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IS SMALL SCALE IRRIGATION A SOLUTION FOR ALLEVIATING RURAL POVERTY IN TIGRAY? (CASE STUDY IN HINTALLO WAJIRAT)

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ABSTRACT

It has long been since rural poverty became a multifaceted problem in most developing countries. Furthermore, one of the agendas of the Milenium Development Goals is to eradicate rural poverty by 2015. In Ethiopia, where about 85% of the population lives in the country side, rural poverty reduction is the top agenda of the government. To this end, the government has clearly stated in the Growth and Transformation Plan that one way of eradicating rural poverty is through the expansion of small scale irrigation practices in the rural areas of the country. It is with this understanding that this study was conducted using a sample of 240 households selected using simple random and a two-stage stratified sampling with rural as an ultimate unit for obtaining first hand information. Using the Foster, Greer and Thorbeck, FGT, class of poverty measures we assessed the incidence, depth and severity of poverty for both households with and without access to irrigation in the study wereda.. The stochastic dominance analysis showed that the incidence and depth of poverty were significantly lower in household with access to irrigation than in households without access to irrigation. Hence, continued investment in new irrigation projects and maintenance of existing ones in the study wereda will help to attain the government's goals of rural welfare improvements. Moreover, as a reducing poverty and decreasing inequality both have growth-enhancing effects; irrigation investment could have an added benefit. Thus, irrigation in the Hintalo Wajirat Wereda appears to be an investment that can lead to both growth and equity.

KEYWORDS

Small scale Irrigation, Rural poverty, FGT.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Ethiopia has diversified physical features that range from the lowest depression known as the Danakil Depression (about 500 metres below sea level) in the Afar Region to the highest peak in the Smien Mountains (over 4,600 metres above sea level. As a result of this and other environmental features, the country has varieties of agro-ecological zones. In addition, Ethiopia is endowed with massive human resource, arable land, livestock and natural resources, which is manifested by the fact that Ethiopia is the second populous country in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) and third in the continent with population surpassing 80 million and about 85% of its people are dependent on traditional agriculture and live in rural areas. Agriculture, in Ethiopia, employs about 80% of the labour force and accounts 50% of the GDP (Ministry of Education, 2002, CSA, 2007).

Furthermore, Ethiopia is highly endowed with vast riches of water resources, which include 12 major river basins and 12 natural and artificial lakes. The total runoff, regardless of its distribution, is estimated to be about 122 billion m³, of which 75% drains to neighbouring countries. It is also estimated that there is about 2.50 billion m³ of usable ground water that is not yet exploited much with the exception of rural and urban water supply (UNDP/HDR, 2007/08).

Being an agrarian economy, the Ethiopian economy is highly dependent on the traditional farming system, which is the main stay of the economy. This sector in turn heavily depends on nature in which production and productivity are highly influenced by natural calamities such as climate and hydrological variability that are reflected as droughts, and floods. As a result of low and erratic rain-fall, drought has been frequently manifested and threatened the lives of many people in Ethiopia in general and Tigray regional state in particular (Hagos, *et al*, 1999; Pender and G/medhin, 2004, 2007, G/her 2008).

Moreover, the above problems are manifested in different forms such as low agricultural productivity which resulted in incomes of the poor to be less than one dollar a day, which in turn, is exacerbated by population pressure due to small landholding with landholding being 1 hectare on average (ibid). As a result, rural poverty constitutes the major form of poverty in Ethiopia (Fasil, 1993; Demery, 1999). Hence, it is said that Ethiopia is among the poorest nations in the world. Accordingly, the World Development Report (2007) calculated a per capita income of US\$ 160 (World Bank, 2007), and in the Human Development Index (HDI), Ethiopia has been ranked 170th out of 177 nations with HDI value of 0.371 (UNDP, 2006).

This demands poverty reduction policies in Ethiopia to focus on strategies that enhance agricultural productivity of smallholders sector through access to improved extension packages, provision of input and credit supply services, building of infrastructure (mainly rural roads and water supply), and expansion of primary education and health care services.

To this end, the government has been developing macroeconomic strategies that have focused on the reduction of poverty in the nation as a whole.

Achieving broad-based, accelerated and sustained economic growth so as to eradicate poverty has been and is a key objective of the government of Ethiopia. One of the these strategies was the last five year (2005/06-2009/10) development plan which was the plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP). During this plan's period, high and sustained economic growth and significant social and human development results were realised.

To carry forward the important strategic direction pursued in the PASDEP, the government has formulated the five year Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP)(2010/11-2014/15). The GTP envisages that besides maintaining a fast growing economy, better results will be realised in all sectors. During the GTP period, one of the special emphases will be given to agriculture and rural development.

1.2 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

The Ethiopian economy is highly dependent on the agricultural sector which, in turn, primarily depends on erratic and often insufficient rainfall. As a result, there are frequent failures of agricultural production which has a direct negative impact on the income of the rural poor and poverty in the rural areas is more entrenched and widespread than in urban areas.

Because of the spill over effects of the failures in the rural sector, Ethiopia with gross national income per capita of only about US\$ 160 per year and average

income of much less than \$1 per person per day is ranking 202nd out of 208 countries (World Bank 2006). Moreover, it is estimated that about 39% of the population lives on absolute poverty of less than a \$1 a day poverty line (MoFED, 2006) while close to 80% falls below US \$2 a day poverty line (World Bank, 2005). The Incidence of extreme poverty is higher in rural areas (39.3 percent) compared to urban areas (35.1 percent) MoFED, 2006).

Despite this severe and prolonged poverty in rural Ethiopia, the country's economy continues to be highly reliant on one sector which, in turn, is heavily dependent on erratic rain-fall in which productivity and production are strongly influenced by climatic and hydrological variability that are reflected as dry spells, droughts and floods.

Therefore, in such type of economy, some kinds of intervention that are deemed important to escape people out of poverty are inevitable not only from economics point of view but also from moral and ethical considerations.

Accordingly, several searchers argued that since the poor are vulnerable and susceptible to exogenous negative shocks due to natural disasters such as drought, flood, typhoon, and etc, providing households with coping strategies against the emergence of such temporary poverty becomes an important policy target. Empirical evidences suggest that irrigation projects have positive impacts on agricultural production and the reduction of poverty (Hussain and Hanjra 2004; Smith 2004; Lipton 2007; and Hussain 2007b, Kebede, 2011). Lipton (2007) reports that in India, irrigated areas had 2.5 times lower standard deviation of crop output per year during the period 1971–84 (as cited in Dilon,2005). Hagos et al (2007) indicates that in Ethiopia there is significant difference in incidence, depth and severity of poverty in households with access to irrigation than those without irrigation. Nevertheless, Pender et al (2002) reported that returns from investment in irrigation have been relatively low in the Tigray region. Contrary to this last study, Gebregziabher (2008) has found positive and significant impacts of investment in small scale irrigation on income and hence reducing poverty in the Tigray region. In addition, Kebede(2011), using a censored regression model found that access to small-scale irrigation significantly increased mean annual household income in the lake Tana basin of Ethiopia. Thus, the present study is carried out in order to test the impact of small scale irrigation on rural poverty using cross-sectional data in Hintalo Wajirat in the Tigray regional state..

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research aims at addressing the impact of small scale irrigation on poverty reduction in rural Tigray. Specifically, the research intends to answer the following question:

1. Does access to small scale irrigation make a difference on the incidence, depth and severity of poverty in the study areas?

1.4 THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVE

The overall objective of the present study is to examine the impact of small scale irrigation on poverty of the farm households in Tigray.

To achieve the general objective of the research, the study has the following specific objective:

To assess the impact of small scale irrigation on the incidence, depth and severity of poverty in the study area

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

In order to test the realization of the specific objectives of the study, the research intends to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis: The incidence, depth and severity of poverty are not lower for households with access to small scale irrigation than households without access.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Since the objective of the study is assessing the impact of small scale irrigation on rural poverty in Tigray, the output of the study, therefore, has the following academic and policy issues:

- the study may help to provide an up-to-date picture on the present status of poverty in the study area.
- the study will try to indicate which groups of the poor need an immediate action in lifting them up and it also tries to highlight the role of some interventions such as irrigation in alleviating rural poverty. Hence, this in turn will help for policy planners to take an action deemed to up lift the poorest of the poor in rural areas.
- it is assumed that the study may provide some alternatives or feasible recommendations that may help in linking poverty and irrigation practices in the poverty prone areas of Tigray.

1.7 MATERIALS AND METHODS

1.7.1 DATA SOURCES

In order to achieve the objectives of the research, the data sources for the present study are mainly primary cross-sectional household surveys coupled with secondary data sources mainly from various organizations including wereda profiles of the study area.

The primary data are collected through structured questionnaire, focus group discussion with key informants and an in-depth interview with governmental officers and other stakeholders in the study area.

1.7.2 SAMPLING PROCEDURES

In this study, the researcher selected the district using purposive sampling technique. Geographically, Hintallo Wajirat is found in the South Eastern zone in Tigray. From the district, the researcher selected three Tabias(Kebelle) on the basis of the availability of small scale irrigation to farm households in each Kushet(lowest administrative section) using purposive sampling. In the selection of farm households, we used proportionate stratified random sampling technique. This method was employed due to the fact that all the households don't have access to small scale irrigation in the study areas. From each stratum, sample households were selected using systematic random sampling. As a result, a total sample size of 240 sample households, of which 144 households have access to small scale irrigation while 96 households don't have the access.

1.7.3 DATA ANALYSIS

1.7.3.1 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

The purpose of using this type of analytical tool is to summarise the data by describing the basic features of the data in the study, and to provide simple summaries of the variables and measures in the form of percentages, tables, charts, mean values and we also tested the significance of some variables using simple t-test and chi-square tests.

1.7.3.2 ECONOMETRIC MODELS

MEASURING POVERTY INDICES

In this part, the different poverty indices were analyzed. To be more specific, we use the most standard and widely used poverty measure, the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke (1984), FGT, class of poverty index for the measures of poverty.

Given information on a welfare measure such as per capita consumption, and a poverty line, then the only remaining problem is deciding on an appropriate summary measure of aggregate poverty.

The World Bank (2005) states that poverty measures serve to monitor and evaluate social and economic conditions and to give benchmarks of success or failure. In this case, poverty measures are indicators through which interventions are judged and by which the impact of vents (e.g., runaway inflation or the introduction of a government transfer program) can be weighed. Another important use of poverty measures is descriptive. That means poverty measures serve in summarizing complex social and economic conditions that give information with regard to conversations around economic and social priorities. For this purpose, effective measures need not completely capture all (or even most) morally relevant aspects of poverty.

The Foster- Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) class of poverty measures is given as:

$$P\alpha = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^q \left(\frac{Z - Y_i}{z} \right)^\alpha \quad (1)$$

where α = Poverty aversion parameter

n = Total number of individuals in the population or sample

q = Total number of poor individuals

Z = Poverty line

Y_i = Expenditure of individuals below poverty line $i = 1, 2, \dots, q$.

In contrast to Sen's measure (1976) that adopts a rank-order weighting scheme, P_α takes the weights to be the shortfalls themselves. In this case, deprivation depends on the distance between a poor household's actual expenditure and the poverty line, not the number of households that lie between a given household and the poverty line. It also meets the relative deprivation – the expenditure shortfall of that household criterion of poverty.

$$\alpha = 0, \longrightarrow p_0 = \frac{q}{n}$$

(2)

This index is a head count ratio index that reflects the proportion of the poor in total population measuring the incidence of poverty in the whole population. The advantage of the head count measure is that the overall progress in reducing poverty can be assessed right away. Nevertheless, it is insensitive to the depth or severity of poverty and hence, not good to assess the impact of a policy measure.

The advantages of the headcount index are that it is simple to construct and easy to understand. These are important qualities. However the measure has at least three weaknesses:

First, the headcount index does not take the intensity of poverty into account. Consider the following two income distributions:

As a welfare function, the headcount index is unsatisfactory in that it violates the transfer principle – an idea first formulated by Dalton (1920) that states that transfers from a richer to a poorer person should improve the measure of welfare. Here if a somewhat poor household were to give to a very poor household, the headcount index would be unchanged, even though it is reasonable to suppose that poverty overall has lessened.

Second, when a very poor person becomes less poor and when a poor person becomes even poorer, poverty measure must change, but the headcount registers no change in this situation. Most observers, though, following Watts (1968) and Sen (1976), argue that changes in the income distribution below the poverty line matter in a moral sense. This notion is captured by the transfer axiom above, but the headcount fails the test.

Moreover, the easiest way to reduce the headcount index is to target benefits to people just below the poverty line, because they are the ones who are cheapest to move across the line. But by most normative standards, people just below the poverty line are the least deserving of the poor.

$$\alpha = 1 \longrightarrow P_1 = \frac{1}{nz} \sum_{i=1}^q (Z - Y_i)$$

(3)

This measure, known as poverty gap, estimates the average distance separating the poor from the poverty line. The poverty gap could be understood as the amount of income transfer needed to close up the gap. P_1 is sensitive to the depth of poverty but not to its severity.

This measure is the mean proportionate poverty gap in the population (where the non-poor have zero poverty gap). Some people find it helpful to think of this measure as the cost of eliminating poverty (relative to the poverty line), because it shows how much would have to be transferred to the poor to bring their incomes or expenditures up to the poverty line (as a proportion of the poverty line). The minimum cost of eliminating poverty using targeted transfers is simply the sum of all the poverty gaps in a population; every gap is filled up to the poverty line. However this interpretation is only reasonable if the transfers could be made perfectly efficiently, for instance with lump sum transfers, which is implausible. Clearly this assumes that the policymaker has a lot of information; one should not be surprised to find that a very "pro-poor" government would need to spend far more than this in the name of poverty reduction.

At the other extreme, one can consider the maximum cost of eliminating poverty, assuming that the policymaker knows nothing about who is poor and who is not. From the form of the index, it can be seen that the ratio of the minimum cost of eliminating poverty with perfect targeting (i.e. G_i) to the maximum cost with no targeting (i.e. z , which would involve providing everyone with enough to ensure they are not below the poverty line) is simply the poverty gap index. Thus this measure is an indicator of the potential saving to the poverty alleviation budget from targeting: the smaller is the poverty gap index, the greater the potential economies for a poverty alleviation budget from identifying the characteristics of the poor – using survey or other information – so as to target benefits and programs.

$$\alpha = 2 \longrightarrow P_2 = \frac{1}{nz^2} \sum_{i=1}^q (Z - Y_i)^2$$

(4)

This is a measure of the severity of poverty. It depicts the severity of poverty by assigning each individual a weight equal to his/her distance from the poverty line. Hence, P_2 takes into account not only the distance separating the poor from the poverty line, but also the inequality among the poor.

This is simply a weighted sum of poverty gaps (as a proportion of the poverty line), where the weights are the proportionate poverty gaps themselves; a poverty gap of (say) 10% of the poverty line is given a weight of 10% while one of 50% is given a weight of 50%; this is in contrast with the poverty gap index, where they are weighted equally. Hence, by squaring the poverty gap index, the measure implicitly puts more weight on observations that fall well below the poverty line.

Although the Foster, Greer and Thorbecke measure provides an elegant unifying framework for measures of poverty, it leaves unanswered the question of what is the best value of α . Moreover some of these measures also lack emotional appeal.

The measures of poverty depth and poverty severity provide complementary information on the incidence of poverty. It might be the case that some groups have a high poverty incidence but low poverty gap (when numerous members are just below the poverty line), while other groups have a low poverty incidence but a high poverty gap for those who are poor (when relatively few members are below the poverty line but with extremely low levels of consumption). This has a greater implication on the types of interventions needed to help the two groups, which therefore likely to be different.

The validity of these measures was tested using the stochastic dominance tests, which is a graphical representation of the measures. The basic reason for the stochastic dominance test is that poverty measures may change with the variation in the poverty line used. Put it in another way, stochastic dominance tests in poverty analysis check whether the poverty ordering remains the same over different multiples of the poverty line (Dercon, 1998).

In addition, the significance of each poverty measure can be tested using t-test following Kakwani(1993). In this regard, Kakwani(1993) shows that the standard

$$P_\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{P_\alpha^1 - P_\alpha^2}{n}}$$

error of P_α and sample variance σ^2 (for the Foster class of poverty measure P_α can also be calculated by $(\sqrt{NP_\alpha})$.

Kakwani(1993) further demonstrates that standard error of P_α is asymptotically normally distributed with zero mean and variance $\sigma^2(P_\alpha)$.

$$\left(p_1^* - p_2^* \right) \text{ is given by } \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}$$

Thus, η can be used to perform hypothesis testing regarding estimates that the observed poverty difference between two groups is statistically significant or not.

$$\eta = \frac{(P_1^* - P_2^*)}{SE(P_1^* - P_2^*)}$$

In this regard, The formula is

According to Kakwani(1993), the t-value of each poverty index is obtained by dividing the value of poverty measurement by its standard error. The t-value gives an indication of how large the standard error is relative to the value of the estimates. Thus, the larger the value of the estimate of t-value, the greater the precision with the poverty can be estimated from the given sample.

THE POVERTY THRESHOLD

In this paper, we use the poverty line developed by Nega (2008). Off course, other researchers like Hagos (2003) constructed poverty line for Tigray based on the cost of basic needs approach. the poverty line for the region was 1033.45 ETB while the food poverty line was 909.44 ETB. However, Nega (2008) constructed poverty line of 1008 ETB compare to the food poverty line of 828 ETB for Hintalo Wajirat. The data collected for this thesis was only for one month; so we converted the poverty line developed by Nega(2008) in to one month. In this paper 143.64 ETB is the poverty line used after taking in to account the effect of inflation in the region.

2. ESTIMATION RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This section presents and discusses the empirical findings of the survey. Both descriptive and inferential analysis are performed. However, before discussing the estimation results, it better to discuss the different explanatory variables employed in the estimation. The selection of these variables was based on the conceptual framework WB (2005) and the empirical works of Hagos (2003), Mohammednur (2007), and G/egziabher (2008) in the Tigray region and Seyum (2006), Weldehana et al (2008) and other works in Ethiopia.

Accordingly, the selected explanatory variables were: household demographic characteristics, household livestock ownership, and variables that convey information about access to irrigation.

Some of the household demographic characteristics considered in this case were age of the head of the household, (and its square), gender of the head(male=1 , female=0), family size of the household, dependency ratio in the household, marital status of the head of the household, the number of adults (aged between 15 and 64), the number of seniors(aged above 65), and household members with secondary education.

The irrigation related variables include: whether the household has access to irrigation or not, fertilizer adoption, soil type, land quality and plot distance from water source, tropical live stock unit per adult equivalent, oxen ownership.

2.1 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF VARIABLES

The sample was taken for 240 households from three selected villages, 80 from each, in the study area. Of these households surveyed, 144(60%) were households who have no access to irrigation (non-irrigators) and 96 (40%) were households with access to small scale irrigation (irrigators). Of the irrigators, about 22 (15%) households used river diversion while 122(85%) households used dam as a source of water for irrigating their plots. The average plot distance from the water source is 283.21 metre which ranged from 20 to 2230 metres. Out of the 240 households surveyed , 44. (18.52%) were female headed households and 196 (81.48%) were male headed households. The average family size of the surveyed households is 5.19 ranged from 3 to 12. The data also showed that the average household age was 46.14 years which is ranged from 28 to 61 years. With regard to the dependency ratio, the data showed that the average was 1.05 which is ranged from 0 to 3. Out of the total 240 households surveyed, about 48% were poor households whereas about 52% were non-poor households.

TABLE 2.1: SUMMARY OF VARIABLES USED FOR ANALYSIS

Characteristics	Mean value		t- test
	irrigators	non-irrigators	
Gender of Household head	0.830(.379)	0.8024 (.4006)	0.400
Age of the household head	46.245(6.318)	46.160 (6.794)	0.072
Age square of the head	2177.792(591.190)	2176.383(626.9)	0.013
Head's Education	0.528(.503)	0.543 (.501)	-6.809
Family size of the household	5.150(1.955)	5.234 (1.976)	- 0.240
Fertilizer adoption	0.735(.445)	0.580 (.496)	0.000***
Dependency ratio	1.099(.763)	1.022 (.539)	0.684
Land size per adult	0.512(.240)	0.453 (.175)	1.639*
Plot in fertile area	0.603(.493)	0.419 (.496)	2.102**
Log Plot distance from water	4.679(.518)	5.783 (.545)	-11.676***
Distance to market	2.867(1.468)	1.925 (1.394)	3.744***
Distance to irrig.ext off	0.660(.478)	0.325(.471)	4.004***
Expenditure per adult	162.520(46.773)	145.957 (46.412)	2.013**
Oxen per adult equivalent	0.199(.044)	0.1962 (.044)	0.325
TLU per adult equivalent	0.660(.363)	0.588 (.284)	1.293*
Non-land agr. assets per adult	69.060(42.491)	61.342 (28.615)	1.257
Non productive assets per adult	149.290 (159.018)	162.065 (167.0883)	-0.441
Number of seniors	0.207(.409)	0.1234 (.331)	1.307*
Member with elementary education	2.037(1.343)	2.580 (1.556)	-2.080**
Member with secondary education	1.075(.997)	0.888 (1.060)	1.019
Manur adoption	0.886(.319)	0.654 (.478)	3.109***
Improved seed adoption	0.849(.361)	0.7160 (.453)	1.793**

*** Significant at 1%, ** Significant at 5%, and * Significant at 10%.

Values in the parenthesis represent standard deviations of the given variables.

Source: Author's Calculation.

2.2 MEASURING POVERTY INDICES

As it was mentioned above, having information on a welfare measure such as per adult equivalent consumption expenditure and the poverty threshold, then the only remaining problem is deciding on an appropriate summary measure of aggregate poverty. In this case, we use the popular Foster, Greer and Thorbeck (1984) style of poverty measure (FGT), which gives a more convincing classification of poverty among those households, who have access to irrigation and those without it. Consumption expenditure of each household was adjusted for adult equivalence based on the energy required to sustain it. To obtain consumption expenditure per adult equivalent, consumption expenditure was divided by household size adjusted for adult equivalent. We use the equivalence scales used by Hagos et al (2003), Dercon et al (1998).

Table 4.2 indicated that there is significant difference in incidence, depth and severity of poverty between households with access to irrigation and those without it.

TABLE 2.2: THE FGT POVERTY INDICES OF POVERTY MEASURE

FGT Index	Irrigators	non-irrigators
	estimated value	estimated value
Head count ($P_{\alpha} = 0$)	0.396 (0.067)	0.567 (0.053)
Poverty gap ($P_{\alpha} = 1$)	0.068 (0.016)	0.130 (0.017)
Poverty severity ($P_{\alpha} = 2$)	0.018 (0.005)	0.042 (0.007)

Values in parenthesis represent standard errors.

Source: Author's Calculations

As it can be seen from table 2.2, comparatively, the poverty incidence as measured by the head count index, is lower (about 39%) in households who have access to irrigation than in households with out access to irrigation (about 56%) and this idea is supported by the first stochastic dominance test, which showed the head count index is higher in house households with out access to irrigation than households with access to irrigation (see figure 1). The same table also indicated that the depth of poverty, as measured by the poverty gap, is about 6% in households with access to irrigation while it is about 13% in households with out access to irrigation. This shows us that the depth of poverty for households below the poverty line is higher in households with out access to irrigation. This is also confirmed by the second order stochastic dominance test which indicated that poverty depth in households below the poverty line is lower for irrigation users than rain-fed farm households.

Following Kakwani(1993), we tested the significance of each of these poverty indices using the t-test and the results are summarized in table 2.3.

TABLE 2.3 T-TEST FOR THE FOSTER, GREER AND THORBECK CLASS OF POVERTY MEASURES

FGT Index	Irrigators	non-irrigators	t-test
	estimated value	estimated value	
Head count ($P_{\alpha} = 0$)	0.396 (0.067)	0.567 (0.053)	-12.27***
Poverty gap ($P_{\alpha} = 1$)	0.068 (0.016)	0.130 (0.017)	104.96****
Poverty severity ($P_{\alpha} = 2$)	0.018 (0.005)	0.042 (0.007)	11.56***

*** Significant at 1%, ** Significant at 5%, and * Significant at 10%.

Values in the parenthesis represent standard deviations of the given variables.

Source: Author's Calculation

As it is mentioned in table 2.3above, according to Kakwani (1993), the t-value gives an indication of how large the standard error is relative to the value of the estimates. Thus, in this case, since the t-values are large and significant, it indicates that the precision with which poverty can be estimated from the samples is very high.

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ANNEXURE

FIG 1: HEAD COUNT INDEX OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH AND WITH OUT ACCESS TO IRRIGATION

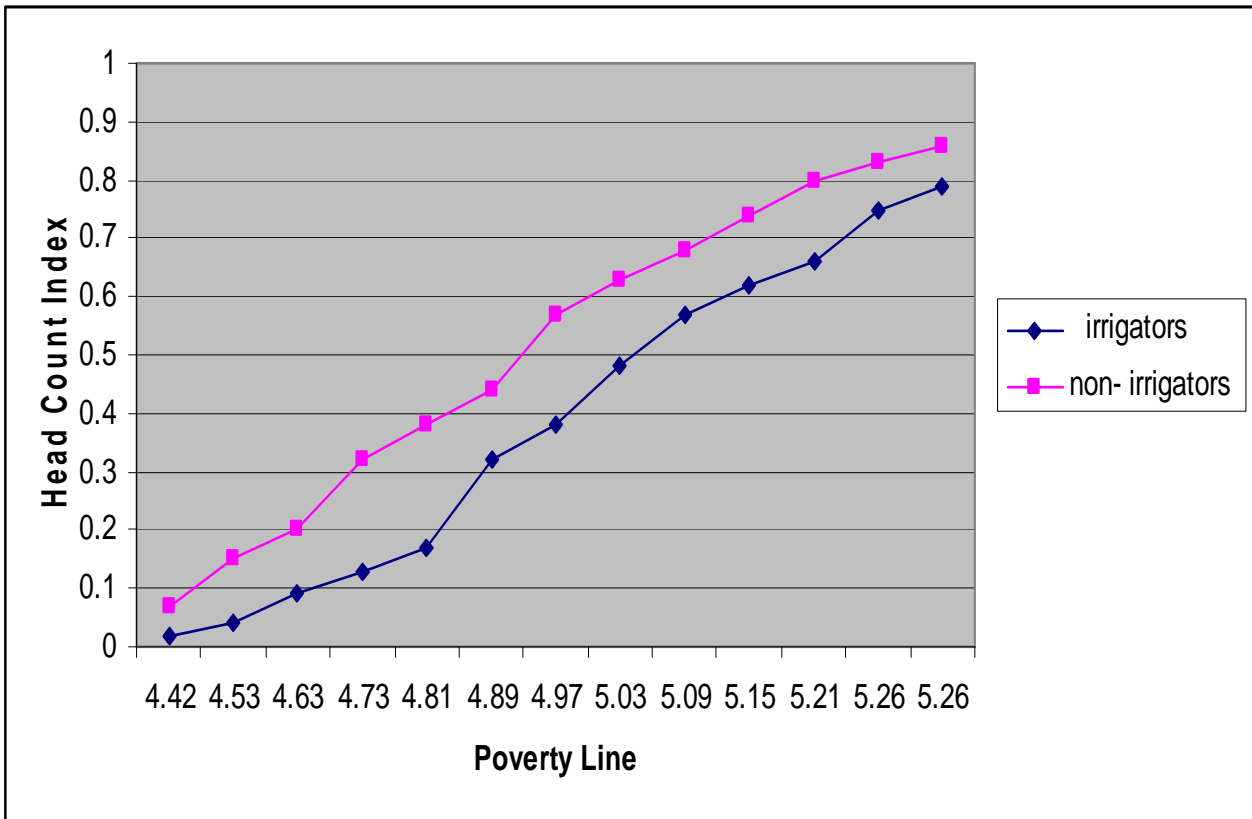
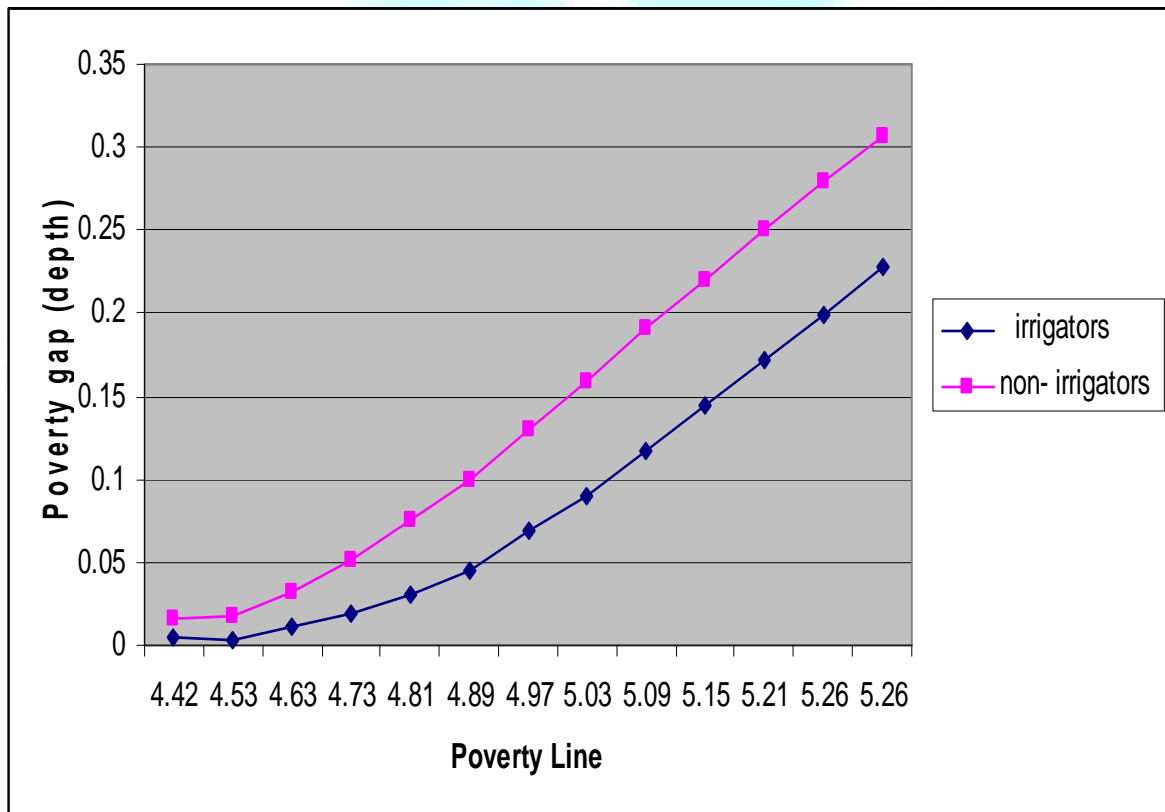


FIG 2: POVERTY GAP (DEPTH) OF HOUSEHOLDS WITH AND WITH OUT ACCESS TO IRRIGATION



SUMMARY OF VARIABLES

IRRIGATORS

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
headfemale	53	.8301887	.37906	0	1
headage	53	46.24528	6.318184	35	59
headage2	53	2177.792	591.1908	1225	3481
dependncyr~o	53	1.099057	.7639473	0	3
fertilzr	53	.7358491	.4450991	0	1
manur	53	.8867925	.3198784	0	1
seed	53	.8490566	.3614196	0	1
timtwnmrkt	53	2.867925	1.468093	1	4
timhaethst~n	53	1	0	1	1
timagriext~f	53	.6603774	.4781131	0	1
Madlteqvte~s	53	162.5201	46.77339	80.78407	296.6993
nldagrias~q	53	69.06031	42.49138	14.63415	261.5385
nprdctasts~q	53	149.2904	159.0189	17.59531	724.6377
oxnperadlt	53	.1998312	.0443586	.093633	.3225807
tluperadlt	53	.6609931	.363471	.1150307	1.565217
seniors	53	.2075472	.4094316	0	1
membreleme~y	53	2.037736	1.343965	0	5
membrsecdry	53	1.075472	.997093	0	3
farmszpera~t	53	.5122857	.2408044	.1358696	1.449275
lnplotdist	53	4.679623	.5189159	2.995732	6.519147
headeduc1	53	.5283019	.5039755	0	1
frtlelnd	53	.6037736	.4937931	0	1

NON-IRRIGATORS

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
headfemale	81	.8024691	.4006168	0	1
headage	81	46.16049	6.79422	28	61
headage2	81	2176.383	626.919	784	3721
dependncyr~o	81	1.022016	.5390889	0	2
fertilzr	81	.5802469	.4965933	0	1
manur	81	.654321	.4785523	0	1
seed	81	.7160494	.4537226	0	1
timtwnmrkt	81	1.925926	1.394433	1	4
timhaethst~n	81	1	0	1	1
timagriext~f	80	.325	.4713299	0	1
Madlteqvte~s	81	145.9572	46.41224	61.75538	249.7406
nldagrias~q	81	61.34283	28.61527	11.68539	147.3171
nprdctasts~q	81	162.0659	167.0883	10.27919	626.5664
oxnperadlt	81	.1962455	.0448725	.1079914	.2808989
tluperadlt	81	.588288	.2848052	.1098097	1.317073
seniors	81	.1234568	.3310104	0	1
membreleme~y	81	2.580247	1.556151	0	8
membrsecdry	81	.8888889	1.06066	0	4
farmszpera~t	81	.4532323	.1757666	.1331558	.9756098
lnplotdist	81	5.783808	.5456313	4.60517	7.709757
headeduc1	81	.5432099	.501233	0	1
frtlelnd	81	.4197531	.4965933	0	1

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With sincere regards

Thanking you profoundly

Academically yours

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