



THE ROLE OF NGO PROGRAM AND ITS IMPACT ON SOCIO-
ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF GOAL ETHIOPIA

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SUBMITTED TO

MASTERS OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

ST.MARY UNIVERSITY

JANUARY, 2017

ADDIS ABABA

ST.MARY UNIVERSITY
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A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO:
THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES OF ST.MARY UNIVERSITY
IN A PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF MASTERS OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

ADVISOR: CHALACHEW GETAHUN (PHD)

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STATEMENT OF DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis entitled “The role of NGO program and its impact on socio-economic development: The case of GOAL Ethiopia” is my original work and has not been presented for a Master’s degree in any other university, and that all source of materials used for the thesis have been accordingly acknowledged.

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Place and date of submission: Addis Ababa, St. Mary University, January, 2017

ACKNOLAGEMENT

First of all, I would like to thank the almighty God who gave me enriched life and the opportunity to peruse my graduate study. The completion of this project work is possible through kind support and encouragement of many people. I am indebted to all who encouraged me in the process and give me the courage when I was really in need.

I am greatly indebted to my advisor Chalachew Getahun (PHD), for his guidance and insightful comments, patience throughout the process of the study project. My sincere acknowledgment goes to GOAL Ethiopia GOAL Ethiopia management and employees.

I am very grateful to all my families especially to my husband, for his assistance in my academic endeavor with love, patience, support and encouragement that enable me to have a peace mind during my entire study period.

ABSTRACT

NGO's support have been considered as one of the instruments in the recent socio-economic development agenda. It is a means to support the marginalized active poor of the society. Studying the role of NGO's program intervention is important to assess its viability on poverty reduction. The main objective of this study is to examine the role of NGO program in socio-economic development in the case of GOAL Ethiopia.

In a country like Ethiopia, where natural and man-made hazards persist, NGOs play a crucial role in terms of reducing poverty and other human sufferings. As one of the non-governmental organizations, GOAL Ethiopia has played an important role in supporting and encouraging the development aspirations of local communities in the areas of health, water and sanitation, livelihood, credit and saving and other cross cutting issues.

In order to assess the impact, primary data were collected through close-ended and open-ended questionnaire using purposive and simple random sampling method. Discussions with key informants and focus groups were administered to capture qualitative information. The impact of the program was analyzed based on some socio- economic indicators in different levels.

The findings revealed that the program has made a positive impact on income diversification, asset creation and ownership and general wellbeing of the household's which is confirmed by the respondents during the interview and focus group discussions. Moreover, it has a positive impact on personal savings and women's empowerment. The project has contributed a great share in improving the living standard of the poor and reduce poverty at household level.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

NGO	Non - Government organization
BHH	Beneficiary household
IAPF	Irish Aid Program Fund
INGO	International Non - Government organization
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
CRDA	Christian Relief and Development Association
UNDP	United Nations Development Program's
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
DPPC	Disaster prevention and preparedness commission
UNEP	United Nations Environment Program
MOFED	Ministry of finance and economic development
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
ERC	Ethiopian Resident Charity
FC	Foreign Charity
GDI	Gender-related Development Index
GBV	Gender Based Violence
WASH	Water and Sanitation
GBVMG	Gender Based Violence Monitoring Group
GO	Governmental Organization
IDS	Institute of Development Studies
SDPRP	Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program
SNNPR	South Nations Nationalities and Peoples' Region
VSLA	Village level saving and lending association
WDR	World development report
MSB	Micro and small business enterprise
SL	Sustainable livelihood
IMF	International Monetary Fund
LA	Livelihood Approaches
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
ADLI	Agricultural Development-led Industrialization Strategy

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

The need to address a wide range of problems adversely affecting vulnerable groups prompted the emergence and growth of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) globally as we experience them today (De Waal, 1997: 66–68). The famine of 1970s and 1980s has largely contributed for the influx and emergence of NGOs in Ethiopia (CRDA, 2004). The modern understanding of NGOs is new to Ethiopia with a history not extending more than four decades (Desalegn, 2008:1).

The first indigenous organizations, that were functioning apparently similar to the present NGOs, were traditional self-help groups that existed for generations before they were developed into organized entities. Those traditional self-help groups, which have been registered as proper organizations, are today known as community based organizations (Van, J. 1998:1). In this thesis, NGOs refer to both indigenous and international non-governmental organizations that involve in relief and development programs. NGOs emerged in Ethiopia in 1930s as a result of urbanization and economic development (World Bank, 2000).

The early pioneers were missionaries or Faith-Based Organizations that had started operating in 1930s (CRDA, 2006: 2). The NGOs sector is the strongest part of the civil society in Ethiopia (Zewdie and Pausewang, 2002: 105). NGOs can be classified either by the country of origin (local or international) or by their engagement (relief, development and advocacy) (GTZ, 2001). In Ethiopia, 90% NGOs are assumed to be local and the rest are accounted by international NGOs (Van, J. 1998:1). However, these are not consistent with Zewdie and Pausewang(2002) that states the proportion of indigenous and international NGOs as 34%:66%,50%:50%, 59%:41% and 67%:33% in 1994, 1996, 1998, and 2000, respectively.

Civil society is considered not only from associational life point of view but also from their contribution to influence the government for the desired changes. AusAID (2007) supports the above statement in that “civil society is expected to play roles as a watchdog and countervailing agent to influence government for change” AusAID (2007:18-19). World Bank,2002 stated that,

eight years of uneven, but continued move towards democracy, the NGOS sectors struggle for definition, operating space in Ethiopia.

Civil society traditionally weak in the country remains underdeveloped, misunderstood in the new relatively political liberalization. The historical centralization of power in Ethiopia has left long shadows and the impulses to extend strict and at times arbitrary authority over various civil society entities remains embedded in the psychology of some officials and for many to consider civil society actors as political opponents” (World Bank 2002:2).

NGOs have increased the scale on the type of roles they play. In this contemporary time, NGOs are helping government, institutions, and the rural poor in the fight against poverty at worldwide and national level through the functions of providing microfinance, transportation, environmental conservation and development, food security, initiating capacity building and self-reliance, peace building projects, relief services during emergencies, income generation and so forth(CRDA, 2004).

The code of conduct for NGOs in Ethiopia (1999) states that the mission of NGOs operating in Ethiopia is to improve and advance the public good, the quality of life of those who are disadvantaged and vulnerable, as well as to ensure the proper management of the environment for present and future generations. GOAL Ethiopia as an NGO, shares the above-mentioned mission that characterizes NGOs in general.

This study assessed the role of NGO program and its impact on socio-economic development in the case of GOAL Ethiopia using qualitative and quantitative information.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Over the past three decades, the role of NGOs in Food security in particular and ‘development’ in general remains an area of substantial debate. Neo-liberal economic policies such as the structural adjustment policies backer this approach that directing donors fund through civil society (NGOs) instead of state structure. As a result, NGOs have become major players in the field of social, economic and environmental affairs, particularly on issues of ‘poverty eradication’. In connection to this various international development organizations such as UN, World Bank, and IMF consider NGOs as key partners in accomplishing their development programs (UN 2005).

The increase in donors disbursements/ NGOs spending is considered as progress responding to the problem of food insecurity (World Bank 2006). And there are also considerable interests from scholars in recent years in the ability of non-governmental organization (NGOs) to work with the rural poor in order to improve their quality of life and economic status. On the other hand, many criticisms about NGOs and their response to food security have been given from different sources. Some scholars have questioned the role NGOs play in development process by explaining how the sector has played in affecting the local power capacity (Shurke and Kathina, 2002: 9). Global policy Forum (1996) in an article 'NGOs and World Bank', argues that the move to NGOs sector is a matter of using NGOs to assess the effects of the structural adjustment and poverty eradication programs.

In the context of Ethiopia, these views have certain significant with reference to the current food insecurity and prevalent poverty of the country. After 1991 there is a booming in the number of NGOs compared with the previous periods (Spring, and Groelsema, 2004). Despite this booming in number, the NGOs approach to development and their effectiveness in food security is becoming a point of discussion.

In Ethiopia the history of NGOs and their development in modern sense corresponds to international trends and followed the country's socio-economic problems. Red Cross and Swedish missionary are the first International aid agencies which began their operations during the regime of Haile Selasse (Spring, and Groelsema, 2004; and Halldin, Norberg, 1977). It is with this backdrop of the pessimistic and optimistic conceptions of the NGOs role in development that this research is needed to be conducted. There is relatively increasing research works on civil society since recent years. However, evidence-based studies on NGOs are scarce. Moreover, the existing one consists of short pieces and unsatisfactory quality that focus mainly on service provider NGOs and their unhappy relation with government (Desalegn, 2008,). This research, therefore, will contribute to the existing scarce literature on NGOs by assessing and evaluating the roles of NGOs in Ethiopia.

1.3. Research questions

This research has tried to find clear and precise answer to the following basic research questions from the different sources of data.

Main Question

What is the role of GOAL Ethiopia development program for the improvement of livelihood, socio-economic condition and material wealth of project beneficiaries?

Sub-questions

1. Does GOAL Ethiopia development program increase the endowment of assets (Financial, Physical, Human and Social Capital) of beneficiary households? If yes e.g by how much, what way and which activities?
2. Does the small business activity created by the program to poor beneficiaries improve their socio-economic conditions?
3. How is the participation of communities on program planning and implementation?
4. What are the likely long lasting effects or sustainability of the program?

1.4 Objective of the study

General Objective

The overall aim of this research is to examine the impact of GOAL Ethiopia development program intervention in changing the livelihood, socio-economic condition and material wealth of beneficiaries.

Specific Objectives

This research has the following specific objectives as part of the wider general objective;

- ⌘ To assess whether GOAL Ethiopia development program has increased the endowment of assets (Financial, Physical, Human and Social Capital) of beneficiary households.
- ⌘ To assess the effectiveness of small business activities created by GOAL program to poor beneficiaries and its impact on improving their socio-economic conditions.
- ⌘ To assess the level of community (especially women) involvement in the program intervention.
- ⌘ To assess the long lasting effects or sustainability of the program intervention.

1.5. Scope of the study

GOAL is implementing a range of program activities in different locations of the country and assessing the impact of all programs implemented would make the finding effective. However, the scope of this study is limited to the contribution of GOAL Ethiopia development project implemented in Darolebu and Hawigudina Woredas' of West Hararghe Zone.

1.6. Limitation of the Study

The limitations encountered while undertaking the study were in terms of coverage and data availability. In order to build a theoretical framework on the topic, the review of literature, books, and publications were important. However, there is no sufficient studies and literature in the subject especially in Ethiopia context.

Some of other limitations were language problem to communicate with beneficiaries as the program is being implemented in areas with different languages. Due to cultural and other type of bias the communities might not tell the correct information about their income or resources in general. It will be clear that the purposive selection method followed was dictated by the objectives set out in this document.

As NGO assistance is supplementary to governments' activity a better criterion is to ask how far NGOs are covering the gaps left in the overall pro-poor development strategy. Further, other important aspects of the project identification, design and appraisal process could not be studied systematically. These include the degree of beneficiary participation in decision-making, beneficiary empowerment and transfer of the project to beneficiary ownership. Progress here would reflect, in part, the impact of advocacy activity by NGOs.

This area is a high priority for further study. It is believed that the use of purposive and simple random sampling method helps to make reasonable analysis and conclusion on assessing the impact of GOAL's development project contribution on improvement livelihoods and socio-economic conditions of beneficiaries.

1.7. Organization of the study

The paper is organized in to five chapters: Chapter one covers the introduction which includes the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, basic research questions, scope, limitations and organization of the study, Chapter two deals with review of

literatures in which results of previous studies will be consulted, Chapter three is about methodology adopted for the study.

The issues covered includes the research design, population and sample size, sample techniques, the data collection tools/instruments employed, the procedures of data collection, method of data analysis, Chapter four focused on the analysis of data and discussion of findings and Chapter five provides a summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITRATURE

This chapter presents a discussion on the role of NGOs program and its impact on livelihood of beneficiaries, through building a definition of ‘NGO’ and ‘socio – economic development indicators’ as they will be used in the analysis.

2.1 Definition of terms

Non- Governmental Organisations (NGOs) are defined as organisations that do not belong to either the government or the private sector. They represent communities in social and political movements at all levels - public and private as well as local and international. Being non-state and non-market, they are often referred to as the third sector and are organisationally representative of civil society (Unerman and O’Dwyer 2006). NGOs operate in the areas education, health care, service delivery, microfinance, pressure groups, lobbying, social movements, and grassroots organizations amongst others (Fisher 1997; Werker & Ahmed 2008).

The word “NGOs” and “civil society” are often used synonymously, but civil society includes not only NGOs, but also faith based organisations, grassroots organisations, religious groups, informal and cultural groups that pursue activities representing the interests of the poor (Ibrahim and Hulme 2010). Anheier (2004: 24) defines civil society as a “sphere of institutions, organisations and individuals” located between the family and the market, which people associate with voluntarily to government and the private sector, and enjoys a degree of autonomy (Howell and Pearce 2003).

NGOs are best defined based on a country’s legal definition which outlines formal registration and status of an organization within that country (Salamon and Anheier 1997). According to Kenya’s NGO Coordination Act No 19 (section 2, 1990), all of the aforementioned organisations are categorised as NGOs.

The act defines NGOs as, private voluntary grouping of individuals or associations, not operating for profit or for other commercial purposes but which have organised themselves nationally or internationally for the benefit of the public at large and for the promotion of social welfare, development, charity or research in the areas inclusive of, but not restricted to, health,

relief, agriculture, education, industry and the supply of amenities and services (Ministry of Home Affairs 2006:16).

Definitions of NGOs can be critiqued for not being comprehensive: they often invariably exclude one of the many areas of NGO development or exclude legal implications in various countries. For the purpose of this research, NGOs are defined as independent, nonprofit, developmental, voluntary organisations operating at the local level and that are engaged in poverty reduction at the local and international level (Lewis, 2001).

NGOs widen political participation by engaging marginalised groups such as women, disabled people, and low-income urban residents, and serve an important advocacy role in promoting development and by bringing people together in cooperative ventures to teach civic values such as negotiation, compromise, cooperation, and trust.

NGOs can be viewed to challenge local urban poverty reduction programs that are introduced by the state but are not suitable to the needs of the local population. Given a lack of state service provision, NGOs help to promote the rights of excluded segments of the population, such as the urban poor, and provide them with basic services. Mitlin and Satterthwaite (2004) contend that many states and funding agencies often define urban poverty by income, with national poverty measured by the number of people or households with incomes below an official poverty line (Mitlin and Satterthwaite 2004).

Sustainable Livelihoods

The term "Sustainable Livelihood" is used here to refer to a livelihood that can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base. In this study, Livelihood diversification refers to attempts by individuals and households to find new ways to raise incomes and reduce environmental risk, which differ sharply by the degree of freedom of choice (to diversify or not), and the reversibility of the outcome.

Livelihood diversification includes both on and off-farm activities which are undertaken to generate income additional to that from the main household agricultural activities, via the production of other agricultural and non-agricultural goods and services, the sale of waged labour, or self-employment in small firms, and other strategies undertaken to spread risk; included in this are what has been termed 'activity or environment diversification' in agriculture (Carter 1997), or more radical migratory strategies (Stark and Levhari, 1982).

In a recent paper, Ellis (1997) defines livelihood diversification as 'the process by which rural

families construct a diverse portfolio of activities and social support capabilities in their struggle for survival and in order to improve their standards of living' Ellis (1997, p5), pointing out, rightly, that livelihood diversification is not necessarily synonymous with income diversification.

2.2. Origins and concepts of livelihood approaches

The emergence of the livelihoods concept had all the qualities of a classic 'paradigm shift' – defined as 'a fundamental change in approach or underlying assumptions. This shift came at a time when previous dominant theories and practices – particularly those associated within targeted rural development – were losing their intellectual and political attraction. Sustainable livelihoods offered a fresh approach (Carney et al., 1998; Solesbury, 2003). Its development has been led from the natural resources advisory group and has formed part of a cultural change within that professional group that has profound dimensions, and includes the following elements: a shift from an emphasis on natural resource issues and programmes to a people-centred approach which emphasises the goals of poverty reduction, empowerment and the promotion of increased security of livelihoods for the poor and a shift in emphasis from seeking improvements in forms of agricultural production to looking at the full diversity of strategies of poor people in rural areas (Norton and Foster, 2001; Solesbury, 2003).

In the 1970s, many development practitioners were concerned about the famines that were taking place in Africa and Asia, and a concerted effort was made to put more resources in to increasing food supplies globally (Ashley and Carney, 1999). In 1980s it was realized that many households were still not obtaining adequate amounts of food for a healthy life. This led to a shift from national food security to a concern with the food security and nutritional status of households and individuals (FAO, 2001). In the mid-1980s to the early 1990s, researchers began to widen their perspective from food security to a livelihood perspective (Chambers and Conway, 1992; Solesbury, 2003).

This ensured that, livelihoods approaches are based upon evolving thinking about combating food insecurity and poverty reduction, the way the poor live their lives, and the importance of structural and institutional issues. They draw on three decades of changing views of poverty. In particular, participatory approaches to development have highlighted great diversity in the goals to which people aspire, and in the livelihood strategies they adopt to achieve them (Ashley and Carney, 1999). By the early 1990s, certain donor agencies had seen sufficient merit in livelihoods approaches to begin employing the approach in their work (Solesbury, 2003). From 1990s until the present, there has been a shift from a material perspective focused on food production to

asocial perspective that focuses on the enhancement of peoples' capacities to secure their own livelihoods.

Since the 1990s, there has been a shift in development studies and development policy towards more holistic views of the activities and capital assets that households draw onto make a living (Carney et al., 1998; Scoones, 1998; Ellis, 2000). Thus, it can be seen that the livelihood approaches in vogue today build on the experiences of the past (FAO, 2001). The origination of livelihood approach as a concept is widely attributed to Robert Chambers at the Institute of Development Studies (IDS), (Solesbury, 2003). Particularly, 1992 could be named as the starting year of the livelihood focus in development cooperation. Subsequently, the previous emphasis on technologies, resources and organisations shifted to a focus on rural households and their various functionalities.

It is a way of thinking about the objectives, scope and priorities for development, in order to enhance progress in poverty elimination. It aims to help poor people achieve lasting improvements against the indicators of poverty that they define (Ashley and Carney, 1999). The concept of livelihoods is increasingly used in development debates, in which people's capabilities, and social as well as material assets, are recognised to be important to make a living (Kanji et al, 2005). Livelihoods approaches reflect the diverse and complex realities faced by poor people in specific contexts (Ashely et al., 2003).

Unlike many 'conventional' approaches to poverty assessment and project design, a focus on livelihoods requires incorporating an understanding of the ways in which various contextual factors – political, institutional, environmental as well as macroeconomic – either constrain or support the efforts of poor and vulnerable people to pursue a viable living (Cahn, 2004). The livelihoods approach also emphasises the ability of people to maintain a viable livelihood over time (Rahman et al., 2007).

Another virtue of livelihoods approaches is that they attempt to build on the strengths already present in people's existing assets, strategies and objectives, rather than 'importing' blueprint development models that often ignore or even undermine these positive features common features that point to strong conceptual overlaps and, at the same time, distinguish these concepts from narrower notions such as income or consumption poverty.

The strengths of the approach are that it aims to reflect the complex range of assets and activities on which people depend for their livelihoods and the importance to poor people of assets which they do not own. It provides a framework for addressing the whole range of policy issues relevant

to the poor, not just access to health and education, but issues of access to finance, markets, and personal security. and the need for a people centred and participatory approach, responsive to changing circumstances, and capable of working at multiple levels from national to local, in partnership with public and private sector (Norton and Foster, 2001).

2.3. Conceptual framework for livelihood strategy analysis

The livelihoods framework provides a comprehensive, and complex, approach to understanding how people make a living. It can be used as a loose guide to a range of issues which are important for livelihoods or it can be rigorously investigated in all its aspects (Kanji et al, 2005). Livelihood Approaches (LA) emphasizes understanding of the context within which people live, the assets available for them, livelihood strategies they follow in the face of existing policies and institutions, and livelihood outcomes they intend to achieve (DFID,2000).

The key question to be addressed in any analysis of livelihood is given a particular context (of policy setting, politics, history, agro ecology and socio-economic conditions), what combination of livelihood resources (different types of ‘capital’) result in the ability to follow what combination of livelihood strategies (agricultural intensification/ extensification ,livelihood diversification and migration) with what outcomes? (Scoones, 1998). The framework therefore highlighted five interacting elements: contexts; resources; institutions; strategies; and outcomes (Solesbury, 2003). Understanding in a dynamic and historical context, how different livelihood resources are sequenced and combined in the pursuit of different livelihood strategies is therefore critical (Scoones, 1998).

The asset portfolio, represented by the pentagon in Figure 1 below, is a key component to understanding a household’s livelihood strategy (Jansen et al,2004). The focus is on the conceptualization and quantification of the household’s asset portfolio as an input into the explanation of a household’s livelihood strategy. It can provide a useful starting point for household livelihood analysis, as it encourages investigators to take into account all the different kinds of assets and resources that are likely to play a role in household livelihoods.

The focus on assets is appropriate given the historically stark inequalities in asset distribution (Rakodi, 1999). Identifying what livelihood resources (or combinations of ‘capitals’) required for different livelihood strategy combinations is a key step in the process of analysis (Soussan et al, 2000). For example, successful agricultural intensification may combine, in some circumstances, access to natural capital (e.g. land, water etc.) with economic capital (e.g.technology, credit etc.), while in other situations, social capital (e.g. social networks associated with drought or labour

sharing arrangements) may be more significant.

Thus, the livelihoods approach is concerned first and foremost with people. So an accurate and realistic understanding of people’s strengths (here called “assets” or “capital”) is crucial to analyse

how they endeavor to convert their assets into positive livelihood outcomes (Bezmir and Lerman, 2002; Kollmair and Gamper, 2002).Of particular interest in this framework are the institutional processes (embedded in a matrix of formal and informal institutions and organisations) which mediate the ability to carry out such strategies and achieve (or not) such outcomes, (Scoones, 1998; Kanji et al, 2005).Among core elements of the livelihoods framework, the concept of a livelihood strategy has become central to development practice in recent years (Brown et al, 2006). The concept is increasingly important in the development debate.

More attention is being paid, by policymakers, researchers, and other development practitioners, to the diverse portfolio of activities engaged in by poor households as a means to develop and engage in creative poverty reduction strategies that recognize the diversity of these activities (Jansen et al., 2004).

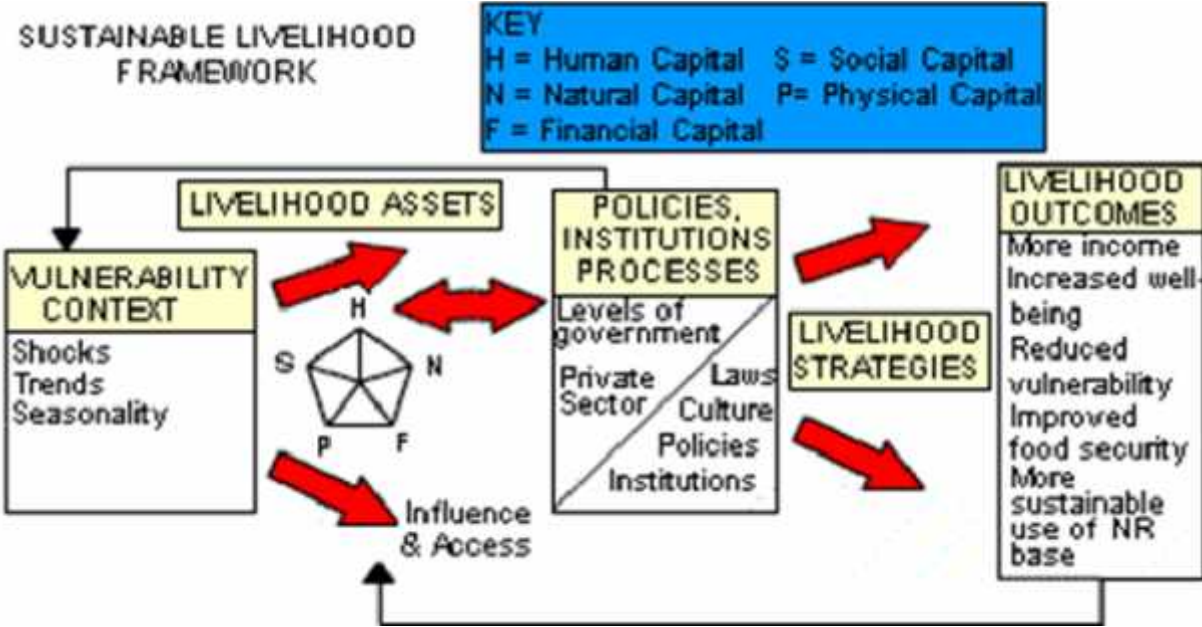


Figure 1. Sustainable livelihoods framework Source: Adapted from DFID, 1999.

Analyzing of livelihood strategies according to assets-access-activities framework has been going on for many years (Ellis, 2000). The framework can be applied at a range of different scales – from individual, to household, to household cluster, to extended kin grouping, to village, region or

even nation, with sustainable livelihood outcomes assessed at different levels. The specification of the scale of analysis is therefore critical, as is an analysis of the interactions between levels in terms of net livelihood effects, both positive and negative (Lovendal et al, 2004; Scoones, 1998).

It should be known that the livelihoods framework is not intended to depict reality in any specific setting. Rather, it is intended as an analytical structure for coming to grips with the complexity of livelihoods, understanding influences on poverty and identifying where interventions can best be made (Kollmair and Gamper, 2002). Use of the framework as is with any tool is set by the user. The framework does not attempt to provide an exact representation of reality.

It does, however, endeavour to provide a way of thinking about the livelihoods of poor people that will stimulate debate and reflection, thereby improving performance in poverty reduction (DFID, 1999). Mechanically following the framework will also yield poor result (Carney et al, 1998). Once the brief explanation on the conceptual framework is given, the key concepts in the livelihood strategy analytical framework will be discussed in the coming section.

2.3.1. Livelihoods

The concept of livelihood is widely used in contemporary writings on poverty and rural development, but its meaning can often appear elusive either due to vagueness or to different definitions being encountered in different sources (Ellis, 2000). Carswell, et al., (1997) also point out that definitions of livelihoods are often unclear, inconsistent and relatively narrow. That is why a precise operational definition of livelihood remains elusive (Brown et al., 2006). Moreover, a recent review of livelihoods approaches shows that definitions are far from uniform and prescriptive but are instead constantly evolving and developing.

This allows for imaginative adaptations to be made as required, but also renders the concept and use of a livelihoods approach rather difficult to grasp (FAO, 2001). A popular definition is that provided by Chambers & Conway (1992) wherein a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social assets) and activities required for a means of living. Briefly, one could describe a livelihood as a combination of the resources used and the activities undertaken in order to live (DFID, 1999). A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks; maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers and Conway, 1992).

From this livelihood definition, the term capability refers to the ability of individuals to realize their potential as human beings, in the sense of both of being (to be adequately nourished, free of illness) and doing (to exercise choice, develop skills, and participate socially). Strictly, capabilities

refer to the set of alternative beings and doings that a person can achieve with in or her economic, social, and personal characteristics (Derze and Sen,1989; cited on Ellis, 2000).Scoones (1998) further disaggregated the definition to five key elements.

The first three focus on livelihoods, linking concerns over work and employment with poverty reduction with broader issues of adequacy, security, well-being and capability. The last two elements add the sustainability dimension (livelihood adaptation natural resource base sustainability) (Davies,1996).The important feature of this livelihood definition is to direct attention to the links between assets and options people possess in practice to pursue alternative activities that can generate the income level required for survival (Ellis, 2000).

Livelihoods are diverse at every level, for example, members of a household may live and work in different places engaging in various activities, either temporarily or permanently. Individuals themselves may rely on a range of different income-generating activities at the same time (Farm Africa, 2003).

2.3.2. Vulnerability Context

Vulnerability context refers to seasonality, trends, and shocks that affect people's livelihoods. The key attribute of these factors is that they are not susceptible to control by local people themselves, at least in the short and medium term (DFID, 1999). It is the trends of change and variability in those factors that affect livelihoods, and in particular describes structural processes, that can materially disrupt different aspects of livelihood processes (Soussan et al., 2000). Shocks destroy assets directly. They also result in the erosion of assets indirectly, as a consequence of enforced sales and disposals made in order to buffer consumption during the sequence of responses that occur at times of disaster (Ellis, 2000).

Vulnerable groups comprise people who are likely to fall or remain below a certain welfare threshold in the near future, while most of those who are presently below the threshold may face a high probability of being so also in the future (Lovendal et al , 2004).

2.3.3. Livelihood assets

In the livelihoods approach, resources are referred to as 'assets' or 'capitals' (Ellis and Allison, 2004) and the definition of each is given as:

Livelihood assets: are the resources on which people draw in order to carry out their livelihood strategies (Farrington et al., 2002). The members of a household combine their capabilities, skills and knowledge with the different resources at their disposal to create activities that will enable them to achieve the best possible livelihood for themselves. Everything that goes towards creating

that livelihood can be thought of as a livelihood asset (Messer and Townsley, 2003).

Synonymously, the term **capital** is used as livelihood assets. It refers to tangible or intangible assets that are held by a person or household for use or investment; wealth, in whatever form, capable of being used to produce more wealth; any source of benefit or assistance. Various forms of capital can be accumulated, exchanged, expended and lost, thereby affecting a household's level of livelihood security, quality of life, and its options for coping strategies (CARE, 2001).

Different authors and organization have categorised livelihood assets (Farrington et al., 2002). For instance, Chambers and Conway (1992), classified livelihood assets into three: tangible (stores and resources); intangible (claims for material, moral or practical support); and opportunity to access resources; United Nations Development Program (UNDP, 1998), grouped livelihood assets into six: human, social, natural, physical, economic and political capitals; DFID (1999) involves human, social, natural, physical, and economic capitals as categories of livelihood assets; CARE (2001), categorise as human, social and economic assets; and Moser, (1998) classified livelihood assets as labour, economic and social, infrastructure, housing, household relations and social capital. To have better understanding on livelihood assets, the brief review on the six often explained livelihood assets (capitals) is presented below.

Human capital (H): the skills, knowledge, ability to labour and good health important to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve their livelihood objectives (DFID, 2000; Scoones, 1998). A household's human capital is comprised of those individual characteristics of its members, both qualitative and quantitative, that help them to generate income. The main characteristics of human capital are age, education, gender, health status, household size, dependency ratio and leadership potential, etc. (Bezemer and Lerman, 2003; Farrington et al., 2002; Kollmair and Gamper, 2002).

Physical capital (P): Physical capital comprises the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods (DFID, 1999). Infrastructure consists of changes to the physical environment that help people to meet their basic needs and to be more productive.

The following components of infrastructure are usually essential for sustainable livelihoods: affordable transport; secure shelter and buildings; adequate water supply and sanitation; irrigation machinery, clean, affordable energy; and access to information (communications) (CARE, 2001; Kollmair and Gamper, 2002, Bezemer and Lerman, 2003).

Social capital (S): There is much debate about what exactly is meant by the term 'social capital'. In the context of the livelihoods framework it is taken to mean the social resource upon which

people draw in pursuit of their livelihood objectives (Meser and Townstey, 2003).

These are developed through: networks and connectedness, either vertical (patron/client) or horizontal (between individuals with shared interests) that increase people's trust and ability to work together and expand their access to wider institutions, such as political or civic bodies; membership of more formalised groups which often entails adherence to mutually-agreed or commonly accepted rules, norms and sanctions; and relationships of trust, reciprocity (UNDP,1998) and exchanges that facilitate co-operation, reduce transaction costs and may provide the basis for informal safety nets amongst the poor the social resources(networks, membership of groups, relationships of trust, access to wider institutions of society) upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods (DFID, 1999). Various proxies for social capital can be used, like membership in agricultural cooperatives, incidence of mutual help in hard times, etc. (Bezemer and Lerman, 2003).

Financial capital (F): Financial capital denotes the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives (DFID, 1999) and it comprises the important availability of cash or equivalent that enables people to adopt different livelihood strategies (Kollmair and Gamper, 2002). Sources of financial capital include household savings, credit (borrowing),and remittances from family members working outside the home (CARE, 2001; Bezemer and Lerman, 2003).

Natural capital (N): Natural capital is the natural resource stocks from which resource flows and services useful for livelihoods are derived. There is a wide variation in the resources that make up natural capital, from intangible public goods such as the atmosphere and biodiversity to divisible assets used directly for production (trees, land, etc.). It includes, the natural resource stocks from which resource flows useful for livelihoods are derived (e.g. land, water, wildlife, biodiversity, environmental resources) (DFID, 1999; Kollmair and Gamper, 2002).

Political capital : is defined broadly as the ability to use power in support of political or economic positions and so enhance livelihoods; it refers to both the legitimate distribution of rights and power as well as the illicit operation of power which generally frustrates efforts by the poor to access and defend entitlements and use them to build up capital assets (Baumann,2000). One way of looking at poor men and women's access to rights is through a notion of political capital (UNDP, 1998). Political capital received attention in recent years as a key asset in accessing the other assets (Farrington et al., 2002).This division into such six types of livelihood assets is not definitive.

It is just one way of dividing up livelihood assets. Other ways may be developed depending on

local circumstances. What is important here is that these are all elements of livelihoods that influence households directly or are potentially controlled by them (Meser and Townsley, 2003). In practice, not all assets are owned by, or fully in the control of, men and women who are attempting to use them in their livelihood strategies – in fact some, like common property resources, cannot by definition be owned by individuals or even households, and others, such as ‘social capital’, cannot be owned, but imply a negotiated relationship (Cahn, 2004). Similarly, services supplied through targeted state programmes are officially accessible to the poor, but in practice institutional and practical barriers may limit the access of the poor to the benefits of such programmes (Farrington et al., 2002).

The livelihoods approach regards awareness of the asset status of poor individuals or households as fundamental to an understanding of the options open to them. One of its basic tenets is that poverty policy should be concerned with raising the asset status of the poor, or enabling existing assets that are idle or underemployed to be used productively (Ellis and Allison, 2004).

2.3.4. Mediating factors

Institutions, policies and processes mediate rural household’s access to and control over resources (DFID, 1999). Institutions are the social cement which link stakeholders to access to capital of different kinds to the means of exercising power and so define the gateways through which they pass on the route to positive or negative livelihood adaptation (Scoones, 1998). Within this broader context, these different categories of households belong to and draw support from a multiplicity of formal and informal local institutions. The latter often provide essential goods and services to the rural poor, particularly in the absence of appropriate public policies, well-functioning markets, effective local governments and official provision of safety nets for the vulnerable (Messer and Townsley, 2003).

2.3.5. Livelihood strategies

According to DFID (1999) the term livelihood strategies are defined as the range and combination of activities and choices that people make in order to achieve their livelihood goals, including productive activities, investment strategies, reproductive choices, etc. These choices are reflected in the way that people use their assets and as such are an important part of household behavior, while determining well-being.

Livelihood strategies are composed of activities that generate the means of household survival and are the planned activities that men and women undertake to build their livelihoods (Ellis, 2000). Livelihood strategies include: how people combine their income generating activities; the way in

which they use their assets; which assets they chose to invest in; and how they manage to preserve existing assets and income (DFID 2001). Livelihood strategies are generally understood as the strategies that people normally use in peaceful and stable times to allow them to meet basic needs and contribute to future well-being (Ellis, 2000).

They are more than a response to contextual factors and the assets available; however they are also the result of men's and women's objectives and choices. These in turn are affected by individual and cultural preferences (Farrington et al., 2002). The concept of livelihood strategies has developed through three decades of thought and study on how rural households construct their lives and income earning activities (Jansen et al., 2004). Therefore, more attention is being paid, by policymakers, researchers, and other development practitioners, to the diverse portfolio of activities that poor households engage in, as a means to develop and engage in creative poverty reduction strategies that recognize the diversity of these activities (Brown et al., 2006).

Typologies of livelihood strategies

Livelihood strategies can be classified according to different criteria. The often cited typology of livelihood strategy is given by Scoones (1998). He divided rural livelihood strategies into three broad types according to the nature of activities undertaken as agricultural intensification and extensification, livelihood diversification, and migration.

Agriculture: including crop, livestock rearing, aquaculture, forestry etc. This strategy is through processes of intensification and/ or extensification. Agricultural intensification refers to the use of a greater amount of non-land resources (labor, inputs, etc.) for a given land area, so that a higher output is produced (Hussein and Nelson, 1999). It generally focuses on the increased production of crops and agricultural commodities best suiting the agro-ecological conditions of the region and the farm and existing market outlets. Intensification often consists in the replacement of traditional crops or agricultural commodities with new high yield varieties, requiring improved technology (Warren, 2002). These strategies mainline continued or increasing dependence on agriculture.

Whether households pursue this strategy or not will depend on agro-ecological potential and the implications for labour and capital (Scoones, 1998). Technical developments in agriculture may also operate as a key determinant. The availability or not of this option, and the extent to which it is undertaken by the household, will determine in major part the need for, and the household resources available to, off-farm livelihood diversification. Agricultural extensification on the other hand is bringing more land into cultivation or grazing (Scoones, 1998). As agricultural specialization can start from an initial diversification move, also livelihoods diversification can

eventually lead to some form of household specialization (ODI, 2003).

For instance, in particular circumstance migratory wage labor may result so cost/effective to push the household away from conventional on-farm activities. Conversely, the identification of a particular niche commodity may lead the household to invest all its labor and other assets in it, disregarding both conventional farming activities and wage labor (Warren, 2002). The conventional wisdom for many years has been that raising output and incomes in agriculture itself are a catalyst for diverse non-farm activities in rural areas.

However, in sub Saharan Africa this has rarely been the case, since most household diversification is not just non-farm but non-rural in character (Ellis, 2000). This leads towards the concept of diversification.

Livelihood diversification: is an increasing multiplicity of activities (regardless of the sector), or it can refer to a shift away from traditional rural sectors such as agriculture to non-traditional activities in either rural or urban space (DFID, 2001). Ellis has defined rural livelihood diversification as ‘the process by which rural households construct an increasingly diverse portfolio of activities and assets in order to survive and to improve their standards of living’ (Ellis, 2000). Thus, diversification here may be to broaden the range of on-farm activities or to diversify off/non-farm activities by taking up new jobs (Deb et al., 2002; Scoones, 1998; Start and Johnson, 2004). Scoones (1998), further classified diversification strategies into: Natural Resource (NR) based and non NR-based activities.

Natural resource based activities include; collection or gathering (e.g. from woodlands and forest), food cultivation, non-food cultivation, livestock keeping and pastoralism, and non-farm activities (e.g. brick making, weaving, thatching). Where as non-natural resource based activities includes; rural trade (e.g. marketing of farm outputs, inputs, and consumer goods) rural manufacture, remittances (urban and international), other transfers (e.g. pensions deriving from past formal sector employment). Diversification as a consideration notably cuts across livelihood typologies. Individuals and households may diversify on farm, off farm and non farm, including decidedly, migration as part of the diversification strategy (Ellis, 2000).

Rural livelihoods diversification has generally occurred as a result of an increased importance of off-farm wage labor in household livelihood portfolio or through the development of new forms of on-farm/on-site production of non-conventional marketable commodities. In both cases, diversification ranges from a temporary change of household livelihood portfolio (occasional diversification) to a deliberate attempt to optimize household capacity to take advantage of ever-

changing opportunities and cope with unexpected constraints (strategic diversification) (Warren, 2002).

Diversification of income sources, assets, and occupations is the norm for individuals or households in different economies, but for different reasons. Households in Sub-Saharan Africa whose livelihood heavily depend on agriculture and related activities are no exceptions to this phenomenon (Adugna, 2005). Rural dwellers of developing countries have hitherto been thought to engage only in small-scale agriculture, but this is a misnomer that is continually being disproved with emerging studies of peasant livelihoods showing highly diversified livelihoods (Rahman et al, 2007).

Migration: refers to situation when one or more family members leave the resident household for varying periods of time, and in doing so are able to make new and different contributions to its welfare, although such contributions are not guaranteed by the mere fact migration (Ellis, 2000). Migration may be temporary or permanent; as a critical strategy to secure off-farm employment, or stimulate economic and social links between areas of origin and destination. Kinship structures, social and cultural norms may strongly influence who migrates. Migration will have implications for the asset status of those left behind, for the role of women and for on-farm investments in productivity. Seasonal and circular migration of labour for employment has become one of the most durable components of the livelihood strategies of people living in rural areas (Scoones, 1998; Deshingkar and Start, 2003). Singh and Gilman (1999), and Farrington et al., (2002), have identified the principal distinctions between coping strategies, which are short-term responses to a specific shock (such as job loss of a major earner in the household, or illness), and adaptive strategies, which are a long-term change in behaviour patterns as a result of a shock or stress or in an attempt to build asset bases.

The same authors distinguished between strategies that are;

Income-enhancing; expenditure-reducing especially significant if the former are limited by a ceiling; based on collective support; and

External representation: - negotiation with local authorities, NGOs, etc. Another grouping of livelihood typologies based on the source of livelihood income is given by Ellis (2000). He classified livelihood strategies into three groups; farm activities (income), off-farm activities (income) and non-farm activities (income). Farm income refers to income generated from own account farming which includes livestock as well as crop income and comprises consumption in kind of own farm output as well as the cash income obtained from output sold. Off farm income

refers to wage or exchange labour on other farms (i.e. within agriculture).

It includes labour payments in kind, income obtained from local environmental resources such as firewood, charcoal, house building materials and wild plants (Hussein and Nelson; 1999; Rajadel, 2003). Non-farm income refers to non- agricultural income sources such as self-employment (business), rental income from leasing land, and remittances (Ellis,2000; Holden et al ., 2004).In line with Ellis`s classification, Frankenberger et al., (1999) categorized livelihood strategies as a range of on-farm and off-farm activities that together provide a variety of procurement strategies for food and cash. Similarly, Rao et al., (2004) pointed out that different livelihood strategies result in certain livelihood types, i.e. predominantly farm, off-farm or non-farm income sources, because of differences in resources, opportunities, and household characteristics, which help shape the comparative advantages of households.

Rakodi (1999) distinguishes between the following types of strategy: investment in securing more of an asset; substitution of one asset for another; disposal (the sale of assets such as livestock, land or jewellery, to compensate for a consumption shortfall or to release funds for investment); sacrifice (not investing time and resources in fostering reciprocal social relations); sacrificing children`s ability to earn adequate incomes in future by withdrawing them from school because of the inability to pay fees or need for their labour.

Similar to this, classification of livelihood strategies is also possible such as productive activities, investment strategies, reproductive choices (DFID, 1999).Another categorisation of livelihood strategies by Carney et al, (1998) looks at strategies from the point of view of support activities to livelihoods that can be provided by agencies such as CARE, distinguishing between: livelihoods promotion – activities to improve households` resilience;

Livelihood protection – activities to help prevent a decline in household livelihood security,

Livelihood provisioning – direct provision of basic needs, usually in emergency situations. Tesfaye (2003) identified four typologies of livelihood strategies which include economic activities, investment strategies, reproductive choice and choice of place of residence(migration) in the analytical framework of livelihood diversification study in eastern Hararghe highlands.

The same source further identified between land use strategies such as; crop land expansion and land use intensification, and livelihood diversification strategies within agriculture (diversification of crop and livestock), out of agriculture to off/non-farm activities. Drawing data from southern Ethiopia, Berhanu (2007) identified different activities both within the agricultural and non-

agricultural sector.

The activities in non-agricultural sectors could further take three forms as off-farm employment opportunity, non-farm income generating activities and migration, moving away of elsewhere temporarily in search of employment. The same source classified livelihood strategies into four broad groups; agriculture, agriculture plus migration, agriculture plus non-farm, and agriculture plus nonfarm plus off farm in order to identify determinants of livelihood strategies.

The present study follows such classification in order to identify determinants of livelihood strategies. All the above classifications of livelihood strategies are far from homogeneity. Therefore, this will guide us that it is needed to be cautious about such livelihood strategy typologies as they are prone to similar difficulties surrounding homogeneous policy domains.

2.3.6. Livelihood outcomes

Livelihood outcomes are the achievements of livelihood strategies, such as more income (e.g.cash), increased well-being (e.g. non material goods, like self-esteem, health status, access to services, sense of inclusion), reduced vulnerability (e.g. better resilience through increase in asset status), improved food security (e.g. increase in financial capital in order to buy food) and a more sustainable use of natural resources (e.g. appropriate property rights) (Scoones,1998).

Outcomes help us to understand the ‘output’ of the current configuration of factors within the livelihood framework; they demonstrate what motivates stakeholders to act as they do and what their priorities are (Singh and Gilman, 1999; WFP, 2004). They might give us an idea of how people are likely to respond to new opportunities and which performance indicators should be used to assess support activity.

Livelihood Outcomes directly influence the assets and change dynamically their level – the form of the pentagon -, offering a new starting point for other strategies and outcomes (DFID, 1999; 2000). These are the results of women and men’s livelihood strategies (Farrington et al., 2002). The present study, made use of food security measures as the outcome of livelihood strategies pursued by rural households. Before looking at these outcomes, the following section presents some empirical studies on determinants of livelihood strategies.

2.4. Empirical studies on determinants of livelihood strategies

Numerous factors determine the abilities of rural households to choose among livelihood strategies and diversify their livelihood strategies away from both crop and livestock production into off- and non-farm economic activities. Different studies regarding livelihood diversification in general and determinants of livelihood diversification in particular were carried out in different

countries including Ethiopia. However, scholars seem to be no consensus regarding the most important factors that drive participation in off/non-farm activities (Ellis, 2000).

From these contentions, it is not simple to come up with list of major determinants that influence the decision process. Thus, the following section briefly discuss on the most important findings by giving due emphasis to the area of research. Many studies have revealed evidence of wealth differentiated barriers to entry in non-farm activities in Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, South Africa, and Tanzania(Holden et al., 2004). Asset poverty appeared to inhibit entry into remunerative non-farm earnings, implying a vicious self-re-enforcing circle of unequal distribution of farm and non-farm earnings in areas with unequal distribution of land resources (Reardon et al., 1992).

Availability of key-assets (such as savings, land, labor, education and/or access to market or employment opportunities, access to common property natural resources and other public goods) is a an evident requisite in making rural households and individuals more or less capable to diversify(Warren, 2002). Yet diversification may also develop as a coping response to the loss of capital assets needed for undertaking conventional on-farm production.

Decreased availability of arable land, increased producer/consumer ratio, credit delinquency, and environmental deterioration can be indeed important drives towards diversification. Economic and political shocks are often a major reason for migrate. Similarly, Meser and Townstey (2003) argued that different livelihood activities have different requirements, but the general principle is that those who are amply endowed with assets are more likely to be able to make positive livelihood choices. That is, they will be choosing from a range of options in order to maximise their achievement of positive livelihood outcomes, rather than being forced into any given strategy.

Thus, people's access to different levels and combinations of assets is probably the major influence on their choice of livelihood strategies. Some activities require, for example: particular skills or may be very labour intensive (high levels of human capital required); start-up (financial) capital or good physical infrastructure for the transport of goods (physical capital); a certain type/level of natural capital as the basis for production; or access to a given group of people achievable only though existing social connections (social capital).

Different households will have different levels of access to this range of assets. The diversity and amount of these different assets that households have at their disposal, and the balance between them, will affect what sort of livelihood they are able to create for themselves at any particular

moment (Scoones, 1998).According to Ellis (2000), the reasons why households pursue different livelihood strategies are often divided into two overarching considerations, which are necessity or choice.

Necessity refers to involuntary and distress reasons for diversifying livelihoods (such as, fragmentation of land holding on inheritance, drought, flood, and civil wars loss of the ability to continue to undertake strenuous agricultural activities due to personal accident or ill health). Choice, by contrast, refers to voluntary and proactive reasons for diversifying (seeking out seasonal wage, educating children to improve their prospects of obtaining non- farm jobs or trading).

Barrett et al., (2001) conclude that the poor have no other option but to diversify out of farming and into unskilled off-farm labour, whether in agriculture or not. Specifically, Ellis (2000) identified four major factors as determinants for livelihood diversification: seasonality, risk strategies, coping strategies, as well as labor and credit market conditions. Seasonality refers to the heavy reliance of farming on weather conditions and/or fluctuations in prices as a response to changes in demand and supply conditions. Seasonality in crop production and income result in some slack seasons during which farmers may have time to engage in off-farm activities. It is also possible that households diversify activities to ameliorate the threat to its overall welfare from failure due to concentration in a single activity.

Farm household diversification into non-farm activities emerges naturally from diminishing or time-varying returns to labor or land, from market failures (e.g., for credit) or frictions (e.g., for mobility or entry into high-return niches), from ex ante risk management, and from ex post coping with adverse shocks (Barrett et al. , 2001).

Risk management strategies are another factor often invoked to explain diversification behavior (Reardon, 1992; Ellis 2000; Hussein and Nelson 1999). The basic logic of this argument is that previous experience of crop or market failure can provoke diversification as a means of spreading perceived risk and reducing the impact of total or partial failure on household consumption.

In line with Ellis`s finding, Barrett et al ., (2001) showed that from the “push factor perspective,” diversification is driven by limited risk-bearing capacity in the presence of incomplete or weak financial systems that create strong incentives to select a portfolio of activities in order to stabilize income flows and consumption, by constraints in labor and land markets, and by climatic uncertainty.

From the “pull factor perspective,” local engines of growth such as commercial agriculture or

proximity to an urban area create opportunities for income diversification in production and expenditure-linkage activities. Coping strategies argument resembles that of the necessity reasoning, which states that household's diversification is survival response to crisis or disaster (DFID, 2001). Market conditions, which in the case of rural Africa refers to market failures, leaves households to engage in activities to compensate for market failures, especially credit, and labor markets.

The absence of such markets requires households to take advantage of the demographic composition of households to use its resources effectively and to respond to market failures (Barrett et al., 2001). Gender relationships are also important in shaping diversification process. Social organization and culture can significantly influence the relative access of diverse gender (and age groups) to household's capital assets (DFID, 2000). This might result in a different degree of involvement in diversification activities and/or in an unequal distribution of their benefits between genders (Warren 2002).

In some cultures, migratory wage labor or off-farm enterprises are basically men business; that results in transferring to women the whole responsibility for conventional subsistence and cash cropping (the so called "feminization of agriculture"). Transforming Structures and Processes can reinforce positive choices if they function well. However, in other cases they can act as a major constraint to choice, restricting access (e.g. in the case of rigid caste systems or state-dominated marketing systems), reducing the mobility of goods and labour and manipulating returns to given activities to make them more or less attractive (e.g. heavy-handed pricing policies) (DFID, 1999; 2000). Under such circumstances, people might be viewed as making 'negative choices' as to their livelihood strategies, or they may have no choice at all.

In this regard, site-specific opportunities such as local market contingencies, development projects, infrastructure development (e.g. a new road), and personal contacts might play an important role in pulling rural household towards livelihood diversification (Ellis, 2000; Meser and Townstey 2003). Rajadel (2003) attributed two general factors to be reasons of livelihood diversification by local people, local characteristics and household characteristics. Opportunities to diversify into the non agricultural (NA) sector depend on the level of development of the region, the size and dynamism of the local market and the proximity of an urban centre.

Local factors influence the type of opportunities and incentives faced by households, but in the end, their characteristics determine their desire and capacity to diversify. Social and cultural institutions can have a major impact on poor households' access to resources. For instance, one

cultural institution which has traditionally had a very significant impact on the access of different groups of people to a range of livelihoods assets is the construction and division of communities along lines of caste, which has strongly influenced access to employment, education, property and services (Carswell, 2000). The general stereotype of caste vis-à-vis urbanisation is that this institution is increasingly less influential in cities, as the social structure in increasingly fluid and ‘traditional’ social relationships are eroded (Farrington et al., 2002).

According to Soussan et al ., (2000), livelihoods are also influenced by a wide range of external forces, both within and outside the locality in which a household lives, that are beyond the control of the family. This includes the social, economic, political, legal, environmental and institutional dynamics of their local area, the wider region, their country and, increasingly, the world as a whole. We live in an era of increasing globalization. Its effects are felt by all, including people living in the remotest parts of the developing world(Rahman et al., 2007).

These external factors are critical in defining the basic structure and the operation of livelihood systems. For example, land tenure laws are crucial in determining entitlements, and in consequence access, to land for cultivation, which in turn is a critical determinant of the overall structure of livelihoods in rural areas, whilst prices and price variability is critical (for some crops) in determining what will be grown on that land in any particular season.

Brown et al., (2006), indicated that family size, farm size, access to credit, and household heads secondary education were found significant in determining choice of livelihoods strategies.

In the case of Ethiopia, only a few studies specifically dealt with the determinants of livelihood strategies. For instance, Devereux, (2000) found out that most Ethiopians are ‘sub-sistence farmers’ who have been forced to diversify into off-farm incomes to bridge their annual consumption gap, while some are effectively landless and depend entirely on non-agricultural sources of food and income, including food aid.

The typical rural livelihood strategy combines crop and livestock agriculture, off-farm income-generating activities (daily labour, petty trading, and seasonal migration) and dependence on food aid.Lautzke et al, (2003), pointed that agro-climatic zones provide diverse productive bases on which Ethiopians build their livelihoods. However, even within particular zones it should not be assumed that livelihoods are homogenous across households, or even among individuals within households. Livelihood strategies and outcomes are sensitive to combinations of agenda gender, as well as to other socially constructed identities/institutions such as class, education, ethnicity, and religion. It is also clear that livelihood strategies in Ethiopia are becoming more diverse.

The study conducted by Tesfaye (2003) on the determinates of diversification of rural households into off farm and non farm sectors in eastern highlands of Harerghe revealed that in sufficient land holding, food self in sufficiency, low revenue from sales of cash crop, then umber of males in a household are positively and significantly associated with participation of rural households in off farm and non farm activities. Holden et al., (2004) identified the socio-economic and biophysical characteristics of a less-favoured area in the Ethiopian highlands. The result indicates that land degradation, population growth, stagnant technology, and drought necessitate development of non-farm employment opportunities in the area. Access to low-wage off-farm income is also restricted by lack of employment opportunities since households otherwise would have engaged in more off farm wage employment than observed.

Another study conducted by Adugna (2005) to explore the demographic and economic determinants of the dynamics of income diversification in Ethiopia, revealed that participation in off-farm activities is mainly driven by demographic factors, whereas land and other asset ownership as well as crop income, together with demographic factors, affect intensity of off-farm activities.

Initially female headed households and households with more land holdings subsequently realized less diversification into off-farm activities. On the other hand, families with larger initial crop income from main harvest season realized greater income share from off-farm activities. The study which is similar to the current study in approach by Berehanu (2007) identified that the participation in agriculture livelihood strategy is influenced by size of arable land; sex of the household head; education level of household head; health; number of information source; distance to market place and access to credit. On the other hand, diversifying from agriculture is influenced by size of arable land; livestock ownership; age of household head; health; number of information source, and distance to market.

Specific to the study area, the study of Carswell (2000) on livelihood diversification identified range of variables that influenced livelihood diversification on scale analysis. The result in dictated that market access, differentiated access to resource, availability of land, access to transport, access to credit, ethnicity and caste, sex of household head, household size, were found to influence rural households access to resource and livelihood diversification. He also presented evidence that non-farm and off-farm activities are carried out by a significant proportion of adults and make an important contribution to livelihoods.

As these institutional arrangements have changed, so ‘diversification activities’ have become

more visible. Consideration of the social contexts of livelihood change is thus critical for a firm understanding of livelihood change and the changing role and importance of diversification activities. In this regard, further investigation of the contribution made by the diversification activities to welfare need to be conducted (Carswell, 2000).

2.5 CSOs livelihood development program

Encouraging new enterprises involves providing advice, technical support, information and resource to help individuals set up their own businesses in the form of sole entrepreneurs, partnerships, cooperatives or community enterprises in various agricultural, industrial or trading fields. Micro-enterprise financial support is key to enabling businesses to start up, as they usually cannot access traditional financial institution (Ghous, 2004).

Civil society organizations in recent years have increasingly widened their activities to include income generating program and micro-credit. Their success is in part based on their comparative advantage in both identifying the needy segments and their ability to target them. Their impact can be significant, of course depending on the prevailing socio-economic condition in the country. A number of countries, for example, have replicated the successful Grameen Bank experiment of micro-finance in Bangladesh where NGO sector is well Developed (Seiden, 2005).

CHAPTER THREE

THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the methodology used for the study. It deals about the overall journey of the research process to achieve its objective. The methodology comprised the research design, approaches, population for the study, sampling procedures, the data collection tools/instruments employed, the procedures of data collection and data analysis etc.

3.1. Research design

A research design provides the framework for the collection and analysis of data. The choice of a research design reflects decisions about priorities relating to a range of dimensions of the research process (Bryman, 2001). In a similar vein, a Mouton (1996) state that a research designs is the set of guidelines to be followed in addressing a research problem. Thus, it helps to make appropriate decisions in the research process.

The study utilizes structured questionnaire, to collect the quantitative data. Such quantitative data was supplemented by the qualitative data collected through different sources such as interview with key informants, focus group discussions and case studies. The rationale behind using qualitative methodologies, in addition to quantitative data, was to increase understanding about dynamics, opinions and perceptions of people about NGO related community development programs and its significance in empowering the beneficiaries and resulting in sustainable projects. This thesis paper has been conducted using the sustainable livelihood (SL) approach to 'impact-assessment' methodology in order to assess the livelihood impact of the project intervention. The SL approach aims to assess both the changes in the way people live in their lives and what they achieve with the project. Other key features of such assessment are the emphasis on cross-checking multiple types of data: qualitative and quantitative. A livelihood is generally defined as comprising the capabilities, assets – including both material and social resources – and activities required for a means of living (Rakodi 2002). Therefore, this study employed wealth categorization and the asset approach to livelihood strategy analysis and under this section the livelihood assets that affect the wealth status and livelihood strategies pursued by rural households and its outcome will be described.

3.2. The research approaches

Research is a systematic inquiry that helps to solve the existing or expected problems or to explain undiscovered facts by giving direction to the solution or by creating new knowledge. Commonly there are three research approaches namely qualitative research approach that is the one in which the investigator often makes knowledge claims based on the multiple meanings of individual experiences, socially and historically constructed meanings, participation in issues, collaboration or change oriented with an intent of developing a theory or pattern (Mertens 1998). The second is quantitative approach and the third one is mixed research approach that gives an opportunity to use both approaches to benefit the study from the advantage of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

In order to acquire the best results, the researcher used the way of triangulation. A combination of both qualitative as well as quantitative method was employed in this research. The researcher believes that using these two methods simultaneously enables him/her to tackle the research problem under study. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) (cited in Degefa, 2005), the use of multiple methods can abandon some of the drawback of certain methods; since both qualitative and quantitative methods have their own innate weakness.

Mixing different methods can strengthen a study; it will be a great advantage when the findings of one are corroborated by the other (Creswell et al. 2003; cited in Degefa, 2005). A complex social phenomena are best understood through different methods; some phenomena have multi-dimensions and have linkage with a range of variables, the understanding of which should be based on a mix of divers method (ibid; 2005). This shows that the blending of the two techniques is more effective data collecting method than independent.

The methodology used by the researcher was descriptive approach for both qualitative and quantitative data. Thus, a descriptive research design was selected to be used for this study. Since the purpose of this study was to obtain reliable and relevant information from various groups on the current practice and challenges of the issue under study. Descriptive method helps to have general understanding of the problem by studying the current status, nature of the prevailing conditions and trends through relevant and precise information. Hence, on the basis of this argument it was assumed that the problems were approached by using descriptive research design method.

3.3 Data type and sources

Both primary and secondary data were utilized for this study. Primary data were obtained through questionnaire, focus group discussion and key informant interview. Secondary data were obtained from previous studies, project survey reports, periodic monitoring and evaluations reports and project impact assessment reports.

3.4. The study area, Population and Sample and Sampling Procedure.

3.4.1. The study area and population

The study area – GOAL's project has been implemented in 10 Kebeles' of Darolebu and 9 Kebeles' of Hawigudina Woreda of West Haraghe Zone. Due to this the location were selected purposively and the study has been conducted in 4 Kebels' of Darolebu and 2 Kebeles of Hawigudina Woreda of West Hararghe Zone using questionnaire and focus group discussion respectively due to time and budget constraint.

Population: Refers to the set of people or entities to which findings are to be generalized (Crooks, 2003). In analyzing the role GOAL Ethiopia Development project, focus has been given to households who has been targeted and benefited from this program. This population is given priority due to the need of getting empirical evidence. In deed the total size of the population is 1,065 consisting of both male and female beneficiaries and 60 GOAL staff.

Sampling Frame: the sampling frame consists of the list of households" in the study areas which was targeted and benefited with the program intervention. The rationale behind this is that every beneficiary will have equal chance of being nominated for the study which at the same time reduces biases arising out of probability sampling.

3.4.2. Sampling procedure

Sample Size: For various reasons such as time, cost and energy, census for all clients was impossible. Hence, sampling technique was employed to select the sample population. Accordingly, 120 beneficiaries from the total of 1065 were selected through simple random sampling procedure. Based on this, the researcher adopted a simple mathematical formula that suggested by Solomon (1996) for determining sample size.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where, N is the total direct beneficiary
and e is the error or confidence level

Using the total population of 1065 and error margin of 0.086, the sample size was calculated as follows.

$$n = \frac{1065}{1 + 1065 (.086)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{1065}{1 + 1065 \times 0.007396} = 119.99 \sim 120$$

Once sample size is determined, the survey beneficiaries are randomly selected from the population

of the beneficiary list. On the other hand, the participant of key informant interviews and FGDs were purposively selected. The selection criterion includes knowledge of the project intervention and beneficiaries' economic, social situations prior to the project intervention has been considered.

Sampling techniques: Out of 10 kebeles's Darolebu woreda, 4 kebeles has been chosen using simple random sampling of lottery method and then out of the 4 Kebeles' sample beneficiaries has been randomly chosen from a numbered list of beneficiaries. Purposive sampling has been used to select participants from GOAL staff and for focus group discussions to get high quality information. Purposive (expert) sampling has been used to select the sample size from the organizations to be interviewed. It is the most appropriate sampling techniques, since the research questions and objectives require selecting particular respondents who were considered to be informed and who had the required information needed to answer the research questions.

Sekaran (2003) states that purposive sampling is confined to specific types of people who can provide the desired information, either because they are the only ones who have it, or to conform to some criteria set by the researcher. Thus, the chosen participants were the most advantageously placed or were in the best position to provide the required information.

3.5 Data collection instruments

In gathering the required data for the study, questionnaire, interviews, Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and document analysis were used.

Questionnaire - This has been used to collect information from the program beneficiaries. For this purpose structured questionnaires have been developed and administered that enabled obtaining quantitative data on issues regarding the role of GOAL development program and its impact on socio-economic improvement of beneficiaries based on selected indicators. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on the literature and project related document reviewed.

Interview - Interviews were used as one of the instruments of data collection in this study as it allow generating enough details when used in association with other instruments (e.g. questionnaires). Interviews are used as effective means of collecting rich qualitative data used to understand subtle meanings in the phenomena under focus (Nunan, 1992).

In collecting the major qualitative information of subjects, semi-structured interviews were prepared. Semi-structured types were preferred for the sake of making the questions flexible and giving the interviewees more control over the course of the interview as suggested by Nunan (1992). According to Dornyei (2007:123), semi-structured interviews allow the interviewee to “elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner.” Moreover, since semi-structured format enables the subjects to freely express their feelings, the researcher believed that it would help to get information that may not be obtained through other data gathering techniques.

Focus group discussions: FDG has been used as another important data gathering tools in this study to complement the survey data. Dornyei (2007) points out that focus group discussion is flexible and information-rich by nature and it allows the emergence of a useful discussion about a broad topic. Also Lederman (1990) notes, people who share a common concern will be more willing to talk amid the security of others. Wiersma (2000), Singh (2008) & Creswell (2009) suggest that focus group discussions are effective instruments of data collection in a situation where the researcher is interested in the shared social, economic and cultural practices.

For the purpose of this study, FGD participants were selected purposively from two kebeles’ of Hawigudina Woreda of West Hararghe Zone. Two focus group discussions has been held consisting of 5 to 15 participants. All the FGD employed the funnel approach (This approach involves the use of broad questions followed gradually by more narrow questions) in collecting information (Rogally, 1996).

Document Analysis: involves collecting information and data from existing project surveys, M& E reports, project impact assessments reports and other relevant publications.

3.6 Data analysis techniques

Regarding data analysis in mixed methods research, Dornyei (2007: 245) notes “in many cases it may be better to keep the analyses separate and only mix the qualitative and quantitative results at a late stage to illuminate or corroborate each other.” Creswell (2009) also states that this approach helps to achieve what is termed ‘concurrent triangulation’ in mixed methods design where comparison between different databases could be made for better effect.

For him, mixing of the two types of data, qualitative and quantitative, is made at the interpretation or discussion “to actually merge the data (i.e., transform one type of data to the other type so that they can easily be compared) or integrate or compare the results of two databases side by side in a discussion” (Creswell, 2009: 213). Hence by adopting this approach, the analysis of data in this study was first made separately for the quantitative and the qualitative information and mixing was made in the discussion and interpretation so that information gathered from different datasets could be integrated in answering the research questions of the study. The comparison of changes in different forms of household assets (Financial, social, human, physical and natural) were analyzed using past and current practices.

The Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative information for the study was collected through interviews with GOAL staff and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) with beneficiaries through the open ended questions. The qualitative information gathered through open-ended questions were systematically converted into numerical codes and analyzed, classified, summarized and tabulated using Content analysis approach and it was analyzed using descriptive methods of analysis.

The Quantitative Data Analysis

The data which were collected through questionnaires and the reviews of documents pertaining to the research trends were analyzed quantitatively. In preparing the questionnaire data for the analysis, the data was separately coded and the researcher used the statistical package for social science (SPSS) to **code and analyzes** the collected responses from questionnaire and then the data were analyzed using frequencies and percentages. At the stage of the interpretation, findings from both qualitative and quantitative data were consolidated and discussed and then based on the findings of the study, conclusions were drawn and recommendations were forwarded.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This study is mainly focused on looking into the roles of NGO program and its impact on socio-economic development in the case of GOAL Ethiopia. To finish this study and accomplish the task interview and questionnaire has been utilized. In addition documents have been reviewed and focus group discussion were held. This chapter of the study is classified in to two parts, the first part discusses about the respondent profile and the second part presents the empirical evidence collected from beneficiaries and staff as well as review of documents. The data collected were analyzed with qualitative and quantitative methods and presented using tables showing with frequencies.

4.1 Respondents general Profile

In this section respondent's general profile which include gender, education level, marital status and occupation are discussed and their relationship with the study is explained.

Table – 4.1.1 Distribution of respondents by sex

Respondents	Gender		Total	%
	Male	Female		
Beneficiaries	50	30	80	63% Male 37% Female
GOAL Staff	15	5	20	75% Male 25% Female

Source: Own survey, 2016

A total of 80 beneficiaries and 20 staff interviewed for this study. The above table shows that, from the total 80 respondent 63% of them are male and the remaining 37% are female. This implies that there is gender imbalance and more male beneficiaries were targeted in the program and males are found to be engaged in the income generation activity than women.

Table 4.1.2 Distribution of respondents by their education, marital status and occupation

Description	Indicator	Frequency	%
Educational background	Non-literate	19	23
	Below grade 10	48	60
	Grade 10 & above	13	17
Marital Status	Married	60	75
	Single	9	11
	Divorced	4	5
	Widowed	7	9
Employed (Occupation)	Yes	42	53
	No	38	47
Type of occupation	Small Business	10	12
	Farmer	30	38
	Laborer	5	6
	Other	20	25
	No answer	15	19

Source: Own survey, 2016

Table 4.1.2. Shows the distribution of respondents by educational background marital status, and occupation. It reveals that the majority of respondents 75 % are married followed by single (unmarried). 77% of the respondents are literate and 23 non-literate. 60% of the respondents are below grade 10 and the rest are grade 10 and above. The majority of respondents are employed. The dominant occupation is farming. This implies that the majority of the respondents are literate and they are in a better position to run their business in addition to their farming activities.

4.2. Impact of the project intervention in improving the assets of households

This study examines the contribution of GOAL's development project implemented in Darolebu and Hawi Gudina Woreda's of West Hararghe Zone on improving the livelihood and socio-economic conditions of beneficiary households (BHHs). In this section the changes of the four forms of assets (Financial, social, human and physical) during past and current practices are assessed. Today, livelihoods approaches are most useful as an analytical or heuristic tool (Clark and Carney, 2008). They provide a way to order information and understand not only the nature of poverty or socio-economic problem, but also the links between different aspects of people's livelihoods.

In this way, they help users to understand complex and changing situations. They broaden the policy dialogue and assist in identifying the relevance of program as well as where key constraints and opportunities lie. Furthermore, livelihoods approaches are still essential within social and economic research on poverty and food security, both as embedded in research strategies or as a research tool (Carter and May, 1997; Orr and Mwale, 2001; Barrett et al., 2001; Brown et al., 2006; Devereux, 2006; Ellis and Freeman, 2007; Babulo et al., 2008).

4.2.1 Change in financial assets

In order to identify the project impact in changing the financial assets of the household three indicators have been used: Change in monthly real per capital income, change in the amount of saving and its source and access to credit. BHHs are compared using the before and after approach across different income categories.

Change in income

Households with higher income levels have more choices, can better meet their basic needs and enjoy broader opportunities. The assumption is that the household is expected to benefit from the project in terms of improving and diversifying the source of income. As indicated in table 4.2.1, 1 the large majority of households (89%) had source of income before the project, while few households (11 %) hadn't any source of income. As reported by the respondents, most of the household's average income were birr 300.29 per month before the project intervention, however, the majority of households reported that their average monthly income increased to

birr 425.50 after the project.

Moreover, more than 70 % of the households confirmed that there is an increase in the overall household income after the project. On the other hand, 19.3% of the respondents reported no change and 10.7 % of the respondent doesn't know the change. When the respondents were asked on why there is change in income, 43% of respondents reported that their income increase due to start a new business, 31.2 % business expansion and the remaining (9%) a family member managed to get a job. This implies that the project intervention resulted an increase in income as a result they started a new business and expanded the existing ones.

Table – 4.2.1.1 Change of household income after the project

Description	Indicators	Total in %
Have source of income before the project	Yes	89
	No	11
How do you see your level of income after the project intervention?	Increased	70
	No change	19.3
	Doesn't Know	10.7
Reason for increment	Start a new business	43
	Business expansion	31.2
	Got a job	19
	Income from other sources	6.8
Average income per month	Before the project(birr)	300.29
	After project (birr)	425.50

Source: Own survey, 2016

Change in savings

Saving is an alternative indicator to measure financial assets. The saving trend after the project

shows improvement. The large majority of the respondents (75%) have increased their overall savings and the capacity to save. On the other hand, some of the respondents (8.3%) complained that their overall savings have shown no change and even showed a decreasing trend (10.4 %).

The findings of the survey revealed that households’ income has increased and their source of income diversified as well as their savings practice improved due to the benefits they are getting from the project. 20% of the respondents save their money in bank, 12% in local micro finance, 17% in the form village level saving and lending association (VSLA) and 51% of the respondents save their money in other forms. From the below table the saving practice of the respondents increased, however, most of the respondents didn’t save their money in financial institutions.

Table – 4.2.1.2 Change of household saving

Description	Indicator	Total in %
What is the status of your saving trend after the project?	Decreased	10.4
	No change	8.3
	Increased	75
	No answer	6.3
Where do you save?	In bank	20
	Local micro finance	12
	VSLA	17
	Other forms	51

Source: Own survey, 2016

Access to Cash/grain through IGA

Informative data collected from the focus group discussion reveals that prior to the inception of the project most people borrow money from individual money lenders at expensive rate. During the project intervention 45% of the respondents have an access to cash through IGA. 75.5% of the respondents said that the cash/grain received through IGA greatly increased their income and 19.5% reported as their income is increased. On the other hand 5% of the respondents reported

that the access to cash did not bring any change to their income.

This implies that under income source diversification, for the respondent increased with the provision of cash/grain through IGA (Income generating activities) and village level saving and lending association (VSLA). This off-farm activity (IGA) contributed a lot in household asset protection i.e. reduced asset depletion, household asset creations.

Table- 4.2.1.3 Access to Cash/grain through IGA

Description	Indicators	Total in %
Have you accessed cash or grain through IGA	Yes	45
	No	55
As a result of the access to the cash through IGA is your income	Increased greatly	75.5
	Increased	19.5
	Stayed the same	5

Source: Own survey, 2016

In addition to the above, during interview and focus group discussions the majority of the respondents revealed that the program intervention increased household financial assets: income, improve saving practice and provide access to credit. Under income source diversification, the main approach promoted well was village level saving and lending association (VSLA). Poor rural women were addressed with awareness creation on saving, technically supported to organize themselves into village level groups.

Training on IGA, saving, cash box, registration book etc. and close follow up and technical support provided throughout the programme life. As a result of this approach, saving culture of the members' enhanced, social bondage among member groups increased, business skill and knowledge increased, moreover, enabled members to engage in income generating activities (IGAs). In addition to improving saving culture and creating access to loan, this off-farm activity (IGA) contributed a lot in household asset protection i.e. reduced asset depletion, household asset creation which confirmed by respondents. This were also supported by case studies indicated below:

Case Study 1:

My name is Zubeyda Umare. I live in Haji village Kurfa Wachu kebele Daru Lebu Woreda. I am married 40 years old women. My husband name is Adem Lencho and I have six children.

From GOAL Ethiopia last year, I got four kids of goats one of a kid is male. Before this provision I didn't have any livestock for my family life were very challenging. After I took goats I could able to raising the goats. This year I sold goats in the market to drive money for household consumption and bought another goats in order to keep colony increasing.

Currently, I have eight goats and I already delivered four goats to the second beneficiary (Waleya Hussen). My family life has been improved, I can feed babies very well from milks I got from goats. My future plan is to buy a cow and ox.

Case Study 2

My Name is Hindi Ahmed lives in Daro Lebu Woreda Kurfa Wachu Kebele Kurfa Wachu Zone Jibrota village. I lost my husband years ago and responsible to my family as Female Headed Household. I have five children (3M and 2F). I am one of Women Asset Building Group participants targeted in 2013. After trained on shoat rearing, I received two goats in August 2013.

I was happy with the opportunity I got and started goat rearing with due care based on the training I received and our group bylaw. I transferred two kids to second beneficiary in 2014. In 2015 I succeed to have 6 goats (two previously provided by GOAL, 3 born kids and 1 bought with group insurance saving share out).

One of my Children named Boru got sick and I had to take her to health facilities for treatment. Since I am poor, the only opportunity I had was to sell one of my goats to get my daughter treated. Thanks to GOAL, I am lucky to have this opportunity, I was very happy when I see my daughter get treated. I feel as GOAL saved my daughter's life.

I am planning to keep rearing goats and even to scale up to cattle and dreaming to construct better housing.

Case Study 3:

Miski Hussen and I am 27 years old divorced 7 years ago and I have one son lives in Kurfa Wachu Kebele Haji Village. I became a member of the group three years ago after I took orientation on VSLA. Before VSLA membership life were very difficult for me however soon after thing were become simple.

My asset has been increased, for instance before membership I had only one ox but currently I have one ox, one cow and five goats. Moreover currently I can able to participate in different business like goat trading from money I got from share out and credit from my association. Thus the income I get from this business can make led good life with my son.

Case Study 4

My name is Fatuma Adem lives in Daro Lebu Woreda, Sekina Kebele Megala village. I am one of *Megertu Jalela* VSLA (Village level Saving and Lending Association) group members. *Megertu Jalela* VSLA group established in September 2013 which is initiated by GOAL Ethiopia WH RDP Livelihoods sector as one of its approach aiming at creating income diversification opportunities for rural community.

I had not got any chance to get loan to engage in IGAs before. I started saving 20Birr each week. So far I have taken loan twice. First round, 500Birr and bought two kid goats 300Birr each by adding 100Birr; and after one month fattening sold 400Birr each and got 200Birr as net profit. I have used 100Birr to buy 4 hens which currently the number of her hens reproduced and reached 15, and I have been using eggs for household consumption and sale to cover my weekly saving. Second round, I have taken 1000Birr and bought two goats for 500Birr. After two month fattening sold for 700Birr each and has got 400Birr net profit and I have bought one female goat with this profit. Her goat is pregnant by the time we organizing this success story.

Source: Own survey, 2016

4.2.2. Change in physical capital and wellbeing of BHHs

House ownership and improvements

Ownership of houses and improvements increases households' material wealth and living standard. The assumption is that households may have better housing ownership and improve their houses with project support.

The results in table 4.2.2.1 reveal that most of the households (68%) had their own houses before the project. 66.6 % of the households live in medium and good houses, while 33.3 % live in poor houses even after the project support. Some households (47%) brought improvements on their houses, which cost more than birr 100. However, significant number of households (53%) did not bring improvements on their houses which cost more than birr 100. Improvements are mostly made on repairs of houses. Few households (20%) expanded their houses. Based on the response from households, it is possible to say that the project support has limited impact on housing and improvements of the beneficiaries. Nevertheless, the impact is not significant.

Table – 4.2.2.1 House ownership and housing improvements

Ownership and Status	Indicators	Total in%
Have your own house	Yes	68
	No	32
Quality of the house at present	Poor	33.3
	Medium	53.3
	Good	13.3
Improvements on houses more than Br.100	Yes	47
	No	53
Kind of improvements on houses	Repair	70
	Expansion	20
	Sanitation System	6.7
	Other Improvements	6.7

Source: Own survey, 2016

Household Asset ownership

Change in household asset position is one of the impact indicators of the project interventions at the household level. Ownership of household assets is also an indicator of improvement in the households' wealth. The assumption is that GOAL's project services increase household's income and they may have the capacity to purchase household assets.

Table 4.2.2.2 shows some household assets ownership by comparing before and after the project intervention. The data in the table reveals that most households (more than 73%) had modest value household assets such as chair, table, bed, and radio before taking loans. Some households (less than 35%) had owned some assets such as tape recorder, television, shelf (buffet), sofa, and refrigerator before the project. The results of this study shows that, ownership of household assets has increased after the project intervention. For instance, TV, sofa and refrigerator ownership increased from 21 % to 35.7 %, 32 % to 43% and 33 % to 38 % respectively. In addition the other forms of assets like improved farming tools and livestock (ox, goat etc.) has greatly increased during the project intervention.

Table – 4.2.2.2 Households' Asset Ownership before and after project

Assets	Before the project	After the project
	Percent	Percent
Chair	72.6	92.9
Table	94	97.6
Shelf (buffet)	34.5	76.2
Bed	94	95.2
Radio	92.9	94
Tape	41.7	47.6
Television	21.4	35.7
Sofa	32.1	43
Refrigerator	33.3	38.1
Others form of assets		
Improved farming tools	37	87
Increased in livestock (ox, goat etc.)	42	66

Source: Own survey, 2016

Household diet

It is clear that food is basic need for life. The condition of nutrition used in the household is an indicator of the household's wellbeing. The large majority of respondents reported that their household had eaten meals at a minimum of three times in a day. Less than 3 % households reported that their families take meals less than three times a day. From the results, it is possible to conclude that GOAL's project intervention have a positive impact on households' diet condition.

Table 4.2.2.3 Household diet condition

Diet	Indicators	Before the project %	After the project %
Number of meals in a day	Once	3	-
	Twice	4	2
	Three times	84.4	88.6
	More than 3 times	8.6	9.4

Source: Own survey, 2016

4.2.3. Change in household access to education

Education development is one of the priority areas of intervention under the poverty reduction strategy. Education plays an important role in increasing human potential and development at the individual and community level. According to the research conducted by Appleton (2003) cited in Assefa (2004), education can lift people out of poverty. The returns from investing in education are on the average lower but the return in income increment is much higher for those with higher levels of education. On the other hand, returns to education rise with the level of education.

Another study (Aoki et al., 2002, cited in Assefa, 2004), confirmed that lack of educational opportunity is one of the most powerful determinants of poverty and unequal access to educational opportunity is strongly correlated with income inequality. The provision of relevant

education significantly contributes to any poverty reduction exercise. The evidences from Assefa's (2004) study revealed that educated farmers are more likely to adopt new technologies and get higher return on their land.

Table 4.2.3.1, indicates that almost all of the respondents revealed that they didn't get direct support from the project for formal education access. 51.7% of the respondents revealed that there is an increase in school attendance, 31.6% responded as no change and the remaining 16.7% responded as school attendance decreased.

Even if GOAL project do not have a direct access to education the school attendance shows an increase. It is assumed that the other element of the intervention such as health facilities, access to water and livelihood support (IGA, VSLA etc.) played a great role on increasing school attendance or access to education support.

Table- 4.2.3.1 Household educational access

Education	Indicator	Total in %
Did your children get formal education access under GOAL program?	Yes	1.5
	No	98.5
Over all school Attendance	Decreased	16.7
	No change	31.6
	Increased	51.7

Source: Own survey, 2016

4.2.4. Household health and access to medical facilities

Poverty and poor health have bi-directional relationship in which poor health leads to poverty and poverty leads to poor health conditions. Apart from lack of financial resources to pay for health services, food, clean water and good sanitation, the poor also suffer from poor health facilities (Daniel, 2004).

To test this hypothesis, households were asked on the status of their health conditions, medical treatments and the overall medical access. Table 4.2.4.1 reveals that about 77.1%, didn't have

sickness or injury incidences in their householder sickness incident. 78.9% of the respondents had medical treatment. This implies that they had the capacity to pay medical expenses and there is also access for the service. 55.8% of the respondents covered their medical expenses from business profits 9% were covered from family and the remaining from other sources. About 84% of the respondents reported that the access to medical facilities increased. 13% reported as no change and 3% reported as decreased.

It is assumed that GOAL's project intervention improved the access to medical treatment and overall health conditions of respondents.

Table 4.2.4.1 Health status of households

Indicators	Responses	Total in %
Any sickness in the household during the last 12 months	Yes	22.9
	No	77.1
Did you get medical treatment	Yes	78.9
	No	21.1
Source of money for medical Expenses	Business Profit	55.8
	From Family	9
	Others	35.2
Over all medical access	Decreased	3
	No change	13
	Increased	84

Source: Own survey, 2016

As far as water and sanitation is concerned , the result from staff interview and focus group discussion revealed that a large reduction in the time spent fetching water has been reported

by women beneficiaries. Travel time has reduced (from 1-4 hrs to 5-30mins) not only because the water sources are nearer but because they had to spend less time waiting at the water points. Apart from this, it has reduced risks and accidents faced by women, girls have more time to studies, women can be able to invest more of their time in productive ventures and it also has improved personal hygiene. There were increase in milk yields and fewer leaches on livestock due to the availability of clean water for the animals. Patients at the health posts could access potable water for taking tablets.

4.2.5. Women empowerment in terms of improving their poverty

Women empowerment by increasing their income and their control over that household resource (including their own income), enhancing their knowledge and skills in production and trade, and increasing their participation in household decision making. As the result, social attitudes and perceptions may change and women's status in the household and community may be enhanced (Johnson and Rogaly, 1997).

Table 4.2.5.1 indicates that out of the total respondents the majorities of women (84.2%) participated in the IGA after they got marriage. About 50% of respondents reported that, the decision to take the fund is jointly made by the husband and wife. Besides, 26.3 % of the respondents reported that only the wife makes the decision on the fund.

About 50% of respondents indicated that the decision to use the fund and 47.4% to use the business profit is jointly made by the husband and wife, while only wife makes 31.9% of fund usage and 36.8% of business profit decision. No one reported that husband as the only decision maker on the fund in the household. This indicates that women have at least equal or more power than their husbands in the decisions on the IGA activities. Out of the total sample respondents, more than 92 % confirmed that the participation in GOAL program raised their confidence in decision-making.

Similarly about 90 % of respondents reported that they have higher level of self-confidence after the intervention of GOAL program. The findings of the study revealed that GOAL development program enhanced women's participation in decision-making and increases their self-confidence.

Table – 4.2.5.1. Empowerment of married women in decision making

Indicators	Responses	Total
Any credit in your name after marriage	Yes	84.2
	No	10.5
	No answer	5.3
Decision maker to take the credit	Husband and I	50
	Mostly I	2.6
	Only I	26.3
	No answer	21
Decision maker on the usage of fund	Husband and I	50
	Mostly I	7.9
	Only I	31.9
	No answer	10.2
Decision maker on the use of business profit	Husband and I	47.4
	Mostly I	2.6
	Only I	36.8
	No answer	13.2
Your level of self Confidence	Highly confident	91
	No confidence	2
	No answer	7

Source: Own survey, 2016

4.2.6. Non-financial services

Training

Training is one of the non-financial services provided by GOAL. Table 4.2.6.1 indicates the trainings delivered to the project beneficiaries. About 95% of clients received training, while about 5% didn't. The trainings were focused on IGA activities, shoat production, and savings. Most of the clients (52.4 %) received training on IGA activities. Most of the clients were trained not less than three times. During the focus group discussions, most of the participants reported that the training delivered by GOAL were relevant and helpful to ensure sustainability of the

program.

Table- 4.2.6.1 Training for house holds

Activities	Indicators	Percent
Training taken	Yes	95
	No	5
Type of training taken	About IGA	52.4
	About shoat production	6
	About saving	11.9
	General training	20.2
	No answer	9.5
Number of trainings taken	Once	17.9
	Twice	11.9
	Three times	28.6
	More than 3 times	33.3
	No answer	8.3

Source: Own survey, 2016

4.2.7 Change of beneficiary basic needs

Table 4.2.7.1 Change of beneficiary basic needs

Indicators	Before	After	%change
Afford to cover daily food costs	53.0	65.2	12.2
Afford to cover minimum clothing Requirements	50.4	60.6	10.2
Afford to pay for educational costs	52.3	57.3	5.0
Afford to cover health expenses	58.7	69.2	10.5
Afford to cover transport costs	45.1	54.4	9.2

Afford to purchase new assets	31.6	37.9	6.3
Afford to pay for social costs	38.8	47.9	9.1
Contribute to voluntary & involuntary contribution	55.8	64.5	8.8
Afford to pay for electricity and water expenses	75.1	79.9	4.8

Source: Household Sample Survey May 2014.

Based on the data presented on the above table 4.2.7.1 with the intervention of the project, the proportion of households who able to purchase minimum daily food requirement has shown a percentage change of 12.2%, and those who can afford to pay for clothing, health and education have shown a percentage change of 10, 11 and 5 respectively. Change in the proportion of income source is another viable indicator of the contribution of the projects.

As to the review result, changes in the proportion of the amount of income for the beneficiary households for most sources is positive, i.e., the percentage growth of income of beneficiary households as compared to the base year (pre project period) was increased. As a result, the net change attributed to the project is positive and therefore the contribution of the project to increased income and changes in income shares was positive for most of the income sources of the beneficiaries. All in all, GOAL Ethiopia has been able to increase income and diversify the income sources of the beneficiaries under its urban livelihood program.

4.2.8 Sustainability

The socio-economic impact of poverty is not to last in short period of time. It is expected that the impact will continue well beyond the project period. Accordingly, the impact mitigation effort requires the long term commitment of NGOs like GOAL Ethiopia to ensure the continuity of the project result beyond the project period.

As explained by program managers' community based approach given high priority. Kebele development committee organized in each interventional Kebeles and capacitated with trainings technical support. They have constructed their own office with minimum support from GOAL and they are responsible in monitoring different community level groups, identifying community level problems, preparing community level action plans and implementing in collaboration with

government sector offices. When GOAL phases out from this operational area kebele level development approaches were handed over to these committee and woreda government offices.

Technical and institutional capacity of beneficiaries has been built by providing the necessary capacity building trainings and technical assistances.

GOAL Ethiopia has been working to develop implementation capacity of local actors like CBOs, local NGOs and woreda and/or kebele administration officials by transferring all the necessary knowledge and work disciplines.

With a clear intent to make poverty reduction activities of the organization rooted in the community, GOAL has been facilitating and supporting the establishment of various community based institutions in all its intervention areas to ensure the sustainability of its programs. The community group who organized in different groups well internally managed and shows high motivation to sustained the approaches and has the ownership. For example VSLA groups were duplicated by different village community by their own initiation without any external support based on experiences from those organized and supported by GOAL. Hopefully such approaches will became one of community level institutions like Iddir. Due to the above it is believed that the sustainability of the program will be maintained.

4.2.9 Community participation

The relationship between NGOs and the community have its own effect on the program. The relationship between the two has a lot to do with the output and usefulness of the program. The participation helps or hinders the program which if is participatory can bring a life changing impact in the lives of the beneficiaries.

Table 4.2.9.1 Community participation

Description	Indicator	%
What type of relationship exists between the NGO and the community?	Participatory	84.3
	Down ward flow of the program	15.70

Based on the data presented on the above table 4.2.9.1 with the intervention of the project refers to the way how the program reaches or develops to the benefit to beneficiaries. The program either can come through mutual consultation or it can come from the NGOs as a way out or livelihood enhancement program. Respondents (84.3%) responded that the program were all participatory while (15.70%) responded that the program comes as downward from the NGO as the program developed by the NGO and the beneficiaries will participate on the developed framework. This implies that, the program were developed through the consultation and discussion with the community.

As explained by the program managers and discussion during the focus group, the project was designed based on the interest of the community and the local government. Starting from assessment, designing implementation and monitoring the participation of the community and local authority was very high.

4.2.10 IGA Beneficiaries accessibility to the market

The income generation program requires the market place and the market place is the only way to go for the business that the product can have the assigned market value. The market place is the only way to that product is accessed to and cash comes through.

Table 4.2.10.1 Market Chain

Description	Indicator	%
Is there a tangible market place to sell the business item?	Yes	77
	No	33
Who created the market access?	The NGOs itself	75.4
	Created by friends and neighbors	8.2
	Created by beneficiaries	10.9
	If other please specify (brokers)	5.5

The section deals with the market and the business itself. It sees whether there is a tangible area to sell the products. The majority (77%) of the respondents revealed that, they have a tangible place to access their products while 33% of the respondents responded that they don't have a place to sell their business item.

75.4% of the respondents revealed that the market opportunity is created by the NGO. 10.9% said that the market is created by beneficiaries and 8.2% created by friends and neighbors. According to USAID IGA manual(2007), Market Assessment is the process of collecting information about goods and services that may or may not be available at the market in order to determine how a business can participate in a profitable way and fill market gaps. Before starting a business, it is essential to know about the quality and quantities of goods and services available on the market. In addition, understanding the buyers / potential consumers of goods and services is equally important, in order to fill the market gap.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This study aimed to investigate the role of NGO program in socio-economic development, by employing mixed methods design and collecting data using interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaires, and document analysis. It came up with a number of insights presented, interpreted and discussed in Chapter four. This last chapter summarizes the major findings that emerged from the analysis of the qualitative and quantitative data collected for the study. Finally, based on the findings, it draws conclusions and recommendations.

5.1 SUMMARY

Respondents by Gender

A total of 80 beneficiaries and 20 staff interviewed for this study. From the total 80 respondent 63% of them are male and the remaining 37% are female. This implies that there is gender imbalance and more male beneficiaries were targeted in the program and males are found to be engaged in the income generation activity than women.

Change in financial assets

Majority of beneficiaries revealed that the project have helped them to increase their financial assets when it is compared with before and after approaches.

- More than 70 % of the households confirmed that there is an increase in the overall household income after the project.
- 75% of the respondents revealed that the saving trend after the project shows improvement.
- 45% of the respondents have an access to credit. 75.5% of the respondents said that the cash/grain received through IGA greatly increased their income and 19.5% reported as their income is increased.

Change in physical capital and wellbeing of BHHs

The result of the study shows an improvement on the asset ownership and household diet condition. However, based on the response from the households it is possible to say that the project support has limited impact on housing ownership & improvements.

Access to education

Almost all (98.5%) of the respondents revealed that they didn't get direct education support from the project for formal education access. However, 51.7% of the respondents revealed that there is

an increase in school attendance. It is assumed that the other component of the intervention such as health facilities, access to clean water, livelihood support (IGA, WAB and VSLA) played a positive role on increasing access to education.

Access to medical facilities

The study showed that the project intervention has a positive impact and has improved access to medical treatment and overall health conditions of the respondents. The result from focus group discussions, case studies and interview with staff revealed that the program implemented in different sectors brought a significant impact on improving the life of households. In general the project support enables them to:

- Increase their food production/security
- Increase their income diversification by developing market through a system approach.

This improved asset creation and reduce asset depletion. This implies that under income source diversification, for the respondent increased with the provision of cash/grain through IGA (Income generating activities) and village level saving and lending association (VSLA). This off-farm activity (IGA) contributed a lot in household asset protection i.e. reduced asset depletion, household asset creations.

Community participation

The result from FDG and interview revealed that the project is designed based on the interest of communities and gov't and there is a community participation during the project design and implementation. The majority of the respondents (84.3%) responded that the program were all participatory while (15.70%) responded that the program comes as downward from the NGO as the program developed by the NGO and the beneficiaries will participate on the developed framework.

This implies that, the program were developed through the consultation and discussion with the community. As explained by the program managers and discussion during the focus group, the project was designed based on the interest of the community and the local government. Starting from assessment, designing implementation and monitoring the participation of the community and local authority was very high.

Market Chain

The majority (77%) of the respondents revealed that, they have a tangible place to access their products while 33% of the respondents responded that they don't have a place to sell their

business item. 75.4% of the respondents revealed that the market opportunity is created by the NGO.

Sustainability

GOAL has been facilitating and supporting the establishment of various community based institutions in all its intervention areas to ensure the sustainability of its programs. The community group who organized in different groups well internally managed and shows high motivation to sustain the approaches and has the ownership. For example VSLA groups were duplicated by different village community by their own initiation without any external support based on experiences from those organized and supported by GOAL. Hopefully such approaches will become one of community level institutions like Iddir. Due to the above it is believed that the sustainability of the program will be maintained.

5.2 CONCLUSION

This paper has tried to assess the role of GOAL Ethiopia's development project in socio-economic development of the beneficiary households. The organization is implementing programs which are capable of bringing viable change in the poverty status of target groups in its respective intervention areas. Accordingly, the key informant interview, focus group discussion and the overall document review shows that the livelihood of the beneficiaries has been improved after program intervention.

It has been revealed that the capacity of the beneficiaries to cover basic expenditure and need (such as food, clothing, transport, education and housing, etc.) has been improved over the program/project period. Likewise, the programs executed by GOAL Ethiopia have enabled beneficiaries to engage in small business, different income generating activities, developing markets through a systems approach and market linkage, promote and increase the saving practice. As a result, beneficiaries of the programs have their source of income and they become self-reliance and empowered.

The programs have brought positive contribution to diversification of income and employment. Strong focus on the social sectors is often an important step towards a poor orientation. Increases in employment and labor productivity provide the main link between economic growth and sustainability of livelihoods. In order to reduce poverty, it is essential both to enhance the capacity of the economy to generate productive employment and decent working conditions, and to strengthen the ability of the poor to access these opportunities.

Democratic and efficient organizations (not least trade unions) are important tools to achieve decent working conditions (Bigsten and Jörgen, 2001) capital development by the programs and projects through capacity building, training in business skill and entrepreneurship, financial and business management. The capacity building efforts made by the organization shows a positive change and there is progress in terms of having well-articulated aspirations, strategies, organizational skills and people management in the established cooperatives and organizations.

The programs were managed with robust systems for training and managing volunteers, and well rooted and respected in the communities in which they work. They are generally meeting

their targets, and, overall, the project can be considered cost effective when judged by the number of beneficiaries receiving direct, intensive and ongoing support.

As far as the projects implemented to support women beneficiaries have considered, a large reduction in the time spent fetching water has been observed. Apart, there have been reduced risks and accidents faced by women, women can engage in productive business activities and girls have more time to deal with their education.

The study revealed that the programs has increased the social support and solidarity and improve self-esteem and confidence. As per the respondents profile the majority of the beneficiaries are male, in order to reduce poverty the participation of women has to be emphasized. The organization has also established different community institutions and provided technical and financial support to insure the sustainability of the program.

Despite the achievements, GOAL Ethiopia have come across different challenges in their program implementation period. Lack of plot land for income generating activities and expansion of service provision has been the major problem for the organizations.

5.3 RECOMANDATION

The work done by GOAL Ethiopia matches the strategic aims and objectives towards the improvement of livelihoods and socio-economic conditions of beneficiaries. Despite the roles played by the organization on this process, the following recommendations are provided for future action plan.

- The organization has to continue working in institutionalizing, strengthening and creating community linking with that of the government to help the sustainability of projects.
- As per the respondents profile the majority of the beneficiaries are male, in order to improve livelihood, socio-economic conditions and then to reduce poverty the participation of women has to be emphasized- more women has to be targeted.
- Since education development is one of the priority areas of poverty reduction strategy and as it plays an important role in increasing human potential and development at the individual and community level. GOAL has to work on this sector as the main area of focus.
- Most of the respondents do not save their money in financial institutions. Therefore, continues awareness has to be created so that the money kept in financial institutions which is safe and generate interest.
- The researcher also recommend other researchers to use this study as stepping stone to see the contribution of NGO's in poverty reduction as well as development of the nation.

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Annex - I

Questionnaire to GOAL Staff

1. What are the activities/projects implemented by GOAL Ethiopia in West Hararge in relation to livelihood? What are the focus areas?
2. Does GOAL Ethiopia development program increase the endowment of assets (Financial, Physical, Human and Social Capital) of beneficiary households? If yes e.g by how much, what way and which activities?
3. Does the small business activity created by the program to poor beneficiaries improve their socio-economic conditions?
4. How is the participation of communities on program planning and implementation?
5. What are the likely long lasting effects or sustainability of the program?
6. Do you think that IAPF project brought an impact on poverty reduction at West Hareghe? If yes please explain how and in what area or aspects.
7. What problems so far have your organization faced during program implementation to achieve the objective of the program? Please discuss the challenges briefly.
8. How do you see the effectiveness of market linkage structure created by GOAL program to poor beneficiaries?

Annex – II

Focus group discussion questions

1. What is the role of GOAL development program in West Hararghe in terms of livelihood sustainability?
2. Does GOAL Ethiopia development program increase the endowment of assets (Financial, Physical, Human and Social Capital) of beneficiary households? If yes e.g by how much, what way and which activities?
3. Does the small business activity created by the program to poor beneficiaries improve their socio-economic conditions?
4. Were the programs effective in meeting the needs of the beneficiaries? What are the indications of changes in peoples' lives? Please discuss
4. What are the impacts of program/project in beneficiaries 'wellbeing?
5. How do you see the effectiveness of market linkage structure created by GOAL program to poor beneficiaries?
7. Do you think the program is sustainable?
8. How do you see the participation of beneficiaries on program planning and implementation?
9. What problems far have you encountered? Please discuss the challenges briefly.

Annex - III
Questionnaire to beneficiaries

A. Basic information about respondents

No	Questions	Indicator
A01	Sex of the respondents	Male 1 Female 2
A02	Are you married?	Yes 1 No 2
A03	Have you ever attended formal education?	Yes 1 No 2
A04	What is the highest grade you had completed?	Non literate 1 Below grade 10 2 Grade 10 and above 3

B. Source and level of income of household

No	Questions	Indicator
B01	Did you have a source of income for your household before the project?	Yes 1
		No 2
B02	How do you see your level of income after the project intervention?	Increased 1
		No change 2
		Does n't Know 3
B03	If increased, reason for increment	Start a new business 1
		Business expansion 2
		Got a job 3
		Income from other sources 4

B04	What is the average income per month?	Before the project	1
		After the project	2

C- Change of household saving

No	Description	Indicator	
C01	What is the status of your saving trend after the project?	Decreased	1
		No change	2
		Increased	3
		No answer	4
C02	Where do you save?	In bank	1
		Local micro finance	2
		VSLA	3
		Other forms	4

D - Access to Cash/grain through IGA

No	Description	Indicators	
D01	Have you accessed cash or grain through IGA	Yes	1
		No	2
D02	As a result of the access to the cash through IGA is your income	Increased greatly	1
		Increased	2
		Stayed the same	3

E - House ownership and housing improvements

No	Ownership and status	Indicators	
E01	Have your own house	Yes	1
		No	2
E02	Quality of the house at present	Poor	1
		Medium	2
		Good	3
E03	Improvements on houses more than Br.100	Yes	1
		No	2
E04	Kind of improvements on houses	Repair	1
		Expansion	2
		Sanitation System	3
		Other improvements	4

F -Households' Asset Ownership before and after project

Assets	Before the project	After the project
	Percent	Percent
Chair		1
Table		2
Shelf (buffet)		3
Bed		4
Radio		5
Tape		6
Television		7
Sofa		8
Refrigerator		9
Others form of assets		
Improved farming tools		10
Increased in livestock (ox, goat etc.)		11

G - Households' diet condition

No	Diet	Indicators	Before the project %	After the project %
G01	Number of meals in a day	Once	1	
		Twice	2	
		Three times	3	
		More than 3 times	4	

H -Household educational access

No	Education	Indicator
H01	Did your children get formal education access under GOAL program?	Yes 1
		No 2
H02	Over all school Attendance	Decreased 1
		No change Increased 2

I - Health status of households

Indicators	Responses	
Any sickness in the household during the last 12 months	Yes	1
	No	2
Did you get medical treatment	Yes	1
	No	2
Source of money for medical Expenses	Business Profit	1
	From Family	2
	Others	3
Over all medical access	Decreased	1
	No change	2
	Increased	3

J-. Empowerment of married women in decision making

Indicators	Responses	
Any credit in your name after marriage	Yes	1
	No	2
	No answer	3
Decision maker to take the credit	Husband and I	1
	Mostly I	2
	Only I	3
	No answer	4
Decision maker on the usage of fund	Husband and I	1
	Mostly I	2
	Only I	3
	No answer	4
Decision maker on the use of business profit	Husband and I	1
	Mostly I	2
	Only I	3
	No answer	4
Your level of self Confidence	Highly confident	1
	No confidence	2
	No answer	3

Table: 12. Training provided to households

Activities	Indicators	
Training taken	Yes	1
	No	2
Type of training taken	About IGA	1
	About shoat production	2
	About saving	3
	General training	4
	No answer	5
Number of trainings taken	Once	1

	Twice	2
	Three times	3
	More than 3 times	4
	No answer	5

Table 13. Community participation

Description	Indicator	
What type of relationship exists between the NGO and the community?	Participatory	1
	Down ward flow of the program	2

Table 13 Market Chain

Description	Indicator	
Is there a tangible market place to sell the business item?	Yes	1
	No	2
Who created the market access?	The NGOs itself	1
	Created by friends and neighbors	2
	Created by beneficiaries	3
	If other please specify (brokers)	4

Thank you!