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**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**  
**SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF MIGRATION OF ETHIOPIANS  
TO THE SOUTH AFRICA AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR ETHIO-  
RSA RELATIONS: THE CASE OF KEMBATA-TEMBARO AND  
HADIYA ZONES**

**BY**  
**HABTE HAILE DEGELO**

**JUNE, 2015**  
**ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA**

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SCIENCE AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS**

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## **LIST OF ACRONYMS**

ACCORD	African Center for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes
AU	African Union
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CSSP	Civil Society Support Program
CSA	Central Statistical Authority
DFID	Department for International Development
DHA	Department of Home Affairs
EAC	East African Community
EoSA	Embassy of South Africa
ETB	Ethiopian Birr
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
FIHR	Federation of International Human Rights
FSS	Forum for Social Studies
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HOA	Horn of Africa
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICESCR	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights
ICHRP	International Committee on Human Rights Protection
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IR	International Relations
MoFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
MoLSA	Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SADC	South African Development Community
SNNPR	South Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region

SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UDHR	Universal Declaration of Human Rights
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	United Nations Higher Commissioner for Refuge
US	United States
USD	Us Dollar

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## ABSTRACT

*In developing countries like Ethiopia, the labor power migration affects the socio-economic development of the people. The primary objective of this study was to investigate the causes and consequences of labor power migration from the Kembata-Tembaro and Hadiya zones to the RSA and its implications for the bilateral relations of Ethio-RSA. To achieve this objective, both quantitative and qualitative methods are employed, and used both primary and secondary sources of information. Primary information was collected mainly from the migrants, students, teachers, Labour and Social Affairs Bureaus, Trade and Industry Bureaus and bank managers from the study area. Besides the representatives from the MoLSA and MoFA were sources of the primary data. The research used as secondary sources relevant literature, documents, statistics, internet sources and books. The data is gathered in four randomly selected woredas (local districts) from the Kembata-Tembaro and Hadiya zones. The tools used to gather the primary information were questionnaires and interview/ FGDs guidelines. A total 475 respondents were selected for survey questionnaire by stratified sampling technique. Moreover, (14) and (32) key informants were selected purposely for interview and FGDs guidelines respectively. Descriptive statistical method was employed to analyze quantitative data by using SPSS whereas the qualitative data was analyzed using description as well as narration to triangulate its validity and reliability with the quantitative data set. The result of the study indicated that labor power migration is dominated by young aged 15-29, single male, at the level of secondary education, at Kembata and Hadiya ethnic groups, and those traders or small entrepreneurs. The Result of the study indicated that lack of job opportunities, family or peer pressure, poverty, unemployment, lack of skill to create jobs, population density with agricultural land scarcity, brokers, and lack of commitment of the local government officials to create jobs are the key push factors of migration. On the other hand, job opportunities, better income, social networks and smugglers at destination country are identified as pull factors of migration. The finding of the study also showed that the flow of remittance, creation of job opportunities, diaspora benefits, better life and poverty reduction are the positive consequences of migration. Whereas, income inequality among the people, dependency on remittance, brain drain, school dropout rates and cultural diffusion are identified as negative consequences of migration in the study area. Regarding the implications of migration for the bilateral relations, the findings of the study indicate that the migration of Ethiopians to the RSA has no formal positive and /or negative implications for the bilateral relations of Ethio-RSA. Thus, based on these findings, recommendations are made.*

**Key terms:** Labor power migration, illegal migration, Out-migrants, Return migrants, Non-migrants, Push factors, Pull factors, Causes, Consequences, Implications, Ethiopia, RSA,

# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background of the Study

Migration is a temporary or permanent move of individuals or groups of people from one geographic location to another for various reasons (Hagen-Zanker, 2008:5; Lee 1966:49; 1968:184). It is also certainly not a recent phenomenon; on the contrary, it has been part of the human history since its very beginning (Elias, 2013:8; DFID, 2003:2). The phenomenon of migration has been indispensable to human histories, cultures, and civilizations. International migration is a global phenomenon that is growing in complexity, scope and impact (UN DESA, 2013:7; Liang, 2007:486).

Migrants are found in every part of the globe, some of them moving within their own region and others travelling from one part of the world to another. As of 2010, an estimates, around 214 million individuals are international migrants, representing some 3.1% of the world's population (UN DESA, 2012:3; Betz & Nicole, 2013:4; Siddiqui, 2012:8). But, recently this figure is increased by 18 million. There were 232 million international migrants in 2013. Of these, nearly 59 % lived in the developed regions, while the developing regions hosted 41% of the world's total migrants (UNDESA, 2013:17). The pattern of international migration continues from less developed to the industrialized countries, while flows are also taking place between developing countries. During the 2000-2005, 2.6 million migrants from the less developed regions have moved to the more developed regions annually (Adamnesh, 2006: 20).

The international migratory movements in Africa have become more complex in recent years. It is mixed in character which includes asylum-seekers, refugees and illegal migrants among others (IOM, 2013:11). These movements entail women, men and children leaving their homeland and seeking to take up residence in another country for a variety of reasons. The mixed movements often place people in vulnerable situations and expose them to economic exploitation, abuse, physical violence, including gender-based violence, detention, destitution and even loss of life. There are an estimated 16.3 million

migrants in Africa (AU, 2006:5). The significant root causes of mass migration and forced displacement in Africa are mainly deteriorating political, socio-economic and environmental conditions, as well as, armed conflicts, insecurity, environmental degradation and poverty (AU, 2006:3; Solimano, 2001:7). Although extensive hard data regarding the Southward movements is limited, a study of IOM (2009) found that 17,000 to 20,000 Somali and Ethiopian men are on the move each year (IOM, 2009:9).

The international migration of people from Ethiopia is relatively a recent phenomenon. Ethiopians migration to the rest of the world has been highly growing as of the late 1970's due to political instability in the country (Getachew & Maigenet, 1991:63; Horwood, 2009:34; Markos, 2001:7). Significant migration from Ethiopia to countries beyond the Horn of Africa (HOA) began after the 1974 revolution. The first mass exodus to Somalia began in 1977, when the conflict in the *Ogaden* region of Ethiopia broke out and then by 1981, it was estimated that around 20 % to 40 % of Somalia's population was made up of Ethiopian *Ogadenis* (Shinn, 2002:3). This outflow of Ethiopians continued into the mid-1990s, during which time ethnic Oromo Ethiopians also began to arrive in Somalia and Kenya (Bariagaber, 1997:26; Dejene, 2005; Emerta et al., 2010:8). By the end of 2005, more than 1 million Ethiopians migrated to the rest of the world, particularly to the North America, Europe and Middle East searching for a better education and employment opportunities (Tefere and Beruk, 2009 quoted in Emerta et al., 2010:9). On the other hand, Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA, 2013:6) estimated that not less than 2 million Ethiopian Diasporas are residing in North America, Europe, the Middle East, Australia and Africa.

Nowadays, many skilled and unskilled Ethiopians migrate to different countries legally and illegally looking for better economic opportunities (Dejene, 2005). The post-1991 period observed the growing of labour migration from Ethiopia, particularly to the Middle East and RSA (Teshome et al., 2013:20). Although Ethiopian migration to the oil producing Gulf States and the Middle East dates back to the late 1970s and 1980s, it was only after the 1990s that tens of thousands of people began to migrate to the rest of the world in search of job opportunities. The post-1991 period also witnessed the beginning of Ethiopian migration to the RSA which was liberated at the beginning of the 1990s

from the yoke of Apartheid (Markos, 2001:7; FSS, 2012:2; IOM, 2009:35). The flow of Ethiopians to the RSA became noticeable beginning in 1991 after the fall of the Military Regime (*Derg*)<sup>1</sup> in Ethiopia.

The RSA continues to be the recipient of the highest annual number of asylum applications worldwide, with 82,000 applications in 2012 (IOM, 2013:5). It remains to be the traditional destination country for migrants due to the greater economic opportunities it provides. The people who migrate to the RSA are mainly the young adults and economically active and are heading in pursuit of “dream” of capturing the green pasture there. The people of Ethiopia who have been migrating to the RSA are mainly made up of young between the ages of 18 and 35 (IOM, 2013:13). Though the magnitude of Ethiopian migration to the RSA is lesser than to the Middle East, RSA has emerged as an important destination of Ethiopian economic migrants. “There are approximately 65,000 to 70,000 of Ethiopians make their home in RSA. These numbers are increasing every week due to the influx of new arrivals, mainly from large-scale, successful smuggling operations in Ethiopia” (IOM, 2009:33; Massey, 2005:8).

On the other hand, bilateral interstate relations are very important issues in the study of international relations. The peoples of Ethio-RSA have a long and historic relations as the two peoples were bound together by the common struggle to free Africa from colonialism and apartheid. Ethiopia’s victory against colonialism at the battle of Adwa had long serve as an inspiration for a resistance movement against racism in RSA. Ethiopia was one of the active participants in fighting against apartheid in RSA (Garth, 2011:91). It is not denied that the military training given to hundreds of freedom fighters, including the former president Nelson Mandela, is a testament to Ethiopia’s commitment to the cause of freedom in Africa in general and RSA, in particular (Belete, 2012: 382; Aschalew, nd:1). The bilateral relations between Ethiopia and South Africa were revived in 1995 when RSA opened an embassy in Addis Ababa and Ethiopia also has opened its Embassy in Pretoria in 1996 (South Africa Year book, 2010/2011; Maharaj, 2010 ). Moreover, both states signed various bilateral agreements like cooperation on key issues of mutual benefits, trade, investments, industrial and technical cooperation (MoFA, nd: 2).

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<sup>1</sup>Derg is the military government of Ethiopia who ruled from 1974-1991.

International migration is a powerful factor in the development process both for origin and destination countries and opens up significant opportunities for the migrants. Migrants are the ones who benefit most from the process. In this sense, migration is not a zero-sum game in international relations (Alonso, 2011:59). However, in recent years, scholars of International Relations have increasingly turned their attention to the potential threat that involuntary migrants (e.g. refugees, internally displaced peoples, and asylum seekers) pose to peace and security for destination countries (Mitchell, 2012:10). In this context, illegal migration is perceived as a central phenomenon in the course of security issue. According to the (ILO, 2011:58) report, almost all (95 percent) of the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones migrants have been travelling to the RSA in illegal way.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Nowadays, a significant number of labour powers have been migrating from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA. The vast majority of Ethiopian migrants in the RSA are young men in the age range of 18 to 35 years old (ILO, 2011:58). In responding to the determinant factors of international migration, many scholars like (Adepoju, 1995:87; Massey, 1993:432; Massey, 1998:16; De Haas, 2010:14) tried to identify neoclassical “push-pull” factors, although it was contradicted by other scholars who contended that there are a strong link between migration and social networks. On the other hand, it was not denied that migration has both positive and negative consequences on nations, communities, households and individuals. The positive outcome is mainly growing resource transfers or remittances (Betz & Nicole, 2013:12; Oberg, 1996:336; De Haas, 2007:8; Fransen and Kuschminder, 2009:9).

The labor power migration of *Kembata – Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA has positive consequences mainly on socio-economic aspects. One of the positive consequences of the out-migration is the inflow of remittances from the migrants (Abinet, 2011:11; Teshome et al., 2013:7). Whatever its exact value, the consequence of the inflow of financial remittances is substantial in the zones. In contrast, international migration has negative consequences on countries of origin may include dependency of the countries’ economy on the remittances of migrants and brain drain that can occur

(IOM, 2006:5; De Haas, 2007: 10; Bakewell and de Haas 2007:7; Feleke, nd: 8). Where the emigration is long-term and or permanent, the country of origin may lose its original investment in the education and training of the migrant, and its future development potential may be hindered by the loss of the best and bright. For instance, there are approximately, 20, 000 Africans in various professional occupations leave Africa each year for the western industrialized countries (M. Awases et al., 2004:11).

Likewise, Ethiopia lost a substantial number of its skilled man power at different periods. “Ethiopia lost large numbers of graduates who have not returned after study abroad. In 2003, Ethiopians were the second largest group of immigrants to the US and they have been in the top four countries since at least 1990” (Bakewell and de Haas, 2007:9). Furthermore, from 1980-1991, it lost 74.6% skilled man power (Bathseba, 2007 quoted in Emerta et al., and 2010:8). Migration has negative consequences in *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones. One of the negative consequences is that the zones have been losing their human resource power. Although, it has not created a significant professional scarcity in the zones currently, professionals mainly teachers have been leaving their jobs and migrating to the RSA. The negative consequence of teacher attrition cannot be denied that the vacuum created by emigrating teachers compromises the ability to provide quality education to future generations.

Primarily, the problem has been observed on the following people: (1) the migration of professionals mainly teachers; (2) unemployed youths and adults by deciding migration as the optimal opportunity rather than job creation attempts; and (3) students from the grade levels of 7-12 by dropping out their education. Even though the problem was highly intensified in these grade levels, the other grade levels students also have been victimized by migration dream. Surprisingly, students’ even children’s dream is to migrate to the RSA like children commonly dream to be a doctor, an engineer and the like. As a result, as (Teshome et al., 2013:30) pointed out based on the South Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region Education Bureau data of 2007/2008, school dropout rate was 13.8% in *Kembata-Tembaro* zone and 13.8% in *Hadiya* zone, which was the highest from all zones in the region and was well above the regional average (10%)

(SNNPR Education Bureau, 2009). This figure shows that students have been giving less attention to education and that makes to school a dropout.

Furthermore, when they migrate to the RSA, a number of peoples are suffering on the way because of the illegal migration and its consequences. According to the (IOM, 2006:9; IOM, 2009:19; IOM, 2013:17) reports, the illegal migrants are exposed for exploitation, abuse, extortion and robbery, not only by civilian thieves or smuggler networks, but also allegedly by some of the national officials they encounter.

Although a lot of studies have been conducted in the study of international and internal migrations of Ethiopia, few research tasks carried out and limited information was available concerning the topic stated. For instance, IOM (2008), IOM (2009), Teshome et al. (2013), and IOM (2013) have conducted researches on the causes and consequences of illegal migration and related issues in the zones and in the Horn of Africa (HOA). Notwithstanding my endeavor in searching for previous research reports, the researcher could not get even a single research that purely addressed the research topic. Since the absence of research findings which attempt to address purely the causes and impacts of these peoples migration to the RSA and its implications for Ethio-RSA relations was the main gap to be addressed in this study. Thus, the study has tried to identify the causes and socio economic impacts of labor power migration from the *Kembata-Tambaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA and its implications for the Ethio-RSA bilateral relations.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

#### **General Objective**

The overall objective of this study was to investigate the causes and socio-economic impacts of labor power migration from *Kembata-Tambaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA and its implications for Ethio-RSA bilateral relations.

#### **Specific Objectives of this Study are to:**

- identify “push-pull” factors for migration in the *Kembata-Tambaro* and *Hadiya* zones;

- examine socio-economic impacts of migration in the *Kembata –Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones;
- explore challenges of illegal migrants on their way to the Republic of South Africa (RSA);
- examine implications of Ethiopians migration to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) for their bilateral relations

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

With the aim of addressing the objectives of the study, the research paper is guided by the following research questions:

- What factors motivate labor migration from the *Kembata –Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the Republic of South Africa (RSA)?
- What are the main socio-economic impacts of labor power migration in *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones?
- What challenges the illegal migrants face when they are travelling to the Republic of South Africa (RSA)?
- What are the implications of Ethiopians migration to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) for their bilateral relations?

#### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

Materialization of this study has the following importance: The findings of this research have relevance in producing information to the government of Ethiopia to identify the major factors that motivate the labor power migration from the *Kembata –Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the Republic of South Africa (RSA). In addition, it is essential to identify the socio economic impacts of migration, and to contribute the appropriate measures to be taken on the negative consequences of migration in the zones. Furthermore, it pinpoints the implications of this migration for the bilateral relations of Ethio-RSA. Finally, it uses as a spring board for further studies on the issue raised.

## **1.6 Limitation of the Study**

It is important to clearly note major limiting factors which centrally affected the overall of the study. The major limitation for the study was shortage of adequate secondary sources and empirical studies on the stated topic. In addition to this, in-depth interviews conducted for the study were limited to the Ethiopian side only. The researcher's attempt to conduct in-depth interview with the representatives of Embassy of RSA in Ethiopia was not realized due to lack of cooperation from the concerned bodies. Moreover, an attempt to conduct in-depth interview with the Offices of ILO and IOM in Ethiopia was failed due to lack of cooperation from the concerned bodies. An attempt of the researcher to collect data from the emigration Bureau of Ethiopia was also failed due to the security reason as stated from the representatives of the office. Finally, an attempt of the researcher to collect data on the flow of remittance from the private banks in the study area was failed due to lack of cooperation from the concerned bodies. Instead of conducting in-depth interview from these organizations and institutions, the researcher has used secondary data.

## **1.7 Delimitation of the Study**

Because of several constraints like time, energy and finance, the research is delimited geographically and thematically. Regarding the geographical delimitation, it is confined to the *Kembata- Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones of the Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Regional State of Ethiopia. Thematically, it is delimited to the causes and socio-economic impacts of the labor power migration from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) and its implications for the Ethio-RSA bilateral relations.

## **1.8 Organization of the Paper**

This study is organized into five chapters. The first chapter includes background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, research questions, significance, limitation and delimitation of the study. The second chapter focuses on review literature and conceptual frameworks. The chapter focuses mainly on overview of related literature, and

conceptual and theoretical frameworks of the study. The third chapter emphasizes on the methodology and methods of the study. Here, description of the study area, target population and location, methodology utilized in the study, sampling technique as well as methods of data collection and data analyzed were emphasized. The fourth chapter emphasizes on the data presentation, analysis and interpretation. In this chapter, the socio-demographic and economic characteristics of the respondents, causes and consequences of migration, patterns, route and challenges of migration, migration policies and migration implications for the bilateral relations were dealt with. The fifth chapter focuses on the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

The chapter consists three sections. The first section focuses mainly on the overview of related literature on international migration (concepts of migration, patterns of migration, consequences of migration, implications of international migration on the international relations and Ethiopia's international migration patterns) and the like. The second section deals with the conceptual framework of the study. In this section, the “push-pull” models of migration and conceptual map of the study have been emphasized. The third section is about the theoretical framework of the study. Here, related theories of migration and their applications with the causes of migration in the study area have been discussed.

#### **2.2 Literature Review**

##### **2.2.1 International Migration: An Overview**

###### **2.2.1.1 The Concept of Migration**

The concept of migration is a very complicated global issue; no one has yet provided any such concept which can be universally applicable in all circumstances or in all situations. Different scholars have adopted migration in different ways although there are some common elements in their definitions. According to the Lee's (1966:49; 1968:184) definitions, migration is “a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence.” For (Hagen-Zanker, 2008:5), migration is permanent or temporary move of individuals or groups of people from one geographic location to another for various reasons ranging from better employment possibilities to persecution. “Permanent migration is conceptualized as if a person never returns to his or her place of origin, or long term if a person moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months) whereas temporary migration is defined as a person moving to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least 3 months but less than a year (12 months)” (UN, 1998:95).

In addition, as (Kahanec & Zimmermann, 2008:4) pointed out, migration is a dynamic phenomenon in which migrants may move temporarily or permanently, transnationally or nationally and individually or in groups. As commonly known, transnational migration is migrants' movement from one's own country to the other country for various reasons while national migration is the movement of people within one's own country. It could be rural to urban, urban to rural, rural to rural or urban to urban migrations.

### **2.2.1.2 Operational Definitions**

**Asylum seekers:** Persons seeking to be admitted into a country as refugees and awaiting decision on their application for refugee status under relevant international and national instruments (IOM, 2004:10).

**Brain drain:** refers to a situation where skilled persons move across national boundaries (De Haas, 2007:10; Bakewell and de Haas 2007:7; Feleke, nd: 8).

**Economic emigrant:** A person leaving his/her habitual place of residence to settle outside his/her country of origin in order to improve his/or quality life (IOM, 2004:23).

**Human trafficking:** Trafficking in persons is the "recruitment, transportation, transfer, harboring, 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.

**Irregular migration:** people who enter a country illegally, that is without undergoing formal admission. Terms such as "non-status" or "undocumented" migrants are also applied to the irregular population (IOM, 2004:36).

**Labour-power:** Labour-power or labour-capacity is the aggregate of those mental and physical capabilities existing in the physical form of the living personality of a human being (IOM, 2004:40).

**Migration:** is defined broadly as a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence (Lee, 1966). It is also defined as the temporary or permanent move of individuals or groups of people from one geographic location to another for various reasons ranging from better employment possibilities to persecution (Hagen-Zanker, 2008:5).

**Refugee** – a person who is forced to flee from persecution (IOM, 2004:55).

**Regular migration:** Migration that occurs through recognized legal channels (IOM, 2004:56).

**Remittances:** are broadly defined as monetary transfers made by migrants to their countries of origin, are, above all, private funds and are not substitutes for national development efforts, comprehensive development strategies, or official development aid (IOM, 2004:56).

**Smuggling:** it is defined as "the facilitation, transportation, attempted transportation, or illegal entry of a person(s) across an international boarder (IOM, 2004:62). On the other hand, sometimes smuggling overlaps with human trafficking according to the UN Convention Transnational Organized Crime (2004), it can be defined as: 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.

### **2.2.1.3 Historical Phenomena of International Migration**

The phenomenon of migration has been indispensable to human histories, cultures, and civilizations. The history of migration and settlement of mankind are common from the beginning of human life because people migrate for various reasons individually and in group (Liang, 2007:486; Elias, 2013:8). International migration is a growing phenomenon, both in scope and in complexity affecting almost all countries in the world. For instance, the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA, 2012:3) estimated that in 2010, there were some 214 million international migrants worldwide; representing 3% of the total global population. Recently, global migrants stock has increased from 214 million in 2010 to 232 million in 2013 (UN DESA, 2013:17). Between 1990 and 2013, the number of international migrants worldwide rose by over 77 million or by 50%. Of the 232 million international migrants in 2013, 59% lived in the developed regions, while the developing regions hosted 41% of the world's total (UN DESA 2013: 17).

### **2.2.1.4 Patterns of International Migration**

Although the most significant migration pattern has been rural-urban migration, people flow from lower income areas to the wealthier, and from less developed to industrialized

countries in search of job opportunities (National Geographic Society, 2005:1). International migration flows mainly from the developing countries to the developed countries. For example, of the 136 million international migrants living in the North in 2013, 60%, originated from developing countries, while (only 40%), were born in the north. Moreover, 86% of the 96 million international migrants residing in the developing world in 2013, originated from the South while, 14 % were born in the North (UN DESA, 2013:17). The following table summarizes the stock of international migrants between developed and developing countries as well as at continental level since 1990-2013.

**Table 2.1: International Migrants Stock (millions) since 1990-2013**

N.	By Developmental Level	1990	2000	2010	2013
1	Developed Regions	83.2	103.4	129.7	137.6
2	Developing Regions	71.9	71.1	91.0	95.9
	<b>By Region</b>				
1	Asia	49.9	50.4	67.8	70.8
2	North America	27.8	40.4	51.2	53.1
3	Europe	49.0	56.2	69.2	72.4
4	Africa	15.6	15.6	17.1	18.6
5	Latin America	7.2	6.5	8.1	8.5
6	Oceania	4.7	5.4	7.3	7.9

Source: (UNDESA, 2013:1)

As it is indicated in the table 2.2, developed countries constituted 10.8% of international migrants compared to 1.6% in developing regions of the total population in 2013. In addition, between 1990 and 2013, international migrants as a share of total population grew in the North but remained unchanged in the South (UN DESA, 2013:2). Concerning the figure of continental level, Europe and Asia combined hosted nearly two thirds of all international migrants' worldwide (72 million and 71 million) respectively. However, Northern America hosted the third largest number of international migrants (53 million), followed by Africa (19 million), Latin America and the Caribbean (9million), and Oceania (8 million) in 2013.

### **2.2.1.5 Consequences of International Migration**

International migration has both positive and negative consequences on origin and destination countries. The destination countries could be benefited by labor force (labour supply) whereas the origin can be benefited by remittances (increase of wages at the household) (Weiner, 1990:7). For countries of origin and destination, it can become part of an overall strategy to achieve economic and social goals. Migration is not merely a relocation of bodies but more fundamentally a redistribution of skills, experience and other human capital across the planet (Sowell, 1996:38). It has direct and indirect positive effects on development, via employment generation, remittances, human capital accumulation, diaspora networks or return migration (Betz & Nicole, 2013:12; Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009:9). There is a general consensus that migrant remittances constitute a valuable input to family income. Remittance flows do benefit both the migrants' households and the non-recipient ones through multiplier effects of spending.

Remittances were a resilient source of capital for many developing countries during the global financial crisis in 2009 (Siddiqui, 2012:25). According to the report of (World Bank 2011b:19), in 2010, there was an estimation of US\$440 billion is remitted worldwide by international migrants. In Bangladesh, the remittances sent by overseas wage earners have increased from US\$ 23.71million in 1976 to US\$ 2617.92 million in 2002 (Siddiqui, 2003:8). In 2009, India received US\$31 billion worth of long-term migrants' savings deposit outside the flow of remittances, which constituted 8% of the domestic savings and 2% of the country's GDP (Siddiqui, 2012:23). In India, remittances sent by short-term international migrants from Kerala and the diaspora of Punjab boosted agricultural growth at the local level. Its agriculture was highly developed by generating local demands for certain products such as water pumps, high quality seeds, chemical fertilizers and pesticides, adding new dynamism to the local market since 2009 (Siddiqui, 2012:23).

In contrast, migration has negative consequences in both origin and destination countries. Some of the negative consequences for destination countries include unemployment or shortage of job opportunities and insecurity problems. On the other hand, migration

affects the development of countries of origin through loss of essential human resources, often referred to as “brain drain”, as well as through potential depletion of the national labor force due to the movements at all skill-levels (UN DESA, 2012:5; De Haas, 2010:21; IOM, 2013:7). Highly skilled migrants can operate as creators, multipliers and transmitters of knowledge. They are valued for bringing a diversity of viewpoints and cultural enrichment to workplaces that design and produce goods for the global market. The emigration of highly skilled workers can undermine development efforts of small developing economies, particularly in crucial sectors such as health and education. As (IOM, 2007: 8; Sinddiqui, 2012:26) estimated, between one-third and one-half of all medical school graduates in South Africa emigrate to the United Kingdom or the United States every year. Beyond this, migration can create inequalities or creates dependency on remittances in origin countries. In Zimbabwe, remittances simultaneously caused price inflation, exacerbated poverty for non-migrant sending households and increased inter-household inequalities since 2011 (Sinddiqui, 2012:24).

#### **2.2.1.6 Implications of Migration on International Relations**

International migration had been largely ignored by the scholars in international relations up to the end of the Cold War. The reason for this was the inclusion of migration in low politics. International relations scholars tended to divide politics into two categories: “high politics and low politics” (Hollifield, 2008:199). “High politics” is the paramount subject of international relations which concerned with national security, foreign policy, and issues of war and peace; whereas “low politics” is concerned with domestic issues relating to social and economic policy. International migration, like any economic or social issue, belongs in the realm of low politics. To this reasoning, it was not a subject of analyses by scholars of international relations, particularly by national security and foreign-policy analysts (Hollifield, 2008:199). Migration has an arguably become a matter of high politics in the new security agenda (Myron, 1992: 91).

In recent years, and most the attacks of September 9/11, 2001, migration has increasingly attracted the attention of IR scholars (Massey, 1993: 463). Therefore, much of the recent focus on migration in IR revolves around the issue of security. “International migration is

probably one of the most challenged areas of the new security agenda” (Dannreuther, 2007:100). Because, terrorism related concerns have further fueled this trend and put borders in the attention. Although the link between migration and terrorism had been made long before the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, their relation was made obviously clear on September 11, 2001(Waever et al., 1993:26; Miller, 1998:26).

Most importantly, yet most scholars in IR have historically ignored the profound and complex implications of forced migration in global politics (international relations). In recent years, IR scholars have increasingly turned their attention to the potential threat that involuntary migrants (e.g. refugees, internally displaced peoples, asylum seekers, and environmental migrants) pose to peace and security (Mitchell, 2012:10). In this context, illegal migration is perceived as a central phenomenon reflecting the penetrability of borders and calling for greater inspection. Most scholars believe that controlling immigration has become an important field of policy in which several evolutions have taken place in recent years. Hence, since 1990, states have been more likely to draw policies by closing their borders and not cooperating with neighboring states in the making of migration and refugee policies (Mitchell, 2012:8). The most documented case is the U.S.-Mexico border, along which segments of walls have been constructed and where a growing number of watch agents rely on technologically advanced equipment including high-intensity lighting, high steel fencing, body heat- and motion-detecting sensors, and video observation ( Mitchell, 2012:8).

On the other hand, the role of diaspora politics (international migrants) in international relations has gained increasing prominence in recent decades. This is also another aspect to be seen in the implications of migrations in international relations. Nearly thirty years ago, Teitelbaum argued that “immigrant populations do not only influence a receiving country’s policies toward a sending country since the latter may even seek to mobilize its expatriate population in support of its own positions in dealings with the receiving country”(Teitelbaum, 1984: 441). One of the most obvious examples of the complex engagement of such groups in international politics is the powerful role of the Jewish diaspora in the United States. The Jewish diaspora has historically played and continues

to play an instrumental role in influencing US foreign policy in the Middle East (Shain and Barth, 2003:450).

## **2.2.2 Patterns of Ethiopia's International Migration**

Most migration studies in Ethiopia are concerned about internal migration and not much is done on international migration (Adamnesh, 2006:12). Migration from Ethiopia is relatively a recent phenomenon that largely began in the 1970s with the Ethiopian Revolution; however a few had been migrated during the Imperial period (Bariagaber, 1997:26). During the Imperial period, who did migrate were primarily elites who went abroad for professional purposes to learn (Kuschminder and Siegel, nd: 4; Markos, 2001:7). Few Ethiopians were migrated to the western countries such as England, France and USA to attend higher education (Getachew et al., 1991:62). Those who had migrated were sponsored by the government hoping to return back to the home country and contribute for the modernization of the administration system of the country. According to the (Aaron, 2007:5) estimation, from 1941-1974, there were 20,000 migrants out of the 22 million people left the country but some were not returned due to the unattractiveness of the payment at home country.

International migration in Ethiopia was highly growing from the late 1970's due to the political instability in the country as the mentioned. Significant migration from Ethiopia to countries beyond the Horn of Africa (HOA) began after the 1974 Revolution (Getachew & Maigenet, 1991:63; Horwood, 2009:33). It is not denied that Ethiopia has experienced political instability, war, famine, and economic hardship over the course of its history. Most of the migrants were illegal migrants who were asylum seekers and refuges to escape from political instability, famine and persecution (Bariagaber, 1997:10). The legal international labor migration was restricted during the military government of Ethiopia. However, this was changed when the FDRE government came to power since 1991(Beyene quoted in de Regt, 2007:6). In addition, the FDRE constitution has allowed to the free movement of people.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>2</sup> The FDRE (1995) Constitution in its Article 32(1) has stated; Any Ethiopian or foreign national lawfully in Ethiopia has, within the national territory, the right to liberty of movement and freedom to choose his residence, as well as the freedom to leave the country at any time he wishes to.

The post-1991 period witnessed the booming of labour migration from Ethiopia, particularly to the Middle East and RSA (Embet, nd :12). Ethiopian labour migration to the Middle East reached its peak in 2011/2012 after Saudi Arabia began to massively recruit domestic workers from Ethiopia following its disagreements over wages and violations of the human rights of migrant labourers (domestic workers) with the governments of Indonesia, Sri Lanka and the Philippines (Abdu, 2009; Girum, 2010:8). During the time, large numbers of Ethiopian women have been migrated to the Middle East in illegal way. As a result, they have been become victimized by human trafficking. Although, some have heard of cases of abuses of migrant workers before they leave, most of them were not informed of the living condition awaiting them in the country of destination. Most of these women end up as modern day slaves (Emebet, nd: 14). According to the 2013 Global Slavery Index, there are currently 651,110 Ethiopians in modern slavery (albeit both within Ethiopia and abroad), which ranks Ethiopia fifth in the world (after India, China, Pakistan and Nigeria) in terms of the largest absolute numbers of the population in slavery (Walk Free Foundation, 2013:9).

The post-1991 period also observed the beginning of Ethiopian migration to the RSA which was liberated at the beginning of the 1990s from the yoke of Apartheid (Horwood, 2009:34). Though the magnitude of Ethiopian migration to the RSA is lesser than to the Middle East, RSA has emerged as an important destination of Ethiopian labour power migrants. Recently, there has been enormous amount of labor migrants from *Hadiya* and *Kembata – Tembaro* zones to the RSA (Abinet, 2012:12; Teshome et al., 2013:15). Most of the young adults who migrate to the RSA are economically active and are heading in pursuit of “dream” of capturing the green pasture there. This problem is widely observed in the Southern parts of Ethiopia, Particularly in *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones (Massey, 2005:8; Sinedu, 2009:11; IOM, 2009:35; IOM, 2013:17).

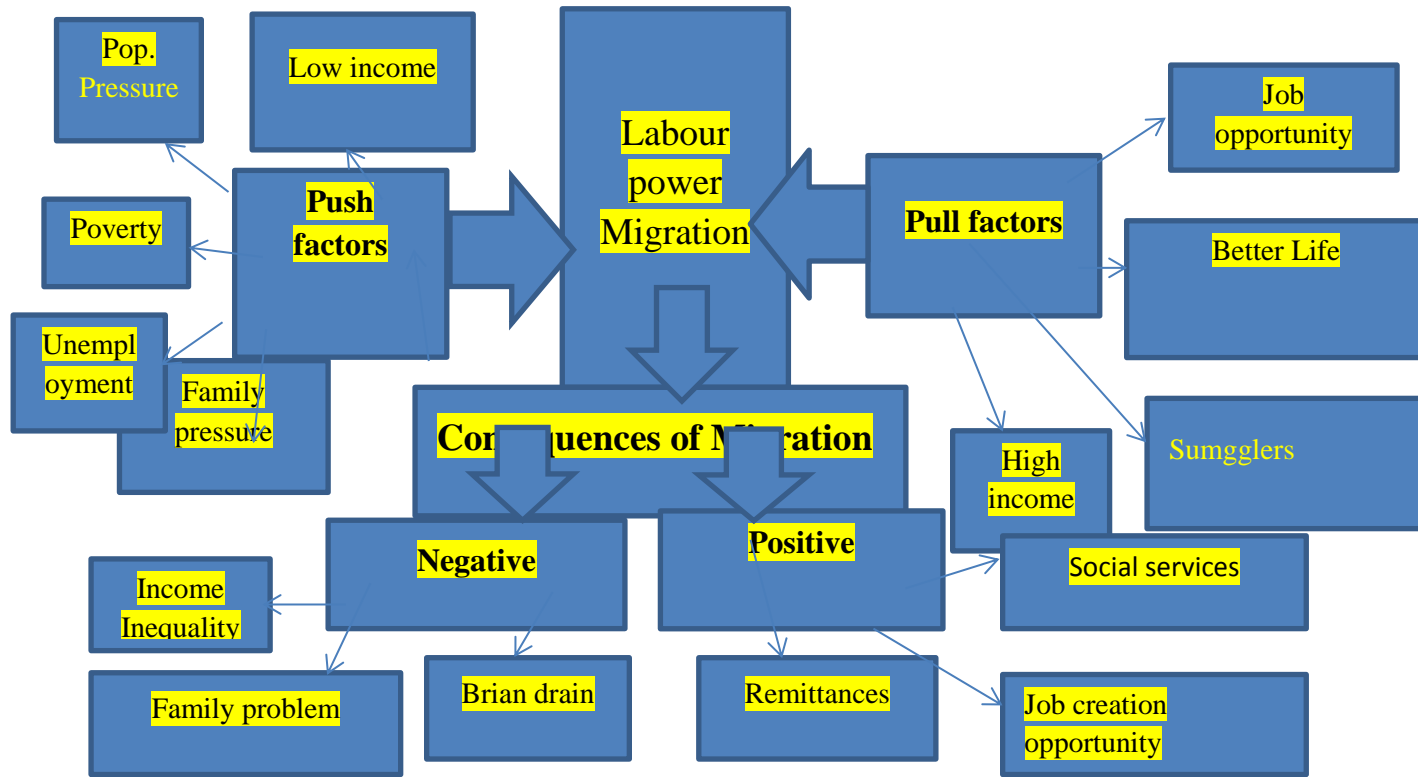
Not only young adults but also some professionals, particularly teachers have been migrating to the RSA by leaving their jobs. According to the evidences of (IOM, 2009:7; Massey, 2005:8), approximately 65,000 to 70,000 of Ethiopians make their home in RSA. But these numbers are increasing every week due to the influx of new arrivals.

## **2.3 Conceptual Framework**

Migration is a multi-faceted and complex global issue which today involves every country in the world (Adamnesh, 2006:10). In spite of its complexity, the factors of migration decision are generally grouped into “push” or “pull” factors. The “pull” and “push” factors of migration can be economic or non-economic (i.e. demographic, social, natural and political). Push factors are associated with the conditions in the place of origin of migrants and seem to be more important in the developing world whereas pull

factors are factors which attract people at the destination countries like job opportunities, political stability, better life and the like (De Haas, 2010:14; Oberg, 1996:336; Adepoju,1995:87; Massey, 1993:432; Massey, 1998:16; Morawska, 2007:2; Bauer & Zimmermann 1998: 97; de Haas, 2008:13).

**Fig. 2.1 Conceptual Framework Model**



Source: Developed by the Researcher, December, 2015

## **2.4 Theoretical Framework of Migration**

### **2.4.1 Theories of Migration**

It should be clear from the foregoing that migration is too diverse and multifaceted to be explained in a single theory. There are multitudes of theoretical as well as empirical studies which are concerned with causes and consequences of migration (Massey et al, 1993:432). While migration is as old as humanity itself, theories about migration are fairly new. As (Hagen-Zanker, 2008:5; Witherick, 1994:83) pointed out, one of the early writers on modern migration was Ravenstein. He had written a book entitled “The Laws of Migration” in 1880s. However, Lee (1966) revised Ravenstein’s 19th century laws on migration and proposed a new analytical framework for migration. For Lee, the decision to migrate is determined by the following factors: factors associated with the area of origin; factors associated with the area of destination and personal factors (Lee, 1966:54-55; Witherick, 1994:82).The following are some of the theories pertaining to migration:

#### **2.4.1.1 Neo-classical Economics Theory**

The theory is one of the best theories on migration. According to (Massey, 1993:431; Bauer and Zimmermann, 1998:95; Harris & Todaro, 1970:126; Lewis, 1954:139, Todaro & Maruszko,1987:101;Kurekova, 2011:5; Massey, 1998:132) explanations, migrations is driven by geographic differences in labor supply and demand between have and have not. It also predicts a linear relationship between wage differentials and migration flows. Economic factors such as wages, income differentials and probability of employment are the main predictors of the behavior of migrants in the theory.

On the other hand, the neoclassical theory of migration has both macro-level and micro-level elaborations but the main explanatory variable at both levels concentrates on wages and income differentials. According to (Massey et al., 1993:432; De Haas, 2008:8; Massey, 1998:132), macro-economic theory of migration shows that international migration could be caused by wage differentials and avoiding wage differential will end migration. While micro economic theory indicates that individuals are the main actors to decide on the movement by analyzing cost-benefit on opportunities at the departure and destination countries (Massey et al., 1993:432; de Haas, 2008:9). Furthermore, as

(Kurekova, 2011:6) pointed out, the results of this cost-benefit calculus as a decision to migrate based on returns to the individual's investment in his or her human capital. Human Capital Theory explains that international migration as dependent on components of individual (human) capital such as age, gender, education, skill, experience, and marital status. Human capital is the factor for this level because people are motivated to move from state to state they thought that doing so will reward their human capital and will have a future monetary return (Castles, and Miller, 2003:23; Massey 1993:435; Kurekova, 2011:6).

The causes of labor power migration from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA have quite relation with the concept of the theory, particularly at micro-level neo-classical theory. Even though it does not represent all migrants, some individuals (migrants) have been migrating to the RSA by analyzing cost-benefits of departure and destination countries. Poverty at the origin and economic opportunities at the destination are the main factors which mobilize these people. According to the informal interviews, some professionals mainly teachers have been leaving their jobs and migrating to the RSA.

#### **2.4.1.2 New Economics Theory**

This is another theory of migration which has come to challenge some of the assumptions of the neoclassical approach. Unlike to Neo-Classical Economic Theory, for the proponents of the New Economics Theory of migration, wage differential is not significant; but protecting family in the time of risky is the main concern. However, they have similar assumptions on economic reasons of migration. In contrary to the Neo-Classical Economic Theory, it considers not only the labor market as reasons to migrate, but also conditions of other markets, such as the capital market or unemployment insurance market. As (Stark, 1991:145; Hagen-Zanker, 2008:5; Massey et al., 1993:433; Massey, 1993:436) pointed out, the New Economics Theory has changed the cause of migration from individuals' decision-making to the family or households members. Hence, the key argument for this theory is that migration decisions are not made by individual actors but typically by families or household members. It is not denied that

family is the most important unit of a society. Family is the bedrock of society. It can play a significant role in enhancing socio-economic foundations of a certain society. Family or household decision on migration is to maximize expected income and to minimize risks and to loosen constraints associated with a variety of market failures (Massey, 1993:436). As Taylor (1999:65) pointed out, remittances play an important and integral part in the new economics of migration research as they directly support the concept of household interconnectedness and the diversification of risk while analytically connecting the empirical study of the causes and consequences of migration. The decisions of migrants are influenced by a comprehensive set of factors which are shaped by conditions in the home country (Massey et al. 1993:436; Kurekova, 2011:8).

When the *Kembata – Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones migration causes are seen in the lens of this theory, they have some truths with the assumption of the theory. As Adepoju (1995:87) pointed out, “African migration is fundamentally a family affairs rather than an individual activity.” Sending of remittances by migrants is identified as one of the strongest and most all-encompassing phenomena in Africa’s migration systems. In addition, Dejene (2005) stated that in the absence of credit and insurance, vulnerable households try to smooth their consumption by partially relying on both sources of remittances. Developed countries have private insurances and government interventions during the risky times unlike the developing countries. As a result, developing countries (like India, Philippine and Bangladesh) use sending migrants to the developed countries to minimize their risks.

Even though, Ethiopia has no labor emigration policy, households have been sending migrants to mitigate their risks. Migration costs are shared between household members and the migrant sends home remittances to the family for their consumption smoothing and investment activities such as financing new production techniques, investing in businesses, shelter etc. According to the informal interviews and personal observation of the researcher, some decisions of migration have been done by the household members of a migrant in the study area. After a family has decided a migrant to send to the RSA, all of the family members, relatives, and friends of a migrant contribute money hoping that: (a) a migrant will pay back the money that they have given with its credits (b) he or she

will help them at risky times (c) he or she will send money for times of national holy days like *Meskel* (The Finding of the True cross), Christmas and Easter. Therefore, the New Economics Theory has linked directly to the causes of labour power migration of *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA.

#### **2.4.1.3 The World System Theory**

The world system theory is also one of the migration theories and it mainly focuses on the structure of the world market. The links the determinants of migration to structural change in world markets and views migration as a function of globalization, the increased interdependence of economies and the emergence of new forms of production (Massey et al, 1993:444). The owners and managers of capitalist firms come to the developing countries in search of land, raw materials, labour and new consumer markets. In this way, the poor countries can be mobilized to the capitalist countries (Massey, et al, 1993:445).

According to (Massey et al, 1993:445), the world system theory emphasized that migration is a natural consequence of economic globalization and market penetration across national boundaries. In addition, as (Ciarnienè, & Kumpikaitė, 2008:42) explained, economic globalization encourages free trade agreements between countries, multinational corporations, and the free flow of goods across the world. All these increase the trans-national flow of capital; trade and technology throughout the world have marked their effects on international migration as well. Because, economic globalization increases inequalities among nations, migration for many becomes not a choice, but an economic necessity.

Nowadays, globalization has a great influence on the world economy. Products produced in one parts of the world are distributing easily to the other parts of the world through globalization. Industrially developed countries have an opportunity to move their commodities areas where cheaper sources of raw materials and labor are available. Through this, they are attracting both skilled and unskilled labor from the developing countries. Globalization is one of the facilitators for migration by: (a) advancing communication technology (b) declining travel costs (c) making easy the contact of

migrants with their country of origin (d) keeping and establishing links with Diasporas and transnational networks.

The causes of labor power migration of *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA can have insignificant correlation to the assumption of this theory. International community can be involved in all forms due to the impact of globalization. Thus, the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* communities cannot be free from the impact of globalization. Even though, this theory is not exactly accommodates with the decisions of all migrants, some have been migrating because of labor market needs in the companies of the RSA, particularly the professionals.

#### **2.4.1.4 Dual Labor Market Theory**

Dual labor market theory links migration to the structural requirements of modern industrial economies. According to the (Massey et al, 1993:440; Hagen-Zanker, 2008:8) explanations, the dual labor market theory like the world system theory, links migration to structural changes in the economy but explains migration dynamics with the demand side only at destination. This means that the causes for migration are not the migrants themselves but factors in the destination countries. The theory argues that migration is driven by conditions of labor demand rather than supply; the character of the economy in advanced countries creates a demand for low-skilled jobs which domestic workers refuse to take up due to, for example, status (Kurekova , 2011:9). Therefore, this theory does not state the causes of migration in origin countries but it explains migration as the result of a temporary pull factor, namely strong structural labor demand in developed countries.

When the theory's concept is seen with the context of the causes of migration from *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA, it has insignificant correlation like the World Systems Theory. The reason is most of the Ethiopian migrants have been moving to the RSA in illegal way even in the absence of the bilateral agreements between the two countries. In contrary to this, other SADC member countries have been migrating to the RSA to work in mining industries. Migration in Southern Africa has been a long-standing feature of the labor market, particularly in the mining and agricultural sectors. An increasing proportion of foreign workers in contract labor, particularly in mining, with

levels rising from 40 per cent in the late 1980s to close to 60 per cent in 2009 (IOM, 2013:11).

## **2.4.2 The Perpetuations of Migration**

The concept of perpetuation indicates that the presence of combination factors for migration. “Factors that influence migration to start could be very different from the conditions that make migration continue, i.e. perpetuate” (Hagen-Zanker, 2008:17). According to the pioneers of this idea (Tilly and Brown, 1967 & Lomnitz, 1977 cited in Hagen-Zanker, 2008:17), the kin and friendship role in shaping and sustaining internal as well as international migration is unquestionable. In addition, (Massey, 1900:60) pointed out, after an initial phase of pioneer migration, migration becomes more common in the community, with more and more people imitating current migrants and being helped by them until migration becomes self-sustaining. There is a strong tie among migrants, previous migrants and non-migrants both in origin and destination countries. The existence of such linkage has to play a great role by minimizing migration risks. There are different aspects of the perpetuation of migration, including social capital, social networks, migration institutions and cumulative and circular migration. Concerning the perpetuation of migration, some of them are discussed below:

### **2.4.2.1 Network Theory of Migration**

Naturally, people to be communicated each other by different means. As (Massey et al., 1993:445) pointed out, the network theory of migration does not look at the determinants which initiate migration but rather at what perpetuates migration in time and space. Networks can be defined as sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in origin and destination areas through bonds of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin (Massey et al., 1993:448). Migrant networks which often evolve into institutional frameworks help to explain why migration continues even when wage differentials or recruitment policies cease to exist. The causes of migration to personal, cultural and other social ties where potential migrants benefit from experiences of their peers, who could possibly provide them with relevant information,

and in some cases, help them adapt to the new environment in the receiving societies (Mohammad Jamie, 2013:2).

The network theory holds that the existence of social networks of information and assistance significantly increases the likelihood of continued international migration between places of origin and destination (Wasserman & Faust, 1994:20). As migrants' social capital, a network lowers the risks of travel and increases the expected returns to migration by providing access to employment and wages abroad and the opportunity of savings that can be remitted home together with the material advancement of immigrants themselves (Morawska, 2007:6). This is why once the network is created; it can increase the number of migrants to join the system. An individual person can think of him or herself as a node that has ties to kin, community members, schoolmates, and colleagues, as well as to larger religious, political, educational, and state institutions.

In addition, the use of internet technologies in daily life has risen dramatically in recent years. Social media such as Facebook and Twitter are facilitating migration in both positive (networks) and negative (human trafficking) ways. Social media are not only new communication channels in migration networks, but that they actively transform the nature of these networks and thereby facilitate migration (IMI, 2012:23).

The concept of this theory is directly linked with the causes of the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones labor power migration to the RSA. For instance, it is very common in these zones men who migrated encourage their adult sons to join them, and later their brothers, close relatives and all of these family members encourage other family members to join the system. Even weaker ties may bring other community members into the migration stream through the exchange of information and assistance in making the migratory trip and finding housing and employment in a new destination. The role of migration networks in the process of migration is often manifested in the form of having a family member who is a migrant and/or having a friend from the same community who is a migrant. These networks reduce the costs of migration by providing aspiring migrants with information about the migration process and about job availability and housing in

the destinations. Therefore, social network and social media are one of the main causes for migration of these people to the RSA.

#### **2.4.2.2 The Cumulative Causation Model**

The cumulative causation model of migration differs from the other theories by identifying not one, but, various factors shaping migration. As (Massey et al., 1993:451) explained, “causation is cumulative,” states one of the proponents of this approach, “because each act of migration alters the social context within which subsequent migration decisions are made, typically in ways that make additional movement more likely.” In addition, (Fussell, 2010:2) stated that, the theory of the cumulative causation of migration suggests that as migratory experience grows within a sending community, the likelihood that other community members will initiate a migratory trip increases. This diffusion is expected to vary across time and place according to differences in the mechanisms guiding the behavior.

To see the application of the theory with the causes of labour power migration of the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA, it has some realities, because the cause of migration in these zones is not a single and could not be explained in a single theory. Some are structural causes which determined by the wage differentials, some are a family determinant (i.e. decision of migration can be decided by family members or households), others are determined by the social networks among out-migrants, returnees and non-migrants as well as some others are also individual or migrant determinant factors. Therefore, the causes of migration in *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones are cumulative like the assumption of the theory.

# CHAPTER THREE

## METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at mainly the description of the study area and the methodologies utilized in the research. The objective of the methodology is to identify the major factors that motivate the labor power migration and its consequences on the socio-economic aspects in the study area. Furthermore, it is supposed to investigate the implications of this migration for the bilateral relations. To reveal the situation, questionnaire, focus group discussions (FGDs) and interview tools were used and details were provided within the framework of the available methods. A detailed description is provided on the research design, how the data collection instruments were developed and presented along with study location, selection of sites and sample households, data collection and data analysis.

### 3.2 Description of the Study Area

#### 3.2.1 Geographic Description

The *Kemabta-Tembaro* zone<sup>3</sup> is one of the 14 zones and 4 special *Woredas* (districts) in Southern Nation, Nationalities and Peoples Region, Ethiopia. The *Kembata-Tembaro* zone was previously known as *kembata, Alaba* and *Tembaro (KAT)* zone, until *Alaba* became the special *Woreda* in 2002. The zone covers a total area of 1523.6 sq. km. The astronomical location of the zone is also between latitude of 7°10'' –7°50'' and 37°34''-38°07'' longitudes. The *Kembata –Tembaro* zone has seven *Woredas* and one town administration (i.e. *Durame*). Namely *Angacha, Demboya, Kedida-Gamela, Kechabira, Doyo Gena, Hadaro-Tunto* and *Tembaro*. The capital of the zone, *Durame* is located 352 kilometers far away from the capital of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa and 105 kilometers far from the capital of SNNPR, *Hawassa*. Concerning the land feature of the zone, of the total land, 75.23 percent is a cultivated land, 6.19 percent is grazing land, 6.73 percent is

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<sup>3</sup> Zone: The highest level of local government in the context of the Ethiopian local government structure.

covered by bush and forest, 3.41 percent cultivable, 3.11 percent uncultivable and the remaining 5.31 percent is covered by others (SNNPRIR, 2008:24).

Like the *Kembata-Tembaro* zone, *Hadiya* zone is also one of the 14 zones and 4 special *Woredas* (districts) in Southern Nation, Nationalities and Peoples Regional State of Ethiopia. It is located in the northern part of the Region. Geographically, *Hadiya* zone is located at 7°3'19" - 7°56'1" north latitudes and 37°23'14" - 38°52'13" east longitudes. Its capital, *Hossana*, is 236 kilo-meters South of Addis Ababa and 168 kilo meters west of *Hawassa* town, capital of SNNPRS. The zone is divided into 11 *Woredas*, including *Hossana* town administration. These are *Lemo*, *Soro*, *Badawacho*, *Misha*, *Shashogo*, *Duna*, *Gibe*, *Mirab Badawacho*, *Gombora* and *Anlemo*. With regard to land use, the largest area (57%) of the zone is intensively cultivated for annual crops, 12% is covered with tree crops, 7% is a grazing land, 6% is forest land, 16% is covered by others and the remaining 2% is cultivable land (SNNPRIR, 2008:35).

### **3.2.2 Climate and Topography**

Concerning the information of climate, the *Kembata-Tembaro* zone has three agrological zones, sharing *Dega* 13.7%, *Weynadega* 71.17% and *Kolla* 11.14%. The annual average temperature of the zone ranges from 12.6-27.5 o Celsius and the annual average rainfall ranges between 1001-1400 mm (SNNPRIR, 2008:36). Like the *Kembata-Tembaro* zone, the *Hadiya* zone has also three agro- ecological zones sharing, *Dega* (23.7%) *Weynadega* (64.7) and *Kolla* (11.6%). The annual average temperature of the zone is 22.02o Celsius and the mean annual rainfall is 1260 mm (Atlas of the world, 2009). Topographically, the *Kembata-Tembaro* zone lies between elevation ranges of 501-3000 meters above sea level whereas the *Hadiya* zone lies with in an elevation range of 1500 to 3000 meters above sea level.

### **3.2.3 Population**

The total population of the *Kembata-Tembaro* zone is 841,663 with its population density of 504.3 inhabitants per square kilometers (CSA, 2007)<sup>4</sup>. The five largest ethnic groups in the zone are *Kembata* (72.48%), *Tembaro* (13.73%), and *Hadiya* (5.5%), *Donga* (4.81%) and *Wolayta* (1.75%). Concerning the religions of the zone, Protestants consist (83.6%), Orthodox Christians (6.55%), Catholics (5.94%) and Muslim (3.07%) (CSA, 2007). On the other hand, *Hadiya* zone has a population of 1,563,441 and it has a population density of 366 inhabitants per km<sup>2</sup> (CSA, 2007).

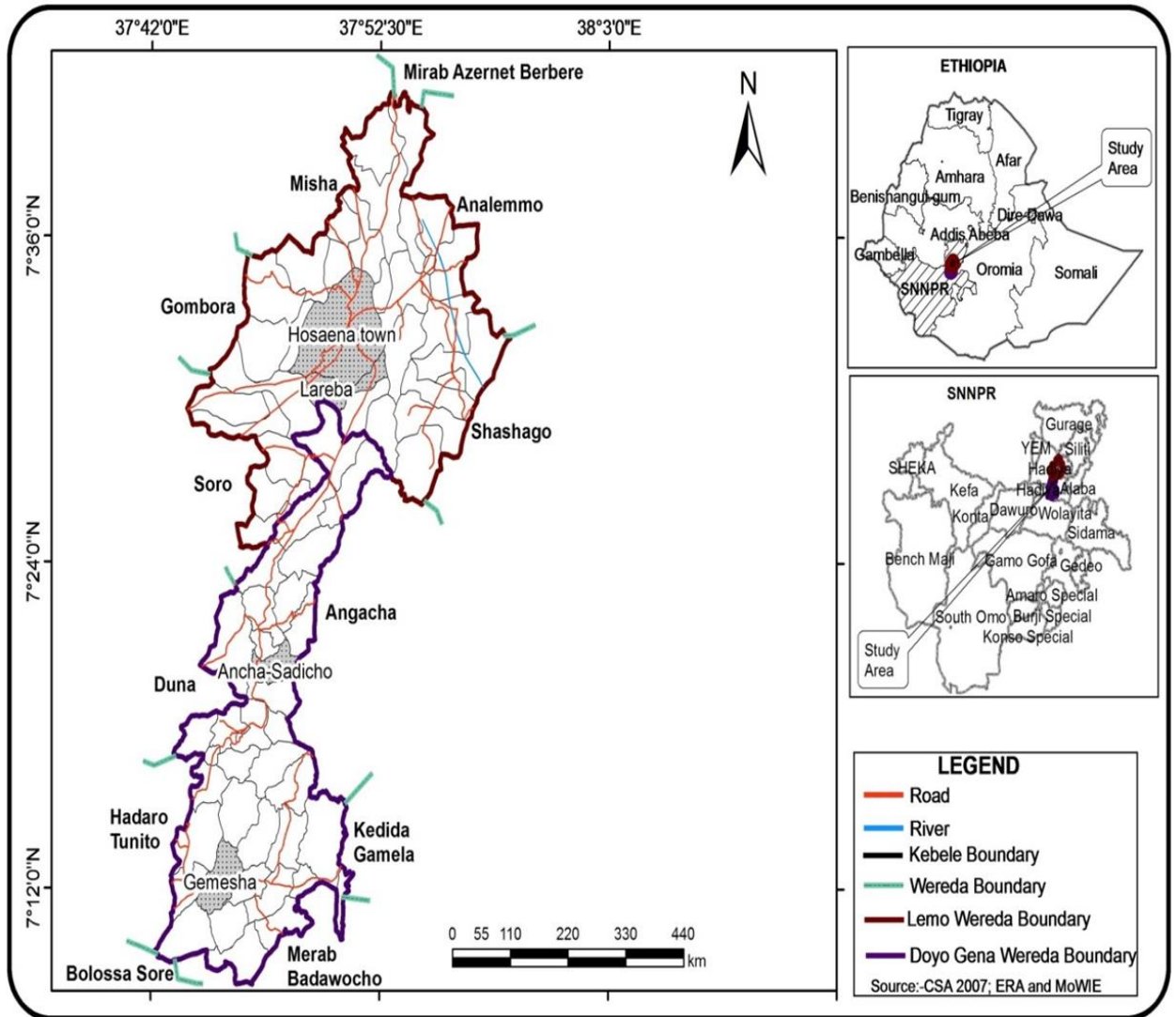
### **3.2.4 Location of the Study Area**

The major geographical area central to this study was the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones, which are found in the South Nation, Nationalities and Peoples Regional State of Ethiopia (see fig 3.1).

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<sup>4</sup> NB: The current figures of the two zones population are projected by the Finance and Development offices of both zones based on the (CSA, 2007).

**Fig. 3.1 Map of the Study Area**



### **3.3 Research Methods**

#### **3.3.1 Research Design**

In order to achieve the objectives and answer the research questions, the following methodological procedures were applied for the research. A case study research design was employed to explore the overall situation of labor power migration from the *Kembata –Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA. A case study is a design use to conduct an empirical investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within its natural context using multiple sources of evidences (Yin, 2003 quoted in Hancock and Bob, 2006: 30). In addition, case studies may employ a great variety of techniques both quantitative and qualitative for gathering and analysis of evidence (Gerring, 2007: 47).

On the other hand, the methodology employed in this study was both qualitative and quantitative types. As Newma et al., (2003) quoted in Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2004:4) argued that mixed methods study is use to address much more comprehensive research purposes than do quantitative or qualitative research alone. In addition, as Creswell (2003:17) stated, the concurrent triangulation approach is probably the most familiar of the mixed methods available and then it is selected as a model when a researcher uses two different methods in an attempt to confirm cross-validated findings within a single study. This model generally uses separate quantitative and qualitative methods as a means to offset the weakness inherent within one method with the strength of the other method. The researcher has attempted to triangulate different data sources by examining the evidences from the sources and using them to build a coherent justification for themes.

#### **3.3.2 Sampling Technique and Procedures**

The sampling technique which the researcher has employed was stratified purposive sampling technique. As Kemper et al.,( 2003:275) stated, this method is one of the basic techniques for the mixed sampling method. The stratified nature of this sampling procedure is the characteristic of probability sampling whereas the small number of cases typically generated through the characteristic of purposive sampling (Teddlie & Fen, 2007:15). The purposive random sampling technique involves selecting a random sample

of small number of units from a larger population. Thus, this study was carried out by purposefully selected four *Woredas* out of the seventeen *Woredas* (districts) and two administrative towns in the two zones. The selected *Woredas* were *Kechabirra* and *Doyo Gena* from the *Kembata-Tembaro* zone whereas *Hossana* town administration and *Lemo Woreda* from the *Hadiya* zone. These *woredas* were selected due to the intensity of the problem. Among these *Woredas*, four *kebeles*<sup>5</sup> were selected purposely; that means one from each *Woreda*<sup>6</sup>. The selected *kebeles* were *Lareba* from *Lemo Woreda*, *Sechi-Duna* from *Hossana* town administration, *Ancha- Sedicho* from *Doyo Gena* and *Gemesha* from *Kachabirra Woreda*. The *kebeles* were selected by their accessibility.

“In stratified sampling technique, the technique frame can be divided into sub-sections comprising groups that are relatively homogenous with respect to one or more characteristics and a random sample from each stratum are selected” (J.Onwuegbuzie, & T. Collins, 2007:287). The researcher has divided the group of people into strata and selected randomly a small number of people to study intensively within each stratum. During the selection of the sample, the researcher has considered the migration status (i.e. *out migrants*, *return migrants* and *non-migrants*), informants’ experience, education level, job position, age, and sex which are contributed to the quality of the work. The participants of the study were selected through the proportional sampling method to attain its representativeness. As Gay (1987:101) suggests, 10% of large populations and 20% of small populations is recommended to be taken in a study. Accordingly, 10% (507) research participants were selected from a total 5076 households of the four *kebeles* by using stratified sampling method. Thus, about (475) respondents, i.e. (173) *out migrants*, (119) *return migrants* and (183) *non-migrants* a random sample were selected for the survey questionnaire from each stratum based upon the percentage that each subgroup represents in the population. Moreover, a total 32 participants were selected for focus group discussions in purposive sampling technique.

On the other hand, *out migrants* of the study were represented by their families (proxy representation) due to the financial constraints to go to the RSA. Proxy respondents are

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<sup>5</sup>*Kebele*: the lowest administrative unit in Ethiopia local government structure since 1974

<sup>6</sup>*Woreda*: Equivalent to district level of government in the context of Ethiopian local government structure, it constitutes a number of *kebeles* within it.

persons who provide information on behalf of study subject. This is possible when index subjects are unable to communicate, or unwilling to cooperate (Macarthur et al., 1997:834). The validity of proxy respondents' information could be determined by the data provided by respondents with that given by independent witnesses. Furthermore, pilot study could be used to determine the reliability of proxy respondent information in a study (Macarthur et al., 1997:835). Hence, the researcher has checked the validity and reliability of proxy representation data by comparing with the data collected by the pilot test, *return migrants* and by independent witnesses.

**Table 3.1 Summary of Population and Sample size of the Study Area**

Study Area or Zones	Total population of the Study Area or Zones	Selected <i>Woredas</i> or towns from the two zones	Total population of the Selected <i>woredas</i>	Selected <i>Kebeles</i> from the <i>woredas</i> of the Study area	Total pop. of the Selected <i>kebeles</i>	Total households of th from the Selected <i>Kebeles</i>			10% of the households or sample size
						M	F	Total	
<i>Kembata-Tembaro</i> Zone	841,663	<i>Doyo Gena</i>	98,966	<i>Ancha-Sedicho</i>	7,454	572	153	725	73
		<i>Kechabirra</i>	141,047	<i>Gemesha</i>	6,273	955	325	1280	128
<i>Hadiya</i> Zone	1,563,441	<i>Hossana Town Ad.</i>	101,849	<i>Sechi-Dunna</i>	15,407	820	410	2635	263
		<i>Lemo</i>	156,189	<i>Lareba</i>	3,399	340	136	436	43
<i>Total</i>	2,405,104	----	498,051	----	33,207	2687	1024	5026	<b>507</b>

Source: (CSA, 2007) and own elaboration

### 3.3.3 Sources of the Data

Based on the research problem and objectives, both primary and secondary data sources were used in the study. As Birhan (2011:60) stated, multiple data collection strategy is more advantageous than single data collection strategy in a research work. The secondary sources were gathered from the relevant literature, books, internet sources, journal articles, published and unpublished materials, conference papers, GIS of Ethiopia,

relevant documents from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones as well as South Nation, Nationalities and Peoples Region Education and Labour and Social Affairs Bureaus. Whereas the selected migrants, students, teachers, Labour and Social Affairs officers and bank managers in the study area as well as representatives from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA), Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA) and scholars of Addis Ababa University were used as primary sources of the study.

### **3.3.4 Tools of Data Collection**

#### **3.3.4.1 Questionnaire**

The survey questionnaires were tools to collect quantitative data from the sample population. The questionnaire aimed at providing information on causes and socio-economic consequences of migration. It covered demographic and socio-economic background variables such as age, sex, religion, ethnic groups, educational status, place of residence, and marital status. The questionnaires included both close-ended and open-ended questions. All questions had pre-coded answers with assigned numbers. The empirical work for this study was consisted of a survey of structured and unstructured questions which were administered for (475) respondents.

During the time of data collection, the researcher was assisted by four field workers. The recruitment of field workers was based on their understanding about the issues and fluency of the local languages (*kembategna* and *Hadiyagna*) as well as translation skill of English version to the local languages. They were also trained in various elements of the questionnaires, specific research issues and objectives of the study. The researcher accompanied field assistance in order to coordinate and cross check their works as well as maintain the quality of data collected.

#### **3.3.4.2 Interview**

In-depth interview was employed with intention of getting richer information from the key informants. As Mytton (1999:128) stated, in most cases, the term “in-depth interview” is used as substitute for “individual interviews”. The word “in-depth” is added to deliberately imply that the researcher gets the benefit of using this approach, which is a

means of creating a better understanding on the issue under investigation. The researcher has conducted in-depth interview in a very suitable setting in order to allow informants feel free and assumes that they were in the natural course of interaction rather than serious jobs. Accordingly, in-depth interview was employed to the key informants from the representatives of Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA), Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA), scholars of Addis Ababa University as well as officers of Labour and Social Affairs Bureaus, Trade and Industry Bureaus and banks managers in the study area. The interview guidelines are focused on the causes and consequences of migration in the study area and its implications for bilateral relations of Ethio-RSA. The researcher has interviewed 14 key informants, i.e. three from MoLSA, three from MoFA and one from Addis Ababa University. Besides, two officers from the Labour and Social Affairs Bureaus, three bank managers and two officers from the Trade and Industry Bureaus in the study area.

#### **3.3.4.3 Focus Group Discussions**

In addition to survey questionnaire and In-depth interview, Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) was employed to increase the reliability of data collected by other methods. As Hasen (1998: 265) stated, the focus group discussions participants can be naturally existing groups or communities. The researcher has organized four focus groups discussion (FGDs), each group consisting of 8 participants. The participants were selected purposefully from the migrants, teachers, students, and officers of the *Woredas'* Labour and Social Affairs Bureaus. The discussions were held on Saturday and Sunday after appointments were made because they were free in these days. The informants who showed their consent were involved in FGDs on the appointment days. In order to extract the intended empirical data from the discussions, the researcher has made an effort to create very conducive scenario where the participants of the discussions could speak all information they have without any hesitation.

#### **3.3.5 Ethical Consideration**

An ethical aspect is one of the most important stances, which a research presupposes. It is related mainly with informed consent and confidentiality as well as with efforts to

reduce possible risks and dangers for the participants. During the field work research, confidentiality was guaranteed to the respondents. The researcher also tried to make the respondents at ease when they felt stressed and did not want answer questions by skipping the question for later consumption. These stances played a significant role to the development of trustful relationships and to the collection of rich and meaningful data from the field.

### **3.3.6 Pilot Testing and Sampling**

A pilot study can be used as a ‘small scale version or trial run in preparation for a major study’ Polit et al. (2001: 467). Before the administration of pilot test, the researcher has shown the developed questionnaire for his advisor and colleagues to be reviewed, commented and checked. After the feedback was given by the advisor and colleagues, the pilot-test was conducted at 10 *out migrants*, 7 *returnees* and 13 *non-migrants* on purposefully selected respondents from the study area; who were not included in the actual study. It was supported the researcher to check the validity and reliability of the data collection instruments. The responses of this pilot-test enabled the researcher to ensure the consistency, and to avoid ambiguities in the instruments of the study. According to the recommendation of Best and Kahn (2002:247), the reliability of the questionnaires can be evaluated by comparing the responses given by respondents during the time of pilot test administration.

### **3.3.7 Procedures of Data Analysis**

As commonly known, the process of data collection is not an end by itself and thus, the culminating activities are data presentation, analysis and interpretation. The data was analyzed and interpreted in the lens of the concepts of a particular theoretical orientation and empirical evidences. The quantitative data from the questionnaires was analyzed by using SPSS software mainly using descriptive statistical method. On the other hand, the qualitative data from Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and In-depth interviews was analyzed by using description as well as narration in order to triangulate its validity and reliability with the quantitative data set.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with data presentation, analysis and interpretation. The chapter consists of seven sections. The first and second sections deal with data presentation on the demographic and socio economic characteristics of the respondents respectively. In these sections, demographic and socio economic characteristics of the respondents have been presented and discussed with the help of descriptive statistical method. The third and fourth sections emphasize on the causes and socio economic consequences of migration respectively. In these sections, the “push” and “pull” factors of migration and socio economic consequences of migration are discussed. The fifth section focuses on the patterns, route and challenges of migration. In this section, the ways of migration, route of illegal migration from Ethiopia to the RSA and challenges of migrants on illegal way were analyzed. Finally, the sixth and seventh sections focus on the migration policies and implications of migration for Ethio-RSA bilateral relations. Here, the legal frameworks for migration both in the origin and destination countries in view of its implications for the bilateral relations were discussed.

#### 4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

**Table 4.1: Descriptive Analysis of the Demographic and Social Characteristics of the Respondents**

Variables	Categories	Return migrants		Out-migrants		Non-migrants	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Sex	Male	87	73.1	121	69.9	105	57.4
	Female	32	26.9	52	30.1	78	42.6
	<b>Total</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>100</b>
2. Age	Less than 15	23	7.6	12	6.9	25	8.7
	15-29	83	69.7	133	76.9	62	33.9
	30-45	22	18.5	16	9.2	64	35.0
	Above 45	5	4.2	12	6.9	35	17.5
	<b>Total</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>100</b>
3. Marital Status	Single	72	60.5	79	45.7	89	48.6
	Married	41	34.5	66	38.2	79	43.2
	Divorced	3	2.5	18	10.4	8	4.4
	Widowed	3	2.5	10	5.8	7	3.8
	<b>Total</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Own Survey, 2015

#### 4.2.1 Age and Sex Profile

Several migration studies have revealed that the majority age level is concentrated in young adult age groups, even though the occurrence of migration can be seen at all age levels (Clark, 1986:21; Goldstein, 1976:135). In supporting this idea, the result of the study shows that the rate of migration is found significantly highest for those belonging to the age category of (15-29) followed by (30-45), (below 15) and (above 45 years) about (69.7%), (18.5%), (7.6%) and (4.2%) respectively for *return migrants*. Concerning the *out migrants*, about (76.9%) are categorized under 15-29 followed by (9.2%) under 30-45, (6.9%) below 15 and (6.9%) above 45 age groups. However, it is different for *non-migrants*, about (35.0%) are categorized under 30-45, followed by (33.9%) under 15-29, (17.5%) above 45 and (8.7 %) below 15 (see table 4.1 above). From this analysis, one can understand that the most migratory age groups from the return and out migrants are the most productive forces (15-29). According to the National Youth Policy of Ethiopia (2004:5), the youth categorized “between” the age groups of 15-29 are the productive force. In this study, they are found to be the dominant migratory age group.

On the other hand, concerning gender as one of the demographic factors, perhaps the most important form of social differentiation that influences migration propensities is dominated by males with percentage of (73.1%) and (26.9%) for females from the *return migrants*. Concerning the *out migrants*, about (69.9%) were males and (30.1%) were females. However, for *non-migrants*, the figure is quite different, about (57.4%) were males and (42.6%) were females. Disclosing to the result of the study, empirical studies show that male migrants outnumber the female migrants in developing countries (UN, 1988:195; Barke and O’Hare, 1991:205).

#### 4.2.2 Marital Status

Migration decision of an individual is also influenced by marital status. According to the evidence, in developing countries, most migrants are single (Clarke, 1972:132; Ducoff, 1970:191). The result of the study shows that the migration propensity in the study area was dominated by the single migratory group, about (60.5%) followed by married (34.5%), divorced (2.5%) and widowed (2.5%) for *return migrants*. Concerning *out-*

*migrants*, about (45.7%), (38.2%), (10.4%) and (5.8%) were single, married, divorced and widowed respectively. Unfortunately, among the respondents of *non-migrants*, the majority group was single. About (48.6%), (43.2%), (4.4%) and (3.8%) were single, married, divorced and widowed respectively. The result of the study showed that the single are categorized in largest proportion migratory group, about (45.7%) *return migrants* and (68.5%) *out migrants*.

### 4.3 Socio-economic Characteristics of the Respondents

**Table 4.2 Descriptive Analysis of the Socio-cultural Characteristics of the Respondents**

Variables	Categories	<i>Return migrants</i>		<i>Out-migrants</i>		<i>Non-migrants</i>	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Education Status	Illiterate	5	4.2	6	3.5	10	5.8
	Primary(1-8)	40	33.6	16	19.2	43	23.5
	Secondary (9-12)	49	41.2	83	48.0	58	31.7
	Diploma(10+3)	14	11.8	44	15.4	26	14.2
	Degree and above	11	9.2	24	13.9	46	25.1
	<b>Total</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>100</b>
2. Religion	Protestant	58	48.7	90	52.0	105	57.4
	Orthodox	17	14.3	35	20.2	39	21.3
	Catholic	20	16.8	24	13.9	19	10.4
	Muslim	20	16.8	10	5.8	14	7.7
	Other	4	3.4	14	8.1	6	3.3
	<b>Total</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>100</b>
3. Ethnicity	<i>Kembata</i>	44	37.0	64	37.0	66	36.1
	<i>Hadiya</i>	47	39.5	70	40.5	68	37.2
	<i>Tembaro</i>	15	12.6	5	2.9	8	4.4
	<i>Donga</i>	7	5.9	9	5.2	18	9.8
	Others	6	5.0	25	14.5	23	12.6
	<b>Total</b>	<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Own Survey, 2015

#### 4.3.1 Education Status

The dream for migration varies according to the education status of migrants. Although the findings of CSA (1999) in Ethiopia showed that 70% of the internal migrants were illiterate, according to the result of this study, illiterates were the lowest of all education status. From the *return migrants*, about (4.2%) were illiterate followed by under graduate degree and above (9.2%), diploma (11.8%), primary (33.6%) and secondary (41.2%).

From the *out migrants*, in the same education levels, the percentages of each level have been reported like (3.5%), (13.9%), (15.4%), (19.2%), and (48.0%) respectively. On the other hand, from the *non-migrants*, the illiterate were about (5.8%), diploma (14.2%), primary (23.5%), under graduate degree and above (25.1%) and secondary (31.7%). Here, the most educated one are categorized under *non-migrants*. According to the result of the study, the highest proportion of migrants is seen on the secondary education level. About (41.2%) from the *return migrants* and (48.0%) from the *out migrants* were categorized in the secondary education level. Based on this result, one can understand that the most exposed groups for illegal migration were the secondary education level respondents (see table 4.2 above).

#### **4.3.2 Religion and Ethnic Groups**

The result of the study shows that the dominant religion in the study area is the protestant religion which accounts for the highest proportion among others. Based on the data obtained from the respondents, about (48.7%) were Protestants followed by (14.3%) Orthodox Christians, (16.8%) Catholic, (16.8%) Muslims and (3.4%) were others among the *return migrants*. Concerning the *out migrants*, about (52.0%), (20.2%), (13.9%), (5.8%) and (8.1%) were protestants, Orthodox Christianity, Catholic, Muslims and Others respectively. Similar to this, about (57.4%), (21.3%), (10.4%), (7.7%) and (3.3%) were protestants, Orthodox Christianity, Catholic, Muslims and others among the *non-migrants* respectively (see table 4.2 above).

On the other hand, concerning the ethnic groups of the respondents, about (39.5%) were *Hadiya* followed by (37.0%) *Kembata*, (12.6%) *Tembaro*, (5.9%) *Donga* and (5.0%) were other ethnic groups among the *return-migrants*. Concerning the *out-migrants*, about (40.5%), (37.0%), (14.5%), (5.2%) and (2.9%) were *Hadiya*, *Kembata*, *Tembaro*, *Donga* and other ethnic groups respectively. Besides, about (37.2%), (36.1%), (12.6%), (9.8%) and (4.4%) were *Hadiya*, *Kembata*, *Tembaro*, *Donga* and other ethnic groups among the *non-migrants* respectively (see table 4.2 above). The most exposed ethnic groups in the study area for migration to the RSA were the *Hadiya* and *Kembata* ethnic groups comparing to others.

### **Why is Migration to the RSA Dominant in *Kembata* and *Hadiya* Ethnic Groups?**

It could be the question of many people why mainly *Kembata* and *Hadiya* ethnic groups from Ethiopia, particularly SNNPR migrate to the RSA. To investigate the reason of labor power migration dominance in *Kembata* and *Hadiya* ethnic groups, the researcher has interviewed one of the key informants from the MoFA. His response was as follows:

*One of the basic reasons was the formation of strong social networks between the origin and destination countries. Initially, there was an ambassador from Ethiopia in the RSA for certain years and he was from the Kembata ethnic group. During his ambassadorial role in the RSA, he has created possibilities for some people to move from his own Woreda to the RSA. Gradually, this had created very strong social networks in Kembata-Tembaro and Hadiya zones<sup>7</sup>.*

In supporting the interview idea, as (Massey, 1900:60) pointed out in the Network Theory of Migration, after an initial phase of pioneer migration, migration becomes more common in the community, with more and more people imitating current migrants and being helped by them until migration becomes self-sustaining. As a result, a strong tie can be created among migrants, previous migrants and non-migrants both in origin and destination countries.

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<sup>7</sup> Anonymous Interview: Senior/Desk Officer of the Southern African Countries, MoFA on 4 March 2015.

### 4.3.3 Occupation, Income and Capital

**Table 4.3 Descriptive Analysis of the Economic Characteristics of the Respondents**

Variables	Categories	Return migrants		Out-migrants		Non-migrants	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
1. Occupation type before migration	Employed	12	10.1	19	11.0		
	Farmer	32	26.9	47	27.2		
	Trader or Businessman	36	30.3	64	37.0		
	Student	25	21.0	35	20.2		
	Daily Labour	7	5.9	4	3.5		
	Other	7	5.9	2	1.2		
	<b>Total</b>		<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	
2. Occupation type during survey Time	Employed	6	5.03	6	3.5	55	30.1
	Farmer	4	3.4	3	1.7	42	23.0
	Trader or Businessmen	86	72.2	147	85.0	73	39.9
	Service	15	12.6	3	1.7	4	2.2
	Other	8	6.7	14	8.1	9	4.8
	<b>Total</b>		<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>
3. Monthly income before migration	Less than 200 ETB	76	63.9	44	25.4		
	500 ETB	5	4.2	22	12.7		
	1000 ETB	9	7.6	44	25.4		
	2000 ETB	11	9.2	29	16.8		
	5000 and Above ETB	18	15.1	34	19.7		
	<b>Total</b>		<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	
4. Monthly income during survey time	Less than 5000 ETB	3	2.51	5	2.9	110	60.13
	10,000 ETB	14	11.78	17	9.8	37	20.19
	20,000 ETB	33	27.7	51	29.47	11	6.0
	30,000 ETB	51	47.74	66	38.13	6	3.3
	Above 30,000 ETB	18	15.1	34	19.72	8	4.4
	<b>Total</b>		<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>
5. Total Capital before migration	Less than 5, 000 ETB	60	50.4	53	30.6		
	10,000 ETB	36	30.3	50	28.9		
	20, 000 ETB	12	10.1	20	11.6		
	50, 000 ETB	6	5.0	27	15.6		
	Above 50,000 ETB	5	4.2	23	13.3		
	<b>Total</b>		<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	
6. Total Capital during survey time	Less than 50, 000 ETB	2	1.69	3	1.74	115	62.45
	50,000-100,000 ETB	10	10.5	4	2.3	25	13.7
	200,000 ETB	30	24.3	63	36.4	13	7.09
	1000,000 ETB	17	14.3	45	26.0	16	8.8
	Above 1000,000 ETB	60	50.4	51	29.5	14	7.63
	<b>Total</b>		<b>119</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>173</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>183</b>

Source: Own Survey, 2015

Concerning the occupation type of the respondents, the result of the study indicates that the largest percentage of the respondents was engaged in trade and small enterprises. About (30.3%) of *return migrants* and (37.0%) of *out migrants* were engaged in trade and small enterprises before they migrate to the RSA. The result indicated that occupation type is highly correlated with migration decision. Even if the occupation type for both *return* and *out migrants* was similar during the pre and post-migration, the figure changed dramatically. About (72.2%) of *return migrants* and (85.0%) of *out migrants* were traders or entrepreneurs during the survey time.

Regarding monthly income of the *return* and *out migrants*, the result of the study reveals that about (63.9%) of *return migrants* and (25.4%) of *out migrants* used to save less than 200 ETB per month before they migrate to the RSA. From this, one can understand that low income is one of the reasons for illegal migration in the study area. However, during post- migration, about (47.5%) of *return migrants* and (38.1%) of *out migrants* have been saving more than 30,000 ETB per month. Concerning their capital, the largest proportion, about (50.4%) of *return migrants* and (30.6%) of *out migrants* had deposited less than 5000 ETB during pre-migration. However, the largest proportion, about (50.4%) of *return migrants* and (29.5%) of *out migrants* have accumulated more than 1,000,000 ETB during post migration. A few figure, only (1.7%) of the *return migrants* and (1.74%) of the *out migrants* have accumulated less than 50,000ETB in post-migration (during the survey of the researcher). In contrary, about (60.1%) of *non-migrants* have been saving less than 5000 ETB per month. Concerning their capital also, about (62.5%) have accumulated less than 50,000 ETB whereas only (7.6%) have accumulated more than 1000,000 ETB during the survey time of the researcher. Thus, there is a wide gap between migrants and *non-migrants* in terms of income and capital in the study area (see table 4.3 above).

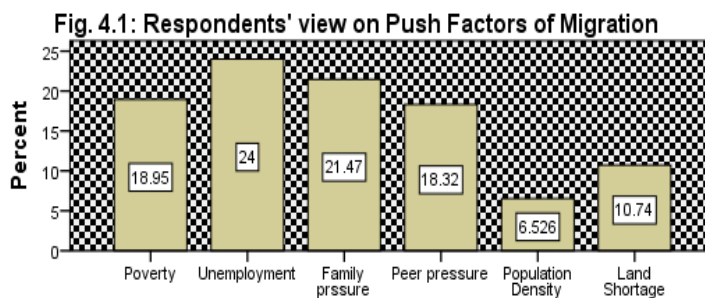
#### **4.4 Causes of Migration in *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* Zones**

As it is extensively discussed in the literature, migration is primarily motivated by “push” and “pull” factors. “Push” factors are the reasons why people leave an area of residence for the economic and non-economic reasons. Economic reasons might be lack of

opportunities in home country like unemployment, a dramatic reduction in social services, increasing poverty etc. Whereas non-economic reasons are war, ethnic discrimination, political persecution at home etc. On the other hand, “pull” factors are the reasons that attract people from their residence or country like higher employment opportunities, more wealth, better services, and good climate, safe security reason, less crime, political stability, more fertile land, lower risk from natural hazards etc. (Solimana, 2001:7; Broadly and Cunningham, 1994:22). The “push –pull” factors of migration in the study area are discussed below.

#### 4.4.1 Push Factors of Migration

In developing countries, many people consider migration as the only option to improve their lives. As the findings of this study depict, the economic “push” factors do play greater role than the non-economic once towards motivating out migration in the study area. Though there are, according to the respondents, few non-economic reasons like lack of good governance, social networks and family or peer pressure, it is due to economic factors that the *out migration* in these zones is quite boosted. Based on the data gathered from the interviews and focus group discussions, the main push factors in the study area include poverty, unemployment, lack of job opportunities, lack of skills to create job, population pressure with agricultural land scarcity, brokers, and lack of commitment of the local government officials to create jobs for youths and adults. In this regard, the respondents’ views on push factors of migration have been presented and discussed under here:



Source: Own survey, 2015

The result of the study revealed that although many factors have contributed their part for the illegal migration in the zones, their proportion is different.

Unemployment has contributed the highest proportion, about (24%) followed by family pressure (21.5%), poverty (19%), peer pressure (18%), agricultural land scarcity (11%) and population density (7%) respectively. As mentioned above, among the push factors of migration, unemployment has contributed the highest percentage for the illegal migration in the study area. This is related to lack of various job opportunities other than practicing traditional farming with small enterprises. The youths have shortage of skills to create jobs in alternative livelihoods due to lack of the vocational training institutions, particularly in the *Kembata-Tembaro* zone. In *Kembata-Tembaro* zone, there is only one vocational training institution with limited departments. In connection to this, lack of the good governance or lack of commitment of the local government officials to create job opportunities for the young and adult people has been making them to be hopeless and lack of vision for future life and then choose migration as an optimal option to improve their livelihoods.<sup>8</sup>

Furthermore, the perception of the community (family, peer and the society at large) is among the push factors that have been contributing for the illegal migration of youths and adults in the study area. For instance, religious leaders and preachers, families, peers and relatives encourage the youth and adults migration by praying, contributing money and affording traditional blessings respectively. Here, the interest of a family to send one of the family members is to receive remittance during the risky times and celebrations of the holidays like the Finding of the True Cross, *Meskel* (መስቀል), Christmas and Easter. Neighboring households are ever competing with the number of children they send to the RSA. A family with no one in RSA means not considered as well to do or secured economically. The words of a participant during FGDs, is quite evident that there has been established competition among the families to send one of the family members to the RSA as sending a person to the RSA is believed to be a great prestige in the communities.

As commonly known, poverty is one of the push factors that make most of the people leave their own country or place of residence. Even though poverty is a common problem

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<sup>8</sup> Interview with Zelalem Amado : Senior/Desk Officer of the Southern African Countries, MoFA, on 4 March 2015

in Ethiopia, the people who are exposed for the illegal migration to the RSA are the people of Southern part of Ethiopia, particularly the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones. Migration is believed as one of the reasons as poverty-reduction strategy in the study area. The most common migration goals reported in the FGDs was to look for opportunities to support the family, and to acquire start-up or working capital that would help to start or expand their own or family business<sup>9</sup>. Moreover, population pressure with the shortage of agricultural land is reported among the “push” factors of migration in the study area. The two zones are among the most densely populated areas with the shortage of agricultural land in Ethiopia.<sup>10</sup> Disclosing to this, one of the FGD participants has stated that:

*I have 10 children but my farmland is a quarter of hectare. Almost all have been seen with lack of interest to learn when they were at schools. Therefore, I had decided to send the oldest son to the RSA by collecting money even renting my farmland for at least six years. After he went to the RSA, he has taken three of them. Besides, he has created job opportunities for others at home country (FGD participant in Kechabira Woreda, Kembata-Tembaro zone, February, 2015).*

On the other hand, the brokers’ role is also among the considerable “push” factors of illegal migration. They have strong linkage starting from Ethiopia via transit countries up to the RSA. In the beginning, they had been paid from an individual migrant around 20,000 ETB but currently, they are collecting more than 90,000 ETB per individual for illegal migration. They make all the arrangements with their associates along the route, even supplying some migrant groups with a “code book” that contains phone numbers and meeting points along the journey. As (IOM, 2013:17) report has states, “various brokers within a specific country do work in collaboration with other brokers in the same country or in the next transit country to arrange logistics for different groups of illegal migrants from source country.” Moreover, as the interviewee has revealed, one of the main contributing factors for the brokers’ business in the SNNPR is lack of strong action to punish brokers. Particularly, the measure which has been taking on brokers by the government of the SNNPR is not firm to combat the problem. In the *Amhara* and *Tigray*

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<sup>9</sup> Information gathered from focus group discussion participants, on 26 January 2015

<sup>10</sup> Interview with Habtamu Wondimu: Social Psychologist at the Addis Ababa University, on 26 March 2015

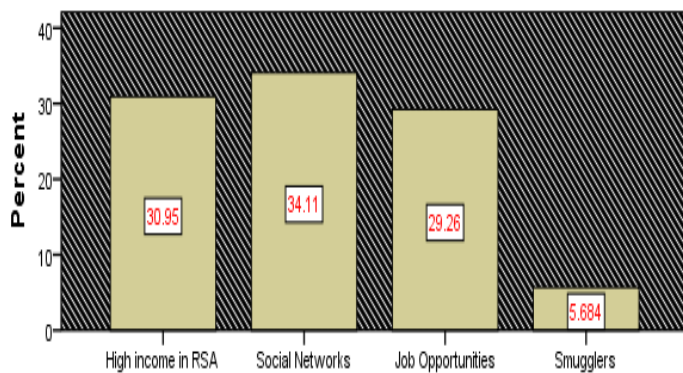
regions, the measures which have been taking on the brokers are firmer than those by the SNNPR. In these regions, once they are caught, they could be put in jail and sentenced from five to seven years unlike the SNNPR.<sup>11</sup>

#### 4.4.2 Pull Factors of Migration

Concerning the “pull” factors of migration in the study area, job opportunities, better income, employment accessibility, social networks and smugglers were identified as the main pull factors that have been attracting youths and adults to the RSA.

The “pull” of South Africa as a destination is perceived greater economic opportunities it provides for migrants.

Figure 4.2 Respondents' Respose on Pull Factors of Migration



Source: Own Survey, 2015

The result of the study reveals that, social network contributed the highest proportion for illegal migration, about (34%) followed by high income (31%), job opportunities (29%) and smugglers (6%) at destination.

In supporting the result of the study, the interviewee has revealed that the black South African are not interested to engage in clerk works and small businesses in their country. It is great opportunity to the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* peoples to do such businesses. Naturally, the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* people are hard workers. They never prefer job types. They do whatever they get so as to change life. They never beg or are dependent on others. Culturally it is shame.<sup>12</sup>

<sup>11</sup> Interview with Tafa Tulu: Consular Monitoring and Support Directorate, MoFA on 3 March 2015

<sup>12</sup> Interview with Zelalem Amado: Senior/Desk Officer of the Southern African Countries, on 04 MoFA on March 2015

As a result of the “push – pull” factors of migration, a huge figure of labour power migrants have been moving to the RSA each year. According to the Labour and Social Affairs Bureau of the SNNPRS of Ethiopia, a large number of labour power migrants have been moving from the Southern Ethiopia. The following table reveals the statistics of migrants of Southern Ethiopia to the RSA from 2004 to 2014.

**Table 4.4: The Figure of Migrants from Southern Ethiopia to the RSA from 2004 to 2014**

<b>Year</b>	2004	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	Total
<b>No of Migrants</b>	26, 000	28, 882	16, 925	44, 744	34, 422	75, 651	84, 000	74, 500	10, 000	321, 124

Source: SNNPR Labour and Social Affairs Bureau Abstract, 2014

As the table 4.5 indicates, a huge number of migrants have been moving from the Southern Ethiopia to the RSA. Among these, *Hadiya* and *Kembata-Tembaro* zones’ migrants are the dominant ones. Besides, *Guraghe*, *Wolaiyta*, *Gamo Gofa*, and *Silte* zones and *Halaba special Woreda* (district) people were part of the migrants to some extent (SNNPR Labour and Social Affairs Bureau Abstract, 2014:7).

## **4.5 Consequences of Migration in the Study Area**

### **4.5.1 Economic Consequences**

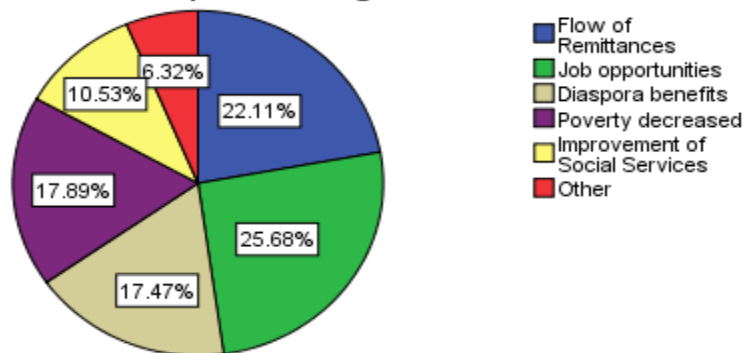
#### **4.5.1.1 Positive Consequences**

It is commonly known that migration has both positive and negative consequences for origin and destination countries. The Labor power migration can have many beneficial elements for those countries which send and receive migrant workers as well as for the workers themselves. The welfare gain of immigration for the destination country is substantial due to the fact that immigration increases the supply of labor, which increases employment opportunity, production and GDP (ILO, 2006:2). For instance, the availability of low-cost childcare provided by immigrants can enable young local women to go back to work. Less-educated immigrants increase labor productivity as they

balance the local labor force that will be better able to specialize in more productive balancing tasks. The immigration of the high skilled can boost productivity through innovation and specialization for destination countries (IOM, 2011:9).

On the other hand, migration can reduce poverty amongst migrants through access to better income and employment opportunities in the origin countries. It decreases their risk of ill health and deadly diseases (Sinddiqu, 2012:15). In supporting the above discussion, the result of the study revealed the positive consequences of migration in the study area and country at large. Fig. 4.3 shows the positive consequences of migration in origin country.

**Fig. 4.3: The Respondents' Response on the Positive Impacts of Migration**



Source: Result Survey, 2015

Based on the fig. 4.3, one can understand that migration has positive consequences for the economy of the study area even for the country at large. The result of the study shows that job creation opportunities in the origin country takes the largest proportion, about (25.7%) followed by flow of remittance (22%), reduction of poverty (18%), diaspora benefits (17.5%), improvement of social services like health and education (10.5%) and others (not defined in the figure) (6%).

#### **4.5.1.1.1 Job Creation Opportunities and Diaspora Benefits**

One of the positive consequences of these peoples' migration was job opportunity creations for both origin and destination countries. As the interviewee has revealed, in the RSA, some Ethiopians have been creating job opportunities for the black South

Africans. Many South Africans have been employed in the small businesses of Ethiopians mainly in the shops businesses<sup>13</sup>. Like in the RSA, in Ethiopia also, undeniable job opportunities have been created mainly for families and relatives of the migrants. As the Officers of the two zones Trade and Industry Bureaus revealed,

*“Although they are not identified themselves as returned migrants from the RSA, it is estimated that the majorities among those have been receiving work license from our offices are the returned migrants. It is very common for the most returnees and those at RSA to invest in the kinds of jobs which need low skill or profession. These include transportation industry, hotels and cafeterias, supermarkets and other small enterprises. Particularly, investing in transport sector does not require much business knowledge and therefore all they need to do is buy vehicle and hire a driver; this is why returnees and diaspora at RSA prefer to spend their assets for investment of the transport sector. In this regard, migrants have been creating job opportunities for many people in the study area”.*<sup>14</sup>

On the other hand, even though there is a tendency to consider migration as completely harmful as it drains educated human power from the origin states, it is believed that the diaspora could contribute to the development of their home states via remittance, knowledge and technology transfer, investment, etc. Migration has its own contribution to bring about better economic development in developing countries through raising additional finance, creating knowledge and technology transfer and reducing poverty as well as filling employment gaps in destination countries if they are geared in a right policy direction (MoFA, 2013:15). Likewise, as one of the key informants stated, the country (Ethiopia) has been benefited from migration mainly in two ways: *First*, as commonly known, the economic development of an individual is also the development of a country, because the development of a country is the composition of individuals’ development.

*Second*, the migrants from the RSA have been supporting the huge projects of the country like the Great Renaissance Dam of Ethiopia. For instance, the National Grand Ethiopian Renaissance Dam Construction Co-coordinator Committee has planned to collect

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<sup>13</sup> Interview with Zelalem Amado: Senior Officer/Desk Officer for the Southern African Countries(RSA, Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, Lesotho, Swaziland, Comoros and Madagascar , MoFA on 03/March, 2015

<sup>14</sup> Interview with the officers of the Trade and Industry bureaus in the study area

200,000 USD from the Ethiopian diaspora in the RSA in 2014/15, it has achieved 75% out of the planned and the remaining percent is also in the process to be achieved (the survey time of the researcher). Such kind of contribution by these diaspora is very common from the beginning of the dam.<sup>15</sup> Thus, the diaspora from the RSA have been contributing their part for the development of the country.

#### 4.5.1.1.2 The Flow of Remittance

There is a general consensus that migrant remittances constitute a valuable input to family income. Remittances have potential to contribute significantly to economic development at household, local, national and regional levels (IOM, 2006:15). Remittances at the household level can help to reduce the poverty of recipients, supplement their income and provide them with funds that can be used for consumption, savings, or investment in areas relating to development like education, health and entrepreneurial activities (Emerta et al., 2010:15).

The private foreign remittance inflow to the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones is substantial and has a considerable value in the economy of the zones. In the beginning, the remittances that inflow from the RSA were by formal money transferring systems via international transferring systems like Western Union, Bole Atlantic International, X Press Money, Dahabshiil and the like as revealed by the managers of the banks in the study area. Among these, the main agency that has been working to the study area is Dahabshiil.

**Table 4.5: The Flow of Foreign Remittances through the Private Agencies from 2012 to 14**

Bank	2012	2013	2014	Total
Commercial Bank of Ethiopia, <i>Seleme</i> Branch at <i>Hossana</i> Town	12,744,089.01USD	18,854,083.18USD	6,031,453.99USD	37,629,626.18USD
Commercial Bank of Ethiopia, <i>Doyo Gena</i> branch	34,115.02USD	45,206.00USD	264,326.27USD	343,647.27USD
Commercial Bank of Ethiopia, <i>Shinshicho</i> branch	135,120.19USD	167,420.10USD	364,400.00USD	666,940.29USD

Source: Commercial Bank of Ethiopia, 2015

<sup>15</sup>Interview with Zelalem Amado: Senior Officer/Desk Officer for the Southern African Countries(RSA, Botswana, Mozambique, Namibia, Lesotho, Swaziland, Comoros and Madagascar , MoFA on 03 March 2015

Latter, the majorities have been transferring through the informal means (i.e. Pocket transfer acts). It is illegal transferring means that negatively affects the tax revenue of the country. It has been transferring through the communications of agents between the RSA and Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The agents of Addis Ababa receive the money and then exchange it in black markets and send to the brokers of the study area. As stated in the interview, the brokers have been working without the work license<sup>16</sup>. If all the foreign currencies or remittances are transferred through the formal way, the data may exceed fivefold of currently deposited in a formal way in the mentioned bank branches<sup>17</sup>. Based on such information, the researcher has attempted to contact the brokers in the study area to get the approximate figure from the informal flow of the remittances; however, they were not willing to give such information even to contact the researcher in person.

#### **4.5.1.1.3 Poverty Reduction on Migrants and their Households**

Migrant remittances increase domestic savings and improve financial intermediation, which in turn can improve growth prospects. They can secure better life and change poverty in origin countries. For instance, evidences from the Philippines, Mexico and other countries suggest that remittances increase the accumulation of assets in farm equipment, promote self-employment and increase small business investments in migrant-sending areas (IOM, 2011:8). In connection to this discussion, one of the FGDs participants has witnessed that:

*Before I went to the RSA, I was teacher. During the time, I was disappointed due to the amount of income I was earning per month. However, currently, I have improved my livelihood. I saw my family much better than they were before; which gave me great satisfaction. The money I sent from the RSA helped in enrolling my siblings to the schools. If I were in Ethiopia, I would not be able to help myself let alone my family. Within six years stay in the RSA, I have done what I would not do the entire day of my life in Ethiopia (FGD participant from Lemo Woreda, Hadiya zone; February, 2015).*

In supporting this idea, the *returned migrant* from the RSA just before four years in Kechabira Woreda, Kembata-Tembaro zone has also revealed that:

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<sup>16</sup> Interview with the manager of commercial bank of Ethiopia, Seleme branch, Hossana on 25 February 2015

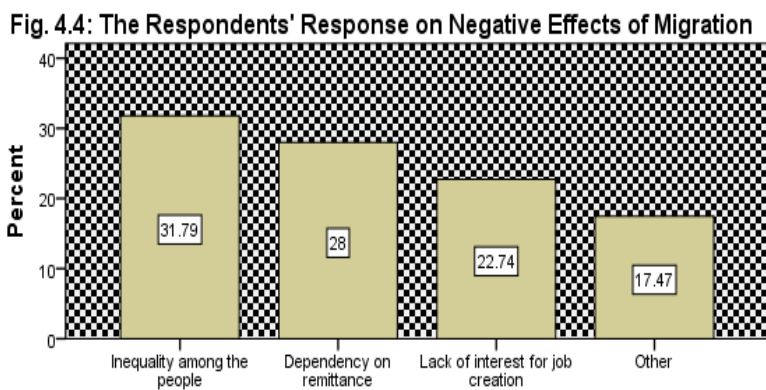
<sup>17</sup> Interview with the manager of commercial bank of Ethiopia, Shinshicho branch, Kembata\_Tembaro zone on 26 February 2015

*Migration at any cost and at any means to the RSA is unquestionable to improve the livelihood of people. I have improved my livelihood when I went to the RSA. Thus, I advise people who are interested to go to the RSA including my relatives and families. For instance, I had already three brothers at the RSA and the fourth one also has migrated this week by paying 190,000 ETB for the brokers (survey time of the researcher; February, 2015).*

In sum, migration from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA has various positive consequences mainly on the economic aspects of the migrants and their families.

#### 4.5.1.2 Negative Consequences

The migration of Labor power from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA has also negative consequences. The following figure reveals the negative consequences of migration in the study area.



As fig.4.4 indicates, income inequality among the people has the largest proportion of all, about (31.8%) followed by dependency on remittance (28%), lack of interest to create jobs (22.8%) and others (17.5%).

Source: Own Survey, 2015

##### 4.5.1.2.1 Economic Inequality among the People

The dominant limitation on international migration is the creation of economic/income/ gaps between the migrants and *non-migrants*. One of the negative consequences of migration in the study area was the income gap between the migrants and *non-migrants*. Although, income inequality is inevitable in any society, nowadays, it is seen widely between *non-migrants* and migrants and their families in the study area. In the FGDs, one of the *non-migrants* and teachers of the *Shinshicho* high school has pointed out that:

*I taught the student here in grade 10 just before seven years. He was good at academics during the time and successful in the Ethiopian General Secondary Education Certificate Examination but he decided to travel to the RSA. Currently, he has returned and lives here in Shinshicho town. Surprisingly, he has come with a good sum of money and now he has two buses and two great super markets in the town. He has also built one of the best houses in Shinshicho town. Now, there is a large economic difference between him and me (Kechabira Woreda, Kembata-Tembaro Zone; February, 2015).*

Furthermore, the interviewee has stated that it is common for the *out* and *return* migrants to wear very expensive and fashion clothes, own quality furniture and houses. Even in an open market, society out of remittance circle is highly being challenged to cope up with price competition. A person who had very small capital before the migration has been observed the owner of different kinds of cars, very quality houses, high consumption and purchasing power of the migrants.<sup>18</sup>

#### **4.5.1.2.3 Dependency on Remittance and Lack of Interest to create Job**

Migration undermines regional and local economies by depriving communities of their most valuable labor force, increasing dependence on core countries (of which remittances are but one manifestation) and stimulating subsequent out-migration (De Haas, 2010:26). In the study area, the households of the *out migrants* are observed when they depend on remittances that inflow from the RSA rather than making attempt to create jobs for their own. As the interviewees from the Officers of Labour and Social Affairs Bureaus in the study area stated, although enough amount of job opportunities are not created by local government officials, many youths are not interested to create jobs rather than expecting remittance from the RSA. Even when they get the money from the remittance, they have no interest to do businesses but buying fashion clothes. Not only the youths, but also the parents of the migrants have been expecting remittances mainly during the risky times and celebration of holidays. They do not attempt to cover such costs by their own. Thus, migration has been affecting the good habit of our people that is working hard and depending on one's own potential and resources.<sup>19</sup>

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<sup>18</sup> Anonymous Interview Officer of Social and Labour Affairs Bureau, *Hadiya* zone on 25 January 2015

<sup>19</sup> Interview with the Officers of Social and Labour Affairs in the Study area, on 15 February 2015

## **4.5.2 Social Consequences**

### **4.5.2.1 Consequences of Migration on Education**

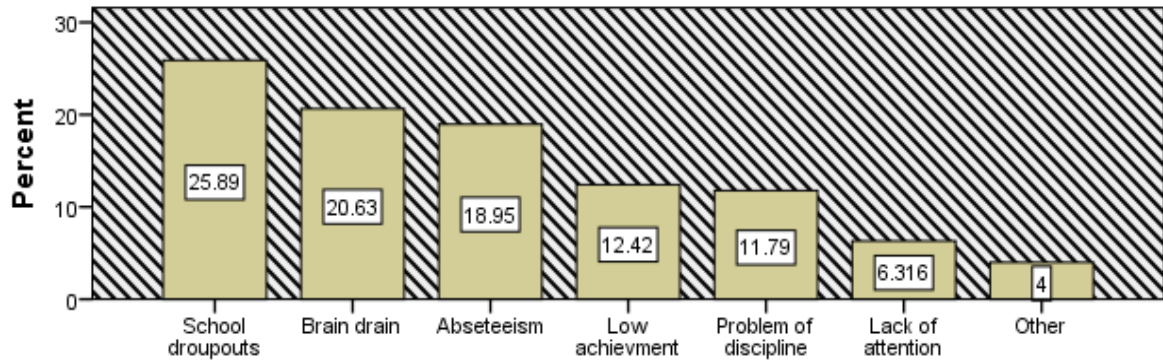
Education in every sense is one of the fundamental factors of development. No country can achieve sustainable economic development without substantial investment in human capital. Because, education enriches peoples' understanding as well as improves the quality of their lives and leads to broad social benefits to individuals and society. Education is often the best tool for creating wealth and happiness and it can help the peoples' long-term economic prospects and help to obtain, keep, and maintain a home or business in the future.

It is not denied that international migration has positive and negative consequences on education. There is a broad agreement that remittance flows do have a significant positive consequence on child schooling attendance and literacy. The remittances sent from abroad solve the household budget constraint and result in an increase in child schooling. Evidences show that remittance receipts decreases the likelihood of children dropout of school. For instance, the effects of international Philippine remittances led to an increase in school attendance (Yang, 2008:592). In addition, (Lopez-Cordova, 2005 and El Salvador et al., 2003 cited in A. Schapiro, 2009:17) examine that in Mexico, remittances are correlated with improved child literacy and school attendance.

In the contrary, migration may disrupt a child's learning or schooling. Migration inherently involves parental absence from the home that can have a negative effect on child schooling which may outweigh the positive effect of remittances (Cox-Edwards and Ureta, 2003:430; Yang, 2008:591; A.Schapiro, 2009:7-8). In addition, (Giannelli and Mangiavacchi, 2010:79) found that parental migration had negative effect on school attendance for children in Albania. Others like, (Lahaie et al., 2009:300) found that the migration of a caregiver-spouse is significantly associated with academic, behavioral and emotional problems for children in Mexico and which have affected the schooling of the children. Parents who care more strongly about the education of their children may migrate in order to earn income that can be used to pay for schooling expenses and devote more attention and non-income resources to improve schooling outcomes of their

children. In view of that, the result of study has revealed the negative consequences of migration on education sector.

**Fig. 4.5: The Respondents' Response on the Negative Consequences of Migration on Education**



Source: Survey Result, 2015

As figure 4.5 indicates, migration in the study area has negative consequences on schooling of the children. The school dropout takes the greatest percentage of all, about (25.9%) followed by brain drain (20.6%), absenteeism (19%), low achievement (12.4%), problem of discipline (11.8%), lack of attention to learn (6.3%) and other factors not included in the figure (4%). The details of the result have been discussed below.

#### **4.5.2.1.1 School Dropout and Related Problems**

The labor power migration from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA has significant negative consequences on schooling or education of the zones. For instance, according to the SNNPR Education Bureau Report of 2010/11, school dropouts of the *Kembata –Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones were relatively higher than the majorities of the other zones in the region, about (13.0%) in *Kembata-Tembaro* zone and (17.9%) in *Hadiya* zone (SNNPREB, 2010/11:49). Particularly, the school dropout rates of the grade one students of the zones were the highest of all zones in the region, being (34%) in *Hadiya* zone and (32%) in *Kembata-Tembaro* zone. This does not mean that students at this grade level have been migrating to the RSA. But, the communities' perception on education on one hand, and absence of paternity to take care or follow up on the other hand has been affecting the children's education in the zones.

**Table 4.6: Dropout Rate of Grade one Level since 2009/10 in SNNPR**

Zone/Sp. woredas	Dropout rate
Besketo Sp. woreda	21.0
Bench Maji	25.7
Dawro	14.7
Debub Omo	20.3
Gamo Gofa	14.8
Gedeo	11.8
Guraghe	19.1
Hadiya	33.8
Halaba Sp.woreda	23.1
Hawasa Town Adm.	-----
Keffa	10.0
Kembata-Tembaro	31.8
Konta Sp.Wo.	10.2
SegenAkaba bi Hizboch	16.3
Sheka	12.2
Sidama	27.7
Silte	26.0
Wolitya	23.4
Yem Sp. Woreda	11.4

Source: SNNPR Education Bureau Statistics Annual Abstract, 2010/11

The attitude of the communities on education is pessimistic. For instance, one of the FGDs participants and grade nine students has stated that:

*Nowadays, learning is a useless business; but migrating to the RSA is the best option to improve one’s livelihood. We have nearsighted many teachers and other employed people around us. They have economic problems although they are employed. Even the majorities have no their own houses. However, when one goes to the RSA, he/she can easily improve his/her own livelihood and even help others (Doyo Gena Woreda, Kembata-Tembaro zone; February, 2015).*

Moreover, school dropout is also observed on the young females. Among the female migrants to the RSA, the majorities were students, particularly from the primary and secondary education levels. Even though its existence was to limit extent, some young females have been interrupting their schooling to migrate to the RSA via marriage chain.

Concerning this issue, one of the FGD participants has revealed that:

*If a girl is beautiful, the community knows that she cannot come to an end her education for she could be one of the migrants. No matter how clever she is in her education, she terminates her learning immediately and decides to go to the RSA. Even parents of that girl are not interested in her education because they emphasize on the cost-benefit analysis of education and the material that they are going to obtain through her; that is about 30,000 up to 100, 000 ETB gift given as a dowry. Thus, “beautiful girls are for migrants not for non-migrants (From the Kechabirra Woreda, Kembata-Tembaro Zone; February, 2015).*

Surprisingly, one of the key informants revealed that starting from grade one level, most of the students are not interested to learn all subjects except English<sup>20</sup>. The reason for giving high emphasis for English language is obvious; to migrate in the future. During the class time of other subjects, they have been seen unethical or leaving out the class without permission while the teacher is teaching. They perceive learning as a worthless business by comparing the economic status of employees around them with the returnees or *out migrants*. As a result, absenteeism, discipline problem, low achievement and coming late to the school were identified as the common problems on the schooling of the zones. In addition to the interview discussion, as one of the FGDs participants and teachers of the *Wachamo* high school has stated that:

*We are not interested while we are teaching due to our students have no interest to learn. Even children at elementary school have been clashing with teachers in the class by manifesting unethical behaviors. This has been affecting the teaching- learning process in our school. When you (as a teacher) ask them to stop such inappropriate behaviors and attend training in appropriate manner, the students will tell you 'I can go to RSA the next morning if I want to. If you are not feeling good teaching me it is not my problem, worry about yourself'. Particularly, those who have relatives or family members at the RSA are the main cause for the problem. Therefore, teaching here is very difficult if solution is not given (Hossana town, Hadiya Zone; February, 2015).*

#### **4.5.2.1.2 Brain Drain**

Migration is one of the factors which negatively affect education, particularly by creating “brain drain” in developing countries. Brain drain is a special type of international migration of skilled human resources that are different in these resources (Dejene, 2000:2). Brain drain is not the new phenomenon which was originated during the emergence of capitalism in the West in 18<sup>th</sup> century and to the Cross-Atlantic Slave Trade, the black gold of the time. The exploitation of African labor force for the growth of international capital has created a significant figure of brain drain. Currently, globalization is affecting high-quality of human resources in Africa (Dejene, 2000:3).

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<sup>20</sup> Interview with Zelalem Amado: Senior Officer/Desk Officer of the Southern African Countries, MoFA on 3/March 2015

According to the IOM (2006:17), international migration often results in the outflow of individuals with considerable skill and/or educational attainment, known as “brain drain”. The report stated that Africa has already lost one third of its human capital and is continuing to lose its skilled personnel at an increasing rate, with an estimated 20,000 doctors, university lecturers, engineers and other professionals leaving the continent annually since 1990. Thus, Africa as a whole counts only 20,000 scientists (3.6% the world total) and its share in the world’s scientific output has fallen from 0.5% to 0.3% as it continues to suffer the brain drain of scientists, engineers and technologists. Furthermore, as (ECA/IOM/IDR, 2000 quoted in Habtamu, 2006:4-5), Africa lost its 300,000 high-quality human resources of which 40,000 PhD holders. The problem of brain drain has reached quite disturbing proportions in certain African countries, with Ethiopia ranked first in the continent in terms of rate of loss of human capital, followed by Nigeria and Ghana (IOM, 2006:19; Habtamu, 2006:06).

In Ethiopia, during the “*Derg*” regime, brain drain was a serious problem more than any times due to political harassment and persecution (Dejene, 2000:10). Among the Ethiopians who went abroad for training in the past thirty years, over 50% of did not return after completing their studies. Due to this, Ethiopia spends over 5.3 million USD every year to solve the high demand of professionals at certain professions (Habtamu, 2006:1-5). In line with the above discussion, a significant number of professionals have been migrating from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA by terminating their jobs. For instance, according to the 2013 Human Resource Statistics and Support office Report of the *Hadiya* Zone, among the government employed professionals, 23 were terminated their works to migrate to the RSA. Among these, the majorities were teachers besides some agricultural and health professionals. Of this figure, males were 18 and females were 5 (HZHRSSR, 2013:15). The migration of the professionals might have two negative consequences in the study area: on one hand, the professionals’ (mainly teachers’) migration could be exemplary for students to motivate them to migrate to the RSA. On the other hand, it will create “brain drain” in the zones if fundamental measure is not taken. Not only the professionals but also huge figures of students from the primary and secondary education levels have been migrating to the RSA.

In sum, migration has been affecting the educational sector in the study area. It may create shortage of the human resource power in the future because, students at all school levels are not interested to attend class tolerantly, even the university students. That is why the researcher has discussed in detail rather than other negative consequences of migration in the study area.

#### **4.5.2.2 Socio-cultural Problems**

Children face significant stress, lose adult role models, and parental absence at an early age could irreversibly damage the child-parent attachment (A. Schapiro, 2009:7-8). Likewise, the FGDs participants stated that the parental absence, particularly paternity has a great impact on the psychology of children in the study area. Among the couples, husbands in the study area have been exposed more than their wives to migrate to the RSA. The absence of paternity has been creating lack of role model and treatment problems on children social life. On the other hand, when the married migrants go to the RSA, conflict is creating between the husbands and wives due to the adultery case. Even though, the problem has been manifested mainly on males' side at destination country, females are also part of the problem at home country. In some families, this badly behaved has been leading to the divorcing of the couples. In addition to this, as one of the FGD participants has revealed that,

*The married males have been blamed by adultery case in the RSA. Similarly, their wives at home country have been blamed. Even some of them give birth in the absence of their husbands. As a result, a few of these couples have been separated or divorced. This problem has been observed to some extent when the migrants stay out for long periods of time at the RSA (FGD participant at Lemo Woreda, Hadiya Zone, and February, 2015).*

Regarding of the cultural aspect, although it is to some extent, the diffusion of culture has been detected by the *return migrants* when they returned after a certain years. Based on the informal information, those who come back from the RSA have been manifesting unacceptable behaviors according to the norms of the community. For instance, wearing style, drinking alcohol, chewing chat and others have been observed.

## 4.6 Patterns, Routes and Challenges of Migration

### 4.6.1 The Patterns of Migration from Ethiopia to the RSA

Evidences show that almost all (95 percent) of Ethiopians, particularly the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones migrants have been travelling to the RSA in illegal way (ILO, 2011:58). Illegal migration has become a growing international challenge which needs a great attention. As (IOM, 2004:36) report pointed out, “Illegal migration by definition is migration that occurs without the proper documentation, measuring the extent of it is difficult and the above estimates involve considerable uncertainty.” According to the (IOM, 2010:31) report, it is estimated that between 10 and 15 percent of the world’s migrant population, or 20 to 30 million people, are individuals without the appropriate documentation at international level. The result of this study also showed that the mentioned figure (see fig.4.6 below).

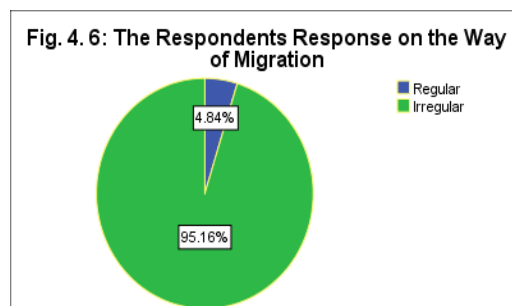


Fig.4.6 indicates that almost all migrants or about (95%) have been travelling in illegal way to the RSA. The rest (only 5%) have been moving in legal way. The legal way migrants are mainly professionals who have license and visa from the embassy of RSA in Ethiopia to be employed under certain companies in the RSA.

Source: Own Survey, 2015

Furthermore, to elaborate the data gathered from the survey questionnaire and empirical studies above, the researcher has interviewed one of the most concerned bodies from the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (MoLSA) concerned the patterns of Ethiopians migration to the RSA. As he revealed, the majorities have been moving in illegal way. However, a few (almost 5 percent) who have work license and visa from the Embassy of the RSA in Ethiopia have been travelling in legal way.<sup>21</sup>He added that the Ministry has

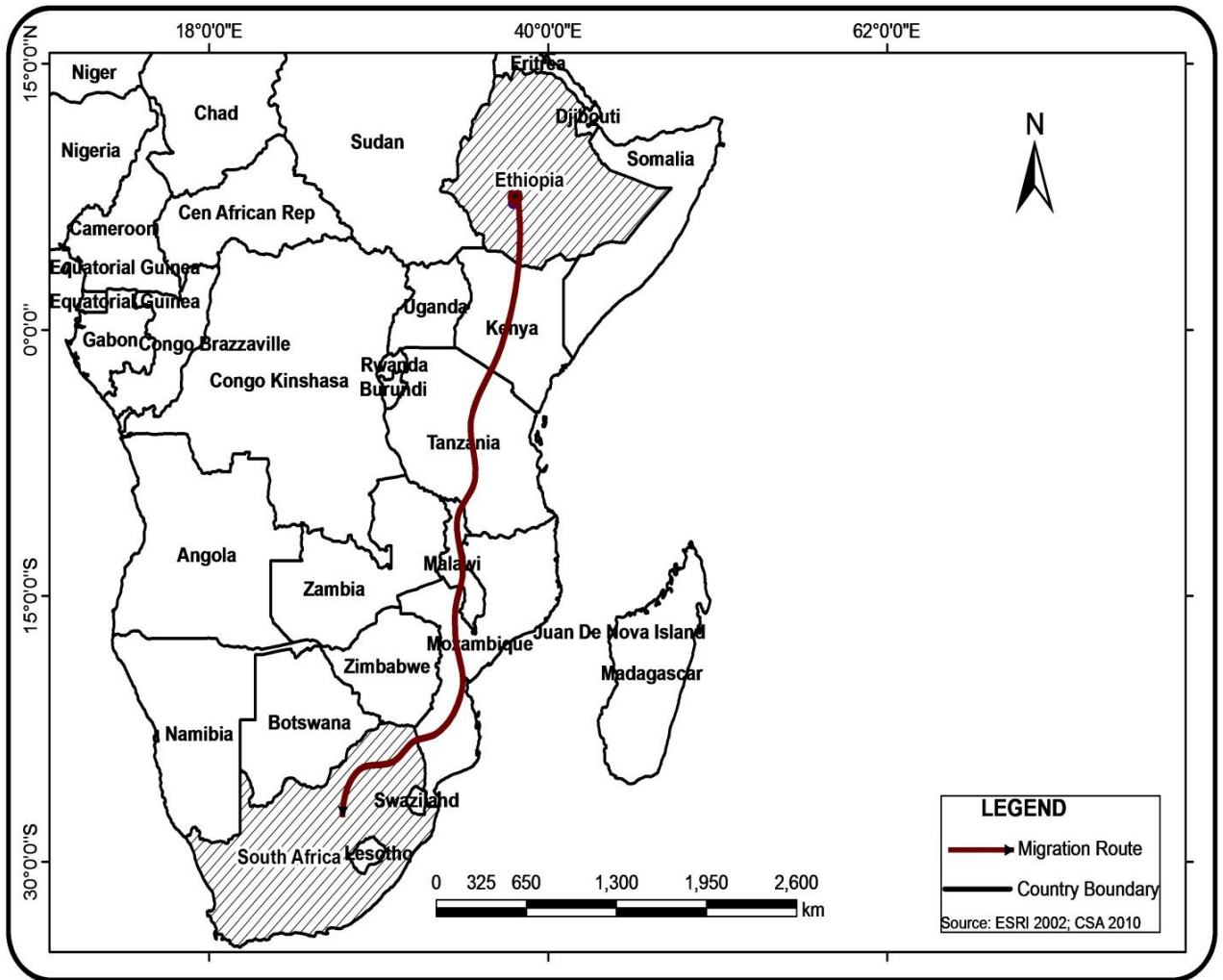
<sup>21</sup> Information gathered from an interview with Danieal Lema: Expatriate Work Permit Service Team Coordinator at the Ministry of Social and Labour Affairs, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, on 04 March 2015 at 9:am

no formal information and legal documentation about the illegal migrants. There are also no legally established private agencies for the migrants of Ethiopians to the RSA just like the Middle East migrants.

#### **4.6.2 Routes and Challenges of Illegal Migration**

Concerning the routes of the illegal migration, the most known transit countries of illegal Ethiopian migrants include Kenya, Tanzania, Malawi and Mozambique (see map of route migration of fig. 4.8). The youth from Ethiopia mainly *Hadiya* and *Kembata-Tembaro* zones cross the border through *Moyale* to Kenya and proceed to the RSA using the services of smugglers. The transiting migrants from Ethiopia to the RSA transfer to different facilitators. The facilitators act as agents between the migrant and the smuggler(s) and make periodic cash payments on behalf of the migrant. The migrants use their passports until they enter into Kenya and cross the border to Tanzania. Once in Tanzania, they destroy their passports to avoid being identified as Ethiopians and being deported back if arrested by the authorities (ILO, 2011:44; IOM, 2013:18).

**Fig. 4.7: Route of Illegal Migration from Ethiopia to the RSA**



According to the report of IOM (2013:19), migrants in Tanzania face increased risks to their health on two sides. On the one hand, “the criminalization of illegal migration in Tanzania has forced smugglers and facilitators to go underground; leading them to use increasingly onerous means to transport migrants.” On the other hand, “some migrants remain imprisoned despite finishing their jail sentences, due to the lack of funds to deport them.” The imprisonment and detention pose significant health risks for migrants. As a result, there have been reported cases of migrant deaths due to suffocation. For instance, in June 2012, 42 migrants suffocated to death inside the container truck they were travelling in through *Dodoma*, Tanzania (IOM, 2013:13). These unregulated routes are extremely dangerous because of the physical nature of the journey and lack of essentials

such as water, food and shelter along the route. Migrants routinely suffer physical violence. Both male and female migrants experiences of sexual violence perpetrated by smugglers, prisoners, the police and even their own travelling companions. In general, migrants have been reported being victimized by various persons they came into contact with during their journey include the police, immigration officers, prison keepers, smugglers, community members and, their travelling companions. The abuses reported include murder, rape, cavity searches, torture and robberies (ILO, 2011:45).

**Fig. 4.8: Risk conditions of the Illegal Migrants on the way to the RSA**



Source: IOM, 2013:19

In addition to the data obtained from the empirical studies, as the interviewee has mentioned, many illegal migrants have been disappeared, smuggled, trafficked, damaged by lion, beaten by police, starved and thirsted on the way when they travel to the RSA. Some are also departing from Kenya, Tanzania and Malawi every year. For instance, in

2013 (6,000), in 2014 (980), and from January, 2015 up to the March, 2015 (450) migrants were deported from Tanzania to Ethiopia<sup>22</sup>.

In sum, according to the information gathered through survey questionnaire, empirical studies and interviews, most of the labor power migrants from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA have been migrating in illegal way with very harsh conditions.

## **4.7 Migration Policies of the Origin and Destination Countries**

### **4.7.1 Migration Policy of Ethiopia**

The reason initiated the researcher to investigate the migration policy aspect was the questions raised from the respondents during the time of data collection mainly in the open-ended questionnaire. When they were asked why your choice the illegal way rather than the legal one was, they responded that it is too costly to move in legal way. Almost all respondents blamed the government to open the legal way to move safely and within fair amount of money. To investigate this issue, the researcher has obliged to see the migration policy of Ethiopia besides interviewing the concerned bodies. The researcher has interviewed one of the concerned bodies on migration aspect from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA). The interviewee has revealed as follows:

*There is currently no comprehensive migration policy in place in Ethiopia, although elements of it do exist. Some international organizations are pushing the government of Ethiopia to formulate the policy of migration. For instance, IOM is asking the Ethiopian government for the formulation of migration policy even to allocate budget for its formulation process. However, this is not one of the national interests of Ethiopia due to it has no labor export foreign policy objective just like the countries of India, Bangladesh and Philippines. The main purpose of the Ethiopian government is making its people to work at home country to improve their livelihoods rather formulating labor exporting policy.<sup>23</sup> But, when people are interested to migrate and work at abroad, the government has duty to allow them according to the (FDRE constitution, 1995 Article 32(1))<sup>24</sup>.*

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<sup>22</sup> Interview with Tafa Tulu: The Consular Monitoring and Support Directorate, MoFA, on 3 March 2015

<sup>23</sup> Interview with Tafa Tulu: The Consular Monitoring and Support Directorate, MoFA, on 3 March 2015

<sup>24</sup> Any Ethiopian or foreign national lawfully in Ethiopia has, within the national territory, the right to liberty of movement and freedom to choose his residence, as well as the freedom to leave the country at any time he wishes to.

On the other hand, the rights of migrant workers are addressed under the major International Human Rights conventions. According to the FDRE constitution of (1995), all International Human Rights Conventions ratified by Ethiopia have become part of the national law.<sup>25</sup> Ethiopia has ratified various conventions and bilateral agreements at international level besides migration concerned international conventions. Some of these are: The Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1996), International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966), Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and of the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others (1994) and Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979) (Emebet, 2002:13).

Even though Ethiopia has not signed all of the International Labour Organization conventions, the following are some of the International Labour Agreements that have been ratified by Ethiopia for the protection of its migrant workers at abroad. These include: The Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 (No. 181), The Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105), and the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111) (Emebet, 2002:14). The following table reveals the ratification status of International Conventions by Ethiopia related to migration.

**Table 4.7: The Ratification Status of International Migration Related Conventions by Ethiopia**

No	International Conventions	Year	Ratification Status
1.	Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees	10/11 1969	Accession
2.	Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees	10/11/1969	Accession
3.	International Convention of the Protection of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families	-----	
4.	UN Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime	14/12/2000	Signature
		23/7/2007	Ratification
5.	Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants	22/06/2012	Accession
6.	Protocol to Prevent Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons	22/6/2012	Accession

Source: (The Regional Mixed Migration Secretariat (RMMS), 2013d:48).

<sup>25</sup> The Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 1995, Article 9(4)

Consequently, legal ground has been created to protect the rights of the migrants of Ethiopia with addressing the responsible bodies. For instance, Article 170(2) of Ethiopian Labour Law, states that, the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs has mandate of the employment service. Its Article 175 also allows for an Ethiopian national to be employed outside the country provided that the ministry has secured a satisfactory guarantee that his rights and dignity will be protected (MoFA, 2013:50). In addition, according to the Proclamation No. 632/2009<sup>26</sup>, any government organ shall have the duty to cooperate with the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) to facilitate conditions in accordance with the proclamation to ensure the rights, safety and dignity of the citizens going abroad for employment. Besides, the Private Employment Agencies Convention, 1997 has a great contribution on the protection of Ethiopian migrant workers.

Concerning the human trafficking and smuggling aspect, the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its two related protocols contributed to fight against smuggling and human trafficking, even if it is rhetoric in practice.<sup>27</sup> AU has also incorporated important provisions<sup>28</sup> indirectly related to the abuse and exploitation of labor although it is a paper value (Belachew, 2014:46). In the FDRE constitution<sup>29</sup> as well as FDRE Criminal Code of (597) sub Article 1<sup>30</sup>, human trafficking and smuggling are strictly prohibited. As compared to former, Empire penal code of Ethiopia, the 1997 criminal code of the FDRE incorporated additional provisions and penalties concerned smuggling and human trafficking. However, there are no clear cut definitions which help to clearly understand the definitions of smuggling and trafficking. The FDRE Constitution in its Article 80(2), has given the judicial jurisdiction power for the Federal High Court power delegation to the regional state supreme court only in the first instance

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<sup>26</sup>Proclamation NO. 632/2009, the employment Service proclamation of the FDRE

<sup>27</sup> UN Protocol 1: to prevent, suppress and punish in persons especially women and children and Protocol 2: describes against the smuggling of migrants by Land, Sea and Air.

<sup>28</sup> AU Charter (1981) Article 5 condemns all forms of exploitation and degradation, particularly slavery, Slave trade, torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading punishment and treatment.

<sup>29</sup> FDRE Constitution Article 18 (2) states that “no one shall be held in slavery or servitude; trafficking in human beings, for whatever purpose it might be, is prohibited.”

<sup>30</sup> FDRE Criminal Code in its Article (597 in sub article 1: 348) states that whoever by violence, threat, deceit, fraud, kidnapping, or by the giving of money or other advantage to the person having control over a woman or child, recruit, receives, hides, transports, exports or imports a woman or a minor for the purpose of forced labour, is punishable with rigorous imprisonment from five years to twenty years, and fine not exceeding fifty thousand Birr.

jurisdiction on the trafficking and smuggling cases although its implementation lacks uniformity in the regions (Belachew, 2014:48).

In contrary to the existence of legal grounds that are discussed above, currently, trafficking of migrants out of Ethiopia to the other parts of the world including RSA is a big business for human traffickers who make large profits. One of the major reasons for the intensity of the problem is lack of clear understanding of trafficking in human beings among key stakeholders and the community in general. There is also no distinction made between smuggling and trafficking. Even government officials who come in contact with smuggled and/or trafficked victims do not screen the migrants to determine whether they are smuggled or trafficked (ILO, 2011:32). In addition, lack of commitment of the concerned bodies has contributed its part for the problem. As the interviewee has stated, although a National Committee is established from the composition of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA), the Confederation of Ethiopian Trade Union (CETU), and the Ethiopian Employers' Federation (EEF) to solve the problem of human trafficking and smuggling, it is acting under its expectations due to lack of allocating enough time for such complicated issue.<sup>31</sup>

Regarding the labor power migration from Ethiopia, particularly from the study area to the RSA, the application of such legal ground is very difficult due to the nature of illegal migration; except combating human traffickers and smugglers besides awareness creation for migrants and community at large. There are no legal procedures between the origin and destination countries on migration aspect. The fundamental problem here is that the absence of the bilateral agreement between the two states. According to the interviewee, the RSA is not interested to sign bilateral agreement with Ethiopia due to lack of demand of companies to employ workers from Ethiopia through legally established agencies. In addition, there are no legally established private agencies in Ethiopia who have taken work license from the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (MOLSA) to create employment or job opportunities in the RSA.<sup>32</sup>

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<sup>31</sup> Interview with Tafa Tulu: Consular Monitoring and Support Directorate; MoFA on 03/March 2015

<sup>32</sup> Interview with Tafa Tulu: Consular Monitoring and Support Directorate; MoFA on 03/March 2015

In sum, even though freedom of movement is one of the basic human rights, the migrants from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones have been travelling to the RSA in illegal way. As a result, they are suffering by the consequences of the illegal migration.

## **4.7.2 Immigration Policy of the RSA**

### **4.7.2.1 The Immigration Policy during the Apartheid Period**

Initially, South Africa put in place a set of legislation known as “pass laws” to regulate the movement of non-white population, and link it with employment opportunities (FIHR, 2008:17). This Act was tightened under apartheid with the adoption of the 1952 Pass Laws Act which created a kind of internal passport for non-white South Africans and made it compulsory to carry it at all times with the information about the pass-holder (FIHR, 2008:17). Latter, the tight system of Internal Population Control was complemented by a similarly restrictive control of foreign migration in “two gates” policy since 1960s. This two gates policy had worked in two sides. *First*, the Aliens Control Act almost prohibited the entry of non-white migrant workers. Indeed, it was enacted in 1937 to limit the immigration of Jewish and black people to the country; which was intended to exclude German Jews fleeing Nazi persecution from coming to South Africa, and has led to the term ‘alien’ becoming identical with unwanted immigrant (Solomon and Kosaka, nd:11). However, the -1937 Aliens Act was amended in 1986 to allow black people to legally immigrate (Jeeves, 1995:181).

*Second*, a set of bilateral agreements with neighboring countries strictly organized the presence of the foreign workforce needed by some economic sectors such as mining or commercial farming (Lewis, 1996:5). As a result, since the colonial era, countries, which now form the SADC, have been linked through a system of labour migration. The black workers on temporary contracts were tolerated in the mining and agricultural sectors (Siddique, nd: 8). It is undeniable that RSA has been the main destination for migrant labor on the continent since the 19th century, following discovery of the region’s natural resources.

In sum, the immigration policy of the RSA throughout the apartheid period was emphasized mainly on immigration of skilled whites and limiting the inflow of Jewish and other blacks except unskilled and semi-skilled blacks in mining and commercial agricultural sectors. In general, the migration policy of RSA in apartheid period was the racist and discriminatory in its nature.

#### **4.7.2.2 Immigration Policy of Post-Apartheid Period**

As commonly known, after the era of the apartheid, RSA has built a democratic state with various socio economic and political changes including migration policy in 1994. Even though the Department of Home Affairs announced that unskilled or semi-skilled immigrants would not be permitted to work in RSA since 1994, conditions of entry and stay in RSA are primarily defined by the 2002 Immigration Act and the 1998 Refugees Act as well as in reference to the 1996 Constitution of RSA (FIHR, 2006:18; Crush, 1997c cited in Sinddique, nd: 18).

Predominantly, the immigration policy in RSA has been a product of the changing attitudes in the country towards racial discrimination. The 1991 Aliens Control Act and its subsequent amendments no longer determine RSA immigration policy, because this act became unconstitutional in May 2002 (FIHR, 2006:20). A draft Immigration Bill was released in February 2000, formalizing the need for a radical reform of immigration policy and a revised version of this was implemented in 2002 (FIHR, 2006:20). The RSA government recognized the discriminatory nature of this legislation and its unsuitability for the current economic, social and political environment.

The 2002 Immigration Act, as amended in 2004, states the overall objectives of the migration policies, sets the various regimes for temporary and permanent residence and defines the means of enforcement and monitoring. For instance, it constitutes a clear break with the Aliens Control Act of the apartheid regime and opens up the channels for non-nationals to become residents in RSA. The Act does not focus only on combating illegal migration and explicitly makes reference to the protection of migrants' rights. Under this Immigration Act, there are many ways to obtain temporary residence like for work, study, visiting, meeting relatives, applying for asylum, doing cross-border travels,

etc. However, the Immigration Act tries to raid the balance between the needs of the country's economy, in particular of highly skilled workers, the will to limit the inflows of largely unskilled migrant workers or economic refugees (both for security reasons and high level of unemployment) as well as the concern that the working conditions of foreigners may undermine established labor standards and practices.<sup>33</sup>

The act also governs the arrest, detention and deportation of undocumented migrants which makes provision for the 'deportation and detention of illegal foreigners i.e. the request made by a police or immigration officer for a person to state his/ her identity and legal status.<sup>34</sup>The Act maintains the exceptional status of mining and agriculture in resorting to low-skills workers, including with the help of bilateral state agreements. Under the Act, only foreigners holding a work permit or a business permit, and those employed under a corporate work permit, may legally work in the country. In conformity with international refugee law, national regulations allow refugees to study and work in the RSA.<sup>35</sup>

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<sup>33</sup>The preamble thus expresses two other finalities of the new system of migration control as being that:  
“(b) Security conditions are fully satisfied and the State retains control over the immigration of foreigners to the Republic; (...)

<sup>34</sup>The Immigration Act 2002 section 34(1), States that without the need for a warrant, an immigration officer may arrest an illegal foreigner or cause him or her to be arrested, and shall, irrespective of whether such foreigner is arrested, deport him or her or cause him or her to be deported and may, pending his or her deportation, detain him or her or cause him or her to be detained in a manner and at a place determined by the Director-General, provided that the foreigner concerned and section 41(1 and 2) also expresses that (1)When so requested by an immigration officer or a police officer, any person shall identify himself or herself as a citizen, permanent resident or foreigner, and if on reasonable grounds such immigration officer or police officer is not satisfied that such person is entitled to be in the Republic, such person may be interviewed by an immigration officer or a police officer about his or her identity or status, and such immigration officer or police officer may take such person into custody without a warrant, and shall take reasonable steps, as may be prescribed, to assist the person in verifying his or her identity or status, and thereafter, if necessary detain him or her in terms of section 34.

(2) Any person who assists a person contemplated in subsection (1) to evade the processes contemplated in that subsection, or interferes with such processes, shall be guilty of an offence.

<sup>35</sup>According to the Immigration Act of 2002 section 23(sub sections 1 and 2), The Director-General may, subject to the prescribed procedure under which an asylum transit visa may be granted, issue an asylum transit visa to a person who at a port of entry claims to be an asylum seeker, valid for a period of five days only, to travel to the nearest Refugee Reception Office in order to apply for asylum. (2) Despite anything contained in any other law, when the visa contemplated in subsection (1) expires before the holder reports in person at a Refugee Reception Office in order to apply for asylum in terms of section 21 of the Refugees Act, 1998 (Act No. 130 of 1998), the holder of that visa shall become an illegal foreigner and be dealt with in accordance with this Act.

Concerning the illegal migrants of Ethiopians in the RSA, as it is mentioned earlier, when they enter to the country, some have been asking the right of asylum seekers based on the immigration Act of the 2002. After they got the legal residence status to live either permanently or temporarily in the country, they are not treated according to the legal procedures of the country. Evidences like (FIHR, 2008:30; BBC April, 2015 as well as informal information from the *return migrants*) show that there is no proper implementation of the Immigration Act of 2002 on the rights of foreigners including Ethiopians. As a result, some are suffering physically and almost all are living in risky conditions of life and property. In general, there are security problems in the RSA due to the magnitude of crimes although the causes for insecurity problems are some citizens of RSA, Ethiopians themselves and other African countries.<sup>36</sup>

## **4.8 Migration Implications for the Ethio-RSA Relations**

Before discussing the implications of Ethiopians migration to the RSA for the bilateral relations of both states, the researcher has intended to discuss the historical relations of Ethio-RSA. This sub-section emphasizes on historical relations of Ethio-RSA and implications of Ethiopians migration to the RSA for the bilateral relations of both states.

### **4.8.1 Historical Relations of Ethio-RSA**

The peoples of Ethiopia and RSA have a long and historic relations as the two peoples were bound together by the common struggle to free Africa from colonialism and apartheid. Ethiopia's victory against colonialism at the battle of Adwa had long serve as an aspiration for a resistance movement against racism in RSA. Ethiopia was one of the active participants in fighting against apartheid in RSA (Garth, 2011:91; MoFA, nd: 1). It is not denied that the military training given hundreds of freedom fighters including the former president Nelson Mandela is a testament to Ethiopia's commitment to the cause of freedom in Africa in general and RSA, in particular (Belete, 2012: 382; Aschalew, nd: 1). Their relationship has survived decades of resistance against injustice, and this continued until the peoples of RSA finally managed to do away with the Apartheid system. It is in

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<sup>36</sup>Interview with Zelalem Amado: Senior/Desk Officer of the Southern African countries, MoFA on March 03/2015

light of this that both countries saw the ideas of closer cooperation and deeper people-to-people relations as important.

It was in this context that Ethiopia opened its Embassy in Pretoria in June 1996. Since then, Ethiopia has been able to note with satisfactions that bilateral relations have steadily strengthened; and Ethiopia and RSA signed a Declaration of Intent in March 1998 and a General Co-operation Agreement in March 2004 (MoFA, nd:1). They are based on the spirit of Pan-Africanism and on African brotherhood. The historic bonds and goodwill existing between the two countries has provided a firm basis for building stronger cooperation in various political and economic areas, and in trade, investment, health, agriculture, education, capacity building, culture and tourism. All together these constitute a significant step forward in strengthening economic ties and in facilitating the prospects for RSA investment in Ethiopia.

As a result, the expanding bilateral relations as well as trade and investment, a number of agreements were signed between the two states during the first meeting of the Joint Ministerial Commission in Pretoria in March 2008 (MoFA, nd:2). These include: (i) The Agreement to Establish the Joint Ministerial Commission itself. This agreement is intended to enable the General Co-operation Agreement to facilitate bilateral co-operation on key issues of mutual concern (ii) An Agreement for the Promotion and Reciprocal Protection of Investment. This agreement provides for the improvement of conditions for trade and investment between both countries as well as stimulates individual business initiatives and (iii) A Memorandum of Understanding on Industrial and Technical Co-operation. This agreement is expected to serve as a catalyst for improving favourable conditions for economic, industrial and technical cooperation.

The RSA's relatively high level of economic development is rightly seen by many as a major engine of economic development in Africa. Within this regard, Ethiopia is endowed with significant natural resources offers huge investment and trade potential for RSA investors. It is hoped therefore that these agreements will provide a framework for both countries to benefit from their comparative advantages and allow for the establishment of solid and substantial trade and economic cooperation. Both states work

together closely on continental issues to support the African Union and its various organs. They are committed to the consolidation of the African Agenda and the centrality of NEPAD in the continent's efforts to deal with the twin challenges of poverty and underdevelopment. They have been working closely on peace and stability in Africa in general and particularly in Somalia, Sudan and other international issues (MoFA, nd: 2). There is every reason to believe that this cooperation will indeed continue with added vigour including in other areas of common interest such as security and climate change.

#### **4.8.2 Migration Implications for the Bilateral Relations of Ethio-RSA**

Migration is commonly understood, in security terms, as a problem and many countries feel the need to protect against this threat (Guchteneire & Pécoud, 2006:70). In recent years, terrorism-related concerns have further fueled this trend and put borders in the spotlight. In this context, illegal migration is perceived as a central phenomenon reflecting the penetrability of borders and calling for greater surveillance. Controlling immigration has consequently become an important field of policy in which several evolutions have taken place in recent years (Guchteneire & Pécoud, 2006:70).

To investigate the implications of the labor power migration from Ethiopia, particularly *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA for the bilateral relations of both states, the researcher has interviewed the most relevant bodies from the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA), Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MoFA) and scholars of the Addis Ababa University besides examining empirical studies. Based on the information collected from these prominent persons and empirical studies, the researcher has analyzed migration implications for the bilateral relations of the two states both positive and negative points of view.

##### **4.8.2.1 Positive Implications**

Even though there are positive implications of Ethiopians migration to the RSA mainly for the economic sectors of both states, these implications have not been recognized by the governments of the two states due to illegal migration and lack of bilateral agreement on migration aspect. Undeniably, the two states have been benefited from the Ethiopians migration. For instance, Dodson (1998 cited in FIHR, 2006:16) stated that the RSA has

been benefited from non-South African street traders and small enterprisers. The migrant enterprises are responsible for creating many employment opportunities, and may in fact be more likely to create than to take jobs. However, it is not often recognized by the mainstream media that whilst in RSA, immigrants contribute directly to the country's economy through their purchases of goods and services. The newspapers of RSA have reported many cases of assaults on non-South African street traders and small enterprisers including Ethiopian migrants mainly on security problems and lack of job opportunities for the people of RSA. These attacks appear to be based on a failure to recognize the positive implications of migration (Dodson, 1998 cited in FIHR, 2006:16).

In supporting the above discussion, the interviewee has stated that the labor power migration from Ethiopia to the RSA has positive implications mainly for the economic sectors of both states although it is informal.<sup>37</sup> Noticeably, RSA has been benefited economically from the Ethiopian migrants, particularly from the taxes that have been paid and job creation opportunities for its citizens. In addition, some Ethiopians have been employing the black South African citizens in their small businesses. Not only job creation opportunities but also RSA has been benefited from the cheap labor force and investments of Ethiopians, because some Ethiopians have been building huge shops, super markets, hotels and cafeterias in the RSA.<sup>38</sup>

On the other hand, Ethiopia also has been benefited from the remittance that inflows from the RSA, job creation opportunities and knowledge and skills exchanges mainly in trade sector. As the interviewee has stated, the remittance that has been inflowing from the RSA is substantial. Observably, the livelihoods of the migrants and their families have been changed.<sup>39</sup> In supporting this idea, another interviewee has also stated that both states are benefiting from the Ethiopians migration informally, particularly in economic sectors although it is not recognized by the states.<sup>40</sup> However, the governments of the

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<sup>37</sup> Interview with Tafa Tulu: Consular Monitoring and Support Directorate; MoFA, on 3 March 2015

<sup>38</sup> Interview with Habtamu Wondimu: Social Psychologist at Addis Ababa University, on 26 March 2015

<sup>39</sup> Interview with Zelalem Amado: Senior/Desk Officer of the Southern African countries, MoFA on 3 March 2015

<sup>40</sup> Interview with Basazin Deribie: Senior Expert of Public Relation in the Ministry of Social and Labour Affairs, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, 04/02/2015

two states have not recognized officially the positive implications of Ethiopians migration due to: (i) the illegal migration and its consequences (ii) lack of bilateral agreement between the two states on migration aspect.<sup>41</sup> As (Emebet, nd: 14) stated, the bilateral agreements can be adapted to the specific situation of migrant workers both in the sending and receiving countries. These agreements can be a basis for ensuring adequate protection to migrant workers during pre- and post-migration processes.

In summary, even though the two states are benefiting from the Ethiopian migrants economically, there is no positive implications have been created for their bilateral relations formally. That means, it has not enhanced or promoted their historical relations as well as bilateral agreements that had been signed earlier on other aspects. If the two countries are willing to sign bilateral agreements concerning the migration aspect, strong trade linkage could be created between the two states and this can promote their bilateral agreements that have been signed on other aspects. And also, if the migrants of Ethiopia move to the RSA in legal way, it will unquestionably enhance people-to-people relations and cultural exchanges for both countries formally.

#### **4.8.2.2 Negative Implications**

Nowadays, the security issue is the turmoil issue in the world in general and RSA, in particular. The RSA has laid the legal foundation for its security issue although it is rhetoric in practice as discussed in its Immigration Policy of this research. Its preamble (b) of the Immigration Act of 2002 states “the security considerations are fully satisfied and the state retains control over the immigration of foreigners to the RSA.” The Department of Home Affairs (DHA) of the RSA has refused to ratify the draft protocol designed by SADC for the freer movement of people within the SADC region although it was positive on the issue later (Christy, nd: 5). Furthermore, the interviewee has stated that:

*The government of the RSA is not interested by the inflow of all illegal migrants to its country including Ethiopians. For instance, currently, AU has submitted the proposal for the implementation of “FREE VISA” for all Africans to move freely from one country to the other like moving in one’s own country. Unfortunately, the first country which opposed the proposal was the RSA. Thus,*

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<sup>41</sup> Interview with Habtamu Wondimu: Social Psychologist in Addis Ababa University on March 26, 2015

*if the economic advantages of Ethiopians migration outweigh the negative consequences, it demands the Ethiopian government to sign bilateral agreement concerned migration like bilateral agreements those have been signed on other aspects<sup>42</sup>.*

Even though the RSA has laid legal foundation and refused to sign agreements on freer movement of people within the SADC region and at continental level, it is suffering by rampant security problems. According to the evidences, illegal migrants have been creating security problems in the country. As (Nyamnjoh, 2006 cited in Solomon and Kosaka, nd: 8), the migrants of certain countries have been identified by their distinctive crimes in the RSA. For instance, Nigerians are associated with controlling the drug trade; Congolese are identified with passport racketeering and diamond smuggling; Mozambicans with car theft; Zimbabwean women as indulging in prostitution and Somalis were associated with the illegal business, where they do not charge taxes to the end-customers and sell things at much cheaper price than the local stores. Ethiopians are also associated with illegal businesses and robbery based on the informal information from the returned migrants.

Concerning the shortage of job opportunities in the country, South Africans appear to believe that foreign citizens take jobs from locals, send their earnings out of the country, and use the country's welfare services. They perceive that foreigners cause economic harm to South African citizens by seeing the huge figure of foreigners in the country. There are about two million foreign nationals in the RSA, about 4% of the total population although some estimates put the number of immigrants at five million (BBC, 2015). Due to this, many South Africans accuse the foreigners of taking jobs in the country where the unemployment rate is 24% (BBC, 2015). In the contrary, some citizens appear to welcome foreigners whose economic impact is demonstrably positive, their foreigners hatred is only directed towards those who 'take away' jobs (Neocosmos, 2006 cited in Solomon and Kosaka, nd: 6).

As a result, certain politicians, the media and some citizens of the RSA have been blaming and pushing the government to withdraw all the illegal migrants or black foreigners including Ethiopians from their country. Because, they are not interested in the

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<sup>42</sup> Interview with Tafa Tulu: Consular Monitoring and Support Directorate, MoFA on 3 March 2015

foreign migrants due to the security problems and the scarcity of job opportunities for their citizens although a number of foreign citizens including Ethiopians have been creating jobs for the citizens of RSA. Based on this, the foreigners' opposition and xenophobia has become common in the RSA.

### **Why is the Opposition of Foreigners and Xenophobia in RSA Ignited?**

Initially, the word xenophobia came from the Greek terms of *xenos* and *phobos*. *Xenos* means "foreigner" or "stranger" and *phobos* means "fear". The term *Xenophobia* is used to describe fear or dislike of foreigners or in general, people different from one's self (Culbertson, 2009:10). According to the (Morris, 1998, Black et.al., 2006 and Human Rights Watch, 1998 cited in Accord, 2011:3-6 as well as Neocosmos, 2006 cited in Solomon and Kosaka, nd: 6), three basic reasons were identified for the South Africans opposition and xenophobia on foreign citizens mainly on black foreigners:

*First:* "Xenophobia is seen as a consequence of apartheid due to the isolation of the country from the rest of the world in the apartheid era. It is taken to be an explanation for the fear and distrust that RSA communities have towards foreigners." One of apartheid's long lasting legacies can be seen in the isolation created amongst the population. It is this isolation which has closed society and created a nation that is unwelcoming of foreigners. *Second:* It is related to the limited resources, such as housing, education, health care and employment. "A common belief in RSA is that every job given to a foreign national is one less job for a South African, and this is exacerbated by the unemployment rates, currently in the range of 20–30 %." *Third:* "Bio-cultural" aspect i.e. xenophobic violence is not applied equally to all foreigners. The most remarkable feature of xenophobia experienced in RSA is that it appears to have taken on a primarily racial form. "Mostly it is directed towards Africans due to the rest of Africa is seen as backward, poverty-troubled and comprised of 'failed states". They believe that the poor Africans have been taking away their jobs.

Beyond this, there is also a political factor, particularly in the micro-politics level. Local leaders often lead or organize violent attacks on foreign migrants in order to gain authority or realize their political interests i.e. to exclude foreigners from political

participation and in order to ensure their authority within the community (Misago 2009, cited in Accord, 2011:4).

Consequently, the foreigners including Ethiopians have been damaged by some citizens of the RSA at different periods. Before the 1994, immigrants from elsewhere faced discrimination and even violence, though much of that risk stemmed from the institutionalized racism of the time. Even after democratization in 1994, contrary to the expectations, the incidence of xenophobia increased. For instance, between 2000 and March 2008, at least 67 people died in what was identified as xenophobic attacks. Particularly, in the 2008 attack, hundreds of homes and shops were looted and burnt as well as 62 people died across the country, among which 21 were the citizens of RSA. Many were injured and an estimated 100,000 fled their homes and found refuge wherever they could (Duponchel, 2009:4; McKnight: 2008:21).

Recently, (April, 2015), the nationwide spike in xenophobic attacks against immigrants in general prompted a number of foreign governments to begin repatriating their citizens. In this attack, more than 2000 people were displaced as well as at least seven people including Ethiopians were killed. The immediate reason for the attacks is followed by comments made from the *Zulu* King Goodwill Zwelithini, who last month called for foreigners to leave the country although he said that his comments had been distorted (BBC News, on 17 April 2015).

**Fig.4.9: Xenophobia and Foreigners Attacks in the RSA in April, 2015**



Source: BBC News, on 17 April 2015

Away from the above discussions, the researcher has investigated the documents (international conventions) concerning the rights of asylum. Because, some people believe that once a person received an asylum right, he/she could not be deported from the host country. Likewise when some Ethiopians enter to the RSA, they have been asking an asylum seekers' right. Asylum-seekers are potential refugees, and they receive the status of "refugee" if they prove that they have a well-founded fear "of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion."<sup>43</sup>

The core norm of international refugee law is the principle of *non refoulement* according to which no "state shall expel or return ("refouler ") a refugee in any manner whatsoever to the frontiers of territories where his life or freedom would be threatened on account of his race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion."<sup>44</sup> The principle is applicable to any refugee, asylum-seeker or an alien who

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<sup>43</sup>Refuge Convention

<sup>44</sup> Article 33 (1) of the 1951 Convention of Refuge

needs some form of shelter from the state whose control he/she is under<sup>45</sup> (Stoyanova, 2008:1). In view of this, even though some Ethiopian migrants have been receiving the right of asylum seekers in the RSA, there is no international law or convention could be applicable for economic migrants to prevent them from deportation anxiety from the host country. The host country can deport according to its legal procedures at any time. For instance, after the April, 2015 xenophobia attack, RSA has deported more than 3000 illegal migrants from its country.<sup>46</sup>

In sum, even though the mentioned empirical evidences and media have reported the human rights violation of Ethiopians in the RSA on one side and insecurity as well as scarcity of job opportunity problems for the citizens of RSA on other side, such problems have not created distress between Ethio-RSA bilateral relations. The bilateral relations of Ethio-RSA have not been deteriorated even in a recent incident that of April, 2015. Ethiopia has sent very recently its diplomat to the RSA (on 22 April, 2015) contrary to other countries mainly Nigeria. The relationship between Nigeria and RSA has been deteriorated due to the recent incident. As a result, Nigeria has withdrawn its embassy from the RSA.<sup>47</sup>

Nevertheless, the government of RSA faces a severe challenge in properly implementing its new immigration policy to overcome increasingly negative attitudes of its citizens towards immigrants. There is limitation on managing security as well as lack of job opportunity problems for its people and protecting the rights of foreign citizens according to the international conventions and its national laws. In general, even though the issue needs additional empirical studies, according to the results of this study, there is no formal positive and/or negative implications have been created between the two states' bilateral relations.

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<sup>45</sup>Declaration of States parties to the 1951 Convention and/or its 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees, Ministerial Meeting of States Parties, Geneva, Switzerland, 12-13 December 200

<sup>46</sup> Interview with Zelalem Amado: Senior/Desk Officer of the South Africans countries Affairson 19 April 2015

<sup>47</sup> Anonymous Interview: Senior/Desk Officer of the South African Countries Affairs, MoFA on 20 April 2015

## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Summary and Conclusions

The main purpose of this research was to investigate the causes and consequences of labor power migration from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA and its implications for Ethio-RSA bilateral relations. The investigation was done by employing case study design, and using both quantitative and qualitative methodological approaches. The quantitative data collected via questionnaire from a total 475 randomly selected migrants (i.e. 173 *out migrants*, 119 *returnees* and 183 *non-migrants*). Data about *out migrants* is obtained in proxy representation way. On the other hand, the qualitative data were collected via interview and FGDs guidelines from the total (14 and 32) purposely selected key informants respectively. In doing so, the basic research questions set to be answered were: (1) what factors motivate the labor power migration from the *Kembata – Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA? (2) What are the main socio- economic consequences of the labor power migration in *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones? (3) What challenges the illegal migrants face when they are travelling to the RSA and (4) what are the implications of Ethiopians migration to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) for their bilateral relations?

To analysis the respondents' demographic and socio-economic characteristics as well as their responses on causes, consequences, patterns and implications of migration, an attempt has been done. Concerning age selectivity of migration, the result of the study shows that the rate of migration was found significantly highest for those who belonged to the age category of (15-29). Of which, about (69.7%) of *return migrants* and (76.9%) of *out migrants* were categorized in this age group. Regarding gender as one of the demographic factors of migration, the result of the study indicates that the majority of them were males, about (73.1%) of *return migrants* and (69.9%) of *out migrants*. Concerning the marital status, the migration propensity in the study area was dominated on the single migratory group, about (60.5%) of *return migrants* and (45.7%) of *out*

*migrants*. Regarding the place of residence, the majorities have been migrating from the rural area, about (61.3%) of *return migrants* and (65.3%) of *out migrants* have been migrating from the rural area. Concerning the education status, the migration rate was found significantly higher for those who were at the secondary school level of educational attainment. About (41.2%) of *return migrants* and (48.0%) of *out migrants* were categorized in the secondary education level. Furthermore, the result of the study shows that the dominant migratory ethnic groups from the study area were the *Kembata* and *Hadiya* ethnic groups. These ethnic groups migratory dominance was mainly due to the social network that was initially created by the ambassador from *Kembata*, Ethiopia during his ambassadorial role in the RSA.

Regarding the economic characteristics of the respondents, in the type of occupation, the majorities, about (30.3%) of *return migrants* and (37.0%) of *out-migrants* were engaged in trade and small enterprises before they migrate to the RSA. This shows that occupation type has direct correlation with the migration decision in the study area. However, this figure increased during the post-migration, about (72.2%) of *return migrants* and (85.0%) of *out-migrants* are engaged in trade and small enterprises. Concerning per month income, before migration, about (63.9%) of *return migrants* and (25.4%) of *out migrants* were saving less than 200 ETB per month whereas the largest proportion, about (27.7 %) of *return migrants* and (46.8%) of *out migrants* have been saving 30,000 ETB per month during post migration. Regarding their capital, the largest percentage, about (50.4%) of *return migrants* and (30.6%) of *out migrants* were accumulated less than 5000 ETB before migration whereas, about (50.4%) of *return migrants* and (29.5%) of *out migrants* have accumulated more than 1000, 000 ETB during post migration (survey time of the researcher).

On the other hand, as discussed in detail in the literature, the causes of migration from the study area have been fuelled by a variety of “Push-pull” factors. According to the finding of the study, unemployment, social network, poverty, population density with scarcity of agricultural land, brokers, lack of commitment of local government officials to create jobs, family pressure have been identified as the key push factors of migration. Whereas, job opportunity, better life, social network and smugglers at the destination country have

been identified as pull factors of migration. Among the push factors of migration, unemployment takes the highest proportion, about (24%) followed by family pressure (22%) while from the pull factors, social network takes the highest proportion, about (34%) followed by high income at destination, about (31%).

The other finding of the study showed that labor power migration from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA has both positive and negative consequences for migrants, their households and country at large even at the destination country. Thus, the flow of remittance, creation of job opportunities, diaspora benefits, better life and poverty reduction were identified as positive consequences of migration. On the other hand, economic inequality among the people, dependency on remittance, brain drain, school dropout rates and diffusion of culture were also identified as negative consequences of migration in the study area. Concerning the pattern of Ethiopians migration to the RSA, the finding of the study shows that over 95% have been moving in illegal way with serious health and life risky conditions. The illegal migrants are suffering by human trafficking, smuggling, beaten by police, deporting from the transit countries and even deaths when they move to the RSA. Predominantly, the findings of the study indicate that the Ethiopians migration to the RSA has no formal positive and /or negative implications for the bilateral relations of the Ethio-RSA.

Finally, South Africa continues to attract huge numbers of labor powers from Ethiopia. The labour powers from Ethiopia, particularly *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones have been migrating to the RSA due to it provides better economic opportunities. High illegal youth and adult migration to the RSA is the dominant livelihood strategy for these peoples that exposing migrants to severe and complex problems. On the other hand, even though Ethiopians migration to the RSA has positive implications for the two states mainly in economic sectors, due to lack of recognition by the states, no formal positive implication has been created for their bilateral relations. In addition, even if insecurity problems and lack of job opportunities on the side of RSA and violation of human rights and shoplifting of property of Ethiopians in the RSA on the Ethiopian side have been identified as negative implications, these negative implications have not created deterioration between the two states' bilateral relations.

## 5.2 Recommendations

After analyzing the causes and consequences of labor power migration from the *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA and its implications for the bilateral relations of Ethio- RSA, the researcher proposes the following suggestions that could be implemented by policy makers, government officials (both at local or national levels), International Organizations, and leaders or preachers of the religions as well as the community at large in the study area:

- ❖ The government has to consider building vocational training institutions and agro-industrial firms to create various job opportunities for youths and adults. Vocational training of the people on small scale industries (non-farm) activities that could generate income for the households should be introduced as it is supposed to alleviate the problems of landlessness and shortage of agricultural land and their total dependency on one source of livelihood i.e. traditional farming.
- ❖ The attitude of the community as well as the leaders or preachers of the religions has to be reshaped by continuous public discussions and awareness creation programs. Currently in Ethiopia, one-to-five couple arrangement is effective on other aspects, mainly on economy of farmers. Thus, continues discussions have to be done in these groups, because it contributes its part to mitigate the problem of illegal migration.
- ❖ The concerned bodies (the government, NGOs and the community of the study area) have to work together to minimize the school dropout rates besides professional outflows from the zones. Otherwise, it deprives the country of critically needed educated human resources. Losing these educated people would hinder the socio-economic development of the country in the future.
- ❖ Extensive and continues information campaigns have to be done in order to promote public awareness concerning the threats of human trafficking, smuggling, sufferings of the migrants, deportation from the transit countries and human rights violations in the RSA via print and electronic media like radio, television, Twitter, face book and videos. The government officials at different levels have to take strong actions on human traffickers and smugglers, particularly

in the SNNPR. Moreover, a National Committee that has been established from the composition of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA), the Confederation of Ethiopian Trade Union (CETU), and the Ethiopian Employers' Federation (EEF) to prevent the human trafficking and smuggling problem has to give sufficient time to minimize or stop the problem.

- ❖ Predominantly, the researcher suggests for the governments of the states to sign bilateral agreement on migration aspect for the sake of their mutual benefit, particularly in economic sectors. Bilateral agreement is not easy to secure due to the unbalanced national interests of the sending and receiving countries. In addition, the governments of the two states have to recognize the positive implications of Ethiopians migration to the RSA to promote people-to-people relations, cultural exchange and trade linkage between the two states.
- ❖ The government of RSA has to create awareness among its citizens via media about the changing form of migration in globalized economy and realizes that migration is a means to overcome poverty both for a country and individual.
- ❖ Finally, the government of the RSA has mandate and ability to provide safety and protection for those migrants within its country. The misconception of the nationals of RSA on “foreigners” should be avoided by eliminating the fear and distrust of its citizens that could result in situations of violence. Besides, condemning community leaders as well as other government officials who have been involving in planning xenophobic attacks should be emphasized. These environments will provide avenues for creating a common identity of individuals working hard to skill themselves for a better and sustainable future, as such realizing the spirit of oneness.

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**Addis Ababa University, College of Social Sciences**  
**Department of Political Science and International Relations**  
**Graduate program (R) (2014/15)**

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## **Appendix 1**

### **Questionnaire for Return migrants and Out Migrants**

**Dear respondents:** The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information to conduct research for the partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in International Relations. This instrument is designed for the purpose of gathering information concerning the causes and impacts of labour power migration from *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) and its implications for bilateral relations of both countries. The information that you have will provide is intended to serve for identification of determinant factors of migration and its positive and negative consequences in origin country as well as its implications for bilateral relations of Ethiopia and RSA. Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide accurate information as much as possible. I confirm you that all data given by you will be treated confidentially.

**Part one: Questionnaire prepared for *Return migrants* and *out migrants* (N.B. For this research, *out migrants* are represented by their families)**

#### **Instruction:**

1. Circle (use tick mark) whether you are **return migrant** or **out migrant**
2. Circle or write the answer as may be necessary to indicate your appropriate responses. **(N.B. Do not write your name)**

**Alternatives of each question are taken as codes of the analysis part of the research (For researcher only)**

**Thank you very much for your time!**

## A. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

1. Sex: 1. Male 2. Female
2. Age: How old are? 1. <15 2. 15-29 3. 30---45 4. >45
3. Marital status: 1. Single 2. Married 3. Divorced 4. Widowed

## B. Socio-cultural Characteristics of the Respondents

1. What is your highest level of education 1. Illiterate 2. Primary (1-8)  
3. Secondary (9-12) 4. 10 +3 (Diploma) 5. Under graduate degree and above
2. What is your religion? 1. Protestant 2. Orthodox Christian  
3. Catholic 4. Muslim 5. Other (specify) -----
- 3 What is your ethnicity? 1. *Kembata* 2. *Hadiya* 3. *Tembaro* 4. *Donga* 5. *Other*

## C. Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

1. What was your main occupation or means of living before you went to the RSA?  
1. Employee (under government or NGO) 2. Farmer 3. Trader  
4. Student 5. Daily labor 6. Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_
2. What is your occupation now? 1. Employed 2. Farmer  
3. Trader or entrepreneur 4. Service 5. Other (specify)-----
3. How much was your monthly income before you went to the RSA?  
1. <200 ETB 2. 500 ETB 3. 1000 ETB 4. 2000 ETB 5. 5000 and above ETB
4. How much is your monthly income now? 1. <5,000ETB 2. 10,000 ETB  
3. 20,000 ETB 4. 30,000 ETB 5. >30, 000 ETB
5. How much was your total capital before you went to the RSA?  
1. <5,000 ETB 2. 10,000 ETB 3. 20,000 ETB 4. 50,000 ETB 5. >50,000 ETB
6. How much is your total capital now? 1. <50,000 ETB 2. 50,000 -100,000 ETB  
3. 200,000 ETB 4. 1,000,000 ETB 5. >1000, 000 ETB

## D. Questionnaire for the Causes of Migration

1. What are the “push” factors which motivate people to migrate to the RSA in your *woreda* or *kebele*? **(It is possible to choose more than one response)** 1. Poverty  
2. Unemployment 3. Family pressure 4. Peer pressure 5. Population growth 6. Land shortage
2. What are the “pull” factors that motivate people, including you to migrate to the RSA in your *woreda* or *kebele*? **(You can choose more than one response)**.  
1. High income in RSA 2. Social networks 3. Job opportunity 4. smugglers
3. What are the main factors motivate professionals, mainly teachers to leave their job and move to the RSA from your area or these zones at large? **(You can circle more than one response)**  
1. Wage differentials in origin and destination countries 2. Low income in origin country  
3. Peer pressure 4. Social media 5. Others (specify) -----
4. Why laour power migration is dominant mainly in *Kembata-tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones? **(You can circle more than one response)** 1. Previous knowledge 2. Social network  
3. Shortage of land 4. Lack of employment opportunities  
5. Lack of job creation opportunities 6. Other (specify) -----

## E. Questionnaire for the Consequences of Migration

1. Is there any difference pre and post migration in your economy or livelihood? Or is migration has changed your economy? 1. Yes 2. No 3. Not sure
2. If you say “yes” for Q 1, what among the following are tangible differences? **(Choose more than one answer)** 1. My capital is improved 2. Self-reliance and supporting family 3. Job creation 4. Being investor 5. High income 6. Sufficient consumption
3. What does the country (Ethiopia) loses from its labour power migration? **(You can choose more than one response)** 1. Development (Finance) 2. Productive labour force  
3. Trained man power 4. Life of migrants 5. Other (specify) -----

4. Is migration has positive consequence at your *woreda* or *kebele*?  
 1. Yes                      2. No                      3. Not Sure
5. If you say “yes” for Q.4, what type of positive consequence has migration in your *woreda* or *Kebele*? (**You can circle more than one response**).  
 1. Flow of remittance    2. Job creation opportunities                      3. Diaspora benefits  
 4. Poverty has decreased    5. Improvement of social services    6. Other (specify)
6. Does migration has negative consequence at your *woreda* or *Kebele*?  
 1. Yes                      2. No                      3. Not Sure
7. If you say “yes” for Q. 6, which one of the following could be the negative consequences of migration in your *woreda* ? (**It is possible to choose more than one response**).  
 1. Inequality among the people    2. Dependency on remittance    3. Shortage of labour force  
 4. Lack of job creation interest    5. Loss of life    6. Dependency on remittance    7. Others-
8. Does migration has negative consequences on students learning or education?  
 1. Yes                      2. No                      3. Not sure
9. If you say “yes” for Q.8, which one of the following are negative impacts of migration on learning? (**Please circle more than one response**)  
 1. School dropouts    2. Brain drain    3. Absenteeism    4. Low achievement  
 5. Problem of discipline    6. Lack of attention    7. Others (specify) -----

**F. Questionnaire for the Patterns of Migration**

1. Who is the decision maker on migration aspect in your *woreda* or *kebele*? (**You can circle more than on response**) 1. A migrant him/herself    2. Friends/peers    3. Family / household  
 4. Labour demand at destination country    5. Other (specify)\_\_\_\_\_
2. In which way the majority people have been migrating to the destination country or RSA?  
 1. In regular way                      2. In irregular way
3. What problems have been facing when you went to RSA in irregular way? (**It is possible to choose more than one response**) 1. Imprisonment    2. Robbery    3. Human trafficking  
 4. Beaten by police

**G. Migration-Implications questionnaire**

1. Which one of the following are the implications of Ethiopians migration to the RSA for Ethio-South African bilateral relations? (**Mark more than one response**)  
 1. Enhancing people to people relations    2. Economic development for both countries  
 3. Democracy and Good governance    4. Cultural exchange    5. Unemployment in RSA  
 6. Lack of security for destination country    7. Other (specify) -----



Graduate program (R) (2014/15)

Questionnaire for Non-Migrants

**Dear respondents:** The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information to conduct research for the partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in International Relations. Thus, this instrument is designed for the purpose of gathering information regarding the causes and consequences of labour power migration from *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) and its implications for bilateral relations of Ethiopia and RSA. The information that you will provide is intended to serve for identification of determinant factors of migration and its positive and negative impacts in origin country as well as its implications for bilateral relations of both countries. Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide accurate information as much as possible. I confirm you that all data given by you will be treated confidentially.

**Instruction:** Circle (use tick mark) or write the answer as may be necessary to indicate your appropriate responses. **(N.B. Do not write your name)**

**Alternatives of each question are taken as codes of the analysis part of the research (For researcher only)**

**Thank you very much for your time!**

**Part two: Questionnaire prepared for Non – migrants**

**A. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents**

- 1. Sex: 1. Male 2. Female
- 2. Age: How old are you? 1.  $\leq 15$  2. 15—29 3. 30--45 4.  $\geq 45$
- 3. Marital status: 1. Single 2. Married 3. Divorced 4. Widowed

**B. Socio-cultural Characteristics of the Respondents**

- 1. What is your highest level of education? 1. Illiterate 2. Primary (1-8)  
3. Secondary (9-12) 4. 10 +3(Diploma) 5. Under graduate degree and above
- 2. What is your religion? 1. Protestant 2. Orthodox Christianity 3. Catholic  
4. Muslim 5. Other (specify) -----
- 3. What is your ethnicity? 1. *Kembata* 2. *Hadiya* 3. *Tembaro* 4. *Donga* 5. *other*

### C. Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

1. What is your main occupation or means of living? 1. Employed 2. Farmer  
3. Trader or entrepreneur 4. Service 5. Other (specify) -----
2. How much is your monthly income 1. < 5,000 ETB 2. 10,000 ETB  
3. 20,000 ETB 4. 30,000 ETB 5. >30,000 ETB
3. How much is your total capital? 1. <50,000 ETB 2. 50,000 -100,000 ETB  
3. 200,000 ETB 4. 1,000,000 ETB 5. >1000,000 ETB

### D. Questionnaire for the Causes of Migration

1. What are the “push” factors that motivate people to migrate to the RSA in your *woreda* or *kebele*? (It is possible to choose more than one response) 1. Poverty 2. Unemployment  
3. Family pressure 4. Peer pressure 5. Population density 6. Land shortage
2. What are the “pull” factors that motivate people to migrate to the RSA in your *woreda* or *kebele*? (You can choose more than one response).  
1. High income in RSA 2. Social networks 3. Job opportunity 4. Smugglers

### E. Questionnaire for the Consequences of Migration

1. Is there any difference between your economy and peoples’ those have migrated?  
1. Yes 2. No 3. Not sure
2. If you say “yes” for Q.1, how much is the difference? Explain please (in kind or cash) -----  
-----
3. Is migration can be taken as the source of income or means of better living for the people?  
1. Yes 2. No 3. Not sure
4. If your response is “yes” for Q. 3, why did not you migrate? (You can circle more than one answer). 1. Lack of money 2. Lack of information 3. Lack of social network  
4. Lack of family support 5. Other (specify) -----
5. What does the country (Ethiopia) loses from its labour power migration to the RSA? (You can choose more than one response) 1. Development (Finance) 2. Life of migrant  
3. Productive labour force 4. Trained man power 5. Other (specify) -----
6. Does labour power migration from *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA has positive consequence? 1. Yes 2. No 3. Not sure
7. If your answer is “yes” for Q.6, what types of positive consequences have migration in your *woreda* or at *Kembata –Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones at large? (You can circle more than one response). 1. Flow of Remittances 2. Job Creation Opportunities 3. Diaspora benefits  
4. Poverty has decreased 5. Improvement of social services 6. Other (specify)
8. Is there any negative consequences of migration in your *woreda* or at *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones at large? 1. Yes 2. No 3. Not Sure
9. If you say “yes” for Q.8, which one of the following could be the negative consequences of migration? (It is possible to choose more than one response). 1. Inequality among the people  
2. Dependency on remittance 3. Lack of labour force  
4. Lack of interest for job creation 5. Others (please, specify) -----
10. Does migration have negative effects on students learning or education?  
1. Yes 2. No 3. Not sure
11. If you say “yes” for Q.10, which one of the following are negative impacts of migration on learning? (Please circle more than one response). 1. School dropouts 2. Brain drain  
3. Absenteeism 4. Low achievement 5. Problem of discipline 6. Lack of attention 7. Others

### F. Questionnaire for the Patterns of Migration

1. Who is the decision maker on migration aspect in your *woreda* or *kebele*? (you can circle more than on response). 1. A migrant him/herself 2. Friends/peers 3. Family / household  
4. Labour demand at destination country 5. Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

2. In what way the majority people of your *woreda* or *kebele* move to the RSA?

1. Regular way                      2. Irregular way

3. If your answer is in “irregular way” for Q.2, why is it? And why not in a regular way? Please explain-----

4. What are the main sources of information for peoples’ migration to the RSA? (**You can choose more than one response**). 1. Social network 2. Mass media 3. Personal visit 4. Peers pressure

5. What problems have been facing on the way when people migrate to the RSA in irregular way? (**It is possible to choose more than one answer**) 1. Imprisonment              2. Robbery  
3. Human trafficking    4. Beaten by police    5. Smuggling    6. Other (specify) -----

**G. Migration-Implications questionnaires**

1. Which one of the following are the implications of Ethiopians migration to the RSA for Ethio-South African bilateral relations? (**Mark more than one response**)

1. Enhancing people to people relations    2. Economic development for both countries  
3. Democracy and Good governance              4. Cultural exchange    5. Unemployment in RSA  
6. Lack of security for destination country (RSA)                      7. Other (specify) -----



## Appendix 2

### Interview guide line for the Focus Group Discussions (FGD)

The purpose of this interview guide is to gather information to conduct research for the partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in International Relations. Thus, this instrument is designed for the purpose of gathering information on the causes and impacts of labour power migration from *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) and its implications for the bilateral relations of Ethiopia and RSA. The information that you have provided is intended to serve for identification of determinant factors of migration and its positive and negative impacts in origin country as well as its implications for bilateral relations of both countries. Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide accurate information as much as possible. I confirm you that all data given by you will be treated confidentially.

**Thank you very much for your time!**

#### Interview guide for Focus Group Discussion

1. Number of the participants: 1. Male-----2. Female-----
2. Could we start our discussion by introducing each other?  
Name: 1<sup>st</sup>. -----2<sup>nd</sup>. -----3<sup>rd</sup>. -----4<sup>th</sup>. -----5<sup>th</sup>. -----  
-----6<sup>th</sup>. -----7<sup>th</sup>. -----8<sup>th</sup>. -----
3. Age: 1st -----2<sup>nd</sup>-----3<sup>rd</sup>-----4<sup>th</sup>-----5<sup>th</sup>-----6<sup>th</sup>-----7<sup>th</sup>-----8<sup>th</sup>-----
4. Do you tell me whether you are migrant, return or non-migrant? 1<sup>st</sup>. -----  
2<sup>nd</sup>. -----3<sup>rd</sup>. -----4<sup>th</sup>. -----5<sup>th</sup>. -----6<sup>th</sup>. -----7<sup>th</sup>. -----8<sup>th</sup>. -----
5. What do you think are the “push” factors which motivate people to migrate to the RSA from your *woreda* or *Kembata –Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones at large?-----  
-----
6. What do you think are the “pull” factors which motivate people to migrate to the RSA from your *woreda* or *Kembata –Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones at large?
7. Do you think that migration has positive consequences (advantageous) in your *woreda* (*Kebele*) or *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones at large? If so, what are they? -----  
-----
8. Do you think are there any negative consequences of migration in your *woreda* (*Kebele*) or *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones at large? If so, what are they?-----  
-----

9. What do you think are the impacts of labour power migration on students learning or education in your *kebele* or town or at *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones at large? -----  
-----

10. What do you think are the consequences of irregular migration in these zones and at country level at large?-----

10. What policy measure to be taken to combat or minimize irregular migration at these zones or at the country level?-----

11. Are there any implications of Ethiopians migration to the RSA for the Ethio-South African bilateral relations? And what are the positive and negative implications for both origin and destination countries?-----

**Date of the (FGD)-----**

**Place(Zone /Woreda/Kebele) of FGD-----**



## Appendix 3

### In-depth Interview guide line for Key Informants (KII)

The purpose of this interview guide is to gather information to conduct research for the partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Arts in International Relations. Thus, this instrument is designed for the purpose of gathering information concerning the causes and impacts of labour power migration from *Kembata-Tembaro and Hadiya* zones to the Republic of South Africa (RSA) and its implications for the bilateral relations of Ethiopia and RSA. The information that you have provided is intended to serve for identification of determinant factors of migration and its positive and negative impacts in origin country as well as its implications for bilateral relations of both countries. Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide accurate information as much as possible. I confirm you that all data given by you will be treated confidentially.

#### Interview Guide Questions

1. Could we start our discussion by introducing each other? (By telling name, age and current position and work place) 1. Name: -----2. Age: -----3. Position and work place:-----
2. What do you think are the major “push” factors which motivate labour power migration from Ethiopia, particularly *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones to the RSA?
3. In line to the question number 2, what do you think are the “pull” factors at destination country which attract labour power migrants from these zones or Ethiopia at large?
4. What do you think are the impacts or consequences of these peoples’ migration to the RSA in Ethiopia, particularly in *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones? And what do you forecast or estimate about the futurity of these peoples’ huge movement on the country’s destination?
4. What do you think are the impacts of labour power migration on students learning or education in these zones? And how this affects the human resource power of the country? What solutions to be taken?
5. As commonly known, majority of the migrants from these zones have been moving in irregular ways. Thus, what should be done to minimize or stop irregular migration from these zones or Ethiopia at large?
6. Are there any implications of Ethiopians labour power migration to the RSA for the Ethio-South Africa bilateral relations? If you say ‘Yes’, what are they? (Please reason out)
7. Do you think that the Ethiopians labour power migration to the RSA affects the historical relations of the two countries? If you say “yes”, how? and if you say “no” why?
8. How do you see the policy issues of Ethiopia, Republic of South Africa and at international level at large as far as migration concerned? Are they strong enough to minimize irregular migration?
9. What do you recommend for the governmental officials of *Kembata-Tembaro* and *Hadiya* zones, the government of Ethiopia and the International Migration concerned Organizations to minimize the irregular migration from these zones or from Ethiopia?

## **Declaration**

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

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Habte Haile Degelo

June, 2015

This thesis is submitted for examination with my approval as an advisor of the candidate.

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Dr. Demeke Achiso

June, 2015

