

**Challenges and Opportunities of Irrigation Practices in Ethiopia, A
Review**

Abstract

Traditional irrigation practices were long been in use during ancient times with unspecified beginning period in Ethiopia. However, Irrigation practice was not likely a driving force for the initiation of ancient civilization in Ethiopia. Since 1950's modern irrigation was introduced at the Awash and Rift Valley basins for production of commercial crops. Government, donors and non-governmental organizations are investing to the development of irrigation systems in Ethiopia from small to large scale irrigation schemes. As a result, irrigation is developing rapidly. However, its contribution to the national economy is insignificant when compared to rain-fed agricultural practice. This review was conducted to investigate the irrigation practice challenges and opportunities in Ethiopia. The extension service was inadequate and not packaged. Credit service bureaucracy like group collateral was constrained to improve irrigated crop production. Water governance was done by water users but interference by the government bodies aggravated water use conflicts. Streams drying, percolation and seepage of water are the most challenges. Irrigation created employment opportunity for household members and the rural community, and also improved their income. Therefore, policy makers and development practitioners should improve policies and strategies based on the agro-ecology and socio-economic settings of irrigation areas to overcome the challenges, and strengthen the opportunities.

Key words: Challenge, Ethiopia, Irrigation, Opportunity, Review.

1. Introduction

The country Ethiopia is a landlocked, with a land area of 1.13 million km², found in Eastern Africa (Awulachew *et al.*, 2007). From the total area of Ethiopia about 67% lies in arid and semi-arid areas and 33% covered by humid and semi-humid areas (Awulachew *et al.*, 2011). Geographically, Ethiopia is placed in between the latitudes 5°N and 15°N, and longitudes 35°E and 45°E (Yazew, 2005). Most of the population in Ethiopia lives in highland areas, with 85% being rural and dependent on agricultural practices with a low level of crop productivity (Awulachew *et al.*, 2007; MoA, 2011a; Bekele *et al.*, 2012). Thus, agriculture is the major source of employment, revenue, and export earning and besides providing raw material to the industrial sector to the country (PASDEP, 2005). Agriculture is the backbone of the Ethiopian economy which contributes 46 percent to Growth Domestic Product (GDP) (Awulachew *et al.*, 2007). Cognizant to this fact, the country focused its development policy, that is, Agricultural Development Led Industrialization (ADLI) on agriculture to transform the economy. ADLI aims to boost agricultural productivity and improving the rural standard of living, which in turn increase the demand for goods and services and further lead to industrial development. One of the impetuses to achieve the agricultural policy

36 objective is the promotion of irrigated agriculture and integrated water resource management (ADLI,
37 1994). The country is endowed with ample water resources with 12 river basins with annual runoff volume
38 of 122 billion m³ of water and an estimated of 2.6 billion m³ of groundwater potential resources
39 (Awulachew *et al.*, 2007; Makombe *et al.*, 2011; MoA, 2011a). Due to this Ethiopia is considered to be
40 the water tower of East Africa (Makombe *et al.*, 2007). Though the country of Ethiopia is blessed with
41 ample water resources, little has been developed for irrigation (Awulachew *et al.*, 2007). Agriculture is the
42 dominant sector but most of Ethiopia's cultivated land is under rainfed agriculture. Due to lack of water
43 storage and large spatial and temporal variations in rainfall, there is no enough water for most farmers to
44 produce more than one crop per year and hence there are frequent crop failures due to dry spells and
45 droughts which have resulted in a chronic food shortage currently facing the country. So to overcome this
46 problem and to use the available water resources since the mid-1980s, the Ethiopian government has
47 responded to drought and famine through promoting and construction of irrigation infrastructure aimed at
48 increasing agricultural production. In Ethiopia, the constructed irrigation schemes are categorized as small,
49 medium and large-scale and will develop for the future to supplement the rainfall shortage. But the
50 developed irrigation schemes are not viable and fail outright for failing to consider long term support due to
51 different uncertainties (MOA, 2011a). Moreover, in many parts of Ethiopia, irrigated or rain fed
52 agricultural production is affected by environmental extremes (e.g. drought, high soil salinity, etc.) and the
53 country has been seriously affected by climate change and related hazards, and millions of people are left
54 without sustenance mode of life every year. To increase productivity and diversify the livelihood scenarios
55 as an option, development of irrigation schemes has been introduced through water harvesting technology
56 including construction of concrete or embankment dams. Irrigation practice is an important strategy in
57 reducing risks associated with both rainfall variability, production of different crops twice or three times
58 within a year and improving income of rural farm-households. In attempting to do so, the country Ethiopia
59 has not yet developed more than 5% of the irrigation practice potential (Kalkidan and Tewodros, 2017).
60 Irrigation has the potential to stabilize agricultural production and mitigate the negative impacts of variable
61 or insufficient rainfall of the country Ethiopia. In some part of the country, delayed entrance of rainy
62 seasons, early withdrawal and mal-distribution of rain were challenges from which great lessons have been
63 drawn to critically look into expansion of small, medium and large scale irrigation schemes. In Ethiopia
64 there are many problems towards the development and management of irrigation schemes such as Bio-
65 physical, technical and socio-economic and institutional factors (Bitew, 2013). Therefore, the purpose of
66 this article is to review the challenges and opportunities for the development and management of irrigation
67 practices in Ethiopia.

68 1.1 Objectives

69 The main objective of this study is to review the major challenges and opportunities of irrigation practices
70 in Ethiopia. Moreover, this review has the following specific objectives:

- 71 a. To review the status of irrigation practices
- 72 b. To review the challenges faced to the irrigation practices
- 73 c. To review the opportunities of irrigation practices

74 2. Development of Irrigation in Ethiopia

75 Irrigation can be defined as an artificial application of water to the soil for the purpose of supplying the
76 moisture in the plant root-zone to prevent stress that may cause reduced yield and/or poor quality of
77 harvested crops (Reddy, 2010). This is an intentional action made by human to apply water for growing
78 crops, especially during dry seasons where there is a shortage of rainfall or to supplement it (FAO, 2002).
79 Irrigation is one means by which agricultural production can be increased to meet the growing demands of
80 food and other services in Ethiopia (Awulachew et al., 2005). A study also indicated that one of the best
81 alternatives to consider for reliable and sustainable food security development is expanding irrigation
82 development on various scales, through river diversion, constructing micro dams, and water harvesting
83 structures, others (Robel, 2005). Irrigation has been practiced in Ethiopia since ancient times producing
84 subsistence food crops. However, modern irrigation systems were started in the 1950s with the objective of
85 producing industrial crops in Awash Valley and Rift Valley. Private concessionaires who operated farms
86 for growing commercial crops such as cotton, sugarcane and horticultural crops started the first formal
87 irrigation schemes in the late 1950s Metri-Agro industry in the upper and Amibara in lower Awash Valley.
88 In the 1960s, irrigated agriculture was expanded in all parts of the Awash Valley (Metahara and Wonj in
89 middle Awash) and Bilate farm in the Lower Rift Valley (Awulachew et al., 2007).

90 3. Status of Irrigation Practice in Ethiopia

91 Irrigation practice is vital to the sustainable and reliable agricultural developments in Ethiopia. Subsistence
92 dominated of the country economy can be improved through the use of irrigation activity (MoA, 2011b).
93 Similarly, making use of irrigated agriculture is going to be a means for increased agricultural production to
94 meet the growing food demands due to rapid population growth. Irrigation development in Ethiopia can be
95 considered as a cornerstone of food security and poverty reduction tool as it has a power to stimulate
96 economic growth and rural developments (Hagos et al., 2009). As shown Table 1 according to Hagos et al.
97 (2009) in Ethiopia the irrigation scheme are classified into three such as small, medium and large scale this
98 based on land size that can be irrigated.

99 **Table 1:** Summary of typology of irrigation schemes in Ethiopia

Typology	Size of the scheme	Infrastructure	Water management scheme (ha)
Small scale	<200	Fixed or improved water control and diversion structures made of local materials	Water user association or irrigation cooperatives, local water users' association
Medium scale	200-3000	Fixed or improved water control and diversion structures	Water users' association/irrigation, cooperative or state.
Large scale	>3000	Fixed or improved water control diversion structures	Mostly state enterprises

100

101 The development of irrigation practice in Ethiopia is in its infancy stage (MoA, 2011a). The Ethiopian
102 government is therefore pursuing plans and programs to develop irrigation in an effort to substantially
103 reduce poverty and create an atmosphere for social change. As a result, the Ethiopian average rate of
104 irrigation development for the last 12 years (1990-2001) was about 1,090-1,150 ha/year (Nata et al., 2008;
105 Bekele et al., 2012). In line with this, irrigation infrastructures from small to large irrigation scheme are
106 increasing year to year, which show countrywide positive development implications and even if the
107 developed structures faced a number of challenges. In Ethiopia, only 2% of cultivated lands are irrigated
108 (MoWR, 2001) and 10% of the estimated potential irrigable land is actually irrigated (Gebremedhin and
109 Pedon, 2002). Similarly, irrigated agriculture in Ethiopia comprises merely 3% of the total national food
110 production (Bacha et al., 2011). That is why; irrigated agriculture is far from satisfactory despite of
111 considerable investment, public interest, and strategic support of the government. Belay and Bewket
112 (2013) argues that irrigation practice is critical to poverty alleviation through increased production in rural
113 areas so as to improve food security and rural livelihoods status and also contribute to national economy.
114 Smallholder irrigation has recently received significant focus from local governments to enable farmers to
115 cultivate crops twice or more per year. Bacha et al. (2011) states that about the impact of small-scale
116 irrigation on household poverty in central Ethiopia, reported that land productivity, asset ownership, credit
117 utilization, extension support, resilience to poverty, mean off-farm income, and mean food consumption
118 and expenditure on food and non-food property were extensively higher for irrigators than non-irrigators.
119 Poverty eradication and food security are among the priority concerns of the government in Ethiopia. As a
120 result, irrigation development is taking place through the use of government budgets, donor programs and
121 non-governmental organization (NGOs). However, as compared to its potential and rain-fed farming,
122 contribution of irrigation to the national economy is quite limited contributing about 3% of the overall GDP
123 (Hagos et al., 2009; MoA, 2011a). Moreover, the existing irrigation development in Ethiopia, as compared
124 to the irrigation potential, is not significant due to different uncertainties (MoA, 2011b). These uncertainties
125 explained in the following sub-title.

126 4. Challenges Faced to the Irrigation Practices

127 4.1 Poor scheme management

128 Many of the schemes were under severe challenges due to salinity, siltation or sedimentation problem. For
129 instance, from five to eight years after the irrigation project was commenced salinity and sedimentation
130 became very severe (Girma and Fentaw, 2003). The same source indicated that the main cause of salinity
131 was poor irrigation water management. Inefficient drainage systems along the canals has caused severe
132 siltation problem (Mintesinot et al., 2004). The majority of farmers raised salinity problem as minor while
133 few farms reported as severe problem in poor canal management and drainage system is also the cause of
134 irrigation practice. Due to the poor scheme management, land and soil productivity is declining with years
135 of irrigation. In consequence the yield per hectare has been declining year after year. It is directly related to
136 the water use system adapted by the farming community (Wagnew, 2004). The other aspect of poor scheme
137 management is inadequate and late maintenance of canals due to lack of effective coordination, inefficient

138 control system, frail linkage with relevant stakeholders, and lack of regular training is the peculiarity of
139 much water user association (WUAs) (MoA, 2011a). Most of the irrigation beneficiaries responded that
140 they were not willing to contribute financial resources for the irrigation scheme management. It was also
141 found that some farmers consider irrigation water as a free good and gift of nature. Canals are not protected
142 against livestock, siltation and sedimentation and are more likely damaged the schemes at the lower level
143 when livestock freely graze in the command area (Abebaw and Mesfin, 2016). The most serious
144 environmental hazard caused by irrigation schemes were salinity and the loss of valuable land because of it.
145 Inadequate drainage invariably increases water logging and salinity accompanied by health hazards like
146 malaria (Yacob and Tefera, 2005). Wooden and steel parts in irrigation structures suffer from being
147 alternately wet and dry. The wooden parts of irrigation structures will rot and disintegrate, while steel parts
148 will rust, expand and get jammed in the slides. All such corrosion affects in a negative way the operation of
149 the structures. Routine maintenance is necessary to avoid these problems, or to reduce their effect to a
150 minimum. Figure 1 shows an intake gate of the irrigation diversion structure, which is deteriorated due to
151 rust and is not manageable to operate (Bitew, 2013).



152

153 **Figure 1:** An intake gate of diversion head work

154 The deposition of soil and debris can affect the functioning of a structure. For example, a stilling basin
155 collects soil deposits the available water mass diminishes and power dissipation will be less effective.
156 Similarly, in the case of soil deposits in a flow division box, the division of the flow will be less accurate
157 due to imbalance inflow velocities and water levels. The same applies for irrigation intake structures and
158 night storages, such as the pumping stations. Large volumes of sand in the intake chamber of the pumps
159 causes damage to the pumps and will lead to sand deposits in the canal system too. Figure 2 shows night
160 storage of the irrigation scheme, which is silted up by sediments and misused as trough for drinking animals
161 (Bitew, 2013).

Water storage surface (Reservoir)

Sediment accumulation



162

163 **Figure 2:** Night Storage of the Irrigation Scheme

164 **4.2 Socio-Institutional problem**

165 At all levels, there exists low institutional capacity which is critical to enhance improvement of irrigation
166 scheme with respect to planning, design, implementation, operation and maintenance including irrigation
167 advisory services (MoA, 2011a). Water theft which means during water distribution is a common scenario
168 in many schemes. Additionally, the water user associations (WUAs) have a weak coordination skill to solve
169 scheme related problems. Upper stream households were get adequate water, whereas lower stream
170 beneficiaries do not get adequate water. As a result, some sort of conflict and dissatisfaction was rising
171 (MoA, 2011a).

172 The participation of women in WUAs is not satisfactory. Inequity in water distribution between locations,
173 and between socioeconomic groups is the social problem (Shimelis, 2006). Other institutional barriers
174 include limited or no priority given to sustainable irrigation during national and local planning and
175 budgeting; poor management structures in place to support farmers and promote irrigation development
176 (FAO, 1997). For example, the infrastructure to facilitate agricultural development is underdeveloped
177 (Mekuria and Berhanu, 2006). Poor coordination between institutions dealing with sustainable irrigation:
178 for example, there are no clear-cut duties and responsibilities between the Department of Agriculture and
179 Department of Service Cooperative and Promotion (Seid, 2002). Inadequacy of extension support with
180 respect to irrigation management is a common phenomenon for many schemes. There is ample evidence
181 from all regions that most of the failed projects are those implemented without sufficient and effective
182 beneficiary consultation and participation. Absence of sanction and poor coordination of water users
183 association are the main administrative problems in irrigation schemes (Abonesh et al., 2006). The
184 irrigation structure turnouts were far apart and not evenly distributed in some areas. Hence, the users
185 breakout the canals and extract irrigation water where there is no turnout. These illegal users caused a huge
186 damage on canals and threatened safety and sustainability of distribution and conveyance canals (Abebaw
187 and Mesfin, 2016). The education status of the household is one of the challenges to practicing irrigation in
188 different farm lands. That means illiterate farmers difficult to practice irrigation. If the farmers are educated,
189 it is easy to search and adopt new technologies and extension services that given by the irrigation experts.

190 Education enables farmers to search for new irrigation management practices (Abebaw and Mesfin, 2016).
191 In order to alleviate irrigation water scarcity and conflict, each irrigation areas had water management
192 bodies though the organizational structures and acknowledged by different formal and informal institution.
193 The water management bodies were organized by the beneficiaries. The water users have their own rules
194 and regulations. The management committee had five to seven in member and they are responsible to
195 manage and plan water schedule, mobilize beneficiaries during repairing, cleaning and digging of silted
196 dam and canals, schedule water use turn, punish offenders who violate the rules with a specified amount
197 and use other individual watering turn. If the accused farmers not accept the punishment made by water
198 users, the “Cell” would try to negotiate with the water users. If still could not possible; the “cell” would
199 take measure to settle the situation. But management was influenced by the government bodies “cell”
200 interference aggravated water use conflicts. This caused lack of solidarity among irrigation water users to
201 implement their own irrigation rule. Thus, it caused lack of sense of ownership both from the management
202 committee and from the members. Therefore, water governance often cause a challenge on the efficient and
203 equal utilization of irrigation water, thereby improves irrigated crop production (Lijalem, 2013).

204 **4.3 Market problem**

205 All over the rural areas of Ethiopia; market access and marketing facilities are the major challenges
206 influencing irrigation practices’. There is no rational place or customer for selling their product. Market
207 problems mainly related to irrigated agriculture are acute due to perish ability of irrigation based
208 agricultural commodities. Inaddition, lack of storage facilities and processing agro-industries in many of the
209 schemes caused a great loss. Price instability and lack of market are almost invariability confirmed as
210 conspicuous major constraints to irrigated agriculture. Cooperative marketing was conspicuously missing or
211 proved to be too ineffectual to reduce risks arising from price instability and marketing problems (Dejene *et*
212 *al.*, 2005). Small holder farmers face high costs and risks when entering markets, which severely limit the
213 returns from irrigation product. Rural markets in Ethiopia are thin small and the transaction costs of
214 entering are high due to the lack of transport infrastructure (Carter and Danert, 2006; Tucker and
215 Leulseged, 2010). The lack of access to market in close has greatly reduced the income that farmers could
216 have otherwise gained. Price information is chaotic, some small holder farmers get it from neighbors or
217 friends visiting the markets and some do not get it at all. The irrigation users do not have market chain to
218 sell their production (MoA, 2011a). In the absence of the necessary marketing facilities and infrastructure,
219 farmers have no choice but to sell their production at prices that may not cover costs of production. Most of
220 the irrigation farmers in Ethiopia have been constrained by market and infra-structure and no proper
221 government intervention has been made to avert existing farmers problems related with facilitating
222 marketing systems (Damenu, 2011). Market place is the vital challenge for marketing agricultural products
223 and to buy inputs for irrigated agriculture. They walk on foot long distance for three to six days into the
224 marketing place in that offers a better price. They argued that they do not worry about the distance, but their
225 main concern is the price of their products. To sell their agricultural products, farmers transport their
226 irrigated crop products by car, cart, pack animals (i.e. donkey, horse) and human loading according to their
227 accessibility and affordability, the use of vehicles for transportation of market commodities is hindered by
228 high cost of car service (Lijalem, 2013). Shortage of water ponds and diversion, infrastructure specially
229 road and storage space, theft of fruits, diseases and pests such as rust, root ruts, ball worm, blights, powdery

230 mildew, gummosis and water borne diseases, inefficient insufficient market information and market
231 networks are have been reported to be major challenges of the irrigation scheme (Gebrehiwot and Rao,
232 2015). Regarding to sources of market information for irrigated crop products before going to market places
233 they got from their neighbor, agricultural development agents of the kebele, merchants and sometimes sell
234 their products without any information gained before. Market prices vary from time to time based on supply
235 and demand principle (Lijalem, 2013).

236 4.4 Insufficient technical skill

237 In many parts of the country; the farmers are practicing irrigation without know-how on crop water need,
238 water application method and irrigation interval. Lack of knowledge on irrigation water management
239 aspects has resulted in wastage of irrigation water, deterioration of some structures and water logging
240 problems on some farms (Berhanu, 2006). Poor irrigation scheduling, crop water requirement imbalance;
241 inappropriate irrigation methods are widely recognized (MoA, 2011a). Other challenges were faced by the
242 farmer when they practice irrigation include lack of improved technologies (such as technical problem,
243 inputs preventing seepage and evaporation) (Gamachu and Tadele, 2018). Irrigation water was not
244 distributed based on which crop requires what amount, at what soil and time. But it was also done through
245 guessing. This was reported due to technical weakness of water user association (WUAs) executive
246 committees, water distributors and lack of strong assistances from the concerned offices (Abebaw and
247 Mesfin, 2016). Agricultural extension service is basic for the development of irrigated agriculture through
248 adapting and introducing improved technologies, providing training, accessing and timely supplying of
249 inputs and giving different information that ranges from production to marketing to the farmers. However;
250 the extension services provided are not focusing on identifying and organizing farmers' problems and
251 support farmers in supplying and accessing inputs such as pesticides, improved seeds and fertilizers. The
252 main rational for this extension service problem towards provide training that the development agents
253 divide their mandate area into different aspects of agriculture such as livestock production, crop production,
254 natural resource management, irrigated agriculture, and rain-fed agriculture. Training and technical advice
255 is a vital factor to enhance the knowledge and skills of farmers. The more training and technical advice is
256 provided to the farmers, the higher is the probability that farmers adopt the technologies to improve their
257 production system. Untimely Input supply (i.e. seed variety) and poor utilization of fertilizer are the other
258 major problem. Seed varieties are needed to increase production and productivity. In the area, there is no
259 improved varieties of a crops yet introduced to the locality. The farmers complained that improved seed
260 varieties were available on the rainy season but not for irrigated crop production during the dry season so
261 that, some farmers were forced to buy on the rainy season to plant on the next dry season for irrigated crop
262 production. Therefore, this show that the concerned bodies pay less attention to irrigated crop production
263 than rain fed crop production (Lijalem, 2013). Some crop types were attacked by fungal diseases.
264 Consequently, crop production is decreased from time to time. The farmers were complained on the failure
265 of the concerned bodies to give a solution to the problem though they were telling the respective
266 development agents. Therefore, in the irrigated area, crop production faced challenges such as lack of
267 access to improved seeds, pesticides and insecticides (Lijalem, 2013; Gebrehiwot and Rao, 2015;
268 Abebaw and Mesfin, 2016). Lack of training, uncertainty about new irrigation inputs and lack of know-
269 how between the irrigator, are the most serious challenges hindering irrigation development. Further,

270 weakness of local FTCs, weakness of extension personnel in supporting farmers were also identified as
271 main hampering points of extension service provision. Low awareness of the technology, poor
272 implementation procedures (site selection problems and poor construction management) equally hamper
273 irrigated agriculture (Yacob and Tefera, 2005; Hagos, 2014). Similarly, Bitew (2013) reported that the
274 collapsing of many irrigation structures and subsequent leakage cause problems to irrigation practices.
275 When the water level upstream of a structure is higher than the downstream water level and so at this level
276 the water may find another way underneath or along the irrigation structure, or even through a crack in the
277 bottom or sides of the structure to this lower level. Figure 3 shows that part of the diversion weir collapsed
278 due to scouring and Figure 4 shows the leakage on headwork of the irrigation structure and results in water
279 loss and damaging of the weir. This is associated with improper design problem of the irrigation structure.



280

281 **Figure 3: Part of River Diversion head work**



282

283 **Figure 4: Leakage on River Diversion structure**

284 **4.5 Financial shortage**

285 Lack of long and short-term credit provision affects the production of the irrigation scheme. The input for
286 production like fertilizers, improved seeds and chemicals requires high financial input for purchasing
287 (Berhanu, 2006). Moreover; lack of legal status for water users' associations (WUAs) also a challenge to
288 farmers as it is a requirement by most financing institutions as collateral for accessing loans. Access to
289 credit for financing investment and farm operations is crucial for the commercialization of small holder
290 agriculture. In line with this, it provides the facility of accessing inputs to the farmers and produce good and
291 sufficient production without constrain by shortage of money. Farmers use different sources of credit
292 services to get money for the cultivation of irrigated crop production. There are formal and informal
293 institutions which provide credit service. The informal credit services gain from relatives, neighbors and the
294 likes while the formal credit service is from governmental institution (Lijalem, 2013). Informal sources of
295 credit are good opportunities for the farmers in addition to formal sources to intensify irrigated crop
296 production but it is not enough to purchase the input. Moreover, the sampled households were asked
297 whether they need formal credit service from the institution or not to intensify and/or extensive irrigated
298 crop farming. To get credit from governmental institution the irrigators faced complex bureaucracy, short
299 repayment period, high interest rate, lack of collateral to get credit and fear of failed of the planted crop due
300 to uncertain condition. In addition; the farmers fear to borrow money from the institutions because they
301 perceived that if the borrowed money is lost due to uncertain condition; for instance disease, the institution
302 would force them to pay back. Hence, they would sale either their oxen or iron sheet house to recover the
303 collateral credit. Consequently, they would be forced to migrate to other areas to sustain their life. In
304 addition, the complex bureaucracy to get credit is tiresome and involving when beneficiaries only come up
305 as a group. The group members' ranges from five to seven individual farmers and each of them should have
306 collateral to get credit otherwise which is not possible to access. In this case, if an individual failed to pay

307 back, the group would be forced to pay the money to the institution. But till now, the farmers' informal
 308 sources such as borrowing from their relatives without interest could make them beneficiaries but the
 309 money from relatives is inadequate to buy inputs. Therefore, the complicated bureaucracy and the need of
 310 collateral from governmental organization create a real challenge to the development of irrigated agriculture
 311 (Lijalem, 2013). Credit access was an important institutional service to purchase agricultural inputs and
 312 water pumping motors to enhance the irrigated practice. Microfinance institution and informal credit
 313 institutions like *Equb* offer the credit services to user. It facilitated the use of new technological innovations
 314 like improved seed varieties (Hagos, 2014; Gebrehiwot and Rao, 2015; Abebaw and Mesfin, 2016).
 315 Similarly; as per Ali and Deininger (2012) reported that the availability of formal credit from institutions
 316 in Ethiopia is limited due to banking regulations. Credit rationing systems, often practiced in informal
 317 forms in Ethiopia.

318 5. Opportunities of the Irrigation Practices

319 Irrigation contributes to increase food production, promotes economic growth and sustainable development,
 320 creates employment opportunities, poverty reduction and protects the environment from degradation and
 321 pollution. Furthermore, it increases sub-surface water levels and recharges groundwater (Nata *et al.*, 2007;
 322 Abraham *et al.*, 2011; Lijalem, 2013). Crop production is the major source of income. Crop production
 323 divided into two, that is, irrigated and rain-fed crop production. As shown Table 1 the study tried to assess
 324 the average net income of households gained from both irrigated and rain-fed crop production.

325 **Table 2:** Net income of households from rain-fed and irrigated crop per year

Irrigation areas	N	Mean	P-value
Net income gained from irrigated crop production			
Laytemamagn	33	13.44	0.000
Yewela	70	128.6	
Gotu	0	-	
Total	103	91.71	
Net income gained from rain fed crop production			
Laytemamagn	35	22.41	0.000
Yewela	68	170.31	
Gotu	35	272.81	
Total	138	158.81	

326

327 Here, the irrigated crop production average net income per year was less than the rain-fed agriculture net
 328 income per year this is due to the cultivation of larger areas during rain-fed farm land is greater than the
 329 irrigated farm land. The same irrigated area in the dry season is used to produce crops in the rainy season.
 330 Hence, the analysis considered the crops produced by rain-fed during rainy season as rain-fed crop while
 331 the crop produced by irrigation as irrigated crop on the same plot of land. Due to this, the average net
 332 income gained per year from irrigated crop production is an additional income to rain-fed crop production
 333 average net income. Therefore, irrigation is additional gain (Lijalem, 2013). The basic opportunistic

334 considerations regarding irrigation developments are: emphasis and priorities are given to irrigation in the
335 growth and transformation plan of the country; indigenous knowledge and introduction of promising
336 household water harvesting and micro-irrigation technologies; government's strong political commitment
337 and encouragement to private sector and public enterprises involvement in irrigation development;
338 abundant water resources, climate and land suitability; availability of inexpensive labour; availability of
339 suitable lands for irrigation developments especially at arid areas of the country (MoA, 2011a and
340 MoWIE, 2013).

341 **6. Conclusion and Suggestion**

342 This study has in detail reviewed the Ethiopian irrigation practice challenges and opportunities. The country
343 Ethiopia is gifted with ample amount of water resources, but little has been developed for irrigation. Even if
344 the developed irrigation systems are limited they face a number of challenges and opportunities or within a
345 very low level of performance. The cause for this poor achievement and the dilemma for the failure of the
346 country Ethiopia irrigation development to significantly contribute to the overall socio-economic
347 development lie mainly in the absence of a well defined coherent policy, lack of the required huge
348 investment, weak awareness creation to farmers, and ineffective of irrigation extension system. The other
349 major challenges are technical, socio-economical, Bio-physical, institutional and legal-environment
350 challenges. The recommendations to boost the sustainability of irrigation practice are;

- 351 🚧 There is a strong need to enhance access to institutional support services such as credit and extension,
352 availing market information to guide users.
- 353 🚧 The institutional relation should be strengthening and there should be well defined authorization to
354 each of the institution.
- 355 🚧 The capacity building in various aspects of irrigation management to offer the necessary policy
356 framework at all levels to give more attention to poor people.
- 357 🚧 More opportunities are available to the future but policies and strategies, socio-economic and
358 institutional research should be a prior activity to enhance irrigation development.
- 359 🚧 Participatory approach of irrigation development should be enhanced. This is because of sustainability
360 cannot be achieved without the community participation.

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