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Food Security Situation

Addis Ababa University

} Highlights {

Razavi Holly Shrine

Becho Wereda in Southwest

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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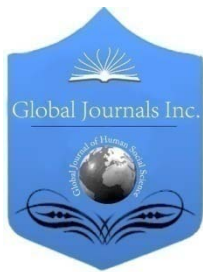
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Household Food Security Situation in Central Oromia, Ethiopia: A Case Study from Becho Wereda in Southwest Shewa Zone

By Furgasa Derara & Degefa Tolossa

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Abstract- Becho Wereda has been perceived to have a surplus food situation for a long time. This study was therefore conducted with the main objective of looking into the reality of this long held perception in the area. To this effect, a total of 145 households were randomly sampled from the three purposively selected kebeles. Primary data were collected through Household Survey Questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion, Key Informant Interview, Individual Case Studies and Field Observation. Household Food Balance Model was used to quantify households' daily per capita calorie available for consumption. Statistical techniques like frequency, percentage, and measures of central tendencies were mainly used to analyze the data. It was found out that, unlike the long held external perception, about 38% of the study households failed even to satisfy the minimum recommended daily per capita dietary caloric requirement for an active and healthy life. High fertilizer price, shortage of farm land, erratic rainfall pattern, water logging, poor soil fertility, lack of oxen, lack of grazing land, crop disease and insect pests, lack of improved seed supply, and lack of farm machineries were identified to have mainly constraining food production among the study households.

Keywords: food security, status, constraints, strategies.

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Furgasa Derara^α & Degefa Tolossa^σ

Abstract- Becho Wereda has been perceived to have a surplus food situation for a long time. This study was therefore conducted with the main objective of looking into the reality of this long held perception in the area. To this effect, a total of 145 households were randomly sampled from the three purposively selected kebeles. Primary data were collected through Household Survey Questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion, Key Informant Interview, Individual Case Studies and Field Observation. Household Food Balance Model was used to quantify households' daily per capita calorie available for consumption. Statistical techniques like frequency, percentage, and measures of central tendencies were mainly used to analyze the data. It was found out that, unlike the long held external perception, about 38% of the study households failed even to satisfy the minimum recommended daily per capita dietary caloric requirement for an active and healthy life. High fertilizer price, shortage of farm land, erratic rainfall pattern, water logging, poor soil fertility, lack of oxen, lack of grazing land, crop disease and insect pests, lack of improved seed supply, and lack of farm machineries were identified to have mainly constraining food production among the study households. Seasonality of food shortage was also found to prevail in the area against which households developed different behavioral and material responses. It is therefore likely to yield better results in terms of improved agricultural practices and technologies, and alternative employment opportunities for key productive asset poor households in the long run.

Keywords: food security, status, constraints, strategies.

I. INTRODUCTION

Food Security is one of the urgent and emerging development challenges of the 21st century (Jonathan, 2010). Since its first articulation in official discourse in 1974, it has become the primary cognitive lens through which the prevalence and complexity of global hunger are viewed (Rupert, 2009). Today, after about four decades of its recognition as a basic mankind scourge, food insecurity problem has still remained a growing issue of global discourse, national policy as well as public concern and the problem seems more pressing in sub-Saharan Africa (Sara 2011; Mesay 2011). As understood from FAO annual reports (2014),

though world hunger has generally showed significant improvements, sub Saharan Africa has still remained with sizable food gap.

As of IFPRI (2002) and Degefa (2002 and 2005) explanations, the reasons why sub-Saharan Africa has failed to feed its population have mostly associated with both natural and man-made factors such as climate shocks, recurrent drought, prevalence of epidemic diseases, resource degradation, conflict, bad governance, inefficient policies, deep-rooted poverty and poor access to modern agricultural technologies. Similarly, as indicated in Devereux (2000) and Mesay (2011), the food insecurity problems of this region (emphasizing Ethiopian case) are the resultant effects of the interplay between natural and human factors that encompass recurrent drought, fragmented and unevenly distributed land holding system, population pressure which further exacerbated the fragile natural resource bases, poor soil fertility coupled with limited application of agricultural production enhancing inputs, inappropriate storage facilities, and limited off-farm employment opportunities.

As a part and parcel of sub-Saharan region emblematic to this problem is Ethiopia in which a sizable portion of the population is categorized as food insecure (Zerihun and Getachew, 2013). As of Degefa (2005), since food security is a multi-faceted phenomenon, it can be better understood by exploring the situations at community and household levels especially in countries like Ethiopia which is much diversified in its physical environment and socioeconomic characteristics of the people.

Despite the fact that achieving food security in its totality continues to be a challenge for Ethiopia, multifaceted efforts are taking place among which boosting up smallholder agricultural production has been taken as a strategic tool to improve food security status of the country. The efforts are also found optimistic at macro levels of the country both in terms of agricultural production and food security. As of Global Food Security Index report (2013), for instance, among the developing countries that made the greatest progress in food security achievement Ethiopia showed the biggest increases. While the country is once again back to the international attention in the same year (2015) for drought-induced food crisis, FAO et al (2015)

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report has also put Ethiopia in the short list of sub Sahara African countries who have significantly reduced the number of hungry people. However, improvements at national and regional levels are neither necessarily true reflection of the existing situations at micro levels nor are still there sufficient empirical researches from which a clear picture of different pocket areas of the country could be drawn for the effective food security policy formulation, planning and interventions.

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OBJECTIVES

Unless it is a matter of variation in its severity, many developing countries experience food insecurity for different environmental, socio-economic and many other reasons. On the other hand, since food security is a multi-faceted phenomenon, it can be better understood by exploring the situations at community and household levels especially in countries like Ethiopia, which is much diversified in its physical environment and socioeconomic characteristics of the people which in turn directly results in the variation in vulnerability to food shortage (Degefa, 2002; 2005). However, though a number of research findings are produced on different aspects of Ethiopian food security issues, there is still a paucity of information on how food security situation looks like in different pocket areas in the country at grass root levels. This study is thus an attempt to fill the existing gap in this regard and thereby add a brick to the food insecurity reduction endeavor.

Being one of the agriculturally potential Weredas in Central Oromia, there existed a long held perception that Becho Wereda is a surplus food producer pocket area in the region. As a result, the people over there are also perceived as highly better off segment of the society in light of food security policy formulation, planning and interventions from the government side. However, no empirical study has so far tried to look into the reality of this long held perception. On the other hand, there exist certain households severely and chronically suffering from food shortage due to such a groundless long held perception that made the area invisible to food security policy makers, planners and intervention themes. Therefore, the central intention of this study was to empirically look into the reality of this perception in a way that helps the government re-focus the area and make an evidence-based and informed decision on food security planning and intervention in the area. To this end, the study has tried to answer the following leading questions:

- Is Becho really as better off in food security status as perceived over years?
- What food security constraining factors are there in the area?
- What are the major coping strategies used in times of food shortage?

III. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

a) Concepts and Definitions of Food Security

Famine and malnutrition has been a mankind scourge for a long time. However, the concept of food security became a prominent issue on the development debate in 1970s. Since then, its definition has considerably evolved over time and its concern has also rarely been out of scene (Devereux and Maxwell, 2001).

Though food security is conventionally defined as, "access by all people at all times to enough food for an active and healthy life" (World Bank, 1986), the comprehensively accepted version of definition is the one formulated in the First World Food Summit. It is defined as the situation when all people at all times have physical, economic and social access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (FAO, 1996).

The definition is still evolving and thus the contextual definition for this study is drawn from Getachew (1995) and Degefa (2002) which defines food security as the ability to establish access to production resources such as land, livestock, agricultural inputs and family labor combined to produce food or cash. This definition in other word states that food security analysis at the household level is determined by a household's own production and members' ability to purchase food of the right quality. It best defines food security in the context of subsistence farmers which this study particularly deals with.

b) Food Security Situation in Ethiopia

As noted in Webb and von Braun, (1994) and Degefa, (2005), Ethiopia is listed among those countries in Sub-Saharan Africa with the most perilous long term food situations. Various historical records have also revealed that Ethiopia has faced some 45 severe famine catastrophes with a series of rain failures and substantial livestock loss. As stated in Dessalegn (1991), the history of Ethiopia is highly linked with severe recurring food shortages and famine. Failure in agricultural productivity and the resultant humanitarian crises of 1958, 1973, 1984-86 and 2002 (Degefa, 2006), for instance, are among most grievous recent cases in point though Ethiopia has a long history of famine. Also as of Mesay (2011), the food security situation in Ethiopia is not better than the general picture of the region; rather the appalling environmental and climatic conditions in Ethiopia in conjunction with the consequential failure in agricultural productivity have been afflicting millions of Ethiopians over years. For the last three and half decades (1974-2012), on average about 4.72 million people has been suffering from food shortage crises per annum.

c) *Causes of Food Insecurity in Ethiopia*

The causes of Ethiopian food insecurity are multifaceted and complex in their nature. As noted in FDRE (2002), for instance, adverse climate changes combined with high population pressure, environmental degradation, technological and institutional factors have led to a decline in the size of per capita landholding causing a severe food insecurity problem in the country. Furthermore, Degefa (2002) and Hussein (2006) have also indicated that though the causes of household food insecurity vary from household to household, the major causes of food insecurity in Ethiopia are closely related to environmental, demographic, economic, social, infrastructural and political factors. In sum, the nature of the main causes of Ethiopian food insecurity directly or indirectly laid their root in environmental, demographic, economic, social, technological, infrastructural, and/or political aspects of the country. On top of that, it is important to consider that as Ethiopia is heavily an agrarian country, whatever challenges its production directly manifests itself through food insecurity situation of the country.

d) *Coping Strategies in Times of Food Shortage*

As there are seasons of plenty, there are also seasons of food shortage. However, rural households in Ethiopia are not passive victims of food shortfalls; they have inherited various behavioral and material responses to balance and maintain their food requirements that help them cope up with the adverse situation of food shortage period (Yared, 1999; Debebe, 1995; Davies and Maxwell, 1996; Degefa, 2005; Ejiga, 2006 and Tagel, 2008). These include, among the others, sale of livestock and fire woods, agricultural tools rental, alteration of consumption patterns, reduction of food portion, cash for work, gifts and/or borrowing cash and/or grain from well-off relatives and/or neighbors, sale off or mortgaging land, collection of wild foods, relief assistance and spontaneous migration.

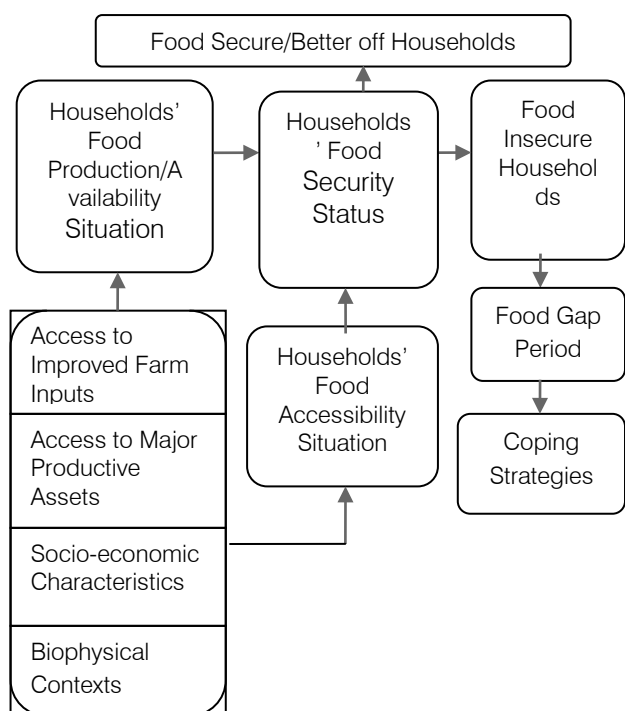
e) *Theoretical Underpinning*

There are many theoretical orientations for food security situation analysis which have progressively developed and expanded overtime (Debebe, 1995). Accordingly, Hussein (2006) also revealed that it is impossible to employ a single theory to best analyze the whole aspect of food security as each and every theory has its own weakness in light of multi-disciplinary nature of food security. With this view in mind, the study employed the two most commonly used theoretical approaches, in context of as subsistent farm households as in case of this study, in such a way that they could support each other to reflect a reliable food security picture of the study households.

The first approach is the 'General Explanation'. In this regard, a number of environmental and socio-economic attributes are concerned. The principal ones include: ecological degradation, climatic elements,

government mismanagement, and unequal access to resources, unequal exchange, socio-economic factors, and political unrests. The argument here is that one or a combination of these can disrupt food production. The second approach is through food security models of which only Food Availability Decline (FAD) and Food Entitlement Decline (FED) models are considered. As of Devereux (1988), the central argument of FAD model is that anything which disrupts food production can cause food insecurity. The model basically demonstrates a situation of subsistence farmers, like those this study has concerned with. However, since the model is criticized for overemphasizing food supply and undermining the demand for available food, FED model is pioneered by Amartya Sen (1981) as an alternative method for food insecurity analysis which suggests that food availability in the economy does not necessarily entitle a person to consume it, and famine can occur without aggregate food availability decline. This means access to food plays a crucial role in securing command over food which is, in turn, determined by production among the other factors.

Therefore, this study is generally framed by the complimentary point of the above approaches. However, since the study area is basically considered to have a surplus food situation for its aggregate production while there exist socio-economic variations across the households to command over the available food, FED model is more stressed than FAD. As framed in Figure 1, a number of interlocked biophysical and socio-economic factors determine households' food availability and accessibility depending on which households finally end up either as food secure or food insecure. As households are rarely passive victims of food shortage, those who have ended up with food gap finally respond in any possible coping strategies.



Source: Authors' Own Construction

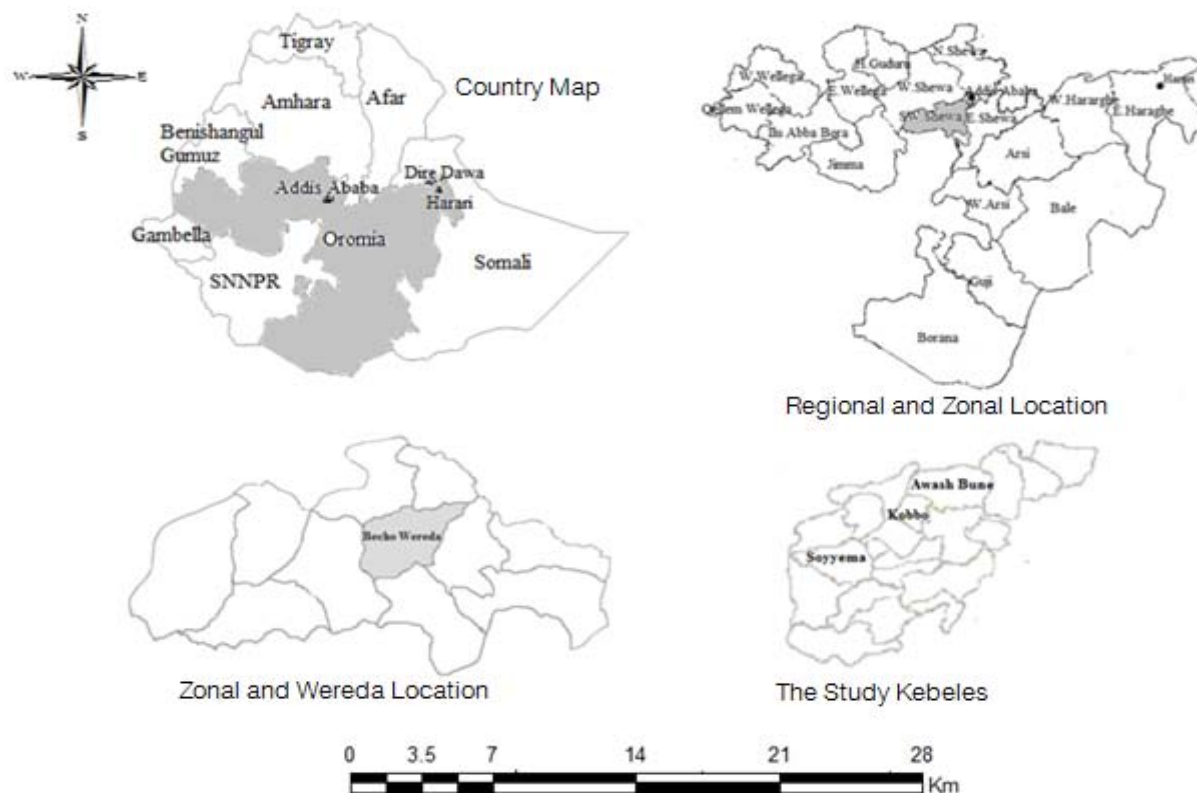
Figure 1 : Conceptual Framework of the Study

f) The Study Area

Astronomically, *Becho Wereda* is located between 8031'N-8045'N and 3807.5'E-38024.5'E in

Central Oromia. It shares borders with *Ilu* in East, *Weliso* in West, *Dawo* in North, *Seden Soddo* and *Tole Weredas* in South (Figure 2). *Becho wereda* has estimated total area of about 446.8 km² or 44,680 hectares (ha) of which about 29,928 ha is cultivated land and 1,731ha is grazing land, among the others. The *wereda* is mainly characterized by slightly flat landscape and the dominant soil type is vertisol. The *wereda's* altitude ranges between 2100 and 2600m a.s.l. With insignificant pockets of *dega* (3%), nearly all areas of the *wereda* fall under *woina-dega* (97%) agro-climatic condition. Becho receives an annual rainfall 900-1100mm and temperature ranging between 12 and 26°C.

According to CSA (2011), *Becho wereda* has a total population of about 86,263 of which about 43,674 are males while the remaining 42,589 are females. The *Wereda* has 19 rural *kebeles* and mixed farming system is the main livelihood strategy in the area. The major crops grown in the *wereda* are tef, chickpea, wheat, lentil, barley and field pea, in order of their importance. Livestock (cattle, sheep, goats, donkey, horses, poultry, etc) rearing is also another livelihood activity in mix with crop production in which households are engaged as a source of food, cash income and draught power.



Source: GIS Assisted Authors' Own Construction

Figure 2 : Location of the Study Area in Central Oromia, Ethiopia

IV. METHODOLOGY

a) Method of Data Collection

The study employed mixed research approach blending some methods from qualitative and quantitative. As indicated in Figure 2, three rural Kebeles: Awash Bune, Kobbo and Soyyema were purposively selected from which a total of 145 household heads were statistically sampled. In light of the complex nature of analysis of household food security issues, no single method of data generating can satisfy the need for sufficient information on various aspects of the study in question to come up with a reliable finding. Therefore, different data generating tools were employed to generate adequate and reliable first hand data. These tools include: Household Survey Questionnaire, Focus Group Discussion, Key Informant Interview, Individual Case Studies and Field Observations. Three Focus Group Discussions were held, one in every study Kebeles. The groups consisted of seven members on average and involved both men and women. A total of nine Key Informant Interviews were conducted with Development Agents, Model Farmers, Elderly, Wereda and Kebele Administrators. Three Individual Case studies were conducted; two in Awash Bune and one in kobbo Kebele. Field Observations were also conducted both before and during the survey giving attention to the overall livelihood situation of the study households.

b) Method of Data Analysis

The net available food for the households was computed using a Mathematical Equation known as Household Food Balance Model, which is originally adapted by Degefa (1996) from FAO Regional Food Balance Model and thenceforth used by different researchers in this field to calculate the per capita food available. The conversion of the net available food into dietary calorie equivalent was based on Ethiopian Health and Nutrition Research Institute's food composition table. The calculated per capita calorie was finally compared against the recommended minimum daily caloric requirement for a moderately active adult (2100 kcal) to look into the dietary caloric status of the households in the area.

Household Food Balance Model:

$$\text{NGA} = (\text{GP} + \text{GB} + \text{FA} + \text{GG}) - (\text{HL} + \text{GU} + \text{GS} + \text{GV}), \text{ Where,}$$

NGA: Net grain available/year/household

GP: Total grain produced/year/household

GB: Total grain bought/year/household

FA: Quantity of food aid obtained/year/household

GG: Total grain obtained through gift/year/household

HL: Post harvest losses/year

GU: Quantity of grain reserved for seed/year/household

GS: Amount of grain sold/year/household

GV: Grain given to others within a year

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods. Majority of the data were analyzed mainly using descriptive statistical techniques like frequency, mean and percentage by the use of statistical software known as Statistical Package for Social Scientists. The qualitative data analysis approach included paraphrasing and case narrations in substantiation of the quantitative findings.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

a) Households Access To Key Productive Assets

i. Households Landholding Status

The size of land holding is strongly linked to a farm household food security status. A household with enough cultivable land most likely yields more produce. Moreover, this can indicate the degree of the household dependability on its land as a main source of livelihood in general and determining its food security status in particular. As shown in Table 1, the land holding size considerably varies among the investigated households. Of the total respondents, 2.76% were found to be landless at all, whereas households with less than 1 hectare of holding size make up 22.76%. The holding size of the majority of the respondent households (31.72%) concentrates within the holding range of 1 to 2 hectares of land whereas those respondents with holding size of 2.1 to 3, 3.1 to 4 and greater than 4 hectares make up 25.52%, 10.34% and 6.90% respectively. The maximum land size held among the respondents is 12 hectares and the mean of overall land held among the study households is 2.15 hectare with 1.56 hectare of standard deviation (Table 1).

Table 1 : Landholding distribution of the study households in hectares

Landholding categories		No of households	Percent of households	
Landless		4	2.76	
<1		33	22.76	
1 - 2		46	31.72	
2.1 - 3		37	25.52	
3.1 - 4		15	10.34	
> 4		10	6.90	
Total		145	100	
Min	Max	Range	Mean	Std
0.25	12	11.75	2.15	1.56

Different studies indicated that farmland size positively affects the food security status of households. This is because food production can increase extensively through expansion of areas under cultivation. Therefore, under subsistence agriculture, landholding size plays significant role in

influencing farm households' food security. The sample households plough fragmented plots with different sizes. As indicated in Table 2, the highest average farm land holding among the study *kebeles* was observed in *Kobbo* (2.6 hectare) followed by *Awash Bune* (2.1 hectare) whereas the lowest average holding size was observed in *Soyyema* (1.85). Except in *Kobbo*, the number of landless households was observed both in *Awash Bune* and *Soyyema* with equal percentage of 1.38% separately.

Table 2 : Summary of farm land holding status of sample households by their *kebeles*

List of Study <i>Kebeles</i>	Minimum farmland held in hectare	Maximum farmland held in hectare	Average farmland held in hectare
<i>Awash Bune</i>	0.25	12	2.1
<i>Kobbo</i>	1	6.5	2.6
<i>Soyyema</i>	0.25	5	1.85
Overall average farm land holding status of all study <i>kebeles</i>			2.15

Source: Field Survey

Related to this, various studies have also witnessed that it is not only the size of farm land held that affects farm households' food production status, but also the fragmentation of the farm land into different plots located at different places. The very logic behind this is that the more a farmer's farm land is fragmented into different plots of distant locations, the less will be the farmer's effectiveness in farm activities. This is because the farmers' time and energy are wasted fruitlessly during their travel between different plots of farms. With this view, it was also attempted to see the number of plots held among the study households. As depicted in Table 3, the overall average number of plots holding among the whole study households was found to be 4 whereas the average number of plots holding in *Awash Bune* and *Soyyema* was found to be higher, 7 and 5 respectively, compared to their counterpart *kebele*, *Kobbo*. This could be presumably an indication for either the relatively higher land shortage problem or higher difference in holding size in the two *kebeles*, *Awash Bune* and *Soyyema*, though the reality of this informed guess could be another research question.

Table 3 : Number of plots holding status by study *kebeles*

List of Study <i>Kebeles</i>	Minimum number of plots held	Maximum number of plots held	Average number of plots
<i>Awash Bune</i>	1	15	7
<i>Kobbo</i>	2	6	3
<i>Soyyema</i>	1	12	5
Overall average number of plots held among the study households			4

Source, Field Survey

With regard to the diminished and fragmented plots holding problem, it is substantiated with an individual case study from *Awash Bune Kebele* (Box 1).

Box 1 : A case study on a challenging aspect of fragmented farms to different places

Obbo Robale is a 35 years old farmer living in *Awash Bune Kebele*. He is a father of four children. He is one of the young hardworking model farmers in the *kebele*. Before he married, he was a dependent on his parent, but after he married, he had to have his own life and for that he strongly considers land as the number one important resource. However, there was no way for him to be formally tenured land from government as there is no un-occupied land among his community. Therefore, though he shared a very insignificant size from his parent in the form of gift, the main way he could manage to access land is through renting and share cropping. However, the big problem on top of that is the fragmented number of plots he needed to plough from here and there. "For me," says Obbo Robale, "having fragmented land is not as such a less problem when compared to the problem of land shortage. For instance, I did have about seven plots of farm land in the last cropping year located here and there at different distances from my home. Some of the plots take long time to be reached. I used to reach them too late and the worst is that as most of the time I need to carry my farm equipments over long distance, I get tired of by the time I reach my farm and I am not as such effective to plough the land whole the day as my energy is wasted on the way to farm land from my home. On top of that, I also need to leave the farm a bit earlier to reach my home safely. In short, as a model farmer you can imagine how more productive I would be had my productive time and energy not been wasted on travel between plots of farms carrying heavy farm equipments."

b) Households Land Need

As it is obviously known, land is the very fundamental productive asset on which rural farm households depend for their sustainable livelihood. However, due to the population growth rural farm households' landholding size is getting seriously

diminished from time to time. This has become one of the limiting factors of agricultural production in the first place and food security as a consequence among many rural households where food is mainly accessed on production basis. In that view, the study households were asked whether the land they held is enough to satisfy their families' need with special focus on food production. Accordingly, from the overall sample households, as it is indicated in Table 4, only 33.10% of them responded to have sufficient landholding size so as to sufficiently meet their families' food and other needs whereas the larger remaining sample households making up 66.90% responded to have insufficient land in order to sufficiently meet their families' food and other needs.

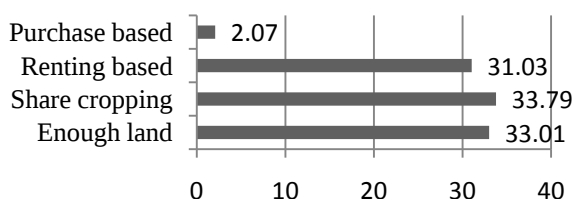
Table 4 : Land need situation of the investigated households

List of <i>kebeles</i>	Sufficient		Insufficient		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
<i>Awash Bune</i>	21	14.48	63	43.45	84	57.93
<i>Kobbo</i>	11	7.57	10	6.90	21	14.48
<i>Soyyema</i>	6	4.14	34	23.45	40	27.59
Total	38	26.21	107	73.8	145	100

Source: Field Survey

c) *Households Means of Access to Land*

As far as means of access to land among the study households is concerned, 33.10% of the investigated households accessed land on formal land tenure system that is sufficient enough to satisfy their land need whereas the remaining 66.90% of the study households who had insufficient land under the formal land tenure system responded to have accessed additional land through different ways so as to satisfy their land need. These include, share cropping, land renting and illegal purchasing which make up 33.79%, 31.03% and 2.07% respectively (Fig.3).



Source: Field Survey

Figure 3 : Distribution of means of accessing land among the investigated households

Compared to the other two strategies of accessing land among the households with insufficient holding size, accessing land on purchase basis (though illegal according to the country's existing land policy) covered very insignificant proportion. This could be linked to the concept that land is the very key productive

asset that determines the sustainability of rural farm households' livelihood. Therefore, almost all farm households do not tend to sell out even a very small portion of their land except in very rare cases as it could have long term negative implication and/ or even can cause a total disruption to their livelihood.

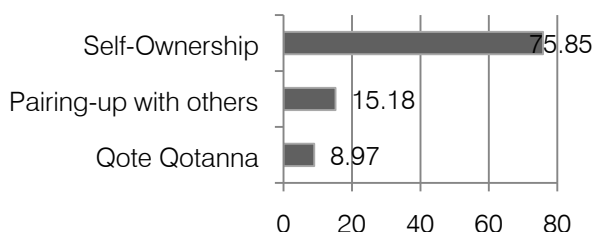
d) *Households Oxen Ownership Status*

The empirical reviews show that livestock production is an integral part of mixed farming systems. Livestock are sources of traction power, manure, and cash income. Animal traction has been in use for centuries in the Ethiopian agriculture and it still prevails in the country. A pair of oxen draws the traditional Ethiopian plough by which most commonly the livelihood of the majority of rural farm households in the country is led. But not all farm households own a pair of oxen. Accordingly, the investigated households were asked their oxen ownership status. As depicted in Table 5, out of the total of 145 households sampled, 13 households (8.97%) have responded not to have even a single ox while 22 (15.18%) of them had only single ox each. The majority of the study households, 71 (48.97%), had a pair of oxen whereas the number of households owning more than a pair of oxen was 39, (26.9%). No household with either no or single ox was found in *Kobbo* whereas the number of households with no ox was higher in *Awash Bune* (10) while only three households with no ox were found in *Soyyema*. The highest number of households with a pair of oxen and more was observed in *Awash Bune* followed by *Soyyema*.

Table 5 : Oxen ownership status of the sample households by their respective kebeles

List of Kebeles	Households with no ox		Households with a single ox		Households with a pair of oxen		Households with more than a pair of oxen	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Awash Bune	10	6.90	12	8.28	38	26.21	24	16.55
Kobbo	-	-	-	-	13	8.97	8	5.52
Soyyema	3	2.07	10	6.90	20	13.79	7	4.83
Total	13	8.97	22	15.18	71	48.97	39	26.9

Source: Field Survey



Source: Field Survey

Figure 4 : Households' means of accessing oxen with respective percentage

As depicted in Figure 4, majority of the study households (75.85%) were found to have access to oxen fully from their own ownership while households who have no oxen (8.97%) get access to them in exchange for their labor through a traditional arrangement locally known as *Qote Qotanna*. Male farmers who have no draught animals provide labor for three days to those farmers who own a pair of oxen or more, but lack a fitting labor force that can plough land for them, and in exchange they get access to use the pair of oxen to plough their own land for the other two days, i.e., three man-days of labor exchanged for two-oxen days. Farmers with only a single ox would pair it up with other farmers (15.18%) who similarly own a single ox and each of them use the pair of oxen for an equal number of days to plough their own land by themselves. Pairing up oxen could also take place between farmers with single ox and those with un-paired extra single ox, the one having three oxen for instance.

A case study from Awash Bune Kebele substantiated the arrangement as follows:

"For farm household, having no ox is not less challenging than not having the farm land itself," the case man begins with. "I am a head of five individuals under my roof. I have about a hectare of farm land scattered here and there. My land holding size is not accommodating enough for my family, nor do I have even a single ox of my own to plough it. As a result, instead of renting out my land every year, I manage to get access to oxen through a Qote Qotanna arrangement with my neighbors who need labor force at the expense of their oxen's service. I

work on their farm for three days so that I could get access to their oxen to plough my land for the other two days. Though it is a bi-lateral benefit arrangement, it puts me at a more loser position than it does to my counter party because almost half of my seasonal energy is lost off-farm which otherwise I could have used it on my own farm.

VI. HOUSEHOLDS FOOD SECURITY STATUS

a) Food Source and Supply Status

Though mixed farming system (Crop Production and Livestock Rearing) is the main livelihood strategy, the single most important source of food supply in the study area is subsistence crop farming. The top three most important crops produced in the area are tef, chickpea and wheat in order of their significance. Own production is the number one means of acquiring food for the majority of the investigated households. However, a sizable portion of the study households rely on grain purchase. This makes it the second most important source of food grain. Very small segment of the investigated households obtains food by borrowing from others whereas no food aid is observed in the area as a source of food grain.

As depicted in Table 6, food grain balance of the majority of the study households (49.67%) concentrates between six and twelve quintals of net food grains while the average of the overall net food grains available for all the investigated households was 12.29 quintals.

Table 6 : Distribution of sample households by net grain available

Net grain available (Qtls)	No of households	% of households	Average grain (Qtls)
<6	16	11.03	4.60
6-12	72	49.67	9.21
12.1 - 18	37	25.52	14.79
18.1 - 24	12	8.28	20.34
24.1 - 30	5	3.45	25.89
> 30	3	2.07	41.33
Total	145	100	12.29

Source: Field Survey Note: Qtls – Quintals

b) *Major Traditional Types of Foods Consumed in the Area*

All food grains have naturally their own calorie content. However, the amount of calorie they supply changes with the way they are processed for consumption. In that view, it is important to have a brief look at of the types of grains mainly consumed in the study area as well as in what form they are most commonly consumed in the study households.

Accordingly, Table 7 is a summary of types of grains mainly consumed in the study area with their respective form of consumption and average dietary calorie supply whereas the conversion factors for dietary caloric analysis were referred from Ethiopian Health and Nutrition Research Institute's (EHNRI) food composition table based on the type of food stuffs consumed utmost in the study households.

Table 7 : Major kinds of traditional foods stuffs consumed in the study area

Food grains	Description of major food kinds in the area	Kcal/100gram
Tef	- Tef flour + maize flour (<i>Buddena</i>) - Pure tef flour+ water (<i>Buddena</i>) - Tef flour + sorghum flour (<i>Buddena</i>)	161.20
Wheat	- Boiled wheat (<i>Mullu/shumo</i>) - Wheat flour +maize flour + water (<i>Buddena</i>) - Wheat bread - Wheat flour + water (<i>Buddena</i>), - Porridge(<i>Marqa</i>)	170.18
Chickpea	- Sauce: split chick pea + shallot chili + oil + garlic + salt (<i>Itto</i>) - Roasted chick pea + salt(<i>Akawwi</i>) - Chickpea flour + wheat flour + tef flour (<i>Buddena</i>)	227.00
Maize	- Cooked maize flour with salt and water (Porridge) - Cooked maize flour with milk, salt and water (Porridge) - Split boiled maize with salt (<i>Qinche</i>) - Cooked maize flour with meagre saltand water (Bread) - Cooked maize flour, fermented (<i>Buddena</i>)	127.83
Lentil	- Split lentil + butter + shallot + chili + salt (<i>Itto</i>) - Sauce: split lentil + chili + shallot + oil +salt(<i>Itto</i>)	93.50

Source: Survey Data and EHNRI's Food Composition Table

c) *Households Daily Per Capita Dietary Caloric Status*

Dietary energy analysis is an important indicator of food adequacy level of a household. It is the per capita dietary energy supply measured in calorie. It provides the average daily food available for each person in a country or region (FAO, 1998) and used to comprehend the average dietary calorie in a given area. In fact, it should be noted that this technique fails to make out the intra-household variations in food security. This is because the analysis of the available dietary energy depends on the average value though the amount of calorie a person requires depends on his or her sex, age, body weight, health condition and physical activity. The average value helps to simplify the complexity that arises while analyzing the available daily dietary energy supply of a household.

Accordingly, the available grain supply was converted into its equivalent calorie using EHNRI's food composition table. This was done after computing the balance for each kind of grains using a Mathematical Equation known as Household Food Balance Model which originally adapted by Degefa (1996) from FAO Regional Food Balance Model and thenceforth used by different researchers in this field.

The average calorie value per 100 gram of each type of food grain was computed based on the kind of

food that the community consumes utmost. This is because the calorie equivalent of the grains varies by the kind of the end product prepared for consumption. For instance, a 100 gram of tef grain (white) produces a dietary energy equivalent to 240.30 kcal when prepared in the form of bread and 145.00 kcal when it is consumed in the form of Injera. Therefore, the average value of the major end product of each crop for the conversion processes was taken based on EHNRI's food composition table. Accordingly, based on the result obtained from the dietary energy computation from all kinds of net food grains for all sample households the daily per capita dietary energy available is generally categorized as presented in Table 8. The daily per capita calorie level of the majority of the investigated households (90) satisfies the minimum daily per capita dietary energy recommended for healthy and active adult individuals, which is 2100 Kcal, whereas the daily per capita dietary energy level of the remaining 55 of the investigated households failed to satisfy the minimum daily per capita dietary energy recommendation. Furthermore, as it is observed in Table 8, the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of the daily per capita dietary energy levels of the study households are 342.91, 17522.47, 2357.52 and 1551.50 Kcal respectively.

Table 8 : Distribution of daily per capita dietary energy categories

Food security status categories	Level of daily per capita dietary Kcal available	Number of households falling in the respective category	Percent of Households falling in the respective category
Food secure	≥ 2100	90	62.07
Mildly food insecure	$\geq 1750 - < 2100$	19	13.1
Moderately food insecure	$\geq 1500 - < 1750$	14	9.66
Highly food insecure	$\geq 1000 - < 1500$	12	8.28
Severely food insecure	< 1000	10	6.9
Total		145	100
Min. (Kcal)	Max. (Kcal)	Mean (Kcal)	Std (Kcal)
342.91	17522.47	2357.52	1551.50

Source: Field Survey

The study area was thought as surplus food producer and as a result people over there were assumed to be highly food secure. However, unlike the long existed assumption, as it is observed from Table 8, though the majority of the investigated households making up 62.07% were found to be food secure, the remaining 37.93% of the investigated households were found to be food insecure. In order to see the intensity of food insecurity situation, the food insecure segment of the investigated households were further categorized into different groups based on their daily per capita dietary energy level. From the total food insecure group of the investigated households, 13.10%, 9.66%, 8.28% and 6.90% fell in mildly, moderately, highly and severely food insecurity categories respectively.

This result has, therefore, come to reflect the idea of Amartyan Sen (1981) with regard to the disparities of food security status among the study households, which generally states that: in a certain community where food is in surplus production there may be households or individuals at risk of food shortage.

As it is indicated in Table 9, an attempt was also made to see how the distribution of food insecurity situation looks like by the study kebeles. Hence, *Awash Bune* tended to have mild and moderate food insecurity level whereas food insecurity situation in *Kobbo* and *Soyyema Kebeles* was found tending towards high and severe food insecurity levels.

Table 9 : Distribution of sample households' food security status by the study kebeles

List of Sample Kebeles	Number of food secure households	Number of mildly food insecure households	Number of moderately food insecure households	Number of highly food insecure households	Number of severely food insecure households	Total
<i>A/Bune</i>	51	16	12	5	0	84
<i>Kobbo</i>	14	0	1	3	3	21
<i>Soyyema</i>	25	3	1	4	7	40
Total	90	19	14	12	10	145

Source: Field Survey

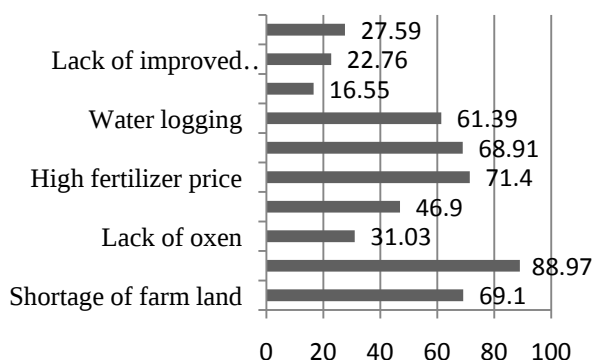
Thus, it is revealed that compared to its counterparts, *Kobbo* and *Soyyema*, *Awash Bune* had a relatively better food security status. As of the explanations given by some key informants, the reason why *Awash Bune Kebele* takes the better status was that they had strong linkage with agricultural development agents. They had also relatively more awareness on technological oriented agricultural practices. On top of that, the presence of relatively more organized and attractive Farmers Training Center for different trainings and demonstrations of different improved agricultural practices and technologies plays influential role in improving their food production.

d) Households Food Security Constraints

In light of food security, the nature of the problem a household encounters in the course of its

food production is an important indicator of the likelihood of a household's vulnerability to food shortage sooner or later. With this view in mind, the sample households were asked to identify the major factors constraining their food production, mainly food grains. As depicted in Figure 6, high fertilizer price, shortage of farm land, lack of grazing land, erratic rainfall pattern, water logging, poor soil fertility, lack of oxen, crop disease and insect pests, lack of improved seed supply, lack of improved farm machineries are identified as the major constraining factors to food crop production among the investigated farm households making up the percentage coverage of the confronted responses of 71.4%, 69.1%, 68.97%, 61.38%, 46.9%, 31.03%, 27.59%, 22.76%, 16.55%, 14.48% and 6.21% respectively in order of their importance. This finding therefore strongly

proves the previous works and explanations given by Devereux (2000), Degefa (2002, 2005), and Mesay (2011) towards why sub Sahara African farm households repeatedly failed to sufficiently feed their population.



Source: Field Survey

Figure 5 : Major Constraints of Food Production in the Study Area

Though it needs further work to know the extent to which these constraints affect crop production, as it is observed from Figure 5, the proportion of the households responded to the problems is taken as an indicator of the relatively serious nature of each constraint. Likewise, shortage of grazing land takes the lead respectively followed by high fertilizer price, shortage of farm land, erratic rainfall pattern, water logging and poor soil fertility problem in order of their seriousness in affecting crop production among the study farm households while the remaining four constraining factors: lack of oxen, crop disease and pests, and lack of improved seed and farm machineries were found neither as such serious nor constraints of less weight in challenging crop production.

The problems of livestock production were also identified in a similar way to crop production problems. Livestock in the study area is reared with insufficient and low quality feed under low management conditions. The common problems identified are shortage of grazing land and improved animal feeds, lack of improved animal breeds, animal disease, water shortage, and capital shortage. However, the severely constraining factors in this sub-sector revolve around feed and shortage of pasture land. Feed and pasture shortage definitely cause the most severe and widespread problems in the area. Likewise, out of the total of 145 sample households 129 of them which make about 88.97% of the investigated households strongly confronted that compared to crop production livestock rearing is really unlucky in the area most importantly due to problems related to feed and pasture shortage. The severity of the problem is related to stocking rate of animals since grazing land is very limited in the study area. Moreover, feeds obtained from the cultivated

areas such as crop leaves and residues of cereals are not enough for animals in both seasons. Shortage of water is also another problem in the area as long distances have to be covered to take animals to water ponds during the dry season. Furthermore, a Key Informant's expression quoted in Box 2 illustrates different inter-woven challenging factors of agricultural production in the area.

Box 2 : Case based illustration of agricultural production challenges in the study area

Obbo Waqwayya is an inhabitant of Kobbo kebele. He is 49 years old and a father of five children. He lives on mixed farming system. When asked about his agricultural production performance, *"relatively speaking, Becho is good in agriculture but it is not as a surplus producer as it is externally assumed because we have a number of interlocked problems that challenge our agricultural production,"* says Obbo Waqwayya. Some of the problems had not been as such boldly existed some years before and Waqwayya takes land shortage for instance. As he states, most of the inhabitants of the community had sufficient holding size that could accommodate their families' need for food and others. But these days, the number of young generation is rapidly increasing whereas the worst is unavailability of non-farm economic activities that can absorb them. Not only is the holding size failing to accommodate the holders, but also the limited land they have has also characteristics of holding excess water (i.e. water logging) which is a big problem to their crop production especially during the months of July and August. To reduce the problem, Broad Bed Maker technology was introduced to the community some years before. However, since it was too heavy to be pulled by draught power, it was not as such effective even at least with average farmers. It has also counted some years since the situation of rainfall pattern has become a big problem in the Wereda. Sometimes it starts late in a season and ceases too early. Sometimes it falls with poor intensity whereas excessive rainfall happens other times. The worst is when it comes at a critical crop harvesting time. The soil is also losing its nutritional status. On top of that, the price of fertilizer is getting worst. Shortage of improved seed supply, lack of pasture for the animals and crop pests and diseases are also other challenges. *"In short,"* says Obbo Waqwayya, *"our agricultural problems are too numerous to tell you in exhaustive list."*

e) Households Coping Strategies in Times of Food Shortage

In many rural settings it is not uncommon to observe both the months of plenty and shortfall in food

availability. However, though the coping mechanisms may differ across different households may be depending upon the cultural values of the community they live in and the degree of the problems, households are not passive victims of food shortage as stated in Yared (1999), Debebe (1995), Davies and Maxwell (1996), Degefa (2005) Ejiga, (2006) and Tagel (2008). Due to the fact that achieving food security in its totality is impossible, it is something inevitable that certain households living in a certain community encounter food shortage with varying intensity and the households act back their way to cope with the food shortage period. Therefore, coping strategies are the very integral part of food security issue and thus they are rarely left out when it comes to the assessment of food security situation of certain households or communities. This section therefore tries to analyze the seasonality of food

shortage in the area and the major coping mechanisms used among the investigated households in times of food shortfall.

Accordingly, the investigated households were asked whether they encountered seasonal food shortage and as it is indicated in Table 10, some 57.93% of the investigated households responded not to have encountered seasonal food shortage whereas the remaining 42.07% responded to have encountered seasonal food shortage. From the investigated households encountering seasonal food shortage, 24.83% of them encountered food shortage from mid of July to mid of September while the remaining 10.34% and 6.90% encountered it during mid of July to late September and from early July to mid October respectively.

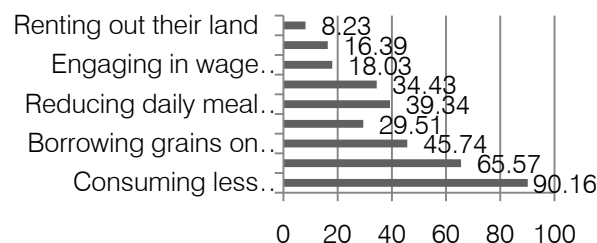
Table 10 : Seasonal food shortage situation by the study kebeles

Food shortfall duration	<i>Awash Bune</i>		<i>Kobbo</i>		<i>Soyyema</i>		Sub-total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No period of food shortfall	41	28.28	27	18.62	16	11.03	84	57.93
Mid. July – Mid. Sept.	10	6.90	9	6.21	17	11.72	36	24.83
Mid. July – Late Sept	3	2.07	5	3.45	7	4.83	15	10.34
Early July – Mid Oct.	1	0.69	4	2.76	5	3.45	10	6.90
Total							145	100

Source: Field Survey

However, no single studied household was found irresponsible to the problem; rather they all have reacted both behaviorally and materially as a means of getting through the food gap period and this has strongly reflected, but not limited to, the previous works and ideas of Yared (1999), Debebe (1995), Davies and Maxwell (1996) and Degefa (2005). "As far as the coping strategies are concerned" the study showed that households in the study area have been responding to the problem in different ways. These include, consuming less preferred foods, selling out small animals, borrowing grains on double repayment, reducing food portion at every meal times, reducing daily meal rate, purchasing food on credit, engaging in wage laboring and petty trade, and renting out their land.

As depicted in Figure 6, out of the coping strategies used by the investigated households in the study area, maintaining household food availability through consuming locally less preferred foods (e.g. maize, vetch and cabbage) and selling small animals were practiced by the largest proportion of the study households facing food shortage, which is 90.16% and 65.57% respectively.



Source: Field Survey

Figure 6 : Major coping strategies of food shortage in the study area

Cash income generating ventures such as sell of small animals, borrowing money, engaging in casual labor wages and petty trade and renting out land were used to purchase food from markets. Furthermore, compared to cattle the area is better in ownership of simple animals like goats, sheep and poultry which are very important in light of food shortage coping strategies. Such animals serve as a buffering stock and highly lessen the vulnerability of farm households to serious food insecurity in times of food shortfall. Regarding reducing household food consumption related strategies, reducing consumption during each meal, and reducing the number of meals per day were the major ones.

As far as grain borrowing is concerned, key informants noted that some years back lending grains to the nearby household facing food shortage was one of the social supports in the study area and the borrowers used to repay only the unit of grains they had borrowed. However, these days, as everything is getting business, such a trend is changed and the borrowers are expected to repay a double unit of the grains they borrow, which they locally call it 'Araxa' which also applies for money, except when it happens between very close relatives, neighbors or friends. The repayment of the borrowed grains most commonly takes place during as early period of crop harvesting as possible. However, in case the borrowers sometimes fail to properly repay the borrowed grains for different reasons, it becomes a source of even serious conflict with the lenders and the borrowers are consequently mistrusted among the community. As a result, no matter how serious food shortage they may face, their chance of borrowing grains again among that community becomes very low and this sometimes may put them at a serious risk of food insecurity problem if they do not have some other buffering resources to sell off in order to purchase grains from market.

Compared to the other different coping strategies, land renting is rarely used as food shortfall coping strategy. The very reason behind is that renting out land is very much linked to the issue of sustainable livelihood. As it is obviously known, for farm households land is the number one and long lasting productive asset on which the farm households put their strong confidence compared to the other productive resources to sustain the livelihood of their family members. On top of that, as the majority of the study households have insufficient landholding, renting it out for a certain hard time could rather put them into a vicious cycle of food insecurity problem. Therefore, the farm households generally tend to use as many other coping strategies as possible so that they could secure their fundamental productive assets.

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Unlike the long held food surplus perception towards the study area, the daily per capita energy analysis clearly showed that a sizable segment of the households, 37.93%, has been suffering from food insecurity problem. Though food is mainly accessed on production basis in the study area, the study has revealed that food production is highly constrained by various interlocked biophysical, socioeconomic and technological factors. Therefore, the findings of this study mainly lie at the interface position between 'General Explanation Theory' and 'FED Model' of food security by way of production and other means of entitlement respectively. From food production aspect, this finding is supported by the argument of 'General

Explanation Theory' which puts one or a combination of the above mentioned factors as food production challenging forces. On the other hand, there are households having poor or no physical assets for sufficient food production. They have also poor or no other sufficient alternative incomes to command over food from market otherwise. In this regard, the study reflects Sen's entitlement argument, FED Model, of food security. This is because though Becho is, relatively speaking, better in agriculture, but not as a bread basket as the long existing perception, it has no food insurance for productive assets and /or alternative opportunity poor segments of the community out there.

The study has also revealed the seasonality of food shortage in the area, though there are households experiencing it year round, which generally extends from the month of July to October though this duration varies across the households. To cope with the food gap period households use both behavioral and material responses. Though it varies across different households, the coping strategies used revolve around increasing food availability and reducing consumption size and rate. Households generally employed short-term consumption coping strategies to mitigate the incidence of food shortages. Most of the coping strategies employed by households were effective in mitigating the food insecurity situation. The coping strategies employed were mostly not detrimental to their sustainable livelihoods and the future of their food security.

However, some of the coping strategies were not reversible, meaning that they were detrimental to the sustainable livelihoods and the future of food security situation of the households. For instance, a considerable number of households were found to cope with food shortfall period by selling out their land in partition though it is illegal according to the country's existing land policy. This is a potential danger to their sustainable livelihood in general and the future of their food security in particular as land is a fundamental livelihood asset for farm households.

For the inter-woven food production challenges in the area, it is generally recommendable to further work on best agricultural practices, technologies and innovations accordingly. More specifically speaking, issues like high fertilizer price and shortage of land remain the concern of broad policy, not just a specific pocket area. However, it is still recommendable to review the fertilizer subsidize and land tenure policy. Erratic rainfall pattern is also the local implication of the broadly and globally changing climate. It is thus better if seriously worked on different mitigation and adaptation strategies in line with the local contexts. For the prevailing water logging problem in the area, it is strongly recommendable to encourage and work on the indigenous innovation of the local people. This is

because through the course of this study there were key informants who told the story of, though not necessarily presented in this paper, how their own indigenous broad bed maker innovation outworked the one brought from somewhere else for adoption for instance. As far as shortage of grazing land is concerned, it is also highly recommendable to work on improved animal feeds as well as innovative and efficient use of local crop residues. Equally important, it also needs further work in area of improved crop varieties and other related production inputs.

Despite the fact that agriculture plays a lion's share in ensuring food security, the considerable food insecurity problem in *Becho Wereda* cannot be solved by promoting agriculture alone. This is because a considerable number of households neither have access to sufficient key productive assets for food production nor have they alternative income sources. Therefore, it is likely to yield better results in terms of employment for key productive asset poor households as well as further income generation for the better off ones to re-finance their farm if due attention is also given to the promotion of non-farming economic activities in the long run, particularly those that are associated with the smallholder agriculture. However, for households currently at a perilous food situation a sort of food security intervention is highly suggested as a short term solution.

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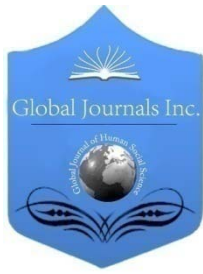
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The Tranvieri Gym Young Immigrant Boxers in the Neighborhood Bolognina

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1. INTRODUCTION

This paper aims at inquiring the practices of everyday life by a group of young men who spend a significant part of their week, once they have finished school and family commitments and work, at the “Tranvieri”, a gym in Bolognina, a district of the first outskirts of Bologna.

Along with fellow anthropologist Fulvia Antonelli I stepped in this gym for the first time in February 2007 (Antonelli & Scandurra, 2008, 2010) after having conducted from January 2006 to January 2007, along with a group of colleagues, a social investigation on the territory Bolognina (Piano B, 2008) in order to describe the profound changes that have affected this area after the closure of the metalworking factories at the end of the eighties and the arrival of numerous immigrants. This gym represents fifty years of boxing history in Bologna – it was opened in 1950 – as well as a major place of the culture of leisure in one of the territories most popular in the city. (Circolo Dozza ATC, 2005).

Tranvieri was set up shortly after the end of the Second World War. Since it started its activity it has not changed much: despite having moved from the basement of a local circle of tram drivers to just a few hundred meters far away, the boxing society Bolognina maintains the characteristics of a working men's club. The gym is not very big and, when active and crowded, it barely manages to host the group of training boxers. The entrance is in a side alley of the road connecting the

main square of Bolognina to the fairground and is scarcely visible, if not for a sign that indicates its presence.

a) Young immigrants

The overall objective of this paper is to investigate the transformations of Bologna through the analysis of games, sports and physical recreation for children of foreign origin. Focusing on a specific place, a boxing gym, my goal is to inquire the practices of a group of boys who, on a non-professional basis and, in the majority of cases, just to pass their free time, share the physical space of a boxing gym. Most of the Tranvieri's boxers today are young men of foreign origin, mostly Moroccans. Studying their practices of everyday life, between February 2007 and February 2010, we were able to investigate problems, needs, hopes of a “second generation” of immigrants: almost all of them arrived in Italy as children and attended school here. (Scandurra & Antonelli, 2010).

The physical education they receive by learning how to box translates into practices and embedded knowledge that give relevance to their daily lives through a continuous production and reproduction of meaning and meanings that have value outside of that sport space. Knowledge that affects the way in which they build their identity as citizens and that is relevant to their citizenship.

While in the last thirty years in Italy there has been a growing interest, even in the context of research in social sciences, for the younger generation and their relationship with the urban space, especially with regard to the “young foreigners” (Zoletto, 2010), however this interest is mostly related to cultural identity and migration legacy, social inclusion or exclusion in the sphere of education and/or employment or some fundamental aspects of formal citizenship. Minor importance has been given to the analysis of their spare time and of the formal and informal places devoted to play seen as environments where a corporeality is built and consequently the boundaries of a multicultural citizenship are defined.

Sport seen as a way to spend their leisure time by a group of young people of foreign origin, is commonly regarded as a minor issue, a “safety valve” for a society such as Italian society, more and more flattened on a hyper-productive conception of life. Still, the sense that the “inhabitants” of these local gyms give

to sport is not reducible to a simple physical activity. How do you become a boxer or, more simply, a gym-goer? How is produced and reproduced a body knowledge in this physical space? Is it mere knowledge of the body or is it a knowledge that through the body becomes a means of belonging to a "community"?

A boxing gym, designed as an area for recreation, physical and mental wellbeing and socialization through the exercise of a sport, must be placed within a broader reflection on the relationship between body and space and on the role that should be given to corporeality in the urban space. There are such bodies indeed which are considered the "natural" occupants of specific urban spaces and others that are considered "out of place" as soon as they become visible in places that were not meant for them. (Satta & Scandurra, 2104)

In an innovative cross between urban studies, immigration, social studies of youth and childhood, this paper aims to focus attention on the link between sport and urban areas, between bodies and cities, between differences and socio-spatial order in Italian cities, within the specific literature of leisure studies. (Huizinga 1938; Holloway & Valentine, 2000; Dick, 2003; Coleman & Kohn, 2007; Stevens, 2007; Sugden, 2007; Rojek, 2009)

b) *The old boxers*

We did in Bologna two meetings a week, on Monday and Friday at the Paladozza, the sport palace of boxing... and the audience was huge. When have you ever seen at the port palace eight thousand people who go to see a boxing match? Let's say that memories are beautiful because it was another life, another sport. (Albano)¹.

With this words Albano, who directed the gym for years, remembers the 50s, the 60s and the 70s, the "golden years" of boxing when Bologna was the capital of boxing in Italy. Almost all the people I interviewed and who have lived these matches as direct protagonists or as mere spectators described me this period as unrepeatable because boxers were "brave" and "heroic".²

Today other boxers fight in the gym, almost all of foreign origin, who did not experience that period, the golden years. The stories of the boxers of today bring out the problems and the real difficulties that a career in this sport involves and deconstruct the myth of boxing lasted until the end of the Seventies. (Oates, 1987; Philonenko, 1991; Quercioli, 1994).

It is no coincidence that in the gym the boxers of the past continue to train at the same place where they started their careers. This place for the "veterans"

of Tranvieri, located precisely between the ring and the benches, is an institutional strategic place because from this angle you can have a full view of everything that goes in the gym. That is the place where stories are told, where the memory of the gym is passed on to new members. (Figure 1)

Ernesto, a former amateur boxer, is one of the most respected members of the gym by virtue of his daily presence there since more than forty years. He is the one who can afford to represent the world of boxing in other ways than the "official" one, because his loyalty to the history of boxing and gym is indisputable. Like him, other former boxers of the golden age as Dante were willing to tell us even the dark side of boxing and the difficulties they encountered in their professional careers: the unfair defeats, the combined meetings, the power of the sponsors (De Franco, 2006). Often emerges in these stories the "hunger" of men, who, in those glorious years, practiced boxing to gain something: buy a motorcycle, hanging out with the girls on Saturday night, purchase fashionable clothes.

I think I was a good amateur boxer [...]. My sport was motorcycling [...]. My friends and I wanted to be like Marlon Brando in "On the Waterfront". But racing bikes it takes money [...], and I put all the money I took from boxing on racing. Once they called me on Friday to make a boxing match on Saturday night and I hadn't been in the gym for six months because I had had a motorcycle accident and I broke a couple of ribs. I agreed to do it because you took money. Then finally I stopped both racing and boxing. I stopped boxing because I was to let others win. It is obvious that they always called me with people who were much more trained than me. One who called me on Friday to make a match on Saturday, he had to give me a lot of money in those conditions [...]. In the factory I took about 75 thousand lire a month when I became qualified, and for this match they offered me 300 thousand dollars. I did it for money, but then I got bored of taking blows. (Dante)

The gym has helped many boxers as Dante to leave the street, as many former boxers often have said to me: that is fights, thefts and clashes between gangs.

The gym... I started in the '60. I was nineteen years old. The gym gave you a certain discipline and kept you from street fights. In the gym I vented with the others! I wasn't a bully, only 70% of the young boys of Bolognina spent their time fighting in the street. (Ernesto).

c) *The young boxers*

If we compare the words of Albano, Dante and Ernesto with those of the protagonists of our study, the reasons that prompted them to train in the gym are not dissimilar. The boxers of today are young people from twelve to twenty-five who partly are attending vocational

¹ For privacy reasons all the names listed in this paper do not correspond to the real ones.

² Almost all the old boxers of the gym emigrated from South Italy to North after the Second World War to find a job in the local factories.

schools and partly are struggling with their first experiences in working world. Many of them live in the neighborhood and here spend much of their free time. In their stories the entrance to Tranvieri emerges as random choice, but when we questioned about their deepest motivations they always responded they needed to vent, to self-discipline or to socialize.

I'm just nineteen years old; I started about one year and a half ago. I started because I had some problems at home and the only place where I was at ease was the gym [...]. I made this choice because instead of going around to bully I decided to come to the gym with initially no intention of fighting. (Anuar)

That's why I started going to the gym. The main reason was the discussions between my mother and my father... I went out and I vented outside, on the street... I hated smoking, drinking, dancing outside on Saturday and Sunday and so... (Kahled)

The stories of young boxers as Anuar and Kahled, both sons of Moroccan citizens come to Italy more than ten years ago, are full of references to tensions in the family, in the school environment, in the work place, all places where most of them had to learn the meaning of the word "failure". The practices of everyday life by Anuar and Kahled are the same of their other gym mates born in Italy but without citizenship. (Figure 2)

This guys went to the gym because it allows them to feel respected, to prove their worth, to prove strong without the burden of self-destruction that the affirmation of itself in aggressive forms produce in other contexts, as it emerges clearly from an interview with another boxer of Moroccan origin, Samir:

Once a guy told me "fuck off" and I threw a table on him, and I broke his back. I did not something like that. This guy always told me: "You're a Moroccan, go back to your country." They wanted to suspend me from school but I had never done anything and I was not punished. (Samir)

Vocational schools of Bolognina frequented by Samir, Kahled, Anuar represent places of humiliation. Most of these young boxers regard the schools of the district as total institutions where, more than acquire knowledge, they learn only the awareness of their subalternity. (Sayad, 1999; Giacalone, 2002; Guerzoni & Riccio, 2009)

I liked to go at school. My father ruined me because he said I wasn't good enough to go to proper school. He sent me to vocational school and I really hated this school. I hated mechanics; I hated becoming an electrician [...]. I wondered why you must always be compelled to become a carpenter

or an electrician [...]. I wanted to be a lawyer? (Kahled)

The majority of the boxers protagonists of research came from stories of forced migration, economic hardships, social insecurity and daily life where the common meeting places are courtyards, abandoned basketball and football playgrounds, more generally the big streets of the neighborhood, as Erzan, a young boxer of Albanian origin told me:

In boxing gyms you can not find one rich, because it is people who must have be nasty [...]. In the gym you see poor people, myself, for example, people who are bad, who know what it means to live in the street, what it means to beat each other on the street, people who box to prevent themselves from fighting in the street [...]. There were two friends of mine who have been in the prison. Then one came here with me. This guy was a beast and he said me: "I want to make money fast." I told him: "Listen to me, be careful!", and he said me: "No, I'm going now to steal a car, then steal in a store" [...]. I grew up with him... with him I started boxing. (Erzan)

The gym for these guys is not different from other places of spatial segregation that characterizes certain areas of this suburb. What distinguishes these guys from their mates, vocational schools mates for example, almost all born in Italy but children of North Africans people, is the pursuit of self-control, of discipline, expressed doing boxing. Boxing gym for these kids is not a solution to the frustration from a social world they perceive indifferent if not hostile towards them, rather the possibility of not being represented in it as excluded people. (Grillo & Pratt, 2002; Queirolo Palmas, 2006)

d) *Saturday and Sunday*

The gym includes two rooms. The first, intended for training, contains a twelve-string ring positioned in front of the entry: tools – bags, speedball, punching bag, headboards, benches, scales, racks for storing weights, exercise bikes – are distributed all along the walls of this first room. In the middle of the room lies a space that ends with a large mirror on the wall, where boxers are trained on the blow technique, interrupted by two sacks and a suspended pear. The second room is much smaller and is used as a men's locker room. For women there are no lockers. (Fox, 2001; D'Aguanno & Montesi, 2006)

The gym is open from Monday to Friday from 17:30 until 20:30, but, in fact, opens its doors also outside official hours. The very young gym-goers, for example, arrive at the gym at 17:30 earlier than the masters themselves: Ernesto opens the Tranvieri before the training hours in order to put the weights and all the tools, repair damaged cords, place the unpaired gloves. The young boxers demonstrate, by helping Ernesto in

these maintenance work, the relationship of trust that binds the “old” members and the new one, which is independent from the relationship they have with the two coaches of the gym, Tito and Sante. Boxers who go to the gym straight from work, which have a longer boxing experience behind them, arrive later instead and stay well beyond the official closing time: the long, hot shower after training, the gossip and jokes in the locker room are a way to ease the tension after the fatigue of school, work, the gloves and the ring.

The Tranvieri is always open over the year: apart from a short summer break in August and some holidays, the courses have a duration that goes well beyond that of traditional gyms. Even in these times of formal closure, however, as well as on Saturdays and Sundays, when the coaches do not work if not during periods of intensive training, the gym continues to be a gathering place daily.

Oh my God, but do you have in your mind what an African mother is? They're crazy, completely off their head!... go at your friends to ring the bell and the third degree starts: she starts screaming that her son is never at home... no, no, we prefer give us an appointment at the gym or somewhere else! (Marcel, boxer minor of Cameroonian origin)

Ernesto, who holds the keys, opens on Saturday afternoon a little before and allows children who live in the district to train. Often, in these situations, younger brothers and friends who have never entered the gym join young boxers. On Sunday morning, also, the gym becomes an “illegal” soccer field.

We play but please don't go and tell it around. Samir, for example, plays soccer, Anuar plays soccer and so his brother Kalhed, they are very good. Look at how many Moroccans play in A Series, there are many. Rather they should play more in our teams, they are good. But be careful, if someone gets hurt while playing here, it is a mess; on Sunday you're not insured, of course. However, come if you like (Ernesto when I asked him if I could go to play soccer with the other boxers in the gym on Sundays)

In these occasions, when Italian coaches are not there and the boys led by Ernesto are in charge of management, the prevalence of guys of North African origin becomes blatant. (Valeri, 2006)

On Saturday afternoons and Sunday mornings a hybrid language, between Arabic and Bolognese dialect is spoken in the gym, while the repeated cohabitation in this narrow space of veterans, young boxers and the boys of Bolognina allows them to insult and banter often resorting to stereotypes that in another context, such as the weekly training, would be considered racist.

There's no way, you're just an Arab... do you really have to bugger around for a penalty up to this point? (Ernesto, in one of his verbal exchanges during a play)

The weekend games are also opportunities for new boxers recruitment, because most of these guys around sixteen then join the Tranvieri: when they join the gym many of them have already entered into this space, used the showers, learned how to use the tools, only they have never seen a coach (Turner, 1967; Roets, Vandenabeele & Bouverne-De Bie, 2012). Tito and Sante are aware that the gym it is open on Saturday and Sunday, but turn a blind eye, being also aware that the Tranvieri is also an agency of socialization for the kids in the neighbourhood.

e) *Cultural Intimacy*

The Tranvieri can be described as a group of heterogeneous people who share, on a daily basis and for several hours in the afternoon and evening, rules, bans, standards of behaviour, a way of perceiving time and space. By studying the social organization of the gym it is legitimate to speak of «cultural intimacy» (Herzfeld, 1997).

If you stay in the gym for one day, three months, one year, you know that he also wants to get what you want to get and then you seek to help him. Help him on how to pull the blow, on how to behave in the ring. There are no different nationalities in the gym, most of people are foreigners and there have never been trouble, we always help each other. (Anuar)

Estimation and encouragement by the gym fellows, as well as the fact of training in a group, are elements that strongly influence a boxer's performance, because the individual psychological factor – consisting of perseverance, determination, self-confidence, coldness in the ring – is strengthened or weakened by the group that on a daily basis attends the gym: if his teammates do not consider him “a good one”, it is unlikely that a boxer will be able to step into the ring, even holding sufficient physical qualities. (Beattie 1996; Heiskanen 2006).

The exercise of sparring, or the combat simulation that takes place between boxers in the gym, is a decisive moment for the boxer who aspires to enter the ring in regular competition. Sparring plays at the same time a role of socialization since it often is followed by moments of confession and confidence in order to defuse the aggression exhibited on the square (Wacquant, 2000). The relations between boxers sometimes are formed through this sport. (Figure 3)

Each boxer has his own ideal sparring partner. On the ring, with Sante and Tito giving advice at the opposite corners of the square, sparring for the guys of Tranvieri is a baptism, a «rite of passage» (Wacquant,

2000; Crossley 2001; Faure, 2004; Roberts, 2006). When Tito calls two boxers sparring means to do that he is focusing on them, he's going to make them fight. Or, if it is their first sparring, it means that the two boxers are destined to enter the main group of Tranvieri's athlete, and will prepare to fight.

Obviously the "pairs" are formed mainly on the basis of practical reasons. This is because not all guys the same hours of training, and if you do not take at least some boxer to do sparring, a gym can be a great environment in which to train, but do not form a context where boxers will become champions. Tito and Sante, for example, in their constant search for a great boxer, know they must focus on a novice boxer selecting new members every day, continuing to put the mirror in front of those who make less progress and gradually approaching the square of the most promising.

The ideal sparring partner when there is not much difference in weight is often a person who knows the boxer, one he trusts even outside the gym. Studying how the boxers find their partners within the Tranvieri made me realize also the relationships between the guys out of the gym involved in research. Obviously, leaving the gym, observing the practices of everyday life of these boxers once they stopped wearing the clothes of the streetcar, I could, reciprocally, understand how and why they formed pairs inside the gym. (Figure 4)

Some friends and acquaintances who then determine the formation of subgroups in the locker room, can be explained however by virtue of living in the same territory, as in the case of Samir, Anuar and Kalhed, neighbours and close for a period of time even roommates.

The road and the ring are interdependent in shaping the group of athletes who fights for boxing company Bolognina. Sharing the space of the gym, do sparring as we have seen, means building a relationship with each other (Maus, 1936), the street often has the role to strengthen, or completely reverse these connection so that there is still more affinity in the gym between boxers or, conversely, a revision of the couples chosen by the two coaches.

One of the most interesting explanations of the link between street culture and the gym was provided to us by one of the coaches of Tranvieri, Sante. At the end of a meeting organized by Tranvieri during the final stages of the research, a sport reporter nostalgic of the great local boxers of the '50s and '60s asked the coach to organize collective vision in the gym of the most significant matches of old boxers of Bolognina.

I think it is wrong to consider Anuar or Yassine as Benvenuti [great boxing champion Italian, n.d.a.] because I think that every boxer needs to be himself, to find his way to boxing. For example, Anuar's blows are natural, they can from his experience on the road. This way of boxing will

never be taken away from him and we can slowly teach him how to transform that blow in a proper hook. You can force him to shoot straight at a distance, but as soon as he will hit the ring, and be provoked, he will fight to defend himself in his peculiar manner. I believe my task as a coach is to adapt box to the natural qualities and personality of a kid, because if you take his features from him, he is not the same boxer anymore. They are not all the same; there is not a unique way of boxing that fits everybody. A good coach is like a tailor, who sews a dress suitable for every guy, enhancing their features. I want Anuar to become a good boxer remaining himself. If you take that from him you've taken everything. If you teach them to employ strength as well as their character they will know how to behave on the ring and in life as well, as boxers and as men.

f) *Generation gap*

Once established certain relationships of trust with a group of young boxers I began to get out of the gym with them. The relation ring/street is decisive for the gym. Tito is aware of how his gym draws the top boxers, such as Erzan, Khaled, Anuar or Samir, from the street. If once Tito could count on many workers, almost all Italians, who worked in the factories of Bolognina today the gym depends more and more, in terms of athletic achievements, on a group of young people of foreign origin who live a few hundred meters away from the gym.

When I asked Ernesto to describe his old gym mates, their life stories were not dissimilar to those of the current boxers of Tranvieri. Words such as "street", "punches", family issues and difficulties to integrate into the territory often return in the speeches of Ernesto as in those as Kalhed, Anuar, Samir or Erzan.

Bolognina, in the early years after the Second World War, was, for a twenty-somethings like Dante, Ernesto and Albano a territory to explore. Their parents, like those of Anuar, could not control them after school. Many old boxers, in a similar way as Kalhed told me, formed in these years "bands" of young boys which spent their time playing in backyards, parks, public squares of the quarter.

Artemio, for example, recalls how after the Second World War he often heard his mother called "Sicilian" or "Moroccan". Once the former boxer confessed to me how he felt compelled to engage in fight with some bolognese guy who joked about his southern origin. At the base of the only violent reaction he has had in his young life outside the ring, Samir, as we saw earlier, there was precisely the accusation of being a "Moroccan shit".

Despite all these similarities, so deep in the practices of everyday life, in the relationship with the territory, in the way they invest on boxing career, in the

difficult relationship with school and family, the boxers of the old Tranvieri don't identify with the new generation of boxers who train at the gym now.

I feel nostalgic of the times when I lived in Bolognina. I remember that at midnight we went to take newspapers at the central station, now everything has changed. I've never been afraid of being robbed. Now via Barbieri - one of the streets of Bolognina mostly inhabited by immigrants, mostly North Africans [n.d.a.] - has changed completely. (Dante)

II. CONCLUSIONS

In recent years, municipal authority has decided to rebuild on the ashes of the old factories engineering centres and business activities related to the tertiary sector. All typical jobs in the manufacturing sector deteriorated in the new service economy, where, how often Anuar told me, "You have to tolerate racist acts by the boss if you want to keep your work place". All the jobs accessible to immigrants do not warrant economic security or opportunities to rise. (Kats, 1990; Farmer, 2003) (Figures 5 e 6)

The gym, for some boxers as Erzan, often appears as the only hope because it is still a place where to build social capital and make friends, when, despite working for many years, they have never been able to make friends with their work colleagues.

Scholar Asher Colombo, for example, in studying the career paths of a group of Algerian immigrants comparing the current working reality in Milan to the French industrial one lasted until the end of the Seventies, bringing in his text reflections on the working world of French historians such as Dubet and Lapeyronnie:

In a society organized around industry, immigrants found slowly their place in working world. Gradually, they were inscribed in the trade union struggles, shared the class-consciousness of their fellow workers and abandoned the status of immigrants. Their integration was the integration into the French republican. Working class and socialist suburbs were a powerful tool for integration of immigrants, internal migrants and foreigners. Thanks to workers, trade unions and the working-class community, the socialist suburbs could absorb the new populations. Their decline was the decline of this integration tool. The immigration problem is the consequence of this decomposition. (Colombo, 1998, p. 92)

Bolognina is not a ghetto or a suburb, but today is characterized by the growth of the industry based on information technology, the fragmentation of the labour, the transformation of public welfare at all municipal levels, all processes that have hit the African-American ghettos as well as French *banlieues*. With the closure of the factories the local labour market is increasingly

marginalizing young immigrants who, in some areas of the country, are up to 25% of the total resident population, relegating people like Anuar on the edge of the service economy. (Wirth, 1928; Holston & Appadurai, 1999; Fava, 2008).

From the stories of Kalhed and Erzan emerges the existence of niches of unskilled service sector where they are hired without a contract. Samir told me more than once about vocational schools of the territory where he studied in differential classes for immigrants – the same schools that, years before, Artemio and others old boxers had attended successfully becoming specialized workers. (Figures 7 and 8)

If we assume as an imperative of ethnographic research to «reconstruct the meaning» that certain social practices play from the point of view of those who are involved (Bourgois, 1996) it is evident that every guy react differently to these objective transformations that more and more are narrowing the range of possibilities that the protagonists of research have in front of them. The gym itself is perceived by some of them as only refuge, by others as a place where to find "revenge". (Wacquant, 2004)

If Artemio and Dante found in the factory economic opportunity along with the chance to gain respect and dignity through work, Kalhed, Anuar and the big part of the protagonists of this research are aware that if they want to survive they have to suffer every day the injustices inflicted by their Italian colleagues. (Foot White, 1943)

Meanwhile, Bolognina is more and more undergoing of a radical process of gentrification. Years ago we asked the current mayor of Bologna the following question: "How do you regard the development of this suburb?" He answered: "It will be the world of the service industry". But what is the "world of service industry"? Which is the future of Bolognina and of our former industrial peripheries?

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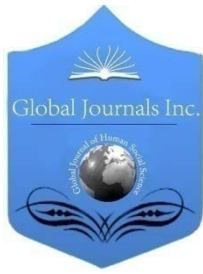
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Determinants of Voluntary HIV Counseling and Testing among Addis Ababa University Students, Ethiopia

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Keywords: VCT, university students, determinants, practicing VCT and HIV test.

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Abstract- Voluntary Counseling and Testing for HIV is included as one of the strategy for HIV/AIDS prevention in HIV/AIDS policy, yet very little is known about what determines VCT services. This study attempts to identify determinants of Voluntary HIV counseling and testing among Addis Ababa University undergraduate students, Ethiopia. The study design was cross-sectional, including both quantitative and qualitative methods. By using multi-stage sampling technique comprising a total of 860 students were selected. Quantitative data were collected through self administered questionnaire and focus group discussions were also conducted to generate the qualitative data required to substantiate the statistical finding. The collected data were edited, entered and cleaned with SPSS Version 20 software and the data were summarized, analyzed and organized by univariate, bivariate and multivariate (binary logistic regression model) statistical technique. The findings of the study revealed that the prevalence of HIV testing was found to be 39.7% and the major finding in logistic regression model showed that marital status, childhood place of residence, life time sexual partner, perceived confidentiality of VCT service, willingness to take VCT before marriage, stigma and discrimination and attitude towards VCT were found the key determinants of practicing VCT. Finally, based on the key findings of the study, some plausible recommendations were given which includes information, education and communication program and awareness raising with regard to HIV/AIDS and gradual scaling up of VCT service, encouraging marriage and reduce stigma and discrimination should be strengthened.

Keywords: VCT, university students, determinants, practicing VCT and HIV test.

I. INTRODUCTION

HIV is a relatively newly discovered infection that has not even scored three decades of existence. However, soon after the time it was first reported in 1981, the infection has rapidly developed into an epidemic and has caused great suffering and profound development challenges (Aitken, 2005; Vandyk A and Vandyk P, 2003).

One of the important intervention strategies in the effort to curb the gradual rise in the number of people infected and affected by the epidemic is to encourage people to learn their HIV sero-status and act accordingly. This strategy is what we call voluntary

counseling and testing or VCT for short. Voluntary counseling and testing is a process by which an individual or couple undergo counseling enabling him/her/ make an informed choice about being tested for HIV. This decision is entirely the choice of the individuals and he/she/they will be assured that the process is confidential (UNAIDS, 2001; Boswell and Baggeley, 2002).

In our country, the impact of HIV/AIDS on institutions of higher learning is not clearly visible at the present. However, available evidences indicate that in the near future this will be unavoidable. According to the UNAIDS's annual report, current statistics shows that adolescents whose age ranges from 15 to 24 are the most susceptible to HIV infection both nationally and internationally (UNAIDS, 2011). We know that most of the tertiary level student population belongs to this age group. What we imply that University students are among the risk groups to HIV infection.

It is reasonable to assume that students in institutions of higher learning are educated, aspiration, have access to information and would act on the information they receive and as a result a low risk population (Chetty, 2001). Nevertheless, practical observation and existing research findings show that for many campus students the opposite appears to be the case. Even though the information is available, the chances of changing behaviors in this population are lacking (Kelly, 2001). In the campuses of institutions of higher learning many students practice high-risk sexual behaviors. These include sexual experimentation, unprotected casual sex, gender violence and having multiple partners. As Kelly explained, such risky behaviors indeed occur because institutions of higher learning bring together in close physical proximity devoid of systematic supervision, a large number of adolescents at their peak years of sexual activity and experimentation. Besides this, the readily availability of alcohol and other drugs and the divergent level of economic status among the student population makes campuses a very high-risk environment from AIDS context (Kelly, 2001).

In these days, the seriousness of the problem has been acknowledged in Ethiopia and all the concerned bodies are making efforts to control the spread of the epidemic through developing different

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mechanisms of intervention. One of the many different strategies designed for prevention and control of the disease is providing voluntary HIV counseling and testing (VCT) (NACS, 2000). VCT is internationally recognized as an effective and important strategy for both prevention and care. Studies (FHI, 2002; UNAIDS, 2001) have found it to be a cost effective strategy for facilitating behavioral change. It is also an important entry point for care and support for those who test positive. Voluntary HIV counseling and testing provides people with an opportunity to learn and accept their HIV status in a confidential environment with counseling and referral for ongoing emotional support and medical care. People who have tested positive can benefit from earlier and appropriate medical care including ART treatment and HIV associated illness, social support, and emotional and spiritual care (UNAIDS, 2000).

There are several possible contributing factors that must be addressed if voluntary counseling and testing is to have an important role in HIV prevention and care. Factors that influence acceptance or refusal for voluntary counseling and testing could be characterized as socio demographic, cognitive and behavioral, and organizational of the voluntary counseling and testing service delivery (CDC, 1999).

However in comparison to other countries there is lack of information regarding the most important determinants of VCT services that is believed to be one of the best strategies for prevention and control of HIV/AIDS and care and support of already infected people. Hence, the main objective of this study was to identify the determinants of voluntary HIV counseling and testing by Addis Ababa University undergraduate students.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted in Addis Ababa University; it is one of the largest higher learning institutions in Africa that was established at the end of the 1950 as an autonomous higher learning institution under different names. Since then the University has expanded and currently consists of fifteen faculties, five schools, and four research institutions which are located in Addis Ababa "Sidest Killo", "Arat Killo", "Amist Killo", Black Lion Hospital in Addis Ababa, and in Debre Zeiet faculty of Veterinary Medicine which is 45 kilo metes from Addis Ababa and currently consisted of a total number of students over 18,696 undergraduate students. (Unpublished data).

The main data for this study has come from primary data collected from 860 students through self administered questionnaire and four focus group discussions. It has both quantitative and qualitative components. The study employed cross-sectional study

design where the data were collected at a specific point in time. The sample size was estimated using Hollander and Wolfe (1999). Sample size formula given in the annex.

The sampling techniques used to draw the 860 subjects were multi-stage sampling technique was employed in order to select the study units and probability proportionate to sample size (PPS) were used to determine the sample proportion. Addis Ababa University has fifteen faculties (i.e., Social Science, Business and Economics, Science, Technology, Education, Law, Medicine, Pharmacy, Language Studies, Informatics, Veterinary Medicine, Yared Music School, Fine Arts and Design, Commerce, Journalism and Communication). Accordingly, first from the fifteen faculties, eight (That is, Social Science, Science, Technology, Education, law, Medical, Pharmacy and Commerce) were selected randomly. Since the above faculties have more than one department, except Law and Pharmacy, the second stage random sampling was made from the departments. Two departments were again selected randomly from each of the faculties than has more than two departments. After identifying the specific departments: Geography and Environmental Science, SANT from the Social Science faculty; Biology, Statistics from the Science faculty; Electrical and Civil engineering from the Technology faculty; Law from the Law faculty; Educational planning and management, Psychology from the Education faculty; Medicine, Nursing from the Medical faculty; Pharmacy from the Pharmacy faculty and Administrative Services management and Technology System, Procurement and Supply Management from the Commerce faculty. List of students' names in the respective departments were taken from the registrar.

There were a total of 1,767 students in the sixteen departments. This total number was then classified by department. Then the total numbers of students found in each department were taken and proportional sample size calculated for each so as to give the total sample size. The same procedure is used to make proportional sampling of male and female students in each of the faculties. Lastly, students from the selected department were chosen randomly, assembled in a room and made to fill out the questionnaire in the presence of the data collectors.

The collected data were entered, cleaned and analyzed using SPSS Version 20 software. Both univariate, bivariate and multivariate analysis were used. In order to assess the relative importance of each predictor to the dependent variable (practicing VCT), by controlling for the effects of other variables, a binary logistic regression analysis was done. The result of the binary logistic regression model is presented as odds ratio, which is given by the form:

$$\text{Log} (P_i / 1 - P_i) = e^{(\beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \dots + \beta_k X_k + E_i)}$$

Where; P_i = Chance of the i_{th} respondent being practiced VCT.
 $1-P_i$ = Chance of the i_{th} respondent being not practiced VCT.
 $P_i/1-P_i$ = the risk or odds of the i_{th} respondent being practiced VCT.
 $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k$ = Represents predictor variables.
 e = the base of natural logarithms.
 β_k = Regression Coefficients of the corresponding variable X_k .
 E_i = a residual term.

Estimates of β_k s, the logistic regression coefficients, are obtained by the maximum likelihood ratio method. A positive value of β_k means the value of the factor by which the odds change (Exp. (β_k)) greater than one means an increase in the risk of an event occurring. A negative value of β_k means the value by which the odds change (Exp. (β_k)) is less than one, indicating a decrease in the risk of an event occurring. A zero value of β_k means the factor by which the odds change (Exp. (β_k)) is equal to one, which means the odds remains unchanged. The parameters in logistic regression model represent the increase or decrease in log of odds compared to reference category code set at a value of "one".

a) Ethical Consideration

Before the data was collected, official letter from Addis Ababa University administration was obtained to ask consent from study participants. The purpose of the study was explained to all study participants; they were also informed that all of their responses are confidential and anonymous, and they have all the right not to be involved in the study or not to answer any of the questions. Ethical approval was issued by Addis Ababa city administration health bureau.

III. RESULTS

a) Characteristic of the respondents

Table 1 shows the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the respondents. According to the results, out of the total 860 respondents, the majority of them 551(64.1%) were males and the remaining 309(35.9%) were females giving the sex ratio of 178.3 males per 100 females (1.78:1). The distribution of the respondents age showed that 385(44.8%) were in the age group of less than 21 years. About 364(42.3%) were in the age group of 21-25, while the rest 111(12.9%) were in the age group of 25 and above. The mean age of the respondents were 23.25 years and standard deviation 5.0, with minimum and maximum ages were 19 and 55 years, respectively.

With regards to the religion of the study population, the majority of the respondents, 499(58.0%) were followers of Orthodox followed by

Protestant 164(19.1%), Muslim 119(13.8%) and 78(9.1%) were other religion followers including catholic religion affiliation. The students were asked to report how frequently they attend religious services at the time of the survey, and 526(61.2%) of them responded that they attend religious services infrequently, 178(20.7%) regularly whereas 156(18.1%) never attended religious services.

The distribution of the respondents by ethnicity showed that 310(36.0%) were Amhara, 211(24.5%) were Oromo, 102(11.9%) were Tigre, 70(8.1%) were Gurage and 167(19.4%) were from other ethnic groups.

Marital status distribution of the respondents shows that majority of the respondents, 721(83.8%) have not yet married, while, the remaining 139(16.2%) were married at least once in their life time.

Regarding the Place of previous residence, most of the respondents 545(63.4%) were born and grow up in the urban areas while the rest 315(36.6%) had spent in rural areas.

Pertaining to the economic status of respondents, most of the respondents, 453(52.7%) have been obtaining \$5 and above per month, 208(24.2%) got less than \$5 per month, while 199(23.1%) had no pocket money at all.

Table 1 : Socio-economic and demographic characteristics (n = 860)

Variables	Number(N)	Percent(%)
Sex		
Male	551	64.1
Female	309	35.9
Age		
< 21	385	44.8
21 - 25	364	42.3
25 +	111	12.9
Marital status		
Never married	721	83.8
Ever married	139	16.2
Religion		
Orthodox	499	58.0
Protestant	164	19.1
Muslim	119	13.8
Others*	78	9.1

Religiosity		
Never attended	156	18.1
Regularly	178	20.7
Infrequently	526	61.2
Ethnicity		
Amhara	310	36.0
Oromo	211	24.5
Tigre	102	11.9
Gurage	70	8.1
Others**	167	19.4
Pocket money		
No pocket money	199	23.1
Up to \$5	208	24.2
More than \$5	453	52.7
Place of previous residence		
Urban	545	63.4
Rural	315	36.6
Total	860	100.00

*Catholic and traditional religion followers

**Somali, Harari, Hadya, Walita, Silite

b) HIV testing (VCT uptake)

Respondents asked whether they have ever been tested for HIV. Their response to the question 'Have you ever been tested for HIV?' About 341 (39.7%) of respondents have ever been tested for HIV.

c) Reasons for being tested for HIV

The main reasons gave by the respondents for being tested for HIV, majority of the respondents replied that have been tested for HIV to be engaged in marriage and to know health status, which accounts for 52.2% and 41.1% respectively. Others replied that when body weight decreases and related to pregnancy, 2.9% and 3.8% respectively. Similar reasons were also obtained from participants of the focus group discussion. Most discussants agreed that plan for marriage and immigrants to the USA through diversity visa lotteries were the two prominent reasons that lead most students to be tested for HIV.

d) Multivariate analyses: Results of binary logistic regression

Among the variables included in the Model, as indicated in table 2, marital status, place of previous residence, life time sexual partner, worry about the confidentiality of VCT, willingness to take VCT before marriage, stigma and discrimination and attitude towards VCT service come out to be important predictors of the likelihood of HIV testing among the study population, while sex, religious affiliation and feeling being at risk of HIV infection were found to be not to have an impact on HIV testing.

Marital status of the respondents' was found to have an influence on HIV testing of ever married students. The likelihood of HIV testing was significantly associated with marital status. As can be shown in the multivariate analysis at table 2, The likelihood of HIV testing of ever married respondents' had 3.5 times

more likely to be tested as compared never married (OR=4.515, $P < 0.001$). In other words, the likelihood of HIV respondents is significantly lower than those testing among never married who are ever married.

There was statistically significant association between HIV testing and place of previous residence of respondents'. The likelihood of HIV testing was significantly associated with childhood place of residence. As can be shown in the multivariate analysis at table 2, being urban had a positive effect on the likelihood of HIV testing. The likelihood of HIV testing among urban had 0.5 times more likely to be tested as compared to rural (OR=1.491, $P < 0.05$).

Number of lifetime sexual partner shows a statistically significant effect on the practice of HIV testing (OR = 1.855, $P < 0.05$). The likelihood of HIV testing among respondents who have ever had only one sexual partner had 0.9 times more likely to be tested as compared to those respondents without any sexual partner. This might be the possible explanation of partner willingness to test for HIV.

The finding of the multivariate logistic regression result also indicates that, perceived confidentiality of VCT services was significant association with HIV testing and in the expected direction. Students were not worried about confidentiality of VCT services has a positive effect on HIV testing. The likelihood of HIV testing among students was not worried about confidentiality of VCT services had 2 times more likely to be tested as compared to students been worried about confidentiality of VCT service (OR = 2.997, $P < 0.001$). Students need confidential VCT service to test for HIV voluntarily.

The association between HIV testing and willingness to take VCT before marriage was statistically significant and in the expected direction. Unwillingness taking VCT before marriage has a negative effect on HIV testing (OR=0.079, $P < 0.01$). Respondents who were not willing taking VCT before marriage were 92.1% less likely to be tested than those who were willing.

According to findings of the survey, stigma and discrimination of people caught HIV/AIDS has statistically significant effect on the students HIV testing. Stigmatizing has a negative effect on practicing VCT (OR = 0.481, $P < 0.001$). Respondents who were stigmatizing have 51.9% less likely to be tested than those who were non stigmatizing. This finding showed that fear of stigma and discrimination hindrance for HIV testing.

Attitude towards VCT of the respondents found to be predictor of HIV testing. The association between HIV testing and attitude towards VCT was significant and in the expected direction (Table 2). Unfavorable attitude towards VCT services has a negative effect on HIV testing (OR=0.446, $P < 0.001$).

Students who were unfavorable attitude towards VCT were 55.4% less likely to be tested than those who are favorable attitude.

Table 2 : Results of Logistic Regression (odds ratio) Model Parameters' Estimates for the Likelihood of HIV testing among Addis Ababa University Undergraduate Students (n = 860)

Variables	Selected background characteristics				
	β	S.E	Exp(β)(odd ratio)	95.0% C.I. for Exp (β)	
				Lower	Upper
Sex					
Male ^{RC}			1.00		
Female	0.211	0.172	1.235	0.881	1.731
Age					
<21 ^{RC}			1.00		
21 - 25	0.005	0.174	1.005	0.715	1.413
25+	-0.732	0.415	0.481	0.213	1.085
Marital Status					
Ever Married	1.507	0.418	4.515***	1.991	10.240
Never Married ^{RC}			1.00		
Religion					
Orthodox ^{RC}			1.00		
Protestant	-0.002	0.201	0.998	0.673	1.481
Muslim	-0.037	0.234	0.964	0.609	1.525
Others	0.373	0.299	1.451	0.808	2.606
Place of previous residence					
Urban	0.399	0.164	1.491*	1.081	2.057
Rural ^{RC}			1.00		
Life time sexual partners					
None ^{RC}			1.00		
1	0.618	0.302	1.855*	1.025	3.355
2+	-0.062	0.389	0.940	0.438	2.015
Feeling being at risk of HIV infection					
Yes	0.374	0.296	1.454	0.813	2.598
No ^{RC}			1.00		
Worry about the confidentiality of VCT					
Yes ^{RC}			1.00		
No	1.097	0.196	2.997***	2.039	4.404
Willingness to take VCT before marriage					
Yes ^{RC}			1.00		
No	-2.536	0.751	0.079**	0.018	0.345
Stigma and discrimination					
Non stigmatizing ^{RC}			1.00		
Stigmatizing	-0.631	0.161	0.481***	1.371	2.574
Attitude towards VCT					
Favorable ^{RC}			1.00		
Unfavorable	-0.807	0.192	0.446***	0.306	0.649

Significant at: *** $P < 0.001$ ** $P < 0.01$ * $P < 0.05$

RC = Reference Category S.E. = Standard error

IV. DISCUSSION

VCT has a vital role to play within a comprehensive range of measures for HIV/AIDS prevention and support, and should be encouraged. This study provided important information regarding determinants of VCT among Addis Ababa University undergraduate students.

a) Marital life encourages VCT

Marital status of respondents is one of the important factors that influence HIV testing. Ever married

status has a significant contribution in facilitating HIV testing by students. Previous similar studies conducted provide a strong support for the present finding; Lisa and Yitades (2005) found that in Jamaica, among University students, the odds of HIV testing were 1.5 times higher among married students than not married.

In this study very important significant relationship was observed between perceived confidentiality of VCT services and HIV testing. So, it is the major determinant of HIV testing. Results of multivariate analysis showed that the likelihood of

HIV testing among students was not worried about confidentiality of VCT services had 2 times more likely to be tested as compared to students have been worried about confidentiality of VCT service. The qualitative result from the Focus Group Discussions also indicated that, fear of being seen at a testing site and having health care personnel tell others about their test results were the major reasons that students often regret to seek VCT services. From the above findings, lack of confidence to VCT services decreases HIV testing. This finding was inline within the other findings, a study done in Uganda and Kenya on HIV voluntary counseling and testing among youth showed that 67% Ugandans and 53% Kenyans prefer hospitals as the convenient site to get an HIV test because of the appropriateness of hospitals to insure confidential services (Horizon, 2001).

According to Solomon et al.,(2004), there has been a great deal of resistance to VCT in African settings for reason associated with lacking trust on the confidentiality procedures. People, especially young people, are concerned about their privacy and are fearful that others may find out that they have sought an HIV test. Similarly, from a national survey, Vandyk A and Vandyk P (2003), for example, found out that about 30% of the respondents who indicated they would definitely not to go for VCT which was located nearby their village considered confidentiality as a significant barrier for their reluctance. Therefore, young people prefer to have tests in facilities where they won't run into parents or neighbors and where it is not clear to casual observers that they are there have an HIV test.

b) Students seek HIV test as a pre condition for marriage

This study also revealed that willingness to take VCT before marriage is one of the major determinants for HIV test. Multivariate result showed that respondents who were not willing taking VCT before marriage were 92.1% less likely to be tested than those who were willing. This is a possible explanation of plan for marriage is the major reason for HIV test and students often seek HIV test as a precondition for marriage. Also the participants of the focus group discussion indicated that, the major reason for HIV test was plan for marriage.

Previous researches also supported the finding that a study conducted in 2003 among newly married couples in Addis Ababa showed that 55% of the study subjects reported having had pre-marital HIV testing. Individuals of both Sexes who had frank discussion as a couple about HIV were found to be more likely to have pre-marital HIV testing (adjusted ORs 10.96, 95% CI 3.7 to 33.3 for men and 7.78, 95% CI 2.86 to 20.0 for women (Dereje, 2006). With regard to willingness to test in the future, students who were not

willing taking VCT before marriage were 95.3% less likely to be tested than those who were willing.

c) Fear of stigma and discrimination is a major challenge to use of VCT service

It is known that HIV is stigmatized in many countries resulting in discrimination against and rejection of PLWHA (People living with HIV/AIDS) or those perceived to be HIV positive regardless of whether or not they have actually been tested. Stigmatizing attitudes among the society towards persons living with HIV/AIDS is one of the stumbling blocks for people not to get access to voluntary counseling and testing. The stigma, real or feared, of HIV/AIDS often is a barrier to HIV prevention programs.

If people are uncomfortable discussing their risk of infection with health care providers due to concerns about discrimination or a lack of confidentiality, they may avoid HIV testing and treatment of symptoms. Those who suspect they are infected may choose to hide their disease from friends and family for fear of abandonment. Thus, in this particular study, there are identified barriers that may act as an impediment to the effective utilization of the VCT service. From the above findings, stigma and discrimination hindered students from HIV test. That is, respondents having non stigmatizing attitude towards HIV/AIDS had tested for HIV more than stigmatizing attitude towards HIV/AIDS, fear of stigma is a major challenge to use of VCT service. Also the focus group discussants indicated that the major factor that prevents students from HIV testing was fear of stigma and social rejection or discrimination being identified HIV positive and fear of learning the outcome of HIV status.

This finding is in line with the other findings that, a study done in a national survey of adults in the United States, Herek and colleagues found that 38% of the respondents expressed their concern about stigma if they tested HIV positive and 44% of the clients who expressed this concern indicated that stigma influences their decisions to undergo HIV testing (Herek et.al, cited in Kalichman and Simbayi, 2003). In addition to several recent studies demonstrate how stigma and discrimination are fueled, resulting in prejudicial treatment of people living with HIV/AIDS. In Nigeria, a survey found that one in ten doctors and nurses admitted having refused care to patients with HIV/AIDS or having denied hospital admission to these patients. Twenty percent of those surveyed believed that people with HIV/AIDS were guilty of immoral behavior and were reaping their just dessert. In the Philippines, fifty percent of respondents to a recent survey conducted among people with HIV/AIDS reported having suffered discrimination by health care workers. In India, a study found that 70% of people living with HIV/AIDS had experienced discrimination, most often by

family members or health care workers. (UNAIDS, 2003).

Also a survey conducted on Kenyan and Ugandan youth, similarly, revealed that together with other factors, stigma and discrimination played an important role for adolescents' reluctance to undergo VCT (Horizons, 2001).

d) *Favorable attitude towards VCT directly related to HIV testing*

In this study, favorable attitude towards VCT was the most important factor of HIV testing. The multivariate result indicates that students who were unfavorable attitude towards VCT were 55.4% less likely to be tested than those who are favorable attitude. Therefore, it needs favorable attitude towards VCT for HIV testing.

Previous researches also supported my findings, that community based studies done in South Africa have positive and statistically significant association was observed between VCT uptake and attitude towards HIV testing, in this study, those who had been tested showed more positive HIV testing attitude than participants who had not been tested (Kalichman and Simbayi, 2003). Similarly, a study on HIV testing attitudes, AIDS stigma, and Voluntary HIV counseling and testing in a black township in Cape Town, South Africa was conducted in 2003. Comparisons on attitudes toward VCT, controlling for demographics and survey venue showed that individuals who had not been tested for HIV and those tested but who did not know their results held significantly more negative testing attitudes than individuals who were tested, particularly people who knew their test results. Compared to people who had been tested, individuals who were not tested for HIV demonstrated significantly greater AIDS related stigmas, ascribing greater shame, guilt, and associated disapproval to people living with HIV, knowing test results among those tested was not related to stigmatized beliefs. (Kalichman et al, 2003).

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings indicated that despite obstacles to VCT and issues surrounding HIV sero-positivity, further awareness raising programs with regard to HIV/AIDS and gradual scaling up of VCT service is of paramount importance. The prevalence of HIV testing was found to be 39.7%. Determining factors for Practicing VCT were marital status, childhood place of residence, life time sexual partner, perceived confidentiality of VCT service, willingness to take VCT before marriage, stigma and discrimination towards PLWHA and attitude towards VCT.

Finally, we forward some recommendation in light of the findings: effective programs need to be

developed to promote further pre marital VCT services, interventions need to focus on providing services that ensure confidentiality to promote HIV testing, link with care and support organizations so as to establish financial independence, educate students to perceive themselves at risk of HIV infection, Sound and viable information, education and communication and counseling interventions on VCT or behavioral change communication need to be intensified to reduce stigma and discrimination that prevail in the students and to increase positive attitude towards VCT.

VI. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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a) *Competing interests*

The author declare that they have no competing interests.

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ANNEX 1

Sample size estimation

To determine the minimum number of students to be included in the study, the single population formula was used, based on the assumption that:

- a) The level of confidence of the study was 95%, which gives the percentile of the normal distribution, ($Z_{\alpha/2}=1.96$)
- b) The margin of error assumed to be 5%.
- c) The proportion of population possessing the major attribute (i.e. Prevalence of acceptability of VCT among students) is assumed to be 50%.
- d) Estimated non-response rate in university students = 10%.

e) Contingency = 12%.

Accordingly, the following formula given by Hollander and Wolfe (1999) is used to determine the sample size:

$$n = [(Z_{\alpha/2})^2 * P (1-P)] / d^2 * 2$$

$$n = [(1.96)^2 * 0.5 * (1 - 0.5)] / (0.5)^2 * 2$$

$$n = 768 + 92 = \underline{860}.$$

Where,

n = the required minimum sample size.

Level of confidence 95%, which gives the percentile of the normal distribution, $Z_{\alpha/2} = 1.96$.

d = Margin of error, assumed to be 5%.

P = prevalence of VCT acceptance taken as 50%.

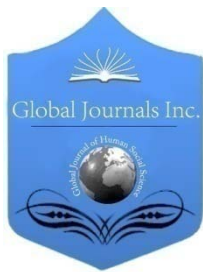
Estimated non-response rate in University students = 10%.

Multi- stage sampling design effect = 2.

Based on the above assumptions a minimum of 860 Students were required for the study.

Conflict of Interest:

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.



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By Rokhsaneh Derakhshesh Nia & Ehsan Ranjbar

Imam Reza International University

Abstract- It seems that the lack of tangible identity, confusion and visual disturbances, mental insecurity and confusion in public areas, release and exhaustion signs and cultural - historical, Facade poor quality, lack of organization in terms of form and wall needed, problem of readability, navigation, disorientation and ambiguity in orientation, lack of positive evaluation of urban spaces and reduce the sense of belonging to the urban environment, the need to improve the quality of vision and urban landscape elements within the aesthetic quality of the environment implies. Inadequate fishes and the evils landscape study area the most important cause undesirable sights lining the main thoroughfares are unsuitable and worn tens and body that the aesthetics confused, troubled and has become infected. There extensions ugly, dirty findings blocks, irregular and uncoordinated boards are a significant cause of visual disturbance.

Spaces made and the overall structure and appearance of the area in terms of diversity, composition, coordination in rhythm, abnormalities of fishes and a lot of evils. the uneven textures and shapes placed next to each other inappropriateness of the ugly face of another kind are available.

GJHSS-H Classification: FOR Code: 120599p



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



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Visual pollution, erosion buildings, extensions and additions and Dvdzdy views, the disproportion and coordinate altitude, lack of coordination Labour used materials, lack of coordination skyline, the presence of incomplete buildings and dilapidated buildings, overcrowding cars in the streets, noise Mzla of social and abnormalities such as the existence of the false businesses including, beggars, drug addicts, another segment of these factors.

I. INTRODUCTION

Dissonance confusion surrounding tissue spaces shrine that occurred as a result of its contemporary Many of the ideals of the community destroyed, especially on a large scale has resulted in the destruction. Modern architecture with modern cities in order to create a spatial model with fixed picture was That is understandable to the world, but in practice, imitate the shape of the trappings of modern patterns of multiplicity to unity not only failed but also the regional crisis was intensified in many communities Walnut This crisis is an important concept in this context shine .Many of the modern movement to eliminate discrimination, simplicity and richness of human lives as he Misunderstood reduced to appearances, lost their real function and anti-values into

the tissue surrounding the shrine. Bahar-al-Toleye pain is one of the historic neighborhoods tissue as a result of ignoring the identity of this neighborhood in upstream projects that are currently being destroyed. That regardless of the history of this place is trying to destroy the identity of the tissue Because of this, we decided to maintain identity context to provide role models for the link between old and new one needs

a) Research Purposes

In this project we are looking for a combination of traditional and modern practices of our neighborhood and to achieve in the design area due to the presence of buildings of historical and religious site in the walled mosque and southern neighborhoods is Historical walking path designed to preserve the historic fabric of the neighborhood pay as well as walking the path makes the structure is unchanged neighborhood And roadway traffic congestion will be reduced. This historic route starts from the entrance and after the passage of monuments, mosques and religious site in the center of the neighborhood that had been abandoned spaceand as a community center looks and the way we design according to the neighborhood in the tissue around the shrine there Bahvyt. Sometimes this is a good option as breathing tissue

In general, the plan for the improvement of the appearance of the neighborhood we are considering new strategies, and to maintain identity context is also worth considering that in the context of historical and Mashhad is located the historical course is designed to help revitalize the tissue.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Explore traditional patterns in this study requires research commentary - history. Correlation and factor analysis as variables to receive relations and influencing factors used to regulate appearance neighborhood. Collect data through field methods, documents and questionnaires are done.

a) General introduce the study area

Given the importance of the central basin of Mashhad, the formation of the core and the spread of Mashhad, links and spatial order and bring this area as a base Space Agency in Mashhad shrine as a symbol. This area is one of the main Mashhad most metropolitan areas every year many pilgrims from different countries are welcome, but unfortunately, visual disturbance,

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which in this context is In this context, including the area that was heavily influenced by rapid urbanization and the destruction of cultural and historical identity in the

process of structural transformation and high performance. It is accepted in the following examples are presented in the context of existing buildings.

	Guideline of neighborhood skyline
	Needed overall proportionality horizontal and vertical wall to create visual balance
	Element in this context skyline, street manifestation in the body is a combination of form and symbol of order and variety in the landscape neighborhood
	Customer's skyline must be preserved to maintain tissue to create a neighborhood structure is not destroyed
	The tissue surrounding the two buildings and disrupted the skyline that in order to reduce the visual noise of the trees should be used to maintain human scale texture
	Use the elements to join the skyline context of asymmetric buildings

		Furniture and Flooring Guide in the neighborhood Spring Altvlyh
		Recommended flooring in the territory of the effect of paved streets or pave familiar with the plans and roles (such as dormant orders) done.
		The definition of pedestrian-oriented area within the immediate vicinity of the shrine of Imam Reza (AS)
		Improved dynamic and static flooring and pedestrian spaces along pedestrian
		It is recommended that the form used in the furniture, urban design plans and maps of Iran. In order to use Slim role in the structure of urban furniture recommended And in this block for improving the neighborhood to neighborhood center design described in this section.
		neighborhood buildings form and style
		Paints used in building materials should be appropriate to the historical monuments



	For other classes of white and beige are also recommended. The use of intense colors, sharp and shiny is not allowed.
	Use non-reflective glass facade and is maximum 35% of total unconsolidated Viewing in this context should be proportional to the identity texture and light colors used for viewing
	Guide neighborhood scale architectural buildings
	Respect for human scale by creating style on the facade
	Guide Spring neighborhood street trees
	Reduction of environmental pollution by adopting appropriate methods for waste collection available. Supply of vegetation and green spaces in the appropriate spaces and removing
	Use the Iranian identity of vegetation such as pine Mashhad, Tabriz, sycamore, maple, etc. is recommended - Green spaces in different heights so encouraging and is recommended.

	
	The use of graffiti to improve the appearance of the neighborhood and increasing green space in the crowded neighborhood in the order route
	Lighting Guide Spring neighborhood Altvlyh Lighting the body should be done in secret and without staring Gay - Use light color spectrum is permitted to a limited extent and with the necessary justification



Facade of the projects of the monument is affected by the atmosphere of historic building

- Retreat after a ground state (ground and first floor) in such a way that a similar monument in the immediate produce skyline. It also helps the human scale of the effect will be good.

- Elements advertising theme or notification in the territory of the effects of identity should not be eroded effect. Dimensions elements should not impede visibility to the issue of coverage and advertising effects plus they are derived from cultural and religious motifs.

- At the same time advised the monument and its surrounding lighting project is a way to highlight the role and importance of aid effectiveness

Views and visual corridors Guide Spring neighborhood



The closeness of spaces to suit the size and proportions of the human visual field is the result of man can The space between each move to the next pause as a measure fits with human step and slow motion apply to him

- The network is designed urban spaces in historical context to the principle that the more a route is more diverse and more complex in terms of physical connections

- The form and proportions of the different elements can be combined to create different spatial order. Create diverse perspectives along the way can be caused by variations in the network of urban spaces Encourage residents to use the walking path by increasing the vitality and dynamism of the

Guide to Building details and visual materials Spring neighborhood



	All views (from four sides and roof) or in other words Bkhsh_Hay visible building, must comply with all criteria are visualized - Use the brick facade with grouting (for ground state and in combination in other classes - Body building through coordination between materials - Balancing the skyline, and pre-defined criteria and limited the console freezing in crossing the narrow width
	Shiny materials (stone and polished to a limited extent mired in internal facing surfaces allowed) - Needed window in prices and in the total context, a balance has exhibited impressive. Despite this principle, not only for appearance and can be widely used in building Vnmay plan, structure and materials have also
	Use non-reflective glass facade and just unconsolidated total maximum allowed - The sky line control to provide appropriate balance is a dominant horizontal fields
	Sustainability indexes citizens of the district Guide Spring



Maintain and strengthen some of the Mosques that have been in the actual effect is recommended
- To establish order and unity of appearance in harmony with the monument, using a plinth, inscription, Middle, Upper and decorate surfaces in the area of monuments to the separation of body and texture recommended

Sensory richness characteristic of the citizens of the district Guide Spring

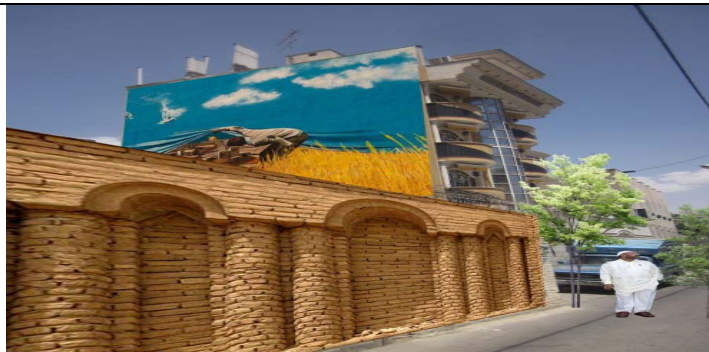


Dome and minaret adjacent buildings to be constructed to greater height than the height.

Guide characteristic sense of neighborhood residents



Memberships include the use of traditional coffee, selling crafts and tourism, art goods, tavernas and recommend Grdd.trkyb harmony of line, form, color and texture on the wall roots texture, visual quality has improved



Retreat after a ground state (ground and first floor) in such a way that a similar monument in the immediate produce skyline. It also helps the human scale of the effect will be good
- Energy-efficient design in order to create historical identity tissue

Preservation of old buildings and the value of the tissue and prevent degradation of the tissue recovery time
- Increase the traditional jobs in order to attract tourist



With elements such as columns, arches views, railings and decorative components, forms of communication, conceptual increases

Customer designed to Quarter spring Altvyh

The main objective	Customer specified
Respect for human scale and gradation according to the historical context	The introduction of neighborhood historic building (Ranging from physical and cultural values) - Grading criteria developed in the field of spatial relationships, modified to meet the minimum separation, continuous views of space and mass, the mass of the investment, the formula skyline, identify the symptoms, etc. For example Within the course of history maximum height of three storeys or 10 meters on the first level body provided that the ratio of height to width does not exceed passage of a
Using appropriate building materials sectors neighborhood history	Identification of traditional materials and canvas dominant colors of the facade in different sectors
Creating visual harmony	Communicated to municipalities to collect and avoid installing additional boards
Strengthening urban landscape and provide a semi-open spaces and the entrance	Taking up space for drying clothes in residential housing units so that they are not visible from the street is mandatory
Improved visual quality intersections	All buildings located in historic route must follow specific criteria - Classification of prominent intersections and set priorities based on location, historical period and its role in the neighborhood
Improved visual quality	Notified the mayor from tin building with unusual architecture
Building control of To protect the right of neighbors And the possibility of having all Light, Landscape, ventilation And natural resources	Develop criteria for various functions with regard to, for example, to determine the density ratio of height in the middle of the open space allowed in the northern parts of North adjacent piece does not exceed 1 to 1 - To determine the density residential components, the ratio of building height to road width should not exceed one by one
Open green space	Customer incentives for creating a green roof according to the per capita green area
Organizing urban furniture (to facilitate pedestrian movement with the approach of) the movement of motor Handicap	Assessing existing conditions and other urban furniture Disorders in other passages, traffic, and prioritize the social role of intervention
Develop green spaces with native plant species	Prioritization of plant species adapted to climatic characteristics and the identification of native plant species appropriate to the cultural historical context

Control urban landscape	Criteria to determine the contours of the field of view in the different areas and applications Criteria to determine the appropriate color theme percent of its materials and in the neighborhood
Targeted lighting in the neighborhood	Lighting project proposal introduced important places and roads in the neighborhood

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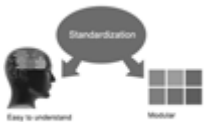
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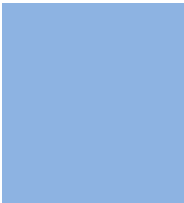


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