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**URBAN DEVELOPMENT-INDUCED DISPLACEMENT: THE CASE OF  
DISPLACED RURAL HOUSEHOLDS SURROUNDING DEBRE BERHAN  
TOWN, AMHARA REGION, ETHIOPIA**

**BY**

**ZENEBA DESSIE YIMER**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY  
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE  
DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN SOCIOLOGY**

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**

**JUNE, 2019**

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**Department of Sociology**

This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Zeneb Desssie, entitled: *“Urban Development-Induced Displacement: The Case of Displaced Rural Households Surrounding Debre Berhan Town, Amhara Region, Ethiopia”* and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Sociology complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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## **Acknowledgments**

First and foremost, my deepest gratitude goes to my advisor Dr. Abeje Berhanu who has been contributing his invaluable guidance and constructive comments throughout the thesis. The way he has been guiding me in the course of the thesis, was motivating and freedom friendly in a manner that could allow me to use the maximum level of my capacity.

Second, I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to displaced households, Kebele leaders, community leaders and Debre Berhan town rural land administration head and experts who participated in the study for giving me their time and experience.

Moreover, I would like to thank Dr. Seid Ali and Mr. Mezemir Girma, who are instructors of English language at Debre Berhan University, for their help in editing the thesis.

I would also like to thank my classmate Getahun Siraw, for his help in editing the thesis.

Finally, I would like to thank my friends and family members. Particularly, I would like to thank Fetle werk Dessie (my sister), Meless Agune, Sintayehu Agune, Eregassa Yigezu and Werkiye Kebede, for their constant help with my study.

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## List of Acronyms

<b>APs-</b>	Affected Peoples
<b>CSA-</b>	Central Statistical Agency
<b>DID -</b>	Development Induced Displacement
<b>DIDH-</b>	Development-Induced Displaced Households
<b>DIDR-</b>	Development-Induced Displacement and Resettlement
<b>DIDRH-</b>	Development-Induced Displaced Rural Households
<b>FDRE-</b>	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
<b>FGD-</b>	Focus Group Discussion
<b>IDMC -</b>	Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
<b>IDPs-</b>	Internally Displaced Peoples
<b>IDI-</b>	In-Depth Interview
<b>KII-</b>	Key Informant Interview
<b>MECC-</b>	Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change
<b>WB-</b>	World Bank



## **Abstract**

*This study set out to explore the experience of rural households displaced by urban development. To this end the study was conducted on rural households displaced from their farmland in Debre Berhan town to identify their experiences, what they lost and gained following the urban expansion, livelihood strategies of the displaced households before and after displacement, the social bond situations of the affected people after displacement and the kind of support provided by the government and other non-governmental organizations to rebuild the livelihood base of displaced rural households.*

*Qualitative research approach was employed to collect and analyze the data needed to address the research objectives. Cross sectional research design also used to know displaced people's perception and experience towards the issue. Accordingly, during the period between 15 February and 30 March 2019, in-depth were conducted with 18 displaced individuals. In addition, two FGDs were conducted with 12 displaced household heads. Besides, KIIs were conducted with 2 agricultural office experts, 2 community leaders and 3 kebele leaders.*

*The study found that the implementation of urban expansion and development program was not participatory; it marginalized the displaced people in terms of decision-making. The expansion program has positive and negative impacts directly or indirectly on the lives of the displaced households. Displaced households employed various livelihood strategies before and after urban expansion. After displacement, households became engaged in non-agricultural activities. Diversifying and undertaking agricultural with non-agricultural activities are the main coping mechanisms employed by displaced households to cope with changes in their livelihood. Low educational skill, gender, health, lack of capacity building training and problems related to implementation of the residential master plan were also factors affecting displaced households livelihoods.*

*The study further revealed that the social bond situations of the displaced households were slightly changed due to indirect negative impacts of urban expansion. This is to mean that the reduction of crop production due to farmland loss affects the displaced households' involvement in traditional social associations' particularly in their work-based and religious-based associations. Moreover, the availability of different governmental and non-governmental institutions that support in rebuilding the displaced households livelihood were found to be minimal.*

**Key words:** *Displacement, Expansion, household, livelihood*

# CHAPTER ONE

## Introduction

### 1.1. Background of the study

Development-induced displacement (DID) is defined as the forced movement of communities and individuals out of their homes, often also their homelands, for the purpose of economic development (Cao, 2010). Sometimes, it is one part of permanent migration because the displacees have less chance to back to their previous residence or homeland (Endashaw, 2014). Development-caused displacement is one among the youngest categories of mass involuntary human mobility within internal borders in the world and it remains as one of the most contentious issues in development around the world (Neef and Singer, 2015; Terminski, 2013).

Many development projects that aim to reduce poverty by building new infrastructure, industrial platforms or irrigation systems, or even establishing parks and road networks, requires land, and sometimes very large tracts of land (Cernea,2003). These needs for land could cause physical displacement of people living there. Even in situations where people are not required to physically move, the project may still impact their livelihoods or income generating activities, either temporarily or permanently (i.e. economic displacement) or cause other environmental and social impacts that make continuing to live there unsustainable (Frank, 2017).

Thus, DID occurs when a political representation decides that an inhabited territory should be used in a different way, such as for an implementation of a development project, for instance, mining and the creation of military installations, airports, industrial plants, weapon testing grounds, railways, road developments, urbanization, conservation projects, forestry, etc (Robinson, 2003). Unfortunately, too much resettlement practice has only been concerned with providing cash compensation or addressing the need for replacement housing, without giving adequate attention to all the other dimensions of life (like peoples attachment with their place or land) that is affected by being resettled (Frank, 2017). Due to this reason population displacement because of development project including infrastructure expansion has been a prominent feature in urban settings and the number of affected people has grown dramatically in the world, particularly in developing nations like Malaysia, India, and China, where rapid

physical infrastructure development is considered integral to economic growth and sustainability (Ahsan, 2016; Mkanga, 2010).

According to IDMC (2018), at least fifteen million people in each year are displaced due to development projects including the forced movement of people to make way for large infrastructure projects such as dams, urban development's and irrigation canals. For instance, in India alone, during the last 50 years, an estimated 25 million have been displaced by development projects. In that same period in China, development projects displaced more than 40 million people, including 13.6 million in the 1990s (Robinson, 2003).

Terminski (2013) point out that, the ultimate goal of all human and economic developments should be the expansion of individual and collective freedom. However, aimed at generating economic growth and to improve general welfare often left local people permanently displaced, disempowered, and destitute (Oliver, 2002). In addition to this, economic development is not undertaken to improve the lives of the whole society in the country, but to serve the interests of government, private business or narrow social elites. The particular problems of persons displaced by development projects in most countries are characterized by deeply entrenched social divisions and the existence of groups outside the mainstream of society. Loss of access to land and resources by cause of development projects on which communities depend on agriculture, was synonymous with the collapse of the economic model hitherto practiced and the prospect of poverty (Terminski, 2013).

Being forcibly displaced from one's land and habitat carries with it the risk of becoming poorer than before displacement. Those displaced are supposed to receive compensation of their lost assets, and effective assistance to re-establish them productively; yet this does not happen for a large portion of displaced people. In Asia, Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa dams have caused the largest displacement of people (Robison, 2003).

Although urban life is relatively recent in Africa, the rate of urban growth is quite rapid. Its rate of urbanization soared from 15 percent in 1960 to 40 percent in 2010, and is expected to reach 60 percent in 2050 (UN Habitat, 2010; cited in Leipziger et al, 2014). The current rate of urbanization in Ethiopia is 14.5 percent, which implies that urban populations in the country will double five years (CSA, 1998). Recently, there is a sense of improvement on the part of urban

development authorities and the general public with the direction of the urban development policy and the remarkable achievements. It implies that, most of Ethiopian cities and towns have been witnessing major transformations as evidenced by phenomenal public and private investments since the 1990s. However, what remains unnoticed is the consequent displacement of predominantly low-income households from the inner city and farmers residing in the outskirts (Gebre, 2008). To this end, the attention given by developing country governments, financing institutions and donor governments like NGOs to improve the lives of the displaced people seems minimal at micro, macro and global level (Feleke, 1999).

In case, displacement due to urban expansion or development is widespread in the developing countries than the developed countries (Tegegne, 1999); for instance, in Ethiopia many mega projects are constructed within 10 up to 15 years like commercial farms, road construction, urban expansion among others that have caused for many population displacement (Feleke, 1999); because the majority of the people in developing countries live in the periphery depending on agriculture with fragmented land holdings and the land remains public or government's property for this reason amount of compensation paid, in case of possible displacement, depends on government decision. In many ways urban expansion is a spontaneous phenomenon that leads to displacing rural farming community even planned displacement has its own effect on the livelihood of the affected farmers (Tegegne, 1999).

Ethiopian town and cities are witnessing major transformations as evidenced by phenomenal public and private investments since 1990s (Endashaw, 2014); however it have a number of problems due to sometimes unplanned settlement and slums which characterize some of the larger cities of the country for instance displacement of low income households (Tamirat, 2016).

There are indications that more new projects and the expansion of existing ones will displace more people. In a televised press conference in the context of the Ethiopian Millennium celebration, the late Prime Minister Meles Zenawi indicated that 70 percent of the houses in Addis Ababa would be demolished and rebuilt to reduce inadequate master plan, poor housing facilities, environmental problems, and shanty corners among others. The renewal and development programs of urban areas often target slums and shanty areas normally inhabited by low-income households (Belay et al., 2018). Although, there is a sense of excitement on the part of authorities and the public with the infrastructural changes brought as far in cities. What

remains unnoticed, however, is that large number of low-income households have been displaced and adversely affected by the process of urban development (Gebre, 2008). Thus relocation of low-income households from inner cities to the outskirts would, undoubtedly, affect their livelihoods and informal networks of mutual assistance (Belay et al., 2018).

Debre Berhan, the capital city of north shewa, is expanding rapidly in all direction due to favorable weather conditions and fertile soil. As a result, it is creating a continuum with all directions of the periphery like Tebase, Fage and Karafiya to south, Genet to west, Ataclit and Kango to south-east, Zangira to north-east and Chole to north. Thus, the expansion of the town influenced the surrounding farming communities and mostly leading to forced displacement of rural households from their farm land. It is clear that rural communities surrounding the expanding town depend on agriculture, because they have an advantage to land. In addition to this, they have an access to the urban services and urban rural development linkages or the trickledown effect of development in the one hand. In the other hand, as the researcher got preliminary data from Debre Berhan urban development authority officials there are five kebeles with the peripheries that are affected by the expansion of the town.

## **1.2. Statement of the problem**

Urban development/expansion as a dynamic process of land use change is a complicated social/economic phenomenon. It may be linked with details related to topography, transportation, land use, social structure and economic type, but it is generally related to socio-demography and economy in a town (Ahlam, 2017).

One of the most significant consequences of development is upheaval and displacement of the local residents and communities in the periphery (Cernea, 2000), since most of mega projects like industries, hospitals, schools, among others have constructed around towns and cities. Displacement due to urban expansion encompasses more than the loss of land: displaced communities also lose their social structure, control over their lives, traditional living patterns and economic activities, and control over natural resources. The most widespread effect of involuntary displacement is the impoverishment of considerable numbers of people (Cernea, 2000), because urban development projects tend to give more attention to local and foreign investors rather than affected ones (Feleke, 1999). According to Cernea (2000) demographic

growth, urbanization, and the inelasticity of land will continue to require changes in the current use-patterns of lands and waters. This guarantees that the displacement problems will remain a permanent issue on the development agenda.

*In general “Forced population displacement is always crisis-prone, even when necessary as part of broad and beneficial development programs. It is a profound socioeconomic and cultural disruption for those affected. Dislocation breaks up living patterns and social continuity. It dismantles existing modes of production, disrupts social networks, causes the impoverishment of many of those uprooted, threatens their cultural identity, and increases the risks of epidemics and health problems” (Robinson, 2003:10).*

In Ethiopia, urban policy to some extent and housing policy in particular have been trying to address the housing problem through various strategies; for instance, FDRE (1994) Article 44(2) states that "All persons who have been displaced or whose livelihoods have been adversely affected as a result of State programs have the right to commensurate monetary or alternative means of compensation, including relocation with adequate State assistance. In addition, Federal Negarit Gazeta (FNG) (2005) Proclamation No.455/2005 also verified citizens' right, but the intention is mainly based on land tenure rights (Tesfa, 2014). But the urban land lease policy is not very friendly to rural households in general and the poor land holders in particular. As a result, the implementation of the policy has been marginalizing the rural settled farming communities; because, the policy did not take into account the lives of rural households living in the vicinity of towns and cities. It means there is no any non-farm based economic sector developed to absorb those displaced from farming, most of which are unskilled laborers. This indicates that the non-integrative type of urban expansion or DID has adds the negative effects of marginalized rural communities and forces them to live in poverty, food insecurity and hopelessness. Thus forced displacement can destroy community's previous means of livelihood and introduce new way of life that in most cases is less supportive than the previous (Tamrat, 2016).

Accordingly, Debre Berhan town administration has developed compensation and relocation modality for development affected households; because Debre Berhan, as one of the towns of North Shewa zone is affected by urban development/expansion due to the existence of high population growth and being flat in landscape make it suitable for urban expansion. The

expansion of the town is becoming fast, irregular and uncontrolled; For instance, it expands 25.14%, 31.48%, and 32.81% in the year 2000, 2009 and 2018 respectively; in general 65.53% area is expanded in time duration of 1986 to 2018 (Ephrem, et.al, 2018). Hence, this figure indicates the extent of the development/expansion and its impact on the rural households living in the periphery and their displacement situation.

There are different problems associated with this expansion like: loss of agricultural farm lands, reduction of grazing lands and bare lands and loss of social bonds among others. However, this modality is set up based on land tenure rights similar to the proclamation No.455/2005 did not benefit majorities who do not have land tenure rights; because, policy makers didn't consider the overall challenges of displaced people. The main problem here is that, the rate compensation seems inadequate i.e. the compensation given for the displaced people have not equal value as compared to their land. It is advisable and advantageous to accompany money compensation with alternative development program plans to rehabilitate economically and socially the evicted farmers (Siciliano, 2012 cited from Ahlam, 2017). Berihu, et.al (2015) stated that, land is the fundamental resource for the rural area residents not only to increase their agricultural productivity but also it has social and cultural value for most rural area. It means that in Ethiopian rural society land is the symbol of wealth or affluent; a household without some hectares of land considered as a poor even if they have other source of income. Thus, DID affect the social, economic and cultural condition of local community that they are living in the periphery of the town.

Several studies (Tesfa Tefere, 2014; Idris et.al, 2017; Gebre Yntiso, 2008) and others have been documented on the urban development-induced displaced households in various urbanized centers of the country like Addis Ababa, Wolaita Sodo, and Dessie. Tesfa Tefere (2014) has studied the issue of effect of DID on relocated household in Addis Ababa. His findings indicated that, government has achieved slum clearance but accessing decent houses especially for low-income households are problematic. Therefore he focus on only the effects DID on the low income urban households and failed to see effects of DID on the rural household that lives in the town periphery. Idris et.al (2017) has also undertaken their study on urbanization in Ethiopia: expropriation Process and Rehabilitation Mechanism of Evicted Pre-Urban Farmers (Policies and Practices). According to them the rehabilitation practices which most municipalities now

applying are mostly monetary compensation but rare practice of income capitalization. Thus they did not see the effects of DID on the livelihood and social bond situations of Pre-Urban Farmers. The other study conducted by Gebre Yntiso (2008) explored the impact of urban development and displacement on low-income households in Addis Ababa. Gebre points out that, the process of relocating people from the inner city to new resettlement sites in the outskirts have disrupted the relocatees' business ties with customers and broken their informal networks of survival. He also failed to document the impacts of DIDR on the farming community living in the peripheries of the town. Moreover, Friehiwot Tarekegn (2013) has conducted her study on the impact of DID on social in Addis Ababa. Her findings show that, the relocation program has significantly affected the social capital of the relocatees as a result the vulnerable people lack supports from the community. She failed to address the positive and negative impacts of DID on the displaced households livelihood.

Generally, these and other available studies have mainly focused on compensation, policy frameworks and human right impacts of development-induced displacement. As a result, they gave less emphasis to the experiences of displaced rural households to enhance and rebuilt their social, economic and cultural situation. In addition to this, the impact of Debre Berhan urban development has not been documented in general and the experience of the displaced rural households in particular. Hence, this paper intends to explore the experience of the displaced rural households in the context of their coping and re-establishing strategy.



### **1.3. Objectives of the study**

#### **1.3.1. General objectives of the study**

The main objective of this study is to explore the experience of rural households affected by urban development-induced displacement focusing on Debre Berhan Town in Amhara Region, Ethiopia.

#### **1.3.2. Specific objectives**

- ✓ To identify the experiences of displaced rural households what did they lose and gain the urban expansion;
- ✓ To identify livelihood strategies of the displaced households before and after displacement ;
- ✓ To explore the social bond situations of the affected people after displacement; and
- ✓ To examine the kind of support provided by the government and other non-governmental organizations to rebuild the displaced rural households

### **1.4. Significance of the study**

As presented in the statement of the problem this research has attempted to fill such research gap and would bring additional knowledge on the experience of development-induced displaced rural households (DIDRH) in Ethiopia. It would inform the wider public on how the affected people construct their livelihood, social bond, resilience mechanisms and its challenge to adapt the problem. Principles and guidelines put in place to mitigate the negative consequences of DID are needed further improvement because these principles and guidelines are mostly economic and quantitative in nature, which means they often fail to address the socio-cultural disruptions resulting from DID. Therefore, the researcher initiated to make an additional investigation on principle and guidelines and the deeper experiences of APS that could further enhance our understanding on the overall experiences of the APS. In addition, the researcher used different theoretical models to understand DID and its implications. Moreover, for this study, qualitative researches approach with cross sectional research design also used to detail information towards

the issue. Thus, this study would provide information and knowledge on the problems that people face in the process of employing strategies to enhance their livelihood, social bond and its challenge to rebuild after displacement.

The findings of this study would also provide evidence based information and knowledge on the problems that people face because of the disruption of social bond that they had before displacement and how they correct it. In addition to this, it might also provide feasible development plan inputs to help the displaced households based on their cultural context. Therefore, the recommendations would help in designing operational plan, strategies and procedures recognizing the coping strategies of the displaced people. Hence, it might also be important to reduce costs, increase benefits and enhance the feasibility and sustainability of development projects in the town.

### **1.5. Scope of the study**

The study assessed the experience of DIDRH in Debre Berhan town, Amhara Region. The study was delimited to explore rural households that are displaced or loss their land due to urban development. The study also assessed the living experience of DIDRH before and after displacement/loss their land. In addition to this, the study considers those people who were displaced in the year 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010 and 6 month 2011. Thus the study did not consider non-development affected displaced people.

### **1.6. Ethical considerations**

Ethical considerations were seriously taken into account to respect the freedom and self-determination of the individual. Thus, the whole information like the concern, integrity, anonymity, consents and other human elements of the participants, discussants, and interviewees must be protected. Participants were requested before embark on the real data collection process for their voluntariness by informing the objectives and outcomes of the research. The researcher assured to them that any information concerning them never passed to other unauthorized persons on institutes without their consent. The names of the respondents would not be specified in any part. The selected study participants were request kindly whether they agree to participate

in the study or not. According to Yeraswork (2010) Persons who are the respondents of research shall be prevented from any extra risk of injury or other significant strain.

Beyond the ethics on human subjects, research ethics also considers acknowledgement of data generated by others and appropriate citations of scholarly research outputs, books, websites, and any other related documents in order to assure intellectual and scientific integrity of the research/er. Having this in mind; the researcher would taken care of citing and acknowledging all the information taken from scholarly literatures and data gathered by other individual or organizations.

### **1.7. Organizations of the thesis**

This thesis organized into five chapters. The first chapter includes backgrounds of the study, statements of the problem, objectives of the study justification and significances of the study. Scope, ethical consideration and limitations of the study also included in this chapter. Literature review and theoretical frameworks were presented in Chapter two. The third chapter describes the study area and methods of the study. Major findings of the study were discussed in chapter four. Finally, the study conclusion and recommendations were presented in chapter five.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **Literature review and theoretical frame work**

This chapter deals with the review of literature from different authors which are relevant to the study on DID that shed light on the concepts and that are important to understand development induced displacement. Various literatures are reviewed to come up with theories and empirical findings that would guide my study.

#### **2.1. Definitions of development-induced displacement**

Before introducing the concept of DID, it is better to define development and displacement alone. Development is a term that refers a process of arranged institutional change to achieve better alteration between human needs and goals at one side and social plans and projects on other side (Bellu, 2011).It is translating economic progress into better living conditions for people in society (Ahuja, 2005).It may occur due to some deliberate action carried out by single agents or by some authority pre-ordered to achieve improvement, to favorable circumstances in both (Bellu, 2011). It is clear that without development efforts, a nation cannot progress (Muhidin, 2016). Although, most of development projects that aim to reduce poverty by building new infrastructure, industrial platforms or irrigation systems, or even establishing parks and road networks, also cause forced population displacements because they need land and “right of way”. Such displacements are one of the most perverse social pathologies of induced development (Cernea, 2003). Robinson (2003) explains that development is seen as both bringing benefits and imposing costs. Among its greatest costs has been the involuntary displacement of millions of vulnerable people. It means that, the development of one part of the system may be detrimental to the development of other parts (Bellu, 2011).

Displacement is seen as the result of a model of development that enforces certain technical and economic choices without giving any serious consideration to those options that would involve the least social and environmental costs (Bartolome et.al, 2000). According to World Bank-assisted development projects study stated that, population displacement found that just over half were in the transportation, water supply, and urban infrastructure sectors (Robinson, 2003).

Thus, development related displacement covers all occurrences of displacement resulting from policies and projects implemented in the name of development. Many people were forced to move to make way for development and infrastructure projects, including highways, ports, large dams, railways, airports, irrigation canals, energy projects or large-scale industrial mining industries, and housing projects. Likewise, displacement may be caused by land-acquisition measures linked to urban renewal or redevelopment, slum upgrades, city beautification, housing renovation and agricultural programs (Muhidin, 2016).

## **2.2. The prevalence development-induced displacement in Ethiopia**

Cernea (1997) point out that, Africa is a continent rich in natural resources, but often the spatial distribution of its people and its resources do not coincide. Therefore, much of the impetus for population movements in Africa also comes from efforts to match the people with the resources they need for sustenance and growth. Due to the need of development different African countries tried to plan land settlement; for instance Kenya, Tanzania, Sudan, Ghana, Senegal, Burkina Faso, Egypt, and Ethiopia. In fact several of these schemes did improve the well-being of participants but in general terms these efforts have fallen short of expectations. Because of this the proportion of the population in Africa affected by some projects is significantly higher than even some of the biggest projects in Asia (Cernea, 2002 cited from Smithen, 2014). For instance, the construction of Akosombo Dam in Ghana displaced around 80,000 people, approximately 1 per cent of the country's population, while the Narmada Sardar Sarovar Dam in India will displace 127,000 people, roughly 0.013 per cent of the country's population (Stanley, 2004).

Furthermore, Africans constitute only 12 percent of the global population (i.e. 2.7 million) at the beginning of 2005; from these around 9.5 million refugees and around 25 million internally displaced persons are to be found in Africa. The total number of displaced people in Africa thus stands in the region of 15 million. In general, the overall population resettlement process in Africa is much larger in scale and more diversified as compared to other continent (Cernea, 1996, 1997). Therefore, it can conclude that millions of people are forced to move from their current residences or lose their land and often face permanent poverty and end up socially and politically marginalized.

Decades later, natural and man-made disasters, including conflicts, still remain key factors in uprooting populations from their livelihoods. Recently Ethiopia's development programmers', massive public investment in infrastructure and urban expansion have created a new layer of DID (Pankhurst and Piguët, 2009). Due to this, DID in the country have become the most significant type of movement replacing earlier concerns with resettlement, refugees, returnees and demobilization (Eguavoen and Weyni, 2011). Hence in the past 10 years, Ethiopia is estimated to have had close to 220,000 IDPs due to DID (Mehari, 2017).

The Ethiopian urban centers are expanding in unexpected rate resulting to peasant displacement with concomitant loss of agricultural land and change of their livelihood. According to the experience of city expansion in Ethiopia, agricultural communities are relocated and left with little compensation, with no training for other skills to rely upon in a city with already very few employment opportunities. The government expects them to use the small compensation money for investments in new livelihoods and homes, particularly in their new condominium project, but this does not often happen (Tamrat, 2016).

In an agrarian society such as Ethiopia, DID is closely intertwined with land governance, which in turn overlaps with federalism and the identity of inhabitants living in a specific territory. Given the economic transformation in Ethiopia, DID may take various forms, including resettlement programs, relocation, and eviction (Mehari, 2017). A study conducted by Gebre (2008) indicated that, an inadequate master plan, poor housing facilities, environmental problems, and shanty corners, among others, characterize urban centers of developing countries. In order to solve these problems and create a favorable environment for investment, government authorities tend to re-order urban space; this would require changes in urban land use. This process often causes the displacement (relocation and resettlement) of certain households, in most cases the powerless low income people living in the periphery. Although, policymakers tend to view the disruptive effects of urban development on certain sections of society as justified sacrifices for the greater good. In other words, there is a tendency to view development-induced displacement as an unintended impact, unavoidable step, or a necessary evil. Hence, the plight of thousands of displaced households failed to attract adequate policy attention.

There are four main types of development induced displacement in our country Ethiopia (Kassahun, 2001, cited from Friehiwot, 2013). First, agricultural developments; agricultural development projects resulted in displacement in several areas during the imperial period. The establishment of the Chilalo Agricultural Development Unit in Arsi was an example of agricultural development induced displacement. However, much more significant were the development venture in the Awash valley where large-sale cotton and sugar plantations had severe repercussions on the pastoralists living on the area. During the Derg period state farms, some of which took over nationalized private farms, resulted in further displacement. In the southwest, a notable case is the Ethio-Korean cotton farm in the low Omo that took alienated lands that the Agro-pastoralists, Dassanech had been using for flood retreat cultivation.

Secondly the creation of national parks; the other one comes from the establishment of national parks in important grazing areas, notably the Awash park in the east and NetchSar in the South as well as the Omo and Mago parks in the Southwest. Third the construction of dams could also result in displacement. During the Durg regime, the dam construction has caused the displacement of more than hundred households and the villegizaion of 1,964 households making up about 10,000 people displaced (Kassahun, 2001, cited from Friehiwot, 2013). Lastly, urban expansion; displacement due to urban expansion and slum clearance has been increasing rapidly worldwide, and is becoming a significant phenomenon particularly in the large cities of the developing countries. In Ethiopia the urban population remains a small but rapidly expanding projected to grow at much rate than rural areas (Pankhurst, 2004, cited from Friehiwot, 2013).

Currently DID is expected to rise due to the enlargement of industrialization and urbanization projects, infrastructural and city renewal projects, such as land and identity related national parks and dams. Some recent studies found that urban renewal and expansion projects caused repetitive displacement of people and increased their vulnerabilities (Mehari, 2017). Generally the various development projects have displaced people primarily as a direct consequence of land acquisition but there is limited data available on the precise number of displaced people due to development projects. So, it is very difficult to estimate how many people displaced annually.

### 2.2.1 The prevalence of DID in Debre Berhan Town

Urban expansion in Debre Berhan Town has started since the town was selected and recognized at national and regional levels as one of the center of industrial development clusters (Debre Berhan Town Agricultural Office, 2019). Since then the town has begun extending its size towards the neighboring five rural *kebeles* at the fringe of the town. In this town there are more than 25 industries, such as blanket factory, two beer factories (Dashin and Habesha), flour milling factory, wood processing (Chibud) factory, candy factory, plastic factory are among others. From these, Debre Berhan blanket factory was the first to take a huge farmland from households.

According to the available data from the town agricultural sector office (2019), in Debre Berhan town administration, around 5651 household heads had their own farmland and of these more than 2063 of them were displaced from their farmland and more than 686.5 hectares of agricultural land was converted to urban use in the five sub-rural *kebeles* in the year from 2007-february 2011. Almost all of the displaced household heads' were paid compensation fully in cash and few of the displaced households (2) got half of their lost land in kind compensation (land substitution). As indicated by the informants, there was different compensation value in the same land size from year to year. According to the rural land administration officer, the main reason for the different value in the same size of land was the price variations of land in the market from year to year and the value of the land is measured by the productions of the land that are produced in one year.

**Table 2.1 Land use inventory of Debre Berhan town, 2007- 2011 E.C**

Purpose of land	Land use in hectare					total
	2007	2008	2009	2010	6 month 2011	
Residential	20.9	0.1857	12.8027	25.89	91.637753	150.84339
Commercial	0.18	0.25	0.0375	0.189	-	0.6565
Industry	58.155	45.45	102.64	362.574	6.9865	575.8055
Social service/ school, health, church etc.	0.6	6.894	7.535	31.88	0.4163353	47.3253353
Total	79.84	52.78	123.02	332.61	99.04069	686.5

Source: Debre Berhan town administration newspaper 2011



As shown in Table 4.1, in a given time frame (2007-6 month 2011) 686.5 hectares of farm land has been converted to urban land use. Out of the total urban land use size, the share of housing, commercial, industry and social service is 150.84, 0.65, 575.8 and 47.32 respectively.

### **2.2.2. Causes of urban development-induced displacement**

Development projects have been identified as the main cause of DID. These types of development projects leading to DID include water supply projects (dams, reservoirs and irrigation), energy, agricultural expansion; parks and forest reserves, population distribution schemes, and urban infrastructure and transportation projects (Robison, 2003). Cernea (1993) gave classifications of development projects as urban and non-urban. In the urban context, the type of projects involving forced displacement and resettlement include environmental improvement projects (urban beautification, infrastructure and services projects like roads, education and health facilities, water supply and sewerage systems), slum upgrading programs and those related to urban economic growth (industrial estates, transport corridors, economic ancillaries and infrastructure) and non-urban programs which extend beyond the project location and pose a threat to urban inhabitants such projects are like reservoirs projects.

As Terminski (2013) noted contemporary economic developments are increasingly expanding the catalogue of the types of development-induced displacement and their dynamics. Among the relatively new factors shaping the dynamics of this process; the creation of specific entities within a large surface area, such as airports, ports and landfill sites.

In Ethiopia, DID is becoming a great concern in different parts of the country at different level. Displacements aiming at the extension of irrigation and hydropower production referred to as dam-induced displacement, provision of better housing in urban centers, large scale agriculture investment projects, and conservation of wildlife via national parks are the major causes of displacement (Eguavoen und Weyni, 2011; Demeke, 2019).

The most common causes of DID are government backed projects such as roads and dams. The Ethiopian government is forcibly relocating minority villagers and nomadic groups in order to use the vacated space to build dams or to lease land to foreign investors (CNN, 2015). In addition to this, Ethiopia is carrying out massive developmental transformation in many sectors

such as: infrastructural development projects (road and rail transportation); hydroelectric and irrigation dams; urbanization projects (urban renewals, integrated urban master plans, and the relocations of persons); industrial parks; commercial agricultural farms and processing industries; state sponsored resettlement programmers'. Thus, these development projects are the main cause for DID in Ethiopia (Gizachew, 2015; Mehari, 2017).

### **2.2.3 Effects of urban development-induced displacement**

The rapid physical urban expansion in developing countries is usually associated with unplanned development in the periphery that requires high cost of infrastructure. It is evident that even in planned activity the development of infrastructure usually does not correspond to the large tract of land that develops in a low-density pattern (Bhatta, 2010). Urban expansion has many positive and negative effects on farmers in the peri-urban areas such as center of market area, center for production and distribution of goods and services, an opportunity for access to employment are among the positive effects of urban expansion. The negative consequences of urban expansion are loss of prime agricultural farmland, displacement of farm communities, solid waste disposal and land degradation, enclosing surrounding rural land to urban territory, over exploitation of natural resources and conflict (Shishay, 2011).

#### **2.2.3.1 Positive effects of urban development/expansion on the rural households in the pre-urban area**

The developments/expansions of urban centers have not only a negative impact on rural community living in the periphery but also it has a positive impact on the development of their surrounding peri-urban areas through different ways. It means that, the surrounding area of urban centers are mostly engaged in agricultural production either for local consumers or as links to national and export markets and urban centers act as access to market which is the pre-requisite to increasing rural agricultural incomes. Proximity also contributes to minimize the risks of perishable products to produce timely to market areas and to get affordable transportation (Satterthwiate and Tacoli, 2004).

The practical activities approved that people who live in the surrounding urban centers can have possible access to both private and public services such as health, education, banking, postal &

telephone and services of different professionals (like lawyers) and private services like wholesale and retail, sales of manufactured goods (G/Egziabher, 1998). Furthermore, because of their proximity, have a better access to employment and modern way of living than those who far rural dwellers. Besides, urban centers create employment opportunities through the development of small and micro enterprises and cooperatives (Ahlem, 2017).

### **2.2.3.2. Negative effects of urban development/expansion on the rural households in the pre-urban area**

In Africa as well as in global level, population settlement and resettlement processes are linked to the core of today's development agenda (Cernea, 1997). In many developing countries population displacement because of development projects has been a prominent feature in urban settings (Mkanga, 2010). The displacements of people from their land and livelihood have become the main impact created by development projects (Ahlam, 2017). It implies that, various infrastructure projects have directly or indirectly disrupted the lives of subsistence farmers, pastoralists, fisherman and people living downstream. These projects also forced rural people to move from their home areas and lose their properties, jobs and to be separated from their neighborhoods (Feleke, 1999).

Thus, one common consequence of such projects is the upheaval and displacement of communities (Stanley, 2004). DID is problematic at best; because displaced people are not resettled and rehabilitated properly (Endashaw, 2016; Mkanga, 2010). The displacement of people from their usual place of residence elicits the following social, economic, political and cultural problems (Endashaw, 2016).

**Social problems:** lack of mechanisms of social support and difficult integration into the new place of residence, compensation that ignores non-material losses and risks associated with displacement, negative consequences of the irreversible change of residence, disintegration of existing social ties, social problems such as landlessness, homelessness, alcoholism, and unemployment, lack of access to social services (e.g., health care institutions, education, water supply, public transport), progressive marginalization of the most vulnerable groups such as women, children and indigenous people, health risks, malnutrition (Endashaw, 2016).

**Economic problems:** in adequate or non-existent compensation for lost property, unemployment, decline of economic functions of women and their position in the community, problems associated with low occupational flexibility of displaced people, need for complete change away from the current economic model (Endashaw, 2016). Due to this, destitution and rooted impoverishment rather than better life and better standard of living have become the hallmark of people who have most of the time become directly affected by development projects (Gizachew, 2015). In addition, farmers with their large family size will be exposed to unemployment and poverty (food insecure) for the reason that they are not well educated and skilled rather depending on their agricultural production. It is understood that, people without basic qualification or literally skilled are unable to compete and get job in the labor market (Ahlem, 2017).

**Political problems:** political marginalization of displaced communities, displacement as a tool for punishment of communities particularly dangerous to the authorities (Endashaw, 2016).

**Cultural problems:** disintegration of small communities such as tribes and villages, erosion of cultural identity, loss of or inability to maintain existing cultural traditions, disappearance of languages, dialects and ancient customs, etc (Endashaw, 2016).

In general DID caused a variety of livelihood risks such as loss of home or shelter, lack of urban infrastructures such as road facilities, electricity, job opportunities, potable water services and cash compensation for re-housing, as well as landlessness and separation of small cohesive social groups (notably coffee members) (Getu and Assefa, 2015). As a result, the farmers with their large family size will be exposed to unemployment and poverty (food insecure) for the reason that they are not well educated and skilled rather depending on their agricultural production. It is understood that, people without basic qualification or literally skilled are unable to compete and get job in the labor market (Shishay, 2011).

### **2.3. Theoretical models**

To have better understanding of Displacement due to development, it is worth to assess the theories and models of Displacement which not only bring to light the system defect but also

suggest suitable course of action for its modification. Thus for this study three key models have been developed to assist with understanding DID and its implications.

### **2.3.1 Scudder-Colson's four stage model of voluntary resettlement process**

It is developed by Scudder and Colson in the early 1980s building upon earlier approaches that dealt primarily with the processes of voluntary resettlement; proposes four stages for how people and socio-cultural systems respond to resettlement. These were recruitment, transition, potential development and handing over or incorporation.

**Stage one: Recruitment**, at this stage people are not informed about the plans of development in the given area. Here in the policy-makers and developers formulate development and resettlement plans.

**Stage two: Transition**, this is the stage where for the first time people get to know about their future displacement to pave the way for development. Such news often heightens the stress amongst the potentially affected groups.

**Stage three: Potential development**, this stage occurs after the actual physical relocation. Here the affected people begin the process of rebuilding their economy and social networks.

**Stage four: handling over or incorporation**, the process of displacement and resettlement ends at this stage where second generation of residents who identify with and feel at home in the relocated community. Once this stage has been achieved, resettlement is deemed a success. While useful, the model has been criticized for assuming that APS have the coping mechanisms to contend with all four stages. In fact, it was found that this was an exception to the norm and the need for a new model was necessary to explain the consequences of involuntary relocation (Stanley, 2004).

The main limitations of this model is people's participation has not taken into consideration, it has not thrown its light upon people's problems, remedies for their problems, and it indirectly encourages displacement by giving less emphasis for the impacts of displacement.

This model shows that how the policy makers make and implement development policies and the ways that the displaced people aware about the expansion program. This model applied in this study to see the implementations of the urban expansion program on the displaced community and in what way the urban expansion experts aware the displaced households before the program is undertaken.

### **2.3.2 Cernea's impoverishment risks and reconstruction (IRR) model**

Michael Cernea developed this model in the 1990s. The main purpose of this model is to highlight the intrinsic risks that cause impoverishment through displacement, as well as the ways to counteract-eliminate or mitigate-these risks. For Cernea, impoverishment of displaced people is the central risk in development caused displacement. Risk also defined as the possibility that a certain causes of action will trigger injurious effects, losses and destruction (Stanley, 2004). Stanley (2004) noted that, unlike Scudder–Colson model, the IRR model does not attempt to identify different stages of relocation, but rather aims to identify the impoverishment risks intrinsic to forced resettlement and the processes necessary for reconstructing the livelihoods of displacees. Cernea (2004) pointed out, three major issues which include eight main risks of DID these are: landlessness, joblessness, homelessness, marginalization, food insecurity, loss of access to common property resources, increased morbidity and mortality, and community disarticulation. These eight risks group into three: economic, socio-cultural, and social-welfare risks (Koenig, 2002; Ahsan, 2016).

#### **2.3.2.1. Economic issues**

- 1. Landlessness.** The involuntary taking of land and other assets resulting in relocation, loss of shelter, loss of assets or access to assets, loss of income sources or means of livelihood, whether or not the affected persons and must move to another location (Endashaw, 2016).
- 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. Unemployment or underemployment among resettlers often endures long after physical relocation has been completed (Robison, 2004).

3. **Loss of access to common property.** Particularly, 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 (Robison, 2003). Generally, loss of common property assets will not be compensated by government relocation schemes (Chiruguri, 2015). This indicates that displaced households face two or all three economic risks simultaneously. Thus resettlement initiatives need to consider complex combinations of resource replacement.

#### 2.3.2.2. Socio-cultural issues

Human beings are part of social and cultural systems that give meaning to their lives. When displacement weakens or dismantles social networks and life-support mechanisms, local authority systems collapse and groups lose their capacity for self-management (Koenig, 2002). This can cause:

4. **Social disarticulation**, the dispersion and fragmentation of existing communities, and loss of reciprocity networks, increasing powerlessness, dependence, and vulnerability (Cernea 2000). Social disarticulation is especially common when existing social groups cannot resettle together, but may also occur when existing groups lose their ability to act effectively in a new context (Koenig, 2002).
5. **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 marginality can lead to social or psychological marginality (Robinson, 2003). The building of education and skills that allow people to use new resources is needed to combat marginalization (Koenig, 2002).

#### 2.2.2.3. Social-welfare issues

The final three risks are social-welfare risks: (6), **homelessness and lack of shelter**, (7), **food insecurity**, and (8), **increased morbidity and mortality** caused by stress and environmental change. Many resettlement programs have met the challenges of short-term homelessness, food

insecurity, and increased morbidity and mortality successfully. However, because these risks are highly visible and relatively easy to mitigate, many resettlement projects stop after addressing them and do not deal with other risks. It means that, if social welfare risks persist, it is usually because other categories of risk have not been effectively addressed (Koenig, 2002).

In addition, Downing (2002) and others have identified three additional impacts of DID: loss of access to public services, disruption of formal education activities, and loss of civil and human rights. These displacement risks results from deconstructing the syncretic, multifaceted process of displacement into its identifiable, principal, and most widespread, components. The model captures not only economic but also social and cultural impoverishment, reflecting the fact that displaced people lose their natural capital, financial capital, human capital and social capital (Cernea, 2004).

**9. Loss of access to community services:** This could include anything from health clinics to educational facilities, but especially costly both in the short and long term are lost or delayed opportunities for the education of children (Robison, 2003).

**10. Violation of human rights:** Displacement from one's habitual residence and the loss of property without fair compensation can, in itself, constitute a violation of human rights. In addition to violating economic and social rights, listed above, arbitrary displacement can also lead to violations of civil and political rights, including: arbitrary arrest, degrading treatment or punishment, temporary or permanent disenfranchisement and the loss of one's political voice. Finally, displacement carries not only the risk of human rights violations at the hands of state authorities and security forces but also the risk of communal violence when new settlers move in amongst existing populations (Robison, 2003).

Cernea (2004) point out that, to mitigate these problems the policy makers accomplished through focused strategies, backed up by commensurate financing. From landlessness to land based reestablishment, from joblessness to re-employment, from homelessness to house construction, from disarticulation to community reconstruction, from marginalization to social inclusion, from expropriation to restoration of community assets, from food insecurity to adequate nutrition and from increased morbidity to better health care. From these components, two of them, from disarticulation to community reconstruction and from marginalization to social inclusion, has to



do much in understanding the impact of development induced displacement and rebuilding social capital.

In addition, order to mitigate or minimize the risks of impoverishment an integrated approach should be used to deal with the problem. It means greater involvement of the affected population and other stakeholders in the resettlement process including the displaced population, local leaders, nongovernmental organizations and host population are very important (Mkanga, 2010).

The model recognizes risks to the host population, which, while not identical to those of displacees, can also result in impoverishment (Stanley, 2004). It focuses only on resellers rather than farmland displacees.

This model recommends that development-induced displaced household surely would face these impoverishment risks and how they rebuild their economic, social and social welfare issues. So IRR model has applied to see the negative impacts of urban expansion and socio- economic reconstructing strategies of displaced people.

### **2.3.3. Egalitarian model**

The model supports development project on the premise that it reduces poverty and inequality and maintains that all people are equal in fundamental worth. Displaced people must have a share from the benefits of project. For this model, inequality can be conceivably reduced if benefits reach to the poor, may be by putting the burden on better off. Fair and just compensation can be one of the measures which can resolve the inequality in society (Oliver, 2002). But by no means has equality implied that only displaced communities enjoy the fruits of development. Furthermore development must be for all and should neither adversely affect nor benefit a particular group or community. However, it is not easy to employ in the real world (Prenz, 2002).

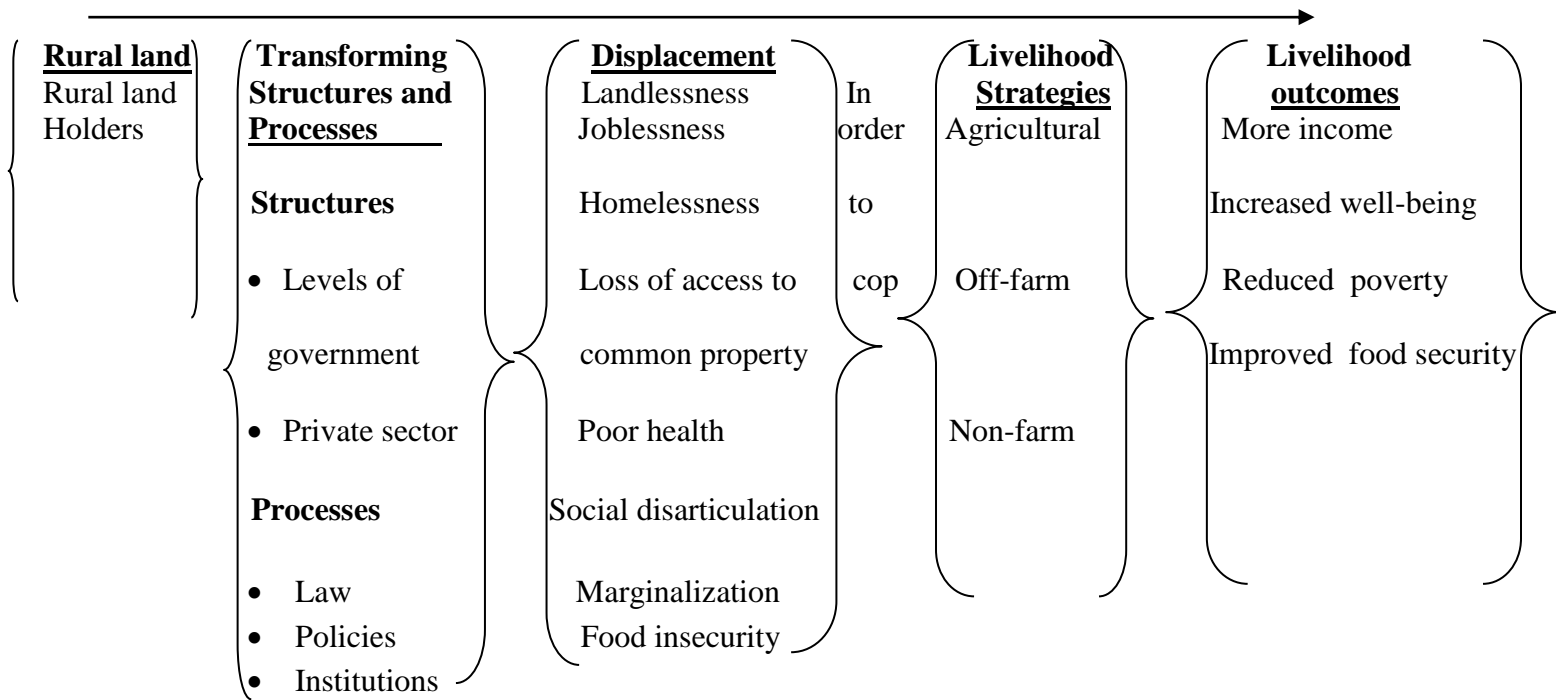
This model also applied to see in what extent the government and other non- governmental organizations support the affected people.

In general mostly displacement requires physical relocation not only affects those who are displaced but also the resident population, people who are not directly affected and so who do

not move, but feel the impact of losing their neighbors, networks, markets and resources as well as the host population those who receive displaced people and could be positively or adversely affected by this (Australian Government Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, 2014 cited from Endashaw, 2016).

### Analytical frame-work of the study

The analytical framework for analysis of displacement impact, coping mechanism and outcome presented in Figure 2.1 shows that a particular context of Transforming structures and processes, a certain level of impoverishment risks, livelihood strategies and its outcomes



Source: Owen, J.et al. (2018) and Kassa Alemu (2013)

**Figure 2.1: Displacement impact, coping mechanism and outcome**

### 2.4. International principles and guide Lines

Some international or regional organizations and national governments have developed their own clear resettlement policies. The first and the most widely known and increasingly adopted policy

is the World Bank's involuntary resettlement policy (WB, 1990, cited from Friehiwot, 2013). Additional, international principles and guidelines for involuntary resettlement include

- a) Asian Development Bank's (ADB) Handbook on Resettlement (1998);
- b) International Finance Corporation's (IFC) Handbook for Preparing a Resettlement Action Plan (IFC, 2002);
- c) IFC's Performance Standards on Environmental and Social Sustainability; and
- d) Performance Standard 5 on Land Acquisition and Involuntary Resettlement (IFC, 2012).

Although these international financial institutions listed above have their own involuntary resettlement principles and guidelines, basically they all apply the World Bank's involuntary resettlement policy. The basic principles developed by WB include; avoid or minimize involuntary resettlement through appropriate technical choices, if cannot be avoided, resettlement ought to be conceived and executed as a development program for which a plan should be prepared. Community participation in planning and implementation ought to be encouraged. Hosts should be consulted to encourage integration. Compensation must be provided to the adversely affected. Assets should be valued at replacement cost. There should be a timely transfer of responsibilities from agencies to avoid dependency (Smithen, 2014, Friehiwot, 2013).

This policy emphasizes that people affected by development projects should be able to improve, or at least be as well-off after the project as without the project. The policy also specifies that the absence of legal title to land and other assets should not prevent affected people from receiving compensation, and the amount of compensation should be sufficient to replace lost assets, income, and living standards. Furthermore, participation of APS in the resettlement process is encouraged (Koenig, 2002). However, the extent and the negative consequences of DIDR indicate serious policy failures with implications for the scope and limits of development policies and their implementation. This paves the way for differing interpretations of policy further down the bureaucratic hierarchy (De Wet, 2000).

### **2.4.1. DIDR principles and guidelines in Ethiopia**

The legal framework which governs resettlement in Ethiopia is spelled out in the constitution, civil code, urban planning and compensation law (MEFCC, 2017). Although there is no direct guideline related to DIDR; regional governments also enact these laws to deal with displacement of people for different reasons. In Ethiopia, land is the property of Nations, Nationalities and Peoples of Ethiopia and cannot be subject to sale or other means of transfer or exchange, which is written in Article 40 (3) of the FDRE Constitution. Article 40 recognizes the right of peasants and pastoralists to get land for free for cultivation and grazing purposes. It means that first, they have the right to get land without payment; second, they have the right to be protected from eviction from their land; and third, the usufruct right they have is not limited by time. However, exceptionally these rights may be excluded for public interests. In this regard, the Constitution in its Article 40 (8) provides that:

*“Without prejudice to the right to private property, the government may expropriate private property for public purposes subject to payment in advance of compensation commensurate to the value of the property”.*

Furthermore, Article 44 of the Constitution states the right of displaced persons to financial or alternative means of compensation including relocation with adequate state assistance. This manifests rights to citizens for basic services and needs, including facilities to guarantee education, health, and housing in the newly resettled areas (MEFCC, 2017).

However, the extent and the negative consequences of DIDR indicate serious policy failures with implications for the scope and limits of development policies and their implementation. There are weaknesses in the chains of communication and decision making due to work pressures, insufficient capacity and problems of coordination between agencies. It means that, Local officials exercise considerable discretion as they develop operational routines. This allows for cutting corners and corruption. For the affected population, the local resettlement officer is the government; his or her decisions are policy. Implementation takes on a life of its own. Resettlement guidelines formulated by funders, governments and international treaties have achieved only limited success in reversing these negative consequences (De Wet, 2000).

The main reason is most of guidelines and principles are made and implement without the awareness of the APS i.e. which is not considers the experience and need of the APS. Therefore, it may be necessary to develop a policy that has clear guidelines and procedures, and involve stakeholders and partners in settlement operation specific to DIDR in Ethiopia that considers how DIDR might affect the people and whether DIDR is not an infringement on civil and human rights.

## **2.5. Livelihood strategies of rural households living in the periphery**

The term livelihood strategy is used to indicate the range and combination of activities and choice that people undertake in order to achieve their livelihood objectives (shishay, 2011). It can be made up of a range of on-farm and off-farm activities that together provide a variety of procurement strategies for improving household life (Ahlem, 2017).

There are different ways of livelihood strategies and income sources. Income sources can be also categorized as those activities that are natural resources based activates (agriculture) and non-natural resource based activities. Others categorize household's income sources as on-farm income, off farm incomes, non-farm income and remittance income from migratory labor (scones, 2002). On-farm income consists of income earned from own cultivated land and livestock. Off-farm income is an income generated from primary sector production systems similar to on-farm but away from one's own farm and includes income from extraction of natural resources (e.g. collecting sand and stone mining, firewood, wild fruit, etc.). Non-farm income is non-agricultural income generated from secondary and tertiary sector production processes. Unearned income, also known as transfer income, is part of nonfarm income which consists of income generated from remittances, gifts, rents, pensions, social transfers, etc (Tsega, 2014).

However, the changes of farm land to urban expansion and the ongoing decentralization of urban land uses and associated economic and social functions change the rural land use patterns and opportunities in the peri-urban region (Ravi, 2015). It indicates that, the farm households in peri-urban areas are in a state of transition from natural resource-based livelihoods to cash-based livelihoods (Tsega, 2014). This limits the ability of the dislocated farming community to possess asset or capital to diversify their livelihood strategies and also reduces their food production and

farm incomes (Ermias, 2009). Because; “the ability to pursue diversified livelihood strategies is dependent on the basic material and social, tangible and intangible assets that people have in their possession” (Scones, 1998). It means that, livelihood diversification of rural people is dependent on natural capital mainly land and its resources, because land is the first and most valuable asset or capital for the rural households (Feyera, 2005; Demeke, 2019). In order to manage this, the peri-urban farming communities altered their livelihood from farm to non-farm activities and migrate towards cities in search of better employment opportunities that lead to change their household livelihood pattern slowly (Ravi, 2015). Thus, peri-urban farmers might manage and support their means of living by devising different survival or asset accumulation strategies (Tsega, 2014).

Generally, the non- farming strategies include all income-generating activities outside income derived from agriculture. It involves both self-employment and employment within the sector. Self-employment comprises of those households engaged in own trade, production and service activities such as petty commodity trade, local brew making, passenger ferrying, metal works and carpentry formal employment and daily labor among others (Feyera, 2005; Chembo, 2011).

However, there are various impediments in adoption of non-farm activities. Like human capital (lack of educated person), lack of technology, poor infrastructure, lack of adequate financial capital or credit and weak government’s institutions were among the barriers to livelihood strategies (Chembo, 2011).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **Description of the study area and methods for the study**

The aim of this study was to explore the experiences of people displaced by urban expansion programs focusing on Debre Berhan town. This chapter, therefore, presents description of the study area and research approaches used in conducting the study including research design, qualitative sampling technique, instruments of data collection and method of data analysis.

### **3.1 Description of the study area**

#### **3.1.1 Location**

The study was conducted in Debre Berhan town, which is one of the towns of Ethiopia that has seen rapid expansion. Debre Berhan town is located in the north Shewa Zone, Amhara Region, about 130 kilometers north east of Addis Ababa on the paved highway to Dessie town. It was an early capital of Ethiopia and afterwards, with Ankober and Angolalla, serving as capitals of the kingdom of Shewa at different periods (Bevan and Pankhurst, 1996). Currently, the town is serving as the seat of Northern Showa Zone Administration as well as seat of Bassona Worana Woreda (district) (Tyagi, Solomon and Sharma, 2014).

The latest population projection information obtained from Debre Berhan town Finance and Economic development office (2018) indicates that the population of the town is estimated to be 108,825 of which 409,208 were men and 59617 women. Between 1984 and 1994 population size of the town grew at the average rate of 4.12% per annum; however from 1994 to 2007 its rate declined to 4.01% per annum (Dagne, 2016). The total area of the town is 18081.95 hectare.

There are 9 urban and five sub-rural kebeles in the town. In these kebeles around 5651 households had their own land out of which 2063 of them have been displaced or lost their land due to urban development or expansion from January 2007- February 2011 E.C (Ethiopian calendar). This study was carried out in five sub-rural kebeles because the displaced people were from these kebeles.

### 3.1.2 Climate

Debre Berhan town is one of the coldest towns in Ethiopia found in sub tropical zone. Astronomically, the city is positioned at 9°41' North latitude and 39°40' East longitude and characterized by cool temperate climate. The annual average temperature of the city ranges between 6.5 °C in the coldest month (August) to 20.1 °C in the hottest month (April) (Soni, 2018). Average annual rainfall ranges between 814 to 1080 mm. Most of the built up areas of Debre Berhan City have an altitude of 2750 meter above mean sea level. Generally, the topography is classified as 86% flat, 10% sloppy and 4% mountainous (Tyagi, Solomon and Sharma, 2014).

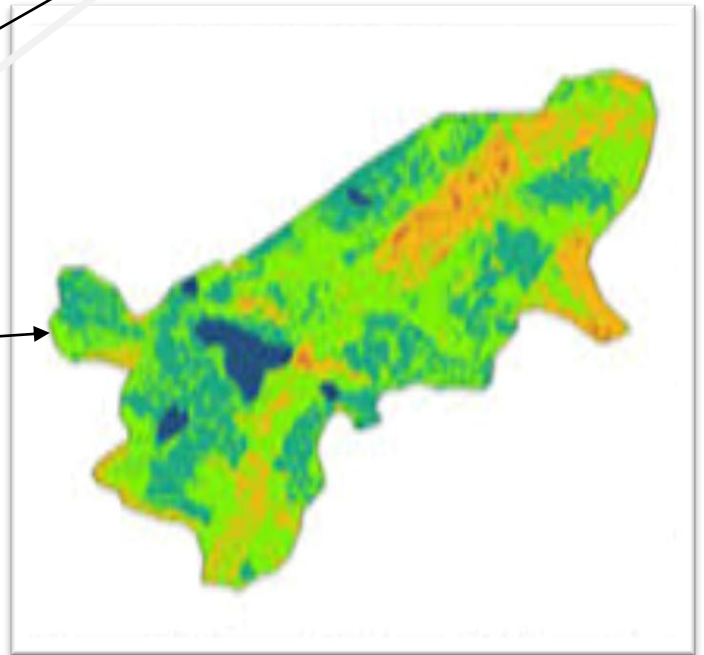
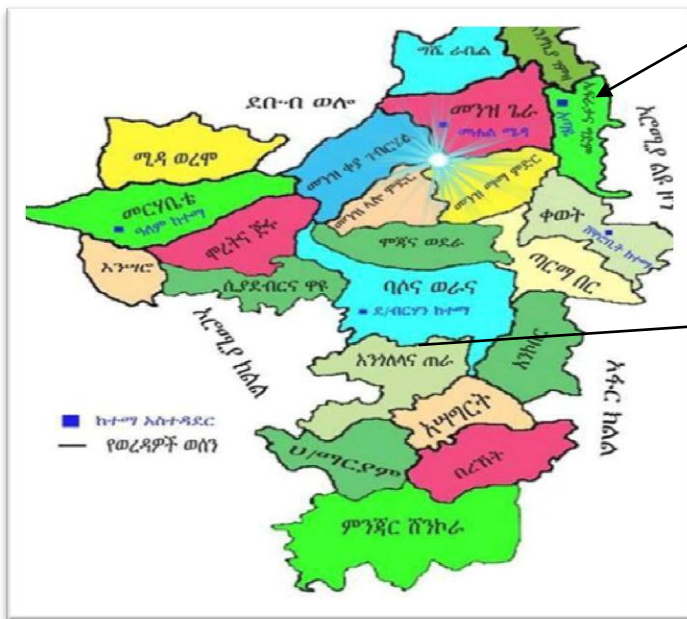
It has two main rainy seasons, namely *meher* which refers to the long rains, usually lasting from June to the beginning of September, and the *belg* season which refers to the short rains which usually falls between January and April. *Belg* production is very important in northern Shewa as a whole where frost is a common occurrence during the *meher* season. However, the *belg* season is highly unreliable characterized delay or failure of rains. In some years, it falls only for a few weeks and as a result the *belg* crop fails; in other years, the rains fall for a reasonable period of time (Bevan and Pankhurst, 1996).

### 3.1.3 Socio-economic aspects of the people

Agriculture is the main livelihood activity for the people living in the periphery of Debre Berhan town (Tyagi, Solomon and Sharma, 2014). They mainly use mixed farming, i.e. crop production with animal husbandry. The main crops grown include barley, various types of wheat, horse beans, peas, lentils, *gerima*, *temenj* and linseed. The main livestock are cattle, sheep and goats, and draught animals such as donkeys, horses and mules. The area is self-sufficient in crops and the soil is *lem* (fertile) and *lemtaf* (semi-fertile) (Bevan and Pankhurst, 1996).

Residents help each other during emergencies and the poorest people are often supported by relatively rich people. There have not been any ethnic compositions or conflicts in recent years, because the people have lived together for more than a century, so they have intermingled and respect each other. Amharic is the main language spoken but there are a large number of people who speak other language such as: Oromiffa (Bevan and Pankhurst, 1996).





**Key:** Map of Ethiopia  $\rightleftarrows$  Map of Amhara Region  $\rightleftarrows$  Map of North Shewa zone  $\rightleftarrows$  Map of Debre Berhan town

Source: Google Map

**Figure 3.1: Map of study area**

## **3.2 Methods of the study**

### **3.2.1 Study design**

For this study, the researcher used cross-sectional research design which is data was collected at one point in time from the study participants. The use of cross-sectional design was necessary to know displaced people's perceptions and experiences towards urban development-induced displacement and their effort to rebuild their lives in the new environment.

### **3.2.2 Research approach**

Considering the importance of identifying and exploring the experience, challenges, socio-economic and concerns of the displaced people, qualitative research method was used. Qualitative research is concerned with development of concepts which help us to understand social phenomena in natural (rather than experimental) settings, giving due emphasis to the meanings, experiences, and views of the participants. It is used to answer questions about experience, meaning and perspective (Hammarberg, Kirkma and Lacey, 2015). Furthermore, this method is preferable to explore social or human problem and to get a deeper understanding of the event or situation in question and to examine the patterns of meaning through looking closely at people's words action and records in natural setting (Newman, 1994). Due to this reason, the researcher used qualitative research approach to obtain deeper understanding of experiences of urban development-induced displaced people in Debre Berhan Town.

### **3.2.3 Sources of data**

In a bid to achieve the objectives of this study, both primary and secondary source of data were used. Primary data were collected to gather first-hand information so as to achieve the objectives of the research. This data were collected from informants who are displaced from their farm land to the new place and/or loss their land, community leaders and urban development agency officers. The reason is to get a very detail and first-hand information related to the overall experience of urban development-induced displaced rural households as well as the difference between the living conditions of displaced people as compared to their former living condition. Urban development agency officers were also taken part in this study as a source of data because

they implement the policy related to urban development and the researcher intended to get the background information behind this plan, implementation and impacts.

In an effort to make this research more valid and worthy secondary source related to the study was also consulted for gathering certain secondary information in order to consolidate the first-hand information. These include published and unpublished materials such as books, journals, magazines, internet, governmental and non-governmental records and archival documents from municipality of Debre Berhan town.

### **3.2.4 Participant selection criteria**

Participants were selected by using different criteria. The first and most important criteria were their willingness to participate in the study. The researcher had contacted relevant government stakeholders who were involved in the relocation program, submitted the cooperation letter and got the list of displaced people and their place of residence before starting the data collection. Community leaders were also contacted by asking communities living around the study area. This was important to identify and reach the study participants who fitted the criteria. Then the actual data collection was started based on the inclusion criteria determined at the beginning of the study. Participants were those persons who were displaced from their homes and those who lost their land as the result of urban development or/and expansion program. Here, both female and male participants were purposively included to account for gender differences in the experiences of DID.

Therefore, this research was conducted at Debre Berhan Town in the five sub- urban *kebeles*. There are 2063 displaced rural households who lost their land from 2007- February 2011 EC. According to urban development agency officers, displacing rural people displacement started in 1996 due to the establishment of industries and university but there was no organized file to record the number of displaced people back then. Therefore, data was available for 2007 - 2011 E.C. The qualitative sample was drawn from three categories of people: rural households who were displaced from their farm land, community leaders (*kebeles* and local leaders or executive committee members of *Iddirs*, *Ikub* and other informal associations) and governmental and nongovernmental representatives.

### **3.2.5 Sampling technique and sample Size**

In this study non-probability sampling techniques was used. From non-probability sampling technique, snow ball sampling technique was used to select displaced households. Snowball sampling can be useful in the investigation of sensitive topics like the living experiences of displaced households in the context of their livelihood and social bond situation. Thus, the researcher contacted some household head from the community based on suggestion from kebeles leaders and invited them to participate in the study and also to help recruit others to participate in the study because, most of displaced households did not identified living place because there had not common residential place. Since the aim of this study was to gain in-depth information about how the participants construct their livelihood and social bond and in what extent the government helps them in relation to being displaced from their farm land.

There were no fixed rules for sample size in qualitative research; because the main aim of qualitative research is to get rich information from concerned bodies. It means that, the size of the sample depends on what you try to find out, and from what different informants or perspectives you try to find out (Newman, 1994). Thus, the totals of 30 informants were interviewed in the IDI and FGD.

Purposive sampling technique was also used to select government officials and community leaders because they were considered as decision makers during displacing people.

### **3.2.6 Methods of data collection**

According to Endashaw (2016) it is clear that any research is based on data which can be gathered through different data collection tools; because, the quality of research finding is highly influenced by the reliability and efficiency of data gathering tools. Having this in mind, the researcher used the following data gathering methods: In-depth interview, focus-group discussion, observation and key-informant interview. Those data collection methods were facilitated by interview guides for FDG participants, IDI and KIIs.

### **3.2.6.1 In-depth interview (IDI)**

In-depth interviewing is perhaps the most common type of interview used in qualitative research (Dawson, 2002). This method of data collection is important to gather more explanations from respondents. Using in-depth interview is the best solution as a method, which offers the opportunity to acquire information directly from study population. A total of eighteen individuals have participated in the in-depth interview.

### **3.2.6.2 Focus-group discussion (FGD)**

Using focus-group discussion as a method enables the researcher to receive a wide range of responses during one meeting; participants can ask questions of each other, less impact of researcher bias, helps people to remember issues they might otherwise have forgotten, helps participants to overcome inhibitions, especially if they know other people in the group, the group effect is a useful resource in data analysis and participant interaction is useful to analyze (Dawson, 2002). It also helps to triangulate data gathered through other methods of data collection. In addition to this, it is important to see the issue in different angle. So, the researcher used this method of data collection by organizing household members who did not participate in the other data collection method. The groups were made-up of six members, so that it was easy to manage. Two FGDs (one with a male group and the other with a female group) were conducted among heads of displaced households.

### **3.2.6.3 Key-informant interview (KII)**

The researcher also used key-informant interview with people who had some official or less official position at the time of displacement. It enables the researcher to probe and gain detail information on the issue including from their experiences, motives, feeling and non verbal communication by asking questions carefully in order to enrich the study (Dawson, 2002). Two government officials, two community leaders and three kebeles leaders from five sub-kebeles were selected and interviewed.

### 3.2.7 Method of data analysis

Analysis in qualitative research is not an easy task. There are several generic processes that convey a sense of the overall activities of qualitative data analysis. It involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, representing the data, and making an interpretation of the larger meaning of the data (Creswell, 2003).

Qualitative data were collected through in-depth interview, key informant interview, and focus group discussion in Amharic. The data was translated and transcribed from Amharic to English. After translation the data was composed, organized and categorized thematically taking into account objectives of the study. An effort was made to maintain as much as possible the contents of the Amharic translation while translating into English. Finally, the data that was gathered through the above methods was analyzed thematically. The below Table 3.1 is the number of participants but this does not mean an attempt to quantify responses and make generalization based on it.

**Table 3.1 Summary of methods of data collection**

Method	Participants	Numbers of participants			Interview guide used
		Male	Female	Total	
IDIs	Displaced HHs	7	11	18	IDI
FGDs	Displaced HHs	6	6	12	FGD
KIIs	Government officials	2	-	2	KII
	<i>Kebele</i> leaders	3	-	3	KII
	Community leaders	2	-	2	KII
Total		20	17	37	

**Source:** Developed by the researcher

### **3.3. Justification of study site selection**

Debre Berhan is one of developing town in Amhara region and expanding rapidly into rural areas in different development projects such as: industries, hospitals, schools and residence purposes. Based on the preliminary observation of the researcher on the study area and personal communication with concerned government officials and residents; there are many rural households displaced in every year due to these development projects. In addition to this, there is no previous research on the experience of internal displaced households in the adjacent areas of Debre Berhan town. Furthermore, familiarity of the researcher to the study area was the main motivation to conduct this study. These rationalities enabled the researcher to address the intended objectives and grasp detail information about the experience of development induced displaced rural households living around Debre Berhan Town.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### Presentation and analysis of Data

This chapter presents the main findings of the study focusing on the experience of urban development-induced displaced households' who live in the periphery of Debre Berhan town. The findings are drawn from the data collected through in-depth interviews, FGDs and key informant interviews. The findings are organized in different thematic areas taking into account the objectives of the study.

#### 4.1. Description of socio-demographic characteristics of study participants

Eighteen participants were interviewed in order to collect necessary information for the study. Most of the participants are HH heads and others are sons and daughters of the community who gave their land for Debre Berhan town expansion. All of these participants were from five sub-urban *kebeles*, namely Tebase, Fage and Karafiya in kebele nine; Genet in *kebele* seven; Ataclit and Kango in *kebele* one; Zangira in *kebele* eight and Chole in *kebele* six. In addition, 12 informants participated in two FGDs: men and women FGDs.

Even though the participants vary in terms of their family size, age, socio-economic status, place of residence, they have similarity in cultural background and living conditions. Since the composition of the participants in the focus group discussion was highly diversified, different perspectives were reflected.

##### 4.1.1. Sex, age and place of residence

Age and sex structure are the important characteristics of a community because the household heads age and sex have their own impacts on their livelihood and social bond situation. For example, if the household heads are young and male, they have a chance to diversify their source of income and re-enhance their social bond. Due to this, both male and female household heads were involved in the interview for the purpose of the study.



Out of 30 informants 17 of them were females and the rest were males. This does not mean that there were more females than males in the community and the majority of them are headed by female members of the family, but men work in outdoor activities and hence they were unable to participate in the study.

The age of the study participants was between 20 and 62. However, most of them are between 33 and 50. Generally, it can be said that most participants were in the productive age group ranging from twenty to sixty years. This implies that most displaced households are still in their active and productive phase of life. Thus, the displacement program mainly affected the productive force of the community and this has negative effects on local production and their livelihood and social well-being.

#### **4.1.2. Marital status and household size of informants**

In one way or another, marital status affects the livelihood and social bond conditions of the society. For instance, married couples have a better opportunity to change and grow up their livelihood from farm to non-farm activity by working together and enhance their social capital. On the other hand, divorced or widowed household heads may have less ability to change their livelihood activity easily because almost all of the divorced or widowed household heads were females.

Out of 30 participants, 20 of them were married and lived with their partners. Moreover, three, five, and two individuals reported to be single, divorced and widowed respectively. This illustrates that, most displaced households are headed by both heads of the family, husband and wife. Thus, they have a chance to work two or more non- farm works.

The household size of the study sample ranged from a minimum of two family members to a maximum of twelve family members. The data collected from the participants' show that the household size, lays between four and six family members and it consists of fifteen individuals of the total study participants. Seven individuals had two to three family members, while the household size of five respondents had between seven to nine family members and the remaining three respondents had ten to twelve family members. This shows that most informants have a medium household size. This helps them to diversify their source of income and to have a

potential to pursue multi-livelihood activities. On the other hand, large household size has a profound impact on the livelihood of many people who have narrower income source condition.

#### **4.1.3. Educational status of informants**

The information gathered in relation to the educational status of the respondents revealed that, out of 30 research informants 17 of them were illiterate (could not read and write). They were illiterate and had never received any kind of basic education (informal or formal). On the other hand, 2 of them completed higher primary education (grades five and eight) and 3 of them completed secondary education (grade 10), while 5 of them had only lower primary education (grade one to four) and the remaining 3 participants said that they learned informal education so they could at least read and write. It was also noted that none of the research informants had received tertiary education. Hence, low educational level of the displaced household heads implies that they have low chances of getting off farm employment opportunities.

#### **4.1.4. Place of residence and occupation of participants before and after displaced from their farm land**

Farmers in the study area are mainly indigenous. Almost all of them were born and grow in the rural communities where they have access to land owned by families and communities, particularly in the 5 sub-rural *kebeles* in the study area i.e. they inherited their place of residence and farm-land from their ancestors and families.

Based on the information gathered from the participants, out of the total thirty participants 28 of them are engaged mainly in mixed farming, i.e. crop production with animal husbandry, activities before they were displaced from their farm land. They produce different types of crops, such as various types of wheat, beans, peas, lentils, gerima, temenj and linseed. After losing their farm land, there was a change in their occupation i.e. they are now specialized in animal husbandry (fattening oxen, dairy cows and sheep fattening) as a major source of income.

#### 4.1.5. Land Holding Size of Informants

The land holding size of the informants before they were displaced was 0.75-2.5 hectare or 3-10 *timad*<sup>1</sup> in local measurement i.e. each participant had a minimum of 3 *timad* and a maximum of 10 *timad*.

Out of 30 informants, 20 of them had more than 1.5 hectare or 4-6 *timad* while 3 and 7 informants had more than 2 hectare or 9-10 *timad* and less than 1 hectare or 3-4 *timad* respectively. After they were displaced 10 informants did not have farm land at all, 13 informants had 0.75-1 hectare and the remaining 7 informants had 0.25-0.5 hectare due to the extra land which is far from the town. In addition, all of informants own 500 m<sup>2</sup> (0.05 hectare) of land for residential purpose. With regards to land size and amount of compensation money, a total of 20480500 birr was paid for 136 *timad* of displaced land.

In terms of purposes of land, before displacement, households in the study area used their land for different purposes by classifying it into crop production, grass production, grazing land and forest plantation. Twenty four informants allocated more than half of their land for crop production and used some of their land for grass production and grazing due to lack of farm land. The remaining 6 informants allocated some of their land for forest plantation. Thus, vast sizes of households' farm lands were used for crop production. The second land size that was allocated by informants was grass production and grazing land compared to forest cultivation. One of the informants, a 62 years old man from kebele one illustrated in this way:

*“Before I lost my land I have more than 2.5 hectare (10 ጥግድ) of land and I used this by classifying for different purpose. I used around two hectares (7 ጥግድ) of my land for crop production, 0.5 hectares (2 timad) for grass production and grazing and the remaining 0.25 of the land used for forest plantation mostly for eucalyptus”.*

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<sup>1</sup> One hectare =4 *timad*

#### **4.1.6. Compensation**

As stated in the compensation proclamation No.455/2005, Article 7, that the government (a *Woreda* or an Urban administration) may expropriate private property for public purposes where it believes that it should be used for development project to be carried out by public entities, private investors, cooperatives, societies or other organs with payment of compensation. A land holder whose holding has been expropriated shall be entitled to payment of compensation for his property situated on the land and for permanent improvements he made to such land shall be equal to the value of capital and labor expended to the land. In addition, under Article 8 (1) of the Compensation Proclamation, a rural landholder whose land has been permanently expropriated (where substitute land is not available) shall be paid displacement compensation, in addition to compensation payable for property situated on the land and for permanent improvements made to such land, which shall be equivalent to ten times the average annual income he/she secured during the five years preceding expropriation of the land (MEFCC, 2017).

This indicates that the government develops rule and regulations to use compensation as an alternative tool to secure land for development in order to meet the needs of public services and other economic and social needs of the society either in financial form or as replacement land-to-land compensation.

As illustrated in the compensation proclamation No.455/2005, land-to-land compensation is considered where possible and provides for compensation of displaced persons for lost assets, as well as some assistance from the government. Land-to-land compensation is a priority where such course is a possibility.

Based on the above compensation proclamation, Debre Berhan town administration applies two compensation systems (land-to-land and land-to-cash). However, due to shortage of farm and grazing land, almost all of the households, displaced from their farm-land, got land-to-cash compensation and when they got land-to land compensation, it is far from their residence. The land-to-land compensation option was not given equally for all displaced households, i.e. the land-to-land compensation was given only for community leaders like kebele chair persons (ጊብረ) others got land-to-cash compensation. Thus, the data collected from in-depth interviews and FGD show that only two kebele chair-persons got half of their lost farm land in other rural

kebeles through land-to-land compensation system while twenty eight informants got cash-to-land compensation. Moreover, all of the informants received their compensation before they left their land. With regard to their satisfaction, out of thirty informants, 20 of them were satisfied and the remaining 10 of them were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied towards the compensation they received. The reason for their dissatisfaction was the determinations of the price for crop land, grazing land and forests were not clearly stated for them.

According to the key informants, the value of land is estimated based on the FDRE proclamation No.455/2005. So the process of estimating and calculating the amount of compensation is based on this formula: the total area of the land (in m<sup>2</sup>) × value of crop per kilogram × the amount of crop to be obtained before and after 5 years. The average amount of compensation paid for households was 55.45 and 67.36 Birr per m<sup>2</sup> in the year 2007-2009 and 2010/11EC respectively. However, the amount of compensation paid for each informant was different due to the variations of land size, amount of crop produced on the land, types of land and change of price in crops from time to time. The difference in estimating properties which situated on the expropriated land is another reason because the measurement of the expropriated land depends on experts which is subjective and differs from expert to expert.

Displaced households used compensation money to repair houses, purchase family furniture or invest in their livelihoods. Most informants plan to build houses with more rooms for rent before they did other livelihood activities. But due to delay of house plan, 17 informants did not build their house and 3 informants bought additional house for rent. Others used the compensation money to diversify their livelihood activity, such as to buy oxen for fattening, dairy cow, running petty trade and restaurant. Therefore, households that have vast landholding size earn much amount of compensation money and have a better ability to rebuild their livelihood as compared to households who had small land holding size.

#### **4.1.7 Informants level of involvement in the decision making process**

Communities affected by development projects should be able to actively participate in the urban expansion from planning to implementation so that negative impacts can be minimized. In addition, farmers displaced from their farm land have the right to know the positive and negative impacts of the project. As indicated in the Resettlement Action Plan (RAP) (2017):

*Decisions on resettlement will be based on the informed participation of all affected people, in the form of consultations and agreements reached between the affected people and the respective local and project authorities and also the land holders and/ or users will be informed through both formal notification in writing and by verbal notifications delivered in the presence of a Woreda and Kebele representatives and community leader/elders.*

But when we come to Debre Berhan, except Kebele representatives and community leaders, almost all of the informants displaced from their land were not aware about the urban expansion program. They were not informed either in writing or verbally. Accordingly, twenty eight of them did not receive any information before their displacement, while the remaining two of them were aware because they were kebele leaders of the two sub-rural kebeles. One of the informants', a 48 years old woman from kebele 6 states the situation like this:

*“We were not told anything about what was going to happen. We did not get correct information when, up to where and which type of our land they would take except rumors until they came and took the land. We were not also participating in any meeting when they made a decision about our land”.*

Hence, the involvement and awareness of the displaced households was minimal in the planning and implementation of the urban expansion program.

#### **4.1.8. Informants reaction towards displacement from their land**

The data collected from informants showed that the process of urban expansion brings some sort of tension for communities who are displaced from their land. Informants reacted when they heard about the urban expansion but they did not take any action. Out of thirty informants, 12 of them reacted and they were not willing to give up their land but urban expansion officers and kebele leaders warned them when they came to take the land so they were forced to accept the expansion program. Other 18 informants did not react because they knew that they had no choice without agreement based on the experience of other communities that were displaced before them. From FDG informants, one of the informants, a 45 years old man from kebele nine explain in this way;

*“Actually, we had to worry when we heard for the first time about the expansion program because land is everything for us but we have no choice without agreement because the land is a government as stated in law. So, we were forced to give our land for urban expansion without any doubt”.*

## **4.2. Benefits for displaced households from urban development**

Various scholars (Firew Bekele, 2010, Ahlam Yimam, 2017 and others) noted that urban expansion has a great negative impact on the socio-economic situations of households living in the periphery; for example, on the households livelihood strategy. However, urban expansion has not totally negative impacts on the lives of displaced households rather it has also some sort of positive effects on the living situations of sub-rural households by providing mainly access to physical capital (like road, electricity, school among other) compared to other rural communities living in remote areas because it helps them to get better goods and service easily; for instance, fertilizer. Physical capital refers to *“the basic infrastructure and producer goods needed by people to support their livelihoods”* (Ermias, 2009).

When we come to the study area: road, electricity, potable water, health institutions, and schools are the most important physical capitals to support and improve the living situations of the society. These physical capitals could also help the community to do additional income generation activities.

As informants and urban officials stated, road, potable water, electricity, and schools are present in all the sub-rural kebeles while health institutions are not available due to the implementation problems of the urban expansion. However, there was a variation in infrastructure from community to community and accessibility of these resources before and after displacement. It means, some of the communities (sub- kebele nine and eight) had access to road before they were displaced. Other infrastructures like school, electricity and potable water were available after displacement of communities. There was only one sub-kebele having access to health institution from the five rural sub-kebeles. The remaining four sub-kebeles do not have access to health institution but the urban officials promised to the community to construct as soon as possible. Road, potable water and electricity have become accessible infrastructures due to the expansion of the town. Out of thirty informants, seven of them acknowledged that some of the

infrastructures like water and road have been constructed due to the establishments of factories. One of the FGD informants a 55 years old man from kebele six commented as:

*“Thanks to Dashin beer factory, we have clean drinking water for our own and our cattle”.*

The development of infrastructures in the area also improves the accessibility of bigger markets for local produce; especially a good road network widens the market access to sell local products. For instance, dairy farmers could sell their milk and other dairy products to urban dwellers. One of the informants, a 33 years old man, from kebele seven expressed as:

*“My house is near to the main road and this helps me to get taxi (Bajaj) to distribute the milk to urban dwellers easily”.*

Although the establishments of factories (Dashin and Habesha beer, Plastic factory) provide non-farm job opportunity for households who live nearby, due to lack of educational skill household in the study area were involved in the low income jobs like security guard. One of the FGD informants, a 45 years old woman, from kebele nine stated as:

*“The establishment of beer factories has benefits for us. For example my husband got a security guard job from the factory. I also open a small restaurant and sell tea, coffee, food and local bread for residential house contractors and daily labors. This helps us to get additional income for our family”.*

In addition, the establishment of Chibud factory has also a great benefit for households by providing fire wood for their daily consumption.

Generally, displaced households have a better access to infrastructure after they were displaced from their land as compared to their previous location before displacement. Thus, the expansion and development of the town contributed to improve the socio-economic capitals of the displaced community and the access of these physical resources could help the community to meet their basic needs and become more productive by selling their local products to urban dwellers.



### **4.3. Negative impacts of displacement**

The above discussion focused on the positive effects of urban expansion experienced by the community living in the urban periphery. However, in contrast to the above positive effects, some respondents stated that urban expansion has also adverse impacts on the socio-economic situations of the community living in the periphery. The conversion of rural land into urban settlement reduces the amount of land available for agricultural activities resulting in reductions of crop production, livestock production and forest plantation.

#### **4.3.1 Loss of farmland and reductions of crop production**

Rapid population increase and expansion of urban infrastructure require huge hectares of land from the surrounding rural community. The implementation of this plan covered five sub-rural kebeles which become under the town administration and this was done by expropriating farm lands and forests. It means land that was previously used for agricultural purposes was converted to urban use for various construction activities. For this reason, many households living in the periphery lost substantial size of agricultural land for the purpose of urban dwellers residence, factories and health infrastructures such as hospital and clinics.

Out of the thirty informants, seventeen of them lost their land to urban residence while ten respondents lost their land due to factories and the remaining three of them lost their farm land for hospital construction.

Data obtained from informants show that in Debre Berhan town administration each household has two types land: residential and agricultural land. All of the households had more than two hectares of farm and more than 0.75 hectares of residential land before the expansions of the town. But after expansion, ten informants lost their entire farm land and some residential land. Now, they have only half hectare ( $500 \text{ m}^2/0.05 \text{ hectare}$ ) of land that they use to build their house/residence. Although, there was variation in the size land lost by informants to urban expansion, now most of them have the same size of land. Households that lost their land due to urban expansion had drastically reduced their land holding size and productivity. Thus, they no longer produce even for their consumption because farm activities and their outputs are very dependent on the availability and size of farmland.

This indicates the impacts of urban expansion on the crop productions of the households. For instance, data collected from informants indicates that most of them were able to produce 30-50 quintals of crop annually. However, after they lost their farmland, 10 of them were not able to produce at all (they lost all of their land except for residence), 13 of them produced 10-15 quintals, and 7 produced less than 5-10 quintals because they have extra farm land far from the town. Households are no longer able to transfer land for their children. One of the FGD participants, a 50 years old man, from kebele seven states that:

*“Before we lost our land due to urban community’s residence purpose we produce too much crop including what we sell for urban people. For instance, I used to produce at least thirty to fifty quintals of crops per year. This meant that the product was more than enough for my family’s annual food consumption and selling for others. However after I lost my farm land I buy various food cereals for my family food consumption [ሸሮ ለህል [ጥራጥሬ] ለጎኳን ሳይቀር ለገዛለሁ]. What I am now confused is what types of work is better for me and my family so that I can take care of my children before we finish the compensation we received”.*

As informants said, households produce crops in rainy (summer) season. Sometimes, they produce two times per year if the Belg rain started raining in the early February and March but which is not common due to delay of Belg rain.

### **4.3.2 Reductions of livestock and forest land**

Livestock rearing plays a crucial role in supporting the livelihoods of rural communities as they can be easily sold to generate cash income for households. In the study area, livestock rearing is common for all households and almost all of them were rearing livestock as an additional source of income before and after they were displaced. Common animals reared in the study area include oxen, cows, sheep, chickens, horses, mules and donkeys. These animals are used for various purposes including farming activity, beef production, milk production and transportation.

However, informants said that, after they lost their agricultural land there has been a decline in the numbers of animals. For instance, before they lost their land 18 informants had 2-3 oxen for farm activity such as ploughing, 5-7 oxen for fattening and 2-4 cows for milk production. In addition, 23 informants had some sheep, chicken, donkeys, horses and mules as additional source

of income. However, after they lost their agricultural land, there is a reduction on their livestock production.

Mostly, households reduce oxen that are used for farm activity due to reduction of farming activity and number of horses, donkeys and mules are reduced because of shortage of grazing land and especially households that lost their entire farm land sold the above livestock immediately. According to the informants, livestock production especially donkeys, horses and mules without grazing land is unthinkable because these animals need more grazing land as compared to other animals. The main reason for reduction of livestock production was not only reductions of grazing land but also the reductions of crop production is the main reason as livestock feed become limited because of shortage of crop production i.e. crop production and livestock production have direct relation.

In the case of forest cover, there was a reduction of forest land. The first reason for this was that most of the time households used mountainous lands for forest plantation. The other reason was that, most of the household's forest lands were far from the town. Thus, informants who have forest land didn't lose their forest land. This shows that, in the study area urban expansion had not that much impact on the cultivation area.

### **4.3.3 Loss of employment in agriculture**

Loss of agricultural land is also directly related to loss of employment in agricultural sector. Rural communities are engaged in agriculture and they have less chance to get other job opportunities due to lack of educational skill and service sector jobs in the periphery. In section 4.1, within five sub-urban *kebeles*, more than 5651 households had their own farm land and depended on agriculture-based activities. However, due to rapid expansions of the town employment opportunities in the agricultural sectors sharply declined. According to the informants, before they lost their land, most family members had their own farming job based but after they lost their land some family members' become jobless. Therefore, urban expansion and restrictions on farm land use can have adverse impacts on communities and persons that use this land.

#### **4.4 Livelihood strategies of displaced households**

In this section, different livelihood strategies undertaken by displaced household before and after displacement from their farm land are discussed. Livelihood strategies are economic activities that people are engaged to generate income for living. Most farmers in pre-urban expansion were dependent on agriculture (crop production), mixed agriculture activity (crop production with animal husbandry) and non-agriculture activity as their main source of income. Animal husbandry is an additional source for the support of their family's income. As illustrated from the informants, households in the study area were engaged in a number of livelihood activities and it had some changes in their livelihood activity before and after they lost their farm land.

As noted earlier, the main livelihood activity, doing before displacement, was farming which includes crop production, livestock rearing and cultivation of trees. They were also engaged in non-agricultural activities like local alcohol making.

#### 4.4.1.1 Agriculture based livelihood activities



***Figure 4.3: Agricultural-based activities in the study area***

Agriculture is essential for inclusive development because, it produces food as well as economic wealth for many of the world’s poorest (sustainable development solutions network, 2013). In Debre Berhan area agricultural activities include subsistence agriculture in which crops are produced and animals are raised for own consumption and agricultural enterprise in which crops are produced and animals are raised for commercial sale.

The data collected from the informants revealed that before displacement all informants fulfilled their food and other basic need requirements like family clothing and household equipments from their own farm production. On average, most households got 30-50 quintals from all types of crops. Nevertheless, there was a significant variability in terms of amount they produce due to the variability of their land holding size and fertility of the soil.

According to the informants, the dominant cereals harvested in the study area include wheat, barley, beans, peas, lentils, temenj and linseed. The second set of cereal grown by households was gerima for the purpose of cattle food. Compared to other types of cereals, teff was the least crop grown in the study area for the purpose supplementing the staple diet and selling for income. Besides, production of animal feed mostly strive grass and also another source of income for the informants to feed their livestock and also to sell to the market.

The other livelihood activity undertaken by displaced households was livestock husbandry for different purpose, and it is a supplementary livelihood activity. These include oxen, cows, donkeys, horses, mules, sheep and poultry. Oxen and cows were the dominant animals reared by informants; sheep and chicken were found to be the second livestock of choices among the study households and horses, mules and donkeys were the least animals reared by households due to their limited purpose. Ten informants pursue animal fattening like oxen, cows and sheep for commercial purpose, twelve of them are engaged in mixed animal rearing system i.e. they undertake fattening cattle, rearing dairy cows, sheep fattening and poultry and the remaining others (eight respondents) rear animals for their farming (oxen) and home consumptions which includes dairy cows, sheep and chickens for the households food. Furthermore all of the informants rear either donkeys and horses or donkeys and mules for transportation purpose only. Mostly, in the study area, households rear donkeys and horses rather than mules because mules do not have equal purpose with donkeys and horses. Muck or dry cow dung was another additional source of income in the study area which is made from animal waste. Household made animal waste in to dry cow dung and sell it for urban dwellers in addition to their consumption.

Thus, the data indicate that agriculture contributes most of the total household income before they were displaced. Generally, it is the main and dominant component of livelihood activity for displaced households in the study area.

#### **4.4.1.2 Non-agriculture based livelihood activities**

Households had less need and chance to do non-agricultural activities especially for men before displacement, i.e. women have better chance to do non-agricultural activities as additional source of income for their family. Local alcohol making was one of the non-agriculture activities undertaken by women. They make 15-20 liters of local alcohol (Arequi) in two weeks and sell it in the market. Thirteen informants were engaged in local alcohol making activity.

#### **4.4.2 Households' livelihood strategy after displacement**

Following displacement, farmers had shifted to the urban economy. Displaced households are employed in different livelihood strategies to cope with the changes in their livelihoods and almost all of them diversified their livelihood strategies compared to the previous period where crop production was the main source of income with not/little engagement in non-agricultural activities there has been a transition from farm-based strategy to the non-farm-based strategy. Cattle fattening, rearing dairy cows, renting houses and local alcohol making are the main economic activities for displaced households after they lost their farm land. However, that does not mean that preference in one activity excludes from engaging in other activities.

##### **4.4.2.1. Agricultural-based livelihood strategies**

Agriculture still remains a number one activity for most displaced households particularly for households still having small farming land and which located a bit far from the town. Households that lost all of their farmland are also still engaged in agricultural based activities by renting and crop sharing farmlands from other households who reside far from the town. However, displaced households who lost their entire land have become engaged in other farm related activities like fattening cattle and rearing dairy cows. Seventeen informants are engaged in cattle fattening especially oxen and sometimes sheep, rearing dairy cows and produce crops as the main sources of livelihood. The remaining nine informants are practising crop production and rearing dairy cows as the main source of income and others four of them were totally departed from agriculture and pursued non-agricultural activity. Almost all of respondents rear chickens as an additional source of income.

#### **4.4.2.2 Non-agricultural based strategies**

Although data collected from respondents and key informants show that the majority of displaced households still depend on agriculture, they are also involved in non-agricultural activities as additional source of income including renting house, local alcohol making, running petty trade and restaurant.

##### **Renting house**

Building better and comfortable houses and renting for low income urban dwellers is a non-agricultural livelihood activity for households in the study area. Informants indicated that building a big house is a symbol of wealth in the community. Besides, as a symbol of wealth it provides income through rent and space for establishing small business. Most displaced households used more than half of the compensation money to rebuild their houses with more rooms for rent.

##### **Local alcohol making**

Most of the women and girls are increasingly involved in local alcohol making. Thus, almost all female informants are engaged in alcohol making activity. This indicates that local alcohol making is the work of females in the study area. The common alcohol making in the study area is distilling areqi and tella-(local beer).

Women used to practice areqi making before they were displaced and lost their farm land. They have also continued after displacement as the main source of income with some changes. The main changes were in the amount of liters making per month i.e. previously, they used to produce 15-20 liters of alcohol (Areqi) at once. Now, they have increased production to (20-25) liters per week. In addition, they have also started making local beer (tella) and are both retailing in their residential house. From 17 female informants, eight female informants are engaged in areqi production. Saturdays and Wednesdays are often used to retail areqi for consumers. These informants use areqi as secondary source of income. Six informants are engaged in areqi and tella production as a primary source of income. These are female headed informants who are main bread winner for the household.



## **Petty trade and restaurant**

Starting petty trade and mini-restaurant were the other livelihood strategies for displaced households in the study area. 7 informants have started local petty trade or restaurant (shiro bet) as an additional livelihood strategy. Daily laborers who work in the construction in the area are main customers. The common foods prepared are Injera with shiro, local bread (Ambasha) with tea and coffee and local alcoholic drinks.

Furthermore, with the emergence of new factories in the area, opportunities for formal employment have increased. Such an increase would benefit the locals in the area but there is less chance to get the opportunity, even if they get they employed in low paying jobs like security guard. Three informants are employed in factories as security guards and two are employed in governmental jobs as kebele chairperson (ጊ.ቀ\_ሙንቦር). This has given them the opportunity to supplement their families' income.

Some displaced households bought cars and got additional income either by driving them or giving them for contract like Bajaj and mini-bus depending on their amount of compensation money. Five respondents bought Bajaj and mini-buses; three of them were bought Bajaj and two of them were bought mini-bus. Three of them Bajaj and 2 of them are mini-bus. Some displaced households earn income by renting their farm land to other farmers and they share crops or receive land rent.

Most of the displaced households' have more or less similar livelihood activity. Differences are influenced by their previous livelihood experiences, availability of natural resource (land) and the ability to work multiple activities. One of FGD participant, a 37 years old man, revealed that;

*“As you know, currently a single source of livelihood is not sufficient. Due to this we are engaged in multiple livelihood activities. For example, in my family we produce some crops for our food consumption by renting farm land in the rainy season, in winter season engaged in fattening cattle for meat production and rear cows and sell milk for urban dwellers. In addition I work in Habesha beer factory as a security guard in night time and my wife also makes local alcohol and sells it in the market”.*

Although, loss of farm land may have a considerable effect on the choice of households' livelihood strategy, losing farm land while staying in the same residence helps them diversify their livelihood strategy easily. Thus, it can be concluded that diversifying livelihood strategies and practicing two or more livelihood activities were the main coping mechanisms for displaced households.

#### **4.4.3 Factors affecting choice of livelihood activities**

Low level of education, health and gender differences are among the barriers for households' livelihood diversification strategy choices. It means that male, healthy and literate household heads would have a better chance to choose and practice multiple livelihood strategies either in agriculture or non-agriculture activities. Literate households have the ability to get formal employment in various factories and better knowledge in how to manage and practice different livelihood activities than illiterate household heads. High level of education contributes a key role in livelihood construction and income generation. Thus, families with relatively a better education have better chances of attaining better life than those with low educational level.

Good health is an important factor in the pursuit of a particular livelihoods activity. Health is both human capital on its own and supports production of other types of human capital (Bleakley, 2010). It means a person with a good health has the ability to do livelihood activities and a better life. In the study area there are some household heads with health problems and often live in poverty. As informants stated, lack of good health and displacement from farm land affects their livelihood.

Men have a far better chance of practicing multiple livelihood activities compared to women both in agriculture and non-agriculture activities because people in Ethiopia in general Debre Berhan in particular. They believe that most activities which are outside home are worked by only men. Thus, women work various activities which have low payment for many hours inside the house like child rearing, alcohol making, and preparing food among others. Generally, a woman in search of outside homework strategies is not traditionally accepted, and most do not see it in a positive way.

Lack of training is also one of the barriers to livelihood diversification. As stated earlier, most households did not receive any formal training before and after their land had been taken. Informants indicate that, lack of training on how to use the compensation money is a common problem that affects displaced household heads that had problem of proper utilization. Some households finished the compensation money without investing in income generation activity. Thus, they are now in a serious financial problem.

Restrictions on residential house plan are the other major determinant factors in diversifying livelihood strategies. Informants state that Debre Berhan town administration officers restrict households to build new houses neither for residence nor rent until they get the house plan. Most displaced households could not have the plan on time due to weak policy implementation.

Therefore, their plan to build a house and earn rental income is delayed. They also pay some amount of tax even after displacement and this is a result of bad policy implementation. One of the FDG participants, a 49 years old woman, from kebele nine states that,

*“We have paid the same tax before and after losing our land. This is unfair and has an additional impact on us. We tried to ask again and again to get the exact plan and pay for it only but Debre Berhan town administration officers didn’t give correct response. They said ‘wait for some month’”.*

#### **4.5 The social bond situations of farm-land displaced households**

Many studies (Sundblad and Sapp 2011, Theodori, 2004) have shown that displacement results not just in asset and job losses but also in the breakdown of/and loss of food security, social capital, local friendship ties and community attachment, cultural identity and heritage. Social problems arising from involuntary displacement include weakening of community structures and social networks, dispersal of family groups, loss of cultural identity, diminution of traditional authority and weakening of mutual help. Because, social bond can be developed through networks and connectedness between people it can 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 (Ermias, 2009). When residents participate more in community organizations and activities, and sense a higher degree of neighboring, they generally are more attached to the communities in which they live (cited from Tien, 2015).

Therefore, any changes in source and level of income and residential place have impacts on social bond situations of the community. Change of households' social network due to change of residence is a factor. However, no one was displaced from the previous residential places due to the land eviction which resulted from Debre Berhan town expansion/and development i.e. almost all affected households lost their farm land only. No change of residence was observed and hence limited impact on social bond and relationship situation of displaced households. But it does not mean that displacement of households from their farm land did not have an impact on their social bond situations. FGD participants indicated that displacement from farm land affects social bond and community relationship situations indirectly rather than directly in their informal social associations.

#### **4.5.1 The impact of land displacement on traditional social associations, trust and reciprocity**

Various indigenous associations are found in the study area. These are work-based associations (*Wonfel*<sup>2</sup>), religious-based associations (*Senbete*<sup>3</sup> or *Mehiber*) and traditional saving associations (*Iqub and Idir*).

Loss of agricultural land without residential displacement has helped households to maintain their old social associations. Almost all displaced households exercise all these local social associations before and after displacement. For instance, there was not any change in regards of traditional saving associations i.e. *Idir and Iqub*.

However, there was somehow reduction in the involvements of these social associations especially in work-based associations (*Wonfel*) because of loss of farm land. The main reason for this was that after they were displaced, households prefer to work with their family members only due to small size farm land or they do not have land at all to work on together. The other reason was that they are now engaged in non-agricultural activities that do not require additional labor.

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<sup>2</sup>*Senbete* or *mehaber*: is a religious based association by the followers of Ethiopian Orthodox Tewahdo church in which members contribute food and drinks for the occasion.

<sup>3</sup>Wonfel: is a traditional association in which rural peoples accomplish their activities through rotation

There was also some sort of reduction in the involvements of religious associations (*Senbete or Mahaber*) after being displaced. Before displacement a given household could involve in two or more *Senbetes or Mahabers*, but after displacement most households reduced their participation in *Senbetes or Mahabers*. As mentioned by informants, the main reason for this reduction was that shortages of time and reductions of crop production i.e. *Senbete or Mehaber* consumes more time and crop to prepare foods and drinks like *injera*, local bread (ጽፎ-ዳቦ), *tella* and *areqi*. After displacement, majorities of households engaged in multi-livelihood activities to improve income. Due to this, they lack extra time to participate in different social matters with their neighborhoods.

Informants were asked the impacts of losing agricultural land on level of trust and reciprocity among neighbors and other communities. They indicated that farm land displacement affected negatively their level of trust and reciprocity among neighbors and other communities. For instance, before they were displaced they used to borrow and lend money and other necessities but after displacement there is low social support due to low level of trust. One of the informants, a 36 years old woman, from *kebele* 8 explained the situation in this way;

*“Before we lost our farm land we trust each other we borrowed and lent money, crop and other materials but now there are only few persons that lend money for other person. After we got the compensation money we became cruel with each other. Money breaks our trust. In addition, for example when there is a wedding ceremony in our neighbors we just go to that house for help without being asked for help and we take as like our business. However, the situation is changed now. If there is someone’s wedding or other ceremony and if that person needs our help, he/she must ask each of us otherwise we are not going to helping him/her”.*

Generally, the social life of displaced households has somehow changed. One of the FDG informants, a 51 years old woman, from *kebele* seven summarize in this way;

*“Before we lost our farm land, our social life was better than it is now, when someone is in trouble or sick, everyone was helping to get that person out of the way. But in the present, everyone's self-reliance is history”.*

#### **4.6. Informants perception of life after displacement**

Informants were asked about their perceptions on the situations of their life after displacement. Out of 30 informants, 8 of them said that displacement from land has not that much changed their life positively or negatively, 14 informants believed that their life situation is better than the previous. They stated that actually they cannot compare the value of land with money because land is a more permanent asset than money; however, the expansion of the town enhances them to diversify their livelihood activity. For example, it helps to build better houses for them and rent. In addition, they could get clean drinking water, road, electricity and other infrastructural services. The remaining 6 informants believe that their previous life was better than now because of the factors that affect their choice of livelihood activity.

When we come to the perceptions of the key-informants, they said that the expansion program does not that much affect negatively the displaced people rather it slightly improves the living standards of displaced people because government paid enough compensation for their loss. Therefore, the living standards of the displaced households have improved after displacement.

#### **4.7. Assistance provided by government and non-governmental organizations to rebuild displaced rural households**

The WB policy on displacement and resettlement emphasizes that “rehabilitation and compensation option must provide a fair replacement value for assets lost and the necessary means to restore subsistence and income, to restore social networks and compensate for transitional hardship”. Ploeg and Vanclay (2017) state that urban officers and livelihood restoration programmers must become more strongly focused on livelihood adjustments and long term support to displaced households and communities in helping them to diversify and adapt their livelihood strategies to the new situation because may need to learn new skills and other types of income activities. Development actors both governmental and non-governmental bodies play a crucial role to rebuild displaced households’ livelihood because their livelihoods have changed due to displacement from their farm land. However, when we see the realities of Debre Berhan town displacement program, there was a little effort to give support to rebuild the livelihoods of displaced households. In some instances, non-governmental bodies especially factory owners give a better support than government bodies. For instance, Dashin beer factory

supports the displaced community by providing clean drinking water. Other factory owners also tried to support the displaced communities in different ways like creating job though it is limited, giving fire wood for their daily fuel wood consumption. Although the efforts being exerted by the factory owners are encouraging, it does not meet the needs of the displaced households.

Informants indicated that urban officials promised many benefits in addition to compensation including residential house, trainings focusing on how to utilize compensation money and service sector job opportunity. However, none of the promises save compensation was practical. This affects their life in many ways especially in their economy. For instance, due to lack of efficient money utilization some households consumed the compensation money rather than investing in future livelihood activities.

Urban development officers said that there was a preparation to provide capacity building training but at the time of data collection it was not implemented. It means that, they wrote for report purpose without any action. This shows the gaps in the implementation of the policies. Thus, urban development officers try to empower the displaced households by providing capacity building trainings in different aspects like how to utilize and save their money. Furthermore, respondents argued that they should not be evicted from their agricultural based activities. So, they need to know modern and more productive agricultural production techniques because most of them practice their livelihood strategies in traditional way.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## Conclusion and Recommendations

### 5.1 Conclusions

The ultimate goal of this study was to explore the experience of rural households affected by urban development-induced displacement focusing on Debre Berhan Town. Urban redevelopment and expansion in Ethiopia is not only necessary but also an unavoidable activity due to the rapid rate of urban growth, emerging socio-economic needs, sharp shortage of shelter and rapid expansion of slums (Belachew, 2013). Debre Berhan Town is expanding rapidly towards rural *kebeles*. The town has become an industrial and a residential center. This is made possible through land eviction and displacement from farmland and residence. Therefore, this has had both positive and negative effects on the livelihood and social bond situations of the farming community who were affected by the expansion program.

Most of the informants had 0.25-2.5 hectares of farmland before displacement. Their land was reduced to 0.25-0.5 hectares after displacement due to the fact that some of them have additional farmland which is located away from the town boundary. In addition, after displacement they have common 0.05 hectares of residential land. This shows that they lost a considerable size of land due to displacement and some lost more land than others.

Debre Berhan Town expansion programs were not participatory because almost all of them were not aware about the program until they lost their farmland. This indicates that the involvement of displaced communities in planning and implementation process was negligible. Although all of them were not aware about the expansion program and did not decide on the benefits they received, they did not react to the expansion program and take bad action. According to Scudder (2005) a successful displacement and resettlement has four stages: recruitment, transition, potential development and handling over or incorporation. The study found that from these four stages, stage one and three are applicable. The displaced households did not involve in the planning of expansion program and even though they were not satisfied with the compensation they received, they tried to rebuild their economic activity with the compensation they received. On the other hand, this finding is inconsistent with the second stage (transition) of the model



which states that people can be aware about the future displacement to pave the way for development. Government ownership of land was an issue that displaced households could not contest.

### **Positive and negative impacts**

As stated in the review literature proximity to urban centers has its own positive impact on the lives of communities because the ability to get basic infrastructure is high. Similarly, this study found that, most of the basic infrastructures like road, health, tap water, power and education were fully existed due the proximity and developments of the town. The existence of these infrastructures helps the household to diversify their source of income. In addition, as discussed in the literature review, urban centers create employment opportunities through the development of small and micro enterprises and cooperatives. In line with this, the establishments of factories have also additional benefits for displaced households in providing non-farm job opportunities. Therefore, urban expansion and development into the periphery has a positive impact on the physical capitals of the community.

On the other hand, the expansion of the town has also a significant negative impact on the natural, human and financial capitals of the displaced households. In this study, natural capital includes farming, grazing and forest land; financial capital includes livestock productions and human capital includes employment. According to Daylong (2004), in developing countries in between 2000 and 2020, a total of approximately 10 million hectares of rural farmlands would be converted to urban land use. As a result, huge number of farmers (farm families) will be displaced from their farmland and becoming vulnerable and food insecure. Likewise, almost all of the informants had access to different types of lands before the expansions of the town but after the expansion they lost the majorities of their farming and grazing land. Besides, most of them who have forest land did not lose their forest land.

Cernea's IRR model asserts that displacement leads to loss of employment, landlessness, violation of human right and financial capital. In a similar vein, the study found that households lost their main source of income which is agricultural land. Thus, the ability to produce significant amount of crops is changed to produce some amount of crops or stop producing at all.

Loss of agricultural land has also negative effects on the job opportunities of household in agricultural based activities. Furthermore, the number of livestock production especially that is used for farming activities by households decreased after displacement. This reduces the financial capitals of the household. Other risks stated in the Cernea's model such as homelessness, lack of shelter, food insecurity, increased morbidity and mortality and marginalization are not suffered by those who are actually displaced households.

### **Livelihood strategies**

As discussed in literature review, pre-urban households might manage and support their means of living by undertaking different survival strategies. Similarly, to sustain their future livelihood displaced households employed different livelihood strategies before and after displacement. These livelihood strategies were agricultural and non-agricultural based activities. Before displacement, agricultural based activities especially farming were the main stay of the households' income and households had less engagement in non-agricultural based activities but after displacement which is employed in addition to non-agricultural activities. Before they lost their farm land, most households pursued farming as the main source of income and employed animal fattening, dairy cow, sheep fattening and rearing other animals for additional source of income and they engaged in some livelihood activities. They also had less preference in non-agricultural based activities.

The ability to be engaged in non-agricultural based activities and pursue many livelihood activities were better after displacement because of the access to get compensation money helps displaced households to rebuild their livelihood. Cernea's (2004) IRR model strengthen that to mitigate the impacts of displacement policy makers accomplished through focused strategies and back up by commensurate financing.

Diversifying and practicing more than two livelihood activity was the main coping mechanism for displaced households. The study suggests that the households' ability to diversify their livelihood activities vary due to the variations of the amount compensation money, their previous experience and managing skill. In addition, low level of educational skill, lack of capacity

building skill training in how to utilize and save money, health, gender differences and Problem of residential house plan are factors that affect households' livelihood diversification strategy choices.

### **Social bond**

Loss of farmland without displacement from previous residence limits the impact of social bond situation, but it indirectly affects the displaced households traditional associations, trust and reciprocity. Cernea's (2004) IRR model strengthens that displacement leads to loss of reciprocity within existing groups who lost their ability to act effectively in a new life.

With regards to the perceptions of the informants on the urban expansion and their life after displacement, most of them state that urban expansion has some positive impacts on the infrastructural facilities but there is lack of such facilities especially health institution. However, it does not mean that urban expansion has not negative impact at all. Even though it has a negative impact on the displaced households' sources of income, the living standards of the informants have some sort of improvement after displacement due to the proximity of the town.

### **Assistance provided by governmental and non-governmental organizations**

According to egalitarian model, displaced people must have a share from the benefits of the developed project. In addition, development must be for all and should not affect a particular group or community. One of the measures which can resolve the impacts of displacement is fair and just compensation. In line to this, the town rural land administration paid compensation for all displaced households but it was not fair compared to the value of the land. Urban agricultural office experts developed various integrated agricultural and non-agricultural development packages to rehabilitate the displaced households' livelihood; however, due to minimal consideration for the impact of farmland it has not so far implement at the ground and it is on the shelf. On the other hand, non-governmental bodies like factory owner provide better consideration and support for the displaced households as compared to governmental institutions. The study suggests that strong and reliable governmental and non-governmental institutions were playing a vital role in rebuilding the livelihoods of displaced households.

## 5.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following suggestions that can serve as impetus in rebuilding livelihood assets of displaced households have been forwarded:

- The urban expansion program implementation system trend show that communities that are affected by the urban expansion were not consulted and involved in the planning and implementation. They were not also aware about the process and its benefits until they were displaced. Therefore, to reduce the negative impacts of displacement and ensure sustainability of the program, government bodies must give priority for participating and crating awareness farming communities in the forgoing programs and decision making.
- Due to the need of urban dwellers residential and industrial land, the potential for displaced farmer is highly intensified time to time. In order to reduce the number of displaced farmers, the concerned bodies should design inclusive development and building condominium houses.
- The urban municipal and government office experts should give consideration and implement the inclusive development packages.
- The concerned bodies should also exert their effort to fill institutional gaps, provide capacity building trainings and create alternative means of livelihood.

Generally, all governmental and non-governmental bodies can play their part in rebuilding sustainable and improved livelihood for displaced households by filling their major institutional gaps and give high consideration to them.