COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
CENTER FOR FOOD SECURITY STUDIES

FOOD SECURITY AND LIVELIHOODS CHALLENGES OF URBAN REFUGEES IN ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

BY

GUESH TESFASLASE WELDEMICHAEL

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis entitled *'Food Security and Livelihood Challenges of Urban Refugees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia'* has been carried out by me under the supervision of Messay Mulugeta (PhD), Center for food Security studies, Addis Ababa University. I further declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been submitted to any other university or institution for the award of any degree and that all the sources and materials used for the thesis have been properly acknowledged.

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This is to certify that the above declaration made by the candidate is correct to the best of my knowledge as an advisor.

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This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Guesh Tesfaslase Weldemichael, entitled *'Food security and livelihoods challenges of urban refugees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia'* submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Food Security and Development complies with the regulations of Addis Ababa University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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Guesh Tesfaslase Weldemichael

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACF: Action Contre la Faim International

ARRA: Administration for Refugees and Returnees Affairs

CFSS: Center for Food Security Studies

CRRF: Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework

DRC: Democratic Republic of the Congo

ECRRP: Ethiopia Country Refugee Response Plan

FGD: Focus Group Discussion

GoE: Government of Ethiopia

HoA: Horn of Africa

ILO: International Labor Organization

IOM: International Organization for Migration

IRC: International Rescue Committee

NCRRS: National Comprehensive Refugee Response Strategy

OAU: Organization of African Unity

OCP: Out-of-Camp Policy

SHC: Samuel Hall Consulting

UNHCR: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

URs: Urban Refugees

WFP: World Food Program

WHO: World Health Organization

WRC: Women's Refugees Commission

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Abstract

This study was aimed at investigating food security and livelihood challenges of refugees. A retrospective cross-sectional study design was employed, and questionnaire-based primary data was collected from 202 sample households. In addition, key informant interview and focus group discussions were used. Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS), Sustainable Livelihood Framework and Coping mechanism were used to achieve the food security status, livelihood availability and challenge as well as the way the urban refugees cop up in times of difficulty respectively. The data was managed and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v20). Results were presented using tables. The results showed that the main income source of respondents was remittance (35%), earnings from casual labor (24.3 percent), revenues from small businesses (23.7 %). The challenges faced by the refugees were the lack of working permits (36.7%) as the main challenge followed by lack of job opportunities (24.9%), lack of experience (13.6) was rated as the third challenge. 67% of the study households were food secure while 22% mildly food insecure and 9% of them were moderately food insecure. The findings also showed that frequently adopted coping mechanisms such as reduce the number of meals eaten in a day (78.6%), less preferred and less expensive foods (62.7%), limit portion size at mealtimes (60%) and borrow food or rely on help from a friend or relative (35%) to manage food shortages. More than 30 thousands refugees live in Addis Ababa but the Government of Ethiopia restrict their right to work, hence the urban refugees often depended on informal economy livelihoods and struggle to secure their food requirement. Finally, it is recommended that policy implementation and improvement is needed. Jobs and livelihoods interventions also need to be better coordinated and guided by government to set out procedures and standards for developing employment opportunities for refugees.

Keywords: Urban Refugees, Food Security, Livelihood, Coping Mechanism, Addis Ababa

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

Human migration is the movement of people from one place to another with the intentions of settling, permanently or temporarily, at a new location (geographic region). It is believed that migration is as old as the history of humanity. Today, all over the world many people make one of the most challenging decisions in their lives: to leave their homes and townships in search of a safer or better life. Migration is also a term that encompasses a wide variety of movements and situations that involve people of all walks of life and backgrounds. More than ever before, migration touches many countries and people in an era of deepening globalization (IOM, 2018). As noted in OECD (2018), this phenomenon (migration) is embedded in trade and cultural exchange and has offered opportunities for millions of people worldwide to forge safe and meaningful lives abroad.

According to the recent data from the United Nation High Commissionaire for Refugee (UNHCR, 2020), at least 79.5 million people around the world have been forced to flee their home. Among them are nearly 26 million refugees, around half of whom are under the age of 18. The global population of forcibly displaced people grew substantially from 43.3 million in 2009 to 79.5 million, war, violence and persecution drove world forced displacement to another new high in 2019. Most of this increase was between 2012 and 2015, driven mainly by the Syrian conflict. Besides, conflicts in other areas also contributed to this rise, including in the Middle East such as in Iraq and Yemen, parts of sub-Saharan Africa such as the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and South Sudan, as well as the massive flow of Rohingya refugees to Bangladesh at the end of 2017. Countries in developed regions hosted 16 per cent of refugees, while one third of the global refugee population (6.7 million people) was in the least developed countries (UNHCR, 2020).

Africa in general and the Horn of Africa (HoA) in particular are known for large displacement of people. Noack (2019) clearly indicates that the displacement factors such as war, conflict and insecurity, amplified by environmental factors (droughts, governance failures, compulsory military service and lacking economic conditions) also lead the HoA to host over 8.5 million forcibly displaced persons, including over 6 million Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) and about 2.5 million refugees and asylum seekers. Out of the 2.5 million refugees, an estimated 1 million live in protracted displacement. While all HoA countries were affected by protracted

displacement, Somalia and South Sudan stand out as the main countries of origin in the region while Ethiopia, Kenya and Sudan are the main host countries, based on the most recent data available. It is important to note however, that displaced populations from the seven focus countries also live in other major host countries outside the region.

Ethiopia is one of the largest refugee-hosting countries in Africa, sheltering 761,819 registered refugees and asylum seekers as of 30 April 2020 (UNHCR, 2020).The majority are from the three neighboring countries Eritrea, Somalia, South Sudan and a smaller group from Sudan as well as handful of people from other places. These refugees are hosted across five of Ethiopia's nine different regions, as well as in Addis Ababa. This makes for huge variations in how the refugee presence is experienced across the country, meaning that, in practice, there are multiple refugee operations (IOM, 2019).

Ethiopia has known for the following of a strict encampment policy and refugees were mostly accommodated in 26 camps having under protection of the police. Some exemptions have been made for those with serious protection concerns, for health and humanitarian reasons. Refugees were restricted in accessing work, education and freedom of movement as Ethiopia maintains reservations to the 1951 Refugee Convention with regard to the right to engage in wage earning employment and the right to access elementary education. Security considerations were an important aspect put by the government officials with regard to encampment as the main response to displacement. However, since 2010, a number of steps have been undertaken, moving away from strict encampment and the care and maintenance model. In 2010, the government introduced the "Out of Camp Policy" (which is a government scheme and not a policy in the strict sense) allowing Eritrean refugees to live in urban centers, provided they had necessary means to financially support themselves. Eritrean refugees are also allowed to access higher education, through an agreement with ARRA (SHC, 2014).

A positive commitment to the refugee crisis has been promised by the Government of Ethiopia (GoE). It was formally launched in November 2017 known as a Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) which effectively paving the way for the implementation of the nine pledges it made at the Leaders' Summit on Refugees in September 2016 in New York (UNHCR, 2018). The agreements feature the return of refugees to their countries of origin and resettlement in third countries, but the sustained, local integration of refugees in host countries

in their regions of origin and far from destinations in the Global North was a central motivation behind this solidarity.

As noted in Zetter and Ruaudel (2016), a remarkable diversity in legal provisions and strict control on refugees' right to work prevails, and most states are reluctant to ease these restrictions. The majority of refugees work in the informal sector, but under much less satisfactory and more exploitative conditions compared with nationals. Informal labor markets are also constrained in countries with fragile economies which often host large numbers of refugees. Many refugees in Ethiopia, whether in camps or in urban areas, receive remittances from abroad. Although the probability of finding a job in urban areas is higher than in the camps, many refugees lack information related to the labor market. Refugees from minority ethnic groups voiced concerns about their limited ability to access the out-of-camp scheme because of linguistic barriers and lack of relatives or friends able to support them in Ethiopia. Household food security is an issue that affects populations around the world. Every night, 815 million people go to bed hungry even though there is more than enough food produced daily to feed the global population. (FAO, 2017). Ninety-eight percent of those suffering from hunger live in the developing world. Ironically, developing countries are some of the largest food producers in the world. However, the farmers and their families who produce food for the rest of the global population face massive barriers to food security.

UNHCR (2012) explains that most forced migrants that cross international borders are hosted in their neighboring countries, where they do not necessarily face better economic or environmental conditions than their home country. Refugees are likely to stay for a relatively long time in their countries of asylum, contrary to forced migration originating from natural disasters, the long-lasting and repeatable nature of civil conflicts. As a consequence, refugee situations have become increasingly protracted, with many refugees holding their refugee status for more than five years with little prospect of returning to their country of origin in the near future. For instance, at the end of 2012, 6.4 million refugees (about 70 percent of the total refugee population) were in a protracted situation.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

According to a recent reports of the United Nations High Commissionare for Refugees (UNHCR), there are 79.5 million refugees worldwide, and an estimated 60 percent live in urban areas (UNHCR, 2020). Addis Ababa, Ethiopia has come to host an increasing amount of refugees, from the camps on medical and protection grounds, refugees who have no camps designated for their residence in Ethiopia, university students on sponsorship programmes and target populations of the Out-of-Camp Policy. Currently, the urban registered refugee population in Addis Ababa is composed of 32,940 individuals, majority are Eritrean refugees, followed by Yemenis and Somalis, and Congolese, as well as few refuges drawn from a number of countries (ECRRP, 2020).

Refugees move to urban areas in the hope of finding a sense of community, safety and economic independence. However, host governments often restrict their right to work; forcing urban refugees into precarious, often informal economy livelihoods as a result many refugees find themselves in isolation, poverty and harassment (Brown *et al.,* 2018). These urban refugees faced barriers of considerable economic difficulties and pose many challenges for urban and national authoritie. The lack of legal permission to work has made it challenging to secure employment and has also led to workplace discrimination, exploitation and insecurity of investments and enterprises (Brown *et al.,* 2018). The humanitarian community has focused primarily on camp-based refugees. Despite, urban refugees face multiple challenges in achieving economic security; little is known about the needs of the urban displaced (WRC, 2009). The refugees in Addis Ababa are still facing the same legal constraints as those in the camps, though it was believed that they could benefit from increased access to economic opportunities in the city (Alemu and Freddie, 2019). Unfortunately, the need for the durable solutions remained stalled in practice.

Even thought, the majority of urban refugees residing in Addis Ababa are from Eritrea, Somali and South Sudan communities, scholars and humanitarian agencies know even less about their food security and livelihood challenges. This research with the selected urban refugee population intended to provide evidence on how to better provide durable solutions. Ethiopian refugee law does acknowledge self-settlement for refugees in urban areas, however in order to continue moving UNHCR's 2009 policy on urban refugees and the 2019 revised law on Ethiopia Country Refugee Response Plan forward, a deeper knowledge of the experiences of urban refugees is

necessary. It was this complicated nature of the urban environment of refugees in mind that the study was designed to understand the efforts that refugees are already making to stabilize and enhances their situation. Hopefully, this research has provided new insights into urban refugee in Addis Ababa, a city where refugees are, at least for the time being, not legally permitted to work. This research addresses this knowledge gap.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General objective

The overriding objective of this research was to investigate food security and livelihood challenges of urban refugees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, and provide research-based facts.

1.3.2. Specific objectives

More specifically, the study aspired to:

1. to investigate livelihood activities of urban refugees in the study area
2. to assess the challenges and opportunities that affect access to livelihood options of urban refugees in the study area
3. to examine the food security status of urban refugees in the study area
4. to assess the coping mechanism of the urban refugees during food shortage

1.4. Research Questions

The study intended to get answer for the following basic questions:

1. what is perception of refugees about the available livelihood opportunities in addis ababa?
2. what livelihood activities hold the most potential for refugees' income source in the city?
3. what are the main obstacles faced by urban refugees in accessing livelihood in the city?
4. what is the food security status of urban refugees households?
5. what coping mechanisms are frequently used by urs urban refugee households?

1.5. Limitation of the Study

Conducting an assessment in a refugee's context such as the one in Addis Ababa presents a number of constraints with regards to identifying, locating and accessing the population of concern. In a city as large as Addis Ababa, members of smaller communities such as refugees

impose difficulty. The refugees were not easily available. The most preferable way to reach such small group of communities was through key informants and refugee committee members and counting on his/her support. The study was undertaken by a self-sponsored researcher, mainly budget limitation may be a constrain on the number of questioners to be administered and in order to solve this study focused in few key areas.

The actively spreading of the pandemic disease (Covid19), which caused by the corona virus in the area constituted a hindrance to the fieldwork. The different languages spoken by the refugees were also a challenge, as I have very little understanding of them (Somali and south Sudanese). However, research funding was probably the greatest limitation of this study, but more cooperation by friends and family made it a little cheaper, and hopefully it did not reduce the quality.

1.6. Significance of the Study

The research on refugees in Addis Ababa would provide valuable information on what challenges were facing refugees and what services they need assistance in accessing. With an accurate need's assessment for the refugee community, agencies can then begin providing those services to the refugee population if possible. The study also was tending to expose particularly the levels of food insecurity and livelihoods challenges faced by urban refugees in the city. As a result of discovering potentially high levels of low or very low levels of food insecurity and vulnerability, solutions can be recommended to remedy these problems, ensuring optimal assistant or other durable solutions. Finally, the thesis is believed to have an important contribution in studying the current status of refugee's food security and livelihood challenges and it would also provide valuable help to partially fill the gap in the literature on urban refugees' issues, the status of food security and livelihood strategies of urban refugees' households in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

1.7. Ethical Considerations

Due to the comprehensive nature of the study and taking in to account the confidentiality of the refugee cases, permission was needed. First, the researcher was granted ethical clearance from AAU, CFSS institutional review board (IRB) of Center for Food Security Studies MSC program in Food Security and Development Studies, Addis Ababa University. Then, the enumerators got guidance about the study and discussion was started after the consent of

participants. The enumerators were clearly explaining to the respondents that they would not get any kind of benefit for participating in the study. The researcher and enumerators were promised to keep confidentiality regarding respondents' details. Finally, the academic research abides by ethical issues, moral conducts and privacy of the respondents. The questioner was designed out in such a way that respondents were not required to write their names and revealed their personal information in the questioner and the confidentiality of the data being collected were handled with due care and used for academic purpose only.

1.8. Organization of the study

This study is presented into five chapters.

Chapter one introduces the major information of refugees supposing that it has close relationships with the title under this research. It also includes the background information, problem statement, research questions, and objectives of the study.

Chapter two includes definition of basic operational words and a review of previous written works, especially those considered to foster the research.

Chapter three gives comprehensive illustration of the method on how the samples size was determined and calculated, and how the data were collected, processed and on how the data analysis was conducted.

Chapter four and chapter five deals with the things that are achieved during the process, interpretation and detailed explanation of the discoveries, conclusions, and recommendations for additional ponders.

1.9. Definition of Key Concepts

The terms *refugee*, *asylum-seeker* and *migrant* are often used to describe people who are on the move, who have left their countries and have crossed borders. The terms *migran*t and *refugee* are often used interchangeably but it is important to distinguish between them as there is a legal difference (Amnesty International, 2018). There are negative perceptions of migrants in many societies. For example, there are several misconceptions about migrants when it comes to their contribution to society which draw on negative connotations such as cheap labor, stealing jobs or being under-educated to name but a few. At the heart of the politics of migration is a notion that immigrants, especially those that are unskilled, depress wages.

A refugee is someone who has left his or her country of origin and is unable or unwilling to return there because of a serious threat to his or her life or freedom. The international legal definition of the term is contained in the 1951 Convention. Refugees are entitled to protection from forcible return to their country of origin (the principle of non-refoulement) and have other rights and duties that are set out in the 1951 Convention. Similarly in Ethiopia, a r***efugee*** means any person or group of persons who full fills the criteria under the Provisions of Article 4 or Article 19 of Refugee Proclamation No. 409/2004 (P409/04)

The 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees is a Convention that is the key legal document relating to the status of refugees, their rights and the obligations of states towards them. It defines as a refugee a person fleeing persecution due to race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion. The cornerstone of the Convention is the principle of non-refoulement, which stipulates that a refugee should not be returned to a country where they face serious threats to their life or freedom. Other rights set out in the Convention include the right to work, housing, education, public relief and assistance, freedom of religion, freedom of movement and the right to be issued identity and travel documents.

The 1969 Organization of African Unity: is a convention governing aspects of refugee problems in Africa. The OAU Convention contextualizes refugee law within the specific context of Africa, with an initial focus on refugees resulting from wars of liberation (Okello, 2014). It expands the definition of refugee to encompass people fleeing due to external aggression, occupation, foreign domination, events seriously disturbing public order in their country of origin or nationality.

Protracted Refugee Situation (PRS): Situations where refugees: "have lived in exile for more than 5 years, and when they still have no immediate prospect of finding a durable solution to their plight by means of voluntary repatriation, local integration, or resettlement (UNHCR, 2019).

Livelihood: A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets and activities required for a means of living. A sustainable livelihood allows to cope with and to recover from stress and shocks, to maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets to provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation. It also contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the long and short term. Essentially, livelihoods refer to the

means used to maintain and sustain life (Chambers and Conway, 1991, as cited in UNHCR, 2006).

Self-reliance: The social and economic ability of an individual, a household or a community to meet essential needs (including protection, food, water, shelter, personal safety, health and education) in a sustainable manner and with dignity. Self-reliance, as a program approach, refers to developing and strengthening livelihoods of persons of concern, and reducing their vulnerability and long-term reliance on humanitarian/external assistance (UNHCR, 2005).

An asylum-seeker: is someone who has made a claim that he or she is a refugee, but the case has not been finalized. He/she is still in the process of seeking asylum.

An internally displaced person (IDP): is someone who has fled his/her home but has not crossed an international border. Often this happens in relation to ethnic conflict or natural disasters (IOM, 2016).

A migrant: is a person who leaves his/her country of origin, usually as a result of financial, income-related or educational reasons or any other reason not related to a fear of persecution.

UNHCR's definition of a protracted refugee situation as one in which 25,000 or more refugees from the same nationality have been in exile for five consecutive years or more in a given asylum country (IOM, 2016).

The Out-Of-Camp (OCP) Scheme: the first out-of-camp scheme was implemented in August 2010 in cooperation with the Ethiopian government and the UNHCR. Since 2010 thousands of refugees have left the camp to live among the host communities freely without help from government bodies and humanitarian groups after they leave camp.

CHAPTER 2: RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter, at first presents the concepts of livelihood, food security and urban refugees. It then, adds review of pertinent written works of other academia/institutions. It also accounts about the general refugee information; the factors affecting refugees' livelihood and food security and with the profile of refugees and the refugee context in Ethiopia. It also deals with the CRRF process in Ethiopia, the legal framework of the international refugee protection system, international and domestic instruments on refugees, Ethiopia's refugee legal context and national instruments on refugees, and develops a conceptual framework.

2.1.Theoretical and conceptual literature review – on food security, livelihood and refugee

2.1.1. Food security

Food security is defined as the availability of food and one's access to it. A household is considered food secure when its occupants do not live in hunger or fear of starvation. Stages of food insecurity range from food secure situations to full-scale famine. It is also defined as when all people at all times have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active life. Food security also broadly refers to the ability of individuals to obtain sufficient food on a day-to-day basis (FAO, 2014).

The USAID (1992) defined food security as When all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe, and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life. People who do not satisfy the conditions in this definition are considered food insecure. Food insecurity exists when people do not have adequate physical, social or economic access to food as defined above.

Within the context of this definition, food security has four primary components: food availability, food access, food utilization and Food stability.

Food Availability: Availability refers to the physical existence of food, whether from the household's own farm or garden production or from domestic or international markets. It is defined by USAID (1992) as when:

> Sufficient quantities of appropriate, necessary types of food from domestic production, commercial imports, commercial aid programs, or food stocks are consistently available to individuals or within their reach.

Food availability is a function of domestic food stocks, commercial food imports, and food aid, in addition to the underlying determinants of these factors, including macro-economic trends and events, government policies, the functioning of international and domestic markets, and the state of the physical economic infrastructure.

Food Access: Access refers to the resources individuals have at hand to obtain appropriate foods for a nutritious diet. It is defined by USAID (1992) as when:

> Individuals have adequate assets or incomes to produce, purchase, or barter to obtain levels of appropriate foods needed to maintain consumption of an adequate diet/nutrition level.

Individuals obtain food through (1) own food production and consumption (including wild food gathering), (2) purchases in the market place, or (3) in-kind transfers or loans from relatives, members of the community, the government, or foreign donors private citizens. An individual's ability to access food from these sources is in turn determined by their asset endowment and by the social, economic, policy, physical, and natural environments, which define the set of productive activities they can pursue in meeting their income and food security objectives. Food access is also influenced by the aggregate availability of food through the latter's impact on supply and, therefore, prices in the market.

Food Utilization: Utilization refers broadly to the actual food that is consumed by individuals; how it is stored, prepared, and consumed; and what nutritional benefits the individual derives from consumption. It is defined by USAID (1992) as when:

> Food is properly used; proper food processing and storage techniques are used; adequate knowledge of nutrition and child care techniques exist and are applied; and adequate health and sanitation services exist.

Food utilization has both a socio-economic and biological dimension. The socio-economic dimension refers to decisions related to what food is consumed and how the food is allocated within the household. Both decisions in turn are influenced by intra-household dynamics and social customs/taboos. Depending on these factors, individuals within households may have access to food but still suffer from food insecurity. Women and children are particularly more likely to suffer from food insecurity because of their relatively limited control over assets and relatively weak intra-household bargaining power.

Food Stability: Food stability is the fourth component of food security that cuts across the other three. Stability refers to the temporal dimension, or time-frame, of food security as implied by the wording "at all times" in the USAID definition of food security. Stability is defined as:

> The ability to access and utilize appropriate levels of nutritious food over time.
>
> An important distinction is made between chronic food insecurity and transitory food insecurity. Chronic food insecurity is the long-term or persistent inability to meet food needs, whereas transitory food insecurity is a short-term food deficit. Transitory food security is sometimes divided into two sub-categories: cyclical food security and temporary food insecurity. Cyclical (or seasonal) food insecurity occurs on a routine or predictable basis, for example, the 'lean season' that occurs in the period just before the harvest. Temporary food insecurity occurs for a limited time due to unforeseen and unpredictable circumstances.

2.1.2. Refugees' livelihood

The term *livelihood* has been inherent to several research studies within the past years. According to the Oxford English Dictionary livelihood represents *a means of securing the necessities of life* (English Oxford Dictionary), and is often associated with an income or a job(s) which enables a person to access basic needs such as food, water, or shelter. Even though no universal definition of livelihood has been defined up to date, the most widely accepted one has been introduced by Chambers and Conway that describes livelihood that comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term (Chambers & Conway, 1991 as cited in Melicherová, 2018).

Another view point stated in UNHCR (2014), stated that livelihood is sum of activities that allow people to secure the basic necessities of life, such as food, water, shelter and clothing. Engaging in livelihoods activities means acquiring the knowledge, skills, social network, raw materials, and other resources to meet individual or collective needs on a sustainable basis with dignity. Livelihood activities are usually carried out repeatedly within an income stream

such as agriculture, pastoralism, fishing, employment within a market sector, or as an entrepreneur. Ideally, people work within one or multiple streams providing goods and services to a market economy based on cash exchange or barter. Work provides the basis for their food security and self-reliance, adding stability, prosperity and peace to the community at large.

Within the past decade, the increasingly urban and protracted nature of displacement has been well recognized. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), as of 2017, 58 percent of refugees live in urban areas while over 60 percent of refugees are in a protracted situation (UNHCR, 2017 as cited in Saliba and Silver, 2020). At least 80 percent of internally displaced persons (IDPs) live in urban areas. Displaced populations are moving to cities not only for safety, but also for economic opportunity, the promise of self-reliance and the ability to exercise choice in where and how to live.

In recent years, a range of international frameworks, policies and coalitions have been developed to recognize that cities are places of inclusivity that urban displaced populations have unique needs, and that city governments must be seen as partners to manage the impact of displacement. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes the central role of cities with a dedicated goal in the United Nations Sustainable Development Goal (SDG). At the same time, all of the SDGs are relevant to displaced populations and they will not be met without meeting the needs of displaced persons, especially those living in fragile states (Overseas Development Institute & International Rescue Committee, 2018 as cited in Saliba and Silver, 2020).

The UNHCR also acknowledges that much of the burden of protecting and caring for refugees falls on host communities and governments. While the UNHCR and others aim to provide assistance wherever possible, host communities and governments are those most affected by the millions of refugees seeking protection within their borders. In addition, the UNHCR recognizes the countless national and international non-governmental organizations (NGOs), faith-based organizations, international organizations, UN agencies, and dedicated individuals who provide resources and expertise. Their support is essential to helping displaced people transition from aid recipients to self-reliant agents of change, able to contribute to the peace, stability and prosperity of the communities that offer them asylum (UNHCR, 2014).

Various research findings and reports argue that the limited protection and assistance to refugees in urban areas, refugees' livelihoods are resourceful yet often unsustainable. Protection in urban areas is limited partly due to the lack of legal status for refugees, which makes it difficult to make claims to their rights. Refugees often become victims of abuse from society and police due to lack of legal status and negative attitudes towards refugees by the host community (Bernstein, 2005; Jacobsen, 2006; Kibreab, 1996; Hovil, 2007; UNHCR, 2009; Tibaijuka 2010 and Krause-Vilmar, 2011 as cited in Lucia 2012). An example of problems associated with a lack of legal status for refugees and the effect on refugees' livelihoods can be seen in Cairo, Egypt. Cairo, Egypt has long been recognized as an urban center that hosts a large number of refugees. Cairo is home to many Sudanese refugees due to the two countries political and economic ties dating back to the 19th century. The Egyptian government's unfavorable policies towards refugees in Cairo make legal integration extremely difficult. Grabska (2005) as cited in Lucia (2012) explains that a very small proportion of Sudanese refugees in Cairo have legal status, however the majority continue to live in Cairo, which increases their vulnerability. Without access to basic services and inadequate protection, urban refugees face difficulties in employing sustainable livelihood strategies.

A key to pursuing sustainable livelihoods is social capital, or the social connections that refugees have. Access to community-based organizations and residing in urban areas can increase the amount of social capital available to refugees. Brown *et al*., (2018) examines the livelihood strategies of refugees in Addis Ababa, and explains that refugees' ability to access to formal work is limited and many refugees must find employment through the informal sector as the informal work is generally tolerated. As a result, urban refugees engage in informal entrepreneurship and employment to supplement income from humanitarian assistance or remittances. Betts *et al*., (2019) also described that the refugee communities in Addis Ababa feel a sense of boredom, idleness, and hopelessness. The study adds that the refugees regard the lack of economic opportunity as having a detrimental effect on their physical and mental health. In this context, most see no future in Ethiopia, and over 90% of refugees aspire to move onwards to Europe, North America, or Australia, although only 60% believe this is realistic, and an overwhelming majority would prefer to take legal rather than illegal migration routes.

The Livelihood Assets: There have been several interpretations of what constitutes a livelihood. As illustrated by Levine (2014), a livelihood is how individual doing to make a living through manipulating his/her capabilities, skills, tangible and intangible assets. Adding to this, Ellis (2008) pointed out in his study that livelihood strategies chosen by an individual or household is merely determine through their access to resources, structures and process which shaped their pathways. According to this view a livelihood strategy is a dynamic relationship that can't be understood based solely on a simple technical or analysis of the job attainment process, but its required comprehensive framework that would be adequately for formulating policy or any intervention to support them. Consequently, there is no one-framework-fits-all approach to study refugee livelihoods. Although important, a livelihood strategies and policy interventions must addressed some factors associated to the local context, such as legal, economic, social, urban or rural setting, essentially it would change the way livelihood interventions should be deliberate.

Fundamentally, the capital assets model provides a basic understanding to formulate the sustainable livelihoods framework. Among such studies, Babington (1999) & Scoones (1998) among the pioneers which addressed the capital assets model linked with natural, financial, human, social and physical capital and its play an important role when the study integrated with population lie on the poverty or marginalized scale.

First, natural capital refers to the natural resource stocks (soil, water, air) and environmental services from which resource flows and services useful for livelihoods are derived. Accordingly, natural capitals provide the employment opportunities and also supply the food and other resources to stimulate earnings. Adding to refugee lens, many rural refugees have access to land but they do not have legal rights to ownership which making sustainability livelihood is hard for them to achieve.

Second, financial capital is defined as the monetary (cash, savings and investments) and non-monetary (basic infrastructure) which can liquidate into economic resources. For refugees, financial capital is often low and difficult asset to own due factors associated with low human capital features, high levels of poverty and low earnings (Scoones, 1998).

Third, human capital contains set of knowledge, skills, competencies and abilities that facilitate the successful pursuit of livelihood strategies. Many problems refugees and migrants experience in the labor market is therefore explained by their lack of human capital. It can be

attributed or explained with lack of education (they got their degree in a third world country with lower educational standards), lack of English language skills, lack of local labor market experience, or lack of job seeking skills (Jackson & Bauder, 2014). Furthermore, social capital concept demonstrates the social bridge in which both individuals and societies can tolerate through collective behavior, rules and norms that can achieve desired goals (de Haan & Zoomers, 2005).

In particular, refugees typically experience national policies through their interpretation and implementation by sub-national authorities (Fiddian-Qasmiyeh, 2016 and IRC, 2016). Policy frameworks and how they are implemented are arguably the single most significant element shaping the lives and livelihoods of refugees, yet even within more conducive policy and legal environments, with the right to work, freedom of movement and access to public services, refugees struggled to make a living and sustain themselves and their families because of a lack of economic opportunities, unregulated informal labor markets and development challenges, suggesting that state policies are a necessary, but not in themselves sufficient, determinant of refugees' livelihoods.

2.1.3. Urban Refugees (URs)

As global headlines have underscored in recent years, we have been in the middle of what many call a global migration crisis. Nearly one person is forcibly displaced every two seconds as a result of war or persecution, while the total number of displaced people is showing rapid increase (UNHCR 2018). States' responses to such forced displacement are not only an inherent part of international politics but they are also fundamentally defined by domestic politics and economic relations.

Today, the unprecedented rate of global urbanization is heightening the role of cities as safe havens for the world's marginalized. With a steady movement of the world's population from rural areas to cities and towns, it is unsurprising that there is also a changing face to the distribution of refugees globally. Contrary to the iconic image of refugees in make-shift camps, about more than fifty percent of the world's 10.5 million refugees, are classified as urban refugees (URs) (UNHCR, 2009 cited in Thomas, 2010). Looking for anonymity or landing in the city by chance, URs face substantial and unique difficulties. Xenophobia and violence, forced eviction, and arbitrary arrest and detention, are just some of the challenges URs are confronted with in cities (UNHCR, 2009 cited in Thomas, 2010).

As discussed in ILO (2017), refugees are people with capacity, skills, and motivation to seize and enhance livelihood opportunities. To be able to utilize their skills to the full extent, governments should take steps towards building an environment in which refugees are linked to the market and public services, and which allows them to exercise their rights. The works of Jacobsen and Fratzke (2016) also vividly depict the effectiveness of integrating of refugees into a country of first asylum for the enhancement of their access to livelihoods and economic opportunities. For instance, it has been observed that presence of secondary movements is firmly rooted in the case of Eritrean refugees in Ethiopia. The lack of socio-economic opportunities fuels the despair of refugees, especially young population of refugees, who opt for further migration with all the dangers involved rather than face their future without any prospect (SHC, 2014).

Ethiopia is known for its open-door policy towards refugees, for whom it is a destination and a transit country. Nonetheless the country has for a long time operated an encampment policy towards refugees, requiring refugees to reside in designated areas. The Refugee Proclamation of 2004 also restricts a range of socio-economic rights. The legislation means that refugees have been unable to access formal employment, obtain business licenses, own mobile property, or open a bank account without a letter of permission from ARRA. This has placed significant limitations on refugees living in urban areas (Betts *et al.*, 2019).

Fortunately, in a positive turn, the Government of Ethiopia shifted its refugee policy in 2010 specifically towards Eritrean refugees by establishing the 'out-of-camp' scheme through which Eritreans are allowed to live and study outside the camps if they are able to sustain themselves independently (usually through relatives or remittances) (SHC, 2014). The policy allows residing in urban areas for those refugees with health problem, if camp is not suitable for them due to security concerns and those who have the capacity to sustain themselves in urban areas.

Basically, two legal exceptions to encampment have allowed refugees to live in Addis: The Out-of-Camp Policy (OCP) and the Urban Assistance Program (UAP). For historical reasons, the former is exclusively for Eritrean refugees who are able to support themselves or be supported by relatives. The latter is for refugees with medical, protection, or humanitarian concerns that camp-level facilities cannot adequately address. UAP refugees receive a monthly stipend and health and educational support; OCP refugees do not (Betts *et al.*, 2019).

Many of the legally registered urban refugees in Ethiopia are in short of meeting their basic needs with the current income that they receive either from informal work or remittances (average of 2,000 ETB a month). This is believed to be due to the resource constraints, low/no cash assistance to cover basic needs, including as a form of rental subsidy is only be provided to approximately 20 percent of the urban refugee caseload. In spite of that, they continue to be assisted to access basic services including health and education via government institutions, while an increased focus is placed on furthering access to legal aid. Besides, a high level of undocumented movements to urban areas has led to protection risks, with many individuals adopting negative coping mechanisms, while residing in marginal parts of the city away from service providers (ECRRP, 2020).

2.2. Empirical literature

Ongoing conflict compounded by food insecurity has resulted in major displacement in the East, Horn of Africa and Great Lakes (EHAGL), with 5.21 million refugees and asylum seekers in the region, around 81% of whom are women and children. The highest number of refugees in the region originate from South Sudan, from where around 2.3 million people have fled, with continued new influxes into neighbouring countries. □ere are also large influxes of refugees from Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Somalia, Burundi, Central Africa Republic, Sudan, Eretria and Rwanda. In addition, the region is host to around 12.4 million internally displaced persons. Nutrition and food insecurity remain key concerns in the region as a result of ongoing conflict and insecurity, prolonged drought, and increased food prices; all exacerbated when people are forced to flee their homes either internally or across borders.

As the majority of refugees now live in towns and cities there is an increasing volume of work on urban refugees in the academic, humanitarian and development fields. Inherent in the framing of a distinctly 'urban' refugee population is the assumption that they differ from other displaced populations in host countries. However, the extent to which, and the ways in which, urban refugees differ from rural, camp-based refugees, urban-based internally displaced persons (IDPs) and economic migrants has been debated. The majority of refugees are now in a protracted refugee situation, living in exile for at least five years and with no sign of a 'durable solution' (Crisp 2014; Crawford et al. 2015). Situations of displacement are varied

and subject to continuous change and there is rarely a predictable path from displacement to return, with most refugees displaced in the host county for over 20 years (Milner and Loescher 2011). For urban refugees, the humanitarian community now places increasing emphasis on local integration in the host city instead of repatriation or third-country settlement (Dryden-Peterson and Hovil 2003). This process involves the gradual attainment of rights in the host city, creating and sustaining livelihoods, and socio-cultural adaptation that allows refugees to contribute to the social fabric of the host city without discrimination or exclusion (Fielden 2008; Crisp 2004).

2.2.1 Sustainable Development and the Livelihood Approach

There are many factors that determine a household's livelihood status and economic condition. LIFT (2013) notes that, in order to be effective, development agencies must consider the latter, more holistic understanding of livelihood provided by LIFT. While economic development is important, if development does not also address vulnerability and environmental sustainability, it is likely to fail. The sustainable livelihood approach looks at what forms of capital a household has and how they use those various forms of capital to sustain and advance themselves. According to Zoomers (2014), the sustainable livelihood approach was developed by Robert Chambers and Gordon Conway, two development scholars and practitioners. According to Chambers and Conway (1991), a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims, and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels in the short and long term. The sustainable livelihood approach proposes that a number of assets (financial, human, natural, physical, and social capital) are used by households to provide the necessities of its members. It also recognizes that when household needs are satisfied, local and global livelihoods also benefit. Access to assets both influence and result from policies, institutions, and processes. The more livelihood assets a household has, the more influence they are likely to have on policies, institutions and processes.

The combination of livelihood capital and the policies, institutions, and processes determines a household's vulnerability context. People living in poverty typically face high levels of

vulnerability. According to LIFT (2013), *vulnerability* is defined as the household's susceptibility to shocks and stresses that affect the household's ability to generate sufficient income to earn a livelihood and achieve a threshold level of nutritional requirements for a healthy life both now and in the future. A household's vulnerability context includes aspects that are outside of their control, as well as aspects that the household may have some level of control over.

According to UNDP (2013), livelihood means activities, entitlements and assets by which people make a living. Sustainable livelihoods are defined as those that are: able to cope with and recover from shocks and stresses such as drought, civil war and policy failure through coping and adaptive strategies, economically effective, ecologically sound and socially equitable.

Refugees are people with capacity, skills, and motivation to seize and enhance livelihood opportunities. To be able to utilize their skills to the full extent, governments should take steps towards building an environment in which refugees are linked to the market and public services, and which allows them to exercise their rights (ILO, as cited in Melicherová, 2018). Effective integration of refugees into a country of first asylum has to go hand in hand with enhancement of their access to livelihoods and economic opportunities (Jacobsen &Fratzke, 2016). It has been observed that presence of secondary movements is firmly rooted in the case of Eritrean refugees in Ethiopia (SHC 2014, as cited in Melicherová, 2018). The lack of socio-economic opportunities fuels the despair of refugees, especially young population of refugees, who opt for further migration with all the dangers involved rather than face their future without any prospect. The present study aims to scrutinize and list all the hardships that prevent refugees from accessing the livelihood.

The larger political, economic, geographic, social and cultural context and its associated institutions determine the local environment and the type of access that households will have to resources (DFID, 1999). It conditions the external vulnerability context in which households operate, and the shocks, trends and seasonality to which they are exposed. It also conditions the resources and coping mechanisms that the households make use of.

In order for the sustainable livelihood approach to be effective, it must be aimed at the household level. LIFT (2013) states, Food production constitutes one of the most basic livelihood activities, and can be a critical source of food access. As demonstrated in the figure

above, human, financial, social, physical, and natural capitals drive the household livelihood framework. Improved food security is just one of the livelihood outcomes to be achieved when livelihood strategies are implemented. According to LIFT (2013), successful food security interventions need to address not only issues related to food security, but also wider issues related to households' livelihoods and their vulnerability context. However, household food security is an especially important aspect of livelihood programs because food security and household livelihood influence each other.

2.4. Overview of refugees and refugee context in Ethiopia

As noted in UNHCR (2016), Ethiopia is the second-largest refugee-hosting country in Africa. The United Nation's 1951 Refugee Convention was ratified with the caveat that the rights of refugees such as the right to work were to be considered 'only as recommendations and not as legally binding obligations. In 2004, Proclamation 409/2004 further stated that refugees would be subjected to the national laws in force in Ethiopia (Article 21.1 and 22.2). In regard to employment, refugees are entitled to the same rights and subjected to the same restrictions as conferred or imposed by the relevant laws on foreigners in Ethiopia (Article 21.3). As a result, the situation for refugees in Ethiopia is mainly one of encampment, with no access to work (beyond incentivized labor) and very limited and predictable livelihood opportunities (SHC, 2014).

According to UNHCR (2019), Ethiopia has a long-standing history of hosting refugees. The country maintains an open-door policy for refugee inflows and allows humanitarian access and protection to those seeking asylum on its territory. In 2004, a national Refugee Proclamation was enacted based on the international and regional refugee conventions to which Ethiopia is a party (1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees, and its 1967 Protocol and the 1969 OAU Convention). Ethiopia's parliament adopted revisions to its existing national refugee law on 17 January 2019, making it one of the most progressive refugee policies in Africa. The Law provides refugees with the right to work and reside out of camps, access social and financial services, and register life events, including births and marriages. Refugee protection in the country is provided within the framework of these international and national refugee laws as well as the core international human rights treaties that have been ratified by the country.

More recently, the Eritreans, South Sudanese, Sudanese, Yemenis and Somalis (originating from South and Central Somalia) are recognized as prima facie refugees. Nationals from other countries undergo individual refugee status determination. The majority of refugees in Ethiopia are located in Tigray Regional State and the four Emerging Regions of Ethiopia: Afar Regional State; Benishangul-Gumuz Regional State; Gambella Regional State; and the Somali Regional State. The Emerging Regions are the least developed regions in the country, characterized by harsh weather conditions, poor infrastructure, low administrative capacity, a high level of poverty and poor development indicators. The arid environment in the Afar and Somali regions and the small and scattered nomadic populations make it more challenging to provide services. Many parts of the four regions are inaccessible with poor or no roads (UNHCR, 2019).

Table 2.1: The country of origin refugees and asylum seekers in Ethiopia

Country	Population at the end of Dec 2018	Population at end of 2019	Planned Population end of 2020
Eritrea	139, 281	137,182	135,409
South Sudan	329,123	305,822	299,637
Sudan	42,285	63,260	57,606
Somalia	191,575	219,926	224,425
Urban/Kenya Borena	32,940	25,259	26,980
Total	735,204	751,449	744,057
Host population	548,334	562,042	576,036
Grand total	1,283,538	1,313,491	1,320,093

Refugee Response Plan (2020-2021).

As illustrated in table 2.1, the South Sudanese are the largest refugee population in Ethiopia, totaling 329,123 persons at the close of the year. The Gambella Regional State received 8,219 new arrivals seeking asylum in 2019. Somalis constitute 26.1 percent of registered refugees, with 8,736 new arrivals in the Somali Region during 2019, contributing to a total population of 191,575 individuals. The Eritrean planned population comprised 139,281 individuals at the end of the year, with 72,737 new arrivals received within the Tigray and Afar regions. The Sudanese

caseload comprised 42,285 individuals, with 6,456 new arrivals in the Beneshangul-Gumuz region. Ethiopia also hosts an additional caseload drawn from across the wider region and beyond; including Kenya Borena and urban populations living in Addis Ababa (32,940) (ECRRP, 2020).

2.5. The legal framework of the international refugee protection system

According to Nicholson and Kumin (2017), states have the responsibility for protecting the rights of their citizens. When governments are unable or unwilling to do this, people may face such serious threats that they are forced to leave their country and seek safety elsewhere. If this happens, another country has to step in to ensure that the refugees' basic rights are respected. This is known as international protection. The 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and its 1967 Protocol are the core of the international protection system, complemented by regional treaties and declarations that also address the rights of refugees. But international refugee law does not operate in isolation. It is best understood in conjunction with international human rights law, starting with the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and with international humanitarian law.

2.5.1. International refugee law and standards

The 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees is the foundation of international refugee law. It defines the term *refugee* is someone who has left his or her country of origin and is unable or unwilling to return there because of a serious threat to his or her life or freedom. The international legal definition of the term is contained in the 1951 Convention. Refugees are entitled to protection from forcible return to their country of origin and have other rights and duties that are set out in the 1951 Convention.

The main idea of the 1951 Convention is that every person is entitled to freedom from persecution and that he or she will receive recognition and assistance from the international community in order to affect that freedom. The word refugee is used as a term of art, that is, a term having a content variable according to principles of general international law. In ordinary usage, it may enjoy a broader, looser meaning, signifying someone in flight, who seeks to escape conditions or personal circumstances found intolerable (Chrisna, 2019). The 1967 Protocol is independent of, though integrally related to, the 1951 Convention. The Protocol removes the temporal and geographic limits found in the Convention. By acceding to

the Protocol, States agree to apply the core content of the 1951 Convention (Articles 2–34) to all persons covered by the Protocol's refugee definition, without limitations of time or place.

2.5.2. Regional refugee laws and standards

The Organization of African Unity (OAU) Convention: This convention governs specific aspects of refugee problems in Africa. Thus, it is a regional treaty adopted in 1969 that filled the gap in the 1951 Convention and its 1967 Protocol. Thus, article 1(2) of the convention defines a refugee as any person compelled to leave his/her country owing to external aggression, occupation, foreign domination or events seriously disturbing public order in either part or the whole of his country of origin or nationality. This means that persons fleeing civil disturbances, widespread violence and war are entitled to claim the status of refugee in states that are parties to this Convention, regardless of whether they have a well-founded fear of persecution. Thus, he issues of large-scale refugee movements and the links to armed conflict and internal strife were acknowledged in the 1969 OAU Convention (Birmeta, 2017).

In fact, as it has been indicated by Nicholson and Kumin (2017), which the 1969 OAU Convention confirms that the 1951 Convention is the basic and universal instrument relating to the status of refugees. It adopts the refugee definition found in the 1951 Convention, but also expands it to include any person compelled to leave his or her country because of "external aggression, occupation, foreign domination or events seriously disturbing public order in either part or the whole of his [or her] country of origin or nationality". This means that persons fleeing civil disturbances, widespread violence and war are entitled to refugee status in States that are parties to the African Convention, even if they do not have a well-founded fear of persecution for one of the reasons set out in the 1951 Convention. Of course, many people may be refugees under the terms of both Conventions.

The protection of refugees may also be promoted directly and indirectly, by the regional and non-governmental organizations including, for example, the organization of African unity, the organization of American states, and the Council of Europe. These have generated ,among others ,instruments such as the 1969 OAU Convention on the specific Aspects of refugee problems in Africa, the American convention and human rights, the European convention on human rights ,the European Agreement on the abolition of Visas for refugees, the Europeans agreement on Social Security and its supplementary Agreements ,the European Agreement on

consular functions ,together with the protocol concerning the protection of the refugees ,and the European Agreement on transfer of responsibility for refugees (Chrisna, 2019).

2.6. Ethiopia refugee laws and The CRRF process

2.6.1. The Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE)

According to the FDRE Constitution everyone is equal before the law. The FDRE constitution is the fundamental law of the country and sates in Article 9 sub article 4 that all international agreements ratified by Ethiopia are an integral part of the law of the land. This means that it is the duty of the government to ensure that all international legal instruments ratified by the state are domesticated and mainstreamed into the country's legal system. Chapter 3 of the FDRE constitution demonstrates the commitment of the government to guarantee and promote human rights in accordance with the provisions set out in the UDHR and other international instruments adopted by Ethiopia. Art.13 (2) provides the fundamental rights and freedoms specified (Chapter three) shall be interpreted in a manner conforming to the principle of Universal Declaration of human Rights (UDHR), adopted by Ethiopia (FDRE ,1995).

2.6.2 The Ethiopia Refugee Proclamation 409/2004

Ethiopia being a signatory to the 1951 Convention Relating to the status of refugee, its 1967 protocol and OAU Convention has a duty to respect the fundamental principles of refugee protection. The Ethiopian Refugee Proclamation No.409/2004 stipulates the rights and obligations of recognized refugees and asylum seekers as it has adopted both in the UN Refugee Convention of1951 and OAU Convention of 1969. The amended Ethiopian Refugee Proclamation states that Ethiopia is providing asylum and protection to refugees and promoting their voluntary repatriation in safety and dignity whenever conditions permit. According to the Ethiopian Refugee Proclamation No.409/2004 ,a refugee is defined under Article 4 or 19, and supplements the definition of the 1969 OAU convention. Moreover, a provision under Article 21 of the proclamation outlines the rights and obligations of refugees in Ethiopia. This section will therefore examine the measures adopted to provide special protection to vulnerable groups, especially protection to refugees in fulfilling the provisions contained in Article 13(2) of the Geneva Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees 1951. The amended Proclamation deals with a wide range of issues related to vulnerability of women and male refugees within the context of protection.

This means that authorities need to take appropriate measures to protect refugees. According to the Proclamation No.409/2004, it shall be applied without discrimination as to race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion. Refugees should therefore not be subjected to violence but are still being vulnerable.

2.6.3 The CRRF process

As stated above, various legal instruments deal with refugee issues in Ethiopia. The FDRE Constitution is one among these. Ethiopia has signed the 1951 Refugee Convention, 1969 with reservations on Articles 8, 9, 17(2) and 22(1), recognizing these only as recommendations and not legally binding obligations, and its 1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees in 1969. The convention is both a status and rights convention. Some of the basic rights provided by the convention are access to courts, right to work, right to housing, education, welfare assistance and social security, freedom of movement, ID documents and travel documents, naturalization. The general obligation to conform to the law is also stated as a duty. Ethiopia is also Party to the 1969 OAU Convention Governing Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa (the OAU Convention) since 1973. Ethiopia enacted the refugee proclamation number 409/2004 in 2004 (Mahari, 2019).

At the 71st UN Leaders' Summit on Refugees and Migrants, which Ethiopia co-hosted on 20 September 2016 held in New York led to made Ethiopian Government's 9 pledges to participate on CRRF:

1. To expand the "out-of-camp" policy to benefit 10% of the current total refugee population.
2. To provide work permits to refugees and those with permanent residence ID.
3. To provide work permits to refugees in the areas permitted for foreign workers.
4. To increase enrolment of refugee children in preschool, primary, secondary and tertiary education, without discrimination and within available resources.
5. To make 10,000 hectares of irrigable land available, to enable 20,000 refugees and host community households (100,000 people) to grow crops.
6. To allow local integration for refugees who have lived in Ethiopia for over 20 years.
7. To work with industrial partners to build industrial parks to employ up to 100,000 individuals, with 30% of the jobs reserved for refugees.
8. To expand and enhance basic and essential social services for refugees and
9. To provide other benefits, such as issuance of birth certificates to refugee children born in Ethiopia, and the possibility of opening bank accounts and obtaining driving licenses

(Melicherová, 2018 and UNHCR, 2018). The CRRF was launched in Ethiopia in November 2017. This inconsistency in the implementation of a legal framework contributes to the fact that possibility for local integration of refugees remains low.

The decision by Ethiopia to participate in the CRRF led the government of Ethiopia to adopt a new refugee law. On 17 January 2019 Ethiopia's parliament adopted a revised refugee law (proclamation number 1110/2019), which the United Nations (UN) has hailed as one of the most progressive refugee laws on the continent. It replaces the country's 2004 Refugee Proclamation. The revised law is reflective of the nine pledges Ethiopia made in 2016 under the New York UN Comprehensive Refugee Response Framework (CRRF) and the Intergovernmental Authority on Development's (IGAD) Declaration on Durable Solutions, specifically addressing refugees from Somalia. As early as 2016, the Ethiopian government had already agreed with the European Union that 30 percent of employment in new industrial parks would be assigned to asylum seekers and refugees. Both the World Bank and UNHCR agreed to provide Ethiopia with USD 350 million for the local integration of refugees (UNHCR, 2018).

This shows that Ethiopia has put in place key building blocks to implement the CRRF. Speedy progress in the initial period has achieved important gains: the preparation of a draft NCRRS, the setting up of the NCO and finally the passing of a revised refugee law in February 2019 are cases in point. The revised law allows refugee the right to work, freedom of movement, acquisition of property and other rights that support livelihoods and self-reliance. The change of law has also encouraged government and non-government actors to support livelihood and self-reliance targets. Interventions have focused on areas including the creation of jobs, self-employment, entrepreneurship and business in diverse sectors such as agriculture, livestock, vocational training, finance and energy. Space has been created for new actors to join the refugee response system and new resources to be attracted.

Nonetheless, momentum has slowed in the last year. Importantly, the revised refugee law has not yet been followed by secondary legislation to clarify how the new law can be implemented to help refugees. Without these regulations and directives, it is not possible to put the rights inculcated in the Proclamation into practice, or to be clear about what they will mean. With increasing numbers of actors involved in policy dialogue and programming discussions, and considerable change in the wider policy-making environment in Ethiopia, the

implementation environment is highly complex and activities are difficult to coordinate (Alemu and Carver, 2019). Accordingly, the CRRF process's achievements in Ethiopia to date have primarily been in terms of potential. While there are already important new program in place, many remain under design. Some of the more substantial livelihood program, such as the Jobs Compact, have not yet been implemented, leaving refugees with no clear alternatives and reliant on informal economic systems and networks without adequate protections from exploitation.

2.7. Conceptual framework

Migration can be resulted in the transfer of skills, knowledge and technology that have considerable positive impacts on productivity and economic growth (Gelb & Krishnan, 2018). There are immigrants who have volitionally moved home to a new country, others who have been placed temporarily on foreign shores by their employers and live their lives as expatriates and still others who have chosen the work lifestyle of the global worker, following opportunities from one country to another (Stahl *et al.,* 2009). Migration may have positive or sometimes negative impact on the lives of the individuals concerned, depending on a considerable number of factors.

Given that the food security and livelihood challenges of refugees, and the facts that most refugees are likely to struggle in achieving a stable environment in Addis Ababa, this study aims to shed light on framework of livelihood opportunity and food security as well as to assess their income sources as well as the outcomes they possess. This conceptual framework uses the widely accepted definition of livelihoods for evaluation which was coined by Chambers and Conroy (1991) as cited in Holzaepfel and Howe (2015):

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

According to the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF), household assets are accessed through livelihoods strategies to achieve specific outcomes. This access, however, depends on structures, context, and processes, and asset transfers alone are insufficient for sustainable change. The SLF is the foundation for developing a theory of change, and outlines how

livelihoods can be affected by programs and measured in a specific development situation. It emphasizes the importance of participatory approaches to livelihoods planning (UNDP, 2013). Therefore, the proposed conceptual model that is shown in Figure 2.1, which was used in this research was developed from the UNDP (2013).

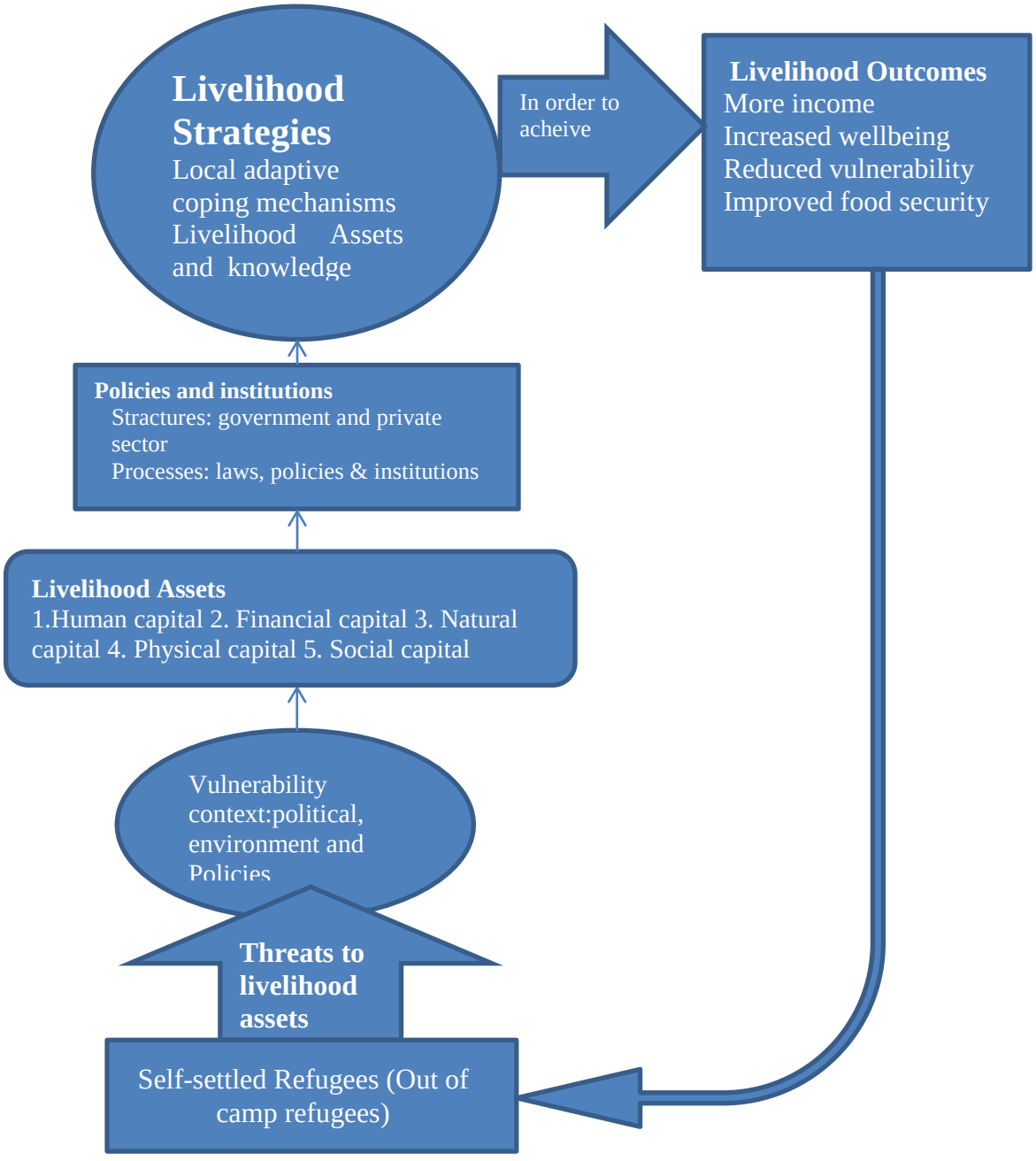

Figure 2.1: Household Livelihood Framework (Source: Adopted from UNDP, 2013).

Livelihoods underpin food security because they are the means by which people access to resources and assets in their environment in order to meet household needs. An analysis of the livelihoods of households begins with examining the five livelihood assets: physical, financial, natural, social and human capital followed by the range of livelihood strategies into which people translate them (DFID, 1999). Food security is believed to be one outcome of a successful livelihood strategy.

The sustainable livelihoods framework presented above (Figure 2.1) focuses on the strengths and assets that people own to ensure their food security and livelihoods. These are represented by five key categories of capital (physical, financial, natural, social and human capital) that households can draw from to achieve positive livelihood outcomes, such as reduced vulnerability, increased income, wellbeing and improved food security.

CHAPTER 3: DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA AND THE RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Descriptions of the Study Area

The study was carried out in Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia. Addis Ababa was established in the late 19th century and in comparison, to other capital cities it is relatively young. Addis Ababa has evolved from a small rural settlement up to the 1950s into a vibrant modern metropolis today. This capital city occupies a total area of 540 square kilometers. It is located at an average altitude of 2400 meters from sea level and one of the highest cities in Africa. It is also one of the highest. Much of the urban transformation began during the period of Imperial Rule but accelerated in the post-1991 era (UN-Habitat, 2017).

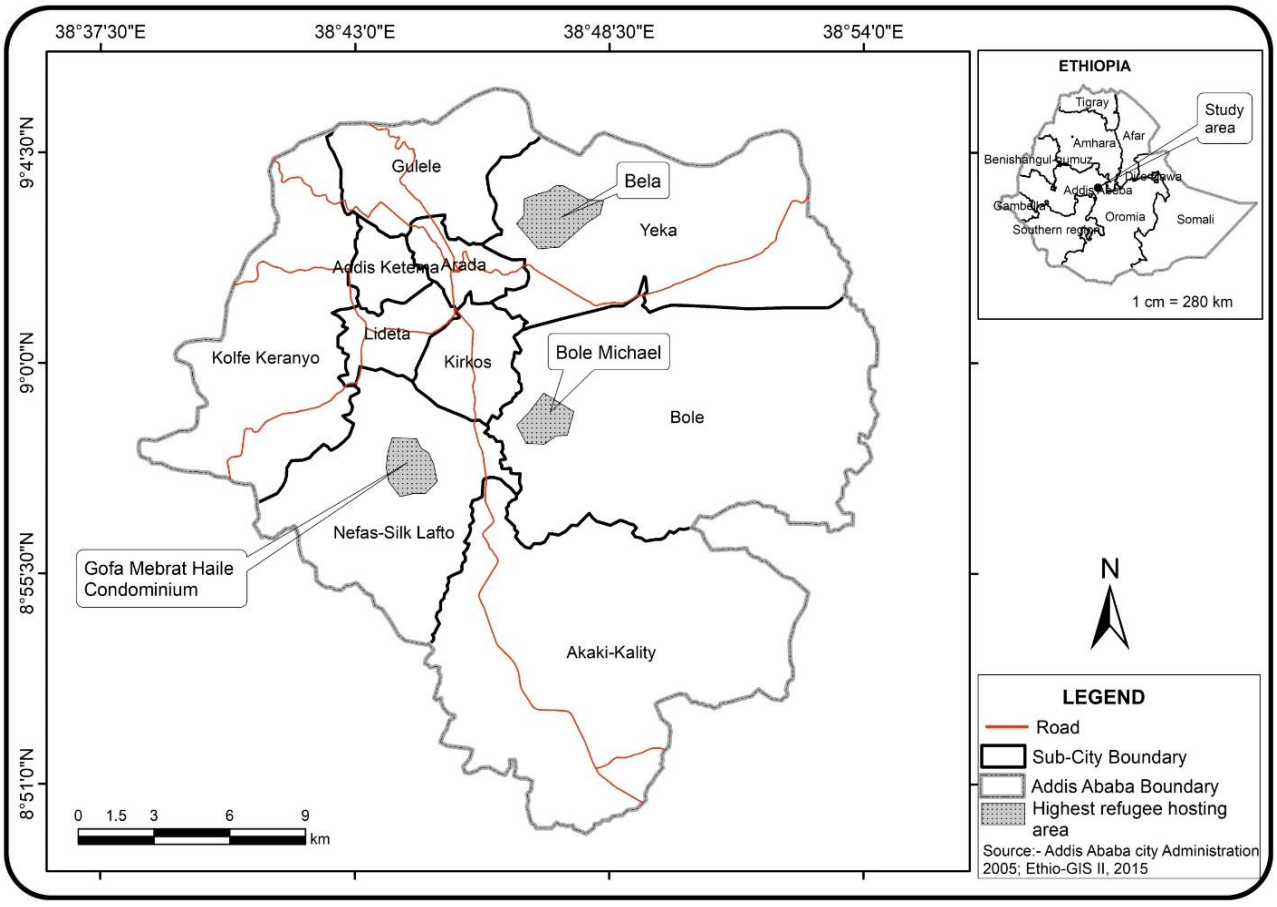

Figure 3.1: Ariel map of Addis Ababa city and the three studied sub cities

Being the capital of a non-colonized country in Africa, it has been playing a historic role in hosting the regional organizations such as the Organization of African Unity / African Union,

and the Economic Commission for Africa, which contributed to the decolonization of African countries, and later bringing Africa together. Its geographic location in the center of Ethiopia, combined with lack of development policies in other urban centers has given the capital the majority of social and economic infrastructure in the country. As a result, it has been a melting pot to hundreds of thousands of people, coming from all corners of the country in search of better employment opportunities and services. This high rate of rural urban migration accounts for about 40 percent of the growth. Coupled with rapid natural population growth, Addis Ababa one of the fast growing cites in Africa, posing critical challenges, including high rate of unemployment, housing shortage and environmental deterioration (UN-Habitat, 2017).

3.1.1 Governance and administrational structure

Ethiopia has a three-tier government structure: federal, regional and local. The 1995 Federal Constitution officially promulgated and assigned autonomy and functions to federal authorities and the nine autonomous states in the country (World Bank, 2015). An exception, however, applies to the cities of Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa. The two cities were granted the same autonomy level as state governments. The structural arrangement of Addis Ababa is thereby formed by the city administration, sub-city, and *Woreda.*

3.1.2 Population and Demographic Characteristics of Addis Ababa

According to CSA (2017), the population of Addis Ababa, was close to four million. For the capital city 662,728 households were counted living in 628,984 housing units, which results in an average of 5.3 persons to a household. Although, all Ethiopian ethnic groups are represented in Addis Ababa because it is the capital of the country. This number has been increased from the originally published 3,434,000 figure and appears to be still largely underestimated. Addis Ababa population is complex and hosting people from diverse ethnic origins as well as 22,885 registered refugees, out of which 79.8% are Eritrean refugee the remain 20.2% are from Yemen, Somalia, South Sudan and other nationalities including those from the great lake region, living in such diversified economic, social and cultural situations (UNHCR, 2019).

3.1.3 The economic role and Labor markets of Addis Ababa

Addis Ababa's attractiveness to businesses, companies, individuals and foreign direct investment has enhanced its importance in the domestic economy. Based on the urban employment and unemployment survey (CSA, 2015); the overall primacy index of Addis Ababa is 24.8. The city is simultaneously experiencing high rates of economic growth and urbanization, suggesting a likely further rising dominance of Addis Ababa in Ethiopia's economy as well as growing agglomeration of economic activities in and around the city. According to the State of Ethiopian Cities report (2015), Addis Ababa's share in GDP accounts for 29% of the total urban centers. Furthermore, the World Bank's Ethiopia Urbanization Review (2015) showed that 20% of the country's urban labor force is employed in Addis Ababa and the city is home to 68% of the country's urban jobs, particularly in real estate, information and communication, and in financial services.

According to the CSA (2015), the activity rate for the city of Addis Ababa as of 2015 is reported to be 60.8%, lower than the national estimate of 63.7%. There is also a big gender gap in Addis Ababa with males accounting for 70.0% and females only 53.1% of the total. National labor force data show that the total economic activity rate in 2013 was 61.3%, a bit higher than 2015. With regard to age category, the highest activity was registered in the 35-39 year and 40-44 years group, both at 86%. Affirmative action policies might be needed with regard to gender imbalance in economic activity rates in the city.

Available survey data for 2015 shows that the percentage of unemployed persons in Addis is significant and above the urban average of about 16.8%. On the other hand, Addis Ababa experiences a total unemployment rate of 21.2% of which males accounting for 14.4% and females 28.6% (CSA, 2015). The prevailing higher unemployment rate brings an increasing challenge for the urban economy of Addis Ababa.

3.2 Methodology

This part forms the research methodology more about including the methodological and approaches that were utilized as part of the examination. It gives comprehensive illustration of the method on how the sample size was determined and calculated, and further how the data were collected, processed and the models employed in investigating the urban refugee's food security and livelihood challenges to reach to research goal.

3.2.1 Research design

Retrospective cross sectional studies investigate a phenomenon or issue that has occurred in the past. Such studies most often involve secondary data collection, based upon data available from previous studies or databases (Patton, 1990). This research employed retrospective-cross-sectional study design as it was take in to account the information on the existing food security situation and gaps in livelihoods of out-of-camp refugees of Addis Ababa. Both primary and secondary data were collected from identified respondents and sources respectively. Qualitative data has been collected from identified key informants through in-depth interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) with various stakeholder groups. Quantitative data was also collected through a household survey among adult-targeted respondents.

3.2.2 Sampling technique and sample size determination

In order to answer the research questions, it is doubtful that researcher should be able to collect data from all cases. So that, the determination of the appropriate sample size is very important in any research as samples that are too large can waste resource, while too small may hardly represent the population and may lead to enormous findings and recommendations. According to the recent data obtained from the ECRRP (2020), there are 32,940 individuals registered refugees. The refugee's population profiles were obtained from the refugee agency UNHCR branch office in Addis Ababa.

Due to the dispersed nature of the refugees in the city, the researcher preferred the study to focus on the most significant Somali, Eritrean and South Sudanese-hosting areas of the sub cities of Bole (Bole Michael), Nefas Silk Lafto (Gofa Mebrat Hail Condominium) and Yeka (Bela) respectively. Cluster sampling technique and systematical random sampling were employed as it was believed suitable to locate the dispersed urban refugees with relative ease. The probability of the size of the population for each cluster was assumed as known from the database from the UNHCR. It was chosen because of budget constraints, less time, the population was also large and spread over a large area. Then, the sample size was calculated based on a simplified formula for proportions developed by Yamane (1967), cited in Singh & Masuku (2014), with 95% confidence level and P = 0.5 are assumed for the equation. A population proportion formula was used to estimate the sample size needed for this study. Since working with a finite population and if the population size is known and when the

original sample collected is more than 5% of the population size, the corrected sample size is determined by using the Yamane formula for determining the sample size. As well as it gives the opportunities that the researcher has to make a decision to collect even smaller number in order of simplicity of handling, costing but he has to ensure that the sample is representative.
The sample size was determined by using this formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N\ e^{\ 2}}$$

$$Sample\ size = \frac{32{,}940}{1 + 32{,}940\ \ 0.07^{\ 2}} = 202$$

Where n is the sample size, N is the population size, and e is the level of precision

3.2.3 Data collection tools and procedures

The quality of information about community/refugees is only as good as the technique or the combination of techniques used. On one hand, by using just one technique, the resulting information may be too narrow or vague. On the other hand, using several techniques may be costly in terms of time and money. It is upon the researcher to judge the pros and cons of the different available approaches and to decide which one is the most appropriate for evaluating the problematic situation. Occasionally, the combination of several techniques may provide a reasonable picture and may have the most significant results for the investigation. In this study, both primary and secondary data were used. Primary data on the refugee's household livelihood activities, determinants, challenges and food security situation was collected from the refugee's household survey, focus group discussion and key informant interviews. Secondary data in this study comprises reports of the office of UNHCR and ARRA, as well as journals, unpublished materials.

The quantitative data was gathered through semi-structured questionnaire with open-ended questions to extract information based on the pattern of response. The questionnaire had two parts.

a) It dealt with basic self-introduction, livelihood assets, activities, determinants, and challenges.

b) It comprised of measure of household food (in) security using, household food insecurity access scale (HFIAS) and the coping mechanism at times of difficulties.

a. Household survey

Household questionnaires were used to gather detailed and quantitative information on 1) to obtain data on demographic information about the interviewees in terms of age group, clan affiliation, marital status, and occupational and educational background; 2) to identify the legal, economic, educational, health, and social needs of the refugees; 3) to identify the strategies that the interviewees use to secure legal, economic, and social capital for the purposes of their livelihood; 4) to determine the extent to which refugees interact with host community; and 5) to determine if there are collective and community-building efforts in which the interviewees engaged for the purposes of securing food needs and livelihood. Well trained interviewers were administering a structured questionnaire to relevant household members in a standardized way, with no deviation from the original questions. The desired information was determined the relevant household member(s) (e.g., head of household, women with children, all women) to interview. Results are analyzed both statistically and qualitatively.

The researcher administered a questionnaire with open-ended questions to two-hundred-two refugees living in Addis Ababa, regarding their general background, food security status and coping mechanisms. The measurement tools used in the study were Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) and coping mechanisms tools. All members of a given household were interviewed. Finally, the questionnaires were collected from urban refugees after they fill it properly. In addition to the questionnaires, qualitative interviews were carried out to deepen the understanding of the refugee food security and livelihood of refugees in Addis Ababa.

b. Key Informant Interview (KII)

Key informant interviews provide the opportunity to collect detailed and nuanced information on specific topics. There are several KII forms, each aimed at a different stakeholder: Local government representative: at municipal or sub municipal level. 2. Government service providers: the district/municipal department responsible for education, housing, water, legal documentation and social services; access to employment, amenities. 3. Private sector service providers: for education; water; waste; housing (landlords); finance. 4. Traders: general market performance; distance; security; supply chain; access challenges; seasonal and basic

prices. 5. Community representatives: working in service provision for the population as a whole or for vulnerable groups (Mohiddin *et al.*, 2017).

Key Informant (KI) interview were selected by purposive sampling method, in general, which were thought to be profoundly well-informed in food security and livelihood challenges of refugees in particular and socio-economic characteristics of urban refugees. The purpose was to obtain local information on facts, attitudes and beliefs related to individual refugee's community members that are in the best position to provide the desired data required in the research and has been used guidance as illustrated by ACF (2010).

A total of 25 key informants interviews were conducted with stakeholders, including from government (ARRA), UN agencies, local NGOs and refugee central committee members. The interviews focused on the urban refugee's food security and livelihood challenges in accordance to the governance structures in Addis Ababa; attitudes and policies of government in regard to urban refugee work, license permission and current and future potential opportunities within this.

c. Focus Group Discussion (FDG)

The FGD tool is applicable in delivering deeper into issues than is possible or appropriate in the household survey; to discuss more sensitive issues particularly around protection, security, discrimination and people's perceptions. FGDs also provide an opportunity to collect information that has been missed out or poorly answered using the household assessment tool. For this reason, it is recommended to plan some FGDs for after the household assessment has started and following a team reflection of data collected. In doing so, this enables application of findings from the team reflection, in terms of data trends, gaps and findings that may require additional probing in the next round of household interviews and FGDs. Whilst there is no hard and fast rule for the size of the FGDs, the aim is to have enough participants to facilitate a full and interesting discussion whilst keeping the numbers manageable to ensure all voices are heard. The optimum size is likely to be around 8–10 participants. It is recommended that group size be maintained between 6–12 people (Mohiddin *et al.*, 2017).

Nine focus groups composed of six people were conducted with urban refugees. Participants were selected to reflect different members of the refugee community, and selection was based on a mix of nationalities, religions, genders and ages. The refugees who participated in the focus groups had not been included in the survey sample. The focus groups aimed to map the

experience of refugees in Addis Ababa: their journeys to the city; the challenges they face in the urban environment; their relationship with members of the local community; and the economic activity that refugees engage in within the host community. A total of 54 refugees participated in nine focus groups and three different refugee nationalities were included. The participants in Focus Group one, two and three were Eritrean refugees; Focus Group four, five and six (Somali) and Focus Group seven, eight and nine were South Sudanese refugees.

Hence, the FGDs were conducted in order to get comparative qualitative data and a target of three FGD was set for each sub city. The interviews were conducted using open-ended questionnaires to explore the perceptions of targeted sub-segments of the refugee's population with regards to food security and livelihood challenges.

3.2.4. Quality of the data

In order to preserve a good quality data, the researcher ensured that the data collected did not misrepresent the refugees. The study pretested the instrument by giving to the advisor to get content validity.

All the questionnaires was checked for completeness before releasing the interviewees at the end of the interview.The linguistic diversity of the settlement was also taken into consideration, in this direction; one of the methods used by the researcher was to employ assistance that could interact in the local language, employ a female interpreter because some respondent were more comfortable to speak to the female assistant. Refugees and actors in refugee protection were asked a common set of questions with regard to livelihood challenge issues, food security situation, work permit opportunities and the way they employed mechanisms in times of shortage. The researcher was as a result able to obtain qualitative information, composed of direct quotations and quantifiable information about refugees in Addis Ababa.

3.3 Method of data analysis

After information gathering, the filled-in and returned questionnaires altered for fulfillment, coded and sections made into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 20). Soon after the completion of the data collection, the data was cleaned, sorted and explored for normality ready for analysis, descriptive statistical method (SPSS v20), was applied.

The narrative analysis, described as a method which involves the reformulation of stories presented by respondents taking into account context of each case and different experience of each respondent (Dudovskiy, 2018). Depending on this concept, the narrative analysis was employed to analysis the qualitative data collected from key informants, focus group discussion and in-depth interviews as well as the activities observed during the field survey were transcribed, categorized and organized into the narrative analysis and discussed in detail. The qualitative data results were also tabulated to summarize the survey results in order to address the specific objectives of the study.

As stated earlier, the information was collected from respondents who were interviewed as key informants of having a sound knowledge about the situation of the refugees in the study area. The KIs interviewed were drawn from workers of the GoE, International and local NGOs who had some work experience of the urban refugees. Most of the refugees interviewed have spent between two years to ten years in the city. However, all the information collected in the field could be reliable at the time of the research, but due to the fact that refugees situation is not static means that the result could have some slight difference if the same research is conducted at a different time period.

3.3.1 Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) for Measurement of Food Access

Household's food accessibility was measured using items from the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS). The HFIAS consists of 9 items specific to an experience of food insecurity occurring within the previous four weeks. Each respondent was indicated whether they had encountered the items due to lack of food or money to buy food in the last one month. Endorsed a standard scoring procedure was used with 1 point for occurrence and 0 for non-occurrence. The frequency scores were ranged from 0 to 3, while 0 was the score for non-occurrence, 1 for rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks), 2 for sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks), and 3 for often (more than ten times in the past month). For the purpose of this paper, we were used the total score (9-items based on the frequency score). A total score of 27 represents the most food-insecure household whereas a lower score represents a more food-secure household (Coates et al., 2007 as cited in Hussein *et al.*, 2018).

3.3.2 Household coping mechanisms

Corresponding to the widespread sub-optimal food consumption was the frequent adoption of food-related coping behaviors at the household level to mitigate food shortages. This was also verified by the higher rate of coping behaviors among households with poor food consumption compared to those with a borderline or acceptable diet based on FAO/WFP (2019). The consumption and livelihood coping mechanisms deployed by the households based on a seven days recall were analyzed using the SPSS-Statistics (SPSS version 20) which is a software package used for interactive or batched, statistical analysis.

CHAPTER 4: LIVELIHOOD CHALLENGES, FOOD SECURITY STATUS AND COPING MECHANISMS OF URs

This study, the analysis of urban refugee's food security and livelihood challenges in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia was conducted in May 2020. The survey was based on cluster sampling, nationality and abundance in sub-city were used as primary sampling units, and the refugee households as secondary sampling unit. Households were selected randomly from either a list of households provided by the local authorities and by walking through the sub cities. The study covered a total of 202 respondents from refugee households belonging to three nationalities as well as key informants-having sound knowledge of their siyuation (see Table 4.1).

The study was based on the data gathered in three sub cities (Bole, Nefas silk Lafto and Gulele) in Addis Ababa. The quantitative and qualitative data were collected through surveys of individual refugee households, FGDs and KI intervies, followed by field observations.

The purpose of this section was to present the key results of the research. The results and discussions have been organized as separate sections. Therefore, this chapter has been devoted to the analysis of the results based on the refugees' demography as well as food security and livelihood challenges and the coping mechanism deployed by the refugee households during shocks.

4.1 Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

This section summarizes the findings of the demographic and socio-economic profile of the respondents. As table 4.1 shows, the refugee population was composed of three nationalities: Eritrean (35%), Somali (34%) and South Sudanese at 31 percent. The population was dominated by working age group of 18-45. The gender category described in the table shows that 57% percent of the refugee population was male while 43% was composed of female. Education-wise, nearly half of household (54 %), have received no primary education while more than a quarter (27%) reported having received 6-8 grade while only 5% and 2% of the respondents were having education level of secondary school and above. The capacity of younger persons to engage in the labor market and become self-reliant depends, in part on their level of education. However, as it has been described in table 4.1, most of the young refugees have only reached primary school.

Table 4.1: Demographic profile of the respondents

Personal characteristics	**Number of Respondents**	**Percent**
Nationality		
Eritrean	70	35
Somali	68	34
South Sudanese	64	31
Total	202	100
Gender		
Male	113	57
Female	89	43
Age group		
18 - 45	202	100
Educational level		
0-5	116	54
6-8	61	27
9-12	16	5
College	9	2

Source: Computed based on the survey data, May 2020

4.2 Refugee perceptions of livelihood opportunities available in Addis Ababa

Refugee households were asked their perceptions on what available livelihood opportunities motivated them to settle in Addis Ababa. This result highlights that little is known about the livelihood opportunities as the main income source of the refugees was confirmed to be assistance (remittance) from relatives residing abroad. Table 4.2 shows that institutional employment (UNHCR, ARRA and local NGOs) and construction followed by petty trade were relatively the dominant perception of sources of livelihoods for the urban refugees, as they represent about 27.2, 19.3 and 15.3 of the available livelihood activities respectively. While other activities such as personal services, translation and education were also activities that help to generate income and ensure improvement in their food consumption and other needs.

This result ties well with previous study Brown et al. (2018) cited in Alemu and Carver (2019), found that urban refugees in Addis Ababa, have engaged in informal employment in Ethiopian-owned firms, informally owned refugee enterprises and formal organizations; to run informal as well as formal (by using business licenses of Ethiopian nationals) enterprises in service provision, retail trade, leisure and hospitality, and construction; to have received business grants and loans, skills and business training program; and to be highly dependent on remittances. That said, the lack of legal permission to work has made it challenging to secure employment and has also led to workplace discrimination and exploitation and insecurity of investments and enterprises.

This is consistent with what has been found in previous report by UNHCR (2009), which stated that refugees move to cities because of the greater range of opportunities and amenities these locations offer, such as more diversified employment possibilities in both the formal and informal sectors, more accessible markets and better developed infrastructure than in isolated camps or rural settlements, and in principle a greater range of services available such as financial services, transport and communications, training opportunities, etc. The evidence gathered through UNHCR's assessments and reviews shows that the majority of working-age urban refugees are either employed or self-employed. However, they also demonstrate that refugees face a range of constraints when trying to make a living in the cities such as legal environment in the country of asylum, protection risks related to the informal sector and lack of appropriate assets for sustainable and predictable income.

Contrary to the findings, the qualitative information gathered from the refugees show that there was not any kind of income generating activities designed for refugees in the city. Activities available entail casual and irregular labor. The level of dependency on external assistance is very high demonstrating the very low level of self-reliance of refugees living in the capital of Ethiopia. When one refugee clarified this, the point he stated the following:

Sometimes we go to different areas of the Addis Ababa to try and find some daily labor and we forced to pay transport cost. Even Casual labor pays very little it is difficult to get. If you don't receive any assistance from abroad, it is just very difficult. Plus, even daily labor is not accessible to everyone. There are a lot of refugees trying to find work in Addis Ababa. There are too many refugees and poor citizen to compete for to get work.

Further, as mentioned by some of the respondents from the interviews conducted in the capital, the greatest challenge is the difficulty to find a livelihood in the city. The Ethiopian regulations greatly limit their ability to get a job. Refugees cannot access a formal job because they are not allowed to work. In addition, they cannot present a proper work permit to their potential employers. Furthermore, Ethiopian employers ask for guarantor to hire any refugee in the formal sector. Some refugees also pointed out the fact that employers are having security issues as a result, strictly ask for an Ethiopian guarantor. This was described a respondent as follows:

> *"The delay of the right to work as a policy has made it very difficult for the urban refugees to find employment. Majority of us have experienced the absence of work permit and the difficulty to have an Ethiopian guarantor as the main barriers preventing any refugee from entering the labor market easily. Similarly, because there are restrictions on their movement and because we cannot obtain business licenses, it is difficult for us to establish our own sustainable livelihood activities".*

Table 4.2: Available livelihood activities for refugees

Available livelihood activities	**Number of respondents**	**%**
Institutional Employment (UNHCR, ARRA)	55	27.2
Construction	39	19.3
Petty Trade	31	15.3
Technical Services (electrician, mechanics, repair, etc.)	27	13.4
Personal Services (Beauty Parlors, Hairdresser, Barber)	22	10.9
Translation	17	8.4
Education	5	2.5
Manufacture and Health Care	4	2

Source: Computed based on the survey data, May 2020

4.3 Income sources of URs

This was an important finding in the understanding of the main income sources of urban refugees. Table 4.3 presents the results on main activities refugees' income sources in the study area. The analysis found evidence that the refugees in the city have different sector preferences and adaptation in securing their income source and the assessment found that 35

percent of refugee households have declared that their usual primary source of income was remittance from relatives. Earnings from casual labor are the second most common income source (25 percent) among surveyed refugee households. Revenues from small businesses (24.7 percent) and cash money from humanitarian aid & assistance (18.3 percent) are also common sources of income in the refugee population.

A similar pattern of results was obtained in by Brown *et al.,* (2018), took issue with a comparable problem regarding refugees in the city and identified four main income sources (informal employment, humanitarian assistance, remittances and reciprocal employment) also the study stated that the refugees have no right to work and informal work is generally tolerated in Addis Ababa.

Overall these findings are in accordance with findings reported by Carver (2019), who found remittances as an important source of income for refugees in Ethiopia, although this varies based on the extent of individuals' relationships with those in the diaspora. Somali, South Sudanese and Eritrean diaspora communities are actively involved in sending money to Ethiopia the impact appears to be particularly significant among Eritrean and Somali refugees. A similar conclusion was reached by a FGD on the roles of remittances to have a huge impact in the refugees' livelihood. According, to the FGD remittance plays a special role in the income sources of refugees living in Addis Ababa, in the name of OCP- scheme settings. It was estimated that many refugees were reliant upon remittances sent to them by family members living in the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom or other countries.

This was consistent with what has been stated by one Eritrean man interviewed:

> *"I had received approximately $200 to $300 per month from my relatives living in the USA and Canada. Most of this money was used to pay house rent and feed my family. I had yet to save enough money to start a micro-business and even if I had the money, I did not have the skills or knowledge to do so. Ashamed of having to continue to take money from my family abroad and frustrated at the lack of employment opportunities, I feared what the future would bring for me and my family being a refugee in Addis Ababa".*

Table 4.3: Main income sources of URs

Most important income sources	**Number of Respondents**	**%**
Remittances from relatives	71	35
Earnings from casual labor	51	25
Revenues from small businesses	50	24.7
Cash money from humanitarian aid & assistance	37	18.3

Source: Computed based on the survey data, May 2020

4.4 Main livelihood challenges of URs

In order to prove what challenges, faced by refugees in Addis Ababa, it seemed that necessary to first portray the degree to which income source and livelihood was being affected. The assessment therefore focused on measuring challenges faced by the refugees during their stay at the city (Addis Ababa). Both quantitative (Table 4.4.) and qualitative data revealed a wide range of obstacles that can explain the low access of URs to livelihood. By far, the lack of the right to work regulation and the lack of job opportunities were considered as the main constraining element by refugees which makes it difficult for them to gain an additional income.

It was worth discussing these interesting facts revealed by the results of the assessment, in which the lack of the right to work regulation was found to be the main challenge (34%) followed by lack of job opportunities (24%), lack of experience (14%) was rated as the third challenge; lack of market information (8%) was rated fourth; discrimination (7%) fifth and rejection by host community (3%) as the least challenge. These basic findings are consistent with Brown et al., (2018), showing that refugees have no de jure right to work in Ethiopia, a de facto right exists whereby informal work is in-part tolerated, although experiences differed. Refugees in Addis Ababa were found to have challenges: informal employment, limited access to employment, discrimination in employment, lack of access to business licenses, language and assimilation barriers.

Table 4.4: Main obstacles of refugees to access livelihood

Limitations to livelihood activities	**Number of respondents**	**%**
Lack of working permits	69	34
Lack of job opportunities	48	24

Lack of experience	28	14
Lack of market information	16	8
Discrimination	15	7
Acceptance by the host community	6	3

Source: Computed based on the survey data, May 2020

4.4.1. Lack of working permits and lack of job opportunities

The lack of the right to work regulation was found to be the main challenge followed by lack of job opportunities as indicated earlier. The daily life of refugees is moreover influenced by the labour market, or the lack of perspectives. For this reason restrictive civil liberties and work permits, coupled with the lack of economic livelihoods, and of access to resources and markets, often led to refugees not being able to lead a stable life. perform their former gender roles. For instance, men might be unable to fulfill their role the.

According to the information from intervied an Eritrean refugee, employer are aware that refugees are unlikely to file complaints for a variety of reasons such as fear of losing their job, a lack of knowledge about their legal rights or how the legal system works, language barriers, fear that doing so will negatively affect their legal status in the country, and fear of being disbelieved when it is the word of a local versus that of a foreigner.

She was working informally as French teacher and she said that finding a job is very difficult and the jobs are found through the connection she had. She explained that there are risky with no contract employment agreement and the lawdoesn't allow them to work. If you are caught teaching there was chance they may be taken to education office authorities but some schools just ignore this sort of policing, like private schools. They take advantage of you being without papers because they can pay small less amount salary. Refugees become more vulnerable to exploitation. Without legal alternative forms of income, they are more likely to engage in occupations that are illegal, risking themselves in the process.

The irregularity of these jobs also means owners of such businesses are generally not supervised and cannot have any legislation enforced upon them, precisely because of a lack of regulation that would protect the rights of refugee employees. Thus, refuges are in vulnerable conditions exposed to their dictated terms, which usually are unfavorable to the weakest link in the arrangement. According to her:

"Due to the restrictions I had no legal right to negotiate my salary. The job security and amount of salary is at the will of the employer. Sometimes I used to be paid after a week later after all employees of the school were paid, when I found the job I was asked to sleep with director of human resource, and I slept with him because I needed the job".

Refugees also face exploitation in the labor market as they do not have work permits due to delay of policy implementation. They often receive much lower wages than Ethiopians for similar work, wages are withheld, or are paid with incentive money' rather than regular wages, or employment is ended arbitrarily. The right to engage in wage earning employment or self employment plays an important role in the ability of refugees to pursue productive livelihoods. The interviewee respondent who were involved in the informal work calmed they were Withheld wages, forced unpaid overtime, and sexual harassment by employers where common.

These finding corroborates with the study published by Jesuit Refugee Service (JRS, 2013), summarized that urban refugees live in contexts where social, health and other basic services exist but are often not readily available to them. Obstacles facing urban refugees as they try to access services include lack of information and of legal documentation; lack of understanding of refugee rights and obligations; cultural and linguistic barriers; limited access to transport; and active discrimination against refugees and perceived impunity for crimes against them.

Omata (2012), which was broadly in line with this finding, indicates that depending on the level of economic status, refugees problems in Uganda differs. Refugees at a surviving level, mostly small-scale informal traders, confront multiple difficulties. Common challenges raised by them included lack of access to financial capital, tense competition with other traders, high registration costs, limited command of the local language and expensive rent for a selling space in local markets. In addition, many of the refugees in this category have few marketable skills or previous business experience. Consequently, the livelihood options open to them are quite limited and they are often stuck with less profitable subsistence.

Contrary to these findings, the UNHCR (2018) defines the right to work as one of the basic human rights. Thus, the UNHCR describes the right to work as a human right established in Article 23.1 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and in Article 6 of the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights. It allows men and women of all ages and backgrounds to become self-reliant in dignity and free from discrimination.

Unfortunately, the refugees in the study area face several challenges that render their adjustment to urban life uneasy.

While the results lead to similar conclusion where the right to work regulation was the main challenge. As it can be understand from the qualitative data, many of the refugee households did not have any member engaged in formal job activity to provide their income needs though few have license in the name of an Ethiopian citizen, in the 30 days prior to the survey. This revealed that regular employment was not common. As a result, most refugees and other respondents complained about the strict specificity nature of the work permits. Consequently, many refugees and some key informant respondents feel worried and expressed some concerns in relation to the human rights of refugees in relation to formal job. Robel, one of the Eritrean refugee community leaders in his early 40s, highlighted this point:

> *"One thing I can say about urban refugee's livelihood in Addis is a significant diversity. Some are doing very well and they are completely self-reliant. Others are doing OK and they can meet their basic needs. But many refugees are having a tough life in the city. Some of them are on the edge of survival every day."* (Interview with Robel, May 2020)

An interview with a refugee from Somalia also described the great difficulty in adjusting to life in Addis Ababa such as:

> *"Life was totally changed because in Somalia we had a good standard of living, things were easy…we were used to buying things (food and clothes) in Somalia, and we didn't receive them in Ethiopia. In Somalia, we had something to do and we had many types of ways to earn a living. Also…we were getting vocational training. Here we didn't find anywhere to work. When we arrived we found that the majority of people lives off of remittance and other aid sources. But as I wasn't used to this, it became a problem for me, because there was nothing to do".*

In addition, one key informant observed some of the major livelihood's activities orientation differences among the different refugees' nationalities when he said:

> *"Some refugees are just business minded like the Somali and Eritreans who can run even big companies with ease. They are also known for their very good manners and disciplined behavior; you would give them a little something to start a business within a few months/years you would see how they would just progress because of their disciplined minds and lifestyles. However, the right is not installed in the ground yet".*

Another key informant on the other hand has stated his perception as:

> *"Despite the restrictions on right to work and the lack of job opportunity authorities are broadly tolerant of refugees working in the informal economy legally they will not get a business license. But if they work, no one follows them. The barrier for refugees with former professional training or work experience were, in large, found to be currently not using such skills. Part of the reason for this is undoubtedly due to the already saturated work market in Addis Ababa even skilled Ethiopians nationals have difficulty finding work".*

Two officials from ARRA, familiar with the difficulty's refugees experience regarding right to work also summed up the URs situation as follows:

> *"To have access to formal employment they need to obtain an employment permit to get a formal employment contract; so, it's very limited and as long as they work and are confined in the city they have to work on the refugee wage which is not more than two thirds of an Ethiopians wage per month for the same position, this is regardless of being full time or part time".*

Most of the key respondents agreed on the national, legal and policy environment in Ethiopia places degree of restrictions on rights to work for refugees. As perfectly explained by a key informant:

> *"In theory but not in practice the right to work for refugees is legally accepted. Refugees formally excluded from the labor market and denied access to educational opportunities-particularly to higher education. In rare situations, although refugees are granted work permits, access to sustainable income generating activities is severely limited. Consequently, a significant proportion of refugees are exposed to various forms of exploitation and economic abuse. Opportunities for accessing in the formal employment are very limited. In some cases, even though work offers an alternative income stream for refugee households, economic pressures have forced many to accept work in exploitative, socially degrading, or high-risk conditions. This indicates that, in the current context, access to employment does not necessarily translate into reduced vulnerability".*

This was further elaborated by a 30-year-old male refugee and 2 others stated, they have difficulty in accessing the formal job. They said the following when explained about their work status and implications experience in the city:

"We have been living in Addis Ababa for seven years, we thought what the Government of Ethiopia promised about refugees in New York was a way to go. But the implementation is far from the reality in the ground. The main issue is that we refugees are struggling to get a license to hire in work of any profession. For instance, my friend is a graduate from a health sector. He looked for a job in that sector but he couldn't find any. He had to be Ethiopian".

4.4.2. Lack of experience and lack of market information

All of the constraining factors cause that URs struggle to meet their basic needs on a regular basis, lack of experience and lack of market information fall under this catogery. Life in the city brings only a few opportunities in the informal market to generate income which makes URs highly dependent on remittance and assistance from UNHCR programs.

To interpret the findings related to influence of experiences and market information on URs in Addis Ababa, a qualitative data analysis was used to indicate how these refugees are challenged in relation to these factors. Some of them have stated that they have good work experience while others suffered more from lack of it, others said that they have very limited communication with other refugees and Ethiopians which aggreviated to their lack of market information. By looking at the study result, refugees' lack of experience and lack of information were some of the challenges identified in relation to access their livelihood and food security. Refugees also mentioned that refugee ID cards are not accepted by different service providers, hindering access of some refugees to services.

As stated by some of of the respondents, their challenges were mainly generated from their poor record of work experience as well as low source of market information. "I came to Addis two years ago. Since then, even for existing activities, it is very challenging to generate some income and securing livelihood due to the low market opportunities and poor work experience. While explaining this, the respondents have stated the following:

" In any type of livelihood activities, the market is not encouraging as most us lacks valuable information as well as the quality of work experience. Alongside the skill trainings and getting support investments from UNHCR other NGOs, the URs have to be linked to the markets which is tough work to do for everyone. "

4.4.3. Discrimination, language barriers and other challenges

Under this category, some respondents have stated that they have not yet been well integrated with the practices of the host community. Refugees face exploitation in the labour market as they do not have work permits due a pending process of implementation. Surprisingly, for a similar work type, they often receive much lower wages than Ethiopians wages are withheld, or are paid with 'incentive money' rather than regular wages, or employment is ended arbitrarily.

As Haben and three others stated, they have limited interaction and unsuccessful integration experience with Ethiopians. She said the following when she explained about her integration experience:

> *" I came to Addis Ababa with my cousin. He has been in the city before and I relied on him for any communication with Ethiopians. Since he knew Amharic, I never cared about interacting with the host community. But recently, he went to Sudan and I have been challenged when I need to communicate even with my landlord. I feel like I should have made some effort but the fact that I'm just here till I am permanently resettled elsewhere discouraged me a bit."*

As these respondents mentioned, the main causes for their limited integration experience can be categorized in to low language proficiency. Not speaking an Ethiopian language, particularly Amharic, is a core problem for many refugees in accessing livelihoods, although those who speak another Ethiopian language, eg Tigrinya or Somali, find getting employment easier. Language training for refugees would be an extremely valuable support.Since they saw language as the main means of interaction, respondents have stated that this has restricted them to interact with host community and limit their interactions with fellow refugees only. As explained by a refugee intervied:

> *"I have been living in the city for more than 2 years. But I never wanted to go along with or integrated with Ethiopians. I couldn't speak Amharic so I feel uncomfortable. I normally use translators when I need to communicate with them."*

As it is explained in different literature Socio-cultural situation as a process, is mainly starts with the establishment of contact between refugees and host communities. This interaction begins with interpersonal communication or friendliness between the refugees and the host

communities that extends to intensive social interaction. This interaction gradually eases barriers to integration and enables the refugees to live alongside with the host community that further develops to forming social networks such as marriage and participating in different social institutions (Wogene, 2017).

As it is stated by different scholars language is the major factors that impact the socio-culture situation of refugee's setting. Consequently Ethiopia's ethnic and cultural diversity has affected social relations with refugees. Language and cultural knowledge are perceived to be necessary to effectively integrate within the wider community. Being able to speak the main language of the host community is, for example, consistently identified as central to the integration process. (Age and Strang 2008, and Suleyman2014).

The difficulty of speaking, writing in and understanding the Sematic Amharic language has been for much the biggest challenge and a cause to lose interest in trying to comprehend the most basics of the language. The challenge is described by Somali and a South Sudanese refugee as:

> *"We have been living in Addis since 2017. We are trying to know it from friends. Amharic is very difficult. We are stressed out when we think about speaking Amharic. We have many Ethiopian friends but and tried to speak many times, but we can't. Some Ethiopian friends say 'you hate us because you don't want to learn our language. We are trying our best to know the language, but it is very difficult".*

According to a social service program officer at DICAC explain, communication and proficiency in local languages knowledge is the major barrier refugees face, the officer had the following to share with the researcher:

> *"We are presently experiencing an impressive culture of welcoming that is making a lasting impact on the image of Ethiopia in the world. Yet welcoming refugees is only a start. What is decisive will be how soon the people are given access to society and how their living condition can be developed language has been and still is a major barrier for refugees to access any service they want and need".*

According to one Officer at ARRA, the officer had the following to share with the researcher:

> *"Even though refugees might have the skills needed to make money in an urban setting like Addis Ababa such as business skills, the lack of other important abilities such as being able to communicate, not able to negotiate with the host community and speak the*

local language is a great challenge".

Other challenges in accessing livelihood that were mentioned by respondents includes:

1. **the rapid increment of costs of basic necessities** despite accessibility, basic necessities were very costly in Addis Ababa as it has been described in the focus group discussion.

2. House rent was the first thing that was mentioned by these refugees as being expensive. As a result, house rent was described as one of the largest financial outgoings for households and is an expenditure that households often fail to cover. When possible, households borrow money to keep up with rental payments, but when this is not possible, they face disagreements with landlords even for further eviction and relocate to likely worse quality accommodation. As access to more affordable shelter reduces the financial burden and allow for the reallocation of resources to other household needs. The idea of the focus group discussion was shared as:

> *"Five years ago, a two bed room house was 1500 birr per month but now it has sky-rocketed to more than 6000 birr. The same increment of costs is seen in injera, electric city and other basic needs. Sometimes, I might not get the money to cover for these basic needs. It is extremely difficult for me to sustainably these expenses".*

3. **lack of access to education** due to language barriers and poor support from donors, and unequal treatment in schools, lack of educational certificates from countries of origin and lack of schools/access to education for refugee children with specific needs.

Most interviewees feel that they lack educational resources for themselves and their children. Many cite lack of legal residence, financial resources, and a sense of instability for their inability to pursue education. A considerable number of refugees found that their situation as temporary refugees who do not have rights to permanent resettlement, citizenship, and employment discourages them from pursuing long-term educational opportunities. One refugee conveyed this attitude through these words:

The challenge further accentuated by a refugee from South Sudan who has spent 4 years in Addis Ababa declares that they are leading a precarious life whereby they can hardly predict the future;

> *"Our children attend school in Amharic classrooms and they are taught in languages different from what they were taught at home, and most of the time when they are asked questions they get confused".*

4.5 Households Food Accessibility

Household food security status was measured by using Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) according to (Coates et al., 2007) (Table 4.5). Based on this, the findings in the study showed that 43.4%, of the households in the study area were food secure, 24% were mildly food insecure and 21%, moderately food insecure. As it can been seen from the result, the challenges faced in accessing food may be due to the fact that many of the URs have more or less source of income from relatives abroad in the form of remittances but not at regular pattern. When comparing these results to those of older studies, it must be pointed out that the food security of the households was better than this present study. For instance, a recent study of refugees in Addis Ababa (Betis *et al.,* 2019), found that 74% of Somali refugees has an acceptable food security level, compared with 95% for Eritrean refugees, and an average of 99% for host communities.

Table 4.5: HFIAS condition of refugee households (n=177)

HFIAS Conditions	**Number of respondents (Frequency)**			
	no	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
1. In the past four weeks, did you worry that your household would not have enough food?	54	52	66	30
2.In the past four weeks, were you or any household members not able to eat the kinds of foods you/they preferred because of a lack of resources?	112	42	38	10
3.In the past four weeks, did you or any household members have to eat a limited variety of foods due to a lack of resources?	57	78	52	15
4.In the past four weeks, did you or any household members have to eat some foods that you/they really did not want to eat because of a lack of resources to obtain other types of food?	103	49	31	19
5.In the past four weeks, did you or any household members have to eat a smaller meal than you/they felt you/they needed because there was not enough	60	39	67	36

food?				
6.In the past four weeks, did you or any household members have to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food?	82	41	41	38
7.In the past four weeks, was there ever no food of any kind to eat in your household because of lack of resources to get food?	73	72	23	34
8.In the past four weeks, did you or any household embers go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?	90	45	43	24
9.In the past four weeks, did you or any household embers go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?	69	36	46	51

Source: Computed based on the survey data, May 2020

As per the individual and FGDs interviews, one of the main challenges faced by their HH was related to food security. Reasons given were several, and included decreasing remittance, lack of formal work opportunity and a lack of access to aid (UNHCR or NGOs). Respondents with low network and low educational background were most frequently at risk for food insecurity. The food security categorization of the refugees' respondents in the study area was determined by analyzing the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS). From this analysis, four groups emerged: severely food insecure, moderately food insecure, marginally food secure and fully food secure. As indicated in table 4.5, very few households are considered to be food insecure.

Table 4.6 Food Security Classification based on HFIAS

Category based on HFIAS	**Percent**
Food secure	43.4
Mildly food insecure	24
Moderately food insecure	21
Severely food insecure	11.6

Even though, it's common struggling significantly in relation to a series welfare indicator, low in income levels, most of the refugee communities are of at a better food security status. Overall, only 11.6 percent and 21% of the refugee households often (more than ten times per month) and

sometimes (3-10 times per month) worry about food insecurity based on the behaviors listed based on HFIAS. The rest 67 percent of them has no or they do worry only rarely (once or twice a month) about not having enough food. Therefore, the refugee households in Addis Ababa are most likely to be food secure with 67 percent being in 'acceptable' food security levels.

4.6 Household level of coping mechanisms

Food consumption is the frequent adoption of food-related coping behaviors at the household level to mitigate food shortages (FAO, 2019). The food-based coping mechanism indicators consist conditions/behavior related to food consumption that a household can apply in situations when they do not have enough food or money to buy food. In coping with the shocks, the majority of the households used consumption, expenditure-reducing and other non-consumption mechanisms, which are discussed below.

4.6.1 Consumption coping mechanisms

Based on the study result, less preferred and less expensive foods were derived which described that they adopted more than once during the week prior to the survey as a means of consumption coping mechanism. As can be seen in table 4.6, the most frequently-adopted method for the refugee households was relying on less preferred and less expensive foods in a day. Among the surveyed households in the study area 41.2 percent, reported using this coping behavior in the week prior to the survey. Other most frequently adopted coping mechanisms were Borrow food, or rely on help from a friend or relative (36.2%), reduce number of meals eaten in a day (36.2%), Reduce number of meals eaten in a day (33.9), limit portion size at mealtimes (28.6%), send household members to eat elsewhere, Such as neighbors, friends or relatives house (19.2) and send household members to beg in order to manage food shortages.

Table 4.6: Consumption coping mechanisms of URs

Coping mechanisms types	**Number of respondents**	**Percent**
Rely on less preferred and less expensive foods	73	41.2
Borrow food, or rely on help from a friend or relative	64	36.2
Send household members to eat elsewhere, Such as	33	19.2

neighbors, friends or relatives house		
Send household members to beg	28	17.7
Limit portion size at mealtimes	50	28.6
Restrict consumption of adults in order for small children to eat	24	14.8
Feed working members of HH at the expense of non-working members	20	12.7
Reduce number of meals eaten in a day	60	33.9
Skip entire days without eating	2	1

Source: Computed based on the survey data, May 2020

Related report by UNHCR and WFP (2014) has shown the use of reduction in average quality, variety and size of meal as common approaches to coping with lower levels of food consumption. Refugees used food consumption related coping strategies, including: reducing portion sizes; reducing number of meals; eating less preferred foods or consuming less diversified food items. During these periods, parents reported trying to protect the rations for their children, while reducing their own intake. Nevertheless, poor harvests lead to food shortages, hunger and illness, which are exacerbated by the lack of savings and access to credit.

In the FGD part of the qualitative data reported by the refugees described that households employ a consumption coping mechanism system. They wake up late because don't have work and eat a late brunch at 11 am, after carrying out the daily tasks; they then eat an early dinner around 5pm. In the long-term this approach to food consumption can lead to issues such as chronic health problems and without access to income or to safety nets, refugees are even more at risk. Consumption related coping can deal with the effects of acute hunger; however the chronic consequences may lead to profound long-term effects for the health and productivity of people.

The Food and other expenditure strategies used as a coping mechanism have been described by Somalia's in the FGDs as follows:

"To spend less money on food, people in the same household share meals and split the costs of food. The diet is limited. Many refugees stay up late at night and sleep late in the morning. Hence most adults skip breakfast. Children are often fed traditional Somali fried food (made

of corn and flour) with oil and tea and very little sugar (sugar is used very economically since it is consumed in tea drinking during the long hours of socializing with roommates and friends during the night). For lunch, household members often eat pasta and sauce. Leftovers from lunch are eaten at dinner, or bread is consumed with leftover sauce from lunch. In many households, members choose to suspend the dial service in the house telephone so that they can save money on telephone bills. They use their phones only for receiving calls from family members living abroad. Communication with family members residing abroad is also done through e-mail at cheap internet cafes".

4.6.2 Livelihood coping mechanisms

Besides tackling food consumption challenges through consumption related behavior, households also reported non-consumption coping mechanisms to overcome food related shocks. Participants agreed that the ability of refugees to cope with their difficult conditions was dependent on their assets and skill sets in which better educated and more skilled refugees were less vulnerable.

The non-coping mechanisms include sell assets for food has been the most resorted to short-term solution at 30.7 percent, ration the money they had and buy prepared food (30.3%) indicating a lack of monetary resources at household level to maintain or improve their food security situation. On the other hand, purchasing food on credit was far more frequent behavior within the households (25 percent). Other most frequently adopted livelihood coping mechanisms was working for food at 14 percent (table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Livelihood coping mechanisms of URs

Coping mechanisms types	**Number of respondents**	**Percent**
Purchase food on credit	51	25
Working for food	28	14
Sell assets for food	62	30.7
Ration the money you had and buy prepared food	61	30.3

Source: Computed based on the survey data, May 2020

This finding corroborates with the study of OCHA (2014) that found as food insecurity increases, people sell their non-productive assets to raise the income to afford food. Refugees

have fewer assets, often arriving at transit centers with next to nothing. The current crisis in the Central African Republic has seen refugees and returnees arrive in the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Republic of Congo, Chad and Cameroon in general exhausted without personal belongings, limited financial means and often in very bad health and poor physical condition. Overall, the focus group discussions in the study confirmed that prostitution and theft as survival strategies were the most frequent coping mechanisms. This can be attributed to two factors: a) the luck of work permits in the high population density of the urban context and competition over resources, making people highly vulnerable and desperate, and b) easy access to activities that are harmful and illegal. Many of the refugees interviewed expressed their continued frustration over a perceived rise in crime, theft and poverty in urban areas in connection to their relatives. Generally, the limited livelihood activities and job opportunities in the city rated as the main challenges which forced the refugees to sell a part of their assets, and in some cases resulted in negative coping mechanisms (theft and prostitution). The lack of access to credit services or capital to start small businesses, very limited job opportunities for women and lack of skills training opportunities also aggravates their situation. Refugees further indicated that existing livelihood projects are not developed in line with skills and talents of refugees.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

This chapter has been devoted to the concluding remarks of the main findings of the study: investigation of the URs income sources and the livelihood challenges they have been facing, accessibility of food and the households pursue in the drive to attain food security as well as their livelihood coping mechanisms during shortage. Basically, the aim of the present study was to explore and deepen the understanding of food security and livelihood situation of refugees in Addis Ababa. In contributing to filling the knowledge gap, the research tried to bring to light the challenges and coping mechanisms of the urban refugees. A range of related literature review as well as concepts of refugees food security and livelihood were used to highlight the challenges of urban environment and to understand the nature of possible solution based on past scholar works.

In order to understand the urban refugees' situation in Addis Ababa, their past experience need to be taken consideration. Refugees may find themselves in vulnerable condition for a wide range of reasons in securing food security and livelihood, which often overlap. The overall findings of the research have shown that the access of urban refugees to livelihood opportunities is very low while their food security was within acceptable level.

The output of the analysis of this research indicated that the urban refugees receive remittances from abroad and work in the casual work as their main means of income source to secure livelihood needs. Revenues from small business and the humanitarian aid have also a good contribution in getting an additional income.

Although the probability of finding a job in urban areas is higher than in the camps, many refugees in Addis Ababa reported that the lack of working permits, poor work experience and lack of information related to the labor market are considered as the main barrier to their livelihood. Few refugees' groups also voiced concerns about discrimination and rejection by the community as an additional limitation to access livelihood. As a result, the refugees in Addis Ababa have great difficulty in accessing livelihoods and are overall very dependent on remittance from relatives and UNHCR assistance to survive. There are no formal employment opportunities for refugees in the city. With the exception of those employed by nongovernmental organizations and ARRA, many of the refugees living in the city are unemployed.

The study also revealed that refugees' food security and the success of livelihoods were constrained by a number of factors, most of which were external to them including the Government of Ethiopia's policies, the formal and informal rules and regulations in place, and the absence and lack of access to supporting functions. In pursuing their livelihoods, urban refugees in Addis Ababa face a restrictive environment and other challenges. To start with, the types and extent of livelihoods opportunities in the city are few and confined dominantly to institutional employment (UNHCR, ARRA) as well as in the informal economy livelihoods.

Secondly, a wide range of obstacles that can explain the low access of urban refugees to livelihood: was that the lack of the working permit to access job opportunity as one of the main obstacles for their livelihood activity. Most only find underpaid casual daily labor in the construction-related sector, while some are self-employed and engage in small business few others also considered that the humanitarian aid has also a good contribution in getting an additional income. Finally, this undermines the resilience of the urban refugee households, limits their prospects to claim decent work and ignores the potential of refugees to survive on their own in the city.

5.2 Recommendations

ARRA, UNHCR, and other humanitarian agencies working in refugee settings need to help URs find long-term solutions to secure their livelihoods and improved food security. The GoE should also create a suitable environment in order refugees to be assisted by humanitarian organization to build sustainable livelihood. This can be achieved by increased education and capacity building support to refugee by the state to ensure that they are able to qualify for the employment opportunities that would be made available by the new refugee law. In fact, URs need to acquire goods and services, and cash every day, but many aspects of urban settings make the pursuit of livelihoods risky. The GoE recent policy declares that urban refugees would have granted the right to work and proposes many durable solutions. However, a major obstacle often lies in the implementation of such frameworks. For this reason, emphasis should be on bridging the gap between law and practice through the strengthening of accountability mechanisms to follow up and evaluate the implementation of laws addressing the durable solution such as the right to work and to own property or businesses in addis Ababa.

Based on the result of the study, a portion of their population were affected by food insecurity and some of them are not sufficient to sustain oneself. Accordingly, it is impossible to do so without regular income or remittances from family members or friends. So that, if the situation is not addressed and its evolution is not monitored, this may lead poor refugee households to becoming increasingly vulnerable to future shocks.

The effort towards promoting refugee livelihoods is doomed to fail if refugees are not empowered to construct gainful livelihoods. In order to improve the socioeconomic status of the refugees in Addis Ababa, and consequently their contribution to the host economy, there is a need to create an enabling environment that will promote individual and collective innovativeness and opportunities, and tap into the synergies and potentials of the refugees. This can be done through diversifying livelihood activities and encouraging the involvement of refugees in multiple sources of income. Assistance or remittance alone is not sufficient to improve refugees' welfare, make them self-reliant and boost their socioeconomic status. There is therefore the need to revamp and remodel the current policy in the city to allow the refugees to engage in different job opportunities that can guarantee high self-reliance. The study therefore recommends that the Ethiopia Country Refugee Response Plan be to facilitated and practiced as that can create an environment that will allow for alternative sources of income to be pursued to diversify livelihoods and ultimately improve refugees' well-being in the city. Hence, the following main actions are recommended:

The permission of the rights of work as a challenge: There is a long-standing literature which describes the importance of reducing bureaucratic barriers to realizing a formal right to work. Governments must ensure work permit costs for refugees are affordable and accessible.

Business licenses challenges: In addition to work permits for individuals, enterprises need business licenses. Many are happy to pay taxes in exchange for legitimacy. Refugee businesses should be able to register under the name of refugee owners. Many refugees rely on self-employment, for whom access to a legal license is critical. Together with work permits, enabling refugee businesses to apply for licenses should form a key element of widening access to employment. Reassurances about potential reprisals will need to be given to the many existing refugee businesses that are currently 'illegally' registered under an Ethiopian citizen. Without reassurances businesses will be less likely to transition to refugee ownership following any change in law. Employment protections: Refugees have been

exploited in the labor market. Therefore, the right to work will need to be accompanied by access to labor tribunals or similar, to reduce unfair treatment within the labor market.

Policy formulation: Further policy formulation and improvement is needed on jobs and livelihoods, and where policy and legislation is not yet enacted these processes should be completed. Jobs and livelihoods interventions need to be better coordinated and guided by government policy that sets out procedures and standards for developing employment opportunities for refugees and hosts, based on market demand that facilitates mobility of refugees and encourages the engagement of private sector employers and trainers bring together stakeholders and the GoE states to harmonize their efforts to develop effective jobs and livelihoods policies that benefit refugees, hosts in the city.

The importance of CRRF: The GoE should incorporate the CRRF commitments to protecting refugees' rights into livelihoods policy with respect to documentation, access to services and mobility, all of which maximize the impact of livelihoods initiatives. UNHCR/ARRA and local NGOs should provide technical support in this respect to enable learning from best practice.

The importance of the private sector: the GoE, local NGOs and the private sector, in particular potential employers, should develop policy frameworks and partnership guidelines for the engagement of the private sector at the local level. This could include ownership, revenue sharing, intellectual property and procurement guidelines for refugees.

Durable solutions programing and policies: Particular attention should be given by governments, donors, and implementing NGOs to durable solutions programing and policies, promoting different solutions such as for repatriation, integration and resettlement in order to possess better education, jobs and livelihoods of urban refugees.

Finally, it is important to note that this is the time for the Ethiopian government and other stake holders (UNHCR and NGOs) to promote increased access to formal employment for refugees. This can help to access social and economic ability of URs to meet basic needs (food, water, shelter, personal safety, health and education) in a sustainable manner and with dignity. URs are intended to be self-reliant, by strengthening their livelihoods and reducing their vulnerability. Livelihood programing should assist refugees in becoming self-reliant and cash and food assistance should be short-term and conditional and gradually lead to self-reliance.

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Appendixes

Consent Form

Dear respondent,

My name is Guesh Tesfaslase. I am a post graduate student at Addis Ababa University, in the Department of Food Security and Development Studies. Currently, I am conducting a research to conduct Refugees Food Security and Livelihood challenges in Addis Ababa.

The purpose of this study as I have is for academic purpose only. However, the finding of the study can be used in similar studies. If you agree to take part in this research study, you will be interviewed with questions focused on the specified title. The questions will include background information, your livelihood base, your food security conditions, income level and employment status. All information that you will give will remain anonymous and confidential. Moreover, your participation in this study is 100% based on your willingness. If you agree, we will continue. If not, I will stop. You can also change your mind at any time, even if we start the interview. If you have any questions about the study, you can ask.

If you do not have any questions, would you be willing to participate in this interview?

Thank you.

Signature of the researcher_____

Annex 1: Questionnaire (for Refugees)

1. Please introduce yourself?
2. What is your gender? Male/female
3. What is your age?

18-25 b. 26-40 c. 41-50 d. over 51years

4. What is your nationality?
5. What is your highest level of education?
    - ✓ No formal education…...
    - ✓ Primary level….
    - ✓ Secondary….
    - ✓ Diploma….
    - ✓ Undergraduate….
    - ✓ Post graduate…
6. Do the existing laws allow you to pursue an income generating activities such as employment/job or business? Yes/No
7. How do you earn an income to your daily needs?
    - ✓ Business
    - ✓ Employee casual work
    - ✓ Receive remittance from relatives/friends receive support from UNHCR and/or other refugee humanitarian actors
    - ✓ Others (specify)…….
8. What's your occupation?
9. What is your source of income?
10. How do you describe your relationship with (Your Sponsors, Fellow refugees in the city Refugees in the camp & Surrounding community)?
11. How do you describe your access to social services (Health, Education, etc.)?
12. What's your housing condition like (rental, with Sponsors, living with someone else)?
13. What were the easiest and hardest parts of integrating with the society for you?
14. How is your relationship with the host community as well as fellow refugees?

15. Can you refer to an experience that you had related with integrating with the host community?

Annex 2: Interview Questions (for key informants)

1. How do you see the Urban Refugees/Out of Camp Scheme in relation to food security and livelihood?
2. Do you think that it has changed livelihoods of Refugees? In what way has it impacted them?
3. How effective are your organizations funded livelihood interventions in reducing protection risks, strengthening resilience, and improving employment, income and/or savings levels of targeted persons of concern?
4. What are the criteria used to select the beneficiary?
5. What was the goal or objective of this urban refugee livelihood assistance? What was the plan and the target?
6. What is the nature of the livelihood program? What type of assistance have been provided?
7. Did you do market assessment before the intervention?
8. Did the background of refugee match with the livelihood assistance?
9. Did your organization has well experienced livelihood assistance? Did you monitor or evaluate the program?
10. Did your organization have conducive policies and strategies to implement livelihood program? What has worked well in such roles and what are some constraints? What are lessons learned to inform the next iteration of the livelihood's strategy going forward?

Annex 3: Focus Group Discussion Guide

1. How do you express your status in Ethiopia?
2. How do you see living in the city as a refugee?
3. Can you give a comparison of camp life and now? What are the major changes in your livelihood?

4. How do you evaluate being under the out of camp scheme (positive impacts and negative side)?
5. How was the integration process with the host community (initially and now)?
6. How do you characterize your relationship with the host community and other fellow urban refugees?
7. How do you describe your access to basic social services provided back in camp Vs. now?
8. What are the strong attributes of this scheme?
9. Do you see any implementation gaps or factors that the scheme should include?
10. How do you interact with implementing partner and Government counterpart ARRA?
11. What is the major problem you faced to be securing in food and livelihoods?
12. What is your major source of livelihood in the city? What did you do for your living?
13. How do you cop up during shocks?
14. What do you think about the business startup capital?
15. What is your perception towards the work permit in urban area?
16. What is your plan for your livelihood in the future?
17. Are you employed? If so, mention your current situation and problems you may face?
18. Formal or informal sectors are easily accessible to support your Livelihood?

Annex 4: Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) questions

In the last 1 month that is about 4 weeks (did (I/ we)) because of lack of resources (money to purchase, food from market or from store or any other household usual means). If yes, how often did it happen?

No	**Question**	Tick ✓ if Yes	**How often did it happen:**(0 = No), 1 = Rarely 2 = Sometimes 3 = Often	**code**
1	In the past four weeks, did you worry that your household would not have enough food?			

2	In the past four weeks, were you or any household member not able to eat the kinds of foods you preferred because of a lack of resources?			
3	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat a limited variety of foods due to a lack of resources?			
4	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat some foods that you really did not want to eat because of a lack of resources to obtain other types of food?			
5	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed because there was not enough food?			
6	In the past four weeks, did you or any other household member have to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food?			
7	In the past four weeks, was there ever no food of any kind to eat in your household because of lack of resources to get food?			
8	In the past four weeks, did you or any household embers go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?			

9	In the past four weeks, did you or any household embers go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?			

Note: 1 = Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks),

2 = Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks),

3 = Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

Annex 5: Questions related to livelihoods of refugees

No	Question	Answer
1	In your perception, what livelihoods are available to male/female refugees in the city?	➢ Institutional Employment (UNHCR, ARRA, local NGO) (1) ➢ Construction (2) ➢ Technical Services (electrician, mechanics, repair, etc.) (3) ➢ Petty Trade (4) ➢ Personal Services (Beauty Parlors, Hairdresser, Barber) (5) ➢ Manufacture (7) ➢ Health Care (8) ➢ Care of Unaccompanied Minors (9) ➢ Translation (10) ➢ Education (11) ➢ Other (12):
2	Do refugees continuously search for livelihood opportunities?	1. Yes (1), 2. No (2)

		3. Other (3)
3	What motivates a refugee to participate in activities leading to earning an income?	➢ Self-sufficiency (1) ➢ Providing financial support for family in the city (2) ➢ Providing financial support for family in their home country (3) ➢ Integration into society of the host community(4) ➢ Dealing with traumatic experience (5) ➢ Work experience (6) To earn resources for further migration (7) ➢ Complement food (8) ➢ Other (9):
4	What are the sources of income of refugees?	➢ Cash money from humanitarian aid & assistance (1) ➢ Remittances from relatives (2) ➢ Revenues from small businesses (3) ➢ Earnings from (casual) labor [earnings from (occasional) work] (4) ➢ Other (5):
5	How do refugees get information about livelihood opportunities?	➢ Through local NGOs (1) ➢ Through ARRA (2) ➢ Trough UNHCR (3) ➢ Trough Social Media (5) ➢ Mouth-to-mouth from other residents (6)

		➢ Through SMS (7) ➢ Radio (8) ➢ Flyers (9) ➢ Other (10):
6	Which of the following obstacles prevent refugees from gaining additional money to assistance received?	➢ Restriction of the freedom of movement (1) ➢ Lack of working permits (2) ➢ Discrimination (3) ➢ Lack of job opportunities (4) ➢ Language barriers (5) ➢ Lack of experience (6) ➢ Lack of education (7) ➢ Lack of market information (8) ➢ Acceptance by the host community (9) ➢ Other (10):
7	Have you worked in the last month (in the past 30 days)?	➢ Yes (1) ➢ No (2) ➢ Other (3)
8	Which of the following obstacles prevent you from gaining additional money to assistance received in the city?	➢ Restriction of the freedom of movement (1) ➢ Lack of working permits (2) ➢ Discrimination (3) ➢ Lack of job opportunities (4) ➢ Language barriers (5) ➢ Lack of experience (6) ➢ Lack of education (7) ➢ Lack of market information (8) ➢ Unacceptance by the host community (9) ➢ Other (10):

Annex 6. Household Coping mechanisms

Identify the food insecurity coping mechanism of your household in the last 7 days. Tick against it.

Coping mechanism options	**Tick**	**Number of days/week**
a. Rely on less preferred and less expensive foods		
b. Borrow food, or rely on help from a friend or relative		
c. Purchase food on credit		
d. Working for food		
e. Send household members to eat elsewhere, Such as neighbors, friends or relatives house		
f. Send household members to beg		
g. sell assets (jewelry) for food		
h. Limit portion size at mealtimes		
i. Restrict consumption of adults in order for small children to eat		
j. Feed working members of HH at the expense of non-working members		
k. Ration the money you had and buy prepared food		
l. Reduce number of meals eaten in a day		
m. Skip entire days without eating		