Exploring Access to Livelihood Capitals among International Returnees in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Abinet Fulasa*, *Teferee Makonnen**, *and Temesgen Tilahun*

Abstract

Lack of access to capital has been recognized as one of the major barriers keeping international returnees from achieving sustainable livelihoods in Ethiopia. This study explored the degree of access to livelihood capitals among returnees in Addis Ababa to provide information for future interventions. A cross-sectional data was generated from 402 returnees, randomly selected from Addis Ababa. The supplementary data were collected from purposely drawn focus group discussion and semi-structured interview participants. Descriptive statistics and Ordinal Logistic Regression Model (OLRM) were employed to analyze the data. Social capitals were ranked above the scale mean as the most accessible 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 capitals among returnees. Results of OLRM analysis confirmed that educational attainment and the role of returnees in their respective family had significant effects on access to financial capitals with values of (β = -.328, Exp (β) = 0.682, $p \leq 0.00$; β = -.917, Exp (β) = 0.400, $p < 0.001$) respectively. The study elucidated that the magnitude of access to livelihood capitals among the returnees is deemed to be very minimal 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 and other development actors.

Keywords: Addis Ababa, access, Ethiopia, livelihood capitals, international returnees

* PhD candidate, Center for Food Security Studies, College of Development Studies, Addis Ababa University. E-mail: abserku@yahoo.com, https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5502-3697, Tel +251 911 86 33 70

** Associate Professor, Department of Geography and Environmental Studies, College of Social Sciences, Addis Ababa University. E-mail: teferi.makonnen@aau.edu.et

*** Assistant Professor, Center for Food Security Studies, College of Development Studies, Addis Ababa University.E-mail: temesgen.bdu@gmail.com

1. Introduction

Access to livelihood capitals among return migrants has been the top agenda in our globe in recent years. 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. Coming to a homeland as a 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 2015; Kodom & Dako-Gyeke 2017; IOM 2019). 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 evidence acknowledges that return migration is directly or indirectly challenged with access to livelihood capitals. Asian Development Bank (2020) has stated 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 survival through 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 and pressing challenges are difficulty of accessing jobs and other services, loss of personal belongings, negative perceptions and poor relationships, and not having financial and administrative support to reintegrate into their home communities (Setrana & Tonah 2014; Kodom & Dako-Gyeke 2017).

As stated earlier, access to livelihood capitals among international returnees have been identified as one of the major factors inhibiting the returnees to ensure sustainable livelihoods upon return. On the contrary, existing literature 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 the poor (Su et al. 2009; Lawal

et al. 2011; Rubavel 2019; Geiser et al. 2011). Therefore, concerted efforts are required to enable poor urban returnees' access to an array of livelihood capitals and thereby building sustainable livelihoods.

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 suggests 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 (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs 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 local levels. As a result, concrete evidence is lacking for decision makers and development actors to curtail the challenges of return migration in the study area. In this regard, empirical evidence from Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia is of uttermost importance to develop pragmatic strategies for future interventions to ensure sustainable livelihoods of the poor urban returnees.

Moreover, laying the groundwork for future analysis on the issue is also one of the most important contributions of the study. The study thus, was aimed at examining 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 in the study area?

2. Conceptual Framework: The Sustainable Livelihood Approach

Livelihood capitals are the resources on which people draw to undertake their livelihood strategies (Walker et al. 2001; Farrington et al. 2002). They are resources that are critical to the survival of people in response to stresses and shocks (Scoones 1998; Ellis 2000; Thomson 2000; Ansoms & McKay 2010; Mutenje et al. 2010). Livelihood capitals are the basic material and social, tangible, and intangible assets that people use for constructing their livelihoods (Scoones 1998); they are 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 (Peri Peri & 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 (DFID 1999; Serrat 2008; Ellis 2000; Scoones 2009; Mutenje et al. 2010).

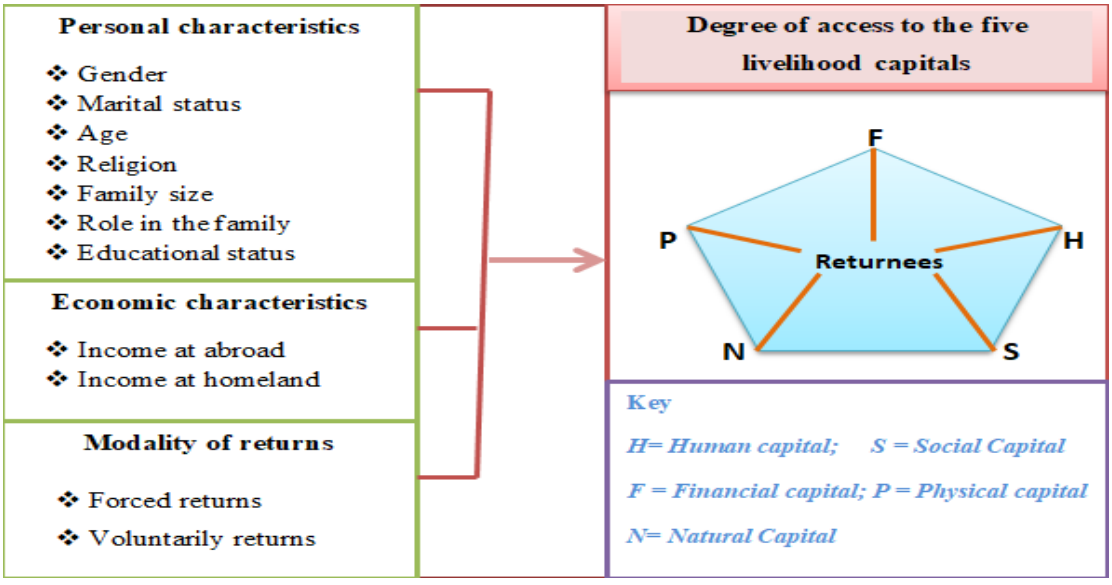
Several approaches are followed by livelihood researchers and practitioners to study different aspects of livelihoods including access to livelihood capitals among a household or a group of individuals. These days, however, the sustainable livelihood approach is amongst the well-known and widely used approaches. The approach is the most frequently adapted to succinctly assess a household's methods of survival (Solesbury 2003; Cordero 2016). 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(Solesbury 2003; ACF-IN 2008); 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 the livelihood of persons and households 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 the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) that was developed in line with its general features and the definitions of the five livelihood capitals aforementioned.

This is because 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 1 below).

Fig.1. Conceptual framework of the study



Source: Adapted from (DFID, 1999 and CARE, 1999)

3. Material and Methods

3.1. Study area

The study was conducted in four sub-cities (two inner-urban and two peri-urban areas) of Addis Ababa (see Fig.2 Annex 1). Addis Ketema and Kirkos; and Akaki Kality and Kolfe Keraniyo were selected from the former and the latter areas respectively. There is no fast and hard rule of characterization of the study area. However, most geographers and other scholars in the scientific community widely employed physical and human characteristics to describe

a study area. Correspondingly, the main features of the study area were discussed in detail hereunder.

Addis Ababa is found on a well-watered plateau surrounded by hills and mountains, in the geographic center of Ethiopia and located at geographical coordinates: between 8055' and 9005' North Latitude and between 38040' and 38050' East Longitude (Addis Ababa City Administration/AACA 2015; Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission/AAPDC 2020). The average elevation of Addis Ababa is 2,500 meters above sea level, and hence has a fairly favorable climate and moderate weather conditions (UN-HABITAT 2008; AADPC 2020). The total land area of Addis Ababa is about 527 km² or 54, 000 hectares (AADPC 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). Administratively, Addis Ababa is a chartered city having three layers of government: City government at the top, 10 sub-city administrations in the middle (Lemi Kura, the 11th sub-city isn't considered in the study as it is the newly emerging sub-city that is not well established), and 121 woreda administrations at the bottom (AAPDC 2020). Amongst African cities, Addis Ababa is one of the fastest growing cities, and it is home to 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 (AACA 2015; World Bank 2015; UN-HABITAT 2008; AADPC 2020); and it is often referred to as "the political capital of Africa" for its historical, diplomatic and political significance to the continent (UN-HABITAT 2008). It is the growth engine for Ethiopia and the city alone currently contributes approximately 50% towards the national GDP (World Bank Group 2015).

3.2. Research design and approach

A cross sectional study was employed as the 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. 2007:2013). Mixed methods research approach was used to collect and analyze both quantitative and qualitative data within the study. Among the major types of mixed methods research approaches, "Concurrent Embedded Design Approach" was used as the primary approach of the study. Concurrent embedded design is well-known for its use in a single data collection phase and the primary method-guides the research project and the secondary method offers a supporting role in the procedures (Bryman 2006; Creswell 2009; Creswell & Clark 2010).

The mixed methods research approach is chosen for this study based on two underlying assumptions. First, studying access to livelihoods among the urban people as a whole and returnees in particular is a complex and multifaceted process that involves the perspectives of different actors, and the collection and analysis of data from a variety of sources. Second, employing a single approach to study the returnees' degree of access to livelihood capitals may jeopardize the comprehensiveness of the data and accuracy of the findings. Hence, the mixed methods design was employed to generate greater understanding about the issue under investigation.

The major sources of primary data for the study were irregular cross-border migrants who returned to Ethiopia between the years 2016 and 2019. Experts, core actors, key officials of humanitarian organizations, Addis Ababa Labour and Social Affairs Bureau (BoLSA), and Ethiopian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) (reorganized into Ministry of Women and Social Affairs and Ministry of Labour) were also considered as the primary sources of data. Moreover, peer reviewed journals, books, government official documents, dissertations, conference papers, and literatures were consulted and reviewed as the major sources of secondary data.

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 appear in the wider population must also appear in the sample (Cohen et al. 2007; Jensen & Shumway 2010). 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 returnee would have an equal chance to be selected (Cohen et al. 2007; Jensen & Shumway 2010).

The sample size of the study population, samples from the two strata and all four sampled sub-cities were determined by employing a sample size determination formula as suggested by Yamane (2001) (at the confidence interval of 95% with significance level of 5%) as the 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.

Where, n = the sample size, N = the population size and e = the Level of precision.

Based on the 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 is further increased by 12% which constituted 44 returnees (8 male and 36 female returnees) to account for contingencies such as non-response as a result of refusal , ineligibility, inability to respond, or missing data; without ignoring a larger sample cannot 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 in 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.

Besides, purposive sampling technique was employed for the selection of participants for Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and Semi-Structured Interviews (SSIs) to triangulate data obtained via survey questionnaires with a purpose to consider participants that can provide rich information on the issue. Field observations, survey questionnaires, FGDs, and SSIs were employed to collect primary data. A pilot study was conducted to test the reliability and validity of the tools. The survey questionnaires were translated into the local Amharic language and tested for face validity. Exploratory factor analysis was also carried out for checking the uni-dimensionality of the scale. A Cronbach's alpha reliability and internal consistency were computed and consequently items having a Cronbach's alpha of $r = 0.818$ were used to collect data.

Descriptive statistics, independent samples test, and ordinal logistic regression model were employed to analyze quantitative data. 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. Likelihood Ratio and Wald Chi-square Tests were used to examine the equality of the different categories and test of parallel lines assumptions. Accordingly, the results of analysis revealed that the slope coefficients in the model are the same across response categories and lines of the same slope are parallel with the overall values of (-2LogLikelihood = 746.268, Wald Chi-square Test = 33.197, df = 18, and $P = 0.016<0.05$). In other words, the correlation between dependent and independent variable does not change for the categories of dependent variable, implying the goodness of fit for the model.

A principal component analysis (PCA) was also carried-out to reduce the factors into a smaller set of components. 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 and to summarize data so that relationships and patterns can be easily interpreted and understood (Everitt 2004; Field 2009; Abdi & Williams 2010; O'Rourke & Hatcher 2013; Gray 2017).

Prior to undertaking factor analysis, testing the sample adequacy by employing Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test to check the suitability of data for factor analysis is essential (Chan & Idris 2017; Hair et al. 2010; Pallant 2010). Values between 0.5 and 1.0 indicate appropriateness (Field 2009; Hair et al. 2010). Accordingly, the KMO measure demonstrated the goodness-of-fit of the variables for the factor analysis, that is, above the minimum acceptable value (0.664). The substantial correlation in the data is available when the significance level for Bartlett's test is below 0.05 (Hair et al. 2010; Pallant 2010).

Consequently, the inter-correlations among variables were generally considered adequate for performing a factor analysis as the significance level for Bartlett's test ($p<0.05$). The qualitative data were also transcribed, coded and interpreted thematically to supplement the numerical data secured through survey questionnaires. Furthermore, the authors were committed to meet the ethical standards set forth by the APA from inception to completion of the study.

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.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Socio-cultural characteristics of the returnees

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. As depicted in Table 1, female and male returnees constituted 83.8% and 16.2% of the sample respectively. However, Songsore (2003) and Elbadawy (2010) arrived at a conclusion and males were more likely to migrate abroad compared to females, which seems to contradict with the foregoing finding.

As to the marital status of the respondents, relatively as a whole unmarried respondents took the lion's share than the rest respondents found in other marital status and account for 51.2%. The overall mean and median ages are 33 and 31 years in the order mentioned, which in turn may indicate that the majority of the study population were the working-age population who were forced to move away irregularly. Correspondingly, Dako-Gyeke (2015), Kodom and Dako-Gyeke (2017) found that in several Sub-Saharan African countries, including Ghana, many youth are compelled to migrate abroad in search of better livelihood opportunities, which may portray the congruency between the findings of the two studies. The mean ages of male and female returnees were found to be about 33 and 32 years respectively.

The study disclosed that 47% of the returnees were only attending secondary school education. This could limit returnees' access to information and technology to respond to the knowledge-based vibrant economy of the modern age to make a better living and viable livelihoods. Kodom and Dako-Gyeke (2017) pointed out that the highest level of education attained by the Ghanaian returnees was senior secondary school education, with majority of them completing junior high school. Nonetheless, Mahoney and Kor (2015) and Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2017) argue that a knowledge economy is one of the major features of the twenty-first century in which knowledge is inherent within the modern organizations culture.

Table 1. Socio-cultural characteristics of the returnees

Variables	Categorization	Frequency	Response (%)	Mean for continuous variables
Sex	Male	65	16.2	-
	Female	337	83.8	-
Marital status	Married	141	35.1	-
	Unmarried	206	51.2	-
	Divorced	45	11.2	-
	Widow/widower	10	2.5	-
Age	Male mean age	-	-	33
	Female mean age	-	-	32
	Overall mean age	-	-	33
	Overall median age	402	100	31
Educational status	Bachelor's 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 own tabulation based on field survey (2021)

4.1. Economic characteristics of the returnees

As evident from Figure 3, the overall mean income of the respondents when abroad and in their homeland was found to be about 6233.46 Ethiopian Birr (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. This may signify that a significant number of returnees found in the study area had poor purchasing power, which may jeopardize their 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 median monthly income of the study population at abroad and homeland was found to be about 6,000 ETB and 800 ETB respectively.

Furthermore, as noted in Figure 3, 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 was 1938.46 ETB and 864.39 ETB among female

respondents 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.

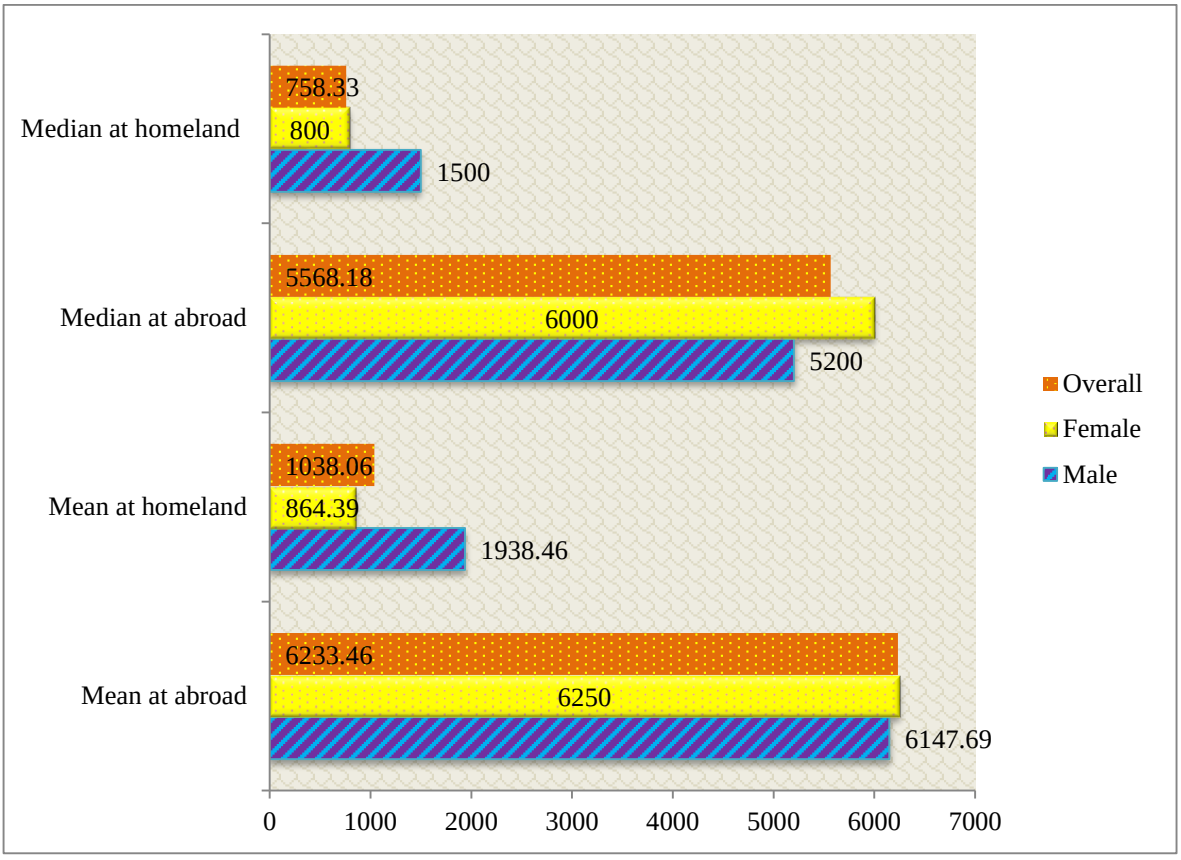


Fig.3. Monthly income of the returnees in Ethiopian Birr (ETB)

This finding is in harmony with the finding of Schuerkens (2010) which states that in most nations' discrimination in employment remains entrenched and women still earn less than men. By taking on average the current exchange rate of one USD is 50 ETB, where male returnees earned ($1.29) and female returnees earned($0.58) 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).

4.2. Degree of access to livelihood capitals among the returnees

This section presents a variety of livelihood capitals categorized based on the final factor loading matrix (for detail see Table 4 Annex 2) 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.

This 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 (Table 2). 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.

Table 2. Degree of access to livelihood capitals among the returnees

	No of items	**Mean**	**SD**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**	**Cronbach's Alpha (α)**
Human capitals	3	1.38	.58	1.26	0.60	.995
Natural capitals	3	1.52	.69	0.97	-0.21	.824
Financial capitals	3	1.69	.82	0.63	-1.18	.88
Physical capitals	4	2.23	.90	-0.47	-1.60	.88
Social capitals	5	2.39	.83	-0.96	-0.47	.80

Source: Authors own construction; and SD = Standard Deviation

Befikadu, Zerihun and Yonatan (2018) conducted a survey study on asset accessibility in Southern Ethiopia in 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 survey study ranked physical capital as the most accessible

livelihood capital which is paradoxical to the finding of the current study. Besides, a 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:

When 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 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 other ones (29/7/2021).*

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

> *…Frankly speaking, access to any kind of capital is very essential for the modern world and humankind. 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 loans; one has to have fulfilled collateral requirements which need 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 (30/7/2021).*

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, returnee participants forwarded their ideas as follows:

> *...access to livelihood resources is viewed mainly as an opportunity for 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*(6/8/2021 and 7/8/2021).

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* (6/8/2021 and 7/8/2021).

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 being provided 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.

4.3. Degree of access to livelihood capitals by gender

As indicated in Table 3, 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 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) in the order mentioned.

Table 3. 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	.0.073
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 3 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 than 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.

4.4. Factors Affecting the Degree of Access to Livelihood Capitals

4.4.1. *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 (see Table 4 Annex 2).

4.4.2. Association between criterion and predictor variables

As evident from Table 5, 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 (β =.09, Exp (β) = 1.094, $p<0.05$); and family size with values of (β = -.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. 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 (β = -.382, Exp (β) = 0.682, $p\leq0.001$; and β = -.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, $p<0.05$).

Table 5. Parameter Estimates of the Ordinal Logistic Regression Analysis (OLRA)

Predictor variables	**Criterion variables**							
	Human capitals (df = 1)				Financials capitals (df = 1)			
	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 and voluntarily returns	-.782	1.694	.193	.458	-.020	.006	.936	.980

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

Nonetheless, religion, marital status, income at abroad and 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.

As noted in Table 6, 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, $p\leq0.001$) had statistically significant effect on access to physical capitals among returnees.

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

Predictor variables	Criterion variables							
	Physical capitals (df = 1)				Social Capitals(df = 1)			
	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 and voluntarily returns	.082	.137	.711	1.085	-.670	7.201	.007*	.512
Constant	-1.095	.760	.383	.335	1.556	1.202	.273	4.738

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

Moreover, income at abroad and homeland as two economic characteristics had statistically sound positive impact on access to physical capitals with values of ($\beta = 0.928$, Exp (β) = 2.528, $p \leq 0.001$; and $\beta = 0.619$, Exp (β) = 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.

Modality of returns had a statistically significant effect with values of (β = -.670, Exp (β) =.512, 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.

A final note is about the correlation between natural capitals and background characteristics of the returnees. As revealed in Table 7, only age and religion as two personal characteristics of returnees had statistically significant effects on access to natural capitals with values of (β = -.120, Exp (β) = .887, p<0.001; and (β = -.485, Exp (β) = .616, p<0.05) respectively.

Table 7: Ordinal Logistic Regression (OLR) Analysis on natural capitals

Predictor variables	Results				
	B	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Personal characteristics					
Gender	-.125	.089	1	.765	.883
Marital status	.334	2.549	1	.110	1.397
Age	-.120	14.052	1	.000**	.887
Religion	-.485	4.131	1	.042*	.616
Family size	.000	.000	1	.999	1.000
Role in the family	-.400	1.755	1	.185	.670
Educational status	.193	1.423	1	.233	1.213
Economic characteristics					
Income at abroad	-.445	1.493	1	.222	.641
Income at homeland	-.339	1.191	1	.275	.712
Modality of Returns					
Forced and voluntarily returns	.529	3.091	1	.079	1.697
Constant	2.493	1.852	1	.173	12.100

**, ** significant at 0.05 and 0.001 levels respectively; df = degree of freedom; 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, economic characteristics and modality of returns produced no statistically significant impact on access to natural capitals among returnees.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

The study was to assess the degree of access to livelihood capitals among Ethiopian returnees in Addis Ababa and built on the discourse of Sustainable

Livelihood Approach (SLA) in urban context as the main framework to better understand the issue. The finding of the study reiterated that as a whole the degree of access to the majority of livelihood capitals among the study population is very minimal to discharge the urban livelihood activities and to meet out their basic needs. In other words, the absence of sound access towards such capitals ultimately is detrimental 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 the 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 threefold: the total degree of access towards livelihood capitals among the returnees is very minimal; significant gender variation was not 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 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.

Acknowledgments: The authors are very grateful to all international returnees of Addis Ababa who provided valuable information for the study. We would like to also extend our appreciation to numerators for their devotion during the data collection process. We are also thankful to Ethiopian Journal of Development Research, College of Development Studies, and Addis Ababa University for excellent editorial assistance and anonymous reviewers of the manuscript for their constructive comments that made the publication possible.

Availability of data: The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Competing interests: The authors declare that no potential conflict of interest was reported.

References

Abdi, H. and Williams L.J. 2010. Principal Component Analysis: Overview. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews Computational Statistics*, 2: *433-459.*

ACF-IN. 2008. *Food security and livelihoods: ACF International Network Policy Paper*.

Addis Ababa City Administration. 2015. *Socio-Economic Profile of Addis Ababa, for the years 2008-2014, City Government of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.*

Addis Ababa Plan and Development Commission. 2020. *Addis Ababa City* Administration Socio Economic profile (2015-2019). Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 2020.

Ansoms, A. and McKay, A. 2010. A Quantitative Analysis of Poverty and Livelihood Profiles:The Case of Rural Rwanda. Food Policy 2010, 35: 584–598.

Arowolo, O. 2000. Return Migration and the Problem of Reintegration. Journal of International Migration, 38 (5):2000.

Asian Development Bank. 2020. Returning Migrants in the People's Republic of China: Challenges and Perspectives - Evidence from Chongqin. DOI:http://dx.doi.org/10.22617/WPS200399-2.

_____. 2008. People's Republic of China: Urban Poverty Strategy II. Consultant's report. Manila (TA 4694-PRC)

Bartlett, J. E., Kotrlik, J. W. and Higgins, C. C. 2001. Organizational research: determining appropriate sample size in survey research. Learning and Performance Journal, 19: 43-50.

Befikadu Esayas, Zerihun Berhane and Yonatan Desalegn. 2018. Migration and Urban Livelihoods: A Quest for Sustainability in Southern Ethiopia. Global Journals, 18(3), ISSN: 2249-460X.

Brück, T., Mahé, C. and Naudé, W. 2017. Return migration and self-employment dynamics: Empirical evidence from Kyrgyzstan. Paper presented at the 3rd IZA/DFID GLM-LIC, Research Conference, Washington, DC October 19-20, 2017.

Bryman, A. 2006. Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Research: How is it done? Qualitative Research, 6(1): 97-113.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. 2003. Business Research Methods. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Chambers, R. and Conway, G.R.1992. Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: Practical concepts for the 21st century, IDS Discussion Paper 296, Brighton, 11-13.

Chan, L.L. and Idris, N. 2017. Validity and Reliability of the Instrument using Exploratory Factor Analysis and Cronbach's alpha. Faculty of Science and Mathematics, Sultan Idris

Education University, 35900 Tanjung Malim, Perak, Malaysia.

Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. 2017. Human capital theory: Assessing the evidence for the value and importance of people to organizational success. 151 The Broadway London SW191JQ United Kingdom.

Cohen, L., Morrison, K. and Manion, L. 2007. Research Methods in Education (6th ed.). Routledge: Taylor and Francis group.

Cordero, M. 2016. Food security and livelihoods: Thematic Policy. Terre des hommes, helping children worldwide.

Creswell, J. W. and Clark, V.L.P. 2010. Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research(2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Creswell, J.W. 2009. Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Dako-Gyeke, M. 2015. Exploring the migration intentions of Ghanaian youth: A qualitative study. Journal of International Migration & Integration. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12134-015-0435-z.

Department for International Development (DFID). 1999. Sustainable Livelihoods. Guidance Sheets.

Department for International Development and World Bank. 2002. People, Poverty and Livelihoods: Links for Sustainable Poverty Reduction in Indonesia. January 2002. Jakarta, Indonesia.

Elbadawy, A. 2011. Migration aspirations among young people in Egypt: who desires to migrate and why? Available at: http://erf.org.eg/wp-content/uploads/2014/08/619.pdf.

Ellis, F. 2000. Rural livelihoods and diversity in developing countries. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Everitt, B. S. 2004. A Handbook of Statistical Analyses using SPSS. Boca Raton London New York Washington, D.C., Chapman & Hall/CRC Press LLC.

Farrington, J, Ramasut, T. and Walker, J. 2002. Sustainable livelihoods approaches in urban areas: General lessons, with illustrations from Indian cases. Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency.

Field, A. 2009. Discovering Statistics Using SPSS (3rd ed.) London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Fransen, S. and Kuschminder, K. 2009. Migration in Ethiopia: History, current trends and future prospects (Paper Series: Migration and Development Country Profiles). Maastricht Graduate School of Governance.

Geiser, U., Bottazzi, P., Epprecht, M., Fokou, G., Fritschi, A., Ramakumar, R., Shahbaz, B., Bernd Steimann, B. and Strasser, B. 2011. Access to Livelihood Assets: Inclusion, Exclusion, and the Reality of Development Interventions. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/255716732.

Gray, V. 2017. Principal Component Analysis: Methods, Applications and Technology. Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Hair, J. F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. and Anderson, R.E. 2010. Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective. New Jersey, Pearson Prentice Hall.

International Labour Organization. 2013. Assessment of livelihood opportunities for returnees/internally displaced persons and host communities in Afghanistan. UNHCR, Kabul.

International Labour Organization. 2019. Effective return migration and reintegration of migrant workers with special focus on ASEAN member states.

International Organization for Migration. 2015. Reintegration: Effective approaches. Route Des Morillons, 1211 Geneva 19, Switzerland.

International Organization for Migration. 2019. Exploring the links between enhancing regular pathways and discouraging irregular migration. International Organization for Migration, 17 Route des Morillons, 1211 Geneva 19.

Kodom, R.B. and Dako-Gyeke, M. 2017. Deportation and re-integration: Exploring challenges faced by deportee residents in the Nkoranza Municipality, Ghana. Journal of International Migration and Integration, DOI: 10.1007/s12134-017-0526-0, Springer.

Kuschminder, K. 2013. 'Female Migration and Reintegration in Ethiopia.' Kuschminder, PhD. Dissertation, Maastricht University.

Jensen, R.R. and Shumway, J.M. 2010. Research Methods in Geography. A critical Introduction. A John Wiley & Sons, Ltd., Publication, Singapore.

Lawal, J.O., Bolarin, T.O. and Oyinleye, O.D. 2011. Effects of Livelihood Assets on Poverty Status of Farming Households' in Southwestern, Nigeria, 2011. Paper presented at International Congress, August 30-September 2, 2011, Zurich, Switzerland.

Mahoney, J.T. and Kor, Y.Y. 2015. Advancing the human capital on value by joining capabilities and governance perspectives." Academy of Management Perspectives, 29(4): 296–308.

Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA). 2021. 'Report on number of returnees by year of return and region from 2018 up to November 2020.' Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Mutenje, M.J., Ortmann, G.F., Ferrer, S.R.D. and Darroch, M.A.G. 2010. Rural livelihood diversity to manage economic shocks: Evidence from South-east Zimbabwe. Agrekon 2010, 49: 338–357.

Naing, L., Winn, T. and Rusli, B.N. 2006. Practical Issues in calculating the Sample Size for Prevalence Studies. Medical Statistics, Archives of Orofacial Sciences 2006,1: 9-14.

O'Rourke, N. and Hatcher, L. 2013. A step-by-step approach to using SAS for factor analysis and structural equation modeling. SAS Institute.

Pallant, J. 2010. SPSS Survival Manual: A step by step guide to data analysis IBM SPSS (7th ed.). ISBN: 9781760875534, Routledge.

Peri Peri and Oxfam. 2002. Learning about livelihoods: Insights from Southern Africa. Co- published by Periperi Publications and Oxfam Publishing.

Rubavel, M. 2019. Situational Analysis on Access of Livelihood Capitals in Livelihoods of Poor Households. IRA-International Journal of Management & Social Sciences. (DOI:10.21013/jmss.v15.n4.p4).

Samsudin, S. and Kamaruddin, R. 2013. Distribution of the livelihood assets among the hardcore poor: Evidence from Kedah, Malaysia. World Applied Sciences Journal, 28: 38–42.

Schuerkens, U. 2010. Globalization and Transformations of Social Inequality (1sted.). York: Routledge.

Scoones, I. 2009. Livelihoods perspectives and rural development. Journal of Peasant Studies 36, 171–196.

Scoones, I. 1998. Sustainable rural livelihoods: A framework for analysis. IDS, Working Paper 72.

Segal, U.A. 2016. "Opportunities and Challenges of Return Migration. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/307858049.

Serrat, O. 2008. The sustainable livelihoods approach. Washington DC: Asia Development Bank. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/intl/191/.

Setrana, M.B. and Tonah, S. 2014. "Return migrants and the challenges of Reintegration: The case of Returnees to Kumasi, Ghana." A Journal of African Migration, June 2014, issue 7.

Shishay Tadesse, Wendu Abreha and Kinfe Abraha Gebre-Egzabher. 2019. Irregular migration: Drivers and the lived migration experiences of returnee Ethiopian migrants from the Middle East. Journal of Demography Africa, 1(1): 26-42.

Songsore, J. 2003. Towards a better understanding of urban change: urbanization, national development and inequality in Ghana. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.

Solesbury, W. 2003. Sustainable Livelihoods: A Case Study of the Evolution of DFID Policy, Working Paper 217, Overseas Development Institute, 2003.

Soussan, J., Blaikie P., Springate-Baginski, O. and Chadwick, M. 2001. Understanding Livelihood Processes and Dynamics; Livelihood-Policy Relationships in South Asia, Working Paper 1, London, 19-46.

Su, F., Pu, X.D., Xu, Z.M. and Wang, L.A.2009, Analysis about the relationship between livelihood capitals and livelihood strategies. Environmental, 19: 119–125.

Taherdoos, H. 2016. Sampling Methods in Research Methodology; How to Choose a Sampling Technique for Research. International Journal of Academic Research in Management, 5(2): 18-27.

Thomson, A.M. 2000. Sustainable Livelihoods Approaches at the Policy Level: Paper prepared for FAO e-conference and Forum on Operationalizing Participatory Ways of Applying a Sustainable Livelihoods Approach, London, 7-33.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). 2019. Overview of 15 Priority areas of Return and Reintegration in Afghanistan. The UN Refugee Agency, May 2019.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. 2012. Livelihood Programming in UHCR: Operational Guidelines. CP2500, CH-1202 Geneva, Switzerland. The UN Refugee Agency.

United Nations Human Settlements Programme (UN-HABITAT). 2008. Ethiopia: Addis Ababa Urban Profile. Regional and Technical Cooperation Division, GPO 00100, Nairobi Kenya.

Wahba, J. 2014. Return Migration and Economic Development. University of Southampton, January, 2014.

Walkker, J., Ramasut, T. and Meikle, Sh. 2001. Sustainable urban livelihoods: Concepts and implications for policy, January 2001, No. 112.

World Bank. 2015. A Global Count of the Extreme Poor in 2012: Data issues, Methodology and Initial Results, Policy Research Working Paper, 7432.

World Bank Group. 2015. Global Practice on Social, Urban, Rural and Resilience. The World Bank Group 1818 H Street NW Washington, DC 20433.

World Meteorological Organization. 2019. World Meteorological Organization Report.

Yamane, T. 2001. Basic Sampling Methods. Literature Publishing, Istanbul, Turkey.

Appendices

Annex 1: List of Figure

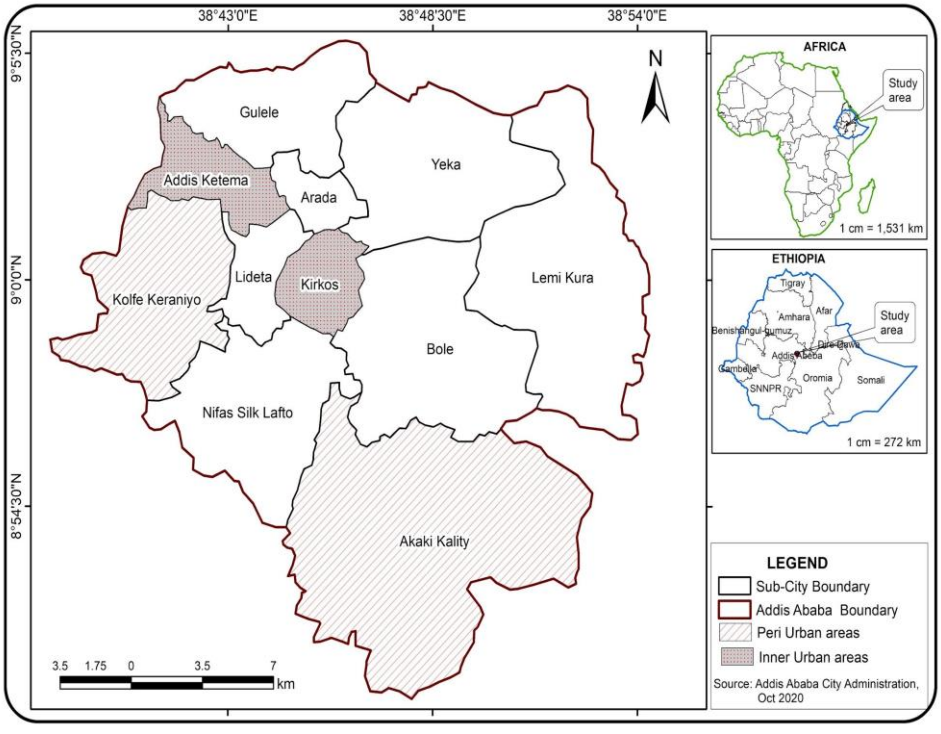


Fig.2: Location of the study area, Addis Ababa

Annex 2: List of Table

Table 4: 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).