INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

THE IMPACT OF FOOD AID AND FULL FAMILY TARGETING IN MITIGATING RISK FOR DROUGHT AFFECTED HOUSEHOLDS IN AMHARA REGION:

A CASE STUDY OF GAZGEBLIA WOREDA AMHARA REGIONAL STATE

Prepared by: Ephrem Degefhu
Enrollment No: 099130720
Contact address: Cell phone +251-911-898558
Email edegefu@gmail.com

Rural Development Program

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts, Rural Development

April 2016
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the dissertation entitled THE IMPACT OF FOOD AID AND FULL FAMILY TARGETING IN MITIGATING RISK FOR DROUGHT AFFECTED HOUSEHOLDS IN AMHARA REGION, A CASE STUDY OF GAZEGIBLA WOREDA, REGIONAL STATE of AMHARA submitted by me for the partial fulfillment of the M.A in Rural Development to Indra Ghandi National Open University (IGNOU) New Delhi is my own original work and has not been submitted earlier either to IGNOU or to any other institution for the fulfilment of the requirement for any course of study. I also declare that no chapter of this manuscript in whole or in part is lifted and incorporated in this report from any earlier work done by me or others.

Place: Addis Ababa

Date: 26/04/2016

Signature

Enrolment No. 099130720

Name Ephrem Desefaw

Address A/A, Ethiopia.

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that Mr. Ephrem Degefhu Beyene student of M.A (RD) from Indra Gandhi National Open University, New Delhi was working under my supervision and guidance for his/her Project Work for the Course MRDP -001 His project work entitled

THE IMPACT OF FOOD AID AND FULL FAMILY TARGETING IN MITIGATING RISK FOR DROUGHT AFFECTED HOUSEHOLDS IN AMHARA REGION, A CASE STUDY OF GAZEGIBLA WOREDA, REGIONAL STATE of AMHARA

Which he is submitting, is his genuine and original work.

Place: Addis Ababa

Date: 26/04/2016

Signature _____

Name _____

Dr. S. NAKKIRAN
Professor of Co-operative Management
AMBO UNIVERSITY
Post Box No. 369, Ambo, Ethiophia
E-mail: doctorsnakkiran@gmail.com

Address of the Supervisor _____

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This is dedicated to all the people in my life who have supported me through thick and thin. To my beloved Hasset, the joy of my life, this is for you. To my mother, the hero of my life; thank you for encouraging and motivating me to finish my paper.

Thanks to Dr. S. Nakkiran, my advisor for your flexibility and support.

Terhas Clark, my beloved friend thank you again for making me believe in humanity and helping me throughout this research. Thank you for your unreserved love and support.

Gash,Eli, Agezew, Zelalem, Melak and my friends I didn't mention your name here. Thank you all for your support and I am grateful for having you all in my life.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

THE IMPACT OF FOOD AID AND FULL FAMILY TARGETING IN MITIGATING RISK FOR DROUGHT AFFECTED HOUSEHOLDS IN AMHARA REGION:

A CASE STUDY OF GAZGEBLIA WOREDA AMHARA REGIONAL STATE

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACRONYMS

CSA	Central Statistical Authority
DAs	Development Agents
DPPA	Disaster Prevention Preparedness Agency
DPPC	Disaster Prevention Preparedness Communion
EG	Ethiopian calendar
EGS	Employment generating schemes
ESFR	Ethiopian Strategic of food reserves
FFW	Food for work
FGDs	Focus group discussion
GC	Gregorian calendar
HH	Households
HRD	Humanitarian Requirements Document
KI	Key informant
LBPW	Labor Based Public Work
M & E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NCFSE	New coalition for food security in Ethiopia
NDPPF	National disaster prevention and properness fund
NGO's	Non-Governmental Organization
NPDPM	National policy on disaster prevention and management
ORDA	Organization for Relief and Development in Amhara
PA	Peasant Association
PSNP	Productive Safety net program
SDPRP	Sustainable development and poverty reduction program

SERA	Strengthening Emergency Response Ability
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientists
WCDR	World Conference on Disaster Reduction
WFP	World food program
USAID	United States agency for International Development
ZDA	Zonal Department of Agriculture

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Over the past decade, human beings have suffered from increasingly frequent environmental emergencies, natural and human-induced disasters; such as, droughts, floods, hurricanes, cyclones, earthquakes, landslides, and forest fires, which are occurring across the world with increased redundancy and severity (WCDR, 2004:2).

Ethiopia has been no exception to these disasters. However, Ethiopia's frequent disasters have been famine, natural disasters, migratory pest infestation, bush fires, flooding, villagization (or forced mass displacement); and, HIV/AIDS. Among the causes, however, hydro-meteorological hazard, particularly drought has remained the leading cause of disaster and human suffering.

The first drought recorded in Ethiopian history occurred in the ninth century, followed by other severe droughts which occurred in the twelfth and fourteenth centuries. In 1520, a drought occurred, which was later referred to as the, "famine of cereals due to lack of rain". Thousands of cattle and livestock died due to the drought. In 1540, just before the death of Emperor Lebna Dengle, second drought occurred. . After the death of Emperor Gelawdeos, in 1559, there was a severe famine which was caused by changes in rain fall patterns, which lasted for three years. In 1635, during the era of Emperor Fasiladas (), a famine which scholars report was a result of drought had taken the lives of many civilians

(Punkhurst 1985).Between 1906 and 2005, various types of disasters occurred in Ethiopia. Drought disaster had occurred 23 times and killed about 602,367 peoples (WWW.em-at.net-Universite). This resulted in death of 26,190 people, per event on average. It had also affected a total of 89,566,200 people, and 3,894,183 people per event were affected on average. As compared with other natural disasters that took place in the same era, the drought disasters have been the leading effect in the country.

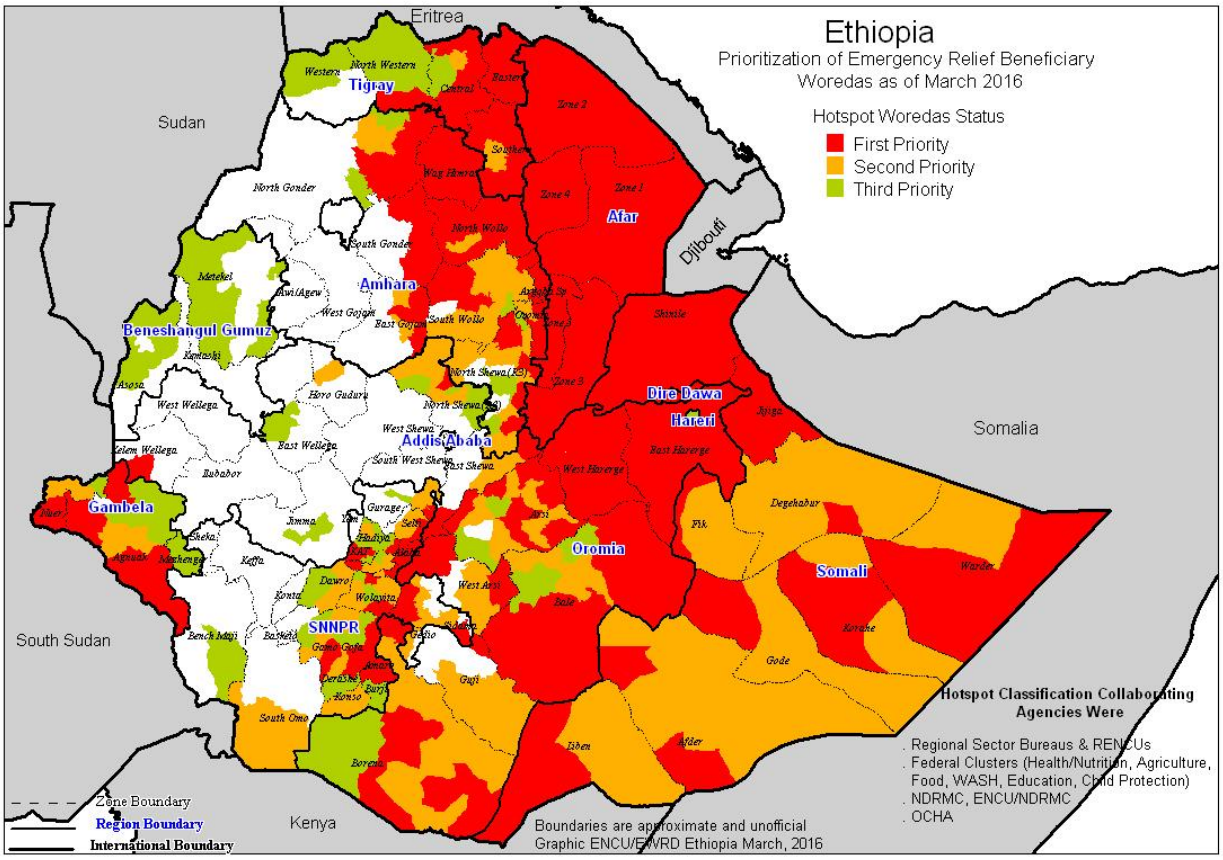
Table 1: Natural Disasters In Ethiopia 1906 - 2005[1]

Disaster	Number of Events	Total Killed	Total Injured	Total Left Homeless	Affected	Grand Total
Drought Average Per Event	23	60,236,726, 190	0	0	895,662,0 03,894,18 3	95,662,003,89 4,183
Earthquake Average Per Event	7	243	16,524	42,060	0	58,584
Epidemic Average Per Event	15	109,042,730	0	0	1,388,169 ,254	13,881,69,254

Source: WWW.em-at.net-Universite

In 2016, multiple consecutive seasons of below-normal rainfall – in part due to El Niño – have led to the worst drought in more than 50 years across the Northeastern and central parts of Ethiopia. Low crop production, poor livestock health, and water shortages have all contributed to the deteriorating food security situation and severe humanitarian crisis. According to the Government of Ethiopia (GoE), the projected level of relief food assistance for 2016 is 10.2 million people. This is in addition to the 7.9 million people covered by the Ethiopian Government led Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP), sponsored by United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the donors from the international community. In early 2016, the GoE and the international humanitarian community anticipated that up to 435,000 children under five will need treatment for severe acute malnutrition (SAM). Furthermore, at least 1.7 million children, pregnant and lactating women will require specialized nutritional support, with estimates as high as 2.2 million from UN World Food Program (WFP, 2016).

Figure 1: Food Security Situation



Food Security Hot Spot Classification Situation provided by DRMFSS and GIS, as of March 2016. Red spots depict priority woredas. The number of Priority-1 Woredas significantly increased from 186 in Dec.2015 to 219 in March 2016.

Food Assistance Programs Catholic Relief Services (CRS), in partnership with Food for the Hungry (FH), Relief Society of Tigray (REST), and Save the Children International (SCI), Office of Food for Peace (FFP), targets food insecure Ethiopians with long-term development interventions through the PSNP to reduce chronic food insecurity. PSNP is

the first line of response in any food security crisis. PSNP addresses the basic food needs of approximately 8 million chronically food insecure people through the predictable seasonal transfer of food and cash resources, as well as the creation of assets that generate economic benefit to the community as a whole.

Food for Peace, partners with WFP and CRS to provide relief food assistance that saves lives and reduces human suffering of those affected by climatic and other shocks, as well as, meeting the basic nutrition requirements of refugees from Somalia, Sudan, South Sudan, and Eritrea.

Table 2: Total Contributions

Year	U.S. Dollars	Metric Tons
Fiscal Year 2016	$267.3 million	446,920 MT
Fiscal Year 2015	$174.3 million	228,570 MT
Fiscal Year 2014	$218.1 million	271,120 MT
Fiscal Year 2013	$235.7 million	274,770 MT
Fiscal Year 2012	$306.6 million	365,400 MT

Food Security Situation Information provided by WFP, UNHCR, FAO and UNICEF as of January 2016. *FFP FY 2016 funding is to date as of February 3, 2016.

Table 3: Fiscal Year 2016 Contribution Breakdown

Program	U.S. Dollars	Metric Tons
Title II Development*	----	----
Title II Emergency	$267.3 million	446,920 MT
Emergency Food Security Program (EFSP)	----	----

Food Security Situation Information provided by WFP, UNHCR, FAO and UNICEF as of January 2016. *FFP FY 2016 funding is to date as of February 3, 2016.

The government of Ethiopia, in its five years strategy plan, has included and adopted different possibilities and alternatives to combat the populations' vulnerability to risk and disaster by improving their resilience to shocks. Since then, significant improvements have been exhibited in the area of food security in the past few years though different approaches such as PSNP, a program mainly designed to link food aid with long term food security projects, Resettlement by moving community members to virgin and more productive areas of the country and through providing technical training and loan to encourage farmers to be involved on off farm activities and other investments in their localities. Regardless, the country is still challenged and affected by drought for reasons related to natural calamities; such as, erratic rainfall patterns, poor and degraded farming land and traditional agricultural production systems, and due to the change in the climate in the recent years. Agriculture production is entirely dependent on rain fall water source.

Both *Meher*, the long rains which go from June through September, and *Belg*, the short rains which go from April through May, failed and left a significant population to look

for food aid to cover house hold food needs. In the past few decades, the Ethiopian Government has strengthened its National Disaster Risk Management approach. Several lessons learned have been adopted to strengthen and enhance the systems, to ensure risk is reduced and crisis response is effective. The Disaster Risk Management Strategic Program Investment Framework (DRM-SPIF) has also served as a tool to translate the DRM Policy, which was launched in 2013. Starting from recognition of the potential for DRM in Ethiopia and the strengths of established systems and practices, the DRM-SPIF maps the required program components of a comprehensive DRM system for Ethiopia. It presents clear investment options for partners desirous of supporting DRM efforts and designs mechanisms for efficient and harmonized resource allocation and utilization. Currently, Ethiopia is experiencing one of the worst droughts in decades. *Meher* and *Belg*, the two main rainy seasons – which supply approximately 80 percent of Ethiopia's agricultural yield and employ 85 percent of the workforce, were not successful.. In June 2015, the Ethiopian Government declared the failure of the spring *belg* rains. This affected smallholder farmers and pastoralists in the Northeastern rangelands of Afar and the Northern Somali Regions. The Ethiopian Government spearheaded a multi-agency assessment on the impact of agricultural yield and livestock. The assessment concluded that 4.5 million people were in need of emergency food assistance by August of 2015. Subsequently, the summer rains were weak and erratic due to El Niño, which negatively affected *meher* dependent farmers and tipped pastoralists into severe food insecurity in late July of 2015. The Ethiopian Government led a pre-harvest, rapid multi-agency assessment in early October, which concluded that the number of people requiring

emergency food assistance had increased to 8.2 million, in addition to the 2015 report released by the Humanitarian Requirements Document (HRD).

The bulk of the needs presented in this HRD for 2016 were calculated through a robust, Government-led multi-agency *meher* assessment, which took place over the course of three weeks in October and November. Nearly 200 Governmental, UN, NGO and charitable donor representatives visited affected communities across Ethiopia's nine regions. The assessment teams met and interviewed local authorities, community leaders, and men and women affected by the crisis.

The *meher* assessment concluded that the expected harvest was far below expectations, with some regions experiencing between 50 to 90 per cent crop losses (Ethiopia HRD 2016).The lack of rainfall and subsequent drought have caused a massive spike in humanitarian needs, which are expected to continue through much of 2016.

Furthermore, informing the needs presented in this HRD are sector projections for 2016, which have been established through joint Government and Ethiopia Humanitarian Country Team (HCT) analysis of 'analogue' El Niño impacted years.

With significant increment of the beneficiary number addressing all the needy beneficiaries on the right time with the right amount with the right approach is laborious encounter. Creating stabilization and make sure the community didn't take negative coping mechanism and develop resilience to cope up with the shock attached to the

drought situation is a day to day effort exerted by all practitioners both at national and village level.

Considering the emergency situation and the urgency to provide food for the community adopting appropriate targeting criteria following the guideline developed by Ethiopian Government in a way it captures eligible beneficiaries with in the community is another area that need due attention considering the drought condition and the need to provide aid in due time.

1.2. Problem Statement

Drought followed by household food shortage and lack of resilience to resist shocks leave beneficiaries in a very vulnerable position. In order to prepare for an appropriate response mechanism, the Ethiopian Government and other agencies, have attempted to use early warning to forecast and analyze the situation. However, as a result of erratic rainfall followed by the Liliana effect, it has been impossible to track the data and make food resources available to provide to the drought affected population following the customary approach of dealing with it. In the current fiscal year, the GoE announced that nearly 10 million people are affected by the current drought which is a significant increment as compared to the previous years.

The food aid is based on daily calorie intake for individuals per day. Food provided is expected to cover 2100 kilo calories as per the National Guideline on Targeting Relief Food Assistance. Unfortunately, this is compromised due to errors related to targeting

and an effort exerted by various stakeholders to share a portion of food among community members which significantly affect the wellbeing of drought affected community and cause dilution.

In line with this, the study tried to report the effectiveness of food aid programs in terms of enabling to resist shock and prevent any possible occurrences of negative coping mechanism by the community. The study addresses the direct relationship between resiliency and full family targeting when it comes to emergency food aid. As a result, the following research questions are anticipated to be answered:

1. Are food aid programs covering the required household food demand in a given month/round?
2. Is there a direct correlation between the practice of full family targeting and resiliency to shock?
3. Are the food aid programs protecting affected community members from taking negative coping mechanisms to survive the shock?
4. Does full family targeting contribute to maintain or create/sustain household asset for drought affected populations?

1.3. The Objective of the Study

1.3.1. Main objective of the study

The main objective of the study is to focus on the salient contribution of emergency food aid to develop resilience for drought affected communities, and its direct correlation with full family targeting in food aid programs.

1.3.2. Specific objective of the study:

1. Assess the contribution of emergency food aid
2. To analyze the impact of full family targeting in terms of fulfilling household food demand; and,
3. To study the contribution of food aid in preventing the community from taking negative coping mechanisms.

1.4. Chaptalization Plan

The first chapter of the research document focuses with introduction part explaining the historical back ground of food aid in the country with its contribution to food security in the area

The second chapter covers literature review by assessing different publications and government guidelines developed by different stake holders

The third touches research methodologies.

The fourth chapter addresses with result and discussion of the research. The output from the data collected will be addressed and detail analysis will be presented under this

section. The last chapter will cover conclusions and recommendations together with Annexes and bibliography.

1.5. Scope and Limitations

The study was undertaken in Gazgeblia District, which is located in Amhara Region. The study addressed three peasant associations; which include, 01 Asketma, Abekat 016, and Dicona 03. Out of the seventeen peasant associations in the Gazgeblia District, 57 households were selected and interviewed for the assessment. The fundamental objective of the study is to examine the 'impact of food aid in drought affected households, and its correlation with full family targeting'. Hence, the research and assessment activities were specifically framed and tailored to address this objective. All of the study participants interviewed are food aid beneficiaries. The conclusions and recommendations are gathered and rely on the discussions with the household participants of the study.

In conclusion, gathering independent, truthful and accurate feedback from the food aid beneficiary participants was difficult because the respondents had reservations and distrusted the motives of the questions. The participants were reluctant to give honest responses during the interview sessions due to the fear that there would be an impact on their food aid benefits. To compact this obstacle, to When possible, the researchers attempted created a relatively private setting and as few outside participants as possible; ideally just the beneficiary and interviewer. This was in an attempt to create a safe and confidential environment; furthermore, researchers clarified the objective of the study and reiterated and confirmed that their response was confidential and would not impact or

the respondent's the food aid benefits. This allowed the researchers to create a comfortable relationship with the participants and gather the required information. Establishing rapport and informal conversations were the other approaches applied by the researcher that helped to obtain the required information.

CHAPTER TWO

2. Literature Review

2.1. Conceptual Framework and Definitions

Drought is one of the major natural hazard threats to people's livelihood and to a community's socio-economic development. Each year, disasters originating from prolonged drought, not only affect tens of millions of people, but also contribute to famine and starvation among millions of people, particularly in the study area, the eastern part of Amhara region.

Drought risk management has hitherto been misconstrued as a homework for managing distinct incidents with devastating capacity of elements at risk in drought prone areas. Drought is a slow-onset hazard, which provides time to consider and drought management and response should address the complex root causes; such as, understanding people's vulnerabilities, identifying unsafe conditions related to poverty, the nature of local economy, livelihoods and other elements at risk. It should take into consideration, frequency and severity of droughts, availability of context specific strategies and plans, level of political stability, the capacity and willingness to use indigenousness knowledge, institutional capacities and resources. Understanding these issues allows government authorities and the public to undertake effective drought mitigation and preparedness measures (Backeberg et.al. 2003: 2).

2.2. Definition and Classifications of Drought

2.2.1. Definition

Drought induced famine has traditionally been defined differently by different wealth groups and communities, as an 'absence, or shortage or late onset and early offset and/or irregular distribution of rainfall that ultimately causes environmental tress, low productivity, reduced soil fertility, intensified land degradation and shortage of food for human and animal consumption'. Women household heads, and people in poor and the middle poor status of the social category define drought induced famine as, absence of food, consuming less favored foods, being on the verge of death due to drought induced famine. To the contrary, the well-off members of the socio-economic category defines drought induced famine as, reduced household stock and food intake accompanied by death of livestock assets. Drought induced famine in this specific context is seen as a phenomenon related to lack or absence of rain, late onset and early offset of rain that submerges households into severe food shortages. Drought induced famine is a human failure. It is a result of inappropriate application of technologies, inadequate management of available skill, knowledge and other resources accompanied by lack of transparency and good governance. (CFSE, 2003:2).

Drought, therefore, is commonly defined by Ethiopian small holder farmers as, the absence of rain when required for seed germination, plant fertilization and crop growth (Woldemariam, 1991). Famine, by Ethiopian farmers, also refers to the catastrophic and

perilous disruption of society as manifested in cumulative failures of production, distribution and consumption systems (Woldemariam 1984, De Waal 1987).

2.3. Coping strategy

People are passive victims of disasters. However, there is potential people to instill their own traditional system of dealing with negative consequences of droughts and famine (Keller 1992, Hutchinson 1991). The external famine intervention strategies are more disruptive and create deep rooted dependency syndrome on non-local resources and become disincentives to focus on locally available resources and raising local productivity to the level possible (Keller 1992, Hutchinson 1991). The response of the peasants residing in these areas, and coping strategies to these human induced problems vary significantly, depending on the severity of the problems. The able bodied and young peasants undertake seasonal migration as a coping mechanism to the relatively better and fertile nearby areas during harvest and farming seasons to reduce their household size temporarily (the number of mouths to feed) as well as to earn and remit money from income they obtain from farm and off-farm activities in the low land areas. Besides the seasonal migration, people also sell their productive assets, rent their property, borrow money from institutions and individuals, and others undergo mass migration to areas of potential labor work, usually to large cities. These are common coping strategies that people do. Hence, people take all efforts and do everything in their power whenever they face starvation; however, they are always losers of hard fought struggle for survival, but not passive victims of these drought induced famines (Tesfaye 2004).

Thus, the options that the communities are facing when dealing with famine are always named as 'household coping mechanism' (Webb and von Braun 1994). The pattern of coping could be determined by the pre-disaster characteristics of individual households, as the disaster is always a slow onset.

2.4. Drought Classifications

Drought has usually been classified as meteorological, agricultural, hydrological and Socio-economic drought. *Meteorological drought* is a situation where a 'region-specific expression of precipitations of rainfall happens below normal for specific period of time'. *Agricultural drought is a* situation where 'the rainfall happens to be below the normal to furnish the soil with moisture for crop growth and development at different growth stages.' *Hydrological drought* is a state where 'prolonged rainfall causes the lowering of stream flow, depletion of soil moisture and fall in ground water level and disruption of water supply occurs. (cited in Melaku et. al. 1997). Whereas, *Socio-economic drought* deals with drought in terms of, supply and demand for goods and services. The physical water shortage starts to affect people and the ripple effect can therefore be traced through economic systems (Backeberg et. al. 2003: 4).

2.5. Historical Background of Drought in Ethiopia

According to the 2005 Ethiopian Household Census, the total population of the country is about 75 million, that would make the country second largest in sub-Saharan Africa, and the growth rate is approximately 3 percent every year (CSA-2005).

According to the UNDP Human Development Index, Ethiopia ranked 171st out of 174 countries, and the life expectancy averages only 43.3 (UNDP: 2000).

One of the first recorded drought induced famine in the history of Ethiopian was in 12th century, followed by 14th and 19th century, which claimed the millions of lives and livelihoods. Melaku further explained, approximately six famines were recorded in 16th 17th century. The earliest of these happened in 1520, and was referred to as the "famine of cereals due to lack of rain" in 1540 (Melaku et. at (1997). Pankhurst (1985) also asserts that, there was a drought induced famine during the period of Emperor Fasiladas in 1635.

Melaku claims that drought induced famines have recurrently been affecting the northern part of Ethiopia. It is also reported, though not well specified, that the southern half of the country have also been in the same disaster stresses during the same time. For example, the rains seemed to have failed in Shewa Zone in 1892, which resulted in a substantial price increase of food items[2].

In 1985, Pankhrust associated the effect of drought induced famine in 1890s with the price of grain, that enlarged by one to two hundred times, although the plough oxen was bigger by twenty to thirty fold, and the price of shots had increased by more than twenty times. In line with this, the price of salt bar correspondingly increased to substantial level, apparently because of increased transportation cost caused by the shortage of pack

[2] Melaku et. at 1997

animals. The exchange value of the dollar, which was eight to twelve bars of salt in 1889, diminished to two and a half bars in 1890.

In the period between 1888 and 1892, a famine (locally called *Kifu ken*), induced by rinderpest and compounded by drought army worm and caterpillar attacks, seem to have caused the disastrous effect in the history of the country. It is estimated that the famine and subsequent epidemics claimed the lives of one-third of the total population, and 90 percent of the cattle of the country[3]

Generally, the many other recurrent drought induced famines of varying magnitude hitherto occurred in Ethiopia have significantly wracked the country and its people, even after the traumatic experience of, the so called, Great Famine. The most well known and most distinguished famines, brutally known for their socioeconomic and psychological stacks, where the famines of 1973/74 and 1984/85[4].

2.6. The Drought Scenario and Future Probability

2.6.1. Drought Scenario

It has been a jutted out fact, that drought instantaneously results in famine in Ethiopia. Up until 1992, there are 39 recorded famines in history that occurred in Ethiopia; of which, 19 of them are evidently instigated either by drought alone, or in amalgamation with some supplementary hazards. However,the causes of the remaining 18 famines were not revealed (Melaku 1997).

[3] Pankhurst, 1985
[4] Melaku et. at 1997

It is bulged out fact, that drought induced famine has recurrently been occurring almost every year in drought prone areas in Ethiopia. The drought induced famine, of course, varies in it severity, frequency,and level of damage on human beings and livelihoods with geographical extent. The drought analysis reveals, that it occurs in 3to 5 years time in the North, and 8 to 10 years' time thought out the rest of the country (Ibid).

In the years between 1958 and 1977, drought induced famine used to recurrently occur every year, though with varied magnitude and geographic extent. For example, the 1974 drought induced famine was expanded as far wide as 61 Awurajas out of the then existing 102; while, the 1969 famine was only limited to four Awurajas. In the years between 1958 and 1977, nearly 20%of the total area and population of the country was affected by famine every year[5].

2.7. Future Probability

It is widely believed that drought is a result of a fluctuation of large scale atmospheric circulation as a natural event. In addition to mismanagement of resources by human beings, such as, deforestation, overgrazing and over cultivation in the semi-arid areas. Furthermore, the pollutions in industrial zones are causes for global climatic variations, which significantly influences changes in the ecosystem and put the elements in the ecosystem at risk[6]. It is evident that many more drought induced famines will be the fact

[5] Mesfin 1984, cited in Melaku el.at 1997
[6] Tesfaye 1988

of the future, unless context specific and appropriate policy and implementation measures are taken to reverse the situation[7] .

2.8. Theoretical framework for Drought management

It is theoretically evident that there are procedures that enable policy makers and elements at risk to effectively manage drought induced famine disasters at all levels[8]:

- Determine the probabilities of droughts of different dimensions to occur in a country or region

- Determine the extent and nature of the impacts (social, environmental, political; direct and indirect; short and long term; positive and negative; etc.) for droughts of different dimensions and probabilities.

- Determine the cost and effectiveness of different measures and application levels of measures as well as for different combinations of measures and strategies to reduce the negative impacts of droughts of different dimensions and probabilities.

- Integrate the above information within a cost-benefit or multi-criteria decision analysis framework to determine the most effective combination and level of measures and strategy to manage the impacts of droughts optimally.

From this, one can deduce that the nature of drought, the level of vulnerability of elements at risk, the severity of drought, the frequency of occurrence of drought, the

[7] Melaku et. al (1997
[8] Backeberg et.al 2003

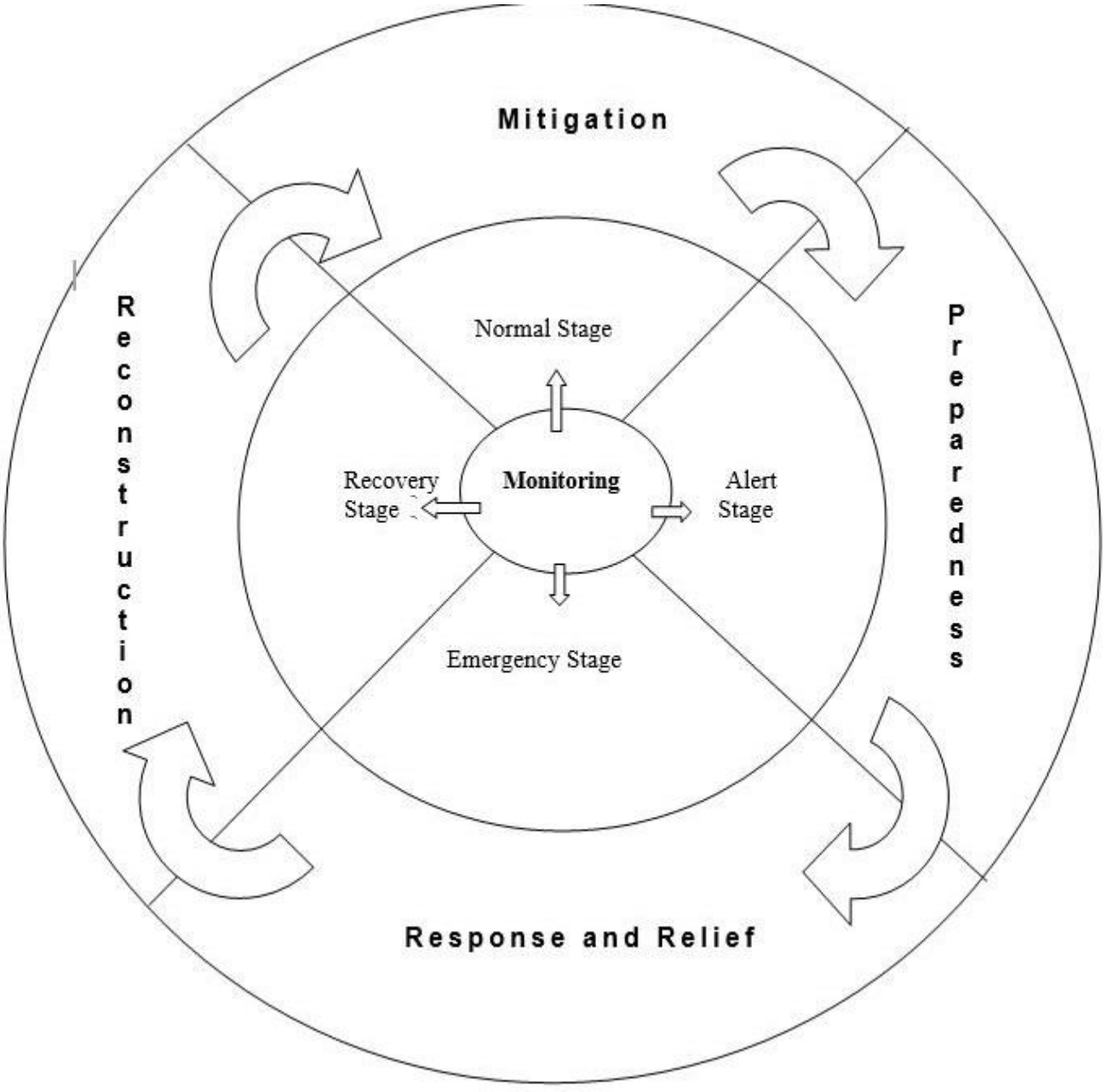
capacity of communities prone to drought induced famine disasters; as well as, other related information which is imperative to effectively enact effective drought management strategies.

2.9. Drought Cycle

A famine disaster only occurs when a hazard (that is drought) affect the lives and livelihoods of people in a vulnerable situation. Drought is not a disaster, rather it is a hazard that could possibly cause a potential damage to elements at risk in vulnerable situations. No matter what the intensity and frequency of occurrence of a specific hazard in one area may be, for a disaster to occur, it requires high level of vulnerability of elements at risk and less capacity of the elements, and hence DISASTER = HAZARD * VULNERABILITY/CAPACITY.

Drought tends to follow a cycle. The cycle begins with a "*Normal*" situation with good rain. Conditions gradually deteriorate through an "*Alert"* stage, when water, pasture and other resources unusually become hard to find, leading to an "*Emergency'* stage, when not only human and livestock food become nearly absent, but also widespread famine and disease would occur. When the rain eventually does again fall, water for livestock and human would be available and vegetation recover, and people can rebuild their livelihoods at the stage of *recovery* (IIRR 2004).

Figure 2: Drought Management Cycle Module



Source: IIRR, 2004

Normal Stage: Strengthen resource management, develop infrastructure promote income generation, plan contingencies, Education, family planning.

Alert Stage: Strategically stockpile cereals, rehabilitate critical boreholes, promote livestock marketing, intervene in human and animal health, and provide supplementary feed for livestock.

Emergency Stage: Intervene in human and animal health; provide emergency water supplies, supplementary food for vulnerable groups.

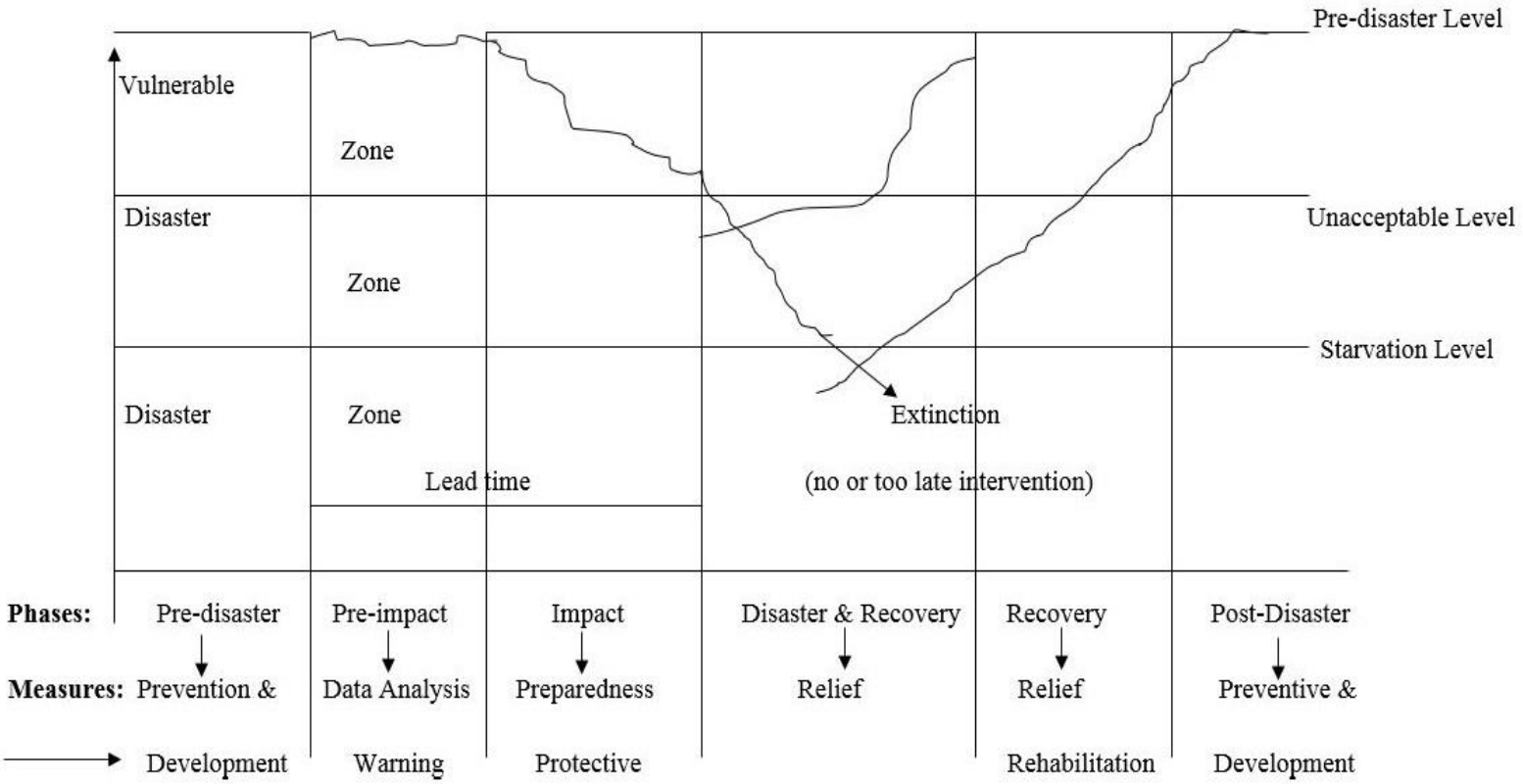
Recovery stage: Restock and rehabilitate dams, building capacity, develop infrastructure, food –for –work, cash for –work (SNP), and Natural resource management.

Drought differs from other natural hazards in many ways: 1) drought is a slow onset natural hazard, often regarded to as a creeping phenomenon. Because of the creeping nature of drought, its effects accumulate slowly over a substantial period of time. Thus, it gives time to plan in advance and execute activities to reverse the adverse effects of drought induced famine. The below diagram shows the behavior of slow-onset drought induced famine disaster such as:

Figure 3: Behavior of Slow-Onset Disaster (Drought)

Behavior of the Curve With Early Intervention

Behavior of the Curve With Late Intervention



2.10. Drought Vulnerability

People and their livelihoods residing in drought prone area are usually vulnerable to the adverse effects of drought induced famine; because in one way or another, they could possibly be dependent on the intermittent rainfalls. The loss of lives and livelihoods could, in turn, be contingent on the level of vulnerability of individual households. As a matter of fact, people have their own way of coping with adverse effects of disasters, nonetheless, the rain never appears for a couple of months. The disastrous effect of drought induced famine usually come to life whenever individuals or communities coping mechanisms ceases to exist.

Dessalegn articulates the vulnerability features of poor members of communities in three dimensions (Dessalegn 1992:8):

1. Their greater self- exploitation through a more active engagement in economic and income generating activities
2. Their greater exploitation of social relationships (both inter-and intra-class), and of the ethic of communal cooperation and
3. Their greater investment in custom and traditions.

There are multidimensional socio-economic reasons that exposed people to vulnerability to drought induced famine, especially in Africa, and other developing countries (DPPA-TOT- NPDPM (1996)).

According to Desalegn, vulnerability to drought induced famine clearly means that there is lack of accessibility to food. The following are identified as contributing factors for the vulnerability of individual households and communities in Ethiopia (Desalegn, 1992:8):

Geographical/ location factors: Some people live in very remote inaccessible and drought prone areas where there is no abundant resource. The less accessibility of the location could also hinder effective preparedness and response measures.

Socio-cultural factors: these include beliefs and attitudes on what causes a disaster, skill, knowledge and level of awareness of community members, the degree of peace and social interaction, trust among community members, and population growth.

Economic factors: Poor economies, country and community resources to respond to disasters, lack of capital at national level that would ultimately end up in having poor infrastructure.

Technological factors: Level of agricultural inputs and technology use, the level of capacity of communities to use modern early warning systems in harmony with traditionally/indigenous early warning system.

Organizational factors: the level of transparency and accountability of political systems, the nature of disaster risk management policies and strategies, the capacity of government and local institutions in disaster management planning and decision making processes.

Land management factors: method and the application modern technology in line with the local level indigenous knowledge to reduce environmental degradation and promote conservation.

2.11. Effects of Drought

According to the tool kit for the dry land, droughts inflict a heavy cost in human, material and physical resources and damage to the environment (IIRR et. al 2004). As stated in the following:

Economic Effects: Extensive damage to vegetation and water supply points, livestock deaths, loss of economic growth and development, lower income for farmers and pastoralist, higher food prices, unfavorable terms of trade for pastoralist, losses from tourism

Social effects: Food shortage, malnutrition and famine, people fall in and die, decline in living conditions, population migration (separation of families) and associate psychological crises, conflicts over resources.

Environmental effects: Plant damage, reduction in water quality and quantity, more dust and pollutants, pest and diseases outbreaks.

2.12. Access to Resource and Coping in Adversity

The Access' model focuses on the way unsafe condition arise in relation to the economic and political processes that allocate assets, income, and other resource in a society, but it

also allows us to integrate nature in the explanation of hazard impacts, because we can include nature itself, including its extremes, in the working of social process (Piers (1997:46).

According to Yared, land, oxen, other livestock assets and human labor are the critical economic foundations of rural household economic resources. As members of communities have varying levels of asset holdings, economic ownership, and varying degrees of accessibility to various socioeconomic resources, they accordingly have differential levels of vulnerability and responding capacity to drought induced famine. The same is true for people with better assets holdings and slightly elevated socioeconomic status will normally be in a good position to effectively respond to disasters throughout all phases (during and after a famine occurs) (Yared, 1999:56).

Those with better access to information, cash, rights to the means of production, tools and equipment, and the social network to mobilize resources from outside the household, are less vulnerable to hazards; such as drought, and may be in a position to avoid disaster or their losses are frequently greater in absolute terms, but less in relative terms, and they are generally able to recover more quickly (Piers 1997:47).

Dessalegn explained the households with poor access to resource as "in the years of recovery that the seeds of famine are actually sown'. It elucidates that when the better off with better economic accessibility and social networks easily rebound back after they face disasters, the poor with relatively less accessibility to socioeconomic assets will

remain immersed in a cycle of drought induced famine and its adverse effects for a long (Dessalegn, 1988).

2.13. Coping Strategies

Piers (1997:63), has linked the copying strategies for survival with the Maslow's hierarchy of human needs at different level of the society. Often it is assumed that the objectives of coping strategies are survival in the purposes. Maslow's hierarchy involves identifying distinct levels of needs, with each level incorporating and depending on the satisfaction of needs below in the hierarchy. The lower ones still may include adequate shelter and food for healthy survival, while other needs near the bottom of the hierarchy will include minimum security from violence and starvation.

However, it is important not to oversimplify and over generalize the expectations and priorities in live of vulnerable people or those affected by a disaster. (Cited in Piers, 1997), elaborated that there is no standard coping strategies, but the victims have their own criteria of well-being. Specially, the poor households may involve in different activities that are discouraged by membership of a social groups, caste or by gender and chose to engage in demeaning activities by losing respect in order to secure a minimum food supply.

Dessalegn has claimed that communities have developed survival strategies though experiencing recurrent droughts[9]. According to his theory, indigenous disaster survival involves the adoption of emergency induced resource management measures, the

[9] Dessalegn, 1987:164

effective use of natural resource, divestment of saving and disposal of assets, and greater and more efficient use of the market systems. Furthermore, the indigenous survival strategies are grouped into four sequential series of activates, namely;

1. Austerity and reduced consumption (use of stored food/food stock, wild food, inter-family transfer and loans or pawn),
2. Temporary migration (moving to less hazarded places, especially poor households,
3. Divestment (sale of smaller stock such as sheep, goats and often young calves, followed by the cows, and finally working oxen); and,
4. Crisis migration (when the situation is beyond the above three coping strategies, mass migration will take place to rescue their lives).

According to Piers, the hazard which had been foreseen, understood, and prepared for actually befalls a population, the precautionary mechanisms what he calls 'post-event coping strategies' are put into practices. When potential food shortages is anticipated adoptions in consumption patterns should be made including substitution of lower quality and wild foods, followed by calling on resources from others(family and kin), this usually involves reciprocal social interaction and avoids usurious rates of interest (Piers, 1997:65),.

Getachew describes the household coping or survival stages in two major categories(Getachew 1995:263).

1. *Social contexts:* this deals with the ways the household manage to keep all or some of their family members alive especially during the famine event that took place in Ethiopia 1983/85 it includes rural welfare insurance, intra and inter household food distribution and to the extent of programmed migration (settle outside the area).
2. *Economic context;* this refers to identifying the available alternatives to ensure survival within existing social and economic institution such as welfare distribution of land, market and households, cropping diversity (rational management).

Coping in a subsistence economy in Africa, where the production and productive processes are still embedded in the economy of affection, the network of support, communication, and interactions among structurally defined groups which are connected by kinship, community or other affinities. Table shows the subsistence the breakdown and crisis response, at the Domestic (Household), Community, and State Level) (Watts 1984:128 cited in Getachew, 1995:33).

Table 4: Crisis Response & Coping Levels

Safety First (Agronomic /Domestic Level)	**Subsistence security Via norm of reciprocity (Community Level)**	**Moral economy (Regional/State/Global Level)**
Agronomic risk aversion: • Inter cropping, crop mixture, crop rotation, moisture preservation. Short maturing millet etc Exploitation of local environmental – • famine foods/ wild foods • Secondary resources –dry season crafts. Domestic self-help and support	Inter-family insurance • Risk sharing, extended kin groups, reciprocity, gift, exchange, mutual support, elite redistribution to the poor. • Storage, ritual sanction • Anti-famine institutions; • Patron-clientage; • Communal work groups	• Global (Regional) and ecological interdependence; • Local and regional trade in foodstuffs from surfeit to deficit regions; Role of the state a) Central granaries based on grain tithe b) State relief and tax modification

2.14. Challenges of Coping Strategies

In Ethiopia, where agriculture is less than the subsistence level, the effect of drought is felt in situations where there are no reserves from previous harvests, and there is no income source, which could be enough to counter production shortfalls that can be caused by drought.

Tesfahun expressed the need of alternative source of income. The rural economies often rely heavily on a few economic activities, which makes them vulnerable to downward shifts in economic fortunes. Alternative economic activities and employment

opportunities are needed to give rural community additional security in times of crop failure or during the lean seasons between harvests[10].

According to Melaku, some of the major factors that make the population highly vulnerable to disaster are; low productivity of land (as a result of land degradation, poor application of agricultural inputs and technology and insecurity of land tenure) , low labor productivity (as a result of seasonal unemployment, small holding and fragmentation and poor health), resource limitation (includes oxen, seed, and tools), endemic crop pests, shortage of pastures, ineffective pastoral development(failure in the program such as off-take from areas to promote export trade, supply highland farmers with drought oxen and improve the living condition of the pastoralist), socio-cultural factors (exaggerated ceremonial expenditure), terms of trade (imbalance trade between farm production and manufactured agricultural inputs and improved seeds) and recurrent of drought[11].

2.15. Government Initiatives

The climax of drought led to the 1973/74 hidden famine that claimed thousands of human life and livestock population in the history of Ethiopia. The 1973/74 drought induced famine marked the need for the establishment of commission that coordinates and facilitates the food aid for the famine affected people. As a response, the Relief and Rehabilitation Communions (RRC) was established in 1974. The main objective was to

[10] Tesfahun el. at, 2003
[11] Melaku et., 1997

up the commission as an independent government body primarily to save lives and reducing suffering through coordinating the relief aid and rehabilitation activities[12] ().

According to "New Coalition for Food Security in Ethiopia" (NCFSE), the Ethiopian Government set different strategies and policies implement the Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP), and as a measure that have created the enabling environment for the implementing of the programs. Such as, NPDPM, Rural Development Policies and Strategies, Federal Food Security Strategies, National population policy (NPP), and National Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Fund (NDPPF).

Figure 4: The Objectives and Principles of NPDPM[13]

Objectives of NPDPM	Principles of NPDPM
1. No human life shall perish for want of assistance in time of disaster 2. Adequate income shall be ensured to disaster affected households through relief programs to allow them access to food and to other basic necessities 3. The quality of life in the affected areas shall be protected from deterioration due to disaster and the adverse impact mitigated in time with utmost urgency 4. Relief efforts shall reinforce the capabilities of the affected areas and population, and promote self-reliance	1. Government or NGO should follow the following four basic principles in all relief intervention. 1. The community shall ply the leading role in the planning, programming, implementation and evaluation of all relief project, and line departments role in these regard would be sub-servant to this 2. The urgency of different measures shall be carefully assessed and resources shall be deployed for the more urgent measures of the moment; and precedence shall be given to areas where lives and livelihoods are more threatened.

[12] DPPC-NPDPM-TOT, 1996
[13] DPPC-NPDPM-TOT 1996:96:97

5. Contribution to sustainable economic growth and development shall be given due emphasis in all relief effort 6. The assets and economic fabric of the affected areas shall be preserved to enable speedy post disaster recovery 7. Provision of relief shall protect and safeguard human dignity and reinforce the social determination for development 8. Disaster prevention programs shall be given due emphasis in all spheres of development endeavors 9. All endeavors in relief programs shall be geared to eliminate the root causes of vulnerability to disaster 10. The best use of natural resource endowment of the areas shall be promoted.	3. There can be clearly defined focal points of action for different tasks at different levels: and center of coordination shall be properly empowered. 4. Relief must be addressed to the most needy at all times and no free distribution of aid be allowed to able-bodied affected population

Source: DPPC-NPDPM-TOT, 1996

- *Rural Development Policies and Strategies*, this policy aimed at ensuring economic development through agriculture-led and rural-centered development. Some of the directions are extensive utilization of human labor, proper use and management of land, water and other natural resources, agro-ecology based development approach, targeted interventions for drought-prone and food insecure areas and encouraging the private sector.

- Objectives and Principles of In 1992, relief and emergency actions were formed and undertaken in the context of National Policy on Disaster Prevention and Management (NPDPM).

- *The Federal Food Security Strategy*; this strategies rely on three pillars:

    1. Increase supply or availability of food by enhancing agricultural production in mixed farming systems, household based integrated and market oriented extension package, transforming subsistence farming into small scale commercial agriculture, and pastoral development,

    2. Improve access/entitlement to food: this is enhance food entitlement of the most vulnerable section of the society; and,

    3. Strengthening emergency response capabilities; government's commitment to strengthening the capacity of Ethiopian Strategic Food Reserve (ESFR).

- *The National Population Policy (NPP):* Formulated in 1993; with the objective to promote for demographic transition from rapidly increasing population growth to a lower level, with the theory that is was an essential part of food security program.

2.16. Interventions

Humanitarian aid as an intervention in the context of Ethiopia embraces several activities aimed at saving the lives and livelihoods of drought induced famine. The humanitarian assistance, as an intervention could be handed over to the intended beneficiaries through different modalities as appropriate, either by government, NOGs or individuals.

2.17. Food Aid

According to Peter, in Ethiopia, up to 1,200,000 Metric Tons of relief food has been donated by the international community every year for 2 – 6 million people. Theoretically, this resource could have generated about 150,000,000 million labor days annually, depending on the nature of the food security condition in the form of Employment Generation Schemes (EGS) (Peter 2005).

DeFood Aid Reform is a major input into the safety net program and there has been a shift from relief to development. However, Ethiopian drought induced famine response continues to mainly be focused onon food aid, either in the form of free distribution or in the form of Food for Work, a public work program which abled bodied beneficiaries receive food in exchange for labor. According to the new Coalition for Food Security, from 1994 to 2003, the total relief food assistance receiving population was 61,664,528 million, which mean an average of 6,166,452 million beneficiaries received food aid

every year in Ethiopia[14]. Furthermore, in 2003, the number of beneficiaries increased by 54 percent as compared to 1994 GC that is recorded as base year.

2.18. Types and Sources of Food Aid

The TOT- NPPDP[15] categorizes the types of food aid and sources of food aid into three different parts:

2.19. Types of Food Aid

There are three major types of food aid. First is Employment Generation Scheme (EGS), which is access for food through participation in the program and employment based safety net. The second Gratuitous Relief (free food distribution), The third type is monetization or market support programs, which involves selling aid grain to merchants at a subsidized price for onward sales in areas where there is a food insecurity but where the need is not critical.

2.20. Source of Food Aid

The main source of food aid is based on foreign donations, and according to NPPDP, it is categorized into three: first is [t] emergency relief aid (usually pledged for a known emergency), second is Rehabilitation and reconstruction aid off-sets, the structural food deficit thought specific use in EGS and similar programs, and for monetization; and, third

[14] (volume I: 1994 GC)
[15] TOT- NPPDP (1996)

is program food aid, which is annual aid offered to development programs, such as schools and feeding programs.

Peter explains in his *In Land of 'Drought and Famine*, Peter explains, of all the countries synonymous with food shortage, drought and war, Ethiopia remains the most prominent[16]. Peter emphasis to show the magnitude of the issue, based on WFP 2000 information the numbers of the people that required relief food assistance are much more than the great famines of 1972 and 1984.

Again, of all the countries affected by disaster, the annual average number of people reported killed or affected in Ethiopia over 25 years (1970-1997) is the highest figure for an African country. Average annual figures for Ethiopian killed by disaster mainly drought induced famine equals 48,464 and affected population equals 2,712,757. From the period between 1984- 2001 Ethiopia received about 5,975,172MT of food aid (ICRC, 1996, cited in peter 2005:24)

Dessalegn explains the impact of food aid, in the following three points; first, it induces poor countries to neglect their own agriculture and become dependent on food imports and food aid; second, encourages rapid population growth and urbanization in food deficit countries, hence greater demands for food;and, third encourage greater attention to be paid to the production of cash crops as opposed to locally consumable food crops[17].

[16] Peter 2005
[17] Dessalegn, 1987:212

2.21. Targeting

Targeting is the most fundamental element in food aid that needs to be critically done in collaboration with the community members and local level administration. It is the mechanism that enables implementers and donors tonsure food assistance reaches the right people, in the right kind and quantity, and at the right time and place – it is at the heart of any disaster response operation. At the same time, targeting in emergency situations is an inherently challenging process, which tends to raise a common set of problems and dilemmas across diverse contexts, both within Ethiopia and in other countries. A targeting system does not operate mechanically; it requires constant feedback, judgement and accountability. These guidelines draw on lessons learned in Ethiopia, and on the international experience of WFP and other humanitarian agencies, to update the official guidance on targeting of relief food assistance and to reaffirm the commitment of DRMFSS and its humanitarian partners to its continuing improvement.

Thus, "The purpose of targeting is to meet the needs of the most vulnerable, while providing aid efficiently and in a way that minimises dependency[18]."

The Sphere Project has stated the main reasons for targeting (rather than blanket or random distribution) of relief food assistance as follows:

[18] Sphere Project 2004:37

1. Humanitarian principles. In emergency situations, aid should always be given according to need, following international standards of impartiality and prioritisation of the most vulnerable. Targeting by agreed and verifiable criteria, derived from systematic assessments of vulnerability and needs, supports these principles.

2. Effectiveness. In order to achieve its intended impact on food insecurity and acute malnutrition, it is obviously essential that relief assistance reaches the right people. Poorly targeted assistance may fail to meet the core objectives of emergency relief: relieving suffering, saving lives and saving livelihoods.

3. Avoidance of harm. Untargeted or poorly targeted assistance (particularly food aid), spread too widely and in large quantities, may undermine local production or markets and may encourage dependency.

4. Resource shortfalls. In emergency operations, it often happens that the resources available for distribution are less, or later, than had been requested or planned. In these situations it is necessary to prioritise the people in most urgent need. A transparent, needs-based targeting system provides an objective basis for doing this.

5. Efficiency. In a wider sense, relief funds and commodities are always scarce and valuable resources. Targeting helps to make the most economical use of them, to minimise waste, and to achieve the maximum benefit for disaster-affected people

from a given quantity of resources. However, targeting itself is not necessarily low-cost: resources are needed to manage its implementation and monitoring.

6. Accountability. Government authorities, donors and partner organisations need to know that their aid actually reaches the people who need it, and that it has not been diverted or wasted. Good targeting systems ensure this, and at the same time they generate information about where the resources went and what impact they had on beneficiaries' lives. Transparent targeting also enhances the accountability of government and partner agencies to beneficiary communities.

Table 5: Advantages and Disadvantages of *Cash for Work Program*

Advantages	**Disadvantages**
• Households can choose what to spend their wages on. • Distribution cash is faster and more cost-effective than the alternatives (restocking, seed distribution, etc) • Distribution costs are low, so beneficiaries receive a large portion of the funds. • Spending benefits local markets and trade • If they earn enough, people can easily invest money in livelihood security. • Women and marginalized groups can improve their status. • Wage levels are unattractive for the better-off, so the assistance is self-	• Cash is of inherent value to everyone, how can donors be sure that their aid in cash reach to intended needy groups? • Cash can be used for non-consumption and antisocial activities. • Injecting cash into the local economy can push price up. • Cash can easily be stolen-or diverted by corrupt officials • Work is unsuitable for the most vulnerable (the sick, old, and young children's) • It favors men, but targeting women may increase their workload. • Paying for work may mean people are less likely to want to participate in the

targeting for needier people.	true development projects • Donors often have a budget for food aid, but not for cash.
Food-For-Work	
• Donors have food surpluses then can donate • Providing food immediately increase food availability (although there may be delays in delivery) • Food correctly addresses nutritional deficiencies. • It can be self-targeting, as only the neediest are prepared to do the work. • It favors women and children and the elderly.	• Transport (often from overseas) storage and management costs are high. • Food arrives where it is needed slowly, and often too late. • Food can be spoilt or stolen • Food is less easily convertible than money • Competition from donated food damages local markets and trade, and discourages local farmers from producing • Food types may not suit local tastes • It increases women's work loads
Free Food Distribution	
• Good in the Emergency stage and when people really cannot get any food • Minimize selling of productive assets and livestock of poor households. • It helps Refugees ill, elderly and handicapped during food stress	• Create dependency • Harm the local economy • It is big business • Politicians use to buy votes • Invites corruption • Induce recipient government to change their policies
Source: IIIRR et-al 2004:114	

2.22. Contributions from Non-Governmental Organizations

Ravi defines Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO) contributions into two boarder classifications, as 'Residual Approach ' and 'Institutional Approach [19]'. The residual Approach is strictly temporal, it functions under emergency and unforeseen circumstances, and is gradually replaced by institutional. Whereas Institutional Approach is more of permanent social service and development activity.

The World Development Report endorses the importance of NGOs "in their ability to involve communities and grass-root organizations more effectively in the development processes and in addressing poverty." It further adds that in 1987, NGOs transferred about 5.5 billion dollars from industrialized to developing countries, that is nearly 1 billion more than the International Development Association[20]." However, NGO's interventions in development does have its own limitations. Ravi summarizes, NGO's involvement in development which results in interferes in the following six ways:

1. Service or Development: Service -oriented NGOs do not carry the beneficiaries on the path of development. They simply perpetuate people's state of dependency.

2. Competition or Collaboration: There are several NGOs providing the same service with duplication of energies and resource. Collaborative NGOs share

[19] Ravi (2003)
[20] cited in Ravi, 2003:24

the areas of intervention and the resource; NGOs can neither replace the government nor capture the service areas in monopolistic way.

3. Dependency or Empowerment: NGO's as a catalyst, helping people release themselves from the dependency syndromes or releaser/mobilize of social energy to the beneficiaries to manage and shape their own future. The principle of empowerment also necessitates that there should be no more than the minimum critical help to people from outsider; otherwise the process of empowerment itself will be obstructed.

4. Scaling up or Institutionalizing: Too often NGOs are tempted to extend their scales of activities without attempting to build up the process of attaining self-reliance on the part of beneficiaries, when the targeted beneficiaries are enabled to do things by themselves the rule of NGO should be terminated. So the end goal of NGO activities is their natural termination defined in terms of the clienteles systems' attains self-reliance.

5. Political accommodation or Political spacing: NGO activates are observed to have been politically accommodated rather than given a well-meant political. NGOs need to get a definite space in the politics of the state.

6. Planning for the people or planning with the people: The Social energy through people's participation in development process remains a dream. "Planning for the people" posture on the part of NGOs will and up leaving the

people where they were. NGO activities must necessarily be inspired and designed in the paradigm of “planning with the People”.

CHAPTER THREE

3. Research Design

3.1. Description of the study area

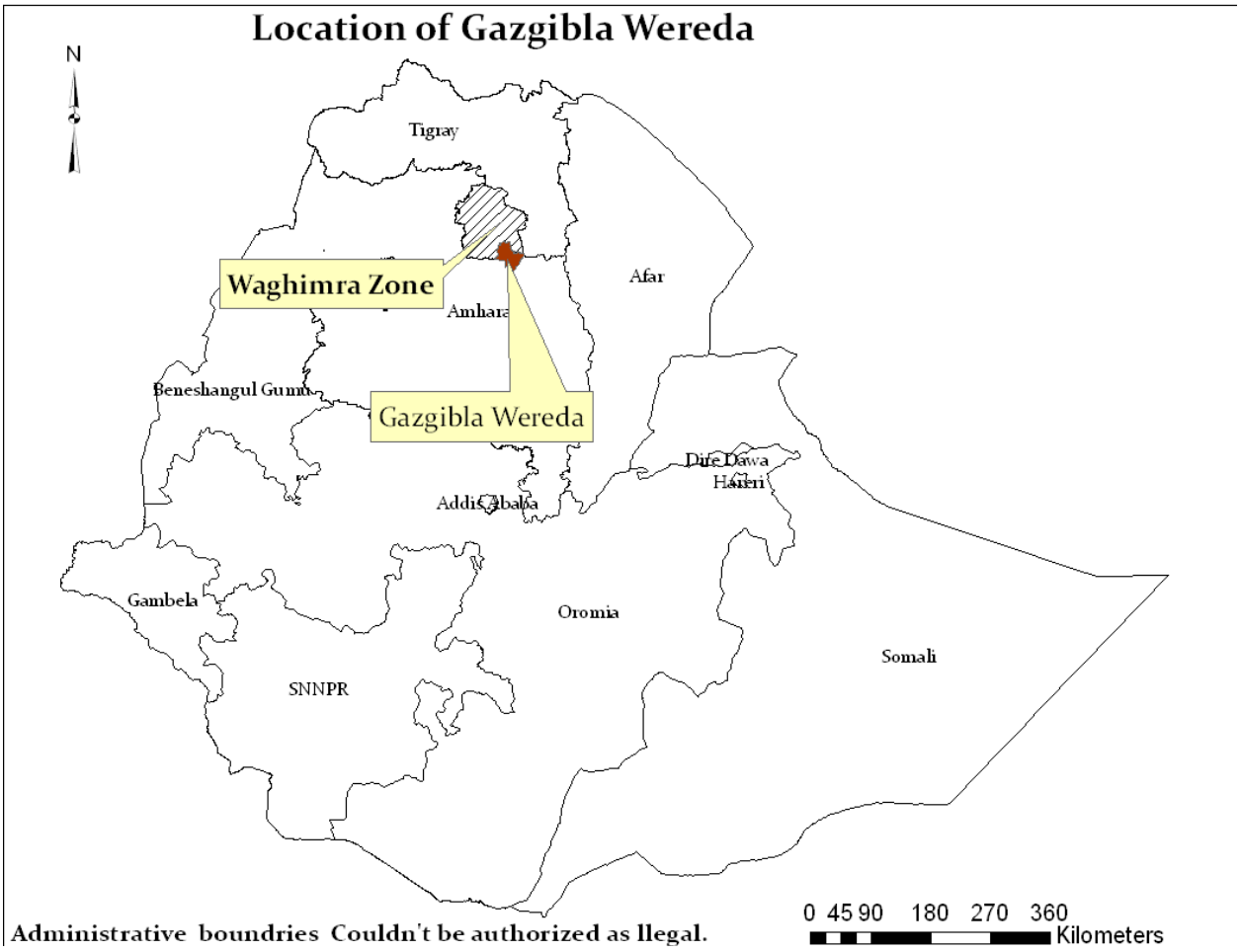
Households (HHs) definition: In this research, household is defined as, "people who lived and eat together, including non-nuclear families. Nuclear members of the family should be considered as part of the household, even if they live away". This would include, for example, a son working in the city, or a daughter going to school elsewhere, nuclear using the same household resources. It is common practice for nuclear family members to return to the household frequently to collect food supplies received from the food distributions. For the purposes of the data collection, family members living in and outside the house when they received food aid are included in HHs.

Regarding HH members that were interviewed, the selected the eligible interviewees were HH heads; either the mother, father, or one who is directly involved in the food aid programs, who understood the procedures and modalities of the food aid assistance program, and were directly assisted by the program. Children and those someone who did not have adequate knowledge of the program were omitted from the interview.

For this purpose, open and close-ended questionnaires were designed and pre-tested before the actual survey. With close supervision of the researchers and trained enumerators, interviews were carried out face-to-face with 57 sample HH heads,

comprised of different various members. Data collection was facilitated by nine trained experts.

Figure 5: Gazgibla Map



3.2. Method of Data Collection and Analysis

3.2.1. Data Source

The study uses both Primary and Secondary Sources. The primary data is gathered from HHs residing in the preselected villages, which are benefit from food aid programs. In addition, interviews with officials at different levels of respective line departments and offices were conducted to gather detailed information and secondary data.

Primary Data: This was obtained from the HH surveys, Focus Group Discussions, Key Informants and Observations.

Key informant Interviews: These were carried out to obtain information on community profile. The informants include, Community Elders, Zonal, Woreda and Keble administrator, NGO representatives operating in the specific area. The informal interviews and discussions with informants was valuable in providing contextual at a general background. Furthermore, the informal interviews provided the researchers a wealth of knowledge on the community dynamics, an in-depth understanding of the food aid in the area; as well as, the impact, coping mechanisms and the socio-economic realities of the households.

Table 6: Focus Group Discussions

Selected PA	Elder	PA leader/ administration	Woreda	NGO
PA 1	3	5	2	1
PA 2	3	5		
PA 3	3	5		

Focus Group Discussions (FGD): These were undertaken in the study communities. The participants were represent various types of livelihoods in the communities. Focus Group Discussions aimed to be inclusive and representative of the location, discussions involved representatives from the following groups; female headed households (maintain gender balance),, food aid beneficiaries NGO representatives and Zone, Woreda and Keble level government officials from area. Each Focus Group Discussion had between 5-7 members. In hopes of creating a warm and comfortable environment for the participants to express their ideas, perceptions and experiences regarding the issues under study; the researchers took initiative to accommodate participants.

Table 7: Focus Group Discussions

Selected PA	Elder	PA leader/ administration	Woreda	NGO
PA 1	3	1	1	1
PA 2	4	1	1	1
PA 3	3	1	1	1

Household Survey: Household Survey was generated from sampled peasant association (PA) households. Open-ended and close-ended questionnaires were designed and pre-tested before the actual survey. With close supervision of the researchers and trained enumerators, interviews were carried out face-to-face with 57 sample HH heads, comprised of different various members. To facilitate the data collection, nine experts were selected. Individuals with rural development background and experiences in administering rural social-economic surveys were selected to collect the data.

Furthermore, the facilitators participated in intensive trainings on: Survey Methods, Objectives, and History of Food Aid Programs in the specific research location.

Table 8:

Selected PA	Pas	No people interviewed
PA 1	01 Asketema	19
PA 2	016 Abekat	19
PA 3	03 Dicona	19

Observation: This method was used for data collection, specifically regarding households' conditions (household's assets etc.), and interactions and dynamics within the household members. By observing the living conditions and interacting in informal discussions with the community, researchers were able to obtain very useful data.

Secondary Data: This was obtained from scholarly published and unpublished sources. Levels and trends in vulnerability, and socio-economic profile were assessed and collected from relevant government offices, NGOs, and other institutions.

3.3. Data Analysis

The data gathered is be analyzed in terms of the study objectives already designed. The process of analysis is carried out by using qualitative description and descriptive statics, and computer systems, like Statistical Package for Social scientists (SPSS), Microsoft Excel and Microsoft Word are be used to analyze the data.

Participatory methodologies were used in the study, including FGD, semi-structured interviews, meetings with respective Woreda and Zonal Government Officials, and representative of Non-Governmental Organizations operating in the area, community dialogue with community groups, and key informants were used to collect wide range of data.

3.4. Household Survey

In relation to the research, household surveys were carried out in three different sample peasant associations within the Woreda. A total of 57 households were interviewed from the three peasant associations. Pre-structured household survey questionnaires were directed for male and female headed households.

Systematic sampling, which is a modification of simple random sampling, was used to identify households. In this sampling technique, a minimum of 19 beneficiaries were selected in each supervisory area in order to assess indicators.

3.5. Universe of the Study

Gazgeblia Woreda is located in Amhara Regional State in Wagehmra Zone. The total population of the Woreda is 83,017. Out of the total population, 17,344 are supported through Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP), and 53,722 people are direct recipients of the emergency food aid through Joint Emergency Operation Program (JEOP). In totality, more than 85% of the population directly benefits from food aid based programs to cover household consumption.

The total area of Wagehmra Zone is 106,401,451 hectors. Out of which, 19,014 is arable land. Currently, 146,318.19 hector is utilized. Climatically, the Woreda contains 21% Dega, 64% Weyna Dega and 15% Kola (Ethiopia HRD 2016). When it comes to the Rainfall patterns, the maximum average is 600, and 400 is the he lowest counts to 300 per milliliter. The main source of livelihood is agriculture. Sami pastoralist and agrarian communities also characterize the residing population in the area.

Three Kebeles where previous distributions took place were used for collecting data and randomly selecting using lottery method. Three villages with large number of beneficiaries were selected.

3.6. Sampling Design

3.7. Selection of households from distribution/payment list

Systematic sampling, which is a modification of simple random sampling, which picks every n^{th} household from list of households, is used for selecting 19 HHs. The enumerators took 19 HHs from each peasant association food aid distribution list. The following steps were adopted while selecting the beneficiaries:

- List down all HHs of distribution point or you can take the list from distribution list, and give serial numbers to the beneficiaries;
- Calculate the total beneficiaries (N) by adding each beneficiary;
- Identify sample interval as follows

Equation 1:

$I = N/n$ Where, I= Sample interval

N= total population n= Sample size

- Take a random number between one and the sample interval, I
- The beneficiary with serial number of the selected random number is the first selected sample;
- By adding the sample interval to the previously selected sample beneficiary you shall get the rest of the sample beneficiaries.

Table 9: Example of Beneficiary list in FDP XXX

Beneficiary HH list	Serial no. of Beneficiary HH	Sample
Abebe	1	
Alemu	2	X
Esatu	3	
Girma	4	
.	5	
.		
.	100	
Total		

Sample size (n) to be selected from this Kebele XXX = 19

Sample Interval I = 100/19= 5.26, where N=100, n= 19

By taking random number R between 1 and 5.26, say it is 2). Therefore, the first sample is the beneficiary HH with serial number 2, i.e. Alemu. Then the second sample beneficiary HH is R + I = 2+5.26 = 7.26=7. Hence the beneficiary HH with serial number 7 is the second sample. The third sample will be 7.26+I = 7.26+5.26=12.52 so on.

3.8. Sampling procedure and sample size for interview

For the assessment the enumerators took three Kebeles named 01 Asketma, Abekat 016 and Dicona 03 from previous food aid distribution in the kebeles selecting randomly using lottery method. Two villages with large number of beneficiaries were selected that are accessible from the selected Kebeles. Then 19 beneficiaries were selected from the list for interview.

The following steps were adopted to select beneficiary HHs:

- list of PAs from previous round food aid distribution is taken
- Three PAs were selected randomly using lottery method
- From selected PAs villages are peaked
- Food aid distribution list of beneficiaries from previous round distribution for both selected Kebeles/villages are taken
- Using sampling technique applied above 19 HHS were selected.
- Selected HHs were interviewed.

3.9. Methods of Data Analysis

Data collected through the above methods were carefully analyzed using standard statistical tools and qualitative techniques. Specifically, graphs and charts and percentages are used during data analysis. Thus both explanatory and descriptive statistical data analysis methods together with SPSS will be engaged.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. Analysis And Interpretation Of Data

4.1. Findings

Food Aid Interventions: The chain of event that lead community members to be food insecure and seek out food aid vary from household to household. However, the common causes are: shortage of rain, land degradation (poor quality, deforestation, and overgrazing etc.), inappropriate technology application, livestock loss due to disease, and floods, insect or pest outbreak, as well as government policy implications.

According to Waghiemra Zone's Early Warning Office, Gazgeblia Woreda has been receiving food aid since 2006. The following table summarizes the number of beneficiaries assisted by food aid programs in the Woreda for the past six years.

Table 10: Beneficiaries by Program

Year	JEOP	PSNP	Total
2011	270	22417	22687
2012	2900	19319	22219
2013	3940	19319	23259
2014	2000	17344	19344
2015	5500	17344	22844
2016	36228	17344	53572

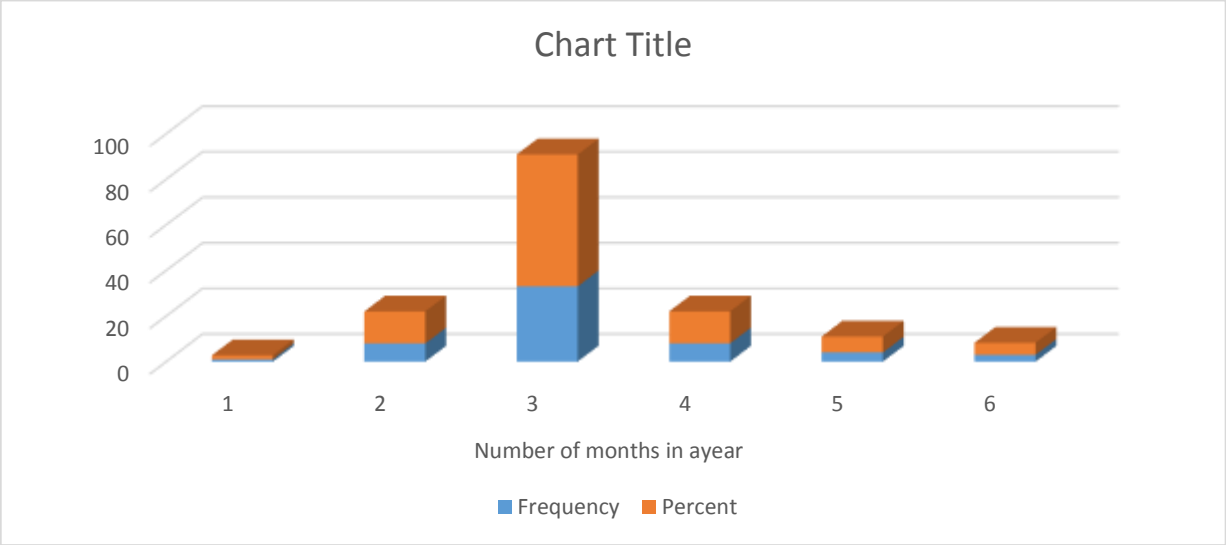
Source: Gazgeblia Woreda early warning office

The majority of the interviewed beneficiaries (75%) replied that they had been supported by food aid programs previously.

Table 11: 1st Time of Food Assistance

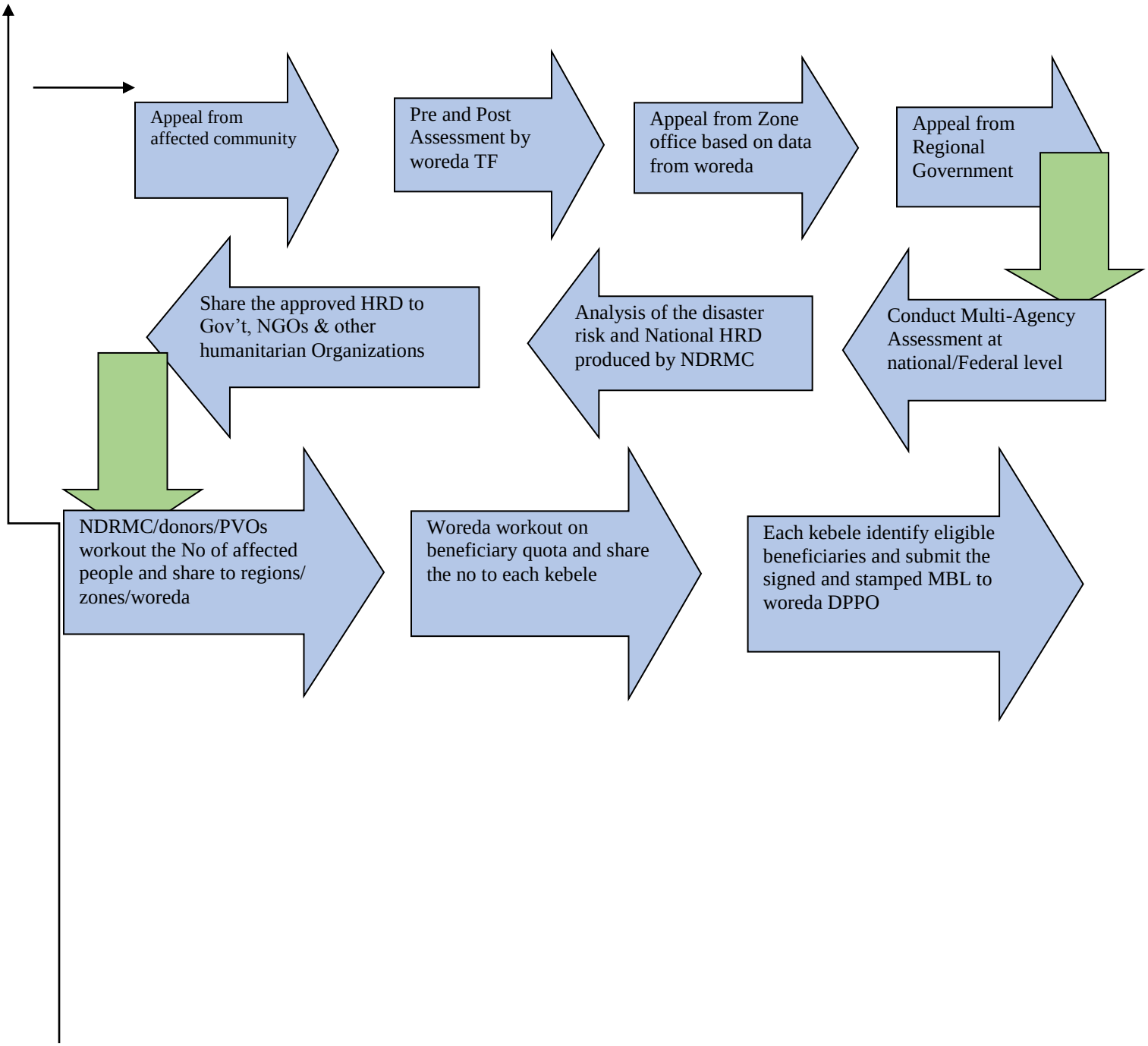
Response	Frequency	Percent
Yes	14	24.56
No	43	75.44
Total	57	100

The chart below summarizes the frequency of food distributions for targeted households. The majority have received food aid for more than three years in the reporting year (2016).



Source: Ephrem Degefhu 2016

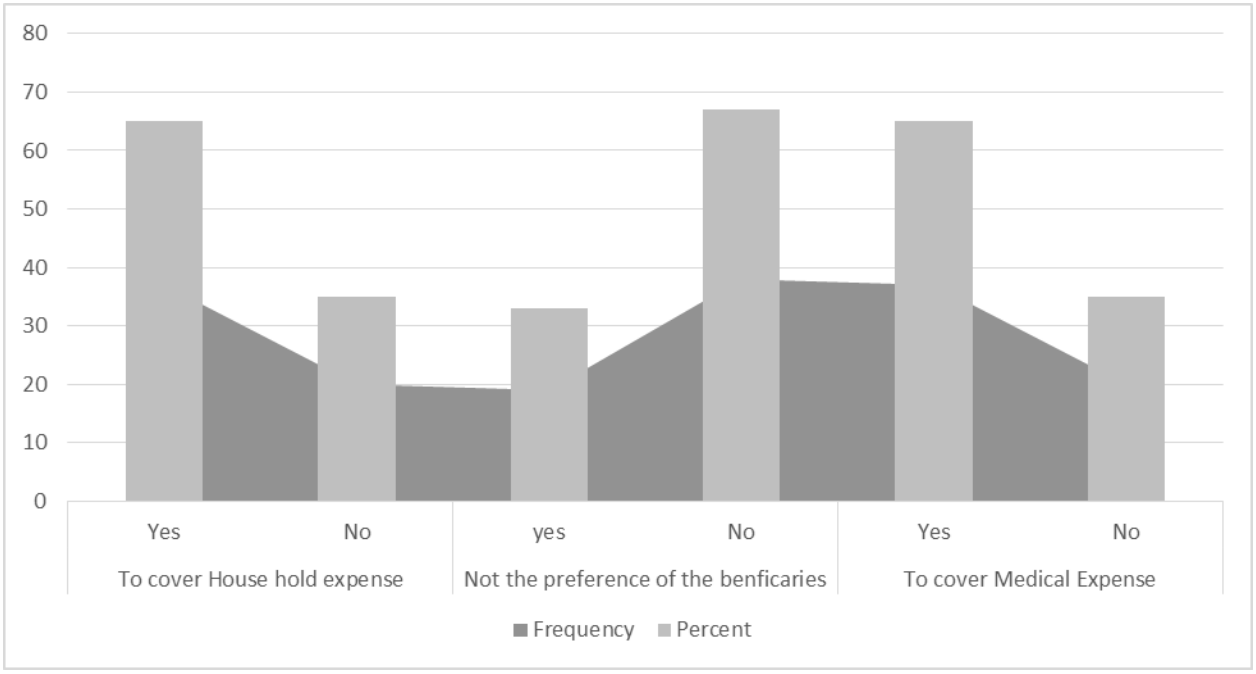
Figure 6: Food Aid Map



4.2. Sharing, Selling, and Exchanging Food

Due to factors related to full family targeting, extended relatives in the neighborhood that are not included in the program are sharing food, which is a common practice. Fifty four percent (54%) of the beneficiaries reported that they either shared, sold or exchanged the food they received from food aid programs.

Figure 7:

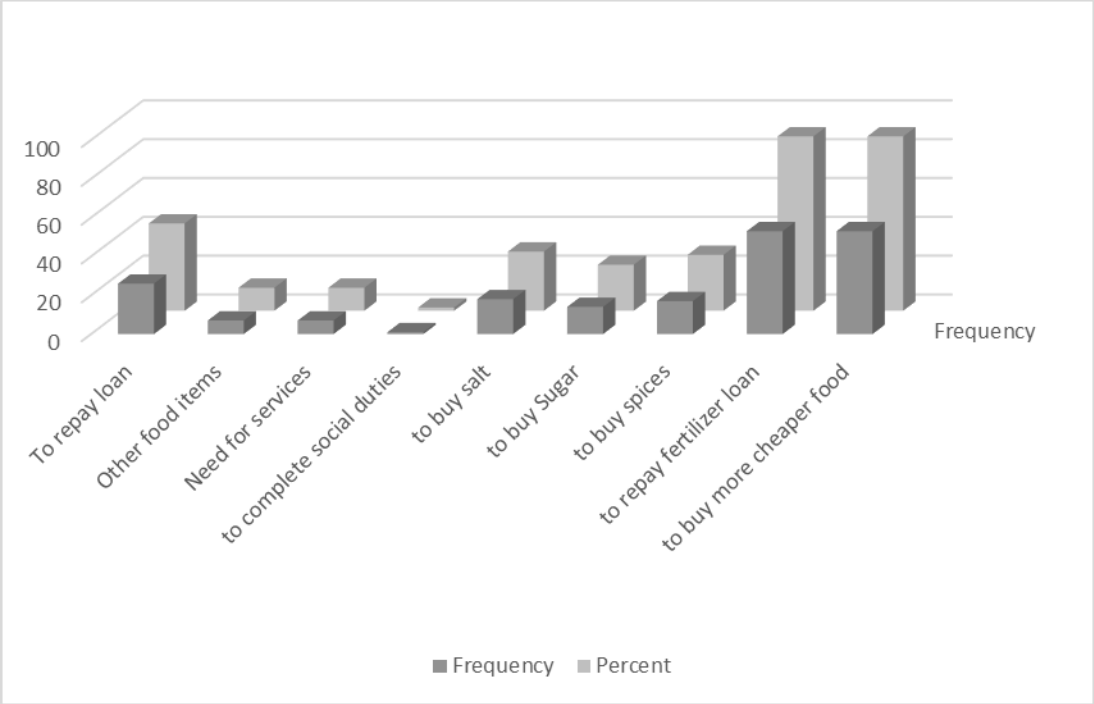


Source: Ephrem Degefhu 2016

Beneficiaries sell or change their food aid commodities for a variety of reasons. Some of the main reasons that forces the beneficiaries to sell /exchange or share goods received from food aid include, to buy more and cheaper food items, to cover other household

expenses, repay fertilizer loans, and other debt. Buying basic household necessities; such as, salt and spices, medical and school expenses, are also reasons that are worth to mention here.

Figure 8:



Source: Ephrem Degefhu 2016

4.3. Coping mechanisms

The Northeast part of Woynadega Zone is a chronically food insecure area. Agricultural performance is usually poor and this is attributed to environmental degradation and erratic rains. Residents of the area utilizes mixed farming (crop production and livestock). Cattle, shoat and equines are the main livestock reared; oxen are essential for ploughing,

whilst shoat and cattle sales are the main source of cash income for the middle and better-off. Local agricultural, urban and migrant paid work are important income sources for the poorer residents.

The Productive Safety Net Program and credit packages are available in this area. Generally, there is a lack of access to markets; this is particularly due to the lack of infrastructure (inadequate roads network) and rugged topography. The middle and better off residents produce their own good through subsistence farming. The PSNP is the most important source for the poor and very poor wealth groups.

Drought, crop pest and livestock diseases are the common hazards identified in this Zone. The response to production failures include, increased demand for paid manual and labor, search for firewood, which is sold by the poorest of the poor households, and increased livestock sales by the wealthier households.

Poor female headed HHs and some middle households utilize their most important coping mechanism, which is the intensification of local income generating activities. These include, domestic labor (on farm, in the home and in neighboring towns), collecting and selling firewood and grass, and other petty trades. This is possible because opportunities for a number of these activities increase during crises. For example, the demand for grass increases during drought years (which is used as fodder for livestock). The opportunities for petty trade also increase, this is in line with the greater demand for basic staple foods. This also includes public works involvement of the households; such as,

Food for Work and PSNP. Lastly, immigrating to cities in search of labor; as well as, seeking relief by begging in the streets is are some coping mechanisms that are utilized.

The is data collected from primary and secondary sources and are included from descriptive to interpretive ones like the reaction of informants. The research also considered qualitative approach by which the information referred to are used to interpret the data. In addition, the collected data is subjected to descriptive analysis by narrating and explaining the gathered information from respondents. Data compilation and coding was completed before analyzing and interpreting the outputs. The primary and secondary data obtained using the structured questionnaires were edited, coded and analyzed using the SPSS 20 version analytical tool while the others are included in descriptive analysis.

4.4. Data Presentation

Age of the interviewed HH Heads: The table below summarizes the age and sex composition of the respondents. All interviewed household heads are above the age of eighteen which makes them legally acceptable to establish a family and manage a house. Most of the house hold heads are in the age category of 38 to 41. The youngest house hold head is aged 20 whereas the older interviewed HH head is recorded as 65.

Table 12: Age of Respondents

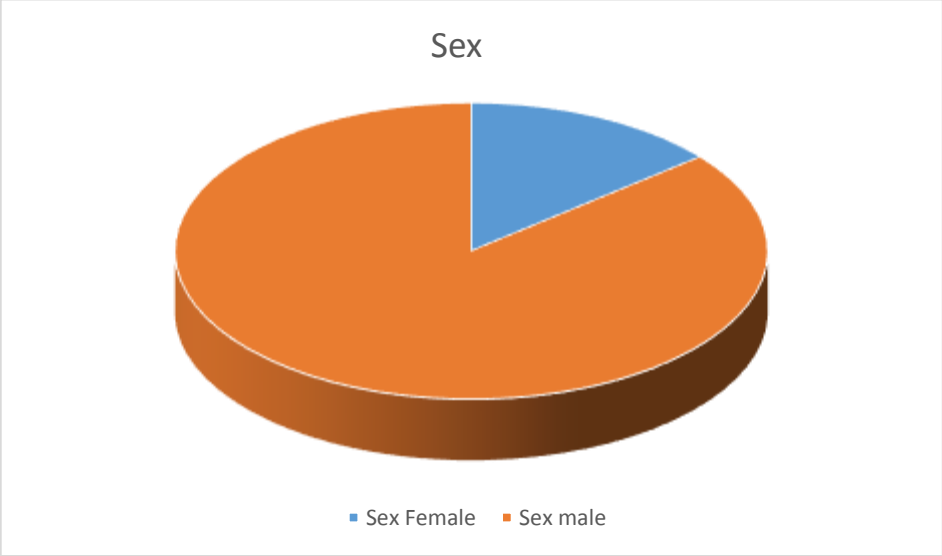
Age	Frequency	Percent
20	1	1.7
23	1	1.7
25	1	1.7
26	1	1.7
28	4	6.8

30	2	3.4
31	1	1.7
32	1	1.7
33	1	1.7
36	1	1.7
37	1	1.7
38	6	10.2
39	1	1.7
40	7	11.9
41	2	3.4
42	1	1.7
43	1	1.7
45	6	10.2
46	2	3.4
50	3	5.1
52	2	3.4
53	3	5.1
55	1	1.7
56	2	3.4
60	2	3.4
63	2	3.4
65	1	1.7
Total	57	100

4.5. Family Composition of the HH:

Fourteen percent (14%) of the interviewed households for the research were female headed households, and the remaining are male headed households. The chart below summarizes the household sex composition of interviewees.

Figure 9: Household Sex Composition of Beneficiaries



Source: Ephrem Degefhu 2016

In targeting relief food assistance, the international standard created by WFP is to register *women* as the named beneficiaries or 'food entitlement holders' for relief distributions, whether or not they are household heads. The targeting unit is defined as the named woman plus the children and adults she usually cooks and provides food for.

Selecting women as to be registered in the food aid list has a number of advantages over the present practice of registering household heads; by recognizing an respecting the

importance of women as household food managers, food delivered directly to women is more likely to reach the children and other vulnerable members of the household. It may help to differentiate relief from other types of transfer or development programs, and to raise awareness that the primary purpose of relief food assistance is to ensure adequate short-term food access for disaster-affected people.

Since 2004, Ethiopian Government's Gender Mainstreaming Guidelines policy has required and recommendation to target and prioritize women in this way ; but, it has not been implemented. Ethiopia should now align its household targeting with international practices and begin to implement relief registration in women's names.

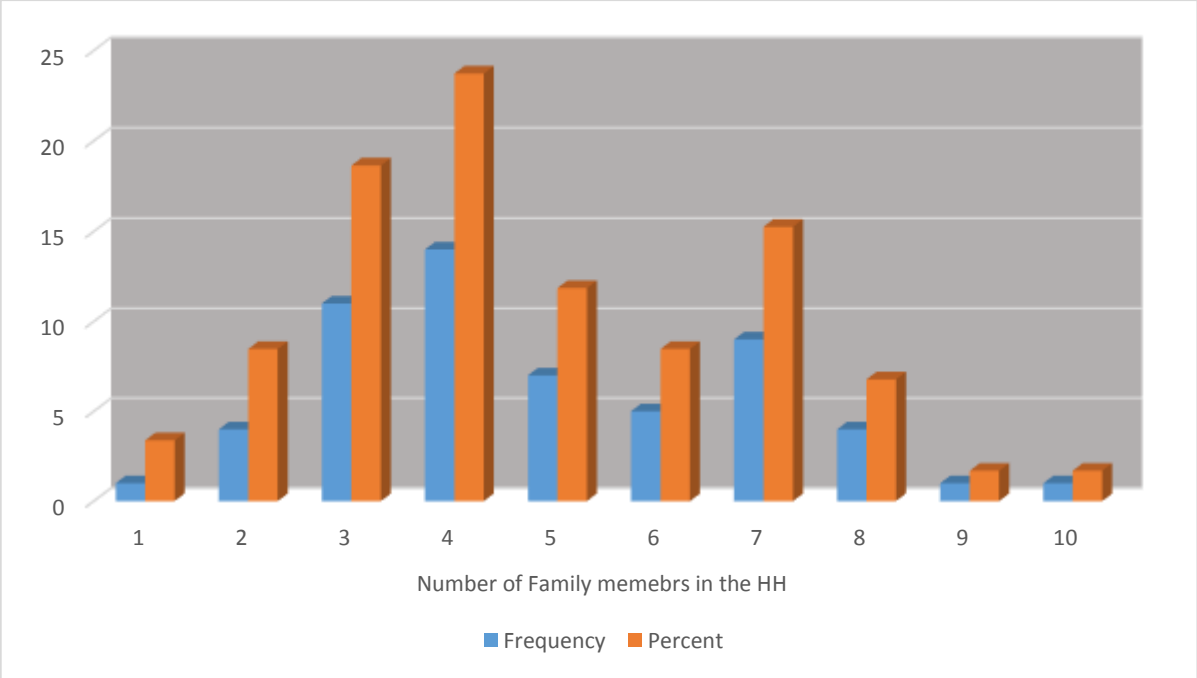
Nonetheless, the fact that beneficiaries should be registered by spouses/mothers have been endorsed at national level. All the interviewed beneficiaries, except those who were divorced or their husband's had deceased, had male heads in the households, which in turn significantly affect household members' access for food consumption and efficient management of received food aid commodities.

4.6. Family Size and Dependency Ratio:

The average family size among interviewed beneficiaries is five. The smallest family group which is 3.4 percent of the interviewed households is two. More than fifty four percent of the interviewed beneficiaries have three to five family members in the house. Households interviewed with the largest family member is 10 and accounts to 1.7 percent

of the interviewed beneficiaries. The chart below summarizes number of family members in the household of the interviewed beneficiaries.

Figure 10:



Source: Ephrem Degefhu 2016

For recipients of conditional transfers (public works), the level of food transfer provided per day of work is calculated on the basis that 5 days' work week. This is the level agreed as reasonable for a chronically food insecure persons who, also have other livelihood activities to consider. Therefore, the daily food transfer is calculated as monthly ration of food divided by 5 days, which is 3 kg of cereal and 0.8 kg of pulses which is ⅕th of a monthly ration of 15 kg and

4 kg (PSPN Phase IV Implementation Manual)

With the main objective of linking food aid with development, able bodied PSNP beneficiaries are expected to be involved in public work activities. If most of the family members are under age, the head of the household is expected to cover personal days at least for three family members.

As per the discussion with key informants during FGD, even if their family size is minimal, most young and newlywed households suffer whenever there is occurrence of drought. Their income source is limited, they have minimal access to cash and their land is unproductive. They have no other resources sustain them in the years when rain fails.

4.7. Main Sources of Household Income

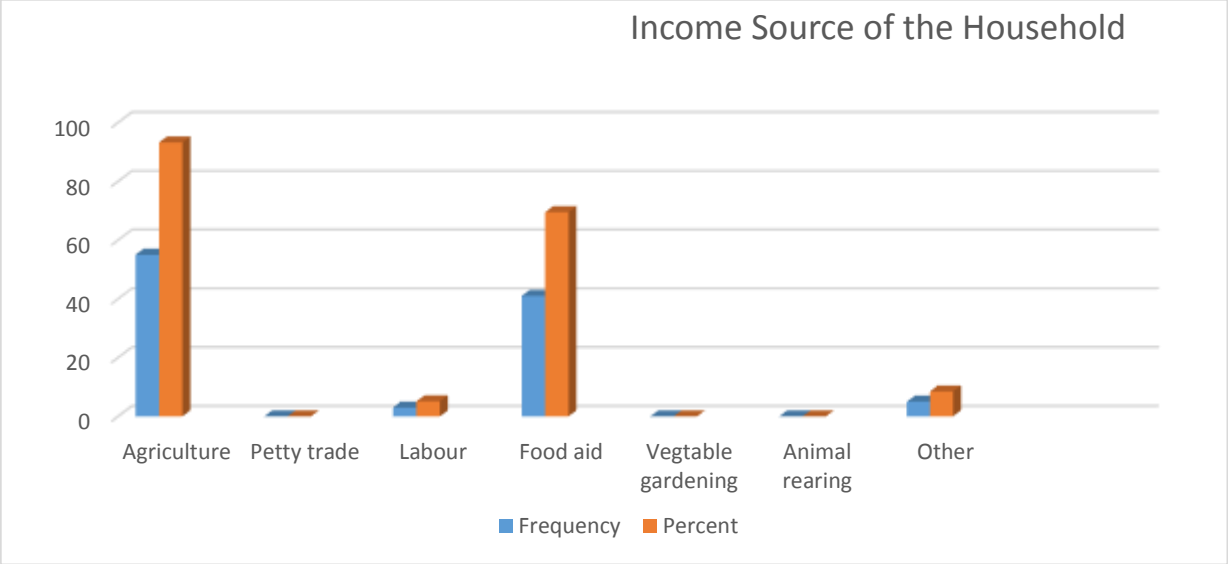
Female youth from rural areas migrate to cities or the Middle East to engage in domestic labor. There is limited data on how many young girls are engaged in domestic labor and how much they earn, but there is adequate data to show young women are primary engaged in the informal employment sector.

Overall, coffee, livestock, Khat and other cash crops constitute the highest source of income in these districts. There was minimal reported economic activity in Sitti District. The main source of household income is subsistence farming. For 55% of the interviewees, 93.2% of their livelihood was from agriculture. The remaining 41% of the interviewed beneficiaries claimed that to 69.5% their livelihood source was from food

aid. Remittance from family members and other income sources ranks the last source of livelihood, followed by formal paid labor.

The area is repeatedly affected by drought, the soil is not productive, as a result of inappropriate agriculture practices. Limited road accessibility also affects and limits trade transaction in the area. In the absence of good harvest, and if a poor household isn't registered in the food aid program, the only option they have is to migrate to neighboring Woredas, usually to Gojam for the search of manual labor.

Figure 11: Household Income Source



Source: Ephrem Degefhu 2016

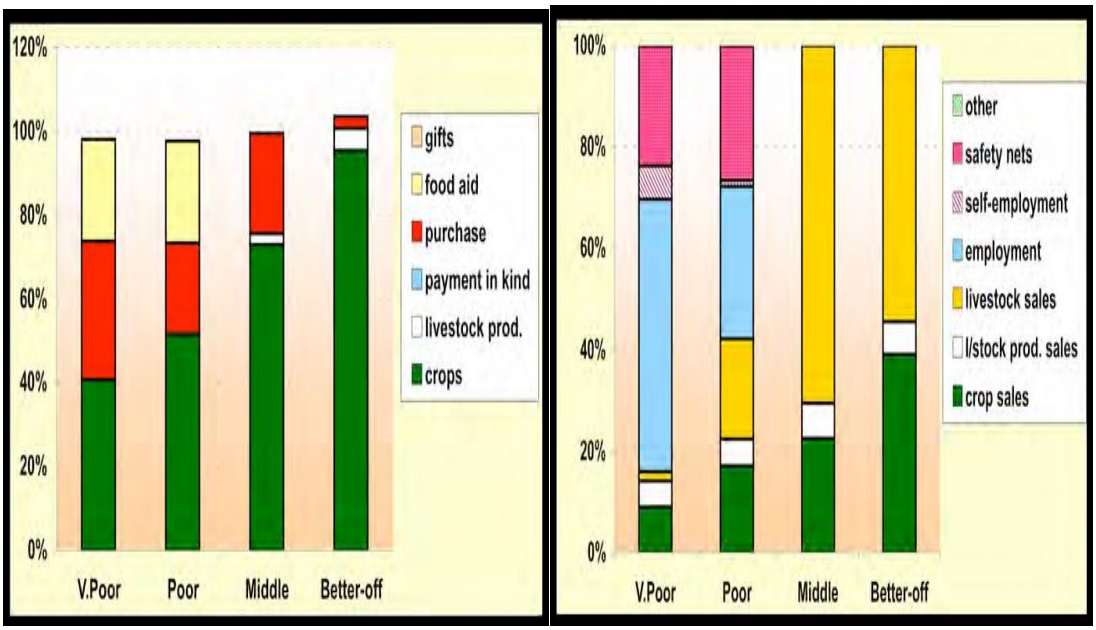
4.8. Food Source

'Own production (wheat, barley and teff) is the main source of food for the middle and better off, providing 70-95% of food needs. However, own production only meets 40-50% of poor and very poor household food needs. Purchase is the next most important

source of food for all wealth groups and especially for the very poor and poor. Maize and millet from Gojjam areas are the main staple food purchased. Food provided by the Safety Net program food for work activities makes and important contribution to food intake among very poor and poor households. The middle and better off also consume livestock products such as eggs, milk and butter.'

4.9. Cash Source

'Livestock sales, particularly the sale of shoats, constitute the biggest share of income for middle and better off wealth group - nearly 50-60% for the better off and 45-55% for the middle. The very poor and poor groups mainly earn cash from employment (local agricultural, urban or migration labor). The very poor and poor also obtain cash income from PSNP. The other income is mainly obtained from credit institutions. Crop income comes from the sale of barley, wheat, teff, sorghum and pulses. Sale of livestock products is another important source of income for all wealth groups. The very poor and poor sell eggs, the other wealth groups sell mainly butter.'



Source: Gazgeblia Woreda the complete WDRP booklet

4.10. Discussion

Factors that have led to the increased vulnerability and risk to disasters in Gazgeblia Woreda; including, poor access to health services, topography of the land, lack of potable water, lack of private and public hygiene, human migration, lack of access to market and roads, lack of access to credit services, dependency on limited livelihood options mainly rain fed agricultural practices.

For residents of Gazgeblia Woreda, the major source of livelihood is crop production, and households are not self-sufficient in their food consumption. For households, 40% of major food items are received via food aid.

Gazgeblia Woreda has experienced multiple consecutive seasons of below-normal rainfall – in part due to El Niño – which has led to the worst drought in more than 50

years. Low crop production, poor livestock health, and water shortages have all contributed to the deteriorating food security situation and severe humanitarian crisis (USAID, Food assistance fact sheet, 2016).

Food aid has repeatedly proved invaluable as an instrument for ensuring satisfaction of basic nutritional needs for shock-affected persons, saving untold millions of lives over the past half century (Barrett and Maxwell 2005). Equally importantly, timely delivery of food to acutely food insecure people relieves pressure to liquidate scarce productive assets, enabling recipients to resume productivity growth and asset accumulation towards a fully secure livelihood as soon as the shock passes. Hence, food aid is important in meeting the human right to food, and in protecting productive assets, especially the human capital that is the principal wealth of the poor. Emergency food aid program in the Woreda has contributed tremendously in terms of creating stability and preventing the community from taking negative coping strategies, which would have affected their resilience to shocks and disaster in the long run.

Emergency food aid and safety nets to counteract and prevent acute food insecurity are not sufficient to address the broader problem of chronic food insecurity, hunger and poverty, which pose a far greater challenge that can only be effectively addressed as part of a broader development strategy (Barrett and Maxwell 2005). However, they are a necessary elements of any comprehensive strategy to reduce chronic food insecurity. When crisis imperils the human right to food or vulnerable peoples' capacity to safeguard the productive assets on which their future livelihoods depend, the resulting acute food

insecurity can be effectively addressed by rapid response based on appropriate needs assessments and supported by quick-disbursing of resources, effective information systems and the political will necessary to put such resources and institutions to work effectively to prevent unnecessary human suffering.

4.11. Targeting

Targeting encompasses questions of who, what, where, when and how to reach needy people. Especially given that much acute food insecurity is associated with distinctive risk, sorting those who need support to protect assets and to satisfy the human right to food from those who do not need help is terribly difficult. Perhaps identifying eligible families with minimal inclusion and exclusion error has a paramount importance in terms of addressing affected beneficiaries and protecting them from taking negative coping strategies.

Although 'targeting' several definitions, for the purposes of this research, targeting is defined as; '*Process of Identifying members of the target groups and to ensure that assistance reaches intended beneficiaries and meets their needs*' (WFP Programme Design Manual).

Full family targeting has been the challenge in all food aid related programs in Ethiopia. Food baskets are calculated based on daily necessary calorie intake, which is 2100 calories person per day. However, current food aid norms do not implement full family targeting. This which makes it difficult for a large families to ensure that everyone

receives the 2100 calories in a day. Out of the 57 interviewed beneficiaries, only 25 interviewees, which is 43.9% the sample, confirmed full family targeting was practiced. The remaining 56.1% confirmed that full family targeting was not practiced during targeting.

Table 13: Full Family Targeting

No.	Full family targeting	Frequency	Percent
1	Yes	25	43.9
2	No	32	56.1
	Total	57	100

Source: Ephrem Degefhu 2016

CHAPTER FIVE

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1. Conclusion

5.1.1. History of Food Aid:

Gazgeblia is one of the chronically food insecure Woredas of the Waghiemra Zone, and drought is a common phenomenon. In the past ten Years, the Gazgeblia Woreda has been supported through food aid to cover both chronic and transitory food insecure households through PSNP and JEOP Programs respectively (Gazgeblia Woreda Early Warning Office).

Magnitude of the Situation: Majority of the population is benefiting from the food aid programs. Food baskets are tailored based on a per person daily calorie intake (2100 Kcal/person). It is crucial to assure household food demand is fulfilled and family members are not exposed to malnutrition.

5.1.2. Cause of Food Shortages

5.1.3. Drought

It takes the lion's share and it is the leading cause of food shortages. In this research, drought is contextualized as a phenomenon that leads households to face chronic food shortages; as a result of, *natural environmental stress* (include absence or shortage of rain, land degradation, soil infertility, insect/pest outbreak and human and animal

epidemic), and *man-made environmental stress*es, including, inappropriate technology, poor entitlement, lack of alternative source of income, lack of good governance and lack of sustainable interventions. . Recently, El Nino has affected the climate and contributed significantly to the prevailing drought in the country as whole, which has percolated to Gazgeblia Woreda as well.

5.1.4. Food Aid

According to this research, in 2016 alone, 53572 beneficiaries are benefiting from food aid programs. Food aid programs are the major source covering household food needs in Gazgeblia Woreda. The prevailing drought in the district exacerbates the situation and with harvest failure, both in Maher and Belg, food aid is the main source of food in the area.

5.1.5. Targeting

It is a critical factor to ensure drought affected communities are included in food aid programs. Due to inclusion and exclusion errors that commonly occur during targeting, some households that are supposed to be included in the programs were excluded from food aid services. Although some households are included in the list of beneficiaries, the entire family members are not targeted. This causes food dilution which significantly affects the wellbeing of the family members.

5.1.6. Household Coping Strategies

Different households groups apply multiple types of coping strategies from the earliest and most simple type of coping strategies to the late, to more complex and riskyt types of coping strategies, depending on their resource availability and vulnerability level. The commonly used coping strategies include: selling livestock, consumption of, rather than, selling crop surplus, they resort to less expensive food commodities, seek alternative or additional jobs, borrow food and/or cash, use IPM Integrated Pest Management (IPM), use traditional medicines, use pesticide, increase tillage activities, and crop rotation.

5.1.7. Challenges Overcoming Food Shortages

The following major practices continue to put communities at risk to drought; including, subsistence farming practice, soil infertility, and, inflation of crops and inputs. Furthermore, negative perceptions on previous interventions, such as, credit and cooperatives, increasing dependence on expensive agricultural inputs, family planning, lack of alternative sources of income, conflicts, dependency on external institutional interventions, and poverty. Developing dependency on food aid programs, which prohibit communities' effort to combat drought and look for alternative productive solution, are some of the factors that remain a challenge to overcoming food shortages.

5.1.8. Local Indictors of Emerging Crisis's

These are characterized by two categories. First category include *physical features*; which involves late start or excessive hailstorms during *Belg (Febuary-May)* and *Meher (June*

to October) Rain Seasons, and the outbreak of pest/insect and crop disease. Second category includes *socio-economic features, which involves the* fluctuation of the market (high prices of crops and low prices of livestock), decline in labor rate, and large emigration

5.1.9. External Institutions Interventions and Challenges

The JEOP and PSNP emergency food aid programs are implemented through NGOs and bi-lateral aid agencies, however the local administrative institutions play a major role in identifying eligible beneficiaries for the program. With the increase in number of needy households from time to time, in addition to awareness of the local decision makers at peasant associations, inclusion and exclusion errors during targeting are common practices.

5.1.10. Community Needs and Priorities

Generally revolve around diversification of activities, drinking water supply, establishing cooperatives to stabilize market fluctuation, access to credit, Food for Work Activities (additional source for the Safety Net Program) for the immediate food need. In order to minimize crop risk, introduction of product diversification, enhancing Malaria prevention, livestock and crop disease control, and for the better-off, provision of agriculture inputs result in better harvest of crops and enhancing ability to withstand recurrent drought.

5.1.11. Effect of Drought

Such as *economic* effects includes, financial loss, increase in unemployment rate, and inflations. *Social* effects include, physical and mental stress, death, violence, conflict, theft, inequality and poor social network. *Environmental* effects include, animal and plant loss, loss of water and wetland, air pollution, and concentration in ground salt. Thus, the poor are more vulnerable to the effects of drought.

5.2. Recommendations

With the prevailing drought and limited capacity at household level to mitigate their vulnerability to disaster and shocks, the following strategies are recommended. The following recommendations are forwarded based on the finding of the study, though it is not an exhaustive lists.

- Participating and empowering the community in decision making.
- Proper orientation and familiarization workshops are crucial together with developing clear targeting guide line that would help to identify eligible beneficiaries that should be included in the food aid programs.

- The interventions that are undertaken by the government to make the household food sufficient such as Safety Net Programs are encouraging. However, the challenges regarding implication issues such as vulnerability, concept, accountability, targeting, social network, transparency and good governance need to be revisited

- Reorientation of the interventions such as credit and cooperatives, since the community perceptions to ward previous credit access and cooperatives was negative because of its poor implication. Currently, provision of credit and cooperatives are highly needed by the communities as source of finance for diversification activities and fighting together poverty and creating off far household income that will help them to be self-suffient in the long run.

- External intervention by Government and/or NGOs should enhance the existing indigenes indicators of emerging crisis and local capacity so the occurrence of drought will be minimized with appropriate preparedness and prevention to rescue the life of vulnerable households.

- Alternative income opportunities must be found mainly outside the agricultural sector, since current coping strategies and livelihood is mainly depend on natural resource that increase the environmental effect.

In summary, the success depends on the collaborative and integrated efforts of the all development actors, such as government, NGOs, private investors and households.

ANNEXES

Annexe One

	HOUSEHOLD DATA COLLECTION TOOL: GAZEGIBLA WOREDA FOOD AID CLIENTS		
1	Woreda:_____ Date of data collection: _____	20	According to the client, how many people lived in his/her household when commodities were received for this round? _____
3	Kebele this beneficiary lives in:	21	Does the total number of people living in the beneficiary's household (as stated by the beneficiary) match the household size included in the food aid program? _____
4	Name of the beneficiary interviewed: _____		Yes: _____ No: _____
	Gender:	22	Please confirm: was full family targeting practiced?
	Female: _____ Male: _____		Yes: _____ No: _____
5	Age of beneficiary, as reported by the beneficiary:	23	Did the beneficiary receive all of his/her rations according to the entitlements for this round, and according to the number of household members registered in the program?
	Age		Yes: _____ No: _____ Unknown: _____
6	Is this a female headed household?	24	Did the beneficiary sell, exchange or share any of the commodities he/she received from the food aid program? _____
	Yes: _____ No: _____		Yes: _____ No: _____ Unknown: _____
7	Is this the first time this household received food rations from food aid program	25	If yes, please indicate the reason behind: _____
	Yes: _____ No: _____	26	Who required the beneficiary to sell their ration, and why? _____
8	How many children under five years of age are in this household?	27	How will the beneficiary spend the birr made from the sale of this food commodity?
	(select number)		To repay a loan:_____ Healthcare/medicine: _____
9	How many pregnant or lactating women in this household?		On other food items (please list):_____ Other: _____
	(select number) Round: _____	28	Why did the beneficiary exchange/trade this commodity (partially or entirely)?
10	The total number of family members in the household? _____		Needed non-food items:_____ Needed other food items:_____

11	What are the main sources of the household income?		Exchanged food for needed services
	Agriculture: _____ Petty Trade: _____		Beneficiary was required to trade some or all of the commodities
	Daily laborer: _____ Food Aid: _____	29	Who required the beneficiary to exchange their ration, and why?
	Vegetable Gardening: _____ Animal Rearing: _____	30	What precisely did the beneficiary exchange part or all of this food ration for?
	Other (Specify): _____		Salt:_____ Sugar: _____
12	Does the household selected for food aid program?		Spices:_____ Fertilizer: _____
	Yes: _____ No: _____		Transporting the commodities home: _____ Storing the commodities: _____
13	If yes, is this the first time the household getting food ___		Buy more of commodities cheaper price: ___ Other: ___
	Yes: _____ No: _____	31	How much was given for this service?
14	If No, for how many rounds the beneficiary was assisted from the program? _____	32	Were commodities SHARED by the client:
15	When did the beneficiary receive this round of food commodities?	33	Indicate how much was sold, exchanged or shared:
	Day: ___ Month: ___Year:__		Entire ration:_____ Partial ration: _____
16	Does the Head of Household collect the ration during distribution?	34	Why did the beneficiary share this food commodity?
	Yes: _____ No: _____		The beneficiary was required to share this commodity
17	Does the household family size on registered in the food aid program matches the total number of people living in his/her house?		Food was shared with other households in need of food aid who do not receive such assistance.
	Yes: _____ No: _____		Other:
18	Is the ration size provided equal to the amount indicated in the program?	35	Who required the beneficiary to share their ration, and why?
	Yes: _____ No: _____		Yes: _____ No: _____ Additional notes: _____
19	How many household members are registered on the current food aid program? _____		

Annexe Two

QUESTIONNAIRES FOR KEYGAZIGEBLA WOREDA COMMUNIY REPRESENATIVIES AT KEBLE LEVEL
Name of the key informant _____Sex_____ Age____ representing ____
Keble:_____ Date of Interview:_____
In your opinion the criteria set for identifying food aid program beneficiaries are clear?
Yes: _____ No: _____
Is full family targeting practiced across the border
Yes: _____ No: _____
When is a family said to be poor and considered for the program:_____
If there is no food aid what will be the other alternative food resources in the area:_____
What coping mechanisms does the community usually adopt during the absence of food aid?
What are the social support mechanisms in the area:_____
Do households included in the program share part of their entitlement to other families voluntarily:_____
In your opinion, does the food aid program covers all the house hold food demand for the assistance month? _____
If not, what are the other options a given family took to cover household food demands:_____

Annexure IV

PROFORMA FOR SUBMISSION OF M.A. (RD) PROPOSAL FOR APPROVAL

Signature : .....

Name & : .....

Address of Guide : .....

Dr. S. NAKKIRAN
Professor of Co-operative Management
AMBO UNIVERSITY
Post Box No. 369, Ambo, Ethiopia
E-mail: doctorsnakkiran@gmail.com

Name & Address of the student : Ephrem Degefaw

Telephone No : 0911 898558

Email Adress : edegefa@gmail.com

Enrolment No. : 09913072O

Date of Submission : 12/03/2015

Name of Study Center : Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Name of Guide : Dr. S. Nakkiran.

Title of the Project : The Impact of food aid and soil fertility management in mitigating risk for drought affected House holds in Amhara region.

Signature of the Student :

Approved/ Not Approved

Date: 12/03/2015

Annexe Four

I. Introduction

Significant improvements have been exhibited in the area of food security in the past few years though different approaches; such as, the Productive Safety Net Program (PSNP), a

program mainly designed to link food aid with long term food security projects. However, resettlement, to move community members to more arable and productive lands continues to be challenged. Large areas of Ethiopia are affected by the current drought; as a result of, related to rainfall patterns, poor and degraded farming land, traditional agricultural production systems, and due to the change in the environment in the recent years.

In Ethiopia, Agriculture production is entirely dependent on rainfall as the main source of water. Unfortunately, rains have been weak both in both Maher Rain Season and Belg Rain Season. The rain season failures left a significant population in need of food aid to cover basic household food needs.

In the past few decades, the Ethiopian Government has strengthened its National Disaster Risk Management approach. Several lessons learned have been adopted to strengthen and enhance the systems, to ensure risk is reduced and crisis response is effective. The Disaster Risk Management Strategic Program Investment Framework (DRM-SPIF) has also served as a tool to translate the DRM Policy, which was launched in 2013. Starting from recognition of the potential for DRM in Ethiopia and the strengths of established systems and practices, the DRM-SPIF maps the required program components of a comprehensive DRM system for Ethiopia. It presents clear investment options for partners desirous of supporting DRM efforts and designs mechanisms for efficient and harmonized resource allocation and utilization.

Currently, Ethiopia is experiencing one of the worst droughts in 50 years. The two main rainy seasons – which supply approximately 80 percent of Ethiopia's agricultural yield and employ 85 percent of the workforce – were not successful in 2015.

In June 2015, the Ethiopian Government declared the failure of the spring *belg* rains. This affected smallholder farmers and pastoralists in the Northeastern rangelands of Afar and the Northern Somali Regions. The Ethiopian Government spearheaded a multi-agency assessment on the impact of agricultural yield and livestock. The assessment concluded that 4.5 million people were in need of emergency food assistance by August of 2015. Subsequently, the summer rains were weak and erratic due to El Niño, which negatively affected *meher* dependent farmers and tipped pastoralists into severe food insecurity in late July of 2015. The Ethiopian Government led a pre-harvest, rapid multi-agency assessment in early October, which concluded that the number of people requiring emergency food assistance had increased to 8.2 million, in addition to the 2015 report released by the Humanitarian Requirements Document (HRD).

The bulk of the needs presented in this HRD for 2016 were calculated through a robust, Government-led multi-agency *meher* assessment, which took place over the course of three weeks in October and November. Nearly 200 Governmental, UN, NGO and charitable donor representatives visited affected communities across Ethiopia's nine regions. The assessment teams met and interviewed local authorities, community leaders, and men and women affected by the crisis.

The *meher* assessment concluded that the expected harvest was far below expectations, with some regions experiencing between 50 to 90 per cent crop losses. The lack of rainfall and subsequent drought have caused a massive spike in humanitarian needs, which are expected to continue through much of 2016.

Furthermore, informing the needs presented in this HRD are sector projections for 2016, which have been established through joint Government and Ethiopia Humanitarian Country Team (HCT) analysis of 'analogue' El Niño impacted years.

With significant increment of the beneficiary number addressing all the needy beneficiaries on the right time with the right amount with the right approach is laborious encounter. Creating stabilization and make sure the community didn't take negative coping mechanism and develop resilience to cope up with the shock attached to the drought situation is a day to day effort exerted by all practitioners both at national and village level.

Considering the emergency situation and the urgency to provide food for the community adopting appropriate targeting criteria following the guideline developed by Ethiopian Government in a way it captures eligible beneficiaries with in the community is another area that need due attention considering the drought condition and the need to provide aid in due time.

II. Problem statement

Drought followed by household food shortage and lack of resilience to resist shocks leave beneficiaries in a very vulnerable position. Although, through early warning and other forecasting mechanisms the government of Ethiopia using respective line offices and other agencies analyze the situation a head of time to have appropriate response mechanism before the actual problem occurs. However, As a result of erratic rainfall followed by the Liliana effect make it impossible to track the data and make food resources available to provide to the drought affected population following the customary approach of dealing with it. In the current fiscal year the government announced that nearly ten million people are affected by the current drought which is a significant increment as compared to the previous years.

The food aid is based on daily calorie intake for individuals per day. A food provided is expected to cover 2100 kilo calories as per the National Guideline on Targeting Relief Food Assistance. Unfortunately, these is compromised due to errors related to targeting and an effort exerted by different stakeholders to share a portion of food among community members which significantly affect the wellbeing of drought affected community and cause dilution.

In line with this the study tried to report the effectiveness of food aid programs in terms of enabling to resist shock and prevent any possible occurrences of negative coping mechanism by the community.

The study also addresses the direct relationship between resiliency and full family targeting in emergency food aid.

As a result, the following research questions are anticipated to be answered

1. Is food aid program covering the required house hold food demand in a given month/round,
2. Is there any The direct correlation between the practice of full family targeting and resilience to shock,
3. Is the food aid projects protecting affected community members from taking negative coping mechanisms to survive the shock; and,
4. Is full family targeting contribute to maintain or create house hold asset for drought affected population.

III. The Objective of the Study

General Objective – The core objective of the study focuses on the salient contribution of emergency food aid to develop resilience for drought affected communities and its direct correlation with taking the entire household members in food aid programs

1. To study the impact of food aid in the area,
2. To analyze the impact of full family targeting in terms of fulfilling household food demand; and,
3. To study the contribution of food aid in preventing the community from taking negative coping mechanisms.

IV. Universe of the study

Gazgeblia Woreda is located in Amhara regional state in Wagehmra zone. The total population of the Woreda is 83017. Out of the total population 17344 are supported

through productive safety net Program (PSNP) and 53722 are direct recipient of emergency food aid through Joint emergency operation program (JEOP). In total more than eighty five percent of the population directly benefits from food aid based programs to cover house hold for consumption.

The total area is 106401 451 hectors. Out of which 19014 is productive. Currently 146318.19 hector is utilized. Climatically the Woreda contains 21% Dega, 64% Weyna Dega and 15% Kola. When it comes to the Rainfall pattern the maximum average is 600, followed by 400 .the lowest counts to 300 per milliliter.

The main source of livelihood is agriculture. Sami pastoralist and agrarian communities characterize the community.

For the study conducted three Kebeles from previous distribution were taken for collecting data selecting randomly using lottery method. Three villages with large number of beneficiaries were selected.

V. Data Collection Tools and Procedures

a) Focus Group Discussion and individual interview

The participatory methodologies will be used in the study including focus group discussions (FGD), semi-structured interview, meetings with respective Woreda and Zonal government officials and representative of non-governmental organizations operating in the area, community dialogue with community groups and key informants were used to collect wide range of data.

b) Data Source

The study is going both primary and secondary data sources. Primary data will be gathered from households living in the preselected villages and participatory methods and interview with officials at different levels of respective line departments and offices.

c) Household survey

In addition, household survey will be carried out in related three sample villages. A total of 57 households would be interviewed from the three peasant associations. Household survey questionnaire was directed for male and female headed households. The following sampling technic will be adopted to gather the required information.

Systematic sampling, which is a modification of simple and random and sampling, which picks every n^{th} household from list of households is going to be used for selecting 19 HHs from the list of each peasant association.

Nineteen beneficiaries from each peasant association the beneficiary list for interview shall be chosen using the technique illustrated above the steps below are followed to select beneficiary HHs:

- Take list of Kebeles for pervious round distribution,
- Randomly select three Kebeles (lottery method),
- Take to villages from each Kebele selected,
- Take distribution list of beneficiaries from previous round distribution for both selected Kebeles/villages; and,

- Select 19 HHs using sampling technique.

d) Methods of Data Collection

Regarding primary data collection open and closed ended questionnaire will be designed and administered to target households and community leaders in the study area. A case study was conducted with selected households. Semi structured questioners are used for key informants (government offices and NGOs)

A qualitative research methodology such as participatory appraisal through focus group discussion (FGD) will be adopted to collect wider information at community group level (Women group, youth and elders)

e) Methods of Data Analysis

Data collected through the above methods will be carefully analyzed using standard statistical tools and qualitative techniques. Specifically, graphs and charts and percentages are going to be used during data analysis. Thus both explanatory and descriptive statistical data analysis methods together with SPSS will be engaged.

VI. Chaptalization Plan

The first chapter of the research document focuses with introduction part explaining the historical back ground of food aid in the country with its contribution to food security in the area

The second chapter covers literature review by assessing different publications and government guidelines developed by different stake holders

The third touches research methodologies.

The fourth chapter addresses with result and discussion of the research. The output from the data collected will be addressed and detail analysis will be presented under this section.

The last chapter will cover conclusions and recommendations together with Annexes and bibliography.

VII. Work Plan and Budget breakdown

1. Work Plan

No.	Activity	Duration	Person in charge
1	Develop research proposal and get approved	January, 15,2016	Researcher and Advisor
2	Data collection	February, 16- March -15, 2016	Researcher
3	Consolidation and analysis of data and writing of the thesis??	March 16- March, 31,2016	
4	Completion of the research and submission of the first draft to the advisor	March 16- April,20,2016	
5	Finalization of the research paper	End of April	Researcher and Advisor

2. Budget Break down

	Description	Unit	Quantity	Days	Unit Cost	Total
1	Questionnaire printing cost	Pcs	1650		2.50	4125
2	Data collectors orientation perdiem one day	No	9	1	300	2700
1	Nine enumerators perdiem for 5 days	No	9	5	300	13500

2	Vehicle rent	Days	1	7	2000	14000
3	Researcher perdiem	Days				
4	Stationery	Lump sum				1200.00
5	Secretarial and binding services	Lump Sum				800.00
6	Investigator Perdiem	No	1	7	225	1575.00
7	Investigator Accommodation	No	1	7	400	2800.00
	Total					40700.00

VIII. Reference List

- National Guidelines on Relief Food Assistance

- Ethiopia HRD 2016

REFERENCES

1. A study of Amhara households in Wogda, Northern Shewa. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

2. Barry R., Phillip. Goulda D., Daniel F., Paul U., 2002. *The Impact of Title II Food Aid on Food Security in Ethiopia*, Washington, D.C

3. Cody K., Mike H., Tom P., 1998. *How to Reduce Drought Risk*, USA

4. CSA, 2005. Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Central Statistical Agency. Addis Ababa

5. Desalegn, R. 1987, *Famine and Survival strategies*: a case study of north-east Ethiopia. Food and Famine monograph series no. 1. Institute of Development Research, Addis Ababa University.

6. Dessalegn R. 1988, *Peasant Survival Strategies*. In: A. Penrose (ed). *Beyond the Famine: An Examination of the Issues behind Famine in Ethiopia*. Geneva: Food for the Hunger International.

7. Disaster Risk Management and Food Security sector (DRMFSS). Woreda Disaster Risk Profile (WDRP), September, 2014, Addis Ababa

8. Disaster Risk Profile, Gazgeblia Woreda, September, 2014, Addis Ababa

9. DPPA 2006, *Food Security Prospect*: Early warning system. Addis Ababa

10. DPPA 2006, *Humanitarian Appeal for Ethiopia*: A joint Government and Humanitarian Partners' appeal. Addis Ababa

11. DPPC SCF (UK), UNDP and EMI -*National Policy on Disaster Prevention and Management (NPDPM) Training of Trainers Manual*, 1996

12. FDRE (2004) "Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Commission Establishment (Amendment) Proclamation NO 383/2004, *Federal negarit Gazeta of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia*

13. Food Assistance Fact Sheet, USAID, 2016

14. Getachew D., 1995. *Economy at the Crossroads, Famine and food security in rural Ethiopia*. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

15. Human Rights watch. 1991. *Evil Days, thirty years of war and famine in Ethiopia*. USA

16. IIRR, ACACIA, Cordaid, 2004, *Drought Cycle Management*: *a toolkit for the dry lands of the greater horn*, Nairobi.

17. Joel S. 2003, NGOs *and Rural Development*: Theory and practice, New Delhi

18. Judith A. & SCF Ethiopia. 1987. *Drought Relief in Ethiopia*.UK

19. Lautze, S.,Aklilu, Y., Raven-Roberts, A., Young, H., Kebede, G. and Leaning, J. (2003) *"Risk and vulnerability in Ethiopia: Learning from the past, Responding to the Present, Preparing for the future, "*United States Agency for International Development, Addis Ababa

20. Margaret F., 2003. *Planning for the next Drought Ethiopia Case study*. United States Agency for International Development, Addis Ababa.

21. Melaku A., Teshome W., Tigest K., 1997, *Worst Case Scenarios on Drought, flood, Influx of refugees and Epidemic and the Present Response system,* Volume II. Addis Ababa.

22. National Guidelines on Targeting Relief Food Assistance 2nd DRAFT, Disaster Risk Management and Food Security Sector, Ministry of Agriculture, July 2011, Addis Ababa

23. Pankhurst, Richard, 1985. *The History of Famine and Epidemics in Ethiopia-prior to the Twentieth Century*, Addis Ababa

24. Peter J. Middle, 2005, *Fighting Hunger and Poverty in Ethiopia: Ethiopia's Experience in Implementing Employment Generation Schemes (EGS) as part of the National Policy for Disaster Prevention and Management (NPDPM)'*, Doctoral Thesis, University of Durham

25. Piers B., Terry C., Ian D., Ben W., 1994. *At Risk natural hazards, people's vulnerability, and disasters*. London and New York

26. PSNP IV Programme Implementation Manual, Ministry of Agriculture, Addis Ababa, version 10. December, 2014

27. Ravi S., 2003. *Role of NGOs in Developing Countries*, New Delhi

28. Relief and Rehabilitation Commission (RRC). 1985 *The challenges of Drought,* Addis Ababa.

29. Tesfahun F., and Osman A. August 13-15, 2003. *Challenges and Prospects of Food Security in Ethiopia*. Proceedings of the Food Security Conference, UNCC, Addis Ababa

30. The New Collation for Food Secretary in Ethiopia, *Food Security Program Proposal Volume I*, 2003, Addis Ababa

31. Wilhite, D.A ISDR Discussion Group on Drought 2000, *Living with Risk: An Integrated Approach to Reducing Societal Vulnerability to Drought*,

32. World Conference on Disaster Reduction (WCDR) 2004, Kobe, Hypogo, Japan

33. Yared A, 1999. *Household Resources, Strategies and Food Security in Ethiopia* volume I,

34. Yared A., 2002. *Food Security and Sustainable Livelihoods in Ethiopia*. Proceedings of the symposium of the forum for social studies, Addis Ababa, 10-11 March 2000.

CV

BRIEF BIO-DATA / CV OF DR. S. NAKKIRAN

Present Address
DR. S. NAKKIRAN,
Professor of Cooperative Management,
Ambo University ,
(Post Box. No: 369,
AMBO, ETHIOPIA.
E-mail: doctorsnakkiran@gmail.com
Mobile: 00251-911896125 (Local 0911 896125)

Home Address
DR. S. NAKKIRAN,
4/2K, Senthil Nagar,
COIMBATORE – 641 030
INDIA.
Phone: 0091-9600 936030

Educational Qualification:	M.Cop., (1968) Ph.D., (Commerce)(1978) (Poona University, India)
Total Teaching and Research Experience:	48 Years
Fields of Specialization:	Management, (Strategic Mgt OB, HRM,) Cooperation, Entrepreneurship and Research Methods
Subjects Teaching:	Advanced Coop Management, Entrepreneurship, Strategic Management, Financial management, Research Methods
Teaching and Administrative Experience:	43 years as Head of PG Department and Principal
Research Guidance:	Guided 31 PhDs and 75 MPhiLs

Since 2008 Presided/Inaugurated/ Lectured 102 Seminars/ International Conferences

Publications:	Written 25 books and published more than 150 papers
Countries visited:	Professional visit to UK (two times) and Kenya