



College of Development Studies

Center for Food Security Studies

Determinants of Irregular Cross-Border Migration, Return Migration Decisions, and the Livelihoods and Food Security Situations of Emigration Returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

**A Dissertation Submitted to the College of Development Studies,
Center for Food Security Studies in Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) In
Food Security and Development Studies**

By

Abinet Fulasa Chinkilo

June 30th, 2023

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia



College of Development Studies

Center for Food Security Studies

Food Security and Development Studies

PhD Program

Dissertation Title

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Migration Decisions, and the Livelihoods and Food Security
Situations of Emigration Returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia**

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Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Dedication

This Doctoral Dissertation is dedicated to my heavenly late mom, Belgi Baye Demmu and my heavenly late sister, Kolola Fulasa Chinkilo.

Abinet Fulasa Chinkilo

June 30th, 2023

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The Plagiarism Report

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June 30th, 2023

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I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the dissertation entitled “*Determinants of irregular cross-border migration, return migration decisions, and the livelihoods and food security situations of emigration returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*” submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Food Security and Development Studies of the Graduate Program of the Center for Food Security Studies, Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia, is my bona fide or original work and has not been presented for the award of any academic degree, qualification or other similar titles anywhere.

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Acknowledgements

The long journey of my PhD study is now towards the end. I think the final whistle is about to be blown. This challenging and extended trip could not have been realized in solitude without the collaborative efforts and moral supports of several people and colleagues. First and foremost, my deepest gratitude goes to my principal supervisor Dr. Teferi Mekonnen, Associate Professor, Addis Ababa University for his contribution to my academic and professional growth, insightful comments and suggestions, and indispensable academic advices. Dr. Teferi is one of the most committed scholars I have ever worked with and I have learnt a lot from his knowledge and professional integrity. He made my journey easier via constant support as well as through clear and scholarly guidance at every stage of my doctoral study. I would also like to express my great appreciation to my co-supervisor Dr. Temesgen Tilahun, Assistant Professor, Addis Ababa University who provided great constructive comments that enriched the present dissertation and whose unfailing support and thought provoking conversations had paramount importance towards the trajectory of the dissertation development. Dr. Temesgen was an honor to work with him. He also offered me the wisdom, confidence and courage to complete the present study timely.

I thank and appreciate Dr. Meskerem Abi, Assistant Professor, Addis Ababa University, who provided very substantial comments on an earlier draft of the dissertation proposal, and for agreeing to give her time and share her views, and priceless advices in shaping my dissertation proposal into perspective. Deep gratitude and appreciation goes to Dr. Messay Mulugeta, Associate Professor, Addis Ababa University for the devotion of his time during the course of my journey in providing me all the necessary support in person and via e-mail. Dr. Messay inspired and encouraged me to take up the challenge of such a daunting doctoral project in the first place. Many people have been supportive during the course of my doctoral study; Mr. Aydefer Negash deserves special credit, whose help in a critical moment of my dissertation development meant a lot to me. He made my extended and tough journey smooth in managing all primary quantitative data in scientific manner. Moreover, I would like to extend my appreciation to key officials and experts of the former Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs and Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs of Addis Ababa

for devoting much of their time, energy, and knowledge during initial plan of the study and data collection periods whose support and concern was tremendous in offering invaluable inputs and directions. I am indebted to Mr. Tilaye Alemayehu and Mr. Daniel Belaynew who provided enabling support to me during the aforementioned periods. I would also like to thank all enumerators and participants of the study (all return migrants and core actors) who took part in collecting and providing valuable data at various stages of fieldwork respectively. I have always felt the full appreciation and support of every single member of my family whose unfailing support and moral encouragement had enormous importance for the success of my study as a whole. Special thanks and appreciation go to my brothers Girma Fulasa and Addisu Shoa for their sustained support throughout my journey of the doctoral study. They pushed me to keep working hard and never desisting throughout my journey; and they also always stood by me during the difficult time.

I am very grateful to Honorable Mrs. Hikma Keyeradin, Rank of Deputy Mayor, Addis Ababa Civil Service and Human Development Bureau Head for her devotion and moral support to pursue my study. Her Excellency has taught me, both consciously and unconsciously, how sound managerial decision is made for academic purpose. My thanks to Mr. Mohammed Abdruahiman, Director of Organizational Structure and System Research for his great interest in my doctoral study and his-uplifting enthusiasm, inspiration, and untiring support in many administrative challenges. I would like to thank my staff members for their unwavering support and compassion, encouragement, and practical help: Yohannes Abebe, Esayas Girma, Dawit Hirpha, Zebenay Shegena, Belachew Mekonnen, Melkitu Gosaye, Haymanot Shewaye, Birhanu Addisu, Kidist Muleta, Debere Getenet, Demeku Kassahun, Aberash Regassa, Darge Mekonnen, and other staff members of Directorate Organizational Structure and System Research and Addis Ababa City Administration Civil Service and Human Development Bureau. Last, and by no means least, I am greatly indebted to all others who contributed in different ways for the success of my doctoral study as the present success would not have been possible without their involvement.

Abinet Fulasa Chinkilo
June 30th, 2023
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AAPDC	Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission
ACP	African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States
AU	African Union
BoLSA	Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs of Addis Ababa
CRS	Catholic Relief Services
CSA	Central Statistics Authority
DFID	Department for International Development
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization for United Nations
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
GMG	Global Migration Group
ICLD	International Centre for Local Democracy
IDRC	International Development for Research Center
IFPRI	International Food Policy Research Institute
IISD	International Institute for Sustainable Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MoFA	Ethiopian Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MoLSA	Ethiopian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
MPI	Migration Policy Institute
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
RMMS	Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat

SAMP	South African Migration Programme
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
SLF	Sustainable Livelihoods Framework
UNCHS	United Nations Commission on Human Settlements
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs.
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commissions for Africa
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
WMO	World Meteorological Organization

Lists of Scientific Publications: Peer Reviewed Articles

Published Articles

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2022). Examination of Factors Predicting the Likelihood of Irregular Cross-border Migration Decision: Evidence from Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. *Journal of Identity and Migration Studies (www.jims.e-migration.ro)*, 16 (2):106-129, 2022.

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2023). Livelihoods and survival strategies pursued by international return migrants in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Cogent of Social Sciences Journal*, 9(1), 2023, <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311886.2023.2204711>.

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2022). Determinants of return migration decision among Ethiopian international returnees of Addis Ababa: Implications for sustainable livelihoods of returnees. *Journal of Identity and Migration Studies (www.jims.e-migration.ro)*, 17(1): 45-66, 2023.

Unpublished Articles (Accepted and Under Review)

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2023). Exploring Access to Livelihood Capitals among International Returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Development Research (Accepted)*.

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2023). Prevalence of food security levels and Ethiopian international returnees in Addis Ababa: The proxy indicator approaches *(Under Review)*.

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2023). The root causes of food insecurity and coping strategies among international returnees: Evidence from Addis Ababa, Ethiopia *(Manuscript production in progress)*.

Abstract

In broad sense, migration by no means is a new phenomenon in scientific studies in Ethiopia. However, most previous studies that have been conducted are scanty in linking return migration, livelihoods, and food security in Addis Ababa that made evidence remained inconclusive requires basic understanding where opportunities for interventions lie to protect the returnees against the adverse socio-economic consequences. This dissertation thus, was an endeavor made to eloquently shed light on the determinants of irregular cross-border migration, return decisions, and the livelihoods and food security situations of emigration returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Both the constructivist and the interpretivist research paradigms were employed. A “Concurrent Embedded Research Design Approach” was used as the primary design of the study. Both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used to determine the participants of the study. A cross-sectional study was conducted on sample of 402 returnees selected from Addis Ababa using a simple random sampling method. Survey questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and key informant interviews were used to collect data. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the quantitative data to limit generalization to the group observed and to draw conclusions about the population based upon observations of samples respectively. Moreover, household food insecurity access scale, food consumption score, household hunger scale, household dietary diversity score, and coping strategy index were employed as the proxy indicators of food security. The study elucidated that the corresponding relative strengths of the pull factors outweigh that of the push factors to make irregular cross-border migration decision; nonetheless, the decision to migrate was impacted by situations in both the destination and the origin areas. Destination area factors had more substantial positive impact with the values of ($\beta = 4.451$, Exp (β) = 85.70) than homeland and personal factors with the values of ($\beta = 3.242$, Exp (β) = 25.58; and $\beta = 2.211$, Exp (β) = 9.12) respectively, despite, all the three factors have a positive effect on likelihood of making return migration decision at ($P < 0.001$). The study unveiled that the magnitude of access to livelihood capitals among the returnees is deemed to be very minimal and significant gender variation wasn’t observed between male and female returnees. The study population was hallmarked by poor prevalence of food security, poor level of access to food, poor food consumption patterns, and insufficient level of dietary diversity in their consumption. Therefore, well-intentioned efforts are required rather than a piecemeal approach in a business-as-usual manner to address the multiple burdens of migration and thereby building sustainable livelihoods of the emigration returnees.

Keywords: Capitals; food security; irregular migration; livelihoods; return migration; returnees.

Chapter One: General Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

In today's globalized world, human migration is one of the major visible hallmarks of the 21st century more than ever. It is one of the major defining features of the century that significantly contributes to all aspects of development in our globe (UNDESA, 2017; Dokos, 2017; World Bank, 2016; UNODC, 2010). It is a key enabler for inclusive and sustainable development (IOM, UNFPA, & UNDESA, 2013; ILO, 2012; Zimmermann & Kahanec, 2008); and migration process is an intrinsic part of broader processes of social change and development (de Haas, 2021; IOM, 2018; Karandaeva, 2011). In the 2030 Agenda, the impact of migration has given top impetus in the targets of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Migration is at the heart of the 2030 Agenda to realizing the goals for sustainable development (IOM, 2018; Foresti *et al.*, 2018; UNDESA, 2015).

Sustainable development goals (SDGs) recognize the following positive contributions of migration: a fundamental poverty reduction strategy; a scheme that improves the well-being of families in the origin countries through increased income, consumption and resilience; an adaptation mechanism to climate change; and a contributor to economic transformation via technological transfer and education between host and origin countries as indicated in SDG1 and target 1.1; SDG1 and target 1.4; SDG13 and target 13; and SDG17 and target 17.6 respectively (IOM, 2018; UNDESA, 2015). Furthermore, leading international organizations have lent unequivocal institutional backing to encourage migration as a potential tool to reduce poverty and promote sustainable human development (FAO, 2019; World Bank, 2016/2009; UNDP, 2009; DFID, 2007).

To date, international migration has become increasingly popular and viewed as a double-edged sword as it can have both negative and positive impacts on development outcomes. The impacts of migration have changed over time as the world has become more globalized (IOM, 2020; ILO, 2015/2010; Douglas, 2015); and it has played an important role in the evolution of culture and civilization on an international scale

(Dokos, 2017; UNODC, 2010). Depending on policies in place migration has the capacity to affect development outcomes in the origin, transit and host countries negatively as well as positively (IOM & UNFPA, 2013; Murakami, 2010; ILO, 2004); and international migration has multifaceted implications, which could be taken as both positive and negative outcomes of the demographic, cultural and socio-economic circumstances of countries (OECD, 2016; World Bank, 2016; IOM, 2015).

On the positive side, the contribution of migrants ranged between \$6.4 trillion and \$6.9 trillion (9.4%) of the world's gross domestic product (GDP) in 2015 (McKinsey Global Institute, 2016; Woetzel *et al.*, 2016); and over the long term, immigrants have a generally positive effect on government budgets (Merler, 2017; de Haas, 2007). Migration and remittances can make positive potential contributions to national economies, local level livelihoods and poverty reduction (World Bank, 2016; Foresti *et al.*, 2018; ILO, 2004; Ellis, 2003). Remittances from migrants make a significant difference to socio-economic status in households left behind by the migrants and can also be an important strategy to reduce household vulnerability and to accumulate assets (Collinson, 2009; Aguilar-Støen *et al.*, 2016); and the positive micro-economic impacts of remittance flows to balance of payments in the sending countries and its importance for individuals in covering various expenses and buying fixed assets are also documented (IOM, 2005; Teferee, 2013).

On the contrary, international migration may contribute to increasing inequality and can put further notable pressure on the already stressed infrastructure (World Economic Forum, 2017; IOM, 2015); and migrants tend to invest in education and other community activities after their return, and these gains may also increase differentiation and inequality (Dokos, 2017; de Haan, 2000). Large and unexpected migration flows can disrupt various systems and create tensions in host communities (Nicolai *et al.*, 2017; Foresti *et al.*, 2018); and migration encompasses complexities associated with diversity of race, religion, ethnicity, language and culture that can lead to social tension associated with xenophobia and discrimination and to violence (IOM, 2015; UNDOC, 2010). Trans-nationalism and stricter immigration policies are the two major political

impacts of migration amongst others (World Economic Forum, 2017); and change of sex ratio and the dependency of labour force are the two prominent demographic impacts of emigration (Gautam, 1999).

In our modern era, the above designated impacts of migration are not one and the same; and cannot be felt equally and vary in dimensions in different parts the world. There is an emerging consensus among academics and policy makers on the interplay between migration, developed and developing worlds. In the developed world, the number of migrants has grown at an average of 3.0% annually since 2000, far more than 0.6% annual population growth there (McKinsey Global Institute, 2016); and migrants take the lion's share in contributing to better service provisions to developed countries as workers and consumers, and it can fill labour gaps and foster innovation (World Bank, 2016; Foresti *et al.*, 2018; Cohen, 2011). Migrants are notable drivers of innovation and there is a positive correlation between high-skilled migrants and innovation in the developed world (IOM, 2020; ILO, 2015).

However, in the developing world, the situation is quite different and migration is considered as a tool to escape from poverty, achieve prosperity and fulfilling lives (Foresti *et al.*, 2018; World Bank, 2016); it is overtaking fertility as a main driver of urban population growth, and it has become a key component of livelihood strategies and remittances are positively tied to the well-being of the migrant-sending households (Cohen, 2011; UNDP, 2009; Skeldon, 2008; de Haas, 2005). Migration is found to be an effective poverty reduction weapon, not just for migrants themselves but also for their respective families and society at large (World Bank, 2016; Mazzucato *et al.*, 2008; Yang & Mart'inez, 2006). In much of Africa and South Asia, movement is the established pattern and migration is both a strategy of survival and livelihood, and inseparable from identity (Stodolska & Santos, 2006; McDowell & Haan, 1997). It has become a fundamental constituent part of livelihood strategies for an increasing number of populations across the developing world (Foresti *et al.*, 2018; Choithani, 2016). International remittance flows to developing countries increased from US\$159 billion in 1995 to US\$436 billion in 2014, and the current levels of remittances received by

developing countries is nearly three times as much as their receipts of official development assistance (World Bank, 2015a/2013/2011); and remittances have significant economic impact on a macro and micro levels in a country (Burgess & Haskar, 2005; Ratha, 2005).

Broadly speaking, from the above discussions one can infer that migration is a multilinear and complex process that has become a worldwide cliché. More importantly, it is a central feature of the livelihoods of the majority of household in low income countries and it is integral to people's coping, survival, and livelihood strategies in the developing world than in the developed ones. When properly managed, migration creates a virtuous cycle of economic growth and is beneficial both for origin and host communities being an engine of sustainable development and innovation.

Nowadays, it is evident that every part of the world is affected by irregular cross-border migration either being place of origin, transit, destination or all. Irregular cross-border migration has become inevitable and almost touches every corner of the globe due to globalization (Messay & Teferee, 2017); it has been the subject of ongoing public debate in Europe as an enormous number of unauthorized migrants daily reaching Mediterranean shores and others tragically losing their lives in the process (Morehouse & Blomfield, 2011); and the 2015 upsurge of immigrant arrivals to Europe from various angles of the globe definitively brought the immigration debate to the top agenda of political priorities in most European countries (Harpviken, 2018; Kuzelewska *et al.*, 2018).

Irregular migration is viewed as a problem and commonly believed that it negatively impacts host communities by: undermining the rule of law, fostering labour exploitation, increasing poverty, and putting pressure on public services etc., (Kuzelewska *et al.*, 2018; Morehouse & Blomfield, 2011). Moreover, the same authors expounded that though policy interventions have contributed much in curbing down irregular migration, yet new hotspots of illegal entry continue to flare up along Europe's vast external borders, and combating it in the years to come is likely to remain

challenging as European economies recover from the recession and more jobs become available, flows may increase (Kuzelewska *et al.*, 2018; Morehouse & Blomfield, 2011).

Similarly, the Horn of Africa has unique migration challenges as every month thousands of irregular migrants attempt to cross-border to escape conflict, drought and economic challenges (Schroder, 2015; Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009). The nature of human movement in the region is principally irregular as the result of limited options for regular movements, and it is also reactive to political and environmental factors (Siegel *et al.*, 2016); and in the Horn of Africa, irregular migrants cross borders by violating conditions for entering another country without having proper authority (Düvell, 2011; Jordan & Düvell, 2002). By the same token, Ethiopia is not an exception to the situation as it has become an important origin, transit and destination for irregular migration flows in the Horn of Africa (Shishay *et al.*, 2019, ILO, 2017; Assefa *et al.*, 2017); and in Ethiopia documented and undocumented labour migration to different areas of the globe has remarkably increased (Girmachew, 2017; ILO, 2017; Kuschminder & Siegel, 2010).

The quantifications of irregular cross-border migrants vary from one source to another. Let alone around the world, estimating the number of irregular migrants in a country is cumbersome. However, the global estimate is 50 million irregular migrants in 2009 and the number increased to 58 million in 2017 (UNDESA, 2017). It is estimated that 10%-15% of the world's 214 million international migrants in 2010 were undocumented (IOM, 2013a); and it has estimated that around one-third of all migration flows in less developed region countries were undocumented (UNDP, 2009). The same holds true for return migration. Return migration is common, albeit our knowledge of its extent is hampered by lack of data, and whether those exiting return to their home country or move on to another destination is rarely known (Wahba, 2014).

Although, exact figures are not yet available, the vast majority of Ethiopian irregular migrants are destined to the Middle East (mainly to Saudi Arabia and other Gulf States via Somalia, Djibouti and Yemen), while significant number of other migrants head southwards (to South Africa) and westwards to Europe (via Sudan, Libya and the Central

Mediterranean routes) (Assefa *et al.*, 2017). Conversely, latest data suggest an increase in return migration in Ethiopia and it is hallmarked by frequent international return migration. Migration and return migration have both increased to and from Ethiopia over the past decades (MoLSA, 2021; BoLSA, 2021; Koser & Kuschminder, 2015).

Moreover, on the one hand, evidences have shown that connections between migration and food security are typically assumed. Migration improves food security of migrants (FAO, 2019, 2017; Chikanda & Crush, 2018); and *“migration leads to improved incomes and to an improvement in the overall quality of life”* (Asmelash & Litchfield, 2019:3). Migration can lead to a reduction in unemployment and increased wages, which in turn may strongly be associated with the livelihoods and food security status of households and their members (Foresti *et al.*, 2018; World Bank, 2016; Ellis, 2003). The relationship between migration and food security is the direct one; and household food security outcomes are certainly influenced by international remittances, which in turn may relate directly with livelihoods (IMO *et al.*, 2018; World Bank, 2016; Ellis, 2003); in many developing nations, remittances from migrants are an essential source of income at country as well as household levels, and they also change household consumption patterns and create *“remittance landscapes”* (World Bank, 2016); livelihoods underpin food security: they are the means by which people access resources and assets in order to meet household needs (ACF-IN, 2010/2008); and food security is fundamentally linked to the questions of livelihood, that is, one may lead and cause others and vice-versa (Oxfam, 2018).

Access to food is pervasively dependent on the income of a household including individuals in a household, that is, access and control over household resources take a centre stage to get access to food (Maxwell & Caldwell, 2008; Maxwell, 1996). Attaining food security will require ensuring access of using resources and strategies (UNEP, 2016; Scoones, 2009; Periperi & Oxfam, 2002); return migration particularly the forced one and food insecurity can feed into each other (FAO-IFPRI, 2017; SAMP, 2012). The positive link between migration and development in general and livelihood and food security in particular is that the money that migrants send home to family is used

primarily to: purchase consumer goods, stimulate local economies and help to start small businesses and to have access to credit services (UNODC, 2010; Cohen, 2011; UNDP, 2009).

On the one hand, extant literature suggests that on average about 20%-50% of immigrants leave within five years after their arrival, either to return home or to move on to a third country (OECD, 2008); and many immigrants move overseas only temporarily and it is characterized by frequent return (ILO, 2013). Conversely, the experience of migration is characterized by the following evils: both sexes are increasingly exposed to exploitation and abuse, losing their lives; others trapped behind walls of discrimination, xenophobia and racism as the result of rising cultural and religious tensions in some societies (UNODC, 2010); and returnees' previous social network has either been lost or damaged, they are obliged to rebuild their social network and develop their means of livelihood in a new socio-economic and political setting (ILO, 2013). The livelihoods of returnees heavily rely on the prevailing socio-economic and political environment; any of the dimensions of such environmental change may also change their livelihood status (ILO, 2013; Jacobsen, 2014).

To sum up, from the aforementioned discussions one can deduce that, the pace of global economic and technological development makes migration an inevitable feature of our times and undoubtedly, migration gives rise to both opportunities and challenges; and return migration is not always a process of simply *"going-back home."* Returnees are crumbled with severe obstacles and such return would inevitably urge them to rebuild and develop their means of livelihood in the origin country to attain sustainable livelihoods and food security.

Empirically, however, previous studies in the Ethiopian context including Addis Ababa present qualitative descriptions of the factors associated with departures of international migrants without weighing the relative contributions of the factors with mathematical precisions. Linking return migration with the livelihoods and food security situations of the emigration returnees to augment their arguments are also lacking in

the studies. Moreover, the colossal challenges that the returnees confront with in making a living and in re-integrating into their respective local community were frequently observed during the reintegration processes such as psychological readiness and life skill training schemes arranged by Addis Ababa Labour and Social Affairs Bureau in collaboration with Technical and Vocational Education Training Institutions upon their return. Besides, the researcher has also reminded the issue and started to develop deep understanding about the problem during doctoral course work study in 2020. In a nutshell, the already signified major reasons instigated the researcher to think over the issue under consideration.

Thus, investigating the true magnitude and implications of the issue under discussion is an issue for scientific investigation. To this end, therefore, the study was geared towards exploring determinants of irregular cross-border migration and return decisions, and the livelihoods and food security situations of the international returnees (hereafter called the returnees) drawn from four sub-cities (Addis Ketema, Akaki Kality, Kolfe Keraniyo, and Kirkos) of Addis Ababa.

1.2. Rationale and Problem Statement

Nonetheless, defining irregular cross-border migration is complex and hard, it is a human movement that occurs outside the regulatory norms of the sending, transit, and receiving country (IOM, 2011; Düvell, 2006); and it is the migration of people without complying with the requirements for legal entry into another country (Jordan & Düvell, 2002). While irregular cross-border migration is a movement that takes place outside the norms and procedures established by countries to manage the orderly flow of migrants; international migration is the act of moving from the country of origin across internationally recognized state borders respectively (IOM, 2011; Berggren *et al.*, 2007).

In Ethiopia, despite efforts being made by the Ethiopian government and other core actors to reverse irregular cross-border migration, an overwhelming number of Ethiopians are currently moving to abroad irregularly on the one hand, and returning to their homeland on the other hand. Through 2008 to 2013, about 460,000 Ethiopians

migrated irregularly to different parts of the world (Rohwerder & Carter, 2016); and between 2012 and 2016 around 317,136 Ethiopian migrants arrived Yemen in less than 5 years and via Yemen to Saud Arabia and other Middle-East countries (RMMS, 2016); and recently, from November 2018 to 2020 about 572,096 and 6,418 officially registered irregular cross-border migrants returned to Ethiopia in general and to Addis Ababa in particular, respectively (MoLSA, 2021; BoLSA, 2021; ILO, 2019; CSA, 2017; Kuschminder & Guay, 2017).

Evidences portray that many of the returnees continued to grapple with the following multitude challenges: difficulty of accessing jobs and other services, food and health complications, loss of personal belongings, negative perceptions and poor relationships, family separation, economic hardship that have adverse effects on immigrant families, communities, and countries of origin in general (Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017; Minaye & Zeleke, 2017). An assessment undertaken on livelihood opportunities for Afghan returnees disclosed that the vast majority of the households are caught up in a debt spiral with multiple loans and entangled with financial mismatch (ILO, 2013).

Return migration is mistakenly oversimplified by linking with the process of going back to one's own culture, family and home, however, the mere fact that someone returns to an origin country does not mean that reintegration is seamless (IOM, 2017). Nevertheless, remittances could have positive impacts on individual migrants and their respective families and origin country (Cohen, 2011; World Bank, 2006; OECD, 2005); creating a sustainable livelihood can be difficult as a result of structural challenges in the country of origin, and economic opportunities may be low for the returnees (IOM, 2015; World Bank, 2006). Remittances had positive impacts on individual migrants and their respective families and origin country (Mazzucato *et al.*, 2008; Maimbo & Ratha, 2005).

Besides, the above international studies, attempts were made to review some empirical studies that have been undertaken in Ethiopia at various levels on migration in general and return migration in particular. Ethiopia is one of the largest origins (both transit and destination) of trafficked persons from Africa; and the most common drivers of

migration in Ethiopia are found to be an amalgam of socio-economic, political and environmental factors (Shishay *et al.*, 2019; Messay & Teferee, 2017; Siegel *et al.*, 2016; Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009); and irregular migration can be ended up with severe mental health problems that may ultimately impose negative impacts on the life of the returnees in the future (Lemma *et al.*, 2019; Mesfin & Emirie, 2018; Muna & Atinkut, 2018; Anbesse *et al.*, 2009).

Moreover, a survey conducted on the links between migration and sustainable livelihoods on three countries (Ethiopia, Mali and Bangladesh) uncovered that international migration is seen as just one of the livelihood strategies open to households and a desirable option for both skilled and unskilled individuals (Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009); and a study on female migration and reintegration in Ethiopia, found that unless returnees' establish a sense of belongingness in the country of return, then they will most likely re-migrate (Kuschminder, 2013). Furthermore, a case study carried out on Ethiopian returnee migrants expounded that they were swamped by hopelessness and painful experiences as the result of physical abuses, restrictive mobility, and a variety of harassment by respective employers (Shishay *et al.*, 2019).

Over the last decades, in Ethiopia, regardless of some steadfast commitments being made by different researchers at various levels, the main topic of the present study has not been yet scientifically elucidated adequately and well documented in research literature. Only little is known in Ethiopian context and the area has so far lacked a robust quantitative and qualitative evidence base at national and sub-national levels including Addis Ababa. In a nutshell, knowledge on the issue under consideration in Ethiopia is particularly weak. As a result, people engaged in migration policy formulation and planning, administration, and as a whole development actors found at various levels generally face critical knowledge gaps for which evidences and answers are lacking to draw on sound livelihood and other development interventions to curtail the resultant challenges of irregular cross-border migration and return migration in Ethiopian contexts.

Hence, the study could contribute for further understandings of the determinants of both irregular cross-border migration and return migration decisions, sources of livelihoods, levels of food security status and the economic life of the returnees as a whole with the aim of providing insights for policy-makers, administrators, and scientific community so as to develop sound and pragmatic strategies for future intervention efforts and thereby make the returnees to ensure sustainable livelihoods and food security.

1.3.Purposes and Research Questions

The main purpose of the study was to investigate determinants of irregular cross-border migration, return migration decisions, and to unveil the livelihoods and food security situations of irregular cross-border migration returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. More specifically, the study is meant to:

- 1. Explore factors predicting the likelihood of irregular cross-border migration decisions in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia;*
- 2. Uncover the major determinants of return migration decisions;*
- 3. Examine access to livelihood capitals among the returnees;*
- 4. Investigate livelihood strategies of the returnees upon return;*
- 5. Assess the food security situations of the returnees;*
- 6. Identify the underlying causes of food insecurity among the returnees.*

Tremendous reviews were made so far to capture the overall true picture of the issue under investigation and to identify the gaps. Accordingly, the reviews made and the gaps identified lead to the following primary research question which, in due course, the present study attempts to seek answers:

The central research question guiding the study is: Why Ethiopian emigration returnees were attracted and compelled to migrate abroad and return back-home respectively; and how and to what extent, do they construct sustainable livelihoods and attain food security upon their return?

More importantly, to meet the aforementioned objectives and to frame the study, the following specific research questions were formulated:

1. *Why Ethiopian international returnees were triggered to migrate abroad in irregular manner in the study area?*
2. *Why did Ethiopian migrants come back and what major factors compelled the returnees to come back to their homeland?*
3. *To what extent the returnees do have access to livelihood capitals?*
4. *How do returnees make a living, and in what types of livelihood strategies are the returnees' being engaged?*
5. *What does the food security status of the returnees look like?*
6. *What are the underlying causes of food insecurity and coping strategies employed among the returnees upon their return in response to food insecurity?*

1.4. Focus areas of the Dissertation

Thematically, the study is primarily confined to the analysis of the determinants of irregular cross-border migration, return migration decisions, and the livelihoods and food security situations of emigration returnees in Addis Ababa. Nonetheless, numerous studies undertaken in different parts of Ethiopia single out determinants of determinants of irregular cross-border migration and return migration decisions, scientific evidences that associate return migration, livelihood and food security situations of the returnees are scanty or non-existent in Ethiopia including Addis Ababa. Moreover, livelihoods underpin food security of a group of individuals, and the food security status of the migrants in general and returnees in particular remain largely unknown and returnees generally tend to be less food secured than non-migrants, and migration exposes migrants to less healthy food choices (Chikanda & Crush, 2018). To this end, a group of individual returnees were taken a unit of analysis by taking care during the course of sampling stage as well as data collection process. In the case of where the returnee headed households (bread winner), the whole household members (the returnee households) were considered as a unit of analysis.

Geographically, Addis Ababa was taken as a geographical unit of analysis as it is one of the leading hotspot areas of irregular migration and a significant number of irregular cross-border migration returnees are found in the city (MoLSA, 2020; BoLSA, 2021). Besides, in today's vibrant economy, on the one hand, food market entered an era of instability and the competition to enter the labour market is very keen, and the rising of food prices and energy are hitting hard in urban areas and the livelihoods of people to a large extent rely on labour markets on the other hand (de Haan *et al.*, 2002); and food security and nutrition indicators in urban areas do not necessarily portray that urban populations are better off than rural (Garrett & Ruel, 1999); in urban areas of Ethiopia urban poverty and food security issues are underestimated and overlooked by the researchers (Degefa, 2009). Urban food security has unique challenges for which agricultural development programs are not an immediate solution and the urban consumers including the returnees rely strictly on markets and they are susceptible to food price spikes (Man, 2018); and livelihoods tend to be at their most complex in urban areas, with households drawing on a wide variety of activities to capture income and other resources (Lyons & Snoxell, 2005; Rakodi, 1999; Beall, 1997; Chambers, 1995 as cited Walker *et al.*, 2001).

Generally speaking, the above factors can cause incalculable harm to the livelihoods and food security of the urban returnees in capital cities like Addis Ababa. This is because returnees found in Addis Ababa are more entangled with abrupt food price changes, high cost of urban living, unaffordable urban services, and consumer preference than returnees found elsewhere in Ethiopia. Moreover, it would have been ideal, not feasible and affordable even undo-able to expand the study to other regions of Ethiopia within the time and resources available.

In terms of time-bound, the study is delimited to the cross-border migrants returned to their home community between the years 2016 and 2019 having at least one-year of stay after return in Ethiopia. This is because, on the one hand, for those that were returned after 2019 the issue under consideration might not be clearly sensed by the

study population to respond to the survey questionnaires and interviews. On the other hand, as suggested, the longer the period since return, the less likely the information provided would be accurate and reliable (Arowolo, 2000). Moreover, a minimum of one-year stay for the returnees in the host country was considered so that they can expound their lived experiences during the stay. A return migrant is an individual who has been abroad for at least 12 months (UNDESA, 1998). Returnees who came back to their homeland before 2016 were not considered as the authorities did not officially register them and figures are at worst mere guesses in Ethiopia in general and in Addis Ababa in particular.

1.5. Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is organized in ten chapters. General introduction is the principal focus of chapter one. Chapter two deals with review of the related literatures that encompasses: conceptual literatures, empirical evidences, theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study in general. This is followed by presentation of the research methodological approach in chapter three. Determinants of irregular cross-border migration and return migration decisions are examined in the fourth and fifth chapters respectively. Chapter six is concerned with the degree of access to livelihood capitals among returnees.

Chapter seven conveys the analyses of the major livelihood and survival strategies employed among returnees. The intention of chapter eight is to unveil the food security situations of the returnees. Chapter nine takes a close look on the underlying causes of food insecurity and the consumption-based coping strategies employed by the returnees to surmount food insecurity in the study area. Finally, chapter ten summarizes the results of the research. Here the intention is to: provide reflections on major findings of the dissertation, demonstrate the main conclusions drawn from the findings, provide future research directions, and offer useful insights regarding the economic life of the returnees. Furthermore, limitations, academic and practical contributions of the study are indicated in the chapter.

Chapter Two: Literature Reviews and Frameworks of the Study

This chapter is divided into five main sections that roughly correspond with the crafted objectives of the dissertation. The study heavily relies on four basic concepts: international migration, return migration, livelihoods, and food security. Accordingly, the first section is concerned with conceptual literatures. It briefly deals with the varied conceptualizations and definitions of the aforementioned four concepts and other associated ones to better understand and get insights about the issue under investigation. The theoretical accounts of migration in general and return migration in particular are amongst the center of discussions of the second section.

Moreover, it pursues to discuss the sustainable livelihoods approach and main approaches to food security. Linking theories of migration with sustainable livelihoods and main approaches to food security is highlighted in the third section. The fourth section focuses on the reviews of empirical evidences of migration in general, and irregular cross-border migration and return migration in Ethiopian context in particular. Besides, the section continues to contribute to the understandings of food security status in urban areas of Ethiopia. Eventually, the fifth section concludes the chapter and constructs a conceptual framework which frames the study and underpins the overall purposes of the study. The aforesaid and other associated issues are treated in detail as follows.

2.1. Conceptual Literatures

2.1.1. Conceptualization: International Migration

Migration is complex to define. The term is not easily defined and no universally agreed definition of it exists. *“Migration is a complex phenomenon, and migration categories are not static”* (FAO, 2019:8). On the contrary, they are dynamic and can easily evolve from one category into another. It is important to note that there is no clear dichotomy between ‘forced’ migration, on the one hand, and ‘voluntary’ migration, on the other hand. For instance, when livelihoods are threatened by an economic and financial crisis, or slow-onset events such as environmental degradation, the distinction between

forced and voluntary migration may not be clear-cut. Migration decisions are complex, depend on multiple factors and can be better viewed as lying along a spectrum where elements of choice and coercion co-exist and may be more or less predominant (World Bank, 2016; International Migration Institute/IMI,2011).

Migration in general and international migration in particular is a complex phenomenon affected by many factors and viewed diversely. In our modern era, international migration has become more dynamic and complex process than ever due to: the spread of transport and communication technologies and the resultant interdependence of different parts of the world (Czaika & de Haas, 2014). International migration is a complex phenomenon shaped by a variety of factors (Hofmann *et al.*, 2020; Center for Migration Studies/CMS & IOM, 2008). It is a complex process, with a number of dimensions (FAO, 2019; Wimalaratana, 2017; World Bank, 2016). Any single cause, model or theory cannot explain international migration indeed (Hofmann *et al.*, 2020). Nonetheless, there are some major drivers, or “*megatrends*”, that impact size, direction and patterns of international migration flows more than others (IMI, 2011).

The following are amongst various factors influencing the whole process: the globalization of economies, values and aspirations; war, civil war and conflict; changing technologies and means of communication; shifting demographics; increased longevity; increased education levels; urbanization; and climate change (Hofmann *et al.*, 2020). International migration occurs for many reasons: economic opportunities in another country, political conditions in the origin country, for better education to pursue studies at abroad amongst others (FAO, 2019; World Bank, 2016; Huzdik, 2014). Tremendous attempts have been made from time to time to understand and conceptualize migration in general and international migration in particular. Moreover, academic perspectives on migration as a whole have changed over time. The most common ones are presented hereunder. While migration is defined broadly as a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence, international migration is the movement of people across international borders for the purpose of settlement (IOM and the Federal Office for Migration (FOM), Switzerland, 2005); and international migration involves the

deliberate crossing of nation-state borders, undertaken by an individual or group (Wimalaratana, 2017; World Bank, 2016); and it occurs when people cross state boundaries and stay in the host state for some minimum length of the time (FAO, 2019; IOM, 2011; IOM & FOM, 2005).

Generally, from the above discussions, one can conclude that international migration, when a person moves to another country, crossing an international border and the movement of people across borders is an important feature of today's global political, social and economic life. Moreover, international migrants mainly cross national frontiers in search of better education, living conditions, and economic prospects and immigration has emerged as the defining feature of our modern era.

International Migrants: Numbers and Trends

In most discussions on migration, the starting point is usually numbers. Albeit, somewhat improving over the last decades, the provision of high-quality migration data is in general insufficient due to the following major reasons (IOM, 2020).

The United Nations Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration defines an "international migrant" as any person who has changed his or her country of usual residence, distinguishing between "short-term migrants" (those who have changed their countries of usual residence for at least three months, but less than one year) and "long-term migrants" (those who have done so for at least one year). However, not all countries use this definition in practice. Some countries use different criteria to identify international migrants by, for example, applying different minimum durations of residence. Differences in concepts and definitions as well as data collection methodologies between countries hinder full comparability of national statistics on international migrants (IOM, 2020: 21).

The total number of international migrants worldwide has increased over the past two decades from 173.2 million in 2000 to 280.6 million at mid-year 2020 (UNDESA, 2020). In other words, migrants make up more than 1 billion people, or one-seventh of the world's population and as a percentage of the total population at mid-year 2020 is 3.6%.

Besides, the same document further noted out that the shares of female and male migrants in the international migrant stock at mid-year 2020 were found to be 48.1% and 51.9% respectively. Overall, the estimated number of international migrants has increased over the past five decades (IOM, 2020) and Figure 2-1 clearly indicates the issue.

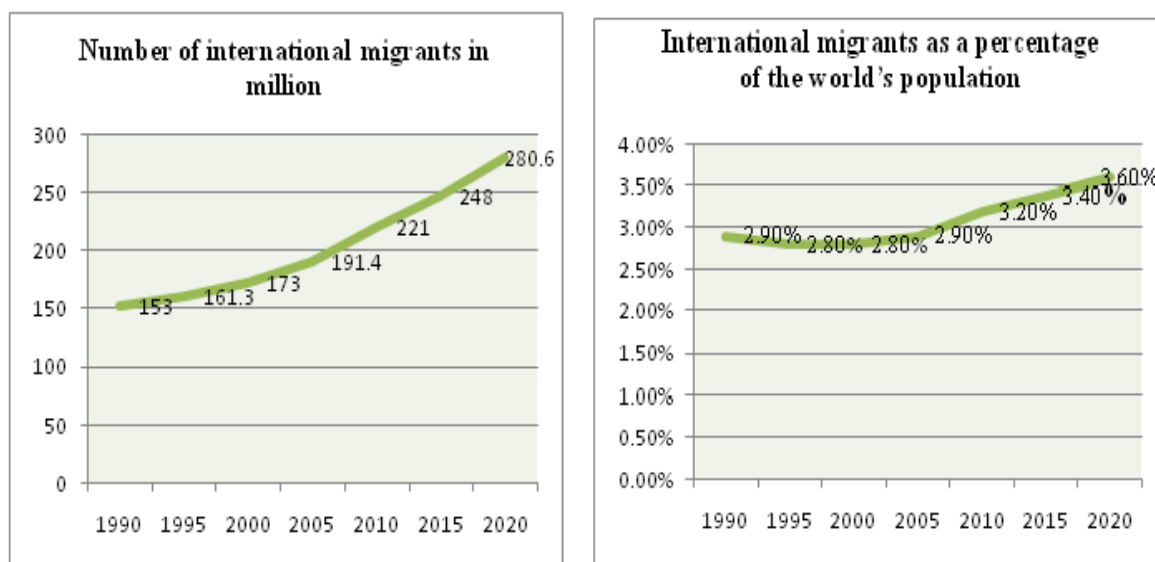


Fig. 2-1: Number and trends of international migrants (Adapted from IOM, 2020; UNDESA, 2019)

Root causes of migration

Evidences demonstrate that a range of factors continue to cause migration. Extreme poverty, lack of opportunities for education and work, inadequate access to health care, gender discrimination, conflicts, as well as the environmental degradation that makes areas unlivable, are among the many reasons why people may migrate (IOM, 2020; UNODC, 2010). Economic and social incentives, family reunification, seeking better education, the effects of climate change and natural hazards, conflict, and political instability play an important role in motivating people to migrate (FAO, 2018; Czaika & de Haas, 2011); people may also migrate because they have no other viable option to sustain their livelihoods in their place of origin (FAO, 2018); and migration pressures will continue for the foreseeable future due to income gaps and inequality, demographic imbalances, and environmental change (World Bank, 2016).

Broadly speaking, the drivers of migration can be categorized into macro-factors and micro-factors. Migration is the result of a decision process involving factors specific to origin and/or destination areas known as “*macro-factors*” that include economic growth, employment prospects, poverty and inequality, persecution and conflict; and factors specific to individual and household-related determinants are known as “*micro-factors*” that include the age, education, income, employment status and preferences of the individual potential migrant, as well as the composition of his or her household at origin, its sources of income, and the power relationships within it (FAO, 2018). Some factors push individuals out of the place of origin (*push factors*), such as a lack of employment opportunities, famine, food insecurity, political uncertainty, violence, crime rates, conflicts and natural hazards. Other factors attract individuals towards destination areas (*pull factors*), as for example perceptions of the availability of decent jobs, better schools, security and safety, and gender equality (FAO, 2018; Foresti *et al.*, 2018).

Migration decisions are crucially affected by the family context because it is often the household that finances its cost, and because the benefits of migration may also accrue to the household in the form of remittances (FAO, 2018; Cohen, 2011). A myriad of favourable, unfavourable or neutral factors cause migration; and factors that determine why a person migrates are related to the place of residence from where migration starts, also known as the origin, and the place of new set (World Economic Forum, 2017; ILO, 2013). Moreover, the same document uncovered that both the origin and destination are characterized by factors that enable, deter or are neutral (neither support nor oppose migration). Broadly speaking, the major factors of migration are categorized into two: pull and push factors, where the former and the latter factors attract a person and compel a person to move away respectively (IOM, 2020; Hofmann, 2020). Of course, both pull and push factors can apply simultaneously at the place of origin as well as at the destination (FAO, 2018; Foresti *et al.*, 2018).

The following are some of the major underlying pull factors: family reunification; independence and freedom; integration and social cohesion; food security; job

opportunities; better income and prospects for wealth creation; industrial innovation and technical know-how for a new industry; pursuit of specialized education; and affordable and accessible urban services (including healthcare, education, utilities and transport) are amongst others (IOM, 2020; UN DESA, 2016). On the contrary, the following are found to be the major push factors: climate change (including extreme weather events); crop failure and scarcity of food; unemployment; poverty; unsustainable livelihood; political instability; absence of safety & security; conflicts or threats of a conflict; bonded labour; and inadequate or limited rural and urban services and infrastructure (including healthcare, education, utilities, transport and water) are the major ones just to mention a few (IOM, 2020; UNDESA, 2016); and ecological factors - include environmental factors, such as climate change and the availability of natural resources that cause individuals to migrate in search of more favourable ecological conditions (World Economic Forum, 2017; UNODC, 2010). The following figure depicts the issue briefly.

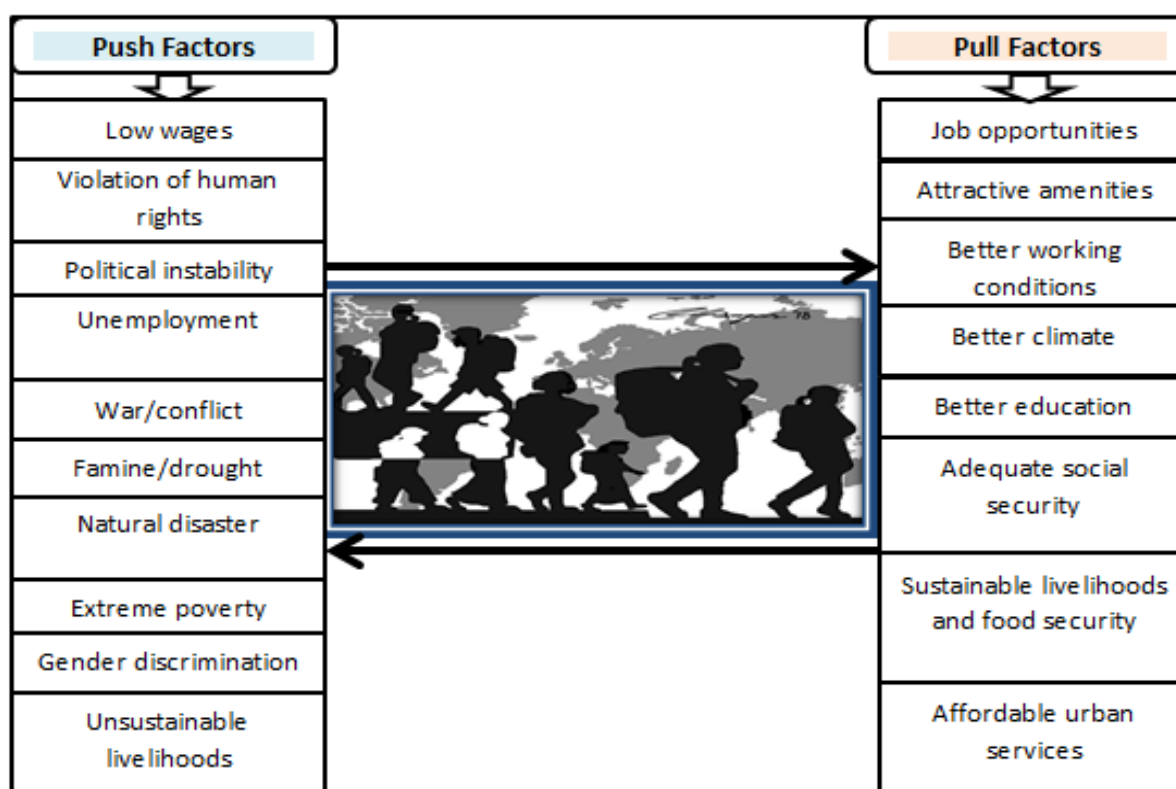


Fig.2-2: Summary of drivers of migration (Adapted from IOM, 2020; FAO, 2018; World Economic Forum, 2010).

Generally, the aforesaid drivers are merely illustrative and not exhaustive list of factors causing migration in our globe. Moreover, one can also infer that the ongoing socio-economic, political activities around the world have a great potential to further add aggregate and ominous large-scale population movements triggered by conflict, forming a threat to security and livelihoods tend to result in poverty traps; and can generate long-standing effects on present and future food security and nutrition.

The costs and benefits of migration

Migration has the potential to have long-lasting negative as well as negative impacts to migrants and to countries of origin and destination. Migration can bring large benefits and challenges to migrants and to the countries involved (World Bank, 2016; OECD, 2016; IOM, 2015). Through overseas employment, migrants increase their income, acquire new skills and accumulate savings and assets (IOM, 2017; Global Migration Group, 2017; Wahba, 2014; Global Commission on International Migration, 2005); on average, migrants from the poorest countries have experienced a 15-fold increase in income, a doubling of school enrollment rates, and a 16-fold reduction in child mortality after moving to a developed country (World Bank, 2016). Migration is found to be an effective poverty reduction mechanism, not just for migrants themselves but also for their families and their wider communities (Foresti *et al.*, 2018); and migration provides the best opportunity for finding a better job (or any job) and thereby escaping poverty and unemployment (World Bank, 2016).

Migration may involve a new job with higher pay and establishing new social ties (Kahanec & Zimmermann, 2008). IOM (2020b) vindicated that migrant workers play incalculable role and doing over 25% of the work in global food production and supply chains and consequently countries heavily relied on food imports and remittances would be hit hard by malnutrition and hunger due to the crisis. In the origin countries, migrants contribute massively to their origin countries by transferring financial and social remittances, encouraging trade linkages and making investments (Aguilar-Støen *et al.*, 2016; Collinson, 2010; Global Commission on International Migration/GCIM,

2005); and migration has a potential to advance development and investment in the origin countries (Foresti *et al.*, 2018). Migration lowers unemployment, opening access to more-productive and higher-paying jobs, and migrants' remittances offer tangible benefits to origin countries (World Bank, 2016); in 2015, remittance flows to developing countries reached \$432 billion, more than three times the size of official development assistance (World Bank, 2016).

Moreover, migrants skills may scale up local human capital and link to foreign networks (GCIM, 2005); migration can facilitate trade, investment and transfers of knowledge and technology (UNDESA, 2017; World Bank, 2016; Collin *et al.*, 2015); and migrants often become a driving force of knowledge transfer and technological advancement (Kahanec & Zimmermann, 2008). However, migration is also subjected to a variety of costs, the migration of teachers, doctors, nurses, and other professionals, the so-called brain drain (World Bank, 2016); and a 'culture' of migration, deterrent to invest locally, and result in loss of highly skilled workers and reduced quality of essential services in the origin countries (GCIM, 2005); and migration is thought to be associated with a loss of social capital (de Haan, 2000).

In the destination countries, migration has a potential to fill labour gaps and bring up innovation in the host countries (Foresti *et al.*, 2018); immigration increases labor and skill supply, innovation, and entrepreneurship (World Bank, 2016); and immigration provided a net positive fiscal effect, and in the aging societies, immigration of young workers could ease the strained pension systems and the burden of caring for the elderly (OECD, 2013). Migrants contribute to better service provision and make sound contributions to destination countries as workers and consumers; and migrants can make significant contributions to the fiscal balance of host countries, as their contributions of taxes and other payments outshine the benefits and services they receive (Foresti *et al.*, 2018; Hagen-Zanker *et al.*, 2017b; Hagen-Zanker, 2008).

Despite the aforementioned potential positive benefits, migration is not without challenges. Many people and policymakers in destination countries fear that

immigration leads to the following problems: loss of jobs, imposes heavy burdens on public services, erodes social cohesion, and increases crime levels (World Bank, 2016). Migration affects the demands on urban infrastructure and services in destination countries, and inadequacies in urban infrastructure and services add to the pressure (World Economic Forum, 2017; Foresti, *et al.*, 2018); the rapid population growth results in cities having to manage the lack of urban planning to meet the needs of all people; and would make difficult to provide education and healthcare to the entire population and affecting the quality of such services (UN HABITAT, 2016; World Economic Forum, 2017). Unexpected and large migration flows to the host countries can interrupt various systems including education systems and create tensions in host communities (Nicholai *et al.*, 2017).

In sum, migration perhaps has the potential to have the most significant and long-lasting impacts and its impacts can be categorized in negative and positive impacts. Migration affects the demands on urban infrastructure and services in both the place of origin and the place of destination; migration can transform the individuals who move, the societies they move into and even the societies they leave behind, and migrants have become a key driver for matching the skill demand and supply ratios around the globe.

2.1.2. Overview of Return Migration

In this section, though an over view of return migration is appear as a topic discussion, a great deal of attention is given to a brief discussion of the typologies of return migration and determinants of return migration. A thorough discussion on conceptualization of return migration and pertinent issues are presented in Chapter 5 of this Dissertation under section 5.2 (see Chapter 5). Thus, here only a brief description of the aforementioned two keys is presented later.

Typologies of return migration

Categorizing migration in general and return migration in particular is not an easy task and yet problematic. Due to different types of migration and overwhelming reasons behind migrants' decisions, there are a number of typologies of return migration (Battistella, 2018; Wahba, 2014; King, 2012/2000). Migration unfolds in time and space

(Malmberg, 1997) and is therefore defined against thresholds of distance and ‘time in migration’ (Cwerner, 2001). In other words, return migrants can be categorized in multiple ways. The most significant distinction is between voluntary and forced migration movements as they have different terminologies for both the initial migration movement and return (Kuschminder, 2017). This distinction can be made on two levels: first if the initial migration movement was voluntary (migrant) or forced (refugee), and secondly if the return migration movement is voluntary (return migrant) or forced (deportee or *refoulement* for refugees). IOM (2019) categorized return migration into two major types: voluntary and forced returns. While the former is considered as the independent return to the country of origin, transit or another country based on the voluntary decision of the returnee, and the latter is a migratory movement which, although the drivers can be diverse, involves force, compulsion, or coercion (IOM, 2019). In practice, migration management commonly divides return migration into three categories: voluntary return without compulsion, voluntary returns with compulsion and involuntary return (ibid.).

Moreover, other categorizations have been also established for return migrants. Based on the individuals’ initial purpose of migration, the UN classifies return migrants for study, employment, working as a civil servant or humanitarian migration. A key element in many return migration typologies is the differentiation of the intention of the migration episode to be either permanent or temporary. In real sense, intentions are difficult to measure as intentions may frequently change. Combining the intention and the eventual migration outcome, this typology has been refined by Bovenkerk (1974) and further developed by Gmelch (1980) and King *et al.* (1983). The typology encompasses the following four categories of: 1) intended temporary migration with return; 2) intended temporary migration without return; 3) intended permanent migration with return; and 4) intended permanent migration without return. This typology has been useful in respect to remittance behaviour, as evidence exists that remittances are higher when migrants plan to return home (Ammassari, 2009). However, while abroad migrants intentions may change.

A third typology is based on the amount of time spent in the home country. This typology has the following four categories: occasional returns for a short-term visit to see family and friends; seasonal returns based on seasonal work activities; temporary returns- which occur when the migrant returns to the homeland for a significant period but may intend to re-migrate, and permanent return which are those that settle in the home country for good (King, 2000). The notion of a temporary return has gained increasing prominence in the literature with new programmes designed for brain gain and temporary return such as the IOM Migration for Development in Africa Program (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development/UNCTAD, 2013; Terazzas, 2010; OECD, 2005).

The challenge with this approach is that returnees may change their mind regarding return and at one point plan to be a permanent returnee but re-migrates and become a temporary returnee. This leads to a fourth typology that is based on the relationship between the countries of migration and return. It includes the following three categories of: return from less-developed countries to highly developed countries; return migration of labour migrants from the developed industrial countries to their less-developed home countries; and return movements between countries of broadly equal economic status (King, 2000). Other authors have also developed typologies to suit their case studies. For instance in a case study of emigration, return and development in Cape Verde Carling (2004) proposes the following four categorizations for returnees:

Classic returnees: spent much of their adult life abroad, they have managed to secure a relatively high standard of living in Cape Verde, and they have usually not re-entered the Cape Verdean wage labour market

Empty-handed returnees: unsuccessful migrants who come back no better off than when they left, which includes deportees and voluntary returnees

Intermediate returnees: who are between these two extremes, have not been abroad as long as the classic returnees, have accumulated less savings and not secured pension rights

Graduates from foreign universities: students who return from study abroad.

More recently, return typologies have also been expanded to include non-physical returns. Oxfeld and Long (2004) propose three categories of refugee return:

Imagined returns: these occur before a person leaves the country of migration and include their perceptions, images, and expectations of the home country and return;

Provisional returns: include return visits to initially see the changes in the home country;

Repatriated returns: include both voluntary and non-voluntary returns and is the actual act of moving back to the home country.

These categories are slightly overlapping with the previous typology that determines the return based on the time spent in the home country; however, it adds the element of 'imagined returns'. This highlights the importance of the visioning of the return before it occurs, however, it is also debatable as to if non-physical returns can actually be included as a form of return migration. Imagined returns are arguably a part of the return process, similar to the notion of the 'myth of return', however if one does not physically return, than it remains a myth and not an actual return.

Summing up, three 'core groups' have dominated the study of migration in the past and still do so to some extent: temporary labour migrants, settler migrants, and refugees (King, 2000). The 'age of migration' has seen a proliferation of new types of migration and international mobility which form important elements of the increasingly complex global map of population movements (King, 2002; King *et al.*, 2010; Martiniello & Rath, 2012). It is apparent that several typologies exist to categorize return migrants; however, no one typology is consistently utilized within the literature and this creates problems in making generalizations or comparisons across the literature regarding certain groups of returnees. Most typologies of return migration have dealt with two dimensions along which there is considerable diversity: the length of time migrants intended to remain abroad and their reason(s) for returning.

Determinants of return migration

The question why do many migrants return to their homelands and willing to give up a comparatively high standard of living in one of the advanced industrialized nations of the world in order to return to a less developed society is the centerpiece of discussion among scholars. The determinants of return migration have received much attention by scholars, and some theoretical syntheses have been advanced (Cassarino, 2004). A number of factors trigger return migration. It is relatively very simple to understand why people migrate. As first developed by Harris and Todaro in 1970, migration takes place due to a wage differential between two locations based on the expected value of their lifetime income, net of costs, is higher in host regions (Wahba, 2014); where the immigrant weighs in each period the benefits of remaining a further unit of time abroad against the costs of doing so, the migrant will then decide to return home when the benefits of staying abroad are lower than the costs (Dustmann & Weiss, 2007). This is because as stated earlier, the reason for migration is higher wages in the host country, which may create extra wealth and allow the migrant to increase lifetime consumption.

However, as the marginal utility of wealth decreases, the additional benefit of a unit of time in the host country is lower, the longer the migrant has already stayed abroad (and the more wealth he/she has accumulated) (Wahba, 2014; Dustmann & Weiss, 2007). Accordingly, the benefit of migration slowly decreases. This alone does not trigger a return migration, because, whatever the immigrant's wealth, it is always advantageous to remain a further unit of time in a country that pays a higher wage. This, however, implies that the migrant's objective is only to maximize lifetime income and that the migration decision is solely influenced by monetary gains.

Another driving force of return migration is that migrants have a preference for consumption in their home country being close to family and friends, living in a familiar environment, enjoying the climate and so on, regardless of the value of the migrant's stock of human capital is higher abroad (Dumont & Spielvogel, 2008; Galor & Stark, 1991 as cited in Wahba, 2014); return migration may be induced by a higher purchasing

power of the host-country currency in the home country, and migration is temporary as it allows the migrant to take advantage of high wages abroad and low prices at home due to price differences relatively between the host and origin country (Dustmann & Weiss, 2007); and better conditions at home would also reduce the benefits for migrants from staying overseas (Wahba, 2014). Return migration is found to be planned and part of an optimal strategy to maximize lifetime utility: due to credit constraints, individuals migrate for a period of time where wages are higher so that they can accumulate savings overseas to use on their return to set up businesses (Gubert & Nordman, 2008; Mesnard, 2004); and a higher rate of return on entrepreneurial activities in the home country may trigger a return migration (Wahba, 2014); individuals may migrate temporarily solely due to human capital considerations to acquire skills that are highly rewarded in the source country on their return and the returns to human capital acquired in the host country were higher at home (Dustmann, 2003, 1997).

Another mechanism behind the return decision might be unplanned, when the migrant realizes that their expected value of lifetime income is lower than that in the origin country and returns due to imperfect information about the host country in terms of labour market prospects or the cost of living, or the inability to fulfil the migration plans in terms of target savings and so on (Wahba, 2014); the decision to return is linked to pre-migration purpose of earning and post-migration employment status (Naveed *et al.*, 2017). The main reason for migrating - the decision to return is even more prominently directed by the family situations that include: issues of adaptation, decisions on where the children should be educated, and requests for the migrant to be present in the family (Stark, 1993/1991); determinants of return migration (except for the mandatory return at the end of contract) are more personal factors seem to be at play (Battistella, 2018).

The emigrants with high earning objectives get unemployed, they are more likely to return back to their country of origin, and however, employed emigrants with the objective of higher earnings are more likely to stay, however, duration of stay, migrants'

age, education and socio-economic ties do not have a significant impact on the decision to return (Naveed *et al.*, 2017). Moreover, the same authors stressed that emigrants who have migration objective other than the higher income may stay even in the periods of unemployment. The two variables of economic integration: emigrants' employment status and remitting ability are negatively associated with the emigrants' decision to return (Naveed *et al.*, 2017). The socio-cultural integration is another factor affecting return migration decision. The emigrants who don't have close host community born friends and are not fluent in the host community language are more likely to decide returning back as compared to staying there. Besides, the same authors elucidate that emigrants who have close native friends and proficient in the host community language are more likely to stay there instead of returning back.

As a whole, poor economic conditions in the host country force some migrants to return, however, the positive attributes of the home society "*pull factors*" have more influence in return migration decisions than factors inherent in the host societies (Gmelch, 1980); and migrants return for the following major reasons: successful completion of their migration objectives; retirement; lack of success and poor integration in destination countries; family reasons; rejected asylum applications; and deportations, among others (ILO, 2019).

Overall, return migration is a non-homogeneous phenomenon triggered by multitude factors. Economic, non-economic, socio-cultural factors, as well personal factors highly contribute in decision making for return migration from host country to origin country for both planned and unplanned return migration.

2.1.3. The Concepts and Definitions of Livelihoods

The term "*livelihood*" has been defined in a number of ways. It is a material means whereby one makes a living and the bundle of activities that people undertake to provide for their basic needs (Rubavel, 2019; Niehof & Price, 2001; Periperi & Oxfam, 2002); the activities that economically support a person and his/her family (Unituslabs, 2012; Scoones, 1998); and a livelihood includes not only income (cash and in kind) but

also social institutions, access to social and public services, etc.(Scoones, 2009; Ellis, 1998). Livelihood strategies are defined as the range and combination of activities and choices that people make to achieve the following livelihood goals: productive activities, investment strategies, reproductive choices, and the like (Liu *et al.*, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2015; Periperi & Oxfam, 2002; DFID, 2001/2000/1999; Nielsen *et al.*, 2013); and they are planned activities that generate the means of household survival that men and women undertake to build their livelihoods (Ellis, 2000).

Livelihood is defined as a measure of the set of action taken by individuals within their capacity and capitals to make a living (Mutenje *et al.*, 2010; Ansoms & McKay, 2010; Ellis, 2000). Though, the concept of “livelihood” has been developed over a long period of time and has swept scholars attention and widely used in contemporary writings, the most generally quoted definition of livelihoods is that given by Carney (1999/1998) based on the work of Chambers and Conway (1992) livelihoods are the means that enable people to earn a living that includes the capabilities, assets, income and activities people require to ensure that their basic needs are covered. Most definitions of livelihoods stem from Chambers and Conway’s 1992 definition: “*the means of gaining a living*”, includes livelihood capabilities, tangible assets, such as stores and resources, and intangible assets, such as claims and access (de Haan & Zoomers, 2005: 25).

Another concept that stands at the top of nations’ and modern organizations’ agenda is the concept of sustainability. Nowadays, sustainable livelihoods attracted much attention as an alternative focus for development practice (Solesbury, 2003). The concern for sustainability has been rising from multiple dimensions and relying on socio-economic, political, geographical and cultural factors starting from 1980s (Ruiz-Real *et al.*, 2019); the sustainable livelihoods idea was first introduced by the Brundtland Commission on Environment and Development, and the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development expanded the concept, advocating for the achievement of sustainable livelihoods as a broad goal for poverty eradication (Krantz, 2001).

The concept of Sustainable Livelihood (SL) is an attempt to go beyond the conventional definitions and approaches to poverty eradication that merely relied on certain aspects of poverty such as low income, without giving due consideration to other vital aspects of poverty: vulnerability and social exclusion (Krantz, 2001); a way of thinking about the objectives, scope and priorities for development to enhance progress in poverty elimination with the intention to support poor people achieve lasting improvements against the indicators of poverty that they define (Scoones, 2009; DFID, 2001/2000). Various factors and processes which either prohibit or enhance the capacity of poor people to make a living in an economically, ecologically, and socially sustainable manner need due attention (Frantz, 2001; Solesbury, 2003). The SL concept offers a more coherent and integrated approach to poverty. In 1992 Robert Chambers and Gordon Conway proposed the following composite definition of a sustainable livelihood, which is applied most commonly at the household level:

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 and in the short and long term (Frantz, 2001: 1).

A livelihood is sustainable when it allows people to cope with, and recover from, setbacks and stress (such as natural disasters and economic or social upheavals), and improve their welfare and that of future generations without degrading the natural resources base (Chambers & Conway, 1991).

Livelihoods, in the SL approach, refer to more than income, encompassing: "...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 long and short term” (Chambers and Conway, 1992 as cited in Walker et al., 2001:7).

A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base (DFID, 1999; Scoones, 1998; Carney, 1998); and a sustainable livelihood is the one that guards people against shocks and stresses (Walker *et al.*, 2001).

So, it is possible to conclude that, though the ways scholars define and explain the terms “livelihood” and “sustainable livelihood” vary, the core ideas of many are almost similar. Generally, the definitions of livelihood and sustainable livelihood held by the aforementioned scholars are in fact compatible in that livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets, and activities required for a means of living; and a livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from a variety of adverse conditions, provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generations; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at various levels in the short and long term. That is, in contemporary world, in the urban areas like Addis Ababa where majority of the returnees rely strictly on markets and susceptible to current food price spikes dealing with issues pertinent to livelihoods has paramount importance in Ethiopian context in general and in Addis Ababa in particular to offer route map for livelihood intervention efforts and to curb down hurdles associated with the issue under discussion.

2.1.4. Major Interactive Elements of Sustainable Urban Livelihoods

Evidences heralded that there are a number of components of sustainable urban livelihoods. Livelihood capitals, livelihood strategies, the urban context, and livelihood outcomes are amongst key elements (Farrington *et al.*, 2002; CARE International, 1999); it also incorporates individuals’ short and long term objectives to indicate that the SL

model aims to be people centered, and reflect the priorities and ideas of poor individuals (Farrington *et al.*, 2002). The specific elements and linkages of the sustainable urban livelihoods are presented in detail as follows.

Livelihood assets in urban settings

In this dissertation, livelihood capitals or livelihood assets, the names are often used interchangeably. Scholars view livelihood capitals differently. No sole definition of livelihood assets exists as it is a very complex phenomenon influenced by multiple variables. Livelihood capitals are the resources on which people draw to undertake their livelihood strategies (Farrington *et al.*, 2002; DFID, 1999; CARE International, 1999); and they are the available building blocks with which people realize their own personal vision of the quality of life they desire (Walker *et al.*, 2001; Scoones, 2009). Livelihood capitals are resources that are critical to the survival of people in response to stresses and shocks while not compromising the natural resource base (Ansoms & McKay, 2010; Mutenje *et al.*, 2010; Ellis, 2000; Scoones, 1998; Christensen & Pamela, 2008). Broadly speaking, the assets are categorized into five major groups: a) *human capital* – personal characteristics including education, knowledge, health, and capacity to adapt; b) *natural capital* - environmental resources including land, water, ecosystem services, biodiversity and crop production; c) *social capital* - the characteristics of connections with others including networks, formal and informal groups, understood rules and opportunities for participation; d) *financial capital* - economic characteristics including wages, pensions, savings, credit and debt; and, e) *physical capital* - infrastructure and technology including roads, energy, communications, and tools (Serrat, 2008; Ansoms & McKay, 2010; Mutenje *et al.*, 2010; Scoones, 2009; Ellis, 2000).

Moreover, livelihood assets are resources that include the following broad range capitals: financial, human, social, physical, natural and political capital (Farrington *et al.*, 2002; CARE International, 1999). However, these assets are not always owned by the men and women who use them in their livelihood strategies – rather, they may have varying extents of access to and control over these assets (Farrington *et al.*, 2002);

households possess these assets to varying degrees as they are not equitably available particularly for poor people both from the perspective of achieving sufficient levels of the assets and freedom of having access opportunities to build them (Mazibuko, 2013; Jones, 2009). The aforesaid barriers are extremely important and represent a key challenge for realization of the SLF since resolving access issues is not an over-night activity rather it is a long term process (Hussein, 2002); such limitations on access to assets are compounded by their dynamic nature and these assets are neither equitably accessible nor static (de Sherbinin, 2008; Carter & Barrett, 2006).

The physical, financial and natural assets along with the impacts related to the level of their presence within a household and a community are widely understood and addressed in livelihood interventions in development (Martin *et al.*, 2011; Lepper & Goebel, 2010; Brandolini *et al.*, 2010; Haque *et al.*, 2009). Livelihood interventions also often seek to have a direct and measurable impact on the potential of human assets particularly where levels of skill and training influence employment opportunities and development initiatives frequently embrace training and capacity building activities (Lapeyre, 2010). In other words, in urban areas, the poor can benefit much from the capitals through sound livelihood interventions.

Other essential livelihood assets are social capitals that have much contribution to the cohesion of diverse components of urban livelihoods. Social capitals have long been a centerpiece of discussions in the literature that are embedded in social relations, social structures, and society's institutional arrangements, which enable its members to achieve their individual and community objectives (Floress *et al.*, 2011; Dale & Newman, 2010; Vermaak, 2009; Katungi *et al.*, 2008; Bebbington, 2004). When social organizations and structures are strong enough and act as resources for individuals upon which they can draw effectively and efficiently to address the challenges of their daily lives (Hickey, 2010; Ibrahim, 2006). In the sphere of social capitals, the following four important qualities are required to promote and scale up the ability to work together: trust; reciprocity; rules and norms; and connectedness (Clopton & Finch, 2011; Pretty & Smith, 2004).

When trust, social networks, social memory, capacity for learning, and adaptability are developed, social capitals play pivotal roles in the resiliency of social-environmental systems (Waylen *et al.*, 2010; Beratan, 2007; Folke, 2006). A key role in the strengthening of social capital is played by cultures and many of these qualities along with issues of justice, equity and dependency are culturally conceived, however, conversely, the impacts of traditional culture are lessened through the influence of modern western culture into traditional communities, social assets are diminished (Brooks, 2010; Schellhorn, 2010; Lee & Jamal, 2008; Camargo *et al.*, 2007; Fukuyama, 2002; Inkeles, 2000). The following table depicts a more thorough categorization and comparisons of livelihood assets made by different authorities (Table 2-1).

The groupings and classifications are identified from rural livelihoods analysis and developed from urban livelihoods analysis respectively (Walker *et al.*, 2001). The assets in Table 2-1 have been presented as a pentagon of five types of assets: financial, human, natural, physical and social, as is proposed in the Carney model (1998). While these generic types are the same for the rural and urban SL models, the urban setting may result in a different emphasis for each type of asset; for example, natural capital will generally be of less significance in the urban setting and financial capital more significant (Walker *et al.*, 2001).

Table 2-1: Generic classification and comparison of assets by different authorities

Authorities			
Chambers (1995)	Carney (1998)	UNDP(1999)	Moser (1996; 1998)
Tangible assets: • Stores e.g. food, jewelry • Resources	Natural capital	Land	Labour
Intangible assets: • Claims-made for material, moral or practical support • Opportunity in practice to obtain resources	Human capital	Livestock	Economic and social infrastructure
	Financial capital	Skills	Housing
	Physical capital	Knowledge	Household relations
	Social capital	Natural resources	Social capital

Source: Adapted from Walker et al. (2001: 10)

Research evidence demonstrates that the poor are managers of complex asset portfolios (Moser, 1998/1996); and some examples of the assets that are used in urban areas are examined in Table 2-2 (Walker *et al.*, 2001).

Generally speaking, the aforementioned five asset categories of the household offer the foundation upon which urban sustainable livelihoods can be developed and maintained; however, as households do not exist independently the assets they possess are influenced by the structures and processes of the community and society of which the household is a part (Downie, 2015; Walker *et al.*, 2001). The details and the links are discussed in the next section as follows.

Table 2-2: Summary of assets commonly used by the urban poor

Assets	Description of each assets
Financial capital Income Access to credit	Income deriving from the sale of their labour is a key asset for the urban poor as a result of the 'commoditized' nature of cities which increases dependency on cash income (Moser, 1998). The availability and accessibility of affordable credit is important in reducing the likelihood of severe indebtedness of the urban poor.
Human capital Health Education and other skills	Health care is one of the major cornerstones in determining the quality of labour of the urban poor due to the fact that the sale of labour is essential in the context of the city economy. Likewise accessibility to education and training offers the opportunity for poor to improve the value of their human capital.
Natural capital	Although for some urban people, land and livestock are important assets, these resources are generally less significant for the urban poor (Rakodi, 1993). Nevertheless, urban agriculture is often practiced on marginal or illegally occupied land. While some common property resources (rivers or forests) are generally have less paramount importance for the poor, some natural resources like rivers in particular can be used as a source of water for washing and even drinking, and for other activities in urban setting (DFID, 1999).
Physical capital Housing	Housing is found to be one of the most important assets for both productive (renting room, a workshop area) and reproductive purposes

Assets	Description of each assets
Livestock Economic and social infrastructure Other assets	(Moser, 1998) including shelter. Though some urban dwellers are engaged in livestock rearing, it is generally less important in urban settings (Rakodi, 1997). Access to education and health facilities offers the opportunity for poor households to improve their own human capitals.
Social capital Social support Information	The network of support and reciprocity that may exist within and between households and with communities which people can call on: loans, child care support, food and accommodation, etc. (Moser, 1998; Dersham & Gzirishvili, 1998). Access to information is a key aspect of social networks to obtain information about casual labour markets and other opportunities, etc.

Source: Adapted based on (Walker *et al.*, 2001:11).

Structures and processes in urban areas

There is a wide range of discussions on the importance of institutional structures and processes in promoting livelihoods. In urban areas, resources are controlled by structures (for instance, by municipalities and private utilities) and the tools they use for control are processes (policies, laws, regulations, “*rules of the game*”) (Carney, 1998). The mere existence of assets is not sufficient to promote livelihoods rather the fundamental issue is their accessibility that can be determined by the entitlements that households and individuals are able to command, which largely relate to contextual factors (institutional structures and processes which determine people’s legal, social and economic rights) (Farrington *et al.*, 2002; Walker *et al.*, 2001); and contextual factors determine access to an asset, for example, the existence of policies and infrastructures promoting universal primary education encompass both an asset and the access to an asset - the existence of schools is irrelevant to people who are unable to use them due to economic and legal structures which exclude them (Walker *et al.*, 2001; Carney, 1998).

Levels of government and the laws, policies and decision-making processes that are used to implement government policies determine in many ways the access that people

have to the assets they can acquire or depend on for making livelihood change or improvement (Downie, 2015); various policies and practice, formal and informal institutions can provide either barriers or opportunities in accessing credit or participation in cooperative ventures (Scoones, 1998); and research findings have disclosed that the changing notion of community suggests that the nature of social assets and cultural norms must also be changing; and the structures and processes are largely community-based (Southgate, 2006). The presence of the private sector as a major component of local economies influences accessibility to assets, and conversely, the asset base of households influences the actions of the private sector in seeking successful economic enterprises, for instance, the ability to purchase as consumers (Downie, 2015).

Though communities are much more complex systems that are multi-faceted and highly dynamic, there has been a tendency among development professionals to think of communities as uniform single entities (Sebele, 2010; Blackstock, 2005). Many of the drawbacks in the current understanding of the social and cultural dimensions of community development are associated to such tendency to generalize individual circumstances, traits, opinions or values to the community level. There is a need to understand more thoroughly the motivations, expectations and capacities of individuals irrespective of the complexity of such a task (Waylen *et al.*, 2010; Southgate, 2006). People's true engagement in the process will make structures and processes more effective (Williamson, 2011; Bowen, 2008). However, a substantial amount of effort has been dedicated to exploring the underpinnings of the role of participation in achieving community benefits (Tosun, 2000); and the cultural institutional context within communities interacts with the assets of households has a great potential to strengthen or limit the processes of livelihood change (Downie, 2015).

In sum, from the above discussions, one can conclude that the relationship between livelihood assets, and structures and processes within the surrounding context is very dynamic in nature. Moreover, the level of assets available to households is influenced by the institutional processes and structures, and contextual factors are decisive as a whole

in determining access to an asset. The five asset components within the SLF have a mutual influencing relationship with the structures and processes of the context within which households exist. Conversely, individual household assets influence processes and structures and the environment in which households further interacts with what is termed in the SLF as the vulnerability context. Accordingly, the issue of vulnerability context and its associated elements are set out briefly in the next section.

Vulnerability context and the urban areas

Before proceeding to the details of vulnerability context, let us highlight the concept of context. Context can be defined in a number of ways. It is the environment in which households exist that includes: the availability of resources, the political and economic environment, and the threat of disaster (CARE International, 1999; Periperi & Oxfam, 2002). The context in which poor household members pursue their livelihood strategies is a key determinant of the types of assets available to them and the types of livelihood strategies that they are likely to pursue. Many of the underlying causes of the vulnerability of the poor relate to the context in which they operate. *“The Vulnerability Context refers to the seasonality, trends, and shocks that affect people’s livelihoods”* (DFID, 2000:1); it the insecurity of the well-being of individuals or communities in the face of changing environments (Moser, 1996); and the vulnerability context of the SLF encompasses influences related to trends (population, economy, governance, and technology), seasonality (productivity, prices, and employment opportunities) and shocks (health, natural conditions, conflict, and productivity) (DFID, 1999).

Vulnerability is a spectrum and changes in the factors influencing vulnerability can be either positive or negative, for example seasonality of employment can be negative at periods of the year where hired labour is not required but will be positive when extra labour is desirable (CARE International, 1999; DFID, 1999). People are considered vulnerable to shocks based on the interrelationship between three influences: exposure - the presence and magnitude of a stress; sensitivity - the degree of impact a stress can create; and, adaptive capacity - the level of ability the system has to respond to the stress (Bennett *et al.*, 2014; Marshall *et al.*, 2010; Zou & Wei, 2010; Serrat, 2008).

Literatures vividly indicate that vulnerability will increase as the exposure and sensitivity increase and the adaptive capacity diminishes, and different households will experience the same stress differently.

Sustainable livelihoods are characterized by the ability to withstand or recover from shocks while maintaining household assets and the natural resource base (Scoones, 2009, 1998; Bebbington, 2004, 1999). Those with lesser capacity will inevitably have a more difficult time maintaining assets and as a result such shocks frequently create a process whereby more vulnerable people move in and out of poverty (Muyanga *et al.*, 2013; Porter, 2012; De Weerdt, 2010; Krishna *et al.*, 2006). In addition, some groups are held in poverty when opportunities to withstand or recover from shocks are denied as a result of inequalities resulting from discrimination on the basis of age, gender and ethnic background (van der Berg, 2014; Hickey, 2010; De Weerdt, 2010; International Fund for Agricultural Development/IFAD, 2010; Jones, 2009). Shocks of significant magnitude (e.g. death of a spouse), long term duration (e.g. climate change) or combined multiple stressors acting simultaneously, necessitate more comprehensive livelihood adjustments (Mubaya *et al.*, 2012; Porter, 2012; Bunce *et al.*, 2010; Assan *et al.*, 2009; Assan & Kumar, 2009). People tend to adapt to environmental variability such as climate change when combined with other stressors their resilience diminishes (Mazibuko, 2013).

However, some of the most significant threats posed to poor urban relate to individual factors are difficult to address at the broad policy level - for example the death of main bread-winning family members, loss of housing and assets due to natural disasters, or loss of assets as a result of theft or chronic illness, and those living without access to a range of alternative assets are the most vulnerable (Walker *et al.*, 2001). According to a sustainable livelihoods approach the situation of the world's poorest people is defined not only by their lack of wealth but also by their insecure and precarious position in terms of coping with stress and shocks more generally (Beall & Kanji, 1999; Carney, 1998; UNCHS, 1996; Moser, 1996; Chambers, 1995; Wratten, 1995). In urban settings, the poor are likely to be vulnerable to various shocks and crises. The high cost of living is

one of many exogenous factors which can result in insecurity or vulnerability - others include legal status, the environment, or social and political exclusion (Walker *et al.*, 2001; Porter, 2012; Bunce *et al.*, 2010).

The main sources of vulnerability vary from city to city, however, the following some common elements appear too many urban poor residents: the informal legal status of many and poor in cities; poor living environments; and a dependence on the cash economy for basic goods and services (Walker *et al.*, 2001; CARE International, 1999). Understanding the vulnerability of the poor and the ways that they cope with it is essential for well-informed policy decisions (Carney, 1998; Moser, 1998/1996; Dersham & Gzirishvili, 1998). In general sense, vulnerability has the following two major pillars: the scale of the responses to external shocks and how quickly each household's system of livelihood tactics recovers from shocks (Moser, 1998; Chambers, 1995). The main means of resilience are assets which act as a buffer against vulnerability (Moser, 1998; Carney, 1998).

Thus, one can conclude from the above discussions that vulnerability is closely linked to access to and control over assets and its analysis involves not only the identification of the possible threats to the household's welfare but also needs an assessment of the resilience of households in exploiting opportunities, resisting or recovering from negative effects. Some of the causes and effects of these forms of vulnerability are summarized hereunder (Table 2-3). The forms of vulnerability explained in the can be altered in response to new policy approaches and changing conditions. The insecurity of informal residents with no legal tenure is variable; evictions threaten the livelihoods of many urban residents and can have wider ranging livelihood impacts than just the loss of housing (Audefroy, 1994).

Moreover, the same authors accorded that evicted households may also lose access to key markets or livelihood resources as they are moved to other locations and the disruption of whole communities poses significant threats to social networks and capital. *While official policies often declare slum and squatter settlements to be illegal*

and potentially subject to eviction without warning, in some selected areas governments have given implicit recognition to such communities by providing them with basic services and limited infrastructure (Douglass, 1998:125). In other words, such positive policy approaches by local authorities can diminish the vulnerability of the poor by responding to their need for security.

Table 2-3: Summary of Vulnerabilities common among the urban poor

Context	Dimension of vulnerability	Description of each vulnerability/context
Legal status	Informal employment	The urban poor engaged in informal employment entirely lack labour rights, and ultimately susceptible to sudden unemployment, and the dangers accruing to the following unprotected working conditions: long hours, poor pay, etc. (Potter & Lloyd, 1998).
	Shelter and land	Urban dwellers living on illegally occupied land or in informal low cost rental housing lack legal tenure rights. Moreover, those residents undertaking urban agriculture may lack legal tenure, and risk losing their land and crops.
	Political rights	Informal residents lacking legal registration may be excluded from political decision making and so on (Wratten, 1995).
	Services and infrastructure	Lack of legal status may limit the access of informal residents to basic social services: health, education, financial services, etc. Besides, the prevalence of illegal connections to infrastructure (such as electricity or water, etc.).
The local environment	Physical environment	The lives and health of the urban poor are adversely affected by poor living environments, where they are forced to live and work in marginal areas (Satterthwaite, 1997a/b).
	Social environment	The social context may be typified by crime, fragmentation and other social ills which in turn may deduce the ability of households to further pursue their livelihood strategies (Wratten, 1995); the poor may be excluded from livelihood opportunities as the result of differences in culture/ethnicity which may lead to their exclusion from social networks (Beall & Kanji, 1999).
Cash economy dependency		The following free goods and services: common land, clean water and fuel are uncommon in urban settings. Most of the basic services must be paid in cash that makes the urban poor vulnerable to market vagaries: inflation, and the removal of government's subsidies (Moser, 1998); and dependence on the cash economy frequently means that poor households are vulnerable to debt, and borrowing that may lead to long term indebtedness.

Source: Adapted from (Walker *et al.*, 2001)

Urban livelihood strategies

As already stated above, in urban settings, policies, institutions and processes are found to be amongst the major contextual factors through which people can gain access to assets, or which act as barriers to their access. Adapting to shocks underlies people's livelihood decision-making process and investigation of the various livelihood strategies the urban people implement. A detailed account of the nature of these strategies is presented here under. Livelihood strategies are the intended activities that individuals undertake to build their livelihoods that include a range of activities designed to build asset bases and access to goods and services for consumption (Walker *et al.*, 2001); the combination of activities and choices that people make in order to achieve their livelihood goals (Sun *et al.*, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2018; Wang *et al.*, 2015; DFID, 2001).

Furthermore, they include: how people combine their income generating activities; the way in which they use their assets; which assets they chose to invest in; and how they manage to preserve existing assets and income (DFID, 1999; Periperi & Oxfam, 2002). Many poor urban households are opportunistic and diversifying their sources of income via a range of different income-generating activities such as formal waged employment, informal trading and service activities at the same time (Walker *et al.*, 2001; DFID, 2001); and individuals as well as households build up various patterns of activities which together constitute their livelihood strategies and livelihood strategies of many households are associated with both rural and urban activities (Walker *et al.*, 2001).

In the words of Douglass, in much of Asia, *"poor households are not only tightly integrated into the economy, but also seek to diversify their income earning and pooling activities by having different family members engage in different types of activities and sectors of the economy"* (Douglass, 1998:124); and the poor diversifying their income as a broad survival strategy, distinguishing between full time employees with one main source of livelihoods and a wide portfolio of activities are known as '*hedgehogs*' and '*foxes*' respectively (Chambers, 1997). The activities in which the poor households are involved in part will be determined by the assets available to household members. The

survival strategies typically undertaken by urban poor household members vary from one place to another and some of them are short term strategies, often adopted out of necessity (e.g. strategies that aim at reducing expenditure) and long term strategies which aim to invest in future capacity to build livelihoods (Walker *et al.*, 2001).

A number of literatures clearly support that coping and adaptive strategies are under the umbrella of livelihood strategies. Livelihood strategies include coping and adaptive strategies designed to respond to shocks in the short term and to improve circumstances in the long term respectively (Aquiar & Hurst, 2005; Dercon, 2002), and they are determined by the assets and opportunities available to individuals (Farrington *et al.*, 2002); and livelihood strategies may cater to the priorities of more powerful household members rather than the interests of other household members and thus be inequitable and socially unsustainable (Walker *et al.*, 2001). Some livelihood strategies undertaken by urban poor households are sustainable and others are not. The following livelihood strategies are the most cited non-sustainable ones which may be undertaken by poor urban households (Walker *et al.*, 2001):

- ***Stinting on education, basic food stuffs, medical costs:*** which leads to cost cutting in the short term but which undermine human capital in the longer term, lessening the ability of poor men and women to use or sell their labour;
- ***Triage/discrimination, child bonded labour:*** for example, undermining the rights of less powerful household members;
- ***Activities such as theft and organized crime:*** that may satisfy the needs of the poor households or household members engaged in them, but have negative impacts on other individuals, households or groups who may also be poor.
- ***Activities which abuse common natural resources:*** such as water supplies or land, for example the pollution of rivers by small industry such as dying and paper manufactures.
- ***Activities which are deleterious for the health of those undertaking them:*** such as 'waste-picking' in unsanitary conditions.

It is argued that policy will be more effective and equitable if it begins with an understanding of household-level strategies, and uses a livelihood systems framework to understand the linkages between smaller units such as households and communities and the larger scale economic social and political processes operating in and on the city (Beall & Kanji, 1999). The livelihood strategies that urban poor employ to make a living and to promote their households' security can be categorized based on a variety of criteria (Farrington *et al.*, 2002). One of the principal distinctions is that between *coping strategies*, which are short-term responses to a specific shock (such as job loss of a major earner in the household, or illness), and *adaptive strategies*, which are a long-term change in behavior patterns as a result of a shock or stress or in an attempt to build asset bases (Singh & Gilman, 1999); however, both have their own implications for the composition of the assets (i.e. depletion, regeneration) from which they are derived (Singh & Gilman, 1999).

In addition to defining types of livelihoods strategies according to their time frame, attempts have also been made to define livelihood strategies according to the nature of the activities that they involve. Rakodi (1999) identify the following types of livelihood strategies:

- ***Investment in securing more of an asset***: may promote security and also allow for diversification or intensification of activities;
- ***Substitution of one asset for another***: for example, compensating for the declining availability or quality of natural capital by increasing inputs of physical capital;
- ***Disposal***: the sale of assets such as livestock, land or jewelry, to compensate for a consumption shortfall or to release funds for investment;
- ***Sacrifice***: for example, not investing time and resources in fostering reciprocal social relations, thereby reducing future ability to draw on social capital; sacrificing children's ability to earn adequate incomes in future by withdrawing them from school because of the inability to pay fees or need for their labour.

General characterization of livelihood strategies includes: income-enhancing; expenditure-reducing; based on collective support; and external representation -

negotiation with local authorities, NGOs, and so forth (Farrington *et al.*, 2002). However, such categorization is criticized by some scholars due to its overlapping. Growth in female labour force participation, argued to be the single most important coping strategy amongst the lowest income households in India, and could be seen as income-*enhancing*, as women work to increase household income; *investment*, as women make an effort to invest their time and labour into building financial capital; and based on *sacrifice*, as the time demands of labour force participation necessarily mean that women have to cut back on other household reproductive activities or social obligations (Barret & Beardmor, 2000).

Another categorization of livelihood strategies, as used by CARE (Carney *et al.*, 1999) looks at strategies from the point of view of support activities to livelihoods that can be provided by agencies such as CARE, distinguishing between:

- **Livelihoods promotion** – activities to improve households’ resilience;
- **Livelihood protection** – activities to help prevent a decline in household livelihood security, e.g. early warning systems, cash or food for work, health education;
- **Livelihood provisioning** – direct provision of basic needs, usually in emergency situations.

In a nutshell, there is no universally accepted categorization of livelihood strategies among scholars and the emphasis given to each classification depends on the contexts. However, despite the categorization overlapping and absence of a single-agreed upon characterization of livelihood strategies, they are still useful in highlighting the variety of activities that the urban people employ in pursuing their livelihoods. Accordingly, Table 2-4 provides the summarized livelihood strategies common in urban settings (see next page).

Table 2-4: Some common strategies used by urban poor

Settings	
Mainly urban	Urban and rural
<i>Income raising</i> • Domestic services (cleaning and childcare (particularly girls and women)) • Urban agriculture • Renting out rooms	<i>Home gardening</i> • Processing, hawking, vending • Transporting goods • Casual labour/piece work • Specialized occupations (e.g. tinkering, food preparation, shoe-shining, prostitution) • Child labour • Mortgaging and selling assets • Selling children into bonded labour • Migration for seasonal work • Seasonal food for work, public works and relief • Begging • Theft
<i>Lowering expenditures</i> • Scavenging • Cutting transport costs (walking to work, etc.)	• <i>Changes in purchasing habits</i> (small frequent purchases, rather than cheap bulk buys, and/or poorer quality food that needs longer preparation, etc.) • <i>Stinting on goods and services</i> (buying less and/or cheaper food, etc.) • Discrimination and triage (giving less food to weaker/less favored household members, etc.).
• community kitchens • Shared childcare	• <i>Mutual help</i> (loans from friends or saving groups, etc.) • <i>Family splitting</i> (putting children out to others, etc.) • <i>Remittances from household members working away</i>

Source: Adapted from (Walker *et al.*, 2001)

The next section addresses the notion of livelihood outcomes and why households and individuals are attempting to achieve them.

Livelihood outcomes in urban areas

Following thorough analysis of livelihood strategies, understanding the issue of livelihood outcomes is valuable. Developing the true picture of livelihood outcomes may be found to be the first and the most important step in any livelihood analysis as they are likely varied according to time, place, context and individual (DFID, 2000; CARE International, 1999). Livelihood outcomes are what people are seeking to achieve through their Livelihood Strategies (DFID, 2000); the livelihood outcomes are the results of people's success or failure in transforming, through a variety of strategies, the assets available to them into income or basic goods and services (Walker *et al.*, 2001); they are what people are seeking to realize via their livelihood strategies (CARE International,

1999). They are the results of individuals' livelihood strategies and feed back into the vulnerability context and asset bases (Walker *et al.*, 2001); livelihood outcomes can be aggregated and seen in relation to their position on a continuum between vulnerability and security (Moser, 1998); and livelihood outcomes can be thought of as the inverse of poverty, that is, if individuals describe poverty as food insecurity, powerlessness and a lack of access to key services, then the livelihood outcomes they seek might be expected to be food security, a sense of power and dignity and improved access to services (DFID, 2000).

Existing literatures uncovered that households and their individual members can be affected by livelihood outcomes. The livelihood strategy of an individual or household is more or less vulnerable to unexpected changes which could affect his/her/its asset base (Farrington *et al.*, 2002). All households are not affected equally by livelihood outcomes, some household members have more power and influence, outside or within the household than others (Walker *et al.*, 2001); where only male household heads have legal standing (regard to credit agreements or property deeds) a household's security will depend on both the man's commitment to the household and his continued good health (Walker *et al.*, 2001). In other words, some household members may be more secure and others more vulnerable to livelihood outcomes.

Nevertheless, most of the time, livelihood outcomes are considered as an "end state", undermining the dynamism of livelihoods and the "feedback" from outcomes to other prospects of the framework is futile exercise as positive and negative outcomes tend to expand the asset base and erode it respectively (CARE International, 1999). Though are a number of livelihood outcomes, the SLF identifies the following five major outcomes: increased income; increased well-being; reduced vulnerability; improved food security; and more sustainable use of the natural resource base amongst others (DFID, 1999). The explanation of each outcome is presented below.

Increased income: in our globe, international development efforts have focused on the concept of poverty as an economic problem, defined in economic terms and addressed

through economic strategies, though in some areas of the world there have been successes, the magnitude of the problem remains immense still (Ahmed *et al.*, 2014; Shoaf Kozak *et al.*, 2012). Besides, given the dramatically widening gap between the rich and the poor, poverty reduction must remain a global priority (Ortiz *et al.*, 2012; Berg & Ostry, 2011). A number of strategies have been attempted to mitigate or even eliminate poverty yet achieving the poverty reduction targets remains elusive particularly in Africa (Alkire & Sumner, 2013; Shoaf Kozak *et al.*, 2012). The Poverty Reduction Strategy is amongst many major programs initiated by the World Bank exemplify that national level processes frequently revealed insignificant achievement and success in reaching the grassroots problems, and one of the key objectives of the SLF was to combat the lack of grassroots engagement by encouraging more attention being paid to the mechanisms by which people actually generated income and security for their family (Mazibuko, 2013).

Increased well-being: The term well-being defines a state of being that goes beyond the actual needed living conditions that have typically characterized the notions of poverty such as income and health (Downie, 2015); for a sense of well-being people need to feel that their freedoms are being respected and achieved, and well-being contains a subjective element or personal assessment of the living conditions (Coulthard *et al.*, 2011). It reflects the level of satisfaction or happiness that people experience about their life or, on the lower end of the spectrum, the level of anxiety or alienation they experience (Berger-Schmidt, 2001); and understanding of wellbeing reinforces the breadth of factors affecting a person's state of well-being and the potential for them to improve that state (van Staveren *et al.*, 2014). People's well-being depends on a much broader range of quality of life factors than just money (Dhamija & Bhide, 2013; Costanza *et al.*, 2007); these factors affect people's livelihood decisions and thus need to be understood and targeted actions addressing these influences need to be integrated into promoting sustainable livelihoods (de Weerdt, 2010). Researchers have attempted to measure the strength of the factors influencing well-being to determine where and with what kinds of interventions maximum benefits for positive change can

be achieved (Cohen & Saisana, 2014; Brandolini *et al.*, 2010). However, measurement is difficult and multidimensional measurement is more manageable on a smaller scale and often the results do not conform to national economic measures (Downie, 2015).

Reduced vulnerability: vulnerability indicates the capacity of households to prevent, mitigate or cope with risks and has more to do with the full range of assets available to households than their income or consumption (Wigboldus & Jacobs, 2021; Ludi & Bird, 2007); and assets are influenced by the processes and structures and found to be often difficult to address vulnerability through the improvement of assets independent of the rights and processes that provide context to the situation (Farrington *et al.*, 2002; Walker *et al.*, 2001).

Improved food security: food security is found to be a high priority among development professionals and communities and it is a very tangible daily necessity (Downie, 2015). Like the other outcomes in the SLF, food security is interwoven with the following range of factors: environmental conditions under which food is locally grown or harvested, the market conditions for natural harvests and agricultural products, the capacity of local harvesting and production, and the understanding people have regarding the value and balance of food requirements (Chapman *et al.*, 2003).

More sustainable use of the natural resource base: the correlations among conservation, livelihoods and well-being seem clear. Long term outcomes of poverty reduction heavily rely on principles of conservation, and it requires a healthy environment that provides ecosystem services: food, water, air, and it depends on the renewable natural resources that only a healthy environment can produce.

However, yet achieving all such outcomes simultaneously remains a challenge (Davies *et al.*, 2013; Turner *et al.*, 2012; Adams *et al.*, 2004); such outcomes are frequently more strongly sought by external actors in general and development donors in particular, although increasingly the value of maintaining the integrity of the environment is being more readily accepted both at national and local levels (DFID, 1999); and an

overwhelming examples of community based conservation efforts attest to the situation (Kothari *et al.*, 2014; Baldus, 2009).

Factors affecting urban livelihoods

Urban livelihood strategies can be complicated and confusing (CARE International, 1999). Multitude factors influence the sustainability of urban livelihoods (IFPRI, 2000). In urban settings, the availability and access to assets affects the strategies of urban people (Walker, *et al.*, 2001); contexts are changing and uncertain, with accelerating urban growth, increasing crime, an ill-equipped public sector, and intense competition for limited resources (CARE International, 1999); and livelihood strategies can maintain, deplete or strengthen the asset base of the household, which in turn are affected by individual and cultural preferences (Farrington *et al.*, 2002). Latest literatures uncovered that the selection and design of livelihood strategies are linked with the objectives of the urban residents. The types of livelihood and areas of livelihoods urban dwellers want to achieve and prioritize significantly affect the selection and design of their livelihood strategies (Walker *et al.*, 2001).

The same authors expounded that livelihood strategies are based on the values and priorities of the dwellers that pursue them, instead of simply on the resources and options available to them, in practice, however, and particularly for urban poor, many of these objectives will be constrained by the options available and by the pressure of immediate needs. In addition, some development policies may undermine livelihood strategies, and the processes of structural adjustment have affected urban survival strategies in many areas, with results in some countries such as overall reduced consumption and increased labour force participation by children (Rakodi, 1993). Inappropriate regulatory frameworks and administrative procedures; dysfunctional land markets; unresponsive financial systems; bad governance; corruption; and a fundamental lack of political will compound the problems faced by urban poor communities and constrain the substantial potential for human development presented by urban life and the achievement of sustainable livelihoods (Majale, 2001).

Broadly speaking, in urban settlements livelihood strategies can be affected by multitude factors. The availability and access to various assets, urban dwellers' objectives and choices, government policies in place, market and financial systems are amongst others that exert substantial impact on urban livelihood strategies.

2.1.5. Principles of the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach

No unanimously single agreed up on principles of livelihoods approach exist. A number of principles have been identified by which a given livelihood approach has been governed (Levine, 2015; Walker *et al.*, 2001; Periperi & Oxfam, 2002). A sustainable livelihoods approach is one that recognizes that poverty is not only a lack of wealth but also a condition of insecurity (International Institute for Sustainable Development/IISD, 1999; UNDP, 1997; Moser, 1996; Chambers, 1995). The approach take into account that, regardless of uncertain conditions, individuals can sustain themselves by employing an overwhelming number of assets (Beall & Kanji, 1999; Rakodi, 1997; Moser, 1996; Sen, 1992); thus, it is possible to improve their security and ultimately contribute to the eradication of poverty, through a variety of wide ranging interventions that support their activities (Satterthwaite, 1997; Wratten, 1995;) rather than merely attempting to offer wage-based employment (Korten, 1996). Though principles guiding the livelihoods approach are enormous in number, the following are the most commonly cited ones.

A holistic integrated approach: The approach encompasses the analysis of livelihoods as a whole, and not just the part by giving due regard to both external and internal factors having impacts on livelihoods (Periperi & Oxfam, 2002). Instead of just paid employment, a complex mesh of activities that involves several elements is at the center of sustainable livelihoods approach (Korten, 1996); the approach acknowledges that livelihood strategies are based on the opportunities presented and affected by the social, economic, institutional and/or governance and environmental contexts in which poor people live, and require a cross-sectoral approach (Walker, *et al.*, 2001); and individual and household livelihoods are linked into the wider, social and political/economic fabric of society (Douglass, 1998; Katepa-Kalala, 1997; Beall, 1997).

A community-sensitive approach: the approach appreciates the significance of social bonds for sustainable livelihoods and the importance of stable social groups and locations, encourages mutually beneficial relationships among people by encouraging and supporting strong dynamic networks (IISD, 1999; UNDP, 1997; Korten, 1996). Moreover, a sustainable livelihoods approach targets to make stronger the community by stimulating community investment and supporting to retain resources within the local economy (IISD, 1999).

Sensitivity to the environment: it accepts the particular importance of the natural resource base for poor people, in accordance with the Brundtland principles, a sustainable livelihoods approach aims to maintain the quality of the natural environment as well as addressing the environmental impact of poor local conditions on local residents (Douglass, 1998; UNDP, 1997; Chambers & Conway, 1992); the approach fosters a beneficial relationship between people and their environment (DFID & World Bank, 2002; IISD, 1999; UNDP, 1997). It points towards ensuring that everyone has equitable access to safe and sufficient environmental resources so as to maintain a healthy life (Werna *et al.*, 1998; Korten, 1996). The livelihood activities of the poor have an impact on the wider environment, and the sustainable livelihoods approach needs to be particularly sensitive to the environment to ensure that the broader issues of environmentally sustainable development are addressed (DFID & World Bank, 2002).

Promotion of a living based on individuals' priorities: the approach acknowledges that livelihoods are linked to peoples' own priorities and interpretations, and demands the participation of poor people in all stages of the decision making process (IISD, 1999; Goldman, 1998) and motivates local self-reliance- the ability to do things and make decision by one's own and the action of keeping away from external dependence (Korten, 1996).

Acknowledging and addressing issues of equity: The primary concern of a sustainable livelihoods approach is to contribute to satisfying the basic needs of all poor men and women (DFID & World Bank, 2002); it directs to provide security against deprivation and promote equity between different groups in relation to their access to wealth and

resources, and consequently with intention of providing for one group without foreclosing options for others (UNDP, 1999; Korten, 1996). However, catering for the livelihoods of the poor may mean addressing those of other groups, and the poor's lack of access to various resources is often due to over consumption by wealthier (DFID & World Bank, 2002).

The livelihoods of the rich can be seen as having an impact on the livelihoods of the poor and affect the fairness of access to resources (Stephens, 1996); the approach encourages the sharing of productive and reproductive roles and the transfer of knowledge and skills between groups of individuals (IISD, 1999). In attempting to encourage means of making a living, it intends to provide everyone with opportunities to contribute meaningfully to meeting the needs of households, community and society as a whole irrespective of their social status and position (UNDP, 1997; Korten, 1996).

Summary of the major principles of SLA

- ❖ **People-centered and participatory**
- ❖ **Responsive to changing circumstances**
- ❖ **Reflects the range of assets and activities on which livelihoods depend**
- ❖ **Recognizes the importance of assets to poor people which they do not own**
- ❖ **Addresses a range of policy issues (access to credit, markets, health, education, etc.,)**
- ❖ **Multi-level and dynamic in nature**
- ❖ **Conducted in partnership**
- ❖ **Responsive and participatory**
- ❖ **Sustainable: there are four key dimensions to sustainability - economic, institutional, social and environmental and a balance must be found between them.**

Source: Adapted from (Periperi & Oxfam, 2002; DFID & World Bank, 2002).

In a nutshell, the approach employs participatory methods, and serves as a framework to decide which participatory livelihoods assessment methods can be in practice at proper time, and to frame key questions. Moreover, sustainable livelihood approaches rest on core principles that stress people-centered, responsive, and multi-level

approaches to development. In other words, one of the underlying features of livelihood is that, it is about people and for people.

2.1.6. Conceptualizing the Dimensions of Food Security

Here due attention is given to the discussions the dimensions, determinants of food security dimensions and other associated issues of food security as the concepts and definitions of food security are treated in detail in independently in chapter 8 of the dissertation under section 8.2 (chapter 8). As already aforesaid chapter, food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (FAO, 2002). An integral part of the multi-dimensional nature of food security is the nutritional dimension; in addition, as the 1996 World Food Summit declared and subsequently reconfirmed in 2002, food security consists of four essential parts: food availability, food access, food utilization, and stability within the above definition. The notions and concepts of the four Pillars of food security are presented in detail hereunder.

Availability: The amount of food that is present in a country or area through all forms of domestic production, imports, food stocks and food aid (WFP, 2009; FAO, 2006); the term tends to be applied to food available at a regional or national level rather than at the household level, which can lead to some confusion as the word “availability” sometimes is used at the micro-level (Robinson, 1999). It is the quantity, quality and seasonality of the food supply in in area and includes all local sources of food production including agriculture, livestock and fisheries, wild-collected foods, and all foods imported into the area by traders (ACF International, 2010). The presence of well-functioning market systems able to deliver food to the area on a consistent basis and in adequate quantity and quality is a major determinant of food availability (ACF International, 2010).

Access: It is a household’s ability to acquire adequate amount of food regularly through a combination of purchases, barter, borrowings, food assistance or gifts (WFP, 2009; FAO, 2006; ACF International, 2010). Though, the World Food Summit defined access as

having “physical, economic and social access”, it is still not commonly accepted as an essential part of food security despite Amartya Sen’s introduction of the concept in the early 1980s. It comprises of the following three elements: physical; economic and financial; and socio-cultural (Periperi & Oxfam, 2002; Robison, 1999). The physical dimension can be illustrated by a situation where food is being produced in one part of a country but an inefficient or non-existent transport infrastructure means that food cannot be delivered to another part suffering from a lack of food. From the economic viewpoint, food security exists when people can afford to procure sufficient food. The idea that food insecurity arises when food is available but people are unable to afford it is still quite a recent development in the history of food security.

A further economic consideration is the importance of market systems to ensure access to food, rely on market systems to provide food and essential goods and services but also for selling their produce” (Periperi & Oxfam, 2002). The third element is the socio-cultural dimension which arises when food may be physically available and the potential consumer has the money to buy the food but is prevented from doing so for being a member of a particular social group or even gender (Robison, 1999).

Utilization: A household’s use of the food to which it has access, including food storage, processing and preparation as well as its distribution within the household (ACF International, 2010; FAO, 2006). Utilization is about safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs (World Food Summit, 1996; FAO, 2006); utilization primarily covers the following factors: safe drinking water; adequate sanitary facilities to avoid the spread of disease; and awareness of food preparation and storage procedures amongst others (Napoli *et al.*, 2011). It is concerned with an individual’s ability to absorb and metabolize nutrients, which can be affected by disease and malnutrition (ACF International, 2010).

In other words, utilization is the third major pillar of food security that covers a range of aspects that hinge on the consumer’s understanding of what foods to select and how to

prepare and store them. Moreover, the availability of and access to food on their own are not enough, people have to be confident enough about safe and nutritious food.

Stability: It must be present at all times in terms of: availability, access, and utilization for food security to exist (World Food Summit, 1996); a population, household or individual must have access to adequate food at all times so as to be secure (FAO, 2006). The literature distinguishes between chronic food insecurity where food needs cannot be met over a protracted period of time and transitory food insecurity, where the time period is more temporary (Maxwell & Frankenberger, 1992); and the concept of stability is about the availability as well as access dimension of food security (FAO, 2006). Figure 2-3 presents a summary of the iterative elements food security framework.

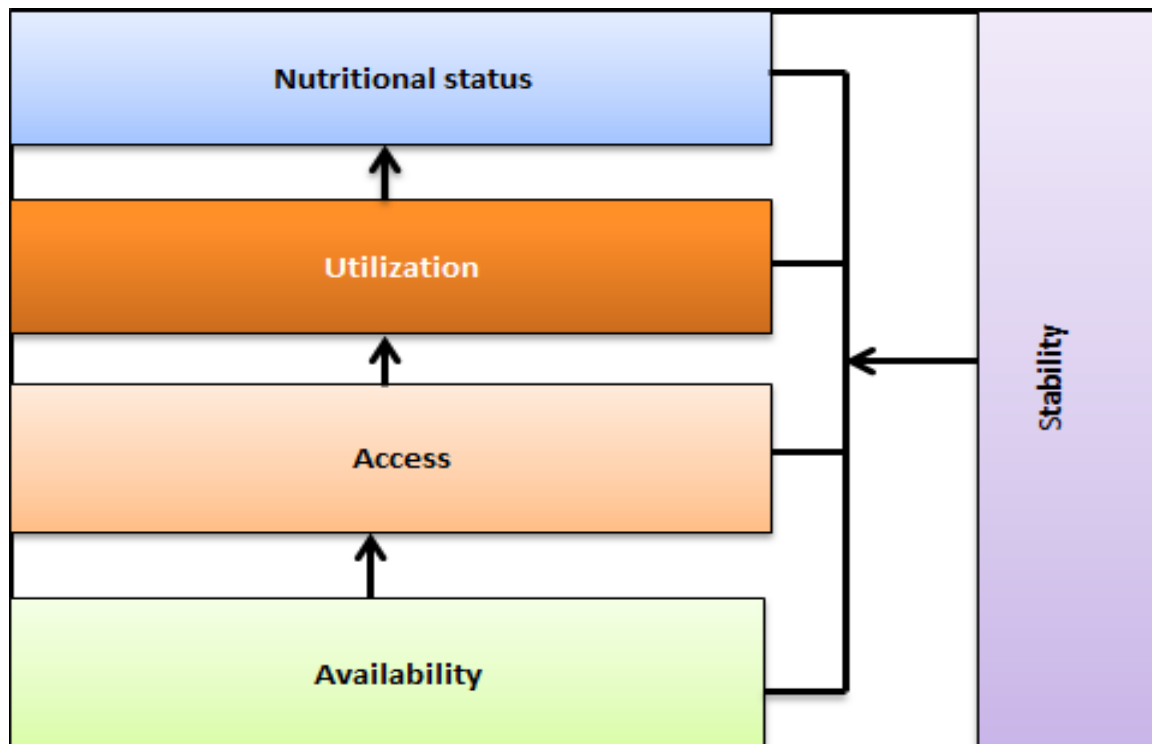


Fig. 2-3: Summary of food security framework (Adapted from Napoli, 2011:19).

The above figure vividly indicates that how the categories in the framework relate. The framework comprises a physical determinant (the first three elements) and a temporal determinant (the fourth). Food might be available but that does not determine access; similarly, access might be viable but does not guarantee utilization and all three can be disrupted by a lack of stability caused due to multitude factors such as climate change,

conflict, unemployment, disease or others. Moreover, the above framework depicts that stability or the lack of it can have potential to affect any or all of the other three components of the food security framework. More importantly, the determinants of each pillar are summarized below as follows.

Determinants of food security dimensions

<i>Food availability:</i> - Domestic production - Import capacity - Food stocks - Food aid <i>Stability of supply and access:</i> - Weather variability - Price fluctuations - practices - Political factors - Economic factors	<i>Access to food:</i> - Purchasing power - Income of population - Transport and market systems <i>Food utilization:</i> - Food safety - Hygiene and manufacturing - Diet quality and diversity
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Source: Marion, 2011 and FAO, 2008

Measurement of Food Security

There is no universally accepted measurement of food security (Swindale & Bilinsky, 2009). Furthermore, agencies attempting to record food insecurity often have difficulty of differentiating between varying community, household, and individual levels of food insecurity (Webb *et al.*, 2006); food security is a difficult concept to measure since it deals in very broad terms with the production, distribution and consumption of food (Napoli *et al.*, 2011).

The FAO definition of food insecurity is:

“A situation that exists when people lack secure access to sufficient amounts of safe and nutritious food for normal growth and development and an active and healthy life” (FAO, 2002).

Any analysis of food security will examine whether a change from security to insecurity or insecurity to security actually takes place and also the probability of such a change

happening. Factors that may lead to a situation of food insecurity include non-availability of food, lack of access, improper utilization and instability over a certain time period. The 1996 World Food Summit declared the fight against food insecurity as one of its objectives. Some scholars recommended proxy measures. The following proxy measures of food security have paramount importance: agricultural production, food storage levels, caloric intake, per capita income, or nutritional status (Coates *et al.*, 2003); and these measures unsatisfactory (Swindale & Bilinsky, 2009; Webb *et al.*, 2006). Instead, the authors preferred to measure food insecurity via the following subjective measures: working through anthropologists, focus groups, and surveys.

Food insecurity lends itself more readily to measurement and analysis (Napoli *et al.*, 2011). The same author points out that food security and famine and hunger are not to be confused: food security refers to the availability of food whereas famine and hunger are the consequence of the non-availability of food, in other words the results of food insecurity. Household Food Insecurity Access Scale-a sensitive indicator of changes in household food security is amongst the most prominent subjective measurement tools that were developed by Swindale and Bilinsky (2009).

2.2. Theoretical Literatures

2.2.1. Theories of Migration

The study of migration has long been challenged by a number of factors inherent to its subject matter. Migration is a multifaceted, very complex and diverse phenomenon in which micro and macro-levels interact; which makes research into migration conceptually as well as empirically challenging (Kurekova, 2010; Castles 2008b, Collinson, 2009); and the only point in which studies concerning migration seem to agree is that migrations are much more difficult to explain and forecast than other components of population change (IOM, 2017; Wahba, 2014).

Evidences portray that various theories propose a variety of variables to explain the factors, degree and dynamics of international migration. International migration is such a diverse and complex phenomenon that no single theory has been able to provide a

satisfactory all-encompassing explanation, and its causes are better understood by incorporating a variety of perspectives and factors (Kurekova, 2010; de Haas, 2007); at present, there is no single coherent theory of international migration, only a fragmented set of theories that have developed largely in isolation from one another segmented by disciplinary boundaries (IOM, 2017; King, 2012; Castles, 2008a; Arango, 2004, 2000); and there is currently a variety of theoretical models or perspectives on understanding migration which employ varying concepts, assumptions, frames and levels of analysis, and they often grew in isolation and can today be found separated by disciplinary boundaries (Castles, 2008a; Arango, 2004,2000).

Modern migration literature contends that these theoretical approaches, although they offer different hypotheses, need not be taken as being mutually exclusive, but rather as complementary (Todaro & Smith, 2006; Faist, 2000; Portes, 1999; Massey *et al.*, 1993); migration is too diverse and multifaceted to be explained in a single theory (King, 2012); and this has led some to claim that migration is only weakly theorized (Arango, 2004). This may imply that differences in interpreting and analyzing may depend on their respective analytical frameworks, and each theory gives a different insight about factors associated with international migration in general and return migration in particular.

Generally speaking, there are several theories of migration, a necessary first step in discussing them is to assess the ones that are most prevalent in the literature and that hold the most potential for understanding the issue under discussion. Accordingly, discussions are made on some major prevalent theories of migration as follows.

The oldest and best known theory of international migration is neo-classical theory (Wimalaratana, 2017), which assumes that, migration is stimulated primarily by rational economic considerations of relative benefits and costs, mostly financial (de Haas, 2007; Todaro & Smith, 2006). The neoclassical theory of migration has both macro-level and micro-level elaborations (at both levels concentrates on wages and income differentials as the main explanatory variables), and at the micro-level, views migrants as individual, rational actors who decide to move on the basis of a cost-benefit calculation (Kurekova,

2010; de Haas, 2007). In his neoclassical economic theory, Todaro (1969) emphasized that generally return migration involves labour migrants who miscalculated the costs of migration and therefore did not reap the benefits of higher earnings (Cassarino, 2004; Constant & Massey, 2002). The neoclassical economic theory is largely a micro-level decision model that does not consider much the institutional and other contexts that determine the decision to return and the likelihood of reintegrating in great part (Hazan, 2014); migration is driven by geographic differences in labor supply and demand and the resulting differentials in wages between labor-rich versus capital-rich countries (King, 2012; de Haas, 2007).

The central argument of the neoclassical approach concentrates on wages and predicts a linear relationship between wage differentials and migration flows, under the assumption of full employment (Borjas, 2008; Bauer & Zimmerman, 1999; Massey *et al.*, 1993). In other words, migration causes labor to become less scarce at the destination and scarcer at the origin and the process of “*factor price equalization*” will result in growing convergence between wages at the sending and receiving areas. The approach highlights that migration results from wage differentials across markets or countries that emerge from heterogeneous degrees of labor market tightness. The approach suggests that there is a correlation between the global supply and demand for labour and the reason people migrate, effectively driven by a wage gap among geographical areas, the difference in returns to labour between the origin and destination countries or regions.

Another major frontrunner theory of migration is the new economics of labour of migration (NELM). Its centre of argument is that, migration decisions are not made by isolated individual actors but typically by families or households, and the decisions of migrants are influenced by a comprehensive set of factors, which are shaped by conditions in the home country (Kurekova, 2010; King, 2012; de Haas, 2007). NELM scholars have brought the importance of remittances as a key innovation to migration debates (Lucas & Stark, 1985; Stark, 1980) which had been largely ignored by neoclassical studies (de Haas, 2010; Kurekova, 2010); NEM theory has come to challenge

some of the assumptions and conclusions of the neoclassical approach by shifting the focus of migration research from individual independence to mutual interdependence (Wimalaratana, 2017; King, 2012).

The other theory at the heart of migration is the structural approach/World Systems Theory. For structuralist theorists, migrants who return are able to re-integrate and contribute to development in their countries of origin based on the availability of appropriate capacity and institutions to utilize return migrants' acquired skills and financial resources (Hazan, 2014); the approach fills the gap created by neoclassical economics theory by proposing that the decision to return is a social and contextual issue influenced by situational and structural factors (King, 2012; de Haas, 2007; Cassarino, 2004); the world system theory of migration links the determinants of migration to structural change in world markets and views migration as a function of globalization, the increased interdependence of economies and the emergence of new forms of production (Silver, 2003; Skeldon, 2002, 1997; Massey *et al.*, 1998, 1993); and the approaches are critical of the neo-classical theory of migration and deny that individuals truly have free choice in making migration decisions and present them in more deterministic forms, as pressured into movement as an outcome of broader structural processes (de Haas, 2010).

In other words, in the view of structural approach, return migration cannot be analyzed with the perspective of migrant experience only, but social and institutional factors of country of origin also play an important role. However, these dominant theories have been subjected to criticism, and notably that they are overtly focused on why some people move whilst ignoring why others do not, as well as a lack of attention to state policies as influencers of migration; migration is '*both very complex and straightforward*' (FAO, 2018; Arango, 2000; Massey *et al.*, 1998); and the general explanations of migration are bound to be '*reductionistic*' (Arango, 2000).

It is evident that, the weaknesses outlined and theoretical gaps indicated make research into migration conceptually as well as empirically challenging (King, 2012; Battistella,

2010, Kurekova, 2010); as the study of migration has advanced the discipline has been challenged by a number of factors inherent to its subject matter (Kurekova, 2010; King, 2012); and embody potential avenues for further improvement in migration theorizing is very vital (King, 2012). This may imply that as far as research into migration is concerned, combining different theories of migration has paramount importance so as to get the true picture of the issue. Bringing together the existing theoretical lines of thinking help us to advance our conceptual and empirical understanding of migration (de Haas, 2007; World Bank, 2007; Skeldon, 2002, 1997).

Generally, the previous discussions on various theories of migration have attempted to distil the main approaches to theorizing the causal stimuli for international migration, and demonstrated that, despite the relatively long tradition of research on migration, there is no single theory that captures the full complexity of migration, and nor will there ever be. In this study, therefore, though there is overwhelming number of theories of migration, only neo-classical economics, structuralism, and NELM were used as framework of investigation for their practical significance.

This is because these theories are amongst the major theories that underpin many scholarly works and most widely used for the study of international migration including return migration (Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017; Cassarino, 2004); and these theories offer valuable explanations on why people migrate and return to their communities of origin (Cassarino, 2004). An all-encompassing and all-explaining theory of migration will never arise (de Haas, 2011; Castles & Miller, 2009). In a nutshell, the following Table 2-5 summarizes the general overview of theories of migration, and their respective critiques briefly.

Table 2-5: Summary of theories of migration and their respective critiques

Name theory	Level of Analysis	Subject of Analysis	Pet Variable/s	Critiques
Neoclassical theory of migration	Macro Micro	Determinants of migration	Wage and income differentials and Probability of employment	Typified by exclusion of politics and policies, and mechanically reduces migration determinants. Static perspective. Overlooks market imperfections Assumes linearity - unable to explain differential migration, why people do not move, or why migration ceases before wage differentials equalize. Ignores market imperfections. Homogenization of migrants and societies.
Human capital theory of migration	Micro		Wages, economic benefits affected by individual characteristics	Overly optimistic (functionalist) view - migration is not always a voluntary process to maximize gains.
New economics theory of migration (NELM)	Micro Mezzo		Wages and income distribution (relative deprivation) Institutional failures – credit market, labor market deficiencies	Critique of the neoclassical theory rather than a theory in its own right. Sending side bias. Limited applicability – difficult to isolate the effect of market imperfections and risk in migration decisions from other income and employment variables.
World system theory/ Structural approaches)	Macro: global and International processes		Structural changes induced by the flow of capital	Only applicable at the global level. Explanation formulated <i>ex ante</i> , cannot be empirically tested.
Dual labor market theory	Macro: Nation state Mezzo		Labor demand Bifurcation of labor markets State immigration policies and recruitment efforts	Receiving state bias – excludes push factors, formal recruitment practices overemphasized. Unable to account for differential immigration rates in different advanced economies with similar economic structures. Distinction between primary and secondary sector is usually arbitrary which leads to instability in empirical estimates.
Network theory	Mezzo	Perpetuation of migration and/or directionality of flows	Networks, diaspora	Conceptual framework rather than a theory.
Migration systems theory	Macro		Developmental space	Purely descriptive.
Transnational migration	Transnational level		Transnational social spaces	Novelty of the concepts has been questioned. Research within this paradigm usually selects on dependent variable.

Source: Adapted from (Arango, 2000; Kurekova, 2010; Massey *et al*, 1998)

Furthermore, scholars have also suggested bringing together the existing theoretical lines of thinking help us to advance our conceptual and empirical understanding of migration (de Haas, 2007; World Bank, 2007; Skeldon, 1997); combining the new economics of migration and network theory concepts, pointing out that family risk minimizing strategies are inevitably linked to existing networks (Skeldon, 1997). In addition, a range of individual, household, community and national factors influence international migration including return (both macro and micro factors) interwoven together in which no single theory can be able to consider broader factors and provide satisfactory all-encompassing explanations in Ethiopian context.

In conclusion, during the course of this study, tremendous literature reviews were made so as to capture the true picture of the issue under way. Broadly speaking, albeit, the presence of an overwhelming number of factors associated with irregular migration and return migration decisions, to make the study manageable, it only hinges on the most common known framework the “*push-pull model*” introduced by Everett Lee (de Haas, 2007; Hagen-Zanker, 2008); and the decision to return to the country of origin is influenced by factors similar to those affecting the decision to emigrate (Schüring *et al.*, 2017). Everett Lee has approached and categorized the factors corresponding with the decision to migrate and the process of migration into four major themes: factors correlated with the origin country; factors correlated with the destination areas; intervening obstacles; and personal factors.

In short, the present study capitalizes that the decision to migrate and return can heavily rely on situations in the country of origin, destination, and personal factors as the main framework of investigation for their practical significance to improve our understanding of the major interactive elements and components interwoven with the issue in the area under consideration.

2.2.2. The Sustainability Livelihood Approach

In current literatures, the most cited framework and frequently adapted by many international organizations and scholars to explain and succinctly assess a household's

methods of survival are *the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF)* developed by DFID (Cordero, 2016; FAO, 2002; Levine, 2002). For instance, to examine and understand the impact of livelihood opportunities and interventions on migration patterns, Migration Policy Institute (MPI) adopted a modified version of the (DFID) SLF (Fratzke & Salant, 2018). The same authors further elaborated that within the aforementioned framework, three factors affect the *scope* of livelihood opportunities available to households or individuals (returnees in this case): (a) **livelihood assets** (such as human or financial capital); (b) **vulnerability contexts** (describing concerns such as availability of employment, conflict, or environmental degradation); and (c) **structures and processes** (such as the legal and policy frameworks in different countries).

It is a practical and analytical tool that outlines a holistic approach in addressing the analysis of livelihoods as well as to the design and monitoring of food security and livelihood interventions (ACF-IN, 2008; FAO, 2002); and it integrates three key concepts of capability, equity and sustainability (Chambers & Conway, 1992). The approach focuses on the strengths and assets that people own to ensure their food security and livelihoods that are represented by five key categories of capital that people can draw from to achieve positive livelihood outcomes such as increased income and well-being, improved food security, etc. (ACF-IN, 2008); and what combination of livelihood resources and strategies is result in what outcomes is vital in any livelihood analysis (Ellis, 1998). Within the analytical framework on *SLF* developed by DFID at the centre is the individual and their assets, and it also illustrates the impact of policies, institutions as well as the vulnerability context on the individual (Cordero, 2016).

Moreover, the same author further expounded that in operational terms, the framework establishes a theory of change based on four main aspects: i) **the context**, or the factors that determine a vulnerable situation and upon which the sustainability of interventions as well as the trends (economic, social, etc.) depend; ii) **the assets or capacities**, the belongings, the means and the resources that an individual or a household have in the form of capital (natural, human, financial, physical and social); iii) **the institutions and processes of transformation** that identify the authorities with the

capacity to influence the vulnerability factors as well as the individual's or household's assets and iv) ***the livelihood strategies*** in place or to be developed and backed by the intervention, which lead to concrete and sustainable improvements in the livelihoods of individuals and households. Livelihood outcomes are the achievements of livelihood strategies, such as more income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability, improved food security and a more sustainable use of natural resources (DFID, 1999; Ellis, 1998).

Accordingly, the study is built on SLA. The rationale behind is that SLA takes the households including individual returnees as its main unit of analysis to understand livelihood choices, including food security situations and it is built on the idea that returnees possess a variety of natural, physical, financial, human and social assets, all contributing to their livelihood. In this context, migration is seen as one of the strategies households employ to diversify their livelihoods (Ellis, 2000; Bebbington, 1999; Carney, 1998; McDowell & de Haan, 1997); and the SLA has paramount importance to holistically addresses how contexts interact with various forms of assets in affecting the livelihoods and strategies that households depend on (Degefa, 2008/2005).

2.3. Linking Theories of Migration with SLA and Food Security Approaches

Before proceeding to deal with linkages among theories of migration, SLA and approaches of food security, let us look at glance how the three major issues are related at conceptual level. They are intertwined in a number of ways. First, in developing world including Ethiopia, migration is both a strategy of survival and livelihood (McDowell & Haan, 1997); and it has become a key component of livelihood strategies and an effective poverty reduction tool both for migrants themselves and their respective families and society at large (Foresti *et al.*, 2018; Cohen, 2011; UNDP, 2009). Second, within SLA, though living in an urban area is quite different from life in a rural setting, one factor remains unchanged: people- wherever people live). The SLA also retains essentially the same human needs, the desire for the same entitlements; require access to productive resources and services, and the ability to participate in the society in which they are part (Periperi& Oxfam, 2002).

Moreover, the SLA is 'people-centered', and it is holistic and non-sectoral approach that recognizes multiple influences, multiple actors, multiple strategies, and multiple outcomes (Periperi & Oxfam, 2002; DFID & World Bank, 2002). In other words, SLA places households and their members at the centre of analysis in developing an understanding of livelihood strategies. Third, livelihoods underpin food security: they are the means by which people access resources and assets in their environment in order to meet household needs (ACF-IN, 2010); and attaining food security will require ensuring access of using resources and strategies (UNEP, 2016).

Generally, as vividly stated earlier, migration and/or return migration notably affects the livelihoods and food security of Ethiopian return migrants and their respective households. On the basis of the evidences reviewed, the nexus linking theories of migration, SLA and approaches of food security can be characterized in terms of different scenarios: in the realm of theories of migration a range of factors exert sound impacts on international migration including return migration decision that interwoven together in which no single theory can be able to consider broader factors and provide satisfactory all-round explanations; and sustainable livelihood outcomes are achievable through the ability to gain, maintain, control, and enhance resources on which livelihoods depend, which in turn require SLA to undertake thorough analysis.

Moreover, migration theories offer theoretical guidance to understand the movement of people in a wider perspective that may be related to economic, social, legal, political, cultural, and/or other phenomena. Similarly, SLA is a framework that aims at identifying the main factors in the respective bundles of economic, social, rights, powers, and other factors that enable households including returnees to derive benefits from livelihood assets and thereby to analyze the status of food security among returnees in the study area.

2.4. Empirical Literatures: Country Contexts

The main intent of this section is to present only the summary of country contexts of empirical evidences on the issue under investigation. This is because international

contexts and trends are well elaborated and discussed in the preceding sections of the present chapter. Accordingly, the details are forthcoming.

Migration is an important social and economic phenomenon for Ethiopia and the country is found to be amongst the major labour sending countries in Africa (ILO, 2017). Accordingly, the primary concern of this section is to deal with the major driving forces of irregular cross-border migration, major migratory routes, and flows of current irregular migration return, urban food security, and coping strategies in urban areas of Ethiopia during food shortage periods. The details are presented as follows.

2.4.1. Major causes of Irregular Cross-Border Migration in Ethiopia

Evidences demonstrate that a range of factors continue to influence and motivate Ethiopians to migrate irregularly to different destinations. The following major factors have been instigating Ethiopians to leave their birth places and cross international borders illicitly opting for better lives abroad: high total fertility rate (4.6%) and fast population growth (over 2.6% per year) with massive broad-base pyramid; high prevalence of poverty (23.4%) of the population was living below poverty line in 2014/2015); high inflation rate (about 10% in 2017 and food inflation hit 18.1% in November 2017); low agricultural productivity; erratic rainfall; and political instability and conflicts (CSA, 2017; UNDESA, 2015; CSA, 2013).

Emigration from Ethiopia is linked with the conventional push-pull factors: strong desire to move out of poverty, peer pressures, the prevailing of unemployment and underemployment, and low income (Minaye & Zeleke, 2017; Rohwerder & Carter, 2016; Schroder, 2015); and in Ethiopia irregular migration, mainly driven by economic reasons (Girmachew, 2017; Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009); and among other things lack of decent livelihood and employment opportunities are identified as the main driving forces for migration in Ethiopia (ILO, 2020; DIIS, 2020). Generally, the aforesaid drivers are merely illustrative and not exhaustive list of factors driving irregular migration in our globe in general and in Ethiopia in particular.

2.4.2. The major routes for Irregular Cross-Border Migration in Ethiopia

Ethiopia has been identified as a source, and to some extent a destination and transit country, for illegally smuggled or trafficked men, women and children subjected to forced labour and sex exploitation (ILO, 2017; US Department of State, 2016); and documented and undocumented labor migration from Ethiopia to different areas of the world has significantly rise (Girmachew, 2017). It is cumbersome to list out exhaustively each and every irregular migration route through which Ethiopian irregular migrants attempting to cross the border. However, evidences have shown the three major migration channels have been identified for the issue under discussion. In Ethiopia, people are smuggled and trafficked through the country via three major routes in east, north and south (IOM, 2015); whilst the Northern Route is taken by both Ethiopian nationals and refugees, the Eastern and Southern Routes are largely taken by Ethiopian nationals (Ogahara & Kuschminder, 2019).

The same authors found that Ethiopians have used the “*Northern Route*” through Sudan and Libya to Europe via the Central Mediterranean, the “*Eastern Route*” through Djibouti and Northern Somalia towards the Arabian Peninsula through Yemen to the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia and other Gulf Countries, and the “*Southern Route*” through Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia, and/or Malawi with the final destination as South Africa and this Global South-South migration route has received relatively less attention but has been a prominent migration route for Ethiopians since the early 2000s.

2.4.3. The magnitude of current Irregular Migration Return in Ethiopia

There are no official figures on return migration to Ethiopia and the government of Ethiopia does not keep records on the number of citizens returning to the country at immigration (Kuschminder, 2013). However, according to data from MoLSA (2021) and BoLSA (2021), currently from 2018- November 2020 as a whole 572,096 irregular cross-border migration migrants returned back to their homeland and officially registered.

Generally speaking, in Ethiopia, information about undocumented migrants or migrants in irregular situation is often difficult to quantify and estimates vary greatly from one

source to another as the result the exact number of Ethiopian irregular cross-border migration returnees are unknown due to absence of centralized registration system in the country.

In short, the following table vividly reveals the regional distribution of returnees in Ethiopia during the above indicated periods (Table 2-6).

Table 2-6: Regional distribution of registered returnees in Ethiopia

Name of the Regions	Number of Irregular Returnees	Percentage	National Rank
Oromia	183,488	32.07%	1
Amhara	176,494	30.85%	2
Tigray	171,838	30.04%	3
SNNPR	15,792	2.76%	4
Afar	10,672	1.87%	5
Addis Ababa	6,418	1.12%	6
Ethiopian Somali	2,940	0.51%	7
Dire Dawa	2,862	0.50%	8
Benishangul Gumuz	896	0.16%	9
Harari	548	0.10%	10
Gambela	130	0.02%	11
Grand Total	572,096	100%	

Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (2021)

Migration is one of the largest origins of migrants in Africa. A significant number of Ethiopians have been migrating irregularly to abroad. Through 2008 to 2013, about 460,000 Ethiopians migrated to: Saud-Arabia (79%), Kuwait (20%), and the rest to Dubai and other countries (Rohwerder & Carter, 2016). Between 2012 and 2016 around 317,136 Ethiopian migrants arrived Yemen in less than 5 years to transit via Yemen to Saud Arabia and other Middle-East countries (RMMS, 2016). Accordingly, Ethiopia has taken migration as one of the top priority agendas of the government and introduced some initiatives to facilitate temporary and permanent return and reintegration of Ethiopian returnees; and human trafficking and unsafe migration (FDRE, 2002). The government of

Ethiopia launched its first official Diaspora Policy with the aim of maximizing gains towards the country from the diaspora including irregular cross-border returnees (MoFA, 2011). Moreover, the Ethiopian government has developed some laws and policies so as to improve the situation and well-being of its people to address the issue via bilateral agreements with major receiving countries that may strengthen lawful overseas employment and could prevent human trafficking (FDRE, 2016).

In addition, Ethiopian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) in collaboration with ILO has developed the National Reintegration Package and launched the Project entitled “Support to the Reintegration of Returnees in Ethiopia” following the mass deportations of Ethiopians from around the world so as to strengthen reintegration support service provisions as Ethiopian returnees are often in situations of vulnerability (ILO, 2019; Kuschminder & Guay, 2017). A National Reintegration Directive was endorsed at Ministerial level that serves as a legal document to reinforce the use of common methods and approaches for the reintegration of returnees at the national level (Ogahara & Kuschminder, 2019). In Addis Ababa, based on the aforementioned rehabilitation package of returnees’ from 2018 onwards various supports were offered for about more than 7,000 returnees, and psychological readiness trainings for 2,098 (302 male and 1,796 female returnees) and basic business and occupational skill trainings were given based on their preferences for about 1,472 returnees as a whole by the city administration in collaboration with other governmental and non-governmental organizations (BoLSA, 2018; MoLSA, 2021).

Despite demonstrable attempts that have been made by the Ethiopian government and other core actors to strengthen lawful overseas employment and to prevent human trafficking, an overwhelming number of Ethiopians are currently returning to their homeland, on the one hand. More specifically, over 8,000 Ethiopians returned to the country from Yemen between April 2015 and April 2016; and thousands of Ethiopians have also compulsorily returned to Ethiopia from Saudi Arabia in 2017 (CSA, 2017); and 163,000 Ethiopian forcibly returned between November 2013 and March 2014 (ILO, 2019; Kuschminder & Guay, 2017). From 2018-November 2020 about 572,096 and

6,418 irregular cross-border migrants returned to Ethiopia in general and to Addis Ababa in particular, respectively (MoLSA,2021; BoLSA, 2021).

The total number of officially registered irregular cross-border returnees in Addis Ababa has increased over the last three years from 1,126 in 2018 to 6,418 in 2020 and has revealed a rise of more than ten times between the indicated years (MoLSA, 2021; BoLSA, 2021). In other words, though the government has taken some measures and a steadfast commitment so as to curtail irregular cross-border migration, which is also likely associated with return migration, it has continued unabated in Ethiopia which in turn may indicate the importance of utmost urgency to come up with some viable and scientific alternatives so as to avert the problem.

2.4.4. Urban Food Security in Ethiopia

The present section is to review the urban food security situations. The section also extends its discussion to the sources and the underlying causes of food insecurity, and other associated issues pertinent to urban settlements. According to the latest estimates, there are nearly 925 million food insecure people in the world (FAO, 2010); the number is above that as a consequence of the food price rise and the overall economic crisis, therefore, food security is a crucial topic within the broader fields of development economics and development studies (UNDP, 2012). Currently, the question of food security takes on particular importance in urban areas (Anand *et al.*, 2019; Tesfay & Solomon, 2014). In urban areas, food security is tied to the purchasing power of individuals, and food security depends on food availability in the market and access to food items (Birhane *et al.*, 2014; Yared, 2010).

In many cities, the urban poor spend a large amount of their household income on food. The most common solution is for a household to cut back on the amount and diversity of food. Sub-Saharan Africa is found to be the only region in the world where the number of people who live in extreme and chronic urban poverty is more critically linked with food insecurity (Wudil *et al.*, 2022; Oxfam, 2001). The same author stressed that the issue of food security revolves around access to cash for buying food and basic

necessities, which is tied directly to wages and prices, but also includes environmental factors such as overcrowding, unhygienic environment and lack of a functional safety net; and in urban areas particularly in developing countries, unemployment rate is high and the majority of urban labour forces works are engaged in petty trade and service sectors that have low income that may increase the risk of falling into food insecurity (Maxwell, 1998).

Furthermore, the same author explains urban food security as follows:

Some features of urban food insecurity, and the strategies followed to manage it, are similar to those of rural food insecurity, but there are also key differences. Since urban people spend such a high proportion of their income on food, urban poverty immediately translates into food insecurity. The main feature of urban food insecurity is vulnerability to changes in food prices and wages (Maxwell, 1998:75).

Not only low and irregular incomes are the root causes of urban food insecurity, but also inadequate housing and basic infrastructure and limited access to services contribute to the levels of food insecurity that are often high (Tacoli *et al.*, 2013); in urban areas, the following major factors result in food insecurity: lack of physical access to food; high relative price of food; limited employment opportunity; underemployment; low wage; and absence of food or money transfer due to low-income levels (FAO, WFP, & IFAD, 2012). High food price might have raised the incomes of some food producers; which have exacerbated food shortages among food-deficit urban dwellers that are fully dependent on the market for their food supply (Yared, 2010). The same author found that food insecurity has been extreme in urban areas and in Addis Ababa high level of food insecurity was noted, and in Ethiopia, urban food insecurity prevailed due to low level of education, low income and less employment opportunity (Yared, 2010; Birhane *et al.*, 2014); and 79.9 % of the population in the capital city, Addis Ababa, suffers from food insecurity (Birhane *et al.*, 2014).

In Ethiopia, food insecurity is not only a rural problem, but also it is a growing concern of the urban due to the toxic combination of high rates of urban poverty, high dependency

of urban households on food supplied by the market, fluctuating food prices (Tesfay & Solomon, 2014). The same authors further noted that household food insecurity was particularly high among low income households and those headed by uneducated, daily wagers and government employed household heads (Tesfay & Solomon, 2014).

In urban areas, the following major factors affect food security: educational attainment, access to infrastructure, migration status, household structure, housing type, and access to social safety nets (Anand *et al.*, 2019). A number of factors will affect the future shape of urban food insecurity as urban dwellers must buy most of their food, urban food security depends mostly on whether the household can afford to purchase food, given prices, and incomes, and high per unit costs of food result from inefficient urban food marketing systems and the fact that the poor usually can buy only small quantities of food at a time rather than in bulk (IFPRI, 2000). As urban expansion continues, the overall cost of supplying, distributing, and accessing food is likely to increase further, and, with it, a number of urban households are food insecure (IFPRI, 2000). In many urban areas, the cash-mediated nature of access to sufficient, safe, nutritious and adequate food creates specific food security challenges (FAO, 2019).

In short, food security in Ethiopia in general and in urban areas in particular is a combined effect of factors such as access to resources, the impacts of inflation, availability of resources, limited sources of income, population pressure and market integration problems, planning, implementation as well as structural and process systems.

2.5. Conceptual Framework of the Study

To this point, reviews of conceptual, empirical literatures, theories of migration, approaches of food security, and SLA have been made. In this section, the conceptual framework of the study is presented and elaborated. Though a range of factors may be at play to affect the issue under consideration, to align the conceptual framework with the objectives of the present study, neo-classical economics, structuralism, and NELM theories are identified as the main theoretical constructs from migration literatures.

Moreover, sustainable livelihood model is selected as another framework of investigation based on the broad capability of the model to capture and conceptualize the multifaceted relationships that exist between livelihood capitals, livelihood strategies and food security status.

Accordingly, the framework conceptualized within urban contexts and comprises the following four dimensions: access to livelihood capitals; livelihood strategies; livelihood outcomes (food security status); and coping strategies of the returnees. More importantly, among many livelihood capitals only that determine the choices of livelihood strategies of the returnees (access to the five livelihood capitals such as human, financial, physical, natural, and social capitals) were considered. The major sources of livelihood strategies and other associated factors of the returnees within urban settings are other variables that are at the heart of the present study.

To make the study manageable, albeit, the presence of an overwhelming number of livelihood outcomes, only food security status of the returnees as an outcome of a successful livelihood strategy and the main underlying causes of food insecurity and the major coping strategies that have been in place to overcome food shortage were considered. Moreover, determinants of cross-border migration and return migration decision were also considered. The rationale behind is that, the study was attempted to bring the following major concepts together: migration and return migration, food security, and livelihoods and all the aforementioned components have significant potential to impact sustainable return and livelihoods of the returnees and one affects the other in Ethiopian context. In short, the following model depicts briefly the conceptual framework of the study (See Figure 2-4 below).

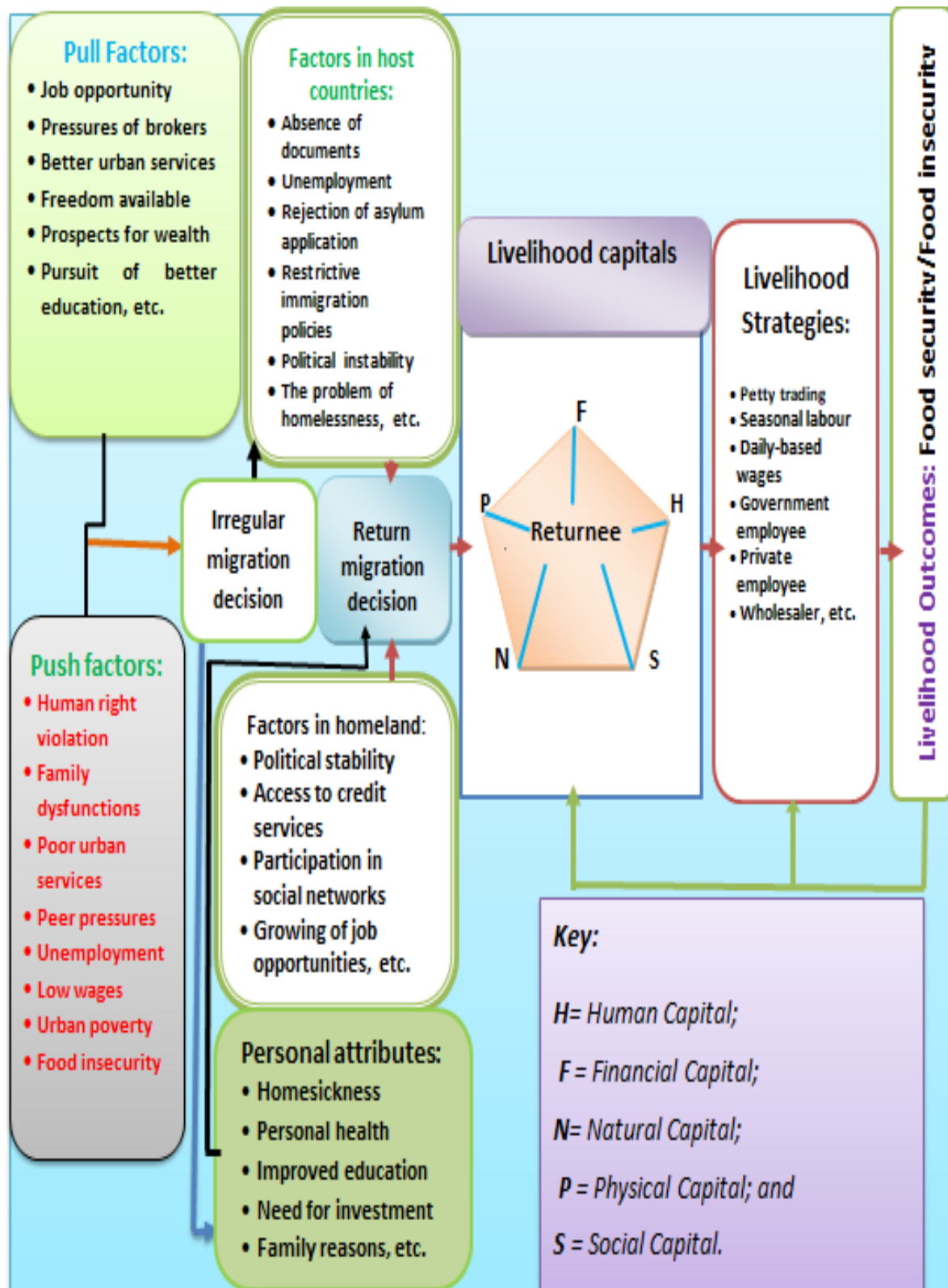


Fig. 2-4: The Conceptual Framework of the Dissertation adapted from (FAO, 2018; IOM, 2020; DFID, 1999; CARE, 1999).

Chapter Three: General Research Methodology

This chapter discusses the methodology of the research and explaining how the aims of the research are addressed. More importantly, it is concerned with the description of the research setting, the methodological approaches that encompass: research paradigm, research design, sources of data, methods of data collection, sampling techniques and sample size, methods of data analysis and ethical considerations employed during the course of the study.

3.1. Research Setting

The study was conducted in four sub-cities (two inner-urban and two peri-urban areas) of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (Fig. 3-1). Addis Ketema and Kirkos; and Akaki Kality and Kolfe Keraniyo were the four sub-cities selected from the former and the latter areas respectively. Though there is no fast and hard rule of characterization of the study area, most scholars in scientific community widely employed physical and socio-economic characteristics to describe a study area. Correspondingly, the main features of the study area were categorized into two major areas of characteristics, namely, physical and socio-economic characteristics. The details are presented as follows.

3.1.1. Physical Characteristics

Addis Ababa is found on a well-watered plateau surrounded by hills and mountains, in the geographic centre of Ethiopia and located at geographical coordinates: between 8°55' and 9°05' North Latitude and between 38°40' and 38°50' East Longitude (*Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission, 2020; Addis Ababa City Administration, 2015*). The geographical location of Addis Ababa at the center of the country and the pleasant climate it enjoys as the result of its high altitude are also factors that contributed much to its attraction (*Addis Ababa City Administration, 2015*). The elevation of Addis Ababa is ranged between 2,326 meters and 3,000 meters above sea level, and hence has a fairly favorable climate and moderate weather conditions (*Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission, 2020; UN-HABITAT, 2008*). Currently, the total land area of Addis Ababa is about 527 km² or 54, 000 hectares (*Addis Ababa Plan*

and Development Commission, 2020); and the city has a complex mix of highland climate zones, with temperature differences of up to 10°C, depending on elevation and prevailing wind patterns (World Meteorological Organization, 2019).

3.1.2. Socio-economic Characteristics

Administratively, Addis Ababa is a chartered city having three layers of government: City government at the top, 10 sub-city administrations in the middle (of course, Lemi Kura, the 11th sub-city wasn't considered in the study as it is the newly emerging sub-city not well established), and 121 woreda administrations at the bottom (*Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission, 2020*). As a chartered city, it has the status of both a city and a state. The Addis Ababa City Administration is a government executive organ of Addis Ababa, the capital of Ethiopia. It is governed by Mayor, and the lowest administrative unit is the woreda administrative (*Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission, 2020; Addis Ababa City Administration, 2015*).

It is one of the fast growing cities amongst African cities, and it is found to be the home of 25% of the urban population in Ethiopia (World Bank, 2015). It is the capital, the educational and administrative center of *the country*, the seat of the African Union (AU) and the United Nations Economic Commissions for Africa (UNECA) as well as various other continental and international organizations (*Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission, 2020; Addis Ababa City Administration, 2015; World Bank, 2015; UN-HABITAT, 2008/2007*); and it is often referred to as "*the political capital of Africa*" for its historical, diplomatic and political significance for the continent (Yonas *et al.*, 2017; UN-HABITAT, 2008/2007). It is the capital city of Ethiopia and the diplomatic centre of Africa, embodies a 130 years of development history (Yonas *et al.*, 2017).

The following three dominant factors made Addis Ababa to stay permanently long as the capital city of Ethiopia: the introduction of eucalyptus (a tree that grows very fast and provides a lot of wood for energy and cooking); the proclamation for legalizing private ownership of urban land in 1907 and the completion of the Addis Ababa - Djibouti railway built by French in 1917 (UN-HABITAT, 2008). It is the growth engine for

Ethiopia and the city alone currently contributes approximately 50% towards the national GDP (World Bank, 2015).

It is the largest in Ethiopia with a population of 3,384,569 with annual growth rate of 3.8%, and 662,728 households were counted living in 628,984 housing units, which results in an average of 5.3 persons to a household (CSA, 2007). According to CSA population projections of Ethiopia from 2007-2037, the rate of population growth of Addis Ababa is about 2.1% (*Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission, 2020*). The participation of women in the formal sector is lower than men (41%), but dominated in the more insecure, and lower paid informal sector compared to the participation of men (87%) (UN HABITAT, 2008); and the economy of Addis Ababa is dominated by the service sector (75%) is followed by the industry sector which accounted for 24.3 % of the city's GDP, and unemployment among women was found to be much higher (19.1%) compared to the unemployment of men which stood at 10% in 2015 (*Institute of Development and Policy Research, 2015*).

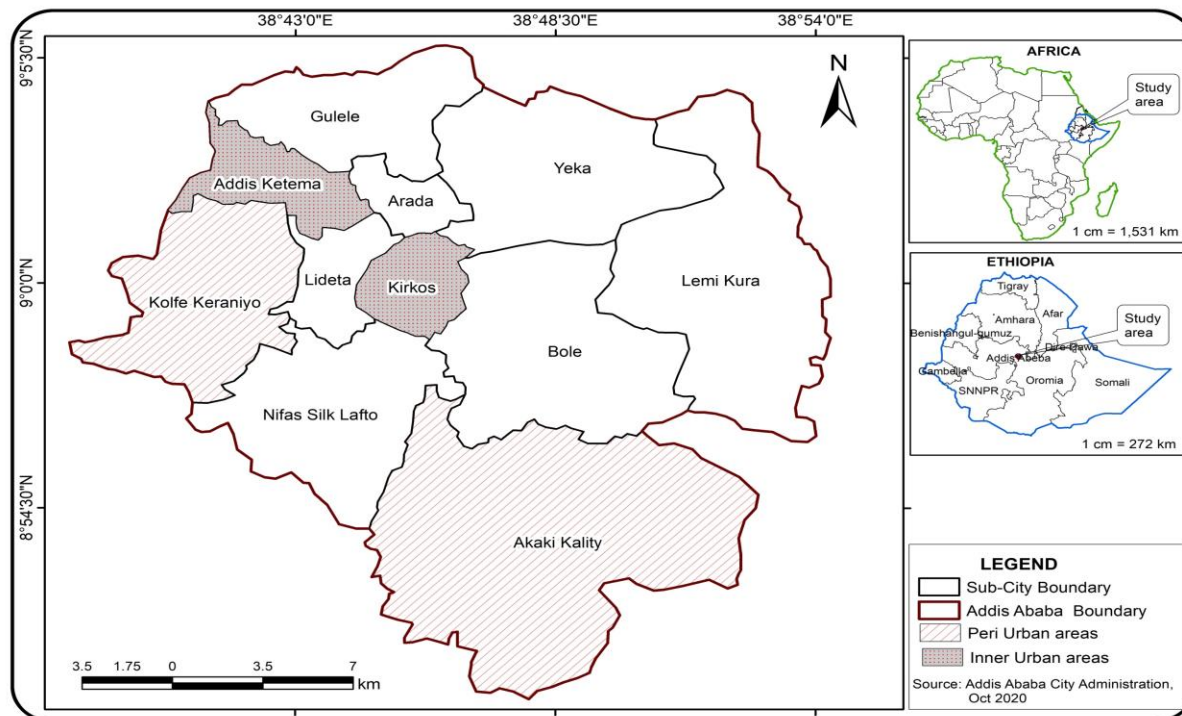


Fig. 3-1: Map of study area, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

3.2. Research Paradigm

This section presents the philosophical position of the researchers in the present study. Both the constructivist and the interpretivist research paradigms were employed, whereby the former and the latter are in favour of quantitative and qualitative research approaches respectively. The rationale behind the selected paradigm is that the study relied both on the participants' views of the situation being studied and on data that were collected by survey questionnaires comprising of numerical values completed by the participants of the study. Moreover, the study was ultimately aimed at testing pertinent theories of migration, livelihoods and food security. On the one hand, the problems studied by constructivists reflect the need to single out and explore the causes that influence outcomes, and there are theories that govern the world (Creswell, 2009; Creswell *et al.*, 2003; Phillips & Burbules, 2000). On the other hand, to interpretivists understanding the subjective world of human experience is very crucial (Cohen *et al.*, 2007); *"the social world can only be understood from the standpoint of the individuals who are part of the on-going action being investigated"* (Cohen *et al.*, 2000: 19); and *"we are all born into a world of meaning bestowed upon us by our culture"* (Crotty, 1998).

Accordingly, among interpretivist philosophical tenets interpretive phenomenological stance was taken into account to assess the internal perspectives of the respondents within the context of their lived experiences. Interpretive phenomenological approach (IPA) is geared towards generating rich and detailed descriptions of how individuals experience the phenomena under study and concerned with the in-depth exploration of their lived experiences (Smith & Pietkiewicz, 2014; Cohen *et al.*, 2007); and individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work, and meanings are constructed as they engage with the world (Neuman, 2014/2000; Schwandt, 2007).

3.3. Research Design

Overall the present study is cross-sectional and explanatory in nature. More fundamentally, a cross-sectional study was employed as a major type of research design

to collect all valuable data at a single point in time. “A *cross-sectional study is the one that produces a ‘snapshot’ of a population at a particular point in time*” (Cohen *et al.*, 2007/2000). Moreover, pragmatic mixed methods research approach was used to collect and analyze both quantitative and qualitative data within the study. The mixed-methods design, rooted in pragmatism, rejects to choose a single method from among the postpositive and the constructivist paradigms (Mertens & McLaughlin, 2004; Patton, 2002). Pragmatists argue that the relative strengths of each should be tapped in a single study (Creswell *et al.*, 1996). It is one in which both quantitative and qualitative methods are used in a single study and enables researchers to carry out a study in dynamic ways to find solutions to research problems (Leavy, 2017; Bryman, 2006; Mertens, 2007; Creswell & Clark, 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The justifications for employing such design in a single study are presumably numerous. Mixing both qualitative and quantitative data in a study allows for the limitations of each approach to be neutralized while strengths are built upon thereby providing stronger and more accurate inferences (Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007; Bryman, 2006); and these two methods complement each other (Dey, 2005). Using both approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone (Creswell, 2009; Denscombe, 2008; Creswell & Clark, 2007). It is also essential to develop a better understanding of complex phenomena by triangulating or corroborating or complementing one set of results with another and consequently maximizing the validity of inferences (Mertens, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2002; Green, Benjamin, & Goodyear, 2001).

Among the major types of mixed methods design, “*Concurrent Embedded Design Approach*” was chosen as the primary design. This is because, in this study both qualitative and quantitative data were collected concurrently, though the weight between the two may vary depending on the nature of the research questions to be considered and the secondary method is embedded within the predominant method. Concurrent embedded design is well-known for its use of a single data collection phase

and a primary method guides the project and the secondary method offers a supporting role in the procedures (Creswell & Clark, 2010; Creswell, 2009; Bryman, 2006). The investigator integrates both forms of data in the interpretations of the overall results, and may embed one smaller form of data within another larger data collection to analyze different types of questions (the qualitative addresses the process while the quantitative, the outcomes) (Creswell & Clark, 2010/2007; Creswell, 2009).

Broadly speaking, a mix of quantitative and qualitative research methods was employed to ascertain both the static and dynamic patterns of the issue under study. While figures in a quantitative analysis reflect the aggregate situation of any parameter at a given moment, a qualitative analysis reveals the way in which the issue is affected and changed by various factors over a period of time to provide thorough descriptions and interpretations of the phenomenon.

3.3.1. Quantitative Research Methods

Quantitative method is a numerical method that provides a quantitative description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of population by studying a sample of that population (Creswell, 2009; Dey, 2005; Best & Kahn, 1999); and quantitative data can carry an air of precision that is spurious (Flowerdew & Martin, 2005; Gillham, 2000). In other words, with due thought, the analysis of quantitative data can offer a pivotal contribution to a study. As a quantitative method, survey questionnaires with open-ended questions were employed to collect the required quantitative data to attain the intended objectives of the study (for detail see Chapter 4 through 9). In this study, the weight between the quantitative and qualitative methods is varied depending on the nature of the research questions that was considered. To this end, while the former one is the predominant method, the latter is embedded within the quantitative method and played substantiating roles.

3.3.2. Qualitative Research Methods

In this study, qualitative research methods were used to get the fuller understanding of what is being studied. Qualitative method contends with meanings (Dey, 2005);

qualitative research method is a type of in-depth study of individuals and situations that permits a researcher to discover reality without having to fit it into a preconceived theoretical perspective (Best & Kahn, 1999; Robson, 1995); and to understand the complex nature of many aspects of human and organizational behaviors (Dey, 2005). In line with this, key informant interviews (KIIs), focus group discussions (FGDs), semi-structured interviews (SSIs) were conducted to allow participants of the study to articulate their life experiences in light of their own view and language to get additional data for the purpose of triangulation and to consolidate, corroborate data obtained via quantitative research approaches.

3.4. Sources of Data

For the purpose at hand, both primary and secondary data were collected. The major sources of primary data comprise three organs: international returnees, experts, and core actors currently working on the area. The major sources of primary data for the study were international return migrants who returned to Ethiopia between 2016 and 2019 G.C having at least one-year of stay in Ethiopia after return. The rationale behind such consideration is based on the following major assumptions. First, for those who returned after 2019 the issue under investigation might not be clearly sensed to respond to the survey questionnaires, focus group discussions, and interviews. Second, no international returnees have been officially registered before 2016 in Ethiopia and it is difficult to get data on international returnees to take subjects of the study. Third, the longer the period since return, the less likely the information provided would be accurate and reliable (Arowolo, 2000). Fourth, a minimum of 1-year stay for the returnees in the host country was considered so that they can expound their lived experiences during the stay. A return migrant is an individual who has been abroad for at least 12 months (UNDESA, 1998).

Moreover, experts, and core actors such as key officials of humanitarian organizations, Addis Ababa Women and Social Affairs Bureau (the former Addis Ababa Labour and Social Affairs Bureau), and Ministry of Women and Social Affairs (the former Ministry of

Labour and Social Affairs) currently working and having demonstrated experiences on the issue were considered as the primary sources of data. As the main sources of secondary data the following documents were reviewed to understand the issue underway and to enrich the findings: Ethiopian overseas employment Proclamation, Addis Ababa City Administration Socio Economic profile (2015-2019), official reports and annual bulletins of the former MOLSA and BOLSA, books, published journal articles, and other associated official documents are amongst others.

3.5. Tools of Data Collection

As mentioned earlier, both quantitative and qualitative data were required to obtain valuable data. Using both types of data enable the researcher to expand an understanding from one method to another, to converge or confirm findings from different data sources, etc. (Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007; Bryman, 2006). To this end, the following six types of data collection instruments were employed: field observations, key informant interviews, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, survey questionnaires, and document analyses. This is because examining the data from many sources is essential to gain an accurate sense of the overall picture of the issue under consideration. Each of them is described hereunder.

3.5.1. Field Observations

Evidences uncovered that obtaining return migrants as subjects of a study is not an easy exercise. Migrant returnees' are '*hard to reach*' (Atkinson & Flint, 2001); and in many cases access is guarded by '*gatekeepers*' – people who can control researchers' access to those whom they really want to target (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). Observation is the most direct way of obtaining data and it could yield useful data (Gillham, 2000). Having this in mind, a well thought field observation plan and checklist were developed in consultation with key officials found at city, sub-city, and woreda levels to get the first hand information about the living conditions of the target population under study (Appendix-1). These field observations were also undertaken to obtain information on how to: access the study population, formulate objectives of the study, determine the

most appropriate sources of data, to shape some of the questions that are asked, and to decide data collection methods. Altogether, frequent field observations were carried out before and during the entire fieldwork in the four sampled sub-cities.

3.5.2. Key Informant Interviews

In this study, key informant interviews (KIIs) were held with people that have solid knowledge and understandings on international migration, return migration as well as on the livelihoods of the Ethiopian international returnees using interview leading questions (Appendix-3). The key informants that can provide information about current situations and local facts prevail on the ground in Ethiopian context about the issue were chosen based on their positions, experiences, and responsibilities. Accordingly, as a whole, six KIIs were held with (three key officials of humanitarian organizations such as IOM, ILO, CVM, two key officials of Addis Ababa Women and Social Affairs Bureau (the former Addis Ababa Labour and Social Affairs Bureau), and one key official of Ministry of Women and Social Affairs (the former Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs) currently working and having demonstrated experiences on the issue under way.

3.5.3. Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were carried out to substantiate data that could not be handled by the survey questionnaires to counter check and to enrich the quantitative data gathered. Semi-structured interviews allow for a mix of standardization and comparability, as well as allowing the participant freedom to speak from their own frame of reference (May, 2001); *“the overwhelming strength of the face-to-face interview is the 'richness' of the communication that is possible”* (Gillham, 2000:62); and it is much more than just a tool, like a drill to screw deeper into the discursive structures that frame the worlds of ‘subjects’ and it is way of bringing together the multiple views of people (Somekh & Lewin, 2005). About nine interview-guide questions and probes were developed and employed to manage the session well (Appendix-2). Here the golden rule is applied that states start interviews when you are ready for them (Hancke, 2009). Accordingly, overall about 40 SSIs were held with (24 returnees, 12 experts, and

4 core actors) found at various levels at the national, city government and local levels with persons engaged in the issue under investigation, that were drawn via purposive sampling technique.

3.5.4. Focus Group Discussions

The focus group discussion (FGDs) were held with returnees, experts and core actors having 6-12 team composition to generate data that reached or did not reach a consensus on the issue under investigation. In this study, as a major key to the success of focus groups, extreme care was taken with the sampling to keep the homogeneity of background in the required area so as to ensure that participants have something to say and feel comfortable enough to say it.

The FGD is a qualitative data collection method that engages 6 to 12 people having the shared characteristics may relate to: a particular problem, livelihoods occupation, age, social group, place of residence, and the like (Catholic Relief Services/CRS, 2018); and *“it is generally better to get as close as possible to the real-life situations where people discuss, formulate and modify their views and make sense of their experiences as in peer groups”* (Somekh & Lewin, 2005:43). In other words, it encourages participants to respond to one another and generate new ideas or highlight conflicting attitudes that may be missed in a one-on-one interview.

To this effect, as a whole four FGDs were conducted (one in each four sampled sub-cities) that was led by a facilitator who encouraged the interaction and guided the session based on the nine FGD-guide questions (Appendix-3) to stimulate and open vigorous discussions on the research agenda.

3.5.5. Survey Questionnaires

The survey questionnaires were developed based on the conceptual and theoretical framework of the study. The survey questionnaires having seven major sections were developed to gather primarily detailed quantitative data (Appendix-4). The details of each section of the questionnaires are presented in the forthcoming empirical chapters

of the dissertation (see chapter 4 through 9). The survey questionnaires were administered and distributed by trained enumerators to the respondents under strict close supervision of the researcher to make the study more valid.

3.5.6. Document Analysis

Relevant government policies, strategy documents, government guidelines, books, journals, different scholastics works, and other official organizational documents and reports pertinent to the topic were consulted and reviewed to understand the issue underway and to enrich the findings. Prime attention and cross checking of different materials were made to ensure the accuracy and relevance of the secondary sources.

3.6. Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

Before undertaking a full scale study, the data gathering tools were piloted and pre-tested for the following purposes: clarity, to check whether or not they can generate the expected information, and to evaluate the ability of the tools to access the data sought. This allows problems with the structure, questions and indicators to be corrected before the actual fieldwork began. In this respect, some senior researchers and experts from IOM, MoLSA, BoLSA, and other scholars having demonstrated knowledge and experiences in the area were consulted as to how the instruments would be designed and improved for the utility of the tools. Moreover, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted for checking the dimensionality of the scale in question to provide the evidence that the scale is unidimensional.

In other words, for validity, EFA was conducted with the items using principal component analysis extraction and Varimax rotation. EFA, is conducted to identify and organize a large number of items of the questionnaire into the constructs under one specific variables and ultimately to determine the validity of the tools (Chua, 2014; Hair, Black, & Babin, 2010). Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha reliability and internal consistency were computed using the latest SPSS software (version 23.0) and STATA (version 15.0) computer programmes alternatively to check whether or not the overall reliability co-efficient of the items were found to be satisfactory as the whole in general and within

sub-scales in particular. Accordingly, the following Cronbach's alpha formula was employed:

$$\alpha = \frac{N \cdot C}{V + (N - 1) \cdot C}$$

Where: N = the number of items

C = the average inter-covariance among the items

V = average covariance

As a result, items having a Cronbach's alpha (α) or the reliability index of above 0.70 were employed to gather data for the study. The index alpha of 0.70 or above is good for instruments that have ten or more items (Pallant, 2000). The Cronbach's alpha test conducted shows that the overall score was ($\alpha_{\text{overall}} = 0.899$) indicating high reliability of the 181 items in the instrument.

3.7. Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

Currently, Addis Ababa is administratively divided into three layers of government: City government at the top, 10 sub-city administrations in the middle (of course, Lemi Kura the 11th sub-city that was not considered in the study as it is the newly emerging sub-city that is not well established), and 121 woreda administrations at the bottom. For the purpose of this study, the sub-cities of Addis Ababa were grouped into two clusters: Lideta, Arada, Kirkos, Addis Ketema, and Gulele were clustered as inner-urban; and Nifas Silk, Yeka, Kolfe Keraniyo, Bole, and Akaki Kality were clustered as peri-urban areas.

The above clustering is based both on spatial location and the livelihood strategies and activities available for the urban poor, wherein the inner-urban centers the dwellers more likely tend to be engaged in non-agricultural activities, while in peri-urban areas the communities are being progressively absorbed into the urban fabric and are dependent both on non-agricultural and agricultural activities. Accordingly, out of ten sub-cities clustered into inner-urban and peri-urban areas two sub-cities from each cluster having a large number of returnees (4 sub-cities as a whole) were selected as the sample sub-cities of the study, namely; Addis Ketema and Kirkos; and Kolfe Keraniyo and Akaki Kality from inner-urban areas and peri-urban areas respectively using purposive

sampling technique to get representative sample size returnees for the study. Woredas of each sampled sub-cities were not considered as the returnees are not evenly distributed and resided uniformly in all woredas of the sub-cities.

In order to have representative sample returnees, a multi-stage sampling technique was used. Firstly, the ten sub-cities of Addis Ababa were clustered into two (inner-urban and peri-urban areas) based on the livelihood activities available for the returnees. Addis Ketema and Kirkos; and Akaki Kality and Kolfe Keraniyo were selected from the former and the latter areas respectively using purposive sampling technique. Secondly, stratified sampling was employed to form discrete strata groups (male returnees and female returnees) to make the characteristics that must appear in the wider population must also appear in the sample (Jensen & Shumway, 2010; Cohen *et al.*, 2007). Thirdly, to determine the samples of male and female returnees, proportionate stratified random sampling technique was employed to make their sample sizes proportional to the number of units in the stratum. Samples were determined within these groups by simple random sampling techniques so that each individual would have equal chance to be selected (Cohen *et al.*, 2007; Jensen & Shumway, 2010).

Finally, Samples of the study population were determined by employing sample size determination formula as suggested by Yamane (2001) (at the confidence interval of 95% with significance level of 5%) as target population is known.

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

Where: n is the sample size, N is the targeted population, and e is the desired level of precision.

$$n = \frac{5,228}{1 + 5,228(.05)^2} = 372.$$

Based on sample size determination formula above, out of the sampling frame of 5,228 returnees (993 male and 4,235 female returnees) found in the four urban areas, a total of 372 sample sizes were drawn. Moreover, the sample size is further increased by 12% which constituted 44 returnees (8 male and 36 female returnees) to account for

contingencies such as non-response, refusal to respond, ineligibility to respond, inability to respond, or missing data; without ignoring a larger sample can't guarantee precision (Bryman & Bell, 2003).

Of course, anticipating non-response varies from one another and there is no fast and hard rule. It is wise to oversample by 10% to 20% of the computed number required depending on how much the investigators would anticipate the missing data (Naing *et al.*, 2006); and one of the most common ways to ensure minimum samples are met is to maximize the sample size by up to 50% (Bartlett *et al.*, 2001). Response rate is crucial as each non response is subjected to bias the final sample, and generating a large sample, in some respects can help to minimize the likelihood of sample bias (Taherdoos, 2016). As a whole, 416 sample returnees (79 male and 337 female returnees) were randomly selected for the survey questionnaire (Table 3-1).

Table 3-1: Target population and sample size of the returnees

Name of cluster	Total population (returnees)	Sampled Sub-city	Sample Size (returnees)
Inner-urban areas			
Lideta	387	-	
Arada	354	-	
Addis Ketema	426	✓	62
Gulele	392	-	
Kirkos	403	✓	57
Total	1,962		
Peri-urban areas			
Akaki Kality	776	✓	121
Yeka	652	-	
Bole	369	-	
Kolfe Keraniyo	1,104	✓	176
Nifas Silk	362	-	
Total	3,263		
Grand total	5,228	4	416

Source: Addis Ababa Labour and Social Affairs Bureau (2021)

Moreover, among non-probability sampling techniques, purposive sampling technique was employed for the selection of participants for KIIs, FGDs, and SSIs (Key officials found at various levels, returnees, and core actors) to triangulate data obtained from returnee respondents via survey questionnaires. The rationale behind the technique selected is that sampling is done with a purpose in mind to consider participants that can provide rich data on the issue underway. As noted earlier, overall, in this study both probability and non-probability sampling techniques were employed to draw relevant respondents of the study and to obtain quantitative and qualitative data from sampled returnees and participants of KIIs, FGDs, and SSIs respectively.

3.8. Methods of Data Analysis

The primary intent of this section is to summarize large amounts of data through descriptive statistics, to explore data through visualization, and to infer aspects of the population from samples or processes from observations via inferential statistics. Mixed methods data analysis processes were taken into account. Amongst the seven phase-based typologies of the mixed methods data analysis underscored by Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie (2003), the following five-step processes: data reduction, data display, data transformation, data consolidation, and data integration were employed.

In the views of the authors, data reduction is concerned with condensing the dimensionality of quantitative data via descriptive statistics, exploratory thematic analysis, cluster analysis, and the like) and the qualitative data through exploratory thematic analysis, etc.); data consolidation is about combining both quantitative and qualitative data to create new or combined variables; and data display refers to a way of portraying information succinctly the quantitative data using graphs, charts, tables, etc. Finally, in the data integration stage, both qualitative and quantitative data are integrated into either a whole or separate sets.

In the present study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were employed as the major statistical analyses to analyze the quantitative data depending on the nature of

scaled data. In all cases, the existing difference was tested for statistical significance level at $\alpha = 0.01, 0.001$ and/or 0.05 .

Regarding the analysis of qualitative data, data gained from a variety of sources were juxtaposed for the purpose of critical examination of the various claims and were transcribed into themes and analysed within the scope of qualitative research data analysis. In other words, the qualitative data were transcribed, coded and interpreted thematically. The thematic approach was followed to display the analyses and findings both from quantitative and qualitative data. The themes for the data analyses were derived from the conceptual framework of the study that is grounded in the basic research questions. Amongst main forms of qualitative data analyses, content analysis was applied to analyze the data obtained via KIIs, SSIs, FGDs and document reviews. Many qualitative data analysts undertake forms of content analysis and the method is considered most appropriate to analyze qualitative data- a process whereby a large number of words of texts are classified into much fewer categories (Shava *et al.*, 2021; Cohen *et al.*, 2007; Weber, 1990).

Broadly speaking, the data gathered via survey questionnaires and qualitative research instruments were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. Analysis of quantitative data was displayed first and then corroborated by qualitative data analysis in the form of texts and quotes. All qualitative data collected to get additional information for the purpose of triangulation and to substantiate the responses obtained through close-ended items were categorized and qualitatively described based on the objectives of the study (for detail see Chapter 4 through Chapter 9).

3.9. Research Ethics Protocols

Ethics is found to be a major concern of a researcher while planning, designing, conducting and writing the research report. In the process of conducting the present study, a number of ethical protocols have been followed from the inception to its completion to meet the ethical standards set forth by the APA. Accordingly, measures were taken to protect and ensure the dignity and welfare of all participants; their

responses to the questions were kept secret and reported in aggregate. This obligation also entails protecting them from harm, unnecessary risks, or mental and physical discomfort that may be inherent in the research procedure. Moreover, the issue of confidentiality and anonymity to protect the subject's identity were secured. As informed consent is one the major ethical issues in conducting research, the participants of the study were given information detailing the purpose of the study and their requested involvement in it knowingly, voluntarily and intelligently, and in a clear and manifest way, give their consent and the participants' right to autonomy were protected. They also had the right to decline to answer any questions, to withdraw from the study process, and to choose not to be recorded by any device.

Chapter Four: Determinants of Irregular Cross-Border Migration Decision: Evidence from Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Abstract: *In Ethiopia, irregular cross-border migration by no means is a new phenomenon in scientific studies. Until recent years, however, most studies that were conducted are often tended to omit examining the relative weights of crucial factors associated with origin and destination countries, and personal attributes of the migrants that made evidences remained inconclusive for policy and decision making in Ethiopia. The study was devoted to explore the major driving pull-push factors predicting irregular cross-border migration decision to provide scientific evidences on the issue based on a cross-sectional survey conducted on 402 returnees drawn randomly from Addis Ababa. The supplementary data were collected from key informant interview, focus group discussion and semi-structured interview participants drawn purposively. Descriptive statistics and multiple regression models were used to analyze the data. Majority of the returnees (90%) concurred that economic factors took the most leading share in compelling the respondents to migrate in irregular manner. Socio-cultural factors at abroad (freedom available, presence of sustainable food security, lure words of brokers, and the like) and socio-political factors at homeland (restriction in human freedom, conflict, peer pressures, and so on) were made the first and the second greatest contributions on irregular migration decision with the values ($\beta = .403$; and $\beta = .381$) respectively at ($p = 0.000 < 0.001$). Meanwhile, nevertheless, the decision to migrate was influenced by situations in both the destination and the origin areas, the findings of the present study illuminated that the decision to migrate is robustly more predicted by conditions in the former areas than in the latter ones. Therefore, maximizing access to socio-economic opportunities, and political participation for the urban poor to abate their outward-thinking that push them into irregular migration decision has become a crucial development interventions for Ethiopian government and development actors.*

Based on:

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2022). Examination of Factors Predicting the Likelihood of Irregular Cross-border Migration Decision: Evidence from Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. *Journal of Identity and Migration Studies* (www.jims.e-migration.ro), 16 (2):106-129, 2022.

4.1. Introduction

In today's interconnected world, migration is found to be at the cutting-edge of international discussions on social and economic development as a whole (Echeverría, 2020; FAO, 2017; UNDESA, 2013). More fundamentally, irregular cross-border migration has become a subject of heated debates among a variety of actors. It is utmost priority policy challenge and remains a demanding political agenda (IOM, 2019; Harpviken, 2018); and it frequently makes headlines, and policy makers are under a rise of public and political pressures to address the issue of migrants in irregular situations (Morehouse & Blomfield, 2011; IOM, 2005). Currently, irregular migration is truly a global structural phenomenon (IOM *et al.*, 2013; Düvell, 2011, 2006; Cvajner & Sciortino, 2010a). The issue is also amply evidenced by various international organizations as follows:

...In recent years, the international community has paid greater attention to the plight of migrants in irregular situation, and called upon Governments to address this issue. For example, at the 2010 Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD), the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights and the Global Migration Group issued a joint statement expressing concern about the human rights of migrants in irregular situation and called for an end to their criminalization (United Nations, 2012). The following year, in 2011, the GFMD noted the importance of specific regional dynamics of irregular migration from and to countries in less developed regions, and stressed that further examination of regional differentials in irregular migration was needed (GFMD, 2011a, 2011b). Most recently, the High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development has called upon Governments to protect the human rights of migrants in irregular situation (United Nations, General Assembly, 2013a). There is no "one-size-fits-all" policy to curb irregular migration. There is a need to establish comprehensive, rights-based approaches that address the root causes of irregular migration, especially those related to labour market demands (UNDESA, 2013: 91-92).

Moreover, latest evidences invariably indicate that migration in general and cross border migration in particular is inevitable in our modern epoch than ever before. It has become inescapable and almost touches every corner of the globe due to globalization (Messay & Teferee, 2017; IOM, 2017). In this respect, the Horn of Africa has unique migration challenges as every month thousands of irregular migrants attempt to cross-border to escape conflict, drought and economic challenges (Schroder, 2015; Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009). Human movement in the region is mostly irregular as the result of limited options for regular movements and also reactive to political and environmental factors (Siegel *et al.*, 2016); and in the Horn of Africa, irregular migrants cross borders by violating conditions for entering another country without having proper authority (Jordan & Düvell, 2002). By the same token, Ethiopia is not an exception to the situation as it has become an important origin, transit and destination for irregular migration flows in the Horn of Africa (Shishay *et al.*, 2019; Assefa *et al.*, 2017; ILO, 2016); in Ethiopia documented and undocumented labour migration to different areas of the globe has remarkably increased (Girmachew, 2017); and Ethiopia is a hub for outward migration (Siegel *et al.*, 2016).

On the one hand, the experiences of migration are characterized by the following evils: both sexes are increasingly exposed to exploitation and abuse, losing their lives; others trapped behind walls of discrimination, xenophobia and racism as the result of rising cultural and religious tensions in some societies (World Bank, 2016; UNODC, 2010). To put it bluntly, irregular migration gives rise to a set of complex problems ranging from abuse of basic human rights and worker exploitation to negative popular perceptions of migrants (World Bank, 2016); and migrants in irregular situation are vulnerable to discrimination, exploitation and abuse and they are also in danger of being exploited by crime organs involved in human trafficking and smuggling (UNDESA, 2013). Migrants generally tend to be less food secured than non-migrants, discrimination and xenophobia play an important part, and migration exposes migrants to less healthy food choices (Chikanda & Crush, 2018).

In Ethiopia, despite efforts being made by the Ethiopian government and other core actors to reverse irregular cross-border migration, an overwhelming number of Ethiopians are currently moving to abroad irregularly. Through 2008 to 2013, about 460,000 Ethiopians migrated irregularly to different parts of the world (Rohwerder & Carter, 2016); and between 2012 and 2016 around 317,136 Ethiopian migrants arrived Yemen in less than 5 years via Yemen to Saud Arabia and other Middle-East countries (Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat, 2016) on the other hand.

Accordingly, attempts were made to review some empirical studies that have been undertaken in Ethiopia on the issue under way. Ethiopia is one of the largest origins (both transit and destination) of trafficked persons from Africa; and the most common drivers of migration in Ethiopia are found to be an amalgam of socio-economic, political and environmental factors (Shishay *et al.*, 2019; Messay & Teferee, 2017; Siegel *et al.*, 2016; Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009); and irregular migration can be ended up with severe mental health problems that may ultimately impose negative impacts on the life of the migrants in the future (Mesfin & Emirie, 2018; Muna & Atinkut, 2018; Anbesse *et al.*, 2009).

Moreover, a survey conducted on the links between migration and sustainable livelihoods on three countries (Ethiopia, Mali and Bangladesh) uncovered that international migration is seen as just one of the livelihood strategies open to households and a desirable option for both skilled and unskilled individuals in Ethiopia (Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009). A study on female migration and reintegration in Ethiopia, found that unless returnees' establish a sense of belongingness in the country of return, then they will most likely re-migrate (Kuschminder, 2013); and a case study conducted on Ethiopian returnee migrants expounded that they were swamped by hopelessness and painful experiences as the result of physical abuses, restrictive mobility, and a variety of harassment by respective employers (Shishay *et al.*, 2019).

However, none of the aforementioned studies dealt with exploring the relative weights and influences of factors associated with origin and destination countries, and personal

attributes of migrants to migrate irregularly. There are little empirical evidences on irregular migration decision. The present issue has become blurred and has hardly been explored so far in Ethiopia. As the result, decision makers and other core actors have been fallen out of a full understanding of the dynamics of the issue. Hence, here is a clear need for targeted evidences for scientific investigation to start filling the gap and to paint a clear picture on the issue under way.

Accordingly, the main intent of the study is to examine factors predicting irregular cross-border migration decision in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The study could contribute for further understandings of irregular cross-border migration, with the aim of providing insights for policy-makers and development actors to develop pragmatic strategies and ultimately to mitigate irregular fluxes. It could also help to scale up actions in combating irregular immigration and smuggling more robustly. In due course, the study attempts to seek answers pertinent to the following three key research questions:

- 1) *Why Ethiopian international returnees attracted to migrate abroad in irregular manner in the study area?*
- 2) *Why Ethiopian international returnees compelled to migrate abroad in irregular situation?*
- 3) *Is there any significant difference among the relative weights of the major pull-push factors in predicting irregular cross-border migration decision?*

The section to follow is to elaborate different concepts and definitions of irregular cross-border migration. The section also extends its discussion to summarizing the most widely accepted notions and definitions of the issues under consideration. The details are presented as follows.

4.2. Conceptualizing: Irregular Cross-Border Migration

There is a wide array of definitions for the term “*irregular migration*”. It would appear that no one has really satisfactorily defined the concept and there is no universally accepted definition of it (Echeverría, 2020). Terms like: irregular, illegal, undocumented, clandestine, unauthorized, informal, and unregistered, *sans papier*, etc. often used

interchangeably (Vasta, 2011; Triandafyllidou, 2009; Baldwin-Edwards & Kraler, 2009; Düvell, 2006; Jordan & Düvell, 2002); and there may be nuances between the terms “illegal migration”, “clandestine migration”, “undocumented migration” and “irregular migration”, however, to a large extent they are used in a loose manner and often synonymously (IOM, 2019).

It is the migration of people into a country without the permission of the immigration laws of that country, or the continued residence without the legal right to live in that country (Morehouse & Blomfield, 2011); a movement of persons that takes place outside the laws, regulations, or international agreements governing the entry into or exit from the state of origin, transit, or destination (IOM, 2019/2011; RMMS, 2014). An irregular migrant is someone who, owing to illegal entry or the expiry of his or her visa, lacks legal status in a transit or host country (Van Meeteren, 2010; Horwood, 2009; Van Der Leun, 2003). According to IOM (2011) in addition to the presence of complexity surrounding the definition of irregular migration, it can be viewed from two major different perspectives:

...On the one hand, from the perspective of destination countries, irregular migration is illegal entry, extended stay or work in a country, meaning that the migrant does not have the necessary authorization or documents required under immigration regulations to enter, reside in or work in a given country. On the other hand, from the perspective of the sending country, the illegality is for instance seen in cases in which a person crosses an international boundary without a valid passport or does not fulfill the administrative requirements for leaving the country (IOM, 2011:54).

In a nutshell, as discussed above, very recently irregular migration has received increasing attention and the term can be defined in several ways and from a number of perspectives. It is a generic term open to many interpretations. More importantly, Table 4-1 presents the summary of legal definitions of irregular migration in European countries.

Table 4-1: Summary of legal definitions of irregular migration in Europeans

Country	Term/definition	Law
United Kingdom	Illegal entry	1971 Immigration Act.
Germany	Unlawful entry: foreigners no longer possessing a necessary residence title and a right of residence are required to leave a federal territory	Residence law
Netherlands	The presence of foreign nationals who are not in possession of valid residence permit and are therefore obliged to leave the country are defined as “unlawful stay illegals,”	2000 Aliens Act. Linking Act.(Benefit Entitlement and Residence Status Act) (Ministry of Justice, Policy Document on Illegal Aliens, 2004)
Italy	Foreigner in irregular position	Bossi-Fini Law No.189/2002
Spain	There is no term in national legislation for irregular immigration. Clandestine migration means that the foreigner is not a legal resident of Spain	Ley Organic 8/2000 Rules of Implementation of the Rule on Foreigners 4/2000
Poland	Non-legal, illegal crossing of border, residing in the territory without the required visa or permit	Act on Aliens

Source: Adapted from Clandestino Project Final Report, 2009.

This indicates that, though some common frameworks exist among some selected European Member States, for the term ‘*irregular migration*’ diverse terminology is used by these member states. Generally, the use of the concept of irregular migration and the problem of definition could open a way to a very interesting, but probably innumerable, debate among scholars in migration arena. Even though, it is impossible to set free the term from possible critiques, in the present study, the term “*irregular migration*” has been chosen for the current study due to its extensive use and pervasiveness in modern literatures.

4.3. Research Methods

4.3.1. Operationalization of the Variables

Before proceeding to the details of the research approach, it is worth having good insights on variables under study starting from their operationalization. The variables are operationalized based on the main constructs of the conceptual framework presented in the preceding section. The operationalization begins with the assumption derived from the “*push-pull model*” introduced by Everett Lee (Hagen-Zanker, 2008; de Haas, 2007) as discussed earlier (Chapter 2 under sub-section 2.3.1). In the pages just to follow, the dependent and independent variables are listed and operationalized to uncover the leading factors contributing for irregular cross-border migration decision in Ethiopian context.

Dependent and independent variables

In the present study, while the decision to migrate abroad irregularly was considered as dependent variable, whereas the pull-push factors and different personal attributes are considered as independent variables for the empirical analysis. In other words, the following three sets of factors constitute the independent variables of the study: determinants in the origin country; destination areas; and *personal attributes*. Moreover, it was assumed that the decision to migrate in irregular manner is a function of multitude factors (socio-economic, cultural, demographic factors and so forth).

4.3.2. Tools of Data Collection

Four types of data collection instruments were used to generate both quantitative and qualitative data. These are survey questionnaires; key informant interviews (KIIs), semi-structured interviews (SSIs), and focus group discussions (FGDs). Using both types of data enable the researcher to expand an understanding from one method to another, to converge or confirm findings from different data sources (Creswell, 2009; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007; Bryman, 2006; Greene *et al.*, 2001). The details are presented hereunder.

The Survey Questionnaires

The survey questionnaires had 2 major sections. The first section had 11 items and was dealt with pull factors accounted for and attracted returnees to migrate irregularly to abroad. It is a five-point Likert Scale with responses ranging from strongly agree = SA; agree= A; undecided = UD; disagree = DA; strongly disagree low = SD with values of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. The second section had 10 items and was concerned with push factors that had compelled the returnees to move abroad in irregular manner. Here some major push factors were outlined and rated using similar scales and values as section two. The survey questionnaire was translated into the local Amharic language and tested for face validity.

The survey questionnaire was also pre-tested to check for its internal consistency. Accordingly, the computed reliability of the instruments used to collect data from the returnees for the two components of the survey questionnaires (pull-push factors) are ($\alpha_{\text{pull}} = 0.84$, $\alpha_{\text{push}} = 0.80$). The overall reliability of the survey questionnaires (pull-push factors) was found to be ($\alpha_{\text{overall}} = 0.89$). To this end, most of the items remained with minor modifications in their wordings in accordance with relevant inputs obtained from the respondents.

Furthermore, at the end of each section, open-ended items were also included to make the respondents express their ideas regarding the issue (Appendix-4). To make the research more valid the questionnaires were distributed to the respondents in the presence of the investigator with the help of trained enumerators. As a result, a cross-sectional survey with 416 returnees was carried out from June 2021 to July 2021 using structured and semi-structured survey questionnaires.

Key Informant Interviews

In this study, about 6 KIIs were held using key informant interview leading questions (Appendix-3) with key officials of humanitarian organizations (3) and Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (1) (reorganized into Ministry of Women and Social Affairs (MoSA) and Ministry of Labour and Skills (MoLS)) and Addis Ababa Labour and Social Affairs Bureau

(2) (currently reorganized into Bureau of Women, Children and Social Affairs (BoWCSA) and Bureau of Job Creation and Enterprise Development (BoJCED)) working on the issue under consideration to obtain valuable information.

Semi-Structured Interviews

The semi-structured interviews enable the researchers to ask for further clarifications of the issue under consideration. The interviews were carried out to complement and obtain relevant data that could not be handled by the survey questionnaires. It is also important to counter check and to enrich the data gathered by questionnaires. For this purpose, an open-ended interview guide questions were developed and employed to exploit greater depth of responses (Appendix-4). As a whole, in the present study, about 40 interviews were conducted with a variety of participants of the study. More fundamentally, about 24 returnees (six from four each sampled sub-cities), 12 experts at sub-city level (three from each sampled sub-cities), and 2 experts from BOLSA at city administration level, and 2 experts from MOLSA at national level.

Focus Group Discussions

In this study, to yield a wider range of responses than individual interviews FGDs) were undertaken. Taken together, four FGDs were held (one FGD in each sampled sub-cities) with a group having a team composition of 6-12 and a mix of returnees, experts from BOLSA and experts from each four sampled sub-cities based on FGD guide questions (Appendix-3).

4.3.3. Data Analysis

The data gathered via the four aforementioned tools were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The qualitative data obtained through KIIs, SSIs, FGDs as well as open-ended items of the questionnaires were transcribed, coded, interpreted thematically, and incorporated in the analysis to supplement and substantiate the numerical data secured through the survey questionnaires. With regard to the data that were collected via closed-ended questions, a principal component analysis (PCA) was carried-out to reduce the factors into a smaller set of components and to summarize data so that

relationships and patterns can be easily interpreted and understood (Gray, 2017; O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013; Abdi & Williams, 2010; Field, 2009; Everitt, 2004).

Moreover, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test were undertaken to check the sample adequacy and the suitability of data for factor analysis respectively on both pull and push factors separately. The KMO measures of sampling adequacy were calculated above the commonly recommended values in both cases (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Field, 2009), and Bartlett's tests of sphericity were significant and considered adequate for performing a factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) (Table 4-6 and Table 4-7). Based on the nature of the data collected and purpose at hand, both descriptive and inferential analyses were used as the two major types of statistical applications.

Among descriptive statistics (percentages, mean, median, and standard deviation) were employed to summarize group data and to provide valuable background information about the nature of a sampled group of returnees in the study area. From inferential statistics, multiple linear regression model analysis was used to draw conclusions about the populations based upon observations of sampled returnees and to predict the relationship between explanatory variables (background characteristics of the returnees and the outcome (irregular migration decision)). In all the above cases, the significance levels were tested at the $\alpha = 0.001$ and $\alpha = 0.05$ levels. Furthermore, the authors were committed to meet the ethical standards set forth by the APA from inception to completion of the study to protect the identity of the subjects.

4.4. Results and Discussions

This section presents the findings of the study. In the first sub-section, general profiles of the study population are addressed. In the second sub-section, determinants of irregular cross-border migration decision are presented. In the third sub-section, summary of push factors in irregular cross-border migration decision is made. In the fourth sub-section, the results of analysis of the multiple linear regression models for each extracted factor and about the relationship between explanatory variables and the outcome are addressed.

Descriptive Analysis

4.4.1. General Profile of the Returnees

As vividly depicted in Table 4-2 the number of female returnees assumes higher figure than their male counter parts with percentage of 83.8%. This may indicate that majority of the migratory or returnee group is female-dominated in Ethiopian context.

Table 4-2: Demographic profile of the respondents

Characteristics	N	%
Gender		
Male	65	16.2
Female	337	83.8
Marital status		
Married		35.1
Unmarried		51.2
Divorced		11.2
Widower/Widow		2.5
Educational level		
First Degree	15	3.7
Diploma	31	7.7
Certificate	21	5.2
Secondary School Education	189	47.0
Primary School Education	146	36.3

Source: Authors tabulation based on survey data (2021)

Thus, unlike the foregoing finding of the study, the previous studies conducted by Elbadawy (2010) and Songsore (2003) found that males were more likely to migrate abroad compared to females that seems contradict with the above one. With regard to marital status, relatively as a whole the share of unmarried respondents outweighs the share of the rest respondents found in other marital status and account for 51.2%; and the married ones held the second position with percentage of 35.1%.

As evident from the results of analysis, as a whole, about 47% of the returnees were attending secondary school education. This could limit returnees' access to information

and technology to respond to knowledge-based vibrant economy of the modern era. The highest level of education attained by the Ghanaian returnees was senior secondary school education, with majority of them completing junior high school (Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017). The percentages of returnees who had first Degree and Master's Degree were found to be only about 3.5% and 0.2% respectively. This may show that most returnees are deprived of getting further education, which may in turn have a powerful negative impact in the world of work to make a living.

Residence area by sub-city and area category

Figure 4-1 dealt with residence area of the returnees by sub-city and area category. Accordingly, majority of the respondents resided in the sub-cities Kolfe Keraniyo (39.8%) and Akaki Kaliti (26.9%). Moreover, as evident from Figure 4-1, the percentages of sampled returnees from inner-urban and peri-urban areas were found to be 33.3% and 66.7% respectively.

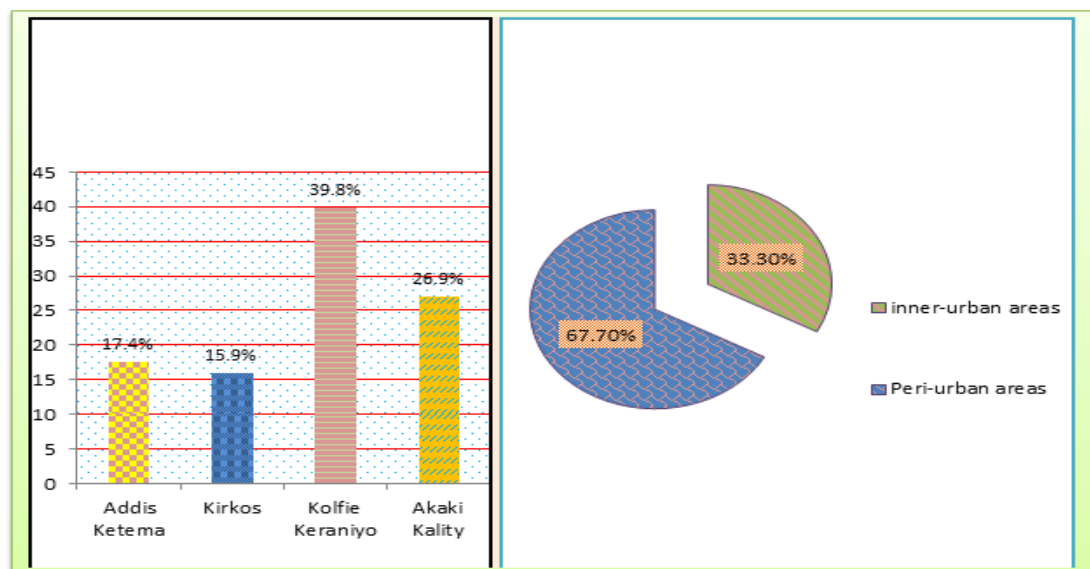


Fig. 4-1: The residence areas of the returnees by sub-city and area category

This in turn portrays that a vast majority of the returnees were from the two peri-urban areas of Addis Ababa and they are being progressively absorbed into the urban fabric and are dependent both on non-agricultural and agricultural activities.

Occupation of the returnees at abroad

As illustrated in Table 4-2 domestic work is the most predominant occupation category in which returnees were being engaged in their respective destinations. Numerically speaking, 76.4% of the respondents were engaged in domestic work when they were at abroad. Moreover, as it is observed from the given data, company employment as an occupation was the most suffered occupation and the percentage of migrants who were working as employee at abroad was below 1.0% which directly related with their education levels in the study area as a whole.

Table 4-3: Occupation of the respondents at abroad

Major categorized occupations	Responses	
	N	%
All-round Worker	8	2
Cleaner	19	4.7
Daily laborer	21	5.2
Employee/Company Worker	4	1.0
Domestic Worker	307	76.4
Driver	11	2.7
Garage Worker	2	0.5
Guard	11	2.7
No job	4	1.0
Shepherd	6	1.5
Petty Trader/Trader	8	2.0
Private Work (House rent, etc.)	-	-
Student	-	-
Broker	-	-
Tailor	-	-
Total	402	100.0%

Source: Authors tabulation based on field survey data (2021)

4.4.2. Determinants of Irregular Cross-Border Migration Decision

As shown in Table 4-4, the study returnees reported that: the presence of job opportunity in more affluent society (mean = 4.24, standard deviation (SD) = 0.909), better income and prospects for wealth creation and building assets (mean = 4.17, SD = 0.980), pressures of individuals who returned back from migration (mean = 3.33, SD =

1.562), lure words and pressures of brokers (mean = 3.22, SD = 1.603), and presence of sustainable food security at abroad (mean = 3.00, SD = 1.396) were attached the greatest values above mean score and found as the most five important motivating factors that exert a powerful influence on Ethiopian emigrants to migrate irregularly to abroad.

Table 4-4: Descriptive statistics on pull factors

Pull factors	Mean	Standard Deviation
Family reunification at abroad	2.24	1.205
Independence and freedom available at abroad	2.31	1.231
Strong social cohesion found at abroad	2.27	1.167
Presence of sustainable food security at abroad	3.00	1.396
Presence of job opportunity in more affluent society	4.24	.909
Better income and prospects for wealth creation/building assets	4.17	.980
Pursuit of better and special education at abroad	2.48	1.252
Accessibility to urban services (including health care, transport, etc.)	2.66	1.321
Pressures of individuals who returned back from migration	3.33	1.562
Lure words and pressures of brokers	3.22	1.603
Overall average	2.99	1.26

Source: Own tabulation based on field survey (2021)

On the contrary, in the view of returnee respondents among the pull factors indicated (Table 4-4) rated below the mean score as follows: family reunification at abroad, independence and freedom available at abroad, strong social cohesion found at abroad, and pursuit of better and special education at abroad with mean value and standard deviation 2.24 and 1.205; 2.27 and 1.167; 2.31 and 1.231; and 2.48 and 1.252 in ascending order respectively as the four least motivating factors that influence Ethiopian emigrants to plan to move away in irregular situations.

However, as a whole all variables associated with pull factors were rated above the mean score on a five-point Likert Scale (overall average = 2.99, SD = 1.26), which in turn may imply that all the pull factors had substantially contributed to irregular cross-border migration in Ethiopia. Furthermore, qualitative data were collected via Key Informant

Interviews (KIIs), Focus Group Discussions (FGDs), and Semi-Structured Interviews (SSIs). Returnees, key officials, core actors, and experts were asked about their views concerning the factors that were accounted and attracted the Ethiopians to migrate irregularly to abroad. The results are presented hereunder. The factors motivating Ethiopians to move away are tremendous in number and the cumulative effect of both socio-cultural and economic factors.

In connection with this, one of the key informants confirmed that:

...Well, I think Ethiopians move to different parts of the world in the hope of improving their own and their respective family life. The main reason for choosing irregular migration is that potential migrants think the cost of irregular migration will be lower than the regular one. However, the consequences are not incalculable. They are likely to become entangled with the number of difficulties upon their arrival: ill-treated in inhumane manner, at risk of deportation and suffer its consequences, persecution and discrimination just to mention a few (KII₆).

Another key informant noted factors attracting Ethiopians to move to abroad in irregular situation as follows:

The decision to migrate irregularly in Ethiopia mostly to earn better money to improve their living standard to some extent as there is differential of wages between origin and affluent nations (the latter is better than the former in wages). Though my knowledge in the area of irregular migration is poor and limited as to me the prime motivating factors for irregular migration is economic problem of the nations. Of course some others may migrate due to non-economic factors, but they are very few in number. For instance, others may migrate to join their respective family found at abroad (KII₅).

Analyses of key informant interview data indicate that Ethiopian migrants more attracted by economic factors to build assets in affluent nations than the non-economic factors to migrate in irregular situation.

Moreover, during the FGDs, participants rightly expressed the situations as follows:

...in our country including Addis Ababa, pull factors for irregular cross-border migration may vary in degree and in kind. Some individuals may be attracted solely by lucrative job conditions prevail in the destination regions, others may migrate to get in touch with their family members living abroad, and few others may have their own hidden agenda including conducive political factors at abroad to exercise democracy whereby the origin is featured by less political autonomy. In Ethiopia, whatever factors driving international migration particularly the irregular ones, the potential migrants are not from the well-to-do families rather they are from the poor family. In this respect, the poor are governed by the principle “do or die”. Generally speaking, because of the aforementioned reasons and others the pull factors for irregular migration can be viewed as an amalgam of both social, economic, political conditions in Ethiopia including Addis Ababa, though the economic conditions outweighs by far the other pull factors as the poor are governed by the aforementioned principle to escape from poverty (FGD₃).

This implies that the result obtained from qualitative summary of the respondents’ perception on the pull factors accounted for emigrants to migrate irregularly also strengthen data obtained from quantitative analysis. That is, participants of FGDs disclosed that the prevailing economic conditions in the destination areas are the predominant pull factors amongst others, which in turn substantiate data obtained from quantitative analysis. Furthermore, participants of SSIs shared the same ideas and reported the following:

....The prime propelling forces of irregular cross-border migration are various and often differ from one person to another. It is a complex phenomenon that is often driven by social, economic, cultural and other factors. There are, however, many factors that tend to be common to such migration as a whole. Some of the common factors are associated with destination area conditions that induce people to migrate in search of better conditions: better

jobs and wages, better access to labor market, political stability, and the like. This is without underestimating the common conditions like absence job opportunities, unemployment and the like that motivate Ethiopians to move away from their native land. In addition, success stories could be considered as pull factor for those who keep on hearing and looking to the success of those who have already migrated (SSR).

Generally speaking, the results obtained from qualitative data also strengthen data obtained from quantitative analysis.

Push factors of irregular cross-border migration decision

As noted in Table 4-5, the overall average of the returnees' responses for the factors that drifted them to migrate irregularly were (overall average = 3.46, and standard deviation (SD) = 1.22), which may reflect that majority of the respondents rated the items between the ranges of agree and strongly agree.

Table 4-5: Descriptive statistics on push factors

Push factors	Mean	Standard Deviation
A restriction in human freedom and a violation of human rights	2.87	1.407
Intense political instability and conflict	2.81	1.438
Family dysfunctions and breakage	2.71	1.372
Absence of adequate urban services and infrastructures	3.20	1.381
Peer pressures	3.09	1.497
Lack of employment opportunity	4.27	.835
Low wages and other associated payments	4.24	.838
The growing of urban poverty	3.96	1.099
The prevalence of food insecurity	3.98	1.083
Overall average	3.46	1.22

Source: Own construction based on field survey data (2021)

That is, the mean score is above an average on five-point Likert scale. In the views of the returnees, the three most dominant component factors which drive them out of their origin country were found to be: lack of employment opportunity, low wages and other

associated payments, and the prevalence of food insecurity with the mean values of 4.27, 4.24, and 3.98 in descending order respectively. This implies that the aforementioned push factors were rated above the mean scale and majority of the responses for the items were falling between agree and strongly agree, i.e. between high and very high. A final observation from Table 4-5 is that the respondents of the study clearly held more intense attitudes to the conditions that repelled them to leave their origin country to move abroad in irregular manner and rated all the associated variables above an average on five-point Likert scale.

Moreover, FGDs were also held with a team constitutes returnees and various core actors about push factors forcing Ethiopians to migrate in irregular manner. Accordingly, they forwarded their ideas as follows:

---To tell you the truth, in Ethiopia, there were and/are repelling factors that affect individuals to migration irregularly being exposed to an immense hardship on their way to arrive the destination and even after arrival. Though, to mention all push factors is difficult, in Ethiopia, as a result of low job opportunities or poor living conditions, migration is often seen as a form of household income diversification. The prevalence of poverty in general and urban poverty in particular is another bottleneck in our country for such kind of migration. In addition, disagreement between family members, very low income of family, and quest for a better future to improve their living conditions are also some major push factors. The other is the growing of unemployment rate resulted in unable to be absorbed into labor market/world of work (SSE).

As majority of the participants reported, Ethiopian emigrants left their country and migrated to abroad due to: the prevalence of unemployment, urban poverty, and poor living conditions in the origin country amongst others, which in turn may indicate that the poor economic conditions in the origin country had sound effect in drifting Ethiopians to migrate irregularly to find work and to improve their economic situations and their family. Similarly, Düvell (2011) noted that the key pushing forces of the supply of illegal

migration are poverty, limited opportunities at homeland, lack of education, economic imbalances, unstable social and political conditions, and war amongst others. This indicates that the factors highlighted by the participants of the study are in harmony and congruent with the finding of the aforementioned author.

4.4.3. Summary: Push Factors of Irregular Cross-Border Migration

As depicted in Figure 4-3, majority of the returnee respondents concurred that above all economic factors took the most leading share in compelling the returnees to migrate irregularly with the percentage 90%, while social factors held the second position with the percentage of 3.7%. Moreover, the summary of responses obtained from qualitative data via (KIIs, FGDs, and SSIs) is harmonized with the above findings and majority of the participants shared the above ideas and reported that many Ethiopians do have a plan to make migration a career due to low job opportunities and poor living conditions in Ethiopia including Addis Ababa to scale-up their means of generating incomes and ultimately to improve their life and their respective family found at origin country. They also highlighted that dissatisfaction with the current living conditions is crucially one of the most important variables that make migration a solution to avert the situation.

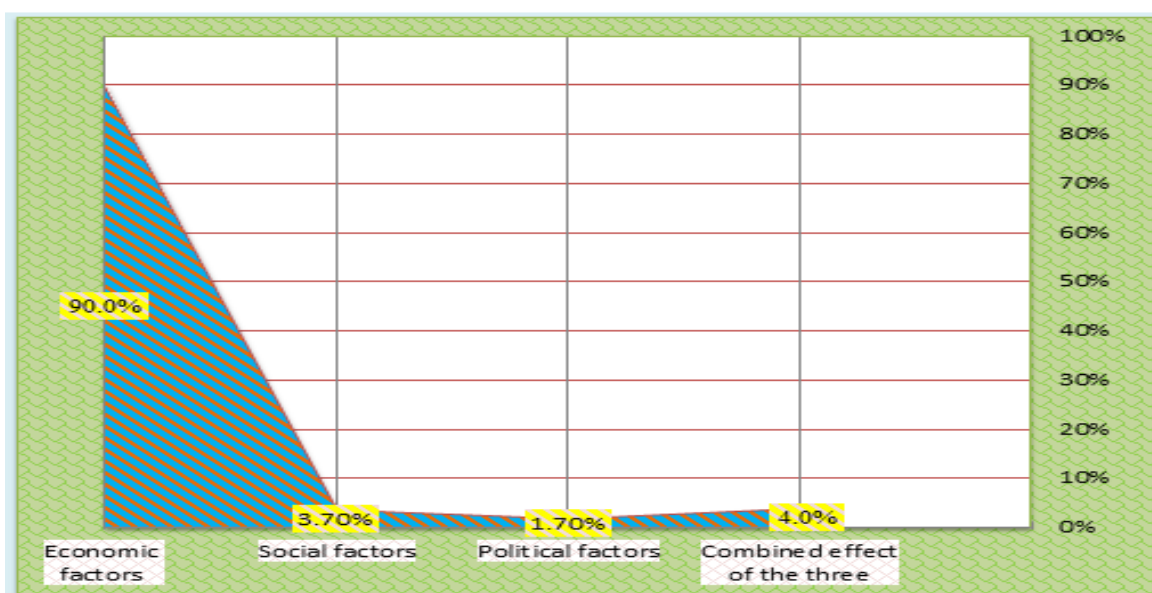


Fig. 4-2: Summary of responses on most underlying pushing factors

Predictive Analysis

Principal Component Analysis on Pull-Push Factors

Prior to plunging into conducting factor analysis, the sample adequacy was tested by employing Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test to check the suitability of data for structure detection and factor analysis (Table 4-5). Measuring Sampling Adequacy (MSA) is at the center of scientific investigation as insufficient inter-correlations among variables can lead to unusable exploratory factor analysis (EFA) results (Chan & Idris, 2017; Hair *et al.*, 2010); and it is good practice to obtain the MSA to assess sampling adequacy prior to performing an EFA (Pallant, 2010/2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Following MSA, factor analysis was undertaken to identify sets of variables that are tapping the underlying phenomenon as it examines the patterns of correlations among a set of variables. As evident from Table 4-5, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure verified the goodness-of-fit of the variables for the factor analysis with a KMO equal to 0.798, which is rated as 'meritorious' as the minimum acceptable value for KMO is 0.60 (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Field, 2009).

Table 4-6: Rotated component matrix on pull factors

Pull factors	Components		
	Factor 1: Socio-cultural factors	Factor 2: Economic factors	Factor 3: Human pressures
Family reunification at abroad	.715		
Independence and freedom available at abroad	.901		
Strong social cohesion found at abroad	.868		
Presence of sustainable food security at abroad	.589		
Pursuit of better and special education at abroad	.731		
Accessibility to urban services (including health care, transport, etc.)	.788		
Presence of job opportunity in more affluent society		.835	
Better income and prospects for wealth creation/building assets		.865	
Pressures of individuals who returned back from migration			.884
Lure words and pressures of brokers			.895
Total variance extracted (%)	82.585	10.275	3.423

Only variables with factor loadings of more than 0.50 and eigenvalues greater than one were retained;
KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.

Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2_{(55)} = 2300.921$, $p = 0.000$) indicated that relations between variables were sufficiently large for PCA as significance level for Bartlett's test below 0.05 suggest that there is substantial correlation in the data (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Three distinct factors were yielded and extracted which explained about the total percentage variance extracted (96%) on the pull factors accounted for and attracted the returnees to migrate irregularly to abroad. The first factor (*factor 1*) that constitutes six variables is related to an emigrant's personal characteristics and behavior, and may also have positive contribution to migrate irregularly. Hence, it is labelled as *socio-cultural factors*. The second factor (*factor 2*) deals with the presence of job opportunity in more affluent society, and better income and prospects for wealth creation may seem to directly relate to an individual emigrant resource endowments and asset accumulation, therefore, referred to as *economic factors*. The third factor (*factor 3*) may seem to indicate the overall human motivators of irregular migration, thus, denominated as *human pressures*.

A final observation is about the variable with the strongest association to the underlying latent variable. Accordingly, the result of factor analysis portrays that the first factor (socio-cultural factors) as a whole explains most of the variance in pull factors of Ethiopian emigrants (83%), which had by far the highest percentage variance extracted than the rest three resulting factors. Furthermore, as vividly observed from Table 4-5, all factors are positively contributing and lure the emigrants to the destination areas in irregular manner in Ethiopian contexts. The next section presents some major push factors predicting irregular migration decision in Ethiopian contexts.

Rotated component matrix on push factors

Table 4-7 reveals the results of the KMO and Bartlett's tests on push factors. Accordingly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure demonstrated the goodness-of-fit of the variables for the factor analysis with a KMO equal to 0.821, which is rated as 'meritorious' as the minimum acceptable value for KMO is 0.60 (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Field, 2009). Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2_{(45)} = 1572.33$, $p = 0.000$) indicated the inter-

correlations among variables were generally considered adequate for performing a factor analysis as the significance level for Bartlett's test below 0.05 suggest that there is substantial correlation in the data (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010/2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As clearly indicated in Table 4-8, two distinct factors were extracted which explained about the total percentage variance extracted (97%) on the push factors that compelled the returnees to migrate irregularly to abroad.

The first factor (*factor 1*) that comprises five variables that seem to signify the combination or interaction of social and political conditions that were pervasive in a country, therefore, labeled as *socio-political factors* at homeland with the total percentage variance extracted (82%). The second factor (*factor 2*) that constitutes four variables in one or another, they seem to be associated with the economic activities and systems of a country, hence, named as *economic factors* at homeland. Moreover, the result of factor analysis clearly indicates that the first factor (socio-political factors at homeland) explains most of the total percentage variance extracted on push factors (82%) and outweighs their counter resulting factors.

Table 4-7: Results of rotated component matrix on push factors

Push factors	Component	
	Factor 1: Socio-political factors at homeland	Factor 2: Economic factors at homeland
A restriction in human freedom and a violation of human rights	.874	
Intense political instability and conflict	.819	
Family dysfunctions and breakage	.797	
Absence of adequate urban services and infrastructures	.792	
Peer pressures	.773	
Lack of employment opportunity		.808
Low wages and other associated payments		.757
The growing of urban poverty		.687
The prevalence of food insecurity		.663
Total variance extracted (%)	81.693	15.769
$\chi^2_{(45)} = 1572.33, p = 0.000; KMO = .821$		

Only variables with factor loadings of more than 0.50 and eigenvalues greater than one were retained; KMO = Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy.

Finally, to identify one or more key-factors that explain why the study population decided to migrate irregularly, a multiple linear regression analysis was performed with the extracted scores of (*pull-push factors*). The next section addresses the results of analysis of the multiple linear regression models for each extracted factor and about the relationship between explanatory variables and the outcome.

4.4.4. Multiple Linear Regression Model Predicting the Likelihood of Irregular Migration Decision

As revealed in Table 4-8, irregular cross-border migration decision is significantly affected positively with all five extracted factors included in regression analysis at 0.1% and 5% probability levels ($p = 0.000 < 0.001$ and 0.05). In other words, all five extracted factors (three from pull factors: socio-cultural factors, economic factors, human pressures, and two from push factors: socio-political factors at homeland and economic factors at homeland) had a significant positive impacts on irregular cross-border migration decision. Moreover, results revealed that amongst the three key explanatory variables extracted from pull factors the effect of socio-cultural factors at destination areas had the strongest effect in making decision to emigrate with an unstandardized coefficient of (5.926), followed by economic factors at destination areas with an unstandardized coefficient of (2.723), whereas among the two key explanatory variables extracted from push factors socio-political factors at homeland had a strong compelling effect and followed by economic factors at homeland with unstandardized coefficients of (5.011 and 4.555) respectively.

Furthermore, the results of analysis uncovered the relative importance of the factors for migration decision. Accordingly, based on the results of beta values, amongst pull factors, socio-cultural factors at abroad (Beta = .403) are the most important factors motivating irregular cross-border migration decision followed by socio-political factors at homeland (Beta = .382) and economic factors at homeland (Beta = .224) (Table 4-8). The above results in turn may imply that, nevertheless the decision to migrate can rely on different parameters and taken within a broader political, economic, social and

environmental context, influenced by situations in both the country of origin and the country of destination, in this study the above findings concurred that the decision to migrate is relatively more influenced by conditions in the destination areas than conditions in the origin country.

On examining the contributions of made by the independent variables in the model, it was found that socio-cultural factors at abroad made the greatest contribution with the values of ($\beta = .403$, $p = 0.000 < 0.001$); which is followed by socio-political factors and economic factors at homeland with the values of ($\beta = .381$, $p = .000 < 0.001$; and $\beta = .224$, $p = .000 < 0.001$) respectively.

Table 4-8: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis

Constant and key extracted factors	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	β	Std.Error	Beta	t	p-value
Constant	.906	.959		.944	.346
Pull factors					
Socio-cultural factors	5.926	.189	.403	31.354	.000***
Economic factors	2.723	.153	.181	17.782	.000***
Human pressures	2.077	.134	.210	15.501	.000***
Push factors					
Socio-political factors at homeland	5.011	.199	.382	25.156	.000***
Economic factors at homeland	4.555	.204	.224	22.315	.000***
Model summary: $R = .982^a$; Adjusted R square = .964; and Std. Error of the Estimate = 2.823.					

*** P-value significant both at 0.001 and 0.05; only variables with factor loadings of more than 0.50 and Eigenvalues greater than one were retained.

In the above model, the coefficients of determination (R square/adjusted R square $R^2 = 0.964$) predicts that 96.4% irregular cross-border migration decision was explained by

the aforementioned five key extracted variables; and only 3.6% decision is due to factors that are not taken into account in the analysis.

As self-evident from Table 4-8, the results are best shown by the following multiple linear regression equation:

$$Y = .906 + 5.926X_1 + 2.723X_2 + 2.077X_3 + 5.011X_4 + 4.555X_5.$$

Where: Y = Irregular cross-border migration decision

X_1 = Socio-cultural factors at abroad

X_2 = Economic factors at abroad

X_3 = Human factors or pressures

X_4 = Socio-political factors at homeland

X_5 = Economic factors at homeland.

The other most interesting findings were the relative weights and strengths of the composite pull-push variables. Thus, conclusion would be drawn that both pull and push factors had statistically significant positive impacts on irregular cross-border migration decision in Ethiopian context at large and Addis Ababa in particular.

4.5. Conclusions and Recommendations

The study was endeavoring to eloquently shed light on the relative weights of the major pull-push factors in predicting irregular cross-border migration decision in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The study was built on the discourse of “*pull-push model*” of migration as the main framework to get the general picture of the phenomenon. All relevant assumptions of the multilinear regression analysis were examined to perform the predictive analysis. Accordingly, the standard model’s degree of predicting the dependent model was deemed to be $R = .982$, while the model’s degree of explaining the variance in the dependent variable was $R^2 = .964$, which indicates that the model predicts the dependent variable very well.

The results of multivariate regression analysis have demonstrated that both the conditions in the origin country as well as in the destination areas jointly had sound positive impact for Ethiopians to make decision to emigrate in irregular manner. In a

nutshell, conclusions drawn from the present study is two-fold: irregular cross-border migration decision is found to be increasingly a matter of decision making encompassing a set of intertwined propelling forces found in the origin and destination areas, above all the prevailing economic conditions in the destination areas are the most predominant pull factors amongst others; and the overall results of the study were not amplifying and quantifying a single existing theory of migration instead an amalgam of a number of theories of migration as a whole. In other words, the aforementioned results of the present study do not fully confirm the hypothesis of any single theory on migration decision.

Broadly speaking, in Ethiopia, numerous overarching pull-push factors have contributed to make irregular migration decision among the Ethiopians, including the favourable economic conditions in the destination areas, insufficient access to social services, political participation, and economic opportunities for the urban poor in the study area. To this effect, the findings of the study provide the following specific policy recommendations to redress and curb down the problems revealed in the study: the Ethiopian government and development actors such as IOM, Oxfam, and ILO working on the issue under consideration should work towards bolstering regular pathways and combatting the irregular ones via reforming the immigration laws and implementing regularization of programmes; and the Ethiopian government and humanitarian organizations working on the area of international migration need to be woven together through multilateral cooperation and coordinated efforts to promote sustainable and resilient urban livelihoods as an important part of the global response to the current migration challenges of the globe.

Moreover, long-lasting efforts should be directed towards maximizing access of the urban poor to economic opportunities, social services, and political participation to reverse and to abate their outward-thinking that push them into irregular migration. Generally, there is a need to establish comprehensive, rights-based approaches that address the root causes of irregular migration in Ethiopia, nevertheless, there is no *“one-size-fits-all”* policy to curb irregular migration.

Chapter Five: Understanding Factors Affecting Return Migration Decisions among Ethiopian International Returnees in Addis Ababa

Abstract: *The study is an endeavor made to unveil the determinants of return migration decision in Addis Ababa. A cross-sectional study was conducted on a sample of 402 returnees selected from (two inner-urban and two peri-urban areas) of Addis Ababa using a simple random sampling method. The qualitative data were generated using key informant interviews and focus group discussions. A “Concurrent Embedded Design Approach” was used as the primary approach of the study. Chi-square test, Principal Component Analysis, and binary logistic regression model (BLRM) were employed to analyze the data. Saudi Arabia, Libanos, and United Arab Emirates were accounted for about 73.4% of the returnees and were found to be the three top origins of Ethiopian return migrants in the study area. Findings revealed that the rise of irregular migrants deprived of basic human rights, the problem of homelessness, and political instability in the host country were amongst destination area factors that had positive statistical significant positive impact in making return migration decision among the returnees with ($p < 0.001$). The chi-square test indicated that there is no statistically significant relationship between forced and voluntary return modalities and the sex, roles in the family, religion, and educational status of the returnees at the 0.05 level of significance. Results of BLRM depicted that destination area factors had more substantial positive impact with the odds ratio of 85.70 than homeland and personal factors with the odds ratio of 25.58, and 9.12 respectively, despite, all the three factors have a positive effect on likelihood of making return migration decision at the ($P < 0.001$) level of significance. Meanwhile, the findings of the present study illuminated that Ethiopian emigrants that constitute a significant number were subjected to coercion in the destination areas to evacuate instead of making free choice to return, which inexorably could lead the returnees to unsustainable livelihoods. Therefore, targeted interventions are required to address the multiple burden of return migration via reforming the immigration laws and implementing regularization of programmes and boosting voluntary returns and thereby building sustainable livelihoods of the returnees.*

Based on:

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2022). Determinants of return migration decision among Ethiopian international returnees of Addis Ababa: Implications for sustainable livelihoods of returnees. *Journal of Identity and Migration Studies* (www.jims.e-migration.ro), 17 (1):45-66, 2023.

5.1. Introduction

These days, in our globe, return migration remains a demanding agenda. Currently, in the migration literature, the subject of return migration has been receiving growing attention (Hahn-Schaur & Segeš-Frelak, 2019; Rodriguez & Egea, 2006; Cassarino, 2004). Organization for Economic Co-operation (OECD) (2017), International Labour Organization (ILO) (2019), and Debnath (2016) vividly indicate that globally, return migration has become one of the priority agendas of increasing number of countries. Return migration is common, albeit our knowledge of its extent is hampered by lack of data, and whether those exiting return to their home country or move on to another destination is rarely known (Global Migration Group (GMG), 2017; Wahba, 2014; Zenou & Wahba, 2012).

In Ethiopia, though exact figures are not yet at hand, available evidences reveal an increase in return migration and the country is hallmarked by frequent international return migration. Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs of Ethiopia (MoLSA) (2021), Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs of Addis Ababa (BoLSA) (2021), and Kuschminder (2013) denote that over the past decades, return migration has increased to Ethiopia. On the one hand, a growing number of studies indicate that many of the returnees continued to grapple with: difficulty of accessing jobs and other services, food and health complications, and loss of personal belongings. In addition, they suffer from negative perceptions and poor relationships, family separation, economic hardship that have adverse effects on immigrant families, communities, and countries of origin in general (Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017).

Returnees' previous social network has either been lost or damaged, they are obliged to rebuild their social network and develop their means of livelihood in a new setting (Jacobsen, 2014; ILO, 2013). Return migration is often viewed as a project of homecomings; however, homelands do not always provide a welcoming embrace instead experiences of return often solicit feelings of disillusionment and disrupt (Minaye & Zeleke, 2017; Markowitz & Stefansson, 2004). Undoubtedly, the foregoing

discussions demonstrate that return migration is not always a process of simply '*going-home*'. Rather the process is entangled with severe obstacles. In this respect, despite, long-standing efforts accorded by Ethiopian government to mitigate irregular fluxes and to reintegrate the returnees, return migration still remains a predominant phenomenon and the trends are expected to present in the foreseeable future in the country. On the other hand, most studies that were conducted in Ethiopia often tended to omit crucial factors associated with origin and destination countries and personal attributes. Moreover, as far as literature on determinants of return migration decision is concerned, the issue remains unvoiced in Ethiopia. Furthermore, in Ethiopian context it increasingly found difficult to draw on a variety of development interventions to curtail the resultant colossal challenges of return migration. In sum, there is a lack-of-on the ground information and the issue has become blurred in Ethiopia.

Therefore, the urgency of the issue for scientific investigation at a propitious moment is open and relevant. Accordingly, the main intent of the study is to highlight the determinant factors and panorama of return migration decision in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. In the study, the following three research questions were set and answers to them were explored.

- 1) *Why did Ethiopian migrants come back to homeland in the study area?*
- 2) *Is there any significant difference among the relative weights of the major pull-push factors in predicting return migration decision?*
- 3) *To what extent do major demographic variables (socio-cultural characteristics and economic characteristics of the returnees) affecting the modality of returns?*

5.2. Conceptual and Theoretical Frameworks of the Study

5.2.1. Conceptualization of Return Migration

An extensive literature has underlined that return migration is a relatively new area in migration studies. International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2019), Battistella (2018), and Schüring *et al.* (2017) invariably have concluded that the concept has lacked a universally accepted definition; and it is the concept entangled with conceptual

difficulties and has even less consensus unanimity (Battistella, 2018; Kuschminder, 2017). The lack of a clear definition generates confusion on the assessment and estimates of the size of return migration. The absence of administrative tools to register returning migrants means that in many countries the number of returnees is unknown (GMG, 2017); return migration is often badly understood and even more badly planned, and its dimensions and modalities are often poorly recognized (Battistella, 2018).

Return migration has historically been thought as a specific moment of migration cycle, however, in reality, return constitutes a specific moment of the migration process and it is often followed by repeated migration as people lead increasingly fluid lives of mobility (Battistella, 2018; Riiskjaer & Nielsson, 2008; Stefannson, 2004). An alternative definition that does not imply a resettling is given. Return migration may be defined as the process whereby people return to their country or place of origin after a significant period in another country or region (King, 2000); nonetheless, King does not clearly indicate what a '*significant period*' entails as suggested by Ammassari (2009).

There is heated dispute as to how long one has to be abroad to be considered a return migrant. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) (1998) has illuminated that a return migrant is an individual who has been abroad for at least 12 months. Alternatively, there is also the argument that a period of three months can also be viewed as significant enough to be considered as a migration episode, especially in terms of circular or seasonal migration. Return is a catch-all term which can apply to a whole range of situations, and in general, it refers to the return of migrant workers from a country of destination back to the country of origin (ILO, 2019); return migrants are individuals returning to their homelands after having been international migrants (short-term or long-term) in another country and who are intending to stay in their own country for at least a year (IOM, 2004; UNDESA, 1998).

While this definition indicates the home country with nationality, some argue that it is by far better to use birth place as the criterion for identifying returning migrants since those who were naturalized in destination areas may otherwise be neglected (Dumont

& Spielvogel, 2008). Migrants may also move to a third country or countries before returning to homeland. It is the process of going back to the point of departure, which could be within the boundaries of the origin country or between host and origin countries which could be forced or voluntary, assisted or spontaneous (ILO, 2019; IOM, 2011). In the views of IOM (2019), return in general sense, is considered as the process of going back to the point of departure; and *'return is no longer viewed as the end of the migration cycle; rather, it constitutes one stage in the migration process'* (Cassarino, 2004:28).

Generally, it is evident that definitions of return migration are not necessarily straightforward and must remain broad to include the multiple categories of return migrants as a whole. Thus, the authors would argue that a basic definition provided by King is best suited to return migration, and that scholars should define a *'significant period'* for their work. Accordingly, in this study, return migration is considered as the process whereby people return to their country of origin after a significant period in another region (King, 2000) wherein a significant period is considered as a minimum of one year stay at abroad as recommended (IOM, 2004; UNDESA, 1998).

To this point, the concept of return migration has been presented in terms of a wide range of situations including a point of departure. In this study, only push-pull model of migration was used as framework of investigation due the following two main reasons: factors associated with return migration decision are multitude in nature and make the study unmanageable; and the model is the most widely used for the study of international migration including return migration decision by scholars. Moreover, as noted earlier, the *'push-pull model'* introduced by Everett Lee is the most commonly known framework (Hagen-Zanker, 2008; de Haas, 2007); and the decision to return to the country of origin is influenced by factors similar to those affecting the decision to emigrate (Schüring *et al.*, 2017) (chapter two under section 2.3.1).

In short, the present study capitalizes that the decision to return can heavily rely on situations in the country of origin, destination, and personal factors as the main framework of investigation for their practical significance to broaden better

understandings of the major interactive elements interwoven with the issue. Moreover, we have argued that these three factors singly and/or collectively may influence return migration decision among Ethiopian returnees in the study area.

5.2.2. Theoretical Framework

In the modern literature, there are a number of theories and versions of theories associated with migration in general and return migration in particular. As the result considerable debates exist in the scientific community about the definitions of “*theories of migration*” (Wimalaratana, 2017; Drbohlav, 2011). It is evident that, research into migration conceptually as well as empirically is challenging due to the complexity and diversity of the area covered by international migration (King, 2012; Battistella, 2012; Kurekova, 2010); the discipline has been challenged by a number of factors inherent to its subject matter when the study of migration has advanced (Kurekova, 2010; King, 2012). In the same vein, some scholars and organizations vindicated that an immense number of variables are at the heart of a variety of theories of migration to deal with the dynamics, degree and factors of return migration. For instance, Naveed, Bhatti, and Ullah (2017) and International Centre for Local Democracy (ICLD) (2018) argue that some theories discuss the economic aspects of the return migration at individual and household levels (neo-classical and new economics of labor migration approaches), whereas others explore the micro and macro aspects of return migration (transnationalism, structuralism and social network theory).

All the aspects of international migration could not be covered only by a theory of migration (Wimalaratana, 2017; Todaro & Smith, 2006; Faist, 2000); in migration arena, an all-encompassing and all-explaining theory of migration will never arise (de Haas, 2011; Castles & Miller, 2009). Furthermore, bringing together the existing theoretical lines of thinking help us to advance our conceptual and empirical understanding of migration (de Haas, 2010, 2007; World Bank, 2007; Skeldon, 1997).

Generally, the above discussions demonstrate that there is no single theory that captures the full complexity of migration, and nor will there ever be. Moreover, a range

of individual, household, community and national factors influence return migration decision in which no single theory can be able to consider broader factors and provide satisfactory all-embracing explanations in Ethiopian context. To this effect, amongst a bundle of migration theories, only neo-classical economics, structuralism, and the new economics of labour of migration (NELM) were used as framework of investigation for their practical significance to test these theories of migration and ultimately to single out determinants of return migration decision in the study area. The central argument of the neoclassical approach concentrates on wages and predicts a linear relationship between wage differentials and migration flows, and it is stimulated primarily by rational economic considerations under the assumption of full employment (Borjas, 2008; de Haas, 2007; Todaro & Smith, 2006; Bauer & Zimmerman, 1999; Massey *et al.*, 1998, 1993).

The structural approach assumes that the decision to return cannot be analyzed only with perspective of migrant experience, but social and institutional factors of homeland also play an important role (King, 2012; de Haas, 2007; Cassarino, 2004); whereas the centre of argument for NELM is that, migration decisions are not made by isolated individual actors but typically by families or households, and the decisions of migrants are influenced by a comprehensive set of factors, which are shaped by conditions in the home country (King, 2012; Kurekova, 2010; de Haas, 2007). Furthermore, the aforementioned theories are amongst the major theories that underpin many scholarly works and most widely used for the study of international migration including return migration (Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017; Cassarino, 2004); and these theories offer valuable explanations on why people return to their communities of origin (Cassarino, 2004).

5.3. Research Methods

In this section, both dependent and independent variables are operationalized. In the second sub-section, tools of data collection are addressed. Methods of data analysis were followed to present the results.

5.3.1. Operationalization of the Variables

As demonstrated earlier, here the variables are operationalized based on the main constructs of the conceptual framework presented in the preceding sections (Chapter 2 under section 2.5 and Chapter 5 under sub-section 5.2.1). Moreover, the operationalization is situated within the assumption derived from the pull-push model perspective that the decision to return to the country of origin is influenced by factors similar to those affecting the decision to emigrate (Schüring *et al.*, 2017) and the “*push-pull model*” introduced by Everett Lee (Hagen-Zanker, 2008; de Haas, 2007) as discussed earlier while describing factoring determining irregular migration decision in Chapter 4. The variables are divided into two and operationalized as follows.

Dependent Variables

The decision to return migration is the dependent variable for the empirical analysis of the present study.

Independent Variables

The following three sets of factors constitute the independent variables of the study: determinants in the origin country; destination areas; and *personal attributes*. Moreover, it was assumed that the decision to comeback to homeland is a function of multitude factors (socio-economic, cultural, demographic factors and so forth of the returnees). Generally, while return migration decisions are considered as dependent variables, whereas the pull-push factors and different personal attributes are considered as independent variables of the study.

5.3.2. Data Collection Tools

Both qualitative and quantitative data were generated using key informant interviews, focus group discussions, and survey questionnaires. Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were employed as qualitative data collection instruments to gather non-numerical data used to triangulate quantitative data obtained from structured survey questionnaires. The survey questionnaires are amongst the quantitative data collection tools designed to generate numerical data pertinent to

the issue under investigation. The KIIs were held by using open ended questions with key officials of humanitarian and governmental organizations found at various levels (Appendix-3), covering three main topics: 1) the major determinant factors of return migration decision in Addis Ababa, 2) pull factors as determinants of return migration decision, and 3) push factors as determinants of return decision in Addis Ababa.

Moreover, FDGs were held with returnees and core actors found at various levels. Here discussions were made based on focus group discussion leading questions as outlined in the case of KIIs (Appendix-3). As a result, in depth qualitative information related to destination and homeland areas as well as personal returnee associated factors were gathered. Furthermore, quantitative data for the study were obtained from a survey conducted in four sub-cities of Addis Ababa. A cross-sectional survey was conducted on 416 international returnees from July 2021 to August 2021 to investigate factors accounted for and affected return migration decision to comeback from abroad. It is a two-point Likert Scale with two alternative responses (Yes = 1) next to the factor that was accounted for return migration decision and (No = 2) for the factors that wasn't accounted for return migration decision.

The questionnaires had 22 items and three major sections: The first and second sections had 6 and 12 items that dealt with determinants related to the origin and host countries that had attracted and compelled the returnees to return back from abroad respectively. The third section of the questionnaires had about 4 items and concerned with personal factors of the returnees contributing for migration return decision. The survey questionnaires were piloted for clarity; and the computed overall reliability coefficient of the items used to collect data was found to be ($\alpha_{\text{overall}} = 0.84$) at Cronbach alpha level which indicates a very good internal consistency of the items. Correspondingly, most of the items remained with minor modifications in their wordings in accordance with relevant inputs obtained from the respondents. Furthermore, at the end of the section, open-ended items were also included to make the respondents express their ideas regarding the issue (Appendix-4). To make the research more valid

the questionnaires were distributed to the respondents in the presence of the investigator with the help of trained enumerators.

5.3.3. Methods of Data Analysis

The data collected via structured survey questionnaires were analyzed using the latest SPSS (version 22.0) and STATA (version 13.0) computer programmes. A principal component analysis (PCA) was also carried-out to reduce the factors into a smaller set of components and to summarize data so that relationships and patterns can be easily interpreted and understood. PCA is a statistical data reduction technique that helps to reduce data set consisting of a large number of interrelated variables into a smaller set of components (O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013; Abdi & Williams, 2010); used for transforming a set of related variables and regroup variables into a limited set of clusters based on shared variance (Gray, 2017; Field, 2009; Everitt, 2004).

Besides, prior to plunging into conducting factor analysis, the sample adequacy was tested by employing Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test to check the suitability of data for factor analysis on return migration decision. Measuring sampling adequacy (MSA) is at the center of scientific investigation as insufficient inter-correlations among variables can lead to unusable exploratory factor analysis results (Chan & Idris, 2017; Hair *et al.*, 2010); and it is good practice to obtain the MSA to assess sampling adequacy prior to performing an EFA (Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

As a result, the KMO measure demonstrated the goodness-of-fit of the variables for the factor analysis with a KMO equal to 0.851, which is rated as '*meritorious*' as the minimum acceptable value for KMO is 0.60 (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Field, 2009). Bartlett's test of sphericity (Chi-square = 3647.960, df = 231, and P-value = 0.000) indicated the inter-correlations among variables were generally considered adequate for performing a factor analysis as the significance level for Bartlett's test below 0.05 suggest that there is substantial correlation in the data (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). To this end, PCA was conducted as an extraction method on the 22 variables with

varimax rotation method. Nevertheless, existing literature does not provide a definite answer to the question: which cut-offs to use, in the current study, instead of a much more strict and relaxed criterion, the middle position is held and the absolute value of 0.50 was used as it is a more acceptable cut-offs in many fields of study.

Finally, the quantitative data are analyzed using different statistical techniques. Descriptive statistics such as percentages, mean, standard deviation, and median values were used. Amongst inferential statistics binary logistic regression model was employed. The Chi-square test was also administered to see whether sex, roles in the family and educational status of the respondents exhibit significant variation in the modality of returns. In all cases, the existing difference was tested for statistical significance at $\alpha=0.001$, 0.01 and/or 0.05 levels. The qualitative data collected are grouped into different thematic areas and analyses are made based on what appears more frequently in the form of texts and quotes, and incorporated into the analysis of quantitative data to supplement the numerical data.

5.4. Results and Discussions

5.4.1. Modality of returns of the Returnees

The study population reported that they came back to their homeland in forced and voluntary return modalities with the percentages of 59.7% and 40.3% respectively. This depicts that relatively majority of Ethiopian emigrants were subjected to coercion to leave the destination regions instead of making free choice to return to their country of origin.

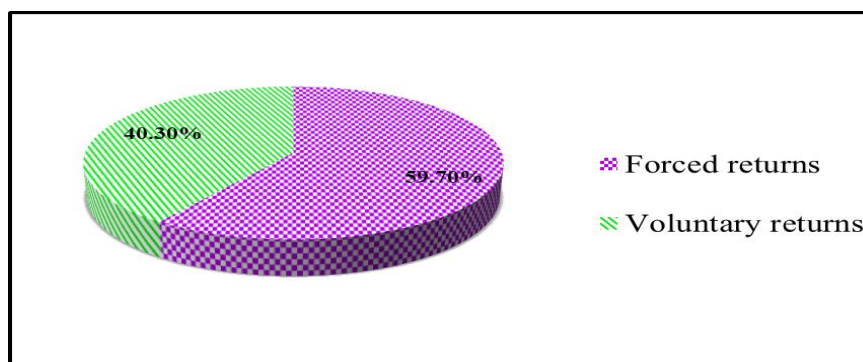


Fig. 5-1: Results of modality of returns among the returnees

5.4.2. Length of stay at abroad and year of return

Figure 5-2 presents about the returnees' length of stay at abroad and year of return to Ethiopia. Accordingly, the results of the analysis indicate that while majority of the returnee respondents (59.2%) stayed from 1-5 years at abroad, only 1.1% of the returnees stayed abroad above 15 years. Moreover, the above figure reveals that the trends and patterns of coming back of Ethiopian returnees from abroad to their native land were no longer declining rather it has been slowly on the rise from before 2008 E.C through 2010 E.C. Furthermore, as can be noted from the given data, 28.9%, 25.6%, and 24.4% of Ethiopian emigrants came back to their homeland in 2010 E.C, 2012 E.C, and 2011 E.C respectively.

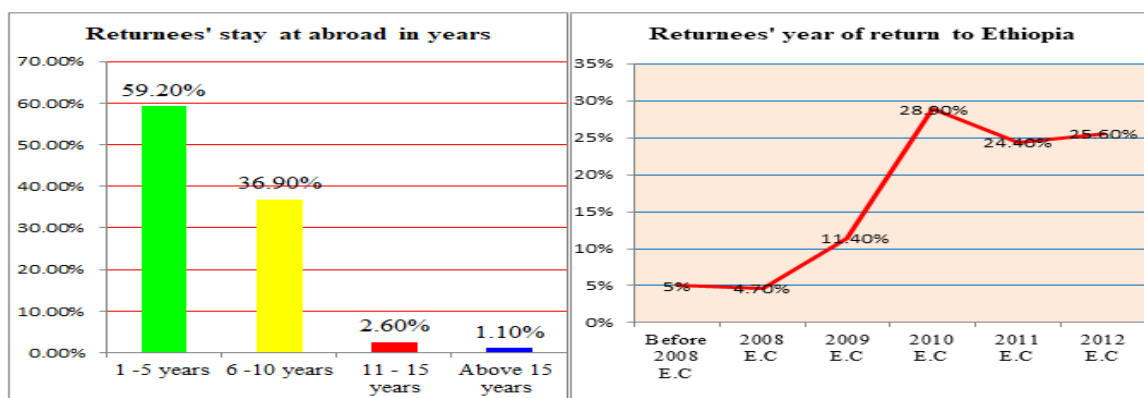


Fig. 5-2: Responses on length of stay at abroad and year of return of the returnees

5.4.3. Country of stay of the returnees

As shown in Table 5-1, nearly all of the Ethiopian international returnees in the study area originated from 12 different countries. The sampled returnees expounded that a vast majority of Ethiopian international returnees were from the three middle-east countries with percentages of Saudi Arabia 139(34.6%), Libanos 101(25.1%), and United Arab Emirates 55 (13.7%), which indicates that these three countries were accounted for about 73.4% of the returnees and were found to be the three top origins of Ethiopian return migrants in the study area.

Table 5-1: Responses of returnees on country of stay

Name stay country	Frequency	%	Cumulative Percentage
	1	.2	.2
Bahrain	9	2.2	2.5
Egypt	1	.2	2.7
France	1	.2	3.0
Jordan	1	.2	3.2
Kuwait	43	10.7	13.9
Libanos	101	25.1	39.1
Libiya	2	.5	39.6
Qatar	31	7.7	47.3
Saudi Arabia	139	34.6	81.8
Sudan	16	4.0	85.8
UAE	55	13.7	99.5
Yemen	2	.5	100.0
Total = 12	402	100.0	

Source: Field survey 2021

The forthcoming section is dealt with the correlation between some demographic characteristics of the returnees and modality of returns and the results of analyses are presented hereunder.

5.4.4. The Effect of Demographic Variables on modality of returns

As noted in the Table 5-2, the number of female returnees assumes high figure in both forced and voluntary return modality with percentages of 84% and 83% respectively. This may indicate that majority of the migratory group in irregular manner is female-dominated in Ethiopian contexts. Another observation from the result of the analysis is to see whether sex, roles in the family, religion, and educational status of the respondents as demographic characteristics exhibit significant variation on return modality using a chi-square test was calculated. The result of the test shows that the critical value of ($\chi^2_{(1)} = 5.991$) for the first two items (sex and roles in the family); and the calculated value of ($\chi^2_{(1)} = 0.050, 3.803, P > 0.05$ in both cases) respectively.

Thus, it would be, therefore, possible to conclude that there is no enough evidence showing the relationship between sex and roles of the returnees in the family and the two modalities of returns. Similarly, as observed from the result of the analyses, regarding the religion and educational status of the returnees, while the calculated values are ($\chi^2_{(4)} = 4.455$; and $\chi^2_{(4)} = 1.814$; $P > 0.05$ in both cases), whereas the critical values are ($\chi^2_{(4)} = 9.49$, $P < 0.05$) respectively.

Table 5-2: The Effect of some demographic variables on modality of returns

Parameters		Type of returns		Chi-Square Tests	
		Forced	Voluntary		
		%	%	χ^2	Sig.(2-tailed)
Sex of the respondents	Male	16	17	.050	.824
	Female	84	83		
Roles in the family	Head Household	49	39	3.803	.051
	Household Member	51	61		
Educational Status	First Degree	4.2	3.1	1.814	.770
	Diploma	8.3	6.8		
	Certificate	5.8	4.3		
	Secondary School	47.5	46.3		
	Primary School	34.2	39.5		
Religion	Orthodox Christian	44.4	46.3	4.455	.348
	Muslim	45.1	38.8		
	Protestant	9.3	14.2		
	Catholic	0.6	0.8		
	Other	0.6	10		

χ^2 = chi-square; sig. (2-tailed) = significance probability (the two-tailed p-value).

This shows that there seems to be no statistically significant relationship between attending education at schools and religion and the modality of returns. In conclusion, the chi-square test indicates that there is no statistically significant relationship between the two modalities of return and the aforementioned characteristics of the returnees at

the 0.05 level of significance; and that the modality of returns and the four demographic characteristics of the returnees are independent variables.

5.4.5. Determinants of Return Migration Decision

This section is concerned with the results of analysis of dominant components that influenced Ethiopian emigrants to return back from destination areas to homeland. The question why do many migrants return to their homelands and willing to give up a comparatively high standard of living in one of the advanced industrialized nations of the world in order to return to a less developed society is the centerpiece of discussion among scholars. Economic, non-economic, socio-cultural factors, as well personal factors highly contribute in decision making for return migration from host country to origin country for both planned and unplanned return migration. Overall, return migration is a non-homogeneous phenomenon triggered by multitude factors. To this end, attempts were made to investigate the dominant components that influenced Ethiopian emigrants to return back from destination areas to homeland and the responses obtained from study population are presented below.

As depicted in Figure 5-3, the decision to return to the country of origin is presumably influenced by the following two dominant factors as a whole in the study area as reported by the respondents: determinants related to the destination areas (65.8%), and personal factors of emigrants (55.8%) in descending order. The response of the returnees on the return migration decision is a clear indication of the conditions in the destination areas was more influential to return migration decision.

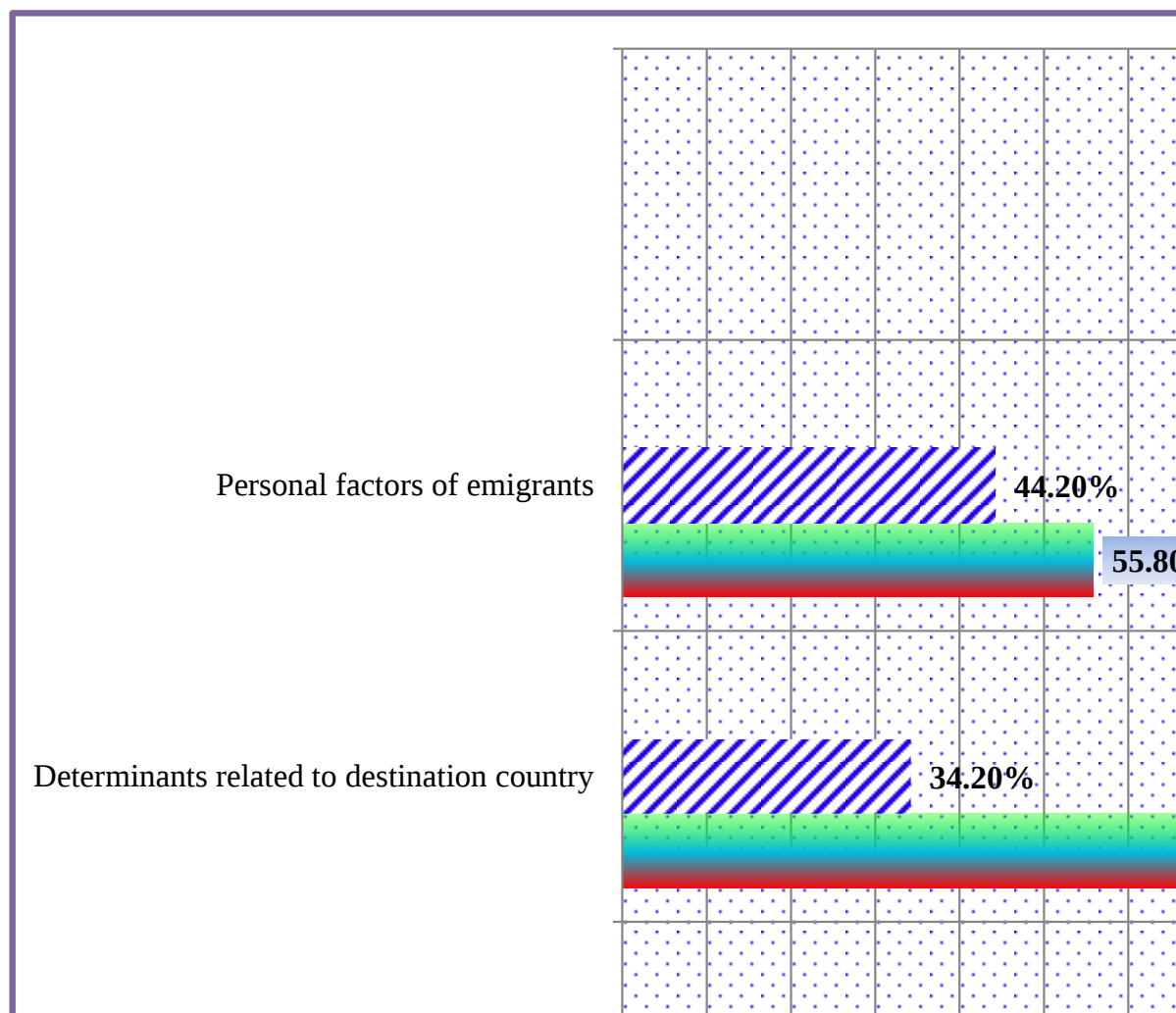


Fig. 5-3: Summary responses on return migration decision

As revealed above, majority of the respondents of the study rated that determinants in the origin had no sound effect on the decision to return migration with percentage of 72.4%. Some of these findings were corroborated by studies conducted on the same issue. In general, the conditions in the country of origin are more relevant to the decision to emigrate than to the decision to return (Koser & Kuschminder, 2015 as cited in Schüring *et al.*, 2017). However, according to a study conducted by ADB (2020) on return migrants of China, on the one hand the decision to return is influenced by the following pull factors: improved economic development and employment opportunities, availability of social security coverage, more affordable housing and better living conditions, the prospect of family reunion, and presence of strong family and communal

networks and support in their homeland. On the other hand, the following major push factors prompt migrants to return to their origin country: both the lack and availability of financial, human, and social capital. While low stocks of these assets produce extreme vulnerability to life cycle risks and economic volatility and prompt migrants to return; and conversely, a higher level of these assets translates into better employment and economic prospects in the country of the origin (ADB, 2020).

Besides, different participants of the study raised concerns about the determinants of return migration decision during Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and Key Informant Interviews (KIIs) in the study area. They expounded that the challenges and hurdles associated with return migration are very tremendous and linked with both destination areas and homeland; however, the challenges vary in degree wherein the challenges in the former are more complex than in the latter due to the fact that Ethiopian emigrants are much more forced to return for reasons of security or political decisions made by the country of destination than country of origin. Furthermore, based on the results of Principal Component Analysis, categorization was made on the determinants of return migration decision to better understand and make the results of analyses sound. The details are forthcoming hereunder.

As pointed out in Table 5-3, out of 22 variables, five variables having a rotated factor loadings below 0.5 onto one of the factors were discarded due to their low factor loadings, namely; (items 1.1, 1.6, 2.3, 2.6, and 2.12, see Annex-4). To this end, the first four variables (*factor 1*) are denominated as *homeland factors* as seem to signify the conditions that were pervasive in country of origin as a whole. Nine items ranged from 5-13 (*factor 2*) are labeled as destination area factors due to the fact they are the most commonly cited underlying latent factors in literatures associated with destination regions. About four items indicated from 14-17 (*factor 3*) that are named as personal factors as in one way or another entirely linked with personal attributes (see Table 5-3 below).

Table 5-3: Rotated Component Matrix on return migration decision

Determinant factors	Component		
	1	2	3
Political stability in the origin country	.785	-	-
Availability of access to credit services	.775		
The growing of participation in social networks in the origin country	.853	-	-
The growing of more job opportunities in the homeland	.795	-	-
Absence of legal documents upon entry in the host country	-	.622	-
Unable to enter labour market without permission in the host country	-	.659	-
Poor social interaction in the host community	-	.703	-
Rejection of asylum application by the host country	-	.742	-
The growing of restrictive immigration policies in the host country	-	.725	-
The rise of irregular migrants deprived of basic human rights	-	.756	-
The problem of homelessness in the host country	-	.680	-
The growing of sexual harassment in the host country	-	.561	-
Political instability in the host country	-	.541	-
Homesickness	-	-	.844
Family reunification in the home country	-	-	.881
Ill-Health or due to health problem	-	-	.552
Need to support family back home	-	-	.785

Only variables with rotated factor loadings above 0.5 were considered

Based on these, a binary logistic regression was performed to clearly distinguish which variables or combinations of variables are important and have sound impact on return migration decision in Ethiopian contexts. Before proceeding to running logistic regression, likelihood ratio, and Hosmer and Lemeshow tests were assessed via model summary and goodness fit or model diagnostic respectively. To see the joint impact of all predictor variables on the dependent variable, the concept of Nagelkerke R^2 which is explained in model summary indicated in Table 5-4 below. The most common assessment of overall model fit in logistic regression is the likelihood ratio test, which is

simply the chi-square difference between the null model (i.e., with the constant only) and the model containing the predictors (Peng *et al.*, 2014; Menard, 1995).

Table 5-4: Model summary and Goodness fit (Hosmer and Lemeshow Test)

Model Summary		
-2Loglikelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
98.954 ^a	.676	.905
Goodness fit (Hosmer and Lemeshow Test)		
Chi-Square(χ^2)	df	Sig
3.701	8	.883
a. Estimation terminated at iteration number 9 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001.		

Source: Own construction based on field data (2021)

As evident from the above model summary, the -2 Log Likelihood statistics is about 98.95, which indicates how poorly the model predicts the emigrants had enough reason to make return migration decision, the smaller the statistic the better the model. The Cox and Snell or Nagelkerke R^2 is an analogous statistic in logistic regression to the coefficient of determination R^2 in linear regression, but not close analogy. The model summary provides some approximation of R^2 statistic in logistic regression. Cox and Snell's R^2 attempts to imitate multiple R^2 based on likelihood. The result of Cox and Snell R^2 indicates that 67.6% of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the predictor variable which is assumed to be good enough (Table 5-4).

As it is also observed since p-value is 0.883 is greater than the level of significance at 5%, which in turn may imply that the data fits the logistic regression model well. In other words, the inferential goodness-of-fit test is the Hosmer–Lemeshow (H–L) test that yielded a $\chi^2_{(8)}$ of 3.701 and was insignificant ($p = 0.883 > 0.05$), indicating that the model was fit to the data well and the null hypothesis of a good model fit to data was acceptable.

Table 5-5: Results of binary logistic regression on return migration decision

Main Constructs	Predictor variables that entered the final equation	B	S.E	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Homeland factors	Political stability in the origin country	1.775	.804	4.871	.027*	5.899
	Availability of access to credit services	.544	.843	.416	.519	1.722
	The growing social participation in social networks in the homeland	3.622	1.107	10.716	.001**	37.429
	The growing of more job opportunities in the homeland	2.004	.907	4.888	.027*	7.422
Destination area factors	Absence of legal documents upon entry in the host country	.985	.978	1.014	.314	2.679
	Unable to enter labor market without permission in the host country	.762	.812	.880	.348	2.142
	Rejection of asylum application by the host country	2.969	1.039	8.165	.004*	19.478
	The growing of restrictive immigration policies in the host country	.874	.785	1.239	.266	2.395
	The prevalence of unemployment migrants in the host country	2.227	.910	5.988	.014*	9.276
	The rise of irregular migrants deprived of basic human rights	2.953	.807	13.384	.000**	19.166
	The problem of homelessness in the host country	2.757	.781	12.477	.000**	15.751
	The growing of sexual harassment in the host country	3.316	1.109	8.940	.003*	27.553
Personal factors	Homesickness	1.448	.991	2.138	.144	4.256
	Family reunification in the home country	1.842	.684	7.249	.007*	6.311
	Ill-Health or due to problem	1.775	.804	4.871	.027*	5.899
	Need to support family back home	.544	.843	.416	.519	1.722
Constant		-18.805	3.077	37.340	.000	.000

***, ** P-value significant at 0.001 and 0.05 respectively.

As shown in Table 5-5, taking into consideration the p-values, among four homeland factors three (political stability in the origin country and the growing of more job opportunities in the homeland); and the growing of participation in social networks in the homeland had positive statistical significant impact in making return migration decision among the returnees with ($p < 0.01$ and 0.05) respectively. Availability of access to credit services is one of the variables of homeland factors has a significance of ($P = 0.519 > 0.05$) therefore; it is not statistically significant to make return migration decision. Moreover, on the one hand, the rise of irregular migrants deprived of basic human rights, the problem of homelessness, and political instability in the host country were amongst destination area factors that had positive statistical significant impact in making return migration decision among the returnees with ($p = 0.000 < 0.001$). On the

other hand rejection of asylum application and the growing of sexual harassment in the host country had sound positive contribution and statistically significant with the value of ($p < 0.05$). Homesickness and the need to support family back home as personal factors had no statistically significant impacts among the returnees to make return migration decision ($p = 0.144 > 0.05$ and $p = 0.519 > 0.05$) respectively.

However, the two personal factors: family reunification in the home country; and ill-health had statistically significant positive impacts on the issue under discussion among the returnees with the values ($p = 0.007 < 0.01$; and $p = 0.027 < 0.05$) respectively. Overall, the results of analysis reveal that both homeland, destination area factors, personal factors had their own positive impacts and highly contributed in decision making for return migration from destination areas to Ethiopia.

Table 5-6: Summary of binary logistic regression on latent variables

Constant and key factors	β	S.E	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B) or odds ratio
Homeland factors	3.242	.491	43.600	.000*	25.58
Destination area factors	4.451	.507	77.144	.000*	85.70
Personal factors	2.211	.391	31.946	.000*	9.12
Constant	-6.024	.676	79.516	.000*	.002

*P-value significant at 0.001. β = beta; S.E = Standard Errors; sig. = significance probability.

As singled out in Table 5-4, about 76.3% (Nagelkerke R Square = .763) of the variance in return migration decision is explained by the three underlying latent factors: homeland, destination area, personal factors when other parameters are unchanged. With regard to the impact of these factors in driving Ethiopian emigrants out of destination areas, all the three factors have a positive effect on the likelihood of making return migration decision among returnees ($P < 0.001$). That is, they are positively correlated with the 'decision to return'.

In sum, the above results vividly reveal that these factors had statistically significant positive impacts among the returnees to make return migration decision. Moreover, the

results disclosed that in all cases the odds ratios is greater than one (Odds ratio>1) which indicates a positive relationship between the three predictors and the outcome (return migration decision (more likely decide about returning). The above Table 5-6 also presents that the returnee respondents assigned the greatest rating responses to destination area factors than the rest two factors (homeland and personal factors) with the odds ratio of 85.70, 25.58, and 9.12 respectively.

Moreover, in terms of their positive influence on return migration decision destination area, homeland, and personal factors took the first three ranking positions with the Wald statistics and logistic regression coefficients of (Wald =77.144 and $\beta = 4.451$; Wald = 43.600 and $\beta = 3.242$; and Wald = 31.946 and $\beta = 2.211$) in descending order respectively. Above all, destination area factors had substantially affected Ethiopian emigrants more likely to decide about return. The decision to return to the country of origin is influenced by factors similar to those affecting the decision to emigrate (Schüring *et al.*, 2017).

Overall, the results are best shown by the following binary logistic regression equation:

$$Y = 6.024 + 3.242X_1 + 4.451X_2 + 2.211X_3$$

Where: Y = Return migration decision;

X_1 = Homeland factors;

X_2 = Destination area factors; and

X_3 = Personal factors.

Moreover, KIIs and FGDs and KIIs were also held with participants of the study found at various levels to point out the leading factors of return migration decision and other variables pertinent to the study. Accordingly, the ideas forwarded by participants of FGDs were summarized and presented as follows:

....A myriad of challenges forced the Ethiopian migrants to make return decision: unbearable work load in the destination area, employer's bad character, working any rest on full time basis, absence of willingness to salary on the part of employer, grabbing of salary by employer, difficulty of accessing jobs at abroad, low expectation to bring change on self and

respective family, poor social interaction with others at abroad, monotonous domestic work in the same house and household for many years just mention a few (FGD₄).

The above results of analysis indicates that the participants of FGDs put more powerful grip on destination area factors as more dominant contributing factors in compelling returnees to make return decision than homeland and personal factors do.

Moreover, key informant interviewees reported the following major underlying factors behind return migration among Ethiopian returnees: health complications, termination of contract and disagreement with employer, deportation, request of return by Ethiopian government based on dialogue made with host community, loneliness and psychological depression, language problem, sexual harassment, low adaptability with weather conditions, high labour exploitation, homesickness, for marriage purpose, engaged in activities of many households forcefully, death of family, violation of human rights, inadequate food provision amongst others.

Overall, both participants of FGDs and KIIs are on the positive side and have similar ideas about determinants of return migration decision among Ethiopian returnees with returnees who responded to the survey questionnaires. This shows that data obtained from qualitative analysis of determinants of return migration decision importantly revealed certain congruencies with data obtained from the above quantitative analysis. That is, the decision to return is strongly associated with the factors related the destination area conditions. These findings are not in consonance and harmony with what Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2017) had observed that destination area factors are amongst the least reasons cited to come back to homeland. Moreover, OECD (2017) ranked on average personal preferences (for example to reunite with family in their homeland); unable to obtain legal status for residency or work in the destination country (the second); and difficulties of integrating economically and socially in destination countries the first, the second, and the third most important factor for the decision to return respectively.

Similarly, except for forced return, personal factors seem to play a much more decisive role for return migration decision (Battistella, 2018); the reason for return is a failure or success of the migration process (Cassarino, 2004). The following may lead to a return migration decision: higher preferences for consumption in country of origin, or high purchasing power of the host country currency in the migrant's homeland, or accumulation of human capital in the host country that improves productivity back home (Weiss & Dustmann, 2007).

5.5. Conclusions and Recommendations

The central concern of the study was endeavouring to encapsulate and shed some light on the major driving factors behind return migration decision in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. A Principal Component Analysis result has demonstrated that there are three main factors compelling Ethiopian emigrant to make return migration decision: homeland, destination area, and personal factors; the study population attached a great deal of importance to all the three aforementioned factors and the results of binary logistic regression analyses appeared to depict that all the three factors are positively correlated with the '*decision to return*'. More importantly, the finding of the current study heightened that the conditions in the destination areas by far had more sound impact on making decision to return migration than factors in the origin country as well as personal attributes.

This might clearly indicate that such return has substantial negative impact on returnees' livelihood strategies in achieving food security upon return as in developing world including Ethiopia migration is considered as a part and parcel of livelihood strategies and a good weapon for poverty mitigation. This in turn may often lead to a rise in unemployment and decline in wages and incomes, challenging access to food and basic social services for the urban poor including the returnees. Besides, the results of analysis disclosed that the overall mean income of the study population at abroad is about six times the average income at homeland and currently the vast majority of them were not engaged in any occupation category upon return.

In a nutshell, from the current study, the following two main conclusions were emerged: the conditions in the destination areas by far had more sound impact on making decision to return migration than factors in the origin country as well as personal attributes; and returnees having significant number found in the study area had poor purchasing power so as to acquire enough and nutritious food and did not have access to sufficient food to meet their dietary energy requirements and consequently unable to ensure sustainable livelihoods in the study area. Moreover, the overall results were not consistent with, amplify, and quantify a single existing theory of migration rather an amalgam of a number of theories of migration as a whole. In other words, the aforementioned results of the present study do not fully confirm the hypothesis of any single theory on return migration.

The findings of the study provide the following important recommendations to Ethiopian government and development actors with the aim of maximizing benefits, and minimizing risks and multiple burden associated with international return migration: (1) the Ethiopian government should work towards scaling up the understandings of its citizen about the current social, cultural, political ,and economic situations and other calamities associated with international migration including return migration around the globe, (2) the government of Ethiopia should be hand in hand with various development actors to promote sustainable and resilient urban livelihoods as an important part of the global response to the current migration challenges and as a contribution to safe, orderly and regular migration so as to help tackle the challenges and create opportunities in the face of growing global migration including return migration, and (3) the government of Ethiopia and all stakeholders involved in migration management should follow multi-sectoral approach to support returnees' long-lasting reintegration into society and realizing the potential they have to contribute to their country's development as the study depicted that a higher proportion of the returnees were in their active ages.

Chapter Six: Ethiopian International Returnees and their access to Livelihood Capitals in Addis Ababa

Abstract: *In many regions of the globe, access to livelihood capitals among international returnees has been designated as one of the major potent factors impeding the returnees to ensure sustainable livelihoods. However, to the knowledge of researchers of this study, the issue under consideration has never been investigated in Addis Ababa. Hence, the study devoted to unearth the degree of access to livelihood capitals among returnees in Addis Ababa to provide scientific evidences and a platform for future interventions. A “Concurrent Embedded Research Design Approach” was used. Data were gathered via a cross-sectional survey from 402 randomly drawn sample international returnees. The supplementary data were collected from purposely selected semi-structured interview and focus group discussion participants. Descriptive statistics and Ordinal Logistic Regression Model (OLRM) were employed to analyze the data. The study has demonstrated that amongst five livelihood capitals, social capitals were ranked above the scale mean as the first most accessible livelihood capitals (mean = 2.39 and standard deviation/SD = 0.83); while human capitals were rated below the scale mean (mean = 1.38 and SD = 0.58) as the least accessible livelihood capitals among returnees in the study area. OLRM results have confirmed that income at abroad and homeland as two economic characteristics of returnees indeed had a positive statistically significant effect on access to physical capitals among returnees with the odds ratio (Exp (β) = 2.53, $p \leq 0.001$; and Exp (β) = 1.86, $p < 0.05$) respectively. The educational attainment and the role of returnees in their respective family had statistically significant effects on access to financial capitals with values (β = -.328, Exp (β) = 0.682, $p \leq 0.00$; β = -.917, Exp (β) = 0.400, $p < 0.001$) consecutively, an indication of being accessible to such capitals increased by a factor of 0.68 and 0.40 with a unit increase in educational level and a year increase in the age of returnees respectively. The magnitude of access to livelihood capitals among the returnees is deemed to be very minimal in the study area. Therefore, concerted efforts are required to enable poor urban returnees’ access to an array of livelihood capitals and thereby building sustainable livelihoods.*

Based on:

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2023). Exploring Access to Livelihood Capitals among International Returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Development Research* (Accepted).

6.1. Introduction

Nowadays, access to livelihood capitals among return migrants has stood at the top agenda in our globe. Arowolo (2000) and Segal (2016) have vindicated that undoubtedly, return migration is not always a process of simply “going-home” rather it is a multitude process. In other words, it isn’t uni-directional means. In the words of Markowitz and Stefansson (2004), homecomings can be ‘*unsettling paths of return*’. Coming homeland as returnee can be harder than leaving and the process is grappled with severe obstacles. Creating sustainable livelihoods for returnees can be difficult due to structural challenges and low economic opportunities in the homeland (IOM, 2019; Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017; IOM, 2015). Moreover, ILO (2013) and Wahba (2014) have argued that returnees’ previous social network has either been lost or damaged as they have spent a significant time in exile. Latest evidences acknowledge that return migration is directly or indirectly associated with access to livelihood capitals. Asian Development Bank (2020) has signaled that in China, access to productive capitals, social security, housing and infrastructure that the return migrants can draw upon to support their livelihoods is associated with the availability of capitals.

In Kyrgyzstan, return migration is negatively correlated to probability of surviving in self-employment (Brück *et al.*, 2017). A notable proportion of Afghan returnees are caught up in a debt spiral with multiple loans and entangled with financial mismatch (ILO, 2013). Similarly, UNHCR (2019) vividly identified that poor access to employment; market, health services, and education are the major gaps of Afghan returnees. Among Ghanaian returnees, the major pressing challenges are difficulty of accessing jobs and other services, loss of personal belongings, negative perceptions and poor relationships, and not supported financially and administratively to reintegrate into their home communities (Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017; Setrana & Tonah, 2014).

As stated earlier, access to livelihood capitals among international returnees found in many regions of the world is greatly difficult and limited livelihood opportunities have been identified as one of the major powerful factors inhibiting the returnees to ensure

sustainable livelihoods upon return. On the contrary, extant literatures unveiled that access to livelihood capitals is the crux of the entire livelihood strategies, and they need to be woven together. Access to livelihood capitals plays a central role in taking up livelihood activities, to choose livelihood strategies, and to come out of poverty among poor (Rubavel, 2019; Lawal *et al.*, 2011; Geiser *et al.*, 2011; Su *et al.*, 2009). Currently, Ethiopia is hallmarked by frequent international return migration and viewed as a hub for return migration for a long time. Kuschminder (2013) has disclosed that over the past decades, data suggest a rise in return migration in Ethiopia.

About 163, 000 Ethiopians were forcibly returned to their homeland as a result of mass deportations between November 2013 and March 2014 (ILO, 2019); and from November 2018 to 2020 about 572,096 and 6,418 officially registered irregular cross-border migrants returned to Ethiopia in general and to Addis Ababa in particular, respectively (MoLSA, 2021; BoLSA, 2021). Accordingly, attempts were made to review some empirical studies that have been undertaken in Ethiopia on the issue under consideration. A survey conducted on the links between migration and sustainable livelihoods on three countries (Ethiopia, Mali & Bangladesh) concurred that international migration is seen as just one of the livelihood strategies in Ethiopia (Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009); Ethiopian returnee migrants were swamped by hopelessness and painful experiences as the result of physical abuses, restrictive mobility, and a variety of harassment by respective employers (Shishay *et al.*, 2019); and a survey study carried out on asset accessibility in Southern Ethiopia, Wolaita Sodo based on internal migration on urban migrants concluded that physical, human, social, financial, and natural capitals were ranked in decreasing order (Befikadu *et al.*, 2018).

However, none of the foregoing studies have dealt with access to livelihood capitals among international returnees. In Ethiopia including Addis Ababa the issue has so far lacked a robust quantitative and qualitative evidence base at national as well as at local levels. As a result, concrete evidences are lacking for decision makers and development actors to curb down the resultant challenges of return migration in the study area. In this regard, empirical evidence at the capital city of Ethiopia is uttermost important to

develop pragmatic strategies for future interventions to make the poor urban returnees to ensure their sustainable livelihoods.

Moreover, laying the groundwork for future analyses on the issue is also one of the most important contributions of the study. The study thus, was aimed to examine the degree of access to livelihood capitals among international returnees and the major socio-economic and demographic factors affecting returnees' access to livelihood capitals in Addis Ababa. As a way to realize these objectives, we pose the following three key research questions:

- 1) *To what extent the returnees do have access to livelihood capitals?*
- 2) *Are there any significant differences in terms of degree of access to livelihood capitals by gender?*
- 3) *What major background characteristics (personal characteristics, economic characteristics, and modality of returns) affecting access to livelihood capitals among the returnees?*

6.2. Conceptual Framework: The Sustainable Livelihood Approach

Scholars view livelihood capitals diversely. Livelihood capitals are the resources on which people draw to undertake their livelihood strategies (Farrington *et al.*, 2002; Walker *et al.*, 2001). They are resources that are critical to the survival of people in response to stresses and shocks (Ansoms & McKay, 2010; Mutenje *et al.*, 2010; Ellis, 2000; Thomson, 2000; Scoones, 1998). Livelihood capitals are the basic material and social, tangible, and intangible assets that people use for constructing their livelihoods (Scoones, 2009, 1998; Bebbington, 2004, 1999); they resources that are used to provide a livelihood and the means of production available to people that can be used in their livelihood activities (Soussan *et al.*, 2001); and they are defined to include human, social, physical, natural and financial capitals (Periperi & Oxfam, 2002; UNHCR, 2012).

Broadly speaking, capitals are categorized into five major pillars: a) *human capital* – personal characteristics including education, knowledge, health, and capacity to adapt; b) *natural capital* - environmental resources including land, water, ecosystem services,

biodiversity and crop production; c) *social capital* - the characteristics of connections with others including networks, formal and informal groups, understood rules and opportunities for participation; d) *financial capital* - economic characteristics including wages, pensions, savings, credit and debt; and, e) *physical capital* - infrastructure and technology including roads, energy, communications, and tools (Mutenje *et al.*, 2010; Scoones, 2009; Serrat, 2008; Ellis, 2000; DFID, 1999).

Several approaches are followed by livelihood researchers and practitioners to study different aspects of livelihoods including access to livelihood capitals among a household or a group of individuals. These days, however, the sustainable livelihood approach is amongst the well-known and widely used approaches. The approach is the most frequently adapted to succinctly assess a household's methods of survival (Cordero, 2016; Solesbury, 2003). The approach improves understanding of the livelihoods of the poor and it organizes the factors that constrain or enhance livelihood opportunities, and shows how they relate (ADB, 2008; DFID & World Bank, 2002); it is a practical and analytical tool that outlines a holistic approach in addressing the analysis of livelihoods as well as to the design of livelihood interventions (ACF-IN, 2008; Solesbury, 2003); and it integrates three key concepts of capability, equity and sustainability (Chambers & Conway, 1992). The approach is one of the ways to maximize knowledge on livelihood of persons and household and seeks to understand people's access towards capitals (human, social, natural, physical, and financial) (Samsudin & Kamaruddin, 2013).

The approach focuses on the capitals that people own to ensure their livelihoods that are represented by five key categories of capital that people can draw from to achieve positive livelihood outcomes such as increased income and well-being, improved food security, etc. (ACF-IN, 2008; Samsudin & Kamaruddin, 2013). The livelihoods framework is centered on people so we need to look at people first and the capabilities that they possess (Cordero, 2016). Correspondingly, this study is built on SLA that was developed in line with its general features and the definitions of the five livelihood capitals aforementioned. This is because the SLA takes the individual returnee including a group

of returnees as its main unit of analysis to broaden understandings of the five pillars of livelihood capitals available to returnees to be able to make a living.

Moreover, it is constructed on the idea that returnees possess a variety of natural, physical, financial, human and social capitals, all contributing to their livelihoods. Within the framework, the three categorized major factors determining access to livelihood capitals among the returnees were incorporated. These include the personal characteristics, economic characteristics of the returnees, and modality of returns. The following figure depicts a more thorough analysis of the nexus between the five livelihood capitals and the major background characteristics of the returnees (see Figure 6-1 below).

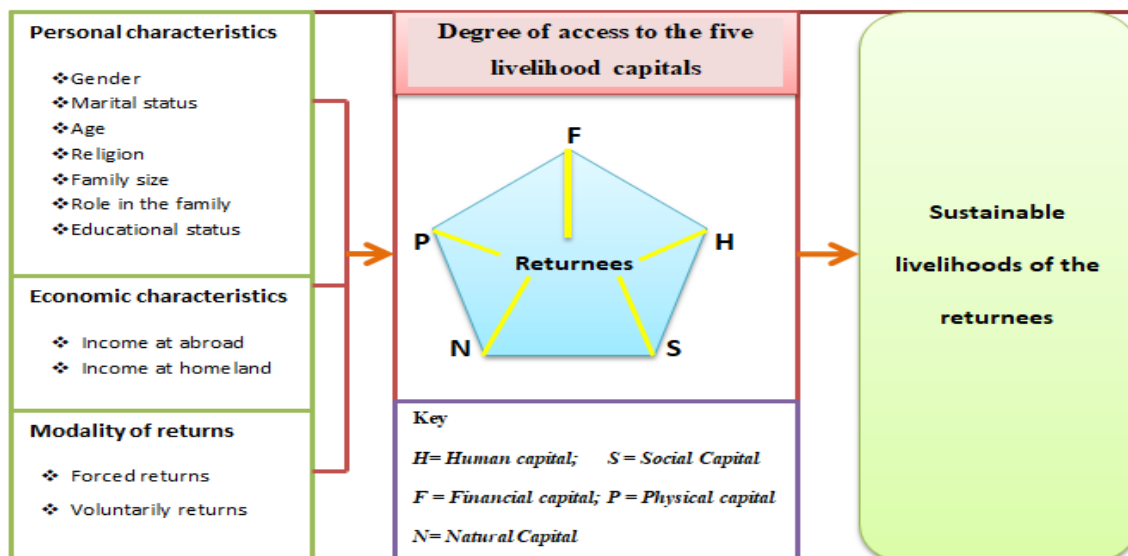


Fig.6-1: Conceptual framework of the study adapted from (DFID, 1999; CARE, 1999).

6.3. Research Methods

6.3.1. Data Collection Instruments

In order to collect relevant and adequate data for the study, both quantitative and qualitative tools of data collection were used. While the former was employed to gather numerical data, the latter was used to obtain information on issues that require clarification and additional information that may not be captured by and accessed through the quantitative approach. Accordingly, three types of data collection tools

were employed: the survey questionnaires, semi-structured interviews (SSIs), and focus group discussions (FGDs). The survey questionnaires that had both closed-ended and open-ended items were used to seek the opinions, feelings, beliefs, and agreements or disagreements of a group of returnees towards access to livelihood capitals upon their return.

The closed-end questions were a three-point Likert-type scale ranging from (3 = high; 2 = medium; 1 = low); and divided into five main sections based on the major constituent parts of the five livelihood capitals. The open-form questionnaires were used for a free response in the respondents' own words and to obtain greater depth of responses including the reasons for their responses possibly (Appendix-4).

Moreover, as a whole about 24 SSIs were held with returnee respondents to solicit their perspectives on the issue using the following two interview-guide questions: (1) to what extent international return migrants do have access to a range of livelihood capitals to achieve sustainable livelihoods?, and (2) what major factors affecting access to livelihood capitals among the returnees in Addis Ababa?(Appendix-2) Four FDGs (one in sampled sub-city) were also held with returnees and core actors found at various levels to yield a collective rather than an individual view. Here discussions were made based on focus group discussion leading questions as outlined in the case of SSIs (Appendix-3). As a result, in depth qualitative information related to access to the five livelihood capitals and other associated factors among the returnees were collected.

Furthermore, before embarking into data collection, in research endeavours, it is imperative to establish the validity and reliability of data collections instruments. To this end, the reliability and validity of the instruments were tested to produce robust and valid results. A group of experts who have expertise on the area were made to evaluate and comment on the instruments to ensure validity. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was also conducted on 18 items using principal component analysis extraction and Varimax rotation. As a result, 16 items were retained with the factor loadings above 0.5. Furthermore, a Cronbach's alpha reliability and internal consistency were computed and

consequently items having a Cronbach's alpha of ($\alpha_{\text{overall}} = 0.818$) were used to collect data.

6.3.2. Method of Data Analysis

In general, both quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis were employed. Amongst the quantitative methods of analyses, both descriptive (frequency, percentages, mean, standard deviation, and inferential statistics (independent t-test, ordinal logistic regression model, and factor analysis) were used to analyze the quantitative data. The quantitative data generated through questionnaires were properly organized, tallied and computed with frequency distribution counts through SPSS (version 23.0) and STATA (version 15.0) for the production of output suitable for further data analyses and interpretations.

While descriptive statistics was used to describe and provide valuable information about the sampled returnees, whereas inferential statistics was materialized to infer to the characteristics of the population of the entire international returnees based on the analyses of the sample data. More fundamentally, ordinal logistic regression model was used to examine whether or not the degree of access to livelihood capitals is significantly influenced by background characteristics of the respondents. Simultaneously, qualitative data generated via SSIs and FGDs were used to substantiate and strengthen the analysis of the quantitative data.

Before analyzing the qualitative data, voluminous notes from SSIs and FGDs were passed through the following three major sequential phases to make sense of massive amounts of data: organization, description, and interpretations. The data were organized according to individual respondents and by grouping answers together across respondents. Having the organized qualitative data, description of various pertinent aspects of the study was made and followed by the most critical phase of the qualitative analysis process, *interpretation* (explaining the findings, answering 'why' research questions, putting patterns into an analytical framework, and so forth).

6.4. Results and Discussions

6.4.1. Socio-Cultural Characteristics of the Returnees

Role of the returnee respondents

In this study, out of four hundred sixteen survey questionnaires administered, a total of four hundred two were completed and returned, constituting 96.6% response rate. In the study area, as evident from Figure 6-2, the role of the respondents in the family was found to be: HHM 222(55.2%) and HHH 180(44.8%) which may indicate that relatively majority of the returnee respondents are household members in their respective family.

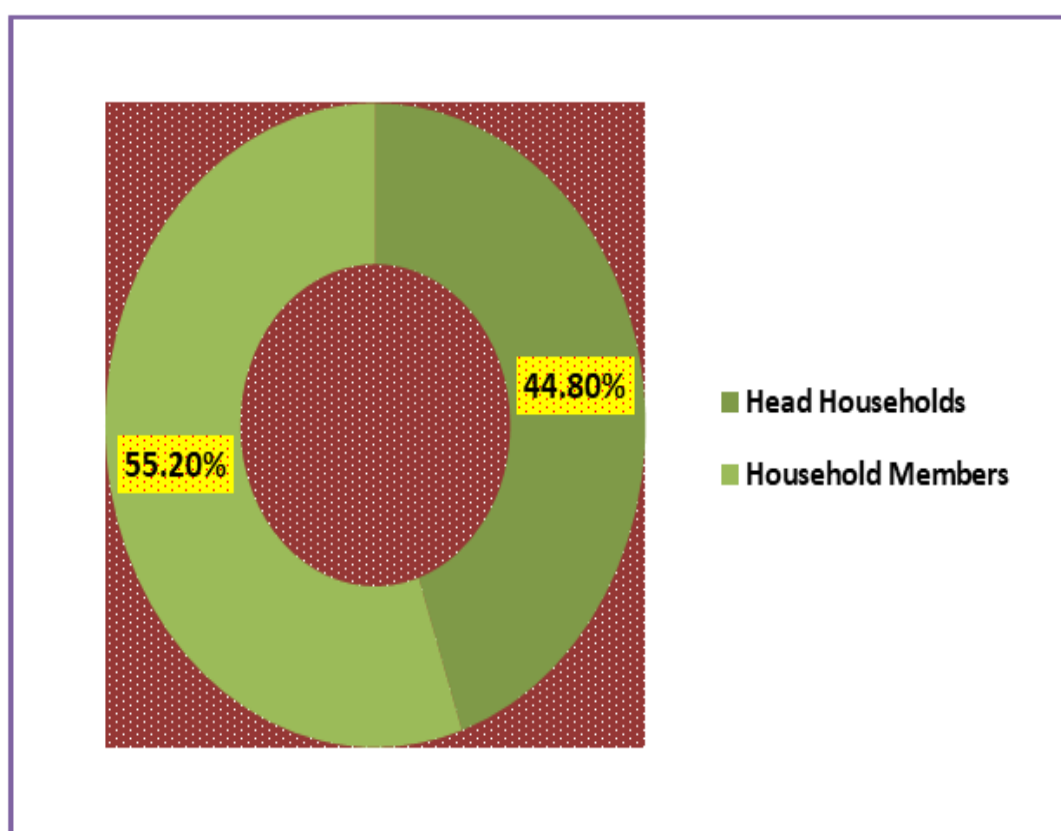


Fig. 6-2: Role of the respondents in their respective family

Religion of the returnee respondents

As depicted in Figure 6-3, the great majority of a group of respondents constituting about 183(45.5%) and 166(41.5%) were Orthodox Christian and Muslin Religion followers in the order mentioned. However, amongst the participants of the study only about 0.7% and 0.2% of them were Catholic and other in their religion respectively.

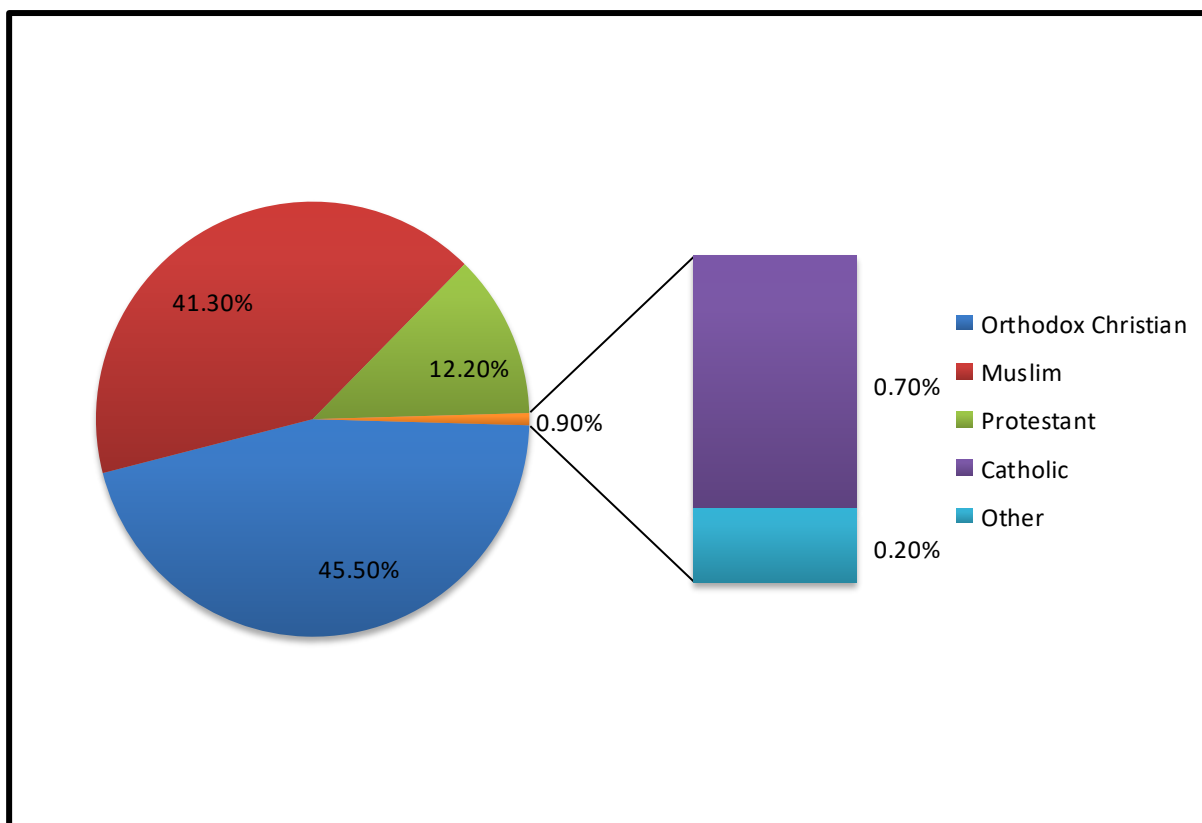


Fig. 6-3: Responses of the respondents on religion

6.4.2. Degree of Access to Livelihood Capitals among the Returnees

The section to follow is to present a variety of livelihood capitals categorized based on the final factor loading matrix (Figure 6-4) upon which the returnees draw to shape their livelihoods in the study area. Accordingly, attempts were made to explore the degree of access to the five livelihood capitals (human, physical, natural, financial, and social capitals) among the returnees and the responses obtained are analyzed as follows.

The present study depicted that social and physical capitals were ranked above an average on the three point-Likert scale as the first two capitals in terms of accessibility among returnees with the values of (mean = 2.39 and standard deviation/SD = .83; and mean = 2.31 and SD = .90) respectively. However, amongst five livelihood capitals financial; natural; and human capitals were ranked below the statistical mean scale as the three least accessible livelihood capitals among returnees with (mean = 1.69 and SD

= .82; mean = 1.52 and SD = .69; and mean = 1.38 and SD = .58) in descending order respectively.

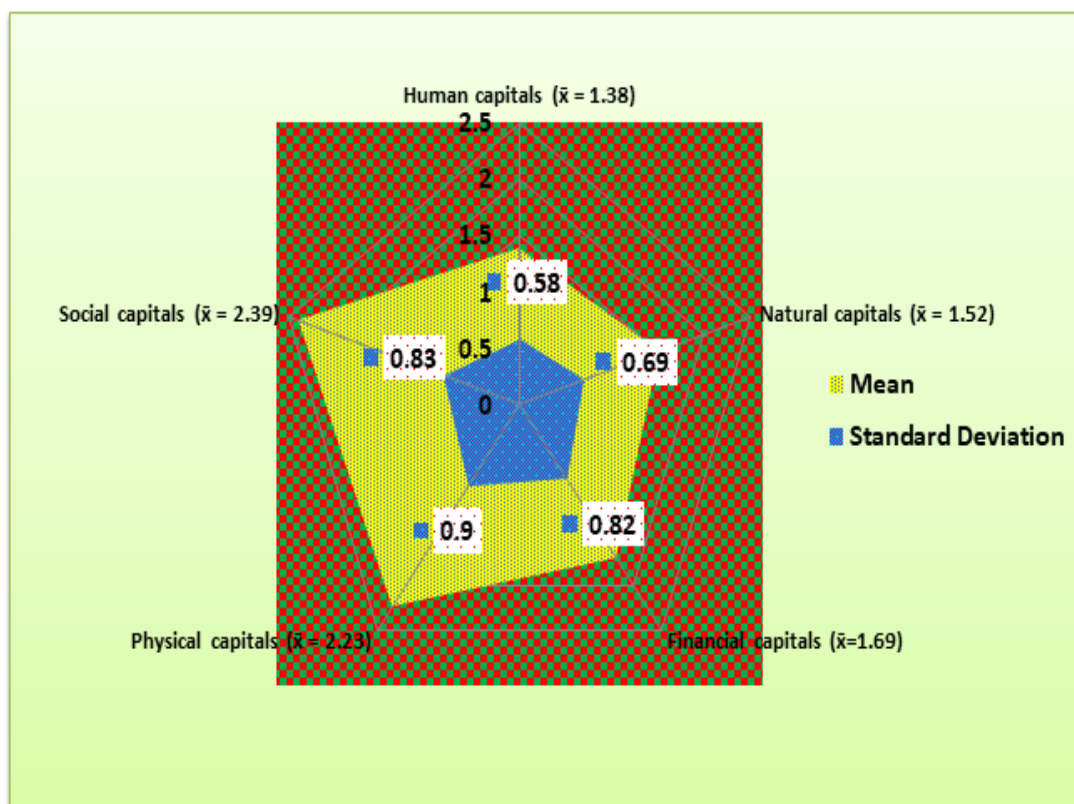


Fig.6-4: Degree of access to livelihood capitals among the returnees

Befikadu, Zerihun and Yonatan (2018) conducted a survey study on asset accessibility in Southern Ethiopia, Wolaita Sodo on urban migrants and concluded that physical, human, social, financial, and natural capitals were ranked in decreasing order. That is, the finding of the present study has portrayed that social capital is amongst the most accessible livelihood capitals, while the aforementioned survey study ranked physical capital as the most accessible livelihood capital which is paradoxical to the finding of the current study. Besides, quantitative research approach, based on data obtained via semi-structured interviews (SSIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs) qualitative data analysis was undertaken to corroborate the quantitative findings. Accordingly, the data are analyzed hereunder:

Asked about the access to livelihood capitals, one of the interviewees confirmed:

...Currently, getting access to a variety of livelihood capitals and assets such as (natural, financial, physical, cultural, social, and human) is not as such a simple issue in Ethiopia in general and in Addis Ababa in particular. For instance, getting access to home as a physical capital is unthinkable in Addis Ababa. Above all, access to social capitals such as information, relational networks, and social support that flow through ties to household members, relatives, close friends, community, and a variety of institutions is slightly better than the rest ones (SSR).

Still one of the interviewees rightly expressed the situation as follows:

...Frankly speaking, access to any kind of capitals is very essential for modern world and human kind. This is because without adequate access to a variety of capitals someone could not meet his/her demand. It is also believed that capital is one of the fundamental ingredients enabling businesses to innovate, create jobs, and grow. Surprisingly, these capitals are interdependent to one another, for example to get access to financial loan; one has to have fulfilled collateral requirements which need a certain fixed assets. Though, in Addis Ababa access to such capitals may vary from sub city to sub city and even from district to district, as a whole access to livelihood capitals among the urban poor in general and urban returnees in particular is very poor and not satisfactory (SSC).

Moreover, the summary of responses of most of the interviewees indicated that nowadays, a tremendous number of Ethiopians are returning to their homeland including Addis Ababa, nevertheless, broadly speaking, international returnees of Addis Ababa had no sufficient and strong access to a variety of livelihood capitals. They also forwarded that modern economies require new knowledge, innovation, skills, and other remaining livelihood capitals to achieve livelihood objectives. Nonetheless, returnees of Addis Ababa have no ability to deal with today's complex and vibrant economy due to

the fact that they had limited access towards the aforementioned capitals. They also expounded that it is not secret that the disparity between the urban poor and rich is visible, whereby the former ones had little access than the latter ones do. Access to such capitals is embedded within power, network structures, and ties; and it is only manipulated and available for a certain group of individuals. These results corroborate the findings of the quantitative data analysis secured earlier through survey questionnaires.

Furthermore, focus group discussions were also held with returnees and core actors working on the issue. Accordingly, the participants forwarded their ideas as follows:

...access to livelihood resources is viewed mainly as opportunity to income sources, employment and the like. Generally, it may include access to productive assets and different financial services. Ethiopian returnees are hallmarked by lack of access to productive assets and different financial services. A household's access to adequate livelihood can be affected by a number of factors. For, instance, social exclusion - a mechanism by which some people exclude others from access to resources, with the objective of maximizing their own returns, which ultimately result in social categories of eligible and ineligibles(FGD₁).

Moreover, core actors that took part in FGD described the existing situation as follows:

....gaining sufficient access to resources to returnees is not an easy task in our case, Addis Ababa. The degree of access to capitals may vary. Nowadays, access to various capitals for example, for the poor urban returnee is very limited. But to some extent access to financial credit services is available from micro-financial institutions; returnees can get a small amount of money from them to run petty trades in their respective locality; and access to local markets that entails the ability to buy as well as sell needed good/products and services but with an empty pocket. Generally, lack of access to the aforementioned capitals may lead to poverty and negatively affect the living gained by an individual returnee (FGD₂).

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The overall results of the above analyses and related discussion would highlight that, nevertheless, living strategy is a function of the livelihood capitals at their disposal which also serve as a buffering mechanism when shocks arise; and the access to these capitals in the livelihood would help to run the livelihood activities effectively, returnees in the study area are featured by their lack of access to majority of the livelihood capitals such as (human, physical, natural, financial, and social capitals). In other words, though the connection between livelihood strategies and capitals owned by individuals including returnees provides guidance to recognize their living situation, the degree of access to the aforementioned capitals among the study population is generally very poor to discharge the livelihood activities so as to meet out their basic needs.

6.4.3. Degree of Access to Livelihood Capitals by Gender

As indicated in Table 6-1, the overall average mean scores of male and female study population for the five categorized livelihood capitals were ($\bar{x}$ = 1.83; and $\bar{x}$ = 1.89) respectively, which is below an average on the three-point Likert scale. Moreover, social capitals as a categorized capital were rated above the scale mean relatively as the most accessible livelihood capitals by both male and female respondents with values of ($\bar{x}$ = 2.37; and $\bar{x}$ = 2.53) respectively.

Table 6-1: Comparison on access to livelihood capitals by gender

Categorized capitals	Mean value		t- test for Equality of Means	
	Male returnees	Female returnees	t-calculated	Sig.(2-tailed)
Human capitals	1.42	1.38	.441	.660
Natural capitals	1.58	1.64	-1.542	.589
Financial capitals	1.72	1.68	.445	.650
Physical capitals	2.06	2.26	-1.816	.073
Social capitals	2.37	2.53	-1.662	.100

*Sig. =significance probability

Conversely, both male and female sampled returnees accorded the least rank below the mean score for access to human capitals with the mean scores of 1.42 and 1.38 respectively and reported as the least accessible capitals in the study area, implying that opportunity for human capital advancement is limited and a pathway is not open for them. Another observation from Table 6-1 is to see whether the two types of genders exhibit significant variation in the issues under discussion. As observed from the result of the analyses, the calculated t-values for all the five categorized livelihood capitals are less the critical t-values and $p > 0.05$ level of significance in all cases. This shows that there is no statistically significant variation between male and female study population on access to livelihood capitals in the study area.

Table 6-2: Comparison on access to livelihood capitals by modality of returns

Categorized capitals	Mean values		Chi-Square test	
	Forced returns	Voluntary returns	χ^2	Sig.(2-tailed)
Human capitals	2.029	1.914	3.606 ^a	.165
Natural capitals	2.021	2.0239	10.954 ^a	.731
Financial capitals	2.413	2.352	4.327 ^a	.115
Physical capitals	2.708	2.642	.242 ^a	.886
Social capitals	2.469	2.967	8.150 ^a	.017*

**, ** significant at 0.05 and 0.001 levels respectively.*

Table 6-2 is concerned with the overall access to livelihood capitals among the returnees on the basis of return modalities. The result of the test shows that amongst the five categorized livelihood capitals the critical values of the four capitals (human, financial, natural, and physical capitals) are greater than their respective calculated values of the test. Thus, it would be, therefore, possible to conclude that there is no enough evidence showing the existence of significant variation between the two return modalities among the returnees in getting access to these four livelihood capitals in the study area. However, to explore the devotion of modality of returns in creating opportunity to get access to social capitals, the level of significance ($P = 0.017 < 0.05$). This shows there is significant variation between the two types of return modalities in accessing social capitals upon their return. As shown, the mean difference for the item is (MD = .498),

with minimum mean value of forced return modality. This means returnees who returned on the basis of voluntary return modalities had more exposure to the capitals under discussion than returnees who came back homeland in forced return modalities, which may in turn indicate the importance of readiness to make return migration decision than unplanned and without pre-mediation one.

6.4.4. Factors Affecting the Degree of Access to Livelihood Capitals

Orthogonal Varimax rotation matrix

Data were subjected to factor analysis using Principal Axis Factoring and Orthogonal Varimax Rotation to conduct factor analysis and to determine the significant loadings of the variables. The final factor loading matrix was presented (Table 6-3, Appendix-5). The section to follow is dealt with the correlation between variables of the study and the results are presented hereunder.

As evident from Table 6-4, the study vividly indicated that human capitals were identified as outcome variables significantly influenced only by two demographic characteristics of returnees: age with values of ($\beta = .09$, Exp (β) = 1.094, $p < 0.05$); and family size with values of ($\beta = -.50$, Exp (β) = 0.607, $p < 0.05$). Both modality of returns and economic characteristics of the returnee respondents had no statistically significant effects on the access to human capitals among returnees in the study area. Moreover, educational attainment and the role of returnees in their respective family as the two demographic variables had statistically significant effects on the access to financial capitals with values of ($\beta = -.382$, Exp (β) = 0.682, $p \leq 0.001$; and $\beta = -.917$, Exp (β) = 0.400, $p < 0.001$) respectively. This means that the odds ratio in favor of being accessible to the financial capitals increased by a factor of 0.682 and 0.400 with a unit increase in educational level and a year increase in the age of returnees respectively.

Besides, amongst economic characteristics income at homeland had a positive statistically significant impact on the access to financial capitals with values of ($\beta = .665$, Exp (β) = 1.944, $p < 0.05$). Nonetheless, religion, marital status, income at abroad and the two modality of returns did not have any statistically significant effect on any of the two

above criterion variables, which in turn may indicate that accessibility to both financial and human capitals among the returnees had not been affected by their background characteristics.

Table 6-3: Parameter Estimates of the Ordinal Logistic Regression Analysis (OLRA)

Predictor variables	Criterion variables							
	Human capitals				Financials capitals			
	β	Wald	Sig.	Exp(β)	β	Wald	Sig.	Exp(β)
Personal characteristics								
Gender	-.429	.489	.484	.651	-.297	.846	.358	.743
Marital status	.111	.112	.737	1.117	.207	1.587	.208	1.230
Age	.090	4.457	.035*	1.094	.006	.063	.802	1.006
Religion	-.178	.245	.621	.837	.303	3.193	.074	1.354
Family size	-.500	7.558	.006*	.607	-.077	1.209	.272	.926
Role in the family	.168	.109	.742	1.183	-.917	13.245	.000**	.400
Educational status	-.061	.070	.791	.941	-.382	10.240	.001**	.682
Economic characteristics								
Income at abroad	-.764	2.064	.151	.466	-.452	2.392	.122	.636
Income at homeland	-.765	1.892	.169	.465	.665	6.293	.012*	1.944
Modality of returns								
Forced returns	-.635	1.567	.183	.552	-.085	.035	.814	.865
Voluntary returns	-.561	3.341	.293	.824	-.809	.096	.873	.910

*, ** significant at 0.05 and 0.001 levels respectively; Sig. = significance probability; Exp (β) = the exponentiation of the β coefficient.

Table 6-5 below is devoted to presenting the association between access to physical and social capital and some background characteristics of the returnees. To this end, the result of the ordinal logistic regression analysis (OLRA) indicates that amongst personal characteristics marital status with values of ($\beta = 0.319$, Exp (β) = 1.375, $p < 0.05$); age ($\beta = -0.065$, Exp (β) = .942, $p < 0.05$); and education status ($\beta = -0.369$, Exp (β) = .691, $p \leq 0.001$) had statistically significant effect on access to physical capitals among returnees. Moreover, income at abroad and homeland as two economic characteristics had

statistically sound positive impact on access to physical capitals with values of ($\beta = 0.928$, $\text{Exp}(\beta) = 2.528$, $p \leq 0.001$; and $\beta = 0.619$, $\text{Exp}(\beta) = 1.857$, $p < 0.05$) respectively.

In other words, though both income at abroad and income at homeland as economic factors had significant effect, the latter had more likely effect on access to physical capitals among the returnees. The two modality of returns (forced and voluntarily returns) had a statistically significant effect with values of ($\beta = -.153$, $\text{Exp}(\beta) = .472$; and $\beta = .612$, $\text{Exp}(\beta) = .631$) respectively at $p < 0.05$) on the access to social capitals among the returnees and the rest background variables did not have any statistically significant effect on them in the study area.

Table 6-4: Parameter Estimates of the Ordinal Logistic Regression Analysis (OLRA)

Predictor variables	Criterion variables							
	Physical capitals				Social Capitals			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Personal characteristics								
Gender	.564	3.424	.064	1.757	.434	1.845	.174	1.544
Marital status	.319	4.275	.039*	1.375	-.082	.213	.645	.921
Age	-.060	8.427	.004*	.942	.004	.024	.876	1.004
Religion	-.065	.184	.668	.937	-.053	.095	.758	.949
Family size	.082	1.762	.184	1.085	-.011	.024	.877	.989
Role in the family	.125	.322	.571	1.133	-.297	1.353	.245	.743
Educational status	-.369	10.171	.001**	.691	.046	.133	.716	1.047
Economic characteristics								
Income at abroad	.928	10.714	.001**	2.528	.116	.140	.708	1.123
Income at homeland	.619	7.373	.007*	1.857	.043	.027	.870	1.044
Modality of returns								
Forced returns	-.075	.030	.861	.928	-.153	.085	.038*	.472
Voluntarily returns	-.364	.746	.388	.695	.612	.093	.025*	.631

*, ** significant at 0.05 and 0.001 levels respectively; Sig. =significance probability; Exp (B) = the exponentiation of the β coefficient.

A final note is about the correlation between natural capitals and background characteristics of the returnees. As revealed in Table 6-6, only age and religion as two

personal characteristics of returnees had statistically significant effects on access to natural capitals with values of ($\beta = -.120$, $\text{Exp}(\beta) = .887$, $p < 0.001$; and ($\beta = -.485$, $\text{Exp}(\beta) = .616$, $p < 0.05$) respectively.

Table 6-5: Ordinal Logistic Regression (OLR) Analysis on natural capitals

Categorized livelihood capitals	Predictor variables	Results			
		B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Natural capitals	Personal characteristics				
	Gender	-.125	.089	.765	.883
	Marital status	.334	2.549	.110	1.397
	Age	-.120	14.052	.000**	.887
	Religion	-.485	4.131	.042*	.616
	Family size	.000	.000	.999	1.000
	Role in the family	-.400	1.755	.185	.670
	Educational status	.193	1.423	.233	1.213
	Economic characteristics				
	Income at abroad	-.445	1.493	.222	.641
	Income at homeland	-.339	1.191	.275	.712
	Modality of Returns				
	Forced returns	.321	3.531	.064	1.816
	Voluntarily returns	.411	3.714	.068	1.732

**, ** significant at 0.05 and 0.001 levels respectively; Sig. = significance probability; Exp (β) = the exponentiation of the β coefficient*

This means that the odds ratio in favor of being accessible to such capitals decreased by a factor of 0.887 with a one year increase in the age of returnees. However, both economic characteristics and the two return modalities produced no statistically significant impact on access to natural capitals among returnees.

6.5. Conclusions and Recommendations

The study was devoted to overhaul the degree of access to livelihood capitals among Ethiopian returnees in Addis Ababa. The study was built on the discourse of Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) in urban context as the main framework to provide scientific evidences and better understandings on the issue. The finding of the study reiterated that as a whole the degree of access to majority of livelihood capitals among the study population is very low to discharge the urban livelihood activities and to meet out their basic needs, which consequently detriment to the livelihoods of the returnees and their respective family members.

Moreover, the study uncovered that despite access to livelihood capitals would help to run the livelihood activities effectively and serve as a buffering mechanism, returnees in the study area are featured by lack of access to majority of the livelihood capitals. In other words, amongst five livelihood capitals, only social and physical capitals were ranked above the scale mean, while the rest three financial; natural; and human capitals were ranked below the statistical mean scale on the point three-Likert scale.

In a nutshell, conclusions drawn from the present study are three-fold: the total degree of access towards livelihood capitals among the returnees is very minimal; significant gender variation wasn't observed between male and female returnees in terms of access to livelihood capitals in the study area; and the opportunity of getting access towards livelihood capitals among the returnees is entangled with individuals having the power to do so through a variety of networks including economic ties in the study area. Therefore, enhancing access to existing livelihood capitals and providing access to a range of new ones for urban returnees has become a crucial field of development interventions for Ethiopian government, Addis Ababa city administration, civil society organizations, and other development actors working on return migration in particular and migration at large.

Moreover, well-intentioned corrective actions are required to enable poor urban returnees to make participate in diversified livelihood activities and to entitle them with

access to livelihood capitals in the context and institutional environment in which they live and thereby building sustainable livelihoods. Furthermore, the findings of the study raise the future research agenda conceptualizing and measuring access to livelihood capitals among people for a deeper understanding of the working of institutions, policy context, and the risk factors affecting entitlement and access towards livelihood capitals using various variables and larger samples at national level. Researchers are also encouraged to investigate the relationship between various livelihood capitals and return migration by using a more comprehensive data set allowing for construction of a more robust measurement of livelihood capitals.

Chapter Seven: How do Ethiopian International Returnees make a living in Addis Ababa?

Abstract: Nowadays, Ethiopia is overwhelmed by international returnees. Therefore, examining the returnees' livelihood strategies and their mainstay in pursuit of a living has become of paramount importance to provide timely insights for decision making and future intervention efforts. The study thus, was aimed at exploring the livelihoods and survival strategies chased among the returnees in Addis Ababa. Data were collected from 402 randomly drawn sample returnees via a cross-sectional survey. The supplementary data were collected from purposively selected focus group discussion and semi-structured interview participants. Descriptive statistics and Ordinal Logistic Regression Model (OLRM) were employed to analyze the data. The study revealed that while unemployment was found to be the most categorized problem by which returnees were hallmarked and rated above the scale mean on the three point-likert scale (mean=2.18, Standard Deviation/SD = 0.91); wage-employment and self-employment were rated below the scale mean (mean= 1.41, SD = 0.61; and mean = 1.39, SD = 0.56) respectively, which reflects that majority of the study population were not involved in livelihood strategies such as employment that are common in urban settings. OLRM results confirmed that educational attainment and age of the returnees made the first and the second largest contributions in predicting wage-employment in the positive and negative directions with beta coefficients of ($\beta = 0.985$; and $\beta = |-0.611|$ respectively at ($p \leq 0.000$) level of significance. A notable proportion of Ethiopian returnees deemed to be unemployed and not engaged in any urban livelihood activities and deprived of enjoying the potential benefits obtained from self-employment and wage-employment activities in the study area. Therefore, targeted interventions are required to entitle and warrant the urban poor returnees with ample livelihoods opportunities via economic inclusion and job creation schemes and ultimately to enable them to live more sustainably and to improve their general living standards.

Based on:

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2023). Livelihoods and survival strategies pursued by international return migrants in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. *Cogent of Social Science Journal*, 9(1), 2023, <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311886.2023.2204711>.

7.1. Introduction

In our modern age, return migration remains a demanding agenda. Return migration has been receiving growing attention (Rodriguez & Egea, 2006; Asiedu, 2005; Cassarino, 2004). It has been a central point of discussions at the global level since migration was included in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable development (Newland & Salant, 2018); and it has become one of the priority agendas of a growing number of emigrant origin countries (ILO, 2019; OECD, 2017). Notwithstanding, over the last decades, it is the concept entangled with conceptual difficulties and it has even less consensus unanimity (IOM, 2019; Battistella, 2018; Kuschminder, 2017). Return migration is the one which is least well understood among the different stages of the migration process (IOM & ACP, 2013; Bastia, 2011); and many aspects of the return migration remain in need of understanding (Battistella, 2018; Kuschminder, 2017; Wahba, 2014). Return migration is often badly understood, and its dimensions and modalities are often poorly understood (Battistella, 2018).

Evidences have heralded that return migration is a dynamic phenomenon. Undoubtedly, it is not always a process of simply *“going-home”* and uni-directional means (Segal, 2016; Wahba, 2014; IOM & ACP, 2013; Arowolo, 2000). Coming homeland as returnee can be harder than leaving and the process is grappled with severe obstacles. Return migration necessitates a complicated decision-making process demanding a variety of factors (IOM & ACP, 2013). Creating sustainable livelihoods for returnees can be difficult due to structural challenges and low economic opportunities in the country of origin (Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017; Segal, 2016; IOM, 2015); and returnees previous social network has either been lost or damaged as they have spent a significant time in exile (ILO, 2013).

Moreover, return migration is common, albeit our knowledge of its extent is hampered by lack of data, and whether those exiting return to their home country or move onto another destination is rarely known (GMG, 2017; Wahba, 2014); and return migration is difficult to measure as data on the numbers of return migrants are not well recorded

(Wahba, 2014; OECD, 2008; Jensen & Pedersen, 2007). Return migration has been understudied for a long period of time. In migration studies, return migration is an enormously a neglected area and has been less researched (Kuschminder, 2013; Bastia, 2011; Arowolo, 2000); and *“return migration is the great unwritten chapter in the history of migration”* (King, 2000:7). However, since 2000, studies that explore return migration from multiple perspectives have been gradually increased. For instance, imagined and provisional return (Oxfeld & Long, 2004), second generation return (Tsuda, 2009), contributions to theory (Ammassari, 2009; Cassarino, 2004), the impacts of Assisted Voluntary Return (AVR) on returnees and their countries of return (Majidi, 2012; Collyer, 2009), and many other empirical studies. Despite the increase in research on different forms of return migration, a consensus on linking the economic life such as livelihood and survival strategies of the return migrants and the effects of return migration is still lacking.

Return migration has been viewed as a double-edged sword that affects both returnees and their country of origin. It has both positive and negative profound personal consequences for the returnees and a bundle of implications for their homeland (Newland & Salant, 2018; Wahba, 2014). On the one hand, the returnees can use their skills and knowledge gained in the country of destination to their advantage upon return, and the country of origin can benefit much from these inputs, turning *“brain drain”* into *“brain gain”* (Martin & Radu, 2012); and they can act as key agents for economic and social changes by bringing back their financial resources, and introducing innovations and technologies to their homeland (ADB, 2020). On the contrary, return migrants may comeback with skills that do not match the demands of the home economy and might not be able easily to reintegrate back in the labour market upon return (Hamdouch & Wahba, 2012; Lucas, 2008;); and returnees’ previous social network has either been lost or damaged, they are obliged to rebuild their social network and develop their means of livelihood in a new socio-economic and political setting (Battistella, 2018; Wahba, 2014; ILO, 2013).

It is a multitude process that depends on the environmental and structural capacities; development and economic opportunities available in the homeland amongst others (IOM, 2015; Dumont & Spielvogel, 2008). The livelihoods of returnees heavily rely on the prevailing socio-economic and political environment; any of the dimensions of such environmental change may also change their livelihood status and survival strategies (Jacobsen, 2014; ILO, 2013); and return migration particularly the forced one and food insecurity and other vulnerability can feed into each other (Oxfam, 2018; FAO-IFPRI, 2017). In our globalized world, migration has become inevitable and almost touches every corner of the globe (Messay & Teferee, 2017).

However, in the overall migration landscape, the Horn of Africa has unique challenges as the nature of human movements in the region is irregular including return migration (Siegel *et al.*, 2016; Schroder, 2015; Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009). Likewise, latest data demonstrate a rise in return migration in Ethiopia and the country is featured by frequent international return migration. Over the past decades, return migration has increased to Ethiopia (Kuschminder, 2013; Koser & Kuschminder, 2015). Moreover, ILO (2019) elaborated the situation in a condensed form hereunder:

...Ethiopia presents a case where an origin country has been grappling with increased returns of migrants, mainly as a result of mass deportations of nationals from abroad, especially from Saudi Arabia with 163,000 forcibly returned between November 2013 and March 2014. Ethiopian migrants are also returning voluntarily or forced to Ethiopia from other parts of the world. This poses serious challenges for reintegration as Ethiopian returnees are often in situations of vulnerability (ILO, 2019:24).

Furthermore, very recently, from November 2018 to 2020 about 572,096 and 6,418 officially registered irregular cross-border migrants returned to Ethiopia in general and to Addis Ababa in particular, respectively (MoLSA, 2021; BoLSA, 2021), which in turn may imply that, Ethiopia is a hub for return migration. Having this in mind, an attempt was made to review some empirical studies that have been undertaken in Ethiopia on the issue under investigation. A study conducted in Ethiopia that aimed at assessing the

linkages between migration and sustainable livelihoods concluded that international migration is seen as just one of the livelihood strategies (Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009); Ethiopian return migrants were swamped by hopelessness and painful experiences as the result of physical abuses, restrictive mobility, and a variety of harassment by respective employers (Shishay *et al.*, 2019); and a survey study carried out on asset accessibility in Southern Ethiopia, Wolaita Sodo based on internal migration on urban migrants concurred that physical, human, social, financial, and natural capitals were ranked in decreasing order (Befikadu, Zerihun, & Yonatan, 2018).

It is evident from the preceding discussions that returnees are largely challenged by a tremendous number of setbacks upon their return. The main emphasis of previous studies was on understanding and analyzing decisions for departure, failing to acknowledge the link between return migration and livelihoods of the returnees in Ethiopia. Scientific studies on the economic life and status of integration into the local labour market among the Ethiopian international returnees as a whole are scant, making it an under-researched topic. The issue has no yet well documented in literatures, and only little is known in Ethiopian context. Consequently, decision makers and development actors found at various levels that are engaged in migration policy formulation and administration face critical knowledge gaps for which evidences are lacking to draw on sound livelihood interventions.

The explicit purpose this study is therefore to examine the livelihoods and survival strategies pursued by Ethiopian return migrants in Addis Ababa to broaden understandings on the link between return migration and the livelihoods of the returnees. Moreover, the study is targeting at informing pragmatic and effective interventions and thereby enhancing the livelihood of the target population. To attain these objectives, the following two basic research questions were posed:

- 1) *How do the returnees make a living, and in what types of livelihood strategies do they are being engaged?*
- 2) *What major background characteristics of the returnees are affecting their livelihood strategies?*

7.2. The Sustainable Livelihood Approach as a Conceptual Framework

The present study is subjected to sustainable livelihood framework. Recently, *the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA)* developed by Department for International Development/DFID is the most cited framework and frequently adapted by many international organizations (CARE International, Oxfam, the World Bank and UNDP) and scholars to succinctly assess a household's methods of survival (Cordero, 2016; Geiser *et al.*, 2007; Rakodi & Lloyed-Jones, 2002). More specifically, the approach has been endorsed by Migration Policy Institute (MPI) to examine and understand the impact of livelihood opportunities and interventions on migration patterns (Fratzke & Salant, 2018). The framework can help to identify the relationships that exist between assets and livelihood strategies (Ellis, 2000; Carney, 1998).

It is a practical and analytical tool that outlines a holistic approach in addressing the analysis of livelihoods as well as to the designing and monitoring of the livelihood interventions (ACF-IN, 2008; FAO, 2002); and the approach sets out to be people-centered and holistic, and to provide an integrated view of how people make a living within evolving social, institutional, political, economic and environmental contexts (Bebbington, 1999; Carney, 1998). Within the framework, three factors affect the *scope* of livelihood opportunities available to households or individuals (returnees in this case): (a) **livelihood assets** (such as human, financial capital, etc.,); (b) **vulnerability contexts** (describing concerns such as availability of employment, conflict, or environmental degradation); and (c) **structures and processes** (such as the legal and policy frameworks in different countries) (Fratzke & Salant, 2018); and it integrates three key concepts of capability, equity and sustainability (Chambers & Conway, 1992). In the approach not only the assets but also the individual is central to the sustainable livelihood approach, and it also illustrates the impact of policies, institutions as well as the vulnerability context on the individual (Cordero, 2016; Overseas Development Institute/ODI, 2002). Until recently, the livelihoods approach originated in rural contexts and has been worked on largely in the context of rural development, however it is now

being increasingly discussed for urban settings and there is nothing inherent in urban settings to prevent their application there (DFID & World Bank, 2002; ODI, 2002). In other words, needless to say, the approach is just as relevant in the urban context as in the rural.

Broadly speaking, the application of the approach is two-fold: in developmental delays or problems; and in research spheres. The approach is widely applied in research (Köberlein, 2003; de Haan & Rogaly, 2002), and a means whereby development problems is analyzed, and policies and programmes are designed to realize the principal goal of poverty reduction (Rakodi & Lloyd-Jones, 2002). Accordingly, the SLA was conceptualized within urban contexts to build the current study on it. The rationale behind is that SLA has the capacity to better maximize understanding the livelihoods of the poor by taking a group of individual returnees as its main unit of analysis. Furthermore, the approach has due regard on the strategies that the poor people employ to make a living (Degefa, 2008; ODI, 2002; Ellis, 2000). To this effect, the present study is not an endeavor made to explore and interpret in great-depth all aspects of the SLA as applied to Ethiopian return migrants in the study area. The framework conceptualized above is only confined to exploring the livelihoods and survival strategies of the returnees in the area under consideration.

7.3. Research Methods

7.3.1. Tools of Data Collection

Both quantitative and qualitative data were used to obtain valuable information to assess the current livelihoods and survival strategies pursued among the study population. Using both types of data enable the researcher to expand an understanding from one method to another, to converge or confirm findings from different data sources, etc., (Creswell & Clark, 2010/2007; Creswell, 2009/2003; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). Accordingly, survey questionnaires, semi-structured interviews (SSIs), focus group discussions (FGDs), and document analysis were employed as the four instruments of data gathering. These are discussed hereunder.

The Survey Questionnaires

They had 12 close-ended items that were identified as the potential livelihood strategies that need to be employed by the returnees upon their return in the study area. The items were presented on a three-point Likert scale with responses ranging from (Engaged = 3; rarely engaged = 2; and Never engaged = 1) to indicate the livelihood strategies in which they had been engaged upon their return from abroad. Moreover, the survey questionnaire had an open-ended item so as to enable participants to write a free account in their own terms, to explain and qualify their responses and avoid the limitations of pre-set categories of response.

The survey questionnaire was translated from English into the local Amharic language and tested for face validity. A principal component analysis (PCA) was also carried-out to reduce the factors into a smaller set of components and to summarize data so that relationships and patterns can be easily interpreted and understood (Gray, 2017; O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013; Abdi & Williams, 2010; Field, 2009; Everitt, 2004). Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test were undertaken to check the sample adequacy and the suitability of data for factor analysis respectively. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy calculated was 0.760, above the commonly recommended value of 0.60 (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Field, 2009), and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2_{(66)} = 5786.532, p = 0.000 < .05$) and was considered adequate for performing a factor analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Pallant, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

The survey questionnaire was pre-tested to check for its internal consistency, and a Cronbach's alpha (α) of 0.743 was obtained. To make the research more valid the questionnaires were distributed to the respondents in the presence of the investigator with the help of trained data enumerators.

Semi-Structured Interviews (SSIs)

The SSIs were administered to allow respondents to express their own point of view and describe situations, events and their experiences. It is the most important form of

interviewing and can be the richest single source of data when done well (Gillham, 2000). Taken together, the interview was conducted with 24 international returnees to find out what is in the mind of the returnees on the issue based on interview-guide questions (Appendix-2).

Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

In the present study, FGDs were conducted to generate a wider range of responses than in individual interviews and intensively elicit the opinion of discussants on the topic under discussion. To this end, the discussions were held with those participants with homogenous characteristics and who did not take part in the study as informants or interviewees. Four FGDs each consisting of on average 10 returnees and core actor participants were administered based on focus group discussion leading questions (Appendix-3). Broadly speaking, a wide range of qualitative data was collected via SSIs and FGDs to exemplify well the statistical analyses.

Document Analysis

Here various documents were used as secondary data pertaining to the phenomenon under investigation to understand the current situation and to enrich the findings. In documentary analysis, the following documents were used as sources of data: government guidelines, policies, directives, books, journals, bulletins, official reports of the government, books, journal articles, periodicals and other relevant documents. When using documentary sources, extreme care was given to the content and trustworthiness of all data drawn from such sources.

7.3.2. Methods of Data Analysis

This section provides a broad overview of techniques of data analyses used. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) (version 23.0) and STATA (version 15.0) were used to analyze the quantitative data succinctly. The results of both quantitative and qualitative data collected concurrently were compared to determine the convergence, differences, or some combinations between them. Both descriptive and inferential

statistics were used to reduce the data into a summary format and to draw inferences respectively. Specifically, descriptive statistics (percentages, mean, median, standard deviation, and charts) and inferential statistics such as (Ordinal Logistic Regression Model and Pearson's Correlation) were employed.

Moreover, the qualitative data were transcribed, coded and interpreted thematically. The authors were also committed to meet the ethical standards set forth by the APA from inception to completion of the study to protect and ensure the dignity and welfare of all participants.

7.4. Results and Discussions

7.4.1. Demographic characteristics of the returnees

Age of the returnees in years

Table 7-1 is concerned with the results of age category of the returnees. To this end, as shown in Table 7-1, the mean age of the sampled returnees of the study was found to be about 32.1 years with standard deviation of 5.66. Moreover, about 40% of the study population age was ranged between 26-30 years.

Table 7-1: Age category of the respondents in years

Age category in years	Frequency (N)	%
20-25	33	8.2
26-30	161	40.0
31-35	107	26.6
36-40	62	15.4
41-45	33	8.2
46-50	5	1.2
>50 (Above 50)	1	0.2
Descriptive statistics: mean = 32.1; standard deviation = 5.66; minimum = 20; maximum = 52.		

This in turn may indicate that majority of the returnees were young adults and energetic work forces, which might certainly have sound positive indication in the overall performances and competitiveness in their respective career ladders. While the

sampled returnees found in the study area whose age were between 46-50 years old accounted for 1.2%, a group of returnees only constituting about 0.2% was older than 50 years.

Family size of the returnee

The family size of the study population was computed. Accordingly, as a whole, the results of the analysis revealed that the computed mean family size was about 4.10 with standard deviation value of 1.89. Moreover, as indicated in Table 7-2, majority of the study population that constituted 79.4% had a family size ranged between 1 and 5. The result of analysis depicted that the percentage of sampled returnees having the number of family greater than ten was found to only 0.2%.

Table 7-2: Number of family size of the returnees

Family size category	Frequency (N)	%
1-5	319	79.4
6-10	82	20.4
>10 (Above 10)	1	0.2
Descriptive statistics: mean = 4.10; standard deviation = 1.89; minimum = 1; maximum = 12.		

Occupation of the returnees at abroad and homeland

On the one hand, the results reported in Table 7-3 point out that domestic work is the most predominant occupation category in which returnees were engaged in their respective destinations, and the vast majority of the respondents were not engaged in any occupation category at their homeland upon return on the other hand. In numerical terms, 76.4% and 52.2% the respondents were engaged in domestic work when they were at abroad and without any kind of job at origin country upon their return respectively.

Table 7-3: Responses on occupation of the respondents

Major categorized occupations	Occupation at Abroad		Occupation at Homeland	
	N	%	N	%
All-round Worker	8	2	-	-
Cleaner	19	4.7	8	2.0
Daily laborer	21	5.2	53	13.2
Employee/Company Worker	4	1.0	15	3.7
Domestic Worker	307	76.4	14	3.5
Driver	11	2.7	7	1.7
Garage Worker	2	0.5	-	-
Guard	11	2.7	3	0.7
No job	4	1.0	210	52.2
Shepherd	6	1.5	-	-
Petty Trader/Trader	8	2.0	50	12.4
Private Work (House rent, etc.)	-	-	35	8.7
Student	-	-	4	1.0
Broker	-	-	2	0.5
Tailor	-	-	1	0.2

Source: Authors tabulation based on field data (2021)

Moreover, company employee as an occupation was the most suffered occupation and the percentages of returnees who were working as employee at abroad and homeland were below 1.0% and 3.7% respectively which directly related with their education levels as a whole in the study area.

Economic characteristics of the returnees

As evident from Figure 7-1, the overall mean income of the respondents at abroad and homeland was found to be about 6233.46 ETB and 1038.06 ETB respectively. The overall mean income of the study population at abroad is about six times the average income at homeland that may signify that returnees having a significant number found in the study area had poor purchasing power, which may jeopardize returnees' access to services and improved resilience to vulnerability, such as food security or sustainable

use of various resources to make a better living and viable livelihoods. The medians monthly income of the study population at abroad and homeland were found be about 6,000 ETB and 800 ETB respectively.

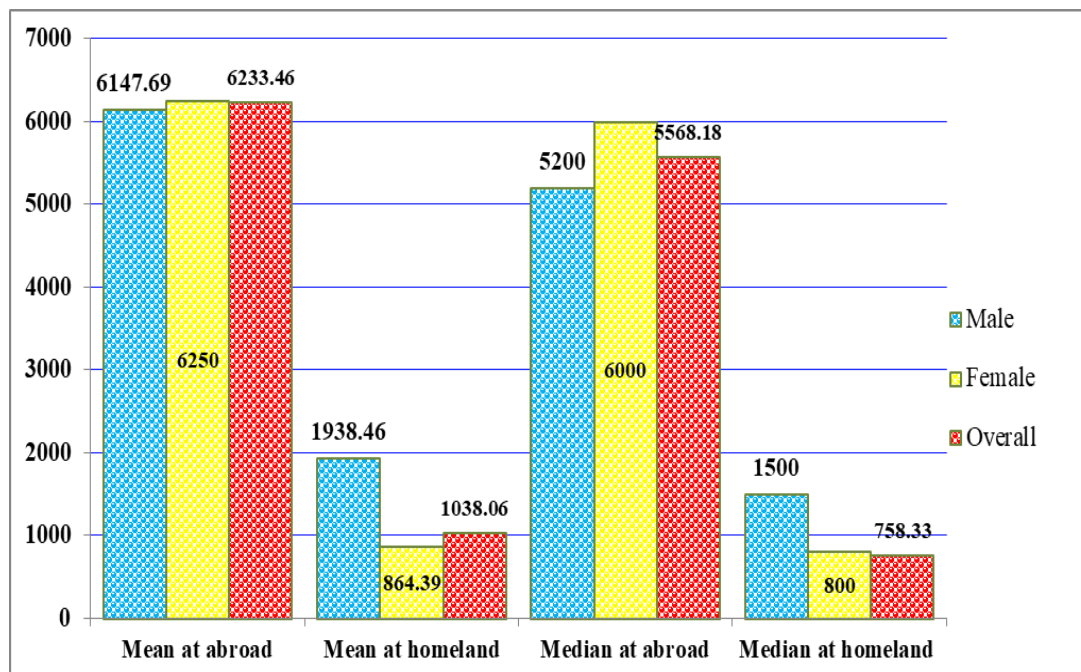


Fig.7-1: Monthly income of returnees at abroad and homeland in Ethiopian Birr (ETB)

Furthermore, as noted in Figure 7-1, the mean income of the respondents at abroad was about 6147.69 ETB and 6250.00 ETB for male and female respondents respectively. On average the homeland income on monthly basis of the male respondents 1938.46 ETB and female respondents 864.39 ETB suggesting income differentials and gender pay gap among the two groups and female earnings is below half of male when disaggregating the results by gender. This finding is in harmony with the finding of Schuerkens (2010) which states that in most nations' discrimination in employment remained entrenched and women still earn less than men.

By taking on average the current exchange rate of one USD for 50 ETB, male (\$1.29) and female returnees (\$0.58) earned a day which is below the threshold that has been defined by the World Bank for extreme poverty (\$1.90 per person per day) (World Bank, 2015).

7.4.2. Livelihood and Survival Strategies of the Returnees

As depicted in Table 7-4, returnee respondents reported that: no job (not engaged in any livelihood activities), daily labour, and vendor and associated petty trades were attached the greatest values above an average on the three Point Likert Scale and ranked as the most three major livelihood strategies pursued by returnees in the study area with the mean values of 2.18, 2.17, and 1.84 respectively. This shows that the vast majority of a group of returnees were without any kind of job in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia upon their return, which in turn may negatively affect the livelihood of the returnees and their respective family members. This is because the mean of returnee respondents on 'No job' was slightly greater than the scale mean when compared with the mean values of the rest items, taking the scale mean 2.00 as a point of reference.

Table 7-4: Responses of the returnees on livelihood strategies (N = 402)

Livelihood sources and strategies	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
No job	2.18	.909	1
Wholesale	1.24	.462	12
Vendor & associated petty trading	1.84	.876	3
NGO employee	1.42	.620	4
Electronics maintenance	1.34	.524	9
Government employee	1.39	.589	6
Sanitation works	1.35	.541	7
Daily labor	2.17	.906	2
Petty poultry activities	1.35	.540	8
Metal works	1.31	.489	10
Carpentry & wood works	1.30	.487	11
Electrical installation	1.40	.596	5

Source: Authors tabulation based on field survey data (2021)

However, respondents found out that amongst all designated 12 potential livelihood and survival strategies that need to be practiced in the study area, the following three sources of livelihoods: metal works, wood works, and wholesale with the mean values

of 1.31, 1.30, and 1.24 respectively as the three least livelihood strategies that were materialized in the study area, which is below an average on the indicated scale. That is, majority of returnee respondents of the study rated their livelihood strategies between the ranges of “*never engaged*” and “*engaged rarely*”. Moreover, an attempt was made to condense the aforementioned livelihood strategies into the following three major categories (Table 7-5): self-employment, unemployment, and wage-employment based on the PCA and the responses obtained are analyzed as follows.

7.4.3. Summary of the categorized Livelihood Strategies

As indicated in Figure 7-2, returnee respondents singled out that unemployment is the most dominant categorized problem by which the study population were hallmarked with the values of (mean = 2.18, SD= 0.91) rated above the scale mean. However, wage-employment and self-employment were rated below the scale mean by the returnees with the values of (mean = 1.41, SD= 0.61; and mean = 1.39, SD = 0.56) respectively, which reflects that majority of returnee respondents were unemployed and deprived of enjoying the potential benefits obtained from the two remunerative livelihood strategies: wage-employment and self-employment which complements the data obtained via qualitative research approach. The findings of this study are congruent with the results other previous studies. For instance, in Addis Ababa unemployment is primarily aggravated due to rural-urban migration and it is found to be one of the most problems facing the city administration (Tsion, 2016). Likewise, Arkoh (2019) found that unemployment is one of the most extreme challenges people face in Ghana; and Sub-Saharan African countries are featured by high unemployment rates that causes major social problems (ILO, 2018; Filmer & Fox, 2014).

In other words, majority of the study population is featured by lack of required assets to enter into two more remunerative livelihood strategies indicated and actively seeking employment. On the contrary, the above findings are not congruent with the following result of study: a large number of poor urban households are opportunistic and diversifying their sources of income through a variety of income-generating activities

(formal waged employment, self-employment, trading and service activities concurrently (Walker, Ramasut, & Meikle, 2001; DFID, 2001).

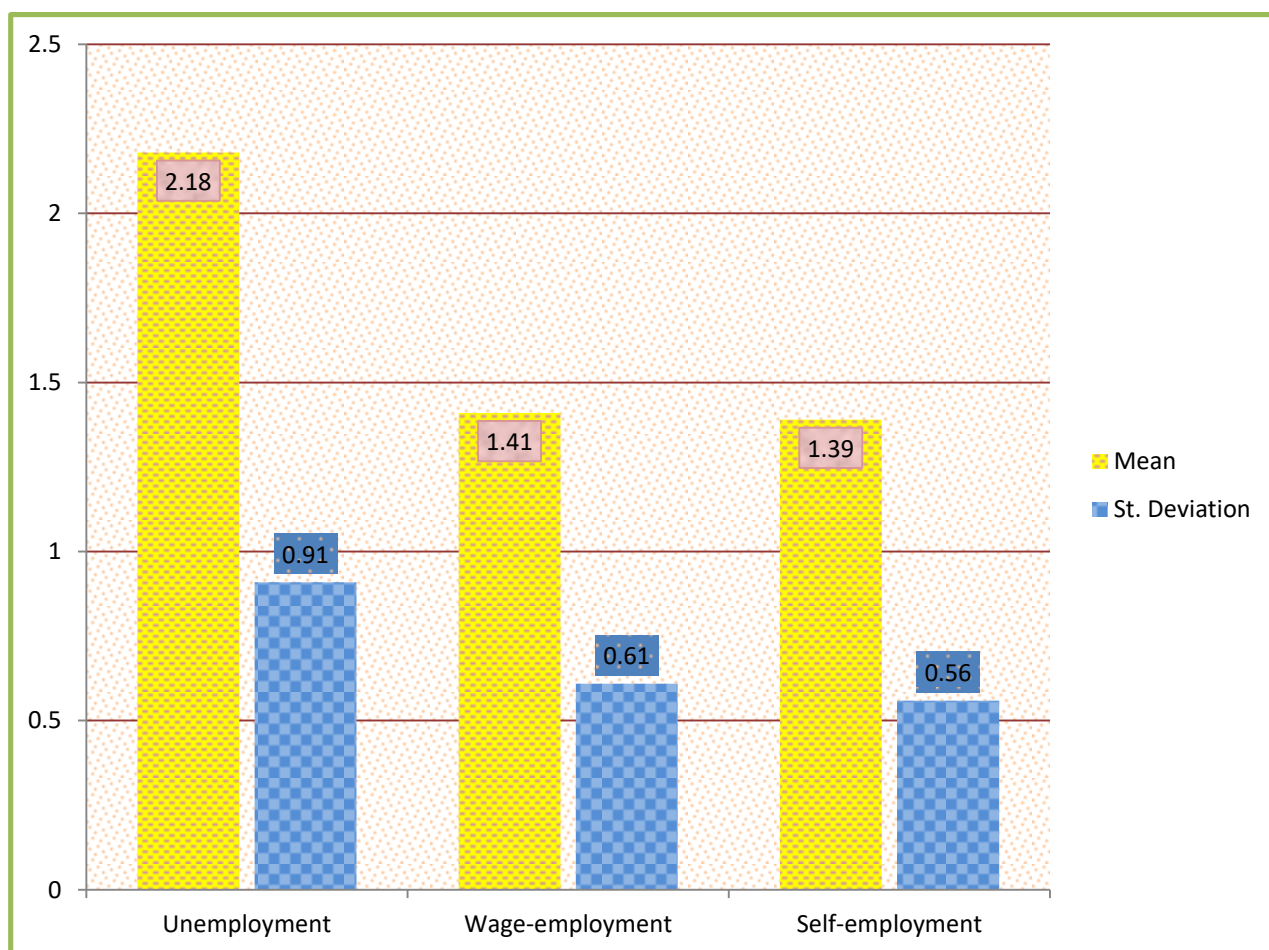


Fig. 7-2: Summary of responses on livelihood and survival strategies

Besides quantitative research approach, based on data obtained via semi-structured interviews (SSIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs) qualitative data analysis was undertaken to corroborate the quantitative findings. Correspondingly, the data are analyzed hereunder:

Asked about how to make a living upon her return, a 35 years old female returnee explicated the situation as follows:

...Nowadays, getting viable job is very difficult upon return. There are no regular sources of income to make a living and to support our families. Consequently, economic problems are bottlenecks to discharge our

responsibilities of caring and supporting our family members. Post-return situation is characterized by decrease in various opportunities for livelihood strategies and many returnees are entering into small business activities mainly on daily basis in private sectors to secure their family income in Addis Ababa. The reintegration process as a whole is poor. Generally, sustainable livelihood upon return is hindered by the absence regular income, though the issue may vary from returnee to returnee depending on the economic background of the respective family at homeland. So, government should work at macro, middle as well as micro levels to improve the economic problems such as unemployment and underemployment (SSR).

Still one of the male returnee interviewee, narrated the issue in his words as follows:

...I migrated in irregular manner to change my livelihood pattern and way of living. Unfortunately, I returned back due to a number of reasons. This time urban labour market is highly diversified and competitive in Addis Ababa. Some jobs require better levels of education and skills. For unskilled and illiterate dweller/returnee like me job opportunities are unreliable, irregular and subject to high seasonal variation. Sometimes, let alone formal jobs, it is very difficult to obtain the non-formal ones on daily basis in sustainable manner due to high unemployment rate. Though, non-formal economic activity is the main means of living for majority of the dwellers in Addis Ababa, its capacity to accommodate the ever growing urban population has been diminished. Due attention should be given by Addis Ababa city administration so as to create ample job opportunities for the dwellers unless re-migration will continue and unabated irrespective of its resultant challenges (SSR).

Overall, the above results and the summary of analysis disclosed that majority of the interviewees reported that currently both formal and non-formal jobs as the two major economic activities are non-abundant and even non-existent to absorb the urban dwellers in general and the returnees in particular due to high unemployment rate in the country including Addis Ababa. Both detrimental economic situation and poor

reintegration process upon return orient the return migrant to go abroad again. Furthermore, as indicated by most of the interviewees measures should be taken for the actual creation of job opportunities for citizens as a whole and for returnees in particular to reintegrate them into the community.

They also forwarded that government bodies must work towards economic activities operating within the official legal framework that can attract individual returnees for employment and ultimately curb down the outward looking for re-migration. These results corroborate the findings of the quantitative data analysis secured through numerical data.

Further analysis of data obtained via focus group discussion (FGDs) was conducted to substantiate these results. The section to follow is dealt with the situation as follows.

...the livelihood schemes are ill-treated not only in our country including Addis Ababa, but also in almost all developing regions of the world as informal employment represents the lion's share of the job opportunities. Developing regions are highly entangled with immense problems to carry out livelihood schemes for their respective returnees. The main problems were and/are: poor linkage between intentions and actions, between policy and actions, loose linkage between the grassroots level organs and higher officials, absence of mandates for the concerned bodies to implement the schemes properly, and scarcity of resources for designing effective and targeted livelihood strategies for an overwhelming number of returnees who came back to home on frequent basis. Though majority of the returnees are without any kind of formal jobs, the informal economy offers some sort of opportunities for improving livelihoods of the returnees (FGD₄).

This may imply that as far as livelihood strategies of the returnees are concerned, majority of the FGDs participants reported the sources of livelihoods as serious problems and impediments to make a living, which need more immediate attention and an attempt is to be made to apply sound job opportunity schemes in Addis Ababa and in Ethiopia at large. This finding is in harmony with the study conducted: informal

employment represents more than half of the opportunities in developing regions of the world; and in the years between 2010 and 2014, the informal economy constituted 49% of non-agricultural employment in Northern Africa; 57% in Latin America and the Caribbean; 66% in Southern and South Eastern Asia and up to 74% in Sub-Saharan Africa and informal employment in the informal sector rises approximately equal to 80% in Sub-Saharan Africa (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2017).

Principal Component Analysis

The factorability of the livelihood and survival strategy items and criteria for the factorability of a correlation were examined in detail as follows. Firstly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy calculated was 0.760, above the commonly recommended value of 0.60, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2_{(66)} = 5786.532, P = 0.000 < .05$). Secondly, factors whose average communality is greater than 0.60 and principal components with eigenvalues above one were considered based on Kaiser's criteria (when the sample size exceeds 250 and the average communality is greater than 0.60, then retain all factors with eigenvalues above one). Thirdly, confirming that each item shared some common variance with other items. Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was deemed to be suitable with variables associated with livelihoods and survival strategies in the study area.

To this effect, principal component analysis was conducted to single out and compute composite scores underlying the livelihoods and survival strategies of returnees in the study area. The factor loadings after rotation using a significant factor criterion of are 0.50 and above (Table 7-5). Accordingly, out of 12 initial variables 10 variables were retained and wholesale, and vendor and associated petty trading were removed from the final analysis as they were not significant in the model. In addition, an attempt was made to identify common themes and a three factor structure for variables was evident. Correspondingly, the first six variables that loaded highly on (*factor 1*) seem to all relate to the state of working for oneself instead of an employer to earn an income by business directly.

Table 7-5: Principal Component Analysis loadings on livelihood and survival strategies

Livelihood activities	Factors			Communalities
	1: Self-employment	2: Unemployment	3: Wage-employment	
Petty poultry activities	.890	-	-	.812
Electrical installation	.748	-	-	.572
Electronics maintenance	.734	-	-	.630
Metal works	.917	-	-	.866
Carpentry & wood works	.892	-	-	.820
Sanitation works	.891	-	-	.817
Daily labor	-	.981	-	.965
No job	-	.982	-	.967
Government employee	-	-	.850	.784
NGO employee	-	-	.894	.808
Eigenvalue	4.956	2.103	1.399	NA
Explained variance (%)	58.6	24.9	16.5	NA

Factor loadings less than 0.50 are suppressed; and NA= not applicable

Therefore, they were labelled as *self-employment livelihood activities*. The two variables (no job, and daily labor) loaded highly on (*factor 2*) all look to be associated with the form of contingent work with no promise that more work will be available in the future; hence, denominated as *unemployment*. Finally, the last two variables loaded highly on (*factor 3*) all contain bundles of tasks performed by employees under administrative job titles; thus, they were labelled as *wage-employment*. Overall, the factor analysis of the ten variables with varimax rotation yielded the following three distinct factors: self-employment; unemployment; and wage-employment as the three categorized livelihood strategies (Table 7-5).

7.4.4. The Effect of Predictor Variables on Latent Variables

In the analysis, an attempt was made to examine the relative contribution of the predictor variables- general characteristics of the returnees to the criterion variables- the three underlying livelihood strategies. The details are presented and concluding remarks are made hereunder.

As evident from Table 7-6, the relationship between the categorical variables and/or ordinal variables was examined to look for associations. Accordingly, an ordinal logistic regression was performed between the criterion variable- self-employment and the predictor variables (personal, economic characteristics, and modality of returns of the returnees). Amongst the predictor variables indicated, only two variables: role in the family; and income at homeland had statistically significant association with self-employment with the odds ratio of (Exp (β) =10.83, $p < 0.05$; and Exp (β) = 0.04, $p \leq 0.001$) respectively.

Table 7-6: Estimates of the Ordinal Logistic Regression Analysis on Self-employment

Criterion variables	Predictor variables	β	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Self-employment	Personal characteristics					
	Gender	1.724	2.095	1	.148	5.60
	Age	-.478	2.748	1	.097	.62
	Family size	-.065	.362	1	.858	.94
	Role in the family	2.382	4.580	1	.032*	10.83
	Educational status	17.168	.000	1	.998	28585898
	Economic characteristics					
	Income at abroad	1.448	2.419	1	.120	4.26
	Income at homeland	-3.360	11.368	1	.001**	.04
	Modality of returns					
	Forced returns	-.612	.223	1	.714	.98
	Voluntarily returns	-.872	.431	1	.953	.712
	Constant	-93.321	.000	1	.999	.000

**, ** significant at the 0.05 and 0.001 levels respectively*

This indicates that, there is a strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis that self-employment as a livelihood strategy and role in the family and income of the returnees

in the homeland are independent and there is, therefore, some relationship between the predictor and criterion variables. While the association between self-employment and role of returnees in the family is positive ($\beta = 2.382$); and on the contrary the correlation between self-employment and income in the homeland is negative ($\beta = -3.360$) as indicated via their respective coefficients. On examining the contributions made by the independent variables in the model, it was found that the scores received from income at homeland was made the largest contribution with ($\beta = |-3.360|$); which is followed by the score received by role in the family among returnees with beta coefficient ($\beta = 2.382$).

As illustrated in Table 7-7, age and educational status of the returnees had a negative and positive statistically significant association with wage-employment respectively at ($p \leq 0.000$) level of significance. The results of analyses further disclose that the rest explanatory variables tested in the model weren't indicating any significant association with the two aforementioned categorized livelihood strategies.

Table 7-7: Results of OLRA on unemployment and wage-employment

Predictor variables	Unemployment				Wage-employment			
	β	Wald	sig	Exp(B)	β	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Personal characteristics								
Gender	17.311	.000	.997	32978759	-.333	.23	.635	.717
Age	-.625	3.26	.071	.536	-.611	22.63	.000**	.543
Family Size	-.453	1.06	.303	.636	-.082	.52	.472	.921
Role in the family	-.536	.24	.621	.585	-.713	2.16	.621	.585
Educational status	-.569	.97	.326	.566	.985	15.30	.000**	.543
Economic characteristics								
Income at abroad	18.477	.000	.997	105766452	-.256	.13	.715	.774
Income at homeland	.344	.090	.764	1.411	-.795	2.56	.110	.451
Modality of returns								
Forced returns	-15.003	.000	.763	.000	.561	.64	.812	1.672
Voluntarily returns	-18.015	.000	.899	.000	.862	.53	.543	1.982
Constant	-32.034	.000	.998	.000	16.993	15.43	.000	23993110

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level.**

Here, the final observation is about the relative importance of independent variables in predicting the dependent variables. Accordingly, the results of analysis indicated that

educational attainment and age of the returnees made the first and the second largest contributions in predicting wage-employment with values of beta coefficients ($\beta = 0.985$; and $\beta = |-0.611|$ respectively (Table 7-7).

7.5. Conclusions and Recommendations

The main intent of the study was to investigate the livelihoods and survival strategies of Ethiopian returnees in Addis Ababa. The study was built on the discourses of Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) in urban context as the main framework to better understand the current situation of the issue under way. The study could contribute for further understandings of the nexus between livelihood strategies and return migration in Ethiopian contexts, with the aim of providing insights for policy-makers and development actors to develop pragmatic strategies and ultimately to reverse and combat the livelihood and survival challenges of the returnees in the study area. Moreover, the study has paramount importance to gauge the salience of '*the economic life of international returnees upon return*' in the academic literature in the study area as well as in the global south at large.

The study has pinpointed out that on average the homeland income on monthly basis of the male and female returnees suggesting income differentials and gender pay gap among the two groups and female earnings is above half of male when disaggregating the results by gender. The results of analysis also vividly revealed that the sources of livelihoods deemed to be a major impediments to make a living among the vast majority of the study population, which require more immediate concerted actions and an attempt is to be made to apply sound job opportunity schemes in the study area. Company employee as an occupation was the most suffered occupation and the number of returnees who were working as employee upon return constituting a minimum percentage. Moreover, the results of ordinal logistic regression analysis depicted that the association between self-employment and role of returnees in the family is positive; while the correlation between self-employment and income in the homeland is negative.

In a nutshell, conclusions drawn from the present study is three-fold: there is no definite and well-defined major livelihoods and survival strategies for the study population and they were seriously hampered by the absence of regular sources of livelihoods; an overwhelming number of a group of returnees were unemployed and not engaged in any urban livelihood activities and deprived of enjoying the potential benefits obtained from the two remunerative livelihood strategies (self-employment and wage-employment); and currently both formal and non-formal jobs as the two major economic activities are non-abundant to absorb the urban return migrants in the study area.

Therefore, targeted interventions are required to entitle and warrant the urban poor returnees with ample livelihoods opportunities via economic inclusion and job creation schemes and thereby building sustainable livelihoods. It is believed that the present study is not free from some drawbacks. First, some pertinent data were collected by relying on the opinions and perceptions of the returnees in which the methods employed may limit the robustness of the results of the study. Second, in this study, data were gathered at snapshot and did not consider the dynamic nature of the livelihood situations of the returnees through time that can be better addressed via longitudinal studies, which obviously may have an impact on the study.

Chapter Eight: Food Security Situations of Ethiopian International Returnees in Addis Ababa

Abstract: *The confluence between food security and return migration, and vice versa, is not so far thoroughly explored and it remains to be elusive in Ethiopia. Hence, the study was intended to unveil the food security situations of international returnees in Addis Ababa to make some viable recommendations for future endeavours. A household-based cross-sectional survey was undertaken on a sample of 402 returnees drawn randomly from Addis Ababa. Household food insecurity access scale (HFIAS), food consumption score (FCS), household dietary diversity score (HDDS), and household hunger scale (HHS) were employed as proxy indicators of food security. Besides, descriptive statistics, Pearson's Correlation, and Linear Regression Model (LRM) were used to analyze the data. The HFIAS indicator has shown that only 6.2% of returnees were categorized as "food secure", while majority of them (93.7%) were in any of the three categories of food insecurity domains (mildly, moderately, and severely food insecure). The calculated composite score of FCS was found to be (FCS = 26), which reveals that the study population were in the borderline food consumption status. The linear regression analysis asserted that role of the returnees in the family, forced and voluntarily returns had a negative statistically significant effects on food consumption status at ($p < 0.001$) with ($\beta = -2.180$; $\beta = -6.363$; and $\beta = -5.821$) respectively. The results of HDDS manifested that the study population consumed only four out of eight food groups, which in turn indicate that majority of them, were consumed food having low dietary diversity. Moreover, the calculated score on the HHS had a score of 3.0 and 75% of sampled returnees were within moderate household hunger category, which portrays that they had experienced inadequate food access. Meanwhile, the findings of our present study demonstrated that the study population in the area was hallmarked by poor prevalence of food security, poor level of access to food, poor food consumption patterns, and insufficient level of dietary diversity in their consumption.*

Based on:

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2023). The pervasiveness of food security among Ethiopian international returnees in Addis Ababa: Food consumption and dietary diversity scores as proxy indicators (Under Review).

8.1. Introduction

In our modern era, food security and sustainable development stand at a cross roads. Food security is found to be a critical factor for economic and social stability and forms a prerequisite to sustainable and equitable economic development (UNDESA, 2018; FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO, 2018; FAO, 2006). The 2030 Agenda recognizes food security as a vital threshold condition for sustainable development. Food security is the lifeblood of sustainable development (Elliot *et al.*, 2015; UNDP, 2012; SAMP, 2012). It is also strongly averse to sustainable development. The realization of the Zero Hunger target by 2030 is becoming a very tough exercise. One of the biggest challenges we face in the current century is securing world food security (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO, 2021; UNDESA, 2008).

The number of people who suffer from hunger has gradually increased significantly, and an estimated 850 million people in the world today suffer from hunger, of those, about 820 million live in developing countries (UNDESA, 2018). Hunger is more on the rise in the developing regions of the world as food supply is already scarcer in the regions than in the developed ones (de Ridder, 2011; UNDESA, 2008). *“815 million people are hungry, and every third person is malnourished, reflecting a food system out of balance”* (FAO, 2018). The steady increases in food prices that culminated in the spikes of 2007–2008 have brought food security back on the global policy agenda (UNDP, 2012). Amongst the major aims set out in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development is achieving a world without hunger and malnutrition in all its forms.

Addressing the challenges of hunger, food insecurity and malnutrition in all their forms and features prominently in the second Sustainable Development Goal (SDG₂) of the 2030 Agenda comprise: ensuring access to safe, nutritious and sufficient food for all (Target 2.1) and eliminating all forms of malnutrition (Target 2.2) (UNDESA, 2018). It is also understood that the attainment of SDG₂ depends largely on and also contributes to the achievement of the other goals of the 2030 Agenda: ending poverty; improving health, education, gender equality and access to clean water and sanitation; decent

work; reduced inequality; and peace and justice, to name only a few (FAO *et al.*, 2018; UNDESA, 2018).

Still other authors associated food security with political conditions. Most countries of the world where there is political instability are always associated with food insecure territories, and the food insecurity in such countries might have been as a result of political instability or vice versa (FAO *et al.*, 2021; Fawole *et al.*, 2015).

From preceding discussions one can deduce that the Sustainable Development Goals are interdependent and one cannot be achieved without others. For instance, ending poverty cannot be achieved without creating jobs, securing sustainable livelihoods and equitable growth (FAO *et al.*, 2018). The World Food Summit 1996 identified food security as all individuals, always have physical and economic access to nutritious safe and sufficient food meeting their dietary needs and preferences for an active and healthy life. Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life (FAO, 2010, 2006).

On the one hand, evidences have shown that connections between migration and food security are typically assumed. Migration in general and return migration in particular and food security are inextricably intertwined (Foresti *et al.*, 2018; Choithani, 2016); and migration improves food security of migrants (Foresti *et al.*, 2018; Chikanda & Crush, 2018; World Bank, 2016). Migration can lead to a reduction in unemployment and increased wages, which in turn may strongly be associated with the livelihoods and food security status of households and their members (Foresti *et al.*, 2018). The relationship between migration and food security is the direct one and food security is fundamentally linked to the questions of livelihood, that is, one may lead and cause others and vice-versa (Chikanda & Crush, 2018; IOM *et al.*, 2018; World Bank, 2016).

On the other hand, Ethiopia is hallmarked by frequent international return migration. Migration and return migration have both increased to and from Ethiopia over the past decades (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2011; Bureau of Labour & Social Affairs, 2021;

Kuschminder, 2013). Moreover, Ethiopia has been ranked as one of the hunger hotspot countries in Africa and remains at the highest alert level (WFP & FAO, 2022). Nevertheless, an apparent influx of “*surplus*” international returnees from around the world to their homeland, little evidence is currently available supporting the association between food security status and international returnees in Ethiopian context. The issue is not yet fully understood that can ultimately lead to ill-considered interventions at Addis Ababa as well as at national level.

Furthermore, as demonstrated in the preceding discussions, the 2030 Agenda has given top impetus to the nexus between food security and sustainable development and the issue of food security has been considered as both a basic need and a human right. In this regard, whether Ethiopian international returnees are food secured or not is a question that needs to be answered accordingly. Hence, assessing the situation via scientific investigation is of paramount importance to gauge the salience of ‘*food security situations of returnees*’ in the academic literature as well as for decision making. To this end, the overarching objective of the study is to assess the prevalence of levels of food security among Ethiopian international returnees at their homeland in Addis Ababa. This sub-study of the dissertation has been guided by the following four research questions to meet the preceding objectives of the study:

- 1) *To what extent do returnees had access prevalence to food security in the study area?*
- 2) *What is the magnitude of food consumption status among the returnees, and what factors accounted for it?*
- 3) *How the levels of dietary diversity and hunger status the returnees are explained?*
- 4) *Is there any correlation among the proxy indicators of food security employed in the study?*

8.2. Conceptual Framework

Over the last decades, food security as a concept has undergone tremendous changes and has evolved widely (Shakeel, 2018; Webb *et al.*, 2006; FAO, 2006; Heidhues *et al.*,

2004; Maxwell, 1996). Concerns about food security can be traced back to the Hot Springs Conference of Food and Agriculture in 1943, since then the issue has subjected to a number of redefinitions (Clay, 2002; Napoli, 2011). The 1943 Conference developed a secure, adequate, and suitable supply of food for everyone as a core concept that was later showing compulsive concern at an international level (Napoli, 2011). In 1950s, donor countries such as USA and Canada set up bilateral agencies to ship abroad their agricultural surpluses to countries in need. In 1960s, there was a growing realization of the negative impacts of food aid due to the fact that a country's progress to self-sufficiency could be impeded by food aid. Then the concept of Food for Development emerged in 1963 whose institutional expression, the World Food Programme (WFP).

However, the era of an abundance of food was coming to an end and the 1972 food crisis clearly indicated the beginning of fluctuating food supplies and prices. To curb down the situation and guarantee access to food supplies, insurance schemes were set up to scale up coordination among donor organizations and improved monitoring of the situation on the ground in receiving countries. It was in 1970s that actually the issue of food security came to the fore and the 1974 World Food Conference held in Rome clearly made the following declaration by giving the first acknowledgement:

...Every man, woman and child has the inalienable right to be free from hunger and malnutrition in order to develop fully and maintain their physical and mental faculties. Accordingly, the eradication of hunger is a common objective of all the countries of the international community, especially of the developed countries and others in a position to help (UNDESA, 1975: 8).

The term first originated in the mid-1970s, when the 1974 World Food Conference defined food security in terms of food supply- assuring the availability and price stability of basic food stuffs at the international and national level: *"Availability at all times of adequate world food supplies of basic food stuffs to sustain a steady expansion of food consumption and to offset fluctuations in production and prices"* (World Food Conference, 1996 as cited in FAO, 2006). Following the 1974 Rome Conference the whole concept of food security has evolved, developed, multiplied and diversified

(Maxwell, 1996; World Bank, 1986); there are now thought to be almost two hundred definitions of food security, which clearly may indicate differentiation of views and approaches to the problem at hand (Smith *et al.*, 1993).

In 1981, the definition was further became wider when the book entitled *“Poverty and Famines”* came up by Amartya Sen. The central point of Sen is that any group risks to starve due to the following two major factors as the result of an entitlement failure: a reduction of food production for personal consumption or a fall in the food exchange rate (Sen, 1981); introduced the idea of entitlement to food: *“Starvation is the characteristic of some people not having enough food to eat. It is not the characteristic of there being not enough food to eat (Sen, 1981 as cited in FAO, 2006).* The effect was to move the whole issue of food security out of the realm of the agricultural production and put it in a broader context of poverty and lack of development. This resulted in the FAO in 1983 adding the factor of access to those of production and price stability.

In 1983, the analysis undertaken by FAO focused on food access dimension, leading to a definition based on the balance between the demand and supply side of the food security equation: *“Ensuring that all people at all times have both physical and economic access to the basic food that they need”* (FAO, 1983). In addition to, the regional and national level of aggregation, the definition was revised to inculcate the individual and household level in food security analysis (FAO, 2006). In 1986, the World Bank Report on Poverty and Hunger (World Bank, 1986) focused on temporary dynamics of food insecurity was exerted sound influence on the issue (Clay, 2002).The report introduced the distinction between chronic food and transitory food insecurity, which was complemented by Sen’s theory of famine (1981) which highlighted the effect of personal entitlements on food access (production, labour, trade and transfer based resources) (FAO, 2006).

Moreover, the 1986 World Bank Report came with another component in the food security picture, namely the time element. Food insecurity could be categorized as either chronic or transitory with the former representing a situation where the lack of

food is a permanent feature and the latter describing a temporary shortage (Hart, 2009; FAO, 2005). Chronic food insecurity basically means that the risk of famine is high and that to guarantee food security that risk must be tackled and eliminated, giving rise to the idea of: “Access of all people at **all times** to enough food for an active, healthy life”(World Bank, 1986). A further component in the definition of food security concerned the actual quality and type of food supplied and a requirement that it should not merely satisfy protein-energy needs but provide the nutritional balance necessary for a healthy and active life. In addition, when considering the definition of food security, the recognition of preferences, traditional habits and socially acceptable food types was received prompt attention. To date, the definition of food security has acquired the broadest acceptance during the World Food Summit (WFS) in November 1996:

“Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life”(World Food Summit, 1996). The widely accepted World Food Summit (1996) definition reinforces the multidimensional nature of food security and includes the following four pillars: food access, availability, food use and stability, and has enabled policy responses focused on the promotion and recovery of livelihood options stability (FAO, 2006).

Generally, as evident from the above discussions, food security is a complex concept that has been defined in a number of ways. Before 1970s the main center of interest was on promising the availability of food as well as attempting to ensure price stability at the international and national levels via maximized food production and the use of food surpluses. Moreover, the whole problem of food security was basically considered as food supply, stemming from a series of food crises and major outbreaks of famine and the hoped-for Green Revolution programme had done little to aside; though the programme had contributed much in maximizing the levels of food production in quantitative terms. Nonetheless, the problem of famine did not go away and it was

realized that the underlying cause was not so much food supply as the purchasing power of specific social groups. Nowadays, the economic as well as the physical aspects of food availability are the two important elements in defining the term food security. Over a dozen of decades, the concepts of food security have evolved and undergone a long journey; accordingly Figure 8-1 below portrays it concisely.

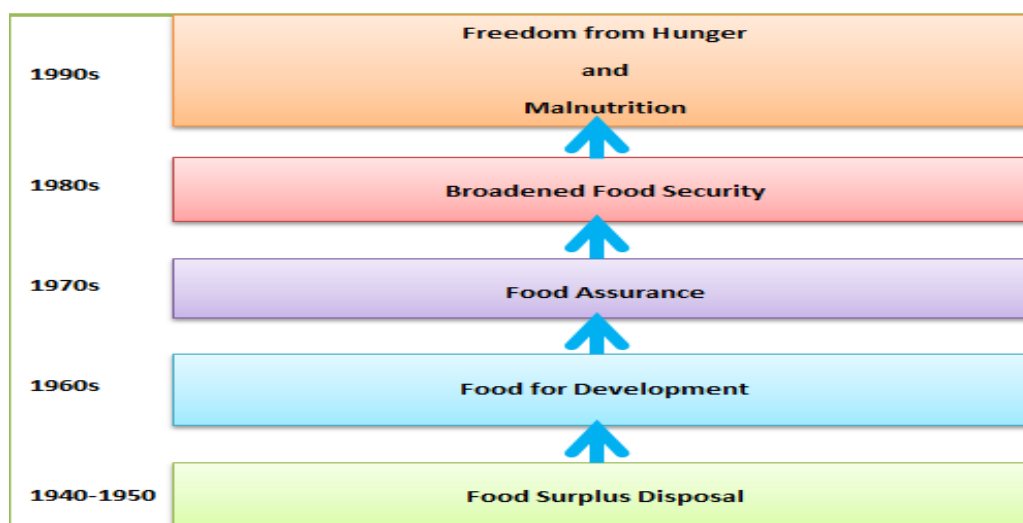


Fig. 8-1: Summary of the Evolution of Food Security adapted from (UNDESA, 1975 as cited in Napoli, 2011:8)

As a whole, from the above summary of evolutions of food security one can also conclude that the concept and definition of food security has grown overtime to be more inclusive of all issues revolving around the food system instead of solely focusing on the food supply side issues related to availability during the emergence of the concept in 1974. The rationale behind the evolving nature of the concept is: broad, diversified, and dynamic due to varied geographical, social and economic set-up of the world communities, and consequently tends to understand the concept differently (Hussein, 2006).

To this end, to make the study manageable, its central concern is situated within the following two dimensions: measuring the food security status of the returnees using the four major proxy indicators (Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS), Food Consumption Score (FCS), Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS), and Household

Hunger Scale (HHS); and identifying factors affecting food security situations in the study area. The rationale behind employing four food security indicators is that no single indicator could effectively capture the multiple dimensions of food security (Coates *et al.*, 2011; WFP, 2008). There is no unique indicator of food security (Løvendal & Knowles, 2005; Ligon & Schechter, 2004; FAO, 2002). Food security is such a complex notion that it is virtually impossible to measure it directly, and a variety of proxy measures have been suggested and some food security indicators are difficult or expensive to measure directly either because: the process of measurement is time consuming and expensive (Frank *et al.*, 1999); and measuring food insecurity is a costly and complicated exercise (Coates *et al.*, 2011; Maxwell *et al.*, 2008).

More fundamentally, given the concern for under reporting of incomes from respondents, proxies are thought to be more easily observed by the survey enumerator/s, and therefore, more credible. At the same time, there is rarely a one-to-one relation between changes in direct indicators and changes in their proxies. Thus, the use of proxies involves a trade-off of one potential set of biases against another set of biases (Swindale & Bilinsky, 2009; Frank *et al.*, 1999).

8.3. Research Methods

This section was dedicated to the discussion of the research approaches of the present study. The first sub-section was relied on the definition of variables; the second sub-section was dealt with tools of data collection used during the course of the study. The next subsequent section was concerned with a variety of methods of data analyses pertinent to food security situations of the returnees to realize the already designed objectives of the study. The following sections are concerned with candid discussions of the aforesaid issues.

8.3.1. Variables of the Study

Broadly speaking, the variables under study are operationalized in the present section primarily based on the conceptual background presented in earlier. The following three

sets of factors constitute the predictor variables of the study: socio-cultural; economic characteristics; and modality of returns of the returnees. However, variables associated with the level of food security access prevalence, food stuff consumption, dietary adequacy (dietary diversity and food frequency), and returnee households' hunger status were treated as criterion variables of the study.

8.3.2. Data Collection Tools

A household-based cross-sectional study was conducted in four sub-cities (two inner and two peri-urban areas) of Addis Ababa, from the month of July 2021 to August 2021 during the non-fasting period to gain an accurate sense of the overall picture of the issue. The optimal time of year to measure dietary diversity of households or individuals depends on the objective of the survey and in non-agriculture-based communities where seasonality is not a problem, any time of the year (FAO, 2010). All returnees that were not available in the sampled sub-cities after 3 consecutive visits were excluded from the study.

All data collection instruments were adopted from different standardized tools developed by (WFP, 2015, 2012, 2008; FAO, 2010) and other international organizations. Three main data collection methods were employed. The first was field observations, where the first-hand information on how to access the study population and to determine the most appropriate information sources and data collection tools (Appendix-2). The second method relied on conducting a structured interviewer-administered questionnaire (SIAQ) with returnees in the presence of the investigator to obtain in-depth information about the current food security situations upon their return in which the questions were directed to the individual in the household who is most involved with the food preparation and meals. In other words, it is a self-administered questionnaire carried out in the presence of the researcher to address any queries or uncertainties and to ensure a good response rate.

The third method was a household survey questionnaire that is concerned primarily with the four proxy indicators of food security status of the returnees. Firstly, the

Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) was employed to estimate the prevalence of household food insecurity access or prevalence in the study area. Secondly, food consumption score (FCS) was used to measure dietary adequacy (dietary diversity and food frequency). Thirdly, household dietary diversity score (HDDS) was employed to count and measure how many food groups were consumed over a reference period. Fourthly, household hunger scale (HHS) was used to measure to what extent a returnee household has experienced hunger within the past 30 days prior to the survey period. Moreover, the consolidated approach to reporting indicators of food security (CARI) that is developed by WFP was used to determine the overall prevalence of 'food insecurity' in the study population by summing together the rates of the two most severe categories (Appendix-4).

Moreover, before embarking into the main data collection processes, some senior researchers and experts from IOM, MoLSA, and BoLSA having demonstrated knowledge and experiences in the area were consulted as to how the instruments would be designed and improved for the utility of the tools. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha reliability and internal consistency were computed using the latest SPSS software (version 23.0) and STATA (version 15.0) computer programmes alternatively to check whether or not the overall reliability co-efficient of the items were found to be satisfactory in general and within sub-scales in particular. Eventually, items having a Cronbach's alpha of 0.85 and above were used to gather data for the study.

8.3.3. Methods of Data Analysis

In the present study, the data were processed and analyzed based on the principles of employing the four proxy indicators of food security status such as HFIAS, FCS, HDDS, and HHS). The holistic measure of HFIAS was computed to determine the household food insecurity access prevalence in terms of the following four categories: food secure, mildly food insecure access, moderately food insecure access, and severely food insecure access. Moreover, HFIAS prevalence conditions and domains were assessed using percentages. Data for FCS was calculated based on the past seven day food consumption recall and the score for each food group was calculated by multiplying the

number of days the food was consumed and its relative weight. HDDS was used to measure how many food groups are consumed during a week reporting period by the study population in the study area.

In addition, HHS was built on perceptions of a returnee household on varying degrees of hunger by the number of times a household had experienced hunger within the past 30 days prior to the survey period. Furthermore, descriptive statistics (percentages, mean, median, and standard deviation), and inferential statistics (independent t-test, ANOVA, Pearson's Correlation, and Linear Regression Model) were employed to analyze the data. The Linear Regression Model was used to investigate whether or not the food consumption status of the study population is significantly influenced by demographic, economic characteristics and modality of returns of the sampled respondents in the study area.

8.4. Results and Discussions

This section presents the major findings of the study. Henceforth, it deals with the presentation, analyses and interpretations of data collected via the aforementioned techniques to answer the research questions set at the beginning of the study.

8.4.1. The Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) Prevalence

Here the intention is to determine the HFIAS prevalence in terms of the following four categories: food secure, mildly food insecure access, moderately food insecure access, and severely food insecure access based on a holistic measure of HFIAS. The details are presented in Table 8-1 below.

Table 8-1: Affirmative responses on the (HFIAS)

HFIAS Questions		Affirmative Responses (Yes)		Frequency					
		N	%	Rarely		Sometimes		Often	
				N	%	N	%	N	%
Q1. Worry about food		345	85.8	96	27.5	138	39.5	115	33.0
Q2. Unable to eat preferred foods		373	92.8	99	26.4	145	38.7	131	34.9
Q3. Eat a limited variety of foods		370	92.0	93	25.0	145	39.0	134	36.0
Q4. Eat some foods that you really did not want to eat		346	86.1	83	24.0	145	41.9	118	34.1
Q5. Eat a smaller meal		332	82.6	76	22.8	156	46.8	101	30.3
Q6. Eat fewer meals in a day		305	75.9	100	32.8	153	50.2	52	17.0
Q7. No food to eat of any kind in the household		130	32.3	53	41.4	56	43.8	19	14.8
Q8. Go to sleep at night hungry		104	25.9	35	34.0	54	52.4	14	13.6
Q9. Go a whole day and night without eating anything		83	20.6	28	4.1	43	52.4	11	13.4
					720	1,035		695	
Total number of returnees in the HFIAS category = 2,450									
	Food secure	Keys: Colour codes and their respective indicators (see at the left)							
	Mildly food insecure								
	Moderately food insecure								
	Severely food insecure								

Source: Authors own tabulation based on survey data (2021)

As evident from Table 8-1, analysis of household food security access related domains was made based on the generic occurrence questions grouped by the three domains reflected in the HFIAS: *anxiety and uncertainty, insufficient quality, and insufficient quantity food intake* of the study population. Accordingly, in the view of returnee respondents, on average over three-fourth (85.6%) of households were anxious and experienced uncertainties about the food supply over the past four weeks in the study area. Only (14.2%) of the study population reported that they were not experiencing

uncertainty and anxiety related to food availability during the indicated period. In other words, about one-seventh of the returnee households reported that were not worrying about the amount of food that they had.

Concerning the insufficient quality of food items indicated under (Q_2 , Q_3 and Q_4) respondents of the study tended to assign on average nearly only one-tenth (9.7%) of the study population found to be experienced sufficient quality of food, while majority of them constituting above three-fourth (90.3%) had experienced insufficient quality of food or compromising on the quality of food prior to the survey period as a whole for the given domain. Table 8-1 also presents about the insufficient quantity food intake as indicated under (Q_5 through Q_9). To this effect, the result highlighted that on average among the respondents of the study nearly about half (47.3%) of them found that there was insufficient quantity of food intake, which indicates that a notable proportion of the returnees accorded that they had experienced reduced food intake over the reference period.

Moreover, as observed from the results, the study population were both in the four categories of food security schemes over the last four weeks prior to the survey period, namely; 1 = food secure, 2 = mildly food insecure, and 3 = moderately food insecure; and 4 = severely food insecure as the participants of the study gave affirmative responses for frequency questions (Q_1 - Q_9). Therefore, based on the summarized data found in Table 8-1 and general standardized formula, the household food insecurity (access) prevalence for the four categories was calculated.

Accordingly, the results of the analyses disclosed that among the study population about 153/2,450(6.2%), 804/2,450(32.8%), 1,027/2,450(41.9%), and 466/2,450(19.0%) of the returnee households were found to be categorized within category 1 (food secure), category 2 (mildly food insecure), category 3 (moderately food insecure), and category 4 (severely food insecure) respectively. More specifically, as a whole while a substantial portion of the returnee households in the study area were mildly and moderately food insecure, food secure (access) households were existent in small

number and low comparatively, which in turn may imply that the study population catastrophe to food insecurity that may have adverse effects on their health in the long run. Health is correlated with food security in many ways and food insecurity can lead to hunger and related health problems (FAO, 2018; de Ridder, 2011).

In other words, only 6.2% of returnee households were categorized as “*food secure*” using the HFIAS indicator. This finding is not in line with the study conducted in Southern African cities, in which the household food insecurity access prevalence (HFIAP) indicator found that 16% of migrant households were “*food secure*” (SAMP, 2012), which indicates that relatively speaking the number of migrant households that was food secure was higher in the aforesaid cities than the number of sampled returnees in the present study.

Moreover, as shown in Table 8-1, affirmative responses for the items ranged from 20.6% to 85.8% among returnees in the study area. We found that of the nine items, (Q1-Q6) were received the affirmative responses and the respondents accorded to them above 75%. Notably, the item that received the highest affirmative response amongst the returnees was item 9: “...Go a whole day and night without eating anything?” and rated with the percentage of 20.6%. In conclusion, Figure 8-2 depicts the three universal domains of household food insecurity along a continuum from food secure to severely food insecure and on average about 93.8% of the study populations were in any of the three categories of food insecurity domains in the study area.

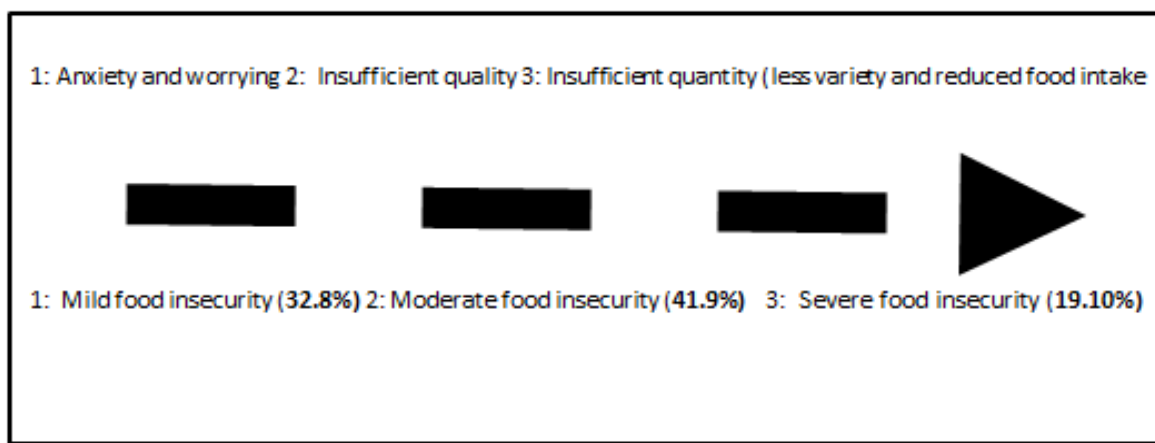


Fig. 8-2: The three categories of food insecurity among the returnees (Adapted from ICCO, 2008:3).

8.4.2. The HFIAS Prevalence by Inner-urban and Peri-urban areas

Table 8-2 illustrates the percentage of returnee households that fall in each food insecurity (access) category. As depicted in Table 8-2 over the last four weeks prior to survey period, the study populations were in all the four category schemes of food security/insecurity domains in the study area and gave affirmative responses for frequency questions (Q1-Q9). Amongst the study population 95.5% (peri-urban residents) and 91.1% (inner-urban residents) were food insecure as a whole, which in turn may indicate that the trend in each area category was more or less similar in the study area.

Table 8-2: Affirmative responses by residence areas of the returnees

Food security status * Sub city classification Cross-tabulation					
Food security status			Sub-city classification		Total
			Peri-urban areas	Inner-urban areas	
	Severely food insecure	Count	61	23	84
		% within Sub city classification	22.8	17.2	20.9
	Moderately food insecure	Count	122	46	168
		% within Sub city classification	45.5	34.3	41.8
	Mildly food insecure	Count	73	53	126
		% within Sub city classification	27.2	39.6	31.3
	Food secure	Count	12	12	24
		% within Sub city classification	4.5	9.0	6.0
Total		Count	268	134	402
		% within Sub city classification	100	100	100

Source: Field survey (2021)

On the contrary, the percentage of food secure inner-urban study population (9%) is twice the percentage of peri-urban sampled population which may imply that returnees having significant number found in the peri-urban areas in the study area had poor purchasing power to acquire enough and nutritious food and did not have access to sufficient food to meet their dietary energy requirements.

8.4.3. Consolidated Approach to Reporting Indicators of Food Security (CARI)

Here the intention is to determine the final prevalence of food security of the sample population in the study area based on CARI. CARI as an approach is not only used to provide the population's distribution across the four food security classification groups, but also generates the percentage of the food insecure study population in the area. The approach is based on a simple calculation of an overall reporting aggregate, whereby the overall prevalence of 'food insecurity' in the population is calculated by summing together the rates of the two most severe categories ('moderately food insecure' and 'severely food insecure').

Food Security Index	Description	%	Level of status
Food Secure	Able to meet essential food and non-food needs without engaging in a typical coping strategies	37.3	Food secure
Marginally food secure	Has minimally adequate food consumption without engaging in irreversible coping strategies; unable to afford some essential non-food expenditures		
Moderately food insecure	Has significant food consumption gaps, OR marginally able to meet minimum food needs only with irreversible coping strategies	62.7	Food insecure
Food insecure	Has extreme food consumption gaps, OR has extreme loss of livelihood assets will lead to food consumption gaps, or worse		

Table 8-3: Summary of prevalence of food security based on CARI

Source: Adapted from CARI, 2015: 29 by WFP

Table 8-3 shows how to describe the different food security classification groups, and draw the line between '*food secure*' and '*food insecure*'. The final prevalence of food security analysis based on CARI approach revealed that 37% of the population would be considered food secure, while 63% of the study populations were in the category of food insecure. In other words, as a whole, the total number of food insecure returnee

households almost doubled the number of food secure study population in the study area.

8.4.4. Food Stuff Consumption Status of the returnees

The prime concern here is to deal with the frequency of returnee household's consumption of nine different food groups over a seven day period. In due course, enumerators were carefully trained not to include food consumed outside the home that was not prepared in the home. Condiments were also not included in the calculation of food consumption score (FCS) as they have a weight of zero as main food stuffs. A set of 9 food groups were used to guide the scoring as per the food items consumed, with 0 being the minimum score and 9 as the maximum (Swindale & Bilinsky, 2006; Yohannes & Hoddinott, 2002). The analysis of the Food Consumption Score requires eight food groups, though the food consumption module includes a 9th group of condiments/small quantities (CARI, 2015).

Table 8-4: Responses of the returnees on food stuff consumption status (N = 402)

Food Group	Food stuff	Mean	Std. Deviation
Cereals and tubers	(Bread, teff, rice, maize, wheat, barley, sorghum, etc.)	1.22	.836
Pulses and nuts	(Beans, peas, lentils, peanuts, etc.)	2.96	1.539
Vegetables	Vegetables, leaves, etc.	4.25	1.674
Fruits	Fruits	5.46	1.652
Meat and Fish	(Beef, goat, poultry, pork, eggs, fish, etc.)	8.46	1.285
Oil and fat	Fats, oils, etc.	6.68	1.982
Sugar and honey	Sugar and sugar products, honey and honey products	5.56	1.545
Dairy products	Milk, yoghurt, cheese, butter, and others	6.49	1.573
Condiments	(Tea, coffee, spices, salt, fish power, etc.)	-	-

**The food group with the least mean score is considered as the most consumed one.*

As vividly seen in Table 8-4, FCS is calculated based on the past seven day food consumption recall prior to the survey period for the study population. Accordingly, the results of the analyses portray that cereals, pulses and nuts, and vegetables were reported as the three most consumed food groups as main food stuffs by the study population with the mean values of 1.22, 2.96, and 4.25 respectively. Similar results were reported in Girar Jarso Woreda, North Showa Zone of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia, where the survey result showed that cereal and pulse grains are the major sources of food widely used for home consumption, whereas food items such as oil seeds, fruit and vegetables and livestock products are rarely used for home consumption (Meskerem & Degefa, 2015).

Moreover, of the nine food items dairy products, oil, and meat and fish were rated as the least three consumed food groups with the mean values of (6.49, 6.68, and 8.46) in the order mentioned. Generally speaking, the bulk of Ethiopian returnees in the study area food consumption goes to cereals, followed by pulses and vegetables, and condiments were not included in the calculation of the FCS as they have a weight of zero as they are food items that are consumed in very small quantities for flavor and the like rather than as a daily consumption.

Table 8-5: Food Consumption Score Thresholds by WFP

Threshold	Status of consumption
0-21	Poor food consumption
21.5-35	Borderline food consumption
>35	Acceptable food consumption

Source: WFP (2008)

The results indicated in Table 8-5 point to the three categories which contain the thresholds of the food consumption score boundaries developed by WFP (2008). Following an attempt has been made to determine the food consumption status of returnees based on the aforementioned threshold. The detail is forth coming.

Table 8-6 highlights the food consumption score of the respondents. Correspondingly, based on the above given thresholds and cut-off points provided by WFP (2008) the results of the analyses are presented (Table 8-5). The calculated composite score based on the past seven day food consumption recall was found to be (FCS = 26), which indicates that the study population is in the borderline food consumption status. *“Between 21 and 35, households are assessed having borderline food consumption (WFP, 2008:21).”*

Table 8-6: Food groups and weights given by World Food Programme (WFP)

Food group	Food stuff	Weight given by WFP (A)	Days eaten in past 7 days (B)	Score (A×B)
Cereals and tubers	(Maize, rice, sorghum, wheat, teff, pasta, bread, etc.)	2.0	7	14
	Cassava, potatoes and sweet potatoes, other tubers			
Pulses and nuts	Pulses (beans, peas, peanuts, groundnuts)	3.0	1	3
Vegetables	Vegetables, leaves	1.0	2	2
Fruits	Fruits	1.0	0	0
Meat and fish	(Beef, goat, poultry, pork, eggs, fish, etc.)	4.0	0	4
Oil	Butter, fats, oils	0.5		
Sugar and honey	Sugar and sugar products, honey and honey products	0.5	4	2
Dairy products	(Milk, yogurt, cheese, etc.)	4.0		
Condiments	(Tea, coffee, spices, salt, fish power, etc.)	0	7	0
Composite score				26

Source: Own construction based on World Food Programme, 2008

In other words, it implies that returnees in the study area are more likely to be food insecure and have poor food stuffs and/or had poor consumption frequency in their food consumption. Borderline food consumption (FCS = 28.1-42.0) and indicated an expected consumption of staple 7 days, vegetables 5-6 days, sugar 3-4 days, oil/fat 3 days, meat/fish/egg/pulses 1-2 days a week while dairy products are entirely absent (WFP, 2012). Moreover, a comparison is made between inner and peri-urban area residents of the study population on the (FCS) and the results of analyses are presented hereunder. As evident from Table 8-7, amongst the eight food groups the two groups of study population (inner-urban and peri-urban residents) were only exhibit significant variation on pulses and nuts, and oil food groups.

Table 8-7: A comparison of the mean values of inner and peri-urban areas on the (FCS)

Sub city classification		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Cereals	Peri-urban areas	268	1.24	.969	.759	.448
	Inner-urban areas	134	1.17	.467		
Pulses and nuts	Peri-urban areas	268	3.07	1.619	2.094	.037*
	Inner-urban areas	134	2.73	1.344		
Vegetables	Peri-urban areas	268	4.22	1.731	-.484	.628
	Inner-urban areas	134	4.31	1.557		
Fruits	Peri-urban areas	268	5.43	1.619	-.427	.670
	Inner-urban areas	134	5.51	1.720		
Meat and Fish	Peri-urban areas	268	8.45	1.366	-.219	.826
	Inner-urban areas	134	8.48	1.109		
Oil	Peri-urban areas	268	6.52	2.042	-	.024*
	Inner-urban areas	134	6.99	1.825		
Sugar and Honey	Peri-urban areas	268	5.55	1.582	-.160	.873
	Inner-urban areas	134	5.57	1.473		
Dairy products	Peri-urban areas	268	6.57	1.567	1.572	.117
	Inner-urban areas	134	6.31	1.577		

*P<0.05; df = 400

As observed from the result of the analyses, pulses and nuts (item 2) the calculated values are (tcal= 2.094, df = 400, p = 0.037<0.05). This shows that there is statistically significant variation in consuming the indicated food group between the two resident areas of the sampled returnees. The computed mean values also indicate that the mean difference (MD=0.34), with greater mean value of per-urban returnees, which shows

returnees in inner-urban areas more likely consumed greater amount of pulses and nuts as a food group than peri-urban resident returnees did in the study area.

Another observation was about oil as a food group to detect the differences between the responses of the two study groups. The result of the test reveals that the calculated values are ($t_{cal} = -2.271$, $df = 400$, $p = 0.024 < 0.05$). The t-test shows that there is reliable evidence showing the existence of major observed mean differences between the respondents of the two resident areas on the consumption status of the food group under consideration in their respective areas. The result of the item also indicates that the mean difference ($MD=0.47$), with greater mean value of inner-urban residents, which implies that returnees in peri-urban areas were more likely consumed the indicated food group than inner-urban resident returnees did.

However, as shown in Table 8-7, the t-test was calculated to see the consumption status differences between the responses of the two resident area respondents on the rest six food groups. The results of the analysis for them depicted that all the computed values are ($p > 0.05$). This means that there is no significant variation between the responses of the two study groups about the consumption statuses of the six food groups under discussion.

As indicated in the Table 8-8 analysis of variance was conducted to detect whether or not the major food groups consumed portrays major observed mean differences in terms of the following four categories: food secure, mildly food insecure access, moderately food insecure access, and severely food insecure access of sampled returnees in the study area. As evident from the result of the analyses an F-test was calculated for different food groups (cereals; pulses and nuts; vegetables; fruits; meat and fish; oil; sugar and other products; dairy products; and condiments). The result of the analysis shows concerning the consumption of cereals among the four categories of returnees (food secure, mildly food insecure access, moderately food insecure access, and severely food insecure access) shows that ($F_{cal} = 3.110$, $P = 0.026 < 0.05$). Thus, conclusion would be drawn that there is statistically significant variation among the four

groups of returnees in consuming cereals as a food group with sampled returnees in food secured category more likely consumed much amount of it than returnees found in other category.

Table 8-8: A comparison between Food Groups and Access prevalence

Descriptive				ANOVA	
		N	Mean	F	Sig.
Cereals	Severely food insecure	84	1.45	3.110	.026
	Moderately food insecure	168	1.18		
	Mildly food insecure	126	1.13		
	Food secured	24	1.04		
Pulses and nuts	Severely food insecure	84	3.27	2.584	.053
	Moderately food insecure	168	2.74		
	Mildly food insecure	126	2.99		
	Food secured	24	3.21		
Vegetables	Severely food insecure	84	4.58	2.909	.034
	Moderately food insecure	168	4.00		
	Mildly food insecure	126	4.28		
	Food secured	24	4.67		
Fruits	Severely food insecure	84	5.39	1.796	.147
	Moderately food insecure	168	5.29		
	Mildly food insecure	126	5.63		
	Food secured	24	5.96		
Meat and Fish	Severely food insecure	84	8.20	1.528	.207
	Moderately food insecure	168	8.51		
	Mildly food insecure	126	8.57		
	Food secured	24	8.42		
Oil	Severely food insecure	84	6.98	.985	.400
	Moderately food insecure	168	6.66		
	Mildly food insecure	126	6.56		
	Food secured	24	6.38		
Sugar and other products	Severely food insecure	84	5.29	3.399	.018
	Moderately food insecure	168	5.84		
	Mildly food insecure	126	5.37		
	Food secured	24	5.50		
Dairy products	Severely food insecure	84	6.36	.825	.480
	Moderately food insecure	168	6.53		
	Mildly food insecure	126	6.59		
	Food secured	24	6.13		
Condiments	Severely food insecure	84	3.37	2.955	.032
	Moderately food insecure	168	4.01		
	Mildly food insecure	126	3.86		
	Food secured	24	3.38		

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The F-test also shows that, the mean difference of returnees within the four categories of food access prevalence on the consumption of vegetables ($F_{cal} = 2.909$, $P = 0.034 < 0.05$), which indicates that returnees within moderately food insecure category with (mean score = 4.00) had more slightly consumed vegetables as a food group than returnees found in other category do. Moreover, as observed from the Table 8-8, a test was undertaken to detect consumption status differences of sugar and condiments among returnees in the study area.

Accordingly, the F-test results indicate that, the mean differences of returnees within the four categories of food access prevalence on the consumption of sugar and condiments ($F_{cal} = 3.399$ and $F_{cal} = 2.955$; and $p = 0.018 < 0.05$ and $p = 0.032$) respectively, which highlights that returnees within severely food insecure categories in both cases had more slightly consumed sugar and condiments as food groups than returnees found in other domains. However, the result of analysis shows regarding the consumption status of the rest food groups such as fruits, meat and fish, oil, and dairy products among returnees within the four domains of food access prevalence in all cases ($P > 0.05$), which shows that there is no significant variation among the returnees found in the indicated domains on the issue under discussion.

8.4.5. Correlation between Food Consumption Status and Predictor Variables

In the present study, the explanatory variables were categorized into: personal characteristics (gender, marital status, age, religion, family size, role in the family, and educational status); economic characteristics (income at abroad and homeland); and modality of returns of the returnees (forced and voluntarily returns) as the indicator factors whether they explain a returnee household's food security or not. As a result, linear regression model was used to examine whether or not the food consumption status of the sampled returnees is significantly influenced by the aforementioned characteristics of the respondents. The linear regression model, known as ordinary least squares (OLS) regression, was fitted to a dataset with a dependent variable measured on a continuous scale and one or more independent variables (Hendriks *et al.*, 2011). In the section to follow the results are deeply analyzed hereunder.

It is evident that the reported R Square indicated that 29% of the variability of the composite of food consumption status of returnees was explained by background characteristics of the study population. Moreover, Table 8-9 presents the relative contribution of some personal characteristics of the respondents as predictor variables to the criterion variable (food consumption status of the returnees). The result disclosed that food consumption status of the sampled returnees was designated as an outcome variable significantly influenced only by two personal characteristics of returnees: role of the respondents in their respective family with values of ($\beta = -2.180$, $t_{cal} = -5.753$, $p = 0.000 < 0.001$); and educational status with values of ($\beta = -.534$, $t_{cal} = -2.641$, $p = 0.009 < 0.01$) or better for the differences, as shown (Table 8-9).

Table 8-9: Parameter Estimates of the Linear Regression Analysis (LRA)

Variables entered in the equation	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	β	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance value	VIF
(Constant)	24.727	1.978		12.498	.000		
Personal characteristics							
Sex of respondents	1.010	.518	.087	1.949	.052	.907	1.103
Marital status	-.279	.257	-.048	-1.086	.278	.951	1.051
Age of respondents	-.004	.035	-.005	-.107	.915	.833	1.201
Religion of respondents	-.273	.259	-.047	-1.053	.293	.921	1.086
Family Size	.064	.102	.028	.622	.534	.885	1.130
Role in the Family	-2.180	.379	-.255	-5.753	.000**	.929	1.076
Educational Status	-.534	.202	-.125	-2.641	.009	.811	1.234
Economic characteristics							
Income at abroad	9.120E-5	.000	.088	1.934	.054	.881	1.135
Income at homeland	-3.650E-5	.000	-.012	-.245	.807	.716	1.397
Modality of returns							
Forced returns	-6.363	.723	-.719	-8.798	.000**	.273	3.667
Voluntarily returns	-5.821	.707	-.679	-8.232	.000**	.267	3.739
R Square = .290; Adjusted R Square = .270; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor							

Source: Own tabulation based on field survey (2021)

In addition, results of the analysis show that two key-factors (education attainment and role of the returnees in the family) are negatively correlated to food consumption status. In terms of their relative importance, based on the results of beta values, forced

returns as a modality of returns is the most important factor in explaining the food consumption status followed by voluntarily returns, role in the family, and education status respectively. Of course, for every 1-unit increase in these predictor variables, the food consumption status as an outcome variable will decrease by the beta coefficient value. Conversely, education may open the way to differential access to food, health information, and food choice; and generally people with better educational status take up innovations sooner than less-educated people (Worsley *et al.*, 2003). This indicates that the result of the issue under discussion is not in harmony with the finding of the above study.

Moreover, the two modality of returns: forced returns with values of ($\beta = -6.363$, $t_{cal} = -8.798$, $p = 0.000 < 0.001$); and voluntarily returns with values of ($\beta = -5.821$, $t_{cal} = -8.232$, $p = 0.000 < 0.001$) had produced statistically significant effects on the food consumption status among returnees in the study area. On the contrary, as shown in Table 8-9, the rest five personal characteristics such as sex, marital status, age, religion, and family size of the respondents had no statistically significant effects on food consumption status among returnees in the study area. Furthermore, the results of analysis vividly indicate that both economic characteristics of the returnee respondents had no statistically significant effects on the food consumption status among returnees in the study area. As self-evident from Table 8-9, the results are best shown by the following regression equation:

$$Y = 24.727 - 2.180X_1 - .534X_2 - 6.363X_3 - 5.821X_4$$

Where: Y = Food consumption status

X_1 = Role of returnee respondents in the family

X_2 = Educational status of returnee respondents

X_3 = Forced returns

X_4 = Voluntarily returns.

The most interesting findings were the relative strength of the composite predictor variables. Thus, conclusion would be drawn that while both the role of returnees in their

respective families, educational status, and the two modality of returns had statistically significant negative effects, whereas the rest background characteristics had no any statistically significant impacts on food consumption status in Ethiopian context among international returnees at large and Addis Ababa in particular.

8.4.6. Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS) of the Returnees

Dietary diversity is defined as the number of different food groups eaten over a reference time period (Faber *et al.*, 2009; WFP, 2008). The household dietary diversity (HDDS) is a population-level indicator that is used as a proxy measure of household food access (Swindale & Bilinsky, 2006). It is a proxy qualitative indicator of food consumption that reflects household access to a variety of foods for nutrient adequacy of the diet of individuals (FAO, 2010). To this effect, in the present study, household dietary diversity score (HDDS) of the study population was calculated by summing the nine food groups such as (cereals, pulses and nuts, vegetables, fruits, meat and fish, oil, dairy products, and condiments) consumed during a week reporting period as reference period. Literatures don't clearly indicate the calculation of HDDS in an unequivocal term and cut-offs are hard to justify and bring partners into consensus. Using one 24-hour recall period does not provide an indication of an individual's habitual diet, but it does provide an assessment of the diet at the population level and can be useful to monitor progress or target interventions (Savy *et al.*, 2006, 2005).

Nonetheless, the recall period of 24 hours was found to be less subject to recall error and less cumbersome for the respondents by FAO (2010). The analysis of dietary diversity data based on a 24-hour recall period is easier than with longer recall periods and widely used in many dietary diversity studies (Kennedy *et al.*, 2013; Steyn *et al.*, 2006; Savy *et al.*, 2006, 2005; Arimond & Ruel, 2004; Ruel, 2003, Ruel, 2002). A growing body of literature uncovered that each food security indicator has its own analytical technique. However, there are no established cut-off points in terms of number of food groups to indicate adequate or inadequate dietary diversity for the HDDS; it is recommended to use the mean score or distribution of scores for analytical purposes (FAO, 2010).

To overcome such dilemma, a number of options were reviewed and taken into account. On the one hand, Faber et al (2009) developed an option for the calculation of HDDS, where households in the study population are grouped according to the HDDS, using four as the critical value. Still Steyn et al (2006) identified HDDS of four as the critical value below which a diet of poor nutritional adequacy is indicated. On the other hand, Bilinsky and Swindale (2006) have stressed that in the absence of income or economic data from the baseline survey, HDDS target can be established by taking the average diversity of the 33% of households with the highest diversity (upper tercile of diversity). In the current study, the first option was used as it is a more acceptable cut-offs in many dietary diversity studies, where HDDS of 4 as the critical value was considered as cut-off point to categorize the target population of the study into food-secure and food-insecure groups. The results of the analyses were presented hereunder. As shown in Table 8-10, an attempt was made to calculate the HDDS, the average HDDS (the ratio of sum(HDDS) and total number of returnee households), and the percentage of sample population who consumed each food group over a 24 hour period.

Table 8-10: Results of HDDS on consumption of food groups

Food groups	Frequency		Value of each food group
	N	%	
Cereals and tubers	391	97.3	1
Pulses and nuts	340	84.6	1
Vegetables	195	48.5	1
Fruits	0	0	0
Meat and fish	0	0	0
Oils	318	79.1	1
Sugar and other products	0	0	0
Dairy products	0	0	0
Condiments	8	2	NA
Average HDDS	3.1		NA
Total HDDS			4

HDDS = Household dietary diversity score; NA = not applicable

In due course, each food group was assigned a score of 1 (if consumed) or 0 (if not consumed); and the household score was made to range from 0 to 8 (only eight

Ethiopian food groups were considered). As self-evident from Table 8-10 the sampled returnees heavily had relied in their consumption on macronutrient dense staple, such as cereals (97.3%), pulses and nuts (84.6%), which provide cheap and accessible sources of calories and they compromised more nutritious items and their diet lacks adequate proteins and micro-nutrients. On the contrary, only 48.5% of the study population consumed vegetables, while the consumption of fruits as a food group was non-existent as a whole in their diet during the reference period, nonetheless, vegetables are important sources of many nutrients and fruits provide many essential nutrients that often were underconsumed.

Moreover, the results of the analyses revealed that the calculated average HDDS and HDDS were found to be 3.1 and 4 respectively, implying that the total number of food groups consumed by the returnee households is below the expected level and they had no diversified food group consumption. When the calculated value for HDDS, less than five food groups ($HDDS < 5$) are not diversified and greater than or equals to five food groups is diversified diets ($HDDS \geq 5$) (Kennedy *et al.*, 2013; Faber *et al.*, 2009; Ruel, 2003).

Table 8-11: Comparison of HDDS between HHH and HHM

Categories	N	HDDS $\leq$ 4 (Food Insecure)		HDDS $>$ 5 (Food Secure)	
		N	%	N	%
HHH	180	142	79	38	21
HHM	222	178	80	44	20
Total HH	402	320	80	82	20
Key: HHH = Head Household; HHM = Household Member; and HH = Household					

Source: Authors own tabulation based on field data (2021)

As shown in Table 8-11, based on the calculations and decision criteria set for HDDS in this study, the total percentages food insecure and food secure of the study population in the study area were found to be 80% and 20% respectively. The Table also revealed that amongst sampled HHH while 79% and 21% were food insecure and food secure

respectively, and the percentages of food insecure and food secure HHM were found to be 80% and 20% in the order indicated.

This indicates that majority of the study population were consumed a non-diversified, unbalanced and unhealthy diet and can be classified as food insecure. Hungry people spend a larger share, if not all, of their food budget on macronutrient dense staple, such as wheat and rice, which provide cheap and accessible sources of calories. Households that over a seven day period consumed from four or fewer food groups out of eight are classified as having low dietary diversity (WFP, 2012).

8.4.7. Household Hunger Status (HHS) of the Returnees

Household Hunger Scale (HHS) is an indicator to measure household hunger by focusing on the food quantity dimension of food access. It is a simple indicator used to assess household hunger in food insecure areas which consists of three questions and three frequencies that, when administered in a population-based household survey, allows for estimating the percent of households affected by three different severities of household hunger: little to no household hunger; moderate household hunger; and severe household hunger (Coates *et al.*, 2011). It is one of the experience-based food insecurity scales used to assess the most severe experiences of food insecurity (International Dietary Data Expansion Project/IDDEX, 2018). The following thresholds of HHS are used to categorize households into three hunger groups.

Table 8-12: The Thresholds of Household Hunger Scale (HHS)

Threshold	Status of hunger
0-1 score	None or light hunger
2-3 scores	Moderate hunger
4-6 scores	Severe hunger

Source: WFP (2008) and Coates et al. (2011).

Table 8-13 is dealt with the HHS of the study population built around 3 questions about perceptions of a household on varying degree of hunger by the number of times a household has experienced hunger within past 30 days prior to the survey. Accordingly,

based on the above given threshold of cut-off provided by WFP (2008) and Coates et al. (2011) the results of the analyses are presented hereunder.

Table 8-13: Responses of returnees on the HHS questions

No	Questions	No	Yes	Frequency		
				Rarely	Sometimes	Often
Q1	In the past 30 days, was there ever no food to eat of any kind in your house because of lack of resources to get food?		1		1	
Q2	In the past 30 days, did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was no enough food?		1			2
Q3	In the past 30 days, did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything at all because there was not enough food?	0		0		
Total HHS				3.0		

**HHS = Household hunger score*

The calculated score based on the past 30 days prior to the survey had a score 3.0 on the HHS, which disclosed that respondents of the study had experienced moderate hunger in the study area, which indicates that sampled returnees had experienced moderate inadequate household food access. In sub-Saharan Africa, more than 60% and in the West Bank/Gaza Strip 40% of households in the sample had a scale score > 0 on the HHS (Coates *et al.*, 2011, 2007).

Table 8-14: Household Hunger Score Sample estimates

Category of Hunger	Period of data collection	Season of data collection	Responses	
			N	%
None or light hunger to household	July 2021-August 2021	Non-fasting period	84	21
Moderate household hunger	July 2021- August 2021	Non-fasting period	302	75
Severe household hunger	July 2021- August 2021	Non-fasting period	16	4

8.4.8. Correlations among Proxy Indicators of Food Security

As described earlier, four proxy indicators were employed to measure the food security status of returnees in the study area for the following major reasons: to measure the food security status of returnees using different indicators instead of a single indicator; and to see whether or not findings from the indicators are consistent. Accordingly, the results are presented below.

Table 8-15: Results of Pearson's Correlation among proxy indicators (N= 402)

		HFIAS	FCS	HDDS	HHS
HFIAS	Pearson Correlation		.019	-.027	.788**
		1			
FCS	Sig. (2-tailed)		.699	.591	.000
	Pearson Correlation	.019	1	.319**	-.059
HDDS	Sig. (2-tailed)	.699		.000	.234
	Pearson Correlation	-.027	.319**	1	-.027
HHS	Sig. (2-tailed)	.591	.000		.593
	Pearson Correlation	.788**	-.059	-.027	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.234	.593	

****.** Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed)

Table 8-15 is dealt with the results of correlation coefficients among four proxy indicators of food security. On the one hand, the study uncovered that the correlation coefficient between HFIAS and HHS is significant at the $p < 1\%$ level of significance with Pearson's correlation value of ($r = 0.788$). From this, one can deduce that there is a statistically significant correlation between the aforementioned variables or two indicators. Moreover, the result indicated that the score of HFIAS positively and strongly associated with HHS. That is, the higher the HFIAS, the more the hunger status of the returnee households in the study area. The result of the analysis has also showed that the correlation coefficient between FCS and HDDS is significant at the $p < 1\%$ level of significance with Pearson's correlation value of ($r = 0.319$). That is, the score of FCS positively associated with HDDS, and the higher the FCS, the more the dietary diversity status and vice versa of the returnee households in the study area.

On the contrary, it is self-evident from the results of analysis that the correlation coefficients between the following proxy indicators are non-significant: association of HFIAS with FCS and HDDS; correlation between FCS and HHS; and association between HDDS and HHS. Broadly speaking, the measurements that were employed as proxy indicators of food security in the present study go along each other and assure the quality of the data and the output generated.

8.5. Conclusions and Recommendations

The overriding intent of this study was to examine the food security situations of Ethiopian international returnees in Addis Ababa. Household food insecurity access scale (HFIAS), household food consumption score (FCS), household dietary diversity score (HDDS), and household hunger scale (HHS) were employed as the four major proxy indicators to determine the issue under way. The HFIAS indicator clearly disclosed only a small segment of returnee households were found within food secure domain, whereas a substantial portion of the returnee households were within mildly and moderately food insecure categories, which in turn indicates that inadequate access to food is a catastrophic event among the study population in the study area.

The calculated composite score based on food consumption recall prior to the survey period revealed that the study population was in the borderline food consumption status, which implies that the sampled returnees are more likely to be food insecure and have poor frequency of food consumption. We found that role of the returnees in their respective family and their educational status as two predictor variables had a statistically significant negative effect on the food consumption status among returnees. In other words, an increase in these variables is associated with a decrease and vice versa in household food consumption status, which contradicts with the existing literatures and findings of some studies that uncover the higher the educational status, the better the consumption of a wider variety of food items. The sampled returnees had experienced moderate hunger status in the study area, which indicates that the vast majority of returnees in the study area were experiencing food insecurity as the result

of poor inadequate household food access, implying that, these not only influence returnee households food security but also adversely affect maintaining their nutritional well-being and health and their livelihoods at large.

Moreover, the findings of the study uncovered that the correlations between HFIAS and HHS, and FCS and HDDS proxy indicators are positive and statistically significant. That is, the higher the HFIAS, the more the hunger status and vice versa of the returnee households; and the higher the FCS, the more the dietary diversity status and vice versa of the returnee households in the study area. Therefore, well-intentioned efforts and an integrated system of interventions are required rather than a piecemeal approach in a business-as-usual scenario so as to make the study population achieve sustainable food security. To this effect, the study provides foundations and guidelines for policymakers, particularly for Addis Ababa city administration, for effective interventions in food security in urban communities, particularly among international returnees in order to have quick resilience and to reverse the adverse impacts of food security problems in the study area.

Finally, the study recommends the following critical issues to be done. Firstly, further study is required be done incorporating the urban component and even other rural areas to come up with an in-depth analysis to examine the food security situations of international returnees in other parts of Ethiopia as the issue food security is becoming exceedingly manifested at household level as time goes. Secondly, future researchers should think of having in-depth investigation to single out to the determinants of the food security status and major challenges of food security among Ethiopian international returnees at national level based on gold standard measures of micronutrient adequacy via measuring and estimating actual diet qualities and quantities of food eaten. Thirdly, the study can be conducted on a larger number of Ethiopian households via anthropometric measurement particularly on utilization of food to disclose the national nutritional status among the international returnee households.

Chapter Nine: The Underlying Causes of Food Insecurity and Coping Strategies among International Returnees in Addis Ababa

Abstract: Nowadays, food insecurity is a big menace around the globe including Ethiopia. In spite of significantly rising rate of international returnees to their homeland forcefully, there is a paucity of evidences on the root causes and levels of food insecurity in Ethiopia. The study was aimed at assessing the underlying causes of food insecurity and their coping strategies among international returnees in Addis Ababa to generate better understandings and some new insights. Data were collected from 402 randomly selected international returnees via a cross sectional survey, using a structured questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and focus group discussions. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, coping strategy index (CSI), and ordinal logistic regression model. Economic hurdles were ranked above the mean scale as the most underlying causes of food insecurity ($\bar{x} = 2.55$ and standard deviation/SD = 0.40); while physical hurdles were rated below the scale mean ($\bar{x} = 2.12$ and SD = 0.57) as the least contributors. The most widely used three consumption-based coping strategies were found to be dietary change; augmenting short-term household food availability; and rationing strategy. The calculated score of CSI was found to be (CSI = 18.5), which reveals the extensive use of consumption-based coping strategies, implying that a high level of food insecurity among the returnees. Income at abroad and homeland had correlation with augmenting short-term household food availability as one of the coping mechanisms with the Pearson's Correlation ($r = -0.105$, $p < 0.05$; and $r = 0.130$, $p < 0.01$) respectively. Sex; role in the family; and religion of the respondents took the first three ranking positions in terms of their influence on coping strategies with the Wald statistics and logistic regression coefficient (Wald = 8.046, $\beta = .934$; Wald = 14.554, $\beta = -.802$; and Wald = 6.178, $\beta = -.413$) respectively. Above all, economic hurdles (debt burden, poor access to wage employment, unaffordable nutritious food) were fundamental determinants of food insecurity than physical and social barriers, which in turn will exacerbate poverty. Therefore, concerted efforts are required to build returnees' resilience to food insecurity.

Based on:

Abinet, F., Teferee, M., & Temesgen, T. (2023). A Look into the root causes of food insecurity and coping strategies among international returnees: Evidence from Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (Manuscript production in progress).

9.1. Introduction

Evidences continue to signal a rise in world hunger; and the number of people who suffer from hunger has been growing. The absolute number of people in the world affected by undernourishment, or chronic food deprivation, is now estimated to have increased from around 804 million in 2016 to nearly 821 million in 2017 (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO, 2018). The situation is worsening in South America and most regions of Africa; and without increased efforts, there is a risk of falling far short of achieving the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) target of hunger eradication by 2030 (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO, 2018). The gravity of food insecurity, and its many rippling effects, has led much of the development agenda to search for specific areas for interventions given limited resources and growing populations in many developing countries (IFPRI, 2009); and *“food insecurity is a worrying challenge worldwide, with sub-Sahara Africa most affected”* (Chagomoka, et al., 2016:1).

Food insecurity exists when people are undernourished due to the physical unavailability of food, lack of social or economic access to adequate food, and inadequate food utilization. It is defined as the *“limited or uncertain availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods or limited or uncertain ability to acquire acceptable foods in socially acceptable ways”* (Kodyalamoole et al., 2015). Food insecurity is considered as the limited availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods or limited or uncertain ability to acquire socially acceptable foods (FAO, 2006; Andersen, 1990). Approximately 870 million people worldwide are undernourished, with 27% of these affected people residing in sub-Saharan African countries (FAO, WFP, and IFAD, 2012); and there are nearly 925 million food insecure people in the world (FAO, 2010). One in nine people in the world is currently malnourished (815 million people); and the figure is expected to climb to two billion people by 2050 if nothing is done (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO, 2018).

Ethiopia has been found as one of the world’s most food-insecure countries. Ethiopia has for a long time been one of the most food-insecure and famine affected countries in

the world; and in Ethiopia, food insecurity remains the core concerns (Abduselam, 2017; Häberli, 2013; FAO, 2010). A large portion of the country's population has been affected by chronic and transitory food insecurity (African Development Bank, 2014); and in Ethiopia, food insecurity is a major catastrophe and it persists due to frequent droughts and the prevalence of rain fed agriculture typified by fragmentation and subsistence type (Yemataw *et al.*, 2022). The prevalence of food insecurity as well as related vulnerability is high in Ethiopia as a whole (CSA, 2007). The world's eight worst food crises in 2018, in order of severity, were: Yemen, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Afghanistan, Ethiopia, the Syrian Arab Republic, the Sudan, South Sudan and North Nigeria and they accounted for two thirds of the total number of people facing acute food insecurity—amounting to nearly 72 million people, and Ethiopia ranks fourth, despite major improvements in Southern pastoral areas in late 2017 and early 2018, the country still faced a major food security emergency in 2018 with 8 million people in need of food assistance (Food Security Information Network (FSIN), 2019).

Moreover, WFP and FAO (2022) declared that targeted humanitarian action is urgently needed to save lives and livelihoods in the 20 hunger hotspots and Ethiopia, Nigeria, South Sudan and Yemen were ranked amongst the four of these hotspots where humanitarian actions are critical to preventing starvation and death. As indicated by Africa Food Security and Hunger Multiple Indicator Scorecard, Ethiopia ranked first in having the highest number of people in state of undernourishment which is 32.1 million people in 2014 (Abduselam, 2017). Conflict was the principal driver of acute food insecurity in Ethiopia where fighting spilled over from Tigray into neighbouring Amhara and Afar regions, constraining humanitarian assistance (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs/UNOCHA, 2021). The situation of chronically food insecure people is becoming more and more severe. Food security situation in Ethiopia is highly linked to recurring food shortage and famine in the country, which are associated to recurrent drought (Yemataw *et al.*, 2022).

More than 41 percent of the Ethiopian population lives below the poverty line and above 31 million people are undernourished (FAO, 2010). Food insecurity is an enduring,

critical challenge in Ethiopia which is Africa's second populous country after Nigeria, and 10.2 million Ethiopians are considered to be food insecure in 2015/16 (Abdulselem, 2017). Recently, Ethiopia confronts with high levels of food insecurity and ranking as one of the hungriest countries in the world (IFPRI, 2009); and the World Food Program underscored that the number of food insecure people in the country rising from time to time and the long-term effects of chronic malnutrition cost Ethiopia roughly about 16.5 percent of its GDP each year (Abdulselem, 2017).

All of the above data indicate that food security situation in Ethiopia has been a long-standing challenge to the government, donors, and other international organizations, and the fight against hunger is dangerously off track and the country will fail to achieve a *low* level of hunger by 2030, and the world needs to recognize the right to food as a universal human right (IFPRI, 2006) on the one hand. In Ethiopia, within the framework of food security strategy, a food security program has been implemented since 2003 in some selected chronically food insecure areas. Moreover, Ethiopia has taken a steadfast commitment in collaboration with other core development actors by introducing various initiatives and adopting some laws and policies to address the issues associated with return migration, thereby to improve the well-being of its people (FDRE, 2002/03). In the past few years, though some important strides and commendable efforts have been made to reverse the colossal changes of food insecurity, Ethiopia still remains to one of the Sub-Saharan African countries where the realization of the agreed sustainable development target is questionable.

On the other hand, as already discussed throughout the preceding chapters of the dissertation (Chapter 5 through 8) the country is extremely overloaded by a tremendous number of international returnees and food insecurity persists. Moreover, in Ethiopia, the above agreed target remains to be elusive even after many years of its commitment. Nevertheless, the underlying causes of food insecurity as well as the coping strategies employed by the international returnees both at national and sub-national levels are not explored much. Hence, at present, assessing the situation via scientific investigation is of paramount importance for the national and regional governments including Addis

Ababa city administration to take lessons and feedbacks based on scientific evidences and ultimately to gauge the salience of '*food insecurity situations of returnees*' in the academic literature in Ethiopian context.

Moreover, the study could contribute much to predict crisis and early warning, to understand shortfalls in access to adequate food, and to allocate resources and to track the impact of interventions via the results of coping strategy indices in the study area. To this end, the study intends to assess the underlying causes of food insecurity and coping strategies of Ethiopian international returnees at their homeland in the study area. To meet these objectives, the study was guided by the following research questions:

- 1) *What are the underlying causes of food insecurity among the returnees? And is there any significant variation by gender on the underlying causes of food insecurity?*
- 2) *To what extent do returnees had employed consumption-based coping strategies upon their return? And is there any significant variation by gender in employing the coping strategies in the study area?*
- 3) *To what extent consumption-based coping strategies are affected by background characteristics of the returnees?*

9.2. Conceptual Background: Food Insecurity and Coping Strategies

In the present section, a general over overview of food insecurity and coping strategies that are used to cope up with shortage of food are discussed. Accordingly, the details are presented in the succeeding sub-sections as follows.

9.2.1. The Notion of Food Insecurity

The term "*food insecurity*" has been conceptualized in a number of ways as it is a complex concept to quantify. Food insecurity is a difficult concept to measure as it deals with very broad terms such as the production, distribution and consumption of food (FAO, 2017, 2006). Food insecurity is viewed as the limited availability of nutritionally adequate and safe foods or limited or uncertain ability to acquire socially acceptable

foods (FAO, 2017, 2006; Andersen, 1990); and it is a deficiency of a given household or society at a particular point in time, thus a static measure of welfare that categorizes households as either “*food secure*” or “*food insecure*” (Million *et al.*, 2011:4). Food insecurity is seen as a household-level economic and social condition of limited or uncertain access to adequate food (Zhao *et al.*, 2011). The same authors also expounded that food insecurity does not necessarily cause hunger, but hunger is a possible outcome of food insecurity (Zhao *et al.*, 2011).

Evidences demonstrate that a range of factors continue to cause food insecurity. The following are some of the major underlying causes of food insecurity: unstable social and political environments that preclude sustainable economic growth, war and civil strife, macroeconomic imbalances in trade, natural resource constraints, poor human resource base, gender inequality, inadequate education, poor health, natural disasters, and the absence of good governance (Ilaboya *et al.*, 2012; Nwaniki, 2005). Gender, income, household size, household source of food (purchased or own), geographical location, conflict, receiving remittances, educational level, economic stability, and riskiness of occupations are identified as important factors that are significantly associated to food insecurity (Ogundari, 2017; Azeem *et al.*, 2017; Mutabazi *et al.*, 2015; Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Lim, 2014; Bogale, 2012).

Moreover, lack of adequate storage facilities for food items such as cereals, yam, beans etc. automatically leads to wastage thereby plugging the people into acute hunger (Ilaboya *et al.*, 2012). Generally, the concept of food insecurity can be thought as a combination of multitude activities and critically dependent on a large array of factors. It is a complex and multidimensional concept which is determined by socio-demographic, institutional and economic factors. Moreover, the aforesaid drivers are merely illustrative and not exhaustive list of factors causing food insecurity as a whole.

9.2.2. General Over View: Coping Strategy

This section is dealt primarily with the issue of coping strategies used in general and in urban areas in particular. Before proceeding to the details, let us first define the term

coping strategies. Though coping and adapting strategies may mean many things to many people, while coping strategy is defined as 'a short-term response to an immediate and to habitual decline in access to food', whereas 'adapting strategy is about a permanent change in the mix of ways in which food is acquired (Gupta et al., 2015; Maxwell & Caldwell, 2008). Coping strategy is viewed as the notion of active responding to food shortages at household levels (Maxwell *et al.*, 2008; Wamsler, 2007). Several research findings dealing with coping strategies have argued that the coping mechanisms and the survival strategies are not the same. Coping strategies go beyond reducing risk: they also include self-insurance-security systems created during “normal” times to help gain access to financing sources or other recovery help in the event of a disaster, and an example of self-insurance is to buy and maintain physical assets, such as construction materials, that can easily be sold if needed (Wamsler, 2007).

Researchers divided the strategies for a serious food shortage into a number of stages. Corbett (1988) has developed a three stage model of household strategies for urban areas.

Insurance mechanism (Stage 1): reduction of current consumption level; collection of wild foods; use of inter-household transfers and loans; increased petty commodity production; migration in search of employment or relief, and sale of possessions.

Disposal of productive assets (Stage 2): sale of livestock; sale of agricultural tools; sale or renting out of land; credit from traders and moneylenders.

The terminal stage (Stage 3): destitution; distress migration, which is going out in the street looking for charity.

However, in the context of urban areas, the second stage does not seem to work. Typically, food insecure households employ different types of coping strategy. In light of this, modest dietary adjustments (eating less-preferred foods or reducing portion size) are easily reversible strategies that do not jeopardize longer-term prospects and more extreme behaviors such as the sale of productive assets which imply more serious long-

term consequences (Holmer & Drescher, 2005; Drescher & laquinta, 2002). Furthermore, many researchers have noted that as food insecurity worsens, households are more likely to employ strategies that are less reversible, and therefore this represents a more severe form of coping and greater susceptibility to food insecurity (WFP, 2016; Tran, 2015; Cameron, 2001; Corbett, 1988).

Coping strategies can be divided into the following two strategies: ex-ante and ex-post strategies (Dercon, 2002). Ex-ante strategies are protective risk-management actions by households before an eventual shock. These strategies usually take the form of insurance; self-insurance like precautionary savings and assets accumulation or community-based formal or informal insurance. Several studies have documented substantial heterogeneity in household saving behavior (Browning & Lusardi, 1996). Ex-post strategies are actions taken by households to mitigate the consequences of an adverse event (Dercon, 2002). Example of these strategies are reducing expenditures, increasing home production or diversifying sources increasing of income (Aquiar & Hurst, 2005; Dercon, 2002). Such strategies may have short-term or long-term impacts. Usually, households first implement coping mechanisms with short-term effect such as using up savings or selling assets, and when those mechanisms fall short, households may resort to other strategies with more long term effects such as withdrawing children from schools (Cameron, 2001).

Increasing mobility, expanding knowledge, and opportunities, working farther from the place of residence, change in food habits, mutual cooperation and borrowing are important coping strategies adopted by poor people living in the poverty pockets in Nepal (Dahal, 2017); in urban areas, most households tended to reduce the number of meals as a more frequent coping strategy, the following five coping strategies were identified along the urban-rural continuum as the most severe in times of food insecurity: skipping a whole day without food; borrowing; buying food on credit; consuming seed stock; and restricting adult intake in favor of children, and (hunting; consuming less preferred food; taking occasional jobs; and engaging in small trading were considered as not severe (Chagomoka *et al.*, 2016).

Ethiopian households employ the following major coping strategies to overcome food shortage: use less costing food stuff (kolo, green maize, potato, cabbage, kita); reduce the number of meals; give priority for their children and shift towards purchasing simple cooked foods rather than cooking at home; give their children to their relatives, neighborhoods, churches, and send to big celebrations (wedding, mahiber and kiristina) so as to reverse the problem food shortage (Degefa, 2008); vulnerable households use coping mechanisms such as reduce the amount of food purchased from market, reduce food consumption of adults to give priority to their children, and skippe meals whenever food is deficit in their households (Yared, 2010). Moreover, the same author illuminated that his findings depicted that women have been engaged in activities such as petty trading of vegetable and charcoal, collection of *chat* branches and waste paper for sale, cloth washing, baking *Injera*, hair dressing, Areke (local liquor) sales, running a kiosk, begging and sending their daughter to the Middle East for domestic labor as mostly common in urban areas of Ethiopia (Yared, 2010).

In Ethiopia, the urban poor households employ the following three major survival strategies to surmount food shortage (Degefa, 2008). The first strategy is to send their daughters to the Middle East Region to serve as maid-servants and the daughters transfer their salary to their families in order to help them cope and sustain the family. The second strategy is living in poor or slum community since they could not afford to access urban land as most of the households are unemployed and doing low income activities. Besides, in slum and shanty sites the house rents are relatively lower and many households are forced to share some facilities with other neighborhoods. The final strategy involves the following undesirable activities: commercial sex, theft, and begging amongst others (Degefa, 2008); and usually, while using up savings and/or selling of assets are used by households as the first coping mechanisms with short-term effect, whereas they may resort to other coping mechanisms with more long term effects like withdrawing children from schools (Cameron, 2001).

Moreover, urban agriculture has been pointed out as one of the strategies adopted by most urban dwellers to manage the scourge of food shortages, with most produced

food used for personal consumption providing a degree of food security and dietary diversity for many of the urban poor (Holmer & Drescher, 2005; Drescher & Iaquina, 2002). Several studies have shown that different kinds of food coping strategies have been in African countries during adverse conditions. In Nairobi, Kenya, for instance, reduction of food consumed (69%) and credit (52 %) were the two most frequently used coping strategies among the slum dwellers (Amendah *et al.*, 2014); and in Nigeria, the entire population rely on less preferred food and rely on limiting food portion at meal times with percentages of 95.8 % and 83.5% respectively (Agada & Igbokwe, 2014); and enterprises that earn them money to get food for consumption were selected by urban low-income households as a strategy to mitigate the risk of food shortages (Floro & Swain, 2013). In Ghana, during the months of insufficient food, households use the following coping mechanisms: migration to southern Ghana for wage labour, support from relatives and friends outside the regions, sale livestock and household assets as well as reduction of food intake and consumption of less preferred food (Quaye, 2008).

The following are the most commonly used four groups of coping strategies by households to deal with food insecurity: rationing or managing the shortfall strategies (limited portion size at meal times; skip meals and restricted consumption of adults so small children can eat) are the most common; Decreasing number of household members (send household members to eat elsewhere); dietary changes (rely on less expensive food); and increasing short term household availability of funds (borrow food from a friend or relative; purchased food on credit; send household members to beg; gather wild food, hunt, and so on) (Gupta *et al.*, 2015; Ngidi & Hendriks, 2014; Maxwell & Caldwell, 2008). In Mexico, the main coping strategies used by households were found to be rationing and augmenting short-term household food availability (Cordero-Ahiman *et al.*, 2018). In conclusion, a variety of food coping strategies are employed by households to address the problem of access to food and they vary from one region to another and across the country.

9.3. Research Methods

9.3.1. Description of Variables

Broadly speaking, the following three sets of factors constitute the independent variables of the study: socio-cultural; economic characteristics; and modality of returns of the study population. The most potential major causes of food insecurity such as physical, social, and economic access to adequate food and coping mechanisms of returnees, and other variables associated with the issue underway were treated as dependent variables of the study.

9.3.2. Tools of Data Collection

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected through different data collection tools. Accordingly, while survey questionnaires were used to gather quantitative data, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were used to obtain the qualitative data. The survey questionnaires were carried out with 402 international returnees from the month of July 2021-August 2021 during the non-fasting period (when food insecurity is most acute) to obtain the true picture of the issue. The survey questionnaire had two sections. The first section was concerned with physical, social and economic variables that are deemed to be the potential barriers and contributors to food insecurity among returnees.

It is a three-point Likert Scale with responses ranging from serious = S; mildly serious = MS; less serious = LS with values of 3, 2, and 1 respectively. The second part was about some of the possible consumption-based coping strategies and/or the adjustments the returnees made in consumption and livelihoods when they can't access enough to the food. To develop the instruments, the standardized five mandatory consumption-based coping strategies required to construct the CSI set by WFP/CARI (2015) were considered. Here the pool strategies were outlined and rated using a five point-Likert Scale (Appendix-4). Consequently, as a whole, items having a Cronbach's alpha of ($\alpha_{\text{overall}} = 0.798$) were used to collect data for the study.

The second data collection method relied on administering semi-structured interviews (SSIs) with returnees to obtain in-depth information about the underlying causes of current food insecurity and coping strategies among returnees' upon return to their homeland/how many times (in the previous 7 days) they had to use the coping strategies. The third method was FGDs in which the questions were directed to returnees, and experts and core actors having 6-12 team composition to encourage participants to generate new ideas or highlight conflicting attitudes that may be missed in a one-on-one interview.

9.3.3. Methods of Data Analysis

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches to analyze the data collected. The quantitative data collected were analyzed by using descriptive statistics, predictive analyses (Pearson's Correlation and ordinal logistic regression), and the Coping Strategy Index (CSI). The correlation of the study variables and the returnee households' causes of food insecurity and scores were calculated via spearman's correlation. The CSI was employed base on the threshold developed by WFP (2012) to measure the level of consumption-based coping strategies in situations in which the returnees did not have enough food, or money to buy food, the one-week prior to interview.

Moreover, predictive analysis was employed to determine the underlying causes of food insecurity among returnees in the study area. Furthermore, the qualitative data collected via SSIs and FGDs were transcribed and categorized systematically for the purpose of thematic analysis and presentation. In all the above cases, the existing difference was tested for statistical significance at $\alpha = 0.01$, 0.001 and/ or $\alpha = 0.05$.

9.4. Results and Discussions

Descriptive Analysis

9.4.1. The Major Causes of Food Insecurity

The next section is dealt with the underlying causes of food insecurity among returnees in the study area. To this end, the results of analyses obtained are presented hereunder.

As shown in Table 9-1, the overall mean and standard deviation of the three major causes of food insecurity regardless of their respective components were calculated. Accordingly, the results of the analyses disclosed that while economic hurdles were ranked above statistical mean scale as the most underlying causes of food insecurity in the study area with the values of ($\bar{x}$ = 2.55 and standard deviation/SD = .40); and amongst the three barriers physical hurdles were ranked as the least underlying causes of food insecurity among returnees with values of ($\bar{x}$ = 2.12 and SD = .57) in the study area.

Table 9-1: Responses of returnees on causes of food insecurity

Barriers	Mean	St. Deviation
Physical Barriers		
Poor access to roads to purchase food items	2.13	.465
Poor access to market	2.11	.677
Social Barriers		
Cultural practices that require women and children to eat after adult males	2.41	.309
Poor access to information about food prices	2.45	.500
Absence of effective information networks about food	2.43	.499
Economic Barriers		
Sufficient safe and nutritious food is unaffordable	2.55	.656
Poor access to wage employment	2.53	.271
Inadequate secure labour	2.56	.242
Poor financial services	2.54	.364
Non-efficient and transparent market system	2.52	.371
Debt Burden	2.57	.494
Overall average	2.37	.44

Source: Authors tabulation based on field survey data

The study also depicted that amongst the three barriers social hurdles as the major causes of food insecurity held the middle position with values of values of ($\bar{x}$ = 2.43 and SD = .44) in the study area. Moreover, as shown in Table 9-1, the overall average of the returnee respondents for the items were ($\bar{x}_{\text{overall}}$ = 2.37, SD=.44), which may reflect that

majority of the respondents rated the items between the ranges of mildly serious and serious. That is, the mean score is above an average on a three-point Likert scale (see sub-section 9.3.2, tools of data collection).

In addition to quantitative research approach, semi-structured interviews (SSIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted with returnees and participants of FGDs respectively to generate qualitative data to gain insight about the underlying causes of food insecurity among the returnees. To this end, the data are analyzed hereafter.

In this regard, one of the returnee interviewees described the issue in such a way:

...Currently, the underlying causes of food insecurity are multitude in nature. Consequently, it is difficult to list out all of them exhaustively. To date, getting any kind of food items with what you have at your hand entirely impossible and unforeseen prices and expenses of food items led the urban dwellers including returnees to financial constraints. Other major cause of food insecurity is prioritizing rent or other living expenses over food. Because financial barriers altered the amount of food purchased and ultimately reducing food intake. In Ethiopia including Addis Ababa, sometimes the main causes and drivers of food insecurity associated with political instability, civil war, conflict, and climate change (SSR).

Moreover, one of the key informant interviewees reported the issue as follows:

...Nowadays, in urban areas like Addis Ababa job opportunities are unreliable, deceptive and seasonal. In Ethiopia including Addis Ababa Sometimes, being engaged with regular jobs is very difficult and unemployment rate is skyrocketed and rapidly increased. As to me the most predominant causes of food insecurity are: lack of access to employment, lack of access to financial services, low monthly income, the mismatch between population and production, unfair trade rules and practices, violation of a consumer protection law, poorly integrated or non-competitive markets, and the like. Generally, high food prices threaten the food security of low-income consumers including the urban returnees like me (KII₃).

Altogether, from the aforementioned results demonstrated, it is noticeable that the drivers of food insecurity among the returnees in the study are multifaceted in nature in the study area. A vast majority of the interviewees reported that currently the underlying causes of food insecurity associated with economic conditions (unemployment, low income, etc.), political upheaval, social conditions (civil war and conflict, unfair trade rules and practices), and poverty.

Moreover, in connection to this, analysis of data obtained via focus group discussion (FGDs) was carried out and the results are presented below as follows.

...In Ethiopia, food insecurity has numerous underlying causes that may co-exist at the individual, household, community, and national level at large. In developing regions including Ethiopia access to adequate and sufficient food is unstable. The predominant causes of food insecurity that are common to Ethiopia are due to low crop yields, food price spikes, low wages, civil unrest, low wage labour that can result in failure of entitlements amongst others. More importantly, the main problems were and/are: Poverty, unemployment, or low income, lack of money and other resources, lack of affordable housing, increasing population, drought, war and conflict, climate change, poor public policy, and poor national economy just to mention a few. As such, there is a need for sound interventions such as food aid, famine early warning systems and to long-term, aggregate improvement in food security at the level of communities, city administration and country level as a whole (FGD₃).

This may imply that as far as the underlying causes of food insecurity of the returnees are concerned, majority of the FGDs participants found that though poor economic conditions of the returnees took the lion's share *the most common cause of food insecurity* is the cumulative effect both economic, social, and political conditions prevail in the country at large.

9.4.3. Underlying Causes of Food Insecurity by Gender

As can be demonstrated in Table 9-2, the overall average mean scores of male and female study population for the three categorized underlying causes of food insecurity

were ($\bar{x} = 2.36$; and $\bar{x} = 2.35$) respectively, which is above an average on the three-point Likert scale. Moreover, economic hurdles as a categorized barriers were rated above the scale mean relatively as the most underlying causes of food insecurity by both male and female respondents with values of ($\bar{x} = 2.58$; and $\bar{x} = 2.52$) respectively.

Conversely, both male and female sampled returnees accorded the least rank for physical hurdles with the mean scores of 2.13 and 2.07 respectively and reported as the least contributor in causing food insecurity in the study area. Another observation from Table 9-2 is to see whether the two types of genders exhibit significant variation in the issues under discussion. As observed from the result of the analyses, the calculated t-values for all the three categorized hurdles are less than the critical t-values and the $p > 0.05$ level of significance in all cases. This uncovered that there is no statistically significant variation between male and female sampled returnees on the underlying causes of food insecurity in the study area.

Table 9-2: Comparison of major causes of food insecurity by gender

Categorized barriers	Mean value		t- test for equality of means	
	Male returnees	Female returnees	t-calculated	Sig.(2-tailed)
Physical barriers	2.13	2.07	.441	.660
Social barriers	2.37	2.46	-1.542	.589
Economic barriers	2.58	2.52	.445	.650
Overall root causes of food insecurity	2.36	2.35	-1.923	.058

Source: Field survey data (2021)

9.4.4. Summary of major causes of Food Insecurity

As shown in Figure 9-1, despite the fact that there are multitude causes of food insecurity in the study area, as a whole, the sample population found that the underlying causes of food insecurity were lack of physical, social, and economic access to food with the percentages of 11.4%, 24.1%, and 64.2% respectively. That is, economic

barriers such as debt burden, poor access to wage employment, unaffordable nutritious food) took the lion's share in causing food security in the study area.

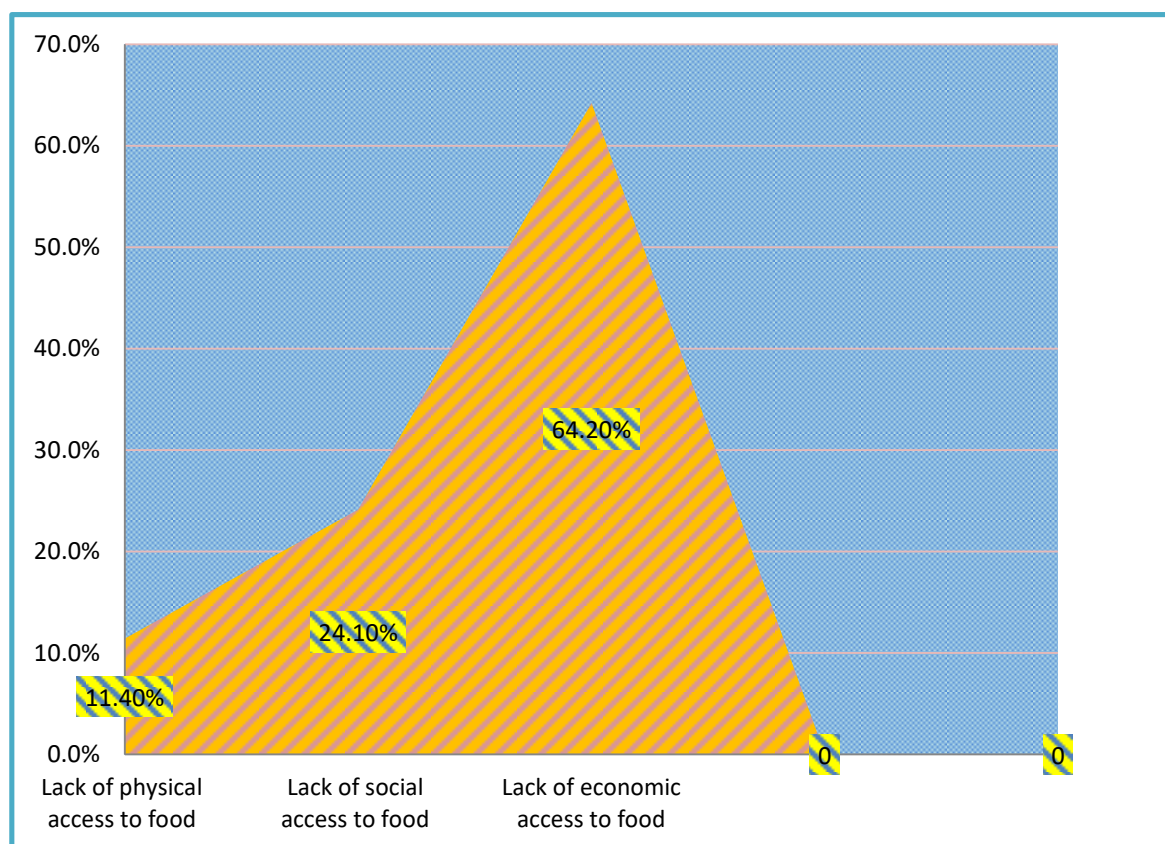


Fig.9-1: Summary responses on major causes of food insecurity

9.4.5. Consumption-Based Coping Strategies among Returnees

As distinctly demonstrated earlier, consumption-based coping strategy is considered as one of the aspects of coping with food shortage in terms of reducing food insecurity. The sampled returnees were asked about the group of coping strategies that were employed to deal with food insecurity in their respective families. The findings of both quantitative and qualitative data analyses are presented below.

As self-evident from Table 9-3, the study population accorded that they employed four major groups of consumption-based coping strategies to deal with food insecurity and rated the overall mean and standard deviation of the four major coping strategies with the overall mean and standard deviation of 3.10 and 1.50 respectively.

Table 9-3: Responses of returnees on coping strategies

Description of coping strategies	Categorized strategy	Mean	SD
Rely on less preferred food	Dietary change	3.68	2.30
Reduce quality of food			
Limit amount of size at meal times			
Borrow food from a friend or relative	Augmenting short-term HH food availability	3.11	1.48
Purchase food on credit			
Get government food aid			
Consume seed stock held for next season			
Support from charity organizations			
Selling productive assets in exchange for food	Decreasing the number of family members	2.21	1.63
Send children to eat with neighbors			
Send household members to beg			
Restrict consumption order for small children to eat	Rationing strategy	3.10	1.17
Skipping entire days without eating			
Reduce number of meals eaten in a day			
Reducing expenditure on health care			
Ration the money you have and buy prepared food			
Overall average		3.10	1.50

Source: Field survey data (2021); *HH = Household; SD = Standard Deviation.

In other words, sampled returnees ranked the four major coping strategies regardless of their respective components above the mean scale on the five-point Likert scale, implying that the high prevalence of food insecurity among returnees in the study area. Moreover, the results of the analyses revealed that while dietary change such as (relying on less preferred food, compromising quality of food, and limit amount of size at meal times) was ranked above an average as the most commonly used strategy to cope with food insecurity with the values of ($\bar{x}$ = 3.68 and SD = 2.30); and decreasing number of

family members (sending children to eat with neighbors and sending household members for begging) was ranked below the statistical mean scale as the least strategy to cope with food insecurity among returnees with values of ($\bar{x}$ = 2.21 and SD = 1.63) in the study area.

The main coping strategies employed by urban households in Mexico were found to be rationing and augmenting short-term household food availability (Cordero-Ahiman *et al.*, 2018), implying the finding of the present study shows some harmony with the finding of the present study regardless of ranking. Furthermore, the analysis showed that three out of four major categorized consumption-based coping strategies were rated above the mean scale on the five-point Likert Scale except the item associated with decreasing the number of family members which was ranked below the mean scale, which indicates that making dietary change, developing temporary food obtaining strategy, and rationing or managing the shortfall strategies were amongst the coping mechanisms more prevalent to mitigate the effects of food shortage in the study area.

9.4.6. Consumption- Based Coping Strategies by Gender

As can be seen in Table 9-4, the overall average mean scores of male and female study population for the four categorized consumption-based coping strategies were ($\bar{x}$ = 1.94; and $\bar{x}$ = 1.91) respectively, which is slightly below an average on a three-point Likert scale. However, augmenting short-term household food availability as a categorized consumption-based coping strategies were rated above the scale mean relatively as the most widely used coping mechanisms during shortage of food by both male and female returnees with mean values of ($\bar{x}$ = 2.18; and $\bar{x}$ = 2.014) on a three point-Likert Scale respectively. On the contrary, both male and female sampled returnees accorded the least rank for decreasing number of family members with the mean scores of 1.65 and 1.44 respectively and reported as the least employed categorized consumption-based coping strategy in the study area.

Table 9-4: Comparison of consumption-based coping strategies by gender

Categorized coping mechanism	Mean value		t- test for equality of means		
	Male returnees	Female returnees	MD	t-calculated	Sig.(2-tailed)
Dietary change	1.96	2.20	-.24	-2.727	.008**
Augmenting short-term HH food availability	2.18	2.04	.14	2.060	.042*
Decreasing number of family members	1.65	1.44	.21	2.365	.020*
Rationing strategies	1.96	1.94	.02	.337	.737
Overall mean value	1.94	1.91	0.033	0.509	0.202

**, ** P-value significant at 0.05 and 0.001 respectively; MD = mean difference*

Another observation from Table 9-4 is to see whether the two types of genders portray significant difference in the issue under discussion. As observed from the result of the analyses, the calculated t-values for three out of the four categorized consumption-based coping strategies are less than the critical t-values and the $p > 0.05$ level of significance in all the first three coping strategies. As noted above, the first item was about dietary change as a categorized consumption-based coping strategy the calculated values are ($t_{cal} = -2.227$, $p = 0.008 < 0.001$). This shows that there is statistically significant variation in employing the dietary change as a coping mechanism during food shortage periods between male and female returnees in the study area. The result of the item also indicates that the mean difference ($MD = -0.24$), with greater mean value of female returnees, which implies female returnees had employed dietary change as a coping strategy and more relied on less preferred and reduced quality and inexpensive food items in their consumption than male returnees did.

Moreover, the results in the Table 9-4 above indicate that while both genders didn't show significant variation in practicing rationing as a categorized consumption-based coping strategy ($p = .737 > 0.05$), augmenting short-term household food availability (item 2) and decreasing number of family members (item 3) as the two coping mechanisms

were used by both genders differently. As a comparison is done between the two study groups, independent t-test was employed to test the differences. With regard to the analyses of t-test about augmenting short-term household food availability and decreasing number of family members used as the two categorized consumption-based coping strategies the computed values are ($t_{cal} = 2.060$, $MD = 0.14$, $p = 0.042 < 0.05$; and $t_{cal} = 2.365$, $MD = 0.21$, $p = 0.02 < 0.05$) respectively.

This implies that there is statistically significant difference between male and female returnees in the issue under discussion with greater mean value of male returnees, which shows that male return migrants clearly employed the two coping mechanisms more intensely than do female return migrants. In conclusion, therefore, it is possible to infer that male returnees show slightly higher mean ratings regarding the consumption-based coping strategies materialized; and they are more likely food insecure than female returnees do in the study area. A further analysis of qualitative data was conducted to substantiate the above quantitative findings based on data obtained via semi-structured interviews (SSIs) and focus group discussions (FGDs).

Accordingly, during FGDs returnee participants disclosed that:

...Nowadays, in Ethiopia including Addis Ababa the issue of food insecurity is a major bottleneck to make a living. A number of attempts should be made to avert the food security problem to save the life of each household member, particularly of the poor urban households. Most of the time head household must take responsibility in this case. Though it is very difficult to mention all the coping mechanisms exhaustively households often use a variety of coping strategies to deal with food insecurity within the households. Some household may make movement from one part of the city to another to look for lower rent costs, and the other household may take loans and credits from different sources formally and/ or informally. Still other household may take a second and a third job. Generally, the preceding strategies were the most commonly employed coping mechanisms. Of course, the mechanisms may vary from one household to another (7/8/2021).

Besides, experts and core actors that took part in FGD noted the following:

...In modern world, development efforts encourage strategies that increase capacities to manage urban disasters and disaster risk including the problem of food security in the short and the long term. In civilized society, urban coping strategies are at the heart of sustainable settlement and essential for urban development. However, they appear to be less deliberate and not effective in developing regions of the globe including Ethiopia. The same holds true for Addis Ababa. As the result of high living cost, the problem of food security is very high among the urban poor including international returnees in Addis Ababa. To curb down such catastrophe a variety of strategies are used by a household. Some may encourage family members to move to abroad. Some other may pay high interest to informal money lenders to be secured. Others may heavily rely on consumption of poor quality of food. Still others may send children to take an extra job for a household as an alternative mechanism (FG₃).

As indicated by most of the participants of FGDs the coping mechanisms employed by international returnees are varied and the most common ones are: borrowing money from others; consumption of poor quality of food; sending out children for complementary job; moving from higher rent areas to lower rent areas; and encouraging family members to move abroad.

One of the interviewees explained the issue as follows:

...International returnees in Addis Ababa have employed the following coping mechanisms amongst others: spending their saving, if any, on daily needs; staying with family and/or friends; planning for remigration. If situation allows they start their own small business. I think returned migrants in Addis Ababa live with family and relatives; and consume what they have saved, if any, on basic needs in their stay in Addis Ababa. Those who have returned empty handed (without saving) have to be dependent on others (family, relatives, and friends) (SSR).

This reveals that returnee households were employed planning to remigration, spending their savings, staying with family and friends as the main coping strategies in the study area. Another interviewee pointed out that:

...it is clear that the coping mechanisms may vary from returnee to returnee. However, the following strategies are the predominant ones: being engaged in daily labor; borrowing money from others; being engaged in petty works; developing family planning to minimize the size of family members; being engaged in any activities that generate income on daily basis, developing plan that balances incomes and expenses; searching extra job opportunity by minimizing expenses; and purchasing food on credit (SSR).

Generally, coping strategies are the major concern among the participants of the study. The response patterns across the participants of SSIs and FGDs uncovered that the major coping strategies used by study population to cope with food shortage are: spending their savings; purchasing food on credit; borrowing money from others; compromising the quality of food to be consumed; engaging in daily labor and other petty jobs; minimization of daily expenses are amongst others. It is evident that the foregoing results corroborate the findings of the quantitative data analysis secured earlier through survey questionnaires.

Furthermore, the coping strategies reflected by most participants of the study are in harmony with the findings of the following studies. A household's adaptation could span from short term coping measures such as reducing the number of daily meal times, through migration, to adaptation strategies such as adopting productivity-enhancing measures (FAO, 2005). In urban areas, households have engaged in borrowing money and pay high interest to informal money lenders (Wamsler, 2007); and in urban areas of Ghana, most households tended to skip a whole day without food, borrow money, buy food on credit, consumed seed stock, and limit adult intake in favor of children, and consume less preferred food (Chagomoka *et al.*, 2016).

9.4.7. Results of Coping Strategy Index

Here the intention is to measure the extent to which returnee households were employed consumption-based coping strategies when they do not have enough food or enough money to buy food via the Coping Strategy Index (CSI) as proxy indicator of food insecurity. In doing so, an attempt was made to get the right list and to identify the locally relevant coping strategies in the study area. Households were asked about how often they used a set of five short-term food based coping strategies in situations in which they didn't have enough food, or money to buy food, during the one-week period prior to interview. Household CSI scores are then determined by multiplying the number of days in the past week each strategy was employed by its corresponding severity weight, and then summing together the totals (WFP, 2012). In other words, the score is the product of relative frequency score and the severity weight. The result is reported by a numeric score based on the thresholds of CSI (Table 9-5) underneath.

Table 9-5: The Thresholds of Coping Strategy Index

Threshold	Status of coping
0-3 score	No or low coping
4-9 scores	Medium coping
≥10 scores	High coping

Source: WFP (2012)

Based on the threshold given on Table 9-5 above, the section to follow is dealt with the results of analysis of CSI. The result of the analysis has demonstrated that the sample population has a CSI score of 18.5 (high consumption-based coping strategy). In other words, the returnee households reported the most severe coping behaviors and an extensive use of negative coping strategies, implying that a high level of food insecurity in the study area among the sampled returnees (Table 9-6).

Table 9-6: Results of coping strategy index

In the past 7 days, how often has your household had to:	Scales					Raw score	Universal severity weight	Score
	All the time	3-6	1-2	<1	Never			
Relative frequency score	7	4.5	1.5	0.5	0			
Rely on less preferred and less expensive foods	X					7.0	1	7.0
Borrow food or rely on help from friends or relatives			X			1.5	1	1.5
Limit portion size at meal times		X				4.5	1	4.5
Restrict consumption by adults in order for small children to eat				X		0.5	2	1.0
Reduce number of meals eaten in a day			X			1.5	3	4.5
Total Household Score/Total CSI								18.5

Source: Own tabulation based on field data (2021)

Predictive Analysis

In this section, ordinal logistic regression analysis model was employed to test the predictive power of independent variables on the dependent variable of the underlying causes of food insecurity. The model contained three major independent variables (physical, social, and economic hurdles) comprising their different respective components. As noted in Table 9-7, while physical hurdles such as (poor access to roads and markets) had no any significant impact in causing food insecurity; social and economic barriers had a substantial effect on the likelihood of in causing food insecurity among returnees at the ($p < 0.001$; and $p < 0.05$) respectively.

They are negatively correlated with the '*food insecurity status*.' Besides, the results of analyses revealed that the returnee respondents relatively accorded the greatest and the lowest rating responses to economic and social hurdles with the odds ratio of ($\text{Exp}(\beta) = .896$; and $\text{Exp}(\beta) = .683$) respectively. On the contrary, with regard to the relative importance of social and economic hurdles as the underlying causes of food insecurity in the study area while social barriers took the first ranking position with the Wald

statistics and logistic regression coefficients of (Wald = 15.735.144 and $\beta = -.381$); the economic hurdles stood second with values of (Wald = 4.403 and $\beta = -.110$). The results of ordinal logistic regression analysis of each respective component of the three categorized barriers are presented (Table 9-7, Appendix-5).

To sum up, the above results vividly revealed that above all, economic hurdles had substantially caused more likely food insecurity and are fundamental determinants of food insecurity in the study area than the two hurdles (physical and social barriers).

Table 9-7: Ordinal Logistic Regression analysis on the causes of food insecurity

<i>Variables in the equation</i>	<i>Categorized barriers</i>	<i>β</i>	<i>Wald</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>Exp(β)</i>
Poor access to roads	Physical hurdles	-.228	2.027	.155	.796
Poor access to market					
cultural practices that require women and children to eat after adult males	Social hurdles	-.381	15.735	.000**	.683
Poor access to information about food					
Absence of effective information networks about food					
Sufficient safe and nutritious food is unaffordable	Economic hurdles	-.110	4.403	.036*	.896
Poor access to wage employment					
Inadequate secure labour					
Poor financial services					
Non-efficient and transparent market system					
Debt burden					
Constant		4.387	37.778	.000	80.390

* $P < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.001$; -2Loglikelihood = 455.227^a; Cox & Snell R Square = .091; Nagelkerke = .128.

9.4.8. Correlation between Consumption-Based Coping Strategies and Predictor Variables

In the present section, an attempt was made to see the correlation between major categorized consumption-based coping strategies as criterion variables and background

characteristics of the study population as predictor variables. To this end, the results of the analyses are presented in (Table 9-9 and Table 9-10) as follows.

Table 9-9 uncovered that amongst seven personal characteristics of the sampled returnees only four had correlations with two criterion variables (dietary change and augmenting short-term household food availability). More specifically, the correlation coefficients between family size and educational status as predictor variable and that of dietary change as criterion variable are significant at the $p < 1\%$ level of significance with Pearson's Correlation value of ($r = -0.142$; and $r = 0.154$) respectively, which indicates that the variables are poorly correlated with each other and the former and the latter were negatively and positively associated with the criterion variable respectively.

Table 9-8: Correlation between predictor variables and predictor variables

Predictor variables	Criterion variables			
	Dietary change		Augmenting short-term HH food availability	
	Pearson's Correlation	Sig.(2-tailed)	Pearson Correlation	Sig.(2-tailed)
Personal characteristics				
Sex of respondents	.085	.089	-.088	.077
Marital status	.030	.552	.152**	.002
Age of respondents	.066	.186	.019	.700
Religion	.108*	.030	.133**	.008
Family size	-.142**	.004	-.169***	.001
Role in the family	.063	.208	.022	.662
Educational status	.154**	.002	.033	.511
Economic characteristics				
Income at abroad	-.153**	.002	-.105*	.035
Income at homeland	.026	.598	.130**	.009
Modality of returns				
Forced returns	.128*	.010	-.048	.335
Voluntarily returns	-.026	.596	.024	.627

*, **, *** significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 levels respectively; HH = Household.

The result also revealed that religion of respondents had associated with dietary change with the values of ($r = 0.108$, $p = 0.03 < 0.05$). This shows that there is a statistically significant positive correlation between dietary change as a coping strategy and religion of the returnee households. Augmenting short-term HH food availability as a coping strategy is associated with marital status and religion of the respondents at the $p < 0.01$ level of significance with the values of ($r = 0.152$; and $r = 0.133$) respectively. Moreover, Table 9-9 demonstrated that augmenting short-term HH food availability as a coping strategy is correlated with family size of the study population at the $p \leq 0.001$ level of significance with the Pearson's Correlation ($r = -0.169$). In other words, the two variables are poorly and negatively correlated while family size of the returnees increase, the likelihood of employing augmenting short-term HH food availability as a coping strategy is decreased and vice versa. Income at abroad as economic characteristics of the study population had an association with the dietary change as one of the coping mechanisms at the $p < 0.01$ level of significance with ($r = -0.153$), while income at homeland had no any signification relationship with the issue under discussion.

On the contrary, both income at abroad and homeland as two economic characteristics of the study population had correlation with augmenting short-term HH food availability as one of the coping mechanisms with the values of ($r = -0.105$, $p < 0.05$; and $r = 0.130$, $p < 0.01$) respectively. That is the former and the latter are negatively and positively correlated respectively with augmenting short-term HH food availability as a coping strategy. Furthermore, the results of the analysis depicted that while forced returns as a modality of returns only associated with dietary change with values of ($r = 0.128$, $P \leq 0.01$), while the two modality of returns were not substantially associated with augmenting short-term HH food availability as a coping strategy. In a nutshell, the association between the above predictor and criterion variables is poor and isn't as such strong enough.

As noted earlier, the discussions of the correlation between the rest criterion variables rationing and decreasing number of family members as coping strategies and the

predictors variables are presented in Table 9-10. Accordingly, the associations between religion and educational attainment of the study population status as predictor variable and rationing strategy as criterion variable were found to be significant at the $p \leq 0.001$ level of significance with values ($r = -0.165$; and $r = 0.168$) respectively, which reveals that the variables are poorly and positively correlated with each other. Conversely, amongst personal characteristics family size had a correlation with rationing strategy with the values of ($r = -0.104$, $p < 0.05$). In other words, family size and rationing strategy associated with each other negatively, implying that a unit increase in family size is followed by a unit decrease in employing rationing strategy as one of the coping strategies.

Table 9-10 also illustrated that decreasing number of family members as a coping strategy is associated with religion, sex, and family size of the sampled returnees with the values of ($r = 0.133$, $p < 0.01$; $r = -0.111$, $p < 0.05$; and $r = -0.183$, $p < 0.000$) respectively. To put it another way, while the former predictor variable is positively correlated with the criterion variable, the latter two are associated negatively with it.

Table 9-9: Association between response variables and predictor variable

Predictor variables	Criterion variables			
	Rationing strategy		Decreasing number of family members	
	Pearson's Correlation	Sig.(2-tailed)	Pearson Correlation	Sig.(2-tailed)
Personal characteristics				
Sex of respondents	-.016	.748	-.111*	.026
Marital status	.071	.155	.086	.085
Age of respondents	.040	.424	.007	.896
Religion	.165***	.001	.133**	.007
Family size	-.104*	.038	-.183***	.000
Role in the family	.051	.312	.061	.224
Educational status	.168***	.001	.054	.284
Economic characteristics				
Income at abroad	-.107*	.032	-.126*	.011
Income at homeland	.032	.522	.047	.343
Modality of returns				
Forced returns	-.064	.201	-.187***	.000
Voluntarily returns	.141**	.005	.131**	.009

*, **, *** Significant at 0.05, 0.01, and 0.001 levels respectively

Besides, the results portrayed that while income at abroad as economic characteristics of the study population had correlated with the two coping strategies (rationing strategy and decreasing number of family members) at the $p < 0.05$ level of significance in both cases with values of ($r = -0.107$; and $r = -0.126$) respectively, while income at homeland had no any significant associations with the two criterion variables in the study area. This reveals that income at abroad as one of the economic characteristics of the study population is negatively and significantly related with the two variables indicated above.

Furthermore, the study population found that while forced returns as a modality of returns only associated with decreasing number of family members as a coping mechanism with values of ($r = -0.187$, $P < 0.001$), voluntarily return as one of the return modalities was associated with both rationing strategy and decreasing number of family members at the $p < 0.01$ level of significance in both cases with values of ($r = 0.141$; and $r = 0.131$) respectively. In other words, voluntarily return had associated with the two coping strategies, implying that a unit change it is followed by a unit change in using the two coping strategies in study area.

9.4.9. Linear Regression Analysis on Consumption-Based Coping Strategies

From Table 9-11 below, we may observe, among many others, the following major points. First, in the views of returnee respondents income at abroad and income at homeland as two economic characteristics as well as forced and voluntarily returns as two modality of returns had no significant effects on the types of consumption-based coping strategies employed among the study population. Second, among personal characteristics of the returnees, role of the returnees in their respective family and sex of the respondents didn't have substantial impacts on the consumption-based coping strategies employed by the study population during food deficit periods in the study area to overcome the problem of food security. Third, religion, family size and educational status of the returnee households had significant impacts (family size with

negative impacts) at the significance level of ($p = 0.000 < 0.001$) in all cases on consumption-based coping strategies employed in the study area.

Table 9-10: Results of Linear Regression Analysis on consumption-based coping strategies

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	β	Std. Error	Beta (β)			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	36.63	5.991		6.115	.000		
Personal characteristics							
Sex of respondents	-1.223	1.442	-.041	-.848	.397	.863	1.159
Marital status	1.428	.703	.095	2.033	.043*	.935	1.069
Age of respondents	.233	.104	.122	2.251	.025*	.708	1.412
Religion of respondents	2.603	.704	.175	3.698	.000*	.921	1.086
Family Size	-1.019	.286	-.177	-3.558	.000*	.831	1.204
Role in Family	.974	1.031	.045	.945	.345	.926	1.080
Educational status	2.331	.543	.214	4.291	.000*	.829	1.207
Economic characteristics							
Income at abroad	.000	.000	-.054	-1.097	.273	.857	1.167
Income at homeland	.001	.000	.081	1.494	.136	.698	1.433
Modality of returns							
Forced returns	0.067	1.045	-.111	-2.343	.890	.926	1.080
Voluntarily returns	2.235	1.039	1.135	-3.343	.064	.939	1.081
R Square = .197; Adjusted R Square = .172; Std.Error of the Estimate = 9.88512; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor; and *, ** P-value significant at 0.05 and 0.001 respectively.							

Source: Field survey data (2021)

Moreover, results revealed that age and marital status of the returnee households as explanatory variables had significant positive impacts at the significance level of ($p < 0.05$) in all cases on consumption-based coping strategies employed in the study area. Fourth, amongst explanatory variables religion, educational status, and marital status of the returnee households held the first three positions and had the strongest effect in employing consumption-based coping strategies with unstandardized coefficients of (2.603; 2.331; and 1.428) respectively in the study area.

Fifth, the results of analysis disclosed the relative importance of the predictor variables for using consumption-based coping strategies in the study area. Accordingly, based on the results of beta values, amongst independent variables, educational status, family

size and religion of the sampled returnees were found to be the first three most important factors in employing consumption-based coping strategies in the study area with standardized coefficients of Beta values of (0.241, $|-1.77|$, and $|-1.75|$) in the order mentioned. Overall, from our model we found that socio-cultural characteristics of returnees had significant effects on consumption-based coping strategies employed among returnees on the one hand. Predictor variables such as economic characteristics and modality of returns among returnees were not statistically significant in our model on the other hand.

9.5. Conclusions and Recommendations

The prime intent of the study was to explore the current underlying causes of food insecurity and consumption-based coping strategies employed among Ethiopian international returnees in Addis Ababa. The study concluded that economic hurdles as a categorized barrier were found to be the most underlying causes of food insecurity while physical hurdles were reported as the least contributors in causing food insecurity in the study area. The findings highlighted that a vast majority (64.2%) of the sampled returnees accorded that economic barriers such as debt burden, poor access to wage employment, unaffordable nutritious food) took the lion's share in causing food insecurity in the study area.

Moreover, the study uncovered that the calculated score of the coping strategy index was (CSI = 18.5), implying an extensive use of negative consumption-based coping strategies and a high level of food insecurity among the sampled returnees. Dietary change, augmenting short-term household food availability, and rationing strategy in descending order were reported as the three predominant consumption-based coping strategies employed by returnee households. More importantly, the study population gave top attention and heavily relied on less preferred and inexpensive and poor quality food groups by giving due concern to the types of foods consumed rather than the quantities consumed in order to manage the shortfall of food. The results of logistic regression analysis demonstrated that while physical hurdles such as (poor access to

roads and markets) had no any significant impact in causing food insecurity; social and economic barriers had a substantial effect in causing food insecurity among returnees at the ($p < 0.001$; and $p < 0.05$) respectively.

The finding of the study disclosed that substantial variation is observed in employing a group of consumption-based coping strategies between male and female returnees and the mean values for male returnees are significantly higher than female returnees, an indication of male returnees are more likely food insecure than female returnees do in the study area. Moreover, while background characteristics such as marital status, age, religion, family size, and educational status of returnee households had significant effects on consumption-based coping strategies employed, economic characteristics (income at abroad and income at homeland) and modality of returns (forced and voluntarily returns) had no statistically significant effects on the issue.

To this effect, the findings of the study provide the following recommendations and pathways to address the major drivers of food insecurity and other problems revealed in the study: the Ethiopian government and development actors should be hand in hand in strengthening the resilience of the most poor urban returnees to economic adversity; any interventions for sustainable food security must target building on current adaptive capacities of the returnees by exploiting current knowledge and skills of the urban poor returnees and some interventions must also focus on developing new skills of alternative livelihood systems; and policy makers and other core actors all need to be sensitive to put sound interventions in place to realize the right to food and efficiently tackle the problem of food security among returnees.

We acknowledge that the study only focused on Ethiopian international returnees found in the capital city of the country, Addis Ababa. We recommend future studies to look at different regions of Ethiopia using the urban–rural approach and summarize the underlying causes of food insecurity and coping strategies employed by the returnee households across the country as a whole.

Chapter Ten: Synthesis, Conclusions and Recommendations

The world will not evolve past its current state of crisis by using the same thinking that created the situation.

Albert Einstein

10.1. Introduction

The overarching objective of the Dissertation was to unveil robust scientific evidences on how and to what extent do: irregular cross-border migration and return migration decisions are predicted by factors associated with destination and origin areas as well as personal attributes; and international returnees construct sustainable livelihoods and food security. Unfolding where opportunities for strategic interventions of international returnees lie and advancing further understanding about the dynamics, evolving nature, patterns as well as to provide a livelihood platform for new policy thinking about the issue in Ethiopian context including Addis Ababa is also at heart of the Dissertation to map out the terrain of return migration.

To realize the intended objectives associated with aspects of migration, the study was underpinned by neo-classical economics, structuralism, and new economics of labour of migration (NELM) theories of migration. Sustainable livelihood model was employed to capture and conceptualize the multifaceted nature of degree of access to livelihood capitals, livelihood strategies and food security status of the returnees in the study area. The conceptual framework of the study was developed based on the main concepts and assumptions of the four aforementioned theoretical underpinnings. Primary data were generated via field observations, key informant interviews, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and survey questionnaires. A variety of document analyses were also made to produce secondary data. Quantitative data were analyzed using both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics including regression models (both univariate and multivariate models), whereas content analysis was applied to analyze qualitative data. Furthermore, household food insecurity access scale, food

consumption score, household hunger scale, household dietary diversity score, and coping strategy index were employed as the five major proxy indicators of food security.

In this late chapter, an attempt was made to provide a summary of the major findings and conclusions of the study. Accordingly, the chapter is structured as follows. The first section of the chapter commences by highlighting the synthesis of the dissertation study. This is followed by presentation of contributions of the study. An extensive overview of the limitations and future research directions is provided in section three. The final section is devoted to overall conclusions and recommendations of the study. Each of them is briefly discussed hereunder.

10.2. Synthesis

As mentioned earlier, the present study has set out to explore the determinants of irregular cross-border migration and return migration decisions; and the livelihoods and food security situations of international returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. To this end, the major empirical findings of the study are summarized as follows.

10.2.1. Determinants of Irregular Cross-Border Migration Decision

The first research question of the study was about factors predicting the likelihood of irregular cross-border migration decision in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The summary in this section focuses on to what extent pull factors at destination areas and push factors at origin country were attracting and compelling the returnees to migrate in irregular manner respectively. The findings obtained demonstrated that amongst push factors, economic factors such as lack of employment opportunity, low wages, urban poverty, and high level of food insecurity took the most leading share in drifting the study population to migrate irregularly out of the study area. This in turn may indicate that the poor economic conditions in the origin country had sound effect in compelling Ethiopians to migrate irregularly to find work to improve their economic situations and their family.

This finding is in harmony and congruent with the finding of Düvell (2011) that noted the key pushing forces of the supply of illegal migration are poverty, limited opportunities at homeland, and economic imbalances amongst others. Our findings are also consistent to some extent with previous studies that uncovered migrant decisions are a combinations of economic factors, political and security factors, cultural factors, social factors and network factors (Hofmann *et al.*, 2020). Similarly, most scholars agree that any decision to migrate cannot be pinned down to a single cause and that “*the causation of migration is cumulative*” (Massey *et al.*, 1993: 461).

The study also disclosed that while socio-cultural factors (freedom, sustainable food security, improved urban services, strong social cohesion, and so on) act as pull factors at abroad; socio-political factors (restriction in human right, political instability, peer pressures) as push factors at homeland had significant positive impacts and made the first and the second greatest contributions on irregular migration decision respectively. With regard to the relative weights of the factors; nonetheless, the decision to migrate was impacted by situations in both the destination and the origin areas, the findings of the study explicated that the decision to migrate is robustly more predicted by conditions in the former areas. In other words, the corresponding strength of the pull factors outweighs that of the push factors in influencing the study population to make irregular cross-border migration decision in the study area. For migrants in West and North Africa, economic drivers were central in their decision-making, though there are a number of factors that may play important roles in the regions (Hofmann *et al.*, 2020).

Furthermore, the overall results were not consistent with, amplify, and quantify a single existing theory of migration rather an amalgam of a number of theories of migration as a whole. In other words, the aforementioned results of the present study do not fully confirm the hypothesis of any single theory on migration. These findings support the argument that the decision to leave a country, and of course to return, is cumulative, intertwined and is determined by complex individual, social and political processes instead of by a set of scientific laws (Hofmann *et al.*, 2020; MMR, 2019; IMI, 2011; Massey *et al.*, 1993). Overall, the findings of the study have suggested that the

government of Ethiopia should work hand in hand with various development actors to scale up the understandings of its citizen about the current social, cultural, political ,and economic situations and other calamities associated with international migration around the globe thereby curbing down irregular cross-border migration.

10.2.2. Factors Affecting Return Migration Decisions

The study concentrates on elucidating the determinants of return migration decision in the study area. To this effect, the study uncovered that there are three main factors compelling Ethiopian emigrant to make return migration decision: homeland, destination area, and personal factors and all of them are positively correlated with the '*decision to return*'. More importantly, the study heightened that the conditions in the destination areas by far had more sound impact on making decision to return than factors in the origin country as well as personal attributes; an indication of such return has substantial negative impact on returnees' livelihood strategies in achieving food security upon return as in developing world including Ethiopia. This is because migration is considered as part and parcel of livelihood strategies and a good weapon for poverty mitigation in developing regions of the world. The above finding is in concord with the study that uncovered for returnees to Ethiopia, conditions in the host regions were the most essential in influencing the decision of Ethiopians to return back-home (Koser & Kuschminder, 2015).

Besides, the study disclosed that significant proportion of the study population (72.4%) reported that determinants in the origin had no sound effect on the decision to return migration. Some of these findings were also confirmed by studies conducted on the same issue. In general, the conditions in the country of origin are more relevant to the decision to emigrate than to the decision to return (Schüring *et al.*, 2017; Koser & Kuschminder, 2015 as cited in Schüring *et al.*, 2017). On the contrary, in China, on the one hand, the decision to return is influenced by the following pull factors: improved economic development and employment opportunities, availability of social security coverage, more affordable housing and better living conditions, the prospect of family

reunion, and presence of strong family and communal networks and support in their homeland (ADB, 2020). On the other hand, the following major push factors prompt migrants to return to their origin country: both the lack and availability of financial, human, and social capital (ADB, 2020).

Moreover, these findings are not in consonance with what Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (2017) had observed that destination area factors are amongst the least reasons cited to come back to homeland; and except for forced return, personal factors seem to play a much more decisive role for return migration decision (Battistella, 2018). A study conducted by Kirdar (2009) in Germany has shown that unemployment has positive effect on return migration in such a way that while immigrants whose unemployment spells are shorter than three years are more likely to return, older working-age immigrants with longer unemployment periods are more likely to stay.

The findings of the study also illuminated that Ethiopian emigrants that constitute a significant number were subjected to coercion in the destination areas to evacuate instead of making free choice to return, which inexorably could lead the returnees to unsustainable livelihoods. This finding is not in harmony with underlying assumption that has stated individual migrants prefer home to foreign consumption (Wahba, 2014); and higher preferences for consumption in country of origin, or high purchasing power of the host country currency in the migrant's homeland, or accumulation of human capital in the host country that improves productivity may lead to a return migration back home (Weiss & Dustmann, 2007).

However, it is consistent with a study conducted in Ethiopia by Koser and Kuschminder (2015) that revealed, assisted voluntary return flows to Ethiopia are one of the lowest of other countries from industrialized states and comparatively Norway had seven times more assisted voluntary returnees to Ethiopia than any other European country in 2013. Furthermore, the overall results weren't consistent with, amplify, and quantify a single existing theory of migration rather an amalgam of a number of theories of migration as

a whole. In other words, the aforementioned results of the present study do not fully confirm the hypothesis of any single theory on return migration, which indicates that a single factor *per se* is not a key predictor of return migration decision.

10.2.3. Degree of Access to Livelihood Capitals among Returnees

This sub-study has devoted to unearth the degree of access to livelihood capitals among international returnees. We found that amongst five livelihood capitals, social capitals were found to be the first most accessible livelihood capitals; while human capitals were the least accessible livelihood capitals among returnees. A previous study Befikadu, Zerihun and Yonatan (2018) on asset accessibility in Southern Ethiopia, Wolaita Sodo on urban migrants concluded that physical and social capitals are rated as the first and the third most accessible livelihood capitals which are paradoxical to the finding of the current study.

The findings of the study have also confirmed that income at abroad and homeland as two economic characteristics of returnees that indeed had a positive statistically significant effect on access to physical capitals among returnees. The educational attainment and the role of returnees in their respective family had statistically significant effects on access to financial capitals. The result of the study also depicted that significant gender variation wasn't observed between male and female returnees in terms of access to livelihood capitals in the study area; and the opportunity of getting access towards livelihood capitals among the returnees is entangled with individuals having the power to do so through a variety of networks including economic ties in the study area.

Overall, the study revealed that the magnitude of access to livelihood capitals among the returnees is deemed to be very minimal in the study area. Consistently, ILO (2013) expounded that a notable proportion of Afghan returnees are caught up in a debt spiral with multiple loans and entangled with financial mismatch; and UNHCR (2019) clearly pinpointed out that the major gaps of Afghan returnees were poor access to employment; market, health services, and education. By the same token, among

Ghanaian returnees, the major pressing challenges are difficulty of accessing jobs and other services, loss of personal belongings, negative perceptions and poor relationships, and not supported financially and administratively to reintegrate into their home communities (Kodom & Dako-Gyeke, 2017; Setrana & Tonah, 2014). Therefore, concerted efforts are required to enable poor urban returnees' access to an array of livelihood capitals and thereby building sustainable livelihoods.

10.2.4. The Livelihood Strategies of International Returnees

The study is geared to towards exploring the livelihoods and survival strategies chased among the returnees in Addis Ababa. The study has pinpointed out that on average the homeland income on monthly basis of the male and female returnees suggest income differentials and gender pay gap among the two groups; whereby female earnings is above half of male when disaggregating the results by gender. By the same analogy, Schuerkens (2010) states that in most nations' discrimination in employment remained entrenched and women still earn less than men. The finding of the study singled out that majority of the study population was unemployed and deprived of enjoying the potential benefits obtained from the two remunerative livelihood strategies: wage-employment and self-employment which complements the data obtained via qualitative research approach.

The above findings are not congruent with the following result of study: a large number of poor urban households are opportunistic and diversifying their sources of income through a variety of income-generating activities (formal waged employment, self-employment, trading and service activities concurrently (Walker, Ramasut, & Meikle, 2001; DFID, 2001). However, some similar results were found in other studies. For instance, return migration is negatively correlated to probability of surviving in self-employment in Kyrgyzstan (Brück *et al.*, 2017). Likewise, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (2017) found that informal employment represents more than half of the opportunities in developing regions of the world; and in the years between 2010 and 2014, the informal economy constituted 49% of non-agricultural

employment in Northern Africa; 57% in Latin America and the Caribbean; 66% in Southern and South Eastern Asia and up to 74% in Sub-Saharan Africa and informal employment in the informal sector rises approximately equal to 80% in Sub-Saharan Africa.

In addition, the study found that company employment as an occupation was the most suffered occupation and the number of returnees who were working as employee upon return constitute a minimum percentage. Moreover, we found that there are no definite and well-defined major livelihoods and survival strategies for the study population and currently both formal and non-formal jobs as the two major economic activities are non-abundant to absorb the urban return migrants in the study area.

In conclusion, the findings of the study suggested that targeted interventions are required to entitle and warrant the urban poor returnees with ample livelihoods opportunities via economic inclusion and job creation schemes and thereby building sustainable livelihoods. The results of analysis also vividly revealed that the sources of livelihoods deemed to be a major impediment to make a living among the vast majority of the study population due to absence of regular sources of livelihood, which require more immediate concerted actions and an attempt is to be made to apply sound job opportunity schemes in the study area.

10.2.5. The Prevalence of Food Security Status among Returnees

Unveiling the prevalence of food security situations of international returnees in Addis Ababa is at the heart of the present study. Here the following food security dimensions are explored: prevalence access, consumption status, dietary diversity status, and hunger status. The study clearly disclosed that only a small segment of returnee households were found within food secure domain, whereas a substantial portion of the returnee households were within mildly and moderately food insecure categories, which in turn indicates that the study population were catastrophe to inadequate food access in the study area. In other words, only 6.2% of the returnees were categorized as “*food secure*” using the HFIAS indicator. This finding is not in line with the study conducted in

Southern African cities, in which the household food insecurity access prevalence (HFIAP) indicator found that 16% of migrant households were “*food secure*” (SAMP, 2012), which indicates that relatively speaking the number of migrant households that was food secure was higher in the aforesaid cities than the number of sampled returnees in the present study.

The calculated composite score based on food consumption recall prior to the survey period revealed that the study population was in the borderline food consumption status, which implies that the sampled returnees are more likely to be food insecure and have poor frequency of food consumption and dairy products are absent. In the borderline food consumption status, dairy products are entirely absent (WFP, 2012). The study portrayed that cereals, pulses and nuts, and vegetables were reported as the three most consumed food groups as main food stuffs by the study population. We also found that the role of the returnees in their respective family and their educational status as two predictor variables that had a statistically significant negative effect on the food consumption status among returnees. In this respect, our finding is non-supportive of a study conducted in Australia that reported educational background was related with the regularity of food consumption among people (Worsley *et al.*, 2004).

The study depicted that the study population had experienced moderate hunger status in the study area, which indicates that the vast majority of returnees were experiencing food insecurity as the result of poor inadequate household food access. The finding of the study also manifested that the study population consumed only four out of eight food groups, which in turn indicate that majority of them, consumed food having low dietary diversity. Moreover, the study uncovered that the study population were within moderate household hunger category, which portrays that they had experienced inadequate food access. In sum, the findings of the study demonstrated that the study population in the area was hallmarked by poor prevalence of food security, poor level of access to food, poor food consumption patterns, and insufficient level of dietary diversity in their consumption. Generally, the findings of the study have advocated that well-intentioned efforts and an integrated system of interventions are required rather

than a piecemeal approach in a business-as-usual to make the study population achieve sustainable food security.

10.2.6. The Underlying Causes of Food Insecurity and Coping Strategies

Here the intention is geared towards assessing the underlying causes of food insecurity and their coping strategies among international returnees in Addis Ababa. The finding of the study uncovered that economic hurdles were ranked as the most underlying causes of food insecurity, while physical hurdles were rated as the least contributors. We found also that above 90 percent of the study population was experiencing food insecurity. The findings of the study vividly portrayed that dietary change, augmenting short-term household food availability and rationing strategy were employed as the three predominate consumption-based coping strategies.

Our results show some consistency with the findings of previous studies conducted in different countries regardless of the ranking of the strategies used. For instance, eating less preferred foods, and reducing the number of meals were reported by a vast majority of the study population as the two main coping mechanisms in Girar Jarso Woreda, Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia (Meskerem & Degefa, 2015), which exhibited the congruency between the findings of the two studies. Similarly, in urban areas of Ghana, most households tended to skip a whole day without food, borrow money, buy food on credit, consume seed stock, and limit adult intake in favor of children, and consume less preferred food (Chagomoka *et al.*, 2016); and in Southern Ghana, support from relatives and friends outside the regions, sale of household assets, reduction of food intake and consumption of less preferred food are used as strategies (Quaye, 2008). Similarly, in Nigeria, the entire population rely on less preferred food and rely on limiting food portion at meal times with percentages of 95.8 % and 83.5% respectively (Agada & Igbokwe, 2014); and in Mexico, the main coping strategies used by households were found to be rationing and augmenting short-term household food availability (Cordero-Ahiman *et al.*, 2018).

The study also shown that the calculated score of coping strategy index (CSI) was found to be high, implying the extensive use of consumption-based coping strategy and a high level of food insecurity in the study area among the sampled returnees. To put it bluntly, the study population gave top attention and heavily relied on less preferred and less expensive foods by giving due concern to the types of foods consumed rather than the quantities consumed in order to manage the shortfall of food. We found study that substantial variation was observed between male and female international returnees in employing a majority of consumption-based coping strategies and the mean values for male returnees are meaningfully higher than for female returnees, an indication of male returnees are more likely food insecure than female returnees do in the study area. The study underscored that while background characteristics (marital status, age, religion, family size, and educational status); and economic characteristics (income at abroad and income at homeland) and modality of returns (forced and voluntarily returns) had and had no significant effects on consumption-based coping strategies employed among returnee households respectively in the study area.

Above all, the study concluded that economic hurdles (debt burden, poor access to wage employment, unaffordable nutritious food) as a categorized barrier were found to be the most underlying causes of food insecurity while physical hurdles were reported as the least contributors in causing food insecurity in the study area, which in turn will exacerbate poverty. The study concluded that the resultant effects of economic barriers and ultimately food insecurity remain a challenge to the returnee households in the study area. There may be an urgent need for the development of a more comprehensive food security strategy focusing on poor urban returnees to build their resilience to food insecurity.

10.3. Contributions of the Study

The study examines the determinants of irregular cross-border migration and return migration decision as well as the livelihoods and food security situations of international returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The overall contributions of the study are

categorized into academic and practical contributions. A brief synopsis of each is offered below.

10.3.1. Academic Contributions

Despite, an enormous and wide ranging literatures globally and nationally, scientific studies that link return migration with the livelihoods and food security situations of emigration returnees were not well documented in academic literatures, marginally touched, and only little is known in Ethiopian context in general and in Addis Ababa in particular. This study will be a contribution towards filling that gap. In other words, the study makes a significant original contribution to the academic literature as well as providing a source of detailed material of considerable practical use to those individuals and organizations that choose to avail themselves of it.

In a nutshell, theoretically, the study is believed to have the following major contributions. Firstly, it is believed to bridge the research gap and contribute to the academic debate and unpretentious discussions in the area of the livelihoods and food security situations of the international returnees in the context of a developing world in general and in Ethiopia in particular. Secondly, study adds theoretical knowledge to the existing literatures. Thirdly, the findings of the study offer researchers the opportunity to keep in touch with trends in linking migration in general and return migration in particular with livelihoods and food security situations in Ethiopian context as well as around the world. Finally, the study may also serve as a stepping-stone for further research in the area.

10.3.2. Practical Contributions

Overall, the present study has the following major practical contributions. First, it may offer pertinent and timely information on the existing practices of irregular cross-border migration and return migration decisions as well as the livelihoods and food security situations of the returnees to policy-makers and other core actors working on the area to foresee future scenarios to allow planning policies both at national and sub-national levels. Second, it may help to advance the understandings and awareness of core actors

on the risks of a severe backlash associated with irregular cross-border migration and forced return migration. Third, the study provides new perspectives, policy directions and thinking about national and international migration in Ethiopia with the aim of assisting policy-makers who seek to address such complex agenda. Fourth, the study will provide an overview of the socio-economic activities of the returnees that will inform and guide the design of pragmatic and effective interventions to enhance the livelihood of the target population. Fifth, the study constitutes an initial baseline to understand the economic life and status of integration into local labour market of returnees in the study area and can be seen as a contribution to the growing body of practical knowledge on the issue among indigenous communities.

In conclusion, the present study is relevant to both academia and policy. It can make a contribution to the academic literature on the issue, being an input for policy formulation in providing information and a more systematic understanding of the mechanics of irregular migratory flows and its socio-economic effects to policy makers involved in the planning, management and improvement of the migration systems and policies in Ethiopia.

In a nutshell, conditions in the destination areas by far had more sound impact on making migration and return decision than any factors; and upon return the food security situations of the study population were deemed to be remained endangered and in jeopardy in the study area.

10.4. Limitations and Future Research Directions

10.4.1. Limitations of the Study

The present study is relevant to both academia and policy and has contributed to the debate on the economic life of the international returnees as a whole. Notwithstanding, it is crucial to consider a number of downsides that may impinge upon its findings. The following are the major drawbacks of the study. First, the sample size (both study areas and the returnees to be studied) is small and may limit the representativeness of the findings, making it difficult to extrapolate them to another larger population and

settings in Ethiopian context. In addition, the study addresses the livelihoods and food security situation of international returnees in a large urban area while the situation in the small towns and of rural areas could be entirely different. Second, some pertinent data were collected by relying on the opinions and perceptions of the returnees in which the methods employed may limit the robustness of the results of the study.

Third, data for the study were gathered at snapshot and do not consider the dynamic nature of the livelihood and food security situations of the returnees through time that can be addressed better via longitudinal studies. Fourth, the study employed proxy indicators of food security such as HFIAS, FCS, HDDS, HHS, and CSI to examine the food security status of returnees in Addis Ababa only instead of applying gold standard measures of micronutrient adequacy via measuring and estimating actual diet qualities and quantities of food eaten, which obviously may have an impact on the study. Hence, the findings limit our understanding to micro level about the food security status of the international returnees in the Ethiopian context.

10.4.2. Future Research Directions

In this section some major avenues and suggestions for future research directions which could build on the study are demonstrated, which are briefly presented as follows.

1. Future research concerning the dynamic nature of the livelihood and food security situations of the returnees should be under taken through time that can be addressed better via longitudinal studies instead of relying on the data that were collected at a snapshot.
2. It would be interesting to conduct an in-depth investigation to examine the food security status and major challenges of food security among international returnees at national level based on gold standard measures of micronutrient adequacy via measuring and estimating actual diet qualities and quantities of food eaten.
3. Further studies are suggested to quantify food consumption or assess diet quality using indicators such as a quantitative 24-hour dietary recall to calculate the Mean Adequacy Ratio (MAR) or a diet diversity index (DDI) to determine the Minimum

Dietary Diversity Score for Women returnees (MDD-W) to gain a picture of the "adequacy" aspect of diet quality at national level among international returnees.

4. The study can be conducted on a larger number of Ethiopian households via anthropometric measurement particularly on utilization of food to disclose the national nutritional status among the international returnee households.
5. We recommend future studies to look at different regions of Ethiopia using the urban–rural approach and summarize the underlying causes of food insecurity and coping strategies employed by the returnee households across the country as a whole.

10.5. Overall Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, general conclusions are drawn. Moreover, the following viable recommendations that all are born out of the major findings and central conclusions are forwarded. The details are hereinafter.

1) Our study demonstrated that nonetheless, the decision to migrate was impacted both by situations in the destination and origin areas, the decision to migrate is robustly more predicted by conditions in the former areas. Moreover, the study has illustrated that above all the prevailing economic conditions in the destination areas are the most predominant pull factors amongst others. Overall, the findings of the study have suggested the government of Ethiopia, Ministry of Women and Social Affairs, Ministry of Labour and Skills should establish Independent Migration Management Organ (IMMO) that is committed to cure multiple catastrophic consequences associated with migration and foster links and collaboration at national and global levels to ease migration pressures.

2) The study heightened that the conditions in the destination areas by far had more sound impact on making decision to return than factors in the origin country as well as personal attributes. The findings of the study also confirmed that Ethiopian emigrants were subjected to coercion in the destination areas to evacuate instead of making free choice to return, which inexorably could lead the returnees to unsustainable livelihoods.

Therefore, to build sustainable livelihoods of the returnees and to put them at competitive edge, both Ethiopian national government, Addis Ababa City Administration, Addis Ababa Women, Children and Social Affairs Bureau, IOM and ILO should undoubtedly develop short-term, middle-term and long-term plans that can strengthen and map Public-Private-Partnerships (PPPs) to capitalize private sector role for joint solutions so as to curb down the resultant challenges of migration as a whole.

3) Overall, we found that currently both formal and non-formal jobs are non-abundant to absorb the urban return migrants and there are no definite and well-defined major livelihoods and survival strategies in the study area, an indication of absence of regular sources of livelihoods deemed to be a major impediments to make a living among the vast majority of the study population. Thus, national government of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa City Administration, Addis Ababa Job Creation and Enterprise Development Bureau, and Addis Ababa Urban Agriculture Commission should invest much being arm in arm with other development organs to entitle and warrant the poor urban returnees with ample livelihoods opportunities via economic inclusion and job creation schemes.

4) The study denoted that consumption-based coping strategies are dominantly materialized; and the study populations are still trapped with high level of food insecurity in the study area. Moreover, the study concluded that primarily the following economic hurdles: debt burden, poor access to wage employment, and unaffordable nutritious food were found to be the most underlying causes of food insecurity while physical hurdles were reported as the least contributors in causing food insecurity in the study area, which in turn will exacerbate poverty. Therefore, it is self-evident that Ethiopian national government, Addis Ababa City Administration, Addis Ababa Urban Agriculture Commission, and other development core actors should work conjointly to create enabling environment, to develop a more comprehensive food security strategy and policy instruments focusing on poor urban returnees to build their resilience to food insecurity.

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Appendices

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
CENTER FOR FOOD SECURITY STUDIES

Appendix-1: Field observation checklists

The main purpose of this field observation is to get the first hand information about the living conditions of the target population for the study entitled **“Determinants of irregular cross-border migration, return migration decisions, and the livelihoods and food security situations of emigration returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.”** The study intends to investigate the determinants of irregular cross-border migration and return migration decision as well as the livelihoods and food security situations of the international returnees so as to develop strategies for future intervention efforts to create and develop sustainable livelihoods options for returnees. Thus, this observation is only intended to obtain information on how to: access the study population, formulate objectives of the study, determine the most appropriate sources of data, to shape some of the questions that will be asked, and to decide data collection methods.

Sub-city: _____ Woreda: _____ Date: _____

Time: _____ Observer/Interviewer: _____

No	Some major items		Responses			Remark
			Yes	partially	No	
1	Where can we find current sound data on officially registered international returnees in Addis Ababa?	City level				
		Sub-city level				
		Woreda level				
2	How international returnees in Addis Ababa can be best accessed for the intended study?	City level				
		Sub-city level				
		Woreda level				
3	Can we find officially registered international returnees in Addis Ababa through 2016 G.C to 2019 G.C?					
4	The educational status of majority of the returnees	Illiterate				
		Primary education				
		Secondary education				
		First Degree and above				

**COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES****CENTER FOR FOOD SECURITY STUDIES****Appendix-2: Semi-Structured Interview guide questions****Interview-guide questions for (Key officials, returnees, experts, and core actors)**

1. In your opinion, what are the major determinant factors of irregular cross-border migration and return migration decision in Addis Ababa? Describe the causes in terms of pull-push factors and determinants of return migration decision separately.
2. In your opinion, how do returnees pursue their livelihoods in the study area? What major factors do have detrimental impacts on the returnees to make a living?
1. To what extent irregular cross-border migration returnees do have access to a range of livelihood resources to achieve sustainable livelihoods? And what major factors affecting the scope of livelihood opportunities of the returnees?
2. In your opinion, how do you evaluate the food insecurity access prevalence and food consumption status of the returnees?
3. What are the underlying causes of food insecurity and threats to livelihoods?
4. How do you evaluate, the major coping strategies employed by irregular Ethiopian migrants upon return in the study area? And mention them briefly.
5. How do you evaluate, the major adaptive strategies employed by irregular Ethiopian migrants upon return in the study area? Mention them briefly.
8. How do you evaluate, the livelihood interventions and responses that are currently in place by core actors so far to have an identifiable impact on the lives of the returnees, and how successful they are? What major assistances received by the returnees and how successful they are?
9. Generally, what should be done to curb down the problems associated with irregular cross-border migration from the out-set in general and return migration in particular in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia as a whole?

**COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES****CENTER FOR FOOD SECURITY STUDIES****Appendix-3: Focus Group Discussions and Key Informant Interviews leading questions**
Leading questions for (key officials, returnees, and other core actors)

1. In your opinion, what are the major determinant factors of irregular cross-border migration and return migration decision in Addis Ababa? Describe the causes in terms of pull-push factors and determinants of return decision separately.
2. In your opinion, how do returnees pursue their livelihoods in the study area? What major factors do have detrimental impacts on the returnees to make a living?
3. To what extent irregular cross-border migration returnees do have access to a range of livelihood resources to achieve sustainable livelihoods? And what major factors affecting the scope of livelihood opportunities of the returnees?
4. In your opinion, how do you evaluate the food insecurity access prevalence and food consumption status of the returnees?
5. What are the underlying causes of food insecurity and threats to livelihoods?
6. How do you evaluate, the major coping strategies employed by irregular Ethiopian migrants upon return in the study area? And mention them briefly.
7. How do you evaluate, the major adaptive strategies employed by irregular Ethiopian migrants upon return in the study area? And mention them briefly.
8. How do evaluate, the livelihood interventions and responses that are currently in place by core actors so far to have an identifiable impact on the lives of the returnees, and how successful they are? What major assistances received by the returnees and how successful they are?
9. Generally, what should be done to curb down the problems associated with irregular cross-border migration from the out-set in general and return migration in particular in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia as a whole?



**COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
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A SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RETURNEES**

Appendix-4: Survey Questionnaires

Dear respondent!

The ultimate purpose of this survey questionnaire is to gather data for the study entitled **“Determinants of irregular cross-border migration, return migration decisions, and the livelihoods and food security situations of emigration returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.”** The study intends to investigate the livelihoods and food security situations of the returnees so as to develop strategies for future intervention efforts to create and develop sustainable livelihoods options for returnees. Your responses to the questions will be kept secret and reported in aggregate and would only be used for academic purpose. Therefore, feel free while filling in the survey questionnaire. You can be sure that your candid and genuine responses will have paramount importance to meet the ultimate objective of the study.

Thank you in advance for being cooperative!!!

Part-I: Personal information

Returnee's Identification Number: _____	
1	Name of sub-city: A. Addis Ketema B. Kirkos C. Kolfie Keraniyo D. Akaki Kality
2	Sex A. Male B. Female
3	Marital status A. Married B. Unmarried C. Divorced D. Widow
4	Age in years _____
5	Religion A. Orthodox Christian B. Muslim C. Protestant D. Catholic E. other
6	Household size _____
7	Your role in the household A. Head of the household B. Member of the household
8	Educational status A. Master's Degree B. First Degree C. Diploma D. Certificate E. High School Complete F. Others
9	Length of stay at abroad in years _____
10	Name of host country: _____
11	En-route/Transit: _____
12	Year of return to Ethiopia in Ethiopian calendar: A. Before 2008 B. 2008 C. 2009 D. 2010 E. 2011 F. 2012
13	Type of occupation I. In the host country immediately before return: _____ II. Currently in Ethiopia: _____
14	Monthly income in Birr: I. In the host country immediately before return: _____ II. Currently in Ethiopia: _____

Part-II: Major causes of irregular cross-border migration

A. Pull Factors

The following factors have been identified as potential causes of irregular cross-border migration in Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. It is possible that some of these factors cause more pressure than others. Indicate that to what extent each was **accounted for and attracted you** to migrate irregularly abroad by putting a tick mark (**v**) against the scales of measurement:

5 = Strongly Agree

3 = Undecided

1 = Strongly Disagree

4 = Agree

2 = Disagree

No	Pull Factors	Level of agreements				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Family reunification at abroad					
2	Independence and freedom available at abroad					
3	Strong social cohesion found at abroad					
4	Presence of sustainable food security at abroad					
5	Presence of better job opportunity in more affluent countries					
6	Better income and prospects for wealth creation					
7	Presence of sustainable livelihoods at abroad					
8	Pursuit of better and specialized education					
9	Access to urban services (including healthcare, transport, etc.)					
10	Pressures of individuals who returned back from migration					
11	Lure words and pressures of brokers					

12. Please, specify any other pull factors that attracted you to move away irregularly, other than mentioned above.

A). _____

B). _____

C). _____

B. Push Factors

The following factors have been identified as potential pushing factors in the origin country to move away to abroad. Read the items carefully and indicate to what extent each had compelled you most to move abroad irregularly by putting a tick mark (✓) against the scales of measurement:

5 = Strongly Agree

3 = Undecided

1 = Strongly Disagree

4 = Agree

2 = Disagree

No	Push Factors	Level of agreements				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Intense political instability and conflict					
2	Presence of unsustainable livelihoods					
3	Lack of employment opportunities					
4	Low wages and other associated payments					
5	The growing of urban poverty					
6	The prevalence of food insecurity					
7	Inadequate urban services and infrastructures.					
8	Peer pressures					
9	A restriction in human freedom and a violation of human rights					
10	Family dysfunction and breakage					

11. Please, specify any other push factors that influence you to move away irregularly, but not mentioned above.

A). _____

B). _____

C). _____

12. Generally, among the following factors which one is the most underlying cause of irregular cross-border migration in Ethiopia, Addis Ababa?

A. economic factors B. social factors C. political factors D. ecological factors

Part-III: Determinants of return migration decision

The following factors have been identified as potential determinants that affect your decision to return to Ethiopia, Addis Ababa. So, indicate that to what extent each of them was **accounted for and affected** your return migration decision to come back to your home-land by placing (Yes = 1) next to the factor that was accounted for return decision and (No = 2) for the factors that wasn't accounted for return decision.

No	Determinant factors	Alternative	
		Yes	No
1	Determinants related to origin country		
1.1	A higher rate of return on entrepreneurial activities in the home country		
1.2	Political stability in the origin country		
1.3	Availability of access to credit services		
1.4	The growing of participation in social networks in the origin country		
1.5	The growing of more job opportunities in the home land		
1.6	The emergence of better wages in the home land		
2	Determinants related to host country		
2.1	Absence of proper documents upon entry		
2.2	Unable to enter the labour market without permission in the host country		
2.3	Poor social interaction in the host community		
2.4	Rejection of asylum application by host country		
2.5	The growing of restrictive immigration policies in the host country		
2.6	Lack of success in the host community		
2.7	The prevalence of unemployment of migrants in the host country		
2.8	The rise of irregular migrants deprived of basic human rights		
2.9	The problem of homelessness in the host country		
2.10	The growing of modern slavery and labor exploitation in the host country		
2.11	The growing of sexual harassment in the host country		
2.12	Political instability in the host country		
3	Personal Factors		
3.1	Homesickness		
3.2	Family reunification in the home country		
3.3	Ill-health or due to health problem		
3.4	Need to support family back home		

4. Please, specify any other determinant factors that influenced you to return back to your origin country, other than mentioned above.

4.1. Determinants in the origin country:

- A). _____
- B). _____
- C). _____

4.2. Determinants in the host community:

- A). _____
- B). _____
- C). _____

4.3. Personal factors:

- A). _____
- B). _____
- C). _____

5. Overall, who decided your return migration to your origin country?

A. Your-self B. Your family members C. your relatives D. Peer pressure

6. How do you express your modality of return?

A. Forced returns B. Voluntary returns

Part-IV: Access of the returnees to livelihood capitals

Following attempts were made to trace out some major livelihood capitals. Indicate in which of the following livelihoods you do have access upon your return from abroad. Please mark one of the responses that best fit your opinion by putting “v” against the scales of measurement (3= High, 2 = Moderate, and 1 = Low).

No	Livelihood capitals	Description of each livelihood capitals	Level of agreements		
			3	2	1
1	Human capitals	Access to education opportunity			
		Access to employable skill opportunity			
		Access to local employment opportunities			
2	Natural capitals	Access to urban land			
		Access to common urban assets (e.g., place of worships, water reservoirs)			
		Access to urban agriculture participation			
3	Financial capitals	Access to wage and salary			
		Access to credit services			
		Access to individual or communal savings			
4	Physical capitals	Access to water supply			
		Access to communications			
		Access to markets			
		Access to urban house			
5	Social capitals	Access to local social organizations (Dabo, Equb, Idir, Mahiber, etc.)			
		Access to fair treatment of the returnee			
		Access and link with family members			
		Access to social prestige			

6. Please, list down any other livelihood capitals, in which you do have access upon your return from abroad, but not indicated above.

- A). _____
- B). _____
- C). _____

Part-V: Livelihoods and survival strategies of the returnees

The following items have been identified as the potential livelihood strategies and sources that need to be employed by the returnees in the origin country. So, please read all possible livelihood strategies carefully and indicate in which of the following livelihoods you have been engaged upon your return from abroad by putting “v” against the scales of measurement (3 = Engaged, 2 = Rarely engaged, and 1 = Never engaged).

No	Strategies	Alternatives		
		3	2	1
1	Petty poultry activities			
2	Vendor and associated petty trading			
3	Wholesale			
4	Electrical installation			
5	Electronics maintenance			
6	Metal works			
7	Carpentry and wood works			
8	Sanitation works			
9	Daily labor			
10	Government employee			
11	Non-governmental organization employee			
12	No job			

13. Please, specify other livelihood activities that are engaged in, but not mentioned above.

A). _____

B). _____

C). _____

Part VI: Food security situations of the returnees

A. Items related to Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS)

The following generic questions are presented based on the HFIAS- a standardized tool that is based on universal behavior in access to food. Each of the questions in the following table is asked with a recall period of 30 days. Indicate whether or not the condition in the question happened at all in the past four weeks by putting (“✓”) against the scales of measurement (Yes/No). If your response is “yes” to an occurrence question, a frequency-of-occurrence question is asked to determine whether the condition happened:

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)

S.N o	Occurrence Questions	Occurrence		Frequency		
		Yes	No	Rarely (1)	Sometimes (2)	Often (3)
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 to eat of any kind in your household because of lack of resources to get food?					
8	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?					
9	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?					

10. Generally, in your opinion, how do you rate the food security status in your family?

A. Food secured B. Food in-secured

B. Items related to Hunger Status of the returnees

Each of the questions in the following table is asked with a recall period of 30 days. Indicate whether or not the condition in the question happened at all in the past four weeks by putting (“√”) against the scales of measurement (Yes/No). If your response is “yes” to an occurrence question, a frequency-of-occurrence question is asked to determine whether the condition happened:

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)

5. Overall, how do you rate your status of hunger in your family currently?

A. No hunger at all B. moderate hunger C. Severe hunger

S.No	Occurrence Questions	Occurrence		Frequency		
		Yes	No	Rarely (1)	Sometimes (2)	Often (3)
Q ₁	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?					
Q ₂	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?					
Q ₃	In the past four weeks, did you or any household member go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?					

C. Items related to dimensions of food security

The following items have been identified as the four major pillars of food security. Indicate to what extent each of them is exercised and implemented in your household to achieve objectives of food security efficiently and effectively. Please mark one of the responses that best fit your opinion by putting “√” against the scales of measurement: 5 = Very high; 4 = High; 3 = Moderate; 2 = Low; and 1 = Very low.

Name of the Dimension	Description of each dimension	Level of agreement				
		5	4	3	2	1
	The degree of engagement in domestic food production					
	The degree of your capacity to import food items					

Name of the Dimension	Description of each dimension	Level of agreement				
		5	4	3	2	1
Food availability	The extent of your food stocks in your home					
	The presence of effective food cooling systems in your home					
	The presence of effective food storage systems in your home					
	The availability of local food assistance for the returnees					
Access to food	Your capacity to purchase food items					
	The degree of enabling local infrastructure (roads, IT, communications) to food sources					
	The degree of access to market to purchase food items					
	Your access to wage employment to purchase food					
Utilization of food	Your food safety status					
	Your hygiene and food preparation practice status					
	Your diet quality status					
	Your diet diversity status					
Stability of food	The degree of economic factors in negatively affecting in securing your food					
	The degree of price fluctuations in negatively affecting your food security					
	The degree of political factors in negatively affecting your food security					

5. Please, specify any other issues pertinent the four dimensions of food security, but not mentioned above.

A). _____

B). _____

C). _____

D. Items related to food consumption status of the returnees

Below some major food stuffs that are consumed at Ethiopian home are presented. Please, rank each food stuff to indicate to what extent it was consumed and how many times is consumed at your home during the last seven days.

No	Food Group	Food stuff	Rank
1	Cereals and tubers	Maize, rice, sorghum, wheat, teff, pasta, bread and other cereals)	
		Cassava, potatoes and sweet potatoes, other tubers	
2	Pulses and nuts	Pulses (beans, peas, groundnuts)	
3	Vegetables	Vegetables, leaves	
4	Fruit	Fruit	
5	Meat and fish	Beef, goat, poultry, pork, eggs, and fish	
6	Oil	Butter, fats, oils	
7	Sugar and honey	Sugar and sugar products, honey	
8	Dairy products	Milk, yogurt, and other dairy	
9	Condiments	Tea, coffee, spices, salt, fish power, small amounts of milk for tea	

E. Items related to household dietary diversity status of the returnees

Below some major food stuffs that are consumed at Ethiopian home are presented. Please, rank each food groups to indicate to what extent it was consumed and how many times is consumed at your home during the last seven days.

No	Food Group	Food stuff	Rank
1	Cereals and tubers	Maize, rice, sorghum, wheat, teff, pasta, bread and other cereals)	
		Cassava, potatoes and sweet potatoes, other tubers	
2	Pulses and nuts	Pulses (beans, peas, groundnuts)	
3	Vegetables	Vegetables, leaves	
4	Fruit	Fruit	
5	Meat and fish	Beef, goat, poultry, pork, eggs, and fish	
6	Oil	Butter, fats, oils	
7	Sugar and honey	Sugar and sugar products, honey	
8	Dairy products	Milk, yogurt, and other dairy	
9	Condiments	Tea, coffee, spices, salt, fish power, small amounts of milk for tea	

Part-VII: Major causes of food insecurity and coping strategies among the returnees

A. Major causes of food insecurity of the returnees

The following variables are deemed to be significant contributors to food insecurity in your household. So, please read all possible variables carefully and mark one of the responses that best fit your opinion by putting “v” against the scales of measurement (3= serious; 2 = Mildly serious; 1 = Less serious).

No	Causes and their descriptions	Responses		
		3	2	1
1	Physical barriers			
1.1	Poor access to roads to purchase food items			
1.2	Poor access to market			
2	Social barriers			
2.1	cultural practices that require women and children to eat after adult males			
2.2	Poor access to information about food prices			
2.3	Absence of effective information networks about food			
3	Economic barriers			
3.1	sufficient safe and nutritious food is unaffordable			
3.2	Poor access to wage employment			
3.3	Inadequate secure labour			
3.4	Poor financial services			
3.5	Non-efficient and transparent market system			
3.6	Debt Burden			

4. Generally, in your opinion, which one of the following is **the most major cause** of food insecurity?

- A. The physical unavailability of food
- B. Lack of social access to adequate food
- C. Lack of economic access to adequate food

B. Coping mechanism of the returnees

The following are some of the possible coping strategies. How did you cope with food shortage in terms of reducing food security problem in your household? Please, read each statement carefully and indicate your level of agreement as per the context of your household by putting a tick mark (v) at the appropriate place of your choice using the following degree of comparisons:

- 5 = Strongly agree 3 = Undecided 1 = Strongly disagree
- 4 = Agree 2 = Disagree

S.No	Coping mechanisms and their descriptions	Level of agreements				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	<i>Dietary Change</i>					
1.1	Rely on less preferred food					
1.2	Reduce quality of food					
1.3	Limit amount of size at meal times					
2	<i>Increase short-term household food availability</i>					
2.1	Borrow food from a friend or relative					
2.2	Purchase food on credit					
2.3	Get government food aid					
2.4	Consume seed stock held for next season					
2.5	Support from charity organizations					
2.6	Selling productive assets in exchange for food					
3	<i>Decrease number of family members</i>					
3.1	Send children to eat with neighbors					
3.2	Send household members to beg					
4	<i>Rationing Strategies</i>					
4.1	Restrict consumption order for small children to eat					
4.2	Skipping entire days without eating					
4.3	Reduce number of meals eaten in a day					
4.4	Reducing expenditure on health care					
4.5	Ration the money you have and buy prepared food					

5. Please, write other coping strategies that are employed in your household during shortage of food, but not mentioned above.

A). _____

B). _____

C). _____

6. Among the coping mechanisms which one is mostly employed in your household used to cope with the difficult economic situation?

A. Dietary change B. Increase short-term household food availability C. Decrease numbers of people D. Rationing strategies

C. Items related to coping strategy index (CSI)

The following coping strategy tools are developed based on WFP (2015). In the past 7 days, when you did not have enough food or money to buy food, how often has your household had exercised the following as coping strategies. So, please indicate them according to their importance in your household.

No	In the past 7 days, how often has your household had to:	Relative frequency				
		All the time Every day	Pretty often 3-6 per week	Once in a while 1-2 per week	Hardly at all Less than 1 per week	Never per week
1	Rely on less preferred food					
2	Borrow food from a friend or relative					
3	Purchase food on credit					
4	Get government food aid					
5	Limit amount of size at meal times					
6	Restrict consumption order for small children to eat					
7	Skipping entire days without eating					
8	Selling productive assets in exchange for food					
9	Buy affordable foods					
10	Reduce number of meals eaten in a day					
11	Reducing expenditure on health care					

Appendix-5: Lists of Table

Table 6-3: Rotated Component matrix on access to livelihood capitals

Access factors	Components					Communalities
	Human capitals	Physical capitals	Social capitals	Financial capitals	Natural capitals	
Access to education opportunities	.978	-	-	-	-	.960
Access to employable skill opportunities	.981	-	-	-	-	.964
Access to local employment opportunities	.982	-	-	-	-	.967
Access to water supply	-	.884	-	-	-	.805
Access to communication	-	.808	-	-	-	.737
Access to markets	-	.811	-	-	-	.740
Access to urban house	-	.886	-	-	-	.807
Access to fair treatment of returnees	-	-	.542	-	-	.485
Access and link with family members	-	-	.850	-	-	.750
Access and link with relatives	-	-	.956	-	-	.927
Access to social prestige	-	-	.955	-	-	.923
Access to wage & salary	-	-	-	.814	-	.724
Access to credit Services	-	-	-	.909	-	.872
Access to saving services	-	-	-	.859	-	.792
Access to urban land	-	-	-	-	.947	.967
Access to common urban assets(e.g., place of worships, water reservoirs, etc.,)	-	-	-	-	.639	.928
Access to urban agriculture participation	-	-	-	-	.953	.562
Eigenvalues	4.551	3.260	2.671	2.109	1.593	NA
Explained Variance (%)	32.1	23	18.8	14.9	11.2	NA

Factor loadings less than 0.50 are suppressed; NA = not applicable; Bartlett's test of sphericity (Chi-square = 12302.875, df = 153, and P-value = 0.000); sample adequacy (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value = 0.664).

Table 9-7: Results of Ordinary Logistic Regression on latent variables

Categorized variable	Variables in the equation	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Physical barriers	Poor access to roads	.181	.343	.278	.598	1.199
	Poor access to market	-.136	.334	.167	.683	.873
Social barriers	Cultural practices that require women and children to eat after adult males	.868	.406	4.569	.033*	2.383
	Poor access to information about food prices	-.950	.394	5.803	.016*	.387
	Absence of effective information networks about food	-.714	.392	3.315	.069	.490
Economic Barriers	Sufficient safe and nutritious food is unaffordable	-1.024	.285	12.896	.000**	.359
	Poor access to wage employment	1.143	.648	3.113	.078	3.138
	Inadequate secure labour	-.765	.674	1.288	.256	.465
	Poor financial services	.808	.413	3.830	.050*	2.244
	Non-efficient and transparent market system	-.993	.363	7.489	.006*	.370
	Debt Burden	1.171	.306	14.617	.000*	3.226
Model Summary: -2Loglikelihood = 408.908 ^a ; Cox & Snell R Square = .190; Nagelkerke R Square = .268.						

* $P < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.001$.