ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

INSTITUTE OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

RESETTLEMENT: IS IT THE WAY TO COME OUT OF FOOD INSECURITY?

A Thesis Submitted to the Institute of Regional and Local Development Studies of Addis Ababa University

In Partial Fulfillment of Obtaining Masters Degree in Development Studies from Institute of Regional and Local Development Studies

By Masresha Taye

July, 2008

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

INSTITUTE OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

RESETTLEMENT: IS IT THE WAY TO COME OUT OF FOOD INSECURITY?

A Thesis Submitted to the Institute of Regional and Local Development Studies of Addis Ababa University

In Partial Fulfillment of Obtaining Masters Degree in Development Studies from Institute of Regional and Local Development Studies

Approved by Board of Directors

	Signature
1. Wldeab Teshome Chairman	
2. Abebe Ignatius Mbirengwa Advisor	
3. Abeje Berhanu Examiner (Internal)	
4. Gebre Yntiso Examiner (External)	

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

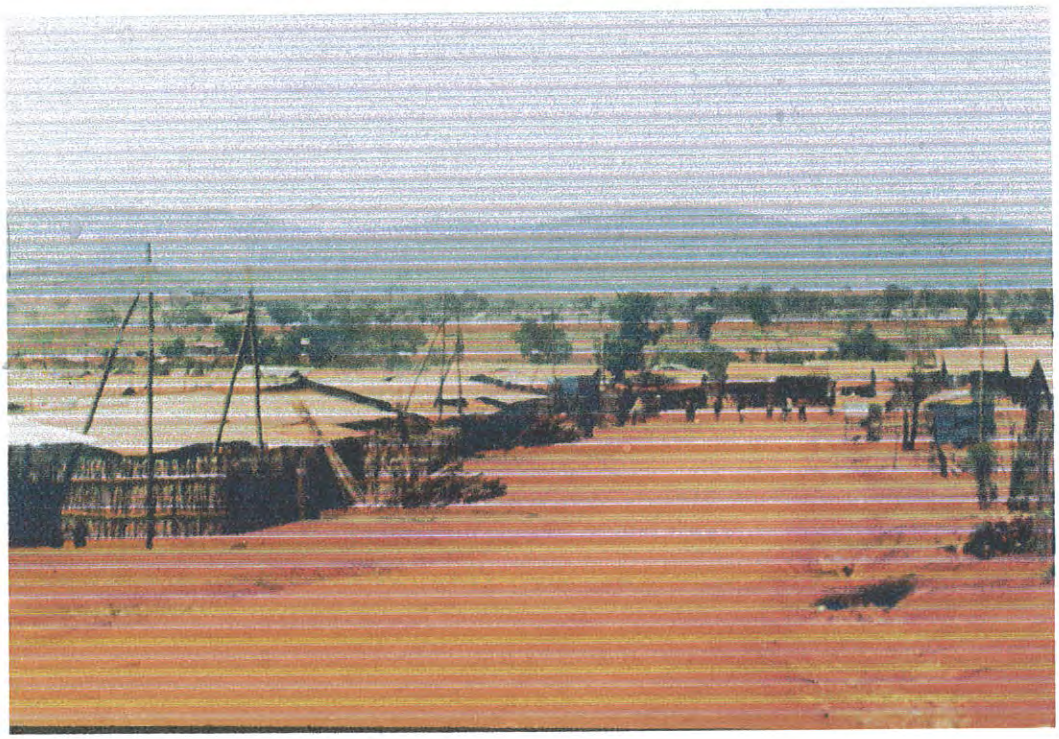
COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

INSTITUTE OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

RESETTLEMENT: IS IT THE WAY TO COME OUT OF FOOD INSECURITY?

A Case Study on Selected Kebeles of Chewaka Resettlement Area

Thesis Advisor: Ignatious M. (Ph.D)



List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Annex

List of Accronyms

AIDS	Acquired Immuno Deficiency Diseases
CADU	Chilalo Agricultural Development Unit
CSA	Central Statistical Authority
DA	Development Agent
DPPA	Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Agency
DPPC	Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Commission (now DPPA)
EPRDF	Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democracy Front
FAO	Food and Agricultural Organization
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
FHHs	Female Headed Households
FSS	Food Security Strategy
HIV	Human Immuno Virus
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
MHHs	Male Headed Households
MoFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
NCFS	New Coalition for Food Security
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
ODPPB	Oromiya Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Bureau
OFSB	Oromiya Food Security Bureau

OLF	Oromo Liberation Front
ONLF	Ogaden National Liberation Front
PMAC	Provisional Military Administrative Council
PVGs	Private Voluntary Groups
RRC	Relief and Rehabilitation Commission
SA	Settlement Authority
SDPRP	Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
SSC	Settlement Study Commission
TGE	Transitional Government of Ethiopia
UN	United Nations
UNCDF	United Nations Capital Development Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children Emergency Fund
USA	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republic
WADU	Walamo Agricultural Development Unit
WB	World Bank
WFP	World Food Program

Glossary of Amharic and Oromiffa Terms

Abba Weraa	Household head, literary 'father of household'
Allah	God
Awraja	The second level of the country's three-tire administrative structure, during the *Derg* period
Belg	Minor growing for annual crops cultivated in spring season
Bereha	Desert
Birr	Ethiopian currency (9.50 *birr*= 1USD, during March 2008)
Dabo	Bread
Debo	Work group whereby other community members assist an individual for free
Dega	Highland agro-climate
Derg	Refers to committee, and the name of the government that ruled Ethiopia between 1974 and 1991
Dongora	Like fork and having only two blades with a long wood made handle, the major agricultural tool people in Hararghe use for digging their land
Gaso	It is similar to *Dongora* but has curved blades inside and short wood made handle
Gott	Sub-division of a kebele consisting of many individuals
Hirppa	Financial donation from the community members to someone whose farm oxen has died
Injera	Pancake- like bread; basic component of Ethiopian diet

Iqub	Rotating credit association
Jemmat Temeda	Cultivation on Friday aimed at assisting individuals without farm oxen or those unable to undertake their own land cultivation
Kamma	*Khat* chewing individually or in a group
Kebele	Lowest administrative unit in Ethiopia
Keremt	Main rainy season in Ethiopia, between June and August
Khat	*Cata edulis*, a narcotic cash crop
Kire	Community based burial association
Kola	Lowland agro-climate
Marka	Porridge
Meher	Main growing season for annual crops that are normally planted in summer, to be harvested in autumn
Saa	Livestock, mostly referring to cattle
Safara	Resettlement
Sallat	Regular pray of Muslim people
Sigsaga	Resettlement program to be undertaken by mixing the resettled with the host community
Tassiga	Feeding institution organized by unmarried young men annually during autumn
Teff	*Eragrostis téf,* a cereal traditionally grown only in Ethiopia and the major component for preparing *Injera*
Telamma	Ritual-based start up of land cultivation in a season

Timad	Land measurement unit (1 *timad*= 0.25 ha)
Waqa	God of Oromo people
Wedaja	Muslim ceremony, often associated with healing (prayers ritual meant for different purposes)
Wenfel	Labor exchange among community members in rotation
Wereda	District
Wet	Spicy sauce; a staple component of the diet
Weyna-Dega	Midland agro-climate
Ye-ekul	Sharecropping with equal share of harvest between landholder and sharecropper
Ye-finchit	Ox-labor exchange whereby ox-owner cultivates for three days and the laborer for one day
Zekka	Donation of about one-tenth of own crop harvest to the needy people and poor people

Abstract

The agricultural sector in Ethiopia is characterized by its poor performance to attain self-sufficiency. One of the consequences of the poor performance of Ethiopian agriculture is the rampant problem of food insecurity. The problem of food insecurity in the country is a complex combination of factors, which increase the extent and level of vulnerability to food insecurity for a great number of Ethiopians. Aiming to address this problem through its Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP), the government of Ethiopia selected resettlement program as to move food insecure people from severely degraded areas to fertile ones.

To answer the major objective, assessing the role of resettlement in alleviating the problem of food insecurity, this study employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches of data collection. Quantitative approach was used to collect data and analyze the food security situation of resettlers. On the other hand, qualitative sources were used to assess problems resettlers face and their coping strategies. Household surveys, Focus Group Discussions, Key Informants Interviews, and Direct Field Observation were the primary sources of data collection.

Even if the level differs, according to the findings, resettlers in Chewaka are food insecure. The resettlement program undertaken in Chewaka can be concluded as neither successful nor a failure. This is because resettlers' total production has increased than before and they have better access to land than before. On the contrary, problems related to means of production, market and marketing, credit and saving, infrastructural and social amenities, and other problems related to socio-economic and environment hindered addressing food insecurity in Chewaka resettlement area.

Resettlement program can be taken as one component of rural development and addressing food insecurity. This is because the cause of food insecurity in Ethiopia is not only limited to shortage of land. As a result, both short and long term interventions are needed concerning means of production; food availability, access, and utilization; market and marketing activities; and infrastructural and institutional arrangements.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

As a developing country, Ethiopia is a country where agriculture is the backbone of the economy. The economic, political, and social aspects are a reflection of this aged activity. Practiced for a long period, more than a thousand years, the kind of agricultural practices and traditions seem to witness little change (Dessalegn, 1997: 5; Dejene, 1990: 3). Even if there is some form of change, all problems that hindered for further improvement are increasing; at least remained the same over a long period of time (Getahun, 2003, Dessalegn, 1997: 5). Almost all farmers in Ethiopia practice agriculture using rain fed and traditional mode of production. The increasing number of people relying on food aid can easily show the problem. The latest UN Report suggests that Africa is the only continent where the need for food aid is increasing and Ethiopia is among some nations of the continent severely affected (UNICEF, 2007: 1).

One of the consequences of the poor performance of Ethiopian agriculture is the pervasive spread of food insecurity. The problem of food insecurity in the country is a complex combination of factors, which increase the extent and levels of vulnerability to food insecurity for a great number of Ethiopians. The major factors, which are assumed in causing, aggravating, and widening the problem of food insecurity in Ethiopia include: subsistence and backward agricultural practices, changes in climate leading to more frequent droughts, widespread land degradation, increased population pressure, existence of poor market integration, limited access to basic services, inputs, credit and information, and technological problems (Getahun, 2003; Dessalegn 1997; Dejene, 1990).

The government of Ethiopia supported by local and international organizations is making visible efforts to address the problem of food insecurity. It framed a policy through its Sustainable Development Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP), which focuses on improving agricultural productivity that will have a multiplier effect on the livelihood of

the rural people. From the strategies and policies issued, Resettlement Program is taken as one of the means for addressing the problem of food insecurity. The importance of resettlement program can be appreciated when one realizes the imbalance of geographical distribution of resources and population over the country and the resulting problem of agricultural production. Resettlement has social, political, and economical implications and objectives (Wood, 1977: 9). The government's resettlement plan was announced in June 2003 with the stated aim of moving 2.2 million people over three years (FDRE, 2004:14). The government manual for the resettlement program stresses its voluntary nature and lays out the guidelines for its management and implementation. In addressing its objective, solving the problem of food insecurity, the resettlement program is showing all types of results that make it difficult to duplicate in most parts of the country.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Solving the problem of food insecurity requires committed efforts from all stakeholders in any society/ nation. There are number of ways for addressing the problem of food insecurity, which all depend on the dimension and extent of the problem. As a ruler of the nation, the government of Ethiopia designed ways to solve the problem of food insecurity. Resettlement program is one of the selected ways, which aimed at reducing food insecurity problem by moving people from highly degraded areas to relatively fertile areas. However, studies reveal that attaining food security and making resettlers at a better situation is very difficult (Feleke, 2003; Cernea, 1999; John, 1999; Lakshman, 1999; Pankrust, 1992; Alemneh, 1990). Even though the government of Ethiopia announced that resettlement will solve the chronic food insecurity problem, practical studies contradict with the action of the government; moving people from highly to less degraded areas. Cernea (1999:9) summarizes as, 'so many resettlement programs still go so wrong in so many places – to the detriment of such large numbers of people and fresh evidence show impoverishment and failure to improve or even restore resettlers' livelihood is frequent.'

The biophysical and climatic environment that resettlers faced, forced them to adapt a new livelihood strategy for improving their food security status. Even if some began to be involved in agricultural production, problems in supply of agricultural inputs, credit, labor-

skill development activities, and marketing of products, which they were expecting from the promising body – government - found undelivered that escort attaining food security difficult in Chewaka.

Other than means of production delivery; social services, which are pivotal in keeping the daily life of the resettlers and improving food production in resettlement areas seem glossed over by the government. Past lessons from *Derg's* resettlement program illustrate that resettlement programs often fail when the government relocates people before putting social services in place at the resettlement areas (Feleke, 2003; Gebre, 2003; Alemneh, 1990; John, 1986). The current resettlement program falls short in putting social services such as health, education, potable water, road, storage facilities, and other basic social amenities at the resettlement sites before relocating people. Failure to deliver the necessary components for leading life, however, does not mean that people are not producing rather some design ways to cope up with the existing situation. In this regard from the academic and practical point of view, there is a need to access the role and impact of resettlement program in attaining food security at household level in Chewaka resettlement area. This study focuses at assessing the role of resettlement in reducing food insecurity in Chewaka resettlement area from selected kebeles and identifies the major coping strategies by the resettlers for solving the problem encountered.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

General Objective

Generally, this study aims at assessing the role of resettlement in alleviating the problem of chronic food insecurity by taking the largest resettlement area in the Regional State of Oromiya, Chewaka resettlement area.

Specific objectives

1. To assess whether Chewaka's resettlement attains food security or not.
2. To assess the impact of the resettlement program in Chewaka in terms of food production.

3. To identify the challenges resettlers encounter and their coping strategies to mitigate the problems.
4. To suggest short and long term measures that can be instituted as to improve resettlers' food security situation.

1.4 Research Questions

1. Do resettlers achieve food security at household level in Chewaka? Are resettlers food secured? What is the nature of food insecurity in Chewaka?
2. What are the major challenges the resettlers face in Chewaka?
3. What sorts of coping/ adaptive strategies that in place mitigate the problems resettlers in Chewaka face?
4. What alternative/ additional interventions can be instituted as to improve the food security situation of resettlers in Chewaka?

1.5 Significance of the Study

It is hoped that the results of this study will be helpful to any organization, governmental or non-governmental or academic or practitioners, that plan to implement rural development projects or programs in the area under study. The study tried to investigate the food security situation in the resettlement area, the major problems resettlers face and their coping strategies, as a result its findings could be used as an input in planning future rural development and resettlement projects and programs.

The resettlers will be benefited from the outcome of this research whereby appropriate projects and programs could be designed for the resettlement area by using the findings as an input, which reflected their food security situation, problems encountered, and adaptive mechanisms to mitigate for the problems resettlers face. Therefore, this study will have a vital contribution as to recognize the role of resettlement for solving food insecurity and indicating the means of solving problems encountered at resettlement areas.

In particular, the major problems resettlers in Chewaka face and their coping strategies related to means of production; food availability, accessibility, utilization, and seasonality;

and infrastructural institutional problems are identified, which the government and interventions by other stakeholders can be delivered easily.

1.6 Research Methodology

1.6.1 Methods of Data Collection

1.6.1.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches: The Debates

The choice between research that gives numbers and research that produces mainly words has long been seen as a key issue in social science. The long debate between the two approaches to research, quantitative and qualitative; is that quantitative approach deals on "hard" research, which uses statistical model for explaining data collected. On the other hand, qualitative approach looks more at what people think and feel, and why. As Baren (1995, cited in Degefa, 2005: 54) summarized the two approaches, the qualitative approach has been regarded as viewing the world through a wide lens, and the quantitative approach as viewing through the narrow lens. However, it is not helpful to 'pick sides' on the above two because very often one need qualitative information, she/he also need some sense of the scale things, some element of quantification. This holds true if one needs to be dependent on quantification of data collection, where using qualitative approach is vital.

The purpose of using either quantitative or qualitative approach is not due to researcher's interest, rather using both approaches enable the researcher in the study undertaken to fill the gap that might occur as a result of taking one approach only. The researcher of this study also agrees that it is not usually helpful to debate the virtues of one approach against the other. Most research for practical purpose contains some element of both, and this is how it should be. As a result, aiming at gathering data that can answer its all research questions, this study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

1.6.1.2 Data Sources and Tools of Data Collection

Primary Data Source: To obtain information about the role of resettlement on food production from the selected site, Chewaka Resettlement Area, four types of primary data sources were identified. They are resettlers in the resettlement area, Chewaka area and

wereda administrators in the area, food security and resettlement program officers at Ethiopian and Oromiya Disaster Prevention and Preparedness, and direct field observation. Hence, both qualitative and quantitative data are the main approaches for primary data collection.

Household Survey

Both standard (pre-coded) set of questions and open-ended questionnaires were used for household survey. The survey questions were constructed carefully by avoiding vague, leading, hypothetical, offensive, double-barreled, and questions, which contain value judgments. In order to minimize number of non-responses and to avoid ambiguous responses, the survey questions were constructed to be simple and were made within the comprehension level of respondents. Before undertaking the actual survey, pre-testing was conducted in order to pick up unanticipated problems during the actual survey. The survey questionnaire is organized into five parts: area of identification; household characteristics; food availability, access, utilization, and seasonality of food availability; crop failure; challenges, and coping mechanism in resettlement areas (Annex I).

The major role of using household survey is that, it will enable the researcher to gather data on household food availability, access, and utilization. In addition, identifying whether the resettlers at Chewaka are food secure or not requires standardized and straightforward format of questions. Hence, household survey was employed for gathering issues on food security, problems the resettlers at Chewaka face, and their coping mechanism from a selected sample of 150 respondents.

Sampling and Sample Size

The similarity of the population under study in terms of language, religion, economic, and socio-politics is believed to ease the difficulty of drawing sample. Therefore, simple random sampling technique, whereby each element in the population has given an equal and independent chance of selection was employed. Moreover, the same sampling technique was used for selecting respondents for FGDs. In total 150 respondents for household survey and 81 participants for FGDs were made. In Chewaka there are seven sites

comprising 26 kebeles as a whole, out of which four were selected in this study based on their annual food production and number of times resettlers report occurrence of problems related to agricultural production.

Due to the fact that the resettlement area possesses similar resettlers in terms of economical, social, political, and cultural aspects, this study categorized them based on the existing activities related to food production. The data obtained from the wereda shows that there are two distinct characteristics of the resettlement area: those areas regarded as successful and those problematic areas. As a result from successful sites, site 1 and from sites regarded as problematic sites, site 2 was selected for the study. After that two kebeles from each site were selected for analyzing the impact of the program on the livelihood of resettlers. Hence, Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar from site 1 and Dameksa and Missoma Gudina from site 2 were selected and assessed, where Chokorsa and Dameksa were ranked as the top from their site while Tokuma Harar and Missoma Gudina as the least. Fourteen percent of resettlers from the studied kebeles were selected and the role of resettlement on food insecurity analyzed accordingly. The following table clearly shows samples drawn for household survey and FGD.

Table 1.1 Total Numbers of Resettlers in the Selected Areas and Samples Drawn

		Chokorsa	Tokuma Harar	Dameksa	Missoma Gudina	Total
Total Household size		321	250	285	214	1,070
Sample %age		14%	14%	14%	14%	14%
Sample no.		45	35	40	30	150
FGD	Group 1	10	9	11	10	40
	Group 2	12	10	10	9	41

Source: Own Survey, March 2008

Higher officers from each sector office in Chewaka resettlement area, Oromiya and Ethiopian Disaster Prevention and Preparedness were involved in key informants' interview.

Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Purposive Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were used in this study. It aimed at not only gathering detail and intensive information about the resettlement site, but also it intended at identifying potential problems and coping mechanisms by resettlers in Chewaka. It is purposive due to two basic reasons; first, information gathered from household survey was selected based on their responses on issues like comparing food production between Chewaka and previous area of living, problems encountered in Chewaka for attaining food security, and coping strategies; after that conflicting and supporting responses from them were categorized and made ready for FGDs. Secondly, intensive and detailed information on problems faced to increase and solve food production and means of dealing with the problems was collected.

There were eight group FGDs, each containing 8 -12 participants. Participants were divided into two types of FGDs, composed of females on one group and males on the other.

Key Informants Interview

Officers from Chewaka resettlement area, Oromiya and Ethiopian Disaster Prevention and Preparedness were selected for intensive interview. The aim of using this kind of data collection is that it will enable to gather information at higher level. In addition, the researcher can cross check problems encountered by the resettlers and the role of the government in alleviating for the problems faced. The major area of discussion while undertaking this tool was: criteria of selecting food insecure people and resettlement sites, reallocation of people, planning, executing, monitoring and administering the resettlement, provision of basic social services, construction of basic infrastructure, organizational structure of the resettlement site, and problems faced and coping mechanisms by the responsible bodies that hindered attaining food security in Chewaka (Annex II). Ten higher officers from the above three areas were selected for interview, where five of them were

from Chewaka wereda, three from Oromiya Food Security Bureau, and two from Ethiopian Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Agency.

Direct Field Observation

Field observation plays a major role in social science research for analyzing some of the issues raised in other means of data collection. It gives an opportunity to observe realities directly from the area under study and fills the gap, which was glossed over in household survey. In addition, it will ease the researcher to prepare questions for potential respondents and cross check, responses after household survey, FGDs, and key informants interview (Ranjit, 1999: 125).

Direct field observation was undertaken in to two phases. First, *General Observation*, which relies on gathering information through informal talks with resettlers, observing biophysical environment, peoples' lifestyles, structure of the houses and farms, neighborhood relations, marketing areas and activities was undertaken. On the second phase, *Systematic Observation*, the operations of a variety of farm activities, schools, health posts, grain mills, kebele administration, social institutions like *Hirppa, Hiqub, Wedeja, Chat kammu, Wenfel (Fereqa), Zekka, Debo (Guza), and Kire*, and availability, access, and utilization of different capitals and their relation to food production was undertaken in this phase.

Secondary Data Source: Statistics from Ethiopian Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Agency (DPPA), Oromiya Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Bureau, Ethiopian Central Statistical Agency (CSA), and Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MoFED) were important secondary sources for undertaking the research. These statistics reports are relatively reliable sources for the demographic characteristics of the resettlers and agro-climatic zone of the resettlement area. Pertinent documents to the study: books, previous literatures, statistics, checklists and figures, and unpublished materials were used in the study.

1.6.2 Tools of Analysis

The unit of analysis in the study area was households, head of the household. However, this research does not deal with the head of the household (usually men) as the main actor, but also with other important actors from different groups: their wives have given equal weight during household survey, and in some instances, people living with resettlers were included in household survey. In FGDs, only heads of the households were selected, which composed of females in one group and males on the other; dividing them based on sex aimed at capturing potential information on the issues raised. It is believed that rural people feel ease when asked to discuss in livelihood and other matters with their similar sex than their opposite. Data collection took one month including pre-test of questionnaire and based on the results adjustments were made after the pre-test. For both approaches of data collection, quantitative and qualitative, different tools of analysis and statistical packages were used.

Quantitative Analysis

For analyzing quantitative data, techniques like the data matrix for analyzing issues like age, housing, sex and other basic household characteristics were used, coding of data as to change words and other responses into figures, tables, charts, graphs and cross-tabs, counting of the total for analyzing percentages and frequencies, correlations for analyzing the degree to which changes in one variable are associated with changes in another variable- in this case the relationship between resettlement and food security- were used. Statistical packages, which this study basically depends, allows analyzing large quantities of data, labeling of information about the meaning of the data, and producing high quality of tables, graphs and relationship between variables in the study. SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences), is a software where this study entirely depends in analyzing quantitative data using statistical packages and quantitative analysis was the major tool for analyzing resettlers' food security status.

Qualitative Analysis

Compared to quantitative analysis, data gathered from qualitative approach is relatively small. However, it employed common approaches; cut and paste both by hand and computer where short responses were written either on a paper or on word-processing package using computer, charting-by hand this approach is very essential for analyzing FGDs. This method allows handling bigger data sets, formalizing qualitative data as to build confidence in the validity of the results, and creating a set of codes that enable the researcher to map the whole data into a series of charts. The rest two approaches are card index, where a card was created for each response and then they were sorted out based on their similarities and analyzed according to the objectives of the study. Challenges resettlers encounter and their mitigating strategies were the major areas under this tool of analysis.

1.7 Ethical Considerations

In any fieldwork, particularly in development research, there are a number of ethical considerations that the researcher must keep in mind. First and foremost, the respondents consent in all types of research approaches should be taken. The reason can be diverse, including personal and private matters, fear of revealing politically sensitive matters when informants think the provided data could be used by local administrators, fear of the consequences of the research in terms of policy changes, inquiries regarding assets and tax related issues, which might lead to unfulfilled responses, misguiding information, and other responses that might adversely affect the outcome of the study. As to avoid such occurrences, the research process was designed in a way that the consent of the respondents in all means of data gatherings household surveys, FGDs, and key informants' interview was assured. Not only their consent but also the objective of the research, its expected outcome, purpose of the study was clearly stated in all cases, and foremost assurance that their names and identity is kept anonymous, hence some of the names mentioned in this research when resettlers demanded to be kept secret is changed.

In some instances enumerators were considered as employee of NGO where financial reward was demanded however after informed the aim of the study, they were quick to ask

forgiveness. In one case, three enumerators were detained for 9 hours because they forget their letter of cooperation after a short span negotiation they were released. But all these were regarded as the overall process of research not any other political or related disturbance, where any development researcher will face. Finally, the researcher in this study believes that research should not be done for its own sake only, rather it should add strong link between research outcome and practical advantage.

1.8 Justification of the study

The researcher due to a number of reasons selects the study area, Chewaka resettlement, and the above methodology but the major one is that it is the largest resettlement program in the Regional State of Oromiya, where analyzing the impact of the program on food security can be made. The rest factors that contributed for selecting Chewaka and using the above methodology are the following:

- ✓ Analyzing the central idea, the role of resettlement for reducing food insecurity, is unerringly matched with Chewaka resettlement area. In addition, Chewaka is one of the most fertile areas in the country hence access to improved land as the government announced can be directly matched with its role to food production
- ✓ Existence of two out comes in resettlement areas made it interesting identifying this peculiar result as to identify the problems in resettlement areas as to recommend what has to be done.
- ✓ Similarity of the population under study, all from Hararghe zone of Oromiya, is assumed to cause and effect of the program regarding the indicators identified as variables were studied easily. Therefore, the sample drawn will reflect the population under study, which in turn increases the accuracy level of the study. Accuracy of the sample drawn largely depends on the variability or homogeneity of the study population- principle of sampling-Principle3- (Ranjit, 1999: 84).

1.9 Limitations of the Study

- The issue of food security is very sensitive where hundred of measures are provided by institutions and scholars, however, this study selected relevant measures of food security related with food production in resettlement areas based on measures by institutions like International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF) under local context and supports its measure by other influential scholars on the issue raised.

- The study only focuses on identifying the role of resettlement in increasing food production, whether resettlers are better than what they were before, challenges resettlers encountered and their coping strategies, which all related with food production. Other livelihood activities and facts are not considered in this study, however it is understood that they all have their own impact on the overall performance of the resettlement program.

- Quantifying of some aspects like selecting/ reflecting status of food security and other related issues will be arranged in a way they can reflect the perception of the resettlers, through means of data collection. Nevertheless, it is believed by the researcher that quantifying such aspects sometimes is subject to prejudiced judgment by the respondent that might affect the total outcome of the study.

- The nature of the study is fact-finding and correlating resettlement with food production and hence, only short and medium term food production will be assessed; long-term implication of resettlement is not well thought-out in this study.

- The extraneous variables that are left unmeasured in this study will have their own impact on the outcome of the study. The researcher believes that there are a number of indicators for measuring the independent variables, but only those selected as a major component will be captured and measured in order to establish their effect on food production and drawing conclusion. Hence, the conclusion and correlations that were drawn in this study only show the issues indicated. It can be understood that without time and financial

limitation all indicators that might affect the effect or the out come, food production, will be measured and correlated with resettlement based on short and long-term measures.

1.10 Organization of the Study

The research paper is composed of seven chapters. The first chapter, introduction, includes background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, methodology, ethical considerations, significance of the study, and limitations of the study are discussed.

In Chapter two, review of the related literature, where concepts of food insecurity and resettlement are discussed. In addition, the theoretical framework and conceptual framework of the study are presented in this chapter. Historical background, challenges, prospects, and other related issues of food insecurity and resettlement in Ethiopian perspective are discussed in chapter three, particularly the three government planned resettlement programs with their impacts based on empirical findings from other scholars is discussed in this chapter. The study area, Chewaka resettlement area, environment, demography, and economic activity are discussed in the fourth chapter of this study. As well, socio-economic characteristic of respondents is also presented in the same chapter.

Data presentation, discussion, and analysis are made in the fifth and sixth chapter. Based on the methodology for undertaking the research, data gathered from respondents, after editing, is discussed in detail in accordance with the statement of the problem and objectives of the study. However, for making things clear data presentation is divided into two chapters where chapter four discusses about food availability, access, utilization and seasonality, where as the second part, chapter six, entirely focuses on presenting the problems resettlers encountered at resettlement areas and the coping strategies designed as to overcome the problems existed. The last chapter, chapter seven, deals about summary of the whole study, conclusions, and recommendation for further research and policy formulating issues.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Definitions, Concepts and Theories

This chapter reviews pertinent works that deal directly with the issues under study. It has four parts, where the first part discusses definitions, concepts and theories on resettlement and food security. This is followed by conceptual framework of the study, which discusses about models on resettlement, food security and development intervention in developing countries. Empirical studies, African, Ethiopian, and specific to the study area- Chewaka- are discussed under part three of this chapter. The research is concluded by a summary of the major issues in the whole chapter.

2.1.1 Resettlement: Definitions, Concepts and Theories

To begin with, agricultural settlement (also called agricultural colonization), voluntary/ involuntary resettlement and spontaneous/ planned resettlement, displacement, and migration are concepts, which scholars debate about. However, all have their own characteristics, and also share some similarities. According to Cernea (1992 and 1999), the basic commonalities, these concepts share are: they all involve developing entirely new production systems, as well as viable patterns of community organization, often in unfamiliar environments, all are high risk enterprises for the affected families, where few settlers have resources to sustain them if the crops fail, and finally all settlement programs raise issues of cultural integration and environmental sustainability as population densities increase in the newly settled areas. For mutual understanding the concepts of the above all will be elaborated in the following discussion.

Settlers: Individuals or group of people who are moved voluntarily or involuntarily under planned or spontaneous resettlement are called *Resettlers/Settlers.* According to Wood (1977: 6), settlers are persons who engage in resettlement, they are primarily concerned with the ecological, economic, socio-cultural and political conditions and are the residents of three areas: the area from which they, the settlers, depart, the source of home area; the

area through which they have to travel, the journey or space area; and finally the area to which they move, their destination or resettlement areas.

Settlement: Settlement exists within the physical environment and is defined as original place where individuals or a group of people adopts themselves to the existing physical and social systems (Mengistu, 1992: 7). Settlement is not only physical and social system but also it adds political, economical, and cultural activities of habitants at that particular area (Wood, 1977: 7), and the concept 'Original Place of Living' in settlement makes it different from other forms of economical, political, social, physical, and cultural activities of a given population. In resettlement, displacement, and migration one may experience such activities within and between different groups of peoples, but in settlement all the above activities are done at the original place of living.

Resettlement: On the contrary, resettlement is defined as a process where individuals or a group of people leave spontaneously either voluntarily or forced their original settlement sites to resettle in new areas, where they can begin new trends of life by adopting themselves to the physical, social, and administrative systems of the new environment (Mengistu, 1992: 3). Here, resettlers conquer new areas of settlements or land areas; 'pull' and 'push' factors exist to leave one's original living area and adopt a new way of living. Resettlement in its nature result from a combination of physical, political, socio-economic, administrative, technical, managerial, and biological phenomenon (Cernea, 1999: 7-12). This combination of factors serve as a 'pull' and 'push' situation to leave one's original place of living and adopt a new way of life.

Spontaneous Resettlement: Resettlement can be spontaneous or planned and voluntary or involuntary. The issue of spontaneous and planned resettlement rests on the involvement of government (in most cases) and other parties like NGOs and the private sector. Whereas, voluntary and involuntary resettlement posses the issue of resettlers willingness, consciousness (consent), and decision making to take a new area of living. The distinction between 'Spontaneous' and 'Planned' resettlement is not equally clear in every region. However, whenever there is an involvement of a state in funding, planning,

managing, and moving resettlers, it is referred as planned resettlement. The distinction between spontaneous and planned resettlement refers to whether the resettlers are self-recruited or respond to the recruitment initiative of a sponsoring body (Thayer, 1998: 148-187).

As a result of different 'pull' and 'push' factors, people in one place may leave their original living area and conquer new land as to satisfy their needs. In some areas, construction of new roads may increase the conquest of new land areas and clearing of forests for agricultural purpose without any involvement of government and civic society in an informal manner (WB, 1990: 6). Here, it is very difficult to control the unexpected results on the new comers, indigenous community, and the environment. A range of explanatory factors appears to account for initiating spontaneous resettlement. There is considerable evidence, for example, that spontaneous resettlers have access to more resources than do the majority of the government sponsored settlers, most of them whom are poor and likely to be landless laborers or sharecroppers (Thayer, 1998: 154), because of having no formal organization the resource allocation among settlers is different. The evidence also suggests, without government or other external assistance spontaneous resettlement alone can hardly generate a process of integrated development.

Planned Resettlement: Planned resettlements, on the other hand, involve standard/ legal management and administration of new resettlement sites. It is different from spontaneous because they involve legal government bureaucracy of implementing such projects. The distinction between spontaneous and planned resettlement as Thayer (1998: 150) describes, has nothing to do with reasons or motivations for leaving the original residence for a new resettlement area. The other basic difference between spontaneous and planned resettlement is that; in spontaneous resettlement, settlers lack legal access to land and secure land tenure.

Voluntary and Involuntary Resettlement: Resettlement takes two forms: voluntary and involuntary/ forced. Voluntary resettlement has issues of legality, legitimacy, consent of settlers, and participation of settlers on planning and implementation of the program. On

the contrary, involuntary resettlement may take issues of legality but is not based on the willingness of the settlers or at the best interest of the people who are moved. In voluntary resettlement projects, the cost of providing potable water supplies, social infrastructure, agricultural extension services, and road construction between farms and markets were internalized as line items within project budget (John, 1999: 86), thus, these activities were designed and implemented as building blocks of a larger process of social and economic development.

According to Cernea (1992: 7), the basic difference between the two forms of resettlement is that: voluntary resettlement involves pre-selection of settlers; some programs develop formal screening criteria so that only the strong families, those likely to readjust and succeed, are selected for the program. On the contrary, involuntary resettlement lacks all the above, everybody must be resettled, including the old, weak, the infirm, and the incomplete family households (Cernea, 1992: 7); here the program is a must for those resettled, which might adversely affect the outcome of the program and the livelihood of the settlers. Hence, involuntary resettlement, for such people, is the only or sole option for them; it places no and leaves no any other alternative, other than to give up their original (current) area of living. However, very confusing to differentiate the two forms of resettlement; Guggenheim (1994: 3), clearly stated that "Nevertheless, the boundary between voluntary and involuntary resettlement is often blurred. There is a porousness of the distinction...involuntary resettlement is often easier to isolate from other forms of human movements in theory than in fact."

For many of the confusions created regarding *voluntary* and *involuntary* resettlements, Gebre's (2002) model of resettlement clearly show the major forms of population movements. As the figure below shows, voluntary resettlement can be either induced or voluntary, which is between the other two forms of resettlement. Induced voluntarism occurs when people leave their place to resettle elsewhere due to deliberate acts of inducement by outside agencies (Gebre, 2002: 271). In this case, resettlers will be provided decision making and other policies by agencies or governments in many cases, aimed to secure foreign financial aids. According to Gebre, in case of compulsory resettlement

people embrace forced removal out of desperation, and when voluntarily resettled people are denied the right to leave the resettlement area. In Chewaka, even if claimed as voluntary, it denies the right of resettlers to return back to their previous area of living. Resettlers are allowed to return home within two years from the date of arrival in the new resettlement areas.

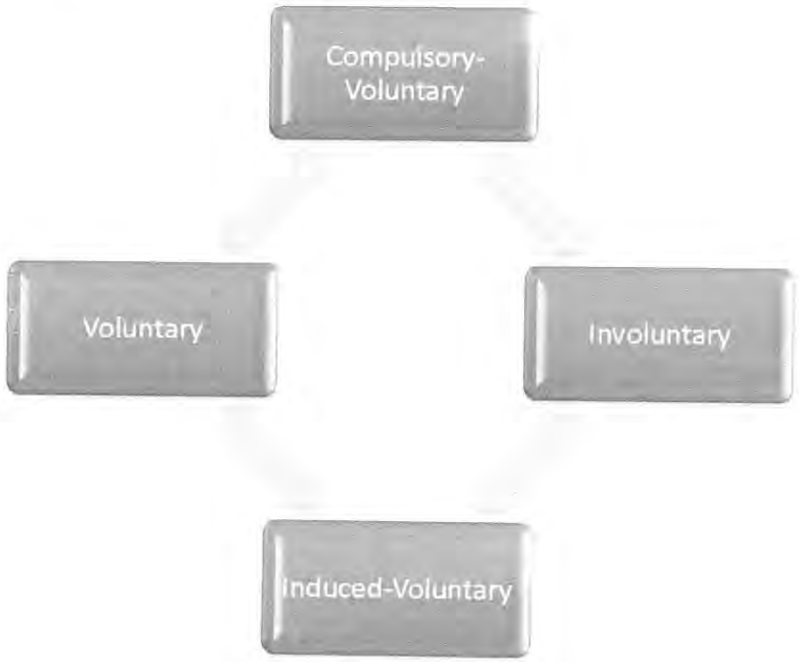


Figure 2.1 Model of Population Movements

Source: Gebre (2002)

Voluntary settlers see an attraction in the new sites that makes them willing to tackle the risks and uncertainties of a new environment, on the other hand, involuntary resettlers have no say in whether they move; the forcible expropriation of their land implies their relocation (Cernea, 1992: 8). It does not mean that all involuntary resettlement programs resulted in worsening the livelihood of resettlers, however, evidences show that things happen on the contrary. The success of involuntary resettlement in terms of restoring settlers' income seems largely dependent on planning and implementation (John, 1998: 108-117). Due to great attention in planning and implementation, as John (1999: 117) discusses, China appears to have an exception, which project planners gave equal attention

and priority to voluntary and involuntary resettlement and handling involuntary resettlement as a genuine opportunity for development rather than as an additional burden caused by the project activity triggering resettlement.

2.1.2 The Rationale behind Resettlement

Resettlement is generally aimed at attaining what is officially stated as the 'Public Good', the underlying motives initiating the exercise may not be necessarily and always be congruent with the officially –stated primarily goal (Kasahun, 2000: 123). The raison d'être behind resettlement is highly dependent on different factors like the type of the program, the type and extent of the problem to be addressed through resettlement, the political, social, economical, and cultural organization of a given nation or region, and other related factors. Resettlement might be induced as to distribute land to the landless, reduce the burden of people's activity on a given area, promotion of regional development through investment, reducing the tension (political) and so on.

Settlement or resettlement projects have been undertaken with the aim of relieving population pressure and land shortage, and promoting land consolidation and sound agriculture in areas of high population density (Dessalegn, 2003: 1), the basic of conquering a new area is developing agricultural land, and reducing the stress on an environment as a result of dense population. In addition, it aimed at natural resource distribution of nationals/ settlers, as to promote growth and development; which the economic activity of the resettlers is highly dependent on agriculture or natural resource-land and the like. Nations, mostly developing countries, relieve population pressure on land through resettlement. Resettlement on the other hand, will be commenced rehabilitating population, which are affected by a natural disaster, war/conflict/ tension, and unfavorable climate hazard for leading a normal life. In Ethiopia, during 1980s, the government opted resettlement as a means of rehabilitating people living in high draught areas and solving the problem of famine, which took a lot of human and animal lives (John, 1986: 37). Resettlement is increasingly becoming an attractive as a way out of pressing problems caused by food shortage, land fragmentation, population pressure, rampant unemployment, marginality of land and decline in land productivity (Kasahun, 2000: 200).

The economic, social, cultural, political, and environmental factors of a given area dictate the reason behind undertaking spontaneous/ planned and voluntary/ involuntary resettlement programs. Each of the above factors contributes for the objective of resettlement programs, in addition, other than the above reasons, resettlement program may be undertaken to check or redirect population migration, to reverse movement by opposing groups. In some instances, governments have restored to forced resettlement as a punitive measure against social groups disfavored by ruling authorities; in such instances, the population is often banished to resource poor regions, or regions hardly suitable for human habitation (Desalegn, 2003: 126).

2.1.3 The Benefits of Resettlement

Spontaneous resettlement, whatever the circumstances leading to resettlement, being undertaken solely at the motivation of the settlers is clearly for their own benefit (Wood, 1977: 39). It is the one who initiates the process that can receive the out come. Incase of government/ state sponsored resettlement scheme, the government will get the benefit solely, especially if the program is implemented to punish those who oppose the government. In cases where resettlement has been undertaken partly at the behest of some agency or government body may well seek to benefit others besides the settlers and may even ignore ensuring that the settlers are among the beneficiaries (Wood, 1977: 37).

In many developing countries, resettlement programs are undertaken as to solve the problem of food insecurity, which highly benefit- if participatory in planning and implementation- the settlers, host community, and the government. In areas where there is severe land degradation resulting in low productivity, resettlement will be taken as the sole option to restore people's livelihood.

The many features of resettlement programs have the following benefits: reduction of famine and hunger, better access to land and other resources, better access to infrastructure, relieving population pressure on land and the environment and hence solving pressure on the environment, improved production and income, rationalizing of resources by developing 'new' or 'underutilized' lands, rehabilitating the population, which

are affected by natural disaster, war/conflict/ tension, and unforeseeable climate hazard, reducing unemployment, through mechanization of agricultural new settlements, making pastoralists or nomads to involve in sedentarization, hence resulting in reduced risk on food shortage and poverty, new job opportunities for indigenous people through better provision of services and resulting increased income, and reduced/ removal of foreign/ external assistance, which will lead to diminished dependency syndrome.

2.1.5 Food Security: Definitions, Concepts and Theories

It was in 1980s that the concept "food security" becomes an important issue in world forums, policy programs, declarations, and development activities. The roots of concern with food security can be traced back to the world food crisis of 1972-74 (Simon and Frankensberg, 1992:4), world oil crisis of 1972-74, and the African famine of 1984-85. The more the concerns and problems occur the complex defining the term and tackling the problem, hence, over time a large number of different definitions have been proposed. There are approximately 200 definitions and 450 indicators of food security (John, 1999:1), but according to Maxwell and Frankensberg's (1992) report there are 194 different studies on the concept and definition of food insecurity and 172 studies on indicators. The eclectic and wide-ranging character of "food security" makes it a powerful tool of integration and synthesis-but also creates the possibility of conceptual confusion (Simon and Frankensberg, 1992:11).

In their technical review paper on household food security: concepts, indicators, and measurements, Simon and Frankensberg, (1992: 35-47), discuss 32 definitions of food security by different scholars and international organizations. Most stress on similar issues, like 'access by all people at all times' for discussion purpose the major ones are presented below.

- Availability at all times of adequate world supplies of basic food stuffs...., to sustain a steady expansion of food consumption ... and to offset fluctuations in production and prices
- A basket of food, nutritionally adequate, culturally acceptable, procured in keeping with human dignity and enduring over time

- Access by all people at all times to enough food for an active, healthy life
- The self-perceived ability of household members to provision themselves with adequate food through whatever means
- Access to food, adequate in quantity and quality, to fulfill nutritional requirements for all household members throughout the year

Almost all definitions summarized by Simon and Frankenberger stress on accessibility, availability, quality and quantity, time, and cultural acceptability of food consumed. However, food security is more than the above; especially in developing countries, where it is something that social, cultural, political, and economical aspects are reflected. It is shown at individual, household, local/regional, national, and international wise. Recent definition by UNCDF (2007: 2) shows that food security is composed of three major pillars: availability, accessibility, and utilization of food items. The 1996 (FAO: 2) Rome Declaration on World Food Security defined food security as: Food that is available at all times, to which all persons have means of access that is nutritionally adequate in terms of quantity and quality and variety, and is accepted within given culture. Even if the latest and more explanatory and descriptive definition by FAO, it lacks some basic issues like means of acquiring food items, whether through own production , purchasing or food aid, and produced with environmentally sustainable ways.

For clarity, this study adopts the definition by FAO (1996) with some modifications. Hence, food security is:

> Food that is available to everyone *(Universality)* at all times *with sustained access (Sustainability), through normal means of acquiring (not from emergency food assistance programs, Dignity),* enough for a healthy life (Quantity), safe and nutritious *(Quality),* acceptable and appropriate in a given culture, *and produce in environmentally sustainable way* (FAO, 1996: 2) [Emphasis added].

This term can be used with a focus on food related issues on a number of levels, from global to regional food security, national, household, and individual. Hence, the above definition has concepts like, universality, dignity, quantity, quality, time, cultural acceptability,

sustainability, accessibility, availability, utilization, affordability, and environment sustainability of food.

Food Insecurity: is a situation either 'temporary' for a short period of time or 'chronic' deep-rooted and a long period condition, where a household or individual unable to get the minimum amount of food intake at all times, within normal channel of acquisition, acceptable to its culture, and in a sustainable manner. According to Phillips and Taylor (1990: 5), food insecurity exists when members of a household have an inadequate diet for part or all of the year or face the possibility of an inadequate diet in the future. It is lack of enough food, both in quantity and quality, to lead a normal life; temporary or for a long period of time. "Food Insecure people are those individuals whose food intake falls below their minimum calorie (energy) requirements, as well as those who exhibit physical symptoms caused by energy and nutrient deficiencies resulting from an inadequate or unbalanced diet of infection or disease" (WFP, 2005: 3).

Household Food Security: According to Von Braun (1992: 12), household food security rests on four major components, *quantitative* (enough food), *qualitative* (absence of non-nutritious and unsafe food), *psychological* (anxiety free about food supply or stress free-associated with trying to meet daily food needs), and *social* (having to acquire of food through socially acceptable means). The existence of food insecure household is an example of the absence of *universal* access to food by all people, where the household has unstable access to food, unacceptable food intake both in quality and culturally, relying on charitable assistance like buying food on credit, food for work programs, direct food aid, in some instances stealing. Therefore, a food secure household is: having access to food, which is acceptable in quantity and quality under defined time horizon (because sometimes things unacceptable in quality and quantity due to cultural, social, political, and economical transformation might be changed), acquired under normal channels, safe and nutritious, and sustainable.

Community Food Security: It is the social and economic impact that has arisen in the last decade on community food security. Community food security not only stresses

sustainability of food systems but can extend its reach to issues of social justice, self-reliance and community economic development including an emphasis on organization and cooperation among all players in local or regional food systems (Von Braun, 1992: 13). Hence, community food security is broad in its concept than household food security.

National Food Security: "It is a function of the ability of the country's production, marketing, trade and institutional systems to provide a continuously adequate supply of food to inhabitants even in times of adverse domestic production and international marketing conditions. It, therefore, depends on such critical factors as internal food production, income generation and distribution, foreign exchange, earning capacity, provision on availability of storage and transportation, distribution, distribution facilities for meeting seasonal and emergency food need plus other factors that might affect the maintenance and improvement of per capita food consumption" (Chisholm and Tyers, 1982: 156).

Vulnerability: according to WFP (2005:1), vulnerability is- the full range of factors that place at risk of becoming food-insecure. The degree of vulnerability of individuals, households or groups of people is determined by their exposure to the risk factors and their ability to cope with or withstand stressful situations. However, vulnerability is more than the above, complex, it adds relationship between risks, ability to cope, and actions taken before, during and after events that affect food security. Hence, vulnerability, when analyzed its relation with the probability of experiencing welfare loss due to unforeseen and sudden events, not only depends on exposure to risk and ability to cope with such events (uncertain events), but also on proactive (ability to reduce risks before shock occurs) and reactive (to respond effectively during and after such occurrences) measures.

2.2 Theoretical Perspective and Conceptual Framework

2.2.1 Theoretical Perspective and Conceptual Framework on Resettlement

While analyzing the impact of resettlement, it is easy to identify both success and failure based on experiences from different countries. The achievements lead to benefit both the resettled and stakeholders involved in the program, on the contrary, many programs end

up with increasing or widening the problem to be solved, like livelihood distraction rather than livelihood improvement. The fundamental causes for the prevailing crisis in the resettlement program are not just poor management but rather misunderstanding of the complexities involved, and the dearth of sound and workable policies to guide the large number of operations necessary in undertaking of this sort (Dessalegn, 2003: 57).

Different theories and models are provided by different scholars and intuitions concerning resettlement. Over the years, different scholars, students, and institutions designed different conceptual framework regarding human settlements. To start with pioneers; in the late 1960s, Chambers (1969) identified three-stage general model in the evolution of land settlement schemes in Africa. His work can be regarded as the pioneer regarding human settlements, particularly both forced and voluntary human settlements in Africa. However, by taking Chambers' model, Nelson (1973) confirmed this pattern in a synthesis of many experiences with land settlements in developing countries, particularly Latin America. Even if better in describing some issues about human settlements in developing countries, both models- Chambers' and Nelson's- were criticized by generalizing the experience of voluntary resettlers. Moreover, these models concentrate on the institutional and organizational dimensions of resettlement. As a result, they can not be taken as a model for analyzing the overall impact of resettlement program on resettlers, host community, and the environment.

Even if highly criticized, the model formulated by Scudder and Colson in 1982, gives a clear theoretical model regarding human settlement processes. In the conceptual framework, they presented how communities, households, and individuals can be expected to respond to resettlement. The Scudder-Colson framework was built around a key concept "stage", which focuses on recruitment, transition, development, and incorporating/handling over of resettlement projects. In all these stages, they showed the specific behavioral reactions of resettlers at each of the above stages. The framework, however, did not clearly articulate the major predictive impoverishment risks of resettlers. It also lacks the cumulative impacts of resettlement programs on resettlers, host community and the environment.

For analyzing the impoverishment risk and reconstruction framework concerning resettlement projects, the works of Cernea (2005, 2000, 1999, 1997, and 1992), clearly show the major dimensions of risks of resettlement on the different stakeholders. Cernea (1997) in his work "The Risk and Reconstruction Model for Resettling Displaced People; clearly stated eight most important dimensions of the risk of resettlement on settlers, the host community, and environment with their cumulative effects on these groups. Compared to the rest models on resettlement, Cernea's model has four major interlinked distinct functions regarding: (1) A Predictive (warning and planning) Function, (2) A Diagnostic (explanatory and assessment) Function, (3) A Problem-Resolution (guiding and measuring resettlers' reestablishment) Function, and (4) A Research (formulation of hypothesis and conducting theory-led field investigation) Functions. The major aim of this study is to assess the role of resettlement in alleviating the problem of food insecurity; as a result the model provided by Cernea can be taken as a point of reference for many of the issues in this study. Aimed at assessing the role of resettlement, however, the conceptual framework used in this study concentrates on food security, which is discussed below this section. Therefore, Cernea's model regarding resettlement will be discussed for the purpose of analyzing some of the major problems resettlers in the study area, Chewaka resettlement area, face. Hence, the eight impoverishment risks model by Cernea and other two risks by two scholars that resettlers will face is discussed below and matched with resettlers of Chewaka resettlement area.

1. Landlessness- *Expropriation of land removes the main foundation upon which people's productive systems, commercial activities, and livelihoods are constructed. This is the principal form of de capitalization and pauperization of displaced people, as they lose both natural and man-made capital.*

Landlessness might not be resulted in resettlement areas due to decreased land sizes as a result of resettling to a new areas, but also decrease/loss of land productivity when compared to previous area of living. In Chewaka, majority of the resettlers acquired land from the government easily, even if some get a land size below their previously possession. The major problem/ risk is that the productivity of the land to different types of crops.

Resettlers in Chewaka were producing different types of cereals, cash crops, fruits and vegetables both for consumption and sale. Currently, fertility of the land to different food items hindered addressing food insecurity in the area difficult.

2. Joblessness- *The risk of losing wage employment is very high both in urban and rural displacements for those employed in enterprises, services, or agriculture. Yet, creating new jobs is difficult and requires substantial investment. Unemployment or underemployment among resettlers often endures long after physical relocation has been completed.*

Even if all resettlers settled in Chewaka are farmers, loss of job related to unemployment or underemployment was experienced. In the previous area of living, resettlers were engaged in trade and other off-farm income generating activities. Due to weak market integration, limited amount and type of produce, limited infrastructural and institutional arrangements, resettlers are forced to loss one of the above income generating activities/ employment schemes.

3. Homelessness- *Loss of shelter tends to be only temporary for many resettlers; but, for some, homelessness or a worsening in their housing standards remains a lingering condition. In a broader cultural sense, loss of a family's individual home and the loss of a group's cultural space tend to result in alienation and status-deprivation. For refugees, homelessness and "placelessness" are intrinsic by definition.*

None of the sampled resettler in Chewaka found homeless. However, it was identified that the housing condition was very poor than the standard, and even very low than previously owned houses. In previous area of living, resettlers reported having better housing facilities, which was built from a land acquired from parents or purchased from land markets. In addition, due to good trade practices they built a standard houses. There was also a serious sanitation problem in the current place of living.

4. Marginalization- *Marginalization occurs when families lose economic power and spiral on a "downward mobility" path. Middle-income farm households do not become landless, they become small landholders; small shopkeepers and craftsmen downsize and*

slip below poverty thresholds. Many individuals cannot use their earlier acquired skills at the new location; human capital is lost or rendered inactive or obsolete. Economic marginalization is often accompanied by social and psychological marginalization, expressed in a drop in social status, in resettlers' loss of confidence in society and in themselves, a feeling of injustice, and deepened vulnerability. The coerciveness of displacement and the victimization of resettlers tend to depreciate resettlers' self-image, and they are often perceived by host communities as a socially degrading stigma.

Both resettlers and host communities speak the same language, however, different religions -reflected on a varied cultural and custom practice. None of the resettlers experienced marginalization from the host community. However, all resettlers lost their confidence of using their previously acquired skills at the new location. As a result of environmental and biophysical differences between the departing and host areas, agricultural practices and other human capital assets are lost or become obsolete. Moreover, there are a feeling of injustice among resettlers and existence of deepened vulnerability. Marginalization in Chewaka also identified due to loss of off-farm income sources.

5. Food Insecurity- *Forced uprooting increases the risk that people will fall into temporary or chronic undernourishment, defined as calorie-protein intake levels below the minimum necessary for normal growth and work.*

In many literatures one of the major consequences of resettlement programs is food insecurity and undernourishment. The major objective of resettling people in Chewaka is to alleviate food insecurity. Even if the level differs there were some improvements in the studied areas. Particularly, there were improvements regarding total production, which have positive implications on the food status of resettlers. Nonetheless, there are nutrition-related risks. Resettlers are not taking staple and preferred food items in Chewaka and none of the resettlers consume nutrient items on a regular basis. The food security situation of resettlers is discussed in detail in chapter five of this study.

6. Increased Morbidity and Mortality- *Massive population displacement threatens to cause serious declines in health levels. Displacement-induced social stress and psychological trauma are sometimes accompanied by the outbreak of relocation-related illnesses, particularly parasitic and vector-born diseases such as malaria and schistosomiasis. Unsafe water supply and improvised sewage systems increase vulnerability to epidemics and chronic diarrhea, dysentery, etc. The weakest segments of the demographic spectrum-infants, children, and the elderly-are affected most strongly.*

One of the major consequences of under nutrition both in quantity and quality is that the increased number of children being affected by lack of vitamin, food contamination, low food intake, and other food related health problems. A result from DPPC (2004) shows high mortality and morbidity rates among children. One of the major reasons for a high rates of morbidity and mortality is that limited access to nutrient food items, low income, which again a consequence of limited income sources and opportunities, incidence of malaria, limited availability and utilization of health institutions, and other infrastructural and institutional problems. Moreover, absence of preventive health measures, parasitic and vector-borne diseases caused by unsafe and insufficient potable water supplies and sanitary systems affected the health situation of resettlers in Chewaka.

7. Loss of Access to Common Property and Resources- *For poor people, particularly for the landless and assetless, loss of access to the common property assets that belonged to relocated communities (pastures, forested lands, water bodies, burial grounds, quarries, etc.) results in significant deterioration in income and livelihood levels. Typically, losses of common property assets are not compensated by governments.*

None of the resettlers experience loss of access to the nearby common resources. The major reason is that the distance between the host community and resettlers in terms of ownership over these resources. In addition, the number and area of the resettlement reduced the above risk. However, lack of knowledge over the current common resources, resettlers are misusing the resources. There is serious cutting and burning of forests, which belong to the host community and resettlers, aimed at increasing total food production from increased land size.

8. Social Disarticulation- *Forced displacement tears apart the existing social fabric. It disperses and fragments communities, dismantles patterns of social organization and interpersonal ties; kinship groups become scattered as well. Life-sustaining informal networks of reciprocal help, local voluntary associations, and self-organized mutual service are disrupted. This is a net loss of valuable "social capital," that compounds the loss of natural, physical, and human capital (discussed previously). The social capital lost through social disarticulation is typically unperceived and uncompensated by the programs causing it, and this real loss has long-term consequences.*

Except some social problems, there is no risk related to social disarticulation in Chewaka.

In recent times, scholars found out other risks of resettlement like loss of education, where relocation often interrupts schooling and some children never return to school; after displacement, as a result of losses in family income, many children are drafted into labor market earlier than what would otherwise occur. In Chewaka, risk of loss of education was identified. It can be regarded as one of the major problem in Chewaka. Both quantity and quality of education found insufficient and poor. The other dimension is risk to the host community by which the indigenous or receiving populations are affected as a result of the resettlement program. According to Gebere (2003: 102), governments, policy makers, funding agencies, and displacement researchers overlook the risk to these groups. The problem to the host community will be certain to happen in Chewaka as a result of increased clearance of forests as increase cultivable land. Particularly, the problem will be among the second generations of the host and resettlers.

The above all risks include income and non-income dimensions of impoverishment, such as assets impoverishment, housing impoverishment, health, nutrition and educational impoverishment, loss of organization, and powerlessness. During displacement, people lose capital in all its forms-natural capital, man-made capital, human and social capital. Actions to safeguard against such capital losses are indispensable, but more than only safeguarding is required. Therefore, whenever resettlement program is undertaken it should be multidimensional, which can benefit all stakeholders and must be environment friendly,

the major risk to all persons in that particular area and surrounding; as to entertain the desired out come from it.

2.2.2 Theoretical Perspective and Conceptual Framework on Food Security

In particular, the discussion that follows focuses primarily on household and individual level food security. However, it should be understood that national, regional, and global food security issues have their own role on individual and household food security situation.

This study adopts determinants of food security in developing nations designed by John Hoddinot (1999) for IFPRI Technical Guideline as a conceptual framework. It starts by considering household food security situation, which is reflected by three pillars: availability, access, and utilization. According to WFP, Food Security Guideline (2004: 1-10), these dimensions or elements of food security refer to:

1. **Food Availability:** - is the amount of food that is physically present in a country or area through all forms of domestic production, commercial imports and food aid.
2. **Food Access:**-is a household's ability to regularly acquire adequate amounts of food through a combination of their own stock and home production, purchase, barter, gift or borrowing.
3. **Food Utilization:** - has two components-(a) households' use of food to which they have access (b) individuals' ability to absorb nutrients, it is the ability-biological utilization-that a human body to take and translate food into either energy that is used to undertake daily activities or is stored (John, 1999: 5).

However, all these components are not separate elements for attaining food security. With food availability and access, if a household lacks food utilization then it cannot be said food secured. Hence, a household will be referred to as food secured, if and only if, it satisfies all the three elements. Secondly, each component has its own division or sub-component that can either directly or indirectly affect one of the three dimensions. For example, household access to food is dependent on resources; again household resource acquisition is dependent on household capital, knowledge, and prices of resources. On the other hand,

adequate access to resources and food can be achieved without household being self-sufficient in food production, what is important here is households' ability to generate sufficient income, in collaboration with own food production, to meet food needs.

Three important environments (1) frame the framework, the physical, which dictates the household's food availability, access, and acquisition, since most farmers in rural areas relied on the physical environment, land. The other two are social and policy environment, where building a favorable social environment enable development practitioners in (a) optimum use of resources, (b) easy acceptance, design, and implementation of development interventions, (c) sustainable food production system, and (d) coordination and cooperation between groups. In addition, government policies towards the agricultural sector will have strong effect on the design and implementation of household food security interventions.

Resource endowments of a particular household is divided into two broad categories (2), labor and capital, where labor is either know-how (including formal training on agricultural production, formal schooling, training on resource utilization, informal knowledge obtained from trial and error, family member learning, past farming experiences, informal discussions/ talk with friends, peer group, observation from other people, and so on) or physical appearance and capital, by their very nature are tangible and can be put into production directly are: land, either for harvesting or pasture, tools for agricultural and non-agricultural production, livestock, financial resources, other assets that a household posses, which can produce food and generate income to the household. Household endowments both capital (working and physical) and human capital, are allocated into three different activities (3): food production, food items produced for own consumption, that is household food consumption, cash crop production, production meant for sale, and other income generating activities, also referred as off-farm activities. Transfers, either from other households or some public body, the state or NGOs, also determines household source of income. Household face a set of prices (4) that determines what level of consumption can be supported by this level of income (John, 1999: 7). As an

example, food price subsidies, rationing, and food aid, have their own positive and adverse impact on the level of household consumption and income.

In the flow chart, consumption is divided between those goods that affect household and individual food security and all other goods (5). "Those goods (6)that will affect food security include food consumption, or acquisition, at the household level, referred to as food access in much of the food security literature—goods directly related to health care (e.g., medicines), and goods that affect the health environment, such as shelter, sanitation, and water. These three goods, together with knowledge and practice of good nutritional and health practices—called 'care behaviors'—and the public health environment (for example, the available of publicly provided potable water), affect illness and individual food intake, which, in turn, generates nutritional status or food utilization. Stars are placed beside the household food acquisition, food intake, and food utilization boxes to emphasize these are food security and nutrition outcomes" (John 1999: 9).

Finally, points denoted by the dashed lines (7), show second round or feedback effects. As NGOs and Private Voluntary Groups (PVGs) are likely to involve in community participation, they can be effective in finding sustainable solutions as well in mobilizing community resources to tackle food insecurity issues.

However a very descriptive conceptual framework on food security and development interventions in developing countries, it lacks other dimensions of food security and development interventions. Particularly it glosses over issues like animal health, which is very important in the food security situation of a household in developing countries, land development activities, family planning, where there is high population growth in developing nations affecting the food security and the environment at large, gender mainstreaming activities, coping strategies expansion and strengthening, and other capacity building activities of the rural people. Moreover, social and financial capital issues are glossed over in the framework, which have as important role as other components of food security in the framework; where this study will give equal emphasis as other food security components of a household.

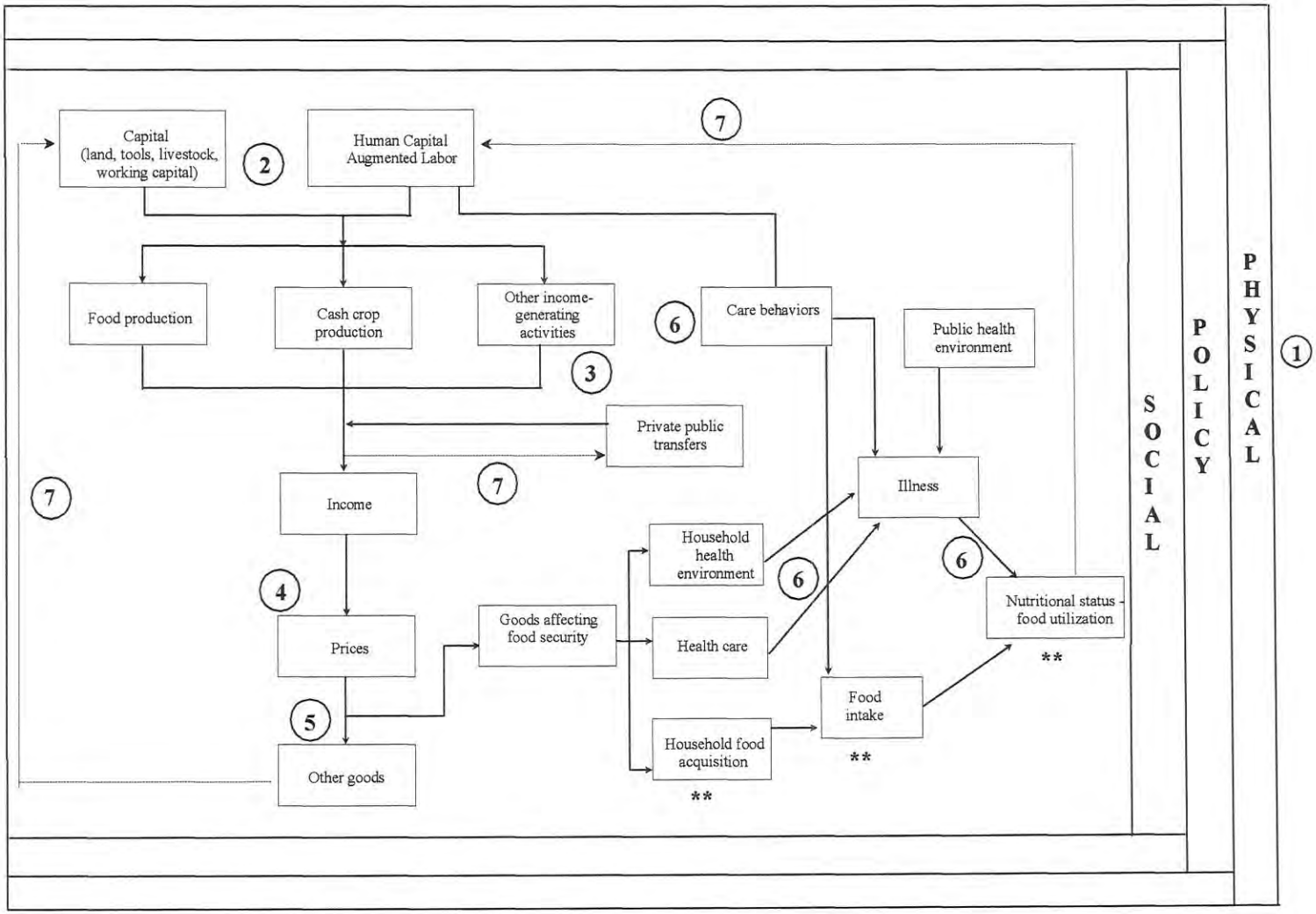


Figure 2.2 Conceptual Framework on Determinants of Food Security

Source: John Hodinot (1999)

2.3 Empirical Studies on Planned Resettlement Program

2.3.1 African Resettlement Experience

While compared to Sub-Sahara African (SSA) planned resettlement program, Ethiopian resettlement programs are due to existence of chronic food insecurity, high population pressure, and land degradation. SSA resettlement program have two features: development induced resettlement and resettlement caused by social and political unrest/ conflicts.

According to Cernea (1997: 5), 'currently, however, Africa's most important forced displacements are not caused by development programs, but these triggered by social and political causes such as wars and civil wars, ethnic, racial and/or religious persecutions, or by natural causes such as droughts and famines.'

Planned resettlement has been tried in many countries. Results both positive and negative are also diverse from region to region. Planed land settlement has been tried in countries as diverse as Kenya, Tanzania, Ghana, Senegal, Zimbabwe, Burkina Faso, Egypt and Ethiopia (Chambers, 1973; Dieci and Viezzoli, 1992; Lassalily-Jacob, 1992, 1994 cited in Cernea 1997: 6-7). Most of development induced resettlement programs, particularly during 1970's and 80's were carried by World Bank and the size of the number of people affected varies from project to project and from country to country.

The relative size of some of dam-caused displacements reveals more about resettlement in Africa than the absolute numbers (Cernea, 1997: 7). According to Cernea, displacements caused in Africa by the Akosombo, Kossou or Kariba dams have affected a much higher proportion of the country's total population than the displacements caused in Asia by even the biggest dams of the continent visa-a-vis the total population of those countries.

Many planned resettlement schemes did improve the welfare/ well-being of participants. However, many evidences from different schemes show results fallen short of expectations. The evidences from these countries show the major characteristics of African resettlement program: many of them caused by social and political tensions rather than development induced, expectations are unrealistically high and objectives are very broad, complex

political, social, and economic forces have been involved in such programs, very low involvement of the private sector and NGOs, and insufficient measurement of outcomes. Planning has traditionally centered on removing (displacing) people from the site of the main project, and only addressed resettlers' reestablishment as a second priority (Cernea, 1997: 14). In addition, state resettlement agencies often lack explicit policies, norms, and guidelines for reestablishing people productively, and focus primarily on expropriation without clearly stated livelihood restoration goals.

The Kariba Case Study

As discussed earlier most African resettlement projects/programs are the result of social and political causes such as wars and civil wars, ethnic, racial and/or religious persecutions, or by natural causes such as droughts and famines.' However, there are a number of cases where resettlement has been undertaken for the purpose of development. Particularly, planned resettlements in Africa are initiated for dam construction, hydropower and irrigation projects. As an example Akosombo, Kossou, Aswan, or Kariba are the major ones. In this particular study, the case of Kariba dam is presented. Implemented in British Colonial Africa in the 1950s, the Kariba Dam project is an important case study for numerous reasons (Scudder, 2005). It was the first mainstream dam on the Zambezi River and also the first large dam in Africa financed by the World Bank. Moreover, it was the first dam in the tropics and sub-tropics studied by independent researchers throughout the project cycle, with that research providing planners with important information and lessons (Scudder, 2005: 1).

A bi-national project, Kariba was the largest project implemented to date in both Zambia and Zimbabwe (Scudder, 2005: 5). Serious planning for the Zambezi Basin began in 1946; however, it took nearly 10 years to start construction. There were a lot of problems that hindered implementing the project. The problem of finance was the major problem; however, being not found in a single territory highly affected the project. According to Scudder (2005:4) the history of Kariba project between the 1950s and the recent has been influenced by a number of unexpected events that make a difficult evaluation of

effectiveness even more difficult. Changes in governments, which resulted changes in political and economical aspects of these countries have influenced the project. Particularly, the second stage of the project highly influenced by independent movements and declarations. Moreover, increased demand of power by these newly independent countries, Zambia and Zimbabwe, created conflict and stress over the use of the dam

Started before acquiring sufficient finance, Kariba dam was meant to serve the two countries and other southern and central African countries. Many financial institutions were involved in the funding of the project. Multilateral financial institutions like The World Bank were the major funding institutions. However, Barclays and Standard Banks and the Commonwealth Development Corporation were also involved.

A study made by Scudder (2005 and 1995), Cumanzula (2000), Colson (1979) and Frank (1959) clearly show the major benefits and problems of the Kariba dam as:

- ✓ Generation of electricity- particularly after the independence of Zambia and Zimbabwe, the increased demand over power has solved in a wide extent. From the two stage project of Kariba, it generates more than 2,025 Mega Watts of electric power for these countries. The cost of electricity is too low compared to other countries in the region. Direct beneficiaries were the mining industries and other industries in both countries as well as their employees. Moreover, Zimbabwe was able to develop a wider range of electricity-intensive industries including fertilizer production (Scudder 2005: 8).
- ✓ Fisheries- the other benefit both acquired and expected is the fisheries potential of Kariba dam. The fisheries potential that dam reservoirs have for subsistence and commercial fishing by immigrants and local residents, and for recreational fishing. The reservoir serves as for not only domestic consumption but also as a source of foreign exchange for the fishermen.
- ✓ Tourism- as a major source of income Kariba dam is serving both the resettlers and the host community. The central governments from the two countries are getting foreign exchange from this industry.

However, there are many socio-economic, political and environmental problems within and surrounding the environment of the dam. Starting form 1957 there was an intensive clearance of forests and bush areas. In addition, indigenous people were dislocated from there area of living, particularly areas where they sustain their livelihood. Kariba involved unacceptable environmental and social impacts, especially unacceptable adverse impacts on 57,000 resettlers and irreversible impacts on the delta and other wetlands of the Zambezi River (Scudder, 2005: 0). Since the starting time of the construction, no attempt was made to rescue the wildlife of the area. Unexpected impacts also led to serious wildlife problem; particularly due to the spread of aquatic weed the fishery environment was highly affected.

Most of the studies made in the dam reveal that there were no tsetse flies affecting the cattle population. However after the establishment of the dam and relocations of farmers, the cattle population was seriously affected, which again increased the risk of impoverishment of many who are engaged in agriculture and pasturalism.Because of inadequate land for resettlement purpose on the area and the continuation of the resettlers' pre-dam system of land use, serious degradation has occurred in the most populated resettlement areas. There was deep-rooted problem of physical removal of the environmental aspects in the area and multidimensional stress regarding the project. To wind up, the dam was criticized of creating hardships and stress like socio-cultural, economical, and political within and between host communities, resettlers, and nations.

2.3.2 Empirical Studies on Ethiopian Planned Resettlement Program

The very agreed intention of resettlement program in Ethiopia is existence of chronic food insecurity, famine; drought, high population growth, environmental degradation, and land fragmentation are the major ones. During the imperial period planned resettlements aimed at utilizing idle land and water resources for development, and addressing the concern of landless peasants, unemployed persons, and people affected by drought and overcrowding (Eshetu and Teshome, 1988: 168 cited in Gebre, 2003: 104). Similarly the military government's resettlement objectives were to prevent famine, reduce demographic

pressures in densely populated and highly denuded highlands, and promote agricultural production in sparsely populated lowlands (Gebre, 2003: 104). The intention of the current government's resettlement program is to solve chronic food insecurity through better access to improved land. Empirical studies show that all the four programs undertaken by the three governments are divided into success and failure outcomes.

Success Stories: Kasahun (2000: 141) in his study on resettlement program of Humera come up with the following success stories:

- Settler households managed to support themselves by meeting family food requirements and other needs through use of products obtained from their farms
- Dependency on external support in the settlements has been effectively discontinued following the termination of assistance, provided *ad-interim*, in accordance with the terms of prior arrangements.
- Institutional assistance provided by involved actors in the form of service facilities, land resources, agricultural inputs and consumables was crucial in bringing about the ability to cater for oneself, and this could have been difficult (if not totally possible) in the absence of organized support.
- Apart from meeting the basic requirements for the maintaining adequate family life, institutional support has enabled settler households to finance community infrastructural development endeavors
- Conditions of life in the settlements have been found to be better when compared to situations in both the original home villages (prior to flight) and in exile (the Sudan). This is explained by the fact that the returnee-settlers were provided with larger and more fertile plots, which accounted for increased yield and, hence improved standard of living.

Failure/ Severe Outcomes: The conditions in the settlement sites were harsh, the settlers were dependent on food rations, but the government never managed to deliver enough, resulting starvation (Gebre, 2002: 34). According to Settlement Study Committee (1987: 17), out of the settled population of 613,698 by the end of 1986, an estimated number of 32,800 settlers died and 83,968 settlers defected in all resettlement areas. The program was heavily criticized for gross violation of human rights, forced separation of families, lack

of medical attention, very low consent by the host community and settlers, sever damage to the environment (especially forest), and other cultural, social, political, and economical problems.

The research undertaken by Alemneh in 1992, Pankrust in 1987-88 and by John in 1987 reveals the major problem of the program and its impact on the livelihood of settlers as:

- From the very beginning resettlement was envisaged as a solution, almost a panacea, for a wide variety of social and economic problems, instead of being designed as a specific and limited measure to meet specific objective.
- The existence of misunderstanding of the complexities involved in resettlement program, and the dearth of sound and workable policies to guide the large number of operations necessary in an undertaking of the program.
- A multifaceted resettlement program is, under the existing circumstances, unrealistic if not utopian from the point of view of rational resources.
- The program has suffered because it over-extended itself: if attempted to do too many things, involved too many disparate social groups, and sought to achieve too many goals simultaneously.
- "The large-scale settlement scheme was hastily prepared resulting clearing of large amounts of forest land in sparsely populated areas, huge estates of 8,000 to 20,000 hectares of land, with 6,000 to 16,000 heads of household were broken down into smaller units of 1,000 to 2,000 hectares and about 500 heads of household. These peasants were transformed overnight into daily workers on a modern farm with little understanding of the system" (Alemneh, 1992:101).
- In some exception, all settlers failed attaining the desired self-sufficiency, and many found highly impoverished, starved than before, and loss of lives due to malnutrition and disease like malaria and cholera.
- Since the resettlement was heterogeneous in its nature, there was deep-rooted hostility between the Amharas and Tigreans by the local groups, particularly Oromos.
- All empirical studies reveal the resettlement program poses an enormous threat to the environment. The government cleared forests as to settle a large number of settlers, and

again the settlers due to expansion of cultivable land and accusing the wildlife destroying their crops and threatening their families, destroyed the trees without much emphasis on its effect either by the government or by resettlers.

In some cases there were settlers not affected by the program. This happens to middle income settlers either settled involuntarily or deceived by the government to leave their original place of living. "Many households were persuaded to leave for the settlement areas without having thought it through properly. The tales from the recruiting officials were persuading, the big attraction was the promise of plenty of land to everyone, and that their lands would be ploughed for them by tractor, their houses waiting for them with electricity and latrines" (Pankrust, 1992: 59). They came to new areas with better understanding of agricultural practice and money, which enabled them not to suffer rather sustain their life as before.

2.3.3 Empirical Studies on Chewaka Resettlement Program

To this date, in Chewaka three studies have been made. The first survey study was made by DPPC (2004) and the rest two were assessing the social, economic, and ecological impact of resettlement program for the partial fulfillment of acquiring Masters Degree in development studies. However, the first concentrates on nutrition survey of resettlers and the rest two on the general impact of the program, not the major intention of the government; solving the chronic food insecurity. Findings of DPPC and one thesis can be summarized as:

Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Commission (DPPC)-Nutrition Survey Report of Chewaka Resettlement Area (2004). The major objectives of the survey are to estimate the prevalence of acute malnutrition of children and its root causes, to identify the prevalence of disease among children, and to make necessary recommendations for intervention measures from a total sample of 933 children through cluster survey, whereby each cluster contains 30 samples.

The findings: poor health facilities, no school for children, no availability of all-weather road and availability of dry weather road but very difficult to use during rainy seasons, a small market place and very difficult to access big markets, problem of potable water supply, except that of late comers better provision of cooking utensils and for many poor housing conditions resulting to insect bit and cold, and availability of stores in all seven sites but not sufficient to accommodate the food items from spoilage and problem of stock market were the major findings.

The nutritional status of resettlers both children and main working adult is poor. Many children found severely malnourished and hence poor physical condition; this is also observed on adults particularly pregnant and lactating mothers. According to the survey result, children are seriously malnourished and immediate intervention is needed. There is poor availability of health facilities, high prevalence of illness, high under five mortality rates (2.65 deaths/10,000/day), lack of diversified diet and cooking utensils, inadequate potable water supply both in quantity and in quality. The study gives 11 major points as a recommendation and policy intervention priorities.

Evaluation of Resettlement Program in Ethiopia: The case of Oromiya, Chewaka Site Tesfaye (2007). The study selected a sample of 90 household heads from 12,390, for household survey. Its major findings are divided in to three major areas: social impact of the resettlement program, economic impact, and ecological impact. The social impact: it identified that the program is voluntary in its nature. As far as social infrastructure is concerned, it identified that there is inadequate availability and preparation of basic infrastructure before the arrival of resettlers. There is poor availability of education (1:157 teacher-student ratio), health service (malaria is regarded as a major life treating and epidemic to the area), and poor access to potable water supply. In identifying the economic impact of the program, resettlers are engaged in crop production and their annual income on average is birr2, 347. However, due to poor access to market, means of production, and poor infrastructure, and poor transportation facilities, improvement of the major economic aspects of resettlers' is hindered. Generally, the program has an adverse impact on the ecosystem. The natural vegetation is declining rapidly as a result of expansion of farm plots

for crop production and grazing land for livestock, associated with increasing human and livestock population. Absence of alternative source of energy is also another factor for rapid declining of the natural vegetation.

2.4 Summary

Throughout the human history, human being moves from one area to another either willingly or forced. The increasing number of residents in collaboration the diminishing returns of natural resources force governments, international organizations, donors, and people at a particular area initiate resettlement. Such movement of people has its own impact, positive or adverse, on settlers, host community, planners, and the environment as a whole. The distinction between voluntary and involuntary resettlement is dependent on the agreement of settlers, planners, host community, and scholars. However, willingness, consent, and participation of stakeholders are the basic for voluntary resettlement. The two forms of resettlement either planned or spontaneous are different since the former is undertaken by the state or any other formal organization with formal procedures and consent of planners, where as not for the latter.

Food security is a multi-faceted concept, which has been variously defined and evolved significantly over time. However, in1980s the concept of food security appeared in international and national conferences as a result of food crisis, oil crisis and economic recession globally. Through time, different definitions have been given to food security and still give. Hence, issues of food availability, access, utilization, and affordability are the major issues that current programs, policies, conferences, and declarations stress on. The conceptual framework of this study also discussed the major issues of food security in developing countries with its connection to development intervention activities.

CHAPTER THREE

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF RESETTLEMENT INETHIOPIA

The discussion in this chapter is devoted to the historical background of resettlement program in Ethiopia. It starts by discussing spontaneous resettlement in Ethiopia, where the two major spontaneous movements by Oromos and Amharas is presented. With regard to planned resettlement, all the three governments' planned resettlement are discussed based on year of resettlement undertaken, rationale of the resettlement programs, and issues related to financing and impact of the program.

3.1 Spontaneous Resettlement in Ethiopia

Resettlement process in Ethiopia result from a combination of physical, political, socio-economic, administrative, technical and managerial phenomena rather than a biological one (Mengistu, 1992: 3). The two most important historical instances of resettlement are those of the northward expansion of the Oromo in the sixteen to eighteenth centuries, and the intermittent southward resettlement over the last millennium of Amharas, and to a lesser extent Tigreans, in association with the expansion of various kingdoms in the northern highlands (Wood, 1977: 48).

These two types of resettlement, from south to north and west by the Oromo and from north to south by the Amharas, were spontaneous in their very nature, unplanned, and new areas were conquered through war and force. The expansion of the Oromo to the north and west was that satisfying the growing need of the population; and except some most of them take and assimilate new areas easily. They went to war either to 'win' (take new lands) or to 'die'. They were encountered strong resistance by the Amharas, who were farmers and users of more specialized technologies. However, the Amharas were forced to abandon the plateau and take valleys in the highland (Wood, 1977: 49).

In contrast, the resettlement by the Amharas was different from that of the Oromos. It was long-lasting and irregular southward resettlement of primarily Amharan and Tigrean people was associated with the growth of states in the northern highlands (Wood, 1977:

50). The resettlement of the Amharas is different from Oromos; in that trade and land, and specific political and agricultural problems stimulate it. The southward resettlement was again different, which was dependent on the circumstances. Sometimes considerable agricultural resettlement took place; in other cases, there was only penetration by traders and artisans, however, in many cases where military conquest took place, numbers of the indigenous people of the kingdom were settled in the distant frontier stations in order to control these newly incorporated areas (Wood, 1977: 51).

3.2 Planned Resettlement in Ethiopia

Ethiopia, including the most recent resettlement program by EPRDF during 2003-04, passed through four-planned resettlement by three different governments: two by the *Derg* and one each by the Haileselassie I and EPRDF. In general, ethnic and land-use conflicts, deforestation, wastage of resources, soil depletion, and chronic food insecurity are the major factors for inspiring resettlement in Ethiopia. The section following is divided based on the period where resettlement was undertaken and it has issues of rationale of the program, financing of the program, selection criteria of settlers and sites, and the impact of the program on the livelihood of settlers based on empirical studies.

3.2.1 The Imperial Period Planned Resettlement

It was in 1957 (Mengistu, 1992: 12), that planned resettlement in Ethiopia for the first time took place. The first resettlement program was established in 1959 at Abela (Sidamo region) and accommodated 700 farmers from the populated upland areas (Mengistu, 1992: 12). The program of resettlement was announced in the first five year plan (1957-61) of Haileselassie I government. At this time, there was no office responsible for undertaking the program with full authority. That is why the *Awraja* governor commenced a project of resettling 700 farmers at Abela resettlement center by his own initiation. Even without a responsible or authorized body, the scheme was successful in attaining its objective, which was relieving population pressure in the highlands. According to Wood (1977: 76), this successful scheme was made possible by the control of malaria and trypanosomiasis, these and other services being provided by the appropriate ministries and enthusiastically

coordinated by the governor. "Similar types of resettlement programs were established by the Walamo Agricultural Development Unit (WADU) in 1965 and resettled 1,000 evicted families. The Chilalo Agricultural Development Unit (CADU) also resettled 200 evicted farmers in Abomsa, Arsi region. In 1960, army veterans resettled in Awasa and some landless peoples from Menz and Sega Meda areas were resettled in Arba Minch (Gamo Gofa administrative region)" (Mengistu, 1992: 15).

This period's resettlement program lacked stakeholders participation and was characterized as semi-voluntary and semi-involuntary, ill-planned, low availability of fund, less state control, heterogeneous in nature, and non-patterned. Most of them were abandoned because of difficulties of getting persons with alternative means of support. According to Wood (1977: 77), it is the central government planned only the case of resettlement of landless people at Hare in Gamo Goffa. However, this was a pilot project and not part of any more wide-ranging policy.

3.2.2 The *Derg* Period Planned Resettlement

The socialist government, after taking power in 1974, initiated planned resettlement programs between 1975-83 and 1984-91. Both schemes were large-scale resettlement programs. According to John (1986: 37), the government was forced to choose resettlement on a national scale policy due to severe food crisis and drought in the country. This has led the government to design resettlement programs as essential elements both for the rehabilitation of the environment within the northern areas and in order to enable the country's population to become self-sustaining without millions of people being dependent on relief and vulnerable to mass starvation. This period's planned resettlement is divided into two the 1975-83 and 1984-91 planned resettlement program, including the Emergency Phase of resettlement carried out aftermath of the 1984 famine.

The 1975-83 Planned Resettlement

In this period the planned resettlements were of two types: the 'low cost' resettlement and the 'special' resettlement. The 'low cost' resettlement involved mainly resettling people on state farms, which were commercial farms under the imperial period. These areas were

equipped with better infrastructure and machinery resulting in the benefiting settlers. The 'special' resettlements were devoted to resettling people who were unemployed and living in urban areas; aimed at making, them produce and achieve self-sufficiency. On the other hand, the 'low cost' resettlement selected peasants suffered from famine and drought, landless peasants, and victim pastoralists.

The Derg established a responsible body, Settlement Authority (SA) to work in a joint venture with Relief and Rehabilitation Commission (RRC). In this period, 110,090 settlers resettled in 88 different resettlement sites between 1975 and 1983 (RRC, 1985). According to the Commission, 19% of the total resettlers were unemployed people from the urban areas, 15% landless peasants, 27% war victim pastoralists, and 39% peasants suffering from famine and drought disasters.

RRC was mandated by the government to select resettlement sites, transport resettlers, and provide resettlers with food, seeds, technical support, credit, buildings, agricultural machinery and other types of inputs until they become self-supporting and the exact cost of the program is not known due to poor financial management practices. Even if more planned and coordinated than the resettlement program by the imperial period, this program did not achieve what was intended to achieve due to ample of reasons. Reasons like resettlement sites were not chosen properly, according to Dessalegn (1988: 18) and Pankrust (1992: 57), many of the sites were selected based on Arial map, helicopter tour, and information from lower/ party government officials. Resettlers moved without accompanying their families, which increased insecurity and skepticism while involving in production. The administrative and physical preparation cost of the program was too high; in some instances, sites were left having no basic means to sustain life. The other major deficiency was that resettlers and host community did not get the opportunity to make their own decision regarding site selection, planning and implementation of the program. Less attention and consideration was given to pastoralists, as a result suffered not only from the vagaries of nature but also from the ignorance and misunderstanding of officialdom which has always considered it as suitable only for a lower order of civilization (Dessalegn, 2003: 57).

According to Brune (1990:27), the government acknowledged certain weakness in the 1975-83 resettlement programs, weakness caused by poor planning and faulty implementation rooted in the haste with which the program was executed. By taking lessons from previous weakness in October 1984, the government started the second phase planned resettlement program.

The 1984-91 Planned Resettlement

In this period, Mengistu's government introduced two types of large-scale resettlement programs: the Planned Resettlement (*Sefera*) and Villagization (*Mender Misreta*). According to RRC (1985), under villagization program, it aimed to resettle 35% of nucleated villages in altitudinal regions (> 1,500m a.s.l) and under Planned Resettlement 600,000 peasants to scarcely populated regions (<1,500m a.s.l). Under villagization, program peasants were resettled within their homestead, even if in some circumstances they were forced to move far from their homestead. Under resettlement, they are located of distance of about 800 km (Pankrust, 1990) from their original settlements.

This phase of resettlement program appeared in the Ten Year Perspective Plan (1983/84-1993/94) of Provisional Military Administrative Council (PMAC, 1984: 3), with stated objectives of:

- To resettle 1.5 million rural population affected by drought, famine and war conditions in the northern and densely populated areas in the south.
- To make use of the inland water resources for development purposes
- To achieve self-sufficiency with respect to food and income generating activities
- To introduce physical and social infrastructure. This plan was considered important and the only remedy to provide a "lasting solution" to many problems faced by the country.

The major factors introducing the 1984-planned resettlement (PMAC, 1984: 7) are the 1975 land reform program, the 1977 Ethio-Somalia conflict over the Ogaden region, the 1984/85 famine, the establishment of RRC and the Settlement Authority, shortages in arable land in many original settlement areas, and the establishment of mass organization.

The program was run and financed by the government, it made provisions like selection of settlers and sites, transportation of settlers, provision of food, basic needs, agricultural equipments, and health care (Resettlement Coordinating Office of the Ministry of Agriculture, 1988: 8). Former socialist countries (USSR and North Korea) and Italy provided significant assistance. At this period, the government allocated 822 tractors (John, 1986: 66 and Pankrust, 1992: 77), where the government distributed to peasant associations' for cultivation without formal criteria of selecting eligible settlers. Nonetheless, it faced severe critics from USA and the West European countries; they not only refused but also demanded the government to stop the program. With full opposition by these parties, however, the westerns in 1987 (John, 1986: 145), UN officially called for aid for the resettlement program in Ethiopia, due to severe famine in 1984/85.

The total cost of the program was very high, a billion birr, where 600 million birr was covered by the government and the rest 400 million birr by foreign alliances, former USSR, North Korea, and Italy. This would give a per capita figure of birr 1,686 or US$ 814 in a country with a per capita income of US$ 123 per annum (Pankrust, 1992: 75).

The resettlement has different outcomes, which can be isolated as success and failure stories, where majority of the evidences suggesting its adverse impact. Based on evidences by Dessalegn (2003), Gebre (2003, 2001), Kasahun (2000), Mengistu (1992), Pankrust (1992, 1990), and Alemneh (1992), the outcome of the program is summarized under empirical studies section of chapter two.

3.2.3 Planned Resettlement by EPRDF

At the end of 1980's, the Derg begun to liberalize its policy and begun to stop its program of villagization and planned resettlement; due to lack of funds from the socialist countries and international donors and change in world politics. As a result, there were some policy reforms towards many economic aspects, like from command to mixed economic system. However, it was too late to make such changes, the EPRDF, took the chair in 1991 after severe bloody civil war.

Due to past experience of resettlement programs in Ethiopia, EPRDF, donors, and planners refused resettlement as a policy option for food insecurity. However, the Prime Minister in 2002 publicly admitted that although he had in the past been virulently opposed to resettlement as a solution to Ethiopia's problem of land shortage he could no longer see any alternative. Hence, the government announced officially resettlement as one of the options for solving chronic food insecurity and land shortage problem in June 2003. The main objective of the resettlement program is to enable up to 440,000 households (2.2 million people) chronically food insecure households attain food security through improved access to land/ voluntary resettlement (New Coalition for Food Security in Ethiopia (NCFS), 2003:5).

The paper states that food insecurity has several causes, but part of the problem is shortage of land in the parts of the country with high population density. The program, entirely run by the government with financial help by donors, will provide information to potential settlers, cover cost of moving and establishing a new home, provide access to land and develop the infrastructure in those areas to assure provision of services like health facilities schools and roads.

The program is planned, implemented, and monitored by the government, where the program cost 1,771.78 million birr. The federal government, 75%, regions 20%, and receiving weredas 5% of the total cots cover the budget. The eligible areas of origin that qualify for resettling people are those districts, weredas, listed already under the chronically food insecure areas of the region. Within qualifying districts, any resident who demonstrates willingness to save money out of the first grant assistance and who can become independent of the government assistance after the first year of crop harvest is eligible for the resettlement. Similarly, hosts weredas qualify for hosting the resettlement program if they make contiguous land and minimum social services available (Feleke, 2003: 214).

Recent studies show (Helina, 2007; Tesfaye, 2007, Abrham, 2003; and Feleke, 2003) that the current resettlement program is showing all the outcomes both positive and negative,

even if not severe as the previous one. This paper tries to look at the impact of the current resettlement program in solving chronic food insecurity, and the potential problems and coping strategies by taking a case study from Regional State of Oromiya, Chewaka resettlement area.

3.3 Summary

In Ethiopia, resettlement either spontaneous or planned has contributed a lot for the current territory of the country. This holds true, especially for the north and west movement by the Oromos and southward by the Amharas. The six decades Ethiopian planned resettlement has different reasons but most of them rest on existence of chronic food insecurity, land shortage, and population pressure on the natural resources. All the four-resettlement programs under three different governments showed different outcomes. In some instances, it was possible to improve settlers' livelihood but on other occasions, it resulted in increased food insecurity, land degradation, stress on the environment (especially the forest), spread of diseases, incidence of mortality and morbidity and overall increased impoverishment to a large extent.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE STUDY AREA AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESETTLERS

In this chapter two issues are discussed. The environment, demography, and socio-economic aspect of the study area- Chewaka resettlement area- are discussed in the first part of this chapter. The second part entirely focuses on socio-economic characteristics of resettlers in the studied kebeles. The socio-economic characteristics in terms of resettlers' demography and economical aspects, where details of sex ratio, dependency ratio, marital status, educational level, age pattern, source of income, annual income and major assets in the household, are discussed in this section.

4.1 Study Area: Chewaka Wereda-Environment, Demography, and Economy

Chewaka wereda is one of the 258 weredas in the Oromiya National Regional State. It is found in the western part of the region of Illubabor zone. It has 26 administrative kebeles. The total land area of the wereda is about 52,227 hectares, and the population is estimated to be 78,783 (Oromiya Food Security Bureau, 2005).The area is totally inhabited by resettlers only from east and west Hararghe of Oromiya region. The paper from the bureau shows that Chewaka is the largest resettlement centre in the region from any other center launched in 2003 and 2004.

The site has seven sub-sites and has a central area, a kind of capital town, Illu-Harar. It is derived by combining two names, Illu- from the name Illu Abba Bora, the name of the zone where resettlers are settled and Harar- from the name Hararghe where all resettlers came from. The seven sub-sites of the wereda are divided in to *Aredas*. Goti (a structure next to Areda) and Garee Misoma (Development Team) organize each Areda. *Garee Misoma* is the lowest structure in the bureaucratic hierarchy of the wereda administration. About 70-100 households dwell in one *Goti* whereas one *Gare Misoma* encompasses 25-30 households.

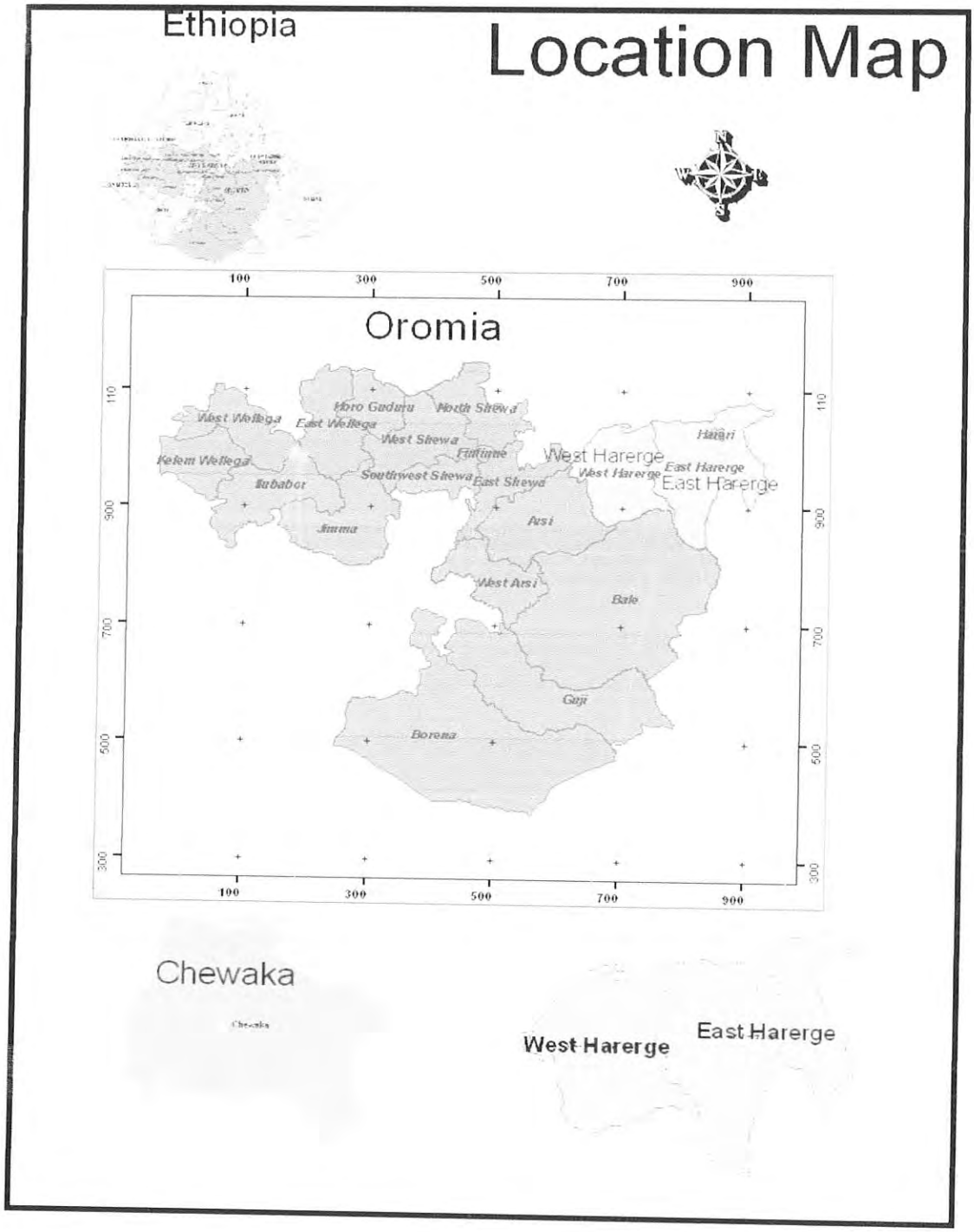


Figure 4.1 Map of the Study Area

There is a last structure at community level called *Seli* (cell) that has five households though not effective (Helina, 2007: 31).Located 600 Kilo meters west of Addis Ababa, Chewaka has a "*Weynadega*" climate with high temperature but one of the best evergreen areas of the country, which is suitable for a variety of plant and animal species. The distribution of rainfall as any other western part of the region is very high. It has also seasons, *Meher* and *Belg*, for the crop production. The rainfall of the wereda is between 1,200-1500 mm per annum and altitude ranging from 1,600-2,000 above sea levels. Agriculture is the dominant economic activity in the wereda, where maize and sorghum from cereals, sesame and sunflower from oil crops and various types of legumes are the major products produced in the wereda ODPPB (Oromiya Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Bureau, 2003).

4.2 Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

4.2.1 Distribution of Respondents Based on Sex

With regard to sex composition of respondents, except that of Dameksa, all the rest kebeles have either FHHs or female respondents, both Chokorsa, Tokuma Harar has 20% female respondents, and Missoma Gudina has the largest, which is 30% of the respondents are female. However, those categorized as female respondents might not mean FHHs.

Table 4.1 Distribution of Respondents by Sex

Sex	Chokorsa		T.H		Demeksa		M.G	
Male	36	80%	28	80%	40	100%	21	70%
Female	9	20%	7	20%			9	30%
Total	45	100%	35	100%	40	100%	30	100%

4.2.2 Age, Religion of Resettlers and Year of Arrival at Chewaka

Aiming to capture the exact age of resettlers, the questionnaire of this study designed in a way that resettlers to tell their year of birth. Hence, the probability of giving incorrect age

will be minimized. The age structure of resettlers, as shown in Table 4.2 is young in their age, showing the nature of the program is voluntary. Moreover, during FGDs all participants agreed that they came to Chewaka voluntarily. Resettlers in Chewaka are characterized by young age, where 66.7% in Chokorsa, 77.2% in Tokuma Harar, 82.5% in Dameksa, and 83.3% in Missoma Gudina reported that they are born between the years of either 1969/70- 1979/80 or 1980/81-1990/91.

Table 4.2 Age Distribution of Resettlers

Year of Birth	Chokorsa		Tokuma Ha.		Demeksa		Missoma G.	
1947/48-57/58	3	6.67%	2	5.71%	6	15%	2	6.67%
1958/59-68/69	12	26.67%	6	17.14%	1	2.5%	3	10%
1969/70-79/80	21	46.67%	20	57.15%	23	57.5%	17	56.67%
1980/81-90/91	9	20%	7	20%	10	25%	8	27%
Total	**45**	**100%**	**35**	**100%**	**40**	**100%**	**30**	**100%**

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

Presence of younger resettlers might ease the difficulty in attaining the objective of the program, food insecurity in this case. As the table shows, more than half of the resettled people in the studied kebeles are from 30-40 years of age.

Except one person, named Tsebaye at site-1- Chokorsa Kebele, all settlers belong to the Islam religion, where the single individual reported follower of Christianity. The document from ODPPB also shows that nearly all resettlers at site 1 and 2 settled during 2004 are Muslims as a whole except in some circumstances, like Tsebaye's. The research also identified this truth in its household survey and FGDs. All resettlers also reported that they moved to Chewaka during the fiscal year of 2004.

4.2.3 Educational Status

Success at resettlement site is highly dependent on age of resettlers and their educational status; not mentioning the importance of the physical environment and climate, means of production, institutional set up, and other socio-cultural, economic, and political aspects, which enable them to become accustomed to new ways of life and other livelihood patterns. The more educated and younger the resettlers, between 20 and 40 age, the higher the probability being successful in resettlement areas.

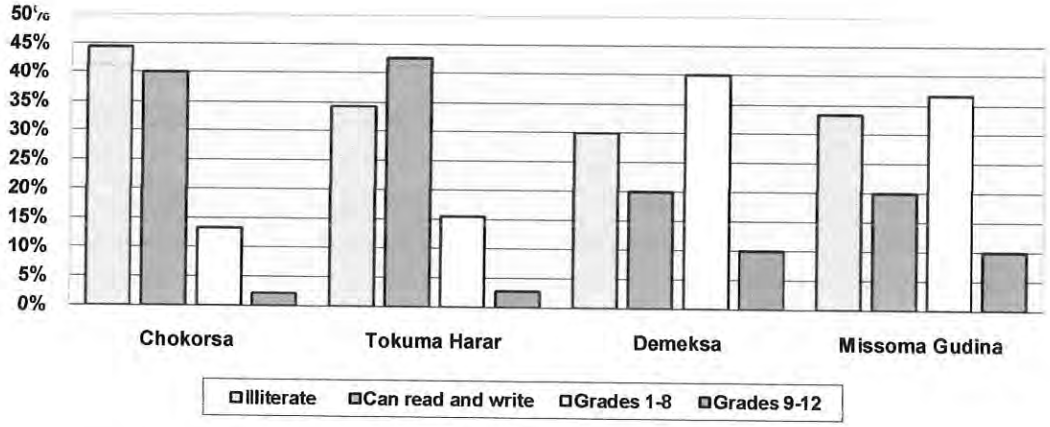


Figure 4.2 Resettlers' Educational Status

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

Low school enrollment has an adverse impact on farmers, especially resettlers who went for resettlement program as to 'utilize/develop' new areas. Having more educated resettlers helps the resettlers and their families reducing the chronic food insecurity situation, through educations highest contribution in increasing easy access and utilization of means of production, market, and infrastructure. As a result, it is a necessary condition for improving food security situation of resettlers, even if not a sufficient condition. Education also has a significant input in family planning, where majority of the resettlers during FGDs reported that they came to Chewaka due to high population pressure on the land and environment. Therefore, resettlers commented that there should be education and awareness increasing programs as resettlers not to repeat the past mistake. Education

should be given related to many aspects, some of them are, but not limited to: general education, land use, means of production management, the environment, family planning, and credit and finance related trainings and educations.

4.2.4 Marital Status, Number of Wives, and Number of People in a Household

In theory and in many literatures, it is commented and showed in practical evidences that the more a household is illiterate the bigger the size of the family. Even if the type and extent of education varies, education contributes a lot in managing child number.

However, it is difficult to conclude that being illiterate lead resettlers or rural farmers to have many children, rather it is one factor exacerbated by other factors like age of partners, access to family planning service, and other socio-cultural and economic aspects of the area under study. For instance resettlers at Demeksa and Missoma Gudina, where younger resettlers are found, reported having very low number of children and members in their household. Therefore, the reason for having many children could be low level of literacy, age pattern of resettlers, availability, accessibility, affordability, and utilization of family planning service in addition to the above stated factors.

Being young resettler is also reflected on the percentage of people engaged in marriage. Since majority of the resettlers at Demeksa and Missoma Gudina are very young, 82.5% and 83.33% respectively, they possess the largest percentage of resettlers found single, 20% and 10% respectively. On the contrary, resettlers at Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar do not have single resettlers; rather 21% and 20% of them have more than one wife, respectively. In this study also the research team tried to reach these wives, unfortunately, it was told that they are living in Hararghe. It is easily understood why they choose to live in a separate place, which is satisfying the large/ extended family member needs. The research team also gathered information that most of the resettlers did not leave their previous area of living, particularly their land, to the government rather they try to reduce their risk of food shortage by harvesting on different areas, Hararghe and Chewaka. Elder resettlers in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar, in the FGDs reported that their wives and young children living in previous area of living help them.

Table 4.3 Resettlers' Marital Status

Marital Status	Chokorsa		T.H		Demeksa		M.G	
Single					8	20%	3	10%
Married	38	84.44%	35	100%	30	75%	18	60%
Widowed	7	15.56%			2	5%	6	20%
Divorced							3	10%
Total	45	100%	35	100%	40	100%	30	100%

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

In Chokorsa 15.55% and 20% in Missoma Gudina resettlers are widowed, the reason as explained by them is due to food problem forcing their husbands practice smuggling to Somalia and Djibouti, which escort conflict between and among smugglers and government soldiers. The other reason but not major is conflict between the Oromos and Somalis on grazing land and war between EPRDF soldiers and its opposing groups the OLF and ONLF.

The general truth, education contribute for a planned family, is shown on the number of people in the household between three or four in this study. It is to mean that resettlers, as shown in Table 4.4, have either one or two children. Respectively 60%, 45%, and 60%, in Tokuma Harar, Demeksa, and Missoma Gudina, reported that they have either one or two children. The raison d'être for having such number of children is presence of single, young and more educated resettlers at these kebeles. In addition, the previous food situation and environmental problem that forced to leave original place of living increased their awareness towards number of children. Hence, the presence of deep-rooted food shortage in previous area of living and the direct inverse relationship between food consumption and land fragmentation with number of children in a single family also contributed for such kind of family size.

In Demeksa kebele 20% and in Missoma Gudina 10% resettlers are single, which is revealed on family number where the exact percentage of resettlers reported as living alone without any partner, child, or any other relative. This can be shown on the following sentence; resettlers in these two kebeles are more literate than the other two kebeles, and very young, between 20-30 years of age, 20% and 10% respectively single. As a result, they are alone in their home. Therefore, it can be concluded that being young and more educated lead to late engagement in marriage, which again lead to a planned number of children in the family and absence of children at early ages of 20-30 years.

Table 4.4 Number of People per Household

Number of people	Chokorsa		Tokuma Ha.		Demeksa		Missoma G.	
1					8	20%	3	10%
2					12	30%		
3	6	13.33%	5	14.29%	10	25%	6	20%
4	3	6.67%	16	45.71%	8	20%	12	40%
5	6	13.33%	4	11.43%				
6	3	6.67%					9	30%
>6	27	60%	10	28.57%	2	5%		
Total	45	100%	35	100%	40	100%	30	100%

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

On the other hand, 60% of resettlers in Chokorsa and 28.57% in Tokuma Harar have members more than 6. In general, 86.7% of resettlers in Chokorsa and 85.71% of resettlers in Tokuma Harar have minimum of four people and maximum of fourteen people in their house, either children or relatives. As discussed in the previous paragraph, the reason

behind for such a large number of children is age pattern of resettlers, where more older and illiterate people are found in these two kebeles. This is especially true in Chokorsa, where 80% of them are more than 30 years of old, 44.44% of them are illiterate, and 21% of them have more than one wife.

Table 4.5 Number of Wives/ Husbands for Married Resettlers

Number of wives	Chokorsa		Tokuma Ha		Demeksa		Missoma Gudi.	
Unmarried	0	0%	0	0%	8	20%	3	10%
One wife	36	80%	28	80%	32	80%	27	100%
> 1 wife	9	20%	7	20%				
Total	45	100%	35	100%	40	100%	30	100%

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

4.2.5 Economic Aspect of Resettlers

4.2.5.1 Dependency Ratio

Age structure, marital status, educational level, number of people and other socio-cultural, economical, and political aspects of a particular household determine the dependency syndrome, source of income, health status, food consumption and other livelihood aspects of the household. In their book Nancy *et al.* (2001: 154), also discuss the connection between population and level of income, as there is an association between high fertility and low income at the country level and is paralleled by a similar association between larger household size and poverty, whether measured by consumption or income per person.

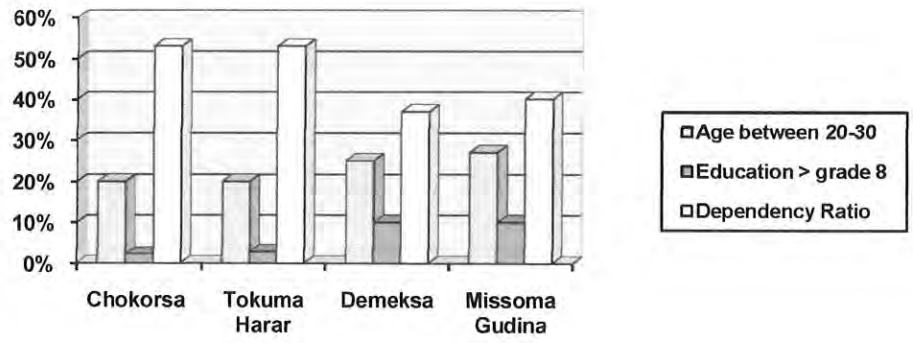


Figure 4.3 Age Structure, Educational Attainment, and Dependency Ratio of Resettlers

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

As Figure 4.2 shows, the educational status and age distribution of resettlers is reflected on the percentage of members being dependent. More literate and young resettlers are found at Demeksa and Missoma Gudina, hence, low number of people per household is found in these resettlement kebeles, which again these factors contributed for low dependency ratio in these two kebeles. As the figure below depicts in these two kebeles, Demeksa and Missoma Gudina, the number of people between the ages 15-64 is more than that of below 15 years of age. On the contrary, in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar the number of dependents, below 15 years of age either children or relatives, are more than that of the working/ active group.

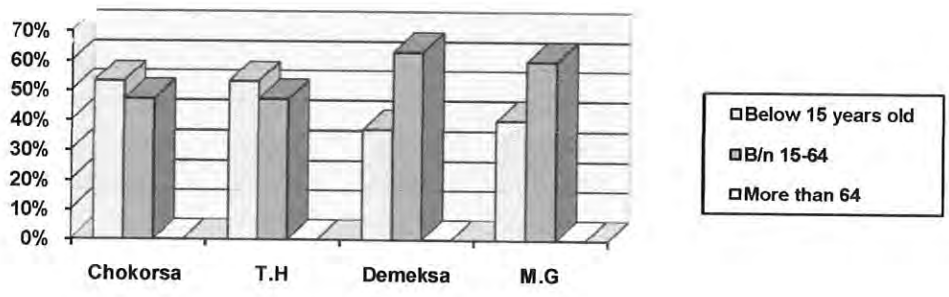


Figure 4.4 Dependency Ratios of Resettlers (*Source:* Household Survey, March 2008)

Having a large number of non-working groups has an adverse impact on the food intake, both in quality and quantity, health status, school enrollment, and other socio-economic and political aspect of a particular household. According to Nancy *et al.* (2001), the short term impact of having high non-working group over the active one is: Children in such families are malnourished and experience stunt and waste; children in large families perform less well in school than the small families, as well as in intelligence tests; children tend to have poorer health and lower survival probabilities; infants born les than 24 months after a sibling are less likely to survive than those born after longer intervals; and larger family size and non-working group also appears to inhibit physical development, possibly through lower quality maternity care and poorer nutrition.

In addition, if the number of non-working group is larger than that of the active, then parents or adults and older siblings are forced to spend their productive time on these groups. This is particularly true for women, by spending their much time on childcare activities than other socio-economic activities, which might increase the well-being of the family. Nevertheless, if these young generations acquire better nutrition, health, education, and other necessities; it is indubitable that they will contribute a lot for the livelihood and welfare of the family in the long run. Moreover, in majority of rural Ethiopia number of children highly influences food production. Evidences suggest that availability and amount of child labor has its own implications on the productivity of household. It (child labor) makes a difference especially during the period of peak labor demand for tasks such as completion of weeding, a task critical to production often left half-alone (Yared, 1999: 82). According to Yared's practical evidence, during demanding plowing months of June, July and August, boys help assure timely and adequate cultivation by digging alongside ploughmen. They also plough as replacements for their fathers who have to meet social obligations such as funerals, which can be economically harmful but unavoidable interruptions. Therefore, children who can engage in these tasks are expected to bring about visible increase in the productivity of a household. In summing up, while demographers continue to find inverse relationship between household size, age structure,

high fertility, unwanted fertility, and a range measure of household well-being with food security and poverty status, it remains very difficult to draw strong conclusion as a rule.

Annual Income

Annual income in the studied areas varies from below birr 500 per annum to more than birr 10,000 per annum. Figure 4.4 also shows these ranges of incomes of resettlers in the four kebeles. If, for straightforwardness, we divide these ranges of incomes into two as resettlers getting below and more than 1 US dollar per day(at the time of the survey 1USD equals 9.50 Ethiopian Birr), then we will have two ranges of income, which is below and above birr 3,500 per annum. Resettlers at Demeksa and Missoma Gudina possess the largest share of households having more than 1USD per day; which is 47.5% and 40% respectively, when compared to 17.78% in Chokorsa and 20% in Tokuma Harar. The reason for having such big difference is different, as mentioned in the earlier discussions it could be the age, educational status, and dependency ratio of resettlers. The level of income difference could be due to difference of engagement in type of production and other off-farm activities, which will be discussed under section II of this chapter. The existence of large and non-working families, as discussed earlier, affects the level of income because of the fact that incomes received from goods sold will be directly spent on these groups. It affects the consumption and saving pattern of resettlers, which in short period of time affects, the resettlers welfare. "In the early stages of demographic transition, per capita income is diminished by large youth dependency burdens and small working-age adult shares: there are relatively few workers and savers. As the transition proceeds, smaller youth dependency burdens and larger working-age adult shares promote per capita income growth: there are relatively more workers and savers. The early burden of having few workers and savers becomes a potential gift: a high share of working-age adults. Later, the economic gift evaporates, as elderly share rises" (Nancy, *et al.* 2001: 161).

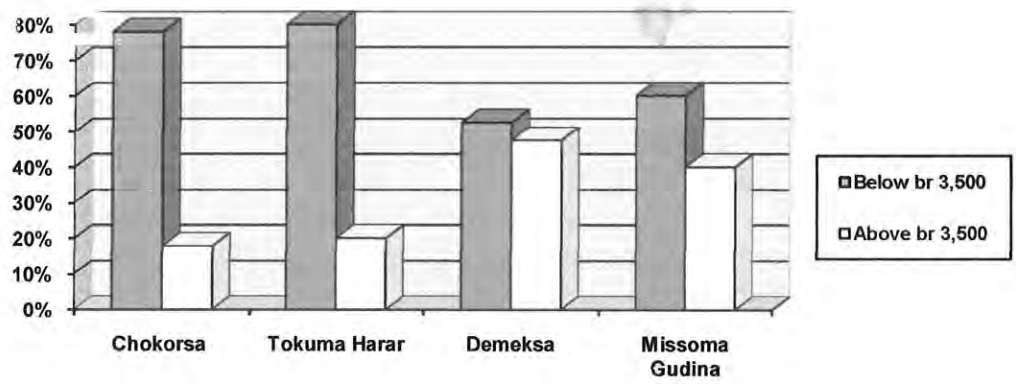


Figure 4.5 Annual Incomes of Resettlers

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

Primary Source of Income/ Economic Activity and Major Assets in the Household

The amount of annual income is highly dependent on the type and extent of economic activity engaged. The type and extent of involvement differs from area to area, especially due to geographical and economic dimensions of the society. This is highly true in rural areas where resettlers are subsistence farmers who are highly dependent on the land for satisfying their basic need. In Chewaka, the major economic activity is crop production. However, livestock, remittance, and off-farm activities follow next to crop production. Ninety three percent of resettlers in Chokorsa, eighty percent in Tokuma Harar, 85 % in Demeksa, and 90 % in Missoma Gudina resettlers are principally acquire their annual income from crop production. In addition, as Table 4.6 shows, off-farm activities generate some income, even if very low when compared to their previous area of living, as explained by the resettlers. However, a good number of resettlers at Demeksa and Missoma Gudina are relied on remittance from relatives and other organizations than off-farm activities.

Table 4.6 Resettlers' Sources of Income

Type of activity	Chokorsa		Tokuma Harar		Demeksa		Missoma Gudina	
Crop Pron.	42	93.33%	30	85.71%	34	85%	27	90%
Off-farm	3	6.67%	7	20%	6	15%	3	10%
Livestock	12	26.67%	10	28.57%	10	25%	9	30%
Remittance	6	13.33%			14	35%	9	30%
Total	45		35		40		30	

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

As the above table shows, the primary source of income in the studied areas is crop production. However, in their previous area of living primary source of income is different from primary livelihood of resettlers. In previous area of living (Hararghe), they were having cash crops like Coffee and *Khat*, as primary source of income and Maize, *Teff*, Sorghum, Wheat, and other crops for their daily food consumption.

While asked to mention and rank their major asset in the household, the dominant crop sorghum is refereed by most as the major asset. In Chokorsa 66.67%, 77.14% in Tokuma Harar, 75% in Demeksa, and 70% in Missoma Gudina reported that their major assets are crops they produce. However, there is severe absence of livestock either for food or production, where only 44.44% in Chokorsa and 40% in Tokuma Harar own cattle. The rest two kebeles, however, do not have any livestock/ cattle for production. In their previous area of living, settlers reported that they have a sound number of livestock population both for consumption and for means of cultivation. The climatic situation of Chewaka, particularly sites where Demeksa and Missoma Gudina found, did not allow for cattle rearing. On the other hand; goat, which is assumed to adapt Chewaka's environment, present in all studied kebeles, even if the number varies. Resettlers begun to realize the

importance of goats and begun to involve in this activity, however, when the study undertook there was goat price hike-up due to high demand.

The educational status and age pattern supported by dependency syndrome is reflected on the number of resettlers reporting the type of production engaged in. This particularly true where more educated and younger farmers involve in valuable items, than the illiterate and older one. Resettlers at Chewaka believe that they left their original place of living due to high population resulting stress on the environment and the land, especially. This again increased the problem of food insecurity either transitory or chronic; as a result they understood the need to plan their family size. Declining land availability and labor productivity resulting population growth may induce people seek alternative sources of income (Nancy, et al 2001: 350). It also leads to more specialized and diversified pattern of production. Key factors influencing this response include education and training opportunities, labor mobility, land tenure security, land and housing markets, the development of infrastructure and others (Nancy, et al 2001: 350), the importance of education and age of farmers, resettlers in our case, to shift pattern and type of production and way of living is discussed. The more educated and younger the resettlers, the more they are engaged in different and valuable agricultural products. This is exactly shown in Chewaka, where 60% of resettlers at Demeksa and 60% of resettlers in Missoma Gudina engaged in sesame production, when compared with 26.6% and 25.7% in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar, respectively.

The educational status of resettlers contributed highly when ownership of radio realized. Since resettlers in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina are more educated and involved in more valuable crop production, sesame and soybean, than settlers at Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar, 45% of resettlers in Demeksa kebele and 40% of resettlers in Missoma Gudina settlers reported having radio in their home. The importance of fixed assets, particularly land and house, are very crucial in any nation of the developing world; and that of land is much crucial for rural people. The government of Ethiopia announced that resettlers would get two ha of plot of land for farming and building their house. Nevertheless, while asked to rank their major asset, resettlers in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina glossed over the issue of

land. It was assumed that it is because they did not get the guaranteed land; however the reason is not only getting the secured land but also they did not consider it as a valuable item due to its low fertility compared with previous area of living land, as there is high presence of soil insects and other hazards. Generally, the major assets are sorghum in all kebeles, land, house, and ox in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar, and sesame, rice, radio, and soybean at Demeksa and Missoma Gudina based on perception of settlers towards major asset in their household.

4.3 Summary

Starting by describing the study area, this chapter highlights the socio-economic characteristics of respondents in the study area, Chewaka resettlement area. Ecology, demography, rainfall patter and amount, altitude, major economic activities, and map of the area are provided in the first part of the chapter. The socio-economic characteristics of respondents; their age, economic activities, religion, year of arrival in Chewaka, dependency ratio, source of income, and other related issues are discussed under part two of this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

FOOD AVAILABILITY, ACCESS, UTILIZATION, AND SEASONALITY

This chapter is the first and major objective of this study, which discusses resettlers' food security situation in general. It is entirely devoted analyzing the food security situation of resettlers from the point view of means of production; food availability, accessibility, utilization, and seasonality of food availability. In addition, the current resettlers' food security status and whether they are better than before or not in attaining food security is discussed.

Food security in Ethiopia is highly dependent on the performance of agriculture. The performance of agriculture again is dependent on uneven and erratic pattern and distribution of rainfall. However, there are also other factors affecting food security in Ethiopia. To conceptualize, the problem of food insecurity in Ethiopia is highly dependent on; sparsely distributed or too small land holdings, high population increase, which affects the land holdings, and food consumption of the household, declining soil fertility, which is very low and is declining due to intensive cultivation and limited application of yield enhancing inputs, recurrent droughts and food production shocks to abnormally low yields, limited off-farm employment opportunities restrict diversification and migration options, leaving people trapped in increasingly unviable agriculture. Therefore, analyzing the food security situation of a household requires addressing the issue of land holding size, land quality, means of production or agricultural inputs (oxen, tractors, fertilizers, pest/insecticides ...), access to market, type of production, amount produced, and food availability access, and utilization of a particular household. As a result, the section following discusses the food security situation of resettlers by raising the above issues under consideration. In addition, it analyzes whether resettlers are food secure or not and better than what they were before resettling. Nonetheless, it does not discuss the challenges resettlers encountered and their mitigating mechanisms, which chapter five of this study discusses.

5.1 Means of production

5.1.1 Availability of land - Size, Quality and Impact on Food Production

It is the growing population pressure in rural Ethiopia resulted in low per capita land size. This situation forced the government to initiate resettlement program. The issue of land ownership, access and the fertility of the land under use are considered first in the part that is exclusively concerned with agricultural input use, output, and disposal of produce. The stress on land can be explained by the declining per capita land holding size, and its adverse impact on food output per capita. According to Befekadu and Berhnu (2000:85) since 1960/61, the land holding size declined from 0.28l to 0.10 in 1980/90, while the per capita food output in this period declined alarmingly by 58.93%. In the studied areas, resettlers agreed that high population growth forced them to divide the land for the new comers resulting in low per capita food output.

"It is widely acknowledged among peasants that land- its size and fertility- is the most important basis for differences in production and wealth between households" (Yared, 1999: 71). In all studied kebeles, more than 50% of the resettlers responded that there is availability of land for food production. The percentage differs from kebele to kebele, in Chokorsa 77.28%, in Tokuma Harar 80% in Demeksa 65%, and in Misoma Gudina 70% of resettlers agreed that there is availability of land for food production in Chewaka. Even if resettlers do not have the right to sale, ownership of certificate of land was given by the government. This is directly goes hand in hand with the intention of the government, i.e. easy provision of land. However, the land distribution did not consider previous land holding of resettlers and size of the household to be resettled. This is in contrary to the policy of the government, which states that a household will get land based on its total household size. Moreover, as revealed in FGDs, land was distributed without considering household size and in many instances measurement was made using ropes. This can be shown by the percentage of resettlers responding the land distributed is either the same or less than what they were possessing previously. Respectively, 8.89%, 8.37%, 25% and 16.67% of resettlers at Chokorsa, Tokuma Harar, Demeksa and Missoma Gudina responded that they were provided a land size below what they were previously possessing.

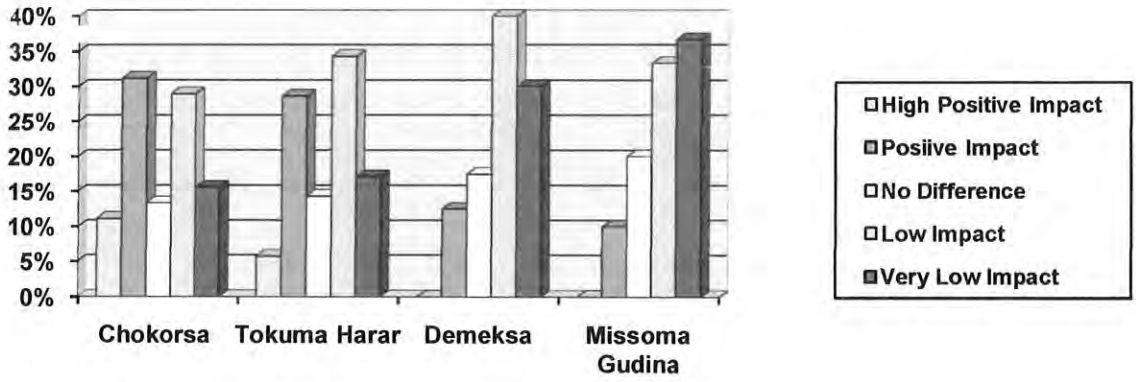


Figure 5.1 The Impact of the Land Distributed on Food Production

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

The other issue is that even if there is availability of land for food production, its impact on the agricultural production and productivity is very much important. As Figure 4.5 shows, except that of Chokorsa where 44% of resettlers responded, more than 50% in the rest three kebeles reported that land distributed to them has either low or a very low impact on their food production. The resettlement program of the government is providing land, which is less degraded than the previous one. However, even if the majority of the land possessed in Chewaka is distributed after clearing of forests and grasslands, its suitability for food production is not well studied. This is highly matched with the percentage of respondents rating the suitability of the land provided by the government for agricultural production. In Chokorsa 44.44%, 51.43% in Tokuma Harar, 70% in Demeksa, and 73.34% of resettlers in Missoma Gudina rated the land has either low or very low quality than the previous area of living. The study made by CSA (2008) also indicates the types of crops grown in Illubabor, current living place of resettlers and Hararghe the previous one, where Illubabor is suitable for sorghum, soybean, sesame and coffee compared to Hararghe's staple crops *Teff*, wheat, maize, sorghum, *Khat* and coffee.

Table 5.1 Per ha Out Put of Crops in Hararghe and Illubabor,

Type of crop		*Teff*	Wheat	Maize	Sorghum	Rice	Soybean	Sesame	*Khat*	Coffee
Per ha output	Hararghe	10.47	17.64	23.36	16.79	15.45	11.66	5.81	10.85	8.93
	Illubabor	9.55	9.47	21.2	18.77	24.17	8.77	9.52	11.11	8.5

Source: CSA (2007: 42)

As the above table shows, Illubabor has low per capita in the major cereals, pulses, oil seeds, and stimulants. The current area has low output per ha in 5 items out of 9 when compared to the average regional wise. At national and regional level maize, wheat, *Teff*, and sorghum, ranked from 1-4 (CSA, 2007: 11) both in percentage of consumption and number of farmers involved in producing these items. *Teff* is the primary component for producing *Injera* (pancake) and wheat for producing *Dabo* (bread), which are regarded by majority of the Ethiopians as something that show better food security status of a household. In addition, these crops, *teff* and wheat, are hardly produced in Chewaka, resulting shift of crop cultivation to sorghum. Limited access to productive and fertile land has its own adverse impact on the type and amount of crops to be grown. This could be one of the major reasons for shifting staple food items from *teff* and wheat to sorghum. Land resources are the critical factors determining productivity and wealth in comparison to other factors of production like labor and draft power (Yared, 1999: 74). According to Yared, relatively land-rich households are generally expected to be wealthy and food secure, whereas land-deficient households are thought to be poor and food insecure.

5.1.2 Availability and Utilization of Irrigation

Dependence on unreliable and low-productivity rain fed agriculture can be mentioned as the primary determinant of high food insecurity in Ethiopia. Hence, it is clear that such dependence should be changed as to improve the food security situation of citizens. Here, the role of irrigation is very important for a sound agricultural production in the country. In many researches, the total potentially irrigable land area ranges from 1.0 to 3.5 million ha

(Berhanu and Don, 2003: 169). According to these researchers, out of the total only from 5-10% is estimated that currently irrigated, however, the figure is very low based on the data provided by CSA (2002), which is only 0.78% or 81.70 thousand ha is irrigated.

In Chewaka, all resettlers in the studied kebeles ranked irrigation having a very high role in increasing their annual food production and improving the food security situation of their family. In Chokorsa 66.67% and in Tokuma Harar 60% of respondents use irrigation, on the contrary, none of respondents in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina use irrigation. According to Berhanu and Don (2003: 170), if irrigation is supported by labor, oxen, improved seeds and fertilizers; it will increase agricultural total production. According to the researchers, irrigation increase total production more than 18% of total yield that rain fed plots give. According to the FDRE (2002: 11) and Berhane and Don (2003: 170-175), technology and financial constraints are the major determinants for low involvement in irrigation. However, evidence from Chewaka is different where out of the sampled resettlers 93.33% in Chokorsa, 50% in Tokuma Harar, 80% in Demeksa and 90% in Missoma Gudina reported that absence of irrigable water is the major factor for not using irrigation. Absence of irrigable land is the first most problem in site 2, that is, in Demeksa 87.50% and Missoma Gudina 93.33% identified it as the major constraint. The major factors for not using irrigation scheme are absence of irrigable land, absence of irrigable water, financial constraint, lack of knowledge, and other minor factors. Difference in irrigation usage and type and extent of the problem faced while using irrigation has its own impact on the food security situation of resettlers. Moreover, resettler explained that the land is not suitable for producing *teff* and wheat. As a result, they are forced to leave these crops, which were staple cereals at previous area of living.

5.1.3 Tools of Production

As a major tool of production, in Chewaka, there are three major means of production namely, oxen, human labor and *Dongora*. However, it is only in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar that an ox is used as a means of production/plowing. Respectively 44.44% and 40% of the sampled resettlers in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar use oxen as an input for their food production. Human labor and *Dongora* are the major tools used by all resettlers. The

reason for not using oxen, horse, donkey and other animals is deep-rooted existence of trypanosomiasis, which took the lives of animals. The problem is exacerbated by lack of veterinary service in the area.

In developing nations the use of animals for agricultural purpose is common. In Ethiopia also majority of the farmers use animals. In previous area of living, resettlers reported that they were using at least one ox as a means for tilling their land. Sampled resettlers perceive ownership of a pair of oxen as the attainment of ideal independence and self-reliance. This is because resettlers can easily plough their land, acquire loan from any party both money and agricultural inputs, and oxen serve as a major asset. In addition, control of oxen assures timely plowing and planting, factors that are critical to food production in terms of food availability and seasonality. The resettlement program missed the target in understanding which animals and/or tools of production to be used in the new area of living.

> *"Since we don't have the necessary tools of production for our agricultural activity, we are forced to use our hand for producing, which highly affects our health, quality and amount produced"* A resettler at Demeksa kebele in FGD

Resettlers in the studied kebeles, who do not have any oxen at all, face most severe shortages of draft power, as FGD results show. These households are most likely to sustain substantial economic losses due to inadequate cultivation. They also expend significantly more labor in exchange for draft power from other households; through a traditional arrangement known as *ye-finchit,* ox-labor exchange whereby ox-owner cultivates for three days and the laborer for one day. "The number of oxen owned by a household is therefore commonly considered to be an index, albeit a rough one, its socio-economic status. Ownership of less than a pair is a sign of poverty for it denotes failure to meet an economic-cultural ideal" (Yared, 1999: 77).

Acquiring other means of production like *Gaso, Dongora,* and Spade in Chewaka is also difficult. The major source of acquiring tools of production is bringing from previous area of living. Particularly, the major tool *Dongora,* people at Hararghe use is hardly accessible

in Chewaka. Accessibility of these tools of production is very low, where Figure 5.2 and 5.3 can easily show. At least 75% of resettlers in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina believe that there is either low or very low access to means of production. The central market place and town of Chewaka is found where kebeles Demeksa and Missoma Gudina found, however, accessibility is too limited for those resettlers. The reason is that major tools of production are not familiar in the zone; hence, no one can bring them to the market. Even if brought to the market due to high demand the price is very high, which these resettlers cannot afford. Accessibility in this context refers to acquiring the necessary means of production from market places and other means of acquiring channels, affordable to that particular community and can get easy maintenance and spare part, whenever needed.

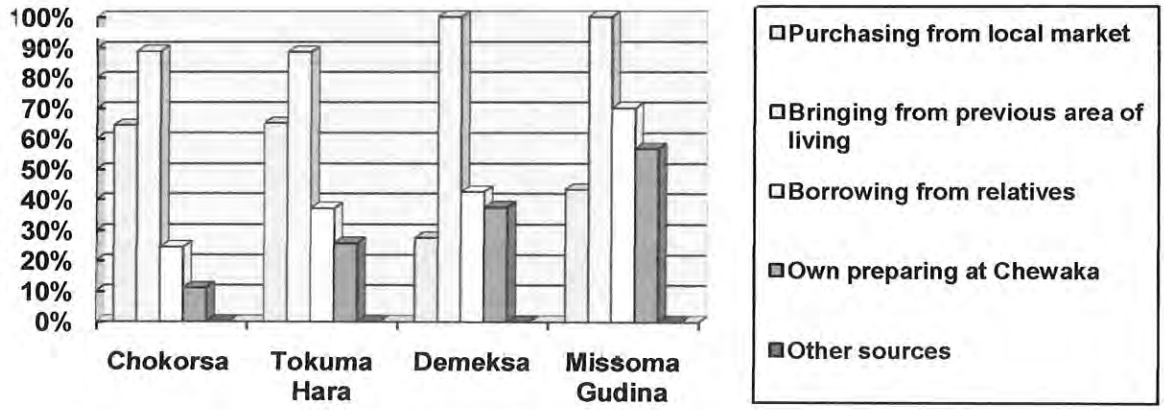


Figure 5.2 Means of Acquiring Tools of Production in Chewaka

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

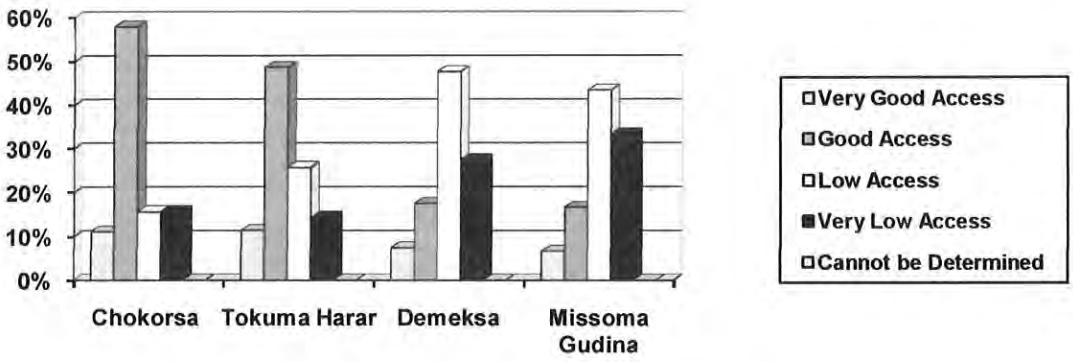


Figure 5.3 Accesses to Means of Production in Chewaka Compared to Previous Area of Living.

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

5.1.4 Access to Fertilizers, Improved Seed, Pest/Insecticides and Agricultural Skill Development Activities

Other than irrigation; fertilizers, improved seed, and pesticides are the major inputs for increasing agricultural productivity. This is especially true in developing countries like Ethiopia where soil fertility and per capita agricultural productivity is declining overtime. According to CSA report (2005: 12) the number of farmers, using fertilizer, improved seed, and pesticides is increasing overtime. The FSS (2002: 10) also stresses the importance of these inputs since they are giving good yield for farmers reporting using them.

Nonetheless, there are constraints affecting to use these inputs; even if they need to use yield enhancing inputs, in the study area farmers resist using agricultural inputs due to high prices. A resettler at Demeksa said *"... you know the DAs came to us and distribute fertilizer and improved seed as if it is for free, however, at the end of the fiscal year they force us to pay the loan if not threaten us they will took the land..."* This can be easily shown by the percentage of resettlers using these inputs. Only 11.11% resettlers in Chokorsa and 8.57% in Tokuma Harar have reported that they have very good access to fertilizer, improved seed, pesticide and other means of production. Physical access to markets is a problem everywhere, but even where markets are accessible the availability of fertilizers,

pesticides, credit, improved tools and ploughs, veterinary services, and even extension advice is severely limited (Yared, 1999: 78). The reason for low access to these inputs directly proves, what Devereux (2000:6) argues; no grace periods or debt write offs are given in drought years, and poor farmers are often forced into selling their food production at low post-harvest prices to repay loans. Low availability of tools of production, very limited access to veterinary service, low access to market for purchasing means of production, low food production techniques, and exorbitant fertilizer prices and other improved agricultural chemicals adversely affected food production in Chewaka. In addition, resettlers resist using these inputs due to past experience that these seed varieties and fertilizers delivered require high levels of moisture and are not convenience with Chewaka's land type and viable rainfall pattern.

A study in Oromiya region found that repayment was positively correlated with livestock ownership a proxy for wealth and negatively correlated with spending on social ceremonies (Belay and Belay 1998: 61); in studied areas of Chewaka, this holds true where only 44.44% at Chokorsa and 40% at Tokuma Harar report rearing livestock. "Oxen are the most valuable units of wealth that farmers possess. They are certain bulwark against destitution in case of calamity such as crop loss or death of an economically valuable member of the family" (Yared, 1999: 93). Therefore, low livestock population could be one of among the many reasons for avoiding using these agricultural inputs, particularly purchasing fertilizer on loan from the government. These two kebeles own livestock and use modern agricultural chemicals, particularly fertilizer than the rest two kebeles, Demeksa and Missoma Gudina.

5.1.5 Access to Market

Market led-agricultural development is the policy that the Ethiopian government is currently following. The government believes that rather than establishing new market in all rural areas it is feasible to reduce the difficulty of access to market by expanding infrastructure to local and big market areas both in rural and urban areas. However, the nation is characterized by poor infrastructure and market integration. In Chewaka, all studied resettlers reported that they have low access to markets and very low access to big

markets like those found at Bedele town 98-kilo meters and Arjo town 120-kilo meters, taking Chewaka the starting point.

In Chewaka, the resettlers have access to dry weather road. Medium of transport is available only two days in a week, Tuesday and Friday. Both resettlers and small and medium intermediaries use Lories (small and medium sized both for transporting people and for goods). The government in its document, access to improved land, has announced that resettlers are provided to 'minimum infrastructure', where the concept itself is very subjective. Higher officials in the regional state of Oromiya explained differently to this concept, which makes things difficult as to implement the program.

As a result of low infrastructural amenities, ecological factors, types and amount produced, and weak institutional capacities, resettlers' have very low access to market for purchasing and selling their produce. Accordingly, due to limited access to market and poor road facility, resettlers' produce are sold at a very low price. Even during low post-harvest seasons resettlers reported that, they have low bargaining power over the intermediaries. Absence of strong institutions like farmers unions and cooperatives increased the low access to market. Limited access to market has a serious implication on the food availability and access in a given area. A breakdown in access to available food occurs as markets fail (for policy, logistical, or infrastructural reasons), causing prices to rise sharply and terms of trade with saleable household commodities (such as livestock, tubers, labor, or services) to collapse (Webb and von Braun, 1994: 15).

To wind up, access to market is very low in the studied area due to very low infrastructure, farmers bargaining power, limited capacity of customers, and limited amount and type of produce. The study by Befekadu and Berhanu (2000: 190) clearly reveal the above all points, "...the marketing system suffers from a number of constraints the limited number of large inter-regional traders and their constrained access to working capital and storage and poor road conditions have resulted in geographical pockets of agricultural surplus facing low prices and deficit areas with high prices. Small traders have limited capacity of holding large quantities for longer period of time with no sufficient stock in storage, the

volume of grain marketed falls sharply in years of poor harvest and prices rise considerably. Under high price instability farmers may be reluctant to make important investments such as the use of fertilizers."

5.2 Food Security: Availability, Access, Utilization and Seasonality

The section following discusses household food security situation of selected kebeles under the study. The core concept, food security lays on five different other concepts. The first concept, 'enough food', is presented in different literatures differently as 'a minimal level of food consumption', as 'a target level', as 'the basic food needed', as 'enough foods for life, health and growth of the young and for productive effort', and as 'enough food supply with the energy needed for all family members to live healthy, active and productive lives.' However, all discusses differently, this study appreciates as an input to analyze the concept 'enough food' through different angles of measurement through information gathered from household survey, FGD and key informants interview. 'Enough food' is the amount, type, and quality that a household or an individual regard as enough, is acquired through normal and acceptable means of channel to that particular society, household and/or individual, and is nutritious.

The second concept in this study is 'access and entitlement'. According to Sen (1981: 12) entitlement is defined as the bundle of goods and services a person can make his own. A food secure household (individual) has the right to command which type of and what amount to eat by its own sake, and entitled through legal means available in the society, including the use of production possibility, trade opportunity, entitlements vis-à-vis the state and other methods of acquiring food.

The third concept of food security is 'security', which is secure access to enough food. It is free of anxiety and risk of access and utilization of available food and no vulnerability to the entitled food. Vulnerability is again also refers to retroactive and proactive response in case of unforeseen events that might affect the entitlement negatively. Finally, the study focuses on the issue of 'time' where the individual/household has enough access to food at all

times. Time determines the existence of chronic and transitory food insecurity of household. In this study twelve months food security situation of resettlers' is analyzed.

The household survey questionnaire was designed in a way it can address the above five core concepts of food security situation of the study area. Questions were asked as households to indicate their level/status and perception towards food availability, access, utilization and seasonality. After that, points were allotted for each response, in order to differentiate resettlers as: food secure, food insecure without hunger, food insecure with hunger (moderate) and food insecure with hunger (sever) (ANNEX IV).

5.2.1 Dominant Crops Produced

Under normal circumstances, resettlers in their previous area of living produce crops twice in a year, i.e. during the *meher* (main) and *belg* (minor) seasons. During the main season, they were producing cereals and cash crops; *teff*, wheat, maize and sorghum, and cash crops *khat* and coffee. During the minor season, maize, pulses, vegetables and fruits, and cash crops *khat* and coffee are produced. Particularly, *khat* was the major source of income during minor season to fill the gap of food shortage and acquire capital assets in the household.

As CSA report (2007: 42) depicts, Illubabor zone is highly dominated by production of cereals- sorghum, maize and finger millet- and valuable crops- coffee, sesame and soybean. In Chewaka, all resettlers from the studied kebeles produce sorghum both as a source of daily consumption and selling. Nation wise sorghum yield quintal per ha is 15.82 and regional wise it is the highest in Oromiya, which is 16.79% on average. Moreover, Illubabor is the number one zone giving the highest yield per ha, which is 18.77. As a result, resettlers in Chewaka produce sorghum easily without much use of improved seed and fertilizer as they explained the suitability of the land for sorghum production, during household survey and FGDs.

Table 5.2 Dominant Crops Produced in Chewaka

Types of crops produced	Chokorsa		Tokuma Harar		Demeksa		Missoma Gudina	
	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age
Sorghum	45	100	35	100	40	100	30	100
Sesame	12	26.6	9	25.71	24	60	18	60
Maize	25	55.5	29	54.29	23	57.5	22	73.3
Rice	20	44.4	15	42.86	10	25	7	23.33
Soybean	8	17.8	11	31.43	19	47.5	17	56.67

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

As Table 5.2 shows, there are five types of crops both cereals and cash crops produced in the area. The three ranked dominant crops in the four kebeles are sorghum, maize and rice in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar and sorghum, sesame, and maize in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina. However, the percentage of involvement varies from kebele to kebele. According to CSA result (2007: 39 and 42), the average per ha yield in Oromiya is 5.81 quintal for sesame and 23.36 quintals for maize, however, it is 9.52 quintals and 21.20 quintals for the Illubabor zone for sesame and maize respectively. This shows that the area has a very good potential for sesame production than maize.

Out of the total five crops produced in Chewaka, low per capita yield is recorded for crops maize and soybean. On the other hand, crops rice and sorghum are produced in the area with the highest quintal per ha. Nonetheless, resettlers in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar produce sorghum and rice than resettlers at Demeksa and Missoma Gudina. As a result, their food consumption is more than resettlers at Demeksa and Missoma Gudina, which can be shown from the discussion following.

With regard to types of crops grown, resettlers in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina are engaged in production of different verities of crops than resettlers in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar kebele. On average 2.44 in Chokorsa, 2.54 in Tokuma Harar, 2.9 in Damaqsa and 3.13 in Missoma Gudina resettlers produce different types of products. To make it clear, on average each resettler in Chokorsa produces two types of crops (2.44). However, it does not mean that those resettlers reporting for producing more than one item get better access to foods consumed rather it is one way for getting a variety of products. In Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar resettlers on average get between 16 and 24 quintal in one harvest season and in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina resettlers produce between 8 and 12 quintals, which highly affects the frequency and amount of food consumed. The other fact is that, more resettlers in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina produce/or are involved in cash crops like sesame than those resettlers found in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar, which might affect the food consumed of the household under study. The other issue for producing only sorghum and maize is that resettlers' risk aversion behavior of crop failure. It is well known that peasants diversify their crops and avoid specialization in the interest of risk aversion- the desire to minimize debilitating crop loss. Repeated failure of certain crops (particularly soybean and sesame) results in the avoidance of planting such crops (Yared, 1999: 94).

5.2.2 Food Acquisition

From the three pillars of food security, availability, access and utilization; food acquisition of a household shows means of acquiring food related resources as to satisfy individual and household food need. In the studied areas, there are four types of channels of acquiring staple food for daily food consumption. They are from own farm, purchasing from market, transfer food in the form of loan, and 'other' channels like through food for work and daily labor, which salary is acquired in terms of food (this is for private sector groups involved in construction of home, potable water, and commercial agriculture).

In Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar only food acquired from own farm and from market are the basic sources. On the contrary, in Damaqsa and Missoma Gudina, in addition to the above two channels resettlers acquire their daily and staple food through transfer food in the

form of loan, either from relatives or from neighbors, and 'other' channels, which are discussed in the above paragraph. All studied areas reported that since 2006 they did not receive their basic food in the form of direct food aid from the government or any other body. However, it does not mean that all are self-sustained resettlers. This is because resettlers explained that they did not get food (quality, amount, and type) on a daily basis from the four channels of acquiring food items. This is particularly true in Damaqsa and Missoma Gudina where 45% and 46.67% respectively reported that they acquire their staple food consumed in the form of transfer food as loan from relatives and/or neighbors.

Other sources of acquiring food, food-for-work and daily labor were regarded as another channel of food acquisition in Damaqsa and Missoma Gudina. Hence, there is a strong interconnectedness between channel of food acquisition and incidence of food shortage. Those resettlers engaged in food-for-work-programs, daily labor and transfer food in the form of loan are highly vulnerable to short and long-period shocks than those relied on own farm produce consumption. While compared to own farm produce consumption, the rest channels of food acquisition are exposed to external shocks, which again highly influence resettlers' food acquisition status.

The second major source of food acquisition, purchasing from market is more frequently appear in resettlers found in Damaqsa and Missoma Gudina. The most frequently purchased food items in these kebeles are sorghum and maize either weakly or monthly, where as salt, sugar and edible oil purchased on daily, weekly and monthly pattern in all kebeles. Either once or twice a year all farmers purchase wheat or *Teff*, which were their staple food at the previous area of living.

The basic reason for purchasing food items vary from society to society. However, in the studied areas there are six basic reasons for purchasing staple and daily food items. They are to satisfy basic food consumption, for variety, and unable to produce due to ample of reasons, like sickness of the family member particularly the main working adult, food shortage, food prices, low job/off-farm employment opportunity, and priorities emerging in that particular month. Nonetheless, as Figure 5.4 shows, the reason unable to produce

due to a lot of reasons is the highest of all. This proves the concept 'strong interconnectedness between channel of food acquisition and incidence of food shortage'. Next to this, to satisfy basic food consumption and for variety are selected as the reason for purchasing food. Nevertheless, no sampled household in kebeles Demeksa and Missoma Gudina reported that they purchase food for variety, which again proves the above concept.

Therefore, resettlers can be referred as having limited access to food. Lack of food availability is caused by the above-mentioned reasons. An inadequate mobilization of natural, material and human resources for food production (Webb and von Braun, 1994: 15) cause a lack of food availability.

More resettlers in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina purchase sorghum and maize on daily, weekly and monthly basis. The more resettlers are engaged in cash/valuable crops the less on production of crops for consumption since land in the area is limited and resources for increasing type and amount of crops produced are scarce as to share more from the same pie. In addition, market sources in the resettlement areas are not secured sources of food acquisition. This is mainly because of low market integration and weak infrastructural and institutional arrangements. Reliance on the market for any component of food supply is perceived as a source of vulnerability, as indeed it often is, considering price fluctuations and lack of access to cash.

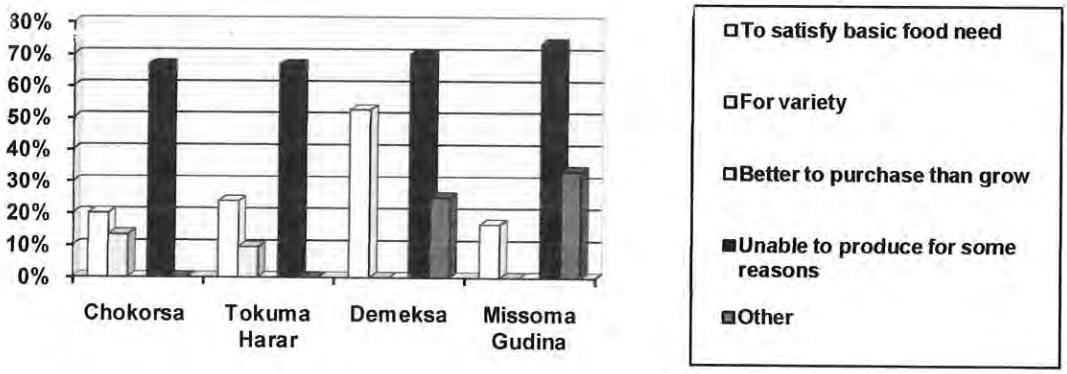


Figure 5.4 Major Reasons for Purchasing Staple and Daily Food Items

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

In the FSS of Ethiopia, the government encourages small-scale commercialization of agriculture; however, it should not be at the expense of food consumed. In Chewaka, there is very limited access to both improved animals drawn agriculture and modern agricultural input, which again affects commercialization of farming. The problem is further escalating due to limited access and availability of market, both small and big markets, and infrastructural amenities. The other issue that should be analyzed is the purpose of farming. Because if a household produces and sales crops, particularly soybean and sesame, for the sake of satisfying daily meal; it is of no use encouraging such activity. The major reason is that it increases vulnerability of resettlers to food insecurity and unforeseen shocks, like price of outputs, if income from these sources directly spent on satisfying daily food. However, if income generated from cash crops is spent on acquiring capital assets, then it is very certain resettlers' problem will be solved. In addition, well-being of the residents will be improved through expansion of commercial farming, which again will have a multiplier effect on forward and backward linkage of the agricultural sector.

Out of the total resettlers in these four kebeles 55.56% in Chokorsa, 65.71% in Tokuma Harar, 62.5% in Demeksa, and 47.5% in Missoma Gudina sale their products. However, reporting not selling of crops produced does not mean that resettlers did not have enough to sale. Rather there are fundamental reasons for not selling produce; less engagement in valuable crops and having enough cash, which can cover the expenditure they want to spend on, and foremost food production is not enough for food consumption let alone for sale. In addition, as discussed in section 5.2.1, resettlers' risk-aversion behavior due to crop loss as a result of planting valuable crops increased for less engagement of selling produce.

As the figure below shows, the purpose of crop selling is different. However, the two most determinants for selling crops produced in the studied kebeles are for the purpose of medication; both for treatment and for medicine, and to pay for loan. Resettlers in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina kebele sale crops produced as to pay loan, which was borrowed from relatives or neighbors to satisfy basic food consumption. And it is returned back in type and/or in cash.

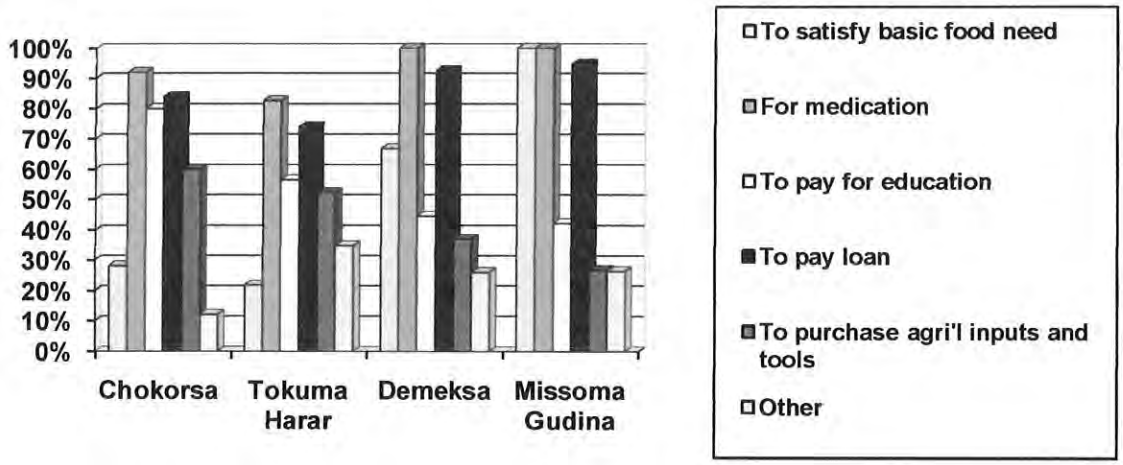


Figure 5.5 Major Reasons for Selling Crops Produced From Own Farm

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

5.2.3 Seasonality of Food Availability

The major effect of relying on rain fed agriculture in Ethiopia is seasonality of food production, where only during rainy seasons, main rainy season, that farmers could produce their food. According to Mulat, *et al.* (2006: 301) Ethiopia receives plentiful annual rainfall on the average that can support optimum level of agricultural activities, nonetheless, the rainfall distribution both in quantity of spatial temporal distribution is different from area to area and from season to season which affects the type of amount of agricultural production. Rains in Ethiopia are highly erratic and uneven (Mulat, *et al.*, 2006: 301), leading to deep-rooted vulnerability to environmental shocks and clear seasonality of food production.

In Chewaka, months from May to August, are referred as main rain season (*keremt)*, where resettlers produce (*Meher* Production) their annual agricultural production both for consumption and for sale. Even if the area is characterized by high rainfall, variability in amount from month to month affects food production. In addition, exacerbated by limited land productivity for different types of crops, limited access to market and agricultural inputs, and absence of animal drawn inputs for agricultural production; resettlers are

forced to produce once in a year. As a result, there is a clear evidence of seasonality of food production.

There were three kinds of responses from the selected kebeles concerning seasonality of food availability. They are food shortage, normal, and excess in the past 12 months. As the tables below show, January, February, March and April are months where resettlers from all studied areas, more than 50% reported either food normal or excess. Particularly in Chokorsa and Tohuma Harar, no sampled resettlers reported occurrence of food shortage in these four consecutive months.

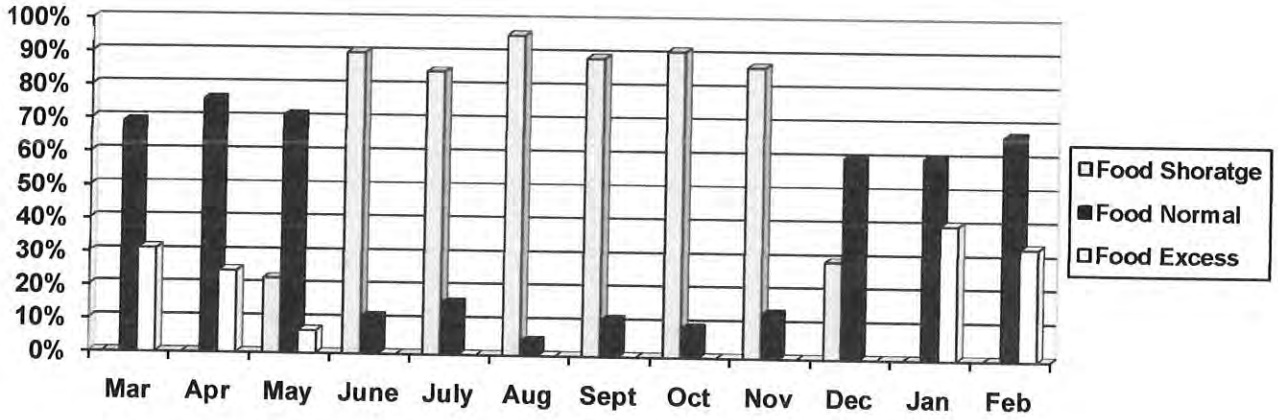


Figure 5.6 Seasonality of Food Availability in Chokorsa Keble

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

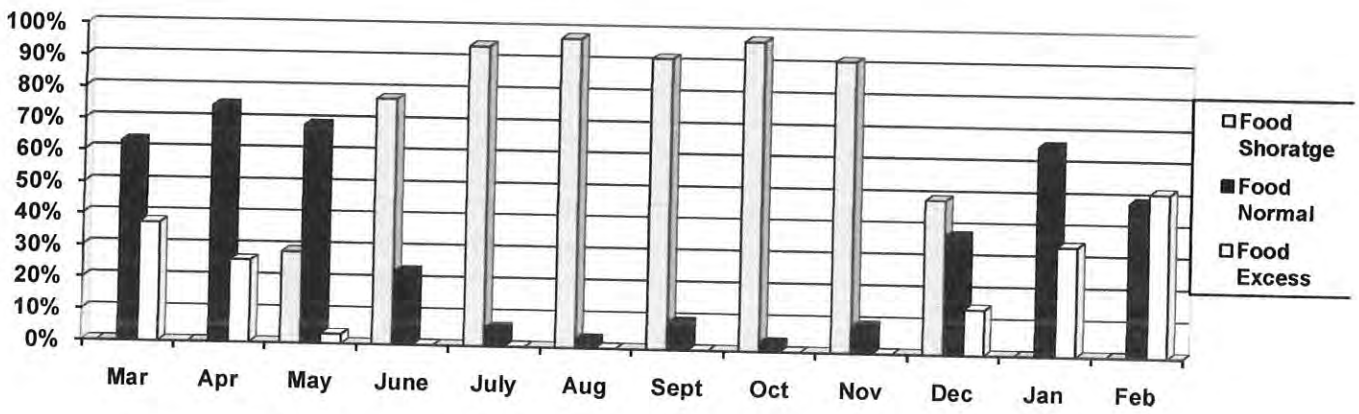


Figure 5.7 Seasonality of Food Availability in Tokuma Harar Kebele

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

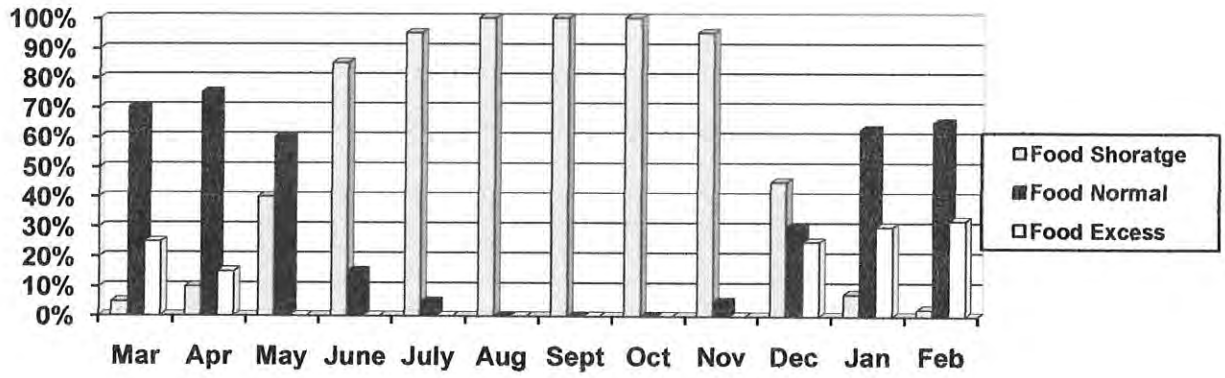


Figure 5.8 Seasonality of Food Availability in Demeksa Kebele

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

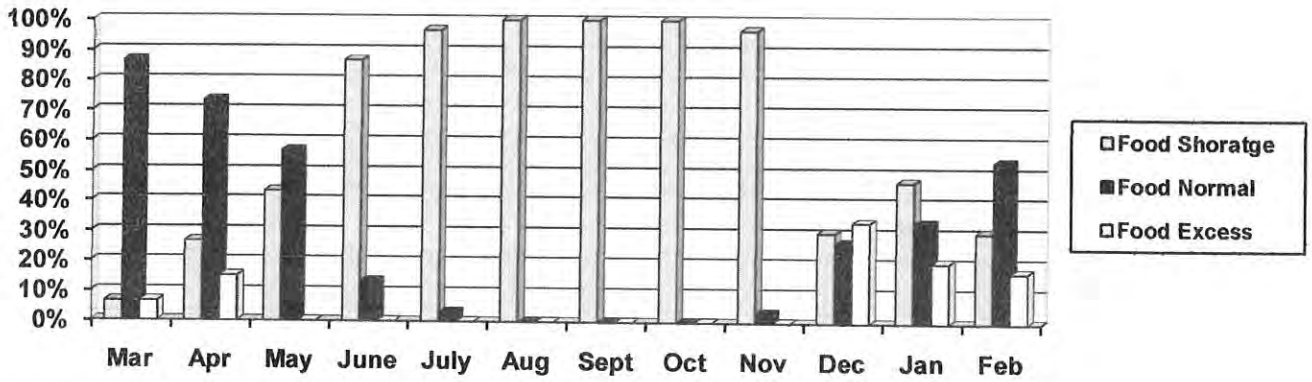


Figure 5.9 Seasonality of Food Availability in Missoma Gudina Kebele

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

However, months June, July, August, September and October are months where a serious food shortage exists in all households. With the exception of resettlers in Tokuma Harar where 77.14% of respondents reported food shortage for the month June, more than 80% of the resettlers in the rest kebeles reported occurrence of food shortage in these 4 months. The problem is serious in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina where in the months from August – October all resettlers face food shortage. Therefore, out of the 12 months at least 7

months in the year there is an existence of food shortage in the four kebeles, and it is much severe in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina, which is 8-12 months of food shortage.

Webb and von Braun (1994: 39), summarizes the major factors for food seasonality in Ethiopia as, "the direct relationship between rainfall quantity, distribution, timing, and resultant crop yields is complex. Soil type, soil depth, location of plots, and soil temperature all have an effect on yields and total production. Nevertheless, one expects a simple link between total levels of rainfall and crop productions." As nationwide experience, causes of seasonality of food availability in Chewaka is not only limited to seasonality of rainfall, input prices, food prices and income of the family, it also adds issues like sickness of the main working adult due to human-intensive agriculture; priorities emerging in that month, particularly due date of loan of fertilizer and food from relatives; and other issues like lack of access to better health services for resettlers and their small cattle number, and presence of pests and/or locusts.

Sickness of the main working adult is a serious issue, which is regarded as a high risk to the household. The agricultural production in these kebeles is highly dependent on the availability of human labor. Because it is the *'harka'* hands used as a means for tilling, plowing, and harvesting name it.... and provide food to the household. As a result, the food production in the household is dependent on the health situation of the main working adult.

> *"... You know, you will be surprised how much work in kind and amount our hand spent. No wonder it is disturbed from small insects, snakes to big forest animals..."* A 57 years old resettler in Demeksa

> *'I didn't complain Allah for His provision of rain to us because it is adequate ... but the officials for their low assistance in providing fertilizer, improved seed, veterinary service, and to foremost better health to our children and working adults we are facing serious food shortage in most months of the year"* A 34 years old widowed woman in Choqorsa expressing her sorrow due to deep rooted problem of access to inputs and health service.

The other major reason for low food production in the area is food prices, where due to low access to market some excess produces are sold for a low price. "*... there are traders who came during excess production to collect our produce especially sesame and soybean. They have medium sized Lorries... and we are forced to sale at low prices because if we wait longer the rain will destroy the crops and the road, hence no one will come to take our produce...*" This is not the story of one resettler, rather all engaged in cereal and cash crop production are affected by poor road and storage facility. In their previous area of living they were having better access to market and road, hence no one can dictate the price. In addition to this, through locally constructed outlet to the main road they were able to sale produce at a reasonable price. Low access to market also affected seasonality of food production. Moreover, resettlers lack bargaining power because of absence of farmers' union and cooperative associations. The other cause of seasonality, which can go together with access to market and infrastructure, is lack of good and large storage facility. As a result, resettlers cannot keep their produce in the store and sale their produce at a reasonable price, which also affected resettlers' bargaining power.

5.2.4 Food Utilization

Food utilization, as the other two pillars of food security, is the major factor in attaining food security in a particular household. With enough availability and access to food and resources, a household might not be regarded as food secured; as a result, food utilization must be included. Food utilization of a household is dependent on two factors; (a) households' use of the food to which they have access and (b) individual's ability to absorb nutrients and the conversion efficiency of the food by the body. According to WFP (2001: 9), "in ideal world, food consumption would be measured through a detailed food consumption survey measured by quantity and types of foods (e.g., recalling 24 hours food intake). This type of method yields valuable data on both calorie (macro) and micronutrient intake; however, there are several constraints that prevent widespread application of this method in food security surveys. It is very expensive and time consuming to collect for a large enough samples of households to yield reasonably precise

population estimates and requires high levels of technical skills both in data collection and analysis."

The other difficulty is measuring individuals biological food utilization capacity, which needs a highly qualified expertise and tools for undertaking the study, and also requires a huge sum of investment on hiring expertise, acquiring research tools (scientific), and time span. However, to overcome majority of the problems; the research was designed in a way where resettlers' status of food utilization can be captured easily in efficient and effective manner. Not less than 30 types of questions were provided for resettlers and hence their status of food utilization supported by the same number of questions for food access, availability and seasonality were gathered as to capture resettlers' food security status.

The study gathered data on occurrence of food shortage in the studied areas in the past 12 months starting from March 2007. It was found out that at least 88.89% of resettlers in all sampled areas reported that they experience food shortage in the past 12 months. The percentage reaches to 100% in Missoma Gudina, which was also regarded as the lowest and problematic kebeles in the resettlement area. In addition, it is also found in site-2- where the town of the resettlement is found. Furthermore, according to officials in key informant interview, the site is regarded as problematic area compared with other sites in the area.

As Figure 5.6-5.9 of the previous section and discussion shows, for more than 7 months in the past one year resettlers reported occurrence of food shortage, which directly proves the percentage of resettlers experiencing food seasonality. The higher the seasonality of food availability the more that resettlers will be vulnerable to food shortage. The basic reasons of food shortage were discussed in the previous section, Section 5.2.3. However, to add some more absence of off-farm opportunities, income diversification activities, and livestock population highly increased the number of people reporting to experience food shortage.

In previous area of living seasonality of food production is covered by intensive engagement in off-farm and income generating activities, particularly selling *Khat* and

coffee. Their income was more than birr 30,000 per annum, which is more than the average per annum income of resettlers in Chewaka by birr 26,500 per annum.

Time period of experiencing food shortage differs from household to household and from kebele to kebele. Some of the resettlers experienced food shortage once or twice in a month, on the other hand, others almost every week. However, for majority of the resettlers, the status from twice to three times every month is selected as the frequency of food shortage experienced in their household. In kebeles Demeksa and Missoma Gudina, the percentage of resettlers reporting experiencing food shortage every week at least once is 23.68% and 8.30% respectively. In total, out of those resettlers reporting experiencing food shortage in the past 12 months 91.2% in Demeksa and 93.33% in Missoma Gudina either at least for 2 to 5 times in a month or at least once every week experience food shortage. In site-1- of Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar the percentage is also high, which is 75% and 71.88 respectively. At the same time, the percentage of resettlers experiencing severe food shortage more than once every week is 5% and 6.25% respectively for these two kebeles.

The percentage of resettlers skipping daily food other than sickness and/or fasting is exactly the same as the percentage of resettlers experiencing food shortage in the past 12 months (at least 88.89% of resettlers in all the studied kebeles experience food shortage in the past 12 months). The prominent reasons of skipping the entire meal are: food shortages, food prices (increase), and family income (decrease). Out of the total studied areas, food shortage is the major reason for skipping food, followed by food prices (increase) for Demeksa and Missoma Gudina kebeles and income of the family (decrease) for Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar kebeles. As discussed earlier, low/decreased family income is the result of lesser engagement in off-farm and income-generating activities; where as seasonality of food availability is due to lack of agricultural inputs, limited access to market, veterinary service, and health institution. These are also the factors leading to exorbitant price during pre-harvest season of food items, which again resulted in a sober food shortage in the area.

As a nationwide problem of food shortage, a lot of constraints appear which are different in type and extent. "Constraints include the inability to ensure timely and effective plowing because of a lack of oxen, low income security because of a lack of milking cows and lack of transport animals to carry produce to market, and low animal productivity (of meat, milk and calves) because of diseases and lack of adequate grazing throughout the year. Without animals, most farmers would be poorer and more vulnerable to food shortage than they already are" (Wolde- Mariam, 1991: 63-64).

Skipping food due to one of the above factors is different among children and the main working adult. More children are found to experience skipping the entire food less frequent than the main working adult does. In all the studied areas, the severity of the food shortage problem based on age is less for children. Two major reasons that can be mentioned as children to experience lesser food intake frequency than the main working adult are: children are favored for high / better food intake both in quality and in quantity than the main working adult and adults are more long-suffering than children are.

Out of the sampled resettlers, 11.11% of resettlers in Chokorsa, 8.57% in Tokuma Harar, 5% in Demeksa, and none of the resettlers in Missoma Gudina did not experience food shortage in the past 12 months. On the other hand, in these respective kebeles children never experiencing food shortage is 40%, 31.43%, 30%, and 33.33%. Particularly, the culture of the community that favors children plays a great role for the difference in experiencing food intake. In days of food shortage, resettlers also sacrifice daily food intake to a sick person, pregnant woman, and to foremost their children.

5.2.5 The Question: Are Resettlers Food Secured?

Other than quantitative determination of resettlers as food secure or not and as better off than before or not, their perception towards their food security situation plays a major role. In this section, perception of resettlers on their food security situation is correlated with the result obtained from quantitative food security situation of resettlers. The previous four sub-sections clearly show resettlers' food availability, access, utilization, and seasonality situation. Majority of the resettlers were characterized by: insufficient of food

availability, access and utilization, and highly varied and long period seasonality of food availability. A food secured household will not experience one of the above for most of the months in a year under "normal conditions."

To begin with, anxiety and worry about the supply of food, resettlers in all 12 months worry about not getting enough food. This contradicts with the concept "anxiety free household" when a household is food secured. As a result, resettlers worry in the past 12 months, where food would come from and occurrence of food shortage. Food insecurity in these areas arises from several issues, and is most devastating when more than one cause occurs together. Food shortage, food prices, sickness of the family member, debt, no regular cash income (income security), and other factors like amount and pattern of rainfall, availability of tools of production are the major and most causes for resettlers in these four kebeles, worrying about where food would come from. However, food shortage, due to reasons discussed under section 5.2.3, highly influences households' feeling of anxiety. Absence of regular income both from on and off-farm activities and debt due to loan for food and for agricultural input also severely created such all year stress on resettlers from where to get daily food.

According to the statistics results, extent and type of stress is different from kebele to kebele, and dependent on the composition of a household under study. On average the strength of factors leading to stress about means of food actualization is less in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar, which is 1.4667 and 2.228 respectively. This is to mean that a number of causing factors for leading to stress/ worry are wide spread. In these two kebeles, only one or two reasons can be mentioned for each respondent. On the contrary, in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina the result is more than the above; on average 4.73 reasons approximately 5 (or at least more than 4) in Demeksa and 4.6 reasons in Missoma Gudina lead to such stress and anxiety where food would come from. The number of reasons and extent of these factors, (problems) can be shown clearly in the following figure.

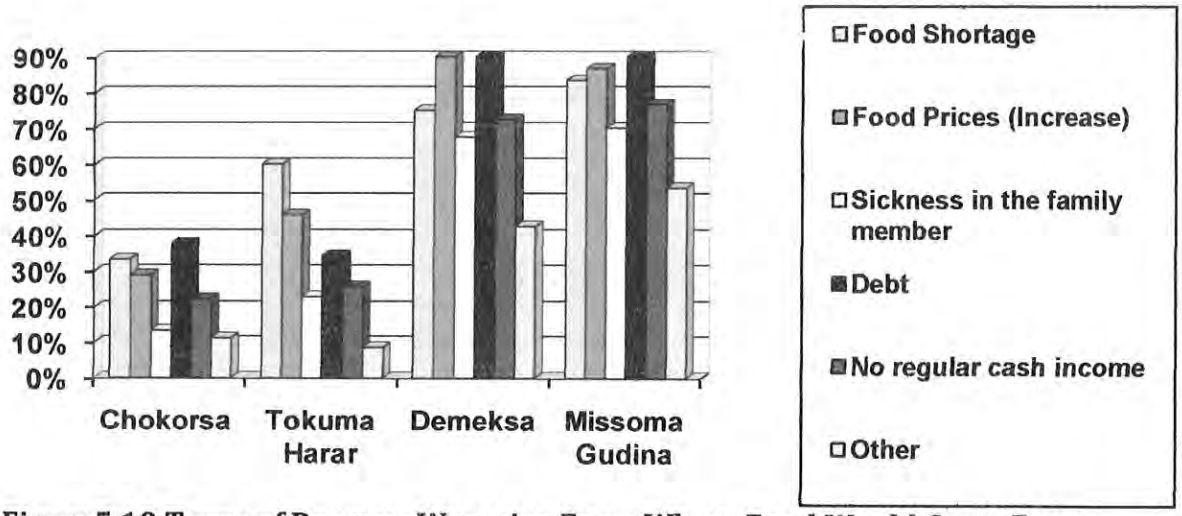


Figure5.10 Types of Reasons Worrying From Where Food Would Come From

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

If there is an occurrence of food shortage, resettlers will take foods, which are less preferred. In Chewaka, resettlers did not get what they think preferable food items. A person living in previous area of living normal food intake is whenever it gets 3 meals per day. In addition, the first meal composed of *Marqa* (porridge) and Milk, *Injera* and *Wet* for the second, and for the third different types of meals concentrating on vegetables and milk products. Unfortunately, no respondent in all of the four kebeles experience such situation. In Chewaka, almost all resettlers choose the option "Never" for the question "Do you take food items like meat, egg fish, milk, fruits and vegetables?" As a result of the characteristics of the land and ecological factor, resettlers are unable to produce *teff*, wheat, and fruits and vegetables. Moreover, they are unable to raise cattle due to trypanosomiasis.

Asking less preferred food intake shows households' food availability and acceptability. One domain of food insecurity is having limited choices in the type of food that a household consumes. However, preferred foods might not be nutritionally high quality rather such kind of issues indicate households' command over resources, which can be categorized as input and output components of food resources. In previous area of living (Hararghe), resettlers were getting food what they think preferred namely: *teff*, wheat, maize, potato, tomato, pepper, onion, cabbage, meat, milk and milk products, eggs, and cash crops coffee and *khat*. With the exception of maize, not all resettlers consumed the rest food items.

Surprisingly, what resettlers consider as preferred food items are foods having better calorie and regarded as good quality nutrients.

Another domain of food security is consuming enough amount and kinds of foods. This issue also shows household's entitlement to food. If a household is food secured it can take enough food in terms of quantity and quality. Quantity and Quality of food intake shows household's food intake in terms of amount, kind and frequency. There are two distinct points that resettlers experience in Chewaka and previous area of living. They are, consuming the kinds of food they want to consume but not always enough and enough but not the kinds of foods they want to consume. In these two points, a household will not be regarded as food secured. In the previous area of living, resettlers' were getting foods, which they prefer to take but were not enough in quantity. In Chewaka, resettlers are getting more than previously but not the kinds of foods they want to take /consume. As a result, the previous area of living is better in terms of preference and quality but not in amount, where as in Chewaka resettlers consume more quantity of food items frequently than before.

Table 5.3 Number of Meals per Day, in Chewaka

Number of Meals per Day	Chokorsa		Tokuma Harar		Demeksa		Missoma Gudina	
	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age
One								
Two	5	12.5	6	17.14	12	30	11	36.67
Three	40	87.5	29	82.86	28	70	19	63.33
Total	**45**		**35**		**40**		**30**	

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

Table 5.4 Number of Meals per Day, in Previous Area of Living (Hararghe)

Number of Meals per Day	Chokorsa		Tokuma Harar		Demeksa		Missoma Gudina	
	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age	No. of resettlers	%age
One	25	55.56	18	51.43	8	20	10	33.33
Two	15	33.33	12	34.23	12	30	13	43.33
Three	5	11.11	5	14.34	20	50	7	23.33
> 3								
Total	**45**		**35**		**40**		**30**	

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

More quantity and less quality of food consumed can be shown on the percentage of resettlers getting meals per day. As it can be depicted from the above table, in the previous area of living resettlers reported that per day meal increased either from one to two or from two to three meals per day. However, all sampled resettlers explained that the food intake of the current situation is less preferred and low in terms of quality than the previous one. As national evidence also reveals, limited options on the type of food consumed is one of the major indicators of food shortage and/ or insecurity. "Under periods of sustained food constraint, the use of food becomes inappropriate in terms of quantity and quality consumed. The number of meals per day is reduced, the amount of food eaten deviate increasingly from the norm" (Webb and von Braun, 1994: 15).

Satisfying daily meal from-food-for work, direct food aid, borrowing on credit from relatives, neighbors' and local shops clearly show resettlers food security situation. These also show either they are better than before or not. What makes different from previous area of living is that resettlers are not getting direct food aid or emergency food aid as

previously did. This, however, does not mean that they are better than before. When critical look is made, in Demeksa and Missoma Gudina resettlers need direct food aid and cyclical food-for-work intervention by the government and other donors. This is because resettlers for more than 6 months in a year experience food shortage. Resettlers also demand food aid or other interventions like better market, road, health, infrastructure provision, means of production, credit facility, human capital development and other interventions as to enable them self-reliant on farm production. The other reason for discontinuity of direct food aid is the situation in Chewaka; particularly in site 1 (Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar), where there is an indication of declining chronic food insecurity. Nonetheless, it is not clear in what basis the government discontinued direct food aid for the rest kebeles.

In order to fill the gap of food shortage, households' might borrow money. However, in Chewaka as the figure below shows; majority of the resettlers, minimum of 50% of them, did not borrow money to satisfy their daily food consumption from local shops. In particular, borrowing from local shops on credit is very low. Reporting high percentage of low frequency of loan from local credit as to satisfy daily food consumption, however, might not lead to conclude resettlers are food secured. This is because the fact that in Chewaka there are limited number of local shops specializing in consumable items. In addition, there is uncertainty among local shop owners that credit money/food borrowed will not be returned back.

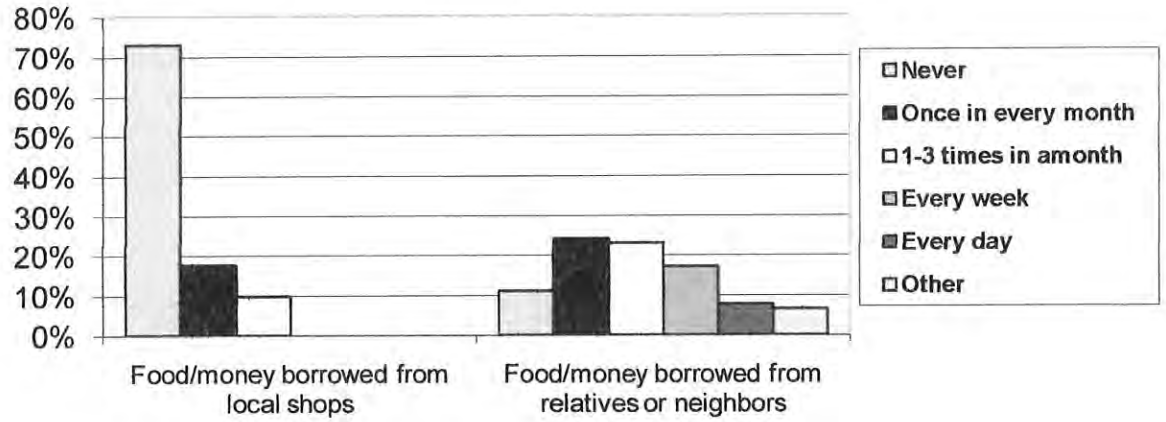


Figure 5.11 Average Percentage of Resettlers Borrowing Money to Satisfy Daily Food Consumption from Relatives, Neighbors, and Local Shops

Source: Household Survey, 2008.

The percentage of resettlers borrowing money/food from relatives or neighbors clearly proves the above concept. Resettlers need to fill the gap of food shortage; where relatives and neighbors are the major sources. The other major source of filling the gap of food shortage is relatives at previous area of living. Parents, sisters and brothers, sister/brother in-laws, and other relatives send some money by selling *khat* or coffee, where these resettlers left in Hararghe to one of their family members.

The other source of information for knowing food security situation is the purpose of income generated from cash crops and money used for purchasing food, which was meant for another purpose. Source of income in studied areas is selling both cereals and cash crops. Moreover, the purpose of selling crops is for satisfying daily food consumption, for medication, and to pay loan. All the three reasons are as a result of low food intake, limited availability of resources, high food shortage and low availability of means of production. Since there is high degree of seasonality of food production in a year, resettlers are forced to search alternative sources to fill the gap, which is loan from relatives and/or neighbors. As a result, other than using for different purpose, income generated is spent on food, which leads to very low investment on saving and fixed assets. The more resettlers spent

their income on food and consumable item, the less the saving, hence they are vulnerable to unforeseen and unexpected events, shocks and also less improvement and engagement on capital generating assets.

With the exception of 20% sampled resettlers in Chokorsa, 17.14% in Tokuma Harar 10% in Demeksa, and 3.33% in Missoma Gudina; all resettlers used money for purchasing food, which was meant for another purpose. The purpose of the money saved varies from household to household. Resettlers explained that the money was aimed/saved for medicines, repaying loans, school expense for children, investment on assets (such as agricultural inputs), housing costs (such as maintenance, construction and related), dowry, travel (particularly to the previous area of living), and other unforeseen events. If the frequency of using money; which was meant for the above purposes, increases, then resettlers are at risk of serious food insecurity. The definition of food security in chapter two of this study intricate that a household will be referred as food secured, whenever it has sustainable food intake both in quality and quantity from normal channel of food acquisition. Channels particularly own production and purchasing. Furthermore, the money spent on food should be budgeted for it, not from something borrowed or to be used for any another purpose like medicine, schooling, investment, saving and others.

Even if money used to purchase food items, there were ample times where resettlers unable to purchase food because nothing that can be used as a food exist in the family. Majority of resettlers, at least more than once in a month experienced such situation (unable to get food because nothing that can be exchanged for food exists). In Demeksa 22.5% and in Missoma Gudina 50% of the resettlers experienced such situation at least once in a week. The situation is very low in Chokorsa, which is 11.11%, and 20% in Tokuma Harar of the selected settlers. However, it is clear that if this situation continues resettlers will be forced to mortgage their assets. Starting from the less preferred it will continue to fixed assets, like land or home, which might lead to stress and conflict deforestation/destruction of forests, crime and other socio-cultural, political stresses in the resettlement area.

Resettlers, in all kebeles mortgage their assets because money run out and there was no other means to acquire food. Even if the time span differs, minimum of 57% from all studied areas mortgage their asset as to acquire food. The problem is serious in site 2, where Demeksa and Misoma Gudina found, 82.5% and 86.57% of them respectively mortgage their assets because food and money run out and there was no option other than mortgaging assets to acquired food. These resettlers also reported in having more number of physical assets than the other two, particularly radio, which enabled these resettlers mortgaging assets easily than other resettlers in Chokorsa and Tokuma Harar do.

> "*...in some circumstances, I am ashamed of selling my clothes, particularly those of my children, for me I will spent the day by praying and addressing* saa'lat, *but for my children the only option is to mortgage clothes as I do not have any other alternative to feed them..*" Abdulaziz 45 years old male resettle in Missoma Gudina, explaining the situation during pre-harvest season food shortage.

A severe of food insecurity situation is reflected on people eating foods, which are not acceptable in the community and when people particularly children and women, and animals start dying. This situation can be termed as chronic food insecurity, famine, and drought. However, no resettler reported eating unacceptable food and losing any member of the household due to starvation.

Low food intake, in both quality and quantity, food shortage, starvation and other food related difficulties are reflected on the number of resettlers reporting health problems because of food contamination, malnutrition, food shortage or low food intake. Majority of the resettlers in all kebeles Chokorsa 64.44%, Tokuma Harar 71.43%, Demeksa 80% and Missoma Gudina 96.67% reported that in the past 12 months they encountered health problems related to food shortage, malnutrition, low food intake and food contamination-one or mix of these. This clearly shows that resettlers are not food secured, and some are seriously affected.

Resettlers explained health interruption because of food related problems. Nonetheless, less number of resettlers went to health service. Only 53.56% of resettlers in Chokorsa

went to get health services out of the total experiencing food related health problems in the past 12 months and 65.7%, 62.5%, and 63.33% resettlers in Tokuma Harar, Demeksa and Missoma Gudina respectively went to health institutions, as explained by FGDs participants. There are four fundamental reasons for not getting health service. The first major reason is that very low access to health service exacerbated by limited capacity of institutions. Secondly, cost of treatment in private clinics in Chewaka is very high, particularly in the center Illu-Harar, the cost is 7 times greater than both government owned health institutions in the area and other private clinics found in Bedele and Arjo town. Thirdly, due to frequent appearance of health related problems, resettlers lost their patience going to these health institutions. The last factor is low road access, which limited resettlers' access to better health services wherever they need.

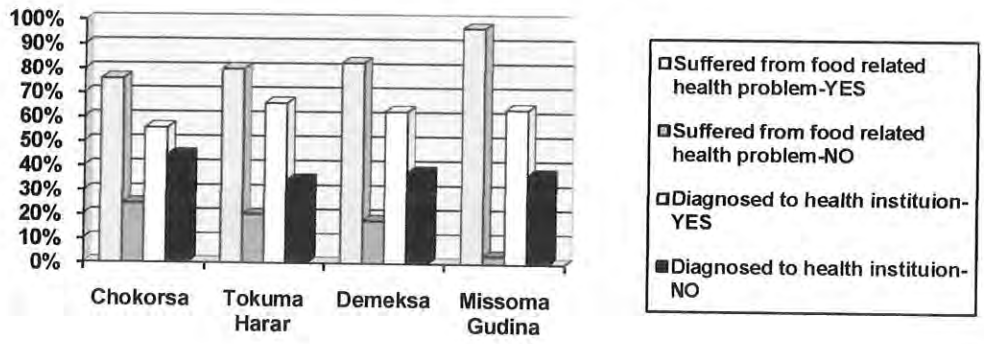


Figure 5.12 Members of the Family in Chewaka Suffered from Health Related Problems and Diagnosed in a Health Institution in the Past 12 Months

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

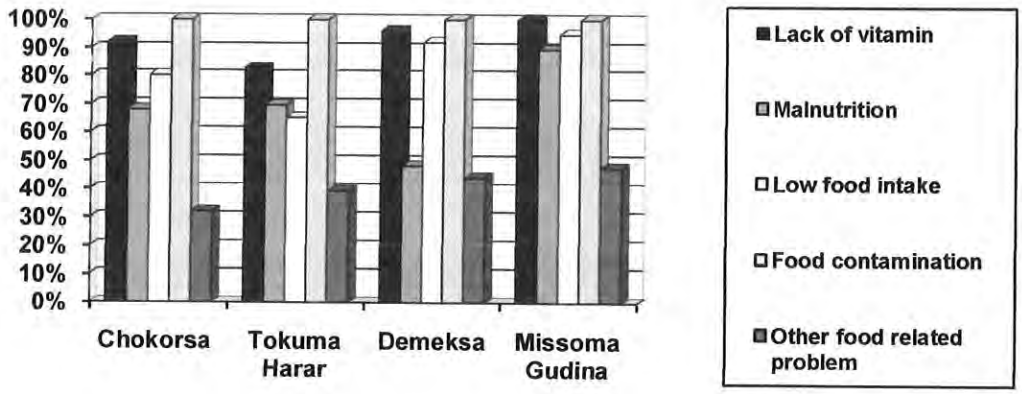


Figure 5.13 Food Related Health Problems Usually Occur

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

As Figure 5.13 shows, food contamination and lack of vitamin are the major problems in the studied areas. Malnutrition and low food intake are also enormous. Hence, due to food shortage, low food intake and starvation resettlers cannot be regarded as food secured. In conclusion, all the discussions in chapter 5, both qualitative and quantitative, clearly show that resettlers are not food secured. In addition, the extent of food insecurity differs from household to household, which will be discussed under the section below.

5.2.6 What is Resettlers' Food Security Status?

Based on the findings, resettlers can be regarded as food insecure. However, the extent and dimension of food insecurity is different from kebele to kebele and from household to household. From the points allotted to each question that can answer the food security situation resettlers (ANNEX IV), resettlers can be divided as:

1. Food secured- is a household which satisfies the definition under chapter 2,-*having enough access to food, which is acceptable in quantity and quality under defined time horizon, acquired under normal channels, safe and nutritious, and sustainable*- the household experiences none of the food insecurity conditions, or rarely experiences worry.
2. A food insecure without hunger household -worries about not having enough food sometimes or often, and/or is unable to eat preferred foods, and/or eats a monotonous diet

or less preferred foods, but only rarely. However, it does not cut back on quantity nor experience any of the three most severe conditions (going a whole day without eating, running out of food and so on).

3. A food insecure with hunger household (moderate)-such kind of household sacrifices quality more frequently, by eating a monotonous diet or less-preferred often, started the amount or quantity by reducing size of meals and number of meals. Most problems are moderate in their nature, food related health problems begun to occur more often. Household members start to sale and/or mortgage their assets.

4. A food insecure with hunger household (sever)-Experiences all of the conditions severely. Very low food intake both in quantity and quality deep-rooted presence of food related health problems, children begun highly to lose weight, are malnourished, and the household is unable to get food for a number of days in a week.

These are not only the basic factors to differentiate the resettlers; rather a number of factors were taken into account. Some of them are: type and amount produced, tools of production, annual income, access to modern animal drawn and agriculture inputs, number of meals per day, the type and amount of food consumed, means of acquiring staple foods, frequency of purchasing daily food, seasonality of food availability, the number of time a household /resettler consumed less preferred foods, experience of food shortage, skipping daily food without sickness and fasting or due to shortage, stress and anxiety where food would come from, borrowing food/money for satisfying daily food consumption, using money for food consumption that was meant for another purpose, mortgaging assets as to get food, members of a household suffering from health problems related to food.

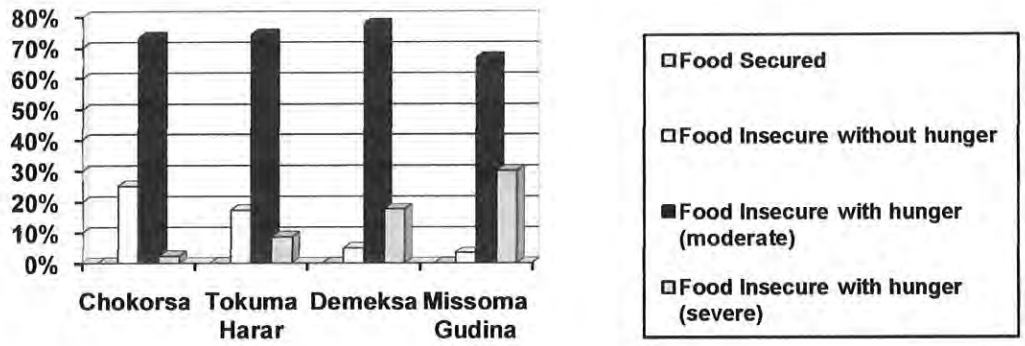


Figure 5.14 Resettlers' Food Security Status

Source: Household Survey, March 2008

To summarize, resettlers are not food secured. Because they did not satisfy the requirements that a food secured household must satisfy, which are mentioned in chapter two and other chapters of this study. As far as this study is concerned, resettlers are better in some instances and not in others. In previous area of living, "they consume the kinds of food they want but not always or were consuming not enough in amount" and now in Chewaka they "consume enough food than before but not the kinds of food they want to consume."

The improvements in Chewaka than the previous area of living are

- Better access to land as a result total crop production increased in quantity
- Less stress on the land and the environment
- More quantity of food than before, which is from one to two and from two or three meal per day.
- Better understanding of environmental and population impact on the food production of a household
- Absence of direct food-aid than previous area of living.

"In Chewaka, I have enough amount of food. Let alone for my family I am helping some resettlers who are seriously malnourished..." Tsebaye, Male resettler at Demeksa expressing improvement of livelihood since he came to Chewaka

Nonetheless, the following issues are lower than the previous area of living: very low access to means of production like animal drawn inputs, improved hand tools, irrigation, agricultural inputs like improved seed, fertilizer, pesticide etc. There is low access to local and big market and deep-rooted spread of pests and trypanosomiasis. Poor infrastructural facility, institutions health posts, credit services, skill development activities administrative security and law and order are found poor and insufficient to satisfy and solve resettlers' food security problems. In addition, there is low quality and variety of food produced while compared to previous area of living. Moreover, low fertility and less suitability of the land for different types of crops exacerbated the problem of addressing the complexity of food insecurity.

The study identified that resettlers are better in some aspects that are mentioned in the above discussion. However, they are not as good as previous area of living in other aspects. The perception of resettlers' towards their food security status level is very important. The figure below proves this statement. In addition, the whole impact of the program and findings of the study can be summarized in the figure below.

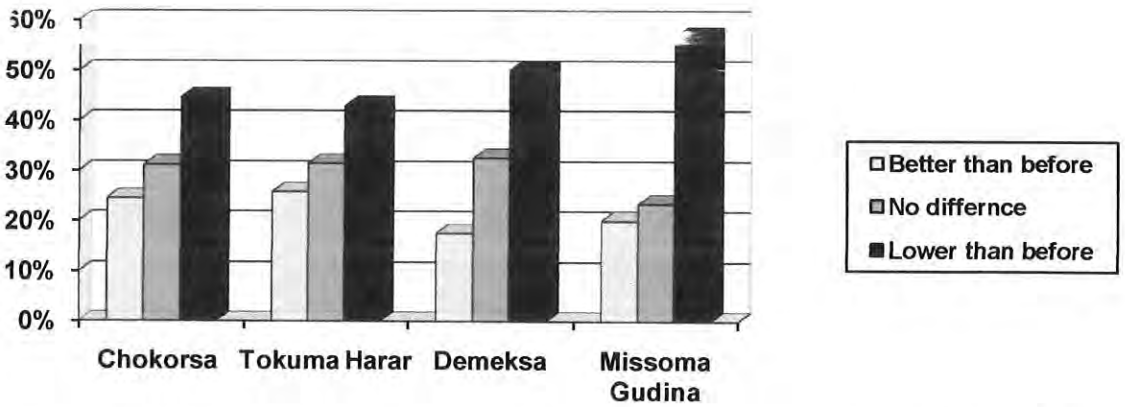


Figure 5.15 Resettlers' Perception on Their Food Security Status and Life Standard *Source:* Household Survey, March 2008

As it can be understood from Figure 5.15, majority of the resettlers explained that their current food security situation and overall life standard is lower than before. Different factors are attributable to poorer food security situation and life standard than before, which will be discussed in the chapter following. Nevertheless, declining food security and life standard, more than ninety percent of the studied resettlers want to stay in Chewaka. They have no intention to move to their previous area of living. The major reasons, as explained by the resettlers, are: very small size of land in previous area of living, expecting the government will solve majority of the problems related to means of production, market, social service, infrastructure and institutional constraints. In addition, they are not at risk of famine, and most of them currently are getting benefits from two areas of living, Chewaka and Hararghe; either directly or indirectly to one of their family members

5.3 Summary

This chapter is the major objective of the study, assessing the role of resettlement addressing the problem of food insecurity by selecting a case study on Chewaka resettlement area of Oromiya Regional State. More than 70 questions were employed for analyzing the food security situation of resettlers. Quantitative tool of data collection was the major source for analyzing the objective, and in some instances, qualitative sources were used to assert the findings of the study. In addition, practical evidences from researchers and scholars were used as to strength issues discussed in the study, which will also give more explanation about the issue under discussion. Starting by describing the means of production in the study area, this chapter clearly discusses the food security situation of resettlers from the selected kebeles in terms of: means of production, market access and utilization; food availability, accessibility, utilization and seasonality of food availability; where concurrent findings and correlations were made accordingly.

CHAPTER SIX

PROBLEMS AND COPING STRATEGIES OF RESETTLERS

6.1. Problems of the Overall Resettlement Program

It is only through participatory planning, implementation, monitoring, and management of projects by all stakeholders that the risk and/or adverse impact of a particular program can be minimized. From its beginning, all resettlement programs in Ethiopia lack genuine participation of stakeholders. The current government's intention of solving the long period chronic food insecurity is appreciable. Nonetheless, there are a number of problems that escort achieving food security in resettlement areas very difficult.

To start from its objective, the resettlement program's objective is very broad, where the whole process is subject to miscalculations and misunderstandings. Feleke (2003:13) summarizes, as "One of the reasons for the failure of similar programs is the lack of genuine participation and full inclusion of the host community members". According to him even inclusion of the host community particularly, considered they are incorporated as secondary target groups in EPRDF's resettlement program.

The other pertinent problem of the program is that the target population to be moved and the duration of the program. The government's intention was to resettle about 2.2 million people or 440,000 households within three years period. When compared to African and Asian similar programs, in which most have better GDP and infrastructural amenities; Ethiopia's program is over ambitious. As a result, it is very important to increase the duration of the program. Particularly, understanding of medium and long-term impact of the program is very critical by expanding the duration of the program.

Thirdly, depth and scope of the planning is ill-managed and glosses over the basic principles of planning. The document of the program serves as a general framework for federal and regional responsible parties. However, the framework lacks basic issues of the program like: it does not clearly show the specific locations of resettlement sites, depart areas, and host communities; it glosses over the social, demographic and economic

characteristics of these three stakeholders. In addition, environmental and ecological patterns of the operational areas are not identified and clearly stated in the guideline. The other pertinent problem identified is that misunderstanding socio-cultural, economic, and political activities of resettlers' before moving with that of destination area peoples'. This highly influenced the outcome of the program, from changing livelihood pattern for benefiting or worsening resettlers' livelihood to socio-economic crisis among resettlers, with the host community, and with the physical environment.

Key principles and approaches of the program are not clearly pointed out. As an example concepts/ key principles 'Voluntarism', 'Minimum infrastructure', and 'No quotas and compulsions' in the document do not clearly articulate contextual meanings as well as indicators, which might lead subjective understanding and judgment of key principles and approaches. This resulted failure to deliver the program's benefit effectively and efficiently to the best interest of resettlers and the host community. In some areas there might be availability of some form of infrastructure but in other like that of Chewaka's where grassland and forests cleared for resettling people, there is very limited availability of infrastructure than previous area of living; which again clearly shows the over ambitious and ill-planning nature of the program.

The program cost 1.77 billion Ethiopian birr. However, the cost of the program was only meant for mobilizing resettlers, agricultural package and expansion of 'minimum infrastructure' development. Long-term rural development programs are not mentioned and included in the financial plan of the program, where achieving sustainable food security and agriculture questionable. This is the mistake repeated from the past resettlement program, where long-term development intervention programs are missed by the planners, government.

The program is very centralized, even if claimed by the federal government and regions by their own organizational arrangement implement the program, it is a very top-down approach mechanism followed by different hierarchies of the government. The implementation arrangement is based on short-term events and trial and error experience.

As an example; in Chewaka, the Oromiya Health Bureau had not made any feasibility study. As a result, in the first two years malaria and trypanosomiasis highly affected resettlers and cattle. Therefore, the program is highly characterized by low implementation arrangements among different stakeholders and authorities.

The final problem of the program is missing the issue of second generation. The program is meant for the current resettlers. In its planning, implementation, monitoring, and management and determination of financial aspects, the program did not consider the issue of second generation. The government announced to distribute 2 hectares plots of land; for a short period of time resettlers might not face the problem of land shortage but when children grow up the problem of previous area of living 'shortage of land due to increased demand of residents' will certainly occur. There are also other problems like organizational structure of new areas both for institutional, social, and economic activities, which need immediate and prioritized measures.

As a result of the above problems resettlers in Chewaka face varied challenges. However, the challenges related to the above general problems are the following:

- Participation of resettlers and host community was limited. Sites were selected by higher officials without the consent of host people and kebele administrators in the area.
- Aiming to resettle 240,000 households within three years, Oromiya food security bureau achieved only 126,000 households due to problems discussed in the previous paragraphs.
- As a result of ill-managed planning practices, resettlers in many instances were affected by food shortage during transportation, where as some were highly benefiting. Problems related to food and sanitation were as serious ones while moving to Chewaka and before they acquired their land. For more than two months, resettlers were provided with only 600 mill grams of biscuit per day, which shows the food situation at Chewaka when they resettled.
- Even if all resettlers in the sample respond that they came to Chewaka voluntarily, they did not know where they were moving. Moreover, what the government showed as fertile areas, in videos, were not what they resettled.

- Key principles and approaches of the program are not clearly articulated, as an example the principle "Provision of Minimum Infrastructure". Resettlers in Chewaka face social problems related to health, education, means of production, finance, road, and other problems.

There are number of problems resettlers encountered due to the overall problem of the resettlement program and resettlers design some coping mechanisms. The following discussions clearly show the challenges these resettlers face and their mitigating mechanisms.

6.2. Problems Resettlers Encounter and Their Coping Strategies

Chapter four discusses the food security situation of resettlers; from the point of availability, access, utilization, and seasonality of food. From the discussion, it can be easily understood that there are a lot of problems necessitate to be settled out. This chapter will identify the challenges resettlers face in Chewaka and their mitigating strategies including problems encountered regarding means of production; food availability, access, utilization, and seasonality; infrastructural and institutional constraints among others. There is also another big issue, gender issue sub-section, where the overall picture of gender related aspects and problems are discussed. Because of the fact that women and FHHs are the most vulnerable groups, researches, studies, policies, and development programs should give equal emphasis with male- if aimed addressing improve the livelihood of beneficiaries in a program. Mitigating measures will also be forwarded with regard to major problems encountered in particular.

6.2.1.1 Means of Production

In any nation of the world, to develop an economy and improve the livelihood of citizens, it requires provision of basic means of production from all stakeholders. In a backward economy of Ethiopia, both traditional hand tools and animal drawn means of production are very important. One of the root causes of food crisis all over the country is backward means of production. In the study area resettlers' food production are characterized by: use of traditional farm tools and implements, low-level use of improved agricultural inputs

such as fertilizers, improved seed and pesticide chemicals, inadequate post-harvest technologies, and slow overall agricultural production and food production in particular.

The major problem resettlers' face is low productivity of the land for different types of food items. Except for a few items, the land is not suitable for crop production. In the previous area of living resettlers were able to harvest cereals - *Teff*, wheat, maize, and sorghum; fruits and vegetables, and cash crops *Khat* and coffee. Items produced have three different uses (1) Cereals are grown in the main rainy season, hence the majority of the household consumption is covered for a longer period of time (2) Vegetables and fruits were grown as a supportive food items, particularly during pre-harvest season and (3) Cash crops are grown for different purposes, like increasing households capital asset, for medication, schooling, travel, and purchasing food items in case of food shortage.

Unsuitability of land to different types of crops, forced resettlers to produce only limited type and amount of produce. The other issue is that the new area of living is characterized by presence of pests and trypanosomiasis. Resettlers produce small amount of crops, which is subject to distraction by pests. Their cattle, particularly oxen – the major means of plowing- are affected by trypanosomiasis.

The other problem related to means of production is absence of irrigation. As discussed in chapter 5, farmers lack irrigation due to five basic constraints: financial, knowledge, administrative, absence of irrigable land, and irrigable water. Therefore, the major problems resettlers face in terms of means of production can be summarized as:

× Low productive and/or low suitability of land distributed for different types of crops for consumption and sale, which was practiced in previous area of living.

× Very low availability of animal drawn and improved hand tools for agricultural production.

× Low availability and exorbitant price of fertilizer, improved seed, pesticide chemicals, and other basic agricultural inputs and low-grace period and short payback period.

× Absence of irrigation due to irrigable land, irrigable water, financial, knowledge, and administration constraint.

× Very limited access to local and big markets for purchasing inputs and selling outputs, particularly cereals and cash crops.

× Very low availability of infrastructure, road and veterinary service to obtain the necessary means of production.

× Absence of agricultural skill development activities.

6.2.1.2 Coping Strategies

To start with the land, resettlers have no option to change, hence, the first measure done was accepting whatever result the land yields. The majority of the FGD participants were complaining about the suitability of the land for crop production. In the previous area of living, even if small land, it gives different types of cereals, cash crops, and vegetables and fruits. Regarding the problem of unsuitability to different types of crops, low availability of means of production, prevalence of pests, and very low capacity for irrigation; many remained silent because it is either too costly to do so or can not be done by one household/ family member alone.

"... The land is not suitable both for irrigation and different types of crops, in addition, pests destroy our produce. How can you live in such a situation, except praying by receiving whatever it (the land) gives...? Abdulahimid 37, a father of three in Demeksa kebele.

With regard to limited availability of animal drawn agriculture and improved and tools, resettlers use D*ongora*, by bringing from previous area of living and use human labor for plowing. That is why all resettlers select human labor as the major source of tool of production. Problem of deep-rooted prevalence of trypanosomiasis, some resettlers preferred using traditional medicine for curing their cattle. However, majority of the resettlers opted to use human labor and *Dongora* intensively by avoiding using oxen and purchasing oxen from big markets if any.

In Chewaka, according to FGD participants, distribution of fertilizer and improved seed requires membership card of the ruling party. Due to food insecurity situation in previous area of living resettlers were forced to join the party aiming to get food aid and other forms of support. However, almost all of them joined and it becomes very difficult to favor one on the other. Currently, DAs force resettlers to receive fertilizer, however there is knowledge gap among resettlers and DAs, which type of fertilizer among the three, Dap, Urea, and Natural or mix of them to be used on the land leading avoidance of fertilizer usage if asked to use.

Since they are new comers, the resettlers are not familiar with the area. Hence, in planned resettlement programs it is crucial to orient the resettlers about the ecological, natural, and physical aspect of the area. Since resettlers did not get the necessary information, many of agricultural practices were the result of trial and error experience and some sort of information provided by the host community. Traditional medium of knowledge transformation and experience sharing among resettlers and between the hosts communities are the major mitigating mechanisms to solve for the above problems resettlers encounter. In case of any problems beyond their capacity, the resettlers are determined to face whatsoever, which was explained by FGD participants and household survey results.

6.2.2.1 Food Availability, Access, Utilization and Seasonality

When compared to Hararghe (previous area of living), resettlers in the studied areas consume food more in quantity and frequency but very less preferred and necessary for a healthy life. Agricultural activity is changed in a higher degree than before.

From daily-consumed foods, where new areas of living resettlers were able to take more per day meal, crops grown and consumed are less preferred. In Chewaka, sorghum is the major crop grown and consumed, where as *Teff* and wheat were the dominant crops in Hararghe. Change in staple food consumption is not explained by all resettlers as something good. Rather, many believe that it is an indication of deteriorating life standard, as explained by FGD participants.

Food containing high nutrients; like meat, eggs, milk and milk products, fish, vegetables and fruits are hardly consumed by resettlers with the except on holidays where few of them reported that they consume some meat. Resettlers faced with food shortage and high seasonality of food availability, which leads to very low quantity of food intake. For not less than six months, they encounter food shortage in the family/ household and there is a very limited access to market to obtain necessary food items.

Therefore, as household survey and FGDs results portray, resettlers are not in a better situation regarding good availability to food, easy access to food, better utilization of food, and sustainable availability of food for a longer period of time, 12 months in this case. Children are malnourished. There is deep-rooted presence of food related health problems: lack of vitamin, food contamination, low food intake and other food related health problems. Resettlers, as a result, designed mitigating mechanisms for improving their food security situation and solve the problems they faced.

6.2.2.2 Coping Strategies

The major coping mechanisms the study (from household survey, FGDs, and Key Informants Interview) found out for improving the food security situation of a household by resettlers are:

- Purchasing from local market weekly or monthly as to satisfy daily food consumption.
- Intensive engagement of resettlers in cash crop production. They use the money they obtain from crop selling, to purchase wheat and *teff*, which were the staple food crops in the staple food crops in the previous area of living.
- Eating less preferred food items. According to FGD results, resettlers until they become self-sufficient; begun to produce as much sorghum as possible, hence they can shift to other types if they succeed in producing enough sorghum.
- In time of food shortage, particularly March to April; resettlers adopt consuming less quantity. Decreasing amount either consumed or number of meals per day, and if the food shortage continues and strengthens both strategies will be used. Parents, especially

women, take less for their family members. The major causes of seasonality of food availability other than means of production are food shortage, food prices, income in the household, debt, sickness of the main working adult, and other priorities emerging at that particular month. Hence, members also consume less during these events scarifying for sick person in the family and pregnant women, in addition to kids below 15 years of age.

- In other areas, during low food availability and food shortage, resettlers use four kinds of coping mechanisms or they fill the gap created through: borrowing from relatives and neighbors, purchasing from local markets, engagement in food-for-work programs, and if found food aid programs. Purchasing and borrowing from relatives and neighbors are the most important sources for filling the gap food shortage.

- There are also other coping mechanisms like using saved money to purchase food items, which is meant for other purpose. Resettlers save money for different purposes, especially for medicines, school expense for children, clothing, repaying loans, investment on assets and other unexpected events. However, as a mechanism to cope with food shortage, money, which is meant for one or more of the above, will be used for purchasing food.

- If the problem continues, there is another way of solving the problem- mortgaging assets. In Damaqsa and Misoma Gudina, resettlers during the months of August and September mortgage assets, aimed to satisfy daily food consumption.

- But now days, for some, life in Chewaka is getting worse. As a result some rented their land and move to previous area of living. Others, planning to sale their home, if possible, and change place of living out of Chewaka. The other strategy, but very risky, is selling out assets and migrating to urban areas; this option is considered and started by young resettlers.

- Due to high cost of living exacerbated by seasonality of food availability, children are dropping out of school. Aiming for reducing school costs and bringing additional source

of income to the family, young people are moving to the towns to work as daily laborers. Some youth were asking the research team where land for *Khat* and coffee can be found, to be engaged in the production of the same.

- Another activity they are doing is expanding land sizes by cutting of forests and burning forests. Particularly, in Chokorsa and Missoma Gudina kebele, most resettlers explained that they are cutting and burning trees as to produce more from a large land size.

6.2.3.1 Infrastructural and Institutional Constraints (Good Governance)

In Ethiopia, the situation of basic social services is very poor from African and developing countries standard and the situation in Chewaka is even worse. No one can imagine that there are only seven health posts with nine health workers, not medical doctors neither nurses but extension workers only, serving more than 82,000 people. When the field survey was conducted, except one extension worker in site-2-, the rest went for political training to a place named *Tolie,* a key informant in Chokorsa kebele told to the research team.

Chewaka is not only characterized by low number of health institutions and health workers but also by very limited access to these services. In FGD, resettlers in site-2- explained that they are forced to resort to traditional healers, because it is very cheap and easily accessible. Moreover, there is lack of qualified health personnel in Chewaka as a whole. There is also a deep-rooted problem of family planning service, which will be discussed later on, in this study.

In their previous area of living resettlers were able to get better health service. They also explained that the cost for health service was affordable. Health staffs were good enough to diagnosis and cure patients. In addition, health problems occurring in the previous area of living were not serious and were tolerable. Some of the resettlers also complained that their current dwelling area (Chewaka), is very hot and inhospitable in comparison to the previous one. For instance, the health situation of children and older people has been severely affected by high humidity and incidence of malaria. According to key informants both in Chewaka and Oromiya, previous area of living is characterized by better availability

of health services because of its presence to major trade routes in the country, supported by better availability of cash crops and road facility.

There are also problems related to potable water supply and grain mill service; however, the problems are not worth mentioning because of the following reasons:

1. The government in many areas built potable water and NGOs are expanding construction of potable water, which decreased the problem of getting safe drinking water.
2. Though not all potable, there appears to be enough water supplies in the resettlement area.
3. Most resettlers do not frequently use grain mill on daily basis rather on weekly or fortnight basis, as a result, there is a very limited problem of grain mill.
4. The other issue is some resettlers use traditional means of grain milling, which again reduced the problem of grain mill accessibility and utilization.

In Chewaka, there is no agricultural related training activity. However, the government has been expanding different schools up to 8th grade level after obtaining fund from Save the Children-Norway. A new high school was also opened and became operational in the district capital of Chewaka, Illu-Harar. However, the high school is accessible to resettlers living in site-2-. As an example, a youth from site-7-, which is more than 50 kilo meters from Illu-Harar, can hardly access the high school. The resettlement program did not consider such social service issues before resettling people. The center-Illu-Harar- emerged unexpectedly, which was later endorsed by the regional government of Oromiya as capital town of Chewaka.

The other problem is low availability and access to credit and finance services. Moreover, other basic institutions like farmers' unions and cooperatives did not exist in Chewaka. Exacerbated by very limited access to local and big markets, many infrastructural amenities, social services, and other institutional situation in Chewaka are very poor.

Under any development intervention program, like resettlement, the issue of good governance is among the major determinants for successful achievement of the program. In Chewaka as the study found out the qualification of officers for the position is not questionable but most of them lack the capacity to handle all of the activities they are assigned to.

Resettlers severely hate government officials; many of them believe that it is because they (officers) are not from previous area of living. Nearly all of the officers were from Bedele wereda. In the key informants' interview, it was proved that officers are appointed from Bedele wereda based on their past performance. The regional government does not take into account the personal background of the officers, what matters most is the qualification and performance of the candidate to the office. However, six of the top officers were demoted, which happened immediately two days after the goodbye ceremony by the research team.

6.2.3.2 Coping Strategies

For many of the above institutional and infrastructural constraints, designing self-coping mechanism is very difficult. Much of the problems need to be addressed by the community and the government. Some of the coping mechanisms the resettlers use are:

- Regarding poor health service, resettlers use two different mechanisms; (1) using traditional medicine, which is highly practiced by many and (2) sending the sick person to Arjo town, which is 120 kilometers and requires a large amount of money. In case of serious health problems, friends and relatives of the patient collect money by borrowing and send him/her to Jimma or Metu referral hospitals.
- If the problem is not something requiring immediate action, as most reported in FGDs, they will move to private clinics at Arjo town or nearby urban area Dabo Hanna town, 56 kilo meters from Illu-Harar. The cost of treatment at private clinics in Chewaka is more than the total cost of transport, treatment and other costs at Dabo Hanna.

- With regard to the problem of education, resettlers opted to enforce children to school dropout.
- In the case of agricultural skill development activities, they are using traditional mode of production and get some assistance if resettlers in the surrounding adopt new way of production after trial and error and/or experience.
- After lobbying with the government officials, through their representatives, resettlers will get soon credit and saving service. This will solve the problem of credit and saving facility in the area.

6.3 Gender Related Issues

Women's role in the economy has often been underestimated and their contribution to agricultural production, particularly to food security has been invisible. Even policy makers have neglected women as productive agents. However, in recent times most programs have begun to include them in programs, aiming to address the desired result in a society.

Sustainable production of food is one of the major components of food security. In every region of the developing world, millions of women work as farmers, farm workers, and natural resource managers. By doing so, they are contributing a lot to the household, community, and national agricultural production. The following three major areas show the status of women in the study areas:

6.3.1 Means of Production

Despite women's importance in agricultural production, they have lower levels of physical and human capital than men. Even if women have prime responsibility for food production, they are generally limited to user (usufruct) rights to land, and then only with the consent of male relative. With the existence of limited access to basic means of production, limited right on the land and other agricultural inputs and outputs, food security situation of women is adversely affected, as explained by participants of female FGDs.

In any rural part of Ethiopia, the livelihood of families often depends on women's access to communal land, nearby forests, and waterways for supplies of food, fuel wood, water for

domestic consumption and agricultural production and house building. In Chewaka, women both from MHHs and FHHs are found having very limited access to one or more of the above components. Women, particularly FHHs have very limited access to modern animal and hand drawn tools than men do. No single woman reported possessing oxen or any other domestic animal for agricultural and non-agricultural purpose. In addition, none of FHHs participants in FGD reported using fertilizer, improved seed and pesticide chemicals, either one of these or mix of the three.

The area is characterized by absence of credit and finance services. Informal associations favor men over women, and FHHs have limited power in these associations. For few existed money lenders and loans from relatives' women in Chewaka face different social and cultural barriers. Their lower educational level relative to men and their lack of familiarity with formal / informal procedures to these sources, exclusion from local groups, and other socio-cultural and economic barriers limit women access to means of production and credit and finance services, as sourced from women affairs bureau in Chewaka.

Results both from FGDs and from Key Informants interviews explicate that the office of women affairs in Chewaka is actively working on family planning and HIV/AIDS related issues. Programs related to basic means of production, market and marketing related tasks, credit and finance programs, agricultural skill development activities, and other agricultural related activities are not in service in the office. Therefore, women and FHHs in Chewaka have: limited access to means of production, to market, to credit and finance service, to skill development activities, to education, and so on. However, even if they suffer from the above all in different degrees, women possess complex knowledge of agricultural production and food situation systems, which they are in charge.

6.3.2 Women Food Security Situation

Both women in MHHs and FHHs are more food insecure than men. Most of the women, in case of food shortage, sacrifice the entire meal either for their children or for male partner. They spend more of their time in food production, food preparation, childcare, and other

socio-economic responsibilities. However, they are not entitled the right to food in their family.

In the study areas, women did not have the command over food related resources. When compared to men, they spend more time in reproduction, domestic food production, and agricultural production. In Chewaka, nearly all trade related tasks are covered by women. The men are responsible for annual or bi-annual purchase of agricultural inputs and foodstuffs.

Food consumption in the household favors women at last. The socio-cultural belief of the society by both men and women themselves forced to accept 'women eat after everyone get enough'. The food security situations of women, as reported during FGD are characterized by:

- High engagement in food production and preparation than men.
- Low command over resources related to food.
- Highly involved in purchasing and selling food related items than men.
- Never get food items like meat, eggs, fish, vegetables and fruits in Chewaka, and this problem is serious with FHHs.
- More frequently purchase food supportive items, salt, edible oil etc, on daily and weekly basis.
- Compared to men, consume monotonous food items frequently.
- Seasonality of food availability highly affects them than men; in FHHs all the children are severely affected.
- Sacrifice food more frequently than men, in cases of food shortage, for children and sick person. However, better food consumption during pregnancy.
- Generally, women in Chewaka are malnourished than men.

6.3.3 Infrastructural, Institutional, and Socio-economic Aspects

The resettlement area lacks women or FHHs centered education. All women in the study are illiterate. Decision making both in the household and administrative offices hardly considers women; particularly FHHs. Women get very limited access to health service, due to socio-economic reasons. Family planning services are inadequate. There is a strong association, established by wereda health bureau, for family planning services. Nonetheless, performance and qualification of health workers seriously affected positive perception towards family planning, using contraception particularly.

> *"... We (her husband and she) agreed to use contraceptive means of planning our children number. However, the health workers are not good in treating us. Since I start taking contraception (which is obscured in her shoulder) I become very weak and lost my appetite... no one helped me... all people surrounding are not good enough to take measures for our problems..."* Aiysha 28, a mother of 4, at Demeksa kebele.

According to Ahmed 36, a father of 5 in Chokorsa kebele, the problem of family planning service highly diverted those men allowed their wives to use contraception like him having good perception towards it. *"For me, I will not allow my wife to take family planning service; if her current problem is solved. I spent nearly birr 3,000 to get better treatment in Jimma, unfortunately she is still sick. Everywhere you go health people told us there is a mistake in putting the pill in her shoulder.... How can a husband let his wife to do so next time after all these disturbances...?"*

Women access to market and marketing related activities are limited due to poor infrastructure. They spent much of their time in search of food, fuel wood, and water; hence, they have limited access to big market areas. However, the problems of potable water and grain mill are not like other social services, education, health and means of production particularly.

The other socio-economic constraint other than limited access to basic means of production and common property resources is that the society both men and women accepted women as secondary people in the household. Almost all resettlers believe the

supremacy of men. Administrative institutions dominated by men, in addition, in Chewaka due to socio-cultural and religious factors, women are unable to participate and express their needs and problems in the public. For instance, in a full day general meeting of resettlers', no women were represented from the administration and resettlers representatives; with the exception of some female from DAs. The administration, both kebele and wereda, do not use female affairs bureau as a means of getting some sort of information about the problems of women. To wind up, women food security situation is lower than men. Socio-economic, institutional, infrastructural, and political constraints limit improving the food security situation of women in the studied areas. The problem is complex in its extent and dimension, which requires multi-dimensional interventions, both for short and long term.

6.4 Summary

Any development program has its own adverse impacts; however, planners must consider alternative ways of minimizing risks and threats to the beneficiaries. Starting by describing the major problem of the current resettlement program, this chapter tries to assess the major constraints/ problems resettlers face as a whole and their mitigating strategies for problems related to: means of production; food availability, access, utilization and seasonality; and institutional and infrastructural constraints. The second section entirely focuses on gender related issues, where concern on means of production, food security, and infrastructural, institutional, and socio-economic aspects are intensively given.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY,CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATION AND FUTURE THEMATIC AREAS

7.1 Summary

This study set out to access the role of resettlement in alleviating the problem of food insecurity. In deed, it assessed the impact of the program on the food security status of resettlers by taking a case study in Chewaka resettlement area. Accordingly, the major findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

- In all the studied kebeles, more than 50% of the resettlers responded that there is availability of land for food production. However, 8.89% resettlers in Chokorsa, 8.37% in Tokuma Harar, 25% in Demeksa, and 16.67% in Missoma Gudina kebele received land below their previously owned land size.

- Sample resettlers, 44.44% in Chokorsa, 54.29% in Tokuma Harar, 70% in Demeksa, and 73.34% in Missoma Gudina kebele rated the land they received from the government having either low or very low quality than before. Majority of the resettlers, with the exception of 666.67% in Chokorsa and 60% in Tokuma Harar, the rest do not use irrigation for agricultural production.

- The major means of production in Chewaka are oxen, human labor, and *Dongora*. Nevertheless, more than half of the resettlers do not have oxen as a means of production. The major reason is that deep-rooted prevalence of trypanosomiasis exacerbated by limited access to veterinary service in the area.

- There is very limited access to modern agricultural inputs, improved hand and animal drawn tools of production, veterinary service, market to purchase agricultural inputs, and agricultural skill development activities.

- Access to market, both local and big markets, is very limited. The major reasons are poor infrastructural and social service facilities, ecological factors, limited types and amount of crops produced, and weak institutional capacities.

- The dominant crops produced in Chewaka are sorghum, sesame, maize, rice and soybean. However, the level of engagement differs from household to household and from crop to crop. Per ha output of sorghum in the area is the highest.

- The major sources of acquiring daily food items are from own farm, purchasing from market, transfer food in the form of loan, and other channels like food-for-work and daily labor activities.

- Resettlers in the studied kebeles purchase food items on daily, weekly, fortnight, monthly, bi-annually, and annually basis. Though level of engagement differs, to satisfy basic food consumption, unable to produce due to a lot of reasons, and food shortage in the household are among the major factors to purchase food from the nearby market.

- More than 55% of resettlers in the studied kebeles sale their produce. The three major reasons for selling produce are: for medication, to satisfy basic food needs, and to pay loan, which was borrowed from relatives either in cash or in food.

- At least half of resettlers during the months January, February, March and April experienced either food excess or normal. On the contrary, during months June, July, August, September, and October, all sampled resettlers experience food shortage.

- The major causes of seasonality of food availability are seasonality of rainfall, input prices (increase), food prices (increase), income of the family (decrease), sickness of the main working adult in the family, priorities emerging in a particular month, lack of access to better health service and veterinary service.

- The prominent reasons of skipping the entire meal in the studied kebeles are food shortage, food prices (increase), and family income (decrease). Skipping due to one of the above factors is different among children and the main working adult. More children are found to experience skipping the entire food less frequent than the main working adult does. In all the studied area, the severity of the food shortage problem is less among children than the main working adult.

- Out of the total 12 months, at least in 7 months resettlers in all the studied areas experience food shortage due to one or mix of the above reasons.

- Resettlers in the sampled kebeles are characterized by taking less preferred food items. This contradicts with the major pre-condition that a food secured household must experience. However, they take more amount of food than the previous area of living. Food consumption has increased either from one to two of from tow to three.

- In Chewaka, even if the extent differs, all studied resettlers are food insecure. More than one cause is attributable to this situation, however, the major causes are: food shortage, food prices, sickness of the family member, debt, no regular cash income (income security), pattern of rainfall, availability of tools of production and utilization, and other socio-economic, environmental, and political related causes.

- Resettlers are better off than before in terms of getting land, consuming more amount of food, better understanding of the environmental and population impact on the land, and overall increase in total production. Nevertheless, there is very low access to improved agricultural inputs, to means of production, to market, to basic social service, to road and other infrastructure. In addition, the land is not suitable for harvesting different types of crops; there is deep-rooted prevalence of pests and trypanosomiasis, and limited access to credit and saving facilities.

7.2 Conclusions

Resettlement program by its very nature is not a sole option to solve the problem of food insecurity, because a number of factors should be addressed simultaneously. The resettlement program undertaken in Chewaka can be concluded as neither successful nor a failure. This is because resettlers are able to produce more than before and have better access to land than before. On the contrary, problems related to means of production, market, credit and saving, infrastructural and social service, institutional, and other problems related to socio-economic and environment exist.

Moreover, the resettlement program undertaken in Chewaka did not consider the socio-economic, political, and environmental aspects of resettlers with that of destination areas. From the findings, it is clear to conclude that there is absence of feasibility study regarding suitability of the land for agricultural crop production and livestock rearing, environmental impact on resettlers, animals, and crops. Sites for living, cattle rearing, and crop production were distributed without prior study and analysis of their suitability to these aspects.

With regard to food security, the resettlement program in Chewaka did contributed for having better access to land and increased food production due to increased farm size. However, none of the sampled resettlers is food secured. They have very limited access to different types of food items both in kind and in quality than before. Over all, in the studied areas availability of food is limited, there is poor acquisition of food items from normal channels (own farm production and markets), very poor utilization of food items-particularly foods preferred by resettlers - and very limited access to different types of food items exacerbated by high seasonality of food availability.

There is poor health facility in the studied area. Access to potable water supply both in quality and in quantity is insufficient. No availability of all-weather road and very limited access to dry-weather road. In addition, access to local and big markets is very limited, veterinary services, agricultural skill development activities; credit and saving facilities are hardly reachable in the studied kebeles. Education for children is better than other social services; however, high school and vocational schools are not easily accessible by majority of the resettlers. By and large, there is very inadequate availability and access to social services in the studied areas; it is very low compared to previous area of living and even by national standard.

The program lacks long-term consideration of resettlers' livelihood activities. It must be considered here that resettlement is not a panacea. Rather it should be taken as one component for rural development programs to solve the problem of food insecurity. This is because the cause of food insecurity in Ethiopia is not only one issue; rather different factors can be mentioned for causing and aggravating food insecurity in the country. In

general the resettlement program has the potential to improve the food security situation of resettlers' and attain self-sufficiency; if due consideration is given by all responsible bodies- government, donors, host community, and resettlers who must participate in the program.

7.3 Recommendations

In order to improve the food security situation and overall agricultural productivity of resettlers', here are some of the major areas recommended to be sorted out under short and long-term intervention.

7.2.1 Concerning Means of Production

- Land tenure insecurity is a severe constraint to food production in resettlement areas. Redistribution of land by the state has achieved improvement in food production. However, it should not be at the cost of the host community and the environment. The government must improve land mapping to support tenure, land exchanges and improved land use planning's. It must also improve legislative framework at regional, zonal, wereda, and kebele level for tenure security. This is because due to high level of insecurity generated by fears of further redistribution result unwillingness to invest effort in measures to improve soil conservation and enhance productivity.
- The land distribution should be revisited. It must consider size of the household and the minimum guaranteed land, 2 hectares, must be provided. However, ownership of land (farm size) might be less useful as an indicator of household food status than access to land, which can be rented for other households. Nevertheless, it will benefit those resettlers striving for self-sufficiency and livelihood improvement. In addition, policy makers should make conducive environment for resettlers through the provision of land management practices. This helps resettlers to harvest different types of crops in quality and quantity and conserve the resource from further degradation.
- The other major area of intervention is promoting better animal and improved hand drawn agricultural tools. In addition, it is very essential to provide resettlers with agricultural inputs; fertilizer, improved seeds, pesticide chemicals and the like. Irrigation

schemes should be given due consideration, both for short and long period intervention. Land tillage practices should be promoted; particularly animal and hand drawn tools, which enable resettlers' all year round sustainable food production with lesser impact on the soil.

- Access to food is mediated by market access and price fluctuations. Since majority of food produced in Chewaka consumed from farm, market supplies are limited and prices are highly volatile. The remedy for this problem is expanding and encouraging efficient food marketing and trade. The government, as did in some rural parts of the country, should promote intra and inter-regional trade, which is movement from produce surplus to deficit areas of the country. It should also promote the private sector in agricultural marketing in the study area. Further interventions in Chewaka must be provided; both opportunities to traders by improving roads and marketing infrastructure and incentives to these actors by raising rural incomes and by generating confidence that they will not be adversely affected by policy reversals.

7.2.2 Concerning Food Security

- Food aid can be regarded as a standard response to transitory and cyclic food insecurity. As a result, food aid as a short-term intervention should be provided until resettlers become self-sufficient. Food aid may be the most important guarantee of resettlers' food security. Safety net programs, like food-for-work in dry seasons serve as to mitigate agricultural risk and stabilize food shortage and seasonality in some months of the year.
- Food aid is no solution to chronic food insecurity; however, it serves as a remedy by providing food during food shortage seasons. Since food aid dependency undermines food security at household and national levels, the government must create creative thinking, together with an operationalized commitment by all stakeholders to achieve sustainable food security with dignity for all people.
- Very low number of cattle and animal population characterizes Chewaka. However, at previous area of living resettlers were possessing at least one oxen for farming. Farmers, majority of them, in Ethiopia are characterized by using cattle as a source of production (input) in agriculture and household food consumption, through meat, milk and milk

products. As a result, the government is required to design methods for improving the livestock situation in the area. Temporary food shortage shocks will be minimized if there is livestock source of food in the household. The impact is not only either minimizing the risk or filling the gap of food shortage, but also through better access to oxen and other domestic animals, resettlers will produce more.

- Better market structure and social services, particularly veterinary services and livestock production education, will improve resettlers' access to animals both for food and for production.
- At the previous area of living, off-farm employment opportunities play a significant role in household food consumption. They also serve as a source of income in the household. Except few, however, there is very limited off-farm employment generating activities in Chewaka. The income generating potential of the studied area is promissory. As a result, a well-designed and appropriate off-farm employment programs should be facilitated and promoted.
- All resettlers in the study area are subsistence farmers. If there is conducive environment for diversification of income, resettlers' annual food consumption will be improved. Mostly practiced income generating activities (daily labor, petty trading, seasonal migration) should be given due consideration; and those activities with high risk should be eliminated, like school dropout and migrating to other urban areas. Those regarded as promissory should be encouraged and strengthen.

7.2.3 Concerning Infrastructure and Institutions (Good Governance)

- Human capital is extremely low in Chewaka, which is both a cause and consequence of food insecurity; due to adverse synergies between poor education, health, and nutrition status, and labor productivity. Many of these constraints need prioritized and immediate intervention by the government and donors.
- Illiteracy in Chewaka constraints access to basic means of production, type and amount of agricultural production, and access to skilled and semi-skilled off-farm employment opportunities. As a result, improving resettlers' food security and well-being condition

highly affected low literacy rate, low access to education, and health services, where immediate intervention is necessary.

- The health status of resettlers' in the studied areas is very poor even by national standard. In addition, it is worse than the previous area of living. The poor health status affected both resettlers and their domesticated animals. Poor veterinary service resulted in a very low possession of animals both for consumption and production, and existence of malaria; which now become epidemic to the area, seriously affected resettlers' health particularly women and children. Much of the time and money in most households in the resettlement area went for health related activities, as a result the government, private sector, and donors must act immediately. The government can do three basic activities: (1) expanding health services in the area, training health workers and increasing resettlers' awareness about malaria and other related health problems, which must be solved before leading to serious individual and social problem; (2) encourage, if possible providing incentives, for the private sector for expansion and affordable service delivery in the area; and (3) negotiating with donors to provide health and health related services.
- The government did not provide the 'minimum infrastructure'; particularly road facility highly affected the food security, education, health, marketing, and other socio-economic and political aspects of resettlers. The area receives an all-year round rainfall; hence, dry-weather road has a very little significance. The road should be upgraded, areas within the resettlement site and towards other major towns Bedele, Arjo, and Nekemte, must be constructed.
- A crucial factor for food security is policy stability and continuity. Uncertainty towards rural development options, the nature and extent of future state intervention will increase the risk of food shortage and chronic food insecurity. This is serious in resettlement areas, where policies are formulated and changed after trial and error experience on resettlers, host community, and the environment. As a result, the government should design policies, with genuine participation of all stakeholders, short, medium, and long term, which are tangible and feasible under the current country's situation.

- Offices at any part of the government must be transparent and open to discussion for their responsibilities and authorities. In addition, capacity-building activity to these civil servants should be promised and encouraged.
- Access to finance support rural enterprises and agricultural sector is an important condition for achieving food security in resettlement areas. Financial sector constraints need to be identified and solutions should be implemented. The government has to build the capacity of financial institutions in Chewaka and expand their positive impact on the food production and small-scale commercial farming sector. It should also develop a strategy and interventions to strengthen market oriented financial services in the area.
- If it continues on the current trend, the environmental problem on the food security and livelihood of resettlers is seriously affected under the foreseeable future. As a result there should be a clear policy and strategy concerning environmental issues. The food security situation and livelihood of resettlers is highly dependent on the land, water bodies, rain, vegetation cover and other components of the physical environment, hence, due consideration especially long-term impact of all development programs on the environment should be clearly examined and measures has to be taken.

7.2.3 Concerning Gender Issues

- All development programs by any agent should be gender sensitive. The role of women in the food security situation of a household in resettlement areas must be identified and supported with no or minimized risk of creating conflict among their counterparts.
- Programs aiming to solve women in all household types should focus on increasing both the food security and livelihood situation of women and their family. As a result education, short and medium term programs on agricultural production, resource utilization, and marketing; health, both children and mother centered services; finance, which focuses on women's right to command over these resources; and other socio-cultural and economic interventions is very important to improve the food security situation of women resettlers and their family as a whole.
- FHH in Chewaka should get better assistance from the government and donors. They and their children must be supported in education, health, finance, and other food

production and livelihood related activities. Conducive working environments should be created. They should be encouraged to actively participate in off-farm and income diversification opportunities.

- There is a strong commitment by both men and women towards family planning programs. Therefore, before losing such strong sprit measures should be taken for the problems existed.
- Donors also can actively participate to promote family planning services; hence stress on the environment due to high population pressure will be reduced.

7.3 Future Thematic Areas

1. The impact of resettlement program on FHHs. Issues like, FHHs food security situation, adaptation to the new environment, social capital and related issues, means of production, family planning services, and other socio-economic and political aspects of these groups can be studies. Almost none of the studies made in resettlement areas aimed to analyze the impact of the program on these vulnerable groups.

2. Socio-environment nexus food security in resettlement areas.

3. Resettlement areas and urbanization. It is very much interesting thematic area how urban areas emerge in resettlement areas without the consent of regional governors. In addition, how people are attracted to these areas from other areas both to harvest and trade can be studied in Chewaka and in other similar resettlement areas.

4. Resettlement areas and the high cost of living. During the field study, the town of Chewaka –Illu-Harar- was characterized by a very high cost of living than the rest towns in the Illubabor zone. As a result, researchers and scholars can get clear understanding and can come up with new findings that will highly contribute for academic as well as policy makers.

5. Challenges and prospects of intra-regional resettlement program.

References

Abraham Sewenet (2003) "Intra-regional Voluntary Resettlement in Amhara Region: A possible way out of the chronic food trap". In Alula Pankrust and François Piguet (Eds). *People, Space and the State*, 2003, Addis Ababa.

Adrian, Paul (1977) *Resettlement in Iluuababor*. An unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation, Liverpool University, Liverpool.

Alemneh Dejene (1990) *Environment, Famine, and Politics in Ethiopia: A View from the Village*. Lynne Reinner Publishers, USA.

Belaye Kebede and Belaye Kassa (1998) *'Factors affecting Loan Repayement Performance of Smallholders in the Central Highlands of Ethiopia: The Case of Alemgena District'*, Ethiopian Journal of Agricultural Economics, 2(2): 61-69.

Befekadu Degefe and Berehanu Nega. (2000) *Annual Report on the Ethiopian Economy*. Vol. I. 1999/2000, Ethiopian Economic Association, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Berhanu A., Kalus D., Songqing J., Samuel G., and Mulat D. (2003) "Land Tenure system and agricultural development in Ethiopia". In Tesfahun Fanta and Osman Ali (Eds). *Challenges and Prospects of Food Security in Ethiopia*. Professional Associations Joint Secretariat, 2004.

Brune, Stefan (1990) "The Agricultural Sector: Structure, Performance and Issues (1974-1988)." In Pausewang, Siegfried, Cheru, Fantu, Brune, Stefan, and Chole, Eshetu (Eds.). *Ethiopia: Rural Development Options.* London and New Jersey: Zed Books.

Cernea M. (1992) "Involuntary Resettlement: Social Research, Policy and Planning." In Michael Cernea, ed., *Putting People First: Sociological Variables in Development.* 2nd ed. New York: Oxford University Press.

_____ (1997) *African Involuntary Resettlement in the Global Context:* Social Assessment Series Paper, The World Bank. Washington D.C, USA, 1997.

_____ (1999) Why Economic Analysis is Essential to Resettlement: A Sociologist's View. In Michael Cernea, ed., *The Economics of Involuntary Resettlement*: Questions and Challenges. The World Bank, Washington D.C.

Chambers, Robert (1969) *Settlement Schemes in Tropical Africa.* Routledge & Kegan Paul, London.

Chisholm, A.H, and R. Tyres, (Eds) (1982) *"Introduction and Overview",* Food Security: Theory, Policy, and Perspectives from Asia and the Pacific. Lexington Books, Massachusetts

Clarke, John (1986) Resettlement and Rehabilitation: *Ethiopia's Campaign Against Famine.* Harney and Jones Ltd, London, UK.

Clements, Frank (1959) *Kariba: The Struggle with the River God.* London: Methuen & Co.

Colson, Elizabeth F. (1971) *The Social Consequences of Resettlement.* Manchester University Press.

Comanzula, Fanuel (2000) "Zimbabwe" The Resettlement of the Tonga Community will Never be Justified. In Environment Monitoring Group (EMG) *Once There Was A Community*...Southern African Hearings For Communities Affected By Large Dams (Cape Town 11-12 November 1999). Final Report. Cape Town: EMG.

Degefa Tolossa (2005) Poverty, Livelihood and Food Insecurity in Ormiya zone of Amhara Regional State. Ph.D. Dissertation Paper. NATNU University, Norway.

Dejene Aredo (1990) *Environment, Famine, and Development in Ethiopia*. Boulder: Lynne Reinner.

Dessalegn Rahmato (1988) Settlement and Resettlement in Metekel, Western Ethiopia, *Africa* (Rome), No 1, Marzo.

_____ (1997) "Manufacturing Poverty: rural Policy and Micro- Agriculture", *Paper Presented at the Land Tenure Project of the Institute of Development Research*, Addis Ababa.

Devereux, Stephen (2000) Food Security in Ethiopia, A discussion paper for DFID, IDS, Sussex.

_____ (2003) *Resettlement in Ethiopia.* The tragedy of Population Relocation in the 1980s. Forum for Social Studies, Addis Ababa, 2003.

Eicher Eicher K and Staatz M. (1998) *International Agricultural Development*, The World Bank, Washington D.C, 1998.

Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE)(2002) *Food Security Strategy*, Addis Ababa, March 2002.

Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Central Statistical Agency (CSA). *Statistical Abstract,* 2002, 2005, 2007, and 2008. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, DPPC (2004) *Nutrition Survey Report of Chewaka Resettlement Area, Illubabor Zone.* Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Feleke Tadele (2003). "The new resettlement program in Ethiopia: Refelections on the design and implementation approach". In Alula Pankrust and François Piguet (Eds). *People, Space and the State*, 2003, Addis Ababa.

Food and Agricultural Organization, FAO, (1996) *World Food Summit.* Rome, Italy.

Food and Agricultural Organization, FAO, (2001) *The Status Food Insecurity in the World*. Rome, Italy.

Gebre Yinteso (2001) Contextual Determination of Migration Behaviors: The Ethiopian Resettlement in Light of Conceptual Constructs. Journal of Refugee Studies. Vol 15 No. 3, Oxford University Press.

_____ (2003) Resettlement and the unnoticed losers: Impoverishment Disasters among the Gumuz hosts in Ethiopia. *Human Organization* Vol.62, No 2

_____ (2002) Differential Reestablishment of Voluntary and Involuntary Migrants: The Case of Metekel Settlers in Ethiopia. Graduate School of Asian and African Area Studie, Kyoto University, *African Study Monographs*, 23 (1): 31-46, March 2002.

Getahun Bikora. (2003) "Food security challenges in Ethiopia"' In Tesfahun Fanta and Osman Ali (Eds). *Challenges and Prospects of Food Security in Ethiopia.* Professional Associations Joint Secretariat, 2004.

Helina G. (2007) *The Impact of Intra-regional Resettlement on the Livelihoods of the Host Population and Resettlers:* The case of Chewaka Woreda. Unpublished MA Thesis.

Hine, Rachel and Pretty, Jules (2004) *Organic Agriculture and Food Security in East Africa*, University of Essex also available at: http://www.unep-unctad.org/cbtf/

Hoddinot, John (1999) *Operationalizing Household Food Security in Development Projects:* An Introduction. IFPRI Technical Guideline #1. Washington D.C, USA.

Janson, K. *et al (*1987) *The Ethiopian Famine.* London Zed Books, 1987.

John H., Ericksen. (1999) Comparing the Economic Planning for Voluntary and Involuntary Resettlement. In Michael Cernea, ed., The Economics of *Involuntary Resettlement*: Questions and Challenges. The World Bank, Washington D.C.

Kasahun Berhanu (2000) *Resettlement: A Strategy for Vulnerable Groups?.* Proceeding of the inaugural workshop of the Forum of Social Studies 18 September 1998, Addis Ababa. Forum for Social Studies, Addis Ababa, 2000.

Kidane Georgis (2003) "Land degradation, low soil fertility and water stress: Major issues for improving crop production and food security in the dry land areas of

Ethiopia In Tesfahun Fanta and Osman Ali (Eds). *Challenges and Prospects of Food Security in Ethiopia*. Professional Associations Joint Secretariat, 2004.

Madley, John (2001) *Hungry for Trade*: How the poor pay for trade. Pluto Press, Australia.

Mengistu Woube (1992) *Southward-Northward Resettlement in Ethiopia*. African Studies Centre, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, USA, 1992.

MoFED, Ethiopia (Ministry of Finance and Economic Development)(2002) *Poverty Profile in Ethiopia*. March 2002, Addis Ababa.

Mulat Demeke, Fantu Guta and Tadele Ferede (2006) *Agricultural Development and Food Insecurity in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA):* Building a Case for more Public Support, The Case of Ethiopia. FAO, Rome, 2006.

Nelson, Michael (1973) *Development of Tropical Lands: Policy Issues in Lathin America.* Baltimore: Jhon Hopkins University Press.

Oromiya Disaster Prevenatation and Preparedness Bureau, 2004.

Oromiya Food Security Bureau, 2005.

Pankrust, Alula (1992) *Resettlement and Famine in Ethiopia the Villeger's experience*, Manchester University Press, Manchester.

Phillips, T., and D. Taylor (1990) "*Food Security*: An Analysis of the SEARCA/ Guselph Survey," Cetre for Food Security, WPO11, University of Guelph, Ontario, July

PMAC (1984) The Ten Year Perspective Plan (1983/84-1993/94), Addis Ababa, *Amharic,* 1984.

Ranjit Kumar (1996) *Research Methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. SAGE Publishing, New Delhi.

Rehabilitation and Relief Commission (RRC) (1979) Resettlement , Lasting Solution to People in Drought Affected Areas in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa, Natural Disaster Aid Coordinating Committee.

_____ (1983) Guidelines for Resettlement [Amharic Ms.]. Addis Ababa

_____ (1985) The Challenge of Drought, Ethiopia's Decade of Struggle in Relief and Rehabilitation. Addis Ababa

_____(1988) Settlement Acttivities and Agricultural Development in Settlement Areas [Amharic, Tir 1980]. Addis Ababa, January 1988.

Scudder, Thayer (1995) "Resettlement and Development Issues that Followed the Construction of the Kariba Dam." Unpublished report for the World Bank and Zambian Electricity Supply Corporation.

_____ (2005) *The Kariba Case Study.* Social Science Working Paper. California Institute of Technology, Working paper 1227. Pasadena, California.

Scudder, Thayer and Colson, Elizabeth (1982) "From Welfare to Development: A Conceptual Framework for the Analysis of Dislocated People." In Hansen A. and A. Oliver-Smith (eds.) *Involuntary Migration and Resettlement.* CO, Boulder: West view Press.

Sen, Aratya (1981) *Poverty and Famines: An Essay on Entitlement and Deprivation.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Settlement Authority 1979. Settlement Review. Addis Ababa

_____ (1981) Settlement Policy. Addis Ababa

Simon Maxwell and Timoty R. Frankensberger (1999) *Household Food Security:*Concepts, Indicators, Measurements. A Technical Review. UNICEF, New York, 1992.

Swidale, Anne (2004) *Food Insecurity and Vulnerability.* Paper presented for Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance (FANTA) Project, Kampala, Uganda, 2004.

Tesfaye Abebe (2007) *Evaluation of Resettlement Program in Ethiopia: The Case of Oromiya, Chewaka Site.* Unpublished MA Thesis, Addis Ababa University. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Tamrat, T. (1972) Church and the State in Ethiopia, 1270-1327. (Oxford).

Thayer S. (1999) A Sociological Framework for the Analysis of New Land Settlements. In Michael Cernea, ed., *Putting People First: Sociological Variables in Development.* 2nd ed. Revised and Expanded. New York: Oxford University Press.

UNCDF (United Nations Capital Development Fund) (2007) *Food and The Poor.* How Can Democratic Local Governments Reduce Food Insecurity in Africa. New York, June 2007.

USAID, Food Aid and Food Security Policy, 2001.

Von Braun, Joachim, Bouis, Howarth, Kumar, Shubs, Pandya-Lorch, Rajul (1992) *Improving Food Security of the Poor: Concept, Policy and Programs.* IFPRI, Washington DC.

Webb, Patrick and von Braun, Joachim (1994) *Famine and Food Security in Ethiopia:* Lessons for Africa. Published on the Behalf of the International Policy Research Institute, John Wiley Ltd, USA.

Wolde-Mariam, Mesfin (1991) *Suffering under God's Environmnet: A Vertical Study of the Predicament of Peasants in North-Central Ethiopia.* Berne, Switzerland: African Mountains Association/ Geographica Bernesia.

World Bank (1999) Involuntary Resettlement: Operational Policy and Background Paper. The World Bank. Washington D.C. 1998

_____ (2005) *Agricultural Investment Source Book.* Washington D.C, 2005. WB

World Food Program (WFP) 2005. *Thematic Guidelines on Household Food Security Profiles*. World Food Program, Rome, 2005.

Yared Amare (1999) *Household Resources, Strategies and Food Insecurity in Ethiopia:*A Study of Amhara Households in Wogeda, Northern Shewa. Monograph Series in Sociology and Anthropology Vol. I. Addis Ababa University, Addis Ababa Ethiopia.

Annexes

ANNEXE I

Questionnaire Designed for Household Survey

To Resettlers in Chewaka Resettlement Area

Institute of Regional and Local development Studies

Addis Ababa University

Dear participant,

I am a graduate student at Addis Ababa University, Institute of Regional and Local development Studies, and currently working on a research study on –*Resettlement: Is it the way to come out of food insecurity? A case study on Chewaka resettlement area.* The major objectives of this study are: to assess whether resettlers are food secured or not, to identify challenges resettlers encounter and their mitigating mechanisms, and to give recommendations for further policy measures. Therefore, I would like to invite you to the study. All the information provided are very essential to the outcome of the study. In addition, the information you provided will be treated confidentially and will not be used for any other purpose other than the above objectives.

Thank you in advance for giving me your precious time.

Masresha Taye

Name of the enumerator: _____

1. Area of Identification

1.1. Village Name _____

1.2. Locality Name _____

1.3. Code for the household head _____

2. Household Characteristics

2.1 Sex _____

2.2 Year of birth (E.C) _____

2.3 Religion:_____

2.4 Year of arrival in Chewaka _____E.C

2.5 Educational level:

A. Illiterate
B. Can read and write
C. Grade 1-8
D. Grade 9-12.
E. Grade 12 completed
F. Certificate
G. Diploma
H Above diploma
I. *Kuran, Kese* or any other informal education
L. If any other, specify_____

2.5.1. Martial status:

1. Single
2. Married
3. Widowed
4. Divorced
5. Separated

2.5.2. If you are married the number of wife/wives _____

2.6. Total Number of people in the household: _____

2.6.1 Number of male: _____ 2.6.2 Number of female: _____

2.6.3. Family members in age structure

1. From 0 – 15 years of age _____
2. From 15 – 64 years of age _____
3. 64 years and above _____

2.7. What was your previous living place?

1. Local Oromo (Wellega, Illuababora)
2. East Hararghe
3. West Hararghe
4. Gumuz
5. Other (Specify) _____

2.8. What is the primary source of income in the family? (Rank based on the level of involvement)

	Now	Before
Crop production		
Non-farm activities		
Water transportation		
Livestock rearing		
Remittance		
If others, specify		

2.9.1. How much is your annual income?

	Now	Before
1.Below birr 500		
2. Between 501-1,500		
3. Between 1,501-2,500		
4. Between 2,501-3,500		
5. More than 3,500		

2.9.2. How do you rate your level of income relative to others?

	Now	Before
A. High/ Better off		
B. Middle/ equal with others		
C. Low/ poor to others		

2.10. What is the tenancy status of the household's dwelling?

	Chewaka	Before
Government house		
Built own house (through government land distribution)		
Built own house (through purchasing land)		
Rented from private		
Other, specify		

2.11. What are the main assets in your household?

	Now	Before
A.		
B.		
C.		
D.		
E.		

For questions from 2.12- 2.14 please write the appropriate answer by putting a '√' (tick) mark from the options given	1. Yes	2. No	3. It is the same	4.Do not know
2.12. When compared with your previous place, is there availability of land for food production?				
2.13. Is the size of land you posses currently more than before?				
2.14. Did the size of the farm land you posses currently affect your production?				

2.15. If your answer is yes to question 2.14, in what extent did it affect?

1. Highly positive impact
2. Positive impact
3. It is the same/ No difference
4. Negative impact
5. Highly Negative impact

2.16. When compared with the previous place, the suitability of the land for food production is

1. Very high quality than before
2. High quality than before
3. The same quality as before
4. Low quality than before
5. Very low quality than before

2.17. Do you use irrigation for food production?

1. Yes 2. No

2.18. If yes, by whom it was established? _____

2.19. If your answer is no for question 2.17, can you mention the reason for not having?

_____

_____

2.20. How do you rate the role of irrigation for food production?

1. Very high role
2. High role
3. No role
4. Low role
5. Very low role
6. I can not say

2.21. Means of production you use at Chewaka and before you came here? You can indicate more than one answer by putting '√' (tick) mark

	Now	**Before**
1. Oxen		
2. tractors		
3. Horse		
4. Donkey		
5. Human labor		
6. Other, specify		

2.22. Means of acquiring the above tools, you can write more than one

_____

_____

_____

2.23. Do you have better access to the above means of production in Chewaka?

1. Very Good Access
2. Good Access
3. Low Access
4. Very Low Access
5. I can not say

2.24. If your answer for the above question is 3 or 4, can you mention some of the problems you encountered and possible coping strategies?

Problems encountered	**Coping Strategies**
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

Food Access, Availability, and Utilization

3.1. Which crop types are the dominant in your food production for consumption and cash? (Underline means of measurement)

Chewaka		**Previously**	
Crop Type	Annual production (Quintals/ *Kuna)*	Crop Type	Annual production (Quintals/ *Kuna)*
1.		1.	
2.		2.	
3.		3.	
4.		4.	
5.		5.	

3.2. Please specify the kind of food you usually consume in the household daily (staple foods: *Merka, injera*, bread from *teff,* sorghum, maize barely, beans and horse beans etc; sauce like *shiro*, lentils, *kike*, meat, egg, etc; vegetables, potatoes, kale green pepper etc; fruits, milk etc. (Write the type of food usually consume, you can write more than one item for each)

Type of Meal	Chewaka	Previously
1. Breakfast		
2. Lunch		
3. Dinner		

3.3. How often do you have meat, milks, eggs, fish, vegetables and fruits in your diets?

1.Almost none (Never)

2.Sometimes

3.On holidays

4.Frequently (Most of the time)

5.Always

3.4. If the answer for the above question is number 1 or 2, why?

1. Preference 2. Not affordable

3. Not Available

4. Others, specify _____

Write numbers only

No	Food Types	Answer for Q 3.3		Answer Q3.4	
1	Meat	Before	After	Before	After
2	Milk				
3	Fish				
4	Vegetables				
5	Eggs				
6.	Fruits				

Food Acquisition

3.5. How do you acquire your staple foods? You can select more than one answer

Put a '√' (tick) mark	**Chewaka**	**Previously**
1. From own farm		
2. Purchasing		
3. Transfer food in the form of aid		
4. Transfer food in the form of loan		
5. Other, specify		

3.6. How often do you purchase your staple foods for household consumption? (Tick one)

Pattern	Chewaka	Previously
1. Daily		
2. Weekly		
3. Monthly		
4.Twice in a year		
5. Once in a year		
6. Other, specify		

3.7. What kinds of staple food items are purchased in Chewaka for your consumption?

1. Daily _____
2. Weekly _____
3. Monthly _____
4. Twice in a year _____
5. Once in a year _____
6. Other specify and write the type of food

_____

3.8. Why you purchase food?

1. To satisfy my basic food consumption
2. For variety
3. It is better to purchase food than grow in Chewaka
4. Unable to produce due to a lot of reasons
5. Other, specify _____

3.9. Do you sell crops, or other agricultural products that you grow in Chewaka?

1. Yes 2. No

3.10. If you sell, what is the reason?

1. To satisfy my basic needs
2. For medication
3. To pay for education to my children
4. To pay loan
5. To purchase agricultural inputs and tools
6. Other, specify _____

3.11. Which of the following statement best describes the food consumed in your family?

1. Enough of the kinds of food we want to eat
2. Enough but not always the kinds of food we want to eat
3. Sometimes not enough food
4. Often not enough to eat

Seasonality of food Availability, Acceptability, Utilization and Security Issues

3.12. During the past 12 months, what are the months of food shortage, normal and better food availability?

1. Food shortage in the household in that month **(Shortage)**
2. Food availability is normal and stable in that month **(Normal)**
3. Food availability is better than the normal case in that month **(Excess)**

Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	Jul.	Aug.

3.13. What are the causes for the seasonality of food availability in the household? You can select more than one option

1. Food price increases
2. Food price decreases
3. Decrease in family income
4. Increase in family income
5. Other priorities in that particular month emerge (such as school expenses for children, health related expenditure)
6. Others, please specify _____

3.14. The purpose of crop production is, put a '√' (tick) mark for the options provided

	Chewaka	**Previously**
1. All for own consumption		
2. All for sale		
3. Both for consumption and sale		
4. Other, specify		

3.15. If for consumption, how do the items produced contribute for household food consumption?

1. Very good
2. Good
3. Small
4. Very small
5. I can not say

3.16. In the past 12 months have you experienced food shortage?

1. Yes
2. No
3. I can not say

3.17. If yes, for how long?

1. For a long period of time in the year (More than 12 times in a year)
2. For some period of time in the year (7-12 times in a year)
3. For a short period of time in the year (1- 6 times in a year)
4. I can not determine

3.18. If you experience food shortage or if you ate less for whom did you sacrifice for? (More than one answer is possible)

1. Spouse
2. Infants (Less than 5 years old)
3. Pregnant women in the family
4. Working adult in the family other than spouse
5. Other children (older than 5 years old)
6. Elderly parents/ in-laws
7. Sick person
8. Other, specify _____

3.19. If there is an occurrence of food shortage, how did you fill the shortage?

1. Through borrowing
2. Through purchasing
3. Through food aid
4. Through food for work
5. Other, specify _____

3.20. In the past 12 months, did any one of your family skip food other than sickness or fasting?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I can not say

3.21. If yes, what was the main reason?

_____

_____

_____

3.22. In the pas 12 months, how often did the main working adult and children in your family skip entire meals because there was no food?

	Adult(15 - 64 years)	Children(Below 15 years)
1. Never		
2. Rarely (only 1-6 times in a year)		
3. Sometimes (7-12 times in a year)		
4. often (a few times in most months, from 1-6 in each month)		
5. Mostly (more than 6 times in every month)		
6. Other, specify		

3.23. In the past 12 months what was the main reason that you worried about not getting enough food?

1. Food/ cyclone 2. Food prices 3. Sickness of family member
4. Debt 5. No regular cash income (job security)
5. Other, specify _____

3.24. In the past 12 months, how often did food stored in your home run out and there was no money to buy more that day?

1.Never- we always have enough money to buy food
2. Rarely (only 1-6 times in a year)
3.Sometimes (7-12 times in a year)
4.Often (a few times almost every month)
5.Mostly (this happens a lot)

3.25. In the past 12 months, how often did you worry about where food would come from?

1. Never- we always have enough money to buy food
2. Rarely (only 1-6 times in a year)
3. Sometimes (Only a few times in the year 7-12 times)
4. Often (a few times almost every month)
5. Mostly (this happens a lot)

For questions from 3.26 -3.31 write the possible answer from the following options by writing their relevant number next to the question.

1. Never
2. Rarely (1-6 times in every year)
3. Sometimes (1-6 times in every month)
4. Often (Every week)
5. Mostly (Everyday)

3.26. In the past 12 months, how often did you borrow money for satisfying your daily food consumption?	
3.27. In the past 12 months, how often did you get your food item on credit from the local shops?	
3.28. In the past 12 months, how often did you have to borrow food from relatives or neighbors to satisfy your daily meal?	
3.29. In the past 12 months, have you used money for food consumption which was meant for other purpose?	
3.30. In the past 12 months, how often did you have to sell or mortgage your things/ assets to get food?	
3.31. In the past 12 months, how often did your family purchase staple food?	

3.32. If you used money for purchasing food, which is meant for another purpose, indicate the purpose of the money to be used for. (More than one answer is possible)

1. Sickness/ medicines 2. Clothing 3. Dowry
4. School costs 5. Repay other loans
6. Housing costs (such as maintenance, construction and related
7. Investment on assets (such as land, agricultural inputs and related) 8. Travel
9. Other, specify _____

3.33. In the past 12 months, how many meals do your family members usually have per day? 1. One 2. Two 3. Three 4. More than three

3.34. In the past 12 months, did you get to the point where you had to eat foods that are not acceptable to your culture/ community because of lack of resources/ food?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I can not say

3.35. If yes, which kinds of food

_____

_____

3.36. Who is favored more in terms of quantity, quality and frequency of food intakes?

1. Head of the family 2. Spouse
3. Male children below 15 years of age 4. Female children below 15 years of age
5. Kids below 15 years of age 6. No bias

3.37. If the answer to the above question is from 1-5, the reason is

_____

_____

_____

3.38. In the past 12 months, do you think any members of the family suffered from health problems related with food shortage, malnutrition or low food intake?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I can not say

3.39. In the past 12 months, have any of the members of your family suffered from health problems related to food contamination?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I can not say

3.40. In the past 12 months, have any of the members of your family diagnosed in a health institution due to health problems related to food?

1. Yes 2. No 3. I can not say

3.41. If yes, what kind of illness? More than one answer is possible

_____

_____

_____

3.42. What is the age of the person that was sick due to food related problems? More than one answer is possible

_____

Availability, Access, and Utilization of Capitals (Write the number based on the answer provided)

	Availability 1. Yes 2. No	**Access** 1.Easy 2.Less 3.No	**Role** 1.High 2.Low 3.No	**Utilization** 1.Yes 2.No	**Previous Availability** 1. Yes 2. No
4.1. Physical Capital					
Land for food production					
Irrigation					
Electricity					
Potable water					
Grain mill					
Road					
4.2. Human Capital					
4.2.1. Primary Education					
4.2.1 Secondary Education					
4.2.3 Technical and Vocational Training					
4.2.4 Skill development related with agricultural food production, means production, and credit and saving resources usage					
4.2.5 Health post					
4.2.6 Medicine					
4.2.7 Development Agents					
4.2.8 Peasant Associations					
4.2.9 Consumers Associations					

	Availability 1. Yes 2. No	**Access** 1.Easy 2.Less 3.No	**Role** 1.High 2.Low 3.No	**Utilization** 1.Yes 2.No	**Previous Availability** 1. Yes 2. No
4.3. Financial Capital					
4.3.1. Credit facility					
4.3.2. Saving					
4.3.3. Financial Institutions					
4.3.4. *Hiqub*					
4.3.5. *Ider(Afosha)*					
4.3.6. Purchasing agricultural products					
4.3.7. Selling agricultural products					
4.3.8. Income Generating Activities (Off-farm activities)					
4.4. Social Capital					
4.4.1. *Kire*					
4.4.2. *Hiqub*					
4.4.3. *Wedeja*					
4.4.5. *Chat kammu*					
4.4.6. *Hirppa*					
4.4.7. *Zekka*					
4.4.8. *Tassiga*					
4.4.9. *Debo(Guza)*					
4.4.10. *Wenfel (Fereqa)*					

	Availability 1. Yes 2. No	**Access** 1. Easy 2.Less 3.No	**Role** 1.High 2. Low 3.No	**Utilization** 1.Yes 2.No	**Previous Availability** 1.Yes 2. No
4.4. Social Capital Continued					
4.4.11. *Yefenchit*					
4.4.12. *Humma*					
4.4.13. Group work for disable persons					
4.4.14. *Jemmat temeda*					

5. Crop failure and related issues

	1. Yes 2. No	Possible measures
5.1. Have you encountered food shortage in Chewaka?		1,
5.2. Have you encountered crop failure in Chewaka?		1,
5.3. When you arrive at Chewaka, did you get the basic food and non-food items?		2,
5.4. When you arrive at Chewaka, which of the following items provided? 1. Basic food 2. Housing (Built) 3. Health Post 4. Medicine 5. Means of food production 6. Non-food items 7. Cash Money 8. Other, Specify _____		
5.5. Have you get what you were having in your previous area, when you arrive at Chewaka?		2,
5.6. Did most of the basic infrastructures existing currently constructed before you arrive at Chewaka?		2,

	1. Yes 2. No	Possible measures
5.7. Have you encountered food shortage in previous area of living?		1,
5.8. Have you encountered crop failure in previous area of living?		1,
5.9. In your previous area of living, did you get the basic food and non-food items?		2,
5.10. Means of acquiring the basic food in your previous area of living? 1. From own farm 2. Purchasing 3. Through Food aid 4. Through Food for work 5. Other, specify _____		
5.11. In your previous area of living did you have access to basic means of production?		2,
5.12. Did you believe that without migrating to Chewaka, is it possible to solve the problem of food insecurity in your previous area of living?		If yes, how?
5.13. For how many times in a year you encounter with food insecurity in your previous area of living? 1. Never 2. Sometimes 3. Many times in a year 4. Almost all times in a year		
5.14. Do you believe that your previous area of living is convenient for food production?		

6. Opportunities, Challenges, and Coping Strategies

	Opportunities	Problems	Coping Strategies
6.1. Food Production			
6.1.1. Food production for consumption			
6.1.2. Production for Cash Crop			
6.1.3. Pattern of production			
6.1.4. Pricing of production			
6.1.5. Seasonality of production			
6.1.6. Amount of production			
6.2. Means of production			
6.2.1. Land size			
6.2.2. Land quality			
6.2.3. Rainfall availability and pattern			
6.2.4 Oxen, horse, donkey			
6.2.5. Tractor			
6.2.6. Improved seed			
6.2.7.Pesticide, insecticide, other			
6.2.8. Saving and credit service			
6.2.9. Irrigation			
6.2.10. Fertilizer			

	Opportunities	Problems	Coping Strategies
6.3. Social Services			
6.3.1. Health Post			
6.3.2. Medicine			
6.3.3. Potable Water			
6.3.4. Sanitation			
6.3.5. Grain Mill			
6.3.6. Security			
6.4. Economical Services			
6.4.1. Income generating Activities (Off-farm activities)			
6.4.2. Access to market area			
6.4.3. Pricing of products			
6.4.5. Development Agents			
6.4.6. Peasant Association			
6.4.7. Cooperatives			
6.5. Environmental Issues			
6.5.1. Suitability of the climate for food production			
6.5.2. Suitability of the climate for Living			
6.6. Administrative Issues			
6.6.1. Administrative capacity			
6.6.2. Administrative willingness to cooperate			
6.6.3. Overall administrative role			

ANNEXE II

Key Informants Interview: Guideline Questions

1. Selection criteria of resettlers
    - ✓ By whom selection was made
    - ✓ Method of selection criteria
    - ✓ Participation of different stakeholders, host community, resettlers, NGOs, and Private Sector
    - ✓ Is there any complain from Hararghe about resettlement?
    - ✓ How much people at Hararghe are food insecure?
2. Selection criteria of resettlement site
    - ✓ Can you mention some of the criterion selecting resettlement site?
    - ✓ In what basis that Chewaka is selected?
    - ✓ Is there any better alternative other than Chewaka? If any other, why the government choose Chewaka?
    - ✓ Is there any body living there before resettlers came? If any, what has been done for them?
    - ✓ What were the main infrastructural amenities found here before resettling people?
3. Do you believe people in Chewaka are food secure? If food insecure, what is the main problems?
4. Among the four major pillars of resettlement program document, provision of 'minimum infrastructure' is the one. How do you describe this concept?
5. Who made the feasibility study related to health, education, road, land suitability, market and other basic social amenities?
6. What are the major economic activities in the resettlement area? How do you describe it compared to the host community's economic activity?
7. What are the major challenges resettlers faces in Chewaka? If any challenge, what were the major measures undertaken to tackle the problem?
8. Some resettlers are producing well others not, what do you think the major reason for such difference? Can you inform some of the intervention measures by the government to help these groups?

9. Are there any program/ project designed for resettlers concerning long-term rural development? And programs related to second generation of the resettlement area?
10. Who design policies, projects, programs, and strategies for Chewaka? Who are the participants?

ANNEXE III

Guideline Questions for FGDs

1. What is the main economic activity in Chewaka and Hararghe?
2. How do you describe Chewaka in terms of land quality, rainfall pattern and amount, environment and other aspects compared to Hararghe?
3. Is Chewaka convenient for solving your food insecurity situation? If yes how? If no why?
4. What were the major infrastructural and social facilities present in Chewaka at the time of arrival? Have you encountered any problem because of absence of one of the social services? If yes how do you cope?
5. Do you have better access to basic means of production; land, oxen, fertilizer, improved seed, and pesticides than before? If no, what are the major problems encountered and coping mechanisms?
6. Do you believe that you are food secured? If not, what is the main reason? Do you need to return back to your previous area of living?
7. Can you tell us the major opportunities, challenges, and coping strategies both at household and community level, from the following areas in Chewaka?
    - **Food production**
        1. Food production for consumption
        2. Production for cash crop
        3. Pattern of production
        4. Pricing of production
        5. Seasonality of production
        6. amount of production
    - **Means of production**
        1. Land size, quality, and suitability
        2. Rainfall availability and pattern and irrigation
        3. Tractor, oxen, horse, donkey and others
        4. Fertilizer, improved seed, insecticide
        5. Saving and credit service

- **Social Services**
    1. Health post and pharmacy- availability, accessibility, and affordability
    2. Potable water supply, sanitation, grain mill and other social services
    3. Security and related aspects
- **Economical Issues**
    1. Income generating activities (off-farm activities)
    2. Access to market area and pricing (reasonableness) of produce and food items
    3. Development agents, farmers' associations, and cooperatives
- **Environmental Issues**
    1. Suitability of the climate for food production
    2. Suitability of the climate for living and raising children
- **Administrative Issues**
    1. Administrators capacity
    2. Administrators willingness to cooperate
    3. Overall administration role for food security

ANNEX IV

Points allotted for each questions

1. Never = 0
2. Rarely (1-6 Times Every Year) = 1
3. Sometimes (1-6 Times Every Month)= 2
4. Often (Every Week)= 3
5. Mostly (Every Day)= 4 (Since there is no drought or famine in the area, this response is not computed)

Total number of questions 30 (ANNEX I)

Kebeles	Food Secure (1)		FI without Hunger (2)		FI without Hunger-Moderate- (3)		FI without Hunger-Severe-(4)		Total	
Chokorsa	0	0%	11	25%	33	73.33%	1	2.22%	45	100%
Tokuma Harar	0	0%	6	17.14%	26	74.28%	3	8.57%	35	100%
Demeksa	0	0%	2	5%	31	77.50%	7	17.5%	40	100%
Missoma G.	0	0%	1	3.33%	20	66.67%	9	30%	30	100%

Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in another university and all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Masresha Taye

July, 2008

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

Ignatious Mberngwa (PhD)

July, 2008