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Addis Ababa University
College of Law and Governance Studies
Centre for Federal studies

**The Role of Local Governments in Combating Human
Trafficking in Ethiopia: The Case of Addis Ketema Sub
City of Addis Ababa City Administration wereda seven**

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**A Thesis Submitted to School of Graduate Studies
of Addis Ababa University centre for Federal Studies
in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for the
Degree of Masters of art in Federalism and
Governance studies**

May, 2018

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia



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Declaration

I, Walleign Gessit Mamay, declare that; the thesis entitled, “*The Role of Local Governments in Combating Human Trafficking in Ethiopia: The Case of Addis Ketema Sub City of Addis Ababa City Administration.*” is my original work and to the best of my knowledge and belief this thesis contains no material previously published by any other person except where proper citation and due acknowledgement has been made. I do further affirm that this thesis has not been presented or being submitted as part of the requirements of any other academic degree or publication, in English or in any other language.

This is a true copy of the thesis

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Declaration of this thesis has been confirmed by the approval of the advisor:

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Acknowledgements

First and for most, I would like to give all the glory and praise to the Almighty God for his forgiveness me charity, courage and ability to bring this work to a final stage.

I want to thank all of those who in their different ways have helped me in the making of this study. First I want to express my gratitude to my advisor, Dr Mohammed Dejen, for his continuous support, unreserved supervision, guidance and encouragement. I also thank all those individuals and institutions who have contributed in my study for their collaboration all the way throughout my study. Friends who have been discussing and give feedback on thoughts and text of the study and loved ones who in other ways have shown their support and those who have been a source of great intellectual inspiration thanks all. Above all, I whole heartedly thank God for helping me succeed in my study.

Thanks to God, Praise to the Lord and Glory to Almighty!

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List of Acronyms and abbreviations

Art	Article
BoJ	Bureau of Justice
BoLSA	Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs
CSO	Civil Society organization
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FSCE	Forum on Street Children in Ethiopia
IDEA	International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance
LGs	Local Governments
IGAD	Inter-governmental Authority on Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OHCHR	Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
RMMS	Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat
UN	United Nation
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCHR	United Nations Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner For Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drug and Crime
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

USD	United States Dollar
AACAILIC	Addis Ababa City Administration Integrated Land Information Centre
AACACSA	Addis Ababa City Administration Civil Service Agency
DECLG	Department of the Environment, Community & Local Government
DCLG	Department for Communities and Local Government
EPRDF	Ethiopian People’s Revolutionary and Democratic Front
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
JeCCDO’s	Jerusalem Children & Community Development Organizations
LGs	Local Governments
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PANE	Poverty Action Network of Ethiopia
UNDP	United Nation Development Program
UN-HABITAT	United Nations Human Settlement Programme
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank
OPRIFS	Organization for the Prevention, Rehabilitation Integration for Female Street Children
UNCJIN	United Nations Crime and Justice Information network
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund’s
VOTs	Victims of Trafficking

Glossary of Local Terms

Woreda Equivalent to district level of Government in the context of Ethiopian Local Government Structure which constitutes a number of Kebeles within it.

Shayebuna a term used to call business activity

Maheberat a term used to call a group of organizations

Delala means agent/middleman/broker

Abstract

Currently human trafficking is affecting almost all countries of the world including Ethiopia. Thousands of Ethiopians are exposed to devastating challenges and multitude massacres in the deserts, sea routes as well as in destination countries. Though the government of Ethiopia had enacted a comprehensive anti-human trafficking law, ratified a number of international conventions, and has been making counteracting efforts, human trafficking is still increasing in Ethiopia. Hence, this study questions why? And aims to investigate the anti-human trafficking measures and examine the local practices particularly, in Addis Ketema sub city Wereda seven. There is an urgent need of local, national, regional and international cooperation to combat this exploitation, from government officials to law enforcers and different sectors. Local governments in particular play a key role in improving human trafficking prevention, victim protection and prosecution of traffickers. The general objective of this study is to examine the role of local governments in combating Human Trafficking based on the case of Addis Ababa. For the purpose of this study the research methodology was designed the qualitative case study. In order to pursue the objective of the study the researcher use multi-stage sampling technique and relied on both primary and secondary data source. For the primary data the key informants were selected by using judgmental/purposive sampling technique. Though, both primary and secondary data sources were used in gathering relevant information. The technique of collecting primary data includes in-depth interviews at sub-city and woreda, two focus group discussions with the local officials and community representative. Secondary sources such as published and unpublished materials such as books, proclamation, procedures, directives and manuals are used. Besides, focus group discussion was made with residents of the study area. Consequently, findings of the study show, the issue of human trafficking is mainly connected to individuals' desire to migrate illegally as an 'exit strategy' from poverty, unemployment and lack of economic opportunities in their local area. Though attempts were made to create awareness, provide loans and prosecute traffickers, these attempts could not reduce the problem. Lack of coordination, capacity, commitment, and appropriate amount of resources are the main reasons behind. Local government is crucial to develop democratic structure in federal systems by addressing the grass root society. Accordingly, the importance of local government is increasing in service provision, poverty alleviation and community protection. The study found that local administrative discretionary power is not adequately devolved and accountability to weredas, and also it is not properly designed due to different reasons. It is challenged by many problems such as crucial autonomy still remain in the upper stratum, as well as lack in properly codified rules and regulation in administrative autonomy. As a result, local governments are not mandated effectively as expected in combating human trafficking. In general, this study I argues that antihuman trafficking responses can be successful if the local governments are responsible for their accountability, discretionary power and financial abilities. Therefore, it is recommended that local governments need to be granted actual power to combat human trafficking.

Key terms: - Local Government; Sub-City administration; discretion power; human Trafficking

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1. Background of the study

Human trafficking is a global crisis linked with increasing globalization and often intertwined with illegal immigration, human smuggling and transnational crime. It is a form of modern day slavery that trades and exploits children, women and men each year, violating their basic rights to life, liberty and security. (Liu, Yanchuan, 2010). Increasing levels of inequality, both globally and internally, encourage millions of disadvantaged individuals to migrate internationally and internally. As migrants search for more economic opportunities outside their homes, some end up in coerced work by the use of threat or deception. Although the number of humans trafficked is not known, it is estimated that there are at least 700,000 trafficked victims globally each year. Local governments play a key role in the fight against human trafficking. (UNFPA, 2014)

The growing attention to human trafficking in news headlines creates an impression that it is a recent phenomenon. However, many of the practices leading to trafficking have been taking place for centuries (UNODC, 2012). The magnitude of the problem is not known exactly. Different countries and different non-governmental organizations provide different figure reports. However, there is a consensus that trafficking of human beings has become a widespread practice in the modern world. Even though human trafficking has a long and unacceptable history, it is recently become a highly prioritized issue of international, regional and national political agenda (Gallagher, 2010). Currently, a number of advocacies, initiatives and think tanks have been launched to combat human trafficking. “The biggest inter-governmental collaborations, government strategies and the smallest community projects, urge to combat human trafficking.” (Shelly, 2010:57).

Ethiopia is a source and, to a lesser extent destination and transit country for men, women, and children subjected to human trafficking. According to the report by Walk Free

Foundation, there are 651,110 Ethiopians in modern slavery (albeit both within Ethiopia and abroad), which ranked Ethiopia fifth in the world (after India, China, Pakistan and Nigeria) in terms of the largest absolute numbers of the population in slavery (WFF, 2013:1). Many Ethiopian migrants are commonly ‘exploited through extortion, detentions, physical, sexual, and psychological abuse, and forced labour,’ either in transit or destination countries (Anteneh, 2011:19; Atnafu and Adamek, 2016:8; Gudetu, 2014:244; Frouws, 2014:6; Kuschminder, Andersson and Siegel, 2013:33).

Consequent reports by the US Department of State (2013-2017) stated that Ethiopia is making an effort to prevent human trafficking. Ethiopia had ratified major international and regional agreements related to human trafficking and enacted its own anti-human trafficking laws. Nonetheless, human trafficking is increasing in an alarming rate in Ethiopia and the government has failed to fulfil the minimum standards to eliminate human trafficking (US Department of State, 2017; Carter and Rohwerder, 2016: 17; ILO, 2014: 29).

In this research, studying human trafficking encompasses both internal trafficking within Ethiopia and external trafficking to outside countries. In-country trafficking of women and children from rural areas to urban centers is widespread. The major purposes of in-country trafficking are for engaging women and children as domestic workers, as weavers in the traditional weaving industry, and as prostitutes in major regional towns and the capital, Addis Ababa. A large number of women and children suffer from different types of inhuman abuses and exploitations as a result of trafficking within Ethiopia (FSCE, 2003, et al Agrinet, 2004).

Existing studies indicate that trafficking in women and children from rural to urban areas is a prevalent and steadily increasing practice in the country. The capital city Addis Ababa stands out as the principal destination point for trafficked victims. We know that a large number of women and children from all corners of the country are brought to Addis Ababa having been told of a better life in the city. However they end up being subjected to exploitation and abuse. One survey estimates that 6,500 to 7,500 child domestic servants among whom, more than seventy per cent are migrants from other regions, live in Addis Ababa alone (Abiy K. 2002).

External trafficking from Ethiopia, especially to countries in the Middle East, is recognized as a significant problem. Widespread poverty, unemployment and the disadvantageous economic and social position of women are the major push factors. Official Ethiopian migration records indicate that the number of female migrants has been steadily increasing

(ILO, 2007). As discussed in the above, both external and in-country trafficking of women and children is widespread in the country. Many children and women have been victims of trafficking and they are experiencing the most horrible forms of abuse and exploitation in the process. Ethiopia is a country highly affected by in country and external trafficking in women and children. Yet, the existing combating mechanisms specially, the role of local governments does not investigating in any research.

Local government is the tier of public authority that citizens first look to solve their immediate social problems (IDEA, 2008). In Ethiopia illegal migration is increasing and continues to expose many people to be victims of human trafficking and disturb the socio-economic stability of the community. The major route and destination area of those human trafficking is Addis Ababa specially Addis ketema sub city. In this sub city wereda seven have been very venerable area for both in and out trafficking. At local level *woreda* administration exist which are considered to be the key local units. They play key roles in prioritizing the provision of public services.

However, the FDRE constitution does not expressly describe the nature of local governments. Their establishment as a government seems open to interpretation since the question put two different concepts. In the first place, their establishment seems optional since it gives the power to the states to establish their administrative levels they find necessary. On the other hand the constitution put a mandate of adequate power shall be granted to the lowest units of government to enable the people to participate directly in the administration of states (FDRE Constitution, art. 50(4)). Some scholars' take this provision as source of empowering local governments. The provision institutes the principle of subsidiarity by allocating service delivery responsibilities to the lowest possible level of government (Yilmaz, Serdar, & VarshaVenugopal, 2008).

Yet the right of regional states to decide on their local government structure is limited by concomitant obligation to create an autonomous local government as opposed to their own administrative arms (Zemelak, Ayele, 2011). Providing local governments with a constitutional status are reflection of the recognition of its importance. More importantly, it gives a formal guarantee for local government by the national or sub national governments (Zemelak.A& Yonatan Tesfaye, 2012:91).

Ethiopia has limited experience with decentralization policies in comparison to many African countries in which a relatively developed system of local government prevailed from colonial heritage (UN habitat, 2002). Formerly, *wereda* was the third administrative tier of the city. *Weredas* (districts) structure functions in rural areas and municipalities in urban areas. Currently, Addis Ababa has 10 sub cities and 116 *weredas*, the structure was newly arranged since 2011 by the city administration (Zemelak 2011). Local government that can make and enforce regulatory decisions, and control and manage its workforce is administratively autonomous (Yilmaz, 2012).

According to the Addis Ababa city government executive and municipal service organ re-establishment proclamation number 35/2012 “*Wereda Administration*” means the third administrative stratum of the city, which is a unit of sub-city. One of the most important challenges in local government is creating ways to engage the public in shaping their function and accountability of local leaders. It is clear that human trafficking poses a problem at both the local and national levels. There is an urgent need of local, national, regional and international cooperation to combat this exploitation, from government officials to law enforcers. Local governments in particular play a key role in combating human trafficking prevention, victim protection and prosecution of traffickers. Therefore, this study were investigated the role of *wereda* in Addis Ababa city administration, *Addis ketema* sub-city to countering trafficking, since their closeness to the grassroots population.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

In Ethiopia there are different places used by human traffickers as a transit to easily deport persons to another country. Predominantly, these places are located at Addis Ababa and the border areas of the country. Addis Ababa serves as the main gate for people to get away from the country. Each year a large number of people are brought to this town by local human traffickers from different parts of the country for the purpose of crossing to different route border.

Although the Ethiopian government has enacted anti-human trafficking legal frameworks and increased its counteracting efforts, incidences of human trafficking has been rising and wide spreading in Ethiopia (Beck *et al.*, 2016:1; Carter and Rohwerder, 2016: 17; Gudetu, 2014:243; ILO, 2014: 29; IOM, 2015:29). Many Ethiopians had been exploited, and in several instances end up being killed in transit as well as destination countries. For example,

Saudi Arabians crackdown on illegal migrants and the expulsion of thousands of Ethiopians are some of the severe consequences of human trafficking (IOM, 2014: 54; de Regt and Tafesse, 2016: 228). Nevertheless, many Ethiopians are still migrating illegally and fall at the hands of ruthless traffickers.

Approximately 75,000 (over 78 %) of new arrivals in Yemen in 2014 were from Ethiopia and most of them were victims of human trafficking (RMMS, 2014:12). In 2015, 92,446 persons arrived in Yemen from the Horn of Africa of which 89% (82,276 persons) were Ethiopian nationals, and in 2016 it continued at a similar pace (RMMS, 2016). It is estimated that 146,000 Ethiopians transit through Djibouti every year, between 18,000 and 37,000 Ethiopians per year begin their journey on the western/northern route. Ethiopian migrants who cross to Sudan reach 50-100 persons per day. Consequently, the business of human trafficking and smuggling of migrants reach tens millions of dollars in Ethiopia (RMMS, 2015: 36).

According to the findings of the research done by “the European Commission on victims of trafficking in Ethiopia, around 64% participants replied they travelled to the Middle East and Gulf States are seeking a job, 32% were migrated seeking a better life and salary.” A study carried out by the World Bank indicated that “in 2011 around 30% of the population of Ethiopia lived below the poverty line and 31% lived on less than US\$1. 25 purchasing power parity a day’ (World Bank 2015:1). Around 25% of Ethiopia’s economically active population is only marginally involved in income generating economic sectors (IMF 2013:10).

Although human trafficking has attracted significant social and political attention over the years, there is still more that needs to be done particularly at the local level. However, local governments lack authority over functions of combating human trafficking. The notion of administrative accountability can be divided into public accountability and social accountability (Aslam *et al*, 2010). Public accountability approaches are necessary to provide channels for uncovering basic information on regulatory decisions, civil service practices, and services. Yet, public approaches alone fall short of ensuring proper use of administrative discretion. Therefore, there is a need to complement the public accountability approaches by the social accountability.

Even though, there is an enrichment of research studies with regard to issues of human trafficking in Ethiopia, the existing literature shows anti-human trafficking responses remain under-studied. Previous studies have significant importance in illuminating the nature of the

problem. For instance, the causes and consequences of human trafficking (Gudetu, 2014; Hailemichael, 2014), the challenges that victims face in the routes (Shewit, 2013), the miseries in destination countries (Beydoun, 2006; Asefach, 2012), and the reintegration processes of returnees (de Regt and Tafesse, 2016; Micheal, 2014) anti-human trafficking responses (Mehari (2017). However, the governance structures (specifically in role of local governments) involved in countering human trafficking, the discretion power, practical roles of wereda's and their emphasis have represents a gap. Accordingly, this study makes a meaningful contribution to this body of research gap.

In addition, although little studies were conducted with regard to the legal protection of victims in abroad (Shukria, 2015; Yonas, 2015), these studies were made specifically from criminal point of view. Nonetheless, the criteria of success in combating human trafficking could not be reduced to one side of the action; rather it needs coordinated efforts of prevention, protection, and prosecution to cover all its features (Witzer, 2014:15).

Therefore, I believe that there is no researches conducting that investigate the role of local governments to combat human trafficking. None of the above researches have given much focus on the role of local governments in combating human trafficking in particular. The above researches fail or forget to tell us about sustainable remedies of combating human trafficking in the grass roots from the administrative mandates of local governments.

In recent times, in Ethiopia, human trafficking is given a due consideration and government has started combating the problem in collaboration with other concerned nongovernmental organizations. In spite of this government effort to tackle the problem, there is lack of role of local governments' researches/ studies concerning human trafficking in Addis Ababa specifically. Human trafficking is a very complicated and covert incident that needs to be studied from different dimensions to understand its course and nature, thereby to set strategies and policies which helps to combat the problem.

In fact it is obvious that, in recent years, the field of human trafficking has attracted a great deal of attention. There have also been numerous government interventions to control traffickers, to facilitate “international cooperation, to prevent these illegal activities,” and to assist victims of the problem. However, for a number of reasons, researches in this area are rare. Many researchers hesitate to study human trafficking as one form of migration for a long period of time. This is mainly because of the risk and the dangerous scenario that

surrounds the trafficking business, and the difficulty of accessing informants easily. Because of the scanty nature of research on the field of human trafficking, the knowledge we have about the nature of the problem is weak; and consequently actions and measures that are taken to tackle the problem are sometimes based more on emotions or political bias than on strong and substantiated research work. It is important to examine the role of local governments and what have been conducted so far in practice. In doing so, a local practical role in countering trafficking is very important.

The fight against human trafficking is a complex policy arena and law enforcement initiatives cannot solve this issue alone. Local and national authorities are recognized as the key actors in this fight against human trafficking. However, in order to effectively facilitate prevention of trafficking, protection of victims and prosecution of traffickers, they must also collaborate constantly with other stake holders (Friesendorf, C. (2009)). As local governments play a central role particularly in delivering victim support, prevention, protection and assistance to their community, they must ensure that one of their mandates is to serve the community.

In Ethiopia, reports and local practices with regard to human trafficking contain routine descriptions of activities and try to inform as it has received a concerted attention. Nonetheless, describing human trafficking as category and anti-trafficking laws as mere response to it is not enough. It is important to examine the theory and what have been conducted so far in local practice, taking lessons and making meaningful progress to achieve optimum results. In doing so, local knowledge starting from power and function up to implementation of the countering trafficking is very important. Human trafficking is a very complicated and covert incident that needs to be studied from different dimensions to understand its course and nature, thereby to set strategies and policies which helps to combat the problem. Accordingly, this study aimed to examine the practicability of local governments particularly, revolving on human trafficking occurring around, the destination and transportation area of Addis Ababa city administration in Addis Ketema sub city.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General objective

The general objective of the study is to investigate the role of local governments for combating human trafficking in Addis Ababa city administration particularly in Addis ketema sub city.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

The overall objective of this research is to examine the institutional frameworks of local governments and examine their role of fight human trafficking. And more Specific objectives are outlined as follows;

1. To investigate the existing legal frameworks that are conducive to prevent, protect and assist victims, as well as to investigate and prosecute traffickers?
2. To examine the local governments have clearly structural set up in countering human trafficking?
3. To analyse the role of local governments in prevention of trafficking, protection of trafficked persons and prosecution of traffickers to combating human trafficking?
4. To examine the challenges of local governments to combat human trafficking.

1.4. Research Questions

Depending on the above objectives of the study the following main research questions are formulated, and the aim of this research is to answer these questions.

1. Do you think that the existing legal frameworks are conducive to prevent human trafficking, protect and assist victims, as well as to investigate and prosecute Traffickers?
2. Does the local government have clearly structural set up to counter human trafficking?
3. Are the local governments playing their role in prevention of trafficking, protection of trafficked persons and prosecution of traffickers to combat human trafficking?
4. What are the challenges of the local governments to combat human trafficking?

1.5. Scope of the Study

This study has limited its scope specifically conducted in Addis Ketema sub-city, wereda seven in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. This specific sub-city has been chosen because it is one of the most destination, vulnerable area, transportation of human trafficking and business area. Though the issue of human trafficking is very broad and multidirectional, the central attention of this study is limited to examine the role of local governments in countering human trafficking. Furthermore, human trafficking can take place within and outside a country; nonetheless, this research mainly focuses on the role of local governments in countering human trafficking. Offices of *wereda* covered in the study are Labors and social affairs office, Women, child and youth affair, Communication affairs office, Justice Office, finance and economic development, general manager and police stations are included.

1.6. Significance of the study

This study remains to be significant for some reasons. Within regard to local governments practically on top of poor planning and inefficient flow, human and financial resources have always been inadequate and at insufficient levels which has undesirable implications for the capacity of local governments to perform their assigned functions. The weaknesses of the local government to implement is always said to be evident, to the extent that they are not even aware of their powers. This study provides knowledge mainly about the practical role of local government in anti-human trafficking reactions from the grassroots level. Additionally, the study has identified the challenges of the undergoing efforts and discretionary powers of local governments. Governmental and nongovernmental organizations or any other concerned body can use the study as a direction to pertain possible solutions to the practical role of local governments in Addis Ababa city administration. Moreover, contributing to the existing literature, this research can be used as a reference to those who might be interested to conduct studies on the area.

1.7. Limitation of the study

As far the limitation in dealing with the research is concerned the researcher might encounter some problems relating to the following issues.

- Lack of priory undertaken study in the area of local government discretion and accountability mechanisms in the Addis Ababa city administration.

- Lack of updated and compiled data and relevant documents in the study wereda.
- Due to different reasons some officials and workers are not available in offices during data collection.
- Lack in literately reviewed documents because in the specific study area and frame work of the study accessible material in Ethiopia cases as well as other countries and continents is written by few authors and organizations. To deal with these problems the researcher will maximize his efforts different approaches to overcome these challenges.

1.8. Research Design and Methodology

1.8.1. Research Design

This research is designed to investigate the role of local governments in combating human trafficking in Ethiopia, focusing on the centre of human trafficking taking place in Addis Ababa city administration. Therefore, owing to the objectives, research questions and nature of the issue under investigation, particularly its emphasis on investigating the reason of increasing human trafficking; the research is mainly qualitative. This research mainly focuses on the investigation and understanding of the perspectives, perceptions, and opinions of Government officials in combating human trafficking, and also on the identification of different multifaceted challenges of human trafficking. The research aimed to reflect, explore and disseminate the views, feelings and experiences of research participants. Thus, bearing this in mind, such qualitative research methods were employed and made it possible to collect more qualitative and context based data about the perceptions and opinions of wereda government officials and community members, who are responsible to fighting this problem. The study is undertaken by information from which are gathered via qualitative data like, an in depth interview and focus group discussion.

1.8.2. Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary data used in order to assess the specific issues. The primary data were collected through in depth interview, focus group discussion and documentation or archival of the *woreda*. Secondary data were collected from published and unpublished materials that are available in the form of directives, rules, regulations, proclamation, are used. Semi-structured in-depth interview with Addis Ababa city administration & Addis Ketema sub-city wereda's, purposively selected practitioners and focus group discussions with residents of the study area were the primary sources. Semi-structured interview gives

appropriate freedom to respondents and enables the researcher to avoid confusions and clarify for respondents as well as to ask more questions depending on their responses (Bernard, 2011). Besides, personal observation was also used as a method of data collection. This is appropriate to learn what questions are relevant, collect a wider range of data, for an intuitive understanding of the meaning of the data and addresses problems which are unavailable to other data collection techniques. Moreover, interviewed participants were more likely to act naturally and be more responsive to questions. Simultaneously, the researcher was cautious to maintain neutrality and objectivity of the study.

1.8.3. Data Collection Techniques

In dealing with any real life problem, it is often found that data at hand are inadequate, and hence, it becomes necessary to collect data that are appropriate. Both primary and secondary sources of data were consulted in this research to obtain the required data for conducting the research. Most of the information pertaining to the secondary data sources was obtained from published and unpublished government documents, different researches, magazines, pamphlets, etc. Primary data about the role of local government in combating human trafficking was collected directly from government officials, individuals and community members who are directly affected and involved in human trafficking. Different qualitative data gathering techniques were used to obtain the primary or first-hand information directly from the informants. In order to collect reliable data and check the validity of the data collected by each data collection techniques, a combination of the following qualitative data collection tools were employed in the research. The data was collected from the informants in Amharic and later translated in to English.

1.8.3.1. In-depth interview

In-depth interviews were conducted with selected interviewees who are from both stratum of governing (sub-city and *woreda*). Interviewees are selected according to their expertise in the subject under investigation. Therefore, it is more or less like targeted interview, as it only targeted those with the right information or knowledge on issues studied. (See: annex I for the detail information of interviewees). Hence, semi-structured key informant interviews were conducted with selected government officials in order to supplement and triangulate the primary data gathered from the governmental officials'

respondents with expert analysis of these professionals. With each interviewee, I would spend a minimum of 40 minutes and a maximum of 60 minutes for the interview.

1.8.3.2. Document Analysis

An assessment of documents, data gathering instrument which the researcher used carefully examine the role of local governments and human trafficking. The main documents used in the analysis from published and unpublished materials that are available in the form of directives, rules, regulations, proclamation, Annual reports and other relevant documents will be critically analysed. Thus these secondary sources will be consulted in addition to the information gained through the primary sources.

1.8.3.3. Focus Group Discussions

Focus Group Discussions were employed to generate qualitative data to supplement data obtained through in-depth and key-informant interviews. Totally two (2) FGDs were conducted at wereda. The Composition of the discussant groups includes local communities, returnees, family members of returnees and government officials. In order to avoid potential threatening effect on the authenticity of the information gathered through this method, the group has been made to be homogeneous in terms of sex. On the other hand the diversity of the group in terms of their status helped to have deep and broad insight on the issues. All the discussions were held with the help of checklists and guidelines to facilitating the discussion. An important question were provided, directed and redirected by the researcher as moderator, so as to smooth the progress of the discussion. The researcher has benefited a lot, from the FGD, in acquiring indispensable information about the entire process of human trafficking and the role of local governments. The discussion was held on, February, 2018. The researcher has benefited a lot, from the FGD, in acquiring indispensable information about the entire process of human trafficking and the role of local governments. One FGD team held from *wereda* anti human trafficking core committee and other FGD team from community members was arranged. Each group composed of eight focus group participants.

1.8.4. Sampling Techniques

In qualitative research, samples are mostly chosen deliberately in which the manner is known as purposive sampling. This is to have those who can yield the most relevant and

plentiful data to the topic under study (Kothari, 2004:15; Yin, 2011: 88). Accordingly the researcher utilised purposive sampling and selected participants consciously. In this research, purposive sampling technique is used since it is more appropriate than other sampling techniques; Trochim (2005) asserted that purposive sampling enables researchers to quickly reach the targeted sample in conditions where proportionality of samples is not a primary concern. The researcher believed that the necessary information about the subject matter should be gathered from different personalities, Addis Ababa city Administration, and Addis Ketema Sub-city wereda seven. Generally people will be purposefully selected from the above category of people out of which will be directly involved in the interview and focus group discussion. These categories of people will be selected in order to get first-hand information about the research problem as they have a direct relation and experience. During the selection of participants for an interview, I will be taking considering their awareness of the situation, duties and responsibilities.

In this particular study, 21 key informants were interviewed for 30-80 minutes each. These key informants are representatives of the BoLSA, Youth and Sport Affairs, Women and child Affairs, local administration, police officers, Bureau of justice, Labour and social affair offices of *sub city*, Wereda anti trafficking core committee and NGOs. Additionally, and 2 focus group discussions were held with wereda core committee and community residents of the study area for 80-100 minutes for each.

1.8.5. Methods of Data Analysis

This study considered the role of local governments in combating human trafficking in their autonomous discretionary powers. Accordingly, Ethiopian anti-human trafficking legal frameworks are assessed in line with the practical implementation of local governments. Careful attention is given to how human trafficking is defined in Ethiopian federal system. Then it looks into the way local governments have been legitimized and coordinated to counter it. Current anti-human trafficking discourses and approaches of governance structures are critically analyzed at local practice i.e. discourse analysis. With regard to the local practice, the research focus on assessing how the anti-human trafficking discourses are functioning at the local level particularly in Addis ketema sub- city administration *Wereda seven*, and whether the practical actions truthfully represent to the intended objectives in the

legal frameworks, and whether the actors are committed to implement the planned anti-human trafficking responses.

After collecting the necessary data, the next task that needs to be done was the categorizing, combining, synthesizing, and thereby analysing of the collected data. Before the actual analysis of the data, the collected data was sorted and categorized in accordance to its source and type. For the purpose of clarity and convenience some selected data collected by each data collection technique was transcribed, compiled and further elaborated in to meaningful. Above all, the whole collected data was analyzed in thematically organized way by pursuing to the original descriptions of the field notes so as to infer meanings and generalizations. Hence, all the data that was collected using local language-Amharic and by taking a great care to maintain the originality and clarity of information while translating it into English. In line with this, the researcher makes descriptive presentation of the data in a reflexive manner whilst keeping its original content. Thus, in the data presentation and analysis process, the direct voices of the study subjects are in use. Soon after completion the collected data were analysed in thematically organized way pursuing to the original descriptions of the field notes so as to infer meanings and conclusions.

1.9. Ethical Considerations

The researcher avoids any contravention to the laws, values, social principles, and norms of the society under investigation. The necessary ethical cares were carefully taken by the researcher throughout the interaction between the researcher and the people directly and indirectly participate/affected in the study. This is because the well-being of research participants is the researcher's peak priority on top of the research questions. Thus, respondents were treated in full respect and the identity of the participants will kept confidential for the sake of their security and safety. Additionally, they have informed that an effort will be made by the researcher to avoid the potential risks may appear following their contact with the researcher and that they have a right to not give any information to the researcher and have the right to withdraw from the interview at any time they feel discomfort.

1.10. Organization of the study

This thesis is organized in five chapters. The introductory part deals with background, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, scope of the study, research design, limitation of the study and organization of the study. The second chapter deals with the

conceptual and theoretical framework used for analysing findings. Chapter two is all about review of related literature, conceptual framework and theoretical framework of the study. Its aim is to broaden the understanding of global human trafficking, challenges and responses. Chapter three analyses the existing human trafficking and local governments in Ethiopia. In chapter four the practical role of local governments are examined in the study area. And then chapter five provides the summary of major findings, conclusion and suggested recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

2. Global, Regional and National contexts of Human Trafficking and Theoretical Frameworks

2.1. Introduction

This chapter deals with the review of related and relevant literatures in order to lay the theoretical framework of the study. The major areas of the chapter include the general overview of human trafficking, its challenges, root causes. And this study is also concerned with domestic and cross border human trafficking. Accordingly, the researcher could review adequate literature in the issue. In this chapter the key concept of the study, human trafficking has been clarified, the major strategies to counter human trafficking have been conceptualized and the theoretical approaches to counter human trafficking was discussed.

2.2. Human Trafficking: Global perspectives

2.2.1. Definition of Concepts of Human Trafficking

In order to mobilize effective effort to prevent and combat human trafficking, a core working definition is essential. The definition must be broad enough “to protect victims from the full range of exploitation involved including economic exploitation through labour, sexual exploitation, illegal adoption and recruitment of children into armed conflict” and, at the same time, able to target the multiple perpetrators of the abuse (UNICEF, 2005: 2).

Though trafficking in human beings is an age-old phenomenon, it was not until December 2000 that the international community reached a consensus on a common normative definition on trafficking in human beings, in the UN Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons. For the purposes of this research, the definition of trafficking in the UN trafficking protocol remains a core reference. The crime of human trafficking is stipulated in Article 3(a) of the 2000 Anti-Trafficking Protocol and defines trafficking in persons as follows;

The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the

purpose of exploitation. Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs.

The definition of human trafficking contains three core elements; the act, the means and the purpose. Each of the elements shall all be present for it to constitute as human trafficking. As clearly identified in the Protocol, the three constituent elements of human trafficking are:

1. **An action** – that includes recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring, or receipt of persons.
2. **A means** – which means the use of force, coercion, deception, fraud, abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability, and
3. **A purpose** – that intends for exploitation (UNDOC, 2009:2).

The third element constitutes at the least amount, “the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs” (Article 3(a) of the Anti-Trafficking Protocol). Article 3(b) of the Anti-Trafficking Protocol further stipulates that, it is not possible for a victim to consent to the crime of human trafficking. To put differently, the consent of a victim is irrelevant in a situation where any of the core elements listed above is present.

‘Human Trafficking is a form of modern-day slavery and is the second largest criminal industry in the world after drug trading.’ The United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children define ‘human Trafficking as the recruiting, transporting and harbouring of persons by use of threat, force or deception for the purpose of exploitation.’ Traffickers take advantage of vulnerable persons with false promises or physical abduction, forcing them into contract for slavery, forced labor and sexual trafficking.’

According to the U.S. Department of State Trafficking in Persons Report 2017, ‘worldwide convictions of human traffickers listed in this year’s report were fewer than 10,000, while estimates of the number of victims of human trafficking remain in the tens of millions.’ The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime maintains a public case law database with more than 1,400 human trafficking cases from around the world as well as a case digest to assist criminal law and other practitioners interested in how evidentiary issues are addressed in other jurisdictions.

According to United Methodist Women, 2017, ‘Human Trafficking is not only one of the world’s most prevalent forms of criminal activity, but arguably the most degrading, plundering on the most vulnerable members of society’. More than 20 million people are trafficked throughout the world, and reports indicate that more people are victims of labor trafficking than for commercial sex. Women and children are the most affected by this complex web of bondage that robs them of their youth and dignity (United Methodist Women, 2017). Human Trafficking is ‘a crime fuelled by global poverty, inadequate education and opportunity, ethnic discrimination, social inequality between men and women, and demand for cheap labor and cheap sex.’ It is a crime that transcends culture, class and geography (Ibid).

2.3. Actors of Human Trafficking

Human trafficking involves a high contingent of role players from diversified backgrounds. Shelley (2010: 83) states that “A diversity of actors participates in human trafficking, ranging from diplomats and employees of multinational organizations who traffic young women for domestic labor to small-scale entrepreneurs, to members of the large criminal organizations of Asia that specialize in human smuggling and trafficking”. The process of human trafficking involves different actors. The person who involves in the activity by trafficking human beings is referred as trafficker.

In the beginning of the chain of trafficking especially in the process of recruiting, the trafficker can be a person or a group of local network or elites. Organized crime organizations are often involved in the transnational trafficking of persons across international borders. In addition to local brokers or traffickers police officers, border guards, immigration personnel, and relatives and families of trafficking victims are also among the main actors that involved in the trafficking of children, women, and men (Shelley 2010: 84-85).

Variety of actors are involved in human trafficking, including family members, school teachers, police officers, soldiers, retired and active government officials, and returned migrants. According to an information guide prepared by ILO (2003: 27) to prevent discrimination, exploitation and abuses of migrant workers, the actors involved in the trafficking cycle are categorized in to *private actors, public actors and clients*. According to this information guide a variety of private actors including, including transportation, tourism,

media/communications, entertainment and legal are involved in the networks that facilitate and maintain trafficking for sexual and labor exploitation. Such private actors as taxi and truck driver, hotels and motels, the media and the legal profession, and owners and managers of bars, night clubs and brothels highly participate and provide support services for traffickers in the movement of children, women and men to and between places of exploitation.

According to the above information guide of ILO clients and public actors such as immigration police and other public servants are among the major actors of the trafficking cycle. Public servants participate in trafficking by providing false birth certificates and documents, arranging for illegal border crossing and protecting brothel and bar owners from prosecution. On the other hand trafficking would be dissolved if there is no a high demand for sexual services and cheap labor on the side of the clients. Thus, clients are one actor that indirectly participates in the trafficking by creating the demand for cheap labor and sexual service (ILO 2003: 27).

2.4. The challenges of human trafficking on Global dimension

The systems of human trafficking are diverse and to a large extent complicated in dimension calling for an integrated approach. In most cases, the structural factors of human trafficking are similar to one another such as the underlying economic and social context but in the larger context its patterns are varied and depend on geographical and regional locations (Cameron and et al., 2008). Globally, an estimated 12.3 million people are enslaved (ILO, 2005). Out of this number, an estimated 2.5 million people are in forced labor (coerced prostitution and sexual exploitations). Out of the 2.5 million mentioned above, an estimated 1.4 million people constituting approximately 56% of victims in forced labor come from Asia and the Pacific. 250,000, constituting about 10%, come from Latin America and the Caribbean, 230,000 or 9.2% come from the Middle East and Northern Africa, 130,000 or about 5.2% come from sub-Saharan Africa, 270,000 or about 10.8% are from industrial countries such as the US and Western Europe. And 200,000 or about 8% come from countries in transitions or weakened states plunged by conflicts (ILO, 2007). At least about 161 countries are engaged in human trafficking as source, transit and destination points (UNODC, 2006).

According to the UNICEF Child Trafficking Information Sheet 2003, an estimated 1.2 million children are trafficked each year. The majority are between the ages of 18-24, out of whom an estimated 95% of these victims have experience physical or sexual violence while being trafficked. Out of this percentage, about 43% of victims are used for forced commercial sexual exploitation, the majority of whom involves women and children (IOM, 1999-2006).

According to Kevin Bales (2004), in today's world, people get rich off of slaves by using them until they are physically and mentally worn out, become sick or die. This is what Bales refers to as "the new slavery which focuses on big profits and cheap lives" (Bales, 2004: 4). Bales states that, today, slavery is "not about owning people in a traditional sense of the old slavery, but about guiding them completely" (ibid). The International Labor Organization (2009), states that approximately 2.5 million persons are trafficked each year. Individuals of both genders and of all ages are trafficked. It estimated that about 80 percent of slaves on the global market today are female and that "up to 50 percent are under the age of 18" (Kapstein, 2006: 105).

The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime states in its 2009 Global Report on Human Trafficking that, in most of the cases reported, 'victims were trafficked across international borders' (UNODC, 2009: 11). Long distance flows include the trafficking of East Asian persons to Europe, the Americas, the Middle East, Central Asia, and Africa; the trafficking of Africans to locations in Europe and North America; the trafficking of Latin Americans to North American and Europe; the trafficking of Central European, Eastern European and Central Asian to Europe and the Middle East; and the trafficking of South Asian individuals to the Middle East. Domestic trafficking appears to be more limited than international trafficking (UNODC, 2009: 59). This form of trafficking is likely most often reported under other offenses such as pandering or kidnapping. A number of factors hinder efforts to combat human trafficking. For example, the fight to eliminate human trafficking is complicated by the lack of a universal definition of the concept and lack of well-organized combating mechanisms in the host country.

2.5. Human Trafficking and Smuggling Nexus

Even though the distinction between human trafficking and smuggling of migrants are different, the terms are often used interchangeably. Yet, it has been recognized that the generally accepted definition of human trafficking provided for in Article 3 of the Anti-Trafficking Protocol has facilitated in clearing up this confusion (Council of Europe Experts Group, 2004: 47). The definition of smuggling is established in Article 3(a) of the Anti-Smuggling Protocol and is described as follows; “smuggling of migrants shall mean the procurement, in order to obtain, directly or indirectly, a financial or other material benefit, of the illegal entry of a person into a State Party of which the person is not a national or a permanent resident.”

In the case of smuggling, the purpose of the crime is to facilitate the illegal crossing of borders for unlawful entry into a state. Thus, a key distinguishing element between human trafficking and smuggling is the existence of a victim, a person whose individual rights have been violated (Council of Europe Experts Group, 2004: 48). Nonetheless, and it is difficult to determine whether a person has been smuggled or trafficked in practice. Furthermore, there are also instances where a person is willingly smuggled but is in fact being trafficked or in some situations smuggling can during the process turn into trafficking. Consequently, it is difficult to determine whether the purpose of the movement is the facilitation of border crossing or exploitation of a victim until the journey is completed and the person has reached the final destination. Hence, the outcome of the crime is the determining factor when distinguishing between the two (Lee, 2007: 11). Further, with regards to movement, another distinguishing element between human trafficking and smuggling is that smuggling is always transnational in character whereas trafficking also occurs within a state, never crossing any borders (Council of Europe Experts Group, 2004: 48)

From the above explanations, one can understand that, with regards to human trafficking, the core purpose is always exploitation whereas with smuggling the aim is solely to facilitate border crossing for monetary gain and the smugglers task usually end when the person has reached the final destination. However, there have been many reports of smuggled migrants being abused, left stranded or been killed both during the journey and after they have reached their destination. Thus, the crimes of human trafficking and smuggling of migrants sometimes overlap or transform during the process of movement

(Lee, 2007: 11). Confusion continues to exist in clearly demarcating a line between human trafficking and human smuggling. In contrast to trafficked persons, smuggled individuals are “partners, however unequal, in a commercial transaction” (Gallagher, 2001: 25). Once a smuggled individual arrives at his or her destination, their relationship with the smuggler is terminated. Gallagher clarifies that, in contrast to smuggled persons, “the movement of trafficked persons is based on deception or coercion and is for the purpose of exploitation” (ibid).

According to Gallagher (2001), most smuggled migrants are men while most trafficked persons are women and children. The entanglement of trafficking, smuggling, and irregular migration have made it difficult to persuade governments to treat human trafficking as a human rights issue that should be dealt with the same way as any other human rights violation would be. As Gallagher notes, in many cases it seems that human trafficking is not an issue on states’ agendas because of humanitarian concerns but rather their “attempts to counter trafficking and smuggling seem to be motivated by a growing intolerance of all forms of irregular migration” (Gallagher, 2001: 25). Thus, it tends to be easier for law enforcement agents to treat all irregular migrants taken into custody as though they are simply illegal immigrants who need to be sent back from where they came, rather than to investigate the situation of those individuals to determine exactly how they came to be in their respective situations and then provide them with the necessary services. Indeed, it is often difficult to categorize an irregular migrant as either a smuggled or a trafficked person, particularly because it is common that the person in question does not know his or her status.

According to Bhabha (2005: 4) “at the point of departure and at multiple stages of the journey, it may be unclear which category of irregular migration is at issue trafficking or smuggling”. States tend to focus on the point of departure as an indicator of whether a person has been smuggled or trafficked. This is problematic because a person may consent to illegal transport across borders for work. If that person, however, arrives at his or her destination to a situation in which they face violence, abuse, threats, coercion, and exploitation then that person is no longer a smuggled migrant he or she is a victim of trafficking. Smuggling is considered a crime against the State because it requires the illegal entry and crossing of borders and thus violating States’ laws and sovereignty (IGAD, 2015). Victims can be trafficked within their country of origin and can be trafficked across borders

as well. Smuggling and trafficking share many similarities and sometimes overlap. In many cases, those that involve African migrants, refugees, and asylum seekers from the Horn of Africa in particular, the process begins as smuggling but transforms to trafficking towards the end of the journey. They have the same criminal networks systems and profitable business involvements (IGAD, 2015).

The Amharic word “*delala*” means agent/middleman/broker, but is also used for people who facilitate migration or smuggle migrants across a border. *Delala* does not carry the crime-related connotations as the words “smuggler” or “trafficker” do and is also used for arranging housing, cars and other legal services. In this context, Fernandez finds that migrants do not always recognise the difference between legal and illegal brokers. This makes it necessary to emphasise that brokers can in some cases provide legal migration abroad, but also be involved in migrant smuggling and therefore also be seen as smugglers. In this case, the term “brokers” is used to describe those who arrange the smuggling operation (and may also be involved in the transport), while “smugglers” is used to denote those who manage or conduct the smuggling operation. More information on smuggler organisation in Ethiopia is included in the sub-section “Supply side: smugglers and their organisation” (Fernandez, B. (2013)).

Table 1: Key differences between trafficking and smuggling

	Trafficking	Smuggling
1. How money is made(territory)	Exploitation of victim in destination country	Helping people cross borders illegally, and also the procurement of illegal residence
2.Consent(agreement)	Potential victim agrees to travel on basis of false information	Client agrees to travel with full information about journey, destination and costs
3.Relationships	Trafficker victim relationship continues in Country of destination	Smuggler-Client.- there is generally a commercial relationship between smuggler and migrant, which ends after illegal border crossing achieved and fee paid

Source: Adopted by: IGAD, 2015

2.6. Root Causes of Human Trafficking

Several factors can be mentioned as the root causes of human trafficking. However, for the sake of simplicity, they can be categorized into two as push and pull factors.

2.6.1. Pull Factors

‘Pull factors’ are those that pull individuals into situations that result in trafficking. One pull factor identified by Hughes (2000) is globalization. Expanding economic, political, and social transnational linkages created by globalization are often beyond local and state control. Specifically, Hughes states that;

An important component of globalization is the transnational linkages created by migration. Members of organized crime rings establish contacts with willing collaborators in Diaspora communities throughout the world and work within migrating populations to build transnational criminal networks. Increased migration also serves as a cover for traffickers in transporting [persons] (Hughes, 2000: 2).

Hughes also points to computer communication technologies as another important component of globalization that contributes to an increase in human trafficking by enabling “the increased volume and complexity of international financial transactions, which increases opportunities for transnational crime and decreases the probability of detection and apprehension” (ibid: 2). This technological component allows the profits made from the trafficking in persons to be transferred and laundered.

The “human stain” of modern slavery and the global trafficking of human beings “is a product of the same political, technological, and economic forces that have fuelled globalization” (Kapstein (2006: 103). He refers to the system of globalization as one of the “flaws in our contemporary economic and governmental arrangements”. According to Kapstein, it is this flawed system that provides criminals and “outlaw states” with incentives to engage in activities like human trafficking while failing to sanction such behaviour through legislation and enforcement, allowing organized criminal groups to operate within and between states, sometimes with the aid of state and local governments paid by criminals to look the other way. The profits from trafficking are high; traffickers and slaveholders have plenty of money to pay off police and government officials (Kapstein, 2006: 107).

Organized crime is more active in developing nations as Bales states (2004). “In Europe and North America, the police fight organized crime; in Thailand the police are organized crime” (Bales, 2004: 29). In areas where government corruption is the rule rather than the exception, trafficking in humans is a relatively low-risk endeavour since it is difficult to recognize and so well hidden. In addition, in many countries penalties for trafficking in persons carries weaker penalties than trafficking in drugs or weapons. Thus government corruption plus feeble penalties create a sustainable environment for human trafficking.

2.6.2. Push Factors

‘Push factors,’ exist to perpetuate human trafficking. Push factors are generally economic. In areas of economic distress, particularly in underdeveloped countries or in areas of conflict, individuals are more likely to become victims of trafficking. Bales (2004: 30) states that, “on-going impoverishment” drives people into the hands of traffickers. According to Bales, “with economic destitution, traditional systems of family or community support for the vulnerable collapse and in these countries they are not replaced with any effective state welfare measures” (ibid: 30).

People in economically depressed areas are more likely to migrate in search of employment, or to seek out ways to provide better lives for their children, such as sending them away to work or go to school, thereby making them targets for traffickers. It is important to note that not all women who fall victim to traffickers are uneducated. Some are fairly well-educated and have legitimate work experience and professional qualifications. However, poor working conditions, low salaries, and lack of alternative employment opportunities drive them into traffickers' webs. This is not to say that individuals in more economically prosperous regions are not at risk of being trafficked. Indeed, anyone travelling abroad without the skills to safely navigate his or her journey could be at risk. However, those who migrate in search of employment are more likely to be trafficked due to the recruiting methods of traffickers that target migrants.

2.7. Responses of Combating Human Trafficking

An operational act to combat human trafficking requires a comprehensive response, including measures to prevent human trafficking, to protect victims, to prosecute traffickers as well as to coordinate and cooperate with stakeholders (Fukushima and et al., 2012: 7). The International Labor Organization recognizes that policies and mechanisms need to be put in place to regulate and manage present-day labour migration. According to ILO's Framework, comprehensive response to the issue of trafficking should integrate four main activities: prevention, protection, migration management improvement, and prosecution (ILO, 2006: 13–14).

2.7.1. Prevention

It is necessary to exert much effort for prevention activities, to control trafficking. This is especially true for women and children since they lack access to information on migration, job opportunities and legal recruitment networks (ILO, 2011). A comprehensive anti-human trafficking strategy should incorporate prevention programmes to be carried out by the government in cooperation with civil society. Moreover, the legislator must take care to harmonize related laws with anti-human trafficking legislations (UNODC, 2008: 417). States should also have strongly fought the complicity of corrupted public officials and discharge confidence in the rule of law (Nikos and *et al.*, 2004: 78; UNCTOC, 2000: arts. 23, 24, and 27).

A major incentive for labour trafficking is the lack, or inadequate application and enforcement of labour standards in countries of origin and destination, including respect for and consent to minimum working conditions. The fact that countries of origin and

destination tolerate restriction on ‘freedom of movement, long working hours, poor or inadequate health and safety protections, non-payment of wages, and substandard housing contribute to expanding a market for trafficked migrants who have no choice but to labour in conditions simply intolerable and unacceptable for legal employment’ (Taran, and *et al.*, 2002: 9).

Empowering at-risk and vulnerable persons through leadership development to eliminate poverty, underdevelopment and lack of economic opportunities, discouraging the demand that fosters all forms of exploitation and raising the awareness to inform the public about the dangers of human trafficking and provide potential victims with the possibilities for legal migration and enable them to make informed decisions are mandatory to prevent human trafficking (OHCHR, 2010: 99; OHCHR, 2014: 44)

To combat trafficking and to facilitate prevention, protection and prosecution, coordinated national responses should involve relevant stakeholders. Governmental institutions, judicial authorities, migration and asylum authorities, labour inspectors, NGOs, civil societies, private sectors, workers and employers organization, child and youth care providers, law enforcement, frontline police agencies, and specialist investigation units, should exchange information (UNODC, 2009: 45; Trafficking in Protocol, 2000: arts. 6, and 9).

2.7.2. Protection

In addition to preventive activities, the rights and well-being of victims should be protected in order to provide them with comprehensive and immediate services for the injuries and trauma they survived. The first step in the recognition of trafficked persons as victims entitled to human rights protection is their identification as such (Gallagher, 2010: 282). Since states are the first duty holders to protect and support those persons, states should provide guidelines and procedures for relevant state authorities and officials such as police, border guards, immigration officials and others involved in the detection, reception and processing issues of irregular migrants, to permit the rapid and accurate identification of trafficked persons (Nikos, and *et al.*, 2004: 280).

Victims who are provided with proper assistance and support on their return are less likely to be re-trafficked, less vulnerable to intimidation, retaliation, social isolation and stigmatization (OHCHR, 2010: 181). Since trafficked persons are treated as victims of a crime proper assistance and support for reintegration is a right owed to trafficked persons by virtue of their status as victims of crime of human rights violations (UNCTOC, 2000: art.

24). For this reason states shall establish appropriate procedures to provide access to compensate and re-integrate victims of human trafficking (Trafficking in Persons Protocol, 2000: art. 6/6; UNCTOC, 2000: art.25/2).

Re-integration refers to the process of recovery, economic and social inclusion following a trafficking experience. It goes beyond direct assistance. It provides for a victim's safe and sustainable reinsertion and normalization (Surtees, and de Kerchove, 2014: 67). Comprehensive and immediate services that should be available to victims include temporary shelter, medical and psychosocial care, legal aid, food, clothing, and safe voluntary return and reintegration (including vocational and skills training, micro-finance, and employment creation).

Re-integration could be successful as; sustainable in which the returnees actively participate in the process; being measurable to analyse the impact of a reintegration projects and to identify contributing factors and possible gaps; balanced and ensure the provided assistance is meaningful to address vulnerabilities and avoids creating tensions in the local community; complementary to avoid duplication of efforts; comprehensive to address to the needs of vulnerable groups requiring long-term assistance and; break new grounds through innovative ideas, such as collaboration with countries, private sectors, foundations, development actors and the diasporas (Fonseca, et al., 2015: 13-39).

2.7.3. Prosecution

Prosecution is a necessary element for governments to eradicate human trafficking. Although the UN Trafficking Protocol consists of a mandatory provision to criminalize traffickers, the crime remains largely under-prosecuted and unpunished. Prosecution-related activities include implementation of specific anti-trafficking laws, provision of training of police officers, lawyers, and judges to effectively respond to trafficking and the establishment of special anti-trafficking police units (UNIAP, 2014). “States have a responsibility under international law to act with due diligence to investigate, prosecute, and adjudicate human trafficking” (OHCHR, 2010: 77). The standard of due diligence is set out in the International Law Commission’s Articles on the Responsibility of States for Internationally Wrongful Acts, which is widely accepted as customary international law.

In some countries, the assets of traffickers are confiscated and used to fund victim assistance programmes (IOM, 2006: 11). ‘Effective response should provide with victims adequate protection and prevent their deportation to their country of origin in return for them to provide evidence for the prosecution of traffickers or criminal networks’ (IOM, 2006).

‘Given the fact that trafficking is a transnational problem, international cooperation is an essential component of an effective prosecution’. It is critical that countries of origin, transit, and destination work together to ensure that adequate evidences are gathered for effective prosecution, and comprehensive and immediate services are provided to victims to ensure that they fully and effectively participate in the prosecution of traffickers (ibid).

2.8. Human Trafficking in Africa

In recent years, there has been a significant consideration of trafficking in Africa in general and the sub Saharan African region in particular as a real challenge. However, a study by UNICEF (2005) notes that, the severity differs from one part of the region to the other. According to this study, whereas trafficking is considered as either sever or very severe problem in more than 70% of west and central Africa countries, it is identified as so in 33% of east and southern African countries. Moreover, in comparison, it is less severe in the eastern & southern sub region than the western sub-region. As the northern sub region of Africa, there is limited information on trafficking and low level of awareness (UNICEF, 2005: 8). Some of the regional instruments that are important for the anti-trafficking effort are African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights (1981) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990).

2.9. Theoretical Frameworks

Theory is a way of looking at facts, and an account of some empirical phenomenon. Researchers can construct a theoretical framework to help them explain, understand, or predict some phenomenon from different epistemological persuasions. All theoretical account consist at least two elements: “concepts and relationships among the concepts”. A number of authors have noted that there is no consistent theoretical framework that structure and/or analyze human trafficking researches. Consequently, the existing approaches are often based on researchers’ individual preference in relation to their own particular focus of attention (Lutya, 2012:557). The general set-up in countering cross-border human trafficking has been characterized by different approaches. An approach may be a researcher’s choice of the types of concepts and types of relationships among the concepts that they use to construct theoretical frameworks.

2.9.1. Prevailing Theoretical Concepts in Human Trafficking

Apart from the description of the factors, processes, as well as the routes, human trafficking is not theorized sufficiently (Emser, 2013: 92; Gozdzia, 2008: 9; Morehouse, 2009: 74; Saad, and Salman, 2014: 67). A number of authors have noted that there is no consistent theoretical framework that structure and/or analyse human trafficking researches. Consequently, the existing approaches are often based on researchers' individual preference in relation to their own particular focus of attention (Lutya, 2012: 557).

Recent literature regarding human trafficking has outlined the deficits in the existing theoretical concepts used to describe the phenomenon. Christal Morehouse, author of *Combating Human Trafficking: Policy Gaps and Hidden Political Agendas in the USA and Germany*, argues that most approaches focus on prevention, prosecution, and protection while other approaches are more concerned with the causes of human trafficking. However, as Morehouse points out, "these descriptions are too narrow and would be insufficient theoretical frameworks" (Morehouse, 2009:74) There are different main theories that dominate the theoretical framework of human trafficking. These theories describe human trafficking as either a consequence of forced labor, a by-product of migration facilitated by organized crime, or an outcome of prostitution.

The relationships between human trafficking and forced labor primarily focus on the International Labor Organization (ILO) develops the forced labor framework. The ILO explicitly states in its report entitled "ILO Action against Trafficking in Human Beings" in 2008 that it addresses the issue through a labor market perspective (ILO, 2008). As a result, it focuses on resolving poverty and improving the terms and conditions of employment in order to respond to the phenomenon of human trafficking.

It is undeniable that the process of globalization has become a pronounced and entrenched feature of the current world economy. Accordingly, globalization has not only facilitated human trafficking but has also impeded state-led counter-trafficking efforts. State-centered approaches to combat trafficking are proving obsolete and futile since human trafficking knows no state boundaries. It is for this reason that international cooperation is considered of utmost importance. As a result, ILO conventions such as the Convention concerning Migration in Abusive Conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers (No.143) calls on states to cooperate in order to implement

national and international initiatives. The other prevailing approach to human trafficking is that which looks at human trafficking as the result of prostitution. The US Department of State published ‘The Link between Prostitution and Sex Trafficking’ in which it states “where prostitution is legalized or tolerated, there is a greater demand for human trafficking victims and nearly always an increase in the number of women and children trafficked into commercial sex slavery” (US Department of State, 2007:27).

This approach is significant insofar as it sheds light on the most prevalent form of labor in which Victims of Trafficking (VOTs) are exploited. However, there is literature that critiques the correlation established by the USA. In 2007, Germany published a report regarding its legalization of prostitution in which it is explicitly stated that legalizing prostitution has “disproved unsubstantial claims that organized crime and human trafficking increase when prostitution is legalized”(Morehouse, 2009:75). In this part I adopted rational choice theory and efficiency models/theories to reinforce the challenges of local government administration in Ethiopia and the relevance of comparative study in overcoming the challenges though other theories such as integrate, accountability and functional models are often applicable.

2.9.2. Efficiency Theory

This theory/model premises the existence of local government as an efficient agent of government for providing services that are local in character. Mackenzie (1954:14) cited in Adeyemo (2010) and Chukwuemeka et al., (2014) noted that one of the notable proponents of the existence of LG is that local government exists to provide services and it must be judged....by its success in providing services up to a standard measured by national inspectorate. This same line of thought was found in the works of Sharpe (1970:168) that given that there is no local government; a functionally similar body must be in existence to provide services that are local in nature. This explains why Eboh & Diejomaoh (2010) adds that local governments worldwide are considered as strategic institutions for the provision, among others, basic socio-economic needs.

This could be understood from the perspective that the size and spread of a nation particularly those that are large and heterogeneous in composition may not be able to rely on the central and regional government to effectively meet up with needs that are local in nature. In effect, local government may effectively and efficiently respond to local need. This theory therefore notes that LG may not justify its existence if it fails to provide needed

service within its scope of competence effectively (Alao, David Oladimeji, et al. (2015, pp. 61-79).

2.10. Conclusion

The literature review illustrates that, despite all the effort made so far by international, governmental and non-governmental organizations, human trafficking within the country and across border is growing in Ethiopia. It would seem that a more comprehensive effort is required to address the problem. Hence, the aim of this study is to contribute to this process by gathering valuable information on the role of local governments to combating trafficking. This research will focus on the role of local governments, something that has not yet been addressed as per existing literature. Furthermore, the study will focus on trying to understand the severe problems of human trafficking in Ethiopia, There is no or very little attention given in the existing literature to the governmental combating mechanisms. This study is an attempt to initiate an exploration of these issues.

CHAPTER THREE

3. An overview of human trafficking and Local governments in Ethiopian Federal system

3.1. Introduction

Currently human trafficking is a significant challenge in Ethiopian federal government. A country can be origin, transit and /or destination or all three for the crime of human trafficking. According to the US Department of State's trafficking on persons (2017) report, Ethiopia is a source and, to a lesser extent, destination and transit country for men, women, and children subjected to forced labor and sex trafficking (US Department of State, 2017). Often trafficked women are "lured by false promises of good jobs, high salaries and a comfortable life" (Kebede 2002: 6). Although the exact number of victims of trafficking is not, available data show that it is significantly higher than official figures suggests. To show how simple and cheap trafficking of Ethiopia is, Beydoum concluded that; unskilled, trafficked person from Ethiopia have become the most accessible and affordable for patrons, and most lucrative for traffickers. Illegal trafficking from Ethiopia is nothing short of big business culprits that look to exploit Ethiopian girls and women can expect to earn seven thousand Ethiopian birr (more than US\$ 800) for each subject they send to Lebanon, the most popular destination (Beydoum, 2006).

In spite of that, effective anti-human trafficking responses entail appropriate setting of local governments. Accordingly, this chapter analyses the situation of internal and external trafficking, determinant factors undergoing anti-human trafficking efforts in Ethiopia particularly, International and regional instruments ratified by Ethiopia (related to human trafficking) are also included. It is essential to consider Ethiopian's federal system in assessing whether certain promising anti-human trafficking practices from other countries would work in Ethiopia. Some of the anti-trafficking measures proposed will raise questions related to the division of governmental powers and responsibilities in Ethiopia, which will need to be fully explored in order to respect federal/provincial/territorial responsibilities, are discussed.

3.2. Federalism and human trafficking

Federal systems cherish equality between central and unit governments, where both levels derive authority directly from the constitution (Watts 1995:3). Robert A. Dahl (1986:114) calls it a dual sovereignty system, "in which some matters are exclusively within the

competence of certain local units' cantors, states, provinces and are constitutionally beyond the scope of the authority of the national government, and where certain other matters are constitutionally outside the scope of the authority of the smaller units." Federalism is a system of governance of voluntary self- and shared-rule with the main aspiration being to maintain regional integrity and individual identity within a covenant of binding partnership among co-equals (Kincaid 2002:7). It is constitutionalized power-sharing where decentralization of government is essential to maintain harmony and where institutions balance each other also known as checks and balances (Elazar 1995:11). The distribution of powers within federalism is a formal acknowledgement and means of respecting a country's unique regional diversity. It aspires to maintain harmony by balancing both power and interest of the subnational level while at the same time maintaining unity of the state (Watts 2002:450–451).

As an example, Canada's federal system is important to consider in assessing whether certain promising antihuman trafficking practices from other countries would work in Canada. The federal parliament and the provincial legislative assemblies in Canada are independent with respect to certain areas of legislative authority, while other areas hold shared jurisdiction and responsibility. As a general matter, addressing the needs of victims one of the foci of this report is an area of shared responsibility between the federal and provincial governments (Department of Justice, 2003 pp.4). While victim services and assistance exist in all provinces and territories, certain other programs, measures and initiatives targeting victims of crime are administered federally, such as the temporary residence permits for internationally trafficked victims available from Citizenship and Immigration Canada ("CIC") (Citizenship and Immigration Canada, 2010:5). Programs and initiatives focused on the prevention of human trafficking crimes the other focus of this report will likewise need to be evaluated to determine whether they should be administered by the provinces or the federal government, or whether they could similarly be an area of shared responsibility (Canadian Constitution Act, 1982, ss. 91 (27), 92 (13)).

In order to prevent trafficking, it is first essential to understand how severe the problem is in a country and who is vulnerable to becoming a victim of the offense. Collecting further information on trafficking is the first step to setting up effective victim services. Unfortunately, this information is not easy to come by in different countries both because there is a lack of reliable data and because of the fragmented character of information that is available.

In Canada, The federal government funds non-governmental organizations and cooperates with international bodies on developing promising practices (Department of Justice, Victim Issues, and 2003:4). Finally, Canada has led public awareness programs via web-based information, booklets, posters, pamphlets and community discussion (Department of Justice, Trafficking in Persons, 2009:6). The provinces and territories also administer numerous programs and services that may be available to trafficking victims.

As a Rapporteur's independence a Canadian Rapporteur could be an independent officer of Parliament, as in the Dutch model (Dutch National Rapporteur, 2000). This independence will serve to increase the Rapporteur's access to information from the provinces and territories, federal government and law enforcement. This access is important because to be effective, he/she would need significant cooperation from federal, provincial, and territorial jurisdictions (Statistics Canadian federation, 2009:17). The Rapporteur could potentially collaborate with the Canadian Center for Justice Statistics ("CCJS") of Statistics Canada on data collection. Such collaboration may depend on the results of CCJS's recent feasibility study on whether a national data collection framework could be developed to measure the nature and extent of human trafficking in Canada. It is said that, a number of federalism considerations would still need to be explored (Statistics Canadian federation, 2009:18). Finally, Ethiopia as Canada has a federalist state structure with constitutional responsibility divided between the federal government and the regional and local governments sharing the best practice of Canada federal system for anti-human trafficking responses.

3.3. Internal Trafficking

According to Forum on Sustainable Child Empowerment (FSCE), internal trafficking of women and children is widespread throughout the country and even seems to be tolerated by the society. The main purposes of internal trafficking are to engage women and children as domestic workers and/or as weavers in the 'shema' industry (FSCE 2004). The report further shows that, a large number of women and children suffer from different types of inhuman abuses and exploitations as a result of trafficking within Ethiopia. Existing studies such as those by Bezabih (2008), Eshetu (2003), and Endeshaw, Gebeyehu, and Reta (2006) point out that trafficking of women and children from rural to urban areas is a prevalent and steadily increasing practice in the country. However, reliable and comprehensive data on the emergence and development of trafficking or the number of women and children who have fallen victim to trafficking in the country are not available in their communities (Endeshaw,

Gebeyehu, and Reta 2006). A study indicates that a substantial proportion of women and children are working as prostitutes, domestic workers, beggars, weavers in the traditional weaving industry, and children living on the streets are also victims of trafficking (FSCE 2004). Domestic human trafficking refers to the internal forms of human trafficking in a society or country (FSCE, 2004). Even though countries differ from one another in different parameters the problems associated with human trafficking in these regions remain the same. The main purposes of internal trafficking are to engage women and children as domestic workers and/or warring '*shema*'. Although reports remain subjective, According to US Department of State (2017) report;

The severe drought in 2015-2016 may have resulted in an increase in internal trafficking. Girls from Ethiopia's impoverished rural areas are exploited in domestic servitude and commercial sex within the country, while boys are subjected to forced labor in traditional weaving, construction, agriculture, and street vending. Addis Ababa's central market is the site of numerous brothels, where some young girls are exploited in commercial sex. Ethiopian girls are exploited in domestic servitude and commercial sex in neighbouring African countries, particularly Sudan. Ethiopian boys are subjected to forced labor in Djibouti as shop assistants, errand boys, domestic workers, and street beggars, in addition to forced criminality. Child sex tourism continues to be a problem in major hubs, including Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar, Hawassa, and Bishoftu; reports identify mostly Ethiopian-born perpetrators, including members of the Diaspora, with known links to local hotels, brokers, and taxi drivers (US Department of State, 2017: 168).

Research studies such as Bezabih, 2008; Eshetu, 2003 and Endeshw and et al., 2006 pointed out that trafficking of women and children from rural to urban areas is a prevalent and steadily increasing practice in the country. Endeshaw and et al. (2006) however show reliable and comprehensive data on the emergence and development of trafficking or the number of women and children who have fallen victim to trafficking in the country are not available in their communities. A study indicates that a substantial proportion of women and children are working as prostitutes, domestic workers, beggars, weavers in the traditional weaving industry. The study also noted that children living on the streets are also victims of trafficking (FSCE, 2004).

3.4. External Trafficking

As U.S Department of State trafficking in persons (2017) reported over the past five years, Ethiopia is a source and, to a lesser extent, destination and transit country for men, women, and children subjected to forced labour and sex trafficking. Scarce economic opportunities and dire poverty coupled with familial encouragement compels thousands of Ethiopians,

including a substantial percentage of minors, to transit, primarily via Djibouti or Somalia, to Yemen and onward to Saudi Arabia; to illegally cross the southern border into Kenya and further south into Tanzania with a final destination of South Africa; or, less commonly, to travel through Sudan and Libya with the hope of crossing the Mediterranean and ultimately reaching Europe (U.S Department of State trafficking in persons, 2017:167). Trafficking in persons primarily occurs on the Eastern and Northern migration routes while fewer cases have been reported on the Southern route IGAD Regional Consultative Process on migration (IGAD RCP, 2015). According to Pearson (2003), Ethiopia is mainly a source country for trafficking and young Ethiopian women are trafficked to Djibouti, Lebanon, the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, and Bahrain for domestic labor. Ethiopia is a major source country for labour migration to the Arabian Peninsula and Middle East.

The International Organization of Migration (2010) study report also indicated those Ethiopians become victims of external trafficking to the Middle East face labor exploitation, physical and emotional abuse, as well as sexual abuse and exploitation. The most recurrent forms of abuse are overworking, confinement, denial of wages, emotional abuse, beatings, sexual harassment and rape. The recurrent perpetrators of abuse are employers, agents and the police. Death, physical disability, psychological and health problems as well as imprisonment are the prevalent documented effects of abuse and exploitation.

However, there is a consensus that trafficking of human beings has become a widespread practice in the modern world. According to US State Department (2006), an estimated of 600,000 to 800,000 men, women and minors are trafficked across global borders every year, and of this number, around eighty percent of the women and girls are exposed to exploitative situations. Trafficking in Ethiopia, mostly takes the form of transporting migrants by fraud, deception and different forms of coercion (UNCJIN, 2010).

According to ILO and the Ethiopian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) figures, 100,000 regular Ethiopian labour migrants moved to Saudi Arabia in 2011. The study also expresses surprise that only a small proportion of migrants went through legally registered employment agencies, as compared to those who travelled through local brokers. The study further shows that from the small number of respondents it can be inferred that the majority of the migrant women were trafficked. The study concludes that this is a cause of concern, and the contribution of legal employment agencies in curbing the trafficking of women and children should be investigated. Moreover, the study further found that eighty

five percent of migrant women who were received by brokers at the destination countries were trafficked.

According to Human Right Watch (2010), the current Lebanese law does not permit domestic workers to leave their job without the consent of their employers. The report further shows the restrictive visa policies in Lebanon dissuade many domestic workers from pursuing grievances against their employers. The study by Tekle and Belayneh (2000) indicate that most victims of external trafficking are from the capital city, Addis Ababa. This is due to the fact that Addis Ababa is a metropolitan city and large numbers of people migrate there from different corners of the nation, mainly in search of jobs within and outside the country. Similarly, Agrinet (2004), points out that about seventy five percent of trafficked women to the Middle Eastern countries were from urban areas of Ethiopia.

3.5. Recruitment and Destination/Route

The trafficking cycle has captured the fact that the trafficking of persons is a criminal offense with crimes committed in the territory of different states and involves several actors at different stages beyond “victims” and “traffickers.” It includes both groups of individuals who are aware of the crime and those who unknowingly participate (Magliveras, 2013:13).

In Ethiopia, smugglers operate in Addis Ababa as brokers and agents. The brokers usually have a well-known reputation within the community, providing them with a good profile in the presence of potential migrants guaranteeing him/her clients (UNODC, 2010: 74). According to Terfassa, (2004) the recruitment of women and children for internal trafficking can take different forms. In most cases, traffickers use intermediaries who are known to the potential victim, and use promises of employment and education at the destination to deceive the victim or her/his family.

The study shows that traffickers may be local brokers, friends, relatives or even family members. The study further indicated cross-country bus drivers also recruit women and children for domestic labor and sexual exploitation and irrespective of who does the recruitment, the process involves deception, misrepresentation, and even force. A study show that the typical recruiter for external trafficking is a person who has returned from the country of destination, has relatives living in the country of destination, or frequently travels abroad for legitimate purpose. The study further shows that the person is either known to the victim’s family or works through a facilitator known to them (Agrinet, 2004). The study

conducted by Tekle and Belayneh (2000) also shows that most recruiters have some connection or businesses with countries in the Middle East and have either lived there or continue to travel there for work purposes.

According to Endeshaw and et al., (2006) internal trafficking routes more often overlap with ordinary routes for migration from rural to urban areas within the country. The study also shows the process of in-country trafficking of women and children is mostly not an organized activity, involving players entirely involved in trafficking. The same study further shows that a typical case of internal trafficking entails a person travelling to a rural area, ostensibly for local holiday or other purposes, and then recruiting and transporting an associate or a relative to a town where he or she lives. The above study added that mostly, the only general pattern that can be discerned relates to the movement of women and children from rural to urban centers and from one urban center to another, more often to larger urban centers.

3.6. Determinants of Trafficking in Ethiopia

The root causes of trafficking are multifaceted and often interconnected. Poverty, weak governance, armed conflict or lack of effective protection against discrimination and exploitation are some examples (Asefach, 2012). It is important to understand that each country presents specific factors or a combination of multiple factors that are unique to each situation. The causes are generally grouped into “push factors”. According to Endeshaw and et al. (2006) a large number of women and children are trafficked for all types of exploitation, including domestic labor, industrial and agricultural labor, begging, false marriage etc. This study will, however, maintain its focus specifically on the role of local governments to combat trafficking.

3.6.1. Push Factors

According to Human Right Watch report (2007) one of the most frequent explanations cited for the contribution of large numbers of women and girls in domestic works is poverty. While it is usually the first answer to this question, as poverty may be a principal catalyst, it cannot solely explain trafficking (Asefach, 2012:26). The report also indicates in most societies, women get the negligible share of resources. When incomes are constrained, it is the women who undergo most of the suffering first. The study further shows men are forced

to look for jobs outside agricultural labor, but women are left without any job at all. The study further revealed that women are left with little choice but to take extremely low paid, exploitative work as domestic servants, clothing factory workers, prostitutes, etc. (Bezabih, 2008). Hence, another study shows that the search for jobs or economic need seems to have great pressure on women and young girls to succumb to traffickers (Agrinet, 2004).

According to Bezabih (2008) in Ethiopia, the scope for employment opportunities and skill development, particularly for rural women, is minimal. Women have traditionally worked as unpaid family laborers in the society. Employment opportunities, access to land and credit facilities have traditionally been limited for women. The above study further added that there have been, however, increasing demands for the labor of women and young girls in the urban informal sector in recent years and a growing number of young women are involved in the workforce and as domestic servants in the urban areas. The study concluded that this trend of migration places women and young girls in vulnerable conditions and provides opportunities which traffickers can exploit.

3.6.2. Pull Factors

According to Bezabih (2008) the major pull factor is that the increasing demands of trafficking in persons in urban areas for domestic work. With the ever-increasing poverty and limited access to services in the rural areas, women and children are migrating to cities expecting better opportunities. On the other hand, another study states that large numbers of women have been deceived by false promises of traffickers of attractive jobs, towering salaries as well as promises of marriage and comfortable life and this numbers among the major pulling factors for trafficking (Kebede, 2002).

3.7. International and National Efforts to Combat Trafficking

3.7.1. International Treatises for Countering Human Trafficking

There is no international legal approach was adopted specifically to deal with human trafficking in general, until 2000 (Yuko 2009: 63). For instance, the application of the 1949 Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of others was specifically restricted to trafficking in women and minors (Gallagher 2001: 983; Yuko, 2009: 57). This neglected the fact that, men were also trafficked and that there are other purposes of trafficking alongside prostitution. Even

though human rights provisions prevail in the 1949 Convention, they have proven to be very insufficient to provide protection for the victims of trafficking (Yuko 2009:59). Anti-human trafficking efforts have grown greatly after the UN adopted the 2000 Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children (Ford et al:2011: 1). Ethiopia has also become a member to this Protocol in 2012. This Protocol defined trafficking as;

The recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation.

Exploitation shall include, at a minimum, the exploitation of the prostitution of others or other forms of sexual exploitation, forced labour or services, slavery or practices similar to slavery, servitude or the removal of organs (UN 2000: 42). Even though the Palermo Protocol stated above is relatively more comprehensive than its predecessors, because it explains trafficking purposes other than sexual exploitation and it contains more prominent human right provisions, it has some shortcomings as well. For example, while the Palermo Protocol acknowledges the abuse of human rights of victims, it focuses predominantly on criminal law and migration control and most of the human rights provisions are formulated rather softly. (Krieg 2009: 776).

3.7.2. National Efforts to Combat Trafficking

According to US Department of State (2016) report, the Government of Ethiopia does not fully meet the minimum standards for the elimination of trafficking; however, it is making significant efforts to do so. The IGAD, 2015 reports pointed to the Government of Ethiopia has ratified a variety of international instruments that provide for protection of migrants and victims of trafficking which are recognized as part of the country's fundamental law according to the Constitution (art 9-4).The report also states that a new Proclamation to "Provide for the Prevention and Suppression of Trafficking in Persons and Smuggling of Migrants" (No. 909/2015) was developed and endorsed by the Ethiopian Parliament in August 2015. This Proclamation has revised the legal definition of trafficking in persons and smuggling of migrants while providing for much harsher sanctions for the perpetrators of these crimes in order to strengthen the existing penal code (including fines of up to 500,000

birr and the death penalty in cases where victims suffer severe injury or death (Article,6). The law also provides immunity to victims of trafficking and proposes the formation of a national committee led by Ethiopia's deputy prime minister to coordinate ant-trafficking activities (IGAD, 2015).

The report further refers to the Government is also currently reviewing the Employment Exchange Services Proclamation (Proc. No. 632/2009) with the view to fill existing gaps and ensure strengthened labor migration management in the country. The Government has developed and endorsed national action plans directly and indirectly related to counter-trafficking and overall protection of migrants. These include: the Criminal Justice Policy (2011/12), The National human Rights Action Plan (2013-2015) and The National Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Persons (2015/6- 2020/1). The National Ant-human trafficking Taskforce (currently chaired by the Office of the Prime Minister) has further developed it into an implementation plan starting during the 2007/8 Ethiopian Fiscal year (ibid).

The Government also has conducting consultations to facilitate the signing/reviewing of bilateral labor agreements with major destination countries, mainly Saudi Arabia, Lebanon and the United Arab Emirates (IGAD, 2015). These agreements aim at ensuring the protection of Ethiopian migrant workers in these destinations. The recent effort of the government to sign a domestic workers' recruitment agreement to protect the rights of Ethiopian domestic workers in Saudi Arabia is one good example. The agreement, when signed, is expected to improve the lives of migrant domestic works with regard to ensuring their rights (ibid).

The IGAD (2015) report notes that the Government of Ethiopia has established a National Ant-Trafficking Council and Taskforce, which have been cascaded down at regional, zonal and district level. The Council has the mandate to coordinate counter trafficking and irregular migration prevention activities and enables a more efficient implementation and monitoring of prevention, protection and prosecution activities. The Council and Taskforce are headed by the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister at federal level and by the Presidents of the Regional States at regional level.

According to US Department of State (2017), although the government demonstrated increasing efforts by assisting in the interception of more than 30,000 individuals vulnerable to trafficking and convicted 640 traffickers, an increase from 69 convicted during the

previous year. The government made strong efforts to prevent and raise awareness on trafficking and trafficking related crimes through its community conversations project and media campaigns, and trained government officials on various elements of the crime. However, the government did not meet the minimum standards in several key areas. It did not sufficiently address internal trafficking, including child sex trafficking. It remained without standard procedures for frontline responders to proactively identify trafficking victims among vulnerable intending migrants. The US report notes that, for the second consecutive year, the government did not implement the revised overseas employment proclamation that provides for improved oversight of and more strenuously penalizes illegal recruitment (US Department of State 2017).

To combat human trafficking in Ethiopia it requires effective actions as comprehensive response, including preventing human trafficking, to protect victims, to prosecute traffickers as well as to coordinate and cooperate with stakeholders (Fukushima, et al., 2012:7). These strategies have proven as an effective strategic formula for counter-human trafficking and its success predicated on striking the right balance among them (UNODC, 2009:9). The three strategies are discussed below briefly.

3.7.2.1. Prosecution

The government increased its anti-trafficking law enforcement efforts; however, it continued to focus on transnational labor trafficking, with negligible investigation or prosecution of sex trafficking or internal forced labor cases. The 2015 Proclamation to provide for the Prevention and Suppression of Trafficking in Persons and Smuggling of Migrants, No. 909/2015, criminalizes all forms of trafficking, prescribing penalties of 15-25 years imprisonment and a fine of 150,000 to 300,000 birr (\$6,696 to \$13,393), which are sufficiently stringent and commensurate with those prescribed for other serious crimes, such as rape. The Employment Exchange Services Proclamation No. 632/2009, which governs the work of licensed labor recruitment agencies, remained unimplemented during the year.

In 2016, federal and regional justice officials investigated 1,392 potential trafficking cases and convicted 640 traffickers under the 2015 anti-trafficking law, a significant increase from 69 convictions in 2015; however, an unknown number fell outside the reporting period, and some cases in both years likely involved smuggling. A March 2015 investigation of two Ethiopian smugglers suspected of moving 38,000 Ethiopians, potentially including trafficking victims, to South Africa and the Middle East for unknown purposes, remained open.

Table 2: Ethiopia’s Migration Policy Response Overview Regarding Irregular Migration

Policy	Content
<i>GENERAL</i>	
Prevention and Suppression of Trafficking in Persons and Smuggling of Migrants Proclamation (2015)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - New law on human trafficking and smuggling of migrants - Recently adopted - Includes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provisions for both trafficking and smuggling • New provisions to assist victims (previously weak in Ethiopia) - Penalties: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 15-20 years (<i>Articles 3 and 5</i>) • Fines • Under aggravating circumstances possibly death sentence (<i>Article 6</i>) - Assistance to an irregular migrant ‘to stay’ in the territory is punishable(<i>Article 8</i>) - Failing to confess criminal acts can be punishable (<i>Article 12</i>) • Penalties: Max. 10 years imprisonment - Immunity to criminal liability in case victims of smuggling sustained harm due to the commission of crime (<i>Article 30</i>) - Provision for the use of appropriate special investigative techniques(<i>Article 18</i>)
National Plan of Action to Combat Trafficking in Persons	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 5 year plan - Recently approved by the government - Drafted in cooperation with IOM
Refugee Proclamation No. 409 of 2004	
<i>PREVENTION</i>	
Ban on the Legal Emigration of Low Skilled Labourers (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Temporary ban for overseas low-skilled workers - Currently still in place until draft amendments are made to the ‘Employment exchange proclamation’

Ratification Proclamation for the Convention on Forced or Compulsory Labour Proclamation No. 336/2003	
2012 Law Requiring Registration of All Births Nationwide	- Continuous efforts to implement a uniform national identity card
<i>PROTECTION</i>	
<i>Tangible efforts to protect irregular migrants were minimal overall</i>	
<i>PROSECUTION</i>	
<i>Criminal Code</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Article 635: Trafficking in Women and Minors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prohibits sex trafficking • Penalties: max. 5 years imprisonment (sufficiently stringent, but not corresponding to other serious crimes) - Article 596: Enslavement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prohibits slavery • Penalties: 5-20 years imprisonment (sufficiently stringent) - Article 59: Trafficking in Women and Children <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prohibits labour trafficking of women and children • Penalties: 5-20 years imprisonment (sufficiently stringent)
<i>Article 598, Unlawful Sending of Ethiopians to Work Abroad</i>	- Regularly used to prosecute transnational labour trafficking cases
<i>Article 571, Endangering the Life of Another</i>	- Regularly used to prosecute transnational labour trafficking cases

Sources: Adopted by: DAI Europe & EuroTrends, 2015; RMMS, 2016c; US Department of State, 2015.

3.7.2.2. Protection

The government maintained modest efforts to protect trafficking victims. The national committee to coordinate anti-trafficking efforts, chaired by the deputy prime minister, ‘was fully operational during the year; however, the government did not report if the Council of Ministers issued the implementing regulations to the anti-trafficking proclamation pertaining

to protective services for victims.’ The government continued to partner with international organizations and NGOs to provide services to victims; although it did not allocate funding to these entities, it provided some in-kind support, including land, facilities, staff, and other logistical services on an ad hoc basis.

The report also states that, in 2016, federal and regional governments intercepted approximately 30,000 persons in the border areas of Ethiopia, the vast majority of whom were intending to depart for work in Gulf states and other African countries, and many were minors a population vulnerable to trafficking; however, an unknown number were intercepted outside of the reporting period. The government operated child protection units in Addis Ababa and several major cities; staff were trained in assisting vulnerable children, including potential trafficking victims. Police and civil service transport workers trained to recognize child trafficking victims referred the majority of intercepted children to local shelters.

3.7.2.3. Prevention

The government maintained robust efforts to prevent trafficking. In 2016, Parliament approved a second National Human Rights Action Plan, spanning 2016-2020, which included various activities to curb trafficking, including a media campaign and increased efforts in urban centers to assist women and child victims. However, the government did not report allocating specific funding for the action plan. The attorney general’s office, in conjunction with an international organization, organized a workshop for 80 members of the national media to increase awareness of the anti-trafficking proclamation. Local and regional state governments, employing community conversations as an awareness-raising mechanism, continued to host and facilitate hundreds of sessions throughout the country, reaching hundreds of thousands of Ethiopians.

The report further states that, the government maintained its 2013 ban on the recruitment of low-skilled domestic workers to the Middle East, which it intended to keep until the establishment of all bilateral work agreements with destination countries and the enactment and implementation of a revised employment exchange proclamation.

Ethiopian officials continued efforts to implement a 2012 law requiring registration of all births nationwide; however, the lack of a uniform national identity card continued to impede implementation of the law and allowed for the continued issuance of district-level identity cards, whose dispersion is subject to fraud. The government made limited efforts to reduce the demand for commercial sex acts, forced labor, or child sex tourism during the reporting period. The government continued to include anti-trafficking training as a basic training requirement for its diplomatic personnel.

3.7.3. National Legal Frameworks

In addition to international legal instruments, trafficking is also covered under the domestic laws of various jurisdictions. A comprehensive national legal framework is usually required to prevent human trafficking effectively. Nonetheless, some states employ existing criminal laws, labour/employment laws, migration policies, refugee and asylum laws, as well as investigative and judicial procedures with more recent treaty obligations (UNHCR, 2014). Previously key provisions under FDRE Constitution, the Criminal Code, Employment Exchange Services Proclamations and ratified international instruments were used in Ethiopia. Besides, Ethiopia has recently introduced new Proclamations for the Prevention and Suppression of Trafficking in persons and Smuggling of Migrants (FDRE Proclamation No.909/2015).Moreover, Ethiopia had enacted a new overseas employment proclamation to protect the rights, safety and dignity of Ethiopians who are willing to take-up over-sea employment (FDRE Proclamation No. 923/2016).

The overall legal instruments can have an important role to counter human trafficking in Ethiopia. Furthermore, the specific proclamation no. 909/2015 is proper, appropriate and comprehensible to the standards of the international anti-human trafficking instruments. It is also comprehensive and integrative when it is compared to the major elements of the responses to counter human trafficking. Therefore, it can be deduced that Ethiopia had introduced necessary and enabling anti-human trafficking mechanisms. On top of this, it can be argued that there is a gap to prevent the crime, protect survivors, and punish perpetrators in the country. This gap could be addressed by focusing to implement the national and international instruments. As it has been indicated the previous section, Ethiopia is a country highly affected by in country and external trafficking and the existing policy framework does not include a comprehensive national policy on trafficking. However, it is vital to discuss the relevant national instruments regarding trafficking.

The fight against human trafficking requires the involvement of all sectors, the society and a wide array of national institutions (UNODC, 2009:12). To combat human trafficking, competent authorities for prevention, providing assistance and protecting victims and prosecuting criminals of human trafficking shall incorporate various cooperative institutions. Accordingly, governmental and non-governmental institutions as well as

international organizations which are involved in anti-human trafficking activities are assessed in this part.

Particularly, “the Government of Ethiopia has established a National Ant-Trafficking Council and Taskforce,” which have been cascaded down at regional, zone and district level. The council has the mandate to coordinate counter trafficking and irregular migration prevention activities and enables a more efficient implementation and monitoring of prevention, protection and prosecution activities. The Council and Taskforce are headed by the Office of the Deputy Prime Minister at federal level and by the Presidents of the Regional States at regional level.

3.7.3.1. The Role of National Committee and the National Task Force

In Ethiopia, there is no specific, centralized or fully authorized organ or state department dealing with human trafficking. However, to prevent the growing problem of human trafficking National Council was established. The National Coordinating Committee is authorized to ensure proper implementation of the oversee employment services, conclude bilateral agreements with receiving countries and to establish favourable situations, cooperate with appropriate organs and ensure legal action against violations, facilitate the exchange of overseas employment information with concerned organs and to provide well-equipped data center (Proclamation No. 923/2016, art.15 (2)). Additionally, it is also assigned to coordinate activities designed for victim protection, assistance and rehabilitation, for better advice in policy plans, combating the crime of human trafficking and to undertake fundamental role in prevention.

As per article 39(1) of Proclamation No. 909/2015, the National Committee is chaired by the Deputy Prime Minister to coordinate anti-trafficking efforts. The National Committee incorporates: Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Federal Affairs, Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs, Ministry of Education, Regional States, other governmental organizations, religious institutions, charities and societies, various structures and other respective organizations. The Council of Ministers is authorized to issue implementing regulations (FDRE Proclamation No. 909/2015, art.39/4). However, it has not been issued to date, it did not allocate funding and it remained without standard procedures for frontline responders to identify trafficking victims (US Department of State, 2016:169). Anti-human trafficking Task Force (hereinafter called “Task Force”), which is accountable to the national committee and led by the Minister of Justice was established according to article 40(1) of

the proclamation 909/2015. This is in order to support and encourage a collaborative effort among local law enforcement and victim services as well as to reinforce partnership with state and federal bodies.

The members of the National Committee are also included in the Task Force. The Task Force is a multidisciplinary response to discover human trafficking crimes, increases coordinated investigation and prosecutorial efforts against the perpetrator, and provides protection of the victim.

As per article 40(2) of the proclamation No.909/2015, the Task Force shall perform the following activities:

- Design policies, strategies, action plans and measures that enables the protection and assistance of victims in collaboration with appropriate government organs, aid partners, and when necessary, with international organizations and implement them upon approval by the national committee;
- Design the national plan of action for the prevention and control of the crime and obtain its approval from the national committee, supervise its implementation and submit reports periodically;
- In collaboration with pertinent stake holders take appropriate actions for the rehabilitation, assistance and reintegration of victims with the society; and
- Perform other activities assigned by the national committee.

The Task Force has conducted training workshops for high court judges, national labour bureau personnel and police commissioners. In 2014, the Task Force collaborated with international organizations and launched a community conversation on awareness program, conducted in over 325 neighbourhoods with the participation of 25 to 40 residents in each neighbourhood session, including local and district officials. The Task Force also conducted two monitoring trips to the regions of the country where the majority of trafficking victims have originated (US Department of State, 2015:157). However, the Task Force remained weak to ensure the mechanism of coordination and the consultation among concerned stakeholders and not functioning adequately. Though the government continued to assist Ethiopian migrants deported from Saudi Arabia since 2013, progress on income generation programming for returnees was produced by international organizations, the anti-trafficking taskforce was reported as being stymied and dependent on aids and supports (US Department of State, 2016: 169).

Since its establishment, the National Task Force has managed to set up branch offices in all the nine regional states of Ethiopia and the two city administrations (Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa). This is to place a mechanism to control illegal trafficking of people from cities and from the remote areas across the nation. Each region has its own anti-human trafficking technical working group and schedule to meet the national task force quarterly. The taskforces have also been established at regional, *Wereda*, and *Kebele* levels.

Local governance refers to the institutions, influences, and processes that lead to the authoritative resolution of public decisions at the tier of government closest to the people. This definition of local governance implies that local government is the tier of public authority that citizens first look to solve their immediate social problems. Increasingly, in many instances, the very object of having local representation is in order that those who have any interest in common, which they do not have with the general body of their countrymen, may manage that joint interest by themselves (J.Situart Mill,(1970),p.115) all playing vital roles in managing the commons (Sisk, 2001).

3.8. Global Overview of Roles and Functions of Local Governments

The powers given to local governments as well as their structural setup considerably vary from country to country (Anwar Shah (ed.), (World Bank, 2006). In any case; however, local governments in all systems are the lowest levels of government, within the broad spectrum of devolved powers. In most cases, local governments are responsible for the management and service delivery of public. The functions mainly include garbage collection, cleaning the streets, education, health, policing, water and sanitation, and elders and vulnerable care (Walker, and Andrews, 2013). Whereas, some researchers like in (Shah, 2006) argued that local governments vary in their responsibilities across countries, especially developing countries. He further explained that: In developing countries, in China for instance, local governments are responsible for social security (primarily pensions and unemployment allowances) in addition to traditional local and municipal services (Tilahun, 2014).

3.9. Local Governments in Africa

Local government has an important role to play in ensuring that all residents of African cities get access to conveniently situated land, services, adequate housing and the benefits of urban life. Even with resources and capacity constraints, local governments can significantly improve the lives of residents through participatory and integrated interventions (UN-Habitat, 2011). Local governments in Africa generally have severe capacity and resources constraints, for example in terms of staff and finances, and they face major challenges in fulfilling their role as part of an organized system of collective action (involving the individual, institutional, public and private spheres) in the management of the locality's common affairs. However, that local governments in Africa be enabled to become key actors in good urban governance by means of a continuous process, in which different interests are accommodated if we aim to ensure that all residents of African cities can get access to conveniently situated land, services, adequate housing and the benefits of urban life. Many local government bodies in Africa have managed to tackle their urban challenges successfully through being innovative, and willing to engage with other key stakeholders such as civil society. There has also been significant transformation of local government in Africa in recent decades, with an emphasis on decentralization, combined with corporatisation/privatisation and partnerships with various actors, including communities'' (UN HABITAT, 2011:5).

The status, powers and functions of local government vary considerably across Africa. The nature of local government bodies can range from democratically elected local governments with a variety of income sources and responsibility for delivering a wide range of services, to appointed local governments that depend on national government for revenue and which have only limited responsibilities (UN-HABITAT (2011)).

Only in a few countries (e.g. South Africa and Namibia) is local government enshrined in the constitution. In most countries local government is created by central government, and therefore receives its powers and responsibilities from the enabling statutes or decrees (Wekwete KH, 1997). The powers and functions of local government can thus vary considerably. While all local government bodies have at least some responsibility for functions such as urban planning and refuse collection, only some local government bodies have responsibility for important functions. At the same time as increased decentralization in recent decades, there has been a shift in the way local governments operate. The implementation of Structural Adjustment Programmes in many countries helped introduce

these shifts. In Nigeria, for example, since the 1990s, public services that were previously administered by local governments have to a large extent been privatized (UN-HABITAT, 2008).

Even in countries that were not subjected to Structural Adjustment Programmes, such as South Africa, global pressures and trends have resulted in similar changes. For example, the City of Johannesburg has been active in restructuring itself, and corporatizing and privatizing service delivery. It now has a network of “utilities, agencies and corporatized entities (UN-HABITAT (2008:9).

3.10. Local governments in Ethiopia

3.10.1. Local Government and Decentralization

Local government is a political unit that consists of all units of government under the national level. These levels can be provinces, districts, municipalities, villages which serve the people directly (Aldefer, 1964:2). According to Hart (1949:5), “Local governments are local, rather than of national importance”. Hart’s definition of local government is in terms of its importance and place in the national level of a given country.

Local Government is often portrayed as representing the highest form of decentralization, i.e. the devolution model, but this is not always so. Where local governments operate essentially as agents of central government rather than as instruments of local self-expression, this in reality constitutes de-concentration rather than the devolution. (ibid)

Decentralization refers to the principle that public decisions should be made, when possible, at the level of authority closest to the people. (Idea, 2008) Decentralization refers to the further devolution of power within various districts or urban arenas (Sisk, 2001). Yet, decentralization is not meant to deprive the centre of all political powers (UNDP, 1998). There are certain areas of authorities which are appropriate to the national actors and other areas of authorities which are appropriate to sub national actors. Both national and sub-national actors have a complementary role to play. However, their role needs to be determined by analysing the most effective ways and means of achieving a desired objective (UNDP, 1998).

Bergh (2004) outlined the benefit of decentralization: the citizens are closer to the ones who represent them. Therefore it is easier to be in contact with each other and have interaction

for example about policy matters. At a local level there can be more experimentation with different projects and there are better opportunities for participation at the local level. The concept of LG as applied to the Ethiopian situation is used in sub-city in Addis Ababa such as zone, special (liyu nationality) zone, special liyu woreda, woreda, and kebele. However, this study primary refers to the second lowest level of regional state or Addis Ababa city administration. That is woredas. In a number of federal systems, local government is an exclusive competence of sub national units (states, cantons or provinces). It is barely mentioned in the national constitutions of many federal states, let alone being recognised as autonomous level of government (Steytler.N (2009)).

In fact local government units, especially international mega-cities, have begun to play a critical political, social and economic role in many federal countries, requiring their constitutional recognition.(Watts R (2000)). Thus, federal countries such as Germany, India, and South Africa, have given constitutional recognition to local government as autonomous sphere/level of government.(Steytler (2009) 407; Watts (2000) 947). In Ethiopia, a formerly centralised unitary state, which became a federal state only two decades ago? The 1995 Constitution, having created nine sub national units (commonly referred to as regional states) and a federal city, makes a passing reference to local government, only to instruct and authorise the regional states to establish local government and determine its tiers, powers, and functions.(FDRE Constitution) (1995) Art 50 (4)). Here, the intention of adopting federal State structure is to create public aspirations and ambitions to participate on their local development destinations so as to promote national development, thereby to enable Ethiopia a competent in the international political economy game. The *woreda* is considered the key level of local government of the Ethiopian federal state structure, which contains an average population around 100,000 (World Bank (2006)).

3.10.2. Local Governments and Administrative Discretion

Local government is the third level of government deliberately created to bring government to the grass-root population and gives the grass roots population a sense of involvement in the political process that controls their daily lives (Robson, 1954).

Local governments are established to give residents of their areas a say in the government and administration of local affairs and are vested with specific powers to enable them to make laws, which are not inconsistent with the legislation passed by parliament and higher

legislature in the tier. They are usually headed by councils consisting of elected members. In other words local governments are intended to be democratic institutions which are responsive to real needs and the justifiable expectations of people. They are thus subject to public accountability and therefore, it is important to focus on local government democracy (Belinda, 2002).

Local governments are created to render service in defined geographical areas, primarily because of the inability of central government to address in detail all the requirements of society that have to be satisfied by a government institution. The range of urban service provided by local authorities in developing countries, more particularly in Africa, are inter alia, parks, street cleaning, sanitation, refuse collection, road construction and maintenance, housing, water and sewerage, primary education, clinical, residential and industrial estates, planning and zoning, fire and ambulance service, camping sites and recreational service (Meyer, 1978).

The central government has transferred significant powers and responsibilities with the exception of defence, foreign affairs, foreign economic relations, currency and monetary policy to the regional governments. Consequently, the responsibility for producing and distributing goods and services has been largely transferred to regional governments (UN Habitat, 2001).

3.10.3. Local Government's Regulating Abilities

In Ethiopia, concerning regulatory legislation, local governments can regulate land use, co-operatives and community activities, while municipal local government can regulate markets, sanitary services, and other municipal services. Local governments also have the autonomy to enforce regulation by sanctioning and punishing citizens in elected social courts and woreda courts (Yilmaz and Venugopal, 2008). They can regulate cooperatives and community and community volunteer activities. In municipalities local government authorities can prepare and implement development plans and regulate markets, sanitary services slaughters houses, fire brigades and mortuary and burial services. They also have the discretion to issues marriage and birth certificates, approved building plans, and register properties (ibid.).

3.10.4. Public Administrative Accountability

Public accountability is the responsibility of public official to justify their conduct and performance to citizen using accountability mechanisms. It is also the responsibility of citizen to extract accountability from public official. It is imperative to improve governance, to strengthen the economic and social performance of a country (Desani, 2009). In article 12 of the FDRE constitution stated as ‘any public official or an elected representative is accountable for any failure in official duties.’ Functions of government at all levels shall be transparent and officials shall be accountable to the people. If these are not fulfilled by elected representatives or officials they shall be questioned and proper action will be taken (Meskerem, 2007).

3.10.5. Social Accountability

Social accountability is a principle of good governance that relies on civic engagement. Citizens’ have incomplete understanding of their citizenship rights, responsibilities and entitlements to public basic services (Samuel, 2014). Around the world, including Ethiopia, citizens fear public officials and civil servants. Many citizens are afraid to challenge these public officials and public servants regarding their service delivery performance. On the other hand public officials and civil servants have incomplete understanding of their duties and accountability to citizens (Samuel, 2014).

In an attempt to support Ethiopia’s progress towards reaching the MDGs, the government of Ethiopia along with international development partners had established the protection of basic services-Ethiopian social accountability program(JeCCDOs, 2006) having four basic components in June 2006. Among these, the fourth component, i.e. “the Social Accountability (SA)” is an approach by which citizens and their organizations participate directly or indirectly in exacting accountability using mechanisms such as citizens’ report cards, community score cards, independent budget analysis, participatory budgeting, etc. (ibid).

3.11. Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter is to review the practices being followed in our case countries in different aspects of administrative discretion. I also discuss the local government

regulations in selected countries to understand the level of discretion that exists. Service delivery responsibilities are a key component of local government discretion. Review of our case studies suggests that while local governments have the regulatory ability over some local issues, their administrative ability is curtailed because of different reasons. Consequently, local governments cannot deliver their responsibilities effectively. Theoretical issues related with human trafficking, role of local government were reviewed and empirical review of the experience local governments in some selected countries also made. Local government is the third level of government deliberately created to bring government to the grass-root population and gives them to controls their daily lives. This level of government as they are close to the public needs. Local governments are established to give residents of their areas a say in the government and administration of local affairs and are vested with specific powers to enable them to make laws, which are not inconsistent with the legislation passed by parliament and higher legislature in the tier. In other words local governments are intended to be democratic institutions which are responsive to real needs and the justifiable expectations of people. They are thus subject to public accountability and therefore, it is important to focus on role of local governments to countering human trafficking.

In this literature the researcher support the idea that human trafficking and local governments has cooperative and complementary relationships. In order to combat human trafficking at local governments' power and resources should be devolved to this level of government. It was realized that one of the main rationales for opting for decentralized system of governance is the need to create autonomous local governments. Democratic local governance is autonomous levels of local government, vested with authority and resources that function in a democratic manner. That is, they are accountable and transparent, and involve citizens and the institutions of civil society in the decision-making process. Democratic local governance looks beyond local government administration and service delivery to institutions and structures that enable people to decide things and do things for them. Therefore, it is based on the above theoretical framework that the researcher wants to assess role of local governments (*woreda*) government of Addis Ababa City Administration. Using the above theoretical concepts as an underpinning the main aims to identify the challenges and Status of local governments in combating trafficking.

CHAPTER FOUR

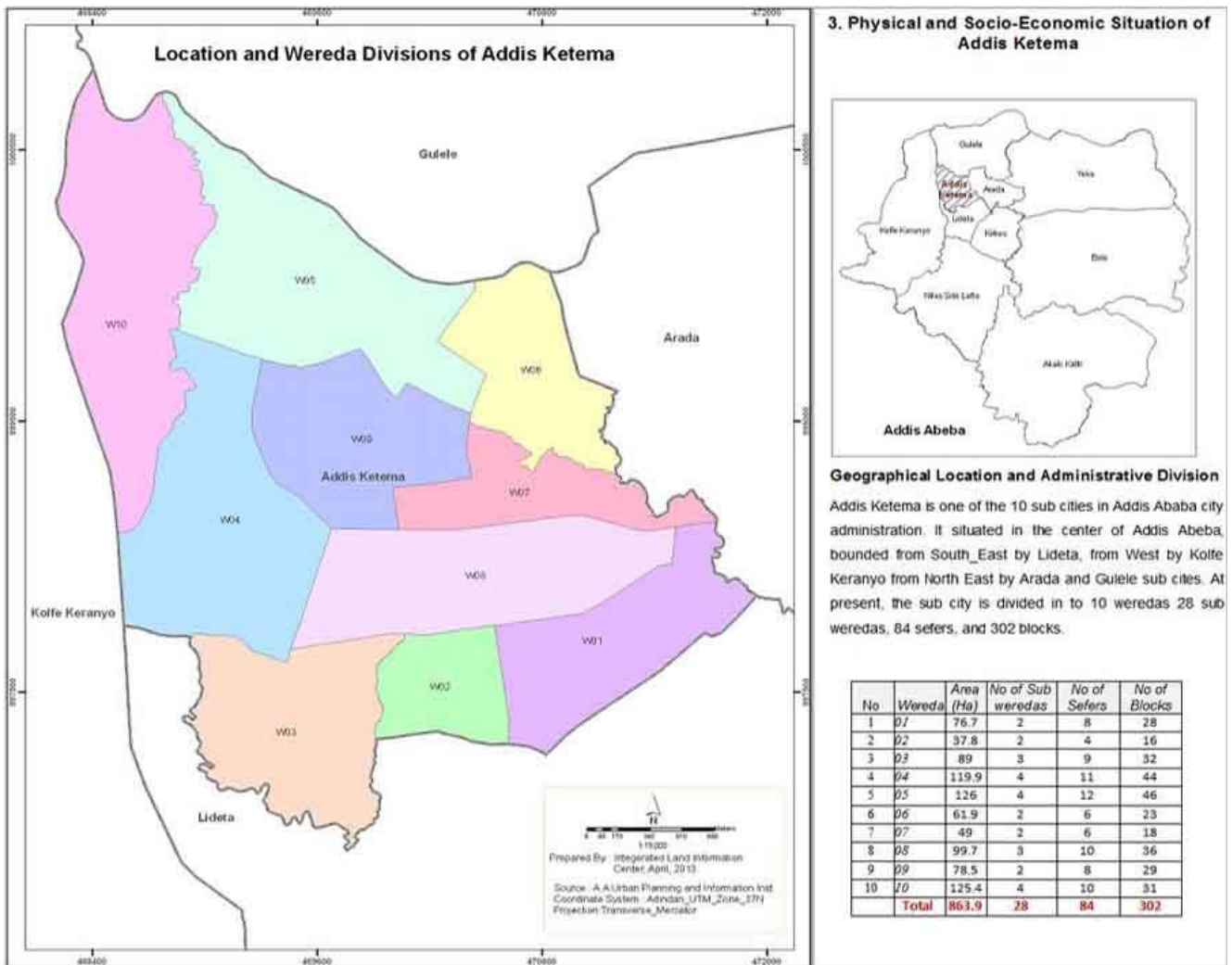
4. Role of Local governments in combating Human Trafficking in Addis Ketema Sub City

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, data collected from informants using in-depth interviews and Focus Group Discussions made with employees, officials and community representatives, victims, reports of governmental and non-governmental organizations and personal observations are analysed pertinent to the objectives of the study. Furthermore, other documents like procedures, rules, directives, regulations, compiled report and studies undertaken by the upper tiers of government are also utilized in the study. Accordingly, the power and autonomous of local governments to combat human trafficking which have been implemented in *Wereda seven* were examined in line with existing legal frameworks. In doing so, enforcing ability, Administrative discretion, social accountability and practical implementation of local governments' to combat trafficking in accordance with Prevention, Protection, Prosecution and Partnership which are indispensable elements of the national and international anti-human trafficking strategies were employed to systematize the analysis.

Historically, Addis Ketema Sub-city is the outcome of the Italian racial planning experiment of segregation. During their short lived occupation, they managed to move 90% of the population and their main market to the western Addis Ababa. The final result of their experiment was “Merkato” consists of spreading open market located at the northern part and grid lined dominantly residential area to the south-western part of Addis Ketema (ORAACMP, 2000). *Addis Ketema* sub- city *Woreda seven* is amongst ten *woreda*'s in the sub- city. It is among the destination and transportation *woreda*'s in the city administration. It bordering with *woreda 09* of similar sub- city to the south, and also bordering with *woreda 6* of the same sub- city to the North. Over again, bordering with *woreda03* of similar sub- city to the west of north. The total area of the *woreda* covers 49 hectares. It also has 2 sub-*woreda*, 6 *sefers* and 18 blocks (AACAILIC, 2018).

Figure 1 Map of Addis ketema sub-city Administration



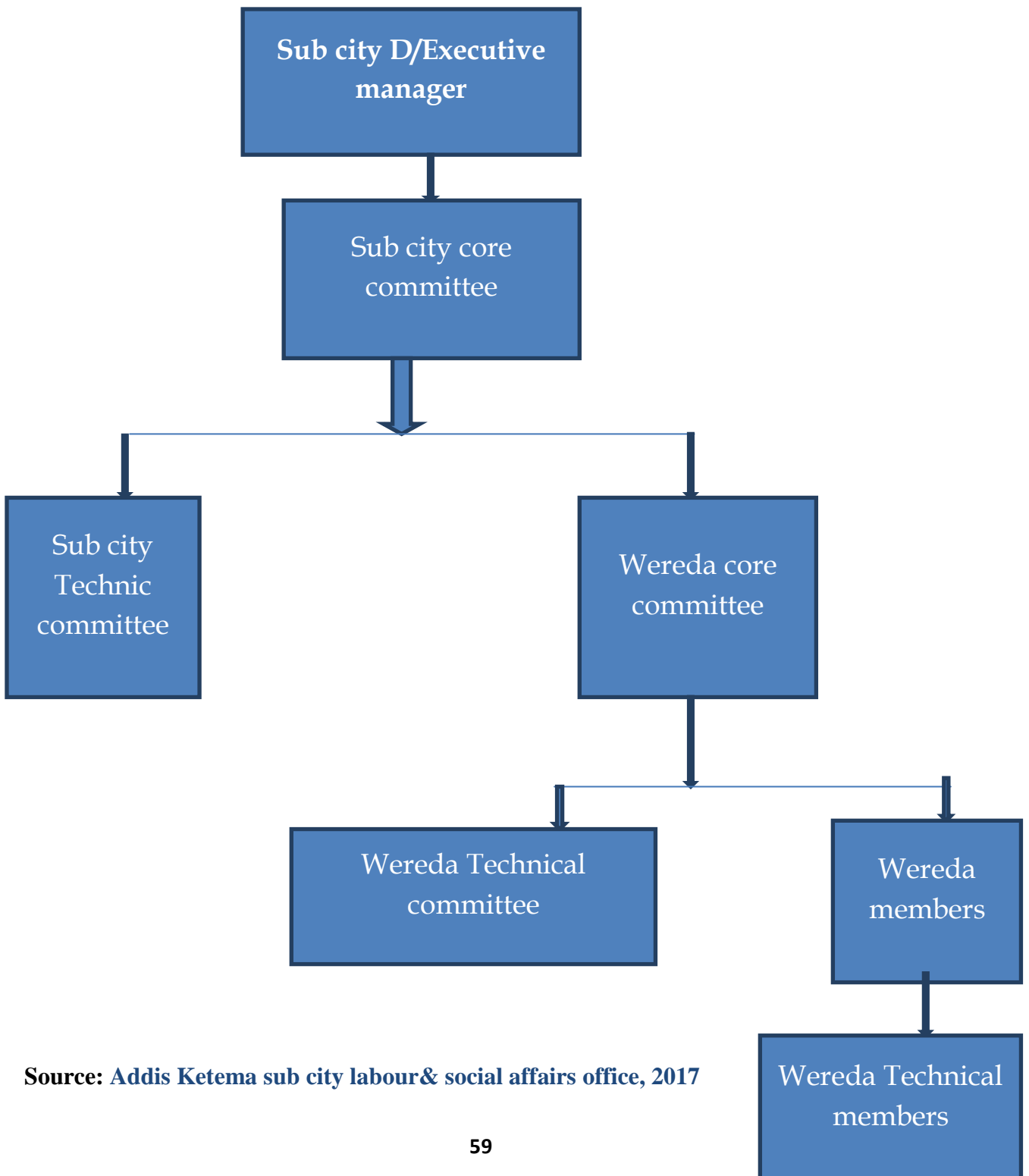
Source: Adopted by: www.ilic.gov.et Accessed on February 17, 2018.

4.2. Power and Function of Woreda’s in Addis Ababa city administration

The devolution of power to lower administrative tiers is a new development in administrative and governance history of Ethiopia. Since the formation of the federal structure, substantial efforts have been made to devolve power to sub national which has been mandated to prepare and implement development plans and programmes and set priorities clearly reflecting the needs of the people (MCB, 2005). Each *woreda* of Addis Ababa, in structural hierarchy with the powers and functions of the appropriate organs of a sub-city office, shall have the following powers and functions to be executed by the executive organs organized in

respective field of activity (Proclamation No.35/2012 page 90).The general power and function of wereda’s administration in the proclamation is the major bases of other rules, regulations and Directives. So, it is important to see the duties and responsibilities of wereda’s anti- human trafficking responses given by the city administration.

Figure 2: the Current Committee Structure of Addis Ababa City Administration to combat Human Trafficking



Source: Addis Ketema sub city labour & social affairs office, 2017

4.3. Duties and responsibilities of wereda core committee & technical committees to combat human trafficking

According to city committee for combating human trafficking; citizen right and security protection manual in 2017 framed wereda have 13 members of wereda core committees and wereda technical committees.

Box 4.1. Duties and responsibilities of wereda anti-human trafficking core committee (Translated from Amharic to English by the researcher)

1. Prevention measures , prosecution human trafficker's, sentencing criminals and establishing directions to solve the problems sustainably in the wereda;
2. To follow up, investigate and applied weredas plan which is given from wereda technic committee;
3. To facilitate the plan with budget capacity;
4. To investigate the performance of the core technical committee and give direction in each quarter;
5. To facilitate legal proceedings criminals who are participate in human trafficking activities in the wereda;
6. To establish public conference to give awareness for dangerous human trafficking histories;
7. To evaluate weredas anti human trafficking performance in collaboration with wereda's technical and core committee and give direction for better implementation in half of a year;
8. To organise wereda implementation report and send to the sub –city anti-trafficking core committee.

Source: Addis Ketema sub city labour and social affairs. (2017. Prevention and combating anti- human trafficking፤ protecting citizen security Sub city core committee; manual

4.4. Major Driving factors of Migration/ human trafficking in Ethiopia

According to the AU, multiple factors outgrowth migration both within and out of Africa (African Union, 2006a), including poor socio-economic conditions, low wages, high levels of unemployment, poverty and lack of opportunities. These are because of a mis-match between rapid population growth and available resources as well as low levels of technology and capacity to create employment and jobs in countries of origin. In addition, various political and social factors such as poor governance, corruption, political instability, conflict and civil strife lead to migration of both skilled and unskilled labour in Africa (African Union, 2006a). The perceived opportunity for a better life, high income, greater security, pressure to join relatives, families and friends, better quality of education and health care in destination countries influence decisions to migrate.

The findings of this research show that human trafficking specially, youth migration to the Middle East is a burning issue in different corner of the country. Migrants are targeted mainly to improve their living standards and to support their family. They are influenced by the individual, peer pressure, family and communal factors available in their local community.¹ In poverty prone society and in a drought affected environment the youths are expected to bring change both for their family and for themselves. Unemployment is found to be the ultimate cause, though not the sole cause, for youth migration to the Middle East.

Even though the number of graduate students increases, the opportunities for employment are limited. This leads some youth to engage in crime such as robbery and theft among the community. Such factors motivate the youth to migrate to the Middle East. The findings also reveal that employees in some governmental organizations migrate to the Middle East. They got an employment opportunity in public sector, but it did not provide them with enough income to their survival and to support their family. The main target of these migrants is to improve their living standard in a short period of time.

The traffickers' also influenced by the information they obtain from returnees. Many potential migrants were misinformed about migration to the Middle East. They only learnt about the material gain from the Middle East. Other migrants are also urged to migrate when

¹*Interview with Ato Tekleberhan G/hiwoet werda labour and social affairs heads, (17/03/2018) Addis Ababa.*

opportunities for change are limited. Youth graduates who work in low income receiving jobs are influenced by the attitude of the local community towards their jobs. The unsupportive working environment discourages the youth's daily work engagements. This prevalent attitude and misconceptions of the jobs among the country drives the youth for migration to the Middle East.

Additionally, among the youths there are also individuals who used migration as an open opportunity for meeting a life partner. Other migrants also needed to migrate to relieve their psychological problem related to divorce. When the divorce brought psychological stress and material impact over families, they chose migration as a way out for minimizing the risks.² Beyond this problem there are also interrelated factors such as absence of interest free loans for those who have no/limited initial capital for business operation. Though the youths need to work, their limited capital and the absence of interest free loan remain unsettled problem in different states. Hence, taking a loan from micro finance institutions has a great impact, as migration has become a feasible way out to find initial capital for commencing new business.

Similarly, misinformation about migration among the youth is also a driving force. In different local government of the country migrants are misinformed as a result of human smugglers' power of persuasion for their profit. Human smugglers are vigilant in motivating the youth to migrate.³ However, many migrants were affected when they migrate to the Middle East and when the human smugglers left them open for new exploitation and robbery by other smugglers. From the material I observe from returned migrants from the Middle East. The material enrichments of returned migrants urged the youth of the local community to decide for migrating to the Middle East and Europe.

4.5. Wereda's Administrative Discretion

As key informants affirm *wereda's* in the city administration have discretion over both the municipal service and sub-city function. They are enforcing regulatory decision, abilities in many areas. Powers which need high standardized professionals are devolving hierarchically in the governing level of the city. *Weredas* are also discretionary in undertaking more in different services. However; in the case of human trafficking it has minimal roles. *Weredas*

² Ibid

³ Interview with Ato Hailemichale Atenkute, Ato Tekleberhan G/hiwoet sub-city and werda labour and social affairs heads, (13/03/2018), and (17/03/2018)

are currently has the power to control and manage their own work force by themselves in hiring as well as firing.⁴In proclamation No. 35/2012 the power and functions of *wereda*'s is stated, but it does not exactly point out area in which they are discretionary or not allowed for them to execute. So, it is better to investigate thoroughly their discretionary area as well as the rationale behind in restraining *wereda*'s over few discretionary powers.

The capital city Addis Ababa stands out as the principal destination point for trafficked victims. The officer of BoLSA in the *wereda* stated:

*"...we know that a large number of women and children from all corners of the country are brought to Addis Ababa having been told of a better life in the city. However they end up being subjected to exploitation and abuse."*⁵

Some observations also suggest that the trend is picking up in recent years, masked by increasing rural-urban migration and seasonal movement of labour migrants. One indicator of the extent of trafficking in women and children to Addis Ababa is the large number of trafficking victims among those living in prostitution.

4.6. Implementation of countering human trafficking in *wereda* seven

In implementing abilities *weredas* are capable over few services. The interviewed respondents state that *wereda* mostly emphasize only birth and death certificates, register residents of the *wereda* and issue identity card. However, effective implementation of countering trafficking is given less attention.⁶ This will have a problem of a country because it leaves to the upper tier. Interviewees respond that *wereda*'s do not have rendering abilities to overcome the problems.⁷ Having this in mind, implementation which is undertaken in the study area is discussed below.

⁴*Ibid*

⁵*Ibid*

⁶*Interview with Ato Hailemichale Atenkute, Ato Tekleberhan G/hiwoet sub-city and werda labour and social affairs heads, (13/03/2018), and (17/03/2018), both FGD, with selected government officials and community members 23/03/2018 And Interview (name withheld),(21/03/2018)Addis Ababa.*

⁷*FGD, with selected government officials and community members in (23/03/2018), and Interview (name withheld) in (21/03/2018) Addis Ababa city.*

4.6.1. Wereda Prevention Human Trafficking Measures

According to BoLSA the Ethiopian government ban of labour migration for the last two years to the Gulf States to consider the establishment of such an institution (expanding its services to the countries of destination), to further elaborate on developing new regulations for PEAs, and to revisit the legal framework, to better regulate and manage labour migration in the future.⁸ Prevention activities have been taken as the form of public education and awareness campaigns to inform the society. But, the aim of prevention, particularly, in countries of origin like Ethiopia is to reduce poverty, increase employment opportunity, educate the people, and empower the vulnerable part of the society. In essence, this is to reduce the pushing factors (UNODC, 2008: 417).

4.6.2. Public Awareness Creation

Public awareness raising campaigns have been conducted by governmental, inter-governmental and non-governmental organizations regarding the causes and consequences of trafficking in persons for several years.⁹ While MoLSA, engage in public awareness rising campaign, it is the IOM that is doing the lion's share in this respect. Accordingly, starting from 2001 onwards, IOM conducted several public awareness raising campaigns on legal migration and the risks of trafficking for a number of years using tools such as radio programs, drama, and posters.¹⁰

Nonetheless, most of the projects save for the weekly 20 minute radio program on Ethiopian Radio aired on Fridays, have phased out owing to constraints in financial resources. From 2012 and mid-2013 onwards, the state owned media outlets have engaged in sustained awareness activities.¹¹ Several programs (including documentary film) and talk shows have been aired out in the stated period. Although the recent media campaign is commendable, it is relevant, at this juncture, to reiterate that the CSO law seriously hampers the capacity of NGOs to raise awareness regarding women trafficking and promotion and protection of women's rights. This suggests that a lot of work is required to increase the awareness raising

⁸Interview with Ato Teklebeirhan G/hiwoet, BoLSA of wereda 07, in 13/03/2018 Addis Ababa city.

⁹Interview with Ato Hailemichale Atenkute, Ato Tekleberhan G/hiwoet sub-city and werda labour and social affairs heads, (13/03/2018), and (17/03/2018), both FGD, with selected government officials and community members 23/03/2018 And Interview (name withheld), (21/03/2018) Addis Ababa.

¹⁰Ibid

¹¹Ibid

campaigns to alert the potential victims of trafficking in persons as the problem is on the rise in the country.

The labour and social affairs officer of *Wereda seven* argues that lack of awareness is the major factor to human trafficking in the area. They asserted that the youth lack awareness about the risks of illegal migration and the available opportunities in the local area. According to the officials, individuals had perceived working abroad as the best way to get rich and help their families. Moreover, available job opportunities in their locality had been considered as unsupportive to change one's economic status.¹² According to the key informant in the study *Wereda seven* the victims are misguided and blinded to see the risks of irregular migration and the evils of human trafficking. This is because they see the luxurious materials such as good clothes, jewels, latest cell phones, cars and houses that some returnees have owned them after their return from abroad.¹³ Additionally, parents, families, friends and neighbours are motivating the teenagers' to migrate illegally. At the same time, traffickers are deceiving and misleading the youngsters to decide for illegal migration.

According to the key informants, the victims come from all corner of the country their culture of migration was linked to personal, social and material success in their wereda and staying home being a working age group is considered as a failure. For this reason awareness raising activities have been conducted in cooperation with different stakeholders and core and technical committees. In the study wereda there are 13 members' wereda core committee and technical committees. They have their own functions and responsibilities organized by sub-city administrator. The sub city had able to coordinate anti-human trafficking conferences which had involved about 80 peoples in Addis ketema sub city in one conference.¹⁴ In the conferences; brochures and pamphlets were distributing part of the programme create awareness to the community.

¹²Interview with Ato Tekleberhan G/hiwoet wereda labour and social affairs heads,(17/03/2018),Addis Ababa city.

¹³Interview with W/ro Aberu Bacha wereda 07 Labour and social affairs bureau job opportunity team leader, Febrary,18/2018

¹⁴Interview, with Ato Hailemichale Atenkute, sub-city labour and social affairs heads, (13/03/2018), Addis Ababa city.

According to Key informants and focus group discussants (FGD) argued, poverty and absence of economic opportunities were the major reasons for illegal migration. According to them, they do not like to leave home and endanger themselves unless there are pressing factors.¹⁵ Likewise, participants of the FGD demonstrated that parents discourage illegal migration. This is because they have witnessed severe consequences such as death, physical injuries, psychological problems, disappearances, and lose of material resources. Moreover, every bad news of illegal migration disseminates easily among members of the community. This is during funeral ceremonies, market days and other social occasion. Despite all these devastating effects of illegal migration, many youngsters are still planning for illegal migration to search economic opportunities. Even though, the community had information about the dangers of illegal migration, it is hardly said that a conscious person can willingly enter to the dangers and risks of illegal migration and human trafficking (Browne, 2015:3). If a person had information, but not changed in perception, attitude, and behaviour, it is difficult to say he/she has been abstained from illegal migration. Therefore, it can be inferred that lack of behavioural change is one of the basic factors of human trafficking.

4.6.2.1. Economic Opportunities measures

Lack of economic opportunities can make people to become vulnerable to human trafficking. Besides, illiteracy and poor quality of education lead many individuals have less or limited access of employment informal labor markets, and deteriorates their living conditions. That is why programs to expand economic opportunities, especially for the vulnerable part of the society, becomes an important solution (Vega, 2010:11).

According to Key informants in *Wereda*, asserted that the government is striving to create various employment opportunities with NGO's. To this end, the government has been organizing the youth, and provides a start-up loan for small business programs in their locality as well as to motivate them to save money monthly. According to the head of wereda seven labour & social affair; our wereda provides many alternatives to victims and

¹⁵Interview with Ato Hailemichale Atenkute, AtoTekleberhan G/hiwoet sub-city and wereda labour and social affairs heads, (13/03/2018),and (17/03/2018), both FGD, with selected government officials and community members 23/03/2018 And Interview (name withheld),(21/03/2018) Addis Ababa.

vulnerable of human trafficking such as, “shayebuna”, ‘food house’, ‘shop’ collaboration with NGO’s such as FSCE & OPRIFS.¹⁶

According to the data from the Bureau of Labour and Social Affairs (BoLSA), *Wereda seven* had employed about only 3 women and organized 8 groups (mahberat), until the time of the field work¹⁷. Some of them are provided given the loan and engaged in different activities. However, this figure is very small when compared to the present rate of unemployed. The researcher could observe that the alternatives for income generating activities are very limited and undermined the interest of the beneficiaries. If there were economic opportunities in the local area, the severe problems of illegal migration and human trafficking would be reduced.

4.6.2.2. Good Governance

Good governance is all about legitimate, accountable, and effective ways of obtaining and using public power and resources in the pursuit of widely-accepted social goals (Johnston, 2006:2). Among others, good governance is essentially the combination of transparent and accountable authorities having appropriate skills, competence, willingness and commitment to deliver better services, manage existing resources, create job opportunities, and then improve living standards of the people. Good governance ensures that the voices of the poorest and the most vulnerable are heard in decision making on the management of development resources (Graham, *et al.*, 2003:3; Johnston, 2006:3).

According to participants of the FGD and returned victims, in addition to poverty, unemployment, and lack of economic opportunities, lack of good governance is also a contributing factor of human trafficking to the poor and helpless part of the community.¹⁸ Consequently, absence of good governance that manages the local resources and arranges better opportunities contributes to the prevalence of illegal migration and human trafficking in the *Wereda*.

¹⁶Interview with Ato tekleberhan G/hiwoet sub-city and wereda labour and social affairs heads, (17/03/2018), both FGD, with selected wereda core committee and community members 23/03/2018 And Interview (name withheld), (21/03/2018) Addis Ababa city Administrator.

¹⁷Interview with Ato tekleberhan G/hiwoetwereda07labour and social affairs heads,(17/03/2018),Addis Ababa city.

¹⁸FGD, with selected government officials and community members in (23/03/2018), and Interview (name confidential),(21/03/2018) Addis Ababa city Administrator.

Moreover, Lack of good governance leads some poor people to feel that they have no option other than to leave and search for a better life elsewhere. Many people that are coming from different part of the country often decide to migrate illegally through the dangerous routes.¹⁹ As a result, lack of good governance is one of the alert points for expanding illegal migration and ill-feeling between the local people and local administrators in local governments. As head of sub city of BoSLA emphases on this idea as it follows:

*I know that unlike migration, human trafficking is avoidable; however it requires commitment. In doing so, it needs its own specific program, budget, and other resources. Nonetheless, in its present manner it is difficult to combat it. Government officials who are responsible to work in human trafficking are engaged in many other routine political activities. Everybody is engaged out of the institutional and professional occupation.*²⁰

One of the problems arises from Public officials assigned to lead the offices and run affairs in the local government are leaders with low level of education. They are those public officials that determine the fate of the local community. These office holders have little concern for the effectiveness and performance of the local public institutions and most of the times they defend their private interest to stay in power regardless of the local people complain.

Moreover, FGDs explained that many of the administrators have been trying to get benefits through corruption. Generally, consolidating and institutionalizing competent civil service through which it could serve the community and reduce vulnerability ineffective.²¹ Poor governance in managing the resources and corruption by local administrators are discouraging for those who have been working and attempting to involve in local development activities in their areas. Furthermore, it can be concluded that the community has been bored of the government's political oratory on serving the youth, job creation and the like. What they missed really is not those who can make blessing speeches in different medias and different formal stages rather the one who can truly act locally as to the official

¹⁹Interview with Ato Hailemichale Atenkute, sub-city labour and social affairs heads, (13/03/2018) Addis Ababa.

²⁰Interview, with Addis ketema Wereda seven women and youth officer, (name confidential), (23/03/2018) Addis Ababa.

²¹FGD, with selected government officials and community members in (23/03/2018), and Interview (name withheld) in (21/03/2018) Addis Ababa city.

promises. Local governance is a tool for insuring good governance, that is, downward accountability to the constituency and upward accountability to all people.

4.6.3. Protection and Rehabilitation Measures

Protection of victims of human trafficking is part of a comprehensive anti-human trafficking response and the corner stone of victim-centered approach. According to the international frameworks, victims of human trafficking are entitled with basic rights, including access to services. Sufficient services necessary to rehabilitation and replacement should be afforded through joint venture of all relevant stakeholders acting on behalf of the victims.

4.6.3.1. Protection Measures

According to Key informants, the government has been working to protect victims in the routes and potential borders. As a result, a number of illegal migrants were protected in the routes while they are crossing the borders. At the local level, labour and social affairs, justice officials, the police are partners to combat human trafficking and protect victims.²² Children and women require special treatment. This can be vital to victim's long road recovery, create sense of safety and healing process. Furthermore, this can ensure trustworthiness to open up to express their emotions, and talk about their experiences and cooperate with law enforcement bodies. Nevertheless, lack of capacity to handle victims appropriately and the fleetness of traffickers make the efforts to rescue victims and fight criminal acts so problematic.

4.6.3.2. Rehabilitation and Reintegration Measures

With regard to rehabilitation/reintegration of the returned victims, wereda officials proposed different projects to rehabilitate and reintegrate the returnees. For instance, according to the information obtained from the wereda labour and social Affairs, in 2017 an attempt was made to create employment opportunity in second quarter in this budget years is plan 17 persons but, around 30 persons returnees and victims.²³ However, this shows the implementation and wereda's attention is very less. There are many of returnees and

²²Interview: with head of FSCE Addis ketema (menaharia) branch, (name confidential), (12/03/2018) Addis Ababa.

²³FGD, with selected government officials and community members in (23/03/2018), and Interview (name withheld) in (21/03/2018) Addis Ababa city.

victims' are unsupported. As a result, the vulnerability of re-migration and re-trafficking could occur simply.

Addis ketema sub city, wereda seven has a clear direction to rehabilitate and reintegrate the returnees; however, there is no specifically allocated budget for its implementation it more allocated to awareness creation. Similarly, there was no specifically allocated budget to anti-human trafficking activities and to rehabilitate the returnees in this *Wereda*. Even though the Fund was officially established for the purpose of combating human trafficking (909/2015, art. 32), it is unheard in this *Wereda*.

According to Key informants stated that, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have been attempting to provide in kind and in cash assistances and to arrange skill trainings for returnees in this *Wereda*. For example, FSCE and OPRIFS are trying to support the returnees in the *Wereda*. However, the assistances were hardly offered to the victim returnees and attend their intended objectives. For example, FSCE paid for skill trainers to train 32 victim returnees & suspects and provided assistance for the trained them in cash from 2650 up to 5000 Birr.²⁴ The interviewed representative of FSCE explained the issues as: FSCE provided to pay for trainers and to support the victims in Wereda, and ask the *Wereda* administrators to recruit the trainees.²⁵ Though, we have already fixed to support freely, the local government ordered us to submit the money to the local credit institutions they said.

According to interview with FSCE (NGO) representatives, while donors are interested in financing activities to assist the returnees, the procedures in the local administration are discouraging. The local administrators are reluctant even to provide the list of persons to be assisted. NGOs ought to agree with the *Wereda* and transfer them to assistances.²⁶

Ethiopia had ratified to perform different kind of rights and establish its own legal framework in a similar way to assist victims of human trafficking. For that reason, medical or health care services, counselling, financial assistance, legal assistance, reinsertion into the education system, vocational training, micro- enterprise and income generating activities,

²⁴Interview with Ato Tekleberhan G/hiwoetwereda 07labour and social affairs heads,(17/03/2018),Addis Ababa city.

²⁵Ibid

²⁶Interview, with head of FSCE Addis ketema (menaharia) branch, (name confidential), (12/03/2018) Addis Ababa

job placement, wage subsidies, temporary shelter and accommodation, are included as the specific types of rehabilitation assistance (FDRE Proclamation No.909/2015, art.26). However, the practice in *Wereda seven* is far from what are declared officially. One of the informants in the *Wereda* expresses the situation as it follows:

When I was in Saudi Arabia, I had been working at household and from my salary I send money to my family. Whereas, when our government called us to return to our country and promised to restore us to our prior jobs, I trusted my government and returned to my country. However, here the situation is different and they said to me that, “since you have left the job for two years, we will never employ you again. ’Now, life becomes very difficult to me. I have no house or any other property. The loan which is allowed from government is not enough for business start-up. Unless any one supports me, still the option that I have is to borrow money and migrate illegally.’²⁷

From the above explanation one can infer that, the government of Ethiopia has promised to reintegrate and restore returnees to their prior job, and therefore, it should arrange for its implementation. The authorities in *Wereda seven* had to consider such a special cases. Otherwise, if it is beyond their capacity they should apply to the concerned bodies’ and attempt to help the returnees. Nonetheless, illegal migrants who were employed abroad may be exposed to re trafficking if the situations in their *Wereda* become discouraging.

4.6.4. Partnership and Cooperative Measures

To achieve the intended outcomes, inter-agency cooperation is very important in all anti human trafficking programs. Anti-human trafficking networks which link local, regional, national and international networks together through institutionalized vertical and horizontal cooperation and coordination, and above all dialogue and information sharing, are potentially one of the most powerful tools that states have in combating human trafficking. Anti-human trafficking laws and policies require coordinated efforts of all stakeholders on a regular basis (Fukushima and Cindy, 2012:14; Shavers, 2012:48). Appropriate monitoring for such coordination enables to successful implementation of the anti-human trafficking laws.

²⁷FGD,with selected government officials and community members, (23/03/2018), Addis Ababa city.

In Addis ketema sub city, Anti- human trafficking core committee which is drawn from 13 sectors was established in 2017.²⁸ This task force had its own plan of action and specific programs. According to the manual, create sectorial cooperation to prevent human, protect and prosecute the criminal, and enforce anti-human trafficking laws. The manual, illustrates a list of activities to be implemented by each core committee and technical committees. With regard to economic empowerment, key informant from the member of core committee stated that, sub city is trying to working to stop human trafficking. However it has not had fully structured and functional office & employees to counter human trafficking.²⁹ Even though, wereda labour & social affairs office working combating human trafficking, the organizational structure is not well established and well equipped up to the bottom administrative arrangements. In wereda seven there is organizational or financial deficiency to counter human trafficking.³⁰

4.6.5. Prosecution Measures

As it was presented in chapter three, Ethiopia has enacted its own national laws to counter-human trafficking. These laws had been appreciated by recognized international evaluators' as good progress in the legal aspect. The US Department of State affirmed that, Ethiopia had endorsed a comprehensive law that defines human trafficking similar to the trafficking protocol (2017: 167). Moreover, Ethiopia had declared a new overseas employment proclamation to prevent unlawful recruitments protect oversee workers and punish criminals of human trafficking. As a result, prosecution of human trafficking cases has increased after the declaration of the new anti-human trafficking law.

The 2017 US Department of State reported that Ethiopian government has increased anti-trafficking law enforcement efforts and improved its legal structure to facilitate effective law enforcement. With regard to Ethiopia as the crime investigation bureau report, 45 persons of human traffickers were accused and both of them were prosecuted in 2017. According to article 24 of the new proclamation No.909/2015, jurisdiction of human trafficking cases is given to the Federal First Instance Court. Therefore, when we compare the prevalence of human trafficking in the area with the prosecutions of criminals; it is

²⁸From Addis ketema sub city Anti- Human trafficking manual,2017

²⁹FGD, with selected wereda 07core committee and community members in (23/03/2018), and Interview (name withheld) in (21/03/2018) Addis Ababa city Administrator

³⁰Interview conducted with Tekleberihan G/hiwot wereda BoLSA head, in February, 13/2018 in wereda 07; and anonymous interview conducted with woreda finance & economic development office head, February 22, 2018.

possible to conclude that the weakness in investigation and prosecution of traffickers has hardly deterred the crime of human trafficking. The prosecutors argued, human trafficking cases are very complex and takes more time. Besides, there are some institutional challenges, with regard to this idea wereda justice bureau Said:³¹ Human trafficking is a very complex and multifaceted crime; it requires special attention and a particular unit that deals with it. However, we are very small in number, overburdened with many other offences and we are always in venue. Besides that, in our wereda seven there are about 17 internal legal brokers to facilitate job opportunities inside the country, basically we control them how they work their duties.³²

According to article 30 of the proclamation No. 909/2015, victims of trafficking shall not be prosecuted being a victim of the crime. Trafficked persons shall not be detained, charged or prosecuted for the involvement in unlawful activities to the extent that involvement is a direct consequence of their situation as trafficked persons. Therefore, it can be deduced that the legal protection for the victims of human trafficking which is the central element of any counter acting measures was threatened in the study area.

In a nutshell, prosecutors believed that traffickers are highly networked and expand a strong connection with the entire population, with politicians and government officials and make political corruption as an integral part of the business. Accordingly, the better way to control traffickers will be through raising the awareness of the people to forbear and surrender them. Educating people in a way to understand the egoist behavior of the traffickers and clarifying how they are exploiting the people is one mechanism. The people in general and the injured parties in particular should bring issues of human trafficking to the police. While traffickers have widened their social bonding and achieve sense of loyalty and belonging on the society (Potter, and Lyman, 2011), the processes of recruitment and transportation takes place with the help of the local brokers. Most of the time victims are not ready to initiate complaint regarding the criminals. Instead of waiting for complaints, the police, investigators and security workers should search proactively and follow the footprints of the traffickers.

³¹Anonymous interview conducted with woreda 07 Police Office (15/03/2018), and Wereda Justice Bureau, (name withhold) February, 21/2018 Addis Ababa city administrator.

³²Interview with Ato Tekleberhan G/hiwoet wereda 07 labour and social affairs heads,(17/03/2018),Addis Ababa city.

4.7. Public Accountability

Each *woreda* should be accountable to the residents of the *woreda* and to the respective sub-city (proclamation No. 35/2012). An effective local accountability system should be based on a web of different checks and balances rather than any one single handle. This reflects the fact that local bodies have a number of different accountability relationships. All public office (means any office of the city government of Addis Ababa city established as an autonomous entity by a proclamation or regulation and fully or partially financed by the city government budget (Regulation No. 48/2012)) including *woreda* administration has analogous accountability mechanisms. All public offices use rules, proclamations and regulations which are decreed by the city administration to serve all public offices.

The public accountability mechanisms in *woreda*'s as well as in other public offices in the city administration do not make accountable public officials. Most of directives and regulations decreed by the city administration prefer to makes accountable only employee. However, regulation No. 48/20012 objective state that to establish the rule of accountability by all levels senior official and employees. Nearly most of the instance, officials in the *woreda*'s is loyal and accountable to their party (EPRDF) than to the citizens who they promised to serve them better, during election campaign. Even proclamation No. 35/2012 state that the senior official accountability by excluding his /her to be accountable to the citizen. Still after decreed of regulation No. 48/2012 officials in the *woreda*, after committing light or rigorous administrative fault their accusation is handled by the ruling party mean the final verdict of their fault is given by the ruling party not by the formal accountability mechanisms. The Ethiopian government established a public service tribunal to handle grievances and complaints that public servants might have compliant against their public employers (Randolph and Buli, 2011). Addis Ababa city administration has an administrative tribunal, which hears, litigates and decides cases brought to it. The administrative tribunal has a power, given to an ordinary court under civil procedure code, to execute its own decision, decree, order and the court procedure (proclamation No. 6/2008). But the community are not aware of it. Because of this reason local government bodies are reluctant to avert any local problems. However, to combat human trafficking and other local problems the wereda officials are accountable to the citizens.

4.8. Social Accountability

Social accountability is about affirming and operationalizing direct accountability relationships between citizens and the state. In *woredas* of Addis Ababa the social accountability mechanism is lawfully stunted. Because of lack in adopted formal mechanisms in *woreda*. The only way that citizen account the elected or appointed official is, in used to method .Which is the public meeting undertaken in *woreda* routinely. The community screamed that, they are invited by the *woreda* administrator to step on the public meeting mostly with similar agenda of discussing on contribution of cobblestone road and other construction, on community policing and on frequently revised annual plan of *woreda*. The formal ways of accountability mechanisms including; forming the Civil Society organization (CSO) who seek actively to engage in fought maladministration, forming committee overseeing public services, anti- human trafficking task force and others who enforce, reward or sanction the public official as well as civil servant are inadequately executed in *woreda*.

4.8.1. Formal Social Accountability

The accountability mechanisms employed in all governing layer in the city administration is similar. In spite of its similarity, it's also neglected and acquired minor emphasis which put the public service in deepest trouble. Since *woreda*'s is the grass root organ that serve up the citizens at frontline, their social accountability mechanisms has to be further strengthened. Because, it strengthen the citizens' voice, enhancing public sector service provider responsiveness and accountability to citizens, build demand-side pressure for accountability in public budgeting processes, and build citizen capacity to prevent human trafficking. Those aims have been successful in "strengthening the use of social accountability approaches by citizen and civil society organizations (CSOs) as a means to make basic service delivery more effective, efficient, responsive and accountable" (Samuel *et al*, 2011).

4.8.2. Informal social accountability

Social accountability mechanisms are informal when they are not written in law but are initiated and maintained by non-state actors. The lone method applied is, the traditional way of exchanging information like public meeting at hall which is mainly used by the *woreda* for disclosing its activity. The absence of formal information provision mechanisms may put endanger rights like, accessing of information by citizen, making the voice of citizens to be

heard and engagement of citizen in a process of good governance . It also negatively affects the ability of citizens to hold local government officials accountable. Group discussion participants; strongly request that maladministration and protection of citizens from illegal migration has to be avoided from service rendered in the *woreda*.³³ They are also passionate to have part in activities which is done for betterment of service. The willingness and ability of politicians to be accountable to the people is also the other important point. Since all appointed /elected officials at *woreda* are the member of the ruling party, they are loyal to their party than who give voice to them.³⁴ They are more accountable upward than downward to the citizen. Finally, social accountability is strongly influenced by a range of underlying political, legal, social, cultural and economic factors. To countering human trafficking, governmental and non- governmental organizations are free from any pressure of government political bodies in the *woreda*. Rather all communities are cooperative each other to avert the problem.

4.9. Citizen Participation in *Woreda seven*

Result of inquiry illustrates the bridging mechanisms between citizen and administrators are limited in their far nature. Among those, bridging mechanisms information exchange, dialogue and negotiation between citizens and the *woreda* administrator are among the crucial. The lone method applied is, the traditional way of exchanging information like public meeting at hall which is mainly used by the *woreda* for disclosing its activity. The most commonly used in public offices "information center" is not available in the study *woreda*.

The absence of formal information provision mechanisms may put endanger rights like, accessing of information by citizen, making the voice of citizens to be heard and engagement of citizen in a process of good governance . It also negatively affects the ability of citizens to hold local government officials accountable. Group discussion participants; strongly request that maladministration and red tape has to be avoided from service rendered in the *woreda*.³⁵ They are also enthusiastic to have part in activities which is done for betterment of service. The willingness and ability of politicians to be accountable to the people is also the other important point.

³³ FGD, with selected wereda 07core committee and community members in (23/03/2018), (name withheld)
Addis Ababa city Administrator

³⁴ Ibid

³⁵ Ibid

4.10. challenges of combating human trafficking

In the complexity of trafficking, it is not possible to review here all the challenges associated with it. Instead this section highlight some of them happened in the wereda. It is clear that in order to effectively combat human trafficking, empowering local governments is very important. To begin with, there should be a clear definition of trafficking that can be used by different actors to combat it. However, due to lack of legal definition of trafficking and responsibilities of local government, wereda officials have faced difficulty in effectively prevention, protection and prosecuting trafficking cases. More over the following are the major challenges that have been identified from wereda seven.

- Lack of clear legal delegation powers to the wereda administrators.
- There is absence of a clear understanding of human trafficking among officials and communities in general
- Recourse constraints
- Smugglers provide a lot of misinformation and incorrect information about the possibilities of migration.

4.11. Conclusion

This part of the research attempts to provide the responses of the sample individual along with its analysis and implication. Even though sub city administrator and wereda core committees have given duties and responsibilities of countering trafficking, but what actually going on is the work in the sample *wereda*'s has been undertaken mostly by non-government organizations. Government official's role is minimal. The responses of sample respondent indicated that *wereda*'s administrations are highly surrounded by number of problems while they attempt to do their business. Based on the presentation and analysis of the data it is found that *wereda* committees are not taken serious measuring activities to combat the problems.

It is identified that the challenge that hinder *woreda* administrators are internal and external. Internally wereda committees have low level of education, they are less motivated to do their job, and they do not consult the community, and do not disclose their efforts to their constituency. Externally the wereda administrators are not independent enough in terms of decision-making as there is strong intervention and influence from the executive

and higher bodies of government. There is no enough resources allocated to the wereda, the charter also failed to clearly stipulated the duties, and power of weredas administrators to combat trafficking. So that they are not aware of their duties and this legal gap also creates a problem to be increased. However there are also some promising efforts of the wereda administrators as they attempt to fight the community problems and try to bring the community agenda to the concerned bodies. In generals they are engulfed by internal and external problems that wereda governments play insignificant role in combating human trafficking.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. Summary of Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter provides the summary of the central findings, conclusions drawn based on the findings and finally, recommendations that are expected to undertake the role of local governments to combating human trafficking in the study area.

5.1. Summary of major Findings

Based on the gathered primary and secondary data analysis of the thesis has the following major findings in the study area;

Firstly, the issue of human trafficking is linked to individuals need and desire to migrate illegally from uncertain living conditions in different areas. While few efforts were made to reduce the problem through business start-up loans, the root causes and the vulnerability of potential migrants are not addressed. Procedural difficulties, delay, corruption, inadequacy, frustration to interest rate, and inconsistency between those who provide the loans and the work places have been a bottleneck. In addition, lack of basic skill building trainings about business and planning lead some individuals to use the loan as a means to migrate illegally.

Secondly, local government officials lacked the capacity and experience to manage the existing resources and implement effective programs. Therefore, they are less committed in the fighting against human trafficking and less sensitive to rehabilitate victims.

Thirdly, Local leaders failed to implement the laws, allow genuine involvement of the local community, Lack of coordination, capacity, commitment, and budget are the major challenges. Therefore, anti-human trafficking programs are formed without regard to proper results. In view of all this, the legal frameworks issued by the government remained less implemented in practices. The lacks of financial and material resources show slow attention and prioritization is given to implement the existing anti-human trafficking laws. Verbally, leaders could define the correct language about human trafficking, but they keep missing to deal with it, and the trend seems towards managing rather than really combating the problem. Meanwhile, what is needed first and for most is the devotion to put the theory in to practice; prioritizing the issue, making meaningful progress and achieving more results, because the issue of human trafficking is about the scrape and suffering of human beings and not simply about inexpressive goods.

Fourthly, awareness of human trafficking and its associated risk factors is low in the study area, as evident by the results. Initiatives to raise public awareness of general information about and risk factors for human trafficking are needed. In particular, it is important for people to understand the risks associated with migration and the close associations between migration and trafficking. Current public perception of migration is that it is simply an opportunity to earn money; initiatives are needed to educate people regarding the risks of economic, physical, and sexual exploitation and the nature of domestic migrant work.

Fifthly, There are very few trafficking cases are prosecuted by criminal law, and there are not enough resources allocated for investigation of trafficking-related offenses in the study area. Capacity building is also needed for law enforcement and government agencies concerned with human services. Human trafficking is a violation of human rights. Evidence has emerged indicating that attention to human trafficking in Ethiopia is warranted in service delivery, research and training, and policy. Given the complexity of the problem, there is a need for inter-disciplinary engagement in combating human trafficking at each of governmental levels.

Lastly, the driving factors for human trafficking in and out of Ethiopia were cited as poverty, gender discriminatory practices, and environmental factors, Lack of good governance, famine, war, political instability, and economics. Socio-cultural factors such as early child marriage, lack of access to social services in rural areas, limited access to education (especially for girls), limited parental education, family discord, dissatisfaction with traditional ways of life, the attraction of paid work to support natal families, pregnancy outside of marriage and associated stigma, leaving school at an early age, and large family size were identified as factors leaving women and children vulnerable to trafficking. Additional risk factors identified were corruption, weakly enforced laws, inconsistent prosecution, and inconsistent application of public policy, fortified organized crime networks, lack of coordination between different levels of governments, and the local government's failure to implement international instruments to combat human trafficking.

5.2. Conclusions

Formally, *wereda* level of government can prepare and approve its own budget, prepare and implement economic and social development projects, set up and manage public services and exercise discretionary powers at the local level. In addition, it has an independent organizational structure and has been given the authority to mobilize the people for participatory governance and community service.

According to the US Department of State Ethiopia is mainly a source, but also transit and destination country for children, women and men who are subjected to sex trafficking and forced labour domestically and abroad. Examples for trafficking in Ethiopia are girls from rural areas being exploited as prostitutes or domestic servants, boys being “subjected to forced labour on traditional waving, herding, guarding and street vending” (US Department of State, 2015: 155). In addition, Ethiopian girls and boys are vulnerable to being forced into similar activities in neighbouring countries and the Middle East often under false pretences of a better life. Officials are accused of facilitating irregular migration and work of minors in exchange for bribes (US Department of State, 2015).

The government in cooperation with international organisations (IOM, UNHCR and UNODC) provides anti-trafficking trainings to different government officials. Though, several levels of the government received anti-trafficking training, reporting of victims and investigations of suspects are still rather weak (US Department of State, 2015). Surprisingly, concrete migration policy responses to protect trafficked victims are found to be minimal. The government relies heavily on international organisations and NGOs to implement protection measures regarding irregular migration, without providing funds for these organisations. It is important to note that Ethiopian returnees claim that the government is their main source of support, providing jobs and psychological support. Still, the returnees also claim to be incapable to receive monetary support due to the low capacity and budget of the government.

Currently, the majority of trafficking victim assistance services provides food and water, medical assistance, temporary accommodation and transportations to return to the home village. However, these assistances are provisional and focus only on the border regions (US Department of State, 2015). The government also lacks standard operating procedures to support front-line workers to identify and correctly refer to NGO’s care centres.

Government officials are regularly found to be corrupt and involved in trafficking and smuggling related crimes, but no reports could be found on the prosecution of officials for these offenses (US Department of State, 2015; RMMS, 2016c). The Ethiopian government mainly prosecutes suspects of trafficking by several Criminal Code Articles. In comparison to previous years, the governmental efforts to prosecute suspects decreased slightly. In addition, no information collection system is in place to report information of trafficking victims (US Department of State, 2015). Recording data skills are lacking in the investigation of traffickers in the wereda that is why they don't know the number of trafficking in each fiscal years; although, according to article 18 of the new law it should be provided to support trafficking investigations.

It is clear that human trafficking poses a problem at both the local and global levels. There is an urgent need of local, national, regional and international cooperation to combat this exploitation, from government officials to law enforcers, health care professionals to education officials. Local governments in particular play a key role in improving human trafficking prevention, victim protection and prosecution of traffickers.

In Addis Ketema sub-city, the anti-human trafficking committees have been less effective to coordinate successful anti-human trafficking efforts within the city. Though the duty to lead and monitor stakeholders is specified. Even though fragmented attempts were made to create awareness, failure to incorporate economic opportunities, capacity building, and local input hampers it from bringing an attitudinal or behavioural change. Moreover, the program with the current anti-human trafficking measures tends to be focused on the effects and do little in addressing the root cause through long-term preventive measures.

The absence of institution specifically mandated to deal with trafficking in persons is cited as an indication of less attention given to prevention aspects of anti-trafficking measures. In addition, even the existing policy frameworks do not entertain the prevention of trafficking in persons as policy objectives. It is also argued that while the Constitution stipulates certain obligations and policy guidelines that are relevant to address the root causes of trafficking, there remains a lot to be done to realize constitutional aspirations and entitlements.

In Addis Ketema sub city *Wereda seven*, the issue of human trafficking is linked to individuals need and desire to migrate illegally from different corner of the country. While few attempts were made to reduce the problem through business start-up loans, the root causes and the vulnerability of potential migrants are not addressed. Wereda officials lacked

the capacity and experience to manage the existing resources and implement effective programs. Some of the local leaders are less committed in the fighting against human trafficking and less sensitive to rehabilitate victims. Local leaders fall short to implement the laws, allow genuine involvement of the local community, understand the exact vulnerability issues and provide viable alternatives. Lack of coordination, capacity, commitment, and budget, are the major challenges. Therefore, anti-human trafficking programs are formed without regard to proper results.

The more empowering local governments, is the more problem solving of the citizens. Empowering local governments is empowering the citizens. Effective public participation involves the true devolution of power to the grass roots of citizens and this brings accountability for both municipalities and political representatives. In short, local governments are an instrument and institution of combating human trafficking so that empowering local governments. The FDRE constitution does not expressly describe the nature of local governments. Their establishment as a government seems open to interpretation since the question put two different concepts. In the first place, their establishment seems optional since it gives the power to the states to establish their administrative levels they find necessary.

On the other hand the constitution put a mandate of adequate power shall be granted to the lowest units of government to enable the people to participate directly in the administration of states. Some scholars take this provision as source of empowering local governments. The provision institutes the principle of subsidiary by allocating service delivery responsibilities to the lowest possible level of government. Yet the right of regional states to decide on their local government structure is limited by concomitant obligation to create an autonomous local government as opposed to their own administrative arms. Providing local governments with a constitutional status is a reflection of the recognition of its importance. More importantly, it represents a formal guarantee against any arbitrary elimination of local government by the national or sub national governments. In general, it can be concluded that the prevention and repression of human trafficking has not been given priority at the local level in the city administration.

5.3. Recommendations

As the findings of the study reveals that *woreda* level of governments are overwhelmed by dozens of challenges that make them dysfunctional. The following recommendation forwarded by the researcher in order to get rid of the problems that hamper *woreda* officials and to make them vibrant and active in combating human trafficking.

Some recommendations include:

- Empowering local governments and should give clearly mandated to address trafficking in persons and exploitation of migrant workers.
- A formal coordination system should also be established between the different governmental and non-governmental stakeholders at the national and regional levels to ensure integrated, comprehensive and multi-agency approach towards combating trafficking.
- Alternative employment opportunities should also be made available in the city government to young person's so that they are not forced to migrate for labour purposes.
- On the national and local levels, cooperation with civil society organizations with relevant expertise can help address a capacity gap in victim identification, assistance and support. Partnerships between local actors, from police officers to local authorities, are crucial for both cross-border and internal counter-trafficking efforts.
- Wereda core committees and other relevant government agencies are not well equipped in terms of human and other resources to properly combat the problem of trafficking, giving adequate administrative discretionary powers.
- Develop and provide regular and systematic training to and build the capacity of police, prosecutors, judges and immigration officials both at the regional and local levels to enhance understanding on trafficking in persons and improve the quality of investigation, prosecution and conviction of trafficking cases.
- Extensive public awareness activities should be carried out to change this situation. As a matter of fact, public awareness should focus on vulnerable groups. Apart from general public awareness activities, detailed and continuous training should be given to law enforcement officials and other actors.
- Facilitate greater sharing of information and strengthening of mutual cooperation.
- Strengthen cooperation and coordination among government bodies.

- Local governments play a significant role in reducing the vulnerability of potential victims, providing support and assistance to presumed and current victims and implementing development strategies that address the root causes of trafficking.
- NGOs seem to be more effective at providing direct assistance than the government. There is a need for stronger cooperation and coordination between these two entities.
- Create more programs that focus on capacity-building and raising awareness of self-protection to prevent individuals from being deceived into trafficking.
- Ethiopia is a country highly affected by in country and external trafficking in women and children. Yet, the existing policy framework does not include a comprehensive national policy on trafficking in women and children.
- Finally based on art.50 (4) of the FDRE Constitution, special law should be made that determine the functional competencies of woredas in the areas of administrative discretionary abilities and accountabilities.

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Appendixes

Appendix-I

Interview and FGD Questions

Title of the thesis: The Roles of local governments in combating human trafficking in Ethiopia: The case of Addis Ketema Sub- City Wereda07, Addis Ababa city Administration.

I. Interviews Questions

In order to answer the research questions and to meet objectives, primary data was collected through in-depth interview from different interviewees' in the *wereda* officials and also from few offices in the sub- city .Their detail information is described in bellows annex. Focus group discussion is also made with community representatives& victims. The interviews were translated from English in to Amharic, the official language of Ethiopia (which all the participants are comfortable speaking in).

A. Questions addressed for interview with Key Informants (Representatives Anti-Human Trafficking sub city &wereda core committee, wereda administration, Labour and Social Affairs, Women &Youth affairs, Justice Office) in order to identify the area were *weredas* have administrative discretions& responsibility.

- ◆ Who is responsible in combating trafficking?
- ◆ Does weredas have clearly established autonomous?
- ◆ What is your understanding about the problem of human trafficking in this *Wereda*? How do you describe it?
- ◆ What are the major factors of human trafficking?
- ◆ What is the role of your institution/ office in combating human trafficking?
- ◆ What activities have you done to prevent human trafficking? Please describe the measures taken in your office.

A. Do you evaluate the undertaken measures? If yes, please provide copies of any impact evaluation reports.

B. If no, why? Who is responsible in conducting evaluations? What are the major difficulties/challenges?

- ◆ Have you ever taken any measures to empower the vulnerable groups? Please elaborate!
- ◆ Have you ever support victims of human trafficking? If yes, A. what accommodation is available for victims? B. Is there a follow up? C. does your service made a difference?
- ◆ Do you think that the government is giving attention to prevent human trafficking? A. If yes, how? B. If no, why do you think?
- ◆ Have you made any coordinated efforts with other stakeholders?
- ◆ What weredas' measures are devised to prevent human trafficking? Please describe.
- ◆ Do you think that the government is providing the necessary support for the returned victims of human trafficking? If yes, how? If no, why?
- ◆ How do you see the implementation of current anti-human trafficking legal frameworks in your wereda? Can you explain about its strength or weakness?
- ◆ What do you think up to what extent the mandate & autonomous of wereda to combat trafficking?
- ◆ What are the challenges of *weredas* to combat human trafficking?
- ◆ Do you have any additional opinion related to the issue?

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

B. Questions addressed by key informant from *wereda* Interview with Justice Bureau

- ◆ How do you understand the crime of human trafficking?
- ◆ How do you assess the prevalence of human trafficking in this *Wereda*?
- ◆ What is the driving force of human trafficking in this *Wereda*?
- ◆ What are the methods used to recruit victims?
- ◆ What are the routes and transportations employed to traffic victims?
- ◆ How many trafficking cases are reported to your office?

- ◆ Do you think that the existing legal frameworks are conducive to prevent human trafficking, protect and assist victims, as well as to investigate and prosecute traffickers? What strong and weak sides does it have?
- ◆ What activities have you done to increase reporting, investigation and prosecution of human trafficking cases in wereda level?
- ◆ Have you (your institution) ever assist or protect victims of human trafficking?
A. If yes, would you please give me an example? B. If no, why do you think?
- ◆ What measures are taken to protect the confidentiality of information and protect the personal life victims or witnesses?
- ◆ What specific measures are taken to make available the assets of traffickers to provide compensation?
- ◆ Do you have any success stories in addressing the problem of human trafficking?
If yes, please explain?
- ◆ Is there coordinating and collaborating mechanism between different weredas?
If yes, is it efficient?
- ◆ Have you ever participated in joint trainings with other cooperative entities such as prosecutors, judges, and victim service providers, or the public?
- ◆ Do you or your agency participate as members of core /or technical committee in the task force? If yes, what results does it have?
- ◆ Do core and technical committee in *wereda* are responsible enough to counter the problem?
- ◆ In your opinion what can help to improve the prosecution of human trafficking at the *wereda*, level?
- ◆ Do you have any other information you would like to add?

C. Questions addressed for interview with victims of human trafficking

- ◆ What was your reason for migrating?
- ◆ Who leads you to the trip? Family, Friends, broker/ traffickers, lack of good governance?
- ◆ Did you attend any training or awareness raising program about human trafficking by wereda officials?

- ◆ Have you got support so far by weredas'? If yes,
 - A. Who provides the support (gov't or NGOs)? B. What type of support? C. Is the support is fair enough? D. Where there any challenges with the support?
 - ◆ Have you received certain kind of long-term reintegration assistance? If yes, please explain it?
 - ◆ Are you currently earning income? If yes, are able to cover your living costs? If no, how are you covering your living expenses?
 - ◆ What do you think should be done by the local government /woerda and other relevant actors to prevent human trafficking?
 - ◆ Do you have anything to further suggest or ask?
- Thank you very much for your cooperation*

II. Focus Group Discussion Questions

Questions addressed by representative of community in the focused group discussion, in order to know the role of communities in participation of countering trafficking, as well the accountability of officials to the citizen at *woreda*.

- ◆ How do you see the role of woreda officials in countering human trafficking efforts?
 - ◆ Who are the most vulnerable sections of the society? And Why?
 - ◆ What is the role of the families/the societies in relation to human trafficking?
 - ◆ What are the main challenges faced by weredas' to countering human trafficking?
 - ◆ What governmental measures have been taken to combat human trafficking in the *Wereda*?
 - ◆ What are the challenges of the anti-human trafficking responses in your wereds'?
 - ◆ What measures should be taken to combat human trafficking effectively?
 - ◆ If you have any additional ideas related to the issue, you are welcomed?
- Thank you very much for your cooperation!*

Appendix II

Table 1: General Background of Key Informants

No	Code	Sex	Age	Edu. status	Institution /Bureau	Position	Date of Interview
1	KI A	M	32	1st Degree	Bureau of sub city Labor and Social affairs (BoISA)	Job delivery service team leader	13/03/2018
2	KI B1 KI B2	M M	37 34	1st Degree 1st Degree	Bureau of wereda Labor and Social affairs (BoISA)	1 Head of labor and social affairs office 1 wereda job delivery service coordinator	17/03/2018
3	KI C	M	35	1st Degree	Sub-city Bureau of women, Youth and affairs	Principal	19/03/2018
4	KI D	M	35	1st Degree	wereda Justice office	Principal	21/03/2018
5	KI E	M	32	1st Degree	Wereda small Enterprise development office	Principal	20/03/2018
6	KI F	M	30	Level 2	Woreda police station	Community policing officer	15/03/2018
7	KI G	M	44	1st Degree	Wereda education bureau	Office head	22/03/2018
8	KI H	M	46	1st Degree	Wereda Culture & tourism bureau	Office head	23/02/2018
9	KI I	F	35	1st Degree	FSCE(NGO) office	Menaharia branch Leader	12/03/2018
10	KI J	F	36	1st Degree	Bureau of wereda Labor and Social affairs (BoISA)	Wereda Job opportunity team leader	18/03/2018
11	KI K 1 KIK2 KIK3	M F M	43 41 36	1st Degree 1st Degree 1st Degree	Wereda anti trafficking core committee	1 Wereda deputy executive head 1 Road transport bureau 1 wereda youth federation	13/03/2018
12	KI L	M	39	1st Degree	Wereda Bureau of women, Youth and affairs	Head of Bureau	23/03/2018
13	KI M	M	36	1st Degree	Wereda Finance & economic development office	Principal Leader	01/04/2018

Appendix III

Table 2: General Information of FGD Participants

S.No.	S E X	A G E	Educational Level	Institution Name	No. of partakers	Position of the respondent on the Institution
1	M	34	1 st Degree	Labor & social affair offices of <i>sub city</i>	1	Sub city job opportunity coordinator
2	M F F	35, 33 and 29	1 st Degree Diploma and Diploma	Wereda Labor & social affair bureau	3	1 Woreda BoLSA officer, 1 job opportunity coordinator 1 data analysis
3	M	39	1 st Degree	Wereda Health bureau	1	Head of bureau
4	M F F	38 32 & 38	1 st Degree Diploma & Diploma	Wereda anti trafficking core committee	3	1 Bureau of Justice officer 1 small enterprises officer 1 wereda women federation
5	F	32	1 st Degree	Wereda Women and youth affairs office	1	Wereda Women and youth affairs Officer
6	M F	40 And 37	Both Diploma	Community members	2	1 Wereda residence forum 1 Eider development association officer
7	All F	26,28 ,33 & 36	6 th 8 th 10 th	Victims	4	All Business dealers