

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

INSTITUTE OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

**URBAN DEVELOPMENT - INDUCED DISPLACEMENT: PROSPECTS
AND CHALLENGES OF REAL ESTATE DEVELOPMENT ON THE
LIVELIHOODS OF RURAL COMMUNITIES. THE CASE OF LEGA
TAFO LEGA DADI**

BY

ERMIAS ABERA AMAYU

JULY 2009

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List of Acronyms

BC	Before Christ
CCD	Country Club Developers
DFID	Department for International Development
EDID	Ethics of Development Induced Displacement
IDMC	Internal Displacement Monitoring Center
MAMSL	Meters Above Mean Sea Level
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
NRC	Norwegian Refugee Council
PLC	Private Limited Company
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
UN	United Nations
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNPD	United Nations Population Division

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Abstract

In the last few decades, the Ethiopian urban centers have experienced very fast rates of urban growth. This rapid urbanization has resulted in the horizontal expansion of these centers towards rural areas. This expansion is at the expense of prime agricultural lands and has affected the livelihoods of farming communities dwelling in the urban fringes. Communities and individual households have been displaced from their lands to give way for economic development interventions. The main objective of the study is thus to assess the major prospects and challenges that the development of real estates has on rural livelihoods. A structured questionnaire was prepared and eighty household heads were randomly selected from the displaced households and filled the questionnaires. Moreover, data was also collected through focus group discussions and key person interviews. The findings of the study showed that the participation of the community in the planning and implementation of the program was negligible. Moreover, the household vulnerability of the affected households had increased after their displacement. The establishment of the real estate also mainly negatively affected the livelihoods of the households as reductions occurred in their access to land and number of livestock possessed. Meanwhile, the real estate also contributed to the betterment of the people's livelihoods as it created employment opportunities and increased their access to basic infrastructure. Different livelihood strategies were employed by the displaced households to cope with the changes in their livelihoods. Capacity building, skill trainings, micro-credit services and helping the community to build their own houses were also identified as areas in which development actors can intervene to support the affected households.

Chapter One

1. Introduction

1.1. Background Information

Urbanization, which is simply defined as the shift from a rural to an urban society and involves an increase in the number of people in urban areas during a particular year, is the outcome of social, economic and political developments. Nowadays, however, the term urbanization does not only mean extension of towns and cities but represents a whole process that has influence on the rural area as well (Yenigul, 2007). This phenomenon is increasing in both the developed and developing countries. Available statistics show that the proportion of the world's population living in urban areas, which was less than 5 per cent in 1800, increased to 47 per cent in 2000 and is expected to reach 65 per cent in 2030. However, more than 90 per cent of the future population growth will be concentrated in developing countries and will pose a formidable challenge in these countries (Gyabaah, nd).

The urbanization process is largely driven by market forces and government policies. One significant feature of this process in Africa is that, unlike Europe and Asia, much of the growth is taking place in the absence of significant industrial expansion. Moreover, it also finds expression principally in outward expansion of the built-up area and conversion of prime agriculture lands into residential and industrial uses (Gyabaah, nd). This outward expansion of urban areas is usually referred to as urban sprawl and is mainly the result of two factors; urban development and population growth. The first cause of urban expansion to the periphery is thrived up by economic development projects, urban clearance or industrialization.

Ethiopia, like other developing nations, is also characterized by a high rate of urbanization. However, this rapid process of urbanization has been associated with numerous problems such as unemployment, inadequate social services and the development of urban slums. Another aspect of urbanization in Ethiopia is the very rapid

sprawling of urban dwellings, hence affecting the livelihoods of peri-urban agricultural communities. Formal and informal settlements are stretching out horizontally from the central capital.

1.2. Problem Statement and Justification

Urban sprawl, which is defined with the characteristics such as unlimited development towards the underdeveloped areas, low density and leapfrog development, is actually a common feature of the urbanization process of several countries in the 21st century. In developing countries, although urban sprawl is mainly affected by plans, programmes and market behavior, local government policies also have a significant influence on it (Yenigul, 2007). Moreover, the high population growth that has taken place in most cities has also contributed significantly to their horizontal expansion. Such horizontal outward expansion of urban centers has taken place at the expense of prime agricultural land resulting in the change of livelihoods in the rural areas.

Analysts and policy makers are divided over the consequences of urbanization in general and urban sprawl in particular. Optimists view city growth as a central force raising average living standards. They view urbanization as the natural outcome of economic development and a necessary requirement for a more rational use of economic resources (Allen and Jeffery, 1984 cited in Eyasu, 2007). Although urbanization is the driving force for modernization, economic growth and development, there is an increasing concern about the effects of expanding cities, principally on human health, livelihoods and the environment. Pessimists advocate that sprawl hurts both national and local economies by costing more to build infrastructure for new settlements. Moreover, they argue that outward expansion of urban centers results in the loss of agricultural lands and natural resources thus leading to the displacement of peasants and change of their livelihoods (Minwyelet, 2004 cited in Eyasu, 2007).

Ethiopia, even though one of the least urbanized countries, is urbanizing at a very rapid rate. The Ethiopian urban centers are expanding at an unexpected rate resulting in the loss

of prime agricultural land, reduced agricultural production and peasant displacement and change of their livelihood. The situation is worst in Addis Ababa and its surrounding towns. Addis Ababa is expanding rapidly, even in the northern part beyond the Entoto Mountain. As a result, it is creating a continuum with suburbs like Burayyu, Sebata, Akaki and Lega Tafo Lega Dadi. The sprawling of the city is in part mainly due to the tremendous increase in the city's population. Furthermore, the reforms in the country's economic policy have created conducive environments for private investments which are mainly located in or near to the city. Nevertheless, these investment projects, which are mainly in the form of commercial real estates and industries, have affected farming communities dwelling in the peripheries of the city.

In the study area, large tracts of land have been expropriated from the local farming community and have been utilized for commercial real estate development. Even though, these investment initiatives play a crucial role in developing the local as well as national economy, they have also resulted in the displacement of numerous peasants from their lands, thus altering their livelihoods. This development-induced displacement is non-integrative by nature and thus has negative effects on marginalized rural communities. Hence, the question that arises is whether the current trend in the expansion of this development initiative (commercial real estates) is sustainable considering the accompanying challenges. Nevertheless, no research has so far been undertaken to address this issue. The researches that have been conducted are only focused on analyzing the negative impacts of urban expansion in general on the livelihoods of rural communities (Feyera, 2005 and Eyasu, 2007). Accordingly, previous studies have not specifically looked into the major impacts commercial real estate development has on peri-urban farming communities. Moreover, even though the research area, Lega Tafo Lega Dadi, is currently a hot spot where the effects of urbanization are most clearly observed, previous researches have forgone the area. This situation has thus necessitated research work to look into both the challenges real estate development brings about on rural livelihoods and the prospects the initiative has on promoting their livelihoods in particular and local development in general.

1.3. Objectives

1.3.1. General Objective

The research is generally aimed at analyzing the major prospects and challenges that the development of real estates has on rural livelihoods.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

The study is aimed at achieving the following specific objectives:

1. To assess the impacts of real estate development projects on the livelihoods of the affected communities.
2. To assess the perceptions of affected households towards the benefit package provided.
3. To identify coping strategies through which the displaced households mitigate the negative effects.
4. To identify areas in which development actors can intervene to support the affected households.

1.4. Research Questions

1. What are the major negative effects of the establishment of real estates on the livelihoods of the farming community?
2. How are real estate projects contributing to the enhancement of the farmers' livelihoods?
3. Are the displaced households satisfied with the program's implementation strategy and compensation package provided?
4. How are the affected households coping with the situation and in which areas do they want the support of development actors?

1.5. Significance of the Study

The study is basically concerned with identifying the major prospects and challenges of real estate development on the livelihoods of rural communities. Since the expansion of development interventions is inevitable in the process of development, the research is of vital importance in indicating better ways through which the negative effects will be minimized and the prospects further enhanced. Thus, besides fulfilling academic requirements, the findings of the study are of significance for policy makers and urban planners and administrators. Moreover, the study indicates entry points for intervention and is hence of vital importance for all development actors that would like to operate in the area. Lastly, the findings of the study will serve as inputs for academicians and all who are interested in conducting further research in the area.

1.6. Scope of the Study

The study was conducted in Lega Tafo Lega Dadi town and two rural kebeles, Yeka Sedan and Yeka Dale, towards which the town had expanded. The assessment of the prospects and challenges was based solely on household heads who had given up their lands for the establishment of a residential real estate by Country Club Developers PLC (CCD). Moreover, the primary data used for the study was collected in the months of March and April, 2009.

1.7. Methodology

1.7.1. Research Design

The research primarily investigates the major challenges and prospects that urban expansion, through real estate development projects, has on the livelihoods of rural communities. In order to achieve its objectives, the study thus employed a mixed research design to thoroughly describe the research scenario. This is helpful because both qualitative and quantitative data can be gathered.

1.7.2. Research Methods

1.7.2.1. Data Collection Procedures

All the necessary data required for the study was obtained from both primary and secondary sources by using multiple tools of data collection. The primary data was collected primarily by using household surveys. Moreover, focus group discussions, key informant interviews and personal observation were used to supplement the household survey. On the other hand, the secondary data was gathered by reviewing relevant literature obtained from different sources.

A structured questionnaire was developed and administered to collect the required data from the household surveys. For the purpose of the household surveys, eighty household heads that had given up their lands for the establishment of the real estate were interviewed by using the structured questionnaire. Data was also gathered by conducting interviews with key informants. Accordingly, close-ended and short answer questions were prepared and used to conduct an interview with a key informant from the real estate. Unstructured in-person interviews were also carried out with three key informants working in different bureaus of the town's administration. Furthermore, guiding questions were developed to facilitate the focus group discussion which was conducted with one group consisting of eight people. The participants of the focus group discussion comprised of community elders, local kebele officials and displaced household heads. The in-person interviews and focus group discussion were conducted in order to supplement the findings of the household surveys by gathering in-depth information and reactions that are difficult to get through the household surveys.

Three enumerators that had completed secondary education were hired and trained to assist in conducting the household surveys. The training was conducted to enable the enumerators to be consistent in how they explain the purpose of the study, ask questions and record answers. Thus, this helped in minimizing the effect of the enumerators on the answers. Following this, the questionnaire developed was pre-tested and revised based on the feedbacks obtained and was then used for collecting the actual data.

1.7.2.2. Sampling Procedures

Both non-probability and probability sampling designs were employed in the selection of the real estate and sample households to be studied. The non-probability sampling design was used in selecting the real estate project to be studied as several commercial real estate projects have displaced farmers from their agricultural lands in the study area. Accordingly, a single real estate developer operating in the study area, Country Club Developers (CCD) PLC was purposely selected for undertaking this study. The rationale for the selection was based on the scale of operation of the project. The CCD project is the largest project operating in the area and thus affecting the greatest number of farmers. Moreover, the project is currently operational and also has future plans to expand its activities in the area.

On the other hand, a probability sampling design was employed in the selection of the study's sample from the study population. The study population consisted of one hundred and ninety seven households that had been displaced from their lands for the establishment of CCD's real estate project. Hence, a simple random sampling technique was used to draw the study's sample from a sampling frame that consisted the names of all the household heads that had been displaced by the project. Accordingly, eighty household heads were randomly selected for the purpose of the study.

1.7.2.3. Data Analysis and Presentation

The data that was collected through the household surveys was analyzed by using the statistical package for social scientists (SPSS) software. Moreover, the data gathered through the focus group discussion, key person interviews and personal observation were analyzed manually and were used to complement the data from the household surveys. Hence, the analyzed data was presented through in-depth discussions, tables and figures.

1.8. Limitations of the Study

The horizontal expansion of urban centers has affected the livelihoods of many rural communities dwelling on the fringes of these centers. It has resulted in the displacement of many households and the loss of farmlands and other livelihood assets. This study is based solely on households who were displaced from their lands for the establishment of a real estate project. Therefore, the study's findings may not fully represent the characteristics of all farming households affected by urban expansion as the impacts of different types of interventions vary.

1.9. Organization of the Thesis

The thesis is organized into five chapters. The first chapter introduces the study by describing the background of the study, problem statement and justification, objectives, research questions and the significance of the study. Moreover, the scope and limitations of the study and the methodology used to undertake the study are discussed in the chapter. The second chapter presents the review of literature and the working model of the study.

Chapter three describes the study area and the real estate studied. The major findings of the study are discussed in the fourth chapter. The chapter is divided into five major sections: description of the household survey respondents, household vulnerability, impact on livelihood assets, household coping strategies and areas of intervention for development actors. The first section of the chapter provides a brief description of the study's sample population while the second section describes the vulnerability status of the respondents. The third section looks into the impacts the development of the real estate has had on the livelihoods of the displaced households. Moreover, the fourth section describes the coping strategies employed by displaced households to sustain their livelihoods whereas the fifth section indicates the areas in which development actors can intervene to support the livelihoods of the affected households. Finally, the study's conclusion and recommendations are presented in chapter five.

Chapter Two

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introduction

Urbanization is one of the most significant process affecting human societies in the twenty first century. This process, particularly the growth of large cities and the associated problems of poverty, environmental degradation and urban sprawl, is posing a formidable challenge in both developed and developing countries. Nevertheless, the impacts of urbanization are being felt especially strongly in the so called Third World countries which are experiencing relatively very fast urban growth rates. Gyabaah (nd) explains that natural population increase (high births than deaths) and rural to urban migration are the two most significant factors contributing to the growth of cities in the developing countries. The rapid urbanization being observed in poorer nations has resulted in the outward expansion of urban centers towards the countryside; a phenomenon usually referred to as urban sprawl. This sprawling of urban centers towards the peripheries is at the expense of prime agricultural lands on the fringes of these centers.

Urban sprawl has caused major land use and land cover changes in which agricultural lands have been converted to uses associated with urban activities. Manufacturing, residential real estate construction and many of the commercial and institutional functions relating to them are gravitating outward from the densely built-up urban cores into the more open areas beyond (Higbee, 1967). Hence, this phenomenon has affected the livelihoods of farming communities dwelling on the fringes of horizontally expanding cites. Agricultural communities and individual households have been displaced from their farm lands to give way for the purposes of economic development interventions. However, though these development interventions affect the livelihoods of peri-urban farmers, they are also very crucial in promoting both local and national development. Therefore, this dilemma urges policy makers and local actors to seek for better ways that would ensure the sustainability of peri-urban livelihoods.

2.2. Urbanization and Urban Growth

2.2.1 Definitions and Concepts

Urbanization and urban growth are two different concepts frequently found to be conflated in the literature of urban studies. Slater (1986), states that within the field of Third World urban studies, a plethora of terms and categories employed without clear definition or delineation are still commonly encountered. For this reason, different definitions given by different scholars will be revised in this section to get a clear understanding of the meanings and distinctions of these two concepts.

Urbanization can be viewed and perceived to mean a lot of things depending on how it is used. It can be viewed as a characteristic of the population, as a particular kind of land use and land cover, as well as a characteristic of social and economic processes and interactions affecting both population and land (McIntyre et. al, 2000 cited in Haregewoin, 2005). Roberts (1978) cited in Slater (1986) states that urbanization in its most formal sense merely constitutes the increase of the urban population as compared with the rural one, but it includes results from far-reaching economic transformations on the national and international plane. His view converges with Davis (1969) who refers to urbanization as the proportion of the total population concentrated in urban settlements, or else to a rise in this proportion. However, the World Bank sees urbanization as more than a demographic phenomenon. The Bank views urbanization as a societal transformation along a rural - urban continuum which is characterized and even defined by fundamental changes in the physical concentration of population, in the nature and scale of economic production, in land use, and in social structures and patterns of interaction (World Bank, 2000). Moreover, Mitchell in Breese (1966) refers to urbanization as being the process of becoming urban, moving to cities, changing from agriculture to other pursuits common to cities, and corresponding changing of behavior patterns. Hence, he uses the word urbanization to describe the development of modes and standards of behavior peculiar to urban areas.

Slater (1986) suggests that increase of the urban population, whether viewed in isolation or together with smaller increases of the rural population, denote a process of urban growth. In contrast, urbanization, in a demographic sense, refers to a process of growing population concentration where by the proportion of the total population which is classified as urban is increasing. The distinction should therefore be noted that urbanization refers to the proportion of the national population living in urban areas whereas urban growth refers to an increase in urban population size, independent of rural population (UNPD, 2002 cited in Haregewoin, 2005). It is thus important to bear in mind that although urbanization and urban growth are always linked, they are not synonymous. Urban growth can take place without any urbanization provided that the rural population grows at an equal or even greater rate than the urban population.

2.2.2. Historical Perspective of Urbanization

The first cities, doubtless small and hard to distinguish from towns, appeared in the most favorable places sometimes between 6,000 and 5,000 BC. It is believed by many scholars that the earliest towns were established around the Mediterranean Sea. These cities were small and surrounded by an overwhelming majority of the rural people; moreover they relapsed easily to village or small-town status (Davis, 1964). Hence, although cities themselves first appeared many years ago, the human population has lived a rural lifestyle throughout most of its history.

Urbanized societies in which a majority of the people live crowded together in towns and cities is a new and fundamental step in man's social evolution. It was not until the nineteenth century that there was a potential for the development of cities of any size. This was partly due to increases in agricultural surplus, improved transportation and political security (Breese, 1966). Moreover, it has only been in the last 200 years, with the advent and spread of industrialization and with the global population rising at an exponential rate that cities have grown significantly in size and number. Marthe (2001) cited in Haregewoin (2005) notes that no society could be described as predominantly urbanized before the year 1850. Davis (1969) states that the urbanized societies of today,

in contrast to the ancient cities, not only have urban agglomerations of a size never before attained but also have a high proportion of the population concentrated in such agglomerations.

2.2.3. Trends in Global Urbanization

Urbanization has become a powerful social and physical transformation force throughout the world. The last few decades have brought enormous changes to the world's settlements – cities, smaller urban centers and villages. Moreover, the last few decades have also brought a world that is far more urbanized and with a much higher proportion living in large cities and metropolitan areas (HABITAT, 1996). Potter and Lloyd-Evans (1998) describe this phenomenon by simply stating that we are living through what can be described as a record-breaking era: one during which the world has experienced its fastest ever rate of urbanization. Between 1960 and 1970, the world's urban population grew by 19.8 per cent and from 1970 to 1980 it increased again by 16.9 per cent. They stated that the world would have totally urbanized by the year 2031, if the same rate of growth were to have continued from 1980 onwards. It has also been estimated that between 1950 and 2025, a period of some 75 years, the overall level of world urbanization will have increased from 29 to 61 per cent.

In the two worlds of more developed and less developed countries, the degree and type of urbanization contrasts sharply. Yeung and Belisle (1986) state that in the now developed countries, urbanization occurred slowly over centuries and with limited communication and transportation facilities. It was also intimately linked to and triggered by industrialization and improvements in agricultural productivity. Nevertheless, the urbanization process in developing countries is characterized by demographic changes. The urban explosion has taken place in these countries over the past few decades as a result of very high rates of both natural population growth and rural to urban migration. Hence, unlike the developed countries, the majority of less developed countries are not following the same cycle of urbanization associated with the early stages of economic growth (Potter and Lloyd-Evans, 1998).

Table 2.1 Selected Indicators for Urban and Rural Population by Major Area, 1950-2030

Major Area	Population (Millions)				Growth rate (Per cent)		Doubling time (Year)	
	1950	1975	2000	2030	1950 - 2000	2000-2030	1950 - 2000	2000-2030
Total Population								
Northern America	172	243	314	396	1.21	0.77	57	89
Latin America and Caribbean	167	322	519	723	2.27	1.11	31	63
Oceania	13	21	31	42	1.77	1.05	39	66
Europe	548	676	727	670	0.57	- 0.27	123	-
Asia	1399	2397	3672	4950	1.93	0.99	36	70
Africa	221	406	794	1489	2.56	2.10	27	33
Urban Population								
Northern America	110	180	243	335	1.59	1.07	44	65
Latin America and Caribbean	70	198	391	608	3.44	1.47	20	47
Oceania	8	15	23	32	2.14	1.19	32	58
Europe	287	455	534	540	1.24	0.04	56	1947
Asia	244	592	1376	2679	3.46	2.22	20	31
Africa	32	102	295	787	4.42	3.27	16	21
Rural Population								
Northern America	62	64	71	61	0.28	- 0.49	251	-
Latin America and Caribbean	97	124	127	116	0.55	- 0.33	127	-
Oceania	5	6	8	10	0.98	0.61	71	114
Europe	261	221	193	131	- 0.60	- 1.31	-	-
Asia	1155	1805	2297	2271	1.37	- 0.04	50	-
Africa	183	304	498	702	1.94	1.14	36	61

Source: Haregewoin, 2005.

The rapid rate of urbanization that is currently affecting the Third World is a product of the post – 1945 period. An undeniable evidence characterizing developing countries is that urbanization in these countries is appearing not only in larger magnitudes but in bigger and bigger units, that is, not only is there more and more urban population but

there are also more places which are urban and they are becoming larger and larger (Breese, 1966). One of the most frequently cited statistics summarizing the process of urbanization in the so-called developing world is that the towns and cities of these poorer countries are receiving a staggering 45 million new urban inhabitants each and every year. By comparison, approximately 7 million urban residents are added on an annual basis to the towns and cities in the countries of the more developed world (Potter and Lloyd-Evans, 1998). The UN statistics also indicate that the aggregate increase in urban population in the developed countries between 1950 and 1990 was approximately 430 million whereas in the developing countries it increased by 1.07 billion, almost threefold in absolute numbers (Stren, 1995). This shows that underdeveloped countries today are urbanizing not only more rapidly than the industrial nations are now but also more rapidly than the industrial nations did in the heyday of their urban growth.

Rapid urban growth is one of the more striking features of the developing world. Mohan (1995) states that the total urban population in developing countries has roughly quadrupled in the past four decades, from less than 300 million in 1950 to more than 1.2 billion in 1990. The World Bank also predicts that within a generation the majority of the developing world's population will live in urban areas and the number of urban residents in developing countries will double, increasing by over 2 billion inhabitants. Moreover, the Bank estimates that more than 95 per cent of the population growth in developing countries over the next two decades will occur in urban areas (World Bank, 2000). Thus, these illustrative statistics demonstrate that urbanization and urban growth are occurring very rapidly in the developing world. However, the amount and kind of urbanization in developing countries vary from region to region and from country to country.

The UNECA (1969) states that Africa, even though the least urbanized of the major world regions, has an urban population growth rate that is the most rapid in the world. This growth rate is also estimated to continue to lead that of other regions in the future. Sub-Saharan Africa is relatively experiencing a faster growth in urbanization. As recently as 1950, there were only 20 million people, or 10-15 per cent of the total population living in urban areas in Sub-Saharan Africa. The region then was the least urbanized and

was urbanizing only at a slow pace. However, since the early 1970s the region has had the highest urbanization growth rate of all regions, averaging 5 per cent per annum. As a result, the level of urbanization has dramatically increased to nearly 40 per cent today. Nevertheless, the degree of urbanization and rate of growth in Africa is also not uniform and there is considerable variation among the sub-regions.

South Africa, with approximately 60 per cent of its population living in urban centers, has the highest urbanization level in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, East Africa, even though having a comparable degree of urbanization with West Africa, is the sub-region with the fastest urban growth rate. In this region, the total percentage of the urban population increased by more than six-fold between the years 1950 and 2000. Ethiopia, though one of the least urbanized countries in the world, has a high rate of urban population growth. Here, the rate of population growth in urban areas is much higher than in rural areas. Sahlu (2004) states that the national population growth rate is 2.46 per cent whereas that of urban centers is 4.1 per cent. This growth rate of urban centers is much higher when compared with that of other African countries.

2.3. Urban Sprawl

The dramatic effects of rapid urbanization are very clear in cities and peri-urban areas of most countries. As a result of the significant increase in the population of cities and towns and the industrial developments that have taken place, cities have expanded horizontally towards their fringe areas. Bayehu (2002) insists that the history of urbanization and urban-based industrial developments reveal that large industrial developments usually find place outside the main city areas. Moreover, people have also moved from the urban cores to the city peripheries there by converting large tracts of agricultural land for residential construction. Gordon and Richardson (2000) also suggest that this sub-urbanization of population and employment is not a new phenomenon. They state that most societies have been urbanizing, and their cities have been expanding outwards for many years. Hence, it is important to have a clear understanding of this phenomenon.

There is no universal definition of sprawl and thus its definition depends on the perspective of who defines it. Critics of urban sprawl equate the term with poorly planned expansion or growth that destroys green space, exacerbates traffic and inflicts costs on those in the community. On the other hand, supporters of sprawl use the phrase as a short hand term for suburban and exurban development. Thus, urban sprawl is generally the spreading of a city over rural land at the fringe of an urban area. However, regardless of how it is defined, sprawl is a response to often bewildering sets of economic, social, political and physical forces. Barnes, et.al (nd) suggests that these forces include municipal fragmentation, the patterns of infrastructure investments, subsidization of infrastructure and white flight from cities.

Davis (1964) insist that the same forces which made extreme urbanization possible have also made metropolitan dispersion possible, and the dispersion itself has contributed to further urbanization by making large conurbations more efficient and more enduring. The outward movement of urban residences, of urban services and commercial establishments, and of light industry – all facilitated improvements in motor transport and communications – has made it possible for huge agglomerations to keep on growing without the inconveniences of proportionate increases in density. Carter (1981) cited in Bayehu (2002) also suggests that the dispersal away from the main city areas is conventionally a consequence of the high costs and congestion in the theoretically optimum city center location. Moreover, Ingram (1998) cited in Adell (1999) states that population growth in large cities usually promotes densification of less-developed areas and expansion at the urban fringe, largely following either price constraints or preferences of households acting within the housing market. Hence, cities have expanded towards the fringe areas resulting in new settlements. Adell (1999) states that this process of urban dispersal into rural areas has also been taking place in industrialized economies basically as a result of the counter urbanization dynamics, that is, the reverse migration from the city to the countryside. This general move towards dispersal and location of growth on the peripheries or fringes of cities is thus a worldwide phenomenon. Consequently the very boundaries which distinguished urban centers from rural areas have become blurred.

The perceived link between the city and the countryside has evolved rapidly, shifting away from previous assumptions to new conceptual landscapes. Previously, a sharp distinction between urban and rural settlements existed generally reducing the livelihoods or the inhabitants into two main categories: agriculture based in rural areas and manufacture and service based in urban centers (Adell, 1999). However, with the expansion of cities, the peri-urban interface which is generally considered as a transitional zone between the city and the countryside came into existence. The peri-urban interface is a dynamic zone both spatially and structurally. Spatially, it is the transition zone between fully urbanized land in cities and areas in predominantly agricultural use. Structurally, this interface is a zone of rapid economic and structural changes characterized by pressures on natural resources, changing labor market opportunities and changing patterns of land use (Rakodi, 1998 cited in Adell, 1999). Hence, this shows that there is a shift of the edge or boundaries of cities which are moving outwards.

The development of a peri-urban area through the sprawling of cities is an inevitable consequence of urbanization. As cities continue to grow, these peri-urban areas will continue to move outwards. In developing countries, including Ethiopia, the effects of urban sprawl are clearly seen in peri-urban areas. Gyabaah (nd) states that as the cities expand, the main zone of direct impact is the peri-urban area. Furthermore, those living in the peri-urban interface face many new challenges and opportunities in meeting their needs and accommodating the by-products of the urban populations.

Although cities serve as engines of growth in most developing countries by providing opportunities for employment, education, knowledge and technology transfer, and ready markets for agricultural and industrial products, their expansion towards rural areas places enormous stress on natural resources and imposes 'ecological footprints' on the peri-urban areas (Rees, 1992; Rees and Wackernagel, 1994 cited in Gyabaah, nd). For instance, as urban centers expand outwards they result in changes in land use whereby urban residents buy up prime agricultural land for residential and commercial purposes. Adell (1999) argues that the development of investments in housing and industrial estates

has transformed mainly agricultural areas to large new town and industrial estates. An influx of population into these peripheral areas, mainly by middle income groups, has hence also boosted land speculation. Accordingly, fast growing urban regions influence rural land use far in advance of the built-up area. In this regards, changes in land use and farm size are inevitable consequences of urban expansion.

“The changes in land use and farm size have already been noted. The purchase of land for development leads to both smaller units and fragmentation of holdings. Where ‘betterment’ is not exacted for the benefit of the community, speculation by the purchase of fringe land in anticipation of development can create deterioration in agricultural standards. Also where the ‘urban fence’ is ill defined or not well defended, vandalism from the encroaching housing estates can create problems, for such anti-social activities are not restricted to the inner city. Again the advance of the actual urban frontier spreads the wave of ‘rural retreaters’ and the rather large scale ‘hobby of farmers’ who seize opportunities to live in a rural environment and work on the land” (Carter, 1981 cited in Bayehu, 2002: 6).

In general, contemporary urbanization is characterized by radically transforming the landscapes within the surrounding major metropolitan areas. The ongoing decentralization of urban land uses and associated economic and social functions have impacted the environment and also dramatically altered the livelihoods of agricultural communities living in peri-urban areas. As often is the case, urban expansion occurs at the expense of productive agricultural land, which increases the pressure on available agricultural land. The conversion of farm lands hence has negative consequences on the food security of affected households. This is because the loss of farm land to sprawl will reduce households’ food production and farm incomes. In addition to this, Marshall and Shortle (2005) state that urbanization in general and urban sprawl in particular, are significant environmental stressors.

“Changes in land use and land cover can have wide-ranging environmental consequences. These include loss of biodiversity, changes in emissions of trace gases affecting climate change, changes in hydrology and soil degradation. Moreover, changes in land use and land cover can influence vulnerability of people and places to environmental perturbations by for example, influencing the spread of infectious diseases, interfering with the migration of species and affecting the risk of natural hazards.” (Marshall and Shortle, 2005: 61).

The environmental impacts of sprawl development differ from those of high-density urban development. This is due to the fact that the low-density characteristic of sprawl results in an overall area being converted to urban use. Moreover, the dispersed nature of sprawl development can create environmental problems above and beyond the impacts attributable to the magnitude of conversion.

“This low-density development generally replaces existing acres of farmland, woodland and wetland and automobile-enabled leapfrog development creates seeds around which satellite communities grow. As the landscape becomes increasingly urbanized, the human system becomes more complex and the natural system becomes more simplified. Moreover, through the process of urbanization, ecologically disruptive elements (e.g., impervious surface areas, invasive species) are introduced. The loss of ecosystem results in a diminished capacity of the landscape to provide environmental services.” (Marshall and Shortle, 2005: 61-62).

The predominant characteristics of urban sprawl, low-density and dispersed development, often operate in tandem, but they may have distinctly different effects in terms of environmental impacts. The distinction between the two impacts can be seen to be that of impacts arising from the magnitude of conversion versus those arising from the pattern of conversion. Therefore, in order to maintain a focus on distinction between the impacts related to magnitude and pattern, the impacts of sprawl are categorized into four

categories: the effects of land conversion, the effects of land use change, the effects of landscape change and induced effects.

Table 2.2 Environmental Impacts of Urban Sprawl

Mechanism of impact		Environmental impacts
Conversion processes		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased erosion Trace gas flux Soil compaction Introduction of non-native species
Impacts of land-cover change - degraded water quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increase in urban land cover Decrease in pre-existing land cover <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - loss of habitat area - loss of biomass sinks for atmospheric gases 	Increase in impervious surface: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - increased flooding - increased variability in stream flow - increased erosion - urban heat island effect - loss of wetlands
Impacts of landscape change - fragmentation of remaining habitat		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - loss of contiguous habitat - loss of corridors, migration stops, or dispersability - increased edge - increased presence of non-native or invasive species - higher species mortality due to increased contact with humans
Induced effects	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased vehicle dependence Other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - air pollution; increased deposition of air pollution - water pollution; polluted runoff - increased energy use - stimulated car production - increased risk of abandoned brown fields - possible shift in agricultural production to marginal soils

Source: Marshall and Shortle, 2005.

The expansion of urban areas degrades the natural environment through the pollution of water, air and soil by effluents and other toxic waste released by urban activities. Sprawl usually tends to affect water quality and quantity because of the resulting deforestation and elimination of natural filters. Moreover, there will be reduction of rainwater absorption as rural land is developed and this does interfere with the natural process of

ground water recharge. Developed land actually occupies a smaller percentage of watershed acreage than forests and agriculture. Moreover, when development converts open natural land into impervious surfaces, it will create water quality problems. Urban and suburban lands also contribute greater amounts of nutrient pollution on a pound – per - acre basis than any other land use other than broken soil agriculture. This pollution of air and water sources thus also poses serious public health threats. Urban sprawl also hurts national and local economies. Critics of sprawl argue that it costs more to accommodate growth by building new roads, electric lines, sewer and water infrastructure for brand new subdivisions, office parks and shopping centers, than by integrating people into existing ones. They state that more economic benefits of growth are realized if new residents and jobs are directed to existing developed areas (David Suzuki Foundation, 2003).

2.4. Development-Induced Displacement

One of the world's most acute and growing problems is the increasing number of internally displaced people, or internal refugees (Hampton, 1998). The issue of population displacement is often associated with refugees of political conflicts and upheaval. However, even though such involuntary or forced migration is a pressing problem causing the displacement of around 20 million people worldwide, there exists a problem of even greater global proportions: the case of development-induced displacement (EDID Project, 2004). Thus, the displacement of people through war, famine, conflict, poverty and indeed through development itself has increasingly become central. Robinson (2002) says that it has been estimated that over 200 million people have been displaced during the last century of the twentieth century and at least half of these displacements resulted from development interventions. This shows that development projects alone displace about 10 million people per annum.

The word displacement suggests a range of involuntary movements. Robinson (2002) states that apart from refugees, one can consider 'captured slaves transported across the Atlantic; illegal immigrants returned home; villagers removed to make way for a dam

which will flood their homes and land' and so many more as displaced people. Nevertheless, there is quiet a significant distinction between people displaced due to conflicts and development interventions. Robinson uses the term 'forced resettlers' to refer to those people who have been forcibly resettled by their own governments in order to make way for infrastructural development projects. Moreover, a number of definitions have also been forwarded by different scholars to show the distinct characteristics of population displacements arising from development interventions.

"Development-induced displacement can be defined as the forcing of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purpose of economic development. Such geographic displacements can be within a city or district, from one village or neighborhood to another, it can also involve displacement across long distances and borders, sometimes to economically, socially and culturally quite different settings. A broader conception of displacement is also possible; this includes displacement from economic activities and cultural practices without geographic moves. When the latter do occur, they often result in the former." (Bose, Garside and Oddie, 2003: 4-5).

Displacement and place are closely related: to be dis - placed, a person logically has some relationship to a place or places – usually that person is no longer there, but they are assumed to have some connection to it. Furthermore, the particular meaning that is attributed to displacement – often as a problematic condition – rests on a very particular view of place, as somewhere to belong, or where life is settled (Robinson, 2002).

Development-induced displacement therefore involves a fundamental dilemma. Economic development which improves people's livelihoods is desirable but the displacement associated with it can and does harm people and can also restrict their ability to make life choices (Bose, et al., 2003). While development projects bring benefits to society, they also impose costs. Indeed, large numbers of people lose their homes, livelihoods, health and even their lives each year due to development projects

(Robinson, W., 2002). Bose, et al. (2003) also argues that a majority of national and international poverty-alleviation and economic improvement schemes have instead substantially impoverished the very populations they were meant to assist. Hence, entire communities, ecosystems and cultures have been uprooted in the process. However, Robinson states that these forced displacements undertaken in the name of development itself are less newsworthy and are hence hidden from public consciousness.

“Many such displacements are quite hidden and go unremarked - rural development schemes all over the world have involved the relocation and disruption of local communities and livelihoods. More dramatically, large-scale infrastructural investments, such as dams, mines, ports and major industrial expansion all induce human displacements.” (Robinson, 2002: 3).

2.4.1. Impacts of Development-Induced Displacement

Development-induced displacement has intensified in recent years due to increasing political, economic and cultural globalization. This phenomenon, which is associated with global developmental processes, has displaced millions of people across the world and has therefore become a serious crisis. It has made many people to become refugees, not simply across borders but in the majority of cases, within their own countries. Critics estimate that five times as many people as those displaced due to political conflicts have been dislocated as a result of processes of economic development (Bose, et.al., 2003). These forced displacements of people are profoundly disruptive experiences and are commonly portrayed as having disastrous consequences for people’s socio-economic well-beings. Moreover, another feature intensifying the severity of development-induced displacement is that its costs are often borne by the poorest and most marginalized members of society. These people are those who are socially and economically vulnerable, and in the majority of cases politically marginalized communities worldwide.

Forced displacement usually has overwhelmingly negative consequences for those displaced, resulting in social and psychological disruption and often long-term economic

impoverishment. For all forcibly displaced people, the costs of losing access to their territorially based rights are considerable and the loss of physical access to the place where they had been settled also has many consequences. It may involve a loss of livelihood, loss of land rights or housing, or a loss of social networks. Evidence does suggest that forced relocation is more likely to be damaging to poor people's livelihood prospects than it is to improve their chances of earning a living (Robinson, 2002).

Michael Cernea points out that being forcibly expelled from one's land and habitat carries with it the risk of becoming poorer than before displacement. This is because a significant portion of displaced people do not receive compensation for their land assets, and effective assistance to re-establish themselves productively. Cernea has also identified eight interlinked potential risks intrinsic to displacement. These risks are:

1. Landlessness: Expropriation of land removes the main foundation upon which people's productive systems, commercial activities, and livelihoods are constructed.

2. Joblessness: The risk of losing wage employment is very high both in urban and rural displacements for those employed in enterprises, services or agriculture. Yet creating new jobs is difficult and requires substantial investment.

3. Homelessness. Loss of shelter tends to be only temporary for many people being resettled; but, for some, homelessness or a worsening in their housing standards remains a lingering condition. In a broader cultural sense, loss of a family's individual home and the loss of a group's cultural space tend to result in alienation and status deprivation.

4. Marginalization. Marginalization occurs when families lose economic power and spiral on a "downward mobility" path. Many individuals cannot use their earlier-acquired skills at the new location; human capital is lost or rendered inactive or obsolete. Economic marginalization is often accompanied by social and psychological marginalization.

5. Food Insecurity. Forced uprooting increases the risk that people will fall into temporary or chronic undernourishment, defined as calorie-protein intake levels below the minimum necessary for normal growth and work.

6. Increased Morbidity and Mortality. Displacement-induced social stress and psychological trauma, the use of unsafe water supply and improvised sewage systems,

increase vulnerability to epidemics and chronic diarrhoea, dysentery, or particularly parasitic and vector-borne diseases such as malaria and schistosomiasis.

7. Loss of Access to Common Property. For poor people, loss of access to the common property assets that belonged to relocated communities (pastures, forest lands, water bodies, burial grounds, quarries and so on) result in significant deterioration in income and livelihood levels.

8. Social Disintegration. Displacement causes a profound unraveling of existing patterns of social organization. When people are forcibly moved, production systems, life-sustaining informal networks and trade linkages are dismantled (Norwegian Refugee Council (NRC) and Internal Displacement Monitoring Center (IDMC), nd).

The problems associated with forced displacements are however numerous and complex. Other scholars have also suggested the addition of other risks such as loss of access to public services and the loss of access to schooling for school-aged children. Moreover, they suggest that development-induced displacements also have risks associated with the loss of civil rights or abuses of human rights such as loss of property without fair compensation, or violence from security forces or risks of communal violence in resettlement areas (NRC and IDMC, nd). However, even though numerous risks relating to development-induced displacements have been stated, this list of risks is not exhaustive and many more risks still remain unmentioned; some of which are even specific to certain geographic and social settings.

Albeit the abundance and intensity of risks related to forced displacements, little seems to be done by many governments to tackle the issue. This is mainly because the heart of the problem lies in the fact that most governments generally see people displaced by development projects as a necessary sacrifice on the road to development. Hence, the dominant perspective is that the positive aspects of development projects, the interest of the public, prevail over the negative ones, the displacement or sacrifice of a few. Robinson (2002) also points out that the main objective of development-induced resettlement projects is to benefit a much wider population than that of the displaced themselves. Thus, this prevailing view further complicates the situation of those

individuals and households displaced and yet to be displaced by the seemingly inevitable development projects. Generally, development-induced displacement severely affects the livelihoods of the affected communities.

2.5. Livelihood

The word 'livelihood' is dynamic in its nature and can thus be defined in many different ways. However, for the purpose of this study, the definition used by the United Kingdom's Department of Foreign and International Development (DFID) will be adopted. DFID's definition, as adapted from Chambers and Conway, 1992 defines livelihoods as:

“A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (DFID, 1999: 1).

Conceptually, “livelihoods” connotes the means, activities, entitlements and assets by which people make a living. Assets, in this particular context, are defined as human, social, natural, physical, financial and political capitals. Human capital represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labor and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies and achieve their livelihood objectives. At a household level human capital is a factor of the amount and quality of labor available; this varies according to household size, skill levels, leadership potential and health status. Human capital, besides being of intrinsic value, is required in order to make use of any of the other types of assets. It is therefore necessary, though not on its own sufficient, for the achievement of positive livelihood outcomes. Social capital refers to the social resources upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihood objectives. These are developed through networks and connectedness that increase people's trust and ability to work together and expand their access to wider institutions, such as political or civic bodies;

membership of more formalized groups and relationships of trust, reciprocity and exchanges that facilitate co-operation, reduce transaction costs and may provide the basis for informal safety nets amongst the poor. Moreover, natural capital refers to the natural resource stocks from which resource flows and services (e.g. nutrient cycling, erosion protection) useful for livelihoods are derived. There is a wide variation in the resources that make up natural capital, from intangible public goods such as the atmosphere and biodiversity to divisible assets used directly for production such as trees and land (DFID, 1999).

Physical capital comprises the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed to support livelihoods. Infrastructure consists of changes to the physical environment that help people to meet their basic needs and to be more productive whereas producer goods are the tools and equipment that people use to function more productively. Moreover, financial capital refers to the financial resources that people use to achieve their livelihood objectives. These consist of available stocks such savings and regular inflows of money such as pensions and remittance (DFID, 1999). Furthermore, political capital refers to the political resources which people use in their day-to-day activities.

2.6. Theoretical Framework

Urbanization is one of the most significant processes affecting human societies in the twenty first century. This process is increasing in both the developed and developing countries and is expressed principally in the outward expansion of the built up area. In a similar manner, the Ethiopian urban centers are also expanding at an unexpected rate resulting in the loss of prime agricultural land, reduced agricultural production and peasant displacement. Manufacturing, residential construction and many of the commercial and institutional functions relating to these appear to be gravitating outward from the densely built up urban centers into the more open areas beyond.

Farmers are the primary owners of land on the fringes of expanding towns and this expansion is at the expense of prime agricultural land on which their livelihoods are mainly based. Consequently, farmers are displaced from their farmlands, usually without

their consent, to give way for development projects. This type of displacement is referred to as development induced displacement. Thus, there is increasing concern about the effects of expanding cities and the resulting displacement on the livelihoods of peri-urban agricultural communities.

Bose, et.al (2003) define development induced displacement as the forcing of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purpose of economic development. Such geographic displacements can be within a district, from one village to another or across long distances and borders. They also state that a broad conception of the term is possible; this includes displacement from economic activities and cultural practices without geographic moves. In the study area, large scale development projects have displaced farmers geographically hence also affecting their economic activities and cultural practices. Development induced displacement thus involves a fundamental dilemma: economic development might be desirable in improving people's living conditions, but the displacement associated with it can and does harm people. Thus, entire communities and individual households are affected in the process (EDID Project, 2004).

This study is basically concerned with identifying the major prospects and challenges of real estate development on the livelihoods of rural communities. Therefore, the study population consists of agriculture-based households displaced from their farmlands to give way for the development of commercial real estate projects. This displacement, which can be described as a development induced displacement, has affected the livelihoods of this community in a number of ways. Hence, the study will use some useful variables, which will serve as proxy measures for assessing the impacts of real estates on the livelihoods of the community.

The households targeted in this study are rural and agriculture-based. Their livelihoods are dependent on multiple assets which are affected by intricate natural and man-made factors. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to explore the impact of real estate development projects on the livelihoods of displaced households. In pursuing this aim,

the paper attempts to identify the various ways in which household assets are affected. This is because the impact on livelihood assets will reflect the overall impact on livelihoods. Hence, the livelihoods approach is used and the sustainable rural livelihood framework developed by DFID has been adopted and tailored to the specific condition of the study.

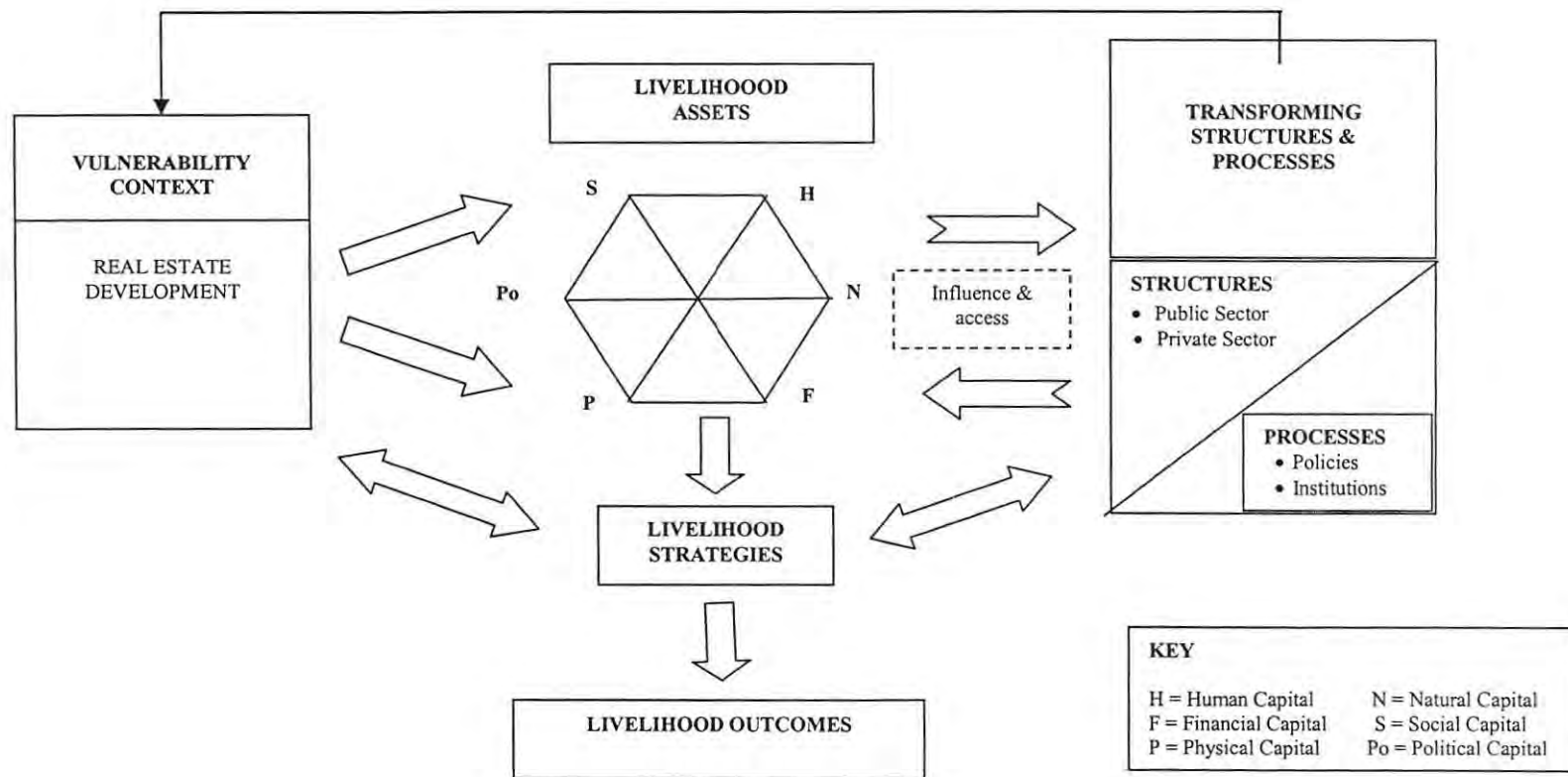
The sustainable rural livelihoods framework provides an all-embracing framework for assessing the impact of development interventions on individuals and communities: context, assets, institutions, strategies and outcomes. The framework uses the concept of capital assets as a central feature of livelihoods and considers how these are affected by the vulnerability context in which they are derived and by transforming structures and processes. It also indicates that people employ different livelihood strategies in order to attain various livelihood outcomes.

Six core asset categories or types of capital upon which livelihoods are built: human, natural, social, physical, financial and political are used to describe the livelihoods of households in the study population. Human capital represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labor and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies whereas natural capital refers to the natural resource stocks from which resource flows and services useful for livelihoods are derived. Moreover, social, physical and natural capitals refer to the social resources upon which people draw, basic infrastructure and financial resources that people use respectively.

The vulnerability context frames the external environment in which people exist and over which they have limited or no control. It has a direct impact upon people's asset status and as a result, assets are both destroyed and created by the vulnerability context. Transforming structures and processes within the livelihoods framework are the institutions, organizations, policies and legislation that shape livelihoods. They also have a profound influence on access to assets for they create assets and determine access. Thus, the vulnerability context and transforming structures and processes fundamentally affect people's livelihoods through affecting their livelihood assets. The framework also

depicts that the vulnerability context affecting household livelihoods is influenced by the transforming structures and processes. The influence of the vulnerability context and transforming structures and processes on livelihood assets makes people to devise different livelihood strategies to cope with the changes in their livelihoods. Livelihood strategies are thus the range and combination of activities and choices that people undertake in order to achieve their livelihood goals. The livelihood strategies employed by people in turn are influenced by the vulnerability context and transforming structures and processes. The livelihood strategies adopted in turn also influence both the vulnerability context and transforming structures and processes. The overall combination of these impacts hence results in livelihood outcomes which are the achievements or outputs of livelihood strategies.

The Working Model (Framework)



Source: Adopted from DFID (1999) and modified for the purpose of this study.

Chapter Three

3. Description of the Study Area and Real Estate

3.1. Description of the Study Area

3.1.1. Geography

The town of Lega Tafo Lega Dadi is found in the Ethiopian Central Plateau. It is located about seventeen kilometers to the north of Addis Ababa in Berek district, North Showa zone of the National Regional State of Oromia. In terms of geographic coordinates, the town lies between 08° 55'- 10° 23' North latitude and 37° 56' - 39° 32' East longitude. The town is one of the eight town administrations administered by the Oromia Special Zone for towns around Addis Ababa and is divided into two urban kebeles, Lega Tafo and Lega Dadi. Moreover, the town administration of Lega Tafo Lega Dadi was reformed and established in the year 2006 over a total land area of 2,431 hectares.

3.1.2. Climate and Topography

Lega Tafo Lega Dadi has a bimodal type of rainfall; the short rains falling between the months of February and April and the main rains between June and October. The temperature of the area ranges between a mean maximum of 17.22 degree Celsius and a mean minimum of 10.67 degree Celsius. Topographically, the area's altitude range is between 2316 meters above mean sea level (mamsl) and 2500 mamsl.

3.1.3. Demography

The total population of the town is estimated to be about 17,236. The sex distribution of the population is fairly equal with males constituting 49.73 per cent and females constituting 50.27 per cent. The age distribution of the town's population shows the dependency rate to be about 38 per cent.

Table 3.1 Age and sex distribution

Age	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
0 - 14	2872	2988	5860
15 - 64	5362	5324	10686
Above 64	338	352	690
Total	8572	8664	17236

Source: Lega Tafo Lega Dadi Town Administration.

3.2. Description of the Real Estate

Country Club Developers PLC was established by two Ethiopian entrepreneurs in the year 2002 with an initial capital of about twenty million birr. The organization was established with an overall objective of contributing to alleviating the acute shortage of residential houses seen in the real estate sector of the country. Currently, the company is implementing the “Yerer View Homes” real estate project located in Lega Tafo Lega Dadi town.

A total of one thousand and one hundred (1100) houses of ten different designs and each lying over an area of one thousand square meters are planned to be constructed by the company in different phases. The first phase of the project, phase “A” was launched in October 2005 with the construction of fifty homes. The company has handed over the phase “A” homes to their owners and is currently constructing other homes over a total area of about one hundred and sixty hectares of land obtained from the Lega Tafo Lega Dadi town municipality. Moreover, the company plans to construct other facilities such as a hospital, school, super market, golf course, tennis courts, swimming pools and organic farms.

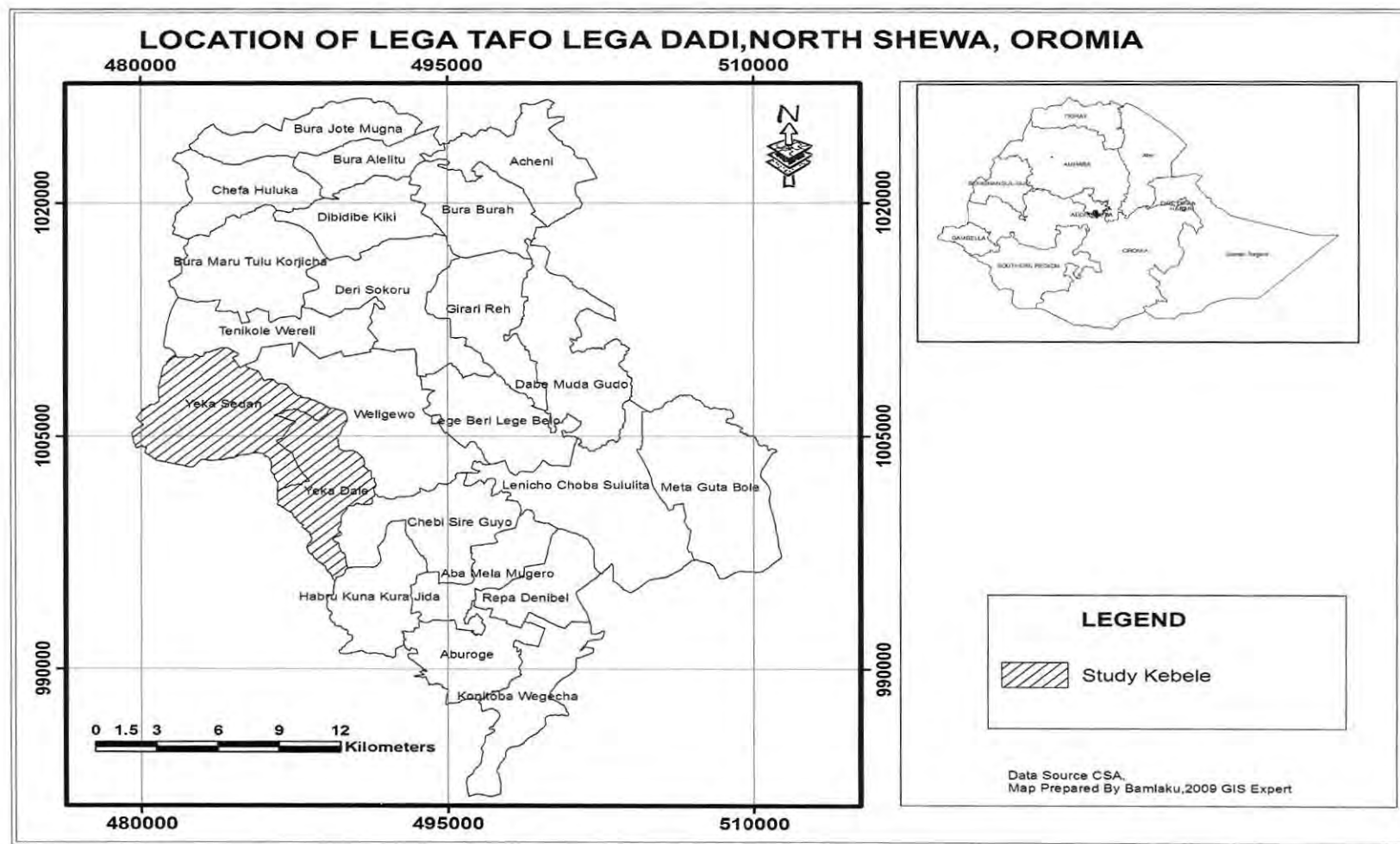
3.2.1 Organizational Vision:

“To be the number one national real estate developer via quality products and sustained services and further expand the real estate business to over sea markets with competitive price” (CCD, 2005).

3.2.2 Mission Statement

“In line with its vision, it will pursue expansion through integration and strategic alliances thereby meeting the expectations of our clients, share holders, management, employees and the community” (CCD, 2005).

Figure 3.1 Map of the study area



Chapter Four

4. Major Findings of the Study

4.1. Description of the Study Respondents

Eighty individuals were approached and interviewed in order to collect necessary information for analyzing the impacts of real estate development on peri-urban farming communities. All respondents of the study consisted of household heads who gave up their land for the establishment of a residential real estate established by CCD. Moreover, all the respondents of the study were from two rural kebeles, namely Yeka Sedan and Yeka Dale, in the vicinity of Lega Tafo Lega Dadi town. Accordingly, the following subsections provide a brief description of the study's respondents.

4.1.1. Sex and Age

Both male and female household heads were interviewed for the purpose of the study. As illustrated in table 4.1, out of the total respondents (80 individuals) interviewed, male household heads constituted 86 per cent (69 individuals). On the other hand, female household heads made up only 14 per cent (11 individuals). These figures show that of the total households displaced, the majority of them are headed by male members of the family.

The age distribution of the study sample shows that the age of the majority of the respondents lies between forty one and fifty years. This age group comprised 27 per cent (21 individuals) of the total valid responses (77 individuals). The ages of the second largest number of individuals ranges between twenty and thirty years and this age group comprised for 21 per cent (16 individuals). Generally, 79 per cent of the respondents (61 individuals) were in the productive age group ranging from twenty to sixty years. Thus, the displacement program mainly affected the productive force of the community and this has negative effects on local production.

Table 4.1 Sex and age distribution of respondents

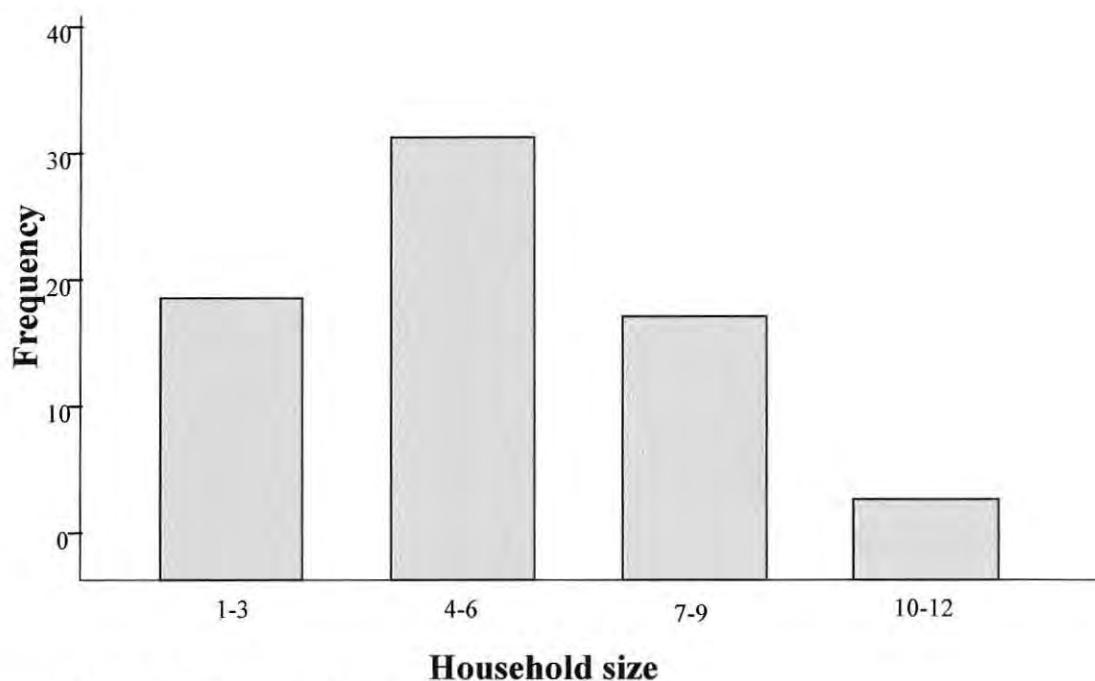
Sex	Age							Valid Response		No Response		Total		
	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	
Male	15	13	16	10	9	3	1	67	84	2	3	69	86	
Female	1	0	5	1	1	2	0	10	12	1	1	11	14	
Total	Count	16	13	21	11	10	5	1	77	96	3	4	80	100
	%	21	17	27	14	13	6	1						

Source: Household Survey (2009).

4.1.2. Marital Status and Household Size

Four categories, single, married, divorced and widowed, were used to classify the study's respondents based on their marital status. Accordingly, it was observed that 82.5 per cent (66 individuals) of the total respondents were married and lived with their marriage partners. Moreover, 5 (6.3 per cent), 2 (2.5 per cent) and 7 (8.8 per cent) individuals reported to be single, divorced and widowed respectively. This illustrates that the great majority (82.5 per cent) of the displaced households are headed by both heads of the family, husband and wife, while only about 17.5 per cent of them are headed by only one family head.

Figure 4.1 Household size of respondents



Source: Household Survey (2009).

The household size of the study sample ranged from a minimum of one individual to a maximum of twelve individuals. As shown above on figure 4.1, the household size of the majority of the respondents lies between four and six family members and they made up 41 per cent (33 individuals) of the total research sample. Furthermore, twenty one individuals had a household size of one to three individuals while the household size of twenty respondents was between seven and nine individuals. These two groups respectively constituted for about 26.3 and 25 per cent of the total respondents while six individuals (8 per cent) had a household size of more than nine members. Given the size of the households, the dislocation of a single household thus has a profound impact on the livelihood of many people.

4.1.3. Educational Level

The information gathered on educational level revealed that the majority of the research respondents were illiterate (can not read and write). As noted in table 4.2, fifty seven respondents said that they were illiterate and had never received any kind of basic education and they accounted for about 71 per cent. On the other hand, only 29 per cent of the respondents (23 individuals) said that they could at least read and write (literate). Out of the respondents who were literate, twelve individuals could only read and write while six and five individuals had received primary and junior secondary (grades 7 and 8) education respectively. It was also noted that none of the research respondents had received either secondary or tertiary education. Thus, the low educational level of the displaced household heads implies that they have low chances of getting off-farm employment opportunities. Moreover, this also shows that agriculture is very important for their livelihoods.

Table 4.2 Educational level of respondents

Educational Level	Count	Percent
Illiterate	57	71.3
Read and write	12	15.0
Primary education	6	7.5
Junior secondary education	5	6.3
Secondary education	0	0
Tertiary education	0	0
Total	80	100.0

Source: Household Survey (2009).

4.2. Household Vulnerability

Vulnerability is usually referred to as the potential to suffer harm or loss and is related to the capacity to anticipate a hazard, cope with it and recover from its impact. This section looks into the ways and extent to which the livelihoods of the displaced households have

become vulnerable. In this context, vulnerability is seen in terms of the changes of agricultural production, household food availability and time of cash importance prior to and after the establishment of the real estate.

4.2.1. Agricultural Production

Agriculture is the mainstay of the livelihoods of the people in the rural kebeles of Lega Tafo. According to the study survey, 94 per cent of the total respondents (75 individuals) said that their livelihoods were based on agriculture and that either they or their family members were involved in farming prior to the establishment of the real estate. Only 6 per cent of the respondents (5 individuals) reported to be not involved in farming and the main reason for this was that they were incapable to farm and did not have people to assist them. Nevertheless, a significant change was observed in the number of households not farming prior to and after the establishment of the real estate. As noted in table 4.3, the number of households not involved in farming increased from five prior to the establishment of the real estate to thirty eight afterwards. It was also found during the focus group discussion that many households had lost almost all of their farm lands and that no farm land was given in replacement for the affected households. This explains the increase in the number of households not involved in farming activity after they had been displaced from their farm land. Thus, the livelihood of a significant number of households was altered for they completely discontinued farming because they had given up all of the land they previously possessed. The alteration in the livelihood pattern therefore increased the vulnerability of the displaced households as they do not have alternative means through which they sustain their livelihoods.

Various types of crops were found to be produced by the displaced farmers. Teff was the most commonly grown crop and was produced by all of the farming households. Lentil and wheat stood second and third in terms of the number of farmers growing them and were produced by sixty eight and sixty six households respectively. These three crop varieties together accounted for 57 per cent of the crop types produced by the displaced households. Moreover, other crop types such as bean, pea, barley, chick pea, and maize

were also produced by the displaced households. No changes were observed in the types of crops produced prior to and after the establishment of the real estate. However, a significant change was observed in the amount of crop production. The average annual crop production of the farming households was forty quintals prior to the establishment of the real estate but this figure dropped to an annual average production of twenty six and a half quintals after the establishment of the real estate. Variations were also observed in the total annual crop production. The total production of all the respondents dropped from three thousand and one quintals before displacement to one thousand nine hundred and eighty eight quintals after displacement showing a decrease in the total annual crop production by about 34 per cent.

Table 4.3 Crop production before and after displacement

Annual Crop Production (Quintals)	Before Displacement		After Displacement	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
0	5	6.3	38	47.5
1-10	7	8.8	8	10.0
11-20	18	22.5	5	6.3
21-30	15	18.8	5	6.3
31-40	8	10.0	2	2.5
41-50	4	5.0	3	3.8
Greater than 50	23	28.8	19	23.8
Total	80	100.0	80	100.0

Source: Household Survey (2009).

Thus, the increase in the number of households not farming after the establishment of the real estate shows that vulnerability had increased due to the displacement program. Likewise, other factors remaining constant, the decrease observed in the amount of crop

production indicates an increase in household vulnerability. This is because the livelihood of the people is heavily reliant on agriculture.

4.2.2. Household Food Availability

4.2.2.1. Household Food Adequacy

The availability and adequacy of food throughout the year is a very important indicator for household food security. For this reason, data was gathered on the sufficiency of household food by asking each survey respondent whether they had enough food for their households throughout the year after their displacement. This was mainly to see if there were changes in the adequacy of household food amounts of the respondents. Accordingly, it was found out that 73 per cent of the respondents (58 individuals) had enough food for their households through out the year and experienced no changes in their food requirements. However, 16 per cent of the respondents (13 individuals) reported to have inadequate food for their households after their displacement while no response was given by 11 per cent (nine individuals) of the respondents.

4.2.2.2. Hungry Period

Information was also gathered on the length of food shortage months or 'hungry period' to see whether there were variations in the length of the hungry period. The data collected showed that there were variations in the length of the hungry period for the households having inadequate food prior to and after the establishment of the real estate. A total of five respondents, from the thirteen respondents having inadequate food for their households, experienced longer hungry periods after their displacement. On the other hand, eight of the respondents reported to having inadequate food throughout the year experienced no changes in the length of the hungry period. This indicates the existence of changes in food security as the intensity of food insecurity increased for about 6 per cent of the respondents (5 households). Thus, this shows that the vulnerability of some of the households increased after their displacement.

The length of the hungry period experienced by the households ranged from a minimum of one month to a maximum of twelve months in a year. Moreover, the average annual length of the hungry period experienced by the survey households was about six months. Nevertheless, as seen on table 4.4, the length of the hungry period experienced by the majority of the respondents facing food shortages (3 individuals) was between three to four months. Moreover, five respondents were found to experience hungry periods of more than six months in a year while one respondent faced food shortages for his household throughout the year.

Table 4.4 Length of Hungry Period

Hungry Period (Months)	Respondents	
	Count	Percent
1-2	2	2.5
3-4	3	3.8
5-6	2	2.5
7-8	2	2.5
9-10	2	2.5
11-12	1	1.3
No Response	1	1.3
Total	13	16.4

Source: Household Survey (2009).

4.2.2.3. Source of Household Food

As the livelihood of the people is mainly dependent on agriculture, the major source of household food is obviously assumed to be obtained from their own agricultural production. The data obtained from the survey also supports this assumption. The majority of respondents fulfilled their household food requirements mainly from the crops they produced both prior to and after their displacement. However, it was found that the respondents also fulfilled their household food requirements through purchasing grain from the market and by grain they obtained from food for work programs.

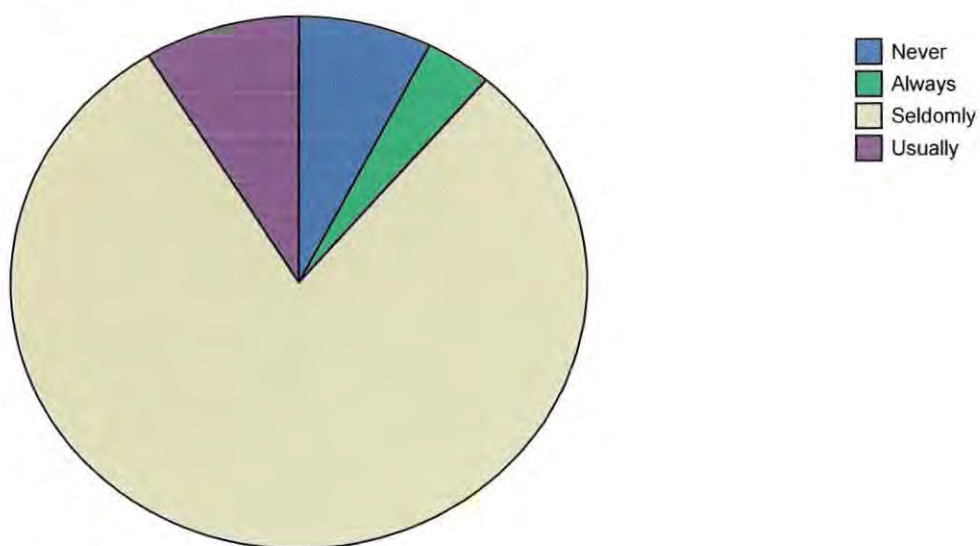
The survey data indicates that prior to displacement about 94 per cent of the respondents (75 individuals) fulfilled their household food requirements from their own farm productions. Moreover, 39 per cent (31 individuals) and 34 per cent (27 individuals) of the respondents fulfilled their household food requirements through grain purchase and food for work programs respectively. However, after displacement, the number of respondents fulfilling their food requirements through their own production decreased from seventy five to fifty six. Moreover, the number of households using grain obtained from food for work programs also decreased from twenty seven to twenty one. On the other hand, the number of respondents purchasing grain slightly increased from thirty one prior to displacement to thirty two after displacement.

The above findings show that, even though the majority of the respondents relied on their own production both prior to and after displacement, variations existed in the aggregate number of respondents meeting their food requirements through their own production. Accordingly, fewer people continued to rely on their own production to meet their household food requirements after displacement. This is mainly because the respondents who no longer relied on their own production after displacement had lost all their farm lands and as a result were not producing crops. The increase in the number of respondents purchasing grain after displacement also points out that households previously not purchasing grain for food consumption had started to purchase grain. Moreover, this also indicates an increase in the quantity of grain purchased from the market for some households who prior to displacement relied both on their own production and grain purchase were relying only on grain purchase to meet their food requirements. The findings of the focus group discussions also justify this idea for it was pointed out during the discussions that many households were relying on purchased grain to meet their food requirements. The households were using the money they received in compensation to purchase food items. Hence, this reveals an increase in household vulnerability after displacement as the displaced households were no longer able to fulfill their food requirements from their own production.

4.2.3. Time of Cash Income Importance

The times at which cash income is most important varies from one individual to another depending on the individual's ways of life. The survey finding shows that cash income is most needed by the displaced households during three major seasons. Accordingly, cash income is most important for the livelihoods of the majority of the survey respondents during the sowing season. This accounted for 54 per cent (43 individuals) of the respondents. Thirty two respondents, sixteen each, said that cash was most important for them during the school registration and harvest seasons and each of them accounted for 20 per cent. This shows that variations existed in the times when cash income is most important for the households. However, it is the coincidence existing between the times at which cash income is most important and the availability of cash during those times that indicates vulnerability. Therefore, a question on the frequency of coincidence was forwarded for the survey respondents to see the coincidence existing between the time at which cash income is most important for them and the availability of cash during those times.

Figure 4.2 Cash need and availability



Source: Household Survey (2009)

As noted in figure 4.2, the great majority of the households, 80 per cent (64 individuals), stated that the times at which cash income is most important for them seldomly coincided

with times during which they obtain it. Nine percent (7 individuals) described the frequency of coincidence as usually. Nevertheless, it either never coincided (8 per cent) or it always coincided (4 per cent) for the minority of respondents. Therefore, the livelihood of the displaced households is vulnerable as the great majority of the affected households seldomly obtain cash during the times they need it is needed most for their livelihoods.

4.3. Impacts on Livelihood Assets

Livelihood assets, also referred to as capital stocks, are the building blocks upon which the livelihoods of people are built. It is believed that people require a range of assets in order to sustain their livelihoods and thus achieve positive outcomes. Thus, changes, either increases or decreases, in these assets will affect the livelihoods of people. This section looks into the impacts of the development of the real estate on the livelihoods of displaced households. The impacts are discussed in view of the changes that occurred on six capital assets; natural, financial, human, social, physical and political.

4.3.1. Impact on Natural Capital

Natural capital is the term used for the natural resource stocks from which resource flows and services useful for livelihoods are derived. These resources vary widely ranging from intangible public goods such as the atmosphere to divisible assets such as land and trees used directly for production. Moreover, these resources are very useful for people who derive all or part of their livelihoods from resource-based activities such as farming (DFID, 1999). In the process of urbanization, the natural capital is usually affected because there is a close relationship between the natural capital and urban activities.

4.3.1.1. Land Use

It was observed that changes occurred in the land use pattern of the area prior to and after the establishment of the real estate. Land that was previously used for agricultural purposes was converted to urban uses as various construction activities were being

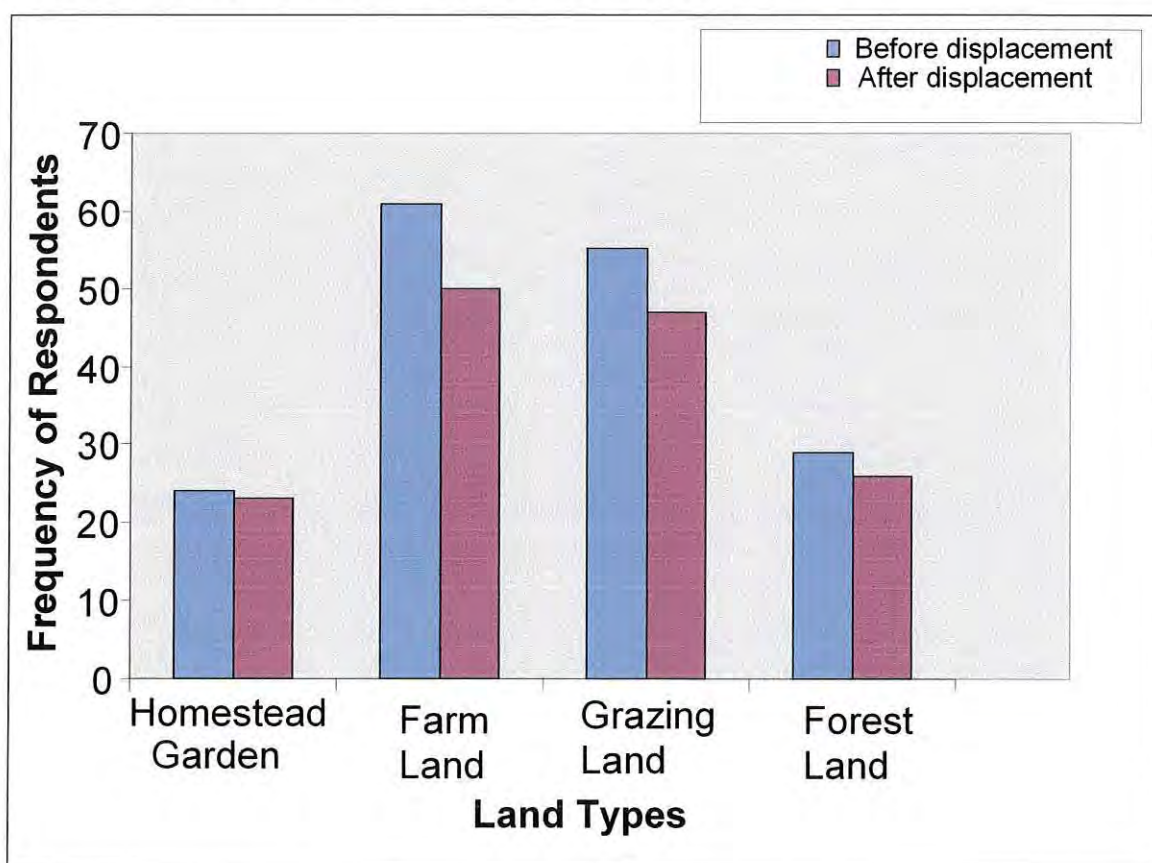
undertaken on it. Data obtained from the real estate showed that about 166 hectares of land had been expropriated from the survey respondents for the construction of the real estate. This shows that each household had given up on average two hectares of land. Nevertheless, there were great variations in the size of land given up by the survey respondents. According to figures obtained from the real estate, the land size given up by the survey households ranged from a maximum area of about forty two thousand seven hundred and sixty five square meters (4.2 hectares) to a minimum of six hundred and thirty square meters (0.06 hectares). Moreover, it was revealed during the focus group discussions that some of the displaced households had given up as much as eight hectares of land. Given the vast amount of land given up by individual households, the establishment of the real estate project had drastically reduced the land holding size of the affected households. This in turn has made the households vulnerable as their livelihoods are mainly dependent on the land and the produce they get from the land.

The data gathered from the survey also showed that some households experienced changes in access to land prior to and after the real estate's establishment. Accordingly, all the survey respondents had access to land other than their residential plots prior to the real estate's establishment. Nonetheless, the data collected showed that only 79 per cent (63 individuals) of the survey respondents accessed land other than their residential plots after the establishment of the real estate. On the other hand, 17 per cent (14 individuals) of the respondents no longer had or accessed land other than their residential plots while no response was given by 4 per cent (3 individuals) of the survey respondents.

As shown below on figure 4.3, a greater number of the respondents had access to all the different types of land before displacement than after displacement. This is mainly because the different types of land had been given up for the establishment of the real estate and thus less people still had access to these lands afterwards. However, the data collected also showed the existence of variations in the number of the survey respondents accessing the different types of land before and after their displacement. The largest change was observed in the number of people accessing farm lands. Accordingly, the number of households accessing farm lands dropped from sixty one (76 per cent) before

displacement to fifty (63 per cent) after displacement. The second greatest change was seen in the number of households accessing grazing lands which decreased from fifty five (69 per cent) before displacement to forty seven (59 per cent) after displacement. Meanwhile, only slight changes were observed in the number of households having access to both homestead gardens and forest lands before and after their displacement. The number of households having access to homestead gardens decreased from twenty four (30 per cent) to twenty three (29 per cent) while that of those accessing forest lands decreased from twenty nine (36 per cent) to twenty six (33 per cent). This is mainly because most of the lands expropriated by the real estate previously used to be either arable or grazing areas.

Figure 4.3 Land types accessed before and after displacement



Source: Household Survey (2009)

4.3.1.2. Environmental Damage

The horizontal expansion of urban centers towards rural areas is usually associated with environmental damages such as deforestation as wood lands are replaced by urban structures. Nevertheless, the survey data showed that no major damages had been caused on the area's forest cover. Accordingly, 85 per cent (68 individuals) of the respondents reported that deforestation was not a major problem caused by the establishment of the real estate. The researcher's personal observation also revealed that no major deforestation activities had taken place in the area. This is mainly because the real estate was primarily established on arable and grazing lands.

4.3.2. Impact on Financial Capital

Financial capital refers to the financial resources that people use to undertake their livelihoods. These include flows as well as stocks that contribute to consumption as well as production and enable people to adopt different livelihood strategies. Flows consist of regular inflows of money such as pensions and remittance where as stocks include savings in different forms such as cash and livestock (DFID, 1999).

4.3.2.1. Access to Financial Institutions

Financial institutions include both formal organizations such as banks and microfinance institutions and informal financial service providers such as local money lenders. Access to these institutions is very important for supporting the livelihoods of people. The survey data indicated that the majority of the displaced farming households do not have access to both formal and informal financial institutions. It was found that 56 per cent (45 individuals) of the surveyed household heads did not have access to any financial institution. Only 40 per cent (32 individuals) reported to access these institutions while no response was given by 4 per cent (3 individuals) of the respondents. Given the large number of displaced households not having access to financial services and the reduction of household financial assets, the displacement program increased the vulnerability of the

affected households as they had no alternative means of obtaining financial resources to sustain their livelihoods.

Table 4.5 Access to financial institutions

Access	Bank		Microfinance Institution		Informal Lender	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Yes	3	4	20	25	9	11
No	73	91	56	70	67	84
No response	4	5	4	5	4	5

Source: Household Survey (2009)

As noted in table 4.5, variations existed in the number of household heads accessing the three types of financial institutions. The majority of the survey respondents accessing financial institutions reported to use the services of microfinance institutions while only very few household heads (3 individual) accessed banks. Numerous reasons constrained the survey respondents from accessing the financial institutions. The major reason reported by the majority of the respondents (27 individuals) to constrain them was the lack of the institutions in their vicinity. Nine respondents also reported that they did not want to use the services while six reported to lack knowledge to access the services of these institutions. Moreover, the lack of collateral also appeared as a problem that hindered few respondents from accessing the financial institutions.

4.3.2.2. Livestock

Livestock play a very crucial role in supporting the livelihoods of rural communities as they can be easily sold to generate cash income for households. The majority of the households surveyed were found to possess different types of livestock both before and after their displacement. Nevertheless, there were variations in the number of households owning livestock and the number of livestock owned prior to and after the establishment

of the real estate. Out of the eighty household heads interviewed, 96 per cent (77 individuals) possessed livestock while only 4 per cent (3 individuals) reported to not having livestock prior to their displacement. However, the number of households not possessing livestock increased from three before displacement to thirteen after displacement showing an increase of 12 per cent. This indicates that the displacement of the households had resulted in the reduction of household financial resources. Thus, the vulnerability of the affected households had increased as a result of the displacement program.

The survey data also showed that slight variations existed in the number of livestock owned by households before and after displacement. Before displacement, the households had on average about sixteen livestock per household but this number decreased following the displacement of the households. Accordingly, the average number of livestock possessed by each household after displacement dropped to about fourteen. This is mainly because the displaced households sold their animals in order to obtain cash.

4.3.2.3. Household Income

The income of the displaced households was obtained mainly from the sale of grain and livestock and from wage income. The sale of grain was reported by the majority of the respondents (31 individuals) to be their major source of income while twenty four and sixteen household heads respectively said that the sale of livestock and wage income were the most important sources of income for their households (see annex: Table 1). As changes in income levels affect the livelihoods of households, information was collected on the trends of household income levels prior to and after the establishment of the real estate. Accordingly, the great majority of the respondents (49 individuals) experienced no changes in their household income levels while 25 per cent of the respondents reported to have had increased incomes after the establishment of the real estate. Only about 13 per cent of the respondents (10 individuals) reported to have had lower income levels after the establishment of the real estate.

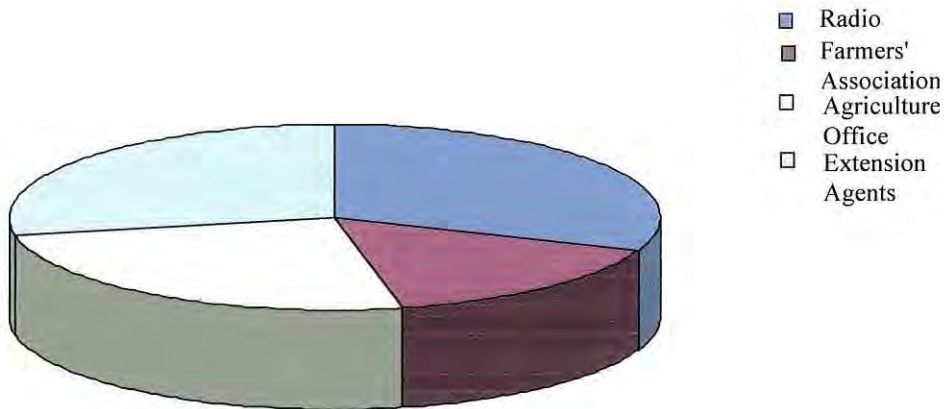
The increases in household income levels are partly due to the wage incomes obtained by the households from the real estate. Out of the total household heads surveyed, the establishment of the real estate had created employment opportunities for 44 per cent (35 individuals) of them or their household members while 56 per cent (45 individuals) did not get employment opportunities. However, the very great majority (32 individuals) of the respondents employed felt that the wage incomes they obtained were not as such important for their livelihoods when compared with their farm incomes. Only one respondent felt that the wage income was very important while two respondents said that it was not important for their livelihoods.

4.3.3. Impact on Human Capital

4.3.3.1. Information Access

Human capital represents the skills, knowledge, ability to labor and good health that together enable people to pursue different livelihood strategies (DFID, 1999). This capital can be affected by increasing or limiting the access people have to information, education and trainings or health services. Obtaining information that is useful for one's livelihood is very crucial for achieving livelihood objectives. The majority of the survey respondents (59 individuals) reported to have no constraints in accessing agricultural information that was useful for their livelihoods whereas 26 per cent (21 individuals) felt that they lacked certain agricultural information that were useful for their livelihoods. The major means by which information was obtained by the survey respondents were through radio programs, farmers' associations, agriculture promotion office and from extension agents working in the area. However, the majority of the displaced households lacked information on the benefit package that was provided to them. This is mainly because little effort was exerted to create full awareness within the community over the benefits they would get. Thus, this significantly affected the livelihoods of the displaced households as they could not ask for the benefits they deserved to get.

Figure 4.4 Sources of information



Source: Household Survey (2009)

As shown on figure 4.4 above, the majority of the respondents (43 individuals) who felt that they had access to information they needed said that their major means of obtaining information was through programs broadcasted on the national radio. The second most important means through which the displaced households obtained information was from extension agents working in their area. Accordingly, 28 per cent (39 individuals) obtained the information they needed from extension workers. Moreover, 25 per cent (35 individuals) obtained information from the agriculture promotion office while about 16 per cent (22 individuals) reported to obtain information from their farmers' association.

4.3.3.2. Capacity Building

As explained previously, another means by which the human capital can be affected is through building people's capacities through trainings. Hence, with regards to the provision of trainings, only 25 per cent of the displaced household heads (20 individuals) received trainings after their displacement. However, 70 per cent of the respondents (56 individuals) reported to have not received any kind of training upon their displacement while no response was given by 5 per cent (4 individuals) of the surveyed household heads. The trainings provided to the few surveyed household heads were in the areas of

financial management, business development and basic skill trainings. Of the total 20 household heads that received trainings, the majority (14 individuals) were trained on financial management while only two and six individuals respectively received trainings on business development and basic technical skills. As the majority of the displaced people are illiterate and do not have basic technical skills, the lack of providing trainings increased their vulnerability. This is because the affected people could not easily get off-farm employment opportunities as they usually require skills and because they lacked the knowledge to invest the money they received in compensation into businesses interventions.

The trainings provided to the displaced households were found to have been mainly given by the government. The data shows that of the twenty household heads who received trainings, fourteen reported to have been trained by the government. Only one respondent was trained by the real estate while five reported to have been trained by a non-governmental organization (see annex: Table 2). Observations however showed that the real estate was working in collaboration with an NGO called Gudina Tumsa Foundation to empower the displaced households. Accordingly, the information obtained shows that the displaced households in particular and the community in large were being provided with various trainings by the NGO. Moreover, the youth from affected families were also being provided with various skill trainings by the real estate.

4.3.3.3. Effects on Health

Variations that exist in health statuses are good indicators of the effects of an intervention on the human capital of households. To understand the real estate's effects on the people's health, the survey respondents were asked whether their health had been affected due to the establishment of the real estate. Accordingly, the great majority of the respondents (68 individuals) said that their health status had not been affected due to the real estate's establishment. Only 9 per cent of the respondents (7 individuals) said that their health had been affected due to the establishment of the real estate in the area while no response was given by 6 per cent (5 individuals) of the respondents. Thus, no major

health problems had been caused due to the establishment of the real estate. The health problems reported to have occurred were simple physical damages caused by nails and other sharp objects used for the construction of the houses. Nevertheless, this does not represent the intricate long range health impacts of the real estate as this is beyond the scope of the study.

4.3.4. Impact on Social Capital

Social capital is often taken to mean the social resources upon which people draw in pursuit of their livelihood objectives. The social capital can be developed through networks and connectedness between people that increase people's trust and ability to work together and expand their access to wider institutions. Moreover, it is developed through membership of more formalized groups which often entails adherence to mutually-agreed or commonly accepted rules, norms and sanctions (DFID, 1999). Hence, changes in either connectedness between people or membership to formalized groups will affect the social capital upon which people build their livelihoods.

4.3.4.1. Access to Social Organizations

Various social organizations were observed to be found in the study area. The major social organizations identified were farmers' associations, religious groups, 'idir' and 'iqub'. Of the total survey respondents, 99 per cent (79 individuals) relied on one or more of these social organizations at times of hardship. The majority of the respondents said that these organizations assisted them by providing them with financial and labor assistance. This shows that the social organizations are very important in the day to day lives of the people. The data collected showed that most of the survey respondents were members of more than one social organization. However, variations existed in the number of respondents having membership to the various social organizations. Accordingly, almost all of the respondents (79 individuals) were members of 'idir' while the second largest number of the respondents (65 individuals) were members of 'iqub'. Moreover, farmers' association and religious groups followed in terms of the number of respondents having membership (see annex: Table 3).

Table 4.6 Importance of social organizations

Importance	Farmers' Association		Religious Groups		Idir		Iqub	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Most important	9	11.3	8	10.0	41	51.3	15	18.8
Important	4	5.0	6	7.5	32	40.0	31	38.8
Average	8	10.0	8	10.0	45	56.3	4	5.0
Less important	9	11.3	3	3.8	18	22.6	9	11.0
Least important	2	2.5	0	0	3	3.8	6	7.5

Source: Household Survey (2009)

Variations also existed in the level of importance of the organizations for the people's livelihoods. As noted in table 4.6, the majority of the respondents (38 individuals) said that 'idir' was the most important social organization for their livelihood. Moreover, 'iqub' was stated to be the most important social organization by the second largest number of the respondents (15 individuals).

As aforementioned, the impacts on the social capital are seen in terms of the changes in the connectedness the people have with the organizations on which they rely. The study survey showed that no major changes had occurred in social networks. The majority of the respondents (73 individuals) experienced no changes in the connection they had with the social organizations due to their displacement. Only six respondents (8 per cent) reported that their connection with the social organizations had been affected due to their displacement. This has thus been important in mitigating the negative impacts on the

livelihoods of the displaced households as the social organizations provide them with both financial and labor support.

4.3.5. Impact on Physical Capital

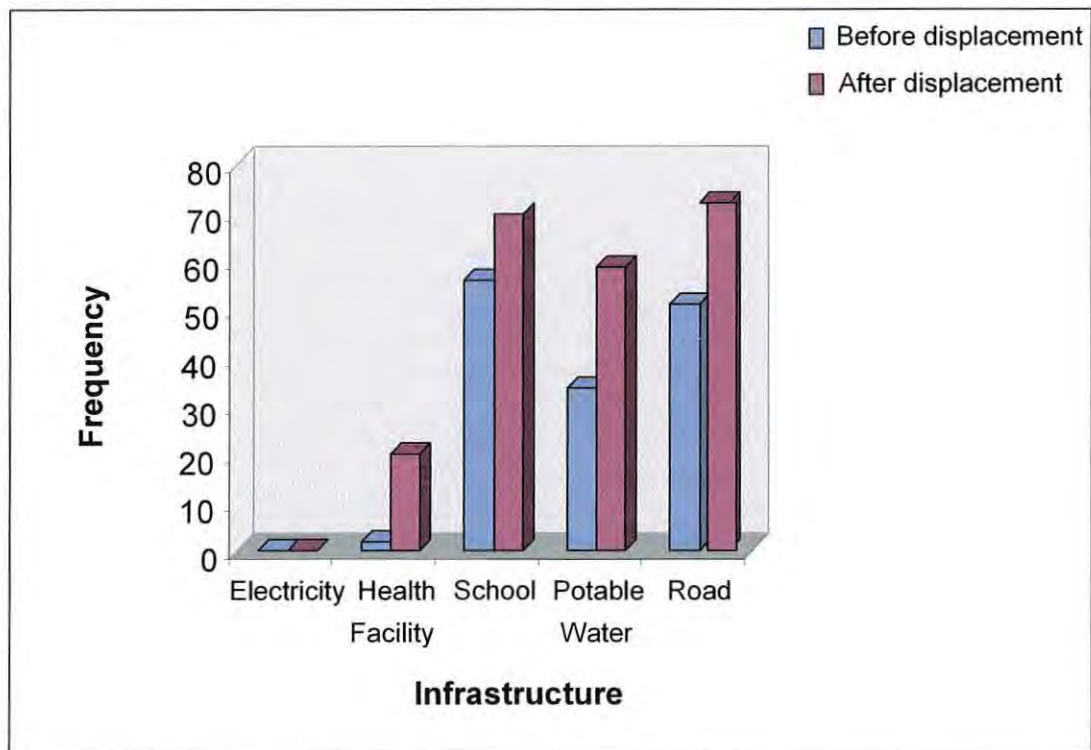
As described in the literature review, physical capital refers to the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed by people to support their livelihoods. These resources help people to meet their basic needs and become more productive. Moreover, the lack of particular types of infrastructures is considered to be a core dimension of poverty (DFID, 1999). For this reason, assessing the changes that occur in the accessibility of these resources is important to see the effects of an intervention on people's livelihoods.

4.3.5.1. Access to Basic Infrastructure

The basic infrastructure essential for people's livelihoods usually consist of secure shelters, electricity, potable water, education and health facilities and communication infrastructures such as roads. It was observed that schools, a health center, potable water and a road to the main market existed while electricity did not exist in the study area. Nevertheless, the existence of these infrastructures by itself does not guarantee that the households are using them and thus it is important to look into their accessibility.

Of the total survey respondents, it was found that 60 household heads (75 per cent) had access to the basic infrastructures before their displacement. However, the number of household heads having access to the basic infrastructure increased after displacement to seventy five (94 per cent) (see annex: Table 4 and 5). Variations also existed both in the accessibility of the different infrastructures and the accessibility of infrastructures before and after the displacement of the households.

Figure 4.5 Access to infrastructure before and after displacement



Source: Household Survey (2009)

As noted in figure 4.5, the majority of the respondents had access to education infrastructure before displacement. However, the most accessed infrastructure after displacement was roads. Moreover, apart from electricity which showed no changes in the number of people accessing it, a greater number of the households accessed the different infrastructure after displacement. This increase in accessibility was due to the establishment of more infrastructures for the community and the expansion of existing ones by the real estate. 66 per cent of the respondents (53 individuals) also acknowledged that different infrastructure had been constructed for the community by the real estate. However, 30 per cent (24 individuals) disagreed while no response was given by 4 per cent (3 individuals) of the respondents. Thus, with regards to access to infrastructure, the establishment of the real estate had contributed to improving the physical capital of the displaced households as it had increased households' access to basic infrastructure.

4.3.6. Impact on Political Capital

The political capital, although not included in the sustainable livelihoods framework, is an important element for analyzing the impacts an intervention has on the livelihoods of people. It shows the power relationships that exist and the perception of the community towards the overall process of the intervention.

4.3.6.1. Community Awareness of the Expansion Program

Creating awareness on the overall development program is very important for reducing negative impacts of interventions as communities will prepare themselves and design strategies by which they will cope with the situation. The survey findings indicated that roughly an equal proportion of the household heads were not aware of the program in advance. Accordingly, forty two respondents (52.5 per cent) were aware of the program in advance while thirty eight respondents (47.5 per cent) were not aware of the program in advance. Data collected on the means through which awareness was gained showed that the majority of the respondents gained awareness through formal meetings. Out of the forty two respondents who that were aware of the program in advance, thirty seven individuals gained awareness through formal meetings held by government officials. The remaining five respondents gained awareness informally through discussions with other people (See annex: Table 6).

4.3.6.2. Community Participation

The term participation generally refers to the process through which stakeholders influence and share control over priority setting and decision making (EDID, 2003). Indeed, communities affected by development projects should be able to actively participate in the different levels of decision-making, from planning to implementation. This is important for reducing the negative impacts of development activities and for ensuring the sustainability of the people's livelihoods. Nevertheless, the survey data showed that the participation of the community in the planning and implementation process of the displacement program was very minimal. Of the total household heads

interviewed, 96 per cent (77 individuals) did not participate in the displacement program. This finding concurs with that of the focus group discussions in which all the participants reported to have not been consulted and had no say in decision making. They stated that they were told by the former district (Sendafa) officials that the land belonged to the government and that they had to give it up. Discussions held with key informants also revealed that the community was not allowed to involve in decision making and that they were forced to accept benefits set by the government.

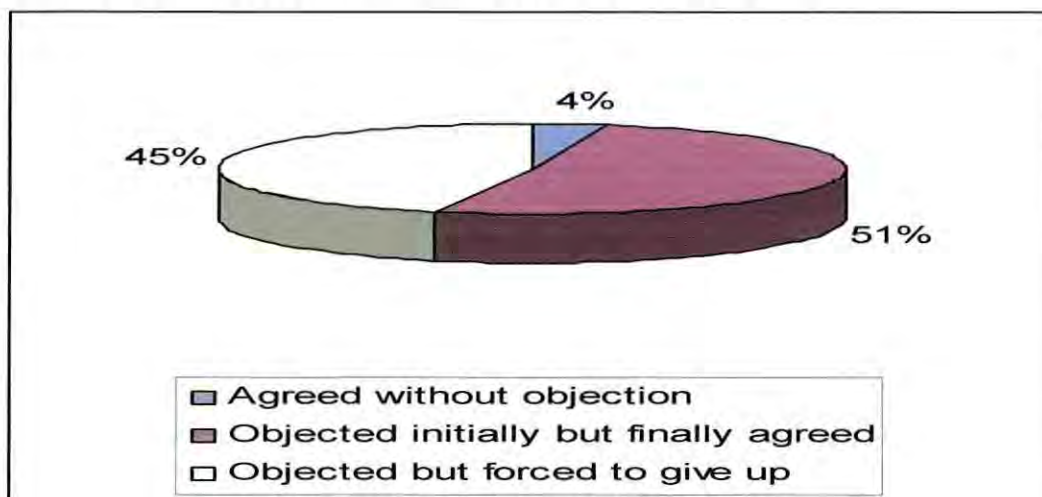
Data gathered on participation in setting benefit packages also showed that the majority of the displaced households were not involved in setting the benefit packages they would receive for giving up their land. Of the total household heads, about 63 per cent (50 individuals) said that they or their representatives were not involved in negotiating the benefits they were to receive for giving up their lands and did not know how their assets were valued. On the other hand, 36 per cent (29 individuals) reported to have been informed on how their assets had been valued and thus considered themselves as having been involved in setting the benefit package to be given to them. However, even though 36 per cent had been informed on how their assets were valued, they did not have the power to negotiate over the values of their assets. Thus, the overall process was not community centered and participatory. The people lacked power to negotiate at equal terms and had no decision making power. Therefore, the displacement program had put the livelihoods of the displaced households at stake.

4.3.6.3. Community Reaction towards the Displacement Program

The reaction of the community towards the displacement program was assessed through both the survey questionnaire and focus group discussions. As shown in figure 4.6, the survey data indicated that the great majority (96 per cent) of the household heads interviewed objected the program. Of the total survey respondents interviewed, about 51 per cent (41 individuals) reported to have initially objected the program but finally agreed to give up their land for the establishment of the real estate after being persuaded by

government officials. Moreover, 45 per cent (36 individuals) stated that they objected the program up to the end but were made to give up their land by force. (see annex: Table 7).

Figure 4.6 Reaction of respondents towards giving up their land



Source: Household Survey (2009)

During the discussions held with the focus group members, it was also observed that the great majority of the people were opposed to the program. According to the focus group participants, the people were not willing to give up their land because their livelihoods were based on the land they cultivated and losing it would greatly affect their lives. Moreover, they were illiterate and would not find other means by which they could support their livelihoods if they lost their land. The opposition to the program by the great majority of the people thus reveals that the program did not take into account community participation.

4.3.6.4 Perception towards the Benefit Packages

The information obtained from the key person interview indicated that the government provided the affected farming community with payment compensation for assets destructed, and housing plots for residential construction. However, the majority of the survey respondents (42 individuals) reported that they were not promised any benefits

upon their displacement while thirty eight individuals said that they had been promised various benefits. The focus group discussions however revealed that various benefits had been promised for the affected households. The variations in opinion over the benefits promised arise from individual differences in attaining information. This indicates that the affected households were not fully aware of the overall program implementation process as community participation was very negligible.

The benefits promised to be given for the displaced households consisted of compensation in cash, employment opportunities and different social services such as potable water, schools and health centers. However, as shown in table 4.7, variations existed between the benefits that were promised to be provided and those that were actually obtained by the community. Decreases were observed in the number of respondents who were promised compensation in money and employment opportunities and actually received them. However, a greater number of respondents obtained access to different social services than those who reported to have been promised the benefit. In principle, all affected households are legitimate to compensation but due to administrative problems some households were not compensated. The administrative problems that hindered some of the affected households from being fully compensated are related to the financial shortages faced by the displacing real estate due the existing global financial crisis. It was reported that the real estate did not have the financial capacity to pay compensation for all of the displaced households and as a result had temporarily ceased paying compensation.

Table 4.7 Benefits promised and obtained

Benefits	Promised		Obtained	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Monetary compensation	28	43	18	31
Employment opportunity	17	26	14	24
Access to social services	20	31	26	45
Total	65	100	58	100

Source: Household Survey (2009)

Regarding the perception of the community towards the benefit package, the opinion of the majority of the respondents was that the benefits were not satisfactory. As noted in table 4.8, sixty two (77.5 per cent) of the displaced household heads were not satisfied with the benefit package provided. The dissatisfaction observed in the compensation provided is due to the undervaluation of the displaced households' assets. The information obtained from key informants indicated that the displaced households received about two birr in compensation for each square meter of land they gave up. This is relatively very small when compared with the currently existing compensation rate which is twelve birr for a square meter of land.

Table 4.8 Opinion towards benefit package

Opinion	Count	Percent	Valid Percent
Very good	2	2.5	3.0
Satisfactory	2	2.5	3.0
Not satisfactory	62	77.5	93.9
No response	14	17.5	
Total	80	100.0	

Source: Household Survey (2009)

4.4. Household Coping Strategies

The establishment of the real estate and the subsequent displacement of households have resulted in the alteration of the households' modes of life. The affected households have totally or partially lost the assets on which their livelihoods were mainly dependent on. Moreover, their rich indigenous knowledge, gained through life long years of experience, is no longer viable to fully sustain their livelihoods. Necessity, which is an involuntary approach, has forced them to adopt new livelihood strategies through which they can sustain their livelihoods and fulfill their household requirements. As stated by Ghosh and Bharadwaj (1992) cited in Feyera (2005), this is a last resort rather than an attractive

alternative to livelihood. In this respect, the livelihood strategies adopted by the displaced households in the study area can be characterized as survival or necessity rather than having a choice from a number of alternatives.

The survey data indicates that the displaced households have adopted different livelihood strategies to address the various problems they are facing. In order to cope with the food shortages encountered after displacement, the majority of the affected households have resorted to decreasing their overall household food consumption. They reported to have decreased the number of meals they have in a day and some had even reduced the amount of food they have per meal. It was also found that some of the households had changed the types of food items they previously consumed and had started to consume cheaper ones. Moreover, it was also revealed during the focus group discussions that the affected households were using the money they received in compensation to purchase grain and fulfill their household food requirements.

Causal work was also observed to be a strategy employed by the displaced household members to fulfill their financial requirements. The jobs undertaken by the people varied from formally employed daily labor to self-employed informal activities. Variations also existed in the types of jobs undertaken by the affected individuals based on their gender. Daily labor was mainly undertaken by both male and female youth and some of the elderly while women were mainly engaged in the self-employed informal activities. The majority of the affected individuals employed in daily labor were engaged in construction works that required no special skills. However, very few individuals who could at least read were employed as guards in the real estate. This job type is generally viewed as a better job type by the affected and is thus preferred. During the focus group discussions, it was found that the self-employed informal activities mainly consisted of making and selling local alcohol drinks. Some of the interviewed individuals also reported to collect and sell fire wood and cans. Nevertheless, the various causal works undertaken by the displaced individuals were low paying and thus barely assisted in fulfilling their financial requirements. The majority of the household heads interviewed felt that the wage

incomes they obtained were not as such important for their livelihoods when compared to their previous farm incomes.

4.5. Areas of Intervention for Development Actors

Development actors, both governmental and non-governmental organizations, play very crucial roles in supporting the livelihoods of communities in need and therefore contribute significantly in poverty alleviation. The study findings show that the livelihoods of the displaced households have been affected due to their displacement and that they are in need of external support. However, it was observed that only one NGO, Gudina Tumsa Foundation, in collaboration with CCD, has so far taken the initiative to support the affected community members. Even though the efforts being exerted by the organization are encouraging, it was also observed that gaps still existed in fully addressing the problems of the community. This points out the need for increased action and intervention by development actors to support the affected households.

Education, both formal and informal, is fundamental for improving the livelihoods of individuals and communities. The findings of the study show that the great majority (71.3 per cent) of the displaced household heads are illiterate. Moreover, it was found that the majority (75 per cent) of them had not been provided with capacity building trainings upon their displacement. The focus group discussions also revealed that the affected households had consumed the money they had received in compensation rather than re-investing it in productive activities in part due to their lack of knowledge. This indicates the presence of a significant gap in the area of capacity building. Thus, development actors can empower the affected community members by building their capacity on various aspects such as promoting savings and business development. Moreover, the provision of trainings on modern and more productive agricultural production techniques is useful for supporting those households who did not totally lose their lands.

As the livelihood of the people was mainly based on agriculture through traditional modes of production, the majority of them do not have the technical skills to undertake

new off-farm activities by which they can support their livelihoods. Furthermore, the households affected by the establishment of the real estate lost all or part of the capital assets on which their livelihoods are based. In addition to these, only very few of the displaced households have access to micro-credit and savings services. These lacks of technical skills, assets and credit have consequently constrained the households from undertaking income generating and diversifying activities by which they can support their livelihoods. Hence, this situation indicates the need for skill trainings and micro-credit services to support the livelihoods of the displaced households from further deteriorating.

Finally, the third major area of intervention for development actors is in assisting the displaced households to reconstruct their shelters. The participants of the focus group discussions revealed that the homes of some of the households had been demolished in the process of the establishment of the real estate and that the re-construction of the homes was beyond their capacity. It was observed that even though the displaced households had been allotted with land by the town administration, they could not afford to build homes according to the town's plan and as a result did not have permanent shelters. This shows the presence of a gap in the housing of the displaced households. Thus, all development actors can play their part in improving the livelihoods of the community by assisting them in filling these major gaps.

Chapter Five

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1. Conclusion

The rapid urbanization being experienced in many countries around the globe has resulted in the outward expansion of urban centers towards the countryside. Likewise, horizontal expansion has also become a common feature in the development process of many Ethiopian urban centers. This expansion has mostly been at the expense of prime agricultural lands found on the fringes of the urban centers and as a result has affected the livelihoods of many rural communities dwelling on the fringes of these cities. Many people have lost their farmlands and have been displaced to give way for economic development interventions.

The town of Lega Tafo Lega Dadi, which is located very near to Addis Ababa, is expanding horizontally towards rural villages as it is experiencing very fast growth. In recent years, the town has become a residential center and as a result large tracts of rural land have been expropriated from the local farming community for the establishment of commercial real estate projects. Hence, this has had impacts on the livelihoods of farming households who were affected by the expansion program.

The central theme of this paper is to assess the impacts the establishment of the 'Yerer View Homes' real estate project has had on the livelihoods of households displaced by the project. The strategies employed by the affected households to cope with the changes in their livelihoods and the areas of intervention for development actors were also assessed. Thus, the sustainable rural livelihoods framework was adopted and tailored to the specific conditions of the study in order to assess the impacts.

The expansion program undertaken by the town was not participatory and community-centered. Awareness was not fully created as about 50 per cent of the respondents were

not aware of the program in advance. The participation of the community in the planning and implementation process was also negligible and the displaced households were not involved in deciding the benefits allotted to them. Moreover, the perception of the majority of the affected household heads towards the compensation allotted was that it was unsatisfactory and no appeal procedures were available.

Household vulnerability increased as a result of the displacement program. The number of households who stopped farming increased by about 41 per cent after the intervention and this shows that a large proportion of the displaced households had totally lost their major means of production. A significant reduction also occurred in the crop production of the affected households. The survey data showed that the mean crop production of the households had reduced by fourteen quintals from a previous of forty quintals to a current production of twenty six quintals. The intensity of food insecurity also increased for a small proportion of the displaced households. Moreover, many households also started to rely on purchased grain to fulfill their household food requirements after their displacement as their own productions could no longer sustain them.

The study findings indicate that the establishment of the real estate mainly affected the people's livelihoods in a negative way. The people's access to land other than residential plots decreased after the establishment of the real estate. All the survey respondents had access to different types of lands prior to the establishment of the real estate but afterwards the survey data showed that fourteen household heads had totally lost access to any type of land. Reductions also occurred in the households' financial assets as the number of households possessing livestock and the number of livestock owned decreased after the displacement of the households. Moreover, a large proportion of the displaced households were also not provided with capacity building trainings upon their displacement.

The establishment of the real estate also had some positive impacts on the livelihoods of the displaced households. The establishment of the real estate created employment opportunities for the displaced households. The survey data showed that 44 per cent of

the respondents interviewed had obtained jobs in the real estate. Furthermore, accessibility to basic infrastructure also increased due to the construction and expansion of various infrastructures by the real estate. These have thus contributed to the betterment of the displaced households' livelihoods.

Different livelihood strategies have been employed by the displaced households to sustain their livelihoods. These strategies have in-part also contributed to supporting the affected households. However, there are still some areas that require the intervention of development actors. Interventions in the areas of capacity building, skill trainings, micro-credit services and house construction have been identified as crucial areas in supporting the affected households.

5.2. Recommendations

- Creating awareness in advance of program implementation is very crucial for reducing negative impacts and ensuring smooth transition in people's livelihoods. For this reason, future interventions should fully create awareness within the communities to be affected prior to their implementation.
- The expansion program undertaken by the town did not fully involve the community in the planning and implementation phases. As the participation of the community is very vital for ensuring the sustainability of programs, upcoming programs should ensure the full involvement of the community. Community members should be allowed to actively participate in the making of all decisions that affect their lives.
- The displacement program has resulted in the alteration of the affected households' livelihood patterns. However, despite the cash compensation given to the displaced households, little effort was made to build the capacity of the people to adapt to the new modes of living. Therefore, efforts should be exerted to support the affected households to adapt to their new lifestyles. Moreover, future interventions should

give priority to building the community's capacity and creating alternative means of livelihood prior to displacement.

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Appendices

1. Annex Tables

Table 1: Major source of household income

Source of Income		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Sale of grain	31	38.8	43.7	43.7
	Sale of livestock	24	30.0	33.8	77.5
	Wage	16	20.0	22.5	100.0
	Total	71	88.8	100.0	
Missing	No Response	9	11.3		
Total		80	100.0		

Table 2: Training providing institutions

Institution		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Government	14	17.5	70.0	70.0
	CCD	1	1.3	5.0	75.0
	NGO	5	6.3	25.0	100.0
	Total	20	25.0	100.0	
Missing	No response	60	75.0		
Total		80	100.0		

Table 3: Membership to social organizations

Organization	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	N
Farmers' Association	31	15.3%	38.8%
Religious Groups	27	13.4%	33.8%
Idir	79	39.1%	98.8%
Iqub	65	32.2%	81.3%
Total	202	100.0%	252.5%

Table 4: Access to basic Infrastructure before displacement

Infrastructure	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	N
Electricity	1	.7%	1.7%
Health	2	1.4%	3.3%
Education	56	38.9%	93.3%
Potable water	34	23.6%	56.7%
Road	51	35.4%	85.0%
Total	144	100.0%	240.0%

Table 5: Access to basic Infrastructure after displacement

Infrastructure	Responses		Percent of Cases
	Frequency	Percent	N
Electricity	0	0%	0%
Health	20	9.0%	26.7%
Education	70	31.7%	93.3%
Potable water	59	26.7%	78.7%
Road	72	32.6%	96.0%
Total	221	100.0%	294.7%

Table 6: Means of awareness raising

Means		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Formal meetings	37	46.3	88.1	88.1
	Informally	5	6.3	11.9	100.0
	Total	42	52.5	100.0	
Missing	No response	38	47.5		
Total		80	100.0		

Table 7: Reaction of respondents towards giving up their land

Reaction		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agreed without objection	3	3.8	3.8	3.8
	Objected initially but finally agreed	41	51.3	51.3	55.0
	Objected but forced to give up	36	45.0	45.0	100.0
	Total	80	100.0	100.0	

2.4. What do you do with the production?

Crop Type	Use of Crop (Code A)	Quantity (Quintal)

Code A: 1. Own consumption 2. Marketed 3. Other (specify) _____

2.5. What is the source of food for your household? [Yes (0) No(1)]

Source	Before Displacement	After Displacement
From own production		
From purchase		
From food for work (Safety net)		
Other (specify)		

2.6. Which one is true about your household? (If 1, go to question 2.10)

1. I have enough food for my household throughout the year.

2. I have enough food for my household only for some months

2.7. If the answer to question 2.6 is number 2, for how long do you have food shortage ('hungry period')? _____ (months)

2.8. How has the length of the 'hungry period' changed before and after displacement?

1. Increased 2. Decreased 3. Indifferent

2.9. How do you satisfy your household's food requirement during the 'hungry period'?

2.10. At what time of the year is cash income most important for your household?

1. During the sowing season

2. During school registration period

3. During the harvest season

4. Other (specify) _____

2.11. Does the time when cash income is most important to you coincide with the time when cash is most available?

1. Never

2. Always

3. Seldomly

4. Usually

3. Livelihood Assets

I. Natural Capital

3.1. Do you have or have access to land other than your residential site? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.2. If Yes, to question 3.1, what type? [Yes (0) No (1)]

Type	Before Displacement	After Displacement
Homestead garden		
Farm land		
Grazing land		
Forest land		
Other (specify)		

3.3. Have you been allotted with a new plot of land? [Yes (0) No (1)]

If Yes, how much? : Size (hectare): _____

3.4. Have any forests been destroyed for the establishment of the real estate?

[Yes (0) No (1)]

II. Financial Capital

3.1. Are there any financial institutions in your area? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.2. If Yes to question 3.1, which ones exist? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.2.1. Bank

3.2.2. Microfinance institutions

3.2.3. Informal lenders

3.2.4. Others (specify) _____

3.3. Do you have access to these institutions? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.4. If Yes to question 3.3, to which ones do you have access to? _____

3.5. If No to question 3.3, what constraints you from accessing them? _____

3.6. Do you keep any livestock? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.7. If Yes to question 3.7, which of the following livestock do you keep and indicate the number you own.

Type	Quantity	
	Before Displacement	After Displacement
Oxen		
Cows		
Sheep and goats		
Donkeys		
Others (specify)		

3.8. What are the major sources of your household income? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.8.1. Sale of grain 3.8.2. Sale of livestock

3.8.3. Wage 3.8.4. Other (specify) _____

3.9. How do you assess the trend in the level of your income before and after the establishment of CCD?

1. Increasing 2. Decreasing 3. Indifferent

3.10. If decreasing, how are coping with the situation? _____

3.11. Has the establishment of CCD created employment opportunities for you or your family members? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.12. If yes to question 3.11, how important are the wage incomes to your livelihood when compared to your farm income?

1. Very important 2. Not as such important 3. Not important

III. Human Capital

3.1. From where do you access information that you feel is important for your farming or livelihood? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.1.1. Radio 3.1.2. Farmers' Association

3.1.3. Agriculture Office 3.1.4. Extension Agents

3.1.5. Others (specify) _____

3.2. Do you feel that you are particularly lacking in certain type of information?
[Yes (0) No (1)]

If Yes, please specify _____

3.3. Have you been provided with trainings upon displacement? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.4. If Yes to question 3.3, what type of trainings did you receive? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.4.1. Basic technical skills

3.4.2. Business development and management

3.4.3. Financial management / savings

3.4.4. Others (specify) _____

3.5. Through whom did you receive the trainings? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.5.1. Government 3.5.2. CCD

3.5.3. NGO 3.5.4. Others (specify) _____

3.6. What are the major health problems in your area? (List in order of importance)

3.7. Do you think that the establishment of CCD has affected your health?

[Yes (0) No (1)]

3.8. If Yes to question 3.9, please explain how. _____

IV. Social Capital

3.1. What kind of social organizations exist in your kebele and to which ones do you have access?

Social Organizations	Does it exist [Yes (0) No (1)]	Are you a member [Yes (0) No (1)]	Rank (in order of importance)
Farmers' association			
Religious groups			
Mahiber			
Idir			
Iqub			
Cultural associations			
Others (specify)			

3.2. Do you rely on these social organizations / associations at times of hardship?

[Yes (0) No (1)]

3.3. If Yes to question 3.2, please explain how they are useful to your livelihood.

3.4. Has your connection with these organizations been affected due to the establishment of CCD? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.5. If Yes to question 3.4, please explain how.

V. Physical Capital

3.1. Which of the following infrastructure are available in your area? [Yes (0) No (1)]

- 3.1.1. Electricity 3.1.2. Clinic / Health post 3.1.3. School
3.1.4. Potable water 3.1.5. Road to the main market

3.2. If yes to question 3.1, to which infrastructure do you have access to? [Yes (0) No (1)]

Infrastructure	Accessibility	
	Before Displacement	After Displacement
Electricity		
Clinic / Health post		
School		
Potable water		
Road to the main market		

3.3. Has CCD developed any of these infrastructures in your area? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.4. If Yes to question 3.4, please state them.

VI. Political Capital

3.1. Were you aware of the urban expansion program in advance? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.2. If Yes to question 3.1, how were you aware?

1. Through mass media 2. Through formal meetings or seminars
3. Informally 4. Other (specify) _____

3.3. Did you participate in the planning and implementation process of the displacement program? [Yes (0) No (1)]

3.4. What was your reaction when you were asked to give up your land?
1. Agreed without objection
2. Objected initially but finally agreed
3. Objected but forced to give up

3.5. Were you promised any benefit packages to be allotted to you upon displacement?
[Yes (0) No (1)]

3.6. If Yes to question 3.5, what were the benefit packages promised? [Yes (0) No (1)]
1. Monetary compensation 2. Employment Opportunity
3. Access to social services 4. Land
5. Other (specify) _____

3.7. Of the promised benefits, which ones have you so far attained? [Yes (0) No (1)]
1. Monetary compensation 2. Employment Opportunity
3. Access to social services 4. Land
5. Other (specify) _____

3.8. Were you or your representative involved in setting the benefit package?
[Yes (0) No (1)]

3.9. What is your opinion towards the benefit package?
1. Very good 2. Satisfactory 3. Not satisfactory

4. Finally, do you have any other thing to add?

Thank You

3. Focus Group Discussion Checklist

Warm-up: Discuss on the overall expansion of the town towards the rural kebeles.

- Trends in the expansion program.
 - Which kebeles are most affected by the program?
1. Discuss on the establishment of CCD in your area in view of the level of the community's involvement in the planning and implementation process.
 - Was it participatory?
 - How was the community's willingness towards displacement/relocation?
 - Were there any means to appeal?
 - The community's perception towards the development of the real estate.
 2. Discuss on the benefit package provided.
 - What was the benefit package offered?
 - The community's reaction on the benefit package.
 - Appropriateness of alternative site provided (if any).
 3. Discuss on the major benefits and challenges of the establishment of the real estate on their livelihoods in terms of its impact on their financial social, human, natural and physical capitals.
 4. Discuss on the vulnerability of their livelihoods due to displacement.
 - Has their livelihoods improved or deteriorated?
 - What are the reasons for the changes in their livelihoods?
 5. Discuss on the coping mechanism used by the community at household level.
 - Have they adapted to their new environment?
 - What strategies are individuals utilizing to mitigate the negative impacts?
 6. Discuss on the activities undertaken to ensure their livelihood security and their appropriateness.
 - Trainings provided and skills acquired.
 - Income generating activities and others (if any)
 7. Discuss the role governmental and non-governmental organizations are playing and should play in supporting your livelihoods.

4. Guideline for Key Person Interview

Name of the respondent: _____

Sex: _____

Occupation: _____

1. On how many hectares of land was the real estate established?
2. How many farmers (households) were displaced from their land?
3. Was the community involved in the planning stage of the project upon its establishment? If yes, what activities were undertaken to ensure their participation?
 - Setting compensation
 - Selection of relocation site
4. Did you pay compensation for the displaced households? If yes, what was the benefit package allotted (money, materials or others)? Have the promised benefits been fully given to all the households?
5. Have any preconditions been taken to reduce all possible negative impacts that could arise due to the project? If yes, what was done?
6. What are the benefits of the project for the development of the locality and specifically for the displaced households (infrastructure development, employment opportunities, etc)?
7. What are the major problems associated with the implementation of the project (list)?
What is being done to reduce the negative effects of the project?
8. Does the project have any component aimed at supporting the livelihoods of the displaced households? If yes what kind (trainings, income generating activities, etc)?
9. What are the future expansion programs of the project?
10. What do you recommend should be done in future similar interventions to improve the livelihoods of the affected communities?

DECLARATION

I the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work, and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.


Name: Ermias Abera Amayu

Signature:  _____

July 2009

Confirmation

This thesis can be submitted for examination with my approval as a university advisor.

 _____

Yirgalem Mahiteme (PhD)

July 2009