



ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
School of Graduate Studies and Research
College of Development Studies
Environment and Development Studies Program

Urban poverty in Ethiopian cities: A case from poor neighborhoods of Hawassa City, SNNPR.

A Thesis Submitted in Partial fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Masters of Arts (Environment and Development)

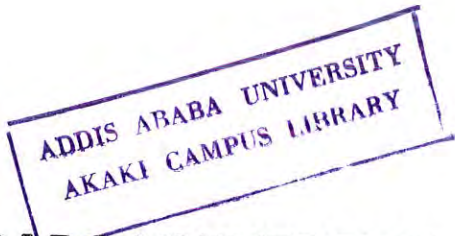
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Title

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June, 2013

This Thesis is Dedicated to:

My Grandmother Abebech Bedaso

And

For all those who Suffer in Poverty from

Cradle to Grave;

Let their Children have a Bright Future!!



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Abstract

This study was conducted in Hawassa City and it was triggered by problems like scant literatures in the issue of urban poverty in the country, spatially biased nature of these scant literatures and neglect paid to the urban centers and the urban poor of the country. Hence, in this study attempts were made to address these problems by meeting objectives of the study. The main objective of the study was to uncover the realities of the urban poor's and the environment they reside in. The specific objectives derived from this include identify the prime cause of urban poverty in the study area, explain the living conditions of the urban poor, address the impacts of urban poverty, explain environmental impacts in the study area and assess the role of concerned agencies in addressing the problem.

To achieve this end, both primary and secondary data sources were used. The primary data collection methods used includes survey questionnaire, interview and observation. The data gathered through these methods were analyzed and interpreted thoroughly; producing major findings of the study. The major findings of the study were substantiated by secondary data sources from different literatures; to increase credibility of the findings.

The major findings of the study include very high illiteracy and related low paying dead end jobs, extremely high population density, problems in meeting educational qualifications among children of the poor, very high rent tenancy primarily attracted by low rent fees, exploitation of the poor and neglect by government agencies. And it was concluded that most of these problems, primarily, emanates from the high illiteracy and its consequent low paying jobs; while not forgetting the neglect by government agencies have also a contribution. To address the problems identified recommendations were made: promoting adult functional literacy, building low cost houses, ensure quality of education at the public schools and the likes.



Chapter one

Introduction

1.1. Background

Poverty is a worldwide phenomenon, but with a varying degree; the least developed countries being severely affected. The first debate about the possibility of a world without poverty was inspired in the 18th century (Jones, 2004). Despite this, poverty continues to proliferate in our modern era. J. Somavia, 1995, in Todaro and Smith (2006), states that the unfinished business of the 21st century is eradication of poverty. The poverty in our world can be of two types: Rural and Urban Poverty. The focus of this research will be on Urban Poverty.

The present UN Secretary General, Ban-Ki-moon, stated that cities are venues where rapid, dramatic change is expected. According to him cities present opportunities and reduce disparities in development and improving living conditions in general (UN habitat, 2008). This is what is generally expected of cities of the world. But despite this, today the unexpected expansion and growth of cities is posing a threat on humanity.

In our present world, half of humanity lives in cities; and even in the coming two decades about sixty percent of the world's population will dwell in urban centers. The lion share of the urban population increase will be contributed by developing nations. In the developing nations an average of five million residents in every month floods in to the cities (UN HABITAT, 2008). These can clearly indicate us cities in our world are expanding dramatically. In another example, in the 1950's our world hosts only two mega cities New York and Tokyo), but at present the number exceed twenty (Hutchison, 2010). See table Annex III on the last page.

Note that expansion and growth of cities is not a problem by itself. It will only be a problem when cities expand and swell beyond their capacity; these will create a problem: slums and urban poverty. This reality vibrantly observed in most developing nations; the mass movement of

people from Rural-to-Urban Centers, especially, in the developing nations is beyond city's ability to sustain the new arrivals. This is leading to urbanization of poverty (Aas Franko, 2007).

The study conducted by Hossain (2011) about Bangladesh's Urban poverty revealed that the issue of rural- urban migration is closely linked with urban poverty. At present according to the UN projection about 193,107 people flooded to cities in each day; that is slightly more than two persons in every second (UN-Habitat, 2008). As a result, about one billion people or thirty two percent of the world's urban population lives in slum, the worst form of urban poverty (UN habitat, 2003). The late UN Secretary General Kofi A. Annan, express this situation by saying "the locus of global poverty is moving to cities".

From this number of slum dwellers, the share of the developing region is the highest; 43 Percent. Specifically, Sub-Saharan Africa dwells the largest proportion of people (71.9%) who lives in the worst form of urban poverty (UN Habitat, 2003).

The growth of cities also carries serious environmental consequences (Aas Franko 2007). Williamson, Imbroscio and Alperovitz (2005) further explain this idea

"...urban expansion and growth is synonymous with consumption of land, including both farm land and forest habitat, as well as with the greenhouse emission and fuel associated with automobile use and traffic congestion".

These phenomenon taking place in cities are affecting both local and global environment. Cities create atmospheric change, such as buildings and paved streets retain heat and urban centers become heat islands. Covering the city and its surrounding ground with buildings, paved roads and parking lots waterproofs the land surface; thereby increases the risk of flooding since the rainfall can't be absorbed by the ground. Also cities are notorious for their contribution in air pollution. Especially, at present the cities of developing nations are the most common places for air and other pollution occurrences. For example, the air in Bangkok is often so dirty it can be seen. Even more worst, breathing the air in Mexico City is equivalent to smoking two packets of

cigarette per day (Palen, 2005). Therefore one can certainly argue that, cities are an important source of pollution and greenhouse gas emission (Hutchson, 2011).

By any standard Ethiopia is the poorest nation in the planet. According to the interim report of MoFED (2012a) 29.6% of the nation's population is below the poverty line in 2010/11. From this the share of the Rural poor (30.4%) is higher than the Urban poor (25.7%). Though poverty has shown declining pattern in the country in general in the last five years, and hence both rural and urban poverty has declined as well; but the severity of urban poverty has increased than the previous five years (0.026% in 2004/05, 0.027% in 2010/11). Again even if inequality has increased in the last five years in Rural areas, still the inequality is higher in Urban areas of the country than the Rural.

At present, the communities we are living in are growing with unprecedented speed; the explosive growth of cities has been one of the defining threats of the contemporary world (Davis, 2006). Our country, Ethiopia, is still among the least urbanized countries. But it is experiencing rapid urbanization at present. Rapid urbanization is not a novel phenomenon in Ethiopia only. It is a universal phenomenon. Usually rapid urbanization, especially in cities of developing nations, is followed by urban poverty (Bikila, 2011)

This rapid urbanization in cities of developing nations is primarily attributed to the Rural- Urban migration. Consequently, this movement of people increases poverty in urban centers of developing nations (Bikila, 2011). And hence, what the migration does is transferring rural poverty to urban poverty. To describe this situation Scholars have coined a term "Urbanization of Poverty" (Tegegn, 2011).

As a result, of this and other factors urban poverty has become one serious threat in cities of developing nations; in Ethiopia too. Despite this, most literatures about urban pathologies are concentrated on cities of developed nations, in which the problem is not rampant or is controlled (Aas Franko, 2010). In addition urban centers in many third world countries are sources of

environmental health hazards for their residents (Ezana, 2008), Ethiopia is with no exception in this regard too.

In Ethiopia, studies concerning cities are scattered in general (Ottaway, 1976 and Yeraswork, 2008); and also much is not done in the area of urban poverty in the country. The issue of Urban poverty and environment are not yet investigated in sufficient depth yet. Most studies on urban poverty in Ethiopia predominantly focus on income and expenditure; with little attention being given to the relation between urban poverty and the environment (Ezana, 2008). Even The few studies concerning urban poverty are, can be said, solely focusing on the capital city Addis Ababa. To mention some of the recent researches which focus on Addis Ababa Merone (2005), Netsanet (2009), and Yared (2010).

1.2 Statement of the problem

Hawassa City is the capital of SNNPR, Sidama Zone Administration and Hawassa Zuria Woreda Astedader; these factors highly contributed to the rapid population growth and expansion of the City. Hence, Hawassa City becomes the rapidly urbanizing City of the country. Though, the city is the first to be established on a master plane base in the whole country, urban poverty is seriously evident in it too (Zelege and Serkalem, 2008). The city administration, knowing this, state in its vision eradicating/ reducing poverty in 2015EC from the city as its target. This vision will not be achieved unless the prime causes of the problem are identified. Therefore, this research will contribute an input in meeting the vision of the city administration via identifying major causes and addressing ways of tackling them.

Hawassa city is subdivided in to eight sub cities among which three of the sub cities (Bahil Adarash, Mehal and Mesrak Sub city) are the poorest segments of the City Administration.

The residents of these three sub cities are pioneer settlers of the city in different kebelles; namely Harar and Andenet Kebele (in Bahil Adarash Sub City), Wukro Kebele (in Mesrak Sub City) and Addis Ababa and Leku Kebel (in Mehal Sub City) (Zelege and Serkalem, 2008). Among the

thirty two kebeles of the city, the mentioned five kebeles are badly affected by urban poverty as the respective Sub City Administrators identified.

At the beginning these kebeles were inhabited by ex-imperial army soldiers; and as many literatures argue ex-soldiers are among the prime victims of poverty. The living conditions in these kebele's is very much deteriorated: the houses are poorly constructed /dilapidated and very much congested, and have high density of population. Facing theses and other problems, the people continue to live in the area.

Further, the expansion and growth of the city carries environmental consequences. First the establishment of the city contributed to the deforestation of the area. At present the increased runoff, which is attributed by the increased built up area, and erosion is contributing to siltation of the lake. The effluent from the industries of the city is also polluting the lake. In addition the growth and expansion of the Hawassa is highly contributing to the deforestation of the surrounding areas (SNNPR water Bureau, 2007).

Despite these realities and the UN estimates of more than eighty percent of the urban population in Ethiopia lives in slum (the worst form of urban poverty). Urban poor of the country are neglected in favor of the rural. Plus, the scanty literatures available on urban poverty are too much focused on Addis Ababa. Any single research can't be found about the condition of urban poverty in Hawassa city.

Hence, this paper first, tries to contribute to the scant collection of literatures in the area. Second, will bring new insights to the spatially biased studies on urban poverty by focusing on Hawassa City, where no former research has been conducted. Finally, it will try to uncover the realities of urban poor of the City by focusing on and attempting to answer the following research questions:

- ✓ What caused urban poverty in the study area?
- ✓ How the poor lives and cope with the poverty they face?
- ✓ What environmental impacts are observed in the study area?

- ✓ What measures have been taken by concerned agencies to address the problem?

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General objectives

- To uncover the realities of the urban poor's and the environment they reside-in.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

- To identify the prime cause of urban poverty in the study area.
- Explain the living conditions of the urban poor.
- To address the impacts of urban poverty.
- To explain environmental impacts in the study area.
- To assess the role of concerned agencies in addressing the problem.

1.4. Scope of the study

Covering wide geographic area and all aspects of urban poverty is impossible. Thus geographically, the study was limited to Hawassa city particularly, to the three sub cities of the city: BahilAdarash, Mehal Ketema and Misrak Sub Cities. Thematically, in this study attempts were made to cover four dimensions of urban poverty; these are Income/consumption, Educational status, Health and Sanitation.

1.5. Significance of the Study

This research will definitely have important significances for Hawassa City Administration, the public at large and academicians. Since the study is aimed at identifying , main causes of poverty in the area and major impacts of urban poverty on the society; it will produce major inputs to meet the vision of the city administration as it to eradicating poverty from the city if possible or reducing it significantly by 2015 EC.

The recommendations that are made after a thorough investigation of the problem will indicate ways out-of poverty for the society. At last, the research being produced by following scientific research methodologies can contribute to the scant literatures available in the area of urban poverty in the country in general and particularly, to Hawassa City by producing the first

scientific research on urban poverty of the city. Thereby it can also probe other researchers to investigate the issue of urban poverty in Hawassa City further.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The successful accomplishment of this study was challenged by the following factors. At the beginning, it was a bit difficult to get the consent of the City administration, but later they were willing and cooperative. As the research proceeds, the other hindering factor was meeting the Sub-City and Kebele administrators on schedule. Because of the frequent meetings they had, it was very difficult to meet them on one appointment; even sometimes up to four or five appointments were necessary to meet them. This creates a huge delay on the schedule of the research. High turnover of officials was also another hindering factor. Since the new officials don't have any clue about the research, it was necessary to explain from the very beginning and convince them to get any information from them; this was time consuming too.

In addition to the officials, there were some challenges from the respondents too. Some of the nominated key informants by the health extension workers, who were thought to be well aware of the situation around, were unwilling to be interviewed. In such cases second options were taken and this might compromise quality of information a bit. Similarly, some questionnaire responses, especially, those related to income, were having some wrongs; they exaggerated their expenses over their income. In such cases, in consultation with my advisor, remedies were taken. Coupled with all these, financial constraint was also putting pressure on the researcher.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Basic Concepts

➤ Poverty

Poverty is one of the most subjective terms. Consequently it is difficult to put one universal definition of it. Schaefer (2003) stated that the effort of sociologists and other social scientists to better understand the term 'poverty' is complicated by the difficulty of defining it. Kornblum and Julian (1999) also reflected that there has been continuing debate and controversies over the definitions of poverty.

These controversies and debates of defining poverty; leads to diversification of its definition. For Beckert and Zafirovski (2006), poverty represents economic hardship. Still others like Parrillo (2008) argues that poverty is one of the world's most costly and serious social problem, for him poverty represents the vast unused and under used potential of millions of people; it costs societies in lost revenues, in lost productivity, in ill health, social dysfunction and environmental degradation. For World Bank, those who earn less than \$1 a day are under the international poverty line.

To reduce this subjectivity of defining poverty, social scientists put it as 'Absolute poverty' and 'Relative poverty'.

Absolute poverty- As Parrillo (2008) absolute poverty is the condition in which people are unable to achieve the basic necessities of life, such as, food, clothing, and shelter. For Todaro and Smith (2006) Absolute poverty represents a specific minimum level of income needed to satisfy the basic physical needs of a person (food, clothing, and shelter) in order to ensure continued survival.

Basic needs are at the heart of the two definitions. The World Bank argued that, if a person earns not less than \$1.25 a day s/he can meet their basic needs. But, this minimum level of income set

by the World Bank has not get the consent of all countries of the world; in addition this minimum level varies from time to time and region to region (Todaro and Smith, 2006).

From 1985 to 2005, the World Bank has used \$1 a day as an absolute poverty line indicator. But, since 2005 the World Bank revised it to be \$1.25 a day. Region wise, the UN uses different indicators of absolute poverty line. For the highly improvised regions like Africa, it uses \$1 a day. While for those regions which are not highly improvised: Eastern and Central Europe it uses \$2 and \$3 a day respectively (Parrillo, 2008)

Relative poverty- it is a floating standard of deprivation by which people at the bottom of the society, whatever their life style is judged to be disadvantaged in comparison with the nation as a whole (Schaefer, 2003). Another scholar Parrillo (2008) define relative poverty as socially constructed norms of wellbeing in comparison to some proportion of a society thought to be lacking.

Though it has been thought this dichotomization of poverty in to Absolute and Relative would relative the debates and controversies of defining poverty, it has not achieved that yet. As Marcus and Dunklin (1998) pointed out, particularly over the past century there has been debate about what is understood by poverty and a lot of the discussion has been about whether poverty should be defined in absolute or relative terms.

➤ **Town, City and Urbanization**

A **Town** is a human settlement larger than a village but smaller than a city. Though the concept **City** and its associated phenomena vary by time, place, population size, area and function; it generally represents a relatively large, dense, permanent, heterogeneous and politically autonomous settlement whose population engage in a range of non-agrarian occupations (Borgatta and Montgomery, 2000 and Palen, 2005). The most common way to define city has been population size. Though different countries use different size of population to define their city, the UN marks 100,000 inhabitants as a boundary. Again when the population of a city

proliferate and reaches 10 million or more, the city will grow to Mega City (Borgatta and Montgomery, 2000 and Palen, 2005).

The process that makes rural villages towns, and that develop towns in the cities and again that creates metropolitans called Mega cities out of cities is called URBANIZATION. Hence, **Urbanization** is the process by which large number of people over time becomes concentrated in cities (Parrillo, 2008). For Palen (2005) urbanization denotes a process by which a rural area is transformed in to an urban place.

➤ **Urban, Urban poor's and urban poverty**

The word urban as Hutchison (2010) argues, comes from the Latin 'Urbs' meaning city. Hence, 'urban' etymological definition is equivalent to City. Urban are the result of permanent human settlement. The first permanent human settlements are estimated to have begun some 10,000 years ago or 8000 BC. Urban life appears independently from these permanent settlements at around 5,000 BC or 7,000 years ago in Egypt, Mesopotamia, India, and China (Hutchison, 2010).

A major change in the world urbanization happened following one of the greatest revolution in human History, Industrial Revolution. Industrial Revolution brought increasing number of persons from the country side to the Cities (Hutchison, 2010). Following this places that develop modern agriculture, transportation and industrial technologies, such as Europe and North America, started the first Urban transformation (Palen, 2005).

Before the revolution, in 1800, only three percent of the world population resides in the urban places. But, immediately after the revolution, in 1900, the number of urbanites reached 12 percent. Since then, the number of urban resident's sky rocketed. In 1950 the number reached 29 percent. Astonishingly, in 2008 half of the world's population resides in urban centers and build twenty one mega cities across the world. It is projected that in 2030, more than 60 percent or 2/3 of the world's population will be urbanite; by that time, as many studies indicate, the number of

Mega cities will also be doubled; this most likely will exacerbate the urban pathologies (Hutchison, 2010 and Hossain, 2011).

This explosive growth of cities has become one of the defining traits of the contemporary world (Aas Franko, 2007). Another scholar, Hossain (2011) states that rapid urbanization is creating severe pressure on cities and straining the urban absorptive capacity, thereby aggravating urban poverty. As an indicator of these Aas Franko, (2007) and Hossain, (2011) stated that more than one billion poor people are living in slum and shanty towns of the world urban areas.

At present the explosive growth of cities is dominant in the developing countries than the developed. Hossain, (2011) describe this phenomena by saying in the south urbanization is very rapid despite its level. He indicated that the level of urbanization (development of facilities in the urban centers) in developing nations is very poor. The low level of urbanization plus the high influx of migrants to the urban centers have complicated the life of urban dwellers in developing countries.

The UN-Habitat (2008) indicates that one out of every three people living in cities of the developing world dwells in Slums. As the UN- Habitat (2008) report argues the problem is even worst in Sub-Saharan Africa; here about 62 percent of the urban dwellers live in Slums. Particularly in Ethiopia, Angola, Central Republic Africa, Chad, Guinea Bissau, Madagascar, Mozambique, Niger, Sierra Leone and Sudan the number of urban dwellers living in Slum is high (UN-Habitat, 2008).

Since, the growth of cities in the developing countries is high; it is projected that by 2030 the cities of the developing world will host more than Eighty percent of the Worlds urban population (Hutchison, 2010). This rapidly flourishing cities has environmental consequences too.

The urban poor are the main victim of environmental degradation. Rapid population increase fueled by the mass Rural-Urban migration is leading to unprecedented rates of urban population growth. This rapid increment of the population puts pressure on the existing urban facilities:

water supplies, sanitation facilities, housing and other urban infrastructures. From all these, the poor are the main victims because they can't afford other alternatives available on the market (Todaro and Smith, 2012).

In addition, the urban poor are, most of the time, at a great risk of being exposed to harmful environmental conditions. The houses they live in have extremely poor ventilation and are very much congested, the places they work (street vendors and market) are highly exposed to harmful pollutants (Todaro and Smith, 2012). All these factors put the urban poor at the heart of environmental impacts.

2.2 Urban Environment

Though cities cover very small percentage of the earth's surface (0.25 percent), usually they are hearts of nations (Hutchison, 2010). In addition cities are, comparatively, recent social developments in human history covering not more than seven thousand years; nonetheless, the era of cities encompasses what we totally label 'CIVILIZATION' (Palen, 2005). This is mainly because cities and urbanized areas are centers for production, consumption, industry and motorized activity. These activities result in air pollution, urban ground and surface water contamination, urban waste dumping and expansion of built up areas and its impact on natural areas, agriculture and biodiversity. Generally, at the global level urban environmental burdens are associated with two main factors: Energy consumption pattern and land use change (UN-Habitat, 2008). These two factors can be sub-domains of what Todaro and Smith (2012) called Urbanization and Industrial growth as the first factor of urban environmental problems. They also acknowledge that congestion of the urban setting is also contributing to urban environmental problems. But it should be noted that the causes for sever urban environmental problems are numerous.

Energy sources are highly consumed at urban centers. For example, energy for heating and lighting residential and commercial buildings generates nearly a quarter of total greenhouse gas emission globally. Also most transport networks, which are also high consumers of energy, are

located in cities. In United States thirty two percent of all greenhouse gas realizes is attributed to vehicles. Hence, cities are key players in carbon dioxide emission, because most human and economic activities are centered in them (UN-Habitat, 2008). By analyzing these factors Todaro and Smith (2012) concluded that in the early stage of industrialization and urbanization, especially in developing countries, income is increasing and environment is worsening.

Land use change, which can be manifested through land consumption, impacts the overall ecosystem. It can damage existing wild life, and reduce bio diversity, since existing wildlife habitats are fragmented. Hence these places become less capable of supporting wide variety of species (Williamson, Imbroscio and Alperovitez, 2005). As built up areas increase; urban heat islands are created. Consequently, air temperature in cities is warmer, surface temperature is also warmer, the soil moisture is reduced and pollutant concentration is increased (Oke,T.R, 1997 in Hutchison, 2010). All these phenomena are to be worsened by congestion of the urban setting.

Cumulatively, the above mentioned factors threaten the health of the urban poor. Inaccessibility of clean water and lack of sanitation are the two most important environmental factors which are directly or indirectly attributed to the above mentioned factors and put the health of urban poor at risk. Still over one billion people have no access to clean water. Similarly, 1.5 billion people are lacking adequate sanitation (Todaro and Smith, 2012).

In general, when cities are not properly planned, governed, or managed, they can easily threaten the quality of air, the availability of water, the capacity of waste processing and recycling and many other qualities of the urban and the urban environment. These factors make cities and urban based activities to be blamed for increased greenhouse gas emission (UN-Habitat, 2008). Hence cities should be properly planned, governed and managed to reduce their environmental impacts.

2.3 Urbanization in Ethiopia

➤ History of Urbanization in Ethiopia

Ethiopia, a nation known to be the cradle of mankind, the strongest nation in the ancient world, origin of the most popular drink (coffee) and the only African nation to have its own alphabets and numerals; as Marina Ottaway and also so many other Historians argue, one of the most remarkable fact in this long history of the country is a general absence of urbanization (Ottaway, 1976). This argument can be supported by the fact that Ethiopia had three known permanent urban centers since the dawn of the first Millennium up to the last decades of the 19th century. These known urban centers were very much distant from each other in time and in location; separated by centuries from each other. So the question is why the urbanization process lacks continuity? In response to this question many arguments are raised by historians. But first let's see the general features of the three known permanent urban centers in Ethiopian history: Axum, Lalibela and Gonder; Ottaway (1976) in his assessment of urbanization in Ethiopia refers them as a 'brief episodes of urbanization in the long and essentially rural history of the country'.

The greatness of Axumite Empire is not contested by any one (Kinfé, 2001). The Axumite civilization begins around 700 BC. During its high day Axum was the center, which was surrounded by many other towns and they were linked with them sleeves and the outside world via trade. During this time the kingdom was stretched to the other side of the Red Sea and controlled kingdoms like Himyar and Rayn (Kinfé, 2001). Generally, the Axumite Empire is known for its high achievements in construction technology, architecture and art of writing (Ibid). Emanuel G. Yesus (1989) in Kinfé (2001) indicates the greatness of Axumite empire by saying 'Axumite kingdom had dominated the African and Arabian coast line for almost half a millennium (2nd -7th century AD).

Sylvia Pankhurst (1955) in Kinfe (2001) indicated that this prosperous and great civilization (Axum) was the capital of Ethiopia. But since 702 AD¹, the importance and greatness of Axum had declined, and much is not known about the remaining history of the kingdom until the rise of Zagwe dynasty in 1150 AD, except the total burn down of the city, Axum, by Queen Yodit in around 950 AD (Kinfe 2001).

The second notable brief episode of urbanization in Ethiopian history was the Zagwe Dynasty. The Zagwe dynasty lasted about a hundred and twenty years from (1150-1270 AD). By far the most crucial achievement of the Zagwe dynasty was building of the marvelous churches; and making Roha (what is now Lalibela) the second permanent city in the History of Ethiopia (Ibid). Though it is still arguable whether these religious centers were also urban centers, the argument of Lewis Mumford (1961) in Ottaway (1976) inclines over the others 'the ceremonial meeting place is the first germ of the city'. Hence, these religious places were the germs which initiate the formation of the second permanent urban center in Ethiopia. But, since the Zagwe's were considered as usurpers; in 1270 AD their capital was abandoned and the kingship was returned to the 'legitimate Solomonic Lineage' YeKunoAmlak (Ibid).

Following this transition of power, Ethiopia enters the Medieval period. This period witnessed the rise and decline of many rulers; and Ethiopia waited three hundred and sixty two years to get its third permanent urban center. It was Emperor Fasiledes (1632-67) who built the famous castles of Gonder and Several Churches; and make Gonder the center of culture and religious education (Kinfe, 2001). The founding of Gonder was a significant event in the history of Ethiopia. First it abandoned wandering of kings; second its foundation initiated period of growth and prosperity in the whole Ethiopia (Ottaway, 1976). Gonder in the eighteenth century was a 'big city' hosting about 65,000 inhabitants. But following The Era of Princes (Zemene Mesafint², since 1769) the great city of Gonder entered a period of decline and lost its role of being the capital of the king. During this period endless internal war were fought here and there leaving no

¹ Axumite empire's most important port, Port Adulis, was destroyed by the Arabs (Kinfe, 2001)

² This era lasted until the coming of king Tewodros II in 1855 (Kinfe, 2001)

room for permanent settlement and urbanization (Kinfe, 2001 and Ottaway, 1976). But what marked the total collapse and decline of Gonder was the invasion, loot and arson of the Derbush/Mahadists in 1887 (Ottaway, 1976) following the death of kind Yohanes IV.

Then again, it took hundred and twenty two years to find the present permanent city, Addis Ababa. To have a glimpse over the general movement of the kings of Ethiopia let's take a look on the movement of Menelik II before and after his coronation, as put by Ottaway (1967).

Table2.1: Capitals of Menelik II since1868 - 1891

Capital	Years it served
1. Ankober	1868 - 1876
2. Lice	1876 - 1882
3. Ankober and Deber Berhan	1882 - 1884
4. Entoto	1884 - 1887
5. Entoto and Addis Ababa	1887 - 1891
6. Addis Ababa ³	1891 to the present

Source: adapted from Marina Ottaway, 1976: P.43.

Within twenty three years (1863-1891) Menelik II has moved back and forth in six capitals. Stepping on this, if we ask why the Ethiopian kings used to wonder around than having a permanent capital; we found power struggle and internal wars at the heart of their movement. The second factor which had forced the kings to change capitals frequently was unwise use of resources especially fire wood at the places they settle. '...this scarcity of firewood was mainly responsible for the lack of permanent royal residence' (S. Chojnacki (1963) in Ottaway, 1976). But the introduction of Eucalyptus tree (*Eucalyptus Globulus*) had definitely saved Addis Ababa from what its predecessors had witnessed; replacement by another capital.

³ Between 1891 and 1913 Addis Ababa's permanency as a capital was threatened when Menelik II shows preference for Addis Alem (Ottaway, 1976)

➤ **Contemporary Urbanization in Ethiopia**

Since the twentieth century the urbanization pattern in Ethiopia has changed. In the words of AkaleWold Michel this phenomenon is described as ‘Urban development in Ethiopia has showed discernible change during the first quarter of the twentieth century’ (Ottaway, 1976). This change in the pattern of urbanization can be attributed to territorial expansion, development of new system of administration and development of communication and commerce (Ibid).

These internal factors coupled with the brief Italian occupation⁴ (1936-1941) mushroomed the number of urban centers in the country. By the time the book of Ottaway’s was published (1976) the number of Urban settlements in Ethiopia reached two hundred. Even a bit prior, in 1972 eight urban centers with more than 30,000 dwellers were identified: Addis Ababa, Asmera, Dire Dawa, Dessi, Harer, Jimma, Nazreth and Gonder. Cognizant with this, provincial capitals also began to swell; some of the noted provincial capitals for high population increase, at the time of Ottaway’s book publication, include, Awassa (now Hawassa), Arbaminch and Metu (Ottaway, 1976).

This massive change in the pattern of urbanization in Ethiopia starts to attract the attention of scholars. Yeraswork (2008) supported this fact by saying

‘...research and publication on urbanization, urban development and urban transformation issues in Ethiopia had a good start in the 1960’s and early 1970’s with contributions from prominent geographers, (Mesfin Wolde-Mariam, Jean comhaire, Akalou wolde –Michael, and Ronald Horrath), historians (Richard pankhurst), economists (Eshetu Chole), Sociologists and Social Anthropologists (Fecadu Gedamu), as well as from students they trained’.

The then Ethiopian Central Statistics Office in 1968 also puts criteria’s to the mushrooming urban centers of the country; and accordingly a settlement, back then, was considered as town if:

⁴ For example the Italian occupation has changed Jimma from small village to large urban center (Ottaway, 1976)

'Building and houses were continuously aligned, there is at least one public bar in which alcoholic beverages are sold, there is at least one hotel; where a stranger can pay for a bed for the night, there is at least one permanent shop selling different kinds of goods and there is at least one weekly market.'

Source: adopted from Ottaway, 1976; P.IV

All these efforts by the scholars and government were helpful to understand the urban centers of the country at that time. But the efforts have not continued; when the number of urban centers and the related pathologies increased, the efforts of the scholars has decreed. In the words of Yeraswork, 'unfortunately, this tradition (i.e the initiation in research and publication shown in 1960's and 70's) did not continue with the same pace and rigor in the decades that followed' (Yeraswork, 2008). Hence, the urban centers of the country left unexplored. This contributed for the neglect of urban centers in the country. Still what the Amharic term "ketema" signifies is not clear. The 2008 urban proclamation of Ethiopia states that any settlement with a population of 2000 or more and if fifty or more percent of the labour force is engaged in non-agricultural activity the place is urban center or 'ketema' in Amharic; no other definition is given for other huge settlement of people. So, according to the proclamation any more 2000 or more collection of people who are non-agrarian and Addis Ababa, the only primate city of the country, has equal status? Both are urban center or 'ketema' says the proclamation! This clearly shows the neglect paid to urban centers of the country; also lack of researches to differentiate the level of the urban centers in the country. But, to get the most out of the urban centers of the country the neglect and research attitude should change.

2.4 Theoretical Review

In this part four theories are presented: Urban Ecological, Culture of Poverty, Political Economy and Social Isolation and Concentration Effect. Each theory is used to review and summarize previous works on urban poverty in an organized manner. Finally, the strength and weakness of each theory is discussed.

2.4.1 Urban Ecological theory

One of the most influential contributions to examining the effects of global mobility on city life, and on social life in general, came in the early decades of the 20th century from the Chicago school of sociology (Aas Franko, 2007). And the theory came to be known as Urban Ecological theory (Curley, 2005).

By taking the sprawling, chaotic and ethnically diverse city of Chicago as a background, the scholars set out to explore the meaning and the 'Urban ecology' of the industrial city. The notion of ecology in this case refers not only to the physical environment but first and for most to the social environment and how the combination of the two shapes the unique nature of city life (Aas Franko, 2007).

Urban ecological theory has two slightly different sub-divisions. The first theorists led by Wirth, Shaw and Mckay examined the disorganized nature of cities and the negative effects of social disorganization in certain poor neighborhoods (Curley, 2005). The other theorists led by park and Burgess, which is more popular, analyzed cities through Human Ecology lens and saw poor urban neighborhoods as transitional and functional zones of larger urban metropolises: places where new immigrant groups would pass through for temporary period of time (Park and Burges, 1925 in Curley, 2005).

The most important assumption of human ecology was that the city was like a living organism that consisted of interdependent parts and these parts are arranged in a regular pattern. According to the theory changes in land use pattern or residential location were thought to be driven by competition for land; the group that could bid more for space were able to obtain better location (Kleniewski, 2003).

When a city is formed and grows, people and their activities cluster in a particular area. Over time the competition for land and other scarce resources leads to the division of the urban space into distinctive ecological niches / zones/. Each niche is occupied by people who share similar

socio-economic characteristics, because they are subjected to the same ecological pressure (Carrabine et al, 2004).

Park and Burgess argued that when cities are fully grown it would take the form of five concentric rings with areas of social and physical deterioration concentrated near the city center and more prosperous areas located near the city's edge (Carrabine et al, 2004).

The first most inner circle (Zone I) at the center is economically the center of the city (Carrabiane et-al, 2004). At the heart of Zone I, usually, consumption oriented commercial activities are dominant. The most common activities include major stores, retail shops, hotels, theaters and head quarters of political, economic, legal and civic leaders. Mostly the activities at zone I are intensive space users; mainly because costs of purchase or Lease and taxes are high. These costs are also accompanied by high nuisance. Since, residential users can't afford the high cost at these places and don't want the pollution, noise and congestion, zone I is almost non residential area (Palen, 2005).

The second ring, which surrounds zone I, is dominated by production oriented activities. Zone II is also a point of entry for new immigrants and is a place where they took their first glimpse of the city. That is new immigrants would settle here, primarily because of the cheap housings near the factories. But, gradually as they get economically strong, they are expected to move outwards. As a result, this zone is labeled as 'Zone of Transition'. Because this place lacks permanent residents and norms it is characterized by high social disorganization and social problems (Carrabine et-al, 2004). Therefore this zone is known for its low socio-economic status residents and diverse social problems; such as high crime and deviance and inner city slum and poverty.

Zone three, zone of respectable working classes, as its name indicates it's a place for the home of working people (Carrabine et-al, 2004 and Palen, 2005). Usually, the occupants of this zone are second generation families; the children of the immigrants who were on the previous zone. Most of the residents of this zone are engaged in blue collar works in zone two (Palen, 2004).

The next concentric ring, Zone IV, is a better residential area occupied by the lower-middle and middle-middle class residents. The typical residents of this zone include small business owners, sales workers, professionals and in general white collar job holders (Palen, 2005). The last concentric ring, Zone V, is a suburban commuters zone (Carrabine et-al, 2004). It is a better residential area with fancy houses and it is occupied by the upper middle classes and the upper classes in general (Palen, 2005).

From urban Ecological theorist's point of view urban poverty is found in the second concentric ring near the city center, which they call zone of transition. But, different researches which were conducted in our country and elsewhere has shown that urban poverty and urban Poor's are not spatially limited to the center only. They reside in different locations including the suburbs of the city, which urban ecologists expect it to be zone of prosperity and luxury residential area; denote by the last most outer ring.

Wang (2004) in his book, *Urban poverty, Housing, and Social Change in China*, which focuses on two industrial Cities of China: Shenyang and Chongqing; indicated that the most prominent areas occupied by poor urbanites in Chinese Cities are the so called 'Urban Villages'. As he explains these villages are originally rural settlements, but as a result of urban expansion the farm lands were taken over for infrastructure and property development. Hence the area becomes physically part of the city. The rural background of the villagers compounded with the fewer planning, restrictions and regulations in these areas, contributed for the construction of poor quality houses which are rented with cheaper price. Consequently, the urban villages become the prime target location, for the urban poor, to settle in. As Wang argues, these phenomena is common in all large cities of the country including Beijing the capital, which hosts the best known urban village Zhejiangcun (Zhejiang Village) in southern part of it.

UN-HABITAT in its urban inequality survey in Addis Ababa, in 2004, in which it compared two sub cities of the primate city of the country: Bole and Akaki Kality Sub Cities. It describes the

later sub city, Akaki Kality, which is the southern edge of the city as 'a slum inhabited by the city's poorest residents' (UN-HABITAT, 2008).

These two explanations can clearly show us that urban poverty can exist in the outskirts of the city, an area expected to be inhabited by the well-to-do's according to the explanations of Urban Ecological theory.

Despite these contradictions, there are other research findings which adhere to this theory. Degefa (2008) in his research, understanding the realities of urban poor and their food security situations, identified two Sub Cities and two respective Kebeles from each sub city of the capital Addis Ababa as case studies. The sub cities were Lideta and Nefassilk. Lideta sub city is located at the center of Addis Ababa, while Nifassilk stretches from the center to the south west. From the former he picked Gemechu sefer and from the later Berta Gibi, which is very close to the center. And describe them as 'known to be the inhabitants of people with the very low standard of living', while indicating the existence of poverty at city centers as explained by urban ecological theory. Similarly, a study conducted by Netesanet (2009) indicated the existence of poverty at city centers. The study picked three sub cities from the center of Addis Ababa: Addis Ketema, Arada and Lideta sub cities. After explaining these sub cities were as old as the city itself, it describes them as 'congested slums'.

But generally, this theory is criticized for being too simplistic. It neglects the social and cultural dimensions of urban life and simply explained urban processes in concentric circles. It also does not recognize the permanent nature of many poor neighborhoods. In addition the theory ignore factors others than market forces; such as caste, racial factors, etc, that can shape the movement of groups and land use. At last it is criticized for being 'out dated theory' to explain the current situations. The socio-economic framework it was developed, industrialization, is now replaced by service sector; so it is not able to explain the non-industrial and post industrial towns and cities of the world (Sampson & Morenoff, 1997 in Curley, 2005 and Kleniewski, 2003).

So, to overcome the short comings of urban ecological theory, other theories have been developed. Hence, we shall try to overcome these criticisms by the upcoming theories.

2.4.2 Culture of poverty

The culture of poverty, originally termed the subculture of poverty, is a concept that first appeared in 1959 in the work of North American anthropologist Oscar Lewis. As the name implies, this theory focuses attention on the cultural aspects of poverty (Parrilo, 2008).

According to Lewis this culture originate in endemic unemployment and chronic social immobility. The culture also provides an ideology that allowed poor people to cope with feelings of hopelessness and despair that arose because their chances for socio-economic success were remote (Massey and Denton, 2005).

The theory suggests that the norm and behavior of the poor can be distinguished as a sub culture of larger society and characterized by a distinct way of life (Curley, 2005). As Lewis argues members of the poor society led to the formation of an autonomous sub cultures as children were socialized in to behaviors and attitudes that perpetuated their inability to escape the underclass (Parrilo, 2008).

Lewis listed some seventy⁵ characteristic that indicated the presence of culture of poverty. Massey and Denton (2005) summarized these characteristics in two main groups: Individual manifestations of culture of poverty and Family manifestations of culture of poverty. For the individual manifestations they listed three main characteristics, lack of impulse/sudden urge control, strong present time orientation and little ability to differ gratification, and argued these typified individuals in a culture of poverty. Similarly, they listed four main characteristics for families, no prolonged period of childhood occurs, and consequently, children experience early

⁵ Some of the characteristics Lewis identified are strong feeling of marginality, hopelessness, dependency, not belonging, thinking the existing institutions don't serve their interest and need, feeling of inferiority, personal unworthiness, very little sense of history, they are marginal people who know only their own troubles, their own local condition, their own neighborhood and their own way of life, usually they have neither the knowledge, the vision nor the ideology to see the similarities between their problems and those of others like themselves elsewhere in the world; i.e. they are not class conscious.

initiation into adult activities such as sexual relations, an early initiation in to sex, prevalence of free marital union and high incidence of abandonment of mothers and children thereby amplify families headed by women (Massey and Denton, 2005 and Parrilo, 2008).

In addition families in the culture of poverty are characterized by high divorce rates, they don't participate in community life or join political parties, make little use of bank, hospitals and the likes (Parrilo, 2008).

Generally, culture of poverty theory's argument is that the culture of poverty perpetuates itself from generation to generation. The theory strongly argues the poor remain in poverty because of their adaptation to the burdens of poverty (Parrilo, 2008).

There are many research findings which substantiate the idea of the 'culture of poverty'. One research conducted by Tizita (2001) after describing the location of Woreda 2, in the inner part of Addis Ababa, it state the Woreda as a place where a lot of poverty prone people live. The study try to present some evidences for the poverty of the area: majority of the households in the woreda are engaged in informal activities, substantial number of women in the area involved in commercial sex work and large number of female headed households are evident in the area. These mentioned descriptions are clearly in support of the idea of culture of poverty.

Another research conducted by Addis Tekle (2003) in wereda 23 kebele 16 Nifas silk lafto sub municipality indicate that there is an area called 'koshe sefer' or 'Komatoch sefer'. It is an area dominated by different practices which are too rare in other parts of Addis Ababa. For example; boys scavenge on damped garbage to help themselves and their family. Some girls from this area join prostitution, to make living. As the study indicates this place is also characterized by variety of traditional practices like Uvula cutting, and female circumcision. So one can certainly say this is a sub – culture group tied with poverty; hence, culture of poverty.

There are also some research findings which are against the concept of culture of poverty. The research conducted by Dessalegn Rahamato and Aklilu Kidanu (2002) on the households found

along the main Addis Ababa – Nazareth road including Debere Zeit and Majo stated that poverty is quite widespread in the towns of the study area, and hence close to one half of the population in the study area can be considered poor or very poor. But, unlike the theory of culture of poverty, a significant majority of respondents, 61 percent, in the research said they have used health care service in the last twelve months, 69 percent (Female: 53 percent) reported that they were union members; this indicate their active involvement in community life.

In addition, Culture of poverty theory is criticized for being too deterministic, for its self-serving ideology that blame the victim and for diverting attention away from the structural causes of poverty. It is also criticized for lacking empirical evidences from the real word to fit in Lewis' model and for explaining culture as a reaction to situational constraints. Plus to this, Culture of poverty was unable to explain new phenomena that arise in the urbanization processes, hence prompting the search for alternative theoretical perspective.

2.4.3 Theory of political Economy

The above mentioned theories of urban poverty, Urban Ecological and culture of poverty theories, were unable to explain new urban problems and urban realities which emerged since 1970's. Some of these new issues include declining populations in the central cities, increase racial polarization, government intervention in real estate market, economic instability and the growth difference between rich and poor nations (Kleniewski, 2003). So, the new theoretical perspective expected to explain these new phenomena become the Theory of Political Economy.

In the 1970's, several French sociologist turned their attention to urban studies. They were trying to understand the relations between the real estate market, the government, and social policy that resulted in major urban upheavals (Kleniewski, 2003). Other contributors in the theory were British Geographers and sociologist whose studies helped to reinterpret urban issues. The new writings by the French and British scholars set off a series of conferences and publications that brought scholars together around a common research agenda and give birth to a theoretical perspective referred as Political Economy. In the United States the political economy approach

dated from 1976, when Harvey Molotch published the article “The city as a Growth Machine: Toward a political Economy of place” (Kleniewski, 2003).

Molotch was using political economy to explain urban growth, while a number of other scholars were using political economy to explain urban population decline, urban redevelopment, the persistence of poverty and racial inequality (Kleniowski, 2003).

Various segments of researches on this theory converge on two principles to explain the new urban issues: the first point of convergences is that the capitalist economic structures opportunities result in differential access by social group and location. The second point of convergence is that economic changes influence political and social life. The research agenda that emerged from these studies pinpointed the phenomenon of economic restructuring⁶ as the key to understanding other urban issues including urban poverty (Kleniewski, 2003).

Nevertheless the theory is too vague to understand. In addition it doesn't directly address the issue of urban poverty and also it doesn't precisely and directly indicate what caused urban poverty. Plus to these, the issues it raised are mostly of the 'modernized' world hence; it is not applicable to our country's context and generally to the third world. At last the theory extremely focuses on Economic Restructuring.

Due to these weaknesses of political economy theory, another theory which could be applicable in our country's context and also which could overcome the above mentioned weaknesses is sought.

2.4.4 Social Isolation and Concentration Effects

Social isolation and concentration effects is based on the book of William Julius Wilson's 'The Truly Disadvantaged' which he published in 1987. As Massey and Denton (2003) stated Wilson in his book argues that the transformation of the economy since the mid 1960's resulted in the

⁶ The gradual change, during post WWII, of the world economy in the way that destabilized the industrial economy is known as Economic Restructuring (Kleniowski, 2003)

decline of manufacturing sector, suburbanization of employment and the rise of low wage service sectors like fast food service and guard.

He argues that major shifts in the structure of the American economy, including the suburbanization of jobs and the decreasing demand for low-skilled labor, contributed to a downward spiral for the urban underclass. At the same time because of the shift of the economic base from manufacturing to the service sector, more jobs began requiring formal education and credentials that many inner-city residents lacked (Curly, 2005). The replacement of manufacturing by the service sector, however, provides mere means of survival for the poor, by providing employment in the low wage service sector (Massey and Denton, 2003). Therefore, two key factors best explain why the social conditions of the "urban underclass" deteriorated so rapidly since the mid 1960's: changes in the structure of the economy and changes in the social composition of inner-city neighborhoods (Curly, 2005)

This structural economic shift dramatically reduced the number of city jobs that paid wages sufficient to support a family. That is, coinciding with the major economic shifts, increased joblessness were significant changes in the socioeconomic makeup of urban residents. The high rate of joblessness among inner city dwellers created other inter connected social pathologies like shrinking pool of marriageable man (those financially able to support family) and this in turn makes poor women less interested in marriage and hence unwed childbearing and female headed families proliferate in the inner city (Massey and Denton, 2003).

Before the expansion of service sector and suburbanization of jobs, from the 1940's to the 1960's, inner-city neighborhoods were composed of lower class, working class, and middle-class families. In the 1970's and 1980's that is since the expansion of service sector and suburbanization of jobs, however, middle-class, and working-class groups, eventually moved out of the inner-city, leaving the most disadvantaged residents behind. Wilson labeled the group left behind the urban underclass (Curly, 2005).

Removal of jobs coupled with the flight of middle and working classes from the inner city produced the devastating and isolating effects of concentrated poverty. Wilson suggests that as time went on, poor residents became increasingly isolated from informal job networks, working role models, mainstream institutions, and mainstream patterns of behavior. Middle and working-class families were important for these communities, inner city, because they enhanced stability and social organization by sustaining the basic community institutions (such as schools, churches, and businesses) and reinforcing societal norms and values pertaining to employment, education, and family structure. Thus, Wilson argues, urban communities today are suffering from concentration effects--the effects of concentrated neighborhood poverty on individual residents. He provides a compelling argument that neighborhood poverty affects individual level outcomes, independent of individual and family characteristics (Curly, 2005).

Wilson's thesis, since it recognizes the concentration of poverty in inner city, it can be argued that his explanation incorporates some aspects of the human ecological theory. His explanations also, discusses about isolated, concentrated poor neighborhoods' which are solely inhabited by the urban poor. Since these poor have so many common denominators (such as unemployment, low credentials, unwed childbearing, female headed family, etc) which can be considered as their distinctive feature; they can be considered as 'sub culture groups'⁷ in the wider urbanite. This sub culture, since it highly explains their poverty and also contribute to their poverty, though not certainly, it can be said 'culture of poverty'. Hence, Wilson's explanations have some elements of Lewis's culture of poverty. At last, Wilson puts 'structural transformation of the economy' at the heart of his explanations in the creation of isolated-concentrated poor neighborhoods in the urban centers. This evidences us that his explanation includes some aspects from the political economy theory too.

⁷ Groups that display clear boundaries demarcating them from the rest of the society permanently and share a distinctive set of norms, values and behavior setting them off from the dominant culture are considered as subcultures (Borgatta (2000) Encyclopedia of Sociology, 2nd ed, NY: Macmillan references USA, p 459).

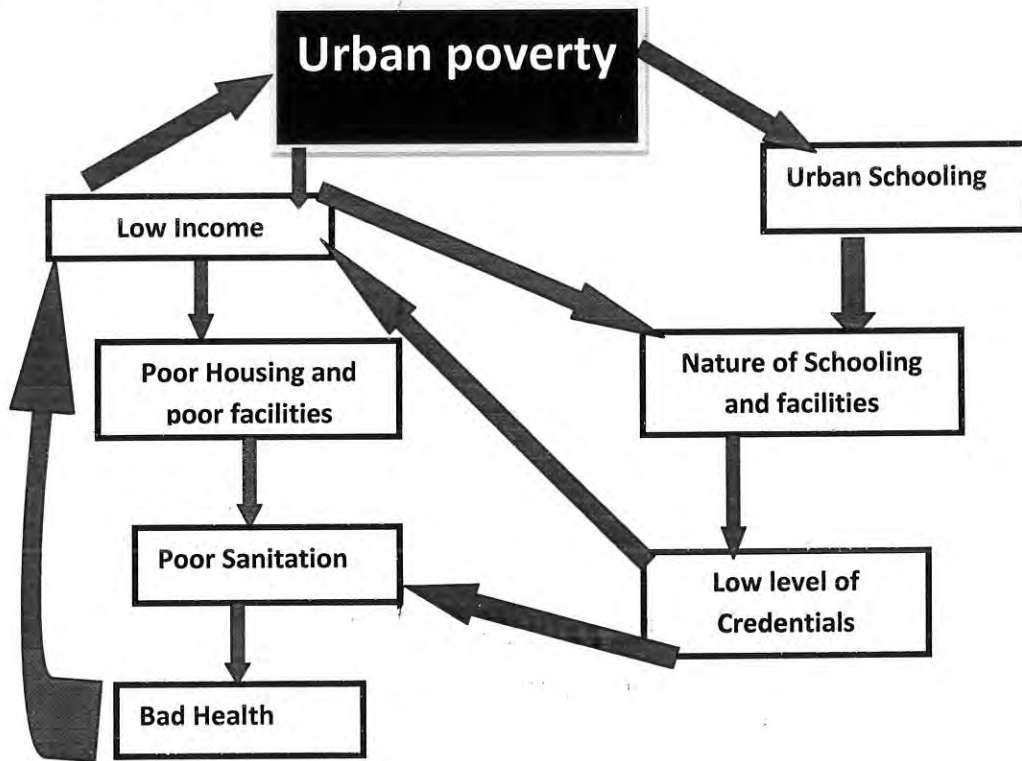
In conclusion, though the theory is criticized for using 'derogatory' term to describe the urban poor- 'under classes'⁸ (Hutchison, 2010) and for ignoring the race segregation policy in the United States that has a contribution to the poverty of black neighborhoods, the explanation in general has a wider lens in explaining the causes of urban poverty. It combined in-one the ideas of the above three theories, Human ecology, Culture of poverty and Political economy. This broader perspective makes it different from the other theories and that's why Curly (2005) describe it as 'perhaps more influential than any other previous work on urban poverty'.

2.5 Conceptual framework

Urban poverty has an interrelated effect on all the variables indicated in figure 1. In the longer chain, Urban poverty affects schooling. Poor neighborhoods don't afford quality schools, teacher's salary and other facilities. This cumulatively results in less quality education for the students, hence, most likely, low credentials for the students at the end of the day. This obviously will result in low income and finally to urban poverty; then this ends up in a cycle of urban poverty. Less educated people have low level of personal hygiene and environmental sanitation, which among other things contributes to bad health; since sick person is not able to work hard leading to low level of income. Income as the most crucial factor; first it directly affects urban poverty. Second it affects the quality of schooling that leads to low credentials; which in turn brings low income and contributes to urban poverty. Lastly, low income will leads to poor housing and housing facilities. These two factors contribute to low level of sanitation; hence initiate the occurrence of disease in an area, there by perpetuating the cycle of urban poverty.

⁸ In 1991, Wilson abandoned the use of the term *underclass* in favor of *ghetto poor*, largely because the concept had lost its meaning in the political debate surrounding it (Parrilo, 2008).

Fig 2.1. Conceptual frame work



Chapter Three

Study Area

3.1 Description of the Study area

The present area, where Hawassa city is founded, was not inhabited by many people just before five decades. It was a place where the pastoralist societies of the Sidama and the Arsi Oromo were fighting to control the land for grazing. The year 1949 E.C was a breakthrough in the history of Hawassa. At that particular year, the then king of Ethiopia, Emperor Hailesilassie, ordered and permitted the preparation of suitable master plan for the establishment of a town; for the would be Hawassa City (Zelege and Serkalem, 1998 EC).

Unlike most towns and cities of the country, Hawassa was not established following trade roots. The master plan developed by the order of the king was to make the new town center of tourist attraction and commercial farming. Then in 1952 E.C preparation was completed and people began to settle; this marked the birth of a new town in the country: Hawassa. Following this Hawassa become the only town of the country at the time, to be established/ founded on the base of a plan (Zelege and Serkalem, 2008).

Since its establishment, Hawassa's progress was astonishing. Immediately after its foundation the vice district Governate of Abella was transferred to Hwassa, Agricultural Development Center '*Ersha Tabeya*' was established and Community Development Training and Demonstration center was also inaugurated. Following these, in 1954 E.C, the Municipality of the town was established to administer the 48 Gashas/ 9.6 Km²/ land of the town (Zelege and Serkalem, 2008).

From the 1970's onwards, the growth and progress of Hawassa was very drastic or even can be said "exponential". Its population grows seven times the initial at the beginning of the seventies. Its area increases by twenty five percent and reached 60 Gasha in the 1970's. It was promoted from woreda level governate to General Governate of Sidama. The growth and expansion of the

Table 3.1 Population change of Hawassa city

Year	Population Number
1953	2,500 – 3,000
1959	5,460
1969	22,399
1976	36,169
1987	74,228
1996	112,282
1999	289,086
2003	304,479

*Source: Zeleke and Serkalem, 1998EC and;
Hawassa city Admin. Finance and Economic development, 2003EC*

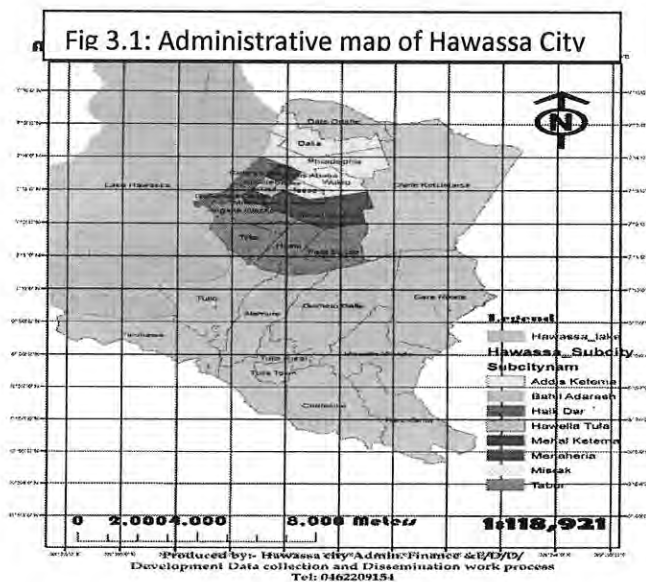
City continues during the Derg regime too. During Derg regime, the town was promoted to capital of south Regional Plane office. It was also a seat for many government offices, more than twenty, which represented South Administrative Region of the Derg regime (Zeleke and Serkalem, 1998 EC).

In the time of EPRDF Hawassa has achieved the status of seat of Southern Nation, Nationalities and Peoples Regional State, Sidama Zone Administration and Hawassa Zuria Woreda Astedader since 1987 E.C (Zeleke and Serkalem, 1998EC). In the year 1995 E.C Hawassa became a self administrating city with eight sub cities: Addis Ketema Sub City, Bahil Adarash Sub City, Hayk Dar Sub city, Menaharia Sub City, Misrak Sub City, Mehal Ketema Sub City, Tabor Sub City and Hawella Tulla Sub City. From these sub cities, Hawalla Tulla Sub City is predominantly rural. At present by multiplying its size more than sixteen times, Hawassa covers 157.2 km² area (Hawassa City Administration Finance & Economic Development, 2004 EC).

The eight sub cities of the city administration hosts 304,479 people. From this, 156,675 are males while the remaining 147,804 are females based on the 2003 E.C projection. The annual average population growth rate of the city is very high 4.02; this is by far greater than the country's average of 2.7%. In the urban areas of the city administration it is even much higher

reaching 4.8% per annum, while the rural administrative areas of the city has lower average population growth, 2.8%. This may evidence us the high in-migration and high birth rate in the City. The dominant ethnic group in the city is Sidama(47.08%); followed by Amhara(15.79%), Wolayita(14.91%), Oromo(5.34%), Guragie(4.44%), Kembata(2.8%), Hadiya(1.41%), Tigire(1.33%) and Others(6.9%). The great majority of the population of the city administration is Christians 90.27%. While the remaining 9.73% are Muslim (8.1%), Traditional Believers (0.14%) and others (1.2%) (Hawassa City Administration Finance &Economic Development, 2004 EC).

The availability and coverage of social services in Hawassa City Administration can be said, well in general. Education coverage in terms School enrolment in the city administration is very good; gross enrolment in the city is 108 percent and net enrolment is 94.63 percent. The potential health coverage of the city is also good; it was 70 percent in 2003 EC. Also the City has a good coverage in availability and access to clean water for the residents. The coverage of clean water in the city in 2003 EC was 74.6 percent. These figures can show us the good availability of social services in the city (Hawassa City Administration Finance &Economic Development, 2004 EC).



Hawassa city is situated at the heart of the Great East African Rift Valley system, adjacent to Lake Hawassa; which bears both the beauty and name of the city. The lake covers a total area of 94Km², 16Km length and 8Km width, the mean depth of the lake is 13.5m, 22m being its maximum depth; its total volume is 136 million meter cube (SNNPR Water Resource Development Bureau, 2007). The Lake is not only beauty to the city. It also modifies the weather of the city. The mean annual temperature of the city is 20⁰C; the average annual rainfall is 997.6mm. The average elevation of the city is 1700m above sea level; with the maximum elevation of 1813m above sea level at Mount Tabor (Hawassa City Administration Finance & Economic Development, 2004 EC).

3.2. Pioneer Villages of the city

When Hawassa was founded in 1952 E.C, the six villages (sefers) were what the city was all: Harer Sefer, Addis Ababa Sefer, Wukro Sefer, Korem Sefer, Areb Sefer and Piazza/Mehal Ketema. Except the last two sefers (villages) all the other pioneer villages are now known for their deteriorated living conditions in the city (Zelege and Serkalem, 1998 EC). Let's have a glimpse over the background of these pioneer villages of the city.

Areb sefer- it is located along the main and prior road of Hawassa. The name of the village was derived from the first settlers of the area; Arab citizens who came from Dilla and latter from other parts of the country too. These first settlers were also the first to open shops in the town. Still now the place is dominated by many retailers and whole sellers (Zelege and Serkalem, 1998 EC).

Piazza- is an Italian word to mean "Public Square". It was center for trade of the town. Most of the earliest hotels and big initial shops of the town were also found in piazza. The earlier bus station of the City was also located in Pizza. It was also a place where people started to settle in (Zelege and Serkalem, 1998 EC).

Other than these two, (Piazza and Areb Sefer) all the other pioneer villages (**Harar, Addis Ababa, Wukro and Korem**) were formed by the ex-imperial army soldier members and their

families. The places they settled in were named to remember their origin, the place they came from; hence Addis Ababa Sefer was occupied by those who come from Addis, Harar sefer was occupied by those who came from Harar area and Wukro and Korem Sefers were occupied by those who came from Tigray area. These ex-soldiers on their arrival, since they were brought by the emperors' order, were provided with corrugated iron roofed houses, 1500 hector of land for each and twenty birr pension payment per month; and started living (Zelege and Serkalem, 1998 EC).

Chronologically, Addis Ababa village emerges first in May 1952 EC. Then in December the same year, Harer village emerged and latter Korem and Wukro villages emerged in May 1953. This incidence makes the inception of today's Hawassa (Zelege and Serkalem, 1998 EC).

The coming of these ex-imperial army soldiers to the new town, Hawassa, is associated with two main reasons. The first argument is that, the emperor did this to create a buffer zone between the continuously conflicting pastoralists of Arsi Oromo and the Sidama; there by to secure peace and stability in the new town. The other argument states that, the soldiers were brought to the new town to supply sufficient labor for the planed agricultural farms in the area (Zelege and Serkalem, 1998 EC).

At the present, Hawassa City administration, the pioneer villages exist with their earlier names; Addis Ababa sefer, now it is a kebele, and is located in Mehal Ketema Sub city. Harer Sefer now is a kebele and is in Bahil Adarash Sub City and Korem and Wukro Sefers, now form one kebele: Wukro Kebele; and located in Mesrak Sub City. In the present city administration the three kebeles are known for their abject poverty in the city (Hawassa City Administration Finance & Economic Development, 2004 EC).

Generally, in these three kebeles, the living condition of the residents is deteriorated. Just to describe them; the kebeles are dominated by retired pensioners, low income daily labourers and low income groups, unemployed people, poorly constructed and too old houses, congested houses and large family sizes. Therefore, the focus of this study is on these three kebeles (Addis

Ababa, Harar and Wukro); in addition Andenet Kebele of Bahil Adarash Sub City and a lately found another Kebele (Leku Kebele of Mehal Sub City) are included.

3.3. The Study Kebeles

Harer Kebele is one among the five study areas of this research. It was among the pioneer villages of the city; like other pioneer villages, Addis Ababa and Wukro, it was inaugurated by the ex-soldiers of the imperial army.

At the time of their settlement, the ex-soldiers were provided with 1500m² land for both living and cultivation. They were making life by cultivating the land. But later in the Derg regime, just like most parts of the country, their land was nationalized; they were left with the land they can only live on, 500m². The nationalization of the land marked a new era in the area. The people were forced to change their life style. They started to rely on, for their living, pension and the money they make from small businesses. Then after, poverty started to engulf the area. This is true for both Addis Ababa and Wukro kebeles too.

To support their meager income, the people began to build small substandard houses for rent. But, this only worsens the problem in the area. Since the houses were poorly constructed and furnished, the income made out of them was very small; the houses were rented in very low cheap price. Consequently, poor's from other parts of the city were attracted to this kebele. This resulted in concentration of poverty in the area.

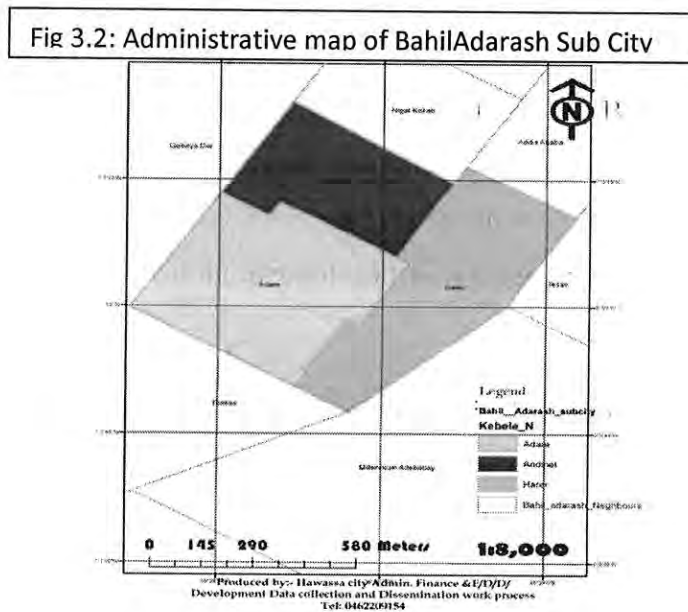
At present, Harer kebele hosts 3435 (1676 male and 1759 female) residents in 1250 households as the 2004 EC kebele's record indicates. The kebele is subdivided in to four Ketenas and eleven Gotes; while it has only 0.27 Km² area. The population figure and the area can clearly show us how congested the settlement in the kebele is (12,722 people per Km²).

As the Kebele's Administration explains, the kebele is very much congested, the people are making very little money, and the youths are very much addicted and mostly drop out of schools.

Andenet kebele, is neighbor of Harer kebele. Both are located in BahilAdarash sub city. The settlement in the kebele is among the oldest settlements of the city. But, it was not part of the settlement arranged by the then imperial government. The settlers were moving to this place following the inauguration of the town.

Most of the settlers were moving to the kebele to make business. But since the basic goods for the settler were provided by the different institutions established by the government (e.g. Agricultural enterprise), they were engaged in providing 'luxury' goods for the new comers. The services they provide include sealing alcohol and beverages (such as Tella, Areki, Tejj, etc), Brothel, mini restaurants etc.

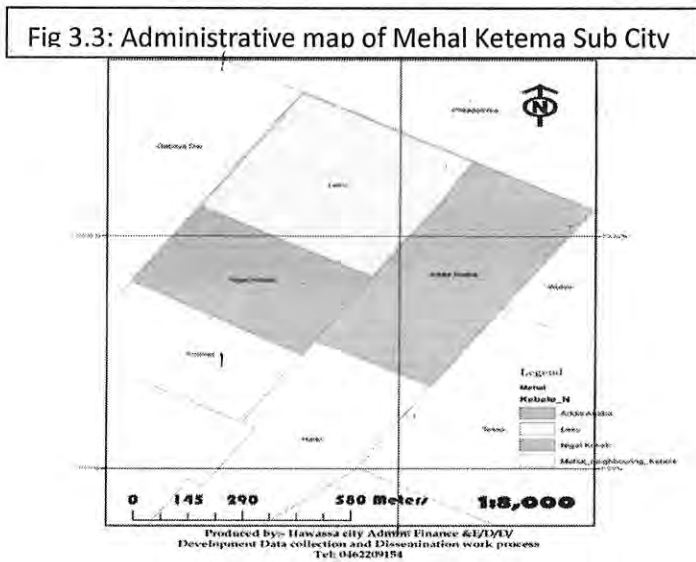
Now the kebele is inhabited by 2208 people who reside in 1078 households. The settlements in this kebele are divided in to three ketenas and nine Gotes, but only have an area of 0.19Km2. This evidence us the high population density in the area, 11, 621 people per Km2.



The economic activity in the area is just like the earlier time. Now the place is known for local Areki houses, brothels, and high number of street walker prostitutes. Maybe because of the trickledown effect, the place is very much similar with Harer Kebele in its poverty.

Addis Ababa Kebele is located in Mehal Ketema Subcity. It is one of the pioneer settlements of the city. The first settlers of the area were ex-imperial army soldiers who came from Addis Ababa. At present the kebele is among the poverty stricken areas in the city. The kebele hosts a total of 8413 (4238 male and 5616 female) settlers in 2170 households. Administratively the kebele is subdivided in to nine Ketenas and eighteen Gotes and it covers a total area of 0.29Km2. It has a population density of 29,010 people per km2. This makes it one of the densely populated area in the city following Leku Kebele.

As described by the administrators, the people in the Kebele are very poor. Most of the settlers are ex-imperial army soldiers who are too old and their offspring's. In addition the poor people who rented the substandard and poorly constructed houses constitute the settlers of the Kebele. In general the settlement in the kebele is very much congested.



Leku Kebele, which is relatively late to be established, in 1966 Ec, is among the selected study areas. It was founded by the people who moved to area from Leku, one Woreda of Sidama Zone. The people moved to the area to use the abundant land for farming and to make a living in the new town. They own large land individually and start to make a living by plowing it.

Following the coming of Derg, their large land was nationalized and only small segments of land were left for them. This small plot of land was, later, suppose to be divided to their son's. This again fragmented the farm land in to pieces; to the extent farming can't be practiced to support living. Then construction of substandard houses for rent begins. This embarks on era of poverty in the kebele.

The kebele at present hosts more than 8400 people which makes the 1757 households in an area of 0.28 Km²; shows the high population density of the area which makes it the most densely populated area in the city, 30,000 people per km². Administratively, the kebele has three Ketenas and seventeen Gotes.

The Kebele is among the poverty stricken areas of the city. Poor infrastructure, high population density, high illiteracy, old kebeke houses and poorly constructed substandard houses are among the features of the Kebele.

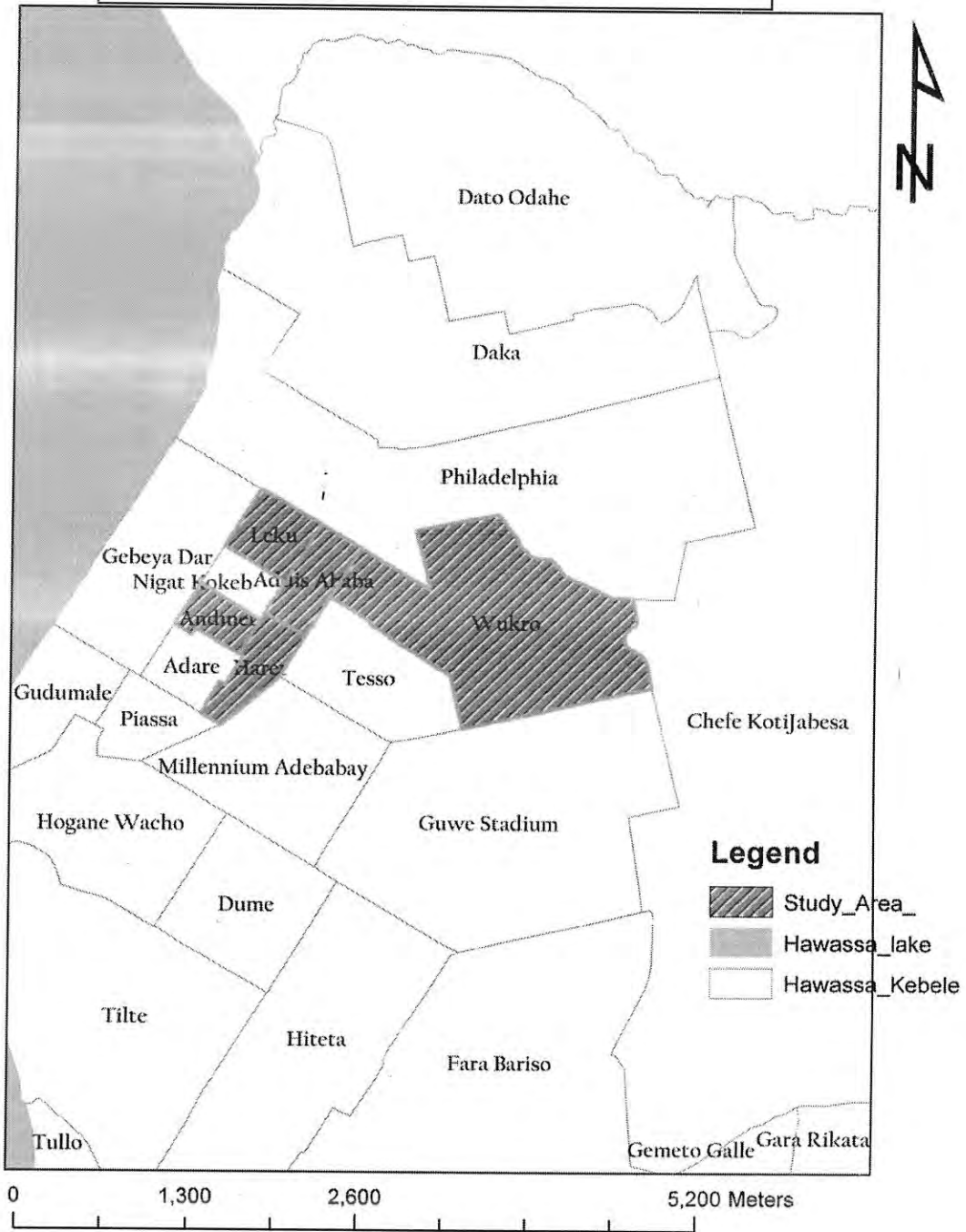
Wukro kebele which is located in Misrak Sub city is one of the pioneer settlements of the city. It was founded by the ex-imperial army soldiers who came from Tigray, Wukro area. It hosts 11,540 (5202 male and 6335 female) residents in 5224 households and covers a total area of 2.35 km². This makes the kebele the widest and the less densely populated, 4911 people per km², from the five study areas. But still it has high population density as compared to the City's average population density which is 1937 people per km².



Despite this the kebele is known for its abject poverty in the city. Administratively, the Kebele has five Ketenas and twenty five Gotes. Large number of pensioners, high number of daily laborers, large family size and old and substandard houses rented by the poor are among the main features of the Kebele.

Generally, these five study Kebeles (Wukro, Leku, Addis Ababa, Andenet, and Harer) covers 2.82 percent of the City's area, while hosting a third (33.62%) of the City's population. Their geographical arrangement starches from East to West forming the longest and abject poverty belt in the city; as presented on fig 3.5 below.

Fig 3.5: Map of the Study Area



Chapter Four Methodology

4.1. Research design

This research is a cross-sectional study which employs both Qualitative and Quantitative research designs. Defining, measuring and explaining poverty is subjective; plus, individual's perception, understanding and personal experiences are unquantifiable; hence qualitative research design was used to capture these phenomena. On the other side, there are measurable and quantifiable aspects while assessing poverty. For these dimensions quantitative research design was used.

Therefore in this study, the concrete objective findings obtained from the quantitative designs were supplemented by the qualitative findings. Thereby, it has been attempted to produce a full-fledged research finding by combining these two designs. For the data collection purpose formal procedures were followed and the data was collected from the informants on the base of informed consent.

4.2. Sample Design

The sample design for this study was as follows; Hawassa City, the focus area of this study, was purposively selected for the study. The main reasons for the selection of Hawassa City are, first poor neighborhoods are evident in the city; and also the city is being urbanized very rapidly leaving researchable gaps in each dimension. Second, as far as the concerned agencies in the city are aware and the researcher's effort permits, no research has been conducted in relation to urban poverty in the city.

Hawassa city has eight sub-cities. Among which Hawella Tulla is predominantly rural, hence purposely removed from this study. From the remaining seven sub cities of the city administration, three were purposively selected for this study. The selection of the sub cities was under taken by the help of the city administration officers. The city administration officers

identified Mehal Ketema Sub City, Mesrak Sub City, and BahilAdarsh Sub City as the poorest sub cities of the City. Hence, the research was undertaken in these sub cities.

Further, from the thirty two kebeles of the city administration, which are sub divisions of the sub cities, eight are in the above mentioned poverty stricken sub cities: Mehal Ketema, Mesrak and BahilAdarsh Sub-Cities. Mehal Ketema sub city has three Kebeles: Addis Abeba, Leku and Negat Kokeb. From these three Kebeles, the first two are selected for this study; because poverty is highly evident in the first two than the last one. Mesrak sub city has two kebeles and the better off kebele, Tesso, is dropped off and Wukro kebele is selected for this study. Again from BahilAdarsh Sub-City; two kebeles, Andenet and Harer, are selected for this study; while the relatively better-off kebele, Adore, is dropped-off. Therefore a total of five kebeles were selected for this study: Addis Abeba, Leku, Wukro, Andenet and Harer. The selection of these kebeles is made in consultation with the Sub-City's administrators, kebele administrators and personal observations.

Finally, samples were drawn from the *Gottes*⁹ of the five kebeles. That is one Gotte was selected from each Kebele in simple random base. The average number of households per Gotte in the study area was 191 households. Then twenty eight households, fifteen percent of households from each Gotte, were selected in a simple random base from each Gotte. This constitutes the total sample size of the study; that is One Hundred Fourty households.

In conclusion, three stage cluster sampling was used in the study to draw the samples of the study. The first larger cluster was Hawassa city itself. Then the Sub-Cities make the second cluster. The final cluster was formed by the Kebeles, where the study was directly conducted.

4.3. Data Collection

To achieve the pre-stated objectives of the study, both primary and secondary data sources were used in the study. In this study primary data was gathered through survey questionnaire, interview and observation. In addition secondary data sources were also used.

⁹ Gote is the smallest administrative division in the city administration.

Survey Questionnaire survey is the most widely used method to ask about respondent's beliefs, opinions, characters, and past or present behaviors (Neuman, 2007). Hence this study has employed survey to assess the overall condition of the study area as perceived by the respondents. For this purpose questionnaire was drafted, pre tested, and modified accordingly; and finally was distributed to the randomly selected One Hundred and Forty sample households in the respective Kebeles gotte. The questionnaires were distributed to the respondents by the help of five enumerators. The enumerators were given the necessary training and briefing before taking part in the study.

Key Informant Interview key informants are resourceful persons on the issue being investigated. For this study, the key informants were drawn from the local residents by the help of Health Extension Workers. In addition to the Key informant interviews, In-depth Interview was also made with Kebele and Sub-City administrators, and NGO's working in the study area. The Key informants were interviewed to know vividly the reality in the study area and what has been done as long as there experience permits. The in-depth interviews were made to know what has been done by the concerned agencies to address the existing problem.

Observation usually, observation is a way of capturing untold realities in the study area. Hence, it can be used to cross-check the reliability of the data gathered via other methods; it is also a means of data gathering. For this purpose observations were made at different locations in the study area: individuals house, market places, and walking across the study Kebeles.

The secondary data sources were literatures available in libraries, Hawassa City Administration and Municipality, the World Wide Web and Central Statistics Authority's and MoFED's publications. These data in addition to providing the background information; were useful in substantiating the research findings and hence increases credibility of the study findings.

4.4. Data Analysis

The data that was collected through the above mentioned methods were analyzed and interpreted accordingly as their nature permits. To facilitate the analysis computer software program

(Statistically Package for Social Science/ SPSS) was employed for the quantitative data; while, the qualitative data was paraphrased and summarized in a meaningful way. Then the results were presented in descriptions and tables to provide the necessary information for decision makers and the public at large.

4.5. Ethical consideration

Ethics in research helps to define what 'moral' research procedure involves. Hence, to conduct this research in a moral way, first formal procedures were followed to collect data from the concerned agencies. Second, the respondents were made aware of the objectives of the study and they were not forced to take part in the study without their full consent. Finally, the privacy, confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents were totally respected, plus no part of the respondents response will be used for any other purpose than this single study.

Chapter Five

Result and Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This research was conducted in Hawassa City with the aim of assessing the conditions of the urban poor and the burdens they shoulder. This general objective was followed by five specific objectives. To achieve these objectives, different methods and their respective instruments of data collection were used; the methods used were survey questionnaire, interview and observation. In addition, secondary data sources from different offices and literatures were consulted to substantiate the findings of the primary sources and to increase credibility of the findings.

For this study One hundred –forty questioners were distributed in five study Kebeles at household levels, in the month of January. The questioners were drafted and pretested accordingly; finally were administered by five trained enumerators. The enumerators were given the necessary briefing and explanations; and were also made clear with the objectives of the study before taking part in the data collection. The response rate was very much satisfactory (95%); only seven questionnaires (5%) were discarded because they were either incomplete or not properly filled.

Ten key informant interviews were made in this study, i.e. two key informants from each study Kebele. The key informants were selected with the help of health extension workers of the Kebeles. Kebele administrators, two NGO officers who were intervening in the study area and three Sub-City administrators in which the study Kebeles falls in were interviewed. Finally, observation through repeated walks through the kebeles was used to observe the realities of the study area.

5.2 Background of the Respondents

This study was conducted in three Sub-Cities and their respective five Kebeles of Hawassa city. The Kebeles were Addis Ababa and Leku (in Mehal Sub-City), Andent and Harer (in Bahil

Adarash Sub-City) and Wukro (in Misrak Sub-City). From now on wards these Kebeles and Sub-Cities will be referred as the study Kebeles and study Sub-Cities respectively. In these Kebele's though most of the respondent households were male, still considerable number of respondents were headed by females.

Table 5.1 Sex of Household heads of the respondents

Sex	No of Respondents	Percent
Male	88	66.2
Female	45	33.8
Total	133	100

As shown in table 5.1, and argued by culture of poverty theory, large number of female headed families are indicators of poverty strike areas. According to Todaro and Smith (2006), lower earning capacity of women, less access of women to education and consequently to formal sector employment have greatly contributed to meager income of women. Hence, female headed families have meager income and this puts them in poverty. MOFED (2008) in its report titled 'dynamics of growth and poverty in Ethiopia' reported that in urban areas of the country, head count poverty is higher for female headed households than for male headed households; this difference is statistically significant.

Age wise, the response reflects that most of the respondents (around 90%) are adults in the working age group.

Table 5.2 Age of Household heads

Age Category	No of respondents	Percent
< 25 years	-	-
25-30	29	21.80
31-40	39	29.32
41-50	32	24.06
51-60	20	15.03
> 60	13	9.77
Total	133	99.98

Marriage and married couples are most respected in countries like ours. But different literatures (such as urban ecological, culture of poverty and social isolation concentration effect) argue that, in poor neighborhoods marriage tends to be unstable. Despite this generally perceived reality, most marriages in the study area as indicated in table 5.3 are intact. This might be one local strategy adopted by the Poor's of the study area to cope with the burdens they face; this exceptional reality should be investigated by sociologists and explain why the marital status in these Kebeles deviate from the general reality. The second most common marital status is widow followed by divorce and separated. The newly emerging marital status 'Cohabiting' and singlehood are the least common in the study area.

Table 5.3 Marital Status of the respondents

Marital Status	No of respondents	Percent
Singlehood	2	1.5
Cohabitors	2	1.5
Married	87	65.4
Separated	4	3
Divorced	14	10.5
Windowed	24	18
Total	133	100

Number of children is, usually, assumed to be large in poor communities. And anyone who might walk through the five study kebles might wonder by the large number of children who are playing on the street. Hence, may conclude the existence of high birth rate in the area. But the finding of the survey indicates otherwise. The number of children in study area per households ranges from no child to nine children and the average number of children per household is 2.92 which is nearly three.

This is almost similar with MoFED'S (2012b) report which indicates that the number of children a woman gives birth to in urban areas of Ethiopia in 2011 was 2.6. But given, the reproductively

active age category of most of the respondents, the average number of child bearing in the study area may rise in the future. As shown in the table below (table 5.4) nearly sixty two percent of the respondents have a maximum of three children. Very few respondents, slightly more than six percents, have six or more than six children. These numbers signal the low birth rate in the area.

Table 5.4 Number of Children per household

Number of Children	Number of respondents	Percent
No child	8	6
1	23	17.3
2	24	18
3	35	26.3
4	16	12
5	19	14.3
6	5	3.8
7	1	0.8
8	1	0.8
9	1	0.8
Total	133	100%

It is evident from table 5.4 that, more than 61 percent of the respondents have a maximum of three children. Surprisingly, only very few (6.2 percent) families have six and more than six children. So, the question is what eludes observers to judge large number of children in the area? This may be attributed to two main factors. One is the very high population density in the study area, which congests so many households in one compound. This congestion may create such an illusion. As indicated by the key informants, sometimes ten to twelve households may live in one compound. If we multiply this by the average number of children in the area, it may give us thirty to thirty six children in one compound. The other factor could be the family structure of the respondents. Though not majority, substantial part of the respondents (30.8 percents) report to have extended family structure.

Table 5.5: Family structure of the Respondents

Family structure	No of respondents	Percent
Nucler	92	69.2
Extended	41	30.8
Total	133	100%

From the forty one respondents who have extended family; nearly fifty –four percents have one additional member to the family, while some thirty –four percents have two additional members to the family and the remaining nine percents have three additional members and very few (2.44%) have four additional members. These numbers, on such densely populated area have the ability to amplify the population number in general and the number of children in particular. Hence, these two factors and some others may elude observers towards concluding the existence of high birth rate in the area.

Table 5.6 Number of Extended family members in the family

Number of extended family members	Number of respondents	Percent
1	22	53.66
2	14	34.15
3	4	9.75
4	1	2.44
Total	41	100%

5.3 Urban Poor's and urban poverty

Poverty is a very dynamic issue and also `has diverse dimensions and manifestations. Hence, it is extremely difficult and almost impossible to asses all its dimensions and manifestations in a single study. Therefore, in this study the issue of urban poverty in Hawassa city is discussed in three main sub-topics: educational and income status of the urban poor, housing and sanitation

conditions of the urban poor and health and the environment they reside in are assessed by different method and discussed as follows:

5.3.1 Educational and Income status of the Urban poor

Education and amount of income are very much interrelated. In normal circumstances, income is expected to rise as ones educational qualification is increasing. Having this inherent relation of the two variables in mind, let's see the educational status of the respondents.

The educational profile of the respondents from the five Kebeles is very low. More than twenty-five percent of the household heads has reported to be illiterate. Again more than eleven percent of the respondents report only to be able to read/write or accomplish both without attending formal education. These two realities indicate us that nearly thirty-seven percent of the household heads have not tested the pursuit of any formal education. In addition to this, more than twenty-eight percent of household heads only completed their primary education; some twenty-one percents claim to complete secondary education. And the remaining thirteen percents reported they have completed TVTE and higher educations.

Table 5.7 Educational Status of Household heads

Educational Status	No of respondents	Percent
Illiterate	34	25.6
Only read and write	15	11.3
1 st – 4 th Grade	9	6.8
5 th – 8 th Grade	29	21.8
9 th – 10 th Grade	16	12
11 th – 12 th Grade	12	9
TVTE	8	6
Higher education	10	7.5
Total	133	100%

MoFED's (2008) report indicated that all measure of poverty tends to be higher for households where the head is illiterate. Plus to this, in Ethiopian urban centers a household is sixty seven percent more likely to be poor, if it is headed by an illiterate head, than a literate one.

This poor educational profile of the household heads; shouldn't be blamed on lack of schools at their vicinity. The old aged schools of the city are their neighbors. One of the old aged schools of the city, Tabor elementary school, is almost as old as the city itself. It was established only after two years the city was founded, in 1954 E.C. It is also located at Bahil Adarash Sub-City (which hosts two of the study kebeles) and it borders Harer and Andenet Kebeles, which are the other study Kebeles. The other old aged school of the city, Ethiopia Tikdem was established in 1967 E.C. It is located at Misrak Sub-City, Tesso Kebele, and it is in a very close distance from Addis Ababa Kebele and just a walk from Wukro Kebele which is in the same Sub-City with Tesso Kebele. Both Tabor and Ethiopia Tikdem are primary schools with grade levels 1st up to 8th Grade. In addition to these two schools, there are five first cycle primary schools in the study areas; as the interview with the respective Kebele administrators revealed.

Table 5.8: Schools and their locations in the study area.

School Name*	Location		Level
	Sub-City	Kebele	
Addis Zemen	Mehal	Addis Ababa	1 st – 4 th Grade
Bahil Adarash	Bahil Adarash	Andenet	1 st – 5 ^h Grade
Bethlehem	Mehal	Leku	1 st – 5 ^h Grade
Ethiopia Tikdem	Misrak	Tesso	1 st – 8 ^h Grade
Hedase	Mehal	Addis Ababa	1 st – 4 th Grade
Misrak Ber	Misrak	Wukro	1 st – 4 th Grade
Tabor	Bahil Adarash	Adare	1 st – 8 ^h Grade

* All are governmental schools; the list doesn't include private schools

So, if the availability of all these schools doesn't ensure literacy of the household heads, there should be some other factor behind the illiteracy of the respondents. The occupation of most of the households indicates that, they are making a living by working daily. Hence, one day without

work would mean 'noting to eat'; consequently they don't want to compromise their daily income by education. In addition, after a long day of work it would be difficult to attend night classes; even if they can, the stationary costs would be 'luxury' for them. These factors, most likely, are responsible for the illiteracy in the study area.

In addition to these factors, the high in-migration of people to the area, which we will see later, might have contributed to the illiteracy problem. It is because, the migrants might come with illiteracy and amplify the illiteracy problem of the Kebeles despite the availability of many schools.

As it seems to avenge their illiteracy, most parents send all of their children to school. Nearly fifty six percent of the respondents send all their children to school. Around twenty three percent teach some of their children. Slightly less than sixteen percents either used to teach their children or never send them to school.

Table 5.9: Educational Status of respondent's children

Status	No of respondents	Percent
All are learning	74	55.6
Some of them are learning	30	22.6
None of them are learning	21	15.8
Have no child	8	6
Total	133	100

The most common reason for not sending children's to school in this case seems economic. As reported in the survey, from the fifty one parents who didn't send their children to school, 76.47 percent of the children drop-out from school. As frequently mentioned in the key informant interview, children usually dropout from school to support their family by engaging in income generating activities. Todaro and Smith (2012) argue in support of this fact; in poor urban neighborhoods many children are kept out of school to assist their mother in market work or in

the production of goods at home. The other twenty three percents of the children were not at their school age, as reported by their parents in the survey. These make the main reasons for not sending children to school in the study area.

As it is discussed on table 5.13 most of the respondents have low income. Consequently, most parents send their children to governmental/public school where the fee is very low or no fee is paid at all. Public schools are, usually, places where children of the poor learn. Some ten percents of the respondent's children enjoy the private schools.

Table 5.10 schools where children of respondents learn

School type	No of respondents	Percent
Government/public school	89	66.9
Private school	13	9.8
Religious school	2	1.5
No child/Don't teach all	29	21.8
Total	133	100

The principals of Tabor and Ethiopia Tikdem elementary schools confirmed that, most of their students are from the nearby surrounding Kebeles, which are the study areas. The interview with the five study area Kebele administrators indicate; almost all students from the schools mentioned at table 5.8 transfer to Tabor or Ethiopia Tikdem after completing their first cycle (1st-4th Grade).

Todaro and Smith (2012) indicates that due to many factors which coupled with repeated absence from school, children in the poorest neighborhoods may find it difficult to meet basic academic standards. This argument holds absolute truth in the study area. From the schools in the study area, only two (Tabor and Ethiopia Tikdem) are up to eighth grade. Hence, they give regional eighth grade leaving exam for their students of grade eight among these most are from the study area. As the report of Hawassa city's education department indicates, there are high numbers of failures in the two schools on eighth grade leaving exam.

In Tabor school from the total 517 students who sat for exam in 2004 E.C nearly fifty five percent of the candidates couldn't get the minimum pass mark on the exam. The condition in Ethiopia Tikdem is not that much different from Tabor School. In Ethiopia Tikdem School from the total of 416 students who sat for eighth grade leaving exam, forty-four percents were not able to score a pass mark. In both schools the number of failed girls outnumbered their counterpart boys.

Table 5.11: Eighth Grade Leaving Exam results of the two schools

School Name	Total No of students who sat for 8 th Grade leaving exam (2004 E.C)			No of students who passed the exam (2004 E.C)			No of students who failed (2004 E.C)		
	Sex		Total	Sex		Total	Sex		Total
	M	F		M	F		M	F	
Tabor	240	277	517	136	97	233	104	180	284
Ethiopia Tikdem	187	229	416	115	117	232	72	112	184

Source: adapted from Hawassa city education dept. (2005 E.C)

The very poor educational achievement of the household heads has affected many aspects of their life. To begin with, most of the occupations they engage in needs very low or no credentials. Usually jobs which need low credentials produce very meager income. About thirty percent of the respondents report to work on governmental and private organization. The most common but not the only, positions they occupy in such organizations include Guard, Janitor and Drivers. Some twelve percents report to work as daily laborers. Other ten percent of the respondents are craft men's. Gulet/mini-trade across the street corners/ is another major income source in the study area which subsidizes nine percent of the respondents. Local alcohol and beverage (Areki and Tela) selling creates a living for some six percent of the respondents. The other substantial majority of the respondents (28.57 percents), make a living on a variety of other activities such as: Kiosk (small retail shape) donkey/horse cart drivers, Injera bakers, road

sweepers, coffee and tea selling in the street corners and personal business are included in other activities of income generation.

Horse carts used to be the main means of transportation in Hawssa city some ten years ago. But now, following the expansion of Asphalt roads in the city; it is replaced by tri-cycles (Bajajs) in most parts of the city. Sadly, the pioneer settlements of the city which are the four study Kebele's (Wukro, Harer, Addis Ababa and Andenet) still lack Asphalt roads and are dominated by Horse drown carts; and it has continued to be source of income for some segment of the society. Donkey drown carts are used as the main means for dry waste collection in the city.

Table 5.12 Main occupation of the household heads

Occupation	No of Respondents	Percent
Government organization	29	21.8
Private organization	11	8.27
Gulet (mini-traders)	12	9
Craft man	14	10.5
Daily labourers	16	12
Local Alcohol sellers (Areki & Tella)	8	6
Pensioners	5	3.76
Others	38	28.57
Total	133	99.99

The income generated from these jobs is very much little. The minimum income as reported by the respondents is sixty two birr per month. Nearly Nineteen percent of the respondents earn less than three hundred birr per month; which is the minimum government scale of payment. Another nineteen percents earn a maximum of five hundred birr per month. Only very minor segments of the respondents (3.85 percent) earn an income of 2000 birr and more per month in the study area. The mean income of the respondents is nearly eight hundred twenty birr per month (819.80 birr/month).

Table 5.13 Income of Respondents per month in Birr

Income/month in birr	Number of Respondents	Percent
50-300	25	18.8
301-500	22	16.54
501-750	27	20.3
751-1000	22	16.54
1001-1250	13	9.77
1251-1500	7	5.26
1501-1750	6	4.5
1751-2000	6	4.5
2001-2250	1	0.75
2251-2500	1	0.75
2501	3	2.26
Total	133	99.98

Having seen the income distribution and average income in the study area, let's check the poverty status of the respondents. MoFED (2012b) reported that the total poverty line per adult person per year in 2011 was 3,781 Birr. This will give us 315.08 Birr per month/adult person will be sufficient to hold an individual just above the total poverty line of the country. Bringing here the average income (819.80 Birr/month) of the respondents and the average family size (three children, plus one father and one mother) in the study area will give us the following. The adult equivalent¹⁰ value of the average family size will be four and if we multiply these by the total poverty line/month/ adult it will be 1260.32 birr/month/the average household size.

¹⁰Adult equivalent values: 1child = 0.7 adult, 1 female= 0.9 adult, 1 old person = 0.9 adult, 1man = 1 adult

Hence, the average family in the study area should earn at list 1260.32 Birr/month to stay just above the national poverty line. This will put nearly eighty-four percents (83.45 percent) of the respondents under the poverty line which is adjusted by MoFED in 2012.

Another manifestation of poverty in the area is on the expenses the respondents made. Usually, the poor's spend more than fifty percent of their income, sometimes up to eighty percent, on food and food related items. As it can be seen from the data 92.5 percent of the respondent's first major expenditure is on food and food related items. The remaining slightly more than seven percent report to made their first major expense on house rent fees (5.3 percent) and sanitation and health (2.3 percents). The average amount of money (463.47 Birr) they spend on their first major expense per month is more than fifty five (56.53) percent of their mean income, this is another typical indicator of poorness of the locality; because more than ninety percent report food as their first major expense.

Table 5.14 First major expense of the respondents

Expense on	No of respondents	Percent
Food and food related items	123	92.5
House rent fee	7	5.26
Health and Sanitation	3	2.25
Total	133	100%

Saving would be very difficult for low income groups. In contrast to this, on the interview made with the five Kebele administrators and NGO's intervening in the Kebele's, they claim to have worked on promoting and encouraging saving, and mention their effort as most successful. But, the survey reviles otherwise. From the total respondents nearly sixty percents don't practice saving. And even those who practice saving have low saving amount. Given their meager income, low amount of saving is natural.

Table 5.15 Practice and Amount of saving by the respondents

Practice saving?	No of Respondents	Percent
Yes	55	41.4
No	78	58.6
Total	133	100%
Amount of saving/month in birr		
< 100	33	60
101-300	14	25.45
301-500	1	1.8
501-700	2	3.63
701-900	3	5.51
>900	2	3.63
Total	55	100

Usually, individuals are cognizant of their surrounding and their position in the society. Acknowledging this fact, respondents of this study, when asked to identify their wealth rank in the society in comparison with the rest members of the society; their response was almost congruent with the rest of the study findings. About fifty eight percent of the respondents identify themselves as poor/very poor; and some forty percents report to be middle income groups as compared to the others. Only very small segments of the respondents (2.3 percents) claim to be rich as they compare themselves to the other members of the society.

Table 5.16 Wealth Rank of the respondents as perceived by them selves

Wealth Rank	No of Respondents	Percent
Very poor	32	24.1
Poor	45	33.8
Medium	53	39.8
Rich	3	2.3
Total	133	100

5.3.2 Housing and Sanitation

Many key indicators of multidimensional poverty are highly related to housing and housing facilities where the households reside on (CSA, 2012). Hence in this part we shall see the tenancy status, housing facilities and the sanitation around it, to grasp the overall housing and sanitation condition in the study area.

Tenancy status in the urban centers of the country, as reported by CSA (2012), is dominated by rented houses. Even, the rent tenancy has increased over time; while own house tenancy has decreased over the years. This can be a typical example that the growth rate of most cities in the country is beyond the control of the municipalities.

Table 5.17 Tenancy status of urban households in Ethiopia

Tenancy status	Year				
	1996	1998	2000	2004	2011
Owned	52%	46.9%	47.8%	42.8%	43.1%
Rented	41%	45.5%	44.5%	49.4%	50.3%
Others	7%	6.3%	6.3%	7.8%	6.6%
Not stated	-	1.4%	1.4%	-	0.1%

Source: CSA(2012) welfare monitoring survey p.23

It is indicated on table 5.17, that in 2011 one out of every two individuals in the urban centers of Ethiopia lives in rented house. The condition is not different or can be said is worst in the five study Kebeles. The respondents replay shows that seventy-seven percent of them live on a rented house either from individuals (32.3%) or Kebeles (45.1%); only the rest twenty-two percents lives on their own houses. That is to mean nearly eight out of every ten individuals in the study area lives in rented house.

Table 5.18: Tenancy Status of the Respondents

Tenancy Status	No of Respondents	Percent
Owned	29	21.8
Rented from individuals	43	32.3
Rented from Kebele	60	45.1
Share with others	1	0.8
Total	133	100

Table 5.18 shows that Kebele houses are the major dwelling units in the study area. Documents from the City municipality on interviews with the City's municipality land use management department and municipalities of the study Sub-Cities indicates that there are 3442 Kebele houses in Hawassa City in 2004 E.C. From this number, fifty four percent (1864 houses) of the Kebele Houses are located in the study Sub-Cities (Bahil Adarash, Misrak and Mehal Sub-Cities). Again from the share of the study Sub-Cities (1864); 56.7 percent of the Kebele houses are located in the five study Kebeles¹¹. These figures show us the availability of so many Kebele houses in the study area.

All Kebele houses or as the officer, Ato Mengesha Dadebo from Hawassa city municipality call them government houses are not of equal status. As he identifies, there are three types of government houses in the city; these are "Kuteba betoch", "wetchi kotabi" (low cost houses) and "Yetweresu betoch" (nationalized houses). From these three categories, the first one is a kind of 'luxury' house and its rent fee ranges from 35-183 birr per month. The next one, low cost houses, are kind of medium standard houses with a rent fee ranging from 5-7 birr per month, but the houses are not that much different from the last category. The last one is a nationalized house, rented to the poor with a very low price (maximum of 2.50 birr per month).

From all these categories, the Kebele houses in the study area totally fall under the last category. In addition to these, the sub standard houses which are constructed by the local people to

¹¹ See table 5.29

supplement their meager income are rented out with very low rent fees. The cumulative effect of these two (availability of cheap rent house by both the Kebele's and the individuals) attracts large number of poor and un-affording individuals to the area.

In addition to the other indicators of poverty mentioned in the previous sub topics, if we apply what Dessalegn Rahmato and Aklilu Kidanu (2002) used to identify the poor, (they used number of rooms the household reside in as a proxy for income and as an indicator of social differentiation); forty five percent of the respondents will be labeled as very poor, since they reside in a single room and thirty seven percents who reside on two rooms will be labeled as 'poor'. Some, nearly, thirteen percent will be middle income groups (reside in three rooms) and the remaining 4.5 percent will be the well off (reside in four or more rooms). Their classification puts exactly the same number of poor's as identified by income of the respondents as specified on table 5.13.

Table 5.19 Relation between number of rooms the respondents live & Economic status

Number of Rooms owned	Number of Respondents	Percent	Dessalegn And Aklilu's economic status Claffication based on number of rooms
1	60	45.1	Very poor
2	50	37.6	Poor
3	17	12.8	Middle income
4	4	3.0	Well off
5	2	1.5	Well of
Total	133	100	

From the houses in the study area when we turn to the settlement, it is very much congested and crowded. The roads in the villages are too narrow and sometimes disappear in someone's compound. Any open space is used to build a home for rent or for their adult children. The population density in the study kebeles is very high; Harer Kebele has a total of 3435 population while its total area is only 0.27 Km² (i.e. 12, 722 people per Km²). The other study Kebele,

Andenet, hosts 2208 people in its total area of 0.19 Km², this will give us 11, 621 people per Km². The third study Kebele, Addis Ababa, has a total population of 8413 in its 0.29Km² of land; this will give us 29, 010 people per Km². The fourth study Kebele, Leku, has 8587 people in 0.28 km² of land, this will give us 30, 668 people per Km² and this makes it the most densely populated study area. The last study Kebele, Wukro, has the largest population (11, 540) and also the largest area (2.35 Km²), this makes it the least densely populated study area, that is 4911 people per Km². The observation and the Key informant interviews also support this statistical fact. Many households are congested in a single compound; as the key informants pointed out sometimes ten up to twelve households reside in a single compound. The picture below partially, shows the number of households in a compound.

Pic. 5.1 Many households in a single compound (top Addis Ababa, bottom Wukro)





Plus to this, the houses in these areas are very old, dilapidated and can be said ‘sub standard houses’. As an indicator of this fact, ninety six percent of the respondents report to have a mud and wood wall; in addition slightly more than seventy four percents report to have a mud floor. A stone or ‘blocket’ wall house is a Luxury enjoyed by only four percents of the respondents.

Table 5.20: Housing Materials of the respondents

Wall Material	No of respondent	Percent	Floor material	No of respondents	Percent
Mud & wood	128	96.2	Mud	99	74.4
Blockets	4	3	Cement	34	25.6
Stone	1	0.8	Concrete		
Total	133	100	Total	133	100

The reality can more vividly be seen on the picture below (pic. 2) than on a statistical table. The picture shows two single roomed dilapidated Kebele houses owned by two households in Harer Kebele.

Pic. 5.2: Dilapidated house at Harer Kebele



Though, living on such abject poverty and wishing to have a kitchen seems luxury, forty two percent of the respondent's reports to own a kitchen. The remaining fifty eight percent don't have a kitchen and cook in front of their single roomed house.

Table 5.21: Kitchen ownership of the respondents and where they cook

Do you own kitchen?	No of respondents	Percent
Yes	56	42.1
No	77	57.9
Total	133	100
Where do you cook?		
In my kitchen	56	42.1
Inside my home	11	8.3
In the open air in front of my home	62	46.6
Share a kitchen with others	4	3
Total	133	100

The poor prefer cheap source of power for cooking and any other kitchen use. The most cheap and available power sources for urban dwellers are fire wood (usually crop residues) and charcoal. The 2011 Ethiopian welfare monitoring survey reveals that 63.3 percent of the urban dwellers in the country use fire wood for cooking, 17.5 percents use Charcoal, 2.7 percents use leaves/dung, 4.9 percents use kerosene and the remaining 7.7 percent depend on Gas/electricity as a power source.

Similarly in the study are too wood (predominantly crop residue) and charcoal meets nearly eighty percent of power demand for cooking in the study area as indicated by the respondents. Then this is followed by Kubet and wood, these two together makes the second most common power source for cooking in the area (7.5 percent). The remaining 12.5 percent is covered by other sources: Segatura, only kubet, kerosene and electricity.

Table 5.22: power source of the respondents for cooking

Power source	No of respondents	Percent
Wood and Charcoal	48	36.1
Only wood	44	33.1
Only charcoal	14	10.6
Kubet and wood	10	7.5
Segatura	6	4.5
Only kubet	3	2.25
Others	8	6
Total	133	100

Availability of toilet has great implication on health of the society and sanitation of the surrounding. According to the 2011 Ethiopian welfare monitoring survey, 87 percent of the housing units in urban centers of the country had toilet facilities. In the study area though the ownership status varies, everyone has access to toilets. Since most of the respondents report to live in rent houses (see table 5.18), the dominant toilet type in the area is shared one; it accounts

for 86.5 percent of toilet usage in the area. All the others use private toilets, with the exception of one who report to use public toilet.

Table 5.23: Toilet ownership status of the respondents

Toilet	No of respondents	Percent
Privately owned	17	12.8
Shared toilet	115	86.5
Public toilet	1	0.8
Total	133	100

From among the many indicators of multidimensional poverty which are related to housing and housing facilities, access to safe and clean drinking water is one. The major source of safe and clean water, as identified in the 2011 Ethiopian welfare monitoring survey, are tap inside the house or the compound, private, shared or communal tap, water purchased from Kiosks which sale safe and clean water and privet/shared water wells. Based on this, Ethiopian urban centers have a satisfactory (94.9 percent) coverage of safe and clean drinking water in 2011 (CSA, 2012).

According to the 2004 E.C Socio-economic profile of Hawassa city; the city has seventy six percent coverage of safe and clean drinking water. But, in the five study Kebeles, most respondents don't own a tap. Consequently, slightly more than seventy five percent of the respondents satisfy their water demand by buying water either from individuals or stand pipes (Bono) erected by the government or NGO's. Some eighteen percents claim to have private pipe in their compound while the rest 6.8 percents are using shared pipe to meet their need for clean and safe drinking water.

Table 5.24: Sources of safe & clean water for the respondents

Source of water	No of respondents	Percent
Stand pipe (Bono)	36	27.1
Shared pipe	9	6.8
Private pipe	24	18
Buy from others pipe	64	48
Total	133	100

Though none-of the respondents report to use water wells as source of water, the transect walk and observation made across the study Kebeles reveals so many active water wells in the area. In addition to this, all the key informants reported to use water wells as water source and if they don't own the well, they report to buy it from those who own the Well.

Pic.5.3: Active water Wells at Leku (Left) and Wukro (Right)



Todaro and Smith (2012) concluded that, the poor access to water, by the urban poor, has led to a widespread system of private wells. The large number of decayed tooth kids (or what is called

Fluorosis) in the study area might also signal the use of unclean and unsafe water sources for drinking.

Pic.5.4: A 12 and 11 years old Kids affected by Fluorosis (at Addis Ababa Kebele)



In addition, the poor access to water exposes the urban poor to exploitation. From the meager income they get, the poor are forced to pay much to the water they purchase from individuals. Worldwide evidence mentioned by Todaro and Smith (2012) and Palen (2005) shows that majority of the urban poor purchase water from individuals at an average of ten times more than the supplier sales. This reality holds true in the study area too.

On the interview made with Hawassa Town water supply and sewerage service enterprise data base administrator, Ato Yonatan Kebede, indicated that the enterprise is selling 0-5 m³ of water at three birr and seventy five cents (3.75 birr) for its domestic pipe line customers. This is to mean 5000 liter of water is Sold at 3.75 birr by the enterprise to its domestic line customers.

But the interviews with the ten key informants indicate that they are purchasing twenty liter of water (equals with one Viking Jerrycan) by fifty up to seventy five cents (0.50 – 0.75 cents), on average by sixty two cents from pipe line owner individuals. By a simple calculation we can get that the water enterprise in the city is selling a thousand liters by seventy five cents. When we

compare this with what the key informants reported the poor's in the study area are paying, not ten but fifty times more from their subsistence income to get clean water.

Pic. 5.5: Individuals at Leku Kebele queuing to buy water



Having all these difficulties, the poor's in the study area manage to keep their locality "clean". As it was indicated by the key informants and the health extension workers intervening in the area, it was difficult to pass across the villages some three/four years ago. Dirt was everywhere, on the corners, on the street and even raw sewages were running on the street. As the key informants explained, after a breathtaking effort by the health extension workers the condition has shown changes; and now it can be called better. In support of the key informant's argument, the survey respondents reported that nearly eighty three percent of them are using liquid waste sinking halls for their liquid waste and nearly ninety three percents either use dry waste collecting sucks and pay to dispose it/or burn their dry wastes in a hall. But still there are some deviants who still splash liquid wastes on the street and throw dry wastes to the road and corners.

Pic. 5.6: Sample liquid waste sinking halls at Wukro Kebele

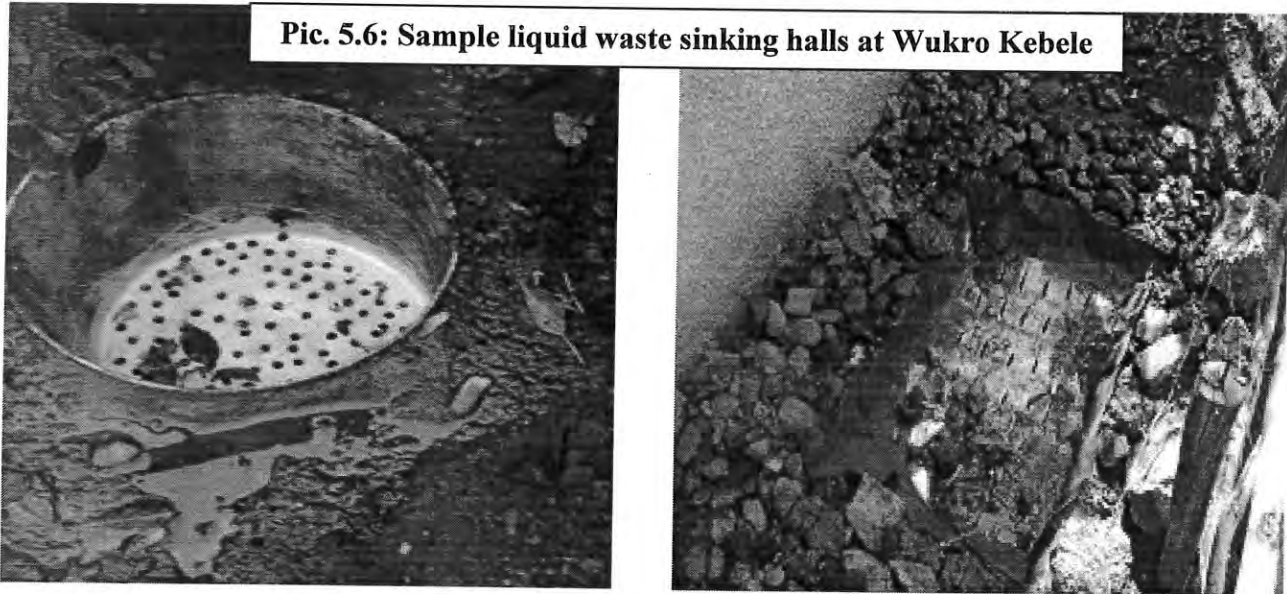


Table 5.25: Waste disposal system of the respondents

Dry waste disposal	No of respondents	Percent
Burning	62	46.6
Pay for disposal	61	45.9
Throw outside home compound	7	5.3
Bury in a Hall	3	2.3
Total	133	100
Liquid waste disposal		
Use liquid waste sinking hall	110	82.7
Splash outside my compound	22	16.5
Use cannel to dispose out of my compound	1	0.8
Total	133	100

The key informants were asked how it was possible for them to pay and dispose waste? They replayed, first the cost is not high, 'it's two or three birr that we pay to dispose one suck'. Second

‘the health benefits are much more than the two or three birr we pay to dispose a suck of dry waste’.

Again the health extension workers were asked how do they achieve this? They replied by saying that it took a continuous effort that stretches to the grass root level. The structure which allows them to be efficient and reach to every household in the Kebeles is explained as follows. Theoretically one Health Extension Worker is assigned to 500 households in one Kebele, though in reality they handle more than this in each Kebele. Since it is difficult to handle 500 households by a single person, the health extension workers trained what they call ‘Tena Buden meri’ (may be equivalent with the English Health Group leader). One health extension worker will have as many as twenty health group leaders, sometimes even more. Finally, one health Group leader will handle and mobilize as many as twenty five households, some times more and will have a close assistance, control and supervision of the health extension workers. This structure has brought visible change to the society. As observed by the researcher, almost every compound has a liquid waste sinking hall and a dry waste collecting suck. As a reflection of this, the narrow streets of the villages are ‘clean’.

Table 5.26: Number of Health Extension workers in the study Kebeles

Kebele	Number of Health Extension workers (2005 EC)
Andenet	1
Addis Ababa	3
Harer	2
Leku	3
Wukro	4
Total	13

Source: Interview with the five Kebele administrators.

It is discussed, in the previous pages that all the existing facilities in the study area are insufficient; but still large numbers of people are flooding to these areas. Two of the Kebele

Administrators (Ato FitsumBerhan of Harer and Ato Aklilu of Leku) are cognizant of this fact while the other three are not.

Ato FitsumBerhan of Harar mentioned closeness of Harer Kebele to the Bus Station as a prime factor to the large number of migrants to the Kebele. Ato Aklilu of Leku mentioned low rent houses and invitation by relatives who were prior comers to the area as the most important factors that bring many migrants to the Kebele.

From the total respondents of the survey, nearly eighty four percents reported that they are migrants to the area. While the rest claim to be born in Hawassa. The major type of migration, as reported by the respondents, is intraregional (migration within the SNNPR). Nearly seventy six percent is intraregional migration (migration from other Zones and Woredas of SNNPR to Hawassa City); migrants from Wolayeta and other woreda's of Sidama zone contribute the lion share to the intraregional migration. While the remaining twenty four percent, is interregional migration. These large numbers of migrants put pressure on the existing facilities and services and may worsen the condition of existing facilities and services in the study area.

Table 5.27: Major Migrants to the City

Born in Hawassa	No of respondents	Percent
Yes	22	16.5
No	111	83.5
Total	133	100
Place of origin if you migrated to Hawassa		
SNNPR	84	75.7
Amhara	13	11.7
Oromiya	9	8.1
Addis Ababa	3	2.7
Harer	1	0.9
Afar	1	0.9
Total	111	100

More than fifty six percent of the respondents stayed on the Kebele they are living now for over twenty years. This is an indicator that they can't escape the impoverishment they are in and hence can't afford to live on some other better place. As social isolation concentration effect theory argues, people will stay in poor neighborhoods only until they get enough money to move to other better places. Since always the better –offs moves out; those who stay will be isolated and concentrated groups of poor's who can't manage to escape the impoverishment. Hence isolation –concentration effect in the area.

Table 5.28: How long the respondents lived on the Kebele they reside now?

Year of Stay		No of respondents	Percent	Total	
				No	Percent
Short Span	1-2 years	3	2.3	7	5.4
	3-4 years	3	2.3		
	5 years	1	0.8		
Medium Span	6-10 years	15	11.3	57	51.8
	11-15 years	18	13.5		
	16-20 years	18	13.5		
	21-25 years	18	13.5		
Long Span	26-30 years	32	24.1	57	43
	31-35 years	11	8.3		
	36-40 years	7	5.3		
	>41 years	7	5.3		
Total		133	100	133	100

In summary, the five study Kebeles are impoverished in terms of housing and housing facilities and service; which are considered as indicators of multidimensional poverty. As shown in table 5.29 below, the number of households exceeds the number of houses by nearly fivefold, the number of pipe line customers is by far lower than the number of houses; again the number of households to number of pipe lines is un comparably high. Though not confirmed by the survey respondent, this has led to wide spread use of water Wells in the area. This seems why Todaro

and Smith (2012) concluded “the poorest are generally out of service”. Despite all these impoverishments the study society has ‘clean’ surroundings; thanks to the great efforts of the health extension workers.

Table 5.29 Number of households, houses, pipeline customers & HEW in the study Kebeles.

Kebele	No of Kebele houses	No of private houses	Total No of houses	No of pipe line customers	No of households	No of HEW*
Wukro	117	336	453	333	5225	4
Leku	278	349	627	231	1170	3
Addis Ababa	245	425	670	287	2170	3
Harer	257	241	498	195	1250	2
Andenet	160	201	361	124	1078	1
Total	1057	1552	2609	1170	10893	13

*HEW (Health Extension Workers)

5.3.3 Health and the Environment

Long and healthy life is one of the dimensions of human development index; this can clearly show us the importance of healthy life in human well being. Hence, in this sub topic we shall see health and health related issues like food habits; and also a brief assessment of the environment the respondents live on will be made.

5.3.3.1 Health and Related issues of the Respondents

Health, which is the state of well being of the body and the mind, is highly affected by our food habit. As the survey respondents replied, nearly two third of them have a normal number of meals per day, i.e. three meals per day. Some thirty –five percents have two meals per day, while the rest two percents report to have more than three meals per day. Only one respondent reported to have one meal per day.

Table 5.30: Number of Meals the respondents consume per day

Number of meals per day	Number of respondents	Percent
Once	1	0.76
Twice	46	34.6
Three times	83	62.4
More than three times	3	2.3
Total	133	100

In addition to the number of meals, the type of food we consume has a direct implication on our health. Though most of the respondents, nearly fifty nine –percents, eat the common Ethiopian food (injera), as their main dish; some respondents claim to have a sub-culture food as their main dish. The two mentioned sub culture foods of the study area were ‘Bulenta’ and ‘Olka’. These two sub culture foods make some seven percent of the respondent’s main dish. The other, nearly thirty four percents report to use maize-kita as their main dish.

Table 5.31: Main dishes of the respondents

Main dish	Number of respondents	Percent
Bulenta and Olka	9	6.8
Injera	78	58.6
Maize Kita	45	33.8
Sweet potato	1	0.80
Total	133	100

Having the discussed number of meals per day and main dishes, fifty nine percent of the respondents report the occurrence of sickness, in at list one member of the household, in the last twelve month prior to the survey. The remaining forty one percent reported that no member of their household was sick in the last twelve months.

Table 5.32: Occurrence of sickness in the household during the last 12 months prior to the survey

Does any member of the household get sick in the last twelve months?	Number of respondents	Percent
Yes	79	59.4
No	54	40.6
Total	133	100

From the seventy nine respondents who reported to have at list one sick household member in the last twelve months, ninety one percent got treatment in health institutions. But the remaining nine percent of the respondents, who reported occurrence of sickness in their household, did not get treatment.

Table 5.33: Have sick members of the household get treatment?

Treatment?	Number of respondents	Percent
Yes	72	91.1
No	7	8.9
Total	79	100

The main reasons for not getting treatment as indicated by the seven respondents were, four of them said they can't afford the cost, while the remaining three said they don't like physicians.

One factor in addition to other factors that boosts up the treatment rate in the study area, despite the poor economic and educational background, could be the distribution of free medical cards by the City health department to what they call, the 'poorest of the poor'. According to one of the officers of Hawassa city Health department, W/ro Tigist Esatu, the department has distributed 2552 free medical cards to the poorest of the poor's of the city so that they can get any medical services at government health institutions free of charges just by producing the cards.

These free medical cards as explained by W/ro Tigist are valid only for one year and can serve an individual or household member whose pictures are attached at the back of the card free of charges at any governmental health institutions. At the end of the year, the card can either be

suspended or re-issued for the household or individual based on their economic achievement. The recruitment of beneficiaries for the free medical card is done at the Kebele level. But the general criteria for eligibility include: Homeless people who sleep on the street, orphans with no enough inheritance from their families or with no enough remittance from their relatives, people whose income are below the national poverty line and people with very subsistence income and can't cover their daily meal expenses.

From the total number of free medical card users in the city, 2552, (since June 2004 E.C to February 2005 E.C) fifty three percents are in the three study Sub-Cities. Again from the fifty three percent (1356) cards distributed in the study Sub-Cities, nearly sixty two percent (834 cards) are distributed to the five study Kebeles. This signifies the existence of many numbers of 'the poorest of the poor' in the study area then other parts of the city. Again this also reveals the consistency of the other findings of the study.

Table 5.34: Number of free medical card users in Hawassa city.

Sub-Cities		No of Beneficiaries
Addis Ketema Sub-City		180
BahilAdarash Sub-City		384
	Andenet Kebele	62
	Harer Kebele	166
Hayek Dar Sub-City		318
Mehal ketema Sub-City		374
	Addis Ababa Kebele	124
	Leku Kebele	150
Menehaeria Sub-City		392
Misrak Sub-City		598
	Wukro Kebele	332
Tabor Sub-City		306
Total		2552

Most of the respondents were diagnosed in public health institutions; also those who don't have sick household members in the last 12 months prefer to get treatment in public health institutions. In total, ninety one percent of the respondents were affiliated to public health institutions. While some nearly eight percent of the respondents report to prefer private health institutions. Still some two respondents (1.5%) report to prefer traditional healers than modern health institutions. The affiliation of most of the respondents to public health institutions can be attributed to two main factors: availability of services at low cost in public health institutions and the high number of free medical card users in the study area, as indicated at table 5.34.

Table 5.35: Most preferred treatment centers of the respondents

Most preferred treatment center'	Number of respondents	Percent
Public health institutions	121	91
Private health institutions	10	75
Traditional healers	2	1.5
Total	133	100

From the diagnosed seventy two respondents, nearly forty two percent report the case to be Typhoid fever, nineteen percents were positive for Malaria; fifteen percents report Typhus, another seven percents report Diarrhea case and some nearly fourteen percents report that their cases were some other health complications.

Table 5.36: The most common diseases reported by the respondents

Disease Type	Number of respondents	Percent
Typhus	11	15.3
Typhoid fever	30	41.7
Malaria	14	19.4
Diarrhea	5	6.9
Common cold	2	2.8
Others	10	13.9
Total	72	100

It can be observed from the reported diseases that, most health problem in the study area were related to lack of personal hygiene. In the discussion under housing and sanitation it was reported that the study Kebeles were 'clean'. But the most common diseases reported by the respondents indicate otherwise. This contradicting finding needs further investigation (not the scope of this study). But the best guess could be the large density of people in the area will ease transmission of these communicable diseases and creates large number of patients from a single sick resident or migrant.

5.3.4 Glimpse on the Environment of the study area.

Though cities are recent developments in human history, they label the totality of what we call civilization; because cities and urbanized areas are centers for production, consumption, industry and motorized activity and all these activities are causes of environmental pollution (Palen, 2005). Hence, cities are notorious for their contribution in environmental pollution. But at present, significant number of scholars argues that the most serious air and other environmental pollution occur in cities of developing nations (Palen, 2005).

Even though it is very much debatable whether the poor in general and the urban poor in particular are the major polluters; we are certain that, as Todaro and Smith (2012) argues too, urban poor are the main victim of environmental degradation. Mainly because they can't afford the adaptation and mitigation options available. In addition to this, most of the time the urban poor are at a great risk of being exposed to harmful environmental conditions. For example: the houses they live in has very poor ventilation and are congested, their work places like street vendors and markets are highly exposed to harmful pollutants (Todaro and Smith, 2012). All these factors put the urban poor at the heart of environmental impacts.

One of the key informants, Aseraleka Tolossa Ayana, Claims that the area, what is now called Hawassa city, was covered by forest and grazing lands and with few farm lands when they first arrive in Ginbot 19, 1952 E.C. But now after fifty three years, what Aseraleka Tolossa Ayana claims to have seen when he first arrived here by the order of the king, has almost totally

vanished and replaced by buildings and roads. Similarly the condition of the lake which stretches from Northern to Western edge of the city, Lake Hawassa, is deteriorating. The lake is polluted by effluents from the nearby industries; also erosion from the nearby high lands, which are deforested for different reasons, is silting the lake (SNNPRS Water Resource Development Bureau, 2007). These are the two main land use changes and environmental pollutions which occurred as a result of the growth and expansion of the city; which is considered as one of the faster growing city in the country.

The 2011 Ethiopian welfare monitoring survey indicated that more than ninety two percent of urban dwellers of the country are using fire wood, charcoal, dung and Kerosene as their cooking fuel. All these are emitters of carbon dioxide which is the main green house gas. In the study area the case is similar. With the exception of one respondent, all the others use fire wood, charcoal, Kubet segatura and kerosin as their cooking fuel. In addition, as presented in table 5.25, nearly forty seven percents of the respondent's burn their dry waste; this is also another source of Carbon emission.

5.3.5 Role of Concerned Agencies

In the earlier four sub topics we have seen the different realities of the study area. We have seen how poor the educational and economic backgrounds of the respondents were, we have seen how poor their housing and housing facilities were, we have seen many free medical card users as a manifestation of poverty of the area, and we took a glimpse of the environment they reside in. knowing all these facts, now its time to ask what has been done by concerned agencies to address the existing problems? Hence, the role of NGO's intervening in the area and the government will be assessed in this part.

The two main NGO's intervening in the study area are Jerusalem Children and Community Development Organization (JeCCDO) and Marry Joy. The interview made with Ato Masresha Kiberet, JeCCDO Hawassa branch manager, indicated that the NGO is working on diverse programs to address the major problem it has identified on the base line survey. The major focus

areas of the JeCCDO as mentioned by the manager are Orphan and Vulnerable Children (OVC) care and support, education, health, urban agriculture, environmental protection and community based organizations capacity building.

In OVC care and support, the organization provides school stationeries and school uniforms for the children of the poor, and covers their health expenses. In addition, it gives a monthly subsidy of hundred birr to their guardians, to cover the income the family would get if the children were at income generating activities than at school. In the education program it provides adult functional literacy and train unemployed youths on different fields. In the health program it builds communal latrines (in Andent Kebele) and stand pipes/'Bonos' (in Andenet Kebele) and support, in different ways, HIV carriers. On its urban agriculture it promotes vegetable growing on small areas (such as back yards) and old utensils. In addition fattening and poultry are promoted by giving startup capital and the live stocks for the poor's. In the environmental protection, it works on awareness creation and plantation of tree seedling in different areas (e.g. around the lake). It also works on strengthening the capacity of community based organization (esp. Eders) by giving training, financial support and by arranging experience sharing visits to other parts of country where good practices are available.

By working on these major programs JeCCDO is planning to address the problem of illiteracy in the area, try to generate additional income to the residents by promoting urban agriculture, and try to reduce the burden of the residents by building stand pipes/'Bono' in the study area. As argued by the manager all programs except adult functional literacy are successful in meeting their goal.

The other NGO intervening in the area is Marry Joy. As explained by Ato Eyob Muhdin, Project officer at Marry Joy Hawass branch, the organization is working on three major programs by focusing on youths, females and poor families. The major intervention areas of Marry Joy are HIV/AIDS care and support, capacity building and livelihood enhancements. By focusing on these programs, at a household level it works on reducing dropouts from schools by providing

school stationeries and uniforms to the children's of the poor, cover medical expenses of the very poor households, renovates dilapidated houses and provide free legal service to the poor living in the area. These are the efforts of Marry Joy to address the problems in its intervention area.

The government is also working hard to address the problems observed in the area by primarily and solely focusing on small and micro co-operations. As the documents from the three study Sub-Cities indicate, the small and micro cooperation are classified in two main categories: manufacturing and Ordinary. On the manufacturing category four areas of cooperation are identified, these are construction, wood work and metal work, food and food processing and textile. On the ordinary category Trade and Services are the two main areas of cooperation.

In these major areas of co-operation, there are 464 small and micro co-operations in the three study Sub-Cities. These co-operations have created work opportunities for 4220 previously unemployed youths since 1997 E.C. And still the Kebeles and Sub-Cities are actively working on recruiting the unemployed ones to these co-operations, as their major strategy to address unemployment in the area.

Table 5.37: Number of co-operation's and their members in the study Sub-Cities

Sub-City	No of cooperation	No of members
Mehal Sub-City	48	618
Misrak Sub-City	311	2671
Bahil Adarash Sub-City	105	931
Total	464	4220

Chapter Six

Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1 Conclusions

This study was conducted in Hawassa City by focusing on Urban Poverty. Its main objective was assessing the condition of the urban poor and the burden they shoulder. To achieve this and the other five specific objectives, three methods of data collection and secondary data sources were used. Finally after a thorough analysis and investigation the following conclusion were drawn.

The background of the respondents portrays a typical poor neighborhood. Female headed households, though not the majority, are substantially high. Usually such realities represent poor neighborhoods. MOFED (2008) in its report supported this fact by saying in urban areas at the country level head count poverty is higher for female headed households than for male headed. Age wise more than 90 percent of the household heads were adults in the working age group. This active age group can easily be used to bring changes if utilized properly.

The two findings that deviate from what is generally expected in poor neighborhoods were the large number of intact marriages and the small number of children per households. More than 65 percent of the respondents report to have an intact marriage. But as most discussed on chapter two argues, most marriages in poor neighborhoods tend to be broken. But it seems, the poor's of the study area are using marriage as a strategy to cope with the abject poverty they face.

Since the poor have meager income, they always try to increase the number of income generators in the family, thereby to increase their income. The primary way to do this is by procreation. Consequently, large number of Children per household is expected in poor areas. And anyone who might walk through the five study Kebeles might wonder by the large number of children who play on either side of the road and might conclude the existence of high birth rate in the area. This will be a wrong conclusion; because the average number of children per household was found to be three. So how the residents increase income generator members of the family and what elude any passerby with high birth rate? Substantial number of households report to

have EXTENDED Family structure. This could explain how the residents increase income generator members of the family. The factors that elude observers with high birth rate in the area could be three: first the extremely high population density in the area. Second many households are congested in a single compound, sometimes up to twelve households. Finally the extended family structure itself has contributed for this elusion. But given the reproductively active age category of most of the respondents, the number of Child bearing per household might rise in the future.

Literacy is very poor among the respondents. Nearly 26 percent of the respondents were illiterate and again eleven percents were only able to read and write. This puts around 37 percent of the household heads out of the pursuit of formal education. In addition other twenty-nine percents attained only Primary education. This very poor educational background of the household heads, by any means, is not related to unavailability of Schools. In the study area including the two old aged Schools of the city, there are seven Schools. Hence, availability of the schools doesn't ensure literacy.

Despite their poor educational background, most parents send their children to school. But as the data from the two nearby schools (Tabor and Ethiopia Tikedem),which give 8th Grade leaving exam, indicates bout 55 and 44 percent of the students has not passed their primary education leaving exams in 2004 EC, respectively, at the two schools. As Todaro and Smith (2011) argues, due to many factors with coupled with repeated absence from school, mainly to support their family, children of the poor find it difficult to meet basic academic standards. This reality is vividly observed in the study area.

The very low credentials of most of the household heads forced them to engage in low paying jobs. Consequently the average income of the households in the study area found to be 819.80 Birr per month. Keeping in mind the average household size is five (three Children, husband and wife) the adult equality value of this average household size would be four; the following can be concluded. In 2011 MOFED calculated the national poverty line to be 315.08 Birr per month per

adult person .Then multiplying the adult equality value of the average household size with the national poverty line; would give us 1260.32 Birr Per month. Thus 1260.32 Birr/month is needed by the average family to keep itself just above the national poverty line. But the average income of the households in the study area is only 819.80 Birr/month and this puts nearly 84 percent of the households under the national poverty line.

Expense wise those who spend more than fifty percent of their income on food and related items are the poor. This is because their income, usually, cannot afford to make other expenses than the basic necessities. By this explanation about 93 percent of the households fail under poverty; because they spend more than fifty-six percent of their average income per month on food and food related items. Consequently, saving is not practiced by nearly fifty nine percent of the households. This is mainly because they have meager income and it is totally spend on basic necessities leaving no room for saving.

Individuals are well aware of their social status in the society. Having this, fifty-eight percent of the households identify themselves as very poor. Though this figure is a bit different from the income and expense realities, it still signifies the existence of high poverty in the area.

Rent tenancy has shown increasing tendency in the urban centers of the country in the past decades. As the CSA (2012) documents indicate in 2011 one out of every two urbanite dwells in rent houses in urban Ethiopia. In the study area the reality is much worst 77 percent of the households live in rented houses either from kebeles (45.1%) or individuals (32.3%).

Most houses in the study area are of very poor quality; and dilapidated. This makes the rent fee of most houses very low. In addition to the large number of kebele houses in the study area; which are rented by the kebeles; many individuals construct & rent out poor quality houses with very low price. These two factors (large number of kebele houses and poor quality – low rent price private houses) attracts large number of poor's to the study area and contributed to the poverty of the area.

As an indicator of their poor quality, most of the houses lack cooking place and water pipes, have mud floors and cracked mud walls and most houses are single roomed. Desaalegn and Aklilu (2002) used number of rooms the household reside in as an indicator of poverty of the household. When their approach is applied in the study area; nearly 83 percent of the respondents are poor (45.1 percents very poor, live in one room, while the remaining 37.6 percents are poor, reside in two rooms). This figure is almost similar with the number of respondents who live under the national poverty line in the study area (83.45 percents).

The study area has the most densely populated settlement. In a simple indicator up to twelve households are congested in a single compound. In a more vivid indicator, the population density in the study area ranges from 4911 person per Km² at Wukro Kebele to 30,668 persons per Km² at Leku Kebele; by any comparison this figures represent are extremely dense settlement.

The most common power sources for cooking in the study area were wood and charcoal. These two substances were used by about 80 percent of the respondent as a power source. And the two are the cheapest power sources the poor can find. But these and the other power sources the poor use such as Kubet /Animal dung) and segatura have environments consequences.

Clean water coverage of Hawassa City is 76 percent in 2005 EC. But most of the households in the study area don't own a tap. Hence, they buy from others at a much exaggerated price. They purchase water from individuals at an average of fifty times more than the supplier sale. This indicates the clear exploitation of the poor. Though not claimed by any of the respondents, this exploitation had led to a wide spread use of water walls. The availability of many water walls can signal that. In addition the decayed tooth of many children in the area indicates the used of unsafe drinking water in the area.

Having all these difficulties, the poor's in the study area manage to keep their locality 'Clean'. Around 93 percent of the respondents either collect their dry waste and burn it (46.6%) or pay to dispose it (45.9%). Similarly about 83 percent of the respondents use liquid waste sinking halls to dispose their liquid wastes. These achievements are totally attributed to the grass root level

works of the Health extension workers. Their success can indicate us that the poor's in the study area are not resistant to change and if worked at the grass root level many improvements and changes can be made to their life.

All existing facilities (houses, latrines, water pipe lines) in the study area not sufficient; but their insufficiency is worsened by large number of in-migrants. Unmanaged and large number of in-migration puts pressure on the existing facilities and threatens their durability. The important factors mentioned by the kebele administrators, that attract large number of migrants to these areas were low price rent houses, invitation by early comers and the relative closeness of the kebeles to the bus station.

As many literatures argue, migrants will settle in poor neighborhoods temporarily; only as long as they make enough money to move to other better places. If they can't do this, they are trapped in poverty and impoverishment they can't escape. The reality in the study area indicates that more than fifty six percent of the respondents lived for over twenty years in the poor neighborhoods; this is a clear indicator that most are trapped in poverty and can't escape the impoverishment they live in. But, always the better-offs leave the area; leaving behind the trapped once. This is why social isolation concentration effect theory says the residents of poor neighborhoods are 'isolated and concentrated groups of poor's who can't escape the impoverishment'.

Most of the respondents (62.4%) have normal number of meals per day, three. And they use Injera (58.6%) as their main dish. Maize is also an important dish in the study area covering 33.8%. Still there are sub-culture foods called Ol'ka and Bulenta; these two are main dishes for 6.8%; though seems insignificant, these two foods indicate the existence of sub-culture groups in the city.

The most common health problems in the study area were Typhus, Typhoid fever, Malaria and Diarrhea; these diseases account for 83.3 percent of health problems in the last 12 months. Almost all these diseases can be controlled by keeping personal hygiene and environmental

sanitation. Though the study areas were labeled earlier as 'clean', this sanitation related diseases are common in the area. The reason for this could be, since the diseases are communicable, the common use of latrines and the high population density in the areas easily creates large number of illnesses from a single sick migrant or resident.

The most preferred treatment centers for the respondents were public health institutions. This can be attributed to two main factors: the cheap price of the service in public health centers and the free medical cards issued by the city administration to the poorest of the poor. From the total free medical cards distributed in the city, fifty three percent is in the study sub-cities. That is three sub cities are taking 53 percent of the free medical cards in the city; while the remaining four sub cities share the remaining 47 percents. This is a very important indicator for the existence of large number of the poorest of the poor in the study sub cities. Again from the total free medical cards distributed to the three study sub cities, nearly 62 percents is distributed in the five study kebeles. This again signals concentration of large number of poorest of the poor in the study kebeles; while keeping in mind the poorest of the poor and the poor who have not get these cards.

There is a long debate whether the poor are major polluters of the environment or not. But what we are certain is that the poor are the major victims of environmental degradation; mainly because they can't afford the mitigation and adaptation options available. Most environmental problems in the world are emanating from urban centers. Because urban centers are the heart of production, consumption and transportation; to facilitate these land use changes are common in urban centers.

Hawassa City, which is among the fastest growing cities in the country, was covered by forests and grazing lands some 52 years ago. But now buildings and roads has totally replaced the forest and grazing lands. The beautiful lake of the City, Lake Hawassa, is also threatened by effluents from the nearby industries and siltation from the surrounding deforested highlands.

In conclusion, the background of the respondents indicates a typical poor neighborhood: large number of female headed households, many illiterate and very low credentials of household heads. The reality the background characters portray is supported by the other findings too. Income wise 84 percents are below the national poverty line. Expense wise, 92 percents spend more than 55 percent of their income in food and food related items. Almost sixty percents don't practice saving. Again nearly 60 percents perceive themselves to be poor or very poor. Based on Deslagen and Akiliu (2002) clarification 83 percent of the respondents are poor. All these indicators show us how poverty is deep rooted in the area. In addition to all these, the large number of distributed free medical cards in the study area can give us a clue that, in any criteria used the study area is very poor. In general urban places in the country are neglected; so is Hawassa. The best indicator for this could be lack of classification for urban levels in the country; all non agrarian settlements beyond 2000 people are urban centers/'Ketemas'. In Hawassa, the water enterprise bureau refer 'Hawassa City' as 'Hawassa Town' this could limit the work and initiation of the bureau at small scale level. From this domain, the urban poor in particular are the most neglected. The study areas, despite being the first settlements in the City, have no Asphalt road, while the newly found settlements have. Still Horse drawn carts, which were banned in other parts of the City nearly a decade ago, are the main means of transport which connect the study kebeles.

Being cognizant of these problems, NGO's and the government are working on different areas to address the abject poverty in the area. But it seems their work is not yet sufficient and much is need to be done; since the problem is multidimensional and deep-rooted.

6.2 Recommendations

The study has identified some major problems as its scope permits. The problems identified primarily emanates from the very poor educational background of the resident and its consequent low paying jobs. Hence, to overcome the problems identified by the study, the following recommendations are made for the government bodies, NGO's intervening in the area and the public at large.

Since illiteracy is the main driver of the problems in the area both the government and NGO's should work on Adult Functional Literacy and on promoting the children of the poor to keep on their education. While not forgetting giving different vocational trainings that could solve their immediate income problem; by doing so the issue of meager income could be addressed. In addition, the good start in micro and small co-operations should continue. Since most are on the working age group; such interventions will not be difficult if started at the grass root level. Simultaneously, the people should be educated about the importance of saving and should be encouraged to make savings from their income.

The extremely high population density which is being exacerbated by high in-migration should be addressed. To reduce the density, the migrants who have not stayed long should be settled to other locations. And the in-migration could be reduced by improving leaving at the origins and creating awareness on high potential area about the reality they will face in urban centers.

Many children in the study area are not passing their eighth grade leaving exams; to address this: First, the government should check the quality of the education provided at such schools and should take corrective measures if any problem is found. Second, tutorials should be given for those who are weak in their education. And finally, parents should be aware of the benefit of teaching their children and should not force absence from school on their children; similarly the students themselves should be motivated and awared about the bright future of well educated person.

The very poor quality houses are affecting health and attracting large number of poor to the area. Addressing this problem would reduce migration of the poor to the area and can improve the surrounding. So, the low cost houses should be built in the area and given to the residents on long term loan.

Standing water pipes or 'BONOS' should be built in the area and sell water to the poor at a very reasonable price, this will avoid exaggerated price they pay to get clean water. The free medical card service should be expanded to include many beneficiaries and it will be important if other services, such as giving meal, are included to it, doing so will aid the government's health policy of preventive approach.

Environment wise, to reduce the emission form the cooking fuel and to discourage deforestation energy saving cooking technologies should be introduced to the poor. This will have another effect of reducing their expenses and contributing to saving practice.

Finally, the neglect in the urban center of the country should be avoided. Both the government and NGOs should work on promoting researches that will identify the problem and level of urban center in the country. And the urban centers of Ethiopia should be treated according to their level; not on a random policy adopted for all.

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ANNEX

I. Instruments

A. Questionnaire

This questionnaire is designed by Salsawi Feleke, who is studying his Masters Degree in Addis Ababa University at the department of Environment and Development Studies. The main purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data for Masters Thesis. The thesis is conducted in the three Sub-Cities of Hawassa City (namely: Misrak, BahilAdarash and Mehal Sub-Cities).

The study has the general objective of assessing the condition of the urban poor and the burden they shoulder. Hence, to achieve this and the other specific objectives of the study; the researcher kindly asks the full, honest and frank cooperation of the respondents. Filling this questionnaire will not take more than twenty minute of your time. And all the responses will be kept confidential; plus privacy and anonymity of the respondents will be fully respected. Any response given in this questionnaire will not be used for any other purpose than this single study.

Finally, any person who doesn't want to take part in this study will not be forced; even after starting filling it, if you feel any inconvenience you can stop it at any time.

Enumerator's name _____

Date the Questionnaire is filled _____

Questionnaire Code _____

Instruction

This questionnaire has two main parts: the first part asks the general background of the respondents, while the second part presents the questions related to the objectives of the study. The second part has five sub divisions. In this questionnaire two types of questions are presented: Open ended and Close ended questions. For the close ended questions please tick (✓) in the box provided and for the open ended questions please write your answer in the space provided.

Part.I Background information

1. Identification number of the respondent _____
2. Residential area: Sub-City _____, Kebele _____
3. Born in Hawassa? Yes No
4. If your response to Q. 3 is 'No' from where did you come here?

Region _____ City/Town/Kebele _____

5. Marital status: Single Cohabiting Married
 Separated Divorced Widowed

6. How long have you been in this Kebele? _____

7. How long have you been in Hawassa? _____

II. Household and Educational Characteristics

8.

Please use the codes below to fill in the table						
s.no	Household members	Sex	Age	Educational level	Edu status	Occupation
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						

1

Code				
For Edu level	For Edu status	For Occupation		
		Un employed	Employed in	Self Employed
(01)illiterate	(11)Student	(21) looking for job	(31)private org	(41)Gulet
(02)only read&write	(12)dropout	(22)house wife	(32)GO.	(42)Kiosk
(03)1 st -4 th grade	(13)Completed	(23)Disable	(33)NGO	(43)Crafts man
(04)5 th - 8 th grade		(24)Learning		(44)daily labourer
(05)9 th -10 th grade				(45)retail shop
(06)11 th -12 th grade				(46)shoe shine
(07)TVTE				(47) other*
(08)Diploma				*please specify if others
(09)Degree				
(010)Above 1 st degree				

9. Family structure: Nuclear Extended
10. If you have extended family how many people reside with your family? _____
 And why? _____

11. Number of children: _____
12. Does all your children attained school? Yes No
13. If your response to Q. 11 is 'NO' what are the main reasons for not to send your school aged children to school?
- A. Service not available E. Can't afford schooling all
 B. They assist on household duties F. Teaching them is not important
 C. Education for girls is not important G. Education for boys is not important
 D. They engage in income generating activity H. others (specify)

14. To which school do you send your children?
 Privet school Government school Religious school

15. Bread winner of the family? Sex: Male Female
 Age _____
 Education level (please use the code above) _____
 Main Occupation _____

III. Income of the house hold

16. Income source of the household

s.no	Income source	✓	Amount per month in Birr
1	Salary		
2	Salary of spouse		
3	Pension		
4	Remittance		
5	Privet business		
6	House rent		
7	Any other income source*		

* specify any other source of income and its amount _____

17. What are your major expenses?

s.no	Item	Expense per month in Birr
1	Food and food related items	
2	Clothing	
3	School fee	
4	Health care expenses	
5	House rent fee	
6	Social affair expenses (Idar, etc)	
7	Other major expense*	

* specify other major expenses and their amount _____

18. How many members of the family engage in income generation activity? _____

19. Do you practice saving? Yes No

20. If you practice saving, how much do save per month on average? (in Birr)

< 100 101-300 301-500
501-700 701-900 >900

21. Have your living improved or deteriorated over the past five years?

Improved Deteriorated Not changed

22. Are you considering yourself as compared to your surroundings, as

Very poor Poor Middle income Rich Very Rich

IV. Housing

23. Owner ship status of the house you live in

Own house Kebele house
Rented from individuals Share with others

24. How many rooms does your house have? _____

25. Flour of your house is made off?

Mud Bamboo
Cement Ceramics

26. The main material of the Wall?

Mud Blockets
Stone Other materials _____

27. Clean water source:

Bono (stand Pipe) Private Pipe
Shared pipe Buy from individuals Pipe Water well

28. Latrine status:
 Private Shared Public I don't have
29. Do you have a separate room for cooking? Yes No
30. If your answer to Q.29 is 'NO' where do you cook?
 In open air In the house
 Other (Specify) _____
31. Major power source for cooking in the household:
 Kubet Firewood Charcoal Kerosene
 Electricity Biogas Other _____

V. Health and Nutrition

32. Does anyone in the family get sick in the last 12 months? Yes No
33. If your response to Q.32 is 'Yes' have they get treatment? Yes No
34. If they have not get treatment in modern health institutions why?
 Can't afford Don't like modern health institutions
 Was not seriously sick Prefer traditional healers
 Others(specify) _____
35. Which health institution do you prefer for treatment?
 Privet health institutions Public health institutions
 Traditional healers
 Others(specify) _____
36. Why do you prefer Privet/public/traditional institutions for your treatment _____

37. What was the major health problem in the household in the last 12 months?
 Typhoid Malaria Diaharia
 Common cold Other (specify) _____
38. Number of meals the house hold consume per day
 Once Twice Three times More than three times
39. Main Dish of the house hold

40. How do you dispose your dry waste?

Burning

Through outside my home

Pay to dispose

Bury in a Hall

41. How do you dispose you liquid waste?

Use liquid waste sinking hall

Use canal to dispose outside my compound

Splash on the road

Other ways _____

B. Interview Checklist

1. For Key Informants

- Name and age
- Family size
- Duration in this kebele
- The first settlers
- The area improved or deteriorated
- Livelihood for the majority
- Any intervention you have seen
- Dry and liquid waste disposal
- Clean water

2. For Kebele/Sub City Administrators

- Poverty severity
- Any intervention made
- School available on your boundaries
- NGOs intervening at your kebele
- Migration to the kebele
- Drop outs from schools
- Health institutions

3. For Hawassa Town water enterprise

- Pipe line customers
- Water tariff

4. Hawassa City health department

- Free medical card users
- Criteria to recruit free medical cards

II. Participants

Table A. Key informants list

S.No	Name	Age	Sex	Kebele	Remark
1	W/ro Birke Endashew	45	F	Addis Ababa	Key Informant
2	Anonymous	78	M	Addis Ababa	“ ”
3	Aseraleka Tolesa Ayena	95	M	Addis Ababa	“ ”
4	W/ro Yeshehareg Tessema	60	F	Andenet	“ ”
5	Ato Hailemariam Folla	63	M	Andenet	“ ”
6	Ato Werku Desta	40	M	Leku	“ ”
7	Ato Teka Tekele	70	M	Leku	“ ”
8	W/ro Beyenech Dola	55	F	Harer	“ ”
9	W/roTerebe Daya	56	F	Harer	“ ”
10	W/ro Tsega Berhanu	28	F	Wukro	“ ”
11	Ato Zelalem Ababora	42	M	Wukro	“ ”

Table B. Officials Interview list

S.No	Name	Remark
1	Ato Belayneh Teshome	Mayer's office Head
2	W/ro Genet Geremew	BahilAdarash Sub City Admin
3	W/ro Zewditu G/Meskel	Misrak Sub City Admin
4	Ato Merkneh Yacob	Mehak Sub City Admin
5	Ato Meshesha Mena	Wukro Kebele Admin
6	Ato Aklilu Afesod	Leku Kebele Admin
7	Ato FitsumBerhan Admasu	Harer Kebele Admin
8	W/ro Yewebnesh	Andenet Kebele Admin
9	Ato Tamene	Addis Ababa Kebele Admin

III. Population of the world's Megacities, 2006

Rank	City/Urban Center	Country	Population in 2006 (millions)
1	Tokyo	Japan	35.53
2	Mexico City	Mexico	19.24
3	Mumbai (Bombay)	India	18.84
4	New York	USA	18.65
5	Sao Paulo	Brazil	18.61
6	Delhi	India	16
7	Calcutta	India	14.57
8	Jakarta	Indonesia	13.67
9	Buenos Aires	Argentina	13.52
10	Dhaka	Bangladesh	13.09
11	Shanghai	China	12.63
12	Los Angeles	USA	12.22
13	Karachi	Pakistan	12.2
14	Lagos	Nigeria	11.7
15	Rio de Janeiro	Brazil	11.62
16	Osaka, Kobe	Japan	11.32
17	Cairo	Egypt	11.29
18	Beijing	China	10.85
19	Moscow	Russia	10.82
20	Metro Manila	Philippines	10.8
21	Istanbul	Turkey	10

Source: Hutchison, 2010, p.888