☐

አንደኛ ደረጃ /ሁለተኛ ሳይክል 5 – 8/ ☐

ሁለተኛ ደረጃ ደረጃ /9 – 10/ ☐

መሰናዶ /11 – 12/ ☐

የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ እና ከዛ በላይ ☐

4.የጋብቻ ሁኔታ ያላገባ/ች ☐ ያገባ/ች ☐

የፈታ/ች ☐ ባል/ሚስት የሞተባት/የሞተችበት ☐

5.የቤተሰብ ብዛት 1-4 ☐ 9-13 ☐

5-8 ☐ ከ13 ዓመት በላይ ☐

6.የሴፍቲኔት ተጠቃሚ ሆነው የቆዩበት የጊዜ ብዛት 1-4 ☐

5-8 ☐

9-11 ☐

ክፍል ሁለት

የተጠቃሚዎች መተዳደሪያና የገቢ ምንጭ

መልሳቻችሁን በተዘጋጁት ሳጥኖች ውስጥ የ “√” ምልክት በማድረግ መልሱ

7. የቤተሰብዎን የምግብ ፍላጎት ሊያሟላ የሚችል የእርሻ መሬት አለዎት?

አለ ☐ የ ለም ☐

8. ምን ያህል ሄክታር መሬት አለዎት?

ከ1 ሄክታር በታች ☐ 2-3 ሄክታር ☐

1-2 ሄክታር ☐ ከ3 ሄክታር በላይ ☐

9.ግብርና ዋነኛ የገቢ ምንጭዎት ነው?

አዎ ☐ አይደለም ☐

10. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 10 መልስዎት አዎ ከሆነ በአመት ምን ያህል ገቢ ያገኙበታል?

ከ500 ብር በታች ☐ 1000-2000 ብር ☐

500-1000 ብር ☐ ከ200 ብር በላይ ☐

11. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 10 መልስዎት "አይደለም" ከሆነ ዋነኛ የገቢ ምንጭዎት ምንድነው?

ቁጥር	የስራ አይነቶች	ድምር የአመት ገቢ /በብር/
1	እንስሳት ማርባትና መሸጥ	
2	አነስተኛ ንግድ	
3	የጉልበት ስራ	
4	የእጅ ስራ	
5	ከሰል እና እንጨት መሸጥ	
6	ከኪራይ መሬት የሚገኝ ገቢ	
7	ሌላ ፖካለ ይግለፁ	

ክፍል ሶስት

ተጠቃሚዎች በሴፍቲኔት ፕሮግራም ያላቸው ተሳትፎ እና የተመረጡበት ምክንያት

መልሶቻችሁን በተዘጋጁት ሳጥኖች ውስጥ የ"√" ምልክት በማድረግ መልሱ።።

12. ወደሴፍቲኔትፕሮግራምእንድትገቡያደረጋችሁምክንያትምንድነው?

በአነስተኛ ምርት ምክንያት የሚከሰት የምግብ እጥረት /ረሀብ/ ☐

በአየር ንብረት ሁኔታ መበላሸት፣ በተፈጥሮ አደጋ፣ በኢኮኖሚ ችግር እንዲሁም በእርስ በእርስ ግጭት በሚከሰት ድንገተኛ የገቢ ውድቀት እና የመብል እጥረት ☐

በቤተሰብ አባላት ላይ በሚከሰት በሽታና የአካል ጉዳት ምክንያት የሚከሰት የሰው ሀይል እጥረት ☐

ሌላ /ካለ ይጥቀሱ/ .....

13.ቤተሰብዎትከሴፍቲኔት ፕሮግራምየምግብወይምየገንዘብድጋፍአግኝቶያውቃል?

አዎ ☐ አይደለም ☐

14. ከየትኛውፕሮግራምነውድጋፍያገኛችሁት?

የህዝብ ስራ ☐ ቀጥተኛ እርዳታ ☐

15. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 15 መልስዎት የህዝብ ስራ ከሆነ ምን ያህሉ የቤተሰቦት አባል ይሳተፋል?

1-4 ☐ 9-13 ☐

5-8 ☐ ከ13 በላይ ☐

16. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 15 መልስዎት የህዝብ ስራ ከሆነበአመት ምን ያህል ቀን ይሳተፋል?

1-50 **ቀን** ☐ 100-200 ቀን ☐

50-100 ቀን ☐ ከ200 ቀን በላይ ☐

17.መልስዎት"ቀጥተኛእርዳታ" ከሆነበወርውስጥምንያህልገንዘብይሰጥዎታል?

105-205 ብር ☐ 305-405 ብር ☐

205-305 ብር ☐ ከ405 ብርበላይ ☐

ክፍልአራት

ኘሮዳክቲቭ ሴፍቲኔት ኘሮግራም በተጠቃሚ ቤተሰብ ገቢ ላይ ያለው ተፅእኖ

መልሶቻችሁን በሳጥኑ ውስጥ ለሚገኙት ጥያቄዎች ትክክለኛውን መልስ በመምረጥ ፃፍ።።

መለኪያዎች		በኘሮግራሙ ከመታቀፋች በፊት	በኘሮግራሙ ከታቀፋችሁ በኃላ
18.የወር ገቢ	ሀ- ከ500 ብር በታች		
	ለ- 500-1000 ብር		
	ሐ- 1000-2000 ብር		
	መ- ከ200 ብር በላይ		

19. በቀን ውስጥ ስንት ጊዜ ይመገባሉ?	ሀ.1ጊዜ			
	ለ.2ጊዜ			
	ሐ.3 ጊዜ			
	መ- 4 ጊዜ			
	ሠ.ከ 1 ጊዜበላይ			
20.በሳምንት ውስጥ የሚጠቀሙት የምግብ ፍጆታ	ሀ- ከ15 ኪ.ግበታች			
	ለ- ከ15-20 ኪ.ግ			
	ሐ-ከ20-25ኪ.ግ			
	መ- ከ25 ኪ.ግበላይ			
21.በአመት ውስጥ የሚያመርቱት አጠቃላይ ምርት	ጤፍ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		
		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		
	ገብስ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		
		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		

	ስንዴ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		
		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		
	በቆሎ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		
		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		
	ማሽላ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		
		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		
	ቆጮ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		
		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		
	ሸንብራ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		
		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		
	ቦለቄ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		

		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		
	ባቄላ	ሀ- ከ100 ኪ.ግ በታች		
		ለ- ከ100-500 ኪ.ግ		
		ሐ-ከ500-1000ኪ.ግ በታች		
		መ- ከ1000 ኪ.ግ በላይ		
22.የቤት እንስሳት ቁጥር	ከብት	ሀ- ከ5 በታች		
		ለ- ከ5-10		
		ሐ- ከ11-20		
		መ- ከ20-30		
		ሠ.ከ 30 በላይ		
	በሬ	ሀ- ከ5 በታች ለ- ከ5-10		
		ሐ- ከ11-20		
		መ- ከ20-30		
		ሠ.ከ 30 በላይ		

	በግ	ሀ- ከ5 በታች		
		ለ- ከ5-ነ0		
		ሐ- ከነነ-20		
		መ- ከ20-30		
		ሠ.ከ 30 በላይ		
	ፍየል	ሀ- ከ5 በታች		
		ለ- ከ5-ነ0		
		ሐ- ከነነ-20		
		መ- ከ20-30		
		ሠ.ከ 30 በላይ		
	አህያ	ሀ- ከ5 በታች		
		ለ- ከ5-ነ0		
		ሐ- ከነነ-20		
		መ- ከ20-30		
		ሠ.ከ 30 በላይ		

	ፈረስ	ሀ- ከ5 በታች		
		ለ- ከ5-ነ0		
		ሐ- ከነነ-20		
		መ- ከ20-30		
		ሠ.ከ 30 በላይ		
23.የቤት እቃ /ንብረት/	ተንቀሳቃሽ ስልክ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ቴሌቪዥን	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ሬድዮ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ዘመናዊ ጠረጴዛና ወንበር	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	የኤሌክትሪክ ማብሰያ ቁም ሳጥን	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ዘመናዉ አልጋ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
24.የእርሻ መሳሪያ	የውሃ መንፊያ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		

	አካፋ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ማረሻ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	የእንስሳት ጋሪ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ዶማ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	የእርሻ በሬ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ምርጥ ዘር	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ማዳበሪያ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
25.መሰረተ - ልማት	መንገድ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	ንፅህ የመጠጥ ውሃ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	የጤና አገልግሎት	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	የተሻለ ገበያ	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		

	ትምህርት ቤት	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
	የትርፍ ጊዜ ትምህርት አገልግሎት	ሀ. አለ		
		ለ.የለም		
26.ለጊዚያዊየምግብ እጥረትችግሮች ተገቢያልሆኑ መፍትሄዎችን መጠቀም ለምሳሌ፡- የቤት እቃዎችን መሸጥ		ሀ- አዎ		
		ለ- አይደለም		

ክፍል አምስት

የኘሮግራሙ ተጠቃሚዎች በኘሮግራሙ ላይ ያላቸው አመለካከት

መልሶቻችሁን በተዘጋጁት ሳጥኖች ላይ የ "√" ምልክት በማድረግ እንዲሁም ማብራሪያ ለሚያስፈልጋቸው ጥያቄዎች በተሰጡት ባዶ ቦታዎች ላይ በማብራራት መልሱ

27. ስለ ኘሮዳክቲቨ ሴፍቲኔት ኘሮግራም ያለዎት አጠቃላይ ምልከታ ምን ይመስላል?

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28. ኘሮግራሙ በቀበለዎት ለሉ ተጠቃሚ ቤተሰቦች ገቢ መጎልበት/ማደግ አስተዋፅኦ እያደረገ ነው ብለው ያስባሉ?

አዎ ☐ **አይደለም** ☐

29. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 29 መልስዎት አዎ ከሆነ ምን አስተዋጾ እያበረከተ እንዳለ አብራሩ?

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30. ለጥያቄ ቁጥር 29መልስዎት "አይደለም" ከሆነ በአጠቃላይ የኘሮግራሙ አፈፃፀም ላይ ያዩት ችግር ምንድነው? መፍትሄውስ ምን መሆን አለበት?

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31. የቤተሰብን ለረሀብ ተጋላጭነት ለመቀነስ፣ ገቢን ለማነልበት/ለማሳደግ እንዲሁም ጠንካራና ስኬታማ ኘሮዳክቲቭ ሴፍቲኔት ኘሮግራም ለመገንባት ምን መደረግ አለበት ይላሉ?

Appendix III: Interview Guide for key informants

Addis Ababa University

College of Business and Economics

Department of Public Administration and Development Management

Master of public Management and Policy Analysis (MPMP)

Interview for Tulla sub city early warning and food security office manager and employees

Name: _____

Position: _____

Date: _____

1. When does PSNP started in this sub city?

2. How does beneficiary households identified for PSNP?

3. What mechanisms have been used to identify household‘s either for direct support or public work?

4. How many households were identified for PSNP in each program (DS and PW)?

5. What outcomes registered because of PSNP or What contribution does it brought for the community?

- In consumption level (food security)
- Infrastructures (road, water …etc.)

- Employment opportunity
- Livestock protection, household and production materials
- Financial (credit service)
- Environment protection
- Other achievement

6. Were there challenges in targeting and implementing process? What challenges do you face?

7. What do you recommend on local governments, NGO‘s and community role to achieve PSNP objective and alleviate the problems with it?

8. What do you suggest on building successful PSNP transfers in order to reduce household vulnerability and contribute towards the improvement of the household income in the study area in the future?

9. Do you have any other comments on our discussion?

Appendix IV: Check List for Observation

Addis Ababa University

College of Business and Economics

Department of Public Administration and Development Management

Master of public Management and Policy Analysis (MPMP)

1. The practice of PSNP Transfers
2. The state of household asset
3. The condition of livestock
4. The condition of crop production
5. The situation of community assets

Plagiarism Declaration

I **Mary Abera** do hereby declare the fact that this research paper is my original work, has not been presented for the degree of Master in Public Management and Policy (MPMP), in any other university and for any other purpose and as well sources used for this research has been fully acknowledged.

Name of Participant : **Mary Abera** Signiture ---------- Date ----------

This research paper has been submitted for examination with my approval as an advisor.

Name of Advisor : **Dr. Elias B. (PhD)** Signiture ---------- Date ----------