



# RMMRU

## Working Paper Series No. 20



# Impact of Internal and International Labour Migration: The East African Experience

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The RMMRU Working Paper Series presents papers in a preliminary form. More information on the work and research projects of RMMRU can be found online at [www.rmmru.org](http://www.rmmru.org).

### **Acknowledgements**

This paper was produced in partnership with the Research Program Consortium under ‘Migrating out of Poverty.’

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### **Recommended Citation**

Rutaremwaa, Gideon, (2011). *Impact of Internal Labour migration: The East African Experience*(Working paper series no. 20, Dhaka: RMMRU)

## **Section I**

### **Internal Migration**

#### **1.1 Overview**

East Africa has experienced a long history of labor migration between and within countries. Migration destination locations include agricultural estate plantations in Uganda, mines in the DRC as well as in Uganda; seasonal migration by pastoralists in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda (DFID2004a). Most migrations in East Africa are intraregional, and characterized by migrant workers, undocumented migrants, nomads, frontier workers, refugees as well as highly skilled professionals. East Africa's migration experience is largely male selective with an increasing female autonomous migration as a survival strategy (Adepoju, 2002). The internal migration trends are seen as a reaction to the unfavorable socioeconomic conditions in the region.

Bilger and Kraler, 2005 observed a circular migration which involves secondary school children which was introduced by colonial education that concentrated most schools in few prime locations within East African Countries, thus causing students to normally leave their usual places of residence to look for education. From 1975 to 2005, migrant proportions fell from 3.5 percent to 1.6 percent especially due to return migration after strife in Burundi, Ethiopia, Somali, Southern Sudan and political disorder in Zimbabwe.

One part of migration that is of a vital concern to policy and development in Africa is labor circulation (DFID 2004a). East African Countries host a number of refugees and the current political trends in Africa are a key indicator that they might continue to host even an increased number in the near future. This situation including refugee flows has been signaled by the rapid population growth, economic depression, conflicts, political instability, widespread poverty and deepening unemployment.

#### **Lesson learnt**

The East African Community and other unions could help forge a way forward and promote intra regional and internal labor mobility once concerted efforts are made to harmonize existing or possible internal migration laws.

#### **1.2 Empirical Evidence on Impact of Internal Migration**

After Independence, Kenya experienced a huge flow of rural urban migration as well as rural migration to areas of commercial agriculture (Oicho, 2002). Between 1998 and 1999 central and Nyanza provinces of Kenya had decreasing volumes of migration due to conflict. In Kenya, on average males migrated more than their female counterparts. There was a high sex ratio (more males per 100 females which means that in migration of male

while a low sex ratio means a dominance of females especially in areas of outmigration. 4 decades after independence a new migration trend emerged with a sex ratio of 113 in 1999, Nairobi with 98 and rift valley with 97 and two net migration provinces of North East (114) and eastern (115)(Kenya,2004). All the migration episodes in all regions, most of life time migrants were married implying that family migration or the spousal migration is a family obligation (Kenya, 2004: 24-25).

Regarding economic activity, paid work accounts for much of lifetime migration, except in Nyanza, where about one-third of the population is inactive, and in Nyanza, Rift Valley and Western provinces where the proportion of inactive women was higher than the men's at the 1999 census (Kenya, 2004:27). Kenya experienced development setback as a result of conflict causing forced migration and this trend affects the rest of East African Countries. Structural adjustment Programs of the 1990s and ethnic conflicts discourage voluntary migration and discourages development. Like many African Countries East African countries lack explicit migration policy. Urban- rural remittances were a key driver in the development of rural Kenya but this has of present been reduced by economic costs of living in cities and poverty among migrant workers (Ouchoua, 1996).

Kenya's young and educated and development aware population is the most mobile and leaves older and conservative population in rural areas that do not benefit from development. In migration areas experience many socioeconomic and psychological changes which easily instigate violence. It therefore becomes hard to predict development situations.

Appropriate policies and strategies that take into account both development needs and patterns of migration are needed in East Africa

### **1.3 Impact of Internal migration on immediate family members**

Sub Saharan Africa has contributed to evidence regarding remittances as a risk spreading family strategy with remittances offering relief as well as insurance in times of adversity. Various studies in the region have looked at impacts on remittances from shocks to rainfall, which impacts crops and livestock as well as shocks through ill health or death in the family (Lucas2005). Studies in East Africa have revealed that families in rural areas increase their livelihood security by splitting locations of the family. Research in Western Kenya suggests that the decision to migrate and remittance behavior are linked to a form of intergenerational migration contract between a migrant and his or her parents in which the migrant moves and sends remittances, in expectation of subsequent inheritance (DFID 2004a). Collier and Lal (1984) show that in rural Kenya, remittances enable the recipient families to hold more productive capital than others. Such studies bring out the role of migration and remittances as a means of overcoming capital market imperfections and bring home some capital for funding productive investment. Centrally, research by Rempel and Lobdell (1978) using the household survey data from rural Kenya found out that remittances from rural to urban migrants have little impact on the development of the region of origin. Therefore, there exists an unclear outcome in regard to the impact of migration and remittances on household welfare in the country of origin. More empirical work is definitely needed to find out a clear and elaborate relationship.

### **1.4 Impact of internal migration extended family Members**

The extent to which rural households engage in short and long-term migration to maintain and diversify household income and reduce risk in the face of agro-climatic constraints is well documented in Kenya. Studies have shown that rural families increase their livelihood security by splitting the locations of the family, most often by one member of the family migrating to an urban area (Bigsten1996). This may be necessary in marginal areas as there is insufficient economic capital in rural areas to diversify sources of income without migration (Oniang'o 1995). Research carried out under DFID's Natural Resources Policy Research Program (NRPRP) shows, in a small sample in Makueni district, not only that over half of households surveyed had access to migrant income, but that this was also larger and more secure than income from local wage labour and had contributed to investment in farming (Nelson 2000).

### **1.5 Impact of Migration on Community Development**

In terms of the consequences of migration for the poor, Oucho discusses the problems of balancing the cost and returns to rural areas of rural-urban migration, in terms of loss of labour, the cost of supporting the move and establishment in the town, returns in the forms of remittances, both economic and socio-cultural, and the eventual return migration. He argues that migration creates dependency in rural areas of Western Kenya on urban migrants and remittances (Oucho 1996). Kenya is also a country of origin and transit for trafficked persons, primarily women and children. Internal trafficking is reported to occur, with an estimated 200,000 street children in Kenya, a significant number of whom are believed to be engaged in forced labour or illegal activities, including prostitution (USDOS 2003).

In Uganda, a study of livelihood strategies in Mbale, Kamuli and Mubende Districts (Dolan 2002) compared female and male-headed households, finding a greater number of economically active adults migrated from the former than the latter. This affected male sons in particular. However, although remittances were found to play an essential role in female-headed households, this did not translate into enhanced income diversification, since off-farm opportunities for women were more circumscribed than for men. There is also some evidence in Uganda of the association between HIV/AIDS and migration. Thus a longitudinal cohort study in a rural county of Masaka District found age and sex-standardised seroprevalence rates were 7.9 per cent overall, but just 5.5 per cent for adults who had not moved home, 8.2 per cent for adults who had moved within the village, 12.4 per cent for those who had moved to the neighboring village, 11.5 per cent for those who had left the area, and 16.3 per cent for those who had joined the study area (Nunn et al. 1995).

## **1.6 Impact of Migration to the local Economy**

Migration is of considerable importance to the poor in East Africa. Historically, the migration of millions of rural households in eastern and southern Africa has provided investment capital for rural commodity production, stimulated the flow of new ideas and social practices into rural areas, and enhanced rural livelihoods (Francis 2002). Decreasing agricultural incomes across East Africa since the 1970s have led to diversification of livelihood sources, and migration is a likely outcome in areas with easy access to labour markets (Francis 2000).

The extent to which rural households engage in short and long-term migration to maintain and diversify household income and reduce risk in the face of agro-climatic constraints is well documented in Kenya. Studies have shown that rural families increase their livelihood security by splitting the locations of the family, most often by one member of the family migrating to an urban area (Bigsten 1996). This may be necessary in marginal areas as there is insufficient economic capital in rural areas to diversify sources of income without migration (Oniang'o 1995). Research carried out under DFID's Natural Resources Policy Research Programme (NRPRP) shows, in a small sample in Makueni district, not only that over half of households surveyed had access to migrant income, but that this was also larger and more secure than income from local wage labour and had contributed to investment in farming (Nelson 2000).

## **Section II: Short Term Contract International Migration**

### **2.1 Overview**

Short Term Contract migration involves the movement of unskilled and semi-skilled mainly male migrants which is legally sanctioned, regulated by government-to government agreement and has formal deferred pay arrangements to ensure that wages earned are repatriated to the supply country.

The extent to which rural households engage in short and long-term migration to maintain and diversify household income and reduce risk in the face of agro-climatic constraints is relatively well documented in East Africa. Studies have shown that rural families increase their livelihood security by splitting the locations of the family. Research in Western Kenya suggests that the decision to migrate, and remittance behavior, are linked to a form of inter-generational 'migration contract' between a migrant and his or her parents, in which the (usually male) migrant moves and sends remittances in expectation of a subsequent inheritance. In southern Tanzania, research by IIED suggests that male migration to save and invest in rural areas is also common, although return is less so.

In contrast, in northern Tanzania, opportunities for migration appear to be especially important for marginalized women. There are no accurate figures on the number of Ugandans living outside Uganda: a

anecdotal estimate suggests 500,000 emigrants, including refugees and migrants. At the end of 2002, there were around 38,000 Ugandan refugees registered worldwide, the majority in DRC. UNDESA figures suggest net emigration of 14,000 each year from 1995-2000 (UNDESA 2002), with this figure predicted to rise in 2000-05 (UNDESA 2000a). Only small numbers appear as new entrants in Europe or the US, suggesting that most emigration is to other places, most likely other African countries such as Kenya, Tanzania, South Africa and Botswana.

## **2.2 Impact of Short term contract international Migration on Individuals**

Evidence on the extent of the 'brain drain' in Kenya remains somewhat circumstantial, but this has not stopped the issue receiving some public prominence inside the country. Just 152 Kenyan trained nurses were registered to work in the UK in 2002/03 (Bach 2003), hardly a major problem if correct and reflected in other destination countries. Yet it is reported that only one out of 14 recent recipients of doctoral degrees in molecular biology have stayed in the country to continue to conduct research, with the others moving to Europe or North America. Kenya's Health Minister, Charity Ngilu, is quoted as saying that out of 6,000 doctors trained in Kenya, just 60 remain in the country's public hospitals (Kaul 2003), whilst it is estimated that as many as 20 Kenyan doctors are leaving the country every month for better positions elsewhere (Shinn 2002). A recent news article discussing why many professionals overseas do not want to return cited political instability as a major cause, as well as the lack of infrastructure (Mwaura 2003).

## **2.3 Impact of Short term contract international Migration on Immediate family members**

Children migration in East Africa in order to obtain education is a common phenomenon. This situation most likely encourages onward migration once schooling is completed. However it is important to mention that education also appears to be a major focus of the community, and remittances are often invested in school fees. Those who have educated relatives in urban areas also appear to receive larger remittances and are therefore able to send a higher proportion of their children to school, perpetuating inequality from one generation to the next.

## **2.4 Impact of Short term contract international Migration on Extended Family members**

(No available Literature)

## **2.5 Impact of Short term contract international Migration on Community Development**

(No available Literature)

## **2.6 Contribution of Short term contract international Migration on Local Economy**

Migration is of considerable importance to the poor in East Africa. Historically, the migration of



millions of rural households in eastern and southern Africa has provided investment capital for rural commodity production, stimulated the flow of new ideas and social practices into rural areas, and enhance rural livelihoods (Francis 2002). Decreasing agricultural incomes across East Africa since the 1970s have led to a diversification of livelihood sources, and migration is a likely outcome in areas with easy access to labour markets (Francis 2000). The impact of urban economic decline has also been felt by the poor, although many public sector workers previously considered being amongst the 'labour aristocracy' have perhaps been hit hardest.

In most East African countries there are a number of examples of innovative formal and informal mechanisms to transfer remittances, including the use of bus and courier companies (Sander 2003). Another innovative semi-formal system, although not actually a money transfer system which has sprung up in Uganda and Tanzania, is the transfer of pre-paid airtime on mobile phones to relatives (with the pin code being passed around). This saves the relatives money in buying airtime and allows them to use it for other expenses.

## **2.7 Impact of Short term contract international Migration on National economy foreign exchange**

In Uganda, the liberalization of financial markets, especially trade in foreign exchange, and the granting of permission for foreign denominated bank accounts, are said to have increased remittances. The Bank of Uganda Forex and Trade Department is now generally supportive and positively inclined towards granting permission to Money Transfer Organisations (MTOs). There is also some interest in using Micro-Finance Institutions (MFIs) as providers of money transfer services, and evidence across the region suggests that these may be more effective in channeling resources to the poorest than international banks and corporations that lack local knowledge.

## **2.8 Impact of Short term contract international Migration host Countries' economy and society**

Kenya presently hosts the largest refugee population in the East African region. The two largest refugee groups in Kenya consist of Sudanese and Somali nationals. IOM Kenya has been implementing a large resettlement program since the early 1990s and each year facilitates the movement of thousands of migrants. Kenya hosts two refugee camps, Kakuma in North West of Kenya and Dadaab (the largest refugee camp in the world) in North East Kenya, which host a large number of refugees. The Dadaab Refugee Camp has become the biggest refugee processing centre for IOM Nairobi. Countries IOM facilitates resettlement to are the United States, Canada, Europe, and Australia, among others.

In 2010, following the signing of an agreement between IOM and the Ministry of State for Special Programmes, IOM continues to work towards addressing the vulnerable situation of IDPs through construction of low-cost shelters and promotion of peace and reconciliation; this will bring to a grand total over 14,400 low cost houses constructed by IOM since September 2008. To mitigate the negative impacts of food insecurity a

a result of the post elections violence and further aggravated by the negative effects of climate change, IOM continues in 2010 to implement projects that aim at the re-establishment of sustainable livelihoods for refugee host communities and pastoralist communities in Northern Kenya.

## **2.9 Research Gaps**

1. Inquiry into the impacts of Migration on Individual migrants and community Development.
2. The gender perspectives on Migration and development in East Africa.

## **Section III: Cross Border Migration**

### **3.1 Overview**

Labour migration across nations has been in existence for a long time. It is a process majorly driven by pull and push factors including voluntary and involuntary; or forced migration due to wars and political instabilities. While in the past this process took place virtually unnoticed, it is only in the last three decades that migration has become an issue of growing concern to the international community. This is attributed to the increase in volume of flows of migration. The increased migration is a result of several factors; wars, social instabilities, economic reasons such as hardships and increased unemployment and education reasons, among others. Recently the surge in labour migration is a result of globalization and regional integration processes, ease of communication due to ICT revolution and liberal migration policies pursued in some of the developed world (this category of migration however affects mainly skilled and semi skilled labour), and foreign investment incentives offered in developing countries.

East Africa's cross border migration has been triggered by the instability of the region which poses particular challenges to cross-border co-operation in the field of migration. The absence of a sub-regional dialogue on migration issues, which includes all the countries placed along the East Africa migration routes, also impedes the development of a common understanding of migration towards, within and out of the sub-region. East African countries like many other countries have a long history of labour migration within East Africa and also externally with other countries outside the region. Penetration of foreigners to East African countries has been long and this sparked movement of labour within East African countries. Cooperation within the East African countries has been quite long and extensive.

In East Africa, people have moved within and without the region for various reasons but the paramount reason is for labour purpose. Labour movement has been prompted in many East African areas, recorded for work in plantations such as in (cotton and coffee areas in Uganda), mines (DRC and Uganda) and with the seasonal (pastoralist communities in Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya). In the colonial era, labour migration originated

mainly from Rwanda, Burundi and Zaire to Uganda, Kenya and Tanzania. These movements have been supplemented by substantial forced displacement-- Kenya for railway building and Tanzania to work in sisal estates and plantations. There is also increased rural-urban migration within countries for employment or to earn a livelihood. However, both urbanization rates and levels of international migration remain generally low compared to other parts of Africa.

All the East African States (Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda) do not have emigration laws. The movement of nationals from these countries is uncoordinated and not synchronized. Historically, there was little emigration of East African but in comparative terms compared to Tanzanians, Kenyans and Ugandans emigrated due to reasons such as wars and economic hardship and unemployment. Today, there are some indications that there is a sharp increase in the number of East African migrant workers, both women and men working abroad. The movements are composed of legal and illegal as well as skilled and unskilled. Most of skilled East Africans migrate to more developed economies particularly in North America and Western Europe. A significant number of East Africans also have in the past emigrated to Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) countries mainly Botswana, South Africa and Swaziland. Most of the unskilled East Africans migrate to Southern Africa.

In Uganda there are non-quantified migration problems arising from a variety of past and present factors. The search for better economic prospects is one reason persons migrate. Since 1987 the Government of Uganda has implemented economic reforms aimed at achieving economic growth of at least 5.0% per annum and subsequently reducing mass poverty currently standing at 39%. The implementation of these economic reforms reversed the negative economic growth trends that characterized the economy in the 1970s and early 1980s. In spite of the renewed economic growth, unemployment and poverty remain to be major challenges that continue to confront Ugandans into the 21st century. Many Ugandans have taken it upon themselves to address this situation by migrating to areas with better economies.

### **3.2 Migrant Impact of Cross Border Migration**

The recent political unrest, which started after the assessment mission and therefore falls outside of the scope of the report, has led to a displacement of over 231,000 Kenyans and some persons even crossing the border to Uganda. With an estimated two million Kenyans living abroad, there is an opportunity to open up markets abroad, facilitate trade and relations with foreign governments, transfer knowledge and know-how and generate social and technical transfers and remittances. In many developing countries remittances are nowadays considered to be one of the most important financial inflows.

Kenya is among the worst affected countries by the loss of its qualified people through brain drain. This mostly affects the health sector, but other highly skilled Kenyans also emigrate to seek better opportunities. An estimated 20 Kenyan doctors leave the country every month to seek better opportunities abroad. However, there is anecdotal evidence that many Kenyan emigrants are unable to use their skills according to their qualifications resulting in a brain waste.

Accumulating evidence demonstrates that certain mobile and migrant populations face increased vulnerability to HIV due to a number of factors such as poor access to integrated health services, lack of evidence-informed and targeted prevention programmes, harmful gender norms, and lack of coordination and programmatic linkages targeting key sites along mobility paths. One of the major challenges within this area of population mobility and HIV in Tanzania is that policy makers and programmes have given little attention to the relationship between migration, population movement, and HIV, even though the trend of the HIV pandemic has demonstrated a strong relationship to population mobility.

### **3.3 Impact on Immediate family Members**

Although data on remittances is sparse and partly contradictory, it is safe to say that they account for a substantial share of Kenyan household incomes and are almost as important as major economic sectors, such as tourism. Research carried out by DFID shows that over half of the households in Makueni district were financially supported by migrant family members and that the remittances they received were larger and more secure than their income from local wage labour and even allowed investments in farming. According to the World Bank Migration and Remittances Fact book, Kenyans abroad remitted USD 1,128 million through official channels only in 2006, which accounts for 5.3% of the GDP.

This amount even increased to USD 1,300 million in 2007. On the other hand, the Central Bank of Kenya speaks of USD 472 million being sent back to Kenya in 2006. As for the Ministry of Labour and Human Resource Development, it estimates the amount of remittances to reach USD 1,158 million in 2006, amounting to 0.46% of the GDP.

### **3.4 Impact on Extended Family members**

(No available Literature)

### **3.5 Impact on Community Development**

Most actions to facilitate remittances to either lower its costs or better steer its contribution towards the productive sector are initiated and carried out by associations, the Kenyan diaspora or the private sector. Remittance services are offered by micro-finance institutions, banks, Western Union, Moneygram, etc. However, the main obstacle for an optimal use of remittances is the high costs of money transfers as well as their long duration. Lately, Kenya has seen the development of mobile banking or m-banking, which has been

successfully tested in the Philippines, Brazil and South Africa. Mobile phone providers such as Safaricom, Celtel, MTN are also providing services to facilitate the transfer of remittances. Western Union has reacted to this evolving business by signing an agreement with the GSM Association (GSMA) to facilitate the development of cross-border mobile money transfer services. Western Union and the GSMA are developing a commercial and technical framework that mobile operators can use to deploy services that enable consumers to send and receive money transfers using their mobile phones.

### **3.6 Contribution to Local Economy**

Acknowledging the benefits migration can have for development, it is becoming a priority for Kenya authorities to enhance relations with the Kenyan diaspora, and to encourage migrants to contribute to the country's development through the creation of the necessary institutional and financial infrastructure, as well as through networks and contacts. The Kenyan authorities acknowledge the importance of the potential of remittances to the development of the country. The Kenya Diaspora Remittance Facilitation Working Committee established in 2005, and attended by representatives of Central Bank of Kenya (CBK). This endeavor was meant to explore ways of contributing to the Kenyan Economy by the Kenyans living abroad.

### **3.7 Impacts on National Economy**

Free market forces accordingly tend to dominate national economic cultures with the principle actors of change being transitional corporations that owe allegiance to no nation and locate wherever on our planet earth the market advantage dictates. They are able to move their capital and top management and skilled labour across borders following market advantage signals. With increased trans-national capital movements and trade in goods and services, people move and stay across national boundaries with a greater frequency than ever before. The migration status in Uganda using the data from the population censuses of 1980 and 1990 indicates that international migration registered a very sharp increase. Recorded international migrants in Uganda, the 1980 population census recorded 21,542 people in the category of immigrants. This doubled to 49,909 in 1990.

While they should not replace development assistance, remittances channeled into income generating activities positively contribute to the development of a country. This contribution is still limited, as most of the money flows into the non-productive sector. Social and technical transfers can have equally beneficial implications and include transfer of knowledge, innovative ideas, political contributions, social values, democratic principles and work attitudes. Some writers cite policies that impede migrants' use of formal channels. In South Africa money transfer agencies are required to have a banking license, to invest in an expensive exchange control reporting system, to ensure payment of taxes on transmitted funds, to ensure that the funds are not proceeds from crime, and to verify that the sender is a resident, has an immigration or work document authorizing her to earn rands, and is not in breach of exchange control laws. This array of requirements limits competition and

raises fees. It also encourages senders to turn to informal networks, and money transfer agents to refuse to serve low-income individuals whose bona fides may be difficult to verify (Gupta and others 2006; Genesis 2003).

There has been some discussion as to whether microfinance agencies could become more involved in remittances. Their relatively poor clientele and low cost structure could help reduce the cost of remittance transfers and encourage poorer migrants to send remittances through formal channels. However, Higazi (2005) does not find much evidence of microfinance involvement in remittances transfer agents in Ghana. By contrast, Sander and Barro (2003) find that microfinance institutions are cooperating with banks to offer transfer services in Senegal. The regulatory framework that permits this can be cumbersome, as authorization from the Ministry of Economy and Finance is required, and the microfinance institution must have sufficient capital and financial expertise. The Uganda Microfinance Union introduced a pilot money transfer product in 2001, although its clients tend to be larger corporations, due to high fees (Black and others 2004).

### **3.8 Impacts on Host Countries' Economy**

Migration can be a constructive economic and social force. But illegal migration has serious negative consequences for all countries concerned. The trans-national dimension of migration requires close cooperation among origin, transit and destination countries in order to jointly identify and implement effective methods for reducing illegal migration flows. The border and migration management regimes in East Africa are uniformly weak, characterized by porous borders, inadequately trained and ill-equipped staff, and minimal regional and cross-regional technical cooperation. Kenya occupies a strategic geographic position in the East Africa Region and has a long history of being a particularly attractive country of destination for various migration flows.

People from its neighboring countries have crossed the border mainly for reasons of political instability and food insecurity, but also due to traditional pastoral movements and cultural ties.

The country continues to attract these heterogeneous migration flows due to its location, relatively developed infrastructure, good air and land connections, large migrant communities and well-connected smuggling networks. For these very reasons Kenya is not only a country of destination, but increasingly a country of transit. Most transiting migrants are of Somali and Eritrean origin, having left their country of origin because of political insecurity and looking to join their respective diaspora communities in Europe and North America. Kenya is a founding member of the East African Community (EAC), which already has a common passport and aspirations of establishing an East African Federation merging the five member states Burundi, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda into a single state.

At the regional level, Kenya, just as all the countries along the East Africa migration route, have greatly benefited from the development and implementation of an informal regional migration dialogue in order to create links between relevant authorities and current/future migration management experts throughout the region. Kenya's regional attraction has made it become an important country of origin, transit and destination. On the other hand, irregular immigration to Kenya has become a concern for the Kenyan authorities. According to intelligence services, Kenya in general and Nairobi in particular have become an important illegal migration hub towards Europe and beyond: from the simplest and most direct air route Nairobi-London to the most complex thousands of kilometers- and month-long indirect journey towards the United States of America or the United Kingdom. The most common irregular migration routes where Kenya has a role, whether as an origin, transit or destination migration hub, include; direct air route to Europe; indirect air route from Kenya through other African countries, especially West Africa, to Europe, an indirect air route from Kenya through the Middle East to Europe.

### **3.9 Research Gaps**

1. Inquiry Cross Border migration Impacts on Extended family members
2. Cross border migration and its impacts after constituting the East African Community .

## **Section IV: Diaspora and Immigrants Settlers**

### **Section 4.1: overview**

Migration from the East African region is relatively smaller than from other countries worldwide. However, due to historical circumstances in the region, Eastern Africa is both a migrant sending and migrant receiving sub-region. High rural unemployment, intercommunity inequality, environment factors such as droughts and rainfall unpredictability, high population growth as well as political instability can be considered as the main drivers of emigration in much of Eastern Africa in recent years. Many East Africans have emigrated abroad. However, it is hard to find accurate quantitative data on the numbers and trends of East African nationals in the diasporas. According to the recent World Bank fact book (2011), the stock of emigrants as a percentage of the total population of the country was 8.7 percent for Somalia, 2.2 percent in Uganda, 1.1 percent in Kenya and only 0.7 percent for Tanzania.

According to Orozco (2008), at least three waves of emigration can be identified in Uganda. The first major wave occurring circa the period of dictatorship in 1972, when 80,000 Ugandans of South Asian descent were expelled from the country. A second wave occurred between 1971 and 1986, when thousands of Uganda refugees left the country as a result of armed conflict and political instability. A third wave of migration has resulted recently from the prevailing ties with the Ugandan diaspora and the way in which globalization has generated push-and-pull factors on labor mobility. In Kenya, just before independence (1960-1963) many Kenyans were given student scholarships to go to Western and Eastern Block countries to pursue higher education. These numbers rose especially during the Moi era, more specifically from the mid-1980s to the present. There are now many Kenyans who have migrated and settled in foreign countries in search of greener pastures and promising labor markets. Most of these international migrants were forced out of Kenya by the lack of promising jobs, a declining economy, harsh political conditions especially during the Moi era and lack of confidence in the direction his government was taking the country. It will be interesting to observe whether

the international migration in Kenya will slow down, now that there is a new government, which look promising.

According to the estimates of the Centre on Migration, Globalization and Poverty from Sussex University (based on census data for the period 2000-2002), in 2005, the stock of Kenyan emigrants was estimated at 91 890. The United Kingdom, with 14.5 per cent of Kenyan emigrants is the main destination country, followed by Tanzania (13.5 %), the United States of America (4.98 %), Uganda (3.67), and Canada (2.2 %; Migration DRC, 2007). The same source indicates that over the period 2000-2002, 41.5 per cent of Kenyan migrants were residing in Africa, 37.9 per cent in Europe, 14.4 per cent in North America, 4.2 per cent in Asia, and 0.2 per cent in Latin America and the Caribbean. From these data, it can be inferred that more than half of Kenyan emigrants live in Europe and North America, followed by South-South migration within Africa and to other developing countries. According to estimates by the World Bank, there may be nearly 757.5 thousand Ugandans abroad, and the top destinations for Ugandan emigrants are: Kenya, the United Kingdom, Tanzania; the United States, Canada, Rwanda, and Sweden, among others. The UK in particular is home to a large Ugandan diaspora community, due in part to colonial ties between the countries and the fact that, prior to 1990 Ugandans did not need a visa to travel to the UK.

Information on the type and nature of labour market participation of emigrants in the host countries is barely known and scanty. However, what is known is that emigration rates for tertiary educated East Africa population are high, ranging from as low as 12.4 percent for Tanzania to as high as 38.4 percent in Kenya, with Uganda and Somalia having emigration rates of 35.6 and 32.7 percent, respectively. One profession that has been attracted attention is that of medical doctors, notably; of the number of physicians trained in Uganda in 2000, 36.4 percent emigrated (World Bank 2011). This latter rate was 21.9 percent, 12.4 percent and 6. percent in Somalia, Tanzania and Kenya, respectively. It is not clear whether these physicians are engaged in medical practice or other professions in the host countries. Finally, there is an absence of literature and indeed research on the male-female impact and experiences with regard to diaspora immigrant settlers.

The mobility of labor abroad has been accompanied by a series of economic relationships that migrants establish with their home country. These relationships include exchanges such as phone calls, importation of home country goods, remittance transfers to their families, or investment in real estate or small businesses (Macharia 2003, Orozco 2005 and 2008, Azam and Gubert, 2006; Gupta et al, 2007; Fix et al., 2009; Kiiru 2010). Throughout the East African region, data, statistical records, or evidence of these types of relationships are unknown. Indeed a look at remittance figures gives us insights on how important the contributions of East Africans in the diaspora are for economic development of the region. However, these figures do not tell us anything about the impacts of remittances on human development in East Africa and of emigrants abroad.

Accordingly, it is imperative to conduct studies focusing on the main aspects beyond financial remittances both from the sending and receiving end. It has been argued that the vast, growing movement of people is basically a positive thing: notably, the international labor migration of the highly skilled from the developing world to the developed world is at best a healthy and recommended "win-win" phenomenon, not only for the individual and the receiving country but also for the developing sending country (Global Migration Perspectives, 2005). In addition, remittances have a strong impact on poverty and economic activity. They impinge on households' decisions in terms of labour supply, investment and education. Remittances have a strong impact on poverty and economic activity. They impinge on households' decisions in terms of labor supply, investment and education among others.

#### Section 4.2: Impact on immediate and extended family

*(This information is lacking in existing literature)*

#### Section 4.3: Impact on community development

*(This information is lacking in literature)*



*(This information is lacking in literature)*

#### Section 4.5: Contribution to home country national economy and society

Remittance transfers from emigrants to their origin countries have attracted increasing attention over the past few years, in part due to the sharp rise in official data on remittances receipts by developing countries and Eastern Africa has not been an exception. The size of remittance inflows varies considerably among the East African countries. According to the migration and Remittances Fact Book compiled by the World Bank by Ratha (2011), Kenya receives the most inward remittance flows totaling 1.69 billion US dollar in 2009, while Uganda received 694 million and Tanzania received only 16 million US dollars during the same year. Information on Somalia is unavailable. Earnings through diaspora remittances in Uganda were 8 percent of GDP in 2006, while in Kenya diaspora remittances contributed approximately 5.4% of GDP in 2007 and have increased significantly over the past few years. Remittance receipts in dollar terms more than tripled between 1994 and 2006.

The impacts of diaspora remittances are associated with the positive role attributed to remittances sent by East African emigrants to their families. At macro level, remittances are considered to be a significant source of foreign exchange for the countries of the region. For example in Kenya in 2007, the total remittances inflow accounted for 5.4 per cent of GDP (as noted earlier) and largely outnumbered Official Development Assistance (ODA; remittances accounted for 124.5% of ODA) and were only second to Foreign Direct Investment (FDI; remittances represented 2.2 % of FDI). Similarly, at the micro level, money and equipments sent by East African Diasporas to their families are often allocated to income generating activities and expenditures related to education, health, housing and food (Azam and Gubert , 2006; IOM, 2006; Sherbut, 2007; World Bank 2009; Kiiru, 2010). Therefore, remittances play the role of a social safety net at the household level, while generating a multiplier effect in the economy of the migrant sending country (IOM, 2005).

#### Section 4.6: Impact on host countries' national economy and society

*(There is a glaring lack of literature on host country impacts of emigration)*

#### Section 4.7: Identification of research gaps

- Whereas much is written about diaspora remittances and their contribution to development of the economies of the sending countries, little is known on the specific impacts on both, individuals, community and even on the economy. Future research, therefore, should be geared toward addressing these specific impacts of migration as stated.
- Nationally representative migration surveys should be conducted, targeting to migration impact issues.

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