



**Humanitarian food assistance and Traditional Social Safety Nets: A case of Kaabong District**

**By**

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**A dissertation submitted to the higher degree department in partial fulfillment of the requirement for award of Master degree in Management studies (Public Administration and Management) of Uganda**

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## DECLARATION

I Joseph Ogweng Okellowange, declare that this dissertation is my original work and has not been presented to any other university or institution of learning for the award of any degree or other qualification.

Signed:

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Date

## APPROVAL

This dissertation has been submitted for examination with my approval as supervisor.

.....  
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.....  
Date

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my Grandmother, Mego, Jeneti Aringo Oroma. Born in late 1890s and died on the evening of 24<sup>th</sup> Jan 2011 at the time I was collecting data for this dissertation.

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## ACRONYMS

CSI	Coping Strategy Index
DAC	Development Cooperation Directorate
DISI	Development Information Services International
EFSA	Emergency Food Security Assessment
FANTA	Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance
FEWS	Early Warning System Networks
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FICCI	Food Insecurity Coping Capacity Index
GFD	General Food Distribution
HFIAS	Household Food Insecurity Access Scale
HFSSM	Household Food Security Survey Measures
IDP	Internally Displaced Persons
ILRI	International Livestock Research Institute
KALIP	Karamoja Livelihood Programme
LEGS	Livestock Emergency Guidelines and Standards
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
TANGO	Technical Assistance to NGOs
U.S	United States
UN	United Nations
WFP	World Food Programme

## **ABSTRACT**

The aim of this research was to trace some general correlations and linkages between humanitarian food assistance and traditional social safety nets, outlining how humanitarian food assistance has affected traditional coping systems in the agro-pastoralist economy of Kaabong district. Issues of sustainability of supply and access to food was illustrated, including relation to the role for humanitarian actors, central and rural local governments and the implications for policy and service delivery to attain food security in the ecological zone. A cross sectional, descriptive case study method was adopted for this research. The key findings were that humanitarian food assistance has shown existence of relationship with traditional social safety nets at varying magnitudes. Correlation coefficient was negative for food assistance and coping behaviours. Similarly, quantity of cereals and pulses received correlation was negative and significant with coping behaviours. Food quantity received and number of livestock sold correlations was largely positive and significant. The correlation between food assistance and community migration was positive and insignificant. The correlations implied access to food assistance reduced negative coping behaviours. On the other hand access to food assistance implied increased livestock sales. Meanwhile, food assistance has shown no significant relations with community migration. Although humanitarian food assistance contributed significantly to lower negative coping behaviours, it was not necessarily considered the only responsible factor for the improved food security and lower levels of CSI portrayed, good rains contributed. The positive direction of the correlation between sales of livestock and food assistance was inconclusive as a number of factors were in play, among others; increased livestock raids, livestock encampment in the protected kraals, poor pasture and water for the livestock; reduction in grazing areas, hours and livestock diseases. This implied that, food assistance was not in position to safeguard household livelihood asset. Although empirical evidence was insignificant that food assistance has got substantial effect on community migrations, there were indications that it prevented out migration. The recommendation was for government and partners to regularly monitor household coping

behaviours to understand community coping options at smallest administrative units (Parishes) and plan measures to avoid stressful coping behaviours at the household levels. Food assistance programming can apply CSI principle in targeting for rightful beneficiaries for food transfer interventions. Government and food security agencies to deliberately direct effort to protect the community traditional livelihood assets while at the same time providing food security support to the household was recommended so as to safeguard and rebuild livelihoods. The government can use food assistance as a tool to protect community customary livelihood means within their desired livelihood zones. Shift in livelihood strategies and loss of traditional livelihoods without sustainable alternatives may create destitution and continued dependency on food assistance. These are concerns for policy interventions.

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### ***1.0. Introduction***

This study examined the relations of food assistance and consumption coping, livestock sales and household migration of Dodoth community of Kaabong district. It was presumed that humanitarian food assistance provided should build community resilience and strengthen traditional social safety nets and restore food security. This chapter entails the overall background of the study in the context of the problem. The problem statement, general objectives, specific objectives, research questions, research hypothesis, scope and significance of the study are part of this chapter.

### ***1.1. Background to the study***

#### **1.1.1. Historical background**

From historical perspective, the world free from hunger, malnutrition and poverty has been the greatest challenge for developing countries. The problem of food insecurity has been the priority in achieving the most fundamental human rights for the developing countries. Hunger is the bottom line of poverty and food is central to poor people's concern (WFP, 2009).

When food security issues were first highlighted globally in the seventies, the question was whether a nation or a region could command enough food to meet the aggregate requirements of its people. Special attention was paid to fluctuations in aggregate food supply. According to FAO, (2008) reflections, food security interventions were primarily concerned with providing effective buffer mechanisms against such fluctuations. However, it was later realised that this gave a very limited view of the food security problem. A large segment of a population could be living in hunger even if the country had sufficient food in the aggregate during normal times (Coates et. al 2006).



Similarly, a large section of the population could plunge into hunger during moments of crisis, even if the nation had adequate safety nets to maintain aggregate food available. Recognition was that, adequacy at the aggregate level does not necessarily ensure adequacy at the household or individual level. This realisation prompted a review of food security definition, where a special committee of the United Nations provided a reasonably comprehensive view of food security that, a household is food secure when it has access to the food needed for a healthy life for all its members, adequate in terms of quality, quantity and culturally acceptable, and when it is not at undue risk of losing such access. When a household is persistently unable to meet the food requirements of its members over a long period of time marked by continuous, temporary shortfall of good and bad moments, then there is a long-term problem, which is known as chronic food insecurity.

Chronic food insecurity describe a trend in food consumption that involves an inability to meet food requirements over a long period, while transitory food insecurity concerns shocks that briefly push the level of food consumption below the requirements (EFSA, 2009). A household can be food secure only if it has protection against both kinds of insecurity.

### **1.1.2. Theoretical background**

In the theoretical context, dependency theory provides the basis for this study. The idea originated in the late 50s under the guidance of the director of the United Nations Economic Commission for Latin America, Raul Prebisch. The liberal reformers were concerned with the fact that economic growth in the advanced industrialised countries did not necessarily lead to growth in the poor countries. Their studies suggested that economic activities in the richer countries often lead to serious economic problems in the poorer countries. Such a possibility was not predicted by neoclassical theory, which had assumed that economic growth was beneficial to all, in line with Pareto optimal (optimal allocation of resources is achieved when it is not possible to make any one better off without making someone worse off ) even if the benefit were not always shared.

According to Ferraro, (1996), dependency is an explanation of economic development of a state in the term of external influences, political, economic and cultural on national development policies. Ferraro's writing emphasised in particular, historical dimension in this definition. In his view, dependency is an historical condition which shapes a certain structure of the world economy such that it favours some countries to the detriment of others. A situation in which the economy of a certain group of countries is conditioned by the development and expansion of another economy to which their own is subject. The advocates of dependency theory argued it as the possible way of explaining the persistent poverty of the poorer countries. Classical New Marxists view contenders assert that persistent poverty in dependent states is a consequence of capitalist exploitation in a new body of thought called World System Approach. They argued that poverty was a direct consequence of the evolution of international political economy into a fairly rigid division of labour which favours the rich and penalised the poor.

This theory suggests that, alternative uses of resources are preferable to the resource usage pattern imposed by dominant states. The theory rely on believe that there exist a clear economic interest which should be articulated for each country. This interest can only be satisfied by addressing the needs of the poor within a society rather than satisfaction of corporate or government needs. Dependence relationship is argued persisted since the European expansion in the 15<sup>th</sup> Century and it is maintained not only by the power of dominant state but also through the power of elites in the dependent states. The elites maintain dependence relationship because their own interest coincides with the interest of the dominant state and have similar value and culture; this makes dependence a voluntary relationship.

Dependency theories emphasised social indicators far more than economic indicators and advised that dependent states should attempt to pursue policies of self-reliance contrary to the neoclassical models endorsed by the International Monetary Fund and World Bank.

It maintains that, the policy of self-reliance should be interpreted as endorsing the policy of controlled interaction with the world economy as opposed to the communist system. Poor countries should only endorse interactions on terms that promise to improve the social and economic welfare of her citizenry.

### **1.1.3. Conceptual background**

National government constitutionally has a mandate to safeguard and sustain the food security of the community. The government has been recognised as responsible for ensuring an enabling environment conducive for the achievement of food security through food policies, service delivery mechanisms and appropriate laws. This implies ensuring that there are adequate food supplies available through domestic production and imports, and that household whose members suffer from malnutrition or hunger can acquire sufficient food, either because they produce it themselves or because they dispose of the income to acquire it in the market.

From the conceptual view, food can be accessed through market purchase, own food production or food transfers, (EFSA, 2009). The starting point of this strand was the observation that food access through food assistance in form of food aid or cash transfer is an asset which contributes to mitigate physiological need for food, provided when communities own sources has failed. The more food secure, the less vulnerable the people are and the greater are their capacities to successfully cope with risks, stresses and shocks (DAC, 2008; EFSA, 2009). The second filament looks at the Social Safety Net approaches. Issues of coping capacities to successfully manage crisis situations and solve shocks will be a basic determinant for successful or less successful coping with the accompanied risk.

Literature has shown that social assets play a most important role for the most vulnerable populations who as a rule, control very few economic, political, infrastructural, ecological and personal assets. For them, the last resorts are social assets in the sense of being integrated into social networks of mutual trust, shared norms and reciprocity (Birkmann, 2006; Bankoff et al., 2004). Basing on these concepts, the proposal views the role of food assistance on the beneficiaries' traditional social safety nets from the combinations of these perspectives. It looks at traditional social safety nets as customary defence or behavioural protection that society and households adopt to respond to food insecurity problems.

#### **1.1.4. Contextual background**

In the contextual view, progress in combating hunger has been lagging for decades. Best practises to fight hunger has been available for a long while but lack of political will among leaders and lack of political power among the poor have hampered their implementation (Wiesmann, 2006). According to WFP (2009) annual food aid flow report indicated that, over one billion (1.02) people were undernourished in 2009 alone, the highest number on record. The figure of food insecure people in Uganda was estimated at one million one hundred thousand (1.1) people with 81% of these living in Karamoja region (FEWS, 2010).

In an effort to realisation of the millennium declaration to reduce globally by half the number of hungry and food insecure population by 2015 to which Uganda subscribes, effort have been made by the Government and humanitarian actors to address food insecurity concerns in Karamoja. However, more and more people in the Karamoja region have continued to require food assistance provided by humanitarian agencies, the figures have increased from 190,000 persons in 2000 to over one million in 2009, (WFP, 2007; FEWS, 2009). Concerns to eliminated hunger and food insecurity stem from the fact that chronic under nutrition results into devastating loses of human life, also drains the countries productive capacity thus limiting chances for economic growth.

A lack of access to food results in individuals or families having low energy reserves and poor health, reducing their capacity to work and generate income. In children under nourishment contributes to a slowing of physical and mental development, thus jeopardising the productive capacity for future generation.

Karamoja region comprises of ethnic groups that are spread across currently seven districts. The semi-arid to arid climate of the Karamoja region differs greatly from the rest of the country. The desiccated environment makes total reliance on agriculture unrewarding. The lack of sustainable and stable production system, translates into a sombre situation of poverty and food insecurity, year in year out (KALIP, 2009). Cyclical droughts, violent cattle raiding and Uganda's worst development indicators in almost all sectors trouble the region. A pastoral and agro-pastoral system has been adopted by the Karimojong as a specific strategy in response to environmental conditions of the region (KALIP, 2009). Seasonal patterns of grazing are a key element in the flexible response of Karimojong agro- pastoralist to uncertain resources. Herders' moves livestock frequently to best exploit available pasture and water (Walker, 2002). Droughts are not easy to forecast but pastoralist know that they will occur and that their survival depend upon their ability to cope with it.

Poverty, hunger and food insecurity in Karamoja resulted into various interventions by government, national and international organisations in an effort to build resilience to address the problems in the region. Notable among the interventions are disarmament for illegal weapons and the humanitarian food assistance in form of food aid. Like disarmament since the colonial times, foreign food aid to the Karamoja has been since the 1960's. The question remains when will Karamoja take control of own situation! How food assistance informs community resilience such as coping, sales of assets, migrations and other survival struggles, is poorly understood.

## ***1.2. Statement of the problem***

Dependence on humanitarian food assistance is not a desirable situation, and is not sustainable either. Food assistance should only build community resilience so as to be able to manage based on the traditional social safety net systems. Just as hunger constraint development, chronic dependency on foreign food aid deters economic growth through production and trade displacement, unfavourable terms of trade creating a vicious circle of dependency and poverty. Harvey and Lind (2005) put it that aid agencies tend to overstate the importance of relief assistance and underestimates the contribution to survival made by sources other than aid and caution on assumption that food aid plays a dominant role in influencing food security. On the contrary however, the community in Karamoja has been regularly or intermittently on food assistance for the past four decades. In reality, communities do continuously transit back into humanitarian food assistance mode when justifying the intended and unintended limitations of their traditional social safety nets systems. Thus, it is paramount to understand the relationship between humanitarian food assistance and the traditional social safety nets, such as consumption coping, sales of productive assets, migrations and other survival struggles so that positive aspects are identified and built on and the unhelpful ones mitigated and allay the concerns about dependency.

## ***1.3. General objectives***

The overall objective of the study was to examine the relationship of humanitarian food assistance and the traditional social safety nets among the community of Kaabong district from their own perspective.

## ***1.4. Specific objectives***

1. To investigate the relations of benefit from food assistance and the households traditional consumption coping strategies

2. To study the association between benefit from food assistance and household sales of livestock in the district
3. To examine the relationship between benefit from food assistance and household migration

### ***1.5. Research questions***

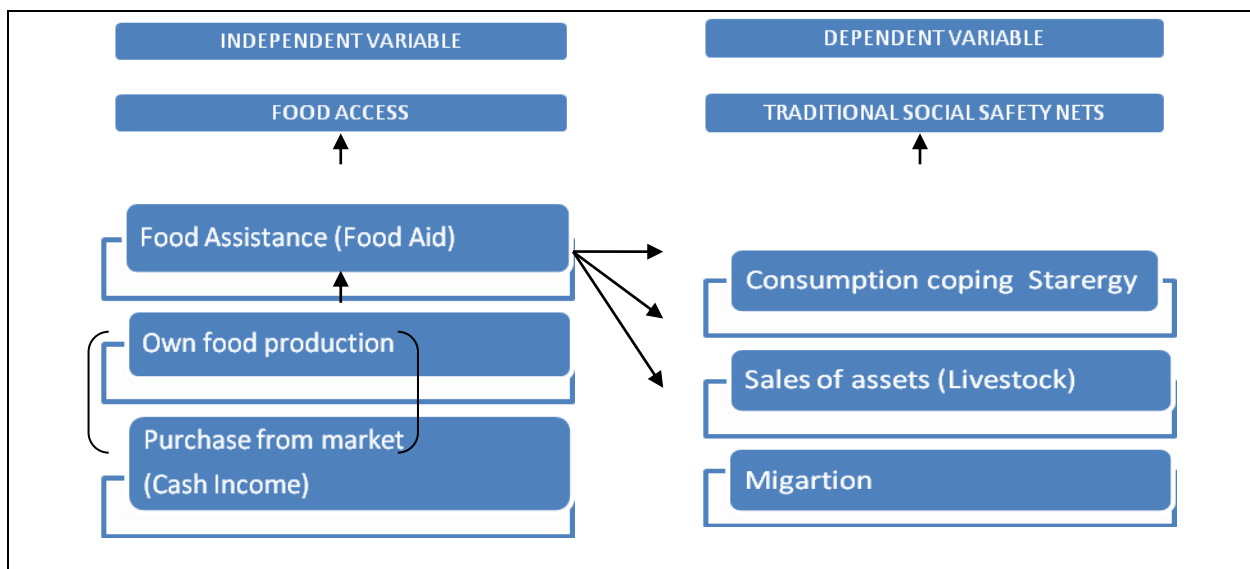
1. How does benefit from food assistance relate to household traditional consumption coping strategies in Kaabong?
2. What is the relationship between benefit from food assistance and livestock sales in the district?
3. How does benefit from food assistance relates to household migration?

### ***1.6. Hypothesis of the study***

1. Benefit from food assistance reduces household negative consumption coping strategy
2. Benefit from food assistance leads to a decrease in household sales of livestock
3. Benefit from food assistance reduces on household migration

### ***1.7. Conceptual frame work***

National government constitutionally recognised as responsible for ensuring an enabling environment conducive for the achievement of food security. This implies ensuring adequate food availability through domestic production and imports, and that household whose members suffer from hunger can secure sufficient food through own production or obtain food in the market using cash income. In shocking situations when own production and market systems was interrupted, relief food assistance was provided. This normalcy constitutes the independent variable. The traditional social safety nets, ways to cope with shocking situations without reliance on food assistance constitutes the dependent variable.



**Figure 1 Conceptual framework**

Source: Customised by researcher with input from (EFSA, 2009)

This concept aimed to trace some general correlations and linkages between humanitarian food assistance and traditional social safety nets, outlining how traditional coping system was affected by humanitarian food assistance in the agro-pastoralist economy. Issues of sustainability of supply and access to food were illustrated, including their relation to the role for central and rural local governments and the implications for planning, policy and service delivery to attain sustainable food security in the ecological zone.

Using the concept of one to many, the conceptual framework observed that food access through food assistance particularly in form of food aid was the independent variable and an asset which contributes to allay physiological need for food. The other means people access food was through own production and purchases from the market using cash incomes. Food assistance was influenced by constraints in community own production and ability to purchase food. The more food secure, the less vulnerable the people are and the greater are their capacities to successfully cope with risks, stresses and shocks.



Issues of coping capacities to successfully manage crisis situations and solve shocks are dependent variables, referred to as Traditional Social Safety Nets. These are basic determinant for successful or less successful coping with the accompanied risk. Based on these concepts, the researcher views the traditional safety nets as stages of customary defence or behavioural protection that society and households adopt to respond to food insecurity problems.

### ***1.8. Significance of the study***

The results of the study was expected to guide the government, local leaders, humanitarian agencies and other development partners to understand the relationship of food assistance with the traditional social safety nets. The findings are also expected to best inform intervention planning to address food insecurity issues from a knowledgeable point of view. The results should direct approaches, national, local policies and service delivery in solving the food insecurity problem with emphasis to the traditional social safety nets systems. This study should contribute to the body of knowledge and form literature for further research in similar and related areas.

### ***1.9. Justification of the study***

This study was to gauge the relationship of food assistance with traditional social safety net. It is vital to understand the relationship between humanitarian food assistance and the traditional social safety nets, such as consumption coping, sales of productive assets, migrations and other survival struggles so that positive aspects are identified and built on and the unhelpful ones mitigated and allay the concerns about dependence. The findings are critical to guide management of current activities, to inform resource allocations across programmes and to support the design or redesign of future interventions to maximise their potential positive impact while reducing on the unintended consequences.

### ***1.10. Scope of the study***

This study was conducted in Kaabong district. Samples of households in Dodoth East and West Counties where food assistance beneficiaries are resident will be selected. The focus will be on food assistance provided by humanitarian agencies. The sampled household heads shall be interviewed from the selected villages. Food assistance will be limited to physical food directly received by the beneficiaries. The concept of food assistance and traditional social safety nets and impact will also be limited to the working definitions as described here below. Due to memory scope this study shall be limited to period between 2009 and 2010.

### ***1.11. Definition of key words as used for this study***

#### **1.11.1. Coping Strategies**

Coping strategy has been defined as activities which people resort to obtain food, income and services when their normal means of livelihood have been disrupted. Livelihood strategy on the other hand refers to the way in which household utilise and combine their assets to obtain food, income other goods and services (EFSA, 2009). Coping strategy are important behaviour that enable people to absorb the impact of shock to a greater or lesser extent, depending on how resilient the livelihood of individual household is. These copings are broadly categorised as insurance, crisis and distress strategies.

Coping Strategy Index (CSI) measures behaviour: the things that people do when they cannot access enough food. There are a number of fairly regular behavioural responses to food insecurity or coping strategy that people use to manage household food shortages (Maxwell and Caldwell, 2008). The coping strategies are easy to observe, simpler and cheaper to collect than actual household food consumption levels. Coping strategy index provides a quick and simple indicator of household food insecurity behaviour that reveals how households manage or cope with shortfalls in food consumption.

Household's response to such shortfalls are formulated into a simple numeric score reflecting the frequency and perceived severity of these coping behaviours. Higher score means greater coping, and hence the higher the level of food insecurity (EFSA, 2009).

### **1.11.2. Social Safety Nets**

According to Lwanga-Ntale et al., (2008), the term social safety net began to be used by Britton Woods' institutions in connection with structural adjustment programs related to their lending programs. World Bank (2006) referred to social safety nets as a non- contributory social programme for low income household and other vulnerable groups. A similar definition was provided by (Weigand and Grosh, 2008).

Economics literature treats safety nets as a policy that ensures a minimum income, consumption or wage level for everyone in a society or sub group. It may also provide people with protection against risk, such as lost income, limited access to credit or devastation from natural disaster. This research looks at traditional safety nets as customary defence or behavioural protection that society and households adopt by themselves to respond to food insecurity problems which includes adjustments in consumption, sales of assets and migration among others or coping strategies in common terms.

Whatever definition was adopted safety nets are intended to respond to livelihood risks. Based on this classification, this study considers the informal and traditional social safety nets as traditional practices, coping means or behaviour the community or households employ to safeguard vulnerable members of their community and households to deal with hunger or food insecurity situations.

### **1.11.3. Food security**

World Food Programme (2009) defines food security as, “a condition that exists when all people at all times are free from hunger”. This definition highlights four parts which provide insight into the causes as, Availability: the supply of food in an area; Access: household’s ability to obtain that food; Utilisation: a person’s ability to select, take in and absorb the nutrient in food; and Stability of supply. Food insecurity or absence of food security implies hunger resulting from problems with availability, access and use or vulnerability to hunger in the future.

### **1.11.4. Food Availability**

Food availability is the physical presence of food in the area of concern through all forms of domestic production, commercial imports and food assistance. Food availability is determined by production: food produced in the area; Trade: food brought into the area through market mechanism; stock: food held by traders and in government reserves and transfers: food supplied by the government or aid agencies (EFSA, 2009).

### **1.11.5. Food Access**

Access concerns a household’s ability to acquire adequate amount of food, through one or a combination own production, purchases, gift, borrowing and food aid (EFSA, 2009). The following are some examples: own production crops, livestock; hunting, fishing, and gathering of wild foods; purchase at market, shops; barter- exchange of items for food: gifts from friends and relatives, community, government and aid agencies. Food aid aims to ensure access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food in anticipation of, during and in the aftermath of humanitarian crisis when food consumption would otherwise be insufficient to avert excessive mortality, emergency rate of acute malnutrition or detrimental coping mechanism (EFSA, 2009; FCA, 2008).

### **1.11.6. Food Assistance**

The term “food assistance” has been increasingly used as alternate to food aid; the shift in terminology is to include cash for food related purposes. The change implied that agencies would no longer start with the tool – food aid – and determine how best to use it to support humanitarian and development objectives. Instead, begin with the problem – hunger – and identify the range of tools that are most appropriate to address it in a sustainable manner in a particular context.

### **1.11.7. Food aid**

Food aid was narrowly defined as internationally funded, food commodities given to people in immediate distress by individuals, organisations, or governments to relieve suffering, during and after man-made emergencies, like wars and natural disasters. The term often carries an international connotation, but this is not always the case.

### **1.11.8. Impact**

The commonly used definition of impact within the development sector is provided by DAC Network. It describes impact as, “The positive and negative, primary and secondary, long-term effect produced by a development intervention, directly or indirectly, intended or unintended (DAC, 2008). In contrast to the emphasis on the long-term in the DAC definition, humanitarian interventions tend to have a short-term focus, and this is not captured. More crucially development definition of impact tends to stress the concept of change (Hofmann et al., 2004).

In humanitarian environments, a key distinction is often the end condition, what happened and what would have happened had the intervention not taken place. Accordingly, Oxfam defined impact as, “lasting or significant change in people’s life even if the effect is not lasting and that individual is again subject to life-threatening risk at some later point”, as cited by (Hofmann et al., 2004).

### **1.11.9. Migration**

The meaning of migration was provided by the Overseas Development Institute, (2005) as a strategy for coping with livelihood stress, or for protecting, maintaining or improving people's livelihood through increase accumulation, diversified or improved income. It may be pursued seasonally, periodically or permanently by some members of the household.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITRETURE REVIEW**

#### ***2.0. Introduction***

This chapter focuses on the review of literatures on humanitarian food assistance and traditional social safety nets. The literature was based on the theoretical, objectives and methodology, linkages between food assistance and consumption coping strategy, livestock sales and migration are reviewed. The chapter also includes definition of key concepts and explains how these relate to the frame work for this study.

#### ***2.1. Theoretical review***

Discussion on food assistance is packed with references to dependency. The way in which issues of dependence is argued matters because it has an influence on the policies and practices of various actors. In many disaster contexts, humanitarian agencies and donors are reluctant to provide food for extended periods of time for fear that this may create dependency.

Reflecting on dependency theory, Vengroff, (1982) in his article food and dependency, P.L.480, Aid to black Africa which was published in the journal of modern African studies provide an overview of early creation of food aid dependency. According to the study the four grain exporting countries namely, Argentina, Australia, Canada and USA were referred to as large food donors. In July 1954 American president Eisenhower signed into law the Agricultural trade development and Assistance act known as P.L.480. This act was meant to lay the basis for permanent expansion of American export of agricultural product with lasting benefit to themselves and people of other lands. P.L.480 was a way of disposing off USA farm surpluses by sending them overseas as argued by Vengroff.

Lind, (2005) studied dependency and food aid among the community in Ethiopia. Lind described five (5) different views of dependency. The first category is beneficiary dependency, a condition in which long-term beneficiary of food assistance chose to continue receiving assistance preferably over their- own ways of coping. In Ethiopia, this was referred to as dependency syndrome. It was argued that beneficiaries count on assistance to the extent that they reduce their involvement in activities that may lead them to self-sufficiency since they regard food assistance as entitlement from government.

The second category was the view that continued long-running food assistance crates disincentives to agriculture or labour. A key focus has been disincentive of food assistance causing decrease in prices of local farm produce. The market distortion of food aid implied that farmers were less able to sell their product at a profit, prolonging their dependence on relief assistance (Harvey and Lind, 2005; Lind, 2005).

The third category refers to local government authorities depending on relief resources as patronage to bolster client networks and expand their influence so as to gain political favour. The fourth meaning in the Ethiopian case referred to dependence of humanitarian agencies that are involved in the distribution of food aid. United Nations and donors worry that aid resources have become entrenched in the government budgetary planning, the role of expatriate aid workers also contested.

The fifth connotation of dependence referred to relief assistance as a future of destitution. It was argued that rising levels of destitution are masked by the emergency annual appeal which permits stakeholders to avoid adopting measures to address underlying causes of destitution. The argument followed that the current food assistance has not adequately resounded to the need of the chronically food insecure and stress that food assistance is a poor substitute for insufficient development assistance (Jeff and Hoddinott, 2003; Harvey and Lind, 2005; Lind, 2005).



According to WFP 2009 annual food aid flow report, the number of food assistance donor government stand at fifty-five with USA contributing 51% of the total food aid, followed by European Union with 17%. Although considered the lowest since 1961, global food aid amounted to 5.7 million metric tonnes in 2009 alone. Of these 3.6 million was received in sub Saharan Africa with Ethiopia as the largest recipient. Uganda received a share of 144,390 metric tonnes.

## ***2.2. Literature review by objectives***

### **2.2.1. Humanitarian food assistance and consumption coping strategy**

There are limited literatures that link humanitarian food assistance and consumption coping strategy. However, many studies have been conducted to devise ways that measure consumption coping strategies so as to predict or determine food security situations. Quresh, (2007) looked at creating an index to measure food security for society of foragers and farmers. In this study, food insecurity coping capacity index (FICCI) for the society of Tusimane who are natives of Bolivian Amazon was created. These measures come from the growing interest to better able to reflect individual household experiences. The importance is that different households are affected differently and therefore react differently to covariant shocks.

Coping strategy indicators have been applied in several studies. A study by Deirdre et al, (2005), examined factor structures of the coping strategy indicators among British individuals with chronic health challenges namely amputation of limbs. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to compare four different models of Coping Strategy Index. This was psychological adaptation to amputation. Respondent were asked to identify stressful events occurring within the last six months and to consider the manner in which they had coped with it. Coping with amputation was identified as the event. This study made recommendation for a four factor models.

Review by Maxwell and Caldwell, (2008) summarised studies to test whether Index correspond to the intervention of food aid. According to this report CARE and WFP pilot study in Kenya, the result of CSI correlated significantly with food frequency, asset ownership and other measures of livelihood security. Bivariate and multivariate analysis was carried out to demonstrate this relationship. They found out that asset ownership was negatively associated with CSI implying that more assets would mean higher level of wealth and greater coping capacity.

In Accra, urban food and nutrition study was to test the relationship between CSI and quantitative measure of food consumption and food budget. Although not in an emergency situation, CSI correlated well with daily calorie intake (Maxwell and Caldwell, 2008). Post Tsunami, Sir Lanka, CSI was used as food security indicator. The finding was that most changes in CSI between two studies showed decreasing frequency of individual behaviour from many times per week to less than one day per week or never. Other studies conducted in Myanmar by Kyaw, to look at household food security status and coping strategies to food insecurity using four factor models. Similar study was conducted by Creg to provide baseline survey for World food programme assisted refugee in Western Tanzania. The finding pointed to the fact that CSI is a vital tool that can be used to measure coping abilities to stressful situations.

Different studies present a variety of coping strategies that households are likely to adopt when faced with food shortages. For instance when faced with famine, Ethiopian villages were shown to draw from savings, use food reserves, diversify sources of income and reduce expenditure on non-food items in the initial stages of famine. During later stages they switch to consuming famine food and even migrated (Quresh, 2007). A related study in Bangladesh showed that when faced with shock, flood created food shortages household reduced the number of meals per day, changed the type of food they consumed and borrowed food from neighbours (Frongillo et. al, 2003).

This study will seek to establish the relationship between humanitarian food assistance and consumption coping strategy in application of the five factor model of coping strategy measure to the context of Kaabong community. This study will establish coping strategy, developed the index and correlated the index with humanitarian food assistance.

### **2.2.2. Humanitarian food assistance and livestock sales**

In relation to humanitarian food assistance and asset sales, there is increasing recognition that emergency responses need to take into account the livelihood of affected population, not just saving lives but also protecting and strengthening livelihood (LEGS, 2009). According to Aklilu and Catley, (2010), who carried out a study on export from pastoralist areas in Sudan, Ethiopia and Kenya argued that, characterisation of pastoralist areas as poor is incorrect. They uphold that, this generalisation arises due to reliance on poverty indicators from non-pastoralist settings such as household income. For pastoralist, livestock are the main form of financial and social assets and important direct source of food. Therefore, livestock holding are more useful measure of poverty than income. In the same study they found that as export trade among the pastoralist grew in the region so do the level of pastoralist destitution (Aklilu and Catley, 2010).

This they argued can be explained by policy and institutional arrangements. Donor support for livestock export system which contribute to gradual redistribution of livestock assets from poorer to richer herders. As poorer households lose their animals, some people become contract herders or find work related to livestock rearing or marketing, others engage in non-livestock activities and some left pastoral areas or rely on food distribution or safety net programmes. However, livestock owners may be employing coping strategy such as stress sales of animals in order to purchase food and may include strategies damaging to long-term food security. The priority is to protect livelihood assets while at the same time providing food security support to the family.

### **2.2.3. Humanitarian food assistance and community migration**

In line with humanitarian food assistance and community migration, the perception prevalent in the aid community, that food aid has a significant effect on migration choices during emergencies. Both food aid and income derived from migration can provide essential resources to the crisis affected. It might be assumed that obtaining food aid is often an objective of migration. This belief has its origin in common understanding of African famines during draught (Quresh, 2007). In such cases distress migration is often a final survival strategy undertaken to obtain relief aid being distributed at a central point where people are gathered. Relief aid is seen to encourage people to gather around distribution points. This perceived camping with expectations of receiving food aid is also seen as an obstacle to community traditional ways to cope with hunger and food insecurity challenges.

According to Overseas Development Institute (2005) desk review report on the effect of food aid on household migration patterns and implications for emergency food assessment, actual correlation between food aid and migration are rarely completely casual. Households or individuals may decide to migrate to areas where they expect on the basis of past experience or contemporary existing information to be able to obtain access to employment, natural resources to help reduce the impact of the crisis. The study maintained that people may also decide to migrate to places where they believe there will be greater protection, safety and security. And that access to food aid or other form of assistance is seldom the only determinant in people's decision about where to move in crisis.

In another study, Punkhurst and Bevan (2004) found out that food aid has been a factor in preventing out-migration from rural areas in the chronically poor areas of Ethiopia. They found that in situations where survival strategies have been exhausted and people are forced into distress migration, the availability of food aid acted as a considerable inducement.

Food aid is argued to influence decision about whether or not to migrate; this was evidenced in the Democratic Republic of Congo where camp in Bunia was closed in order to promote return. Also reported case in Tanzania where food aid was used to encourage refugee to return to Rwanda. In these cases people moved in order to obtain access to food aid, although this may not be the only reasons.

Just as food aid can be used as partial inducement for people to return, it may also be used to help people remain in camps or home areas throughout a crisis. In Uganda, the Acholi internally displaced camps (IDP) (1997-2008) food aid facilitated people to stay in the protected camps throughout the insurgency, until of recent when a return to home areas was possible. Again overall suspension of food distribution influenced quick returns to the villages of origin when the insurgency risks reduced. A similar situation in Sudan, Dafur in 2004-2005, and people living around the IDP camps registered as residents of the camp so they do not have to leave their homes. The food aid that they received helped them retain the few assets and help rebuilt their livelihood after the crisis.

### ***2.3. Methodology review***

Many agencies implementing food security programmes are constrained by the practical challenges of measuring their impact without a clear, concise method of distinguishing between food secure and insecure populations (Webb et al., 2006). Although progress has been made on achieving reliable set of proxy indicators of food availability, such as food prices and lack of food in stores, the development of accurate indicators for measuring the impact of food access has proven to be much more challenging (Swindle and Bilinsky, 2006). There are considerable methodological challenges in the development of valid food access indicators. The process of determining and testing indicators is naturally complex given the fact that in order to accurately gauge food access, data on a variety of critical factors must be collected and analysed (Maxwell and Caldwell, 2008).

The primary factors that must be carefully considered in determining food security from an access perspective include, access to sufficient amount of food, access to different type of food, good quality and quantity, social and cultural acceptability of consumption patterns (Weismann et al., 2006).

Traditional measures of food access have relied on proxy indicators such as food consumption, household income, productive assets, agricultural productivity and food storage each of which are presumed to be primary determinant or consequences of a household level of food security (Webb et al., 2006). More effort has been made of recent to access dietary energy intake as a primary indicator of household access to food. In recent studies dietary diversity and meal frequency have proven to be among the most common and valid indicators of energy intake (Weismann et al., 2006).

Most commonly used methods of measuring household access to food are derived from the United States Household Food Security Surveys Measures (HFSSM) designed by Cornell and Tufts Universities in conjunction with U.S. department of agriculture. The HFSSM is based on questions regarding self-reported behaviours, attitudes and coping strategies relating to household access to food (Webb et al., 2006; Coates et al., 2006).

Measurement of food access with similar characteristics with Coping Strategy Index (CSI) is Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) developed by the Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance (FANTA) project. HFIAS suggest that household food access scales provide a valid and useful tool with which to target intervention, monitor food security and evaluate the impact of projects activities on food security at the population level (Coates et al., 2006; TANGO, 2004; DISI, 2006). Efforts to develop valid and practical scales of food security based on proxy indicators of food access have revealed a number of critical issues that warrant careful considerations.

In different cultures, specific coping strategies do not always reflect the same severity of food insecurity nor are they equally acceptable to vulnerable households. Adopting certain coping strategy is often influenced by the availability or sustainability of the particular strategy, the households own commitment to future productivity, the level of asset ownership, the availability of information, the nature and degree of perceived risk and the human capacity of household members to implement the strategies at their dispersal (Coates et al., 2006; Maxwell and Caldwell, 2008). Attention must be given to developing methods translating or adopting measures from one culture to another (Swindle and Bilinsky, 2006).

#### ***2.4. Summary of literature review***

In summary, it is safe to say that food assistance can influence consumption strategies, impact on asset sales and as well have an influence on migration. However, different societies are affected differently based on the causes of food insecurity and unique context. Generalisation therefore is not an option. This study ultimately intends to understand the Kaabong issues based on her distinctive context and as perceived by food aid beneficiaries in this situation. The Karamoja situation has been a mixture of intermitted drought, poverty and underdevelopment alongside cattle rustling causing insecurity. This situation has caused advocacy for food assistance and food aid that has been on intermittently for over four decades. This study will examine the relationship of food aid on consumption coping, livestock sales and migration of Dodoth of Kaabong district and examine how it impacts on tradition ways to cope with hunger and food security situation.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### ***3.0. Introduction***

This chapter explains in detail the road map for the study design, methods used in deciding the area of study, population, data collection methods and analysis of the data. It generally explains how this study was conducted.

#### ***3.1. Research design***

The study was a case study, cross-section and descriptive. This involved asking questions and collecting views of respondents from a cross-section of the population under study. A descriptive approach was preferred because of its strength in identifying, capturing key issues and allowing more detailed and richer depiction of the aspects of the study. It was used to draw attention to what specifically can be learnt from a single case required in qualitative and quantitative analysis as described by Barifaijo, Basheka and Oonyu (2010). Cross-sectional survey was opted for because it involved collecting data from a large number of respondents across the parent population over shorter period of time. The researcher simply reported the findings without manipulating the variables and the study was non-experimental.

#### ***3.2. Study population***

The study targeted essentially 300 food assistance beneficiaries in Kaabong. Emphasis was on the beneficiaries because they were the categories in direct recipient of aids and were able to evaluate how it impacted on their livelihoods. For this study, two levels of population frames were considered. The first was the area frame, list of the parishes in the district. The second was the register of the households. Six focus Group discussions were conducted comprising of between 10-13 persons to add on to the qualitative information.



Data collection was conducted between 15th and 28th January 2011. The respondents for this study were drawn from 17 villages randomly selected from 10 parishes in 8 Sub counties, from Dodoth East and West counties of Kaabong district. The list of Sub County, Parishes and Villages covered are added as appendix in this document. Respondent from 300 households were interviewed and six focus group discussions conducted in six villages, three from each of the counties.

### **3.3. Sampling method**

Probability sampling was used, employing multistage sampling technique. Samples from the list of parishes were selected using simple random techniques. The next stage was to pick samples from the existing list of villages. In the final stage households were selected from the village lists. To control the sample size, cluster sampling was used in the second level. The village formed the cluster. To maintain the criteria that all household have an approximately equal probability of selection, clusters were weighted according to number of household in each village. Each household was assigned a number and random numbers were then used to select the households.

#### **3.3.1. Sample size determination**

The appropriate sample size for a population-based study was determined largely by three factors: (i) the estimated prevalence of the variable of interest – number of household receiving food assistance, (ii) the desired level of confidence and (iii) the acceptable margin of error. For a survey like design based on a simple random sample, the sample size required can be calculated according to the following formula.

$$n = \frac{t^2 \times p(1-p)}{m^2}$$

Description:

n = required sample size

t = confidence level at 95% (standard value of 1.96)

p = estimated prevalence of food assistance beneficiary households in the study population

m = margin of error at 5% (standard value of 0.05)

It has been estimated that about 90% (0.9) of the population in the project area are current beneficiaries or benefited from food assistance in the district “between” 2009-2010.

Step 1: Base Sample-size Calculation.

Use of the standard values listed above provides the following calculation:

$$n = \frac{1.96^2 \times .9(1-.9)}{.05^2}$$

$$n = \frac{3.8416 \times 0.09}{0.0025}$$

$$n = \frac{0.3457}{0.0025}$$

$$n = 138.2$$

Step 2: Design Effect

The study was designed as a cluster sample, selecting samples from villages. To correct for the difference in design, the sample size was multiplied by the design effect (d). The design effect is generally assumed to be 2 for studies using cluster-sampling methodology.

In this case;  $n \times d = 138.2 \times 2 = 276.4$

Step 3: Contingency

The sample was further increased by 5% to account for contingencies such as non-response or recording error. Therefore;  $n + 5\% = 276.4 \times 1.05 = 290$

Step 4: Distribution of Observations

Finally, the calculation result was rounded up to the closest number that matches well with the number of clusters (villages) to be surveyed.

There is no standard number of clusters and no statistically necessary reason to explain number of clusters, the number can be adjusted if there is a compelling motive for doing so. The cluster was adjusted to 17 villages. The final sample size (n) was then proportionately divided by the number of clusters (17) to determine the number of observations per cluster. The number of sample was then rounded up to 300 households by the researcher.  $n \div \text{number of clusters} = \text{number of households per village}$ . The exact number of household per cluster depended on the size of the cluster.

### 3.3.2. Sample selection

To hang on to the criteria that all household have roughly equal probability of selection, clusters were weighted according to size in terms of number of household in each village since this was known. The list of each cluster and cumulative population was calculated as with example shown in the table below.

**Table 1 Weighed clusters**

Villages/Clusters	No of hh (Xi)	Cumulative household sample	Proportion of household (p)	Sample size (s)
Kapilan bar	150	1 - 150	0.3	41
Camp Swahili	250	151 – 400	0.5	69
Komuria	100	401 – 500	0.2	28

(N=500; n = 300)

Source: Modified with input from Maxwell and Caldwell, 2008

Proportion of household selected (p) from each village was derived using the formulae  $X_i/N$

Where: p= proportion of household to select,

$X_i$ = number of households in a village X and,

N = total population of households  $\sum X_i$ .

The sample size (s) is given by  $p \times s$ ; Where: s = desired sample size per cluster. n = desired sample size  $\sum s$

Random number technique was used to select numbers between 1 and 500. Where 300 household was desired, an equivalent number was selected from the list based on the proportional percentage. Each number corresponds to a household. The individual households were located with the help of key informants identified from the villages. The household not found were replaced from additional lists provided selected randomly.

### ***3.4. Data collection methods***

The study used interview, questionnaire and observation collecting data from primary and secondary sources. Secondary data was gathered from published journals, research reports, textbooks, newspapers, and internet data sources, used for the current purpose of the study. This was chosen because it was considered a cheap method of obtaining secondary data for the research.

Primary data was collected from the food aid benefiting community of Kaabong district as original source through a combination of in-depth or face to face interview, focus group discussions (FGD) and observation. The justification for face-to-face interview was to adapt to the situation, get complete, accurate and explore deep opinion from the individual respondent experience and gather up to date data for the study. FGD helped to discover variety within a population and stimulate conversation and reactions to provide a range of norms and opinions within a short time.

Observation was used in combination with the interviews as an indirect method of data collection. Question were asked and then observe the available assets of the households, food availability at the household, presence of able bodied members of the households and own food production around the homestead. This was chosen so as to secure information that respondent would ignore as irrelevant because it is common and be able to capture the whole situation as it appears in the homestead environment (Baifaijo et al., (2010).

### **3.5. Data collection tools**

The researcher used a combination of tools. The first tool was a guided questionnaire which consisted of both open and closed ended questions designed to obtain data on the respondent's background, main livelihood, food access, assets and migrations. A guided questionnaire was preferred because of the big numbers of illiterate respondents; it was also good for quantifying responses from a large number of respondents.

Translated questionnaires into the local language (Ngadodoto) were then addressed directly to respondents by the help of research assistants who were trained for this role. The face-to-face communication between the interviewer and the interviewee enabled the researcher to clarify uncertain questions to the respondents and seek clarification for unclear responses.

List of items for discussion was then used for FGD. The interview focused on the well thought-out questions in the module of coping strategy index (CSI) and derived severity ranking. Researchers also used observation check list and took note as they directly observe key element to look for such as availability of food reserves and stock, assets such as livestock of the household. The observation data gathered offered a quick cross check on legitimacy.

### **3.6. Validity and Reliability**

#### **3.6.1. Validity**

Emphasis was put on content validity. Guidance was sought from expert judgement of proposal review panel, supervisor and other researchers. Expert judgement of proposal reviewer was at face value, whether the questions appear to be measuring the intended. This was largely a "common-sense" assessment, but also relied on knowledge of the way people respond to survey questions and pitfalls in questionnaire design; with supervisors guidance and critics, the researcher reviewed content validity - whether all important aspects of the research construct are covered.

For further authentication, the researcher sought opinion from the judgment of four reviewers, using scores ranging from 1-5, where 5 means relevant and 1 irrelevant, the reviewers made judgement for the five key questions. The results of the scores are presented in the table below and Content Validity Index (CVI) calculated.

**Table 2 Content validity index**

Questions	Reviewers				Average scores
	P1	P2	P3	P4	
Q1	4	3	4	5	4.0
Q2	5	5	4	5	4.75
Q3	3	4	4	2	3.25
Q4	5	5	5	4	4.75
Q5	4	4	5	5	4.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>22</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>21.25</b>

Source Field data

Based on the five questions named Q1-Q5, the individual reviewers (P1-P4) scores were recorded in table 2 above, out of the total 25 scored expected. From these scores, Content Validity Index (CVI) was calculated.

$$CVI = \frac{21.25}{25} \times 100$$

$$= 84\%$$

This means according to the reviewers 84% of the questions in the questionnaire was relevant. Based on this the, the researcher proceeded with the research questions.

### 3.6.2. Reliability

To test the reliability of instrument, internal consistency was used to estimate the reliability by grouping questions that measure same concept in the questionnaire. The reliability of the instrument was then estimated using Cronbach's Coefficient.

Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) calculated with the help of a computer SPSS program with 14 entries. Reliability Coefficient Alpha was found to be 0.76. Reliability of greater than 0.7 ( $\alpha > 0.7$ ;  $\alpha$  closer to 1), implies acceptable level of reliability of the instrument George and Mallery (2003), rule of thumb. The justification was to ensure the consistency of the instrument, accuracy of procedures and research techniques, internal reliability was cheaper since it required administration of only one instrument. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was chosen because it can be used for both multiple choice test and questions that have several possible answers. In this case alpha ( $\alpha$ ) was the appropriate method for computing reliability.

### ***3.7. Research procedure***

The actual data collection for this research proceeded when the proposal was approved by the panel of reviewers from the Uganda Management Institute, department of higher degree and an introductory letter offered to the effect. The district administration was contacted to seek permission to carry out the study. Research assistants were then selected trained by the researcher for data collection and assist with questionnaire translation into the local language as appropriate. Following procedures in the methodology chapter, sample units were selected with the help of key informants.

Starting with pre-test, the research assistants helped to administer questionnaires, interview guides and observations checklist to the respective respondents. In order to ensure the usefulness, accuracy and comparability of data, the research assistants included their names on the questionnaire forms. Pre- test data was analysed for validity and reliability, corrections were then made and the researcher proceeded with actual data collection. Time was given upon which each selected respondents was interviewed in reply to the questionnaire guide and prompt questions for focus group discussion and observation check list.

Focus Group Discussions were held in six villages selected randomly, three from each of the counties. Members were mobilised with the help of the informant for the FGD. About two hour's discussion per group based on the key questions was then conducted.

Actual data was then collected, completed questionnaires were edited, and cleaned data was entered into a computer database, EPI data was used. Notes from focus group discussions and observation data were sorted grouped and analysed using qualitative methods. After data analysis and measurement, the researcher compiled the findings of the study, discusses and made appropriate recommendations.

The report submitted to department of higher degree of Uganda Management Institute for evaluation and who organised viva for the dissertation, and as approved, final copies of the dissertation made for library and future reference. That marked the end of this research process as the researcher receives an award of higher degree, Maters in Management Studies following a graduation.

### ***3.7. Data analysis***

The qualitative data was analysed using comparative and thematic analysis method (Barifaijo et al., 2010). The theme was based on the key research questions. Data collected from different focus group discussions and notes taken from observations was analysed based on the pre-determined themes and compared among the different groups. Data from the different focus group discussions and observations was analysed at the time of collection for in-depth information until the researcher was satisfied that all the issues were exhaustively argued under each discussion theme. The data was then harmonised based on the different themes and discussed within the contexts and interpreted to provide meanings.



This allowed for higher level of flexibility, presenting a more realistic view of the situation and helped to understand the people in their own setting within a very short time.

The quantitative data collected using questionnaires was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The data collected was processed, edited, coded and entered into a computer spread sheet database. Using SPSS descriptive statistics packages, frequencies and percentages to show the distribution of respondents on independent and each dependent variable was analysed. Inferential methods, coefficients using Spearman and Pearson were adopted.

Coping strategies was ranked based on the frequencies determined by the number of times households mentioned it as the most strategy employed when faced with food insecurity problems. The coping behaviours was also ranked according to similar levels of severity and weight assigned to each strategy from lowest (least severe) to highest (most severe). A range of weight from one to four was used. Simple calculation was then done, assigning scores and deriving relative frequencies. This was done with the help of a computer excel sheet.

The frequency score was then multiplied by the severity weight. This was to ensure that severity ranking and the weighting is the same such that the least severe strategies are weighted 1 and the next group weighted 2 until the most severe assigned the highest weight. As measure of food insecurity, the higher the coping index score, the greater the food insecurity while the reverse is true. Bivariate analysis of correlation was carried out to demonstrate relationship between the independent and each of the dependent variables. Finally, giving the summary of the entire process, the analysis was cross- reference to show agreement or disagreement with other studies.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

#### 4.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study on humanitarian food assistance and traditional social safety nets. The presentation begins with description of the study areas and demographic characteristics of respondents summarised in tables and graphs. To ease understanding of the analysis and interpretation, the results of the descriptive and inferential statistics with more empirical findings are presented in tables and figures according to questionnaire themes and the research objectives.

#### 4.1. Demographic characteristics of surveyed households

The interview conducted between 10:00 am and 4:30 pm showed majority of the respondents were female making 87% of people interviewed, yet 76.7% of the respondent households indicated male as heads of household. Generally the male heads of household were not available at home during the time of interview.

**Table 3 Demographic characteristics of surveyed households**

	Frequency			
	Male	Female	Total	(%)
<b>Children &lt; 5 years</b>	203	199	402	17
<b>Children 6-12 years</b>	252	262	514	22
<b>Adolescents 13-17 years</b>	214	210	424	18
<b>Adults 18 + able bodied</b>	252	279	531	23
<b>Elderly not economically active</b>	95	175	270	12
<b>Adults ill/with disability un able to work</b>	75	112	187	8
<b>Total</b>	<b>1,091</b>	<b>1,237</b>	<b>2,328</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field data

The households composed of 57% children below 18 years. Elderly, sick or persons living with disability and economically inactive made up 20% of the respondents.

The adults and economically active members made 23% of the households interviewed. The average household size was 7.7 persons. Further analysis indicates more elderly and economically inactive female than male by about 2:1 ratio. The demographic characteristics of the population reveal a considerable dependency problem showing a large section of young population lower than 12 years and equally big portion of household members considered vulnerable and economically inactive.

#### ***4.2. Livelihood characteristics of the households***

In Kaabong District, livestock was expected to dominate as the key livelihood source of the households. Perversely, livestock production, sales of livestock product or related activities was not mentioned as priority in the first three livelihood options. Livestock production only covered 2.7% of the respondents as the main livelihood. This was followed by 1.3% of the respondents in the second and third livelihood sources respectively. Sales of animal products only appeared as second and third options with an insignificant 0.3% and 0.7% of respondents in that order.

It was eminent that “other” forms of livelihood most mentioned as main livelihood sources’ by the households was food aid. Thirty-one percent (31%) of the respondents mentioned food aid as the main livelihood, while 17% and 20% mentioned food aid as second and third options respectively. This specifies a shift from livestock production as a key livelihood source to humanitarian food assistance which is unsustainable and encourages dependency.

**Table 4 Main livelihood options**

<b>Livelihood options</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Others (Food aid)	93	31.0
Food crop production	41	13.7
Brewing	38	12.7
Unskilled wage	32	10.7
Sale of natural resources	31	10.3
Hunting and gathering	21	7.0
Agricultural labour	20	6.7
Salaries	9	3.0
Livestock production	8	2.7
Petty trade	4	1.3
Rental of property	2	.7
Begging assistance	1	.3
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field data

**Table 5 Second livelihood options**

<b>Livelihood options</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Others (Food aid)	52	17.3
Sale of natural resources	42	14.0
Hunting and gathering	41	13.7
Brewing	36	12.0
Unskilled wage	34	11.3
Food crop production	24	8.0
Agricultural labour	24	8.0
Begging	21	7.0
Petty trade	10	3.3
Remittances	7	2.3
Livestock production	4	1.3
Salaries	2	.7
Selling animal product	1	.3
Trading in food crop	1	.3
Skilled labour	1	.3
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field data

**Table 6 Third livelihood options**

<b>Livelihood options</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
Others (Food aid)	63	21.0
Hunting and gathering	46	15.3
Sale of natural resources	41	13.7
begging	32	10.7
Brewing	29	9.7
Unskilled wage	28	9.3
Food crop production	19	6.3
Remittances	15	5.0
Agricultural labour	13	4.3
Livestock production	4	1.3
Petty trade	4	1.3
Selling animal product	2	.7
Salaries	2	.7
Handicraft	1	.3
Rental of property	1	.3
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field data

The top seven livelihood options; food assistance, food crop production, brewing, unskilled wage, sales of natural resources, hunting and gathering accounted for cumulative 85.3% of livelihood means of the households. Food aid topped the list as the first livelihood option, followed by food crop production, brewing and sales of unskilled labour. In the second livelihood option, other than food aid, sales of natural products, gathering and hunting followed and were maintained as priority in the third options. The insistent reference to food aid as key livelihood sources together with exploitation of natural resource product are signs of dependency on external food assistance and lack of reliable livelihood options.

#### ***4.3. Household access to food assistance***

Food transfers to the households in Kaabong were provided by World Food Program and Non-governmental organisations, Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) and from relatives and friends. The number of households who received food assistance from the different agencies and individuals are provided in the table below.

**Table 7 Food assistance received from the different sources**

		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	WFP/NGO	282	94.0	97.2
	Relatives/friends	6	2.0	99.3
	OPM	2	.7	100.0
	Total	290	96.7	
Missing	0	10	3.3	
Total		300	100.0	

Source: Field data

Ninety-four percent (94%) of the respondent received food assistance from WFP and non-governmental organisations. Out of the 300 households interviewed, 290 respondents (96.7%) obtain food assistance from the humanitarian agencies. Insignificant (2%) and (0.7%) got assistance from relatives, friends and Office of the Prime Minister in that order. This implied that majority of the respondent are beneficiaries of humanitarian food assistance.

#### 4.3.1. Food assistance basket

The food basket or variety of food commodities provided as food assistance by the different organisations includes, cereals, pulses, vegetable oil, Corn Soya blend (CSB), maize meals and salts. Food quantity received by individual households on a regular basis are summarised on table 8 below.

**Table 8 Quantity of food aid as received by individual households**

		Cereals (Kg)	Pulses (Kg)	CSB (Kg)	Vegetable oil (Liters)
N	Valid	221	230	176	219
	Missing	79	70	124	81
Mean		32	5.5	7	2
Mode		25	3	3	1
Std. Deviation		14	5	7	2
Maximum		75	30	50	20

Source: Field data

The average quantity of cereals received by individual households was 32 kg while Pulses was 5.5 kg per household. Corn Soya blend (CSB) was 7 kg, and 2 litres of vegetable oil.

As indicated by the mode, majority of the households got less food quantities than the average. Most households received 25 kg of cereals (maize), 3 kg of pulses (beans), and 1 litre of vegetable oil. The standard deviation of 14 implies that variation was wider for cereals; households were getting 14 kg more or less compared to the average of 32 kg for cereals. The variance in the quantity of beans received was 5 kg. Vegetable oil and CSB variation was 2 litres and 7 kg respectively. This may be because food was provided under different programs with varying food basket and ration sizes.

#### 4.3.2. Proportions of food as accessed from various sources

Households acquired food from different sources, such as own production, hunting and gathering of wild food, borrowing, exchange of labour for food, purchase from the market using cash, gift from friends and relatives and humanitarian food assistance. In reference to food aid, household members accessed food from various food transfer programmes such as school meals, supplementary feeding, food for work and general or blanket food transfers.

**Table 9 Proportion of food as accessed from various sources**

Food sources	Frequency				
	Most (> 70%)	Moderate (<70%>40%)	Somewhat (<40%>20%)	Less (<20%)	Never (0%)
<b>Own production</b>	3(1)	46(15)	40(13)	197 (66)	14(5)
<b>Hunting and gathering</b>	0(0)	1(0)	14(5)	250(83)	35(12)
<b>Exchange labor for food</b>	0(0)	1(0)	13(4)	261(87)	25(8)
<b>Borrowed food</b>	0(0)	0(0)	12(4)	284(95)	4(1)
<b>Purchased food in market</b>	1 (0)	6(2)	42(14)	243(81)	8(3)
<b>Gifts from friends/relatives</b>	0(0)	1(0)	13(4)	259(86)	27(9)
<b>Food assistance</b>	67(22)	134(45)	78(26)	20(7)	1(0)

Source: Field data

Food assistance continued to dominate food access by the households, as shown in the table above. 22% (67 households) access over 70% of their food needs from food assistance, and additional 45% derived between 40-70% of their food requirements from food assistance. Own food production was major for about 16% of the household as main source of food access contributing between 40-70%, whereas market purchases contributed between 20-40% for about 16% of the households. Gathering of wild food, sales of labour, borrowing and other forms of assistance contributed less than 20% of the food needs for over 80% of the households. In addition, 88% of the households (264) cases had members benefiting from school meals programme. Accordingly, 70% (212) cases acknowledge benefits from food for work (FFW) while 92% received food gifts from friends and relatives yet 76% benefited from free food transfers.

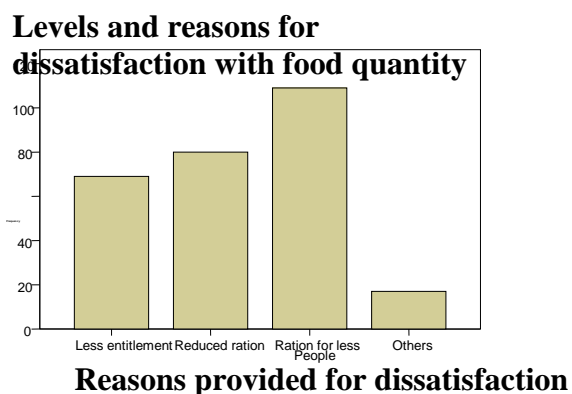
The other food commodities consumed by household members while outside households included “kwete” (local drinks) mentioned by 53% followed by residue from the drink by 12% respondents. Other edibles widely consumed was wild fruits from shrub trees known as “Ebobore and Nyeejor” in the local language by 5% while boiled maize “Anyoya” by 3.7% of the respondents.

#### **4.3.3. Level of satisfaction with food quantity and quality**

The beneficiaries of food assistance were served under different programs and food rations. The ration or quantity of food received by individual households depended on the program and household sizes. Most respondents, (94%) were satisfied with food quality yet 92% was not pleased with the ration size.

Reasons cited for non-satisfaction with quantity were listed as; rations provided were for less people compared to the number of people in the household, reduced ration sizes compared to past years, less entitlements compared to what was expected. Other reasons cited were missing of some food commodities on the food basket menu. The result illustrated in Figure 2 below.





**Figure 2 Bar graph showing levels and reasons for dissatisfaction with quantity of food**

Source: Field data

The figure displayed the level for the different reasons advanced for dissatisfaction with food quantities. The majority cited food ration was for fewer people than they have in the household, followed by complain about reduced rations and less entitlement in that order. The others were claiming missing commodities in the food basket. The lack of satisfaction with the food quantity implied that households had to look for alternative coping means in order to bridge the food gap requirements to meet household daily needs.

#### **4.3.4. Losses of food rations**

Respondents were asked if their food was stolen from them and to indicate where the stealing took place. In response, 83.3% of the households got their food ration home safely while 16.7% had their food either raided or stolen from them at the distribution point. The households who lost their food were considered vulnerable comprising of children and elderly who were unable to safeguard their rations. The thieves take advantage to snatch at least a package from their victims who do not attempt to follow their attackers who are more energetic for fear of losing all the other packages.

#### 4.4. Food assistance and traditional consumption coping behaviours

Analysis was also carried out based on individual objectives. The first objective was to investigate the effect of benefits from humanitarian food assistance on household traditional consumption coping strategies. Context list of consumption coping behaviours was established. Based on these coping behaviours, household were asked in the past 30 days if they received food assistance, how often the household had to adopt any of the coping strategies.

##### 4.4.1. Household consumption coping strategy

Looking at the individual household consumption behaviors, the frequency of days in the past week a households had to rely on the various coping strategies ranging from “Never” (0) to “Every day” (7) was studied. The frequency was presented in percentage reflecting the number of household who relied on less preferred food on a daily basis for the past 30 days. This was repeated for all other households’ consumption coping mechanisms.

**Table 10 Frequency of coping behaviors**

Coping behaviors	Frequency				
	Never	> than 1	2-3-Times	3-6 Times	Every day
	Percentage of households (%)				
Rely on less preferred, less expensive food	40	19	9	10	22
Borrowed food from friends and relatives	6	36	39	19	1
Got food on credit from friends, relatives	71	25	3	1	0
Gathered wild food, immature crops	31	13	23	25	9
Consumed seed stock held for next season	84	15	2	0	0
Send household members to eat elsewhere	61	25	11	4	0
Send household member to beg	70	9	11	7	3
Limit portion size at meal time	34	26	29	2	9
Prioritised food for working member	78	17	5	0	0
Reduced number of meal eaten in a day	28	43	18	5	5
Skipped entire day without eating	52	22	25	0	0

Source: Field data

The above table shows the frequency of households coping behaviors. This result indicated less adoption of extreme negative consumption coping behaviors. The majority of households did not adopt the more severe coping strategies. The key household consumption coping strategies were to rely on less preferred and expensive food, with at least 22% using it on a daily basis. Gathering of wild food and limiting of portions during meal time was adopted by 9% of households respectively. Borrowing food, help from friends and relatives were one of the strategies most employed by households to enhance their food needs within the past 30 days.

Household change from their favorite to less expensive or less preferred food; measures to control food use in the house and actions to increase short term food availability are less severe coping behaviors. On average 50% of the households did not adopt any of the coping strategies, 40% used at least one of the consumption coping mechanisms once or twice within a week in the past month, while about 10% adopted at least one of the coping strategies more often or on a daily basis. These findings showed adoption of dietary change strategy and mechanism to increase short term household food availability. These are early signs of coping behaviors to food insecurity.

#### **4.4.2. Household consumption coping severity ranking**

In the focus group discussions, six groups from different villages were asked to list and rank their coping strategies in order of severity. Depending on how severe they were considered by the people who rely on them, the individual coping behaviors was grouped according to similar levels of severity. Weight was then assigned to each group ranging from lowest (least severe) to highest (most severe). A range of weights from one to four was used. Average score weight was derived which was a representation of a consensus. The results are presented in table 11 below.

**Table 11 Focus group discussion severity weighting**

<b>Coping behaviors</b>	<b>FG1</b>	<b>FG2</b>	<b>FD3</b>	<b>FG4</b>	<b>FF5</b>	<b>FG6</b>	<b>Average</b>
Rely on less preferred, less expensive food	1	1	1	1	2	1	1
Borrowed food from friends and relatives	2	1	1	2	1	1	1
Got food on credit from friends, relatives	3	2	2	3	2	3	3
Gathered wild food, hunt, harvested immature crops	2	2	1	2	1	1	2
Consumed seed stock held for next season	4	2	3	3	4	4	3
Send household members to eat elsewhere	3	2	4	3	3	3	3
Send household member to beg, do degrading job	3	4	3	4	4	3	4
Limit portion size at meal time	3	2	3	4	2	3	3
Fed working member at the expense of non-working	4	3	4	4	3	2	3
reduced number of meal eaten in a day	4	3	4	3	2	3	3
Skipped entire day without eating	4	3	4	4	3	4	4

Source: Field data

The result shown in table 11 illustrate that, skipping entire day without eating, sending household members to beg or do degrading job was considered most severe coping and ranked highest with the weight of four (4). The household argued that adopting such consumption behaviour portrays serious food insecurity.

On the other hand, relying on less preferred or less expensive and borrowed food, getting help from friends and relatives was considered less severe copings and assigned lowest weight of one (1). Gathering wild food, hunting and harvesting immature crops was assigned weight two (2). Consumption of seed stocks was ranked highest by three out of four groups. Feeding working members at the expense of other household members was considered ssevere copings behaviours.

The focus group members' admitted that presence of food assistance helped to reduce negative consumption coping behaviours. Issues particularly relating to less ration sizes however came up as a compromising factor. Emphasis was on inadequate ration, giving room for extreme coping behaviours such as reducing portions at meals and skipping entire day without meals.

#### 4.4.3. Coping strategy index analysis

The coping index was calculated by multiplying the number of times a particular behaviour was adopted (frequencies presented in percentage) by the weight assigned to the group of coping behaviours. This weight was assigned by the respondents in focus group discussion as indicated in table 12. The CSI shown on table 11 indicated that on average 50.% of the households did not adopt any of the coping behaviours with a zero (0.0) coping index (CI), whereas 23% adopted at least one of the behaviours for less than once in a week with a higher coping index of 58. The average coping index was 23.4, portraying relatively good food security situation. Higher Coping Index means higher coping ability signifying poor food security situations.

**Table 12 Coping Strategy Index**

<b>Coping behaviors</b>	<b>Never (%)</b>	<b>CI</b>	<b>&lt; 1 (%)</b>	<b>CI</b>	<b>1-2 Times (%)</b>	<b>CI</b>	<b>3-6 Times (%)</b>	<b>CI</b>	<b>Every day (%)</b>	<b>CI</b>
Rely on less preferred food	40	0.0	19	1.0	9	11	10	11	22	26
Borrowed food	6	0.0	36	48	39	52	19	25	1	1.0
Got food on credit	71	0.0	25	63	3	8.0	1	3.0	0	0.0
Gathered wild food	31	0.0	13	19	23	35	25	37	9	13
Consumed seed stock	84	0.0	15	49	2	6.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Send household members to eat elsewhere	61	0.0	25	74	11	32	4	12	0	0.0
Send household member to beg, do degrading job	70	0.0	9	30	11	40	7	23	3	12
Limit portion size at meal	34	0.0	26	75	29	82	2	7.0	9	25
Prioritized food for working member	78	0.0	17	56	5	16	0	1.0	0	0.0
Reduced number of meal eaten in a day	28	0.0	43	137	18	58	5	17	5	15
Skipped entire day without eating	52	0.0	22	81	25	93	0	0.0	0	1.0
<b>Average</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>8.0</b>

Coping Index (average) (23.4)

Source: Field data

The coping index (CI) was calculated for each of the coping behaviors. The frequency of the households who applied a particular behavior was multiplied by the severity weight (combining table 11 and 12). The average frequency of household who did not adopt any of the coping behavior was 50% and since “Never” means no adoption, it assumed zero (0) weight with a resultant (0.0) CI. The households who adopted one of the strategies at least once a week was on average 23% with a CI of 58, showing virtual food insecurity. The overall coping index figure was 23.4 implying reasonably good food security situations.

#### **4.4.4. Household food consumption behaviour**

The respondent that acknowledged benefit from food assistance in the past 12 months was 99%. The consumption behaviours of the households were grouped into four major categories as; dietary change behaviours such as shifting to less preferred food; behaviours to increase short term household food availability such as borrowing food from friends or relatives, gathering or hunting for wild food, consumption of seed stock and getting food on credit. The other coping option was control measures such as to decrease number of people to feed, this include sending children to eat from the neighbours and sending household members to beg or do degrading jobs and finally the rationing strategy. Rationing option include limiting portion of meals, restricting consumption to children, reducing number of meals and skipping entire day without eating. Spearman rank correlation was used to estimate the relationships.

The correlation coefficient between receiving food assistance and consumption of less preferred food was analysed. In a similar manner relationship between receiving food assistance, borrowing food and limiting portion at meal time was studied. These were the most adopted behaviour as revealed by the individual households. The results are shown on the table 13.

**Table 13 Food assistance and consumption behavior**

			Less preferred food	Borrow food	Gathered wild food	Limit sizes at meal time
Spearman's rho	Received food assistance	Correlation Coefficient	-.037	-.041	-.073	-.048
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.528	.474	.210	.409
		N	300	300	300	300

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data

The result in table 13 indicated an inverse relationship between receipt of food assistance and household consumption coping behaviours. The relationship between access to food assistance and reliance on less preferred food shows ( $\rho = -.037, p = .528$ ). This finding suggests that as household received food assistance, consumption of less preferred food decreases. Similarly, ( $\rho = -.041, p = .474$ ) implied that provision of food assistance reduces on food borrowing.

The magnitude or the strength of the correlation coefficients closer to zero (0) portrays an insignificant association between the variables. Similar results showed that receiving food assistance has inverse relationship with gathering of wild food and limiting size at meal time. The correlation coefficient between quantity of food received and the consumption behaviour was further studied. The findings are similar for all the other consumption coping behaviours with negative insignificant values.

The correlation coefficient based on the quantity of food received for cereals, pulses and vegetable oil on the consumption copings such as relying on less preferred food, food borrowing, gathering of wild food and limiting portion at meal time was studied and the results are presented on table 14 below.

**Table 14 Food quantity received and consumption behavior**

			Less preferred food	Borrow food	Gathered wild food	Limit sizes at mealtime
Spearman's rho	Quantity cereals	Correlation Coefficient	-.148(*)	-.224(**)	-.192(**)	-.139(*)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.028	.001	.004	.039
		N	221	221	221	221
	Quantity pulses	Correlation Coefficient	-.034	-.067	-.034	-.021
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.606	.312	.613	.749
		N	230	230	230	230
	Quantity Veg oil	Correlation Coefficient	.135(*)	.112	.078	.127
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.047	.099	.253	.060
		N	219	219	219	219

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data

The result on table 14 shows that quantity of cereals received has an inverse correlation with consumption of less preferred food, (rho = - .148, p = 0.28). Similarly, quantity of cereals received has a negative correlation with borrowing of food, (rho = - .224, p = 0.001). Equally, (Rho = - .192, p = 0.004 and -.139, p = 0.039) for gathering wild food and limiting size at meal time in that order. These findings implied that quantity of cereals received reduces borrowing, consumption of less preferred food, gathering of wild food and limiting sizes at meal time. A similar result was displayed for quantity of pulses although insignificant. This relationship was contrary for vegetable oil which shows positive correlations with consumption of less preferred food.

**4.4.5. Hypothesis: Food assistance reduces negative consumption coping**

The study hypothesis assumption for objective one was that; benefits from food assistance reduces negative consumption coping strategy, this means food assistance has positive effects on traditional consumption coping behaviors.



The findings as revealed showed an association between the two variables. Provision of food assistance has an inverse relationship with consumption coping behaviors. Similarly, quantity of the cereal commodities received has significant inverse relationship with borrowing and gathering of wild food. With cereals as the most significant, pulses insignificant, yet vegetable oil with significant positive relationship with consumption of less preferred food. Therefore, it can be stated that benefits from higher quantity of food assistance reduced on negative consumption coping behaviors. As a result of these findings, the research hypothesis was accepted.

#### ***4.5. Food assistance and livestock sales***

The second objective was to establish the relationship between benefit from food assistance and household livestock sales. Respondents were first asked if they sold household items to acquire food and if they sold livestock in the past 12 months so as to be able to buy food commodities. Livestock ownership and problems associated with livestock rearing were also investigated.

##### **4.5.1. Description of asset and livestock sales**

The livestock considered in this study included cattle, goats or sheep and poultry as key livelihood assets of the households. The resultant statistics showed 43.3% sold some livestock during the study period yet only 3.7% of the household sold household items in order to purchase food. Household items included agricultural tools and personal belongings. In relation to livestock ownership, the number of households in possession of cattle was 21.7%, those who had goats or sheep were 28% and poultry ownership was 26.7%. The livestock ownership was not exclusive; some households had all the three livestock under consideration whereas others had one or two of the three. Some of the households did not sell their livestock and the reasons provided are presented in table 15 below.

**Table 15 Reasons for not selling livestock**

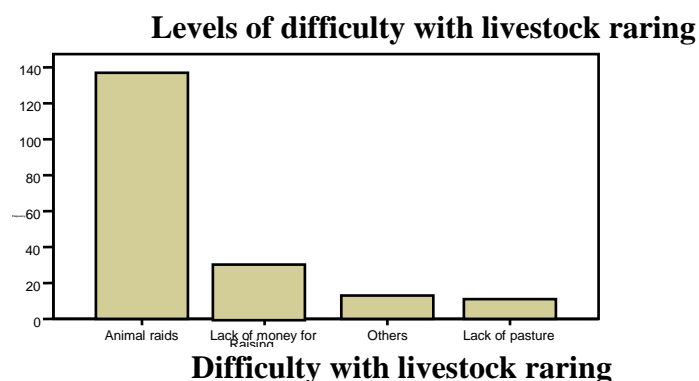
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Cumulative Percentage
Valid	No livestock	120	40.0	77.4
	Help from relatives	18	6.0	89.0
	Food assistance	17	5.7	100.0
	Total	155	51.7	
Missing	0	145	48.3	
Total		300	100.0	

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data

Majority of the households did not sell any livestock (51.7%) as shown in table 15 above. Various reasons were provided. In the table, those who did not sell any livestock, making 40% was because they did not have any livestock to sell and this made up cumulative 77.4%. On the other hand only 6% and 5.7% got help from friends and accessed food assistance in that order and which saved their livestock from being sold. Cumulatively, only 21% of respondents provided that the reason for not selling livestock was due to benefit of accessing food assistance. Some household however, sold their livestock because of the difficulty they experienced in raring.



**Figure 3 Bar graph showing levels and difficulty with livestock raring**

Source: Field data

The households noted other difficulties with livestock rearing; these are presented in figure 3 above. Animal raiding emerged the highest with regard to difficulty in rearing livestock, followed by lack of money for animal drugs. Additionally, respondents were asked if they sold any livestock, and what were the reasons. It was worth noting that some households sold their livestock to get rid of them because of difficulty of rearing, old age, sickness or fear for it being raided.

**Table 16 Livestock loses**

		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Valid	No	19	6.3
	Yes	108	36.0
	Total	127	42.3
Missing	0	173	57.7
Total		300	100.0

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data

The household who owned livestock reported their livestock having died. The table 16 above showed respondents by category. The other problem with livestock most mentioned was death of livestock; 108 (36%) of the respondents reported death of their livestock to causes related to sickness, while a smaller percentage related death of their livestock to injury and old age.

#### **4.5.2. Access to food assistance**

The hypothesis assumption for objective two was that; benefit from food assistance reduces household sales of livestock. To understand the relationship between food assistance and livestock sales, correlation coefficient was analysed. This was by looking at the relationship based on benefits of food assistance and sales of livestock alongside quantity of food commodities received visa vie number of livestock sold.

**Table 17 Access to food assistance and livestock sales**

		Received food assistance	Sold livestock
Received food assistance	Pearson Correlation	1	.020
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.726
	N	300	300

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data

The table 17 above showed correlations coefficient between accesses of food assistance in relations to sales of livestock. The result suggested that relationship between access to food assistance and sales of livestock ( $r = 0.20$ ,  $p = 0.726$ ) was statistically insignificant. The findings implied impartial correlations between accessing food assistance and livestock sales.

**Table 18 Quantities of food received and number of livestock sold**

		Number of cattle sold	Number of goats/sheep sold	Number of poultry sold
Quantity cereals	Pearson Correlation	.277(*)	.327(*)	.079
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	.013	.503
	N	54	57	74
Quantity pulses	Pearson Correlation	.200	.103	.102
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.117	.405	.375
	N	63	67	78
Quantity Veg oil	Pearson Correlation	.542(**)	.375(**)	.175
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.128
	N	63	66	77

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data

The analysis using Pearson Correlation for quantity of cereals, pulses and vegetable oil received by individual households and number of livestock sold, shown on table 18 above revealed that quantity of cereals received has positive correlation with number of cattle, goats and sheep sold.

The quantity of cereals received showed significant correlation with number of cattle sold, ( $r = 0.277$ ,  $p = .043$ ) and ( $r = .327$ ,  $p = .013$ ) for number of goats and sheep sold in that order.

Additionally, the correlation for quantity of pulses and number of cattle sold ( $r = .200$ ,  $p = .117$ ) and ( $r = .103$ ,  $p = .405$ ) for goats or sheep were insignificant.

Vegetable oil received and livestock sales especially cattle and goats reveals more significant figures. Quantity of vegetable oil received has positive correlation with number of cattle sold, ( $r = .542$ ,  $p = .000$ ) significant at (0.01). In the same way, quantity of vegetable oil received has positive correlation with number of goats and sheep sold ( $r = .375$ ,  $p = .002$ ) significant at (0.01). The results are positive but less significant for number of poultry sold.

#### **4.5.3. Hypothesis: Food assistance reduces sale of livestock**

The study hypothesis for objective two was that; benefit from food assistance reduces household sale of livestock. The alternative hypothesis was that benefit from food assistance does not reduce on households livestock sales. This finding however, revealed significant association between quantities of cereals and vegetable oil with number of cattle and goats or sheep sold. The positive association suggested the contrary to the study hypothesis. There was no decrease in livestock sale as household accessed food assistance. The research hypothesis was rejected.

#### **4.6. Food assistance and community migration**

The third objective was to examine the relationship between food assistance and community migration. In this examination, respondents were asked if in the past 12 month when they received food assistance, household member migrated to look for food. The result indicated that 67 respondents representing 22.3% of the households had a member of the family migrated in search of food.

#### 4.6.1. Characteristics of migration

The migrants aged between 16 and 65 comprised 64% female. The migration pattern was described as “more often” by 12% of the respondents while 6% said seasonally and once a year respectively. At the time of interview 14% of the respondents had returned to their families. In terms of remittances, 19% of the migrants remitted food commodities to their families while 3% brought back cash, yet others were on their own and did not remit back anything. Although majority of the household members did not migrate (77.7%), the households whose members migrated only moved within Kaabong district.

**Table 19 Areas of migration**

	Location of migration	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Valid	Did not migrate	233	77.7
	Within Karamoja	3	1.0
	Neighboring district	4	1.3
	Within sub county in Kaabong	23	7.7
	Kaabong town	18	6.0
	Other locations in Kaabong	18	6.0
	Total	299	99.7
Missing	System	1	.3
Total		300	100.0

Source: Field data

The finding shown in table 19 above, revealed that majority of Kaabong population did not migrate outside of the district borders. The households whose members’ migrated, only 1% migrated outside Kaabong district but within Karamoja while the other 21% of migration was within Kaabong district. The short distance migration within the district possibly implied the need to stay within the livelihood zones as coping mechanism.

#### 4.6.2. Access to food assistance and household migration

The hypothesis assumption for objective three was that; benefit from food assistance reduces household migration.

To understand the relationship between food assistance and household migration, correlation coefficient was analysed. This was by looking at the relationship based on access of food assistance and household migration. Similarly, quantity of food commodities received and household migration.

**Table 20 Correlations of food assistance and migration**

		Received food assistance	Member migrated
Received food assistance	Pearson Correlation	1	.056
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.330
	N	300	300

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data

The results presented in table 20 above showed relationships between food assistance and migration. The relationships indicated positive but insignificant correlations between access to food assistance and migration ( $r = .056$ ,  $p = .330$ ). The positive direction tends to suggest that access to food assistance encourages migration. This may be because those who are not on the distribution list or are far away from distribution point would tend to move closer. Further, analysis of quantity of cereals, pulses and vegetable oil received and the household migration was reviewed. Similarly, quantities of commodity received, age and gender of migrants was analysed.

**Table 21 Quantity of commodity received and household migration**

		Quantity cereals	Quantity pulses	Quantity Veg oil
Member migrated	Pearson Correlation	.009	.127	.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.900	.055	.477
	N	221	230	219

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data

The results in table 21 above showed quantities of cereals, pulses and vegetable oil received signifying positive but insignificant relationship with household migration. This suggested that quantity of the commodities received has got impartial relationship with households or its members migrating to other locations.

#### **4.6.3. Hypothesis: Food assistance reduces household migration**

The hypothesis assumption for objective three was that benefit from food assistance reduces household migration. The alternative hypothesis was that benefits from food assistance do not reduce on household migration. The results revealed insignificant relationship between the variables. The findings of this objective pointed that majority of the people did not migrate. Although it can also be alleged that benefits from food assistance improved on settlements and discouraged migration. The study hypothesis was indeterminate and therefore rejected in this study.

#### **4.7. Observations results**

During data collection, observation and checking the presence and sign of agricultural activities; whether the households had been harvesting, threshing, or an indication that farming took place in the households. Presence of livestock cattle, goats or sheep and poultry was also observed. This was possible to tell based on the manyata establishments. Other observation was for signs of household engagement in petty trade such as trading, brewing, charcoal making, pan cakes baking among others.



**Table 22 Household food stock, livestock and farming activities**

Observed items	Frequency		Percentage (%)	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Presence of food stock	270	30	90	10
Presence of livestock	95	205	31.7	68.3
Presence of poultry	163	137	54.3	45.7
Farming activities	103	197	34.3	65.7

Source: Field data

As shown in table 22 above, based on the observation list, the presence of food stocks in the household was recorded for 270 cases (90%) of the visited families. Presence of signs of agricultural activities such as harvesting, threshing, bagging and farming activities being carried out by the households was seen for 103 cases (34%) while presence of livestock, ruminants was 95 cases (31%) and poultry 165 cases (54%). Petty trade such as sale of natural resources products, firewood, charcoal, brewing, pan cake making, boiling maize and roasting meat was cited for 121 cases making 40% of the observations.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### ***5.0. Introduction***

This chapter presents the summary, discussions, conclusions and recommendations of the study presented according to the finding by objectives. Cross referencing with existing literatures was included in the discussions.

#### ***5.1. Summary of the findings***

The general finding of this study revealed that humanitarian food assistance has got effects on traditional social safety nets at varying magnitudes. Relationship exists between food assistance and traditional social coping behaviour of the households in Kaabong. This was confirmed by the data collected from the beneficiary households and focus group discussions. Descriptive and inferential analysis of these data portrayed more empirical evidences on the existence of the relationships. The major findings of the study was summarised and discussed according to the objectives as below.

##### **5.1.1. Summary: Food assistance and traditional consumption coping strategy**

The first objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between humanitarian food assistance and traditional consumption coping behaviours among the community of Kaabong district. The findings portrayed an average coping strategy index (CSI) of 23.4. This meant a relatively good food security situation. Evidently, majority of the beneficiary households did not show adoption of severe coping behaviours as was mentioned by the respondents. Such behaviours as sending household members to beg, skipping entire day without food and feeding working members at the expense of other household members.

Inferential statistics results proved negative association between the variables. This implied that quantity of food commodities received reduced on stressful coping behaviours. The findings further exposed satisfaction with quality of food assistance and reduced reliance on animal products. This research agreed that CSI methods can be applied as part of quantitative household survey, in which exactly the same questions are asked to each household and results are compared at household levels. The averages are then compared at higher levels such as locations or districts (Maxwell and Caldwell, 2008).

### **5.1.2. Discussion: Food assistance and traditional consumption coping strategy**

It was important to note that individual households are affected differently and that consumption coping behaviours are temporary measures to reduce on effect of hunger by the individual households. Coping Strategy Index measures behaviour, the things that people do when they cannot access enough food so as to manage household food shortages.

Food assistance was provided to the community under different program arrangements. The different food assistance programme had different food rations with varying standard deviation for each of the food commodities. Majority of beneficiaries received 25 kg of cereals, 3 kg of pulses and 1 litre of vegetable oil on a regular basis. Again households received different rations based on conditions such as the number of members in the household, the level of household food insecurity and vulnerability.

The food basket was composed of cereals or maize meal, pulses, vegetable oil, CSB and salts for extremely vulnerable section of the community while moderately food insecure only got cereals. Cereals make up one of the staple food for the community; pulses, vegetable oil and CSB are additional components into the diet. Boiled cereals comprised part of major meals in addition to the other traditional food.

This knowledge has got an important bearing on the finding of the study. Food assistance was meant to safeguard the availability, access and consumption of adequate, safe and nutritious food for the affected population. The assistance was intended to help minimise damage to lives, protect livelihoods, food production and market systems and to promote the recovery, rehabilitation so as to attain self-reliance through the production seasons.

The coping behaviour options adopted as portrayed in this research finding were measures that reflect on changing diets from the preferred food to the less preferred ones. The other option was to increase short term supply by borrowing from relatives and friends or gathering of wild foods. The one that required more attention was rationing options with high individual coping indexes such as reduced number of meals eaten in a day and limiting portions at meal time although was not taken on larger scale. All this behaviours portrayed the problem with household food security. The generally lower scores of CSI however, indicated lower coping and therefore better levels of food security.

It was important to note however, that food assistance alone may not have contributed to the lower CSI, agreeing to the fact that 92% of the household was not pleased by the ration sizes. Uganda food security outlook (FEWS, Sep, 2010) depicted relatively good harvest in Kaabong for cereals, particularly sorghum, one of the main staple food crops. The year 2010 was considered a good agricultural year with good rains. The rains enabled good farming; improved on pasture and animal conditions, milk production and widespread availability of vegetables. This argument was further supported by looking at the livelihood options as provided by the respondents. Although 31% resorted to food aid as their main survival, 13% mentioned food crop production as their main livelihood. This was followed by petty trade 12%, sales of labour and natural resources products (firewood and charcoal) with 10% respectively. Further this finding indicated 14% derived more than 20% of their food requirements from the market.

Nonetheless, the results of this study conform to earlier findings where CSI was shown to correlate well with other measures of food security such as dietary diversity, caloric intake as well as determinants of food consumption frequency. The correlation was largely negative as would be expected. Despite the discontented with the quantity of food provided, it was adequate to demonstrate that food assistance significantly contributed to lower negative coping behaviours (Maxwell and Caldwell, 2008).

### **5.1.3. Conclusion: Food assistance and traditional consumption coping strategy**

Although humanitarian food assistance contributed significantly to lower negative coping behaviour, it was not entirely responsible for the improved food security and lower levels of CSI portrayed. Other contributions need to be recognised such as good rains that favoured own production and pasture for the livestock. It was also important to remember that consumption behaviour adaptation was a temporary measure that could change any time. The measure as indicated by CSI does not say how long the situation could be sustained. Continued monitoring of the coping behaviours and continued support to diversified livelihood options to provide longer term and sustainable household food securities are desirable. Even though food assistance had a significant correlation with coping behaviour, the results need to be treated with care as this research used average.

Important to note was that CSI is more relevant within communities with similar livelihood activities. It was possible that two households may have the same CSI but was using different behaviours to make the corresponding level of food security. On the other hand, one household could also be employing multiple behaviours at a relatively low frequency while the other household employ fewer but more severe copings. In a normal circumstances household start with less severe coping before adapting to more severe ones.

#### **5.1.4. Recommendation: Food assistance and traditional consumption coping strategy**

The recommendation to the local government and development partners was to regularly monitor household coping behaviour so as to understand further community coping options disaggregated to smallest administrative units (Parishes) so as to plan measures to avoid stressful coping behaviours at the household levels. In this way rightful targeting of individuals are realised for proficient service delivery of food assistance interventions.

#### **5.2. Summary: Food assistance and livestock sales**

The second objective of this study was to establish relationship between food assistance and asset sales, particularly livestock sales. Investigation included livestock ownership, reasons for not or selling of livestock and problems associated with livestock rearing. The results showed that 21.7% household owned cattle, 28% had sheep or goats while 26.7% owned poultry. The finding shows 43.3% of respondent have sold some livestock including cattle, goats or sheep and poultry during the period but only 3.7% indicated that they sold so as to purchase food items. Food assistance indicated positive correlation with livestock sales. Correspondingly, the correlation coefficient of food quantity received and number of livestock sold was largely positive and significant. This implied that access to food assistance increased livestock sales in response.

##### **5.2.1. Discussion: Food assistance and livestock sales**

The finding was deviant as was expected that livestock sales would reduce as household accessed food assistance. Meaning people would preserve their livestock since they got free food. It was interesting to note that bigger number of livestock sales occurred between March and September 2010 when crop production was not certain. The number of livestock sold greatly reduced as new harvest set in from late September. Within this period trade in cereals was also flourishing, as was contained in the commodity prices collected by WFP from the community and livestock market from February to December 2010.

Further, livestock prices were lower between March and September as compared to month of October to December. Livestock exchange for grains from traders was also observed during the period.

It was shown that majority (92%) of the household was discontented with the food assistance quantity. Possibility was ripe to assume that lower rations during the period left the household with a stressful food gap to fill so as to maintain household food security during the production season, prior to harvest. There was limited food at household level but was more available in the market brought in from the Gishu, Sebei, Lango and Acholi areas in addition to the rations provided by the humanitarian agencies.

This condition may have created demand for cereals and the need for cash to be able to purchase food commodities available in the market. The demand for cereals could have been influenced by the need of the household to meet food gap during the lean production period and uncertainty about weather failure. The weather has been a failure in the previous years where consecutive draught followed damaging floods in 2007. It was then only rational for households with livestock to sell and stock food commodities while stock was available.

The other factor to note was the continued disarmament, cordon and search for illegal guns and the fact that livestock were raided from protected kraals guarded by the national army. The seemingly lack of livestock protection may have created loss of hope for continued benefit from the livestock. The traditional raiding habit to restock had changed to commercial raiding for sale. Largely the community lost confidence in livestock rearing as they lose benefits and as it became a security threat. Traditionally, livestock provided the main livelihood of the community with milk and blood which comprises the major diet. In this sense it was justifiable that humanitarian food assistance was just to save lives and not protecting the livelihood asset and saving community livelihoods.

Although there are no readily available studies to demonstrate correlations of food assistance to livestock sales, there are studies pointing to increase sales of livestock during lean periods. Study conducted in Karamoja by Ezaga, (July, 2010) revealed that livestock owners impetus to sell was largely triggered by the desire to satisfy a need especially food and medication. He further argued that, the lack of surplus food crop in the region presented a degree of responses to intermittent shortage depending on the season. The finding was that when harvest abounds, and most household have some food, selling cattle at good price was not a grantee as household only sells in desperations.

Another study by Stites and Huisman, (September, 2010), briefing paper of 18<sup>th</sup> September, depicted that there was an increase in smaller or unhealthy livestock sales to buy food in North Karamoja in the same period. Their argument followed that the current food assistance had not adequately resounded to the need of the chronically food insecure and stress that food assistance was a poor substitute for insufficient development assistance. Harvey & Lind, 2005; Lind, 2005) earlier findings reveals that as poorer household loses their animals, level of destitution rises creating dependency on food distribution as a way of live.

### **5.2.2. Conclusion: Food assistance and livestock sales**

The positive and statistically significant correlation between sales of livestock and food assistance was inconclusive. Conclusion was not drawn by the implied research findings that accessing food assistance would increase livestock sales. Increased livestock losses to raids and diseases alongside the fact that livestock raring became a security threat were considered. Some household lost members in the bid to protect the animals. Livestock displacement from the owners' kraals to the protected kraals, poor pasture and water for the livestock due to reduced grazing areas and hours were some of the factors to mention. This was supposed reduced hope for the cultural attachment and benefits from livestock products such as milk and blood.



Livestock was therefore rational for the households to dispose so as to meet food needs. Although food provides better argument for the sale as principally proceed was used to purchase food, stressful sales as a result of lost hope in livestock benefits should be taken into consideration. Food assistance was however, not in position to safeguard household livelihood asset particularly livestock.

### **5.2.3. Recommendation: Food assistance and livestock sales**

Community livelihood in Kaabong was long known to depend on livestock because of the high cultural importance and economic value. The surprise in this study where only eight (8) respondents 2.7% indicated livestock production as the major livelihood option needs to be investigated further as this portrayed a shift in traditional livelihood means of the community to crop production and petty trade in local brews, firewood and charcoal. Deliberate effort to protect the community traditional livelihood assets while at the same time providing food security support to the household was recommended so as to safeguard and build sustainable livelihoods.

### **5.3. Summary: Food assistance and community migration**

The third and final objective of the study was to examine the relationship between food assistance and community migration. The location and pattern of migration, age and gender of migrants and the benefits derived and remitted by the migrants was examined. The key finding was that most households did not migrated, constituting 77.9% of the cases. The few household whose member migrated, moved within Kaabong district. Majority of the migrants were females aged between 16 and 65 years. The product most remitted by migrants was food commodities. The correlation between food assistance and household migration was positive and insignificant. The positive direction suggested that accessing food assistance caused migration. This was however; very insignificant which implied that food assistance had no effect on migration partners of Kaabong community.

### **5.3.1. Discussion: Food assistance and community migration**

It was important to differentiate migration from mobility where members of household moved with animals to seasonal pasture as part of transhumance. Temporary and seasonal migration has long been part of livelihood in Kaabong allowing specific household members to exploit social networks, casual employment and food sources in other areas. According to Stites and Huisman, (2010) briefing paper; research conducted around the same period in North Karamoja, indicated that more people were migrating often for longer period and to more distance locations. This research finding confirms their assertion for Kaabong where migrations were more temporary and rural based involving short distances within Kaabong district.

This study finding was in agreement with earlier studies which expressed that effect of food aid on household migration; actual correlations are rarely completely casual. The study by ODI, (2005) maintained that people may decide to migrate where they believe to get greater protection, benefits or opportunity for employment. It was important to note that food assistance distribution in Kaabong was done at the parish levels while other food support such as school meals were provided within the institutions. In this logic therefore food assistance would be considered to have prevented out migration from the rural. According to Quresh, (2007) obtaining food aid is often an objective of migration, which in this case was already being provided in all the parishes nearer to the households albeit the contested quantities.

Further to this line of arguments, a number of household could have left their homes in search for survival means having lost their livestock as the major survival mechanism. The sub counties of Loyoro, Lolelia, Kalapata, Sidok and Kaabong were almost depleted of the livestock as a result of raids in 2008. The livestock raid insurgency would be a cause for migration given that households had to surrender their guns (means of protection) in the disarmament exercise. In this case it was logical to assert that food assistance safeguarded live and maintain households in their homes.

This study results was comparable to earlier findings. Overseas Development Institute, (2005) desk review report on the effect of food aid on household migration patterns and implications for emergency food assessment, argued that actual correlation between food aid and migration are rarely completely casual as was also portrayed in this research.

In another study, Punkhurst & Bevan, (2004) found out that food aid was a factor in preventing out-migration from rural areas in the chronically poor areas of Ethiopia. They establish that in situations where survival strategies have been exhausted and people are forced into distress migration, the availability of food aid acted as a considerable inducement. Food aid was argued to influence decision about whether or not to migrate. This was evidenced in the Democratic Republic of Congo where camp in Bunia was closed in order to promote return. Another case was reported in Tanzania where food aid was used to encourage refugee to return to Rwanda.

A similar situation was described in Sudan, Dafur in 2004-2005, where people living around the IDP camps registered as residents of the camp so they do not have to leave their homes. The food aid that they received helped them retain the few assets and helped rebuilt their livelihood after the crisis. In Uganda, the Acholi internally displaced camps (IDP) (1997-2008,) food aid facilitated people to stay in the protected camps throughout the insurgency, until of recent when a return to home areas was possible. Again suspension of food distribution in major camps influenced quick returns to the villages of origin when the insurgency risks reduced.

### **5.3.2. Conclusion: Food assistance and community migration**

Even though inferential evidence did not point to the direction that food assistance has got substantial effect on community migrations, descriptive evidence provide indications that it has contribution to safeguard lives and maintain households in their homes. In this sagacity food assistance was considered prevented out migration.

The household that had members migrated was in conformity that people may decide to migrate for a number of reasons, including nearer to food distribution points or to live with food secure relatives. Food assistance was seldom the only determinant in people's decision about where to move in crisis. Migration in Kaabong was generally rural based (rural to rural), temporary in nature involving shorter distance. This may imply people were seeking to pursue similar livelihood strategies they are already familiar with as opposed to looking for new options in new ecological zones. It was also possible that migration intention was to move closer to distribution points.

### **5.3.3. Recommendation: Food assistance and community migration**

Food assistance can be used as a tool to protect community customary livelihood means and coping strategies within their desired livelihood zones. This was important to facilitate closer monitoring of community migrations as shift in livelihood strategies without clear alternative may cause undesirable situations. Loss of livelihood may create destitution and continued dependency on food assistance.

### **5.4. General Conclusion**

The aim of the research was to trace some general correlations and linkages between humanitarian food assistance and traditional social safety nets, outlining how humanitarian food assistance has affected traditional coping systems in the agro-pastoralist economy of Kaabong district. The general results of the findings signified some level of dependency on humanitarian food assistance as over 30% of the household believed that their livelihood depended on it.

Humanitarian food assistance contributed significantly to lower negative coping behaviour, although it was not ultimately the only responsible factor for the improved food security and lower levels of CSI portrayed.

Even though food assistance had a significant correlation with coping behaviour, it was important to note that CSI is more relevant within communities with similar livelihood activities as this finding was based on average. It was possible that two households may have the same CSI but are using different behaviours to make the corresponding level of food security. On the other hand, one household could also be employing multiple behaviours at a relatively low frequency while the other household employ fewer but more severe copings. The positive and statistically significant correlation between sales of livestock and food assistance was inconclusive. Conclusion was not drawn by the implied research findings that access to food assistance increased livestock sales. Increased livestock losses to raids and diseases alongside the fact that livestock rearing became a security threat were considered.

Livestock displacement from the owners' kraals to the protected kraals, poor pasture and water for the livestock due to reduced grazing areas and hours were some of the factors to mention. This possibly reduced hope for the cultural attachment and benefits from livestock products such as milk and blood. It would be rational for the households to dispose the livestock so as to meet food and other needs. Although food provides better argument for the sale as principally proceed was used to purchase food, stressful sales as a result of lost hope in livestock benefits should be taken into consideration. Food assistance was however, not in position to safeguard household livelihood asset particularly the livestock.

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The household that had members migrated was in conformity that people may decide to migrate for a number of reasons, including nearer to food distribution points or to live with food secure relatives. Food assistance was seldom the only determinant in people's decision about where to move in crisis.

Migration in Kaabong was generally rural based (rural to rural), temporary in nature involving shorter distance. This may imply the people were seeking to pursue similar livelihood strategies they are already familiar with as opposed to looking for new options in new ecological zones. It was also possible that migration intention was to move closer to food distribution point

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# LIST OF APPENDICES

## APPENDIX A1

### Letter of recommendation for field work



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**UGANDA MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE**  
Plot 44-52, Jinja Road  
P.O. Box 20131  
Kampala, Uganda  
Website: <http://www.umi.ac.ug>

Your Ref:

Our Ref: G/35

10 January 2011

**Mr. Joseph Ogweng Okellowange**  
09/MMSPAM/20/022

Dear Mr. Okellowange,

#### **FIELD RESEARCH**

Following a successful defense of your proposal before a panel of Masters Defense Committee and the inclusion of suggested comments, I wish to recommend you to proceed for fieldwork.

Please note that the previous chapters 1, 2 and 3 will need to be continuously improved and updated as you progress in your research work.

Wishing you the best in the field.

Yours sincerely,

  
Ms. Pross Oluka Nagitta  
**AG. HEAD, HIGHER DEGREES DEPARTMENT**

## APPENDIX A2

### Letter of introduction to conduct research



## UGANDA MANAGEMENT INSTITUTE

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Your Ref:

Our Ref: G/35

10 January 2011

#### TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

#### MASTERS IN MANAGEMENT STUDIES DEGREE RESEARCH

Mr. Joseph Ogweng Okellowange is a student of the Masters Degree in Management Studies of Uganda Management Institute 20<sup>th</sup> Intake 2009/2010 specializing in Public Administration and Management, **Reg. Number 09/MMSPAM/20/022.**

The purpose of this letter is to formally request you to allow this participant to access any information in your custody/organisation, which is relevant to his research.

His Research Topic is: ***"Humanitarian Food Assistance and Traditional Social Safety Nets: A Case Study of Kaabong District"***.

Ms. Pross Oluka Nagitta  
AG. HEAD, HIGHER DEGREES DEPARTMENT

## Appendix B1: Questionnaire English

### Questionnaire:

**Instruction for enumerators:** Follow all the instructions carefully and make sure that your answers are accurate and legible. One questionnaire should be completed per household interviewed. Both the villages and the households will be selected randomly and not repeated.

### Q1. Interview Details

Name of Sub County	Name of Parish	Name of village
Household Number (if any)	Date of Interview [mm/dd/yy]	
Name of Interviewer	Gender of the respondent	Gender of the Head of the Head of Household
	1. Female                      2. Male	1. Female                      2. Male

#### 1.1 Details of the Household members who are currently living and sharing food from the same kitchen

Numbers	1. Female	2. Male
Children < 5 yr.		
Children 6-12 yr.		
Adolescent 13-18 yr.		
Adults 18+		
Elderly people not economically active		
Members ill and unable to work		

#### 1.2 What are the 3 main livelihoods of your household (arrange in descending order) – use codes below.

Source 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Source 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Source 3: \_\_\_\_\_

01 = Food Crop production (e.g. cereals, tubers)	11 = Handicrafts
02 = Growing Non-Food crops (e.g. raising seedlings)	12 = Brewing
03 = Livestock production (e.g. animal keeping)	13 = Sale of Natural Resources (firewood, charcoal)
04 = Selling Animal products (e.g. milk, cheese, butter)	14 = Remittance / kinship
05 = Trading in Food Crop or Non-Food Crops	15 = Salaries, wages (employees)
06 = Seller, commercial activity	16 = Rental of property (parcels, building)
07 = Petty trading	17 = Government allowance (pension)
08 = Unskilled wage labour	18 = Hunting & Gathering
09 = Agricultural labour	19 = Begging, assistance
10 = Skilled labour (artisan)	20 = Others, specify _____

## Q2. Food Access

2.1	Did you receive any food assistance during the last 12 month? <b>If 'No' skip to Q 2.10</b>	1. Yes 2. No.
2.2	If yes, could you kindly tell us the source of the assistance?	1. OPM 2. NGO/WFP 3. Relatives/friends 4. Others specify ____

### 2.3 How much food assistance has your household received in the past month? (Specify food items and quantities received).

Food items		Quantities received (kg.)	
Cereals			
Pulses			
CSB			
Oil			
Others (specify)			
2.4	<b>Are you satisfied with the quality of the food?</b>	1. Yes	2. No
2.5	<b>If 'No', record the reason for non-satisfaction</b>	1. Foreign matter 2. Rotten 3. Bitter 4. Same type of food 5. Not tasty 6. Cause stomach problems 7. Others, specify	
2.6	<b>Are you satisfied with the quantity of food?</b>	1. Yes	2. No
2.7	<b>If 'No', record the reason for non-satisfaction</b>	1. Less than entitlement 2. Reduced ration 3. ration for less people 4. Others, specify-----	
2.8	<b>Was your food stolen from you?</b>	1. Yes	2. No
2.9	<b>If yes to the above, when was your food stolen?</b>	3. Attempted but failed	
	1. At distribution point	2. On way home	3. From home that night
			4. From home later

2.10	<b>If you did not receive the food assistance, what was the reason?</b>	1. Not registered 2. None of the HH members were present on the distribution day 3. Others, specify_____ 4. Don't know	
------	---	---	--

### 2.11 Did any of your household benefit from any of these interventions in the past month?

	1. Yes	2. No	If No, Give reasons for your answer
1. School Feeding			
2. Food for work			
3. Gift from friends/relatives			
4. General food distribution			

**2.12 In the past 30 days what proportion of food was from the sources as listed below? (Total = 100%)**

Code	Most (>70%)	Moderate <70% >40%	Somewhat < 40% >20%	Less <20%	Never 0%
1. Own production (crops, animals)					
2. Hunting, gathering					
3. Exchange labour /items for food					
4. Borrowed					
5. Purchases					
6. Gift (food) from family/relatives					
7. Food assistance (WFP/NGO/OPM)					

**Q3. Food Utilization**

3.1		Of the food assistance received, approximately what percentage was used for each of these purposes?						
Food	Sold (kg)	Bartered (kg)	Shared with kin (kg)	Brewed ( kg)	Lost through theft (kg)	Consumed (kg)	Others (kg)	Total
Maize meal								100
Cereals								100
Pulses								100
Oil								100

**Hints:** Check totals add up to 100. As specified in 2.3 above.

**Q4. Coping strategy**

In the past 30 days, when you received food assistance, how often has your household had to:							
Sn	Coping options	Every day	3-6 times /week	1-2 times	Less than 1	Never	
1	Rely on less preferred and less expensive foods?						
2	Borrowed food, help from friends, relatives?						
3	Got food on credit from friends, relatives, shops?						
4	Gathered wild food, hunt or harvest immature crops?						
5	Consumed seed stock held for next season?						
6	Send household members to eat elsewhere?						
7	Send household members to beg, do degrading job?						
8	Limit portion sizes at mealtimes?						
9	Feed working members of the household at the expense of non working members?						
10	Reduced the number of meals eaten in a day?						
11	Skipped the entire day without eating						



<b>4.1.</b> In the past months when you received food assistance has your household had to adjust the number of meals eaten in a day?	
<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>
<b>4.2. How many meals to you eat in a day? Tick as appropriate</b> 1. Ones 2. Twice 3. Three times 4. Four times	
4.3. When do you take the meal? 1. Morning food/breakfast 2. Lunch 3. Evening meals 4. Supper	
<b>4.4.</b> How many times do your household cook in a day? 1. Ones 2. Twice 3. Three times 4. Four times 5. Others specify	
<b>4.5.</b> What are the other food items that people eat when outside household? (Please list them beginning with the most widely eaten and available) 1.....2.....3.....4	
<b>4.6.</b> Who are the categories benefiting most from this type of food? 1. Children Boys 2. Children Girls 3. Men 4. Women	

### Q5. Asset sales and Migration

<b>5.1.</b> In the past 12 months when you received food assistance, has your household had to: <b>(if your answer is No skip to question 5.3)</b>			
12	Sell household item to purchase food?	<b>1. Yes</b>	<b>2. No</b>
13	Sell livestock to purchase food?	<b>1. Yes</b>	<b>2. No</b>
14	Household member migrated to look for food or money elsewhere to support the family?	<b>1. Yes</b>	<b>2. No</b>

### 5.2. If you have sold animal during the past 12 months answer the following questions.

	Cattle	Goats/sheep	Poultry
How many animals did you sell during the period to date? Fill in the numbers.			
How many of these animals do you currently own?			
Have you sold reproductive female?	<b>Yes, No.</b>	<b>Yes, No.</b>	<b>Yes, No.</b>
Did you sell more animals than usual this period?	<b>Yes, No.</b>	<b>Yes, No.</b>	<b>Yes, No.</b>
Have some animals died during the period?	<b>Yes, No</b>	<b>Yes, No</b>	<b>Yes, No</b>
What were the main reasons for selling the animals?	1. Need of money, 2. Old age/sickness, 3. Infertility, 4. Lack of water, 5. Lack of pasture/feeds, 6. Other reasons specify..... .....		
What was the main cause of animal death?	1. Old age, 2. Sickness, 3. Injury, 4. Lack of water, 5. Lack of feeds, 6. Need to buy food 7. Others specify.....		
What is your main difficulty with animal raising?	1. Lack of money to buy animals, 2. Lack of pasture, 3. Lack of water, 4. Raids, 5. Others specify.....		

**5.3. If the answer is No for questions 12-14 in (Q5.1.) above, you have not sold any animal, property or migrated what were the reasons?**

<p><b>12.</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Did not have anything to sell</li> <li>2. Presence of food assistance</li> <li>3. Received help from relative and friends</li> <li>4. Others specify_____</li> </ol>	<p><b>13.</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Did not have livestock to sell</li> <li>2. Presence of food assistance</li> <li>3. Received help from relative and friends</li> <li>4. Others specify_____</li> </ol>	<p><b>14.</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Had nowhere to migrate</li> <li>2. Presence of food assistance</li> <li>3. No able member of family to migrate</li> <li>4. Others specify_____</li> </ol>
--	---	---

**5.4. If Household member migrated to look for food or money elsewhere to support the family, answer the questions below:**

<p><b>Q 15. Who migrated?</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Female----- Age---</li> <li>2. Male----- Age---</li> <li>3. Whole family</li> <li>4. Others .....</li> </ol>	<p><b>Q16. Where did she/he migrate to?</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Other towns within Karamoja</li> <li>2. District neighbouring Kaabong</li> <li>3. Across the boarder of Uganda</li> <li>4. Other villages within Kaabong</li> <li>5. Near food distribution point in Kaabong</li> <li>6. Kaabong town</li> <li>7. Other trading centres in Kaabong</li> <li>8. Others (specify).....</li> </ol> <p><b>Q.17. When the migration did take place-Month/year? -----</b></p>	<p><b>Q18. Is the migrant back?</b> 1. YES 2. NO</p> <p><b>Q19. How often doe this migration take place?</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Seasonally</li> <li>2. Once a year</li> <li>3. More often</li> <li>4. Others (specify)-----</li> </ol> <p><b>Q20. Mention the item(s) remitted by the migrant.</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Cash</li> <li>2. Food items</li> <li>3. Others (specify).....</li> </ol>
--	---	--

**5.5. If household member migrated to other location for other reasons, please specify the reasons.....**

**1. Observation check list**

	Observe the following and tick as appropriate	1. Yes	2.No
1	Presence of food stock in house/store etc		
2	Presence of livestock cattle goats/sheep/donkey		
3	Presence of Poultry		
4	Farming activity around home (crop and vegetable growing)		
5	Petty trade, charcoal, brewing, arts and craft etc		
6	Physical health status of house hold head (EVI, NEVI)	1. EVI	2. NEVI

## **2. Prompt Questions for Focussed group discussion**

- a. In the past, if there have been times when you do not have enough food or money to buy food, what does your household had to do?
  - i. **Food consumption adjustments**
    - a. Rely on less preferred and less expensive foods
    - b. Borrowed food, rely on help from a friend or relative
    - c. Limit portion size at mealtimes
    - d. Restricted consumption by adults in order for small children to eat
    - e. Reduced number of meals eaten in a day
  - ii. **Sale of assets (livestock)**
  - iii. **Migration**
- b. How has food assistance affected your coping in terms of: 1. food consumption, 2. sales of livestock and, 3. Migration

## Appendix B2: Questionnaire Ngadodotho

**AKINGISET :Totup nguna igirir ne ejok, katoyeni atemar nguna ibongok iyong iyokino.**

Epeikal itemokino tobongok ngakingiseta daadang. Kapei ngireria ka ngikalia, eseo kongina pa ebongonokinio.

### 1. Ngakingiseta

Akiboith ke Ejakait	Akiboith ke Ekungut	Ekiro ke ere
Ekimar ke ekal (erai keyai)	Akuar ngina angakingiseta [mm/dd/yy]	
Ekiro ke ekengitingitan	Ekabongonokinon	Ekapolokiton ekal
	1. Aberu                      2. Ekile	1. Aberu                      2. Ekile

#### 1.1 Ngitunga ngulu iboyete ke epi kal ka kimujete ke epei keno.

Numbers	1. Apese/aberu	2. Esapat/ ekile
Ngidwe ngikaru 5 kuap.		
Ngidwe ngikaru 6 todol 12		
Ngikatumunak ngikaru 13 todol 18		
Ngaberu ka ngikilio ngikaru 18 ngaren.		
Ngimojongi ngulu nyepedorito edio tic.		
Ngitunga ngulu ediakasi ka nyepedorito etic.		

#### 1.3 Ikwani iyaria iyong alokal? (Ageun alokidiana tar kuap). – Kisitiya ikwangina igiritere kuap.

- 1: \_\_\_\_\_  
 2: \_\_\_\_\_  
 3: \_\_\_\_\_

01 = Akitare ngamuja (e.g. ngikinyom, ngarungeto, ngimogoin)	11 = Akicere
02 Akitare ngamuja nguna nyimujio (e.g. Akidup ngikito)	12 = Acuare
03 =Acok ngibaren (e.g. Ngatuk)	13 = Agielanar a ngakito ka ngamakae.
04 = Agelanar ngulu ryamuna alobaren (e.g. ngakile, akimiet )	14 = Ngakingaranakineta anateker
05 = Agielanar angamuja kori agielanar ngiboro ngulu nyimujio.	15 = Emusara, Elejilej (Ngiketiyak)
06 = Agielanar edukan	16 = Akithipanga (Ngiboro, ngakaith)
07 = Ecurutas ngoloci	17 = Ngisilinga anapukan (Anamojongu)
08 = Apotanu	18 = Akilok & Ngigweron.
09 = Elejilej angimanikorin	19 = Akilipanar,
10 = (artisan)	20 = Ngulu ce _____

## 2. Neni iriamununuere Akimuj

2.1	Iriamunit iyong adikimuj alotoma ngilapio 12 ngulu alunyar? <b>ani kerai mam todepa</b> , Toeka nakingiset ngina ce <b>Q 2.10</b>	1. Ee 2. Mam.
2.2	Kerae ee tolimokinae neni iriamunia akingingarakinnet ngin?	1. Apukan 2. Lojokotau 3. Ngiyeneta/ngiko nei 4. Ngulu ce _____

### 2.3 Atia akimuj ngina abu ekon kal torukau alotoma elap epei ngolo alunyar ai? (Tolimu akimuj ngina ibu iyong torukau kanabo atia ai?).

Ngamujia egelegelia		Etiae ka akimuj (ngakiloi.)	
Eburai kori ngimwa			
Emaret			
Ngakiria ke ewuji			
Akimiet			
Nguna ce mujia			
2.4	<b>Ikijoikinit iyong akimuj na?</b>	<b>1. Ee</b>	<b>2. Mam</b>
2.5	<b>Ani kerae mam nyo eronia?</b>	1. Ayai ice bore ngini pa arai akimuj 2. Abosit 3. Adwaris 4. Akimuj ngina pei 5. mam pa abob 6. Ikitoriebi akook 7. Nguna ce _____	
2.6	<b>Ikiitemokino iyong akimuj na?</b>	<b>1. Ee</b>	<b>2. Mam</b>
2.7	<b>Ani kerae mam, kan nyo pa ikiitemokinor iyong</b>	1. Nyitemokino etiae ngolo sek iitanitae 2. Aditoritoi 3. Pa etemokino lotunga ke ekal 4. Nguna ce -----	
2.8	<b>Aponi tokokoarae akimuj kon a?</b>	1. Ee	2. Mam
2.9	<b>Ani kerai ee, iori akokoyarere?</b>	3. Ekatakinitae akokoyar nai nye yaara	
	1. Aneni akorere	2. Alorot alosi lore	3. Alore napei kuwar
			4. Alore ekau kelunyar ngarua

2.10	<b>Kan nyo pa iriamunitor iyong akingingarakinnet ka akimuj?</b>	1. Emam pa egiritae 2. Amam aloma itunganan ke ekal ngini ayai akuar ngina akorere akimuj 3. Nguna ce _____ 4. Emam pa ayenio
------	--	--

**2.12 Eyai alokiding ngitunga ke ekal ngini abu toriam akingarakinet aiwace elap ngolo alunyar a?**

	1.Ee	2. Mam	Ani kerai mam, kan nyo
1. Akimuj alo sukul			
2. Elejilej kotere akimuj			
3. Ainakinet alokonei kori aloyeneta			
4. Akimuj aneni alojokotau			

**2.12 Alotoma ngarua 30 nguna alunyar atia ai akimuj alotoma nguna igiritae kuap? (Total = 100%)**

Ipei alokuap	Alal iwadio (>70%)	Alal <70% >40%	Iwadio < 40% >20%	Adit <20%	Amam cut 0%
1.Ngina itaunit elope (nginyomen, ngibaren)					
2. Erika , ngigweron					
3. Elejilej kotore akimuj					
4. Ngina kilipuna					
5. Ngina gueluna					
6. Ainakinet alokal/aloyeneta					
7. Akingarakinet aneni atalojokotau (WFP/NGO/OPM)					

**3. Ekisitiyae ka akimuj**

<b>3.1</b>	Alotoma akingarakinet ka akimuj ngina abu torukaun, kidodi etiae ka aluwatin aponere kisitiyaere aimuj na?							
Akimuj	Agielara (kg)	Eloci/lotem (kg)	Amori ka aditeker (kg)	Acuar e (kg)	Akokoyar (kg)	Emuji (kg)	Ngulu ce (kg)	Total
<b>Ngakiria ke eburai</b>								100
<b>Ngimomwa/eburai</b>								100
<b>Emaret</b>								100
<b>Akimiet</b>								100

**Hints:** Kingolik kimorik kedoli 100. (Ikwa ngina igiritere kidiana 2.3).

**4. Ngipitesio ngulu yaret**

<b>Alotoma ngirwa Ngatomoniuni nguna alunyar, Kiriamut iyes Akimuj, ngarwa ngai apedoria ekusikal</b>						
S n	<b>Akon seunet alopite ka akiyar</b>	<b>Angina kuwar</b>	<b>Ngarua 3-6 alotoma esabit</b>	<b>Ngarua 1-2 alotoma esabit</b>	<b>Nyedoli tarapei kuwar</b>	<b>Mam tar iwadio</b>
1	Akiyar anamujia anguna nyelal ebei a?					
2	Akilipa akimuj, akingarakinet aneni angikonei kori ngatekerin a?					
3	Akidiar akimuj loden aneni angikonei, ngatekerin kangidukanin a?					

4	Akiger ngidiath ka ngaraito, akilok kori akilem emanikor eringa nyekono a?				
5	Amunyar ngikinyom ngulu iwaritae kotere akitare a?				
6	Akiyakiyar ngitunga ke ekal akimuj iwace a?				
7	Akiyakiyar ngitunga ke ekal akilipantar ka akitiya ngiticisio ngulu ka apotanu a?				
8	Akikor akimuj edit apak ngina imujere a?				
9	Akitan ngitunga ke ekal ngulu ityaete akilo ngulu nyityaete a?				
10	Akinyip ekimujie Ka akimuj alotoma apei kuar a?				
11	Akiriya nyimujia paka towar				

<b>4.1.</b> Alotoma ngilapio ngulu alunyar, Kiriamut iyes akimuj, Abu ekusikal kilocok ngarwa ngai emujenere iyes alotoma apei kolongit a?	
<b>Ee</b>	<b>Mam</b>
<b>4.2.</b> Ngarwa ngai imujenere iyes alotoma apeikolongit? 1. Apei 2. /ngarwa ngarei 3. ngarwa ngauni 4 ngarwa ngaomwon	
4.3. Ori imujitor iyong? 1. Taparacu-ecai/ewuji 2. Naparan 3. Ngamuja nguna ke Ebong 4. Ebong	
<b>4.4.</b> Ngarwa ngai iponoo ekusikal alotoma apeikologit? 1. Apei 2. ngarwa ngarei 3. ngarwa ngauni 4. ngarwa ngaomwon 5. ngunace-tolim	
<b>4.5.</b> Anu muja imujenete ngitunga kemam ikes alokal/ kori ipasarito iwace? Kitodiu nagamuja nguna ageikin, anikumuj imujonoo nooi ka epatana ariamun?) <b>1/Apei.....2/Ngarei.....3/Ngauni.....4/ngomwon</b>	
<b>4.6.</b> Alutunga nooi eriamunete akimuj na? 1. ngidiain 2. Ngapesur 3. Ngikiliok <b>4. Ngaberu</b>	

### 5. Ngiboro ngulu gelanara ka Awosit

<b>5.1 Alotoma ngilapio Ngitomon angiarei ngulu alunyar ,Kiriamunit iyes Akimuj, , ngarwa ngai apedoria ekusikal ?</b>			
12	Agielanar ngiboro ke ekal agielia akimuj a?	<b>1. Ee</b>	<b>2. Mam</b>
13	Agielanar ngibaren agielia akimuj a?	<b>1. Ee</b>	<b>2. Mam</b>
14	Abu iditungaan ke ekal towotok asakar akimuj kori ngisilinga iwace akigangia ekal a?	<b>1. Ee</b>	<b>2. Mam</b>

<b>5.2. Kigialarit iyong ngibaren alotoma ngilapio Ngitomon angiarei , ngulu alunyar, tobongot ngakingiseta nu .</b>			
	Ngaitu	Ngamee/ng amesekin	Ngikeny(ngikok oroi, ngabatae , ngikulukulo)
Alorua angul ngiai ngibaren ibu iyong togieia? Tolimo ekimar kec.			
Ngiai alotoma ngibaren lu iyakatar iyong pepe?			
Ibu iyong togela ngibaren ngulu euriyete a?	<b>Ee, Mam</b>	<b>Ee, Mam.</b>	<b>Ee, Mam.</b>
Alorua angul ibu iyong togela ngibaren ngulu alalak	<b>Ee,</b>	<b>Ee,</b>	<b>Ee, Mam.</b>

a?	<b>Mam.</b>	<b>Mam.</b>	
Apotu ngibaren ngice totwakaapak ngin a?	<b>Ee, Mam.</b>	<b>Ee, Mam.</b>	<b>Ee, Mam.</b>
Agielario ngibaren kaanu kiro?	1. Angun ka aryamunia Ngisilinga, 2. Amojongito/adiakasi, 3. Apotu tojongto auriare, 4. Amamukau angakipi, 5. Amamukau anginyia, 6. Nguna ce--- .....		
Ani keya ngulu apotu totwaka, nyo aari?	1. Amojngu, 2. Edeke, 3. Abila, 4. Amamukau angakipi, 5. Amaukau anginyia, 6. Nguna ce---		
Nyo ikisipiyorit iyong akipitun ngibaren?	1. Amamukau a ngisilinga agielia ngibaren, 2. Amamukau anginyia, 3. Amamukau angakipi, 4. Ngarimasinei, 5. Nguna ce.....		

**5.3. Kerai abongokinet mam kotere akingiset ngina alokidiana(12-14), kaanu kiro?**

<b>Q.12.</b> 5. Amamukatar idibore ngini gielara 6. Ayakatar akingarakinet ka akimuj 7. Ediaunit akingarakinet aneni angiyeneta ka ngikonei 8. Nguna ce_____	<b>Q.13.</b> 5. Amamukatar ngibaren ngulu gielanara 6. Ayakatar akingarakinet ka akimuj 7. Ediaunit akingarakinet aneni angiyeneta ka ngikonei 8. Nguna ce_____	<b>Q.14.</b> 5. Amam neni wotot 6. Ayakatar akingarakinet ka akimuj 7. Amam iditungan ke ekal emaikina towot iwace 8. Nguna ce_____
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**5.4. Ani kerai abongokinet ee ikotere akingiset ngina 14 ani(4.2) alokidiana, tobongok ngakingiseta nu**

<b>Q 15.</b> Ngae awotoki? <b>5.</b> Aberu----- Ngikaru----- <b>6.</b> Ekile----- Ngikaru----- <b>7.</b> Ekal dayang <b>8.</b> Nguna ce.....	<b>Q16.</b> Ai abu inges towotok? 1. Ngulu ce tela tooma Karimojong 2. Lotela ngulu idunyatar Kaabong 3. Nakwapin nguna idunyatar Uganda 4. Luce reria alotoma Kaabong 5. Neni eapia neni ekorere akimuj alo Kaabong 6. Lotaun a Kaabong 7. Nguna ce kiboyeta alo Kaabong 8. Nguna ce..... <b>Q.17.</b> Ori awotokinere-elap/ekaru? ----	<b>Q18.</b> Abongu ngini awotokinit a? 2. <b>EE</b> 2. <b>MAM</b> <b>Q19.</b> Ani pak ewotonokinere? 5. Nakiporo /nakamu 6. Apei wotokinet alotoma epei karu 7. Angina pak 8. Nguna ce----- <b>Q20. Tolimu ngiboro ngulu ayauni ekawoton.</b> 4. Ngisilinga 5. Ngamujia 6. Nguna ce
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## 5.5 Kewotokinito ngitunga ngulu ke akal iwace, kotere ngacekiro, tolim/Kitodiu.....

### 2. Akingolikinēt angiboro

	Kingolik toceta nguna iyokino	Ee	Mam
1	Ayakau ka kimuj kai kori loiit etc		
2	Ayakau angibaren , ikoni ngaitu,ngamee,ngamesekin,ka ngisigiria		
3	Ayakau angikeny angulu kitana		
4	Akitare angacelin alore (ngikinyom ka ngidiath ngulu kita)		
5	Ecurutas ngolo ici, ngamakae, acuare, akicere ngikicolongo etc		
6	Angaleu ka ekarikiton ke ekal (EVI, NEVI)		

EVI = (Extremely vulnerable, aged, ill or child headed household) NEVI= (Not vulnerable)

### 3. Ngakingiseta nguna emorununeo anatuketa

#### a. Ani kolong, keya ngirua ngina imamukatar akimuj ngina itemokino kori ngisilinga agielunia akimuj, nyo abu ekon kal kitiya?

- i. Epite ngolo kiyapakinēt ekimujie ka akimuj
  - a. Akiyar anamujia naguna nyelal ebei.
  - b. Akilipa akimuj, kori akingarakinet aneni angikonei kori ngatekerin
  - c. Akikor akimuj edit apak ngina imujere.
  - d. Akideunit akimuj kotere ngidwe ngulu cicik akilo ngulu apolok.
  - e. Akinyipor ekimuje ka akimuj alotoma apeikwar.
- ii. Agelantar angiboro
- iii. Awosit

### Appendix C: Work Plan

Year 2010-2011	2010					2011					
Activity	Aug	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun
Proposal development											
Proposal defence/approval											
Interview question testing											
Data collection											
Data analysis											
Report writing											
Final draft submission to UMI											
Results dissemination (viva)											
Submission of final copy to UMI											

### Appendix D: Budget

S/n	Item	Quantity	unit cost	amount
1	Proposal preparation (researcher)	1	0	0
2	Data collection (enumerators)	300	2,500	750,000
3	Number of filled questionnaire ( Notes: FGD)	6	10,000	60,000
4	Transport for 5 enumerators for 12 days each	60	10,000	600,000
5	Lunch for 5 enumerators for 12 days each	60	4,000	240,000
6	Pencil, sharpener, rubbers and clear bag	5	2,000	10,000
7	Reams of papers	5	10,000	50,000
8	Printing and photocopy	2,000	100	200,000
9	Data entry	300	500	150,000
10	Data analysis (researcher)	1	0	0
11	Report writing (researcher)	1	0	0
12	Results dissemination (researcher)	1	0	0
13	Contingency 5%			103,000
	<b>Total</b>			<b>2,163,000</b>

## Appendix E: Map of Uganda Locating Kaabong District



### Appendix F: List of Sub Counties

Sub counties	Frequency	Percentage (%)
KAABONG RURAL	64	21.2
KAABONG TC	68	22.5
KALAPATA	28	9.3
KAPEDO	24	7.9
KARENGA	24	7.9
KATHILE	32	10.6
LOLELIA	28	9.3
SIDOK	32	10.6
Total	302	100.0

### Appendix G: List of Parishes

Parishes	Frequency	Percentage (%)
CAMPSWAHILLI SOUTH	34	11.3
KAMACHARIKOL	32	10.6
KAPEDO	24	7.9
KOMURIA WEST	34	11.3
LOBONGIA	32	10.6
LOKERUI	32	10.6
LONGARO	32	10.6
LOTETELIET	28	9.3
LOYORO-NAPORE	24	7.9
MOROTO	28	9.3
Total	302	100.0

## Appendix H: List of villages

Villages	Frequency	Percentage (%)
KAAKUMAI	13	4.3
KAIKAMARIANG	27	8.9
KALOTWO	15	5.0
KAMACHARIKOL	20	6.6
KOBUIN	26	8.6
KOLOLO	16	5.3
LOMISAN	32	10.6
LONGARO SOUTH	32	10.6
LOPUCU 2	7	2.3
LOYORO SOUTH	24	7.9
NAGOLEKURUT	6	2.0
NAOYABUL	10	3.3
NARIWOGUM	21	7.0
NARIWOGUM 1	12	4.0
NASINYONOIT	8	2.6
NYAMES	7	2.3
WEST WARD	24	7.9
Total	302	100.0