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ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

**LIVELIHOOD SITUATIONS AND FOOD SECURITY STATUS OF
FARMERS DISPLACED BY URBAN EXPANSION IN DEJEN
TOWN, ETHIOPIA.**

BY
WUBETU SEWALE AYALEW

SEPTEMBER 2019

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MA THESIS SUBMITTED TO

THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES OF ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF ARTS IN SOCIOLOGY

SEPTEMBER 2019

ADDIS ABABA

Declaration

This thesis entitled “Livelihood situations and Food security status of farmers displaced by urban expansion in Dejen Town, Ethiopia”, is the fruit of my original research work. I made every effort to clearly indicate when I used the contribution of others. Besides, the work has not been previously submitted in fulfillment of requirements for obtaining any degree other than this one and that all the sources and materials used for the thesis have been properly acknowledged.

Declared by: WubetuSewaleAyalew

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Place: College of Social Sciences, Department of Sociology, AAU.

Dedication

This Thesis is dedicated to my late father and mother whom are passed away while I was at young age and who is unable to see the fruit of their children. I have never found them unkind.

Acknowledgments

First and foremost, I give the utmost glory to the Almighty God who helped me throughout my life in general and in this research work in particular. The continuous prayer of my sister, brothers and friends has given me the energy to resist the challenges during my academic years.

Next, I am indebted to my advisor, Dr. KasahunAsres, for his continuous guidance, encouragement, and very friendly approach during all the time of the research and writing this thesis. Really, I would never have finished the work without his dedication.

I would like to extend my gratitude to my relatives at Dejen town in east gojjam zone, AtoBantamlakTadele and his wife HabetamBerhan for giving me accommodation throughout my data collection, their good hospitality and for assisting me in the translation and duplication of the data gathering tools. I will never forget their contribution. Their three children also deserve thanks for the love they gave me while I was out from my home.

I am grateful to Dejen town and kebele administrator officials for facilitating my entry to the woredaand kebelesand providing me the necessary data for my research. I am also indebted to my entire study participant.

WubetuSewaleAyalew

September 2019

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Abbreviations

ACF:	Action Contre La Faim
ADLI:	Agricultural Development Led Industrialization
CSA:	Central Statistical Agency
CARE:	Center for Awareness, Response and Education
DES:	Dietary Energy Supply
DFID:	Department for International Development of United Kingdom
DTLAO:	Dejen Town Land Administration Office
DTM:	Dejen Town Municipality
FAO:	Food and Agricultural Organization
FANTA:	Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance
FED:	Finance and Economic Development
HFIAS:	Household Food Insecurity Access Scale
IFAD:	International Food Association Development
JMP:	Joint Monitoring Program/ Management Plan
MOFED:	Minister of Finance and Economic Development
MWUD:	Minister of Work and Urban Development
OXFAM:	Oxford Committee for Famine Relief
PASDEP:	Plan for Accelerated and Sustainable Development Program
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Science
SSA:	Sub- Saharan Africa
UNDP:	United Nations Development program
WFP:	World Food Program

Abstract

This study examines Livelihood situations and the Food security status of farmers displaced by urban expansion in Dejen town Ethiopia. Based on the descriptive research design, the study applies the mix methods of both Qualitative and Quantitative approaches. A household survey was conducted on 148 households sampled through non-probability Sampling techniques: especially availability sampling techniques were employed. Primary data is collected through the In-Depth interview and household survey, while the secondary data were from different written documented sources. Having analyzed the collected data through SPSS version 21, the researcher is concluding that horizontal urban expansion hurts the livelihood situations and food security status of the peri-urban agricultural community in Ethiopia, as the Dejen town case had shown. The results of the study indicated implemented urban sprawl was highly affecting the five livelihood situations of the study area, the extent of the suburb people willing, participation and decision making was limited rather the role was focused only on presence in the meetings. The compensation is not mostly wisely managed by the society as well by the sub-city and stakeholder institutions. So suburb urban sprawl is negatively affecting the livelihood of the farming community especially the five livelihood elements (financial, natural, human, physical and, social capitals are significantly reduced as the study result shows. So, the study revealed that the community, in general, is the major victim of the livelihood crisis and food insecurity problems. Thus, it is the recommendation of this study that there is a need to prevail urban good governance to curtail the problem, especially, following participatory approach on stakeholders, particularly, household in to urban development plans and projects, there should exist effective rules and regulations which guide expropriation from land and compensation to displaced households when their land is expropriated for public interest. There would also the consideration of the recipients' interests in kind and quantity of compensation and if money is only possible resolutions on a kind of compensation to displaced households then, pre-trainings and post-coaching need to be carried out to enable such community to sustain and secure their livelihood in such changed and continuously re changing urban terrains.

Keywords: *Displacement, Food-security, Households, Livelihood, Peri-urban*

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

Urbanization refers to a growth in the proportion of a population living in urban areas and the further physical expansion of already existing urban centers (Samson, 2009; Alaci, 2010). The level of urbanization in Africa is low (37.1%) when compared with developed countries like Europe (72.7%) and North America 79.1 % (Alaci, 2014). However, urbanization in the developing world, in general, is progressing much faster than in developed countries, which is estimated between 3 to 4 % per year (Soubotina, 2014).

The fast rate of urbanization in the developing world is attributed to rural-urban migration, economic growth and development, and rapid population growth (Marshall, et al., 2016). According to Redman and Jones (2014), basically, urban growth is a combination of three basic processes. The first is rural-urban migration: it is a key source of urban growth since the origin of cities. Rural-Urban migration is driven from perceived economic opportunities, insecurity in rural areas, climate or economic problems, etc. The Second is natural increase. This is a combination of increased fertility and decreased mortality rates in urban areas. The third is the re-classification of land from rural to urban categories. Many cities are rapidly growing into their fringe, expanding into villages and farmlands and transforming them into parts of urban administrative. The rate of natural increase is generally slightly lower in urban than in rural areas. However, the principal reasons for raising the level of urbanization and city growth are rural-urban migration and geographical expansion of urban areas through annexation and transformation and re-classification of the rural village into small urban settlements (Jaglo, 2015). Since the urban expansion is a natural process that it grows and expands its surrounding rural areas. It adversely affects the mass of the agrarian community.

Thus, the outward expansion of urban centers can result in the loss of prime agricultural farmlands and natural beauties (Minwuyet, 2014). Recently, African urbanization is characterized by rapid and uncontrolled urban growth. This has brought various socio-economic and environmental problems. Besides, the mass exodus to cities has already worsened the problems of urban poverty, food insecurity, shortage of housing and basic services,

unemployment, ethnic tensions and violence, substance abuse, crime, and social disintegrations. This leaves Africa with an under-developed continent (Pater Jaglo, 2015).

The report of PASDEP (2006) cited in Muzzini (2014) indicates that Ethiopia is characterized by a low level of urbanization even by African standards, where only 20% of populations live in the urban area. Despite this, Ethiopia has recorded a relatively high growth rate of urban population (4% annually), double that of rural areas (Muzzini, 2014). However, such a high growth rate is not often accompanied by a development in socioeconomic services and infrastructure, economic and employment capacity of the urban centers to support the growing population (Teller and Assefa, 2010). Furthermore, the countries urban population is expected to grow on average by 3.98% and by 2050, about 42.1% of the total population is expected to be inhabited in urban centers (UN-HABITAT, 2017).

In the current situation where industrialization and urbanization expand more than ever, the massive investments need for improving living standards through economic expansion further led to land acquisition and involuntary displacement (Robinson, 2013). Shreds of evidence from researches have shown that urban expansion towards the peri-urban areas of agricultural lands has a multidimensional negative effect on the livelihood of displaced farmers (Mesfin, 2015). Lack of permanent income sources and food insecurity for loss of farmland assets, social disintegration due to displacement and high level of unemployment due to poor human capital development, environmental degradation, and involuntary migration to urban areas are some of the facts revealed in the process of urban expansion in Ethiopia (Feyera, 2015; Mesfin, 2015, and Adem, 2014). But much less attention has been devoted to study the effect of urbanization on evicted farmers displaced from their farmland in government policy strategy implementation in creating employment jobs for access to income-generating alternatives to enable or ensure food security at the household level. Moreover, area-based strategies developed by the local governments in coordination with a non-governmental organization is thought to be a suitable reaction to spatially determined patterns of poverty and social exclusion (Weck, 2012) and it is an alternative local solution for local problems (Jones, 2015).

Furthermore, changes in land use and land cover can have wide-ranging environmental consequences. These include loss of biodiversity, changes in emissions of trace gases affecting climate change, changes in hydrology and soil degradation. Food security is a major challenge of

many African countries, particularly in Ethiopia yet, but cities with greater size are those which situated in the most productive agricultural areas, where they can produce the surplus product to provide reasonable food and industrial inputs to that particular area in particular and the country in general (Clark, 2014). Since Dejen is found in a developing country, that is Ethiopia, it has been experiencing rapid agricultural land use transformation to urban land use due to extensive urban expansion.

The Ethiopian urban centers are expanding at an alarming rate (4.3 %) that resulting in the loss of many very productive agricultural farmlands and agricultural production (Feyera, 2015). This rapid urban expansion is changing the means of livelihood of the farming community nearby urban. This situation is worst currently in the study area, Dejen town, and its surrounding rural-urban fringe areas. This is due to fast population growth, rural to urban migration, high housing built-up, income growth and investment demands that in turn affect the local farmer's livelihood and many farming community land security is risking. Since the built-up area expansion process resulted in the loss of agricultural farmlands and reduction of crops/food productivity and this results in food insecurity.

1.2. Statement of the problem

Africans urbanization is characterized by rapid and uncontrolled urban growth and it brought various socio-economic and environmental problems (Abrial, *et al.*, 2012). Supporting the finding by Abrial and his colleagues', Sisay (2012) argued that urban growth causes not only loss of agricultural farmlands but also changes and challenges displaced households' livelihood sources as well as food security as a result of urban expansion to its peri-urban territories. Urban expansion imposes increasing pressure on agricultural cropland resources and food security (Addo, 2010). Fazal (2000) cited in Kebede (2012) asserted that the loss of agricultural land due to rapid urbanization is most severe in low and middle-income countries compared to high-income countries for instance Ethiopia.

In the Ethiopian context, urban centers are expanding at an alarming rate (4.3%) that results in loss of agricultural farmland, agricultural production, and changes and challenges of livelihood (CSA, 2014). In addition, finding by Mesfin (2015) also shows that urban expansion also affected the livelihood of farmers by reducing farm size holding and the community participation

in planning and implementation and displacement of peasant community with appropriation of cash compensation exacerbated their dominant livelihood and expose them for further economic, social and cultural impoverishment (Ermias, 2009).

Besides peri-urban community livelihood problem is a serious challenge in Dejen city which is one of the rapidly urbanizing and growing cities. Since urban sprawl effect brought sever problem on the livelihoods and food security of peri-urban farming community where life is becoming hard to survive in their livelihood, life is becoming deteriorated from time to time compared to their previous income level, the job security not that much appreciable, the skill and knowledge situations of the evicted people are very limited to agriculture and local handcraft.

So this problem exposes the people to be jobless and as a result, the displaced people become poor, which they cannot assist properly their family. Even if the problem is increasing at an alarming rate and resulting in serious socio-economic problems, no more studies are conducted on the area, rather only two studies on prospect and challenges of real estate development on livelihood of rural communities (Ermias, 2009), Impact of urban development on peasant community in Ethiopia Mesfin (2015) were conducted around Addis Ababa which may be related in some degree with this study, but they still lack to focus on effect of urban expansion on food security status and the alternative coping mechanisms employed by evicted households to cope with the problem rather their focus is on effect of urbanization on livelihood of evicted households in general. So this is the main reason for the researcher to investigate the effects of urban expansion on the livelihood and food security of displaced farmers as well as the post expropriation coping mechanisms of the displaced farmers.

1.3. Objectives

The main objective of the study was to examine Livelihood situations and Food security status of farmers displaced by urban expansion in Dejen town.

More specifically, the study planned to:

- explore the livelihood situations and food security status of displaced farmers.
- examine the effect of urban expansion on the livelihood and food security of peri-urban displaced farmers.

- examine the implication of urban expansion on displaced community social fabrics.
- explore coping strategies of the displaced farm households in peri-urban areas of Dejen town.

1.4. Significance of the study

Urban expansion is a natural process and it consumes many hectares of prime agricultural lands from their surroundings every year. This results in the change and loss of livelihood sources for the farm communities in Ethiopia. The outputs of this research, therefore, are deemed to have the following importance. Firstly, the study contributes to the municipality and another concerned body unit for what they do in the peri-urban areas of expansion. Secondly, It also uses as reference material for other related studies concerning the political, social and economic problems of the farm communities in the fringe areas of urban centers and the study adapts and enhances methodologies suitable to investigate the nexus between the two issues: livelihood situations and food security. Thirdly, this research is also be used as a source for designing urban expansion policy in the coming periods. Furthermore, the study plays an important role in filling the knowledge gap by showing the effects of urban expansion on livelihood and food security of the displaced households and motivate future researchers to work on livelihood and food security of displaced farmers, as well as it would be used as input for an urban planner for sustainable development that doesn't threaten peri-urban agricultural communities. Moreover, the study can give insight to examine the current life condition of the displaced peri-urban agricultural communities at the household level.

1.5. Scope of the study

The present study was delimited in terms of focus, method, population, and area. In terms of focus, this study focused on investigating the effect of urban expansion on the livelihood situations and food security status of the peri-urban displaced farmers/households. In terms of method, this research employed a mixed approach, for data collection household survey/questionnaire and in-depth interview was used. In terms of area: the area of the study was delimited only in the peri-urban areas around Dejen town to which urban area is expanding.

1.6 Limitations o the Study

Following the urban expansion, then, there happen changes in both topography and settlement patterns of the peri-urban areas. This study focuses mainly on the households whose lands were expropriated and those who had been dispossessed, dislocated and hence whose livelihood strategies get changed both by form and content. As a matter of this fact, the selected sample household members may not represent the characteristics of all households affected by the urban horizontal expansion. Moreover, there has appeared a problem of up-dated address information of the respondents. In the same token in access to data, response refusal, omission of responses, non-returns or late return of questionnaire, and misses are what technically limited the processes, accuracy, and validities of the study. Besides, as expansion is a process taking place throughout a series of times, there is a need to get each phase's (year's) information about the expansion. To get all the required information, fixing the appointment and meeting the former municipality staff from the previous position has contributed to the limitation of the study. Furthermore, every research methodology and design along with the specific techniques have each of the respective pros and cons. As a matter of this fact, the methodology employed, research design developed, techniques selected as well as tools used to collect data have their limiting effect on validities and other qualities of the study.

1.7 Ethical consideration

The researcher recruited the participants of the study in Dejen *Woreda* by maintaining assents of the participants, by explaining the objectives of the study and by explaining how the findings of the study would be used. Assent is a term used to express willingness to participate in research by persons who are by definition too young to give informed consent but who are old enough to understand the proposed research in general, its expected risks, possible benefits and the activities expected of them as subjects (Levine, 1988). Assent can also be taken for people who might have trouble understanding the long and often more detailed informed consent form. The assent form allows them to say 'yes' or 'No' to the research, even if they did not understand everything about the research. In every stage of the data collection, analysis and reporting the anonymity of the participants of the study were kept.

1.8 Organization of the study

This thesis is organized in five chapters. The first chapter introduces the background of the study, problem statement, Objectives, Significant of the study, the scope of the study, ethical consideration. and the organization of the study. The second chapter discusses about review of related literature on the theory of urban expansion and growth, cause of urban expansion, urbanization in Ethiopia, livelihood, food security, dimension of food security, food insecurity, sustainable livelihood frame approach, sustainable livelihood framework and components, livelihood strategies, determinant of livelihood strategies, livelihood strategies and food security linkage, measuring food security outcomes, the political economy of smallholder agriculture and food security in Ethiopia, conceptual framework of the study, effect of urban expansion on the farmers in the peri-urban areas and finally coping strategies related to food insecurity. The third chapter presents the method part of the study, it includes introduction, description of the study area, biophysical profile of the study area, demographic and socio-economic profile of the study area, research methods, justification for the study, participant of the study, sampling techniques and data analysis techniques. The fourth chapter concentrates on the result and discussion of the study. Finally, the last chapter recapitulates the study in terms of conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPER TWO

RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter of the study discusses theory of urban expansion and growth, cause of urban expansion, urbanization in Ethiopia, livelihood , food security, dimension of food security, sustainable livelihood frame approach, sustainable livelihood framework and components, livelihood strategies, determinant of livelihood strategies, livelihood strategies and food security linkage, measuring food security outcomes, the political economy of smallholder agriculture and food security in Ethiopia, conceptual framework of the study, effect of urban expansion on the farmers in the peri-urban areas and finally coping strategies related to food insecurity.

2.1. Theories of urban expansion and growth

According to Clark (1996), two major theories are explaining urban expansion. These are related to the primacy of economic benefits and the role of urban social production.

Economic benefits primacy theory refers to the agglomerations of different economic activities and economies of scale resulting from it. Hence, to improve the economic benefits of production, people move to the urban area from rural areas and/or even one urban area to another, rural-urban migration and urban-urban migration. This increment on the urban population stimulates urban centers to grow towards peripheral areas. (Clark, 1996).

The urban social production theory, on the other hand, argues that urban is more congested and congregate, and even much denser than rural and peripheral regions. Still, the area has a higher pulling power of attracting people into it. This pulling force of urban areas is, however, the result of continuous social interaction, which resulted finally into the congregation of large people at the smaller unit of land than rural regions. As sited by Muluken (2009) in the history of urban evolution, cities began to exist for many reasons such as defense, trades, political or religious centers. What so ever the reason, economic force is likely to reinforce the original impulse (Harvey and Juwsy, 2004).With industrialization, which induced more intensive use of existing buildings, change in the pattern of uses and outward expansion in the peripheral areas is inevitable (Hall, 2002). In addition to the above theories, there are three major theories which explain urban expansion and growth. These are:

Modernization Theory: Modernization theory was developed in the mid 20th Century. Modernization is the term used for the transition from the traditional society of the past to modern society as found in the west. Modernization theory presents the idea that by introducing modern methods of production like the use of advanced technology for industry the underdeveloped countries will experience a strengthening in their economies and this will lead them to development. This theory holds that the modernization of states through economic development encourages other forms of development like social and political development. This theory focuses on individual countries for analysis and it is examined mainly with economic development as operationalized variables such as GDP per capita. According to the modernization school, which is the view shared by the classical economists, there cannot be urbanization without industrialization (Berliner, 1977). In other words, the more industrialized a society is, the more urbanized it is and this is believed to be as a result of agriculture releasing surplus rural labor for industries located in the cities (Dutt, 2001). Urban researchers adopted an analytical tool based on evolutionary and functionalist perspectives in explaining this theory. The evolutionary perspective consists of a framework in which the social changes are unidirectional progressive and gradual. The evolution is irreversible as the rural primitive stage advances to high level of advanced urban-based society. The functionalist perspective recognizes that as society proceeds towards modernization, systematic and transformative changes take place; giving rise to change from traditional values to modern ones. Technology and industrialization-based economic growth become engines of growth (Kasarda & Crenshaw, 1991). Thus there is the need for a country to experience migration from rural to urban areas in order to become an industrial (modern) society (Bradshaw, 1987). This is based on the assumption that the development process and urbanization move along a continuum. One of the key proponents of modernization theory is Walter Rostow. The theory is often tied with his (Rostow's) concept of the evolutionary ladder of development, which he entitled '*The Stages of Economic Growth*' (1977). This has a connection with the Demographic transition model, based on an interpretation which began in 1929 by the American demographer Warren Thompson (Chesnais, 1992) with the only difference being the number of stages.

Dependency Theory: In view of the flaws of modernization theory and its inability to account for Third World underdevelopment, an alternative theory was devised by a group of scholars known collectively as the dependency school, which originated in Latin America. This school

holds that development in the developing countries is conditioned by the growth and expansion of Europe. This school addresses certain issues not considered by modernization theory. It lays importance on historical processes in explaining the changes which have occurred in the structure of cities as a result of the switch from the pre-capitalist to capitalist mode of production. It also lays emphasis on the dependent nature of capitalist development in the Third World which places emphasis on external economic forces in the study of cities. The dependency school argues that the developed countries use the developing countries as a source of input (raw material supplier) for their factories. This results in foreign investment in large-scale agricultural production which displaces peasant farmers in the rural areas. The displaced farmers then move to the urban areas to seek employment (Firebaugh, 1979; Walton, 1977; Bradshaw, 1987).

Urban Bias Theory: Another approach to understanding urban development in developing countries is through the application of urban bias theory. This theory shifts the emphasis of urban development from the economic perspective to political perspective. This perspective, Spearheaded by Lipton (1977), argues that policies favor the urban areas to the detriment of the rural areas, hence the concentration of facilities and the creation of favorable conditions in the urban areas. State policies allegedly overtax the rural citizens with similar incomes. The production of the rural areas, notably agricultural products, is overtaxed due to price twists. Overtaxing works in the following way. State controlled marketing boards buy agricultural products from the local farmers at an artificially low price and then resell these products to the consumers at the prevailing higher market price; the difference is often used to provide facilities in the urban areas. In addition, governments in the developing countries tend to invest domestic capital on the provision of development facilities. These facilities are largely located in the urban areas while a larger proportion of the population is found in the rural areas. The facilities include hospitals, schools, libraries and other government/semi-government facilities. Investable resource in favor of the rural dwellers, who are basically farmers, in the form of roads, small-scale irrigation facilities, agricultural machinery and storage facilities are often downplayed by the policy makers. Higher standards of living are created in the urban areas resulting in the creation of disparity between the urban and the rural areas. As a result, the rural dwellers tend to migrate to the urban areas to take advantage of the favorable policies.

2.2. Causes of urban expansion

Urbanization is closely linked with modernization, industrialization, and the process of decision making. Most of the rapid urban sprawl in developing nations is due to rural-urban migration (Free encyclopedia, 2010). According to UN report of the world population (2007), urbanization occurs naturally from individual and corporate efforts to reduce time and expense in community and transportation while improving opportunities for jobs, educations, and housing and transportation statuses. However, the major contributing factor is “rural flight”. In rural areas, often on small farms, it is difficult to improve one’s standard of living beyond basic subsistence’s [particularly in developing countries case where the rate of population growth outpaces resource production rate]. To such communities, their farm is very much dependent on unpredictable conditions such as drought flood and pestilences. Hence, people decide to migrate to urban areas “rural flight”. This then contributes to urban pressure towards peri-urban lands. Nationally, according to Tagegne (2010) two most important actors leading urban expansion are in-migration (both rural-urban migration and urban-urban migration) and natural population increase. Reclassification of the rural areas being as part of an administrative body to the urban municipality is another cause for the population increase in cities.

According to Gyabaah, et.al., (2006), migration mostly occurred by the push and pull factors though varied in extent and motivational factors in developed and developing countries but both having common destination target that it is bringing people towards the urban areas. This implies that though the rates of change vary from region to region today in the world no region has been unaffected by urbanization.

Among the many as listed by Bloom and Khanna (2007) the search for higher-paying employment, better quality of life in terms of health and education, greater diversity of entertainment and lifestyle are grouped as pull factors. Besides, it is widely recognized that demography and economies are the most important driving factors for urban expansion to the peri-urban areas (Khanna, 2007). According to Drescher&Laquinta (2002) reclassification is most likely occurred in places with a supposed economic advantage and the capacity to absorb non-agricultural labor as a direct result of the occupation of markedly non-urban areas. As a result, say Redman& Jones (2004) many cities are fast-growing at their periphery, swallowing former villages and croplands, transforming them into industrial areas, shantytowns, or less-

dense suburban developments. Thus, by administratively incorporating inhabitants with non-urban lifestyles into the political authority all of the residents become urban. That Ruiz N (2009) called peri-urbanization refers to the emergence and consolidation of an urban-rural fringe. This implies that urban population increases are likely associated with urban land extension towards the peripheral rural farmland in need of space for the construction of residential houses, industrial and commercial enterprises and infrastructure that leads to the conversion of extensive arable land. These dramatic demographic shifts towards urban areas driven by the urbanization across the world have different rates among developing and developed countries as indicated by Gyabaah,et.al. (2006). Africa will continue to lead the world in urban growth followed by Asia. Some of the causes of urbanization are:

Industrialization: is a trend representing a shift from the old agricultural economics to novel non-agricultural economy, which creates a modernized society. Through industrial revolution, more people have been attracted to move from rural to urban areas on the account of improved employment opportunities. Industrialization has increased employment opportunities by giving people the chance to work in modern sectors in job categories that aids to stir economic developments.

Commercialization: Commerce and trade play a major role in urbanization. The distribution of goods and services and commercial transactions in the modern era has developed modern marketing institutions and exchange methods that have tremendously given rise to the growth of towns and cities. Commercialization and trade comes with the general perception that the towns and cities offer better commercial opportunities and returns compared to the rural areas.

Social benefits and services: There are numerous social benefits attributed to life in the cities and towns. Examples include better educational facilities, better living standards, and better sanitation and housing, better health care, better recreation facilities, and better social life in general. On this account, more and more people are prompted to migrate into cities and towns to obtain the wide variety of social benefits and services which are unavailable in the rural areas.

Employment opportunities: In cities and towns, there are ample job opportunities that continually draw people from the rural areas to seek better livelihood. Therefore, the majority of people frequently migrate into urban areas to access well paying jobs as urban areas have

countless employment opportunities in all developmental sectors such as public health, education, transport, sports and recreation, industries, and business enterprises. Services and industries generate and increase higher value-added jobs, and this leads to more employment opportunities.

Modernization and changes in the mode of living: Modernization plays a very important role in the process of urbanization. As urban areas become more technology savvy together with highly sophisticated communication, infrastructure, medical facilities, dressing code, enlightenment, liberalization, and other social amenities availability, people believe they can lead a happy life in cities. In urban areas, people also embrace changes in the modes of living namely residential habits, attitudes, dressing, food, and beliefs. As a result, people migrate to cities and the cities grow by absorbing the growing number of people day after day.

Rural urban transformation: As localities become more fruitful and prosperous due to the discovery of minerals, resource exploitation, or agricultural activities, cities start emerging as the rural areas transform to urbanism. The increase in productivity leads to economic growth and higher value-added employment opportunities. This brings about the need to develop better infrastructure, better education institutions, better health facilities, better transportation networks, establishment of banking institutions, better governance, and better housing. As this takes place, rural communities start to adopt the urban culture and ultimately become urban centers that continue to grow as more people move to such locations in search of a better life.

2.3. Urbanization in Ethiopia

The history of urbanization in Ethiopia goes back to the Axumite period. During this time, there were many towns where commerce had flourished with buildings and construction of high standards. Centuries later, these urban centers began to shift to Lalibela and Gondar. Much of the urban history to Ethiopia following the Axumite period was characterized by the absence of fixed urban centers. This trend continued until the end of the 19th century. Urbanization continues until Addis Ababa was selected as a fixed political and commercial center by Menelik II (Kebede, 2012).

Like most African countries in Ethiopia, large scale urbanization is a fairly recent phenomenon. However, the history of towns developing in the country extends back to the Axumite

Kingdoms of 14th century, when Axum, the first political and religious center in the north of the country, was established. Despite this long urban history, however, Ethiopia remains one of the least urbanized countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Tefera, 2015). Before 20th century, the establishment and growth of the Ethiopian cities are said to be in response to indigenous political, religious, economic as well military-strategic, requirements. Despite its failure to build a well organized and large size urban settlement, the constant shift of the location capital cities of the empire during this period had accounted for the establishment and growth of several towns, particularly in north Ethiopia. For instance, Axum, Lalibela, and Gondar found in the 4th century, 11th century and 17th century, respectively are some of the urban centers that served as capitals of nations. The factors that contribute to the growth of urbanization in Ethiopia include the establishment of central government, the introduction of modern means of transport and communication, schools, hospitals and modern business, Ethiopia's contact with the outside world and the establishment of large number of industries and organized farms as intensified process of urbanization in Ethiopia (Belay, 2014). Ethiopia is one of the least urbanized countries in the world today, and only 20% of its population lives in urban areas (JMP, 2014). In common with many other developing countries, however, this pattern is changing. Ethiopia's urban growth rate is more than 4.0% per year, which places it among the highest in Africa and the world (MWUD, 2007).

2.4. The concept of Livelihood and Food security

2.4.1 Livelihood

Livelihood is a generic term that involves several components (De Haan, 2012). Thus, there is no universally endorsed definition to grasp the term livelihood (Scoones, 2017). The most widely used definition of livelihood is the one offered by Chambers and Conway built on participatory research practices of the World Commission on Environment and Development: A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers and Conway, 1991).

Vital components of this definition are assets, capabilities, and activities required for means of living. Assets are resources that households combine to choose between available options of living for positive outcomes (Krantz, 2011). For a livelihood perspective, these resources involve natural, social, financial, human, and physical capital each having different elements. Following the above definition, Carney (1998), acknowledges the notion of claims and access that enable households to combine their resources at disposal under wider structures and institutions to make a livelihood. For Bebbington (1999), resources not only shape livelihood strategies but also bake capabilities to act and to confront the social conditions that produce poverty. They are also the basis of an agent's power to act and to reproduce, challenge or change the rules that govern the control, use, and transformation of resources. Capabilities are functions of peoples' initial endowments of different types of capital assets that further strengthen the ability of people to undertake activities for cherished goals (Ellis, 2010). For rural households, the ability to produce and feed its members relies on being able to farm or acquire from other sources which in turn depends on the possession of assets like skills, farmland, finance, market, and social networks.

2.4.2. Food Security: Concept, Evolution and Dimensions

Food security becomes an important organizing principle in development which has called for academic literature, aid agencies, national and local programs, mainly in sub-Saharan Africa (Maxwell and Smith, 1992). The emergence and surge of the concept of food security are traced back to the 1970s food crisis. Subsequently, the concept of food security has evolved and tends to comprise different elements across time and space (Young, et al., 2012; Pieters, et al., 2012). Smith, et al. (1993) canvassed over 180 articles on food security from 1986-1991 and revealed the predominance of food security studies at the national and international levels than household food security.

Household food security is a relatively new arena in the 1980s, relative to the generic concept of food security. An important shift was seen in the mid-1990s when the attention was drawn to not only at the international and national level of food security but also to households and individuals (Paramitta, 2013; Moltedo, et al., 2014). The World Food Summit first coined the concept of food security in 1974, defining it as, availability at all times of adequate world food supplies of basic foodstuffs to sustain a steady expansion of food consumption and to offset fluctuations in production and prices. This definition initiated the food availability approach,

which dictates food security as a function of production. In other words, food insecurity is a result of product failure; the path out of food insecurity can be accelerated through increasing production.

This view coincides with Malthusian assumptions of incommensurable population growth rate and production pace all over the world (Burchi & De Muro, 2012). The limitations of such an approach became immediately evident. Disconnection emerged between the success in increasing food supplies through improved agricultural production and the persistence of hunger and malnutrition around the world (Molledo, et al., 2014). It was noted that national-level food availability (supply side) is not a guarantee to household-level food security for access to food by all people to be a matter of concern (DFID, 2004). What is available must be accessed by people (Deitchler, et al., 2010). The situation of the Ethiopian famine in 1984 attested the shortcoming of the food availability approach (Degefa, 2015; Ncube, 2014). Therefore, household food insecurity is started to be claimed as the resultant effect of food entitlement decline (FED), due to lack of resources to command food (Gathiaka & Muriithi, 2013).

Informed with this, FAO (2009) announced the latest definition of food security which reads: Food security is a situation that exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. This notion downplayed objective measurements of food insecurity (like calorie requirement) due to their definitional ambiguity of what is considered 'enough' for an individual (Paramitta, 2013). Three main transitions were observed from the evolution of the food security concept. The first is from the food availability approach to the entitlement approach. The latter acknowledges the endowments of households and activities to access food through own production, exchange, and trade (Clover, 2013; Webb, et al., 2012). The second aspect is the unit of analysis (Clover, 2013).

The units of analysis used in the food availability approach are the country (its food balance sheet) and the agricultural sector (its outputs, productivity). This lacks disaggregation and hence misleads policy intervention (Burchi & De Muro, 2012). For the food entitlement approach, the units of analysis are individuals as well as households (ACF, 2010). Above all, relevant to this study, is the shift from food first perspective to a livelihood perspective as noted by Patel, et al., (2015) and Ncube (2014). The conventional view of food security was that food is a primary

need whilst the livelihood approach emphasizes the multidimensionality of food insecurity that can be addressed in line with other outcomes. Consequently, measurements of food security shifted from objective to diverse peoples' perceptions (Degefa, 2015).

2.4.3. Dimensions of food security

The working definition of food security of FAO (2009) comprises four core dimensions: availability, access, utilization, and stability. Availability addresses the supply side of food security (FAO, 2008). Oni and Fashogbon (2012) noted that food availability involves the quantity of food the households/ regions/nations have at a point in time. It is a function of local food production, food importation, and food aid, supply factors in food production. Food access involves the ability of the nation, region, household or individual to gain access to the available food. This is thus predominantly a demand issue in food security. It comprises the economic level of the household to afford the food needed (Benedict, 2011).

Conferring the Sens' (1981) thesis, Young, et al., (2012) claimed that the root cause of food insecurity is the inability of people to gain access to food due to poverty. For instance, farm households with limited farm productivity and low cash face a challenge of acquiring food in time of food shortage though the market is with abundance. The stability of access denotes the ability of the household to have continuous access to the food source with minimal risks (Worell, 2009; Moltedo, et al., 2014). Finally, utilization is understood as the quality of food that meets the nutritional requirement for the household (Wiggins and Leturque, 2010). Thus, the quantity of food does not necessarily lead to well-nourished households; there may be malnutrition due to health care and sanitation (Young, et al., 2012; ACF, 2010).

2.4.4. Determinants of rural livelihood strategies

Studies conducted on the determinants of rural livelihood strategies reveal different factors as predictors of livelihood strategy choices. Nonetheless, common among these studies is their focus on assets, institutions, and contexts (Rahut, et al., 2014). Some of them are discussed below. Synthesizing the findings of different investigations (Obi, 2011) identified variables influencing livelihood strategy choices into individual characteristics, household characteristics and community characteristics. A comparative study conducted in Ethiopia, Kenya, and Uganda reveals that household head characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, health, and

educational status determine the livelihood strategy to be pursued. Accordingly, older household heads are more likely to pursue sedentary agricultural intensification than younger household heads. Older farmers adapt to the variable climate. Compared to women's household heads, married and male household heads are more willing to explore opportunities other than agriculture (Matsumoto, et al., 2006).

Cross-national surveys of Barrett, et al., (2011) in Africa found that human capital, as a function of education, conditions entry barriers to non-farm livelihood strategies. Hence, poor, uneducated, and women enjoy less access to remunerative livelihood strategies (Rahut and Scharf, 2012; Loison, 2015). This is in line with the study by Zakaria, et al., (2015) which explicates the disparity in engagement on various livelihood activities between male-headed and female-headed households.

For Brown, et al., (2016), geographic location, family size, farming experience, access to credit and remittances are significant variables for choosing between livelihood activities in rural Kenya.

Ellis and Freeman (2015) argued as non-farm livelihood strategies were more likely in households where the head has a relatively high level of education, family members belonged to credit and savings groups, and the household which receives remittance income that could finance non-farm activities. Rahut, et al., (2014) found that the capacity and motivation to perform non-agricultural livelihood strategies is constrained by the number of children or other dependent members. Hence, the proportion of dependent members is negatively associated with the degree of pursuing multiple livelihoods (Saha and Bahal, 2010; Amare and Belayineh, 2013). Landlessness, small landholding, and unproductive land enforce rural households to pursue livelihood strategies other than agricultural intensification (Ellis and Freeman, 2015).

Adugna (2008) revealed that rural households with more land tend to operate agricultural livelihood rather than diversifying as they draw more incentives for land productivity. Yishak, et al., (2014) and (AregaWoldeamlak&Nicolau, 2013) also claimed livestock ownership and agro ecology as significant variables associated with the differential choice of livelihood strategies.

Other determinants work with institutions that are comprehended as community variables (Matsumoto, et al., 2006). Access to extension, market, access to weather road, membership to cooperatives also predicts livelihood strategy choice. Defective infrastructure, scarce information, and poor utility services curtail engagement in rural non-farm livelihood activities. Households with better access to knowledge on new ideas and varieties as well as to market and infrastructure would be more likely to choose high-return livelihood portfolios (Miyuki, 2006; Yenesew, et al., 2015). Farming households use the social network to pool their resources and ease the task that would be difficult for a household per se. Self-help groups also free labor for other tasks Crop borrowing, labor, livestock, and land-sharing arrangements are typical of intact mutual support in rural Ethiopia. These have a paramount role in lessening chronic food insecurity (Yared, 2011; Carswell, 2012).

Ellis (2010) summarized the determinants of pursuing multiple livelihood strategies to push and pull factors. The former results from disguised agricultural employment, inadequate access to fertile land, lack of access to farm input, markets, deterioration of natural resource base and incomplete credit among others (Obi, 2011). Choice reasons for diversifying involve taking advantage of seasonal wage-earning opportunities, investing in children's education, saving to invest, and availability of growth engines like private investments (Barrett, 2011; Stifel, 2010; Loison, 2015).

2.4.5. Livelihood strategies and food security linkages.

Livelihoods strategies underpin food security (Patel, et al., 2015). The most important aspect of livelihood to understand while analyzing household food security is how people produce food by themselves, and the means of securing income to buy food from other sources (Chikopela, 2014). Strategies (agricultural or others) may lead to more or less satisfactory livelihood outcomes (food security in this study). Food insecurity is the result of unsatisfactory livelihood strategies (Clover 2013; Lovendal, et al., 2014; ACF, 2010).

If the livelihood activities of households are easily vulnerable or less adaptive to the changing situation, the ability of that household to produce for themselves or acquire food from other sources is quite challenged (Devereux, 2004; Gathiaka and Muriithi, 2013). Food production

constitutes one of the critical livelihood activities and indispensable source of food access for rural households (Matse, 2009; Sasson, 2012).

Nonetheless, if a household cannot produce enough food of its own, its income level and food availability in the market determines its ability to acquire food in sufficient quantities (Woller, 2009). This is justifiable for agrarian rural households who have gradually become a net purchaser of food and hence need cash income from diverse livelihood activities (Baiphethi and Jacobs, 2009; Loison, 2015). The problem, however, is that the poorest do not have resources either to grow an adequate quantity of food or to purchase it from the market. Their coping strategies are considerably minimal (FAO, WFP, and IFAD, 2012).

Echoing this notion, Devereux (2012) asserted that food insecurity in Ethiopia derives directly from dependence on undiversified livelihoods based on low input, low-output rain-fed agriculture. Matshe (2009) pinpointed that understanding of the structural predicaments sustaining food insecurity in African rural areas found their base in local livelihood strategies. The strategy choice results in some flows of food or cash. Consequently, poor households, whose farm activity is less productive and who have limited non-farm opportunities, are prone to food access insecurity. Now poor are potentially food insecure (Clover 2013; Gathiaka and Muriithi, 2013).

2.5. Sustainable livelihood approach

This study is guided by a sustainable livelihood approach. This is mainly due to its eclectic tendency to appraise the resource base of rural households, the way they combine their assets and pursue certain livelihood activities to achieve cherished livelihood outcomes (food security in this study). Sustainable livelihood approach looks beyond the sectoral view to addressing livelihoods of people under consideration (ACF, 2010; Morse & McNamara, 2013). Moreover, it articulates the way people perform economically, socially and environmentally viable livelihood (Krantz, 2011). Livelihoods perspective to rural life found its roots in systems approaches to sectors such as agriculture. At the core of the approach was the recognition of the ‘actors’ strength in combining what they have at hand in choosing strategies for their sustenance.

It works against the notion of poor people as powerless (Hadju, 2006; De Haan, 2012). For it is a pro-poor development tool, it was typically applied in poorer countries as a part of policy

planning, project or perhaps as a base for more in-depth research (Morse and McNamara, 2013). Livelihood approach as a poverty reduction model became the primary focus of much international development work in the 1990s and 2000s (Scoones, 2017). Theoretical roots of the sustainable livelihoods approach shifted from the nation-state orientation of prior community development efforts, which focused on modernization and political control, to advocating for the analysis of the realities of poor and marginalized people from their perspective (Arce, 2013). Sustainable livelihood approach stands on the basic premises that people draw on different livelihood resources under certain contexts. Resources are filtered through structures and processes to be employed in activities of making living. As such, the livelihood approach starts with an analysis of people's livelihoods and how these have been changing over time with basic emphasize on people and impacts of different policies on people's livelihoods (Farrington, et al., 1999; Carney & Scoones, 1998; Castalonge, 2008; Murray, 2001).

Sustainable livelihood approach has four fundamental relevance in explaining rural household food security over previous approaches: food availability, food entitlement, and basic needs approach. First, it offers long-term insight to people's livelihood, second, it acknowledges the wider context under which people perform and it gives due attention to the resilience of people in maintaining their living. Moreover, it extends beyond the narrow focus on agriculture, apprehends non-farm activities in enhancing food security. Finally, livelihoods approaches provide useful input in disaggregating national-level data giving rise to enable more sensitive and differentiated policies and interventions (Young, et al., 2012; Hussein, 2014; Burchi, & De Muro, 2012).

2.5.1. The sustainable livelihood framework and its components

Livelihood approach to addressing rural poverty is sketched through sustainable livelihood framework which is developed, and adapted by various agencies for different interventions. It presents the main factors that affect people's livelihoods and typical relationships between them (Haidar, 2009). The framework emanated from focuses on the underlying interest in food security and new interest in sustainability in peasant studies of the 1980s. It is a useful analytical instrument that provides researches an insight to depart from where the people are living and what they are doing to sustain life (Castalonge, 2008; Scoones, 2009). UNDP, CARE, DFID, and OXFAM are among the main agencies which employ the livelihood framework (Hussein, 2002).

All frameworks base their landmark on the definition of Chambers and Conway (1991) and hence incorporate the fundamental elements of livelihood: assets, capabilities, and activities for making living. However, a slight difference could be noted based on household endowments and micro-macro level interplay which affects the performance of rural livelihoods. DFID is the most widely used framework for analyzing sustainable rural livelihoods (Bennett, 2010).

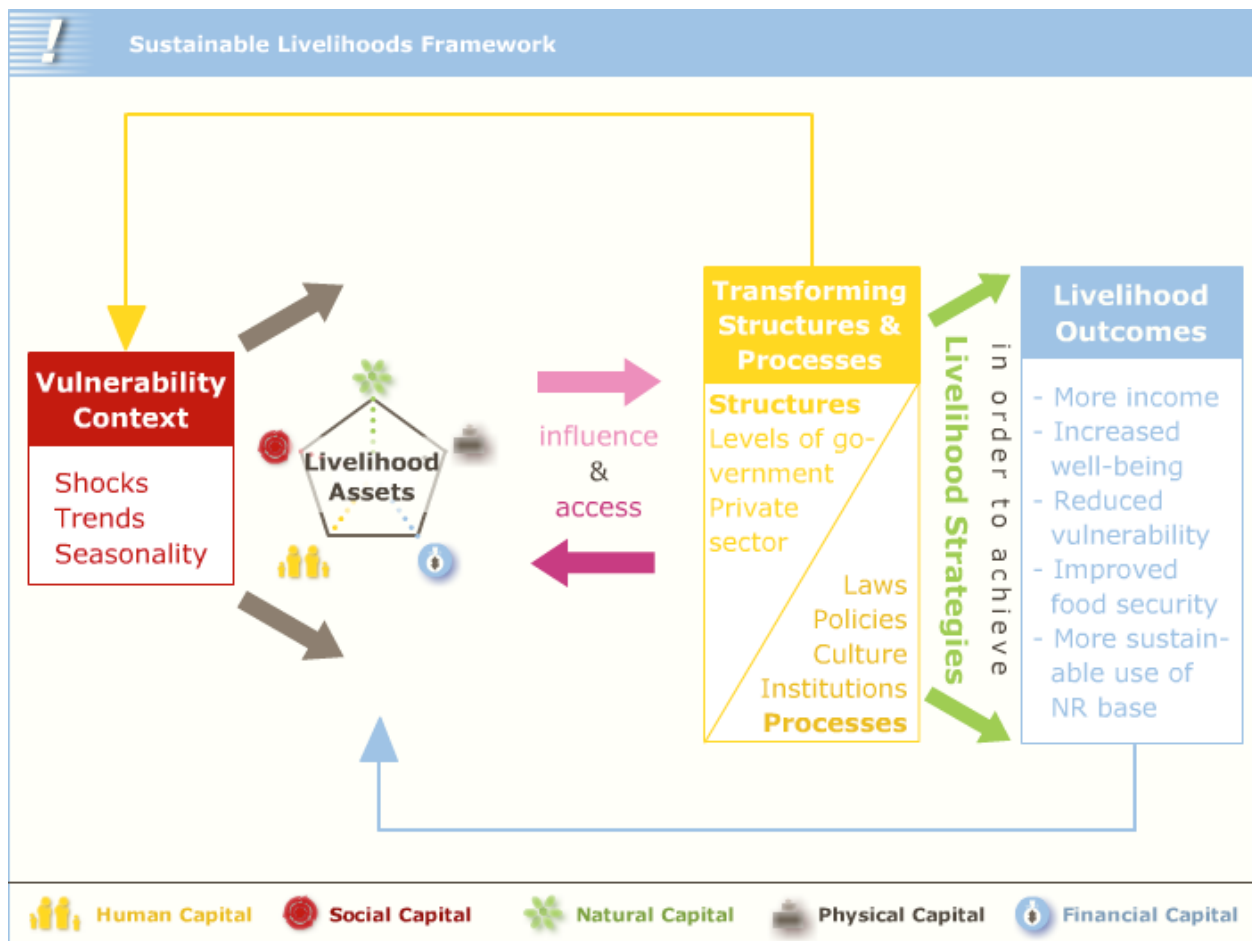


Figure 2.1. Sustainable livelihoods framework (Source: Farrington et al. 2000)

2.5.2. Components of the sustainable livelihood framework

Assets

Central to the framework is a pentagon of livelihood assets or capitals that can be utilized for achieving desirable outcomes, reducing the vulnerability of households (Farrington, et al., 1999). These are resources, combined by households to make living possible (Hadju, 2006). The shape of the pentagon depicts variation in people's access and contribution from a different dimension

of resources to a livelihood of household (DFID, 2000). Analysis of assets in the rural livelihood, therefore, needs to examine the functions of different asset types held by the poor who undertake different livelihood strategies (Dorward, et al., 2001; Arce, 2013).

Different scholars used different connotation of what constitute resources for rural households (Ellis, 2010). As drawn from the DFID framework, five capitals are identified as the major assets. These are natural, social, human, financial and physical capital. Natural capital represents capitals from which ecological services flows and resource useful for livelihoods are derived. It includes land, water, wildlife, biodiversity or environmental resources. Physical capital comprises basic infrastructure (transport, shelter, water, energy and communications), production equipment and means which enable people to pursue their livelihoods (DFID, 2000). Physical assets make the interface between natural capital and livelihood strategies of rural people possible; it allows human beings to work with their environment. Human capital involves skills, knowledge, and ability to labor and good health important to the ability to pursue different livelihood strategies (Krantz, 2011). It constitutes the capability of individuals to pursue their livelihood strategies. The financial resources which are available to people (whether savings, supplies of credit or regular remittances or pensions) and which provide them with different livelihood options make up financial capital. Finally, Social capital denotes the social resources (networks, membership of groups, relationships of trust, access to wider institutions of society) upon which people draw in pursuit of livelihoods (Farrington, et. al., 1999; Bennett, 2010). While most of these assets are considered in terms of the household, they exist under the wider context which necessitates the mediating factors that promote access and utilization (Morse and McNamara, 2013). Resources can be destroyed or shaped by trends or shocks (Haidar, 2009).

Vulnerability context

Livelihoods are complex and changing and hence confront different risks. Risk factors that surround livelihoods are referred to as the vulnerability context. Vulnerability denotes proneness to a sudden, catastrophic, or fall in the level of living. It manifests as seasonality, sudden shocks, and trends that grapple the consumption smoothing of households. Vulnerable households live in the poverty trap (Løvendal, et al., 2014; Ellis & Freeman, 2015; Young, et al., 2012). Vulnerability context frames the external environment in which people make living. Shocks (economic, health, natural El Nino, conflict) can destroy assets directly (Kassa, 2015;

Defferew,2011; Gutu, et al., 2012). Seasonal shifts in prices, employment opportunities, and food availability are the most enduring sources of hardship for rural poor. Other factors involve governance and technological trends (DFID, 2000). The impacts of vulnerability to shocks vary. Drought, for example, impacts natural capital and in turn reduces crop yields. Population mobility in and out of a household or a community affects the level and intensity of social networks. Demographic trends also imply landholding and fragmentation (Morse and McNamara, 2013). For rural households, changes in a resource like land affect agricultural livelihood activities. Nonetheless, the sensitivity of different livelihoods to shocks is not even.

Mediating factors: Transforming structures, policies and institutions

Transforming structures and processes within the livelihoods framework are institutions, organizations, policies, and legislations that shape livelihoods. They mediate rural household's access to and control over resources (DFID, 2000; Degefa, 2009). Local and national structures arrange access to resources for people to engage in fruitful livelihood activities (Scoones, 1998). For a particular rural household, the land tenure system, availability and functioning centers of technology, social services providing structures, participatory decision-making systems constitute a bridge through which household secure access to resources which are considered vital for livelihood.

Uncertain market environment that is noted with fluctuations in producer prices, high input prices, and poor input supply constraints farming activities and investments (winters, Corral &Gordillo, 2001). Rural land administration, rural employment directions, the functional linkages between rural households to the administrative agencies, and agricultural extension are also relevant transforming structures and policies under which rural livelihoods operates (Morris, et al., 2002). Lack of appropriate credit provision system enforces smallholders to pursue pervasive agricultural intensification/extensification and hence encroach onto marginal lands. In the same vein, misguided land management, at the local level, results in the informal land transfer which leads to landlessness and hence pushes agrarian households to look for low return activities in the non-farm sector.

Livelihood strategies

Ellis (2000) referred to livelihood strategies as composed of activities that generate the means of household survival and are planned activities that men and women undertake to build their livelihood. They include productive activities, investment strategies and reproductive choices (Alionovi, et al., 2010; Haidar, 2009). The choice of livelihood strategies depends on access to assets, policies, institutions, and processes that govern resource utilization to achieve positive livelihood outcomes (Scoones, 1998). Since assets and accesses are unevenly distributed among households, livelihoods portfolio of households within the certain locality are various (Dorward, et al., 2001). Many differences appear among those who are seemingly practicing the same livelihood strategy.

Households with similar capital endowments may pursue different livelihood strategies because of different preferences, objectives, constraints, and incentives attached to certain livelihood activities (Levine, 2014). Therefore, besides asset endowments of households, the means through which households derive a livelihood from a particular combination of on-farm and off-farm activities are the more relevant criterion to understand poverty and resource use (Miyuki, 2006).

Livelihood outcomes

Households pursue certain livelihood activities to reduce vulnerability. Hence, the outcome of sustainable livelihood is beyond material needs (Haidar, 2009). The outcomes of livelihood strategies include, but not limited to, increased income, more income, increased wellbeing, reduced vulnerability, improved food security, and more sustainable use of natural resource base (DFID, 2000; Krantz, 2011; Scoones, 1998; Bennett, 2010). These outcomes may be invested back on assets. For instance, increased income boosts financial stock (Castalonge, 2008). Livelihood outcomes are difficult to grasp and are not necessarily coherent. Yet, food insecurity is a core dimension of the vulnerability of livelihoods (Walton, 2012). This underlies the basic reason for which this study focuses on one outcome, food security, but implicitly tied to other positive outcomes. Fulfillment in other outcomes may not necessarily address household food security.

2.6. Typologies of rural livelihood strategies

Of the attributes of nowadays rural livelihoods are the presences of diverse livelihood activities, unlike the conventional notion that posits rural way of life as entirely agrarian. Bifurcation of rural livelihood strategies has been done by different researchers over time (Zerihun, 2012). Dominant classification is that can be made between agriculture (livestock and crop production), off-farm strategies (wage employment on others' farm) and non-farm (nonagricultural livelihood strategies wage employment outside agriculture, self-employment, property income, and remittances).

Some studies used an asset-based approach to cluster households based on livelihood strategies and use the resulting strategy specific income distribution to test differences in welfare among identified livelihood strategies (Stifel, 2010; Barrett, et al., 2001; Ellis and Freeman, 2015). Income, however, is an unstable indicator of livelihood strategy. Rural households who have lost their production may have zero or negative income, but still, they are agrarian (Alinovi, et al., 2010).

For Scoone (1998), agricultural intensification/extensification, livelihood diversification, and migration are the three livelihood strategies identified based on assets needed. Agricultural intensification involves an increased output (per fixed unit of land) due to the frequency of cultivation, an increase in labor inputs or a change in technologies. Contrarily, extensification represents a situation under which households bring more land into cultivation. It is a typical factor for agricultural growth in SSA (Mkhize, 2009; Loison, 2015). Morris, et al. (2012) argued that households' choice between these strategies depends on agro-ecological potential, labor, and capital. Alternatively, households spread their living across a range of livelihood activities pursued, as an integral part of livelihood strategies. This may involve moving away from rural areas (Ellis, 2010). Migration involves generating living across geographical settings. It depends on the economic and social resources of the destination and the original residence of people. Returns of migration imply the asset and welfare status of the base households left behind (Djurfeldt, 2015).

Livelihood strategies can also be accumulative and coping strategies based on their goals. Accumulative strategies involve activities to augment or transform the asset base while coping

strategies comprise undertakings to ensure survival. For poor rural households whose agricultural livelihood is not strong to rely on, borrowing food, charcoal production, straddling between the urban and rural interface are of critical means to ensure living in Ethiopia (Suneetha&Solomon, 2012). Paramitta (2013) found that households, whose land is expropriated under forced eviction, involuntarily engage in livelihood activities as a coping or necessity induced life making.

According to Bennett (2010) livelihood strategies of rural households involve the two broad categorizations: natural resource-based (gathering, food cultivation, and livestock keeping) and non-natural resource-based (nonagricultural activities like rural trade, rent income, wage employment, transfer, and service). This is the classification of strategies by sector (Loison, 2015). Classifications reviewed so far show the context relativity of livelihood strategy grouping. The study at hand follows the classification of strategies by sector to better depict the determinants and tradeoffs between agricultural and nonagricultural concerning contributing to household food security.

2.6.1. Measuring food security outcome

Attributed to its multidimensional and multi-component nature, food security remains a tricky concept to measure. As a result, suites of indicators were proposed and adopted over time within different contexts (Ballard, Kepple&Cafiero, 2013). Dietary energy supply (DES), household and individual level of energy intake, household dietary diversity (Hoddinott&Yohannes, 2012) experience-based household food security measurement (Coates, et al., 2014) and anthropometry are among the dominant measures of food security (Kirkland, et al., 2011).

Dietary based measurements (either nationally or at household level), inclined to the food availability or supply dimension of food security. These measures focus on household food expenditures and calorie intake. Hence, households' dietary level is measured against objectively set threshold measurements. It involves converting household food consumption into calories and averaging out the household-level figure. FAO's (2010) populations' average energy requirement of 2200 kilocalorie/capita/day obeys this measurement (Walton, 2012; Gathiaka&Muriithi, 2013). Though these measures are relevant, if done carefully, in examining the idiosyncratic level of consumption in detail, they are indirect measures and thus result in misclassification of households into food security levels. Objective measures overlook cross-

cultural variation among people and assume ideal food distribution in the market economy (Deitchler, et al., 2010; Burchi & De Muro, 2012).

Moreover, dietary and expenditure measures incline to nutrition security which is the resultant state of food security (Oni and Fashogbon, 2012; Moltedo, et al., 2014). Experience based food security measurement embraced by Household food insecurity access scale (HFIAS) was developed by Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance (FANTA) in 2006 against nutritional indicators of household (malnutrition and food consumption) (Coates, Webb & Houser, 2003). HFIAS is drawn on subjective (self-reported behaviors) of households.

Household food insecurity access (HFIAS) is measured using validated Household Food Insecurity Access Scale Version 3 (Coates, Swindale and Bilinsky, 2014). HFIAS incorporates three fundamental components: uncertainty and anxiety over food, perceptions that food is of insufficient quantity and quality, and reported reduction of food intake due to lack of resources (Swindale and Bilinsky, 2014; Gathiaka & Muriithi, 2013). HFIAS questions were culturally adapted to include local examples. Results of HFIAS were substantively used in the context of resource-poor developing countries like Uganda, Burkina Faso, Bangladesh, Kenya, Zimbabwe, Mali and South Africa (Walton, 2012; Coates, Webb & Houser, 2003; Webb, et al., 2006; Kirkland, et al., 2011). As a result, questions involved can be added to a standard baseline and final household survey and adapted to the purpose of the study (Deitchler, et al., 2010).

In Ethiopia, cross-sectional studies in urban and rural villages in southern Ethiopia found that HFIAS is a valid tool to capture household food insecurity access. Researchers translated the scale into the local language, tested face validity, internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha and factor analysis, tested for parallelism on HFIAS item response curves across wealth status using two rounds of data collection (Seifu, et al., 2015). The HFIA questionnaire was used in this study to assess the level of food security and compare food insecurity among livelihood different groups.

2.6.2. The political economy of small holder agriculture and food security in Ethiopia

Scoones (2017) suggested a more detail understanding of the local livelihood with due attention to power, politics and the governance context of people. The following few paragraphs note on policies, actors, and outcomes of development paths in the agriculture of Ethiopia. Smallholder

agriculture is widely acknowledged by agricultural development led industrialization (ADLI) relative to the monarchical and military regime. With a large rural population, the labor-intensive approach is presumed relevant in Ethiopia while gradual technology domestication is cherished. The assumption behind is forward (raw material) and backward (farm input) linkage that will benefit the large majority and transform agriculture to the deemed point, industry.

Agriculture is promised to address food insecurity and poverty at large. State ownership of land was assumed as restricting the emergence of class differentiation among peasantry (MoFED, 2002; Dessalegn, 2009). However, with small per capita landholding, the sector failed to shoulder the onus of transforming the economy. Subsistence production precludes the forward linkage while poor domestic production of fertilizer curtailing backward linkage. The most dramatic evidence of ADLI's failure thus far is persistent food insecurity in many rural areas and reliance on food aid over time ADLI (Lavers, 2012). Added to this is the recent land transfer for investors as a way of complementing smallholder farming but which opens up competition over resources than ameliorating the condition of rural poor (Kassahun, 2012). Subsequent national development programs from the early 2000s depend on ADLI strategy (MoFED, 2005). The government's efforts of reducing food insecurity through smallholder farming and the need to maximize investment are however not complementary rather bring about the coexistence of dual agents with the limited interface. The availability of large labor and land potential attracts investors. However, diversion of scarce land from food production may have a less-than-desired impact of surmounting food insecurity. While large investments increase the productivity of uncultivable land, develop public infrastructure, and create employment, they are far from automatic. The government is silent on power-imbalances between large multinational economic actors and poor, often illiterate peasant farmers (Aabo and Kring, 2012).

Lavers (2012) further argued a compromise between political and economic priorities. The first maintains the politically-sensitive smallholder sector in the highlands, through redoubling efforts to increase cereal productivity while the second has to do with maximizing the return from large investment (MoFED, 2005). Though the assumption is that the land to be used by investors is seen as 'marginal, low land' in practice it is not. In doing so, the original aim of ADLI is lost in favor of trade; it results in shielded elite investors from uplifting their profits at the expense of farmers' resources. With long spikes in food prices and large food insecure people, the policy

prioritizing currency then to address food is far from its goal, even in leading nations of neo-liberalism(Lavers, 2012).

Damaging the food security efforts, incomes, livelihoods, and environment for local people is mounting with the land acquisition (Moges, 2010; De Zoysa, 2013; Haggblade and Hazell, 2010). Another key issue is displacement. Separating farmers from their land without simultaneously creating opportunities in the nonfarm sector is likely to aggravate poverty, unemployment and food insecurity. The nature of investments claiming more land in Ethiopia is neither food-producing so that they at least ease the food aid dependency nor payback to agriculture to survive (OXFAM, 2011). Conclusively, the low performance of agrarian livelihood and resultant food insecurity is not confined to capitals and natural vulnerabilities (Kamara&Brixiova, 2010). Now day's predicaments to assure secure livelihood are attributed to institutions and powers (Mkhize, 2009; Tsegaye, 2012).

2.7. Conceptual framework

Based on the main objective initiating the study and empirical works reviewed, the conceptual framework was developed. The framework is constructed on the components and linkages established among the variables in the literature reviewed. Figure 2.2 portrays that rural households make their livelihood by combining assets accessed through different mediating factors. The nature of land administration, the performance of the market and social service affects the resource access and asset development which in turn influence livelihoods.

The resultant livelihood strategies can be agricultural or not. Based on their activities, some produce their food for themselves while others rely on purchase. These strategies determine food access security at the household level. Social networks can also directly affect food access. This can be through food transfers that support households to fill their food needs gap in time of shortage. Agrarian households combine their assets under natural vagaries which have paramount effects on livelihood strategy choices. Erratic rainfalls directly devastate crops and thus curtail food availability.

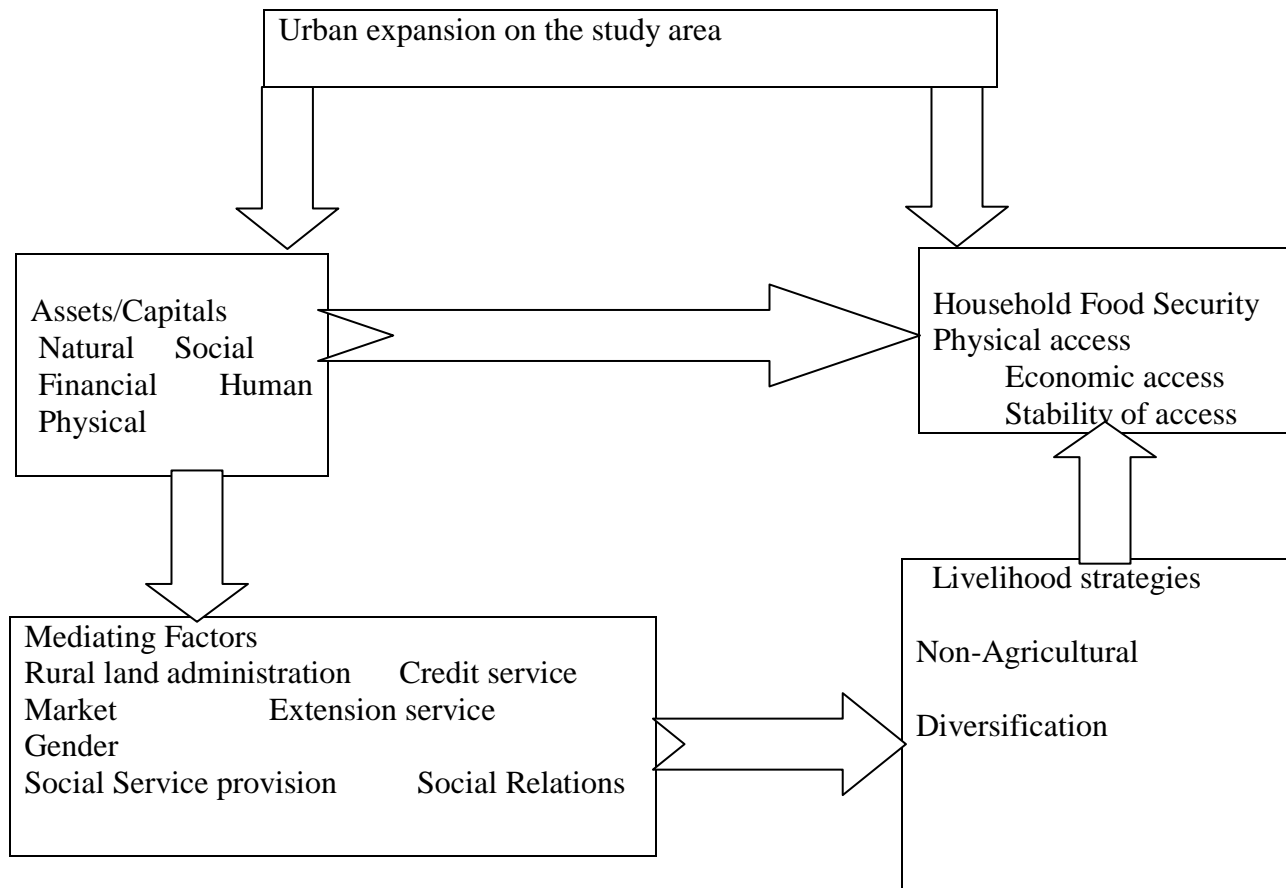


Figure 2.2. Conceptual framework of the study (own construct, 2019)

2.8. Effects of urban expansion on the farmers in the peri-urban area

Long lists of pieces of evidence from Ethiopian and abroad scholars stated that urban expansion has many positive and negative effects on farmers in the peri-urban areas. Urban growth as a center of the market area, center for production and distribution of goods and services, and opportunity for access to employment are among the positive effects of urban expansion. The negative consequences of urban expansion are loss of prime agricultural farmland, displacement of farm communities, solid waste disposal, and land radiation, enclosing surrounding rural land to the urban territory, overexploitation of natural resources, conflict, etc.

2.8.1. Positive roles of urban expansion

Urban centers have a positive role/impact on the development of their surrounding peri-urban areas in different ways. The following are the major ones:

Center of market area: Surrounding area of urban centers are mostly engaged in agricultural production either for local consumers or as links to national and export markets, urban centers act as access to market which is the pre-requisite to increasing rural agricultural incomes and proximity also contributes to minimizing the risks of perishable products to produce timely to market areas and to get affordable transportation (Satterthwaite&Tacoli, 2004).

Center for Production and distribution of goods and services: People who reside in urban centers have the chance to get different social services. According to Tegegn (1998) people who live surrounding urban centers have possible access to both private and public services such as health, education, banking, postal& telephone and services of different professionals (lawyers) and private services like wholesale and retail, sales of manufactured goods.

Access to employment: People who live around urban centers, because of their proximity have better access to employment and modern way of living than those who far rural dwellers because urban centers create employment opportunities through the development of small and micro enterprises and cooperatives (Kamete&Tvedten (2006).

2.8.2. Negative effects of urban expansion

It is estimated that by 2025, the World's, African's, and Ethiopian's Population rate will reach 58%, 52%, and 32% respectively (Webster, R.D, 2005). The reason for an optimistic prediction towards the urbanization growth is that it will have the following negative effects of urban expanding on their peri-urban areas.

Loss of farmland: uneven urban expansion will occupy considerable valuable farmland around urban centers, which causes to sensitive contradiction and conflicts with the farmers who are displaced from their farmland (Dayong, 2004). He also argues that as urban centers expand by occupying fertile farmland, displacing farmers face a reduced amount of production and number of family farmers and move to the nearby urban centers. Especially, households who displaced from their farmland with large family size, not well educated and people without basic qualifications or skills will be exposed to unemployment and poverty (food insecure) (Solomon, 2006).

Unjust Compensation: Even if households who are evicted from farmland have a right to get appropriate compensation for their overall distressed or taken the property, most of the compensations are not satisfactory and much with what they lost because of urban expansion. Compensation must be prompt, adequate and effective, which means that it should reflect the full value of the expropriated property and it must be handed over within a reasonable period after the expropriation (Hull, 1938). Supporting Hull's idea Treeger (2004) argued that evicted households should get their compensation within the appropriate time, but, if the government or the competent authority has failed to do so based on standards, interest should be paid.

Enclosed surrounding villages to urban territory: Tostenen&Tvedten (2002) stated that expansion is one of the causes/effects of population growth of urban centers. According to them, about 10-15% percent of urban growth of the developing world stems from boundary expansion or change while their livelihood style is based on agriculture which is not the core issue of the urban center's administration unit.

Over-exploitation of natural resources: According to Granahan, Satterthwaite, & Tacoli (2004), rapid urbanization leads to overexploitation of renewable and non-renewable resources of their peri-urban areas (especially, land). Because people who live in urban areas have varied and different consumption patterns than those who live in peri-urban areas. For instance finding by Kamete, Tostenen&Tvedten (2002) show that the urban center takes up 2% of the earth's surface but consumes 75% of the world's resources and in turn, this results in overexploitation of resources of the peri-urban areas and finally degradation and environmental pollution.

Causes conflict: In addition to the exploitation of natural resources currently, urbanization causes enormous conflicts associated with land acquisition (Tegegn& Solomon (2006)). The most sources of conflict are found at the borders of the urban and rural, common and private, smallholder and investors land. In Ethiopia, the peri-urban land use is changing rapidly from rural agricultural use to other urban activities such as industry, commerce, housing, infrastructure, and other services. Thus, transferring of the farmlands from rural to urban land use is increasing from time to time through land acquisition. Such kind of transfer has been the source of an increasing number of land conflicts (Kanji, 2005).

2.9. Coping strategies related to household food insecurity

Coping strategies are livelihood strategies used when there are suffering and stress on livelihoods (De Haan, 2006).

Maxwell, et al., (2003) divide coping strategies into two basic categories which can be practiced to improve food security and sustainable livelihoods. The first is the immediate and short-term alteration of consumption patterns. The other includes the long-term alteration of income-earning or food production patterns, and one of the responses could be selling off assets. When there is an emergency, knowledge of both the long and short term livelihood strategies are important, as short term consumption strategies are precise criteria to measure acute food insecurity only. Maxwell, et al., (2003) determined typically four types of consumption coping strategies for households with food insecurity. These include:

Switch food consumption from preferred foods to cheaper, less preferred substitutes, increase food supplies using short term strategies that are not sustainable over a long period, typical examples include borrowing, or purchasing on credit and more extreme examples are begging or consuming wild foods, immature crops, or even seed stocks, reduce the number of people that they have to feed by sending some of them elsewhere (sending the kids to the neighbor's house when those neighbors are eating) and rationing the available food to the household members (cutting portion size or the number of meals, favoring certain household members over other members, or skipping whole days without eating),

The household's coping mechanisms make a sequence of strategies starting from "risk minimization"; activities including asset accumulation, saving and income diversification to "risk absorption"; and finally to "risk-taking" (Webb & Braun 2012; Bedeke, 2012).

CHAPTER THREE

STUDY AREA AND THE RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter discusses the methodological underpinnings through which the objective of the inquiry was achieved. It incorporates the setting of the research and methods employed. Accordingly, sections that follow describe the study population, research approaches, methods and instruments of data collection, sample and sampling techniques, source and types of data, and methods of data analysis.

3.1. Description of the study area

3.1.1. Location

The study was conducted in Dejen town located in east gojjam zone of the Amhara region on the edge of the canyon of the Abay. Dejen town was located 229 kilometer North-West of Addis Ababa, 320 kilometer South West of BahirDare capital of Amhara region and 68 kilometers from DebreMarkose zone capital of East Gojjam zone.

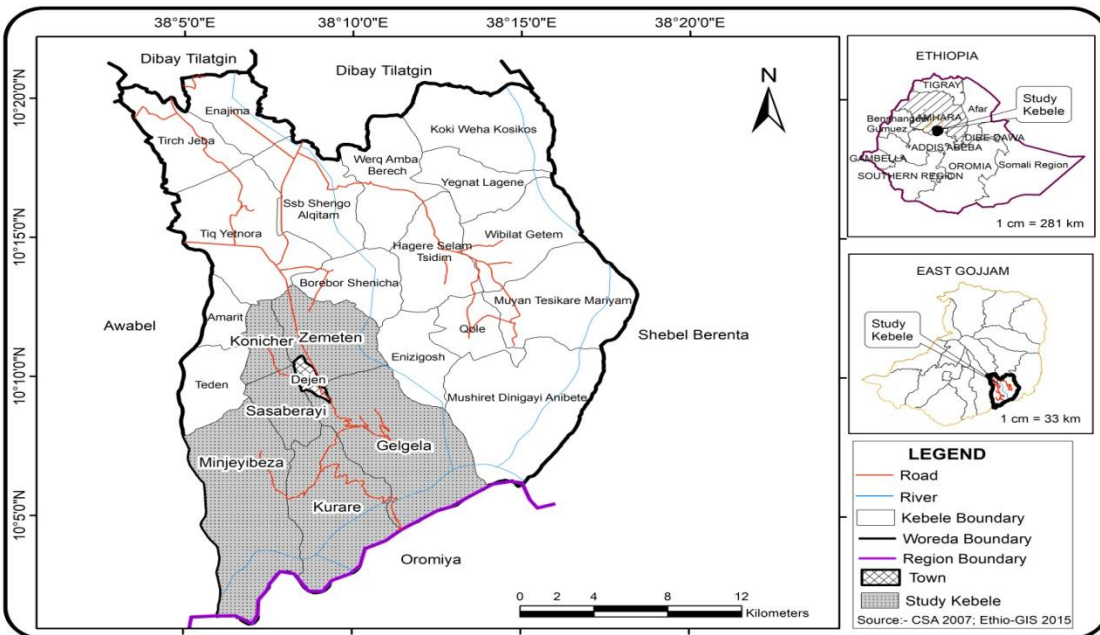


Figure 3.1: Map of the study area

Latitudinal, it is located between $10^{\circ} 10' N$ $38^{\circ} 8' E$ and an elevation between 2,421 and 2,490 meters above sea level (Dejen municipality office, 2011). The *woreda* is divided into 21 *kebeles*, where 19 of them are rural *kebeles* and two urban administration unit (DTM, 2011).

3.1.2. Biophysical profile of Dejen

3.1.2.1. Soil and land use of the study site

The soil conditions of the study area is characterized by loamy clay soil which is very suitable especially for high land crops like wheat, barley, teff, beans, peas, and some part for chickpeas that is why the study area is relatively highly populated by suburb farming populations (DTLAO,2011).

3.1.2.2. The study area urban expansion situation

According to the processed data I get from Dejentown land administration office The total area of the city is about 620.97 km² out of this land, up to 2005.E.C only 15.7% of the land was used for legal settlement but recently only unsuitable mountainous areas for construction are of remaining which accounts totally 2.53 km² the rest of the land is already used for horizontal urban expansion .So those suburban people who are evicted due to these processes are becoming urban dwellers and part of them are migrating to other areas for sustaining their livelihood situation.(DTLAO, 2011).

3.1.2.3. Climatic conditions

According to the woreda level experts, Dejenworeda gets most of the rainfall in summer season (June, July and August); winter (December, January and February) is the driest season. In general, it can be said that the woreda has adequate rainfall distribution. Thus it is conducive for different types of vegetation growth and agricultural activities. The two important rainy season lies between the periods from mid-March to the end of April (spring rain) and between the periods from mid- June to mid-September (summer rain).

Table 3.1: Long-term annual and season average total rainfall of Dejenworeda (2010-2018/19)

Seasons	Average total rainfall in mm	%
Autumn (September, October, November)	184.43	13.8
Winter(December, January& February)	26.53	1.9
Spring(March, April & May)	172.88	12.9
Summer(June, July& August)	956.54	71.4
Total annual	1,340.38	100.0

Source: Computed based on grid meteorological raw data from NMA

The long-term grid meteorological data (2010-2018/19) obtained from NMA of Ethiopia indicates that the area gets most of the rainfall amount (71.4%) in summer. The long-term annual total rainfall is computed to be 1,340.38mm, the rainiest season being June, July and August. The *woreda* gets 13.8% of the rainfall in autumn, while 12.9% in spring. According to the Dejen town administration integrated land information center evidence the maximum and minimum average temperature of the study area is 220c and 100c respectively.

3.1.3. Demographic and socio-economic profile of Dejen

3.1.3.1. Demography of Dejen

Dejen *woreda* is densely populated. According to the population projection value of CSA (2013) at zonal and *woreda* levels, the total population of Dejen *woreda* in 2017 was 123,373 of which 59,514(48.24%) were males and the remaining 63,859(51.76%) females. Of the total population 108,215(87.71%) were living in rural areas of the *woreda* their livelihoods being almost entirely dependent on agriculture. The remaining 15,158(12.29%) were live in the town. With this figure, the population density of the *woreda* is computed to be 164.84, which is greater than the Zone average of 153.8 persons per square kilometer. The largest ethnic group reported in Dejen was the Amhara (99.87%), while the remaining (0.13%) were peoples from other ethnic groups such as, Oromo and tigri. The majority of the inhabitants practiced Ethiopian Orthodox Christianity, with 94.83% reporting that as their religion, while 5.17% were Muslim. As part of population projection preparation, a social impact assessment was conducted by World Vision Ethiopia in the concerned *woreda* which provided specific information about the communities' socio economic conditions, vulnerability and other characteristics.

3.1.3.2. Socioeconomic profile of Dejen

According to several socioeconomic indicators and parameters services and infrastructural facilities in Dejen town are far below the level of the actual requirements. Because of its location, 229 km away from Addis Ababa, it lags behind many other federal, regional towns in economic and infrastructural development, including a severe shortage of trained personnel in development management, inadequate provision of roads, educational and health facilities, and low-level socio-economic development. In Dejen town the major economic activities are mainly related to Agricultural production/farming, selling and buying agricultural products and retail

trade of consumable goods. The major cereals cultivated in Dejen are teff, barley, wheat, bean, and pea. The commercial activity in Dejen is mainly concentrated in the retail trade of goods which are carried in shops and the open market areas. There is one government-owned Bank, the Commercial Bank of Ethiopia and private banks such as Abay and Abyssinia banks. There are also hotels, restaurants, and bars in the various parts of the town.

3.2 Research methods

3.2.1. Research Design and approaches

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative/mixed approach specifically descriptive design was employed to achieve the research objectives. The qualitative research approach is most important to evaluate the nuance of many social phenomena from the standpoint of participants (Mason, 2002). On the other hand, statistics and numbers play an important role in providing relevant and reliable information for making rational decisions in the research study (Dawson, 2003).

Further, Tashakkori&Teddlie (2003) explained that a mixed approach helps to test the consistency of findings obtained through different forms of data collection and it also allows the researcher to use qualitative methods to add detail to the results obtained from the use of quantitative methods. Descriptive research design is the best and appropriate method to gather, analyze and interpret data related with displaced farmers livelihood situation, food security status and coping mechanisms by using number and words, due to fact that the main objective of this study is to examine the effect of urban expansion on livelihood situation and food security status of displaced households in the study area.

3.2.2. Justification for study site selection

Dejenworeda or town was selected based on the researcher past observation and experience about the expansion of the town, the woreda expands its town coverage to the peri-urban farming areas in a very fast rate and there are high numbers of the evicted household farming community who lives around the town and lead their life through farming. Even if the problem (urban expansion) is affecting the overall livelihood of households who are evicted, there is no research finding specifically in this town, which motivated the current study.

3.2.3. Study participants

The participants of the study are the peri-urban communities around Dejen town, government officials and evicted households who live in Dejen town. Based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria, the researcher selected participants from the target population. Among the inclusion criteria; those evicted households from seven kebeles due to urban expansion and those who are government officials, such as municipality workers who participated in urban expansion policy. While those who are not evicted due to urban expansion and those who live away from the peri-urban rural kebeles to which the urban expansion is not relaxed have not participated. The participants of the study are the peri-urban communities around Dejen town, government officials and evicted households who live in Dejen town. Based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria, the researcher selected participants from the target population. Among the inclusion criteria; those evicted households from seven kebeles due to urban expansion and those who are government officials, such as municipality workers who participated in urban expansion policy. While those who are not evicted due to urban expansion and those who live away from the peri-urban rural kebeles to which the urban expansion is not relaxed have not participated.

3.2.4. Sample and sampling technique

In this study, non-probability sampling was employed. Specifically, the availability sampling technique was applied to select samples from the target population (those displaced households around Dejen Town). The researcher followed some procedures for sample selection: First, the researcher tries to identify the total number of displaced households from woreda administration, but there is no real data about the number of evicted households as data from woreda shows.

The data in the woreda roughly shows simply six kebele households were displaced; there is no registered document about the number and name list of those displaced households in the kebele. Because of the unknown number of target population the researcher addressed only 148 available samples from the target population of the study. Due to this fact, the availability sampling technique was employed.

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3.2.5. Data source, data collection method, and instrument

A preliminary field assessment was conducted on the study area, and it was after this brief visit that the data collection instrument was selected. Following this, actual primary data collection was also made in February and March 2019. To collect appropriate data for the study both primary and secondary data collection method was employed for the study.

3.2.5.1. Household survey

Here questionnaire was prepared based on research objectives and administered to the displaced households. The questionnaires have both the Amharic and English version and the Amharic version questionnaire was distributed for those displaced households who can read, write and understand and they fill the questionnaire and return, while for those displaced households who can't read and write the researcher himself read and fill the response of the respondents. Here 148 questionnaires were administered. Information about household demographics, extent and types of livelihood, issue of food security and the issue of compensation and compliance as well as the issue of coping mechanisms was collected through a household survey.

3.2.5.2. In-depth interview

Here interviewees were deliberately selected from displaced peri-urban individuals believed to have comprehensive knowledge about the area and the situation in which the study was done. The interviewees have displaced household heads. Efforts were done to include the different spectrum of views from different individuals of different levels. The interview was conducted by the researcher based on a pre-designed checklist. Information about food security, the effect of displacement on agricultural production, the effect of displacement on kinship relation of the displaced farmers and implication of urban expansion on community social fabrics were collected through in-depth interviews. Here a total of six in-depth interviews were conducted with the displaced peri-urban communities.

3.2.5.3. Secondary data collection

Secondary data were collected through document analysis from Woreda and kebele administration. The major sources of data were reports, plans, and publications of various government departments and non-governmental organizations.

3.2.5.4. Data sources

The sources of data for this research were both primary and secondary data sources. The primary data sources are selected households of evicted farmers, woreda and kebele government officials who have treated through questionnaires and in-depth interviews in the target local communities, while the secondary data sources were published and unpublished sources.

3.2.6. Data analysis

The data which are collected through questionnaire were analyzed by using descriptive statistics such as percentage, frequency, and table. The data obtained through the in-depth interviews from government officials and community members selected from the peri-urban evicted households were analyzed qualitatively. Concerning the data gathered from the household surveys, the researcher checked every completed questionnaire on the same day. The pre-coded questionnaires entered and analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 21.0. Descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentage were applied to examine the relationship and associations between variables.

a) Food security analysis technique

Investigating the food security status of a community can be a very complex analysis that needs to be treated with a combination of different cross-sectional and longitudinal techniques (Maxwell et. al., 2003). This is mainly because food security, the food security issue is characterized by multifaceted and intertwined issues such as natural resource base, availability, and access and consumption pattern. In this thesis, the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) was used to see the access component of food security. HFIAS has selected due to the reason that this technique is vital to measure the problem of food insecurity out of the fasting day of the displaced farmers and due to it is essential to measure the individual behaviors of the households.

b) Coping strategies analysis technique

Maxwell, et al. (2003) divide coping strategies into two basic categories which can be practiced to improve food security and sustainable livelihoods. The first is the immediate and short-term alteration of consumption patterns. The other includes the long-term alteration of income-earning or food production patterns, and one of the responses could be selling off assets. In this thesis, the coping strategy index (CSI) was used. It is a tool that measures what people do when they cannot access enough food. It is a series of questions about how households manage to cope with a shortfall in food for consumption. This technique was selected due to it is the best technique for seeing the way of handling the food security problem by the displaced farmers.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Demographic characteristics of study participants

The demographic characteristics of the study participant are collected through a household survey. The major demographic variables consisted of age, sex, educational level, marital status, and family size of the sample respondent households were presented below.

Table 4.1 below shows that among the total number of participants 79 (53.4%) are males and 69(46.6%) are females. Here the name male and female did not indicate male household headed and female household headed, rather show the gender of the participant who completes a questionnaire by representing household. Regarding marital status 136(91.9%) of the participants are married, while the rest 12 (8.1%) of the respondents were not married. In terms of Age distribution, most 55(37.2%) of the respondents are under 31-40 age category, 38(25.7%), 28 (18.9) and 27(18.2) respondents were found in the age category of 41-50, 21-30 and above 50 age categories respectively.

Concerning educational background, approximately half 72(48.6%)of respondents were illiterate 51(34.5%) of participant are those who can read and write, 12(8.1%), 11(7.4%) and 2(1.4%)are those who attained grade-level 1-8, Grade Level 9-12 and who have certificate respectively. This implies that most of the peri-urban farming community whose land has been expropriated and thus their livelihood has been affected attributed to horizontal urban expansion have no educational qualifications by which they can be able to secure their alternative livelihood after eviction. In terms of the respondents' household size more than half 115 (77.7%) of respondents have family size of 1-4, 30(20.3%) and 3(2.03%) have 5-7 and above 7 household family size respectively.

Table 4.1: Demographic characteristics of sample participants

Variable	Group	No of participant	%
Sex	Female	69	46.6
	Male	79	53.4
	Total	148	100
Marital status	Married	136	91.9
	Not married	12	8.1
	Total	148	100
Age	21-30	28	18.9
	31-40	55	37.2
	41-50	38	25.7
	Above 51	27	18.2
	Total	148	100
Education level	Illiterate	72	48.6
	Read and write	51	34.5
	Grade1-8	11	7.4
	Grade9-12	12	8.1
	Certificate	2	1.4
	Total	148	100
Household size	1-4	115	77.7
	5-7	30	20.3
	Above 7	3	2.03
	Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

4.2. Peri-urban farming community view during urban expansion

As far as the households' view was observed towards the city's expansion, as table 4.2 shows us, the sampled households responded differently. 81.1% of the households strongly opposed the expansion while 8.1% of households supported the expansion since they were expecting benefits in compensation and urban infrastructure and others 10.8% neither opposed nor support. On the other hand, most of the respondents oppose urban expansion because of their livelihood problems. To such community as farmers in peri-urban areas, urban expansion needs to be not only promissory and institutionally based, but also it needs to be willingness based and participatory as 8.1% of all respondents agreed.

Table. 4.2. Farming community view of urban expansion

Alternatives	No_ of participants	%
Oppose expansion	120	81.1
Support expansion	12	8.1
No problem	16	10.8
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

4.3. Farmers’ participation in urban expansion orientations

Participations for awareness of the stakeholders especially the suburb people in urban expansion development programs, 100% of the households agreed that they had awareness on the urban expansion programs through the means of different orientation these are public orientation and official training or both methods by the town administration; But the compensation information and type, amount and procedure of compensation mostly were not clear before the government action is started for expansion work.

Regarding the awareness of information for the eviction of the suburb people, they were informed as they will be evicted before any actions were taken within or about one-year using seminars, oral orientations, meetings and other means of notice board information.

4.3.1. Farmers’ Roles in decision making at compensation packages

Suburban farmer’s representation for decision making of expropriation on their site is very essential and accepted by the national and international declarations. The sub-city has participated in different meetings for urban expansion cases but the role is not more than presence instead of decision-making participation. As we can observe from the table below 4.3 almost 38.5% of the expropriated farmers did not believe that they were having a decision making role but 61.5% of the households believe they have representation role but they know that they have no decision making role.

Table .4.3.Farmers’ participation in benefit decision making

Participation	No_ of participants	%
Yes	91	61.5
No	57	38.5
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

4.3.2. The promised rate of pays for the expropriation

As “Table4.3” depicts us here above, about 61.5% of a farming community assured that they had representations in benefits package’ but the role in compensation decision-making processes was not more than presence and participation in the meetings expressing the vast problems to the committee for decision-makers. On the other hand, about 38.5% of the farmers whose livelihood was affected was not considering that they had their representations/tives during a scene of decision-making processes.

In this regard, contrarily to those who accepted that the compensation decisions were made by the collective bargaining, the in-depth interviewee from the city administration regret that there was no a single representative to farmers’ on compensation and benefits decision making roles. This was because, as especially the in-depth interviewee from the city administration explained, the compensation decision was made based on the committee established by the city administration officers. Rather, they believed that there were representations/tives during a discussion on the expropriation of the land. As the study indicates us compensation income of the suburban dwellers of farmland is 2.096 birr per meter square and this amount is paid for ten years, then the total amount is 20.96 birr per meter square per ten years and this 20.96 birr is multiplied by the total area for ten years and paid as compensation.

But in practice, this payment unit is changed every year to consider the yearly increase or decrease in costs of compensation as declaration #455/1997 is concerned. Total pay is calculated in this way and the farmland is compensated, though there is also another method for compensation of forest and grazing lands the majority of compensation was paid for farmland compensation.

So analysis will focus on the farm, grazing, and forest housing land compensations in its relation to the society's livelihood consistency though this compensation. Compensation was given before any financial management training as to how to manage their cash of the suburban people so that this given amount of money will be finished within one or two years, after that these people will live with inconsistent livelihood conditions.

As the study indicates the richest suburban households were earning more than 85000 birrs per year from farm products, but now they are earning up to 6500 birrs from the remaining farm plots even this plots are not secured for the future because as the urban officers of the town inform the remaining farm and grazing land will be taken for further urban expansion. So the livelihood inconsistency of the suburban people will increase further and the generation of consistency solutions for these societies is necessary.

4.3.3. The promised compensations executed extent

As we see from the table below, some of the promises had been served, a housing plot provision and money compensations 100% to all households. As matter of fact the town administration promised to peri-urban community whose livelihood had been affected by the urban expansion to compensate money, housing plot, to provide access to different services and pieces of training relevant to urban styled livelihood strategies, the said promises have not been served so far specially in piped water provision, organizing and credit services, job opportunities and health facilities because their income level has reduced seriously.

Table 4.4. Promised compensation to sub-urban farming community

Alternatives	Money compensation		Housing plot		Access to service		Job opportunity		Training to develop skill	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	148	100	148	100	46	31.1	10	6.8	---	----
No	----	----	----	----	102	68.9	138	93.2	-----	----
Total	148	100	148	100	148	100	148	100	-----	----

Source: own survey February 2019

The above table also indicates that, established urban expansion services to peri-urban farmers is more or less at its promising stage because the suburb people are getting infrastructural services

with the cost of town expansion and the society is accepting this infrastructures but the livelihood or income situation is getting worse than the previous because the job opportunity is at its severe situation.

The Financial, Natural, Social, Human, and Physical capital of the study area is becoming at its critical situation and the expansion is pushing the suburb people to adapt the urban livelihood, which is mostly different and difficult as a social system to cope with it easily. Initially as the result indicates majority, which is about 86.5%, of farmers objected the land expropriation program implementation in Dejen town that was being implemented by the town administration .But finally the farmers accepted to be convinced later on by the administration through a collective bargaining though 13.5%, of them, accepted first the expropriation of their land because they assumed that the growth of the city is inevitable and the main thing they seek is enough compensation for their livelihood consistency as can be seen from “Table .4.5 below.

Table 4.5. The recipients’ Satisfaction condition towards a served Compensation

Alternatives	Number of participant	%
Satisfied	20	13.5
Un satisfied	128	86.5
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

4.3.4. Farmers’ reaction to land expropriation during urban expansion

Suburban farmers’ reaction to land expropriation during urban expansion is due to different cases some of the farmers agreed without objection as the collected data indicates especially for previously poor farmers urban expansion is taken as a chance but for those farmers who were at better economic status they were objecting the expropriation during urban expansion because the livelihood is not easy to adapt by the rural people since urban livelihood is different from the rural livelihood but the city and sub-city municipality administration has solved the problems by using their solutions.

Table .4.6. Farmers ‘reaction to land expropriation

Farmers reaction	No of participant	%
Agreed without objection	13	8.8
Objected but convinced through bargaining	135	91.2
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

As the table shows above, nationally declaration #455/2005 states the condition by which expropriation of land is implemented for the general social interest. This declaration, however, is cascaded throughout the regions with variations. So regions gave different definitions for the proclamation based on their existing situation, for example Dejen town expropriated farmers were given their compensation by calculating ten years of production and selling costs per meter square multiplied by the total area but the cost is calculated based on the current year selling price , no one knows if the production and selling cost is becoming low or high for the future as well the household number increments is not considered, only the size and service of land is considered. After all, the compensation is not based on the interest of all the stakeholders’ decisions and participation, for the farmer’s fair compensation in such a way is to secure the households’ livelihood alternatives.

In one way or another, the government is trying to improve compensation the payments year to year and the Declaration# 455/1977 says compensation costs are variable and has to be calculated every year to alleviate the problems and issues that will be raised by the evicted family, for instance, farmland , grazing land, irrigable land compensation is increased by 12.2 % ,54.54%, 270.92% respectively in 2018 and 2019 it become again 29.31birr per meter square which increased by 43% as compared to 2019 compensation costs, in addition 150 meters square land is given for housing to evicted family members who reach his adult age for compensation, but for the family heads 500meter square parcel is given , money for house construction and one year house rent is given but the due to lack of skills and knowledge the suburb people financial management is not that much efficient, though their management is improving from time to time because of the exposure of the people learning by neighboring hardships.

Table. 4.7. The recipients' Appeals, Grievances condition towards a served compensation

Alternatives	No of participants	%	Remark
Appeal action	36	24.3	Go to get other solution
High grievance	100	67.8	Grievance but no action
No grievance	12	8.1	High land size group
Total	148	100	

Source: own survey February 2019

Regarding appeals and grievances with compensations and benefits concerning appeals shown the dissatisfied households presented to the concerned body of the city's administration which is estimated at 24.3 % of them but 67.8 % of them only become under a grievance, the rest 8.1% did not have a grievance. This shows suburb dwellers were primarily suspicious as the urban expansion is not making comfort for the society because of their less participation and role in decision makings the grievance is not from the urban expansion points of view rather it is from sustainable compensation points of view.

4.3.5. Post-expropriation Works pertained to suburban dweller

Once as the farmers' land had been expropriated for the city's development, then, there needs to be post-expropriation pieces of training and follow up to that community so they can adapt their livelihood strategies with that of the urban lifestyle. But, as the collected data shows, 92% of the households to whom the questionnaire was administrated, claimed that no such services had been provided so far to them while the rest, 8% accepted the provision of such services. Theoretically, it is the responsibility of the transforming body such as the governmental institutions, the city administration in this context, which executed policies and strategies of the government that has a primary responsibility to capable the households through training and advisory support services so that the latter sustain their livelihood in a newly changed environment.

4.4 Livelihood situations of displaced farmers

The displaced farmers were facing the problem of changing occupation which is new for them after the urban expansion due to they were lost their farming land. Once as farmers' land had been expropriated for urban development, those displaced farmers were obliged to shift their occupation to another one.

Table 4.8. Occupation shift of displaced farmers

Alternatives	Number of participant	%
Yes	112	75.7
No	36	24.3
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

In associated with the shift in occupation for the livelihood situation of displaced farmers, the majority (75.7) % of displaced farmers have shifted their occupation. While 24.3% of displaced farmers were continuing their occupation (farming) by renting land in other distant places for relatives.

The previous income earning activity of the displaced farmers was farming activities. But know most of the displaced farmers change their income-earning activities, these are daily labor work, cottage industries such as handcraft, alcohol brewing, pottery, and petty trades. Here those displaced farmers were forced to change their previous income-earning activities due to the reason for the reduction in production by their current land size.

Most of the displaced farmers (82%) were engaged in daily labor work, this is due to the reason displaced farmers need the money for daily consumption purposes. The challenge that inhibits the displaced farmers to employ in off-farm activities was the lack of sufficiently accessible works for all needy displaced farmers. Those displaced farmers were unable to employ in big industries in the town, due to the reason that industry works require a high level of skill and talent.

4.5. Effects of urban expansion on sub-urban farming community livelihoods

This section was mainly focused on the changes in the five livelihoods asset-building blocks of the displaced farmers before and after displacement such as financial, natural, human, physical and social capitals and the results of this data were analyzed descriptively by tables as follows.

4.5.1. Urban expansion effects on farmers ‘financial capital

Measuring the sample household’s financial capital before and after the urban expansion situation is a basic issue to know the livelihood change of the suburb farming community to reach some conclusions. So one of the major livelihood component of an average annual income of these households used to earn before urban expansion are calculated and the household’s average amounts of crop products, livestock products, alcohol brewing, guarding, pottery and daily laborer previously and currently, which was in the form of total income was calculated, and these are measured.

Table 4.9. Income of displaced farmers before and after urban expansion

Income level	Before urban expansion		After urban expansion	
	No of participant	%	No of participant	%
1000-10,000	20	13.5	68	45.9
10,001-25000	50	33.8	45	30.4
25,001-50,000	18	12.2	35	23.7
50,001-80,000	60	40.5	-----	-----
Total	148	100	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

Accordingly, the following analysis has been made on each of them. So before the expansion of suburban areas over there, as the table above shows us, these households generally used to earn an average annual income ranged from 1,000 to 80,000ETB. As of this table, before expansion, the studies to those of households who were earning an annual average income varying from 50,000-80,000, ETB, were the majority that is 40.5% of the households. Whereas about 33.5% were getting 10,000-25,000 and 13.5 were getting 1, 000-10,000 ETB. But after the expansion, as table 4.9.shows us, the categories of income were reduced and the average annual income of these households general earn had become ranged from 1,000 to 10,000 ETB of the households whose annual average income fallen in the range of 1,000-10,000 were the majority, 45.9 %.And there was no single household from the sampled ones earning more than 50,000 ETB as the table shows above.

As the above table showing, the financial capital earning extent after urban expansion shows 45.9% of them are earning only 1,000-10,000 whereas 30% are getting 1001-10000 and 23.7% get 25,001- 50,001 ETB. This shows how the annual income is reduced by a significant percent so that one can observe table 4.9 above. But when I relate it with the amount of compensation and the annual financial income, the given amount of compensation for some farmers was unexpectedly very much in which they did not count it in their life but this liquid money was not easy to manage within their livelihood systems, so that most of the farming community lost their compensation money within short periods of time.

4.5.2. Urban expansion effect on farmers’ social capital

From the table below 4.10, previously to a large extent, the social capital is known to be built by the social relationship in a given household, within and with vicinity in a certain community. To this end, the households in the community, where this study had been conducted had a social relationship varying from very low, low, moderate, high to very high, with very high groups are with majority(50.7) % before expansion.

But after the city’s expansion, within and towards their vicinity, 47.3% and 35.1% of this community come to have this capital lowered to “very low” and “moderate” respectively. As opposed to previously, each of 33.8 % households had the social capital equated to “moderate” and 50.7 % “Very high”.

Table .4.10. Extent of social capital in different times

Alternatives	Very low		Low		Moderate		High		Very high	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Before expansion	----	----	----	----	50	33.8	23	15.5	75	50.7
After expansion	70	47.3	26	17.6	52	35.1	----	----	----	----

Source: own survey February 2019

Because the working area and conditions are becoming different so that other social capitals are becoming to emerge and the previous social capital is affected to bring change to the socio-cultural institutions are becoming to reduce its influence because some groups of the society are going to nearby areas for farm work by purchasing farmlands from their relatives and from persons they previously know by marriage. Previously we had a very tied relationship not only

because we are relatives, but also we had been bonded together through socio-cultural obligation. Formerly, for example, we had “Debo” both of which are socio-cultural institutions to support the members at the time of a household’s risk such as disasters, illness, death and disability, to help powerless households through housing, farming, weddings and related traditional ceremonies, to settle members’ disputes and to maintain a common value. Such lives are currently reducing their service.

Of course, there is “Idir” which is a loose association of urban settlers through their financial contribution. Though, it never replaces former ones. See, for example, neighbors are serving each of their own lives. Previously neighbors were obliged to help during illness, poorness, and other Problems using our cultural institutions but now no one has a concern about other different problems or households well being.

As a modern society, the social relationship in urban areas is very much limited and hence, it is most of the time secondary type. On the other hand, the in-depth interview participants also have pointed out that there is no such a former relationship as self-helping, neighborhood linkages, a traditional institution- based claims among today’ residents in their neighbors. From this, we understand that when we compare the social capital as one of the livelihood element this community had before the urban expansion with that of the current one, the later is declined from above moderate to very low social relations.

4.5.2.1. Effects of dislocation/displacement on kinship relation

From interview results, my 28- year- old interviewee said that “Kinship is a system of social organization based on real or putative family ties”.

On the other hand, the other participant 55-year interviewee said that “Kinship involves more than family ties, according to the Group and Kinship is one of the most important organizing components of society”.

From there words, we can understand that social institution ties individuals and groups together and establishes a relationship among them. Furthermore, we can understand that in many traditional societies, kinship ties are similarly expansive and can include a large and diverse

range of relationships. Depending on the region and the people, these kinship ties can result from blood relations, the sharing of living space, or simply living in the same village.

From the In-depth interview results, on their kinship relation, some of the households face a problem of not getting their relatives almost for a half year or for a full year. Even they face the problem of the quarrel with their family members due to the division of compensation given for their parents (died parents).

On the other hand, some of my interviewees said that “we did not face kinship relationship problem, even if they were displaced from their original residence and settled in different places or in short their kinship relation had been continued”. In general, the effect of urban expansion on kinship relationships varies from one displaced household to the other.

4.5.3. Urban expansion effect on farmers’ natural capital in households’ reduction extent

To measure the horizontal urban expansion impact on peri-urban agricultural community’s livelihood’s elements, the natural capital, what I had taken is cropland, forest land, grazing land that displaced farmers had before the urban expansion over their vicinity as compared to their current’s possession status.

The land expropriation is taking place at different times even for the same individual because the suburban community land is found at different places of the same kebele. So the data is gathered and summed to bring as much as possible the real data. For some farmers, their land was taken two times for others one time and the other land was taken three times starting from 2005 ETC or 2013.

Finally, the size of their farmland is decreasing from time to time and farmers' livelihood situation is becoming worse, as a result, the suburb people are changing as much as possible to other livelihood styles. As the table below shows the reduction of natural capital income size is reducing significantly and one of the major pillars of livelihood is becoming greatly reduced as a result the suburb people are obliged to do any coping up mechanisms for survival, what further irritates the suburb people livelihood is the horizontal urban expansion is continuous process and even the remaining natural capital will not remain as holdings of the suburb dweller.

4.5.3.1 Effects of urban expansion on agricultural productivity

From the in-depth interview results, due to land loss, their exist effects on agricultural productivity, as a55 year-old interviewee said that:

“Urban expansion affects the agricultural productivity of farmers because urban expansion was implemented by displacing farming communities from their farmland. It has also impacted farmers, that they are exposed to the new ways of life that are industrial agriculture, on that, they are not effective in production, due to the reason that they did not have the skill to operate the new work they started”.

Also, as it is related to loss of agricultural land, urban expansion towards the peri-urban area has an impact on market supply that is; the farmers were unable to provide enough cereals

Table 4.11. Extent of natural capital reduction by area

Conditions	Crop land holding (ha)	Forest land holding(ha)	Grazing land holding (ha)	Remark
Before expansion	1.25	0.05	0.25	It excludes animal income
After expansion	0.09	0.01	0.04	

Source: own survey February 2019

4.5.4. Urban expansion effect on farmers’ physical capital

I tried to detect the house's room in number and furniture’s with average costs these households had before the urban expansion over there and after urban expansion to take as the measuring tool for physical capital of the peri-urban agricultural community livelihood. Accordingly, as table4.16 shows us, this community had an average of 1wide house room with open room division before urban expansion over there.

However, this figure has ascended to 3 average rooms after the expansion of the city than by showing the difference of 2 which equates 300 %, besides, household materials in the house is also taken as physical capital so these conditions averagely are increasing after expansion as

opposed to the previous livelihood condition. This is conditions for average households that had merely increased their livelihood of the suburb people and this is expected to be modified with compensation costs given from the expropriated lands but those suburb people are not coping their livelihood fully with due to shortage of some pieces of training how to use their compensation costs, (as shown from the table below,

Table 4.12. Urban expansion impact on farmers’ physical capital

Conditions	Room number		Furniture and utensil	
	Number	% increased	Number	% increased
Before expansion	1	----	500	----
After expansion	3	300%	2500	500

Source: own survey February 2019

4.5.5. Urban expansion effect on farmers’ human capital

As table 4.13 below tells us the households’ family members affected by the impacts of urban expansion and the led- consequences. As to table 4.13 shows 48.65%, 37.9%, %,10.14% and 3.4% of the households, are almost all of the households attributed to urban expansion over their vicinity was at school grades of 1,2-8,9-12,12+ respectively. All of the households, the “Males”, “Children” and “Females” were the disadvantageous groups of the family. This explained data shows less access to the job for opportunities to have consistent livelihood situations in the study area.

Moreover, data from in-depth interviews shown that these households had not been able to educate their children owing to the financial constraints and that was why the child had no good access to education for which right she/he is deserved otherwise. Hence, the boys and girls of this community had a lack of marketable and more productive knowledge and skills. From this, it is fair to infer that the households’ human capital of such a community had been adversely affected by the city expansion not only in this present situation but also it will continue for some time in the future. And some of the sayings of the local community are as follows: one cannot deny that our residence has changed from the traditional wide “(Sarbet) Grass house” to modern, but narrower building, women’s no more travels a longer distance to fetch water, nor they worry to burn firewood to light. Moreover, our child no more travels long distances to school, nor we

do to health service need, but today mostly money matters more than before for livelihood cases. As you can see, no farm is around my house, no herd of cattle in it, and no shade of trees in front of it. So, where do we think we can afford money for such utilities? Nowhere! Some rich household individuals can do that and even more. They eat their choice, they wear what they need and educate their children in a chosen private schools. Sending children to school is an unthinkable thing for us. Today, we can't afford such services. Everyone starts a morning with a search of his/her daily bread than education. Indeed, we tried to educate them in September in government schools with the cost of all that we have at hand or with credit. Gradually, we find them dropping the school because we have not secured their livelihood situation. A few students complete their eighth grades, and a few students complete their higher education but the level of their household livelihood maintenance is insignificant for those educated to help their families. They brought no difference in life through their education.

Table. 4.13. Urban expansion impact at human capital

Description of education level	Total participants	
	No of participant	%
<1	72	48.7
2-8	56	37.9
9-12	15	10.1
12+	5	3.4
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

4.5.6 Effects of displacement on children's education

From in-depth interview results, a 35-year interviewee said that “urban expansions to the peri-urban-rural areas were having both positive and negative effects on displaced households’ children education. But, beyond these realities, urban expansion to the peri-urban rural area did not have negative effects on our Children’s education”.

Furthermore, the other 45-year interviewee said that “their children were lucky for their education because they were got the opportunity of not walking along distance to reach to school and this creates an opportunity to study time”. In general, all of my interviewees told me that

urban expansion to the peri-urban rural area was not have negative effects on the displaced household children’s education.

4.6. Food security status of displaced farmers

This subsection presents the relationship between the livelihood combinations of households and the impact of these livelihood strategies in achieving one of the crucial livelihood outcomes, household food security. Devereux, et al. (2004) pointed out that if certain livelihood groups are identified as being an above-average risk of food insecurity, the explanation frequently lies in the low return or high vulnerability of the livelihood activity being pursued.

Table. 4.14. Main source of food for the displaced household

Alternatives	No of participant	%
Own farm production	70	47.3
Purchase	30	20.3
Government	12	8.1
Supplies from relatives	8	5.4
Work for food	28	18.9
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

People’s livelihood sources condition their ability to acquire food (Fashogbon and Oni 2012). Production, own labor, trade and transfer entitlements are the main means of acquiring food. In the study at hand, own farm production is a main source of food for 47.3 percent of the respondents; 34.3 percent of those who get food through their products are those whose livelihood was mainly agriculture.

Households who engaged in both farm and non-farm livelihood activities constitute 13% of households who obtain their food from own production. Not all households get their food from own production. If households cannot produce enough food of their own, their income level and food availability in the market determines their food entitlement.

Purchase from the market is the main source of food for 20.3 percent of households in this study. The majority of market-dependent households were landless rural households who derive their

living mainly from non-farm employment. However, households who are dominantly agrarian themselves were found to be market dependent since annual production could not support their year-round consumption. This confirms the finding of Baiphethi and Jacobs (2009) which states the increasing dependence of farmers on food purchases like urban residents. While work for food is the main source of food for 18.9% of displaced farmers.

Table 4.15 Adequacy of food stock throughout the year

Food adequacy throughout the year	No of respondents	%
Yes	45	30.4
No	103	69.6
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

According to the working conceptualization of food security of FAO (2009), for food security to be achieved, available food must be adequate at all point in time and address the dietary needs of the unit of analysis, In the study at hand a household. While 69.6 percent of the respondents indicated the inadequacy of their food stock over 12 months, the remaining 30.4 percent said it is adequate.

The majority of respondents who indicated the inadequacy of food throughout the year were farming households. This confirms with the report of FAO, WFP& IFAD (2014) which identifies smallholder farmers as the main producers of food in developing nations while they remain the major food insecure groups over the world. In Ethiopia, too, Tsegaye (2012) asserted that food insecurity is a pervasive problem for food producers themselves. Most of the displaced farmers sell most of their produced crops during the autumn season and on the other side, those displaced farmers purchase most of their consumption cereal during the summer season due to the reason that they finished cereals for consumption during the autumn season.

Table .4.16. Household food shortage in 12 months

Food shortage over 12 months	No of participant	%
Yes	128	86.5
No	20	13.5
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

As the table above shows that most of the displaced farmers (86.5%) were face food shortage problems over twelve months after their displacement for urban expansion. For those displaced farmers who face the problem of food shortage, the main causes are production failure (50.3%), lack of money for purchase (20.2%), lack of support from concerned bodies (6%) and high prices of food (10%) of the displaced farmers. In associated with these most of the displaced households experienced food shortage during the summer season because they are selling most of their cereals during the autumn season. As table 4.16 shows.

4.7. Effects of urban expansion on food security of displaced farmers

Household food security was measured by household food (in) security access scale (HFIAS). Anxiety and uncertainty about food supply, limited variety of food, and insufficient food intake are the main components of the instrument. Based on the experience of each of these components, households were classified as food secure, mildly food insecure, moderately food insecure and severely food insecure.

Table 4.17. Level of displaced households/farmers food insecurity (HFIAS): Access component

Level of household food insecurity	Livelihood strategies						Total N= 148
	Farm activities Only		Off- farm activities		Both farm and off-Farm activities		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Severely food insecure	8	5.4	16	10.8	4	2.7	28(18.9%)
Moderately food insecure	4	2.7	6	4.1	5	3.4	15(10.2%)
Mildly food in secure	10	6.8	8	5.4	21	14.2	39(26.4%)
Food secure	19	12.8	7	4.7	40	27	66(44.5%)

Source:own survey February 2019

Food-Secure households experience none of the food insecurity (access) conditions, or just experiences ‘worry’, but rarely. Table 4.17 shows that 44.5 percent of samples were food secure; 2.7 percent of food secure belongs to households that combine agricultural and non-farm livelihood activities. Only 4.7 percent of food secure households pursue only non-farm livelihood activities.

Households that worry about having adequate food and consume a monotonous diet are regarded as mildly food insecure. These households do not get food of their preference, eat a limited variety of food and where exists, monotonous types. Farmers asserted that food preference was not a priority for the majority of rural areas. In-depth interview participants indicated that food types beyond local grains are not common, even among the well to do families.

Table 4.17 portrays that mildly food insecure is the second-largest category accounting for 26.4 percent of households. The majority, 6.8 percent, of the mild foods insecure respondents were farming households. Hence, the survey output supports the interview data that agrarian households could not consume preferred food due to a lack of resources to acquire them. Cash and physical means to acquire food are the major constraints of food acquisition for study households. In addition to worrying about food availability and compromising food preference, households in the study area also cut back on their quantity of food: the size of meals and number meals. These households are moderately food insecure and their severity of food insecurity is lower than food secure, mildly food insecure and less than severely food insecure. This category constitutes 10.2 percent of the respondents. Severely food insecure are those households who provided an affirmative response to either of the last three occurrence questions of the scale (see appendix I section 5). Households in this category experience inadequate food intake due to lack of resources that enable them to command food they need to maintain their consumption.

Of the total sample in this study, 28 (18.9 %) households reported their severe food insecurity situation for the reference period of the survey. The majority of the severe food-insecure households pursue only off-farm livelihood activities. These households have no food supply from their production and their food entitlement fluctuates between the availability of activities from which they secure cash to buy food. Similarly, Patel, et al. (2015) found that rural households, which were primarily engaged in off-farm labor, have the lowest wellbeing index

among all household types despite their higher cash as compared to farmers. Interviews also revealed that severely food insecure households disburse much of their income on food purchases. However, since their income was not adequate to purchase food of the needed quantity, cutting food consumption was noticed from their reaction to scale questions.

The proportion of severely food insecure farmer respondents was 3.7 percent while households who combine both agricultural and non-farm livelihood activities were only 10.8 percent. With increasing severity of food insecurity, the number of households engaged in only off-farm livelihood activities increases. In contrast, for households who combine both agricultural and off-farm livelihood strategies, the figure gently falls from food secure to severely food insecure category.

4.7.1. Participation in evicted household food security program

Concerned bodies participating in evicted households' food security programs are those governmental and non-governmental organizations that are participating or involved in the developmental program of evicted farmers to ensure their food security. As municipality administrator said:

“The only concerned bodies who are participating in the developmental programs were town administrators and kebele administrator”. This is because of the towns' municipality administration's the inability to provide access or opportunity to those non-governmental organizations. Besides the municipality administrator told me that “inability to provide the opportunity to those nongovernmental organizations was happened due to the lack of trust in those nongovernmental organizations on their work of ensuring food security of the evicted farmers”.

In general, senses, as we can understand from the word of the municipal administrator, still know there are no opportunities for nongovernmental organizations to participate in the developmental program of evicted farmers to ensure their food security in their new residential area.

4.8. Evicted households' participation in social fabrics

From an in-depth interview result my 35-year interviewee said that “As it is known if a household were displaced, their participation in their social fabric groups will be stopped. But,

beyond the reality, even if we were settled in different and distant place our participation in the social fabrics (like Iddire and Mahiber) was continued”.

On the case of support that the evicted farmers get from their social fabric group, all of my interviewees told me that “They did not get any support from the groups, even their members saw them as a rich person, due to the compensation they got from the government by the case of their dislocation”.

4.9. Social fabrics, establishment and purpose

On their establishment of social fabrics, all of my interviewees have two types of social fabrics establishment that is in kebele and religiously established social fabrics, like edire (at kebele level) and mahiber (in religiously). Here, in mahiber establishment, there is a restriction for being a member of the social fabric that is: members should be from the same religious belief, should have a strong social relationship with the other community members and should have a confessor father. While in edire all communities can participate without preconditions.

On its purpose, as a 35-year interviewee said that:“ social fabrics are important to help each other when we face the problem, for example,the death of our families relative and helping each other on work, especially on harvesting season, house construction, marriage ceremony and birthday ceremony”.

Generally, from the in-depth interview, we can conclude that social fabrics are the glue that holds a society together. It is the bonds which people share that can help to form a culturally rich and socially cohesive community. Social fabrics also are associations that a given community establishes for helping each other in bad or good seasons.

4.10. Coping strategies used by displaced households/farmers in the study area

Coping strategies are livelihood strategies used when there are suffering and stress on livelihoods (De Haan, 2006). Maxwell, et al. (2003) divide coping strategies into two basic categories which can be practiced to improve food security and sustainable livelihoods. The first is the immediate and short-term alteration of consumption patterns. The other includes the long-term alteration of income-earning or food production patterns, and one of the responses could be selling off assets.

In associated with the above findings by De Haan and Maxwell, displaced farmers in the study areas were used the following coping strategies for their survival after displacement.

Table 4. 18. Coping strategies used by displaced farmers

Coping strategies	No of participant	%
Rely on less preferred and less expensive foods?	40	27.0
Borrow food, or rely on help from a friend or relative?	28	18.9
Purchase food on credit?	15	10.1
Gather wild food, hunt, or harvest immature crops?	---	----
Consume seed stock held for next season?	20	13.5
Send household members to eat elsewhere?	5	3.4
Send household members to beg?	---	----
Limit portion size at mealtimes?	12	8.1
Restrict consumption by adults in order for small children to eat?	8	5.4
Feed working members of HH at the expense of nonworking members?	4	2.7
Ration the money you have and buy prepared food?	6	4.1
Reduce number of meals eaten in a day?	10	6.7
Skip entire days without eating?	---	----
Total	148	100

Source: own survey February 2019

As the above table 4.18 shows rely on less preferred and less extensive foods, borrow food or rely on help from relatives and consume seed stocks held for next season were used as coping strategies by 27.0%, 18.9% and 13.5% displaced households/farmers respectively.

Purchase food on credit, limit the portion size of meals, reduce the number of meals eaten in a day and restrict consumption by an adult in order for small children to eat were also served as coping strategies in the same time and used by 10.1 %, 8.11%, 6.7%, and 5.4% households respectively.

Ration the money they have and buy prepared food, send household members to eat elsewhere and feed working members of the household at the expense of non-working members were the least used coping strategies and were used by 4.1%, 3.4%, and 2.7% households respectively.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Conclusion

As already explained in the summary of demographic conditions of the study area most of the study populations are illiterate, more than 98% of the study populations education level is not greater than grade 12 student , so the society cannot have different opportunities for job competition or creation and this people need further assistance from the government and different bodies in training different skills and knowledge to solve their livelihood inconsistency and to cope up their problems by having their alternative job opportunities within their locality.

Despite of the community's awareness of the expansion via orientations and some meetings by the city administration, the farming community was not made participant on the decisions making processes except participation or presence about the kinds and amount of compensations and related benefits to them for the farmland expropriated from them, for the property they lost and hence for their livelihood interruption and the effects on their family become savior.

The urban expansion brought a significant negative impact on the livelihood elements of the peri-urban agricultural community as this study examined. Before urban expansion over this community's residences, an average annual income these households used to earn per year was varying from 1,000- 80,000 ETB where the majority's income was in the range of 50,001-80,000 ETB. However, after expansion, no households were earning above 50,000 ETB and the majority fallen in their income. Therefore, this study had assessed and found that the horizontal urban expansion has adversely affected the financial, social, natural, physical and human capital of the peri-urban agricultural community's livelihood that was why these communities call themselves "urban made destitute".

Some 81.1% of the samples were against urban expansion unless it was to be run by a responsive institution, was to be participatory, willingness based and promissory to all stakeholders. Regarding the newly started livelihood output, the findings have shown that 75.7% of the households believed that they had not secured their livelihood. The reasons for the poor output of the newly livelihood system included poor training skills and lower educational sourced knowledge the households had on how to develop and manage money, lack of enough

compensations, the low experience of households for an urban mode of livelihood and inadequate institutional follow-up and support are major gaps to fill.

On the food security status of the displaced farmers, own farm production is the main source of food for 47.3 percent of the respondents, 34.3 percent of those who get food through their products are those whose livelihood was mainly agriculture.

As a coping mechanism, the households engaged in different livelihood strategies. Some migrated into rural areas and pursued small farming while some others who were wealthy and powerful even before moved and set up their own urban business. However, majority stayed at their residence which was limited to allotted plot and engaged in different works like Daily laborer with majority, Pottery, alcohol brewing, Broker, small grocery, house renting, house-made servant, Migratory farming, petty trading, and guardsmen in different rates in addition to the major coping mechanisms discussed above .

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, some recommendations are made to improve the livelihood situations and food security status of the displaced farmers/households. The main recommendations to improve the livelihood and food security of the households are:

- As a socioeconomic development, urbanization needs to be the program where each stakeholder wins rather than loss. The city's administration had not made the farming community to participate and to be a partner on decision makings in expropriation and compensation amounts as well as in such programs like urban expansion activities from its inception to implementation. Therefore, since the peri-urban agricultural community had both high interest and influence on urban development into their vicinity, they were primary stakeholders. For this fact, the urban expansion program should involve them by taking them as crucial stakeholders of the urban expansion development.
- The farmers have a constitutional right to own and use the land, however, it is expropriated for the public interest, and then; these farmers have a legal right to claim for commensurate compensation for property loss and a livelihood interrupted. So, the compensation to such community should be based on the detail observation of the socioeconomic status of the suburban people and should consider the suburban or the

expansion areas people sustainable livelihood creation because the society has not to be the looser rather they had to lead their livelihood in a sustainable situation.

- For sustainable livelihood creation there should be strong institutional support for the encouragement of the expropriated social groups in creating job opportunities, in training different skills and knowledge's, in organizing financial institutions for credit service, demographic conditions(like birth control) , rather than focusing only giving some money and house building plot compensations and because this society has no knowhow , how to generate future incomes from the money they earn from the municipality since their livelihood system is completely changed.
- Coping mechanisms are created by the expropriated people to survive like pottery, alcohol brewing, daily labor and other so the supporting institutions have to facilitate the skills and knowledge pieces of training based on the coping skills they adapted otherwise institutional supports beyond their cultural skill might bring falerity.
- There should be a focus on the three pillars' for the reduction of horizontal urban expansion extent these variables are: vertical growth of the city, controlling the population growth and internal migration by developing other development areas and high political and managerial commitment for compromised provision of land in the suburban area for construction purposes.

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Appendix
Questionnaire
Addis Ababa University
College of Social Science
Department of Sociology

Questionnaire for Displaced Households

Dear participants:

The main purpose of this questionnaire is to gather some relevant information for the MA thesis research entitled “Livelihood situations and Food security status of urban expansion- Induced Displaced Farmers in Dejen Town, Ethiopia”. Therefore, the researcher expect you to provide genuine, accurate and balanced information with respect to effects of urban expansion in relation to the local urban government program intervention measures for empowering the evicted farmers economically and socially to ensure food security at household level. Your honest information is highly important as it plays a key role in the success of this study. Finally, the researcher is very much appreciative for the dedication you pay to this end and the information gathered will be highly confidential and only will use for the purpose of this research.

Thank you in advance!

Part I: Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

Instruction 1: **Please put x mark in front of alternative box, give appropriate information for blank space and circle for alternative letters statements below.**

1. Sex _____
2. Age _____
3. Marital status of participants A. Married B. Not married
4. Educational status
 - A. Illiterate
 - B. Read and/or write
 - C. Grade 1- 8
 - D. Grade 8-12
 - E. Certificate
 - F. Above diploma
5. **Household family size of participants** _____

Part II. Participation in expansion program

Instruction 2: Below are statements related with your participation in urban expansion program, so circle a letter that fulfills your choice.

1. Were you aware of the urban expansion program in your former vicinity?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
2. If “Yes”, how?
 - A. Through public orientation
 - B. Through official training
 - C. Both
 - D. Other specify _____
3. What was your reaction when you’re asked to move from your former possession?
 - A. Agreed without objection
 - B. Objected but left force fully
 - C. Objected but convinced through bargaining
4. Did you participate in decision making process in the expropriation program?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
5. If “Yes”, what’re benefits you obtained because of participation?
 - A. Raised own interest
 - B. Expressed own opinion no
 - C. Created access to benefit packages
 - D. Created opportunity to livelihood means
 - E. Nothing
 - F. Other specify _____

6. Did you have representatives in decision making on benefit packages allotments?

A. Yes

B. No

7. If “Yes” how did that represent?

A. Through community institution

D. Through Kebele administration

B. Through elected community

E. Other specify_____

C. Through individual interested group

8. Who were the main decision makers benefit packages to the community?

A. Government body

C. Both

B. Local community committee

9. Do you support or oppose urban expansion policy and the process?

A. Strongly support

C. Strongly oppose

B. Support with conditions

D. Oppose with conditions

10. What conditions do you consider while supporting, if your response for question number above is “B”?

A. Participatory and willingness based

C. Both

B. Promissory and institutional based

D. Others specify

Part III. Benefit of Urban Expansion for Peri-Urban Community

Instruction 3: Below are statements related with your benefit from urban expansion, so circle a letter that fulfills your choice.

1. What was the base of your livelihood before the coming of urbanization?

A. Farming on land

D. Forestry

B. Raising cattle

E. All

C. Fodder production

F. others specify_____

2. What are benefit packages had you been promised to be allotted to you as compensation when You are asked to leave the land? (Multiple answer possible)

A. Money compensation

E. training to develop skill

B. housing plots

F. Other specify

C. access to services

D. Job opportunities

3. Which of the benefit packages did you get at last?
- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|
| A. Money compensation | D. Job opportunities |
| B. Housing plots | E. Training to develop skill |
| C. access to service | F. All |
4. What reaction towards the kind and amount of compensation (benefits) you received about?
- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| A. Satisfied | C. Dissatisfied |
| B. Indifferent | |
5. If your answer is “C” for above question, did you apply your appeal for a concerned body?
- | | |
|--------|-------|
| A. Yes | B. No |
|--------|-------|
6. If “Yes” what response did you get?
- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| A. Very satisfactory | C. Satisfactory |
| B. Unsatisfactory | D. Very unsatisfactory |
7. Did you get any training how to use the benefit packages to move to new way of livelihood/urban life?
- | | |
|--------|-------|
| A. Yes | B. No |
|--------|-------|
8. If “Yes” in which of the following training did you participate?
- A. private business development, management and supervision
 - B. Financial management saving
 - C. Basic entrepreneurship
 - D. Technical training for livelihood means
9. Did you get any advisory support from any institutions after displacement or/and dispossession?
- | | |
|--------|-------|
| A. Yes | B. No |
|--------|-------|
10. Do you think that you become the user of non-pre-existing services because of urbanization?
- | | |
|--------|-------|
| A. Yes | B. No |
|--------|-------|
11. If your answer for Q10 is “Yes” which of the following service?
(More than one option is possible)
- | | |
|-----------------|-------------------|
| A. Road | E. Market |
| B. Water supply | F. Health service |
| C. Electricity | G. Telephone |
| D. School | H. Credit service |

Part IV. Effect of urban expansion on the livelihood of peri-urban agricultural community

Instruction 4: Below are statements related with effect of urban expansion on your livelihood, so circle a letter that fulfills your choice.

1. What was the effect of the expansion programs you faced before its actual implantation?

- A. Frustration because of lack of orientation on where and how to live in urban settlement
- B. In adequate attention from the administration in community development activity
- C. In adequate provision of new skills and knowledge on newly urban form of the life
- D. All
- E. Other, specify _____

2. What was average annual total income you used to get before expropriation in ETB?

- A. above 65,000
- B. 51,000-65,000
- C. 31,000-50,000
- D. 11,000-30,00
- E. 1000-10,000
- F. Less than 1000

3. What is an average annual total income you are gaining these days in ETB?

- A. above 46,000
- B. 41, 000-45,000
- C. 21,000-40,000
- D. 11,000-20,000
- E. 1000-10,000
- F. Less than 1000

4. What was the total asset possession of the HHs before and after expropriation/displacement/ dispossession?

Asset	Before expansion	After expansion
A. Farm animals		
B. Forest (Permanent) plants		
C. House (in room #)		
D. Grass land		

5. How was your social relationship and value within your community before your land expropriation/ displacement?

- A. Very high
- B. High
- C. Moderate
- D. Low
- E. Very low

6. What is your social relationship and value now?

- A. Very high
- B. High
- C. Moderate
- D. Low

E. Very low

7. Do you agree that urban expansion in to your area is advantageous to your family members?

(Parents, daughters and boys)?

A. Strongly agree

C. Disagree

B. Agree

D. Strongly disagree

8. Explain for any of your choice for question no. "7" above?

9. Which group of "Male" or "Female" are more disadvantages because of urban expansion in to your vicinity?

A. Male

B. Female

10. Provide reason for your choice for question number "9" above? _____

Socio-economic profiles

1. What is the total size of land your households hold has (in Hectare)? Previously?now?

A. Crop land _____

C. Residential land _____

B. Grassland _____

D. Forest land _____

2. Mention the type of crops produced and yearly production on your land holdings previously and now?

A. Type of crops.....

B. Size of land (Hectare).....

C. Yearly production (in Quintals).....

D. Yearly income (in birr).....

E. Previously and now.....

F. Total -----

3. Do you have grow vegetable on your plots? _____

4. If yes, what are the types of vegetables you are growing and yearly production?

A. Type of Vegetables Hectare

B. Yearly production (in Quintals)

C. Yearly income (in birr) Total.....

5. Mention the type of livestock your family possessed and yearly income from it.

Type of livestock	Number	Yearly income (in birr)
Ox		
Cow		
Total		
Other type of assets		Units Yearly income (in birr)
Tree plants sell		
Homes rent or sell		
Remittance		
Total yearly income (A+B+C)		

Effect of Urbanization on Physical, financial, social, human (skill) or others description cases

- Is there house displacement? Is it on your own willing?
- When did you here?
 - Before one year
 - Before 2 years
 - During displacement
- Did you have lost your land due to an expansion of town?
 - Yes
 - No
- If yes, how much hectares did you lost? _____
- What type of land did you lose due to urban expansion?
 - Agricultural land
 - Residential land
 - Grass land?
 - Other (specify) _____
- For what purpose did the land you displaced from?
 - Industrial
 - Air port
 - Residential
 - Social service
 - Infrastructure
- Was the loss of your plot of lands affect on your yearly production?
 - Yes
 - No
- If yes, what is the total amount of production that decreases due to the loss of your agricultural land?
- What are other assets that are affected due to displacement from your agricultural land? Specify your total asset possession before and after displacement?
 - Animals how much?

How it costs?

Is it available today?

B. Houses room number corrugated,

Grass house.....

Furniture how it costs? -----

How are the present house and its cost?.....

Part V. Livelihood situation

Instruction 5: Below are statements related with your Livelihood situation, so circle a letter that fulfills your choice

1. Have you shifted your previous occupation due to the town expansion?

A. Yes

B. No

2. If yes, what were your previous occupation and your current income earning Activities?

Previous income earning activities.....

Current income earning activities.....

3. What are the reasons that forced to change your previous income earning activities?

A. Due to reduction in production from your current land size

B. Present occupation is pleasant and higher in payment than the previous one

C. Both

D. Other reasons_____

4. What are types of off-farm activities available in your area where you and displaced farmers engage in to obtain earning during the last years after displacement due to an expansion of the town and increase of industries in and around the town?

A. Daily labors

B. Employment in factory

C. Self employment in cottage industries, such as hand crafts, etc

D. Employment in government organization

E. Employment in non-government.

F. Others (specify) _____

5. In which of the above income earning activities did most of displaced people engaged widely?

_____ Why?

6. What are opportunities that enhance you and challenges that inhabit you in engaging employment in off-farm activities in your vicinity?

A. Opportunities_____

B. Challenges_____

7. Is it possible for displaced farmers to get sufficient credit from credit and Saving institutions operated in the area to start new business?

A. Yes

B. No

8. If no, what are the problems and opportunities in relation to obtaining saving and credit service in the area?

A. Opportunities_____

B. Problems_____

9. Can it be possible to obtain employment opportunities in big industries and Higher income for you and other local people like you?

A. Yes

B. No

10. If **no**, what are the factors inhabit you in employing in big industries and earn higher income in your vicinity?

A. Because it requires higher level of skill and talent.

B. Because it does have a risk in your body

C. . Other reasons (specify) _____

11. What is your feeling about the change occurred related to the town Expansion and the change in your life style?

Part VI. Compensation Package

Instruction 6: Below are statements related with your compensation package, so circle a letter that fulfills your choice

1. Have you obtained enough benefit packages due to the loose of your land?

A. Yes

B. No

2. If yes, in what kind did you compensated?

A. In monetary term only

G. Housing plots

B. Alternative land and Land preparation

H. Access to service

C. Training to develop skill

I. Advisory support

D. tree compensation

E. credits

F. employment opportunity

3. What is your reaction on the amount and kind of benefit package allotted to you?

A. Highly satisfied

C. Indifferent.

B. Satisfied

D. Highly dissatisfied

4. In which of these skill acquired training did you have participate in the social groups generally?

A. Own business development, management and supervision

B. financial management/ saving

C. Basic skill training

D. Technical training for livelihood means

5. Could the compensation packages you obtained were enough to support your livelihood in sustainable base? A. Yes B. No

6. If no, what is the reason?

7. In the above compensation packages which one promised by the officers but you did not obtained?

8. Have you ask concerned body about compensation package promised but did not provided and what were the responses you obtained for?

9. Have you any other additional comments and recommendations on the Compensation packages?

10. Is /was the compensation given for your property enough to transform your livelihood to other activities like investment? A. Yes B. No

11. How much was the amount of compensation given for the property you lost due to urban expansion?

12. Were you given training on how to manage your compensation so that you can be involved in other investment sectors of the town? A. Yes B. No

13. If you were not given training on how to manage your compensation money for economic transformation, on what did you spend the money that you were compensated for your property?

14. If your farmland was totally taken by urban expansion of how much was the total area of land given to you for residential house construction?.....

15. If your farmland was totally taken by the urban expansion of town, were you given chance to organize in group to work on urban agriculture? A. Yes B. No
16. If you are given the chance to be organized in group to work on urban agriculture, what types of agricultural products do you produce?
17. What is the total compensation paid for relocating the farmers?
18. What were the major challenges of compensation?
19. Was there urban-rural conflict during implementation process? A. Yes B. No
20. If so how was the urban-rural conflict during plan implementation resolved?
21. Is the urban-rural boundary issue resolved during plan implementation process?
A. Yes B. No
22. How is the economic progress of displaced farmers?
A. First declined how much HHs?
B. Finally improved how much HHs?
C. Continuously deteriorating HHS
D. already collapsed HHs in their economy
E. Migrated to other areas HHs.

Part VII. Food Security Situation/Status

Instruction 7: Below are statements related with your food security status, so circle a letter that fulfills your choice

1. What is your main source of food?

A. Own farm production	D. Supplies from relatives/friends
B. Purchase	E. Work for Food (labor paid with food in-kind).
C. Government	
2. If your answer for question #1, is own production, do you think that your annual produce is adequate to feed your household members throughout the year?

A. Yes	B. No
--------	-------
3. When do you sell most of your crop?

A. Winter	C. summer
B. autumn	D. spring
4. When do you purchase most of your cereals?

A. Winter	B. autumn
-----------	-----------

C. summer

D. spring

5. Explain the price difference between the seasons in which you sell most of your produce, and buy most of your food crop? _____

6. How do you rate the level of affordability of the crop market prices to your household in 2018/19?

A. Unaffordable/expensive

C. Affordable

B. Somewhat Affordable

7. Did your household face food shortage over the last 12 months?

A. Yes

B. No

8. If yes to #7, what is the main cause to your food shortage?

A. Production failure

C. Lack of support

B. Lack of money to purchase

D. high prices of food

9. If your household experienced food shortage, during which season such a condition most Prevail?

A. Winter

D. Spring

B. Summer

E. Throughout a year

C. Autumn

Part VIII: Household Food (In) Security Access Scale (HFIAS) (not during fasting!) (lack of resource being conceptualized as lack of money, food production for own consumption, physical means to acquire food or transfer.

Instruction 8: Below are statements related with measuring food (in) security, so circle a letter that fulfills your choice

No	Occurrence question	Response Options (Encircle the code)	If YES, How often didthis happen?	Code
1	In the past twelve months, did you worry that your household would not have enough food?	0= No (SKIP TO Q2) 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	
2	In the past twelve months, were you/ any household member not able to eat the Kinds of foods you preferred because of a lack of resources?	0= No (SKIP TO Q3) 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	
3	In the past twelve months, did you or any household member have to	0= No (SKIP TO Q4) 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes	

	eat a limited variety of foods due to a lack of resources? Ex Monotonous diet		3 = Often	
4	In the past twelve months, did you or any household member have to eat some foods that you really did not want to eat because of a lack of resources to obtain other types of food?	0= No (SKIP TO Q5) 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	
5	In the past twelve months, did you or any household member have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed because there was not enough food? Ex. Small meal in than what the child want	0= No (SKIP TO Q6) 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	
6	In the past twelve months, did you or any other household member have to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food? Ex only once or Skipping	0= No (SKIP TO Q7) 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	
7	In the past twelve months, was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your household because of lack of resources to get food? Ex. empty store	0= No (SKIP TO Q8) 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	
8	In the past twelve months, did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?	0= No (SKIP TO Q9) 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	
9	In the past twelve months, did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?	0= No 1=Yes	1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	

Part Xi Coping strategies employed by displaced farmers (CSI) were employed

Instruction 9: Below are statements related with your coping strategies, so circle a letter that fulfills your choice

1. Have you employed any coping mechanisms to cope up with the problems you faced due to urban expansion to the peri-urban areas?

A. Yes

B. No

2. If “yes” which coping strategy mechanisms were you used? (more than one option is possible)

Coping strategies	Frequency of occurrence
Rely on less preferred and less expensive foods?	
Borrow food, or rely on help from a friend or relative?	
Purchase food on credit?	
Gather wild food, hunt, or harvest immature crops?	
Consume seed stock held for next season?	
Send household members to eat elsewhere?	
Send household members to beg?	
Limit portion size at mealtimes?	
Restrict consumption by adults in order for small children to eat?	
Feed working members of HH at the expense of nonworking members?	
Ration the money you have and buy prepared food?	
Reduce number of meals eaten in a day?	
Skip entire days without eating?	

Source: Maxwell and Caldwell (2003) Adopted from MessayMulugeta (phd) dissertation.

Appendix

In-depth interview guide question for displaced households

- 1, what are the actors involved in the development program of evicted farmers to ensure food security for evicted farmers?
- 2, what are the major challenges of the agricultural sector due to urban expansion in the Area?
- 3, Have you had social fabrics (such as ider...) before you are displaced?
- 4, If you say yes, how you form/establish the group? And for what purpose?
- 5, Have you participate in the group know?
- 6, If yes, what support did you get from this group due to your eviction?
- 6, If no why you stop your engagement?
- 7, what are the effects of your dislocation on your family?
- 8, what are the impacts of your displacement from your original place on your children's Education?
- 9, what is the effect of your dislocation on your kinship relationship?