

**AN ASSESSMENT OF THE ROLE OF KALE HEYWET CHURCH ON  
HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY IN SOUTHERN ETHIOPIA**

**by**

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## DECLARATION

I declare that the mini-dissertation entitled ~~an~~ Assessment of the Role of Kale Heywet Church on Household Food Security in Southern Ethiopia hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the Master of Development Degree has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other University; that it is my work in design and in execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

AA ASHA

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## ABBREVIATIONS

|       |   |  |
|-------|---|--|
| ADLI  | - | Agricultural Development Led Industrialization   |
| DCG   | - | Dry land Coordination Group                      |
| FAO   | - | Food and Agricultural Organization               |
| FFW   | - | Food-for-Work                                    |
| FSS   | - | Food Security Strategy                           |
| GEA   | - | Group Extension Approach                         |
| HDI   | - | Human Development Index                          |
| KHCDP | - | Kale Heywet Church Development Program           |
| MoFED | - | Ministry of Finance and Economic Development     |
| MDGs  | - | Millennium Development Goals                     |
| NGOs  | - | Non Governmental Organizations                   |
| PA    | - | Peasant Association                              |
| SNNPR | - | Southern Nation Nationalities and Peoples Region |
| SERA  | - | Strengthening Emergency Response Abilities       |



## **ABSTRACT**

Food insecurity is one of the most important development challenges in Ethiopia. To reduce food insecurity, the current government has adopted various policies. Amongst policies employed by the government are, namely: Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI) of 1995, which focus on national level; and the Food Security Strategy (FSS) which gives emphasis to household food security. As partner in development process, the Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP) has been implementing development projects in Southern Ethiopia to improve household food security.

In this study, an attempt is made to assess the role of Kale KHCDP on household food security in southern Ethiopia. The study used both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect data from 109 sample households in Baso and Kuto Peasant Associations (PAs) of the Kucha District in Southern Ethiopia. More specifically, household questionnaire, focus groups, and individual or key informant interviews were applied to gather primary data from the field. The study also used secondary sources to review relevant information.

The study found that KHCDP has played a critical role in promoting household food security by implementing different strategies to increase food production and income. The study, however, pointed out that KHCDP household food security strategies are weak in terms of creating access to inputs and technologies; promoting water resource utilizations; and providing extension and follow-up support. The study also identified low level of household participation and risks in long-term sustainability of food security interventions. Therefore, this study suggests that KHCDP needs to review its strategies and extension approaches.

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

It is estimated that the majority of the population in Ethiopia is living in the rural areas and depends primarily on agriculture as source of food, income and employment. Asmare (1998) indicated that agriculture is the major economic activity in Ethiopia, which provides about 46% of GDP, 80-90% of the export revenues and employment for over 80% of the population.

The agricultural sector is dominated by small scale farmers who account for 90% of total crop area and agricultural output (Bollinger et al., 1999). These small scale farmers practice rain-fed and traditional farming systems that are vulnerable to external shocks like drought. Small-scale farmers are typically involved in subsistence agriculture and use draft animals, family labour and traditional hand tools to produce foods for their consumption.

According to the World Bank (1999), productivity of Ethiopian agriculture is among the lowest in the world around, with an estimated 1.2 tons of yield per hectare. Millions of people are currently suffering from hunger and chronic malnutrition. The rural poor and the landless are the ones who are suffering the most form chronic food insecurity. A survey conducted by the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MoFED) in 2002, shows that 44% of the people were under absolute poverty<sup>1</sup> in 1999/2000 out of which the proportion of the poor accounts for 45% and 37% in rural and urban areas, respectively. Poverty is entrenched in the rural areas of the country largely due to the lack of entitlement

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<sup>1</sup> Refers to those whose total consumption expenditure was less than US \$ 124.28 per year

to fundamental livelihood assets (Bogale et al., 2003). As a result, rural people suffer from severe poverty situation manifested in the form of inadequate access to the basic necessities such as food, health, and education.

One of the primary objectives of the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) is to reduce, by half, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger by the targeted date of 2015 (<http://www.un.org>, 6/25/2008). Accordingly, countries should make every effort towards achieving food security so as to end hunger and malnutrition. It also entails that conceptualizing food security and designing appropriate policies and strategies would help to achieve food security at different levels.

Food security as a concept has progressed through different stages. In the 1970s, food security was mostly concerned with global and national levels food supplies. In the 1980s and early 1990s, the focus was shifted towards household level food availability, access and nutrition. In the late 1990s, the concept of food security has progressed to emphasizing livelihood security, which considers food as a component of broad livelihood at household level (Frankenberger & McCaston, 1998). Thus, currently, attention to food security is ensuring availability, stability access, and utilization of food at household level (FAO, 2008). The shift on the concept of food security has proven that attaining food self-sufficiency at national level should not be equated with ensuring food security at household level (Frankenberger & McCaston, 1998).

In Ethiopia, food insecurity has been recognized as the major development challenge. Various reports have highlighted that the country is food insecure (Stephen, 2000; ACC Inter- Agency Task Force, 2000; and Webb & Braun, 1994). There is a large food self-sufficiency gap at the national level and food insecurity at household level (EEA/EEPRI, 2004/05). According to the United Nations Human Development Report (<http://hdrstats.undp.org>, 6/25/2008), 46%

of the total population in Ethiopia is undernourished. The report further revealed that of the child mortality rate, 58% due to under-nutrition. Moreover, 38% of children under-five are under weight and 51% are stunted. The report also ranks Ethiopia 169 out of 175 countries in terms of Human Development Index (HDI).

The current government of Ethiopia has put in place different response strategies linked to household food security since 1993. The key policy and supporting strategy are the Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI) of 1995 and the Food Security Strategy (FSS) of 2002. There are, however, some evident weaknesses in the design and implementation of these policies and strategies. Meanwhile, various international donors and the Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have been participating in the alleviation of widespread food insecurity throughout the country. Despite the overall efforts made by these development organizations, the population is still highly vulnerable to severe food insecurity.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AREA**

This research was conducted at a place in the Kucha District located in Gamo Gofa administrative Zone in Southern Nationalities and Peoplesq Region (SNNPR). The Kucha District has 32 Peasant Associations (PAs)<sup>2</sup>. The major town, Selambar, is situated 452 kilometers South West of Addis Ababa. The total area of the Kucha District is estimated to be 1,384.22 square kilometer.

The topography of the area is mainly mountainous and highly denuded, and the top fertile soil has been eroded due to various human interventions. According to

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<sup>2</sup> Ethiopia has five administrative structures: federal, region, zone, district and peasant association. The district is a local government structure where all the government departments (health, agriculture, education, etc) are functional, where as the Peasant Association (PA) is the lowest level of government structure responsible to districts. Peasant Association includes villages.

the Strengthening Emergency Response Abilities (SERA) Project (2000), black soils represent 50% of the total area where as red soils occupy 30%, followed by brown and grey soils, which are estimated to account for 10% each. Concerning soil type distributions, brown to red loam soils are dominating the higher altitude and loam to heavy clay soils dominate the lowland areas.

According to the information from metrological centers in the district, as indicated in Strengthening Emergency Response Abilities (SERA) Project (2000), the mean annual rainfall varies between 1100 to 1600mm, whereas the mean monthly temperature ranges between 20.1<sup>o</sup> C to 25<sup>o</sup> C. The information further indicates that the rainfall pattern in Kucha is bimodal, which is characterized by two production seasons, the short and the main rainy seasons. The short rainy seasons usually occur within the months of March to May whereas the main rainy season takes place from July to October. However, there is irregular and uneven distribution of rainfall in the district whereby the lowland areas receive about 600mm/year.

The Kucha District has an estimated total population of 145,305 of whom 72,159 were males and 73,146 were female. About 97.6% of its population is living in rural areas. It also has an estimated population density of 105 people per square kilometer (CSA, 2005).

Mixed farming is the main agricultural activity for the majority of the population living in the rural areas. Farmers practise both cropping and animal rearing as the major source of income and livelihood. Major crops of the area are, namely, maize, sorghum, teff, sweet potato, and pulses, such as field peas and soybeans are cultivated. In addition, cattle and small animals, as well as their bi-products are additional sources of income for small scale farmers.

### **1.3 THE KALE HEYWET CHURCH DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM (KHCDP)**

Since this research is a Case Study focusing on the Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church, considerable space is dedicated towards profiling the activities of KHCDP. The Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church is an indigenous church of Ethiopia with over 6 million followers and over 6000 local congregations (Horn & Telore, 2006). The Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church considers development as an integral mission which encompasses the physical, spiritual, and mental growth of a person or society.

The development work of the Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church is geared towards full human development in a holistic approach. According to Dalelo (2003), the Development Department of the Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church was established in 1984 to integrate all activities in systematic ways. In the last 30 years, the church has been involved in relief, rehabilitation, and development interventions, mainly in Southern Ethiopia where the church has its stronghold. The Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church has been expanding its development activities to Oromia and Amhara regions, as well as to various urban areas throughout the country.

The overall objective of the various development commitments is to improve the living standard of the community through promoting sustainable development. The church implements various development programmes and projects to reduce poverty and food insecurity both in urban and rural areas of the country. These development programmes mainly target the poor and most disadvantaged groups in the society. These programmes and projects include the following: Integrated Rural Development Projects; Health Services and HIV/AIDS Prevention and Control; Water Development and Sanitation; Education and Vocational Training; Child and youth care; Leadership Development; Harmful Traditional Practices Prevention and Control; and Integrated Urban Development.

The above interventions of the church are coordinated through the two main programmes of the church such as Food Security Programme and Capacity Building and Community Empowerment programme. Both programmes are accountable to the Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church Development Coordination Division.

The KHCDP has been implementing an integrated rural development project in the study area since 1996. The church started its development activity in Kucha since 1996, under the direct supervision from the central office. The Kucha Integrated Rural Development Project was implemented by the Kucha Kale Heywet Church in collaboration with the local government authorities and community.

The over all objective of the project is to contribute to the food security situation of the Kucha District, while the specific objectives are to increase and sustain household income and to improve the health condition of the beneficiaries. The Kucha Integrated Rural Development Project targeted about 41,097 beneficiary people in ten Peasant Associations and Selamber town. The project targeted to address poor households and to institute gender equality in its activities. The major activities are the following:

- a. Supply of farm inputs: the project mainly focuses on introducing, demonstrating, and the distribution of improved varieties of crops such as, vegetables, coffee, enset, and fruits.
- b. Provision of other inputs such as bee hives and goats to enhance income generation;
- c. Access to markets: constructing feeder roads;

- d. Soil conservation: the main focus was on promoting soil conservation practices such as terracing, bunds, and tree planting. In addition, labour intensive physical soil conservation practices were part of activities on communal lands;
- e. Water resource utilizations: attention was given to developing small scale irrigation to benefit 106 households to enable them produce vegetables through the year. Moreover, farmers are encouraged to use springs and to harvest water;
- f. Training and Back-up Extension Support: the project intends to build capacity of its beneficiaries on different issues, such as agronomic practices, conservation techniques, beekeeping, food processing and preservation, nutrition and health, etc; and
- g. Intensive follow up and supervision as well as visits and experience sharing sessions.

Therefore, the execution of the project was believed to alleviate the problem of household food insecurity through improving agricultural productivity and providing opportunities for additional income generation for the vulnerable households in the study area.

#### **1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

This study considers how to promote the role of Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP) in the course of fighting against an enormous problem of food insecurity. In Ethiopia, an estimated 52 % of the population is said to be food insecure (FDRE, 1996) and the vulnerable households accounts almost 60% of the total population (FSP, 1998). In order to address the extreme food insecurity situation in the country, the study particularly emphasizes on ways of enhancing the effectiveness of KHCDP household food security



strategies such as: provision of farm inputs and technologies; soil conservation measures; water resource utilization methods; and training and extension services.

Dalelo (2003) pointed out that the KHCDP, as a indigenous NGO, has been supporting the developmental aspirations of the local community. He further noted that the church also has been initiating integrated local programmes to support various needs of its beneficiaries for more than thirty years. Despite efforts that have been made, household food security has not been adequately researched and documented.

In addition, most studies on household food security in Ethiopia have focused on identifying the causes of food insecurity. This research, therefore, is believed to bridge the gap through focusing on strategies and approaches towards household food security. It is impossible to contribute to improving food security without effective approaches in which the complex local situations are addressed.

## **1.5 THE AIM OF THE STUDY**

The primary aim of this research is to investigate the roles of the Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP), in particular the effectiveness of its strategies to support household food security in rural Southern Ethiopia.

## **1.6 THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The specific objectives of the study are, namely, to:

- i. Review household food insecurity in Ethiopia and government policies and strategies with regard to food security;
- ii. Review the Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP) experience concerning household food security in rural areas of southern Ethiopia;
- iii. Examine the effectiveness of the Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP) strategies towards household food security in the Kucha District; and
- iv. Explore the perception of community on the Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP) food security interventions in the Kucha District.

## **1.7 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The main research question is: What is the role played by the Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP) in reducing food insecurity in the Kucha District? Specific sub-research questions include the following:

- i. What is the situation regarding household food insecurity in Ethiopia? What government policies and strategies are in place to enhance household food security?
- ii. What have been the KHCDP (Kale Heywet Church Development Program) accomplishments and constraints in alleviating household food insecurity in rural areas of Southern Ethiopia?

- iii. Do the strategies of the KHCDP (Kale Heywet Church Development Programme) play a role in reducing household food insecurity?
- iv. What can be done to promote the overall role of the KHCDP (Kale Heywet Church Development Programme) towards household food security?

## **1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS**

For the purpose of clarity, the following definitions of key concepts are presented as their meaning might differ when applied in other contexts or by different disciplines.

### **Household**

Household refers to a group of people who live and work together in the family farm as well as eat together every day.

### **Head of household**

Head of household refers to a person who is responsible for the well-being of the family or a person who represents the household. The head could be a male or a female.

### **Sustainability**

Sustainability refers to the possibility of continuation of project benefits in the future. A project is sustainable when it has a last-long impact on the lives of beneficiaries.

## **1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study is of critical importance in terms of aspects raised below:

- i. The KHCDP (Kale Heywet Church Development Program) and other NGOs (Non Governmental Organisations) in Ethiopia will gain additional insight and use the findings to broaden their role in household food security ;
- ii. Government bodies at local levels will use the findings to improve their strategies and policies on household food security ;
- iii. The findings will be used in the debate concerning the effectiveness of household food security interventions ; and
- iv. The KHCDP (Kale Heywet Church Development Program) will use the findings to revise its strategy towards household food security in rural areas.

## **1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT**

This report contains five chapters dealing with various aspects of the study. The report is structured as follows.

Chapter One: This chapter introduces the study and provides background information on the study area and the KHCDP. It also outlines the research objectives, questions, significance, and Key definitions.

Chapter Two: Reviews literature on conceptual definition of food security and presents the practice of NGOs within Ethiopian context.

Chapter Three: Presents the methodology of the research by describing the research design, data collection and data analysis procedures.

Chapter Four: Provides detailed explanation on research findings in relation to contributions made by the KHCDP in household food security.

Chapter Five: Provides conclusions based on the research findings and presents suggestions to improve future roles in household food security.

## **1.11 CONCLUSION**

This chapter started of by introducing the problem of food insecurity in Ethiopia. It then provided background information on the study area and also presented the purpose of the KHCDP. It further outlined the aims of the research, objectives, the research questions, and significance of the study. The next chapter is devoted to the review of international and national literature concerning key issues surrounding the food security.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter gave a brief explanation of food security in Ethiopia. This chapter aims to examine some key issues surrounding the concept of food security. More specifically, it reviews literatures that concentrate on theoretical and empirical studies related to the developmental role of NGOs on food security. The chapter starts by examining the meaning of food security, followed by exploring the role of NGOs. The last part of the chapter reviews the current situation in the country, government policies, and experience of KHCDP regarding household food security.

#### **2.2 THE CONCEPT OF FOOD SECURITY**

The concept of food security has been broadening over time. According to Frankenberger and McCaston (1998), the evolution of the notion of food security has four stages. First, in the 1970s, a focus was on national food security with an emphasis on food supply. Second, in the 1980s, emphasis was given to household food security, with more focus on access to food. Third, in the 1990s, the focus had shifted towards nutritional security with an emphasis on food, health and mother and child care. Lastly, in the 1990s, attention shifted towards household livelihood security.

The implementation of food self-sufficiency strategy at national and global level did not work well and the policy makers and researchers learned that effects of macro-level food security cannot trickle down to individuals and households so as to ensure food security. For instance, the UNDP (1992) confirmed that a significant proportion of populations have been suffering from hunger and

malnutrition regardless of an increasing trend in per capital food output in the world.

The dissatisfaction with the achievement of food self sufficiency at national and global level had led researchers and policy makers towards rethinking about the concept of food security. Frankenberger and McCaston (1998) underlined that food availability at the national and regional levels, and stable and sustainable access at the local level, were considered essential to household food security. Thus, interest was centered on understanding food systems, production systems, and other factors that influence the composition of food supply and a household's access to that supply over time (Ibid). The most important theory that played a role in the paradigm shift was (Sen, 1981) the theory of entitlement which promoted creation of access by household to ensure adequate food supply for family members. Maxwell (1996) has also noted that the concept of food security has shifted from global and national spheres to the household and the individual level. Therefore, the concept has broadened to include both the availability and stable access to food at household level.

In the early 1990s, the concept of food security has shifted the emphasis away from simple assumptions concerned with household access to food, resource base, and food systems, by demonstrating the influence of health and disease, caring capacity, environmental sanitation, and the quality and composition of dietary intake on nutritional outcomes (Frankenberger & McCaston, 1998). Thus, the concept of food security shifted to include availability, stable access, and nutritional security or utilization of food at household level.

The concept of food security has moved from a food first to livelihood perspective (Maxwell, 1996). Research work carried out in the late 1980s and early 1990 have indicated that the focus on food and nutritional security needed to be broadened. It was found that food security is but one sub-set of objectives of poor households Maxwell & Smith (cited in Maxwell and Frankenberger,

1992). According to Frankenberger and McCaston (1998), people may choose to go hungry to preserve their assets and future livelihoods. It is misleading to treat food security as a fundamental need, independent of wider livelihood considerations.

Another paradigm shift in the thinking about the concept of food security was the shift in indicators from objective measurements to subjective perceptions (Maxwell, 1996). It underscores that vulnerability assessment to food insecurity must consider the perception of people who have been affected by the problem. In other words, the objective focus on measuring calories per day standard was not an adequate way to understand individuals' needs concerning the volume and type of food.

The overall paradigm shift in the concept of food security entails the need for food security programmes and projects to focus more on household and individual level food security through sustainable approaches by addressing other basic needs besides food.

### **2.3 THE DEFINITIONS OF FOOD SECURITY**

Food security is defined and interpreted in different ways by different authors and institutions depending on the level of analysis. Conceptualization of food security at different levels (national, household, and individual) has also contributed for the diversity of definitions.

A large number of studies have been carried out to clarify the meaning of food security. For instance, Maxwell and Frankenberger (1992) described a list of 194 different studies on the concept and definitions of food security and 172 studies on indicators. They also quoted about 200 definitions related to the concept of household food security. Some of the well-known definitions include the following:



- a) The World Bank (1986) defines food security as ~~a~~access of all people at all times to enough food to have an active, healthy. The World Bank's definition stressed on accessibility or entitlement through increasing the purchasing power of people, rather than increasing availability.
- b) Maxwell and Smith (1992) explained household food security as ~~a~~adequate access by the households to amounts of food of the right quality to satisfy the dietary needs of all its members throughout the year. This definition includes key components such as availability, accessibility, utilization, and sustainable supply of food to household all members.
- c) FAO of the United Nations (1996) defined food security conditions as ~~a~~when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. The definition by FAO is broad and encompasses various elements of food security such as availability at all times, accessibility by all people, nutritious food in terms of quality and quantity, and food preference depending on culture and traditions of people.

According to FAO (2000), food security depends on availability of food, access to food, and utilization of food. These key elements of food security form pillars of food security.

Food availability refers to the existence of food stocks. Household food access is the ability to acquire sufficient quality and quantities of food to meet all household members' nutritional requirements. According to Marc (cited in Dagneu et al, 2002), food availability can be improved through promotion of irrigation, adoption of low-cost inputs and drought resistant crop varieties. On the contrary, there are some limiting factors to food availability include (<http://www.usaid.gov/policy>, 14/07/2008): inappropriate agricultural knowledge, technologies, and practices;

inappropriate economic policies; inadequate agricultural inputs; and poor marketing and transportation systems.

Access to food is determined by physical and financial resources, as well as social and political factors (Ziervogel et al, 2006). It also indicates increasing the purchasing power of individuals and households to buy adequate and quality food from market. Furthermore, access to food involves economic empowerment of the vulnerable groups and individuals. Adequate income or other resources like assets are necessary to afford the food prices at market. Accessibility also refers to creating physical access through improving infrastructures (e.g., roads) and marketing in areas which are vulnerable to food insecurity.

Another important aspect of accessibility is equal access by all members without any discrimination and marginalization both socially and geographically. Kifle (cited in Dagne et al, 2002) point out that Employment Generation Schemes (EGS) and off-farm employment opportunities are considered as major ways of improving access to food in Ethiopia. In addition, the capacity of local markets is important to supply enough food required by people. On the other hand, there are various constraints to food accessibility that include (<http://www.usaid.gov/policy>, 14/07/08): inadequate economic growth leading to lack of job opportunities; negative impact of economic policies; inadequate skills; and lack of credit.

Utilization of food depends on how food is used, whether food has sufficient nutrients, and a balanced diet is maintained (Ziervogel et al, 2006). Interventions necessary to improve utilization include: promoting basic social services such as health, water, adequate sanitations; increased awareness on nutrition and child care; and proper food processing, storage and marketing techniques (UN cited in Dagne et al, 2001). In contrast, constraints to food utilization include (<http://www.usaid.gov/policy>, 14/07/08): inadequate knowledge and practice of health techniques, including those related to nutrition, child care, and sanitation;

and cultural practices that limit consumption of nutritionally adequate diet by family members.

Hence, food security can be achieved when all these three components of food security, that is, availability, access, and utilization, are realized at national and household levels. In other words, food insecurity exists when these elements are missing. According to Colofon (cited in De Beer and Swanepoel, 2000), food insecurity is lack of access to adequate food supplies and can be chronic or temporary in nature. Chronic food insecurity is a continuously inadequate diet caused by the inability to acquire food; whereas transitory food insecurity is a temporary decline in households access to enough food (World Bank, 1986).

## **2.4 FOOD SECURITY AND THE ROLE OF NGOs**

NGOs are private and non-profit organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote interests of the poor, protect the environment, provide basic social services, or undertake community development (World Bank, 1989). In similar way De Beer and Swanepoel (2000) described NGOs as autonomous, privately set up, non-profit making institutions that support, manage or facilitate development actions.

There are different views regarding the role of NGOs in development. Proponents of NGOs argue about the significance of NGOs in development. According to Behera (2006), NGOs have unique characteristics such as knowledge about local people, operate with greater flexibility, work in inaccessible areas, cost-effective, and adopt appropriate development inputs. He further explained that NGOs also have some inherent weaknesses; limited financial and management experiences; low levels of self sustainability; limited institutional capacity; lack of inter-organizational coordination; and small scale interventions.

Internationally, the role of NGOs on food security has been recognized and the need to strengthen civil society is widely acceptable. In his essay, Baily (2007) shows how NGOs have responded to food insecurity. According to Baily, NGOs response comprises increasing of rights based approach and participatory approaches to food security. Windfuhr ( cited in Baily, 2007) clarified that NGOs and CBOs focus on economic, social and cultural rights such as protecting small farmers from eviction, indigenous people from loosing traditional land and fishing grounds, and segment of the population from discriminatory food supply schemes. He further explained that NGOs and CBOs are developing nutritional rights, as opposed to rights to adequate food, to put pressure on governments to take responsibilities for supplying funding for nutrition in national budget. Howell ( in Baily, 2007) also explained about the participatory approach of NGOs in responding to food security by illustrating an Ethiopian case of Action Aid in promoting sustainable and community solution to food production.

A book written by Belshaw et al., (2001) entitled *Faith in Development: Partnership between the World Bank and the Churches of Africa*, regarding the role of the church in poverty alleviation in Africa, argues that church can play a prominent role in the process of economic and social development and particularly in the social services sector. African NGOs are demonstrating good practices with regard to food security in dry land areas. According to the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs (2008), NGOs are collaborating with research institutions and government institutions in Ethiopia, Sudan, Mali, and Eritrea with in the Dry land Coordination Group (DCG) in order to share experience and knowledge, and thus build capacity on agriculture and food security in the dry lands through the networks with in and between these countries.

In Ethiopia, NGOs have been contributing a lot towards promoting a wide range of development activities. Joseph (1996) noted that the role of NGOs in Ethiopia is not adequately understood or appreciated. NGOs are viewed as vehicles of

relief, distributing food to the victims of famine. But this view of NGOs as service providers is limited and restricts the NGOs sector from making its full contribution to development. According to Joseph, the role of NGOs as agents who procure and distribute relief items is diminishing. NGOs in Ethiopia have made a clear significant transition from relief to development in the long-term through integrated activities. NGOs in Ethiopia have been involved in programs which enhance food security directly or indirectly. These include: Agricultural research and extension; income generation activities; in promotion of saving and credit; health, education and water supply; development of appropriate technology; in environmental conservation; and debate on governance and democracy (Joseph, 1996; CRDA, 1996).

There are limited studies regarding the role of NGOs in household food security in Ethiopia. One of these studies is research conducted by Dejene (2004) on the contribution of NGOs to household food security. Using the cases of three Area Development Programs of World Vision Ethiopia, Dejene indicated that NGOs do play a significant role in improving the quality of life among the poor. Activities with in World Vision Ethiopia have included soil conservation and reforestations, improved physical infrastructures and improved health and education infrastructure. Dejene explained that these interventions have impacted on areas including livelihood security, improved water supply and other amenities and the introduction of cash crops. He also unpacked the reality that policy and legal frameworks governing NGOs in Ethiopia are far from conducive to NGOs operations. The laws lag behind the reality of NGOs activities. Many NGOs are unable to realize their declared mission and vision partly because of policy related and procedural constraints.

The second study conducted by Belshaw and Coyle (2001) covered 14 NGOs and 28 poverty reducing projects selected from different parts of the country. The projects included food security, income generation, orphan and street children care, environmental protection, and access to social services. The objective was

to assess the impact and good practices of NGOs in Ethiopia concerning poverty alleviation. Food security has given small portion on their study as part of poverty alleviation projects. Belshaw and Coyle reported that NGOs have significantly contributed to poverty alleviation in both urban and rural areas of the country. Half of the projects had direct impacts and the remainder had indirect impacts in improving access to social services, improving community health or individual's future access to livelihoods or through reducing the rate of deterioration in natural or built environment. The study further indicated that NGOs have applied innovative approaches towards poverty reduction.

Another study which focused on food security was by Dagneu et al (2002) carried out in different localities of Ethiopia through in-depth discussion with government and NGOs officials and beneficiaries. The study found out that NGOs have been involved in facilitating accessibility of food to the urban and rural poor through income generation schemes such as, development of micro-enterprises and skills upgrading and vocational training. The research further reported that a significant number of NGOs are involved in improving the nutritional status of rural and urban communities through integrated health programs, health education, family and nutritional education, access to clean drinking water and sanitation, family planning, etc. According to the study, impacts of development projects lack sustainability, partially due to the kind of intervention approach followed by NGOs.

Abiche (2004) conducted his study on the role of the Kale Heywet Church in poverty alleviation. He stressed on community participation and sustainability projects in Lambuda, Durame, Shashamane, Debreziet, and Nazeret localities. He found out that the KHCDP has played a crucial role in terms of the socio-economic development of respective communities in which they operate through implementing different types of projects and programmes. With regard to community participation, the research revealed that there was participation in project planning and implementation in the form of contribution of locally

available resources such as free labor and materials. However, the study revealed that community participation in the decision making process was lacking. The study further shows that sustainability of projects was in question because most of the projects were dependent on outside support and local capacity was not yet strengthened. According to the present researcher's observation, this research is valuable in identifying the most important challenges of development projects. Nevertheless, other helpful strategies of rural household food security were not addressed in the study.

Concerning the role of NGOs, most of the researches have focused on poverty alleviation. There are limited studies regarding the role of NGOs in rural household food security in Ethiopia. Moreover, the majority of studies have given great deal of focus on assessing the impacts of development work. This study, therefore, contributes to the current knowledge- base on household food security through investigating the roles of the KHCDP in alleviating rural household food insecurity. It emphasizes on assessing the strategies employed towards household food security in terms of securing food availability, access to food, and utilization of food.

## **2.5 FOOD SECURITY IN ETHIOPIA: THE PROBLEM AND RESPONSE**

### **2.5.1 The Problem of Food Security**

Ethiopia has been experiencing the problem of extreme food insecurity like other countries in the horn of Africa. According to the ACC Inter Task Force Report (2000), Eastern Africa is one of the most food insecure parts of the world, where 70 million people, out of the 160 million, who live in area, are subjected to extreme food shortages and famine.

The food insecurity problem in Ethiopia can be analyzed from different perspectives. At national level, the crisis of food insecurity is widespread in different parts of the country. For instance, DPPC (2005) has designated 263

districts nationwide as being chronically food insecure, whereby the people in these districts produce insufficient food whether or not there is a good rain. Food production and supply at national level was inadequate to satisfy the food requirements of the population, which left millions to depend on external food aid regardless of the available plans and strategies (EFSS, 2001). Available information also shows that the number of needy population has increased from 2.7 million, in 1996, to 7.7 million in 2000 (Masefield, in Stephen, 2000).

Farmers in drought prone areas, female-headed households, the landless and low income households are being adversely affected by extreme food insecurity as pointed out in the Food Security Strategy Draft Copy of 1996. According to estimates, about 60% (FSP, 1998) of households experience food insecurity of which the majority live in rural areas. But the question is why food insecurity persists in the country? Stephen (2000) mentioned major causes of food insecurity in Ethiopia such as small land holdings, population increase and related degradation of natural resources, low soil fertility, recurrent droughts, and limited off-farm employment. In addition, there are a number of potential factors that determine household food security. Some of these are discussed as follows:

- a) *Adoption of improved technology.* One of the determinants of household food security is adoption of technology by farmers. Shiferaw et al (2003) indicated that adopters of improved seed with improved agronomic practices are more likely to be food secure than non adopters. Likewise, Haile et al (2005) found that the likelihood of food security increases with farmers use of fertilizers. Therefore, technology adoption or access to farm inputs as well as farmers exposure to improved agronomic practices such as the use of moisture conserving techniques could serve as indicators for the effectiveness of food security interventions.
- b) *Land quality and size.* The second most important factor is land quality and size. Shiferaw et al (2003) shows that Households who have fertile land are more likely to be food secure than those with relatively less fertile



land (Shiferaw et al, 2003). In addition, studies reported that the probability of food security increases with farm size (Haile et al, 2005; Shiferaw et al, 2003). So the level practice on soil fertility by farmers also suggests the effectiveness of food security intervention.

- c) *Education level of household head.* Haile et al (2005) found that households with relatively better educated household heads are more likely to be food secure than those headed by uneducated households. Awareness and exposure to extension services by farmers, hence, signify the effectiveness of food security programs.

## **2.5.2 Government Policy on Food Security**

The government of Ethiopia has adopted a development policy and supporting strategy to ensure that the country can improve its household food security situations. Examples of these policy and strategy are Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI) and the National Food Security Strategy (FSS).

### **a) The Agricultural Development Led Industrialization**

ADLI is a major development policy of the government of Ethiopia that was adopted in 1995. With respect to food security, ADLI is linked to the first objective of MDGs, which is reducing the proportion of people who suffer from hunger (UNESCO, 2007; MOFED, 2002). The ADLI policy mainly focuses on ensuring food security at national level (MOFED, 2002).

According to the policy, the government should focus on enhancing agricultural research and extension, increasing the application of farm inputs, and expanding irrigation facilities. The government must also encourage the formation of service cooperatives, construct rural roads and promote markets. Furthermore, the government in cooperation with private sectors should continue to expand credit facilities to small farms. On the other hand, like other policies the ADLI policy has some weaknesses. Befekadu and Berhanu (cited in Dagneu et al, 2002)

argue that ADLI concentrates on improving land rather than labor productivity. Similarly, Dagneu et al (2002) also indicated that ADLI concentrates on small farmers.

In principle, there is a growing consensus that agriculture can play a significant role in food security in less developed countries like Ethiopia. Empirical studies conducted by international institutions revealed that agriculture, particularly small scale farms, has the potential to reduce the level of poverty and food insecurity (IFPRI, 2004; FAO, 2001; and Xinshen et al, 2006). The World Food Summit (2008) also declared that investment in agriculture must be promoted in order to address the current food crisis.

#### **b) The National Food Security Strategy**

It was first developed in 1996 and updated in 2002 and gives major emphasis on achieving household food security (MOFED, 2002). The strategy has the following three main key elements (FSS, 2002):

- I. increasing the availability of food through domestic production;
- II. ensuring access to food for food deficit households; and
- III. Strengthening capacity to manage food crisis.

Regarding increasing food availability, the strategy focuses on increasing agricultural (both crop and animal) production through diffusion of improved technologies. These include the following: promoting irrigation scheme development, particularly household based water harvesting and management; promoting application of appropriate agricultural inputs; and improving livestock production and marketing systems.

In ensuring access to food, the strategy also gives emphasis on reducing vulnerability in drought-prone areas of the country. Food-insecure farming

households and non-farming community are the main targets. The specific measures, as outlined in the revised strategy, include the following: promoting micro and small scale enterprises; improving the food marketing system; promoting employment and income generating schemes; targeted safety-net programmes; improving credit services for food insecure rural and urban households; and improving health and nutrition in rural areas.

Strengthening emergency capabilities is another aspect of the strategy that emphasizes on elements, namely: Building early warning system; developing capacity of food and relief management; promoting monitoring and surveillance; and enhancing the capacity of government officers at different levels to respond effectively to the development needs of the community and to sufficiently involve the private sector in emergency management strategies.

### **2.5.3 The KHCDP and Household Food Security**

The development work of the Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church is geared towards full human development in a holistic approach. According to Dalelo (2003), the Development Department of the Ethiopian Kale Heywet Church was established in 1984 to integrate all development activities in systematic ways. Since its establishment, KHCDP has been engaged in relief, rehabilitation and integrated rural development programmes, mainly in the southern part of the country where the church has its stronghold.

The KHCDP development activity has gradually shifted from relief and rehabilitation towards more an integrated food security approach. The aim was to contribute to the improvement of household food security in most vulnerable areas through improving the productivity of small farms and increasing the incomes of poor households.

According to Dagneu et al (2007), the KHCDP has contributed to food security

through promoting integrated rural development initiatives. The church also updated its organizational structure in order to accommodate the food security program under KHCDP. Furthermore, the issue of food security was integrated in to the strategic plan which was prepared following extensive discussion with the community (Kale Heywet Church, 2007). The KHCDP household food security strategies are directed at alleviating the root causes of food insecurity, for example: poor soil fertility; low level of income; recurrent drought; and poor agricultural production (Dagneu et al., 2007).

The strategies seek to attain the three dimensions of food security such as food availability, access to food, and utilization (Dalelo, 2003; Dagneu et al, 2007; and Food Security Committee, 2002). The KHCDP contributed towards food availability by enhancing soil conservation practices, introducing and demonstrating farm inputs and technologies, training and follow-up, and encouraging improved water resource utilizations. Access to food at household level was also dealt with through promoting cash crops, building feeder roads, and creating seasonal employment opportunities. Food utilization at household level was also tackled by educating beneficiaries on home economics and sanitation as well as promoting fuel efficient stoves and vegetable and fruit gardening.

In the course of implementing household food security interventions, the KHCDP has faced various challenges (Dagneu et al, 2007; and Food Security Committee 2002): the first is to increase its scale of operation for the benefit of rural poor households; the second is to ensure full participation of the community in household food security initiatives; the third is to improve its institutional capacity such as human resource power, office facilities and finance; and finally, improve inefficient extension services related to household food security.

## **2.6 CONCLUSION**

This chapter first opened with a discussion on the meaning of food security. It also examined the roles of developmental NGOs in relation to food security. The last part of the chapter explored the current situation in Ethiopia, policy responses, and the roles of the KHCDP on household food security. The next chapter presents the methodology used in the study by describing the research design, data collection and data analysis methods.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The study approach adopted both quantitative and qualitative methods in order to meet the study objectives. Accordingly, this chapter first provides an explanation on the research design. It then describes how the study is undertaken and the challenges encountered during the process of the study. More specifically, data collection techniques, as well as data analysis, are explained in the chapter.

#### **3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

As indicated under section 1.2, this research took place in Kucha District, South Ethiopia. The Kucha District was purposively selected due to perennial famine and food shortage problems. According to the research conducted by Strengthening Emergency Response Abilities (SERA) in 2000, 90% of the population in the district obtains less than the recommended daily calorie intake (2,100 Kilocalorie). The report further indicated that 97.5% of the households had reported the incidence of chronic food insecurity caused by the shortage of rain, lack of oxen, pests, shortage of land, and loss of livestock because of disease.

The KHCDP has been implementing developmental activities since 1996 so as to improve the food security situation in Kucha District. The researcher worked as a development worker in Kucha District and thus is familiar with both the culture and local language of the area.

This study is primarily exploratory and it is focused on a selected Case Study where the necessary data were collected from households, local government, and the implementing agency. This enabled the researcher to interpret the findings and provide recommendations for policy makers within the KHCDP and the implementing organizations interested in food security from the government, civil society and the private sector.

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (2000), the purpose of an exploratory research is to gain a broader understanding of a situation, phenomenon, community or person. Hence, the rationale behind using the explanatory research was to get an in-depth understanding of the perceptions of people in Kucha District regarding household food security interventions of the KHCDP.

### **3.3 POPULATION AND SAMPLING**

There is an estimated to 1,000 households who live in two the Peasant Associations that have been the beneficiaries of the KHCDP intervention and form the study area. Both Systematic and Purposive sampling methods were employed to identify sample study groups.

Systematic sampling was used to select the targeted 120 beneficiary household from the Kucha District in cooperation with the KHCDP staff. The researcher, in collaboration with KHCDP staff, purposively selected two Peasant Associations out of 10 Peasant Associations that are part of the KHCDP intervention areas.

The two Peasant Associations (PAs) selected were Baso and Kutto. Mixed farming is the main agricultural activity for the majority of households who live in these PAs. In other words, farmers practice cropping and animal rearing as the major source of income and livelihood. The PAs are mountainous and highly

eroded. According to the report by SERA (2000), road infrastructure has not developed well and it is one of the bottlenecks in the development of rural communities. The report further indicated that many of the PAs are inaccessible in any form of modern transport.

Concerning selection of beneficiaries, the project staff, the district agricultural office, and each Peasant Association leaders assisted in providing a list of beneficiaries and thus a systematic sample was drawn. The names of the households in the sample framework that appear at interval of nine were selected for study. Table 3.1 shows the total households and sample size in Baso and Kutto Peasant Associations (PAs).

Table 3.1: Sampling Framework and Sample Size

| No | Sample peasant associations | Total households in peasant associations | Sample size | Sample size as % of total households |
|----|-----------------------------|--|-------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1  | Basso                       | 546                                      | 61          | 11                                   |
| 2  | Kutto                       | 474                                      | 53          | 11                                   |

A purposive sampling technique was employed to identify a total of 45 people for focus group study. Accordingly, six Focus Groups (each with 5, 7, or 9 participants) were selected. The selection was made in cooperation with project staff and development agents of the district agricultural office. Details regarding the focus groups are presented in Table 3.2. The list of participants is attached as Annexure D.



Table 3.2 Number and Representation of Focus Groups

| Code           | Representation                   | Number of participants |
|----------------|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| Focus Group ለq | KHCDP representatives            | 7                      |
| Focus Group ቧq | Local Government representatives | 5                      |
| Focus Group ርq | Baso community representatives   | 7                      |
| Focus Group ሰq | Selamber women representatives   | 5                      |
| Focus Group ሱq | Wuzate community representatives | 9                      |
| Focus Group ሰq | Kutto community representatives  | 5                      |
|                | Total                            | 38                     |

### 3.4 DATA COLLECTION

Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected from secondary and primary sources. Secondary data were collected from relevant documents that include: policy papers; research findings; articles and journals; books; reports; and the world wide website. Among some of the key policy papers, the Food Security Strategy of the 2002; Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper of 2002; and Agricultural Development Led Industrialization policy of 1995 were included to review government responses to food security. Additionally, project evaluation reports of the KHCDP food security projects were incorporated to review the experience of the church in South Ethiopia.

A field survey was also undertaken from January 11 to 26, 2008 in order to obtain primary data on the effectiveness of KHCDP strategies towards alleviating food insecurity in the Kucha District. The field survey was carried out using different techniques and field instruments, such as the household questionnaire, questions for focus group discussion, and questions for individual interviews. The

questionnaire developed by the researcher was revised following the pilot study. The questionnaire was translated into Amharic by qualified translators and then pilot tested.

The field instruments and the data collection procedures were pilot tested in the field to assess their validity. Twelve households (10% of the sample size), one focus group, and one individual were interviewed for pilot testing. The feedback obtained from these pre-tests helped to adjust the instruments where required.

Concerning the role of interviewer, Nueman (2006) states that an interviewer must be neutral and the interviewer asks questions and mold the communication pattern in to a standard framework. Accordingly, data collectors, who had the ability to speak the local language, were identified with the assistance of KHCDP staff in Kucha District. Three data collectors with experience in data collection were selected and trained. The training was organized for a day to brief the data collectors on the objectives and methods of the study, as well as on how to fill in the household questionnaire. The data collectors were employed on daily basis for two weeks of the study period and close supervision was provided by the researcher. Prior to the field work, sampled Peasant Associations were visited and all arrangements were made in discussion with local leaders and project staff.

#### **3.4.1 Questionnaire**

According to Sarantakos (2005), a questionnaire has both advantages and limitations. Regarding the advantages, a questionnaire is stable, consistent, and gives a uniform measure, is free of variation, and allows a wide coverage. On the other hand, the weaknesses include partial responses and limited opportunity to collect additional information. Apart from these, concerning the contents of the

questionnaire, Nueman (2006) suggests the use of close-ended questions and same standard questions for all respondents.

Taking the limitations into consideration, the researcher implemented good coordination and supervision to minimize the risk of partial responses. The researcher also used triangulation methods, in terms of field instruments and diversity of respondents, to gather supplementary information. Nueman (2006) describes triangulation of method as a means of mixing qualitative and quantitative styles of research and data. Hence, the researcher used both open-ended interviews and a questionnaire to gather data for quantitative and qualitative analysis.

The household questionnaire was developed and applied to collect both quantitative and qualitative data about the strategies of KHCDP towards achieving household food security in the Kucha District. Information was collected on particulars of the heads of households, farm-input supplies, marketing, soil conservation, water resource utilization, training and extension back-up, and participation and sustainability. The head of the household, i.e., person who is responsible for the family welfare, in most cases the father or mother, was interviewed. At the time of conducting the study, there was no child-headed household.

The questionnaire was developed by the researcher and was translated into the local language (viz., Amharic) by qualified translators and then pilot tested. As the level of literacy is low in the area, the researcher and interviewers used face-to-face interview based on their list on the sampling interval. In cases where the respondents were not available at time of visit to homestead, the interviewers returned in the following days.

### **3.4.2 Focus Group Discussions**

Nueman (2006) explains focus group as one of qualitative research instruments that involves informal interview of people in a small-group discussion. Focus group discussion has various advantages and disadvantages. The main advantages include the following (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; and Nueman, 2006): Increase interaction on a topic in a limited period of time; allow people to express opinions freely; encourage open expression among marginalized social groups; and facilitate the interpretation of quantitative survey result. The disadvantages consist of a moderator who lacks adequate knowledge on facilitation skills; hinders open and free group discussion; and only a few topics can be covered in focus group session. In addition, sometimes the interaction or participation of members in group discussion can be hampered by dominance of certain individuals. Marshall and Rossman (2006) also comment on power dynamics with in the group. In a similar way, Babbie and Mouton (2001) point out the need to balance the size of groups and the number of groups. Regarding the above issues, the researcher encouraged involvement of all group members in sharing their views and experiences. Additionally, one women group was given the chance to discuss the fears and expectations of project achievements.

Focus Group discussions were conducted at community level to gather qualitative data on the overall perception of stakeholders on the strategies, participation, sustainability and immediate impacts of the project. Six Focus Groups (each with 5, 7, or 9 participants) were selected. The selection was made in cooperation with project staff and development agents of the district agricultural office (please see the list of participants attached annexure).

### 3.4.3 Interview of key informants

A face to face interaction provides the opportunity for correcting confusion among respondents. On the other hand, an interview is less suitable than other methods when sensitive issues are discussed (Sarantakos, 2005). The present researcher solved some difficulties in the field, with regard to sensitive issues, by allowing the individuals to write rather than talk as most of the key informants are literate (please see annexure D for education status of key informants).

Individual interview was applied to collect supplementary information on the experience of the KHCDP in alleviating household food security. Accordingly, key informants were selected purposively from the central, regional, zonal, and district offices of the KHCDP. A total of 10 officers were targeted for interview as shown in Table 3.3. In addition, the list of individuals was attached under annexure.

Table 3.3: Number and Representation of Key Informants

| Representation         | Number of key informants targeted at each level |
|------------------------|---|
| Head office            | 4   |
| Awassa Regional office | 2   |
| South West Zone office | 2   |
| Kucha District         | 2   |
| Total                  | 10  |

### 3.5 DATA ANALYSIS

To facilitate careful documentation of the data, the researcher took discussion notes, collected photographs, and used a tape recorder for Focus Group discussions. Researchers must encourage respondents to freely express their views because one of the weaknesses of electronic recording is that it affects the readiness of some participants to speak (Sarantokos, 2005). In order to solve this problem, the researcher used tape recording during the field research depending on the willingness of the people.

All this was supported with field notes that were recorded throughout the fieldwork stage. The completed questionnaire was edited for quality and completeness every day by the researcher. The raw data were coded and processed using Microsoft-excel and presented in the form of written textual quotes, diagrams, graphs and tables. Because lack of coding may create difficulty in data analysis, Nueman (2006) suggest that researchers should think about coding before collecting data. Hence, the researcher used pre-coding of the questionnaire before collecting data. In addition, each focus group was identified by a separate code.

Table 3.4: Scope of Coverage of Field Data Collection Instruments

| No | Field Instruments       | Sample Size    | Coverage |      |
|----|-------------------------|----------------|----------|------|
|    |                         |                | No       | %    |
| 1  | Household questionnaire | 114 households | 109      | 95.6 |
| 2  | Focus group discussion  | 6 groups       | 6        | 100  |
| 3  | Individual interview    | 10 individuals | 8        | 80   |

### **3.6 CHALLENGES**

Some difficulties were faced by the researcher and interviewers during field data collection process. The main challenge was inaccessibility of the Peasant Associations in terms of transport. Moreover, dry weather conditions and high temperatures during field survey made the interview process difficult.

### **3.7 CONCLUSION**

This chapter described the methodology of the study by emphasizing on the research design, population and sampling, data collection and data analysis. It also identified the major sources of data and field instruments used to collect primary data. The last section of the chapter briefly pointed out challenges encountered during field work. The next chapter presents and discusses the key findings of the study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **PRESENTATION OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

As indicated in Chapter one, this research was conducted in the Kucha District, South Ethiopia. This District is one of the most food insecure districts, where 90% of the population obtains less than the recommended daily calorie (SERA, 2000). The KHCDP have been implementing Integrated Rural Development Project in 11 Peasant Associations (PAs) in the district, of which the two PAs such as Baso and Kutto are the focus of this study.

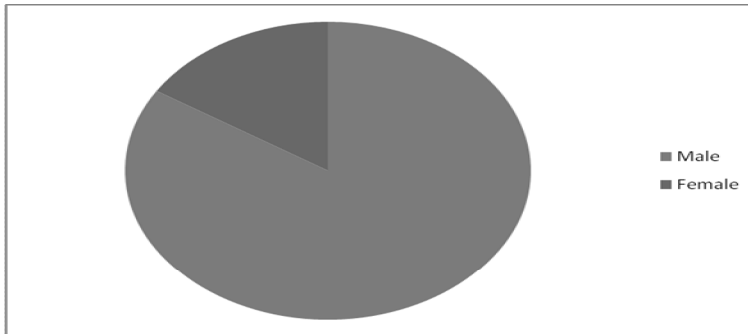
This chapter aims to present and discuss findings from the study by focusing on the implementation of the KHCDP strategies towards household food security. The first chapter provides demographic and economic profiles of household heads. It then presents and discusses the effectiveness of the strategies based on primary data from the field.

#### **4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC AND ECONOMIC PROFILES OF HOUSEHOLD HEADS**

The study indicated that the majority of sampled household heads in the study PAs was male. Figure 4.1 shows 84% of the household heads was male whereas female-headed households account for 16%. Female-headed households for Kutto and Baso PAs are only 4% and 12%, respectively.



Figure 4.1 Proportions of Household Heads by Sex



The finding also shows that most of the household heads were married and a large proportion were in the productive age category. Regarding marital status of household heads, Table 4.1 shows that 87% of the sampled household heads was married. The table further indicates that 72% of the sampled household heads was with-in the age limit of 25-54 years.

Results of the study depict that a large proportion of sampled households have relatively high numbers of dependents. Table 4.1 shows that the majority of the total sampled households (55%) have 6-10 dependents. The study also indicate that most of the households, who have high numbers of dependents, live in Baso PA (31%) and the figure for Kutto PA is 24%. In addition, a few households (8%) reported that they have more than ten dependents (see Table 4.1).

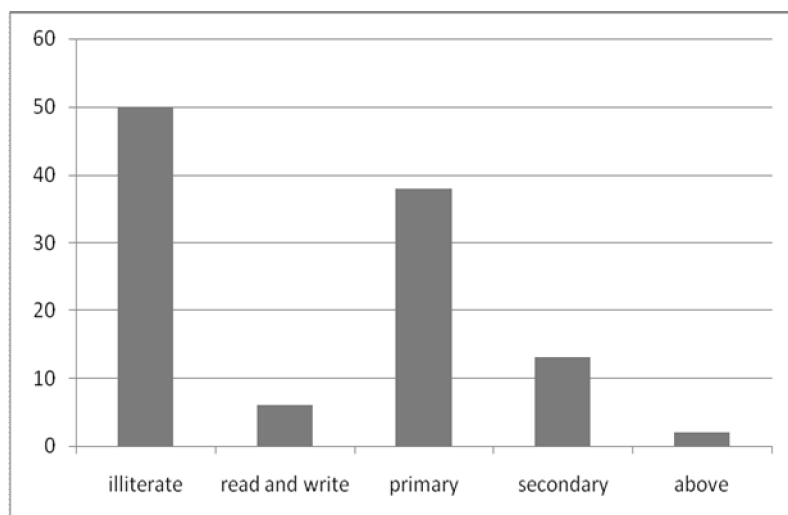
Regarding size of plot, most of the sampled households reported that they own small size of land. Table 4.1 shows that a large proportion of the total sampled households (72%) reported land holdings below one hectare. The majority of Households, who own small size of land, live in Baso PA (39%) and the figure for Kutto PA is 33%. The table also indicated that only a few households (4%) own plot sizes more than two hectares (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1 Socio-economic Characteristics of Sample Households

| Profiles   | Number | Percentage |
|--|--------|------------|
| Household heads married                              | 95     | 87.15      |
| Household heads with-in the age limit of 25-54 years | 78     | 71.55      |
| Households with 6-10 dependents                      | 60     | 55.04      |
| Households with >10 dependents                       | 9      | 8.25       |
| Households own <1 hectare                            | 79     | 72.47      |
| Households own >2 hectare                            | 4      | 3.66       |

Concerning literacy status, the vast majority of sampled households were illiterate. However, a significant proportion attended primary school. Figure 4.2 shows that 46% of the sampled household heads was illiterate. The graph further indicated that almost 35% of sampled household heads attended primary school.

Figure 4.2 Educational Levels Achieved by Household Heads

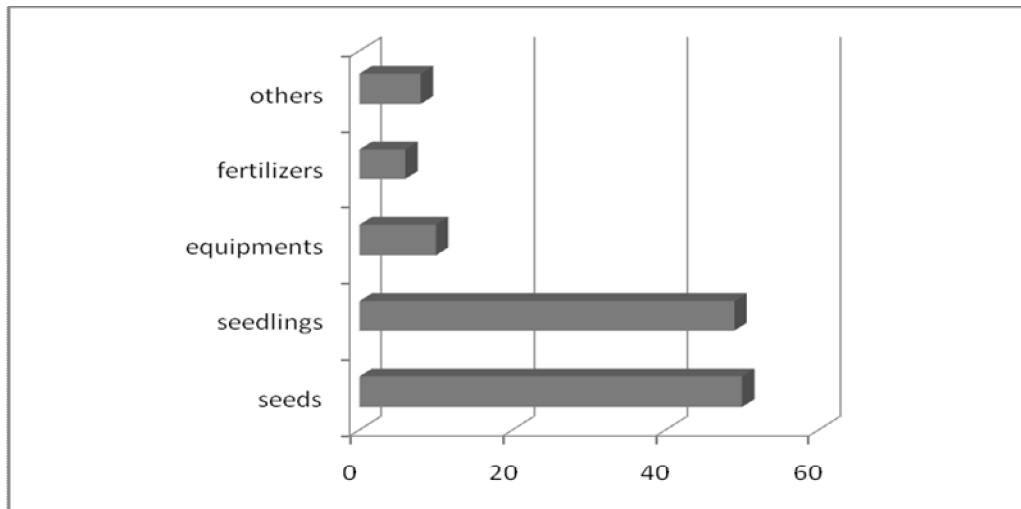


### **4.3 PROVISION OF FARM INPUTS AND TECHNOLOGIES**

The results indicated that the KHCDP has introduced and distributed some farm inputs and technologies. The majority of the total sampled households (65%) reported that they were able to receive some kinds of improved agricultural inputs. Most of the households, who received improved agricultural inputs, were from Baso PA (36%) and the figure for Kuto is 29%. Focus Groups ~~£~~ and ~~£~~ reported that besides the KHCDP, some farmers and local government are involved in supplying improved agricultural inputs in the study PAs.

Seeds and seedlings were the dominant types of improved farm inputs adopted by farmers. Less widely adopted farm inputs include equipments, chemical sprays (e.g. pesticides), and fertilizers. Figure 4.3 shows that, of those inputs and technologies adopted by households reported, 50% receiving new seed, 49% received seedlings, 10% received farm equipments, and only 6% used fertilizers. Additionally, a considerable proportion (8%) reported adoption of beehives and local variety of goats.

Figure 4.3 Proportion of the Sample Households by Types of Farm Inputs Adopted



However, the findings also reveal that a large proportion of households (41%) reported great dissatisfaction regarding access to improved farm inputs whereas a considerable proportion (28%) indicated that they were somewhat satisfied. The major reasons behind dissatisfaction with access to farm inputs were inadequate supply (25%), unaffordable (17%), and delayed supply (15%).

The opinion of Focus Group members on access to farm inputs and technologies was also assessed. All six Focus Group members witnessed that the KHCDP has distributed various improved crop seeds, improved varieties of seedlings, and other farm inputs, such as beehives and goats, in the form of credit to increase food availability and cash earning at household level. However, they indicated that the distribution was limited and inadequate in relation to addressing the demand by poor households.

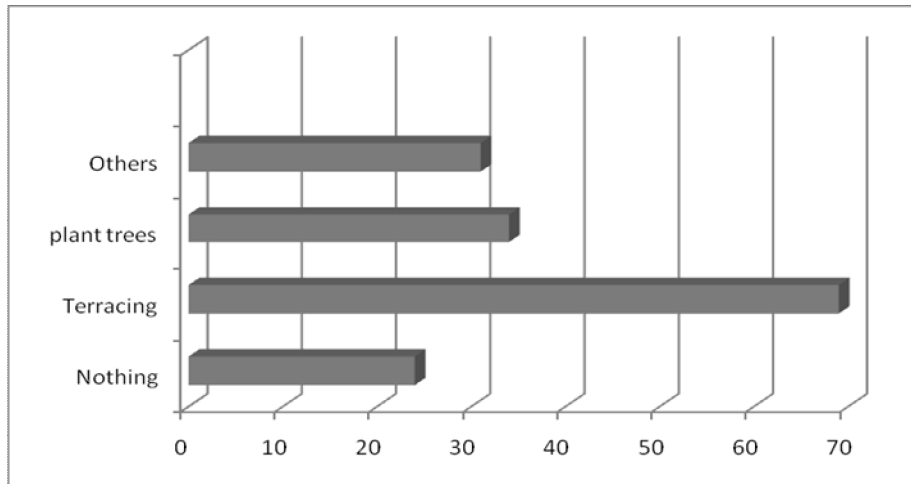
The KHCDP has given priority to selected farmers to introduce and demonstrate various farm technologies. Focus Group ~~A~~ revealed that this has limited the number of beneficiary poor households in the food security program.

The quantity of improved crop seed distributed to model farmers was too small to increase food availability at household level. The Focus Group **Ⓒ** reported that the amount of seed distributed was 12 kilogram per person. Regarding distribution of chemical fertilizer, the KHCDP was not actively involved. According to Focus Group **Ⓐ** the major reason was lack of interest by households due to high market prices and the low level of understanding with regard to the use of fertilizers. The Focus Group **Ⓑ** also emphasized the low level of production at household level as being caused by the lack of access to fertilizers. On the other hand, there was inadequate distribution of inputs related to income generation at household level. According to Focus Groups **Ⓒ** and **Ⓔ** the provision of either one improved bee hive or goat to selected households was not sufficient to promote cash generation by households.

#### **4.4 SOIL CONSERVATION MEASURES**

The finding shows that the KHCDP has promoted soil conservation measures at household level. Most households exercise terracing such as soil, stone bands, and check dams. Figure 4.4 indicates that, generally, 69% of the sampled households practice terracing while 34% plant trees. Furthermore, 31% practice various cultural methods including mulching. According to the study, the proportion of households who have adopted terracing is 73% for Kuto and 63% for Baso.

Figure 4.4 Proportion of Households Who Practice Soil Conservation Measures



Households were also asked their perception on the fertility of the household's farm land. Accordingly, 61% of sampled households reported that their land is moderately fertile whereas 31% regards it as being not fertile. Moreover, only 7% perceived their land as being fertile. In this study, an attempt was also made to find out about household involvement in temporary employment opportunities related to soil conservation practices on communal land.

Data was collected on household participation in public activities and the form of payments. The Table 4.3 indicates that 95% of households were involved in terracing, 88% in tree planting, and 88% in road construction. Only 30% was involved in feeder road construction. Concerning the form of payments, the survey reveals that food-for-work (FFW) was the dominant method of payment in all public activities. For instance, of the households who were involved in the construction of terraces, the majority (68%) was paid in the form of FFW. On the other hand, a considerable proportion of households involved in tree planting (40%) and road construction (42%) reported that they involved on a volunteer basis (no payment received). Furthermore, only a few households received cash

payments.

Table 4.2 Proportion of Households Involved in Public Activities and Payments

| Activities           | Participation |    | Payment Methods |      |              |
|----------------------|---------------|----|-----------------|------|--------------|
|                      | Yes           | No | FFW             | Cash | Volunteering |
| 1. Terracing         | 95            | 14 | 68              | 5    | 22           |
| 2. Tree planting     | 88            | 21 | 44              | 4    | 40           |
| 3. Road Construction | 88            | 21 | 43              | 3    | 42           |
| 4. Pond construction | 30            | 79 | 20              | 3    | 7            |

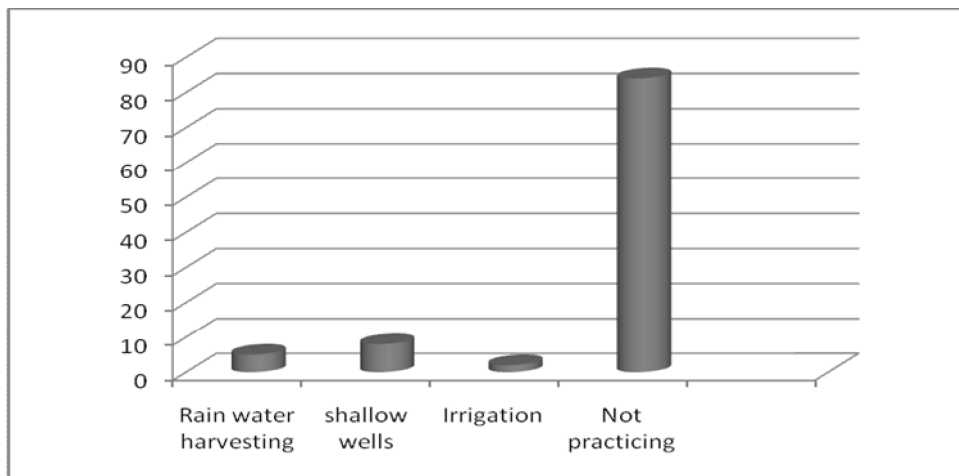
The finding also depicts that lack of equipment and lack of skills are the critical problems associated with soil conservation practices at household level. 49% of the sampled households indicated shortage of equipment, whereas 41% indicated inadequate skills to practice conservation measures. Focus Group members were also asked about their perceptions regarding soil conservation measures. All Focus Groups except Focus Group D reported that the KHCDP contributed a lot by extending improved soil conservation practices to household level. They indicated households developed a culture of conserving their own land through constructing check dams and bands.

On the other hand, some Focus Groups agree that the practice of soil conservation has been declining at household level. The Focus Groups C and A reported that lack of commitment and dependency mentality as major reasons for the decline. In similar way, all the Focus Groups except D indicated their concern regarding deterioration of physical bands on communal land. According to these Focus Groups, lack of intensive follow up and low level of public interest on maintaining previously constructed bands and check dams were major reasons.

## 4.5 WATER RESOURCE UTILIZATION METHODS

The finding reveals that the KHCDP has played insignificant role in promoting improved water resource utilization for increasing food availability at household level. Figure 4.5 shows that majority of sampled households (84%) were not practicing improved water utilization methods. However, only a few (16%) of households use shallow wells, rain-water harvesting, and irrigation to produce crops. In answer to questions regarding the type of crops produced by households through improved water-utilization techniques, the results revealed that root crops, vegetables, and fruits are the dominant crops.

Figure 4.5 Proportions of Households by Practices of Water Resource Utilizations



The opinion of households on problems related to water-resource utilization was assessed. Accordingly, the study shows that shortage of water (64%) and lack of skills (36%) are the major constraints experienced by households. In addition, focus group members were also asked about their perception on improved water utilization methods. Focus Groups Cq, Eq and Fq reported that irrigation and other water resource utilization techniques were not extended to households.

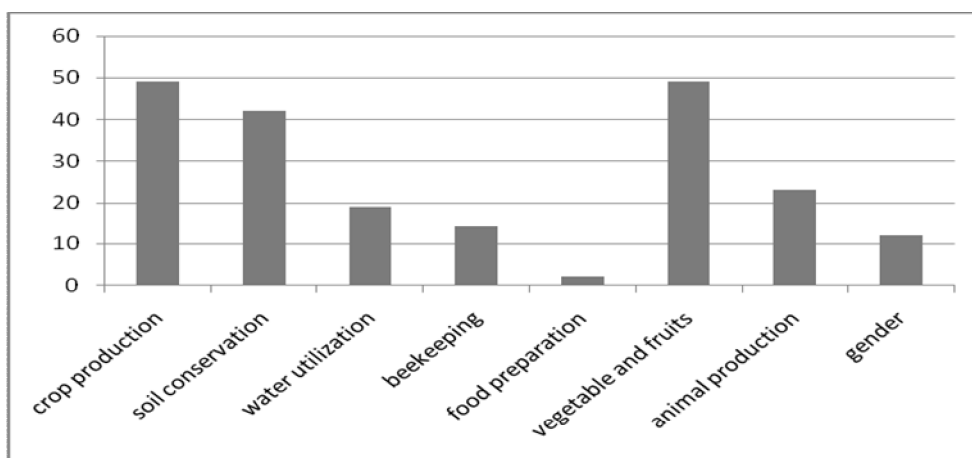


The KHCDP planned a small-scale surface irrigation scheme by diverting water from the Demme River, which is one of the biggest rivers in Kucha District. The irrigation scheme was supposed to benefit 106 households, whose farm lands are located close to the main canal of about 5km long. The KHCDP also has built a roof-water harvesting structure at a household level to demonstrate improved water resource utilization methods. However, the Focus Groups of ~~A~~ and ~~B~~ reported that the irrigation scheme has failed to improve food availability at household level. The major reasons include the following: lack of coordination between the Departments of Agriculture and the KHCDP; poor performance of water committee; and poor extension services including back up support.

#### **4.6 TRAINING AND EXTENSION SERVICES**

The results indicate that the KHCDP has contributed towards increasing awareness of households regarding food production and food utilization methods. A considerable proportion of households (39%) reported that they were exposed to awareness campaigns on various training topics such as vegetable and fruit production, improved crop production, soil conservation, family planning, home care, food processing, bee-keeping, and goat management. Most of the households who live in Baso PA (27%) attended these trainings and the figure for Kutto is 12%. Figure 4.6 shows that most households were trained on three topics: crop production, soil conservation, vegetable and fruit production.

Figure 4.6 Proportions of Trained Households by Training Topics



Concerning application of training, majority of the sampled households reported that they didn't apply lessons. According to the study, only 31% of the trained households have applied lessons they have learned to improve household food security status. On the other hand, the finding also revealed that the majority of sampled households were exposed to experience sharing visits. Table 4.4 shows that 42% of the households were involved in farmers to farmers visits. It also indicates that 42% of the households were participated in visiting demonstration centers.

Table 4.3 Proportion of Households Involved in Extension Activities

| Type of Extension Services | Households |      |
|----------------------------|------------|------|
|                            | No         | %    |
| Farmers to Farmers         | 46         | 42.2 |
| Research Institutions      | 2          | 1.8  |
| Small meetings             | 9          | 8.3  |
| Demonstration              | 46         | 42.2 |

Regarding follow up visits by extension workers of KHCDP, the majority of sampled households reported that it was unsatisfactory. According to the study, 68% of the households were not visited by the project extension workers.

However, only 18% reported that they received monthly visits. In addition, the opinion of focus group members was assessed regarding problems related to training and extension services. Thus the majority of the focus groups reported that the main constraints were poor selection of trainees, weak follow up of training events, low level of participation, short duration, and lack of refresher courses. In addition, Focus Group ~~1~~<sup>2</sup> commented on the establishment of small groups, team work, and discussions at beneficiary level.

## **4.7 OPINIONS ON PARTICIPATION, SUSTAINABILITY AND IMPACTS**

### **4.7.1 Participation**

The majority of poor households were not involved in food security interventions. However, in some activities such as credit in-kind and soil conservation poor households were included. The beneficiaries selected for demonstrations of improved crops and trainings were model farmers. According to Focus Groups ~~1~~<sup>2</sup> and ~~3~~<sup>4</sup> priority was not given to poor households.

In the community based activities, particularly soil conservation on communal land, public sense of ownership in the project was increased. The Focus Groups ~~1~~<sup>2</sup> and ~~3~~<sup>4</sup> indicated that community has experienced behavioral changes in the management of communal lands through area closure system. Other respondents from key informants argue that lack of genuine community participation in food security interventions has undermined the sense of ownership.

In addition, community was participated particularly in providing feedbacks to visitors and external evaluators. The Focus Groups ~~5~~<sup>6</sup>, ~~7~~<sup>8</sup> and ~~9~~<sup>10</sup> indicated that there was low level of participation in identifying needs and opportunities for

improvement as well as monitoring and evaluating project activities. Furthermore, the Focus Group A reported on the need for community participation in project planning and monitoring. They remarked that community lacks of a genuine interest to participate in project activities without incentive.

#### **4.7.2 Sustainability**

The KHCDP responded to sustainability of household food security mainly through building capacity of its beneficiaries. The Focus Groups A indicated that attitudinal changes have been experienced through educating households in improved agronomic practices. As a result, the cultures of producing and utilizing fruits as well as the soil conservation practices have been developed. Furthermore, income generation option, particularly in-kind credit of goats, has been well established.

On the other hand, poor response to the needs of households regarding water resource utilization posed risks on sustainable food availability at household level. According to Focus Groups C and E promotion of improved water resource utilization methods should be addressed by the KHCDP in order to ensure sustainable agricultural productions.

The Focus Groups also identified various factors that can limit sustainability of the KHCDP food security interventions. According to Focus Groups of A and E major constraints include droughts, poor supply of agricultural equipment and seeds, which could limit an effort of sustaining household food availability. In addition, poor technical advice and top-down approaches are important challenges related to sustainability as pointed out by the Focus Group A. The Focus Group B also reported on poor collaboration between the Kucha project

of the KHCDP and development workers at Peasant Association level with regard to planning. This implies that there is a need to participate PA level development agents in designing projects, selecting beneficiaries, implementation, and evaluations of the food security programs.

Respondents from among the key informants stated that the sustainability of food security intervention is questionable when it comes to long term benefits. The constraints identified are, namely; low level of participation, dependency on foreign aid, lack of clear approaches on household food security, and poor extension activities.

#### **4.7.3 Impacts**

Assessment of the community perception regarding immediate impacts of the KHCDP food security intervention was carried out. The intended objectives were to increase agricultural production and improve incomes of household. There are a number of activities that key informants reported the KHCDP has introduced towards attaining household food security. Respondents mentioned that agriculture, water resources, soil conservation, income diversification, training, fruit production, and cattle improvements were major interventions. According to key informants, the KHCDP has contributed to promote agricultural productivity and incomes of beneficiary households through introduction and demonstration of improved agricultural practices.

The results of discussions with Focus Groups show that food production and incomes of a few model farmers have been improved. Focus groups have reported that farmers have been able to diversify their crop production, for example fruits, vegetables, maize, and sorghum. The KHCDP food security

interventions also have contributed for improved diet at household level through fruits and vegetable production. According to Focus Groups 1Aq 1Dq and 1Eq the beneficiaries increased production for own consumption and markets.

With regard to asset building, female-headed households were able to generate income and own assets, such as cattle, plot of land, and houses. According to Focus Group 1Dq credit in-kind helped them to own assets and send their children to school.

Key informants stated that various training activities provided by the KHCDP have increased the understanding of beneficiary households with regard to using available resources and opportunities. Other respondents from key informants reported that households were not able to benefit from water resource utilization techniques such as small-scale surface irrigation scheme and roof-water harvesting. The main reason is the low level of awareness.

#### **4.8 CONCLUSION**

This chapter presented key findings of the study by focusing on the effectiveness of the KHCDP strategies towards household food security. The chapter started off by providing demographic and economic characteristics of sampled households, followed by presentation and discussion of the strategies. The study has pointed out some of the key limitations in the strategies of the KHCDP. As partner of government in the development process, the KHCDP has been playing an important role in improving food security at household level. However, most of the poor households are still not benefiting from food security interventions. This study has indicated that the roles of the KHCDP should be more promoted to support the poor households attain food self- sufficiency.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

As specified in the introduction and background, the aim of this research is to assess the role of KHCDP on household food security in Southern Ethiopia. Drawing from the aim of the study, the following specific objectives were addressed:

- To review household food insecurity in Ethiopia and government policy response to address the problem;
- To review the Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP) experience on household food security in southern Ethiopia;
- To investigate the strategies of Kale Heywet Church Development Program (KHCDP) on addressing household food insecurity; and
- To explore the opinions of community on participation, sustainability, and impact.

In this chapter, key issues are reviewed from the study by focusing on the role of the KHCDP on household food security. It starts off first by summing up the main points of the study. Then, the last part of the chapter provides suggestions on the improvements of the activities to increase their effectiveness.

## **5.2 CONCLUSION OF THE FINDING**

In Ethiopia, food insecurity has been recognized as a major development challenge. The current government addresses the situation by implementing policies and strategies that are geared towards promoting household food security. These steps help to strengthen the roles of NGOs for initiating food security projects in rural areas of the country. Accordingly, this section summarizes the key issues related to household food security.

### **5.2.1 HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY AND GOVERNMENT POLICY**

The study indicated that the majority of the households in Ethiopia experiences extreme food insecurity situation. Households with low income, the landless, and those who live in drought prone areas, are the most vulnerable to food insecurity. Household food insecurity has been aggravated by various factors such as continued use of traditional production technologies resulting in low productivity, land quality, farming system, and household size.

In order to address the problem of food insecurity, the government has adopted food security related policies, mainly the Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI) of 1995 and Food Security Strategy (FSS) of 2002. On the other hand, the ADLI policy focuses on achieving national level food security through (a) enhancing research and extension; (b) increasing the application of farm inputs; (c) expanding irrigation facilities; and (d) promoting marketing. On the other hand, the FSS policy concentrates on household food security through increasing food availability, food access, and capacity to manage food crisis.



### **5.2.2 KHCDP AND HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY**

The research also revealed that the KHCDP has been playing a critical role in promoting integrated rural development projects in rural areas of Southern Ethiopia. This mainly concentrates on improving food production and cash incomes at household level. In a broad sense, KHCDP attempted to address the three components of food security, viz., availability, access and utilization. The major strategies include soil conservation, farm inputs and technologies, training and extension services, and water resource utilizations.

From the response in the field, it emerged that the KHCDP, however, needs to increase its scale of operation and ensure full participation of the community in food security. In addition, the KHCDP should improve its institutional capacity and extension approach.

### **5.2.3 EFFECTIVENESS OF THE KHCDP STRATEGIES ON HOUSEHOLD FOOD SECURITY**

The KHCDP have implemented different food security strategies to support small farmers towards increasing their agricultural production and incomes. The main strategies are, namely, introducing improved farm inputs and technologies; soil conservations; improved water resource utilizations; and on-going training and extension services. These strategies have been promoted by the KHCDP through executing integrated rural development projects. The effectiveness of these strategies is summarized under each approach below.

### **5.2.3.1 Farm Inputs and Technologies**

The KHCDP introduced and distributed farm inputs and technologies with a view to increase food production and incomes. The KHCDP also played a significant role in increasing access to farm inputs, such as fruits and seeds. However, the distribution of farm inputs was inadequate in terms of quantities and coverage. There was shortage of supplies to address demand by beneficiaries at large and individual household were provided with insufficient amount of inputs for farming activities. What is more, the poor households were unable to afford the costs for inputs such as quality seeds and fertilizers.

### **5.2.3.2 Soil Conservation Measures**

Soil conservation measures were widely adopted and practiced by households to improve soil fertility so as to increase food production. At household level such measures comprised terracing, tree planting and cultural methods, whereas at community level area closure is an example of conservation methods. On the other hand, there is dissatisfaction due to insufficient back-up support with equipments and technical advice. As a result, the practice of soil conservation is declining at household level.

### **5.2.3.3 Improved Water Resource Utilization**

Improved water resource utilization technique was not promoted properly to address the scarcity of water to produce adequate food at household level. An irrigation scheme was underutilized and roof- water harvesting technology is just at demonstration level. The main reasons were, namely, weak collaboration between government and the KHCDP, inadequate extension support, and poor performance of the water committee.

#### **5.2.3.4 Training and Extension Services**

Training and extension services have increased households awareness of food production and utilization. Their capacity was built on improved agronomic practices, food preparation and sanitations. In addition, exposure to experience-sharing visits and demonstrations on improved technologies benefited households to familiarize themselves with new varieties. However, to improve delivery of training and extension services, KHCDP should consider the following issues: selection of trainees; follow up and technical advice; number of participants; duration of the course; refresher courses; and formation of small self-help groups.

#### **5.2.3.5 PARTICIPATION**

Public activities on communal land have had good participation of community members. There was, however, poor involvement of households in the planning and evaluation of food security interventions. Poor households had limited opportunity in identifying needs, formulating strategies, and sharing the benefits from the interventions.

#### **5.2.3.6 SUSTAINABILITY**

The interventions related to training, fruit production, soil conservation and in-kind credit seem to have short-term sustainability. Overall, the long term sustainability of food security intervention depends on several factors. These include the following: access to inputs; collaboration of partners; extension approach; local resource mobilization; and implementation of comprehensive policies and strategies at the KHCDP level.

### **5.2.3.7 IMPACTS**

The household food security interventions have had some impact on food availability and utilization. Farm land soil fertility has been addressed by the implementation of various conservation measures. Improved variety of seeds and fruit seedlings were adopted by beneficiary households. However, the intervention on water resource utilization seems to have unpromising impact on food production.

### **5.3 SUGGESTIONS ON HOW TO IMPROVE EFFECTIVENESS OF KHCDP PROGRAMS**

To improve the effectiveness of its household food security interventions, KHCDP should consider the following issues:

- 1) Overall, the KHCDP needs to promote household food security by reviewing its strategies on food availability, access, and utilization. Moreover, the church should strengthen administrative and policy implementation, as well as should participate PA level development agents in designing projects, selecting beneficiaries, implementation, and evaluations of the food security programs.
  
- 2) There is a need to increase access to improved farm inputs and technologies through enhancing input distribution in collaboration with government and private institutions. In addition, encouraging beneficiary households to form small self-help group and assisting them to establish networks with farm input suppliers, is an important step to solve the problem. Priority should be given to increasing supply at reasonable price for poor households.

- 3) Soil conservation practices have to be revitalized on private farm land through equipping households with technical know-how and appropriate materials. Soil conservation intervention should give priority to households who will voluntarily (without payments) apply different soil conservation techniques to improve fertility of their lands.
  
- 4) The KHCDP must encourage water resource utilization techniques through enhanced extension support and increased follow-up services. Moreover, strong collaboration with Agricultural and Rural Development Department and private institutions is necessary to address the problem. Priority should be given to interested poor households who are motivated to use water resources for producing food and cash incomes.
  
- 5) The KHCDP needs to improve its delivery of the training activities through considering issues as follow: selection of trainees; follow up and technical advice; number of participants; duration of the course; refresher courses; and formation of small self-help groups.
  
- 6) The KHCDP needs to promote participation of all stakeholders by increasing their roles in decisions regarding planning, monitoring and evaluation of the food security programs. This can be done through establishing project committee and defining clear roles and responsibilities. Priority should be given to female-headed and poor households.

7) The KHCDP must ensure long-term sustainability by implementing appropriate food security policy and reduce dependence on donors. In addition, participatory extension methods, for example, Group Extension Approach (GEA) are paramount in promoting sustainability.

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Code: \_\_\_\_\_

Interview date: \_\_\_\_\_

## ANNEXURE A- QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOUSEHOLD SURVEY

### Particulars of Household Head

1. Gender

1. Male

2. Female

2. Marital Status

1. Single

3. Married

2. Widowed

4. Divorced

3. Age

1. 16 . 24

2. 25 . 34

3. 35 . 44

4. 45- 54

5. 55- 64

6. Above 65

4. Educational Level

1. Illiterate

2. Read and write only

3. Primary school

4. Secondary school

5. Above high school

5. Number of Dependents

1. None

2. 1 . 5

3. 6- 10

4. Above 10

6. Size of Household & Farm Land

1. Less than 1 hectare (4 Timad)

2. 1 . 1.5 (4 . 6 Timad)

3. 1.6 . 2 hectare (7 - 8 Timad)

4. Above 2 hectare (> 8Timad)

**Farm Inputs and Technologies**

7. Has the household received any input for farm activities?

1. Yes

2. No

8. What kind of inputs were they?

1. Seeds

2. Farm equipments

3. Fertilizer

4. Chemical sprays

5. Goat

6. Bee hives

7. Seedlings

8. Others \_\_\_\_\_

9. Are you satisfied with the delivery of farm inputs?

- 1. Very satisfied
- 3. Somewhat satisfied
- 3. Somewhat dissatisfied
- 4. Very dissatisfied

10. If not satisfied, what are the reasons?

- 1. Delay in supply of inputs
- 2. Inadequate input supply
- 3. Lack of knowledge
- 4. Inputs are not affordable
- 5. Adaptation problems
- 6. Others \_\_\_\_\_

### **Soil conservation Measures**

11. What does the household do to improve soil fertility?

- 1. Nothing
- 2. Terracing
- 3. Planting trees
- 4. Others \_\_\_\_\_

12. How is the fertility of the household's farm land?

- 1. Fertile
- 2. Moderately fertile
- 3. Non fertile

13. Has the household ever participated in any of the following practices?

| Practices                       | 13.1 Participation<br>1. yes<br>2. no | 13.2 Payment<br>1. food-for-work<br>2. money-for-work<br>3. free |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1.Terracing on communal land    |                                       |  |
| 2.Planting on communal land     |                                       |  |
| 3.Feeder road construction      |                                       |  |
| 4.Pond construction             |                                       |  |
| 5.Private nursery establishment |                                       |  |

14. What problems did you encounter regarding soil conservation practices?

- 1. Lack of equipments
- 2. Lack of skills
- 3. Others \_\_\_\_\_

### Water Resource Utilization Methods

15. Does the household use any of the following improved water utilization techniques?

- 1. Rain water harvesting
- 2. Shallow wells
- 3. Surface Irrigations
- 4. Drip irrigation
- 5. Other \_\_\_\_\_

16. Does the household produce crops by using improved water utilization method?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

17. If yes, please specify the types of crops,

1. \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

3. \_\_\_\_\_

18. What problems did you encounter with regard to water utilization?

1. Inadequate water

2. Shortage of Inputs

3. Risk of malaria

4. Lack of skills

5. Others, \_\_\_\_\_

### **Training and Extension**

19. Has the household received any training?

1. Yes

2. No



20. If yes, what were the topics?

- 1. Improved Crop production
- 2. Soil conservation
- 3. Water Utilization
- 4. Beekeeping
- 5. Food preparation
- 6. Fruit & Vegetable gardening
- 7. Animal management
- 8. Gender
- 9. Others \_\_\_\_\_

21. Has the household applied the lessons?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

b) If yes, in what ways?

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_

c) If no, why?

- 1. \_\_\_\_\_
- 2. \_\_\_\_\_
- 3. \_\_\_\_\_

22. Have you attended any of the following?

- 1. Farmers to farmers visit
- 2. Exposure to research centers
- 3. Regular small group meeting
- 4. Visit to demonstrations
- 5. Others \_\_\_\_\_

23. How often does the household receive visits from the Kucha Project staff?

- 1. Never
- 2. Weekly
- 3. Every two week
- 4. Monthly
- 5. Other \_\_\_\_\_

24. When you are visited, how often do you discuss about household's production problems?

- 1. Very often
- 2. Often
- 3. Almost never
- 4. Never

Thank you for participating in this research!

Code \_\_\_\_\_

Interview date \_\_\_\_\_

## ANNEXURE B- QUESTIONNAIRE FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

### 1. Particulars of focus group members

| Name | 1.1 Gender<br>1. Male<br>2. Female | 1.2 Education<br>1. Illiterate<br>2. Read and write<br>3. Primary<br>4. Secondary<br>5. Above secondary | 1.3 Responsibilities<br>1. Community representative<br>2. Government official<br>3. Project staff<br>4. Church official |
|------|------------------------------------|---|---|
| 1.   |                                    |   |   |
| 2.   |                                    |   |   |
| 3.   |                                    |   |   |
| 4.   |                                    |   |   |
| 5.   |                                    |   |   |
| 6.   |                                    |   |   |
| 7.   |                                    |   |   |
| 8.   |                                    |   |   |
| 9.   |                                    |   |   |

### 2. How effective was the project in implementing the supply of farm inputs to beneficiary households?

\_\_\_\_\_

3. How would you like the project to improve delivery of farm inputs to the beneficiary households?

---

4. In your view, how has the community benefited from soil conservation practices?

---

5. What do you think should be done to enhance the effectiveness of the soil conservation practices on the plot of beneficiary households?

---

6. How would you like the project to improve rain water harvesting and irrigations?

---

7. In your view, how has the community benefited from rain water harvesting and irrigations?

---

8. How do you see the effectiveness of the trainings offered by the project to beneficiary households?

---

9. What should be done to make the activities continue for long time?

---

10. In your view, how was the participation of beneficiary households in the project?

---

11. How did the project organized to render effective extension service to the beneficiary community?

---

12. What are the major impacts of the project on the life of beneficiary households? \_\_\_\_\_

Code: \_\_\_\_\_

Interview date: \_\_\_\_\_

## ANNEXURE C- QUESTIONNAIRE FOR KEY INFORMANTS

1. Gender

- 1. Male
- 2. Female

2. Marital status

- 1. Single
- 2. Married
- 3. Widowed
- 4. Divorced

3. Educational level

- 1. Elementary
- 2. Junior high school
- 3. Secondary school
- 4. Vocational training
- 5. College or university

4. Responsibility

- 1. Project officer
- 2. Department head
- 3. Programme manager
- 4. Director Development
- 5. Others \_\_\_\_\_

5. What are the major activities of KHCDP with regard to rural household food security?

---

6. Identify the major achievements of KHCDP with regard to rural household food security?

---

7. What constraints have KHCDP been faced with in relation to household food security?

---

8. What other points would you like to mention regarding KHCDP's current status?

---

## **ANNEXURE D- PROFILES OF FOCUS GROUP AND KEY INFORMANTS**

### **Focus Group Members**

- A. Gender - 84%male, 16% female
- B. Education - 13% illiterate, 11% read and write, 21% primary school, 29% secondary school, 26% above secondary
- C. Position- 60% community representatives, 21% government official, 16% project staff, 3% church officials.
- D. Names-

#### **Group 'A' members:**

1. Safene Chuma
2. Yoseph Abraham
3. Birhanu Alambo
4. Hirut Ayza
5. Birhanu Gebeyehu
6. Derza Demissie
7. Abraham Almbo

#### **Group 'B' members:**

1. Fantu Feleke
2. Abdela Ebrahim
3. Gashaw Molla
4. Ezekel Korga
5. Markos Tomma

#### **Group 'C' members:**

1. Yisac Korga
2. Dita Dilu
3. Beyene Bado

4. Endeshaw Anebo
5. Dirgo Diffa
6. Markos Churfo
7. Ezekel Korga

**Group 'D' members:**

1. Meseret Tegene
2. Aberash Gaga
3. Tadelech Goa
4. Agarnesh Sonko
5. Ajabe Bassa

**Group 'E' members:**

1. Aklilu Arko
2. Yismaw Gessese
3. Desalgn Worku
4. Aka Arko
5. Ermias Folla
6. Sintayehu Bogale
7. Alanko Ayda
8. Bekele Bassa
9. Melkamu Ayele

**Group 'F' members:**

1. Data Dadiso
2. Yitola Gabo
3. Tumbule Tuke
4. Abera Aysa
5. Damare Tuko



## **KEY INFORMANTS**

- A. Gender - 100%male
- B. Education - 100% College and university
- C. Position - 25% project managers, 25% department heads, 12% programme manager, 38% experts and board members.

### D. Names-

1. Erango Ersado . KHCDP Awassa Office
2. Elias Bshaw . KHCDP Head Office
3. Ephrem Kebede - KHCDP Head Office
4. Tefera Telore - KHCDP Head Office
5. Aklilu Lalego - KHCDP Awassa Office
6. Mesfin . South West KHCDP Office
7. Alemayehu Solbamo . Department of Agriculture
8. Yoseph Abraham - KHCDP Kucha Office