THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWEAN LABOR MIGRATION ON SOUTH AFRICAN AND ZIMBABWEAN DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS.

BY

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FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES.

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DEDICATION

I owe the success of this project to the Almighty God. Had it not been of the guidance, strength I received from the Lord I could not have accomplished this project.
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I acknowledge the grace and power of the Almighty God who gave me the strength and perseverance to carry out this project.

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I thank you.
ABSTRACT

The focus of the study was on the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on South African and Zimbabwean diplomatic relations. The study was both qualitative and quantitative in nature and concentrated on Zimbabwean immigrants and government officials. Questionnaires were distributed to twenty (20) Zimbabwean immigrants in Johannesburg and interviews were conducted with three officials per department from Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department.

According to the research findings, measures taken by the South African government to control Zimbabwean migration pose no threat to the diplomatic relations of the two countries since South Africa prescribes to SADC Protocol on the movement of people in implementing its migration laws. Nonetheless, corrupt tendencies by some officials from SAPS and immigration department and xenophobic attacks by some South African citizens wield the potential to dent the Zimbabwean South African diplomatic relations if they are not addressed.
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CoRMSA – Consortium for Refugees and Migrants in South Africa
DHA – Department of Home Affairs
HRW – Human Rights Watch
HSRC – Human Sciences Research Council
IOM – International Organization of Migration
IRIN – Integrated Regional Information Networks
MLAO – Musina Legal Advice Office
NELM – New Economics of Labor Migration
SADC – South African Development Cooperation
SAHRC – South African Human Rights Commission
SAMP – Southern African Migration Programme
SANDF – South African National Defense Force
SAPS – South African Police Services
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THE IMPACT OF ZIMBABWEAN LABOR MIGRATION ON SOUTH AFRICAN AND ZIMBABWEAN DIPLOMATIC RELATIONS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Southern Africa has a long history of intra-regional migration. Migration was probably the most single important factor tying together all of the various colonies and countries of the sub-continent into a single regional labor market during the twentieth century (Crush et al, 2005). In fact, cross-border migration for purposes of employment within SADC was prevalent long before the drawing of colonial boundaries, dating back to the 1800s. The countries of Southern Africa, notably Lesotho, Zimbabwe and Mozambique have been trading migrants since the mid-nineteenth century when labor migrants came to work on the Kimberley diamond mines. This was exacerbated by the discovery of gold on the Witwatersrand which changed the entire pattern of labor migration in sub-Saharan Africa. Initially most migrants came independently but later became a government-to-government process. Male labor migration to the mines commercial farm and plantations is the most enduring form of legal cross-border labor migration within the region.

According to (Crush et al, 2005) the migrant stream that attracts most public and official attention is “undocumented” or “illegal” or “unauthorized” migration. The first point to emphasize is that clandestine border crossing in Southern Africa is nothing new. Second, while the volume has undoubtedly increased in the last two decades, it hardly warrants the aquatic imagery that is generally applied to the phenomenon (“floods”, “tidal waves” etc.). Third, undocumented migration tends to be driven by economic circumstances and, in some cases, desperation. Finally, enforcement in all countries tends to focus on identifying and deporting violators with the minimum of due process. In terms of sheer volume, South Africa is the regional leader, having deported over one million people since 1990. The latter significantly states that the vast majority of deportees (upwards of 80%) are sent home to only two countries: Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Tensions between these countries have simmered below the
surface on this issue for some time. Bilateral commissions have done little to stop the flow of migrants or produce viable solutions.

South Africa has mismanaged migration pressures, partly because of resource constraints and the inherent difficulties of managing porous borders in a region where many people lack proper travel documents. However, its policies have also been inconsistent and inappropriate, and prone to abuse by corrupt officials. We have not welcomed skilled regional immigrants to the extent that we should, and our policies in respect of Zimbabwean migrants have sometimes been inconsistent, inappropriate and unrealistic. In addition, they have frequently placed unnecessary burdens on people seeking to migrate legally to South Africa (Centre for Development and Enterprise, 2011).

(Van Wyk, 2002) argues that Zimbabwe remains an important state to South Africa for a number of reasons - both as neighbours and members of SADC. Both states are major trading partners of one another. As a landlocked country Zimbabwe is dependent on South African harbors. Both states are members of SADC. The political events in Zimbabwe have an impact on the South African economy. Zimbabwe imports about 20% of its power from South Africa and has not paid its bills since 1999. It owns Eskom more than US$ 20m in arrears. Southern Africa’s future and the credibility of the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) are linked to the Zimbabwe issue which remains one of the dominating foreign policy challenges for the South African government.

According to (Hammerstad, 2011) the South African authorities have responded to the Zimbabwean influx with a combination of laissez-faire at the broader policy level and hostility and harassment at street level. Until early 2009 South Africa did not have a policy specifically for Zimbabweans. In political terms they were almost a non-problem, to be dealt with administratively by the Department of Home Affairs and the police. Zimbabweans could enter South Africa with relative ease, but suffered the constant threat of police harassment, detention and deportation, as well as vigilante violence and xenophobic attacks.
The political and economic crisis that has riddled Zimbabwe for over a decade has created two serious challenges for South Africa’s (SA) government. The first challenge is external: SA’s quiet diplomacy approach towards Zimbabwe’s ruling ZANU-PF has raised important questions about SA’s position and reputation as a regional power and global actor (Hammerstad, 2011). The second challenge is internal and can be described as an immigration and asylum crisis. This domestic crisis has deepened as the political situation within Zimbabwe has been left unresolved. Some one to three million Zimbabweans are estimated to be living in SA, most of them as undocumented migrants. The two challenges are closely linked. Despite this, there has been little co-ordination of SA’s immigration policy towards Zimbabweans and its foreign policy towards Zimbabwe. The political significance and opportunities, both for SA and Zimbabwe, of having a vast Zimbabwean diaspora in SA have been mostly ignored, at least at the level of public policy. As SA’s immigration and asylum crises have been left to simmer the results have been detrimental to the country’s internal stability and international reputation. At the same time, SA has not harnessed the potential positive political role the Zimbabwean diaspora can play in helping resolve the crisis in their homeland.

According to (Hungwe, 2012) Zimbabwean migration to South Africa is mainly negatively evaluated, being described by locals using metaphors such as the ‘Zim Tsunami’ ‘floods’ ‘hoards’, ‘barbarians’ or ‘infestation’. He further states that South African residents in the Limpopo feel like non-South Africans in their own country because of this ‘Zim Tsunami’. There are negative stereotypes created for non-South Africans. ‘Zimbabweans are accused of criminality, being hosts of all sorts of diseases, taking away South African jobs and women, and having many babies’. These migrants are perceived with resentment and scorn and even hatred. The term ‘Makwerekwere’ describes non-South Africans in South Africa and reflects the level of resentment the host population has for non-South Africans. These attitudes culminated in xenophobic attacks on non-South Africans that left 62 people dead and displaced between 80 000 and 200 000 people in May 2008. (Hungwe, 2012) insinuates that for most Zimbabweans Xenophobia is an everyday experience. Recently, there has been resurgence in the cases of Xenophobia leading to the death of three Zimbabweans killed by mobs. The above revelations necessitate this study to find how labor immigration by Zimbabweans to South Africa has affected the relations between the two countries.
2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although migration into South Africa by Zimbabweans started before the 1860’s, the number of Zimbabweans into South Africa has increased than in any period in the previous years and the majority are said to be undocumented immigrants. The socio-economic impact of Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa is viewed by different researchers as negative resulting in high crime rates (Solomon, 2000, p. 13) whilst some literature views it as positive in terms of skills development and transfer (McDonald, 2000:814). The current state of illegal Zimbabwean immigrants into the country is characterized by exaggerated half-truths and silences that are said to be dangerously misleading (Vigneswaran, 2007, p. 4) and has a possibility to hamper Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations. What has remained far-fetched and motivated this study is whether the labor migration of Zimbabweans to South African has a negative bearing on the diplomatic relations between Zimbabwe and South Africa.

3. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research is to establish the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations.

4. SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

4.1 Theoretical

The findings of this research will add to the existing body of knowledge regarding as to the socio-economic impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on South Africa in terms of crime, employment, xenophobia, social security and service delivery system. Moreover, it will give a fair analysis with regards to the factors behind the migration of Zimbabweans to South Africa. The research will augment the existing literature concerning the consequences of the South African immigration policy regime on Zimbabwean- South African diplomatic relations. The study will furnish the existing theory with recommendations on the South African immigration policy framework in managing labor migration by Zimbabwean nationals.
4.2 Practice
The study will help Governments, Migration Practioneers, NGOs and other institutions with in-depth knowledge on the magnitude of the socio-economic impact of labor migration on the destination economies. The chronicled consequences and challenges posed by labor migration will help the above mentioned institutions to design policy strategies tailored at mitigating the impact.

4.3 Researcher
At the conclusion of this study, the researcher will gain an understanding concerning the socio-economic impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on South Africa. The researcher will have an answer with relation to the factors that drives labor migration by Zimbabweans to South Africa. Likewise, she will have a clear understanding regarding the consequences on the Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations resulting from South African policy framework meant to curb Zimbabwean labor immigration.

5. ASSUMPTIONS
The assumptions tied to this research are that participants will respond to the interview questions and fill questionnaires in an honest and candid manner. The study also assumes that the inclusion criteria of the sample are appropriate and therefore, assures that the participants have all experienced the same or similar phenomenon of the study. Moreover, the researcher is of the assumption that participants will take part in this research on their free will and are not coerced.

6. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES
- To explore the factors behind the Zimbabwean labor migration to South Africa;
- To establish the socio-economic impact of Zimbabwean labor migration in South Africa.
- To interrogate the current South African immigration policy framework and its consequences on Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations; and
- To advance recommendations on managing the labor migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa.
7. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- What are the factors behind the Zimbabwean labor migration to South Africa?
- What is the socio-economic impact of labor migration by Zimbabweans on South Africa?
- What is the current policy framework put in place by South Africa meant to manage labor migration by Zimbabwean and its consequences on the Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations?
- What recommendations can be given to South Africa on managing labor migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa

8. DELIMITATIONS OF STUDY

Research delimitations imply restraints on the research design that the researcher imposes deliberately. These delimitations usually restrict the populations to which the results of the research can be generalized. In this research the population is delimited to the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on Zimbabwean to South African diplomatic relations. The sample will be delimited to Zimbabweans working in Johannesburg and Pretoria, Department of Home Affairs in Johannesburg, Immigration Department in Harare and Zimbabwean Embassy in South Africa.

9. LIMITATIONS

Limitations refer to restrictions in the study over which the researcher have no control (Rudestam and Newton, 2001). The time frame allocated for this study is short considering the level of study. Furthermore, the research has been confined to limited information sources from Zimbabwe due to financial constraints.

10. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Whilst conducting the study, the researcher will adhere strictly to all ethical issues to inform and protect respondents. In this vein, respondents will not be tricked into participating involuntarily
in the study but will be made aware that they are participating in a study. Consent will be sought either verbally or in writing and the purpose of the study will be explained to respondents. Precautionary measures will be taken to protect respondents from any psychological harm. Protection from harm will be ensured by asking respondents to stop the interview at any stage should they feel uncomfortable. The right of respondents to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity will be respected. The use of respondent’s names, video cameras, tape recorders, one-way mirrors and microphones will not be utilized in the study.

11. DEFINITION OF KEY WORDS

The following concepts will be defined in order to establish a common ground for discussion:

- Legal immigrant refers to people in a country other than their country of origin, with official documentation (McDonald, 2000, p. xiv).


- Migration refers to short-term departure, involving the crossing of magisterial Boundaries, for purposes of seeking an income-generating activity (McDonald, 2000, p. 50; Kok et al, 2006, p. 135; Cross et al, 2006, p. 104) defines migration as any movement of one month or more that involves crossing of magisterial boundary or any change from one type of settle.

- Xenophobia refers to negative attitudes and violent actions against foreigners in South Africa (Harris, 2001; CORMSA, 2008, p. 25; Crush, 2008, p. 6; Harris, 2001).

12. PROPOSED CHAPTER OUTLINE
This study has five chapters. Chapter one established the context and the significance of the study, elucidate on the research problem, questions and objectives as well as a summary of the contents and main arguments in the dissertation. Chapter two shall give a historical perspective to the migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa, major causes for the migration, the impact of illegal Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa. Chapter three discusses the research design and the conceptual framework to be employed in addressing the laid out research objectives. This chapter further includes a comprehensive coverage of the interview and questionnaire techniques employed in this study. Chapter four presents and discusses the empirical results together with an account of the strengths and weaknesses of data used relative to research questions. This also encompasses the evaluation of any difficulties encountered in collecting and analysing data, together with an assessment of how it affected the research. The chapter further relates the findings to the theoretical/policy discussion in the literature review. Chapter five provides a summary of findings, and their policy recommendations and suggestions for further research.

13. PROPOSED TIME FRAME

Chapter 1 is expected to be done by 15 March. The literature review chapter will be completed by 31 March. Data collection and analysis will be done by 30 April. The presentation of data and discussion of results will be finished on 15 May. The summary of findings and policy recommendations chapter will be done by 31 May.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher explored relevant literature on migration and theoretical overview of labor migration. Subsection 2.2 will elucidate on labor migration from the global perspective. The discussion will then be narrowed down to labor migration in Africa and South Africa in subsection 2.3 and 2.4 respectively. In sub-section 2.5 the labor migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa will be conversed. Discussions on the consequences of labor migration in both the host and destination countries and the challenges faced by migrants shall cut across all sub-sections.

2.2 LABOR MIGRATION AND PRACTICES: THE GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

Migration is a complex issue that has always been an integral part of human existence. It is a global phenomenon, deeply affecting the lives of the 200 million migrants around the globe but also the lives of those connected to them, in particular those left behind in the countries of origin. The author argues that the figure has more than doubled since 1960 and migrants now constitute almost 3% of the world population. (Osikire, 2009, p. 7) reveals that about half of the world migrants are women who have migrated on their own as primary income earners.

International migration is at record levels and is unlikely to slow down in the near future. Global economic, social, political and demographic trends indicate clearly that international labor migration is likely to increase in the future, and not decrease (ILO, 2006). In cementing the above notion, (ZIMSTAT, 2010) emphasizes that future migration flows are likely to increase as processes of urbanization and globalization continue their advance and the full impact of climate and population change takes effect in both developed and developing countries. According to the International (Labor Office, 2010) the total number of international migrants accounts for 3.1 per cent of the global population. Economic migrants account for 85 per cent of the total number of migrants, with the rest being refugees.

According to (ILO, 2006) an estimate of 191 million migrants in 2005 emigrated for employment opportunities. In addition, economically active migrants nearly reached 90 percent
of international migrants in 2000 with refugees and asylum seekers at about 10 percent. Hence, it is difficult to ease and supervise such a trend without toppling the situation.

Due to an increasingly interconnected world, migration has become a function of globalization, information renaissance, uneven development and demographic changes. Consequently, migration is now a defining feature of economic, social and political life in a mobile world. (ILO, 2006) points out that globalization has had important implications for international labor migration by facilitating linkages of international labor markets through vast improvements in information and communications technology. The author emphasizes that high demand for tech skills has paved way for the mobility of skilled labor. Concurrently, globalization has unevened employment opportunities, human security, incomes and living standards across the globe. The author stresses on the shortfalls of globalization to generate employment opportunities as a primary factor in expanding migration pressures in communities.

Shimeless (2010) asserts that a prevalent migration feature across the globe is that at least half of it takes place within the same continent while the other half is transcontinental, except for emigrants from Latin America where the majority ended up in North America. For Africa, the intra-Africa emigration rate is about 52% which is lower than Europe (59%) and Asia (54.7%). However, for countries from Sub Saharan Africa this figure is close to 65%, which represents the largest intra-continental or south-south movement of people in the world.

Approximately half of the migrants around the world are economically active and the other half could have migrated to join family members or to study. The economies of the destination countries in which they work benefit by an estimated $2 trillion and financial remittances to migrants’ home countries were expected to reach US$167 billion in 2005. This sum represents more than twice the level of overall development aid (IMO, 2009, p. 1).

Labor migration is seen to be necessitated by pull and push factors, which are largely driven by gross underdevelopment, extreme inequalities and the resultant perception that another region or state is better developed or peaceful than one’s current region or state. This development-security nexus underscores the need to invest in the building of inclusive,
peaceful and prosperous societies where all are equal and entitled to life, liberty, human rights and enjoy the dividends of governance.

The consequences of migration on individuals, societies and countries can never be underestimated as many of these effects are directly or indirectly linked to development processes. For years, experts in the migration discourse have debated about the problem of the flight of human capital. It is also referred to as the brain drain, the loss of highly skilled professionals from a source country to a recipient country and it is used to indicate the flight of the professionals from developing to developed countries (Sako, 2002). There is little evidence proposing the reversal of the trend of skilled professionals migrating from less developed countries to the industrialised countries.

The expansion in migrants remittances to developing countries in 2006 broadened migration interest from US$96 billion to an estimate of US$206 in 2007. These remittances have taken prominence in transcending oversees development assistance as a major prime source of development finance (Ratha, 2007). In addition, remittances from low-skilled workers generally pass to lower-income families at home more than do remittances from the highly skilled. Indeed, the propensity of low-skilled workers to send remittances out of given wages tends to be greater than that of the more highly skilled; this is only because low-skilled migration is more often temporary in nature and frequently requires leaving immediate family members behind.

Furthermore, loss of skilled professionals owing to the policies of the north of searching for exceptional talent is a significant matter (Newland, 2007). According to (Lucas, 2008) one of the costs, amongst others from the brain drain, which attracts the most attention, is the loss of key personnel from specific occupations: notably the departure of healthcare workers and educators, limiting the capacity of the home state to deliver social services.

Policy makers view international migration as an incentive to sending and receiving countries. They emphasize on migration management to optimize advantages at the same time shrinking migration plunging effects. Thus the inevitability of migration in this interconnected world is a matter of concern (Adepoju, 2008). It should be noted that proper management of migration is
succesful if both receiving and sending countries work in collaboration. This should include governing avenues for regular migration for all migration. A typical example is exploring circular migration.

Organized and well managed labor migration has enormous potential for Governments, communities, migrants, employers and other stakeholders in countries of origin and destination (IOM, 2008). The author further argues that while job creation at home is considered the best option, many countries now perceive international labor migration as an integral part of national development and employment strategies by exploiting global employment opportunities and bringing in foreign exchange. In countries of origin labor migration can relieve pressure on unemployment and can contribute to development through the channeling of remittances, transfer of know-how, and the creation of business and trade networks. In countries of destination facing labor shortages, orderly and well-managed labor migration can lighten labor scarcity, facilitate mobility, and add to the human capital stock.

According to (UN, 2006, p. 5) each year millions of men and women cross national boarders leaving their homes for security reasons. The author states that throughout human existence, migration has been a form of escaping adversity to live better lives. Migrants are inspired to emigrate for a stable income, whilst others are compelled to migrate because of conflict, natural disasters, famine or simply lack of decent jobs back home. Disparities in human rights, income, security and wealth exacerbates migration trends. Migration in search of work has progressed as a livelihood strategy to acquire decent jobs in many developing countries. At the same time, the expansion of skill-intensive economic sectors, unwillingness of local workers to accept ordinary low-skilled jobs, increased demand for skilled workers, and demographic trends such as population ageing and population decline in the receiving countries serve as strong pull factors.

Amid positive experiences of some migrant workers, an outstanding number faces inordinate hardships and revilement in form of low wages, poor working conditions, denial of freedom of association and workers’ rights, deprivation to social protection, xenophobia, discrimination, and social exclusion. Differences in wages, treatment and working conditions prevail amongst migrant workers and national workers. It is recognized that among many of the beneficial
elements of labor migration are non-inflationary economic expansion, job creation, growth and crossfertilization of skills, technology exchange, rejuvenation of populations and stimulation of development through remittance flows. The ambition and the drive that motivate people to migrate generally help them to find jobs in many countries, work hard, and benefit both themselves and host country nationals. International migration is growing rapidly and intricate in this globalized economy. Contemporary migration is either linked directly or indirectly to the world of work. This is so because in 175 aliens, 86 million migrants are economically engaged and 34 million are believed to be in developing countries. More to it, women constitute half the migrants most of them as primary income earners. Irregular migration is exacerbating toppled by informal employment as well as absence of regular labor migration opportunities. Also lack of proper management to supervise migration trends and national policies in some countries aggravates irregular migration (ILO, 2010).

2.3 LABOR MIGRATION IN AFRICA

Historically, in Africa, a number of socio-economic, political, cultural (including historical and linguistic ties), geographical and environmental factors have often coalesced to exert pressure on people, causing them to migrate (Kohnert, 2007). The author further reveals that until today most of the 680 million Africans live under conditions of extreme poverty and insecurity. Migration has a long tradition in Africa, for example from the 4th century in Mali (Findley, 2004). Some migrants pursue seasonal agricultural activities that involve crossing borders; this form of migration may become a regular pattern of employment over long periods of time. Others migrate for short periods of time as a reaction to changes in economic conditions, as a means of gaining experience or training, or to save for a future investment. Individuals or whole families may choose to settle in other African countries to achieve a better way of life. Or people may migrate to Europe, America, or Asia on a short term or long-term basis. Crossing borders for the purpose of trading is common in Africa, and depending on the length of stay may not be thought of as migration (Shaw, 2007).

In Africa, the potential to maintain any semblance of border-control over most of the land boundaries is unthinkable, particularly given the severe resource limits. The borders are generally, extremely porous and, in many ways, any distinctions between internal and
international migrations within the continent are quite artificial. The porous borders help to explain the high incidence of inter-state migration within SSA. Geography helps to explain some of the patterns of inter-continental movement. Economic development and migration are simultaneously intertwined; lack of development induces greater pressures to emigrate while limiting the resources to do so; in turn, migration can influence the speed of development at home, though not always in a positive fashion. Independence came late to most of Africa. As a result, the process of post-independence economic development suffered a late start. Sadly, Africa’s subsequent overall growth performance since independence has been lackluster; GDP per capita grew on average by less than one percent per year in the half century from 1960 through 2010 for Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) as a whole. The low incomes in the region clearly help to understand why Africa has been a steady source of net out migration. Meanwhile, the poverty of the region has, of course, detracted from its attractiveness to migrants from beyond Africa’s shores, but there are many reasons for migrating. According to the (World Bank, 2011) estimates were just over 1.5 million persons, born outside of Africa, residing in Africa at the time of the 2000 censuses. Africa presents a number of severe challenges. Sub-Saharan Africa has become the lowest income of the major regions in the world and has the fastest population growth. The colonial heritage of the entire continent still, however, continues to dictate the pattern of emigration out of Africa to a significant extent (Lucas, 2013)

According to the bilateral migration data of the (World Bank, 2010), out of the 29 million stocks of emigrants from Africa in 2010, about 23% are from North Africa and the rest originate from Sub Saharan Africa (Shimeless, 2010). Migration has been intra-regional in Sub-Saharan Africa but globalisation has paved waved for both skilled and unskilled migrants to the North (Adepoju, 2008). More than 90% of the emigrants from North Africa generally head to countries outside of Africa. Generally, the intra-African migration is driven by the complexities of the history of state formation where colonial borders overlooked often linguistic and ethnic commonalities, as well as waves of internal and cross-border conflicts. It also reflects migration in search of job opportunities across neighboring countries.

Migration in West Africa has been engendered critical conflicts, poverty, population pressures and poor economic performances. Dating back the Sub-region was appraised as an economic unit
where people moved freely as well as the swift flowing of goods and services. Today these migration patterns have been altered, shaped by socioeconomic and political elements. The Sub-region is diversified as it incorporates countries of emigration and immigration, those that comproses of both as well and countries that serve as transit routes for migrants. Women are sapped into the labor market system to boast their income. Emigration of lone females has been a popular the region. This process alters traditional gender roles (Adepoju, 2005).

Africa is known for its long history of migration within and beyond the vast continent. (Ratha et al, 2011) asserts that climate change is also expected to drive increases in migration from the most populated areas in Africa. It is estimated today that the number of people with African descent that live outside of the continent is close to 140 million, most in the Western Hemisphere (Shinn, 2008). The bulk of these immigrants lost their ties altogether with the country of origin. Migrants that left their country in recent decades are able to keep in close contact with their relatives and maintain economic, social and political relationship with the country of origin mainly due to the rapid pace of globalization and continuously improving, cheaper communication possibilities a fact that also contributed to the debate on the role of migration for development (Page and Plaza, 2005). There is mounting evidence from recent studies suggesting that migrants, particularly from Africa are a reservoir of great potential that can be harnessed and unleashed to transform the development prospect of many countries and assist in the fight against poverty, hunger diseases and human suffering.

It is documented that migrants from Africa, particularly those from poor areas generally send higher remittances to their relatives that served as a countercyclical instrument during negative shocks. Nations throughout Africa receive a significant share of their foreign exchange from remittances, which is stable and predictable (Ratha, 2003). Possibilities for transfer of skill acquired over the years by return migrants could also create a significant externality to skill starved economies of most countries in Africa.

Although such movements are largely beneficial to the individuals concerned, they have negative socio-economic impacts on the sending country. In Africa, low salaries and poor working conditions stemming from the unsuccessful implementation of Structural Adjustment
Programmes (SAPs) have fuelled the brain drain. Recent literature shows that Africa is losing its skilled health workers at an alarming rate (Bloom and Standing, 2001; Bundred and Levitt, 2000; Ndlovu et al, 2001; WHO, 1997). Consequently, health service provision has been adversely affected, especially in remote locations (Chikanda, 2004, p. 3).

(Mba and Ekeopara, 2012, p. 42) argue that brain drain has cost the African continent over $4 billion in the employment of 150,000 expatriate professionals annually. According to UNDP, Ethiopia had lost 75 percent of its skilled workforce between 1980 and 1991, crippling the ability of such nations to get out of poverty. Countries such as Nigeria, Kenya and Ethiopia are believed to be the most affected.

According to (Docquier and Marfouk, 2006) 10.7 percent of the highly skilled population who were trained in Nigeria ended up working abroad in 2006, mostly in Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries. In the United States and Europe, 83 percent and 46 percent, respectively of the Nigerian immigrant population are highly skilled. On average, 64 percent of the Nigerian emigrant population has tertiary education.

The former South African President Thabo Mbeki said in his 1998 African Renaissance speech that “In our world in which the generation of new knowledge and its application to change the human condition is the engine which moves human society further away from barbarism, do we not have need to recall Africa’s hundreds of thousands of intellectuals back from their places of emigration in Western Europe and North America, to rejoin those who remain still within our shores! I dream of the day when these, the African Mathematicians and computer specialists in Washington and New York, the African physicists, engineers, doctors, business mangers and economists, will return from London and Manchester and Paris and Brussels to add to the African pool of brain power, to enquire into and find solutions to African’s problems and challenges, to open the African door to the world of knowledge, to elevate Africa’s place within the universe of research the information of new knowledge, education and information” (Mba and Ekeopara, 2012, p. 42).
Migrants from middle-income countries disproportionately migrate to destinations outside Africa, whereas emigrants originating from poorer countries generally go to neighboring countries. New data on migration from household surveys conducted in Burkina Faso, Ghana, Nigeria, and Senegal indicate that migrants tend to be young adults between the age of 15 to 40 years (Ratha et al, 2011). Migration from these countries resulted in significant occupational changes, in particular a transition from farming to trading, semi-skilled employment, and professional jobs.

In several African countries, inadequate legislation, poor enforcement, and social attitudes make trafficking difficult to combat, a situation that is exacerbated by rules in destination countries that leave migrants, particularly women, in the power of employers and border officials. Nonetheless, rules that seek to protect or control women by restricting their right to migrate can force them into illegal channels, increasing rather than decreasing their vulnerability to traffickers (Ratha et al, 2011).

(Van Agtmael, 2007) the ageing of populations in rich countries is also shaping the direction of economic and demographic management, the need for migrants from Africa. (Ratha et al, 2011) reinforces the argument by purporting that the projected rise in the labor force in poor regions and decline in rich and some emerging economies in the next few decades is expected to create substantial imbalances in the global labor market. If not addressed, these imbalances could have negative long-term economic consequences in both regions.

Even though Africa has on the average one of the lowest rate of emigration, there is significant variation across countries. There are some countries with emigration rate that far exceeds the global average (Koettl, 2010). For example, countries with relatively high rate of migration (>10% of population) are Cape Verde, Equatorial Guinea, Seychelles, Sao Tome and Principe, Lesotho and Mali. In most cases cross border migration dominates movement of people within the continent, particularly among migrants from West Africa where close to 90% of intra-African migration takes place within the same sub-region. The other hotspot for migrants is Southern Africa, where economy of South Africa is evidently the powerhouse in attracting miners, and other potential job seekers from neighboring countries as well as from far away countries in East Africa.
Africa where 27% of migrants from that region headed for Southern Africa. It is also interesting to note that close to 39% of all emigrants who remained in Africa headed to West Africa, followed by East Africa. North Africa stands out as an exception where few people migrate within the same region, rather most migrated to East Africa or Central Africa. At a country level, France stands out as the most common destination country for emigrants from Africa (14%), followed by Cote D’Ivoire (9%), Saudi Arabia (8.1%), and South Africa and USA where each accounted for 5% of emigrants from Africa. Most OECD countries in the West had a share of African emigrants less than 3%. The total share of African emigrants living in Western Europe, Canada, USA and Australia is about 37%, which perhaps dispels the notion that the bulk of migrants from Africa are headed to these countries only. On the other hand, it should also be noted that these countries account for more than 65% of trans-continental migrants. In some sense, Western Europe, USA, Canada and Australia are the major destinations of emigrants who managed to leave the continent. In Southern Africa, it is easy for migrants from Lesotho, Swaziland, Mozambique and Botswana to blend into communities in South Africa, making mobility and settlement comparatively easy for aspiring migrants. Cote d’Ivoire is a melting pot for neighboring countries as most migrants are able to communicate with people in the surrounding countries and share similar religious and historic bond (Shimeles, 2010). According to the recent version of the bilateral migration matrix data by (World Bank, 2010) it is estimated that in 2010 the number of people living in countries other than their birth place would be around 215 million of which 31 million are from Africa.

Regarding migration trends at the regional level, it can first be noted that Africa has been regarded as the continent with the most mobile populations. In 2005, there were an estimated 17.1 million migrants in Africa and this represented at least 3 per cent of the total African population. The international migrants in Africa account for at least 9 per cent of the total global migrant stocks. Most migration in Africa is largely towards areas of relative prosperity and stability (ZIMSTAT, 2010).

**2.4 LABOR MIGRATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

(Shimeless, 2010) indicates that South Africa served as a main destination for emigrants from Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The end of apartheid further increased emigration from other sub-regions also. Nonetheless, the international mobility of
highly skilled workers has long been a very sensitive issue in South Africa (Bhorat, Meyer and Mlatsheni, 2001).

From the establishment of majority-elected government in 1994, until 2002, the South African government was generally rather unfavourable to the movement of skilled labor (AFD, 2008). It attached the highest importance to stimulating employment among South African citizens and, in regard to the market for highly skilled workers, it was particularly concerned to reverse the historical discrimination against black South Africans. Since 2002, however, the Government has stated with increasing clarity its conviction that the country needs to encourage immigration by skilled workers in sectors that are vital for the economy, such as engineering and information technology.

The need for skilled labor is clearly articulated in the Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA) which is an important component of the government’s overall economic strategy. In effect, the service sector, a major employer of skilled labor, is emerging as the most dynamic sector of South Africa’s economy, outstripping the older industries of mining and manufacturing (Foko, 2015, p. 5). People employed in this area are much sought-after in global labor markets, with governments in North America, Europe and elsewhere aggressively seeking to recruit from elsewhere, including South Africa and other countries in the South. Although South Africa is able to produce skilled workers in key sectors, the country remains handicapped by an educational system that, as a result of policies implemented in an earlier period, is ill-adapted to producing large numbers of workers highly skilled in key professions, especially those requiring a high level of attainment in mathematics.

The coherence of government policy in regard to the international market for skilled labor is handicapped by serious deficiencies at the Department of Home Affairs (DHA), the government department that takes a lead role in the administration of migration policy. In the absence of either reliable data on undocumented migration, adequate representative procedures or institutions for undocumented migrants, South African public discourse tends to be dominated by a set of tenuous beliefs about illegal migration (AFD, 2008).
South Africans wrongly believe that illegal migration is a new phenomenon, that there are many millions of undocumented migrants in South Africa, and that the presence of illegals tends to increase crime rates. Despite the prevalence of evidence to the contrary, most South Africans tend to concur that the nation is suffering from an immigration crisis of tremendous proportions and gravity. These ‘myths’ guide and constrain the immigration enforcement regime, limiting the scope for reform, and licensing exploitative arrest and detention practices. South African governance of undocumented migration is not only a cause for concern because of the growing evidence of abuse of citizen and foreigner rights. The harsh methods South Africa uses to manage this perceived immigration crisis are generating new challenges for the consolidation of development and democracy in South Africa.

The governance of undocumented migration has lacked direction and stuttered to the point of collapse. One of the most problematic legacies of the apartheid era is that no single Government agency is in charge of migration. This gap has been exacerbated by post-apartheid indecision and mismanagement. (AFD, 2008) claims that there has been a regular break-down in communication between the policy-making elite that were driving the legislative process and the departmental officials in charge of immigration enforcement. Immigration officials have lacked the professional capacity to understand their task, or fulfill their basic duties. In this bureaucratic vacuum various South African governing bodies have deemed illegal migration to be a problem, and set about autonomously enforcing immigration laws.

The South African Police Service has intermittently identified linkages between undocumented migrants and crime, and independently sought to eradicate this problem. Since many immigration officials assume that high proportions of migrants are frauds and/or potential delinquents, it has become extremely difficult to migrate legally to South Africa without paying a bribe (AFD, 2008). On the other hand, numerous officials have little regard for procedure and tend to view corrupt practices as mere facilitation, assisting individuals to negotiate an overly complex bureaucratic structure. This loose implementation of immigration enforcement procedures has produced a variety of problematic outcomes.
Migrants have been pushed into an irregular and lawless underground where they suffer a variety of forms of unconscionable treatment without adequate verification of their legal status have been caught up in the deportation process, arrested and held illegally in detention centres (FIDH, 2008). Consequently, the South African has been running battles with human rights defenders. The Lindela repatriation centre, a facility located near Johannesburg, dedicated to the detention of undocumented migrants awaiting for deportation has been denounced by human rights defenders for the many abuses and undignified conditions inflicted to detainees since its opening in 1998. Both documented and undocumented migrants live in permanent insecurity as they are subjected to Police checks, xenophobic tendencies and media misrepresentation. Xenophobia within the police is not limited to feelings or attitudes but also translates into extortion, abuse and physical violence. In the media, the treatment of migration issues tends to promote a largely negative representation of migration and foreign migrants.

As if this is enough troubles interviews conducted by (FIDH, 2008) reveal that migrants are subjected to worker exploitation. Documented and undocumented migrants are also exposed to exploitation at work. This report confirms that many of them are paid below the legal minimum wage, work for longer hours than authorised by law, without obtaining necessary break and leave with no or limited access to compensation for injuries and occupational hazards and diseases, etc. Women, who come in growing numbers to South Africa and who are mostly employed in agriculture, domestic work, services and trade, are particularly exposed to exploitation at work. Further to that woman migrants are confronted with sexual abuse and health risks. While acts of violence against all women are widespread in the country, migrant women are much more exposed to rape and domestic violence, with the lack of an effective State policy to prevent and combat such violence.

As much as a South African vibrant economy has become a haven of employment opportunities for foreigners in the African continent, the security foreigners has remained a thorn in the flesh. The situation currently obtaining threatens the diplomatic relations that exists between South Africa and other countries. This revelation necessitates the conducting of this study.

2.5 ZIMBABWE-SOUTH AFRICA LABOR MIGRATION
An estimate of about two to three million Zimbabwean natives populates South Africa alone. A study done by (Makina, 2007) highlights that the number that migrated from Zimbabwe to South Africa was only 8% (354). Nonetheless, from the year of the farm invasions in 2000, the number of migrants to South Africa has heightened to 92% (4 300). With a gender dissection of Zimbabwean migrants of 41% female and 59% male. This gender framework is exacerbating, contemplating the movement of all families whereby both females and males migrate to fend for their families. Active young people are the ones leaving in droves for South Africa, the majority being in the 21-40 age groups. The fact that a large group leaves at the age of 21 means that most leave after completion of post-secondary education. The marital statuses of respondents were 36% single, 55% married, 3% widowed and 6% divorced or separated thus, the majority have got families. Most cited reasons for leaving Zimbabwe were political reasons (58%), economic crisis (51%) and employment (31%) in that order. For instance, a person politically driven out of Zimbabwe would still need to survive economically by securing employment in the host country. At the time of migrating to South Africa, 32% of the respondents reported that they were unemployed (Makina, 2007).

In the previous two decades, Zimbabwe has been altered to a migrant-sending country owing to the economic and political turmoil. These developments in Zimbabwe put paid by South Africa’s skills shortages and the fact that she is the fastest growing nation in Southern African has increased inflows of Zimbabweans into the country. A survey conducted by (Crush et al, 2012) confirms that migration from Zimbabwe now includes both skilled and unskilled, men and women, married and unmarried, families and individuals, young and old. The proportion of young migrants (15-24) rose dramatically from 15% in 2005 to 31% in 2010. The survey found that 28% of migrants in Johannesburg and Cape Town were children living with their parents or guardians. Unmarried migrants continued to rise from 25% in 1997 to 31% in 2005 to 49% in 2010. School leavers rose from 48% in 2005 to 60% in 2010. About 50% of the migrants were unemployed before leaving Zimbabwe whereas only 18% unemployed in SA. Wage employment rose from 45% in Zimbabwe to 62% in SA.
It is estimated that 2 to 3 million Zimbabweans are working and living in the Diaspora. Of this total, 1 to 1.5 million Zimbabweans are conservatively estimated to be living in South Africa alone, with at least 20% estimated to be undocumented (Crush and Tevera, 2010; Alich et al, 2014). Regarding the nature of migrants leaving Zimbabwe it is dominated by unskilled workers. These unskilled migrants prioritise South Africa as their destination. They tend to work for relatively short periods and in menial jobs, for example as farm laborers, domestic works and casual workers. (Crush, Chikanda and Tawodzera, 2012) and others describe some of this group as survival migrants, fleeing persecution and extensive livelihood breakdown in Zimbabwe but that more broadly the profile of migrants from Zimbabwe to South Africa is mixed, consisting of both refugees seeking long term refugee, and those seeking temporary economic opportunities, with a range of motivations and intentions concerning duration (Dzingirai, 2015).

Although there are migrants from all over Africa in South Africa, Zimbabweans are deemed to be one of the largest groups (Vucetic, 2004, p. 5). To examine Zimbabwean migration to South Africa situation into perspective, it is vital to briefly discuss the complexities befalling the migration situation as well as the relationship between the two countries. Migration is not a new phenomenon between Zimbabwe and South Africa. During the colonial era Zimbabweans migrated to work in the mines. The Zimbabwean economy, was inextricably linked to that of South Africa, with Zimbabwe rendering cheap labor services for the expansion of the south african mining sector. In 1980, a number of white Rhodesians fled to South Africa where they permanently settled. In response, the liberation struggle in South Africa paved way for the movement of South African exiles to Zimbabwe, who paid a heavy price, through the destabilisation tactics of the apartheid government, for their assistance to the liberation movement.

Zimbabwe has been on sinking ship since 1999. Unable to withstand the trauma of the structural adjustment policies and hesitant to occupy competitive multi-party democratisation. From being the bread basket of Southern Africa, Zimbabwe has resorted to being dependent on others for its basic food and commodities. The land reform policy had a chilling effect on agricultural output, its currency is valueless, inflation is out of control (at 100, 580% per cent in February 2008 according to Bizcommunity 2008), it has unemployment estimated at 80 per cent (Mail and
Guardian, 2008) and one of the highest HIV/Aids rates in the world. The government is incapable of delivering adequate services to its citizens and has instilled a harness on the opposition movement by means of repressive laws and severe intimidation. As to be expected, these conditions have not hindered a steady emigration of professional and skilled persons to South Africa. (Mawadza, 2008).

The contradictions in South Africa’s regional policy between its ‘realist’ pursuit of national interests, and its pan-Africanist principles, is readily apparent in regard to Zimbabwe. The catastrophic collapse of the Zimbabwean economy has created great difficulties for South Africa, not least in the form of greatly increased numbers of refugees seeking to enter the country from the north.

(CoRMSA, 2009) purports that the policies governing movement between South Africa and Zimbabwe represents a positive shift towards a rational, coherent and regionally beneficial migration management approach. The author attests to the fact that previous approaches to managing Zimbabwean migration, encompassing the asylum system and widespread arrest and detention did not address the nature or scale of movement and so resulted in high levels of illegal migration, rights abuses, and negative impacts for South Africa. The introduction of special temporary permits to manage complex mixed migrations is increasingly common internationally. South Africa is likely to receive significant international recognition and support for adopting this policy, given widespread interest in supporting regional stability and Zimbabwean reconstruction. The new policies are unlikely to increase overall volumes of migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa. In fact, they are likely to enable Zimbabweans in South Africa to return more rapidly. Out of a range of legal policy options for regularising movement between Zimbabwe and South Africa, the proposed special dispensation permit is the most appropriate to the context.

(Firdausy, 2005) indicates that for the labor receiving countries, labor migration has positive effects as it can reduce domestic labor scarcity. But on the negative side labor migration has created social and economic problems, including job competition for locals, especially the unskilled workers, dampening effect on wages received by the semi-skilled and unskilled
workers and low labor productivity. Similarly, for the labor sending countries, the out-migration, while it mitigates the mounting problems of unemployment, the incidence of poverty and the increased of foreign exchange earnings, has created political tension between the sending and receiving countries. It is within this context that this study seeks to explore on the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration and the response of the South African migration laws on the Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations.

2.6 THEORIES OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION

(Hagen-Zanker, 2008, p. 4) defines migration 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. While migration is as old as humanity itself, theories about migration are fairly new. This sub-section shall discuss the migration theories, their assumptions and propositions. It deliberates of five major theories of migration, namely, the neo-classical economic theory, the dual labor market theory, relative deprivation theory, world systems theory and the gravity model.

The neo-classical economic theory, the dual labor market theory, the new economics of labor migration, and the world systems theory try to expand more on the initiation of migration. The oldest theory of migration is neo-classical economic theory. This theory singles out wage differences as the major determinant for labor migration between regions and countries. The invisible forces of demand and supply for labor play a major role in determining wages in a country. There are other factors contributing to wage differences such as productivity levels and workers integration through labor unions. Therefore labor flows from low-wage to high-wage countries because of these wage differences (Borjas, 2003; Massey et al, 1993, 1998; Bauer and Zimmermann, 1999).

The dual labor market theory reflects implies that international migration is chiefly caused by pull factors in the developed migrant-receiving countries. The former theory, denotes segments in the labor markets in these countries, which are distinguished as being primary or secondary in nature. The primary segment is reflected by capital-intensive production methods and most prominently high-skilled labor, concurrently the secondary segment is thereby characterised by
labor intensive methods of production and predominantly low-skilled labor. The dual labor market theory connotes that international labor migration is engendered from labor demands in the labor-intensive segment of modern industrial societies (receiving countries) (Massey et al, 1993).

Moreso, the dual labor market theory stresses migration as a result of an increasing demand of structural labor in developed countries. This theory also incorporates economic dualism, the primary sector delivering paying jobs and secondary accommodating unskilled jobs (Hagen-Zanker, 2008, p. 7).

(Stark and Bloom, 1985) assert that being a labor migrant can only be understood at the level of individual workers, wider social entities included as well. This approach can be termed as the new economics of labor migration. The household is one of the social entities, the former tend to be risk avoiding as far as household income is concerned. Therefore labor migration of a family member becomes the only incentive in reducing the risk of insufficient household income, since remittances are send back home. The new economics of labor migration imply that remittances have a positive impact on the economies of poor sending countries since production and investment restrictions are ceased benefiting households with a family member abroad. (Taylor, 1999).

The relative deprivation theory reflects that other members of households in the sending countries are conscious about income differences thus increasing the incentive to emigrate in societies prone to economic inequalities. (Stark and Taylor, 1989). Most individuals are not isolated actors that take decisions in a social vacuum so in their migration they can not ignore aspects of co-insurance, relative deprivation and family.

The world systems theory takes a global approach as far as international migration is concerned. This approach maintains that the interaction between societies is a significant determinant of social change within societies (Chase-Dunn and Hall, 1994). A typical example of this interaction is international trade. Trade between countries with a more developed economy and countries with a stifled economy often results in stagnation and lagging living conditions in the latter.
(Wallerstein, 1983; Amankwaa, 1995). According to (Stahl, 1988) capital, commodities and labor move across national boundaries as part of a developing process that creates complex inescapable ties of interdependence between countries. Thus, labor migration is explained by the economies over the peripheral and the specific effects of differences in real and social wage levels in the core and the periphery which leads to recruitment across national boundaries from what is, in effect, an international pool of reserve labor. Migrants are mere agents of social change, carrying the necessary attributes of labor to satisfy the abstract requirements of the general law of capitalist accumulation.

International migration on a large scale can become institutionalised. The Institutional theory highlights that a large inflow of international migrants exerts influence on profit and non-profit organisations, legal or illegal to issue out, in this case (clandestine) transport, labor contracts, (counterfeit) documents, legal advice for migrants (Massey et al, 1993).

The Gravity Model postulates that immigration, like international trade, is driven by the attractive force between immigrant source and destination countries and impeded by the costs of moving from one country to another. Lewer and Van den Berg, 2008, p. 165) argue that population size also matters; ceteris paribus, the more people there are in a source country, the more people are likely to migrate, and the larger the population in the destination country, the larger is the labor market for immigrants. Like trade, migration costs are likely to be correlated with the physical distance between countries. Therefore, it is expected that migration be a positive function of population size of the host and home country and a negative function of distance which controls migration costs.

Labor migration can be used interchangeably with brain drain. Brain Drain can be described as the migration of educated and skilled labor from poorer to richer countries. According to (Mba and Ekeopara, 2012, p. 41) education or skill, which represents investment in human capital, is usually cheaper to acquire in poorer, labor abundant countries, since its provision is usually a labor-intensive activity. Those with the skills or education then move to developed countries where the return to their human capital is higher. The migration of health professionals from Zimbabwe is a fine example of brain drain.
However, (Dunn and Mutti, 2004, p. 212) pointed out that an influx of immigrants can further affect welfare in the host country when it leads to congestion in the use of public goods and services, such as roads, parks and schools or greater demand for transfer payments to cover expenses of housing, food, and medical care. The net fiscal balance from immigration depends upon taxes paid versus the extra demands for services and transfers created.

As the different system theories explain, the different actors seem to be accessible nonetheless they affect each another at some point by means of social capital and over time for instance cumulative causation. It is therefore important to consider the different levels of migration. Structural macro factors overwhelm the decisions made on the micro level. Political institutions for instance migration laws, pull factors such as labor demand in the Dual-Labor Market theory, economic development like in the World Systems theory, NELM or mobility of transition. All harness the migrant’s decision making progress. Also social capital, institutions and networks can support or hinder migration.

2.7 CONCLUSION

The chapter conversed on the global perspective of labor migration, labor migration in Africa, South Africa and labor migration of Zimbabweans to South Africa. It also deliberated on the migration laws that South Africa has put in place to manage the inflow of migrants into the country. The notions above purports that migrants face some challenges encompassing unlawful arrests and detentions, xenophobic tendencies and media misrepresentation in their bid to settle in South Africa.
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

While the two previous chapters set the context of the study and provided a review of literature relevant to the study this chapter discusses the methodology and research instruments used in soliciting data in respect of the research problem and objectives. Recall, the basis of this study is to establish whether Zimbabwean labor migration to South Africa has an impact on the diplomatic relations of the two countries. The chapter is subdivided into seven sections which include: research design, research methodology, population and sample, sampling methods, data collection methods, validity and reliability issues, data presentation and analysis.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

(Churchill, 1985) defined research design as the framework or plan for study that guides the collection and analysis of data. The framework highlights major areas related to the data to be collected, sources of data they are from, and procedures used to collect data. Similarly, (Fisher, 2004) defined research design as the specification of methods and procedures for acquiring the information needed to structure, or solve the problems. In other words, it is the overall operational pattern or framework of the project that stipulates what information is to be collected, from which source and by which procedure.

This research is descriptive in nature using the survey approach. Survey research is one of the most common forms of research engaged in by social science researchers (Hart, 2005). It is a method of gathering information from a sample of elements, which sample is usually just a fraction of the population being studied (Collins, 2010). It involves asking a group of people questions about a particular topic or issue. (Leech et al, 2010) notes that survey research is one of the most important areas of measurement in applied social research.
The main purpose of choosing this approach is so that the data collected is very concise and structured which makes analysis factual and simple. Surveys are generally standardized to ensure that they have reliability and validity and results can be generalized to the larger population. Surveys also allow the researcher to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short period of time using instruments like structured interviews and self administered questionnaires telephonically, by mail or in person (Collins, 2010).

The research is primarily a descriptive research, which (Saunders, 2007) outlines as a study which describes, records, analyzes and interprets the conditions that exist. The researcher seeks to investigate the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration to South Africa on the Zimbabwean South African diplomatic relations. A descriptive research is undertaken to ascertain and describe the characteristics of the pertinent issues. It is aimed at answering the, who, what, where, when and how much questions of research. In such a study an attempt is made to discover relationships between existing variables (Zimbabwean labor migration and Zimbabwe-South African diplomatic relations). However, such a study does not explain why an event occurs or why the variables interact the way they do. This can form the basis of further study.

The study took an inductive mode in logic. An inductive research is a study in which theory is developed from the observation of empirical reality. Thus general inferences are induced from specific instances (Saunders, 2007). By investigating Zimbabwean migrants in Johannesburg selected with the aid of sampling techniques, the researcher will draw conclusions which will be generalized to all Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa. There is limited literature available on the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on the Zimbabwe-South Africa diplomatic relations, so the research findings will add to the body of knowledge.

The selected research design implies that the outcome of the research will be basic or fundamental in nature. Thus, the main purpose is to generate a body of knowledge by trying to comprehend how certain challenges confronted by Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa can be solved in an endeavour to improve diplomatic relations between the two countries be improved, thus research is more generalised and results may be applicable to migrants from different countries in South Africa.
3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology refers to the process used to collect information and data for the purpose of making business decisions or establishing research facts. The methodology may include publication research, interviews, surveys and other research techniques, and could include both present and historical information. Research instruments are data collection techniques used to collect data needed to conduct the study (Zohrabi, 2013, p. 254). This study utilised the triangulation approach, which employs a combination of different techniques for data collection. According to (Yeasman and Rahman, 2012, p. 156) in the social sciences triangulation refers to the combination of two or more theories, data sources, methods or investigators in one study of a single phenomenon to converge on a single construct, and can be employed in both quantitative (validation) and qualitative (inquiry) studies. Thus, in-depth interviews and semi-structured questionnaires were used in this study.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION INTRUMENTS

The study employed interviews, questionnaires, government documents and peer reviewed journals as major data collection instruments.

3.4.1 Structured Interviews

According to (Churchill, 1983) an interview is a conversation between two or more people where questions are asked to obtain information needed to generate a research project. An interview involves a face to face conversation or telephone contact in which the researcher orally solicits responses (Cooper and Schindler, 2003; Schwandt, 2007) agrees, indicating that an interview is a conversation between two or more people where questions are asked to obtain information needed to generate a research project. In this regard, structured personal interviews were conducted with Zimbabwean immigrants living in Johannesburg in order to respond to the research questions outlined in Chapter 1.

An interview guide that touches on the major themes of the research was used to record information from the respondents. Personal in-depth interviewing helped in establishing personal rapport between interviewer and interviewee (Maxwell, 2005). The advantages of the interview research technique in this study are that the collection of factual data and flexibility in the
evaluation of respondent bias and prejudices. (De Vos, 1998) supports the above discussion on interviews by noting an interview guide allows for relatively systematic or orderly data collection and analysis while simultaneously ensuring that important data are not forgotten. The author further expounds that interviews enable the interviewer an ‘insider view’ of the issues under research and gives room for exploring other emerging avenues of research. According to (Ratcliff, 2002) with structured interviews the information collected is reliable and accurate. He adds that interviews are considered a good method for intensive investigation and that they give a satisfactory result provided the scope of inquiry is narrow.

Personal interviews results in higher response rate as there is room for clarity hence personal interviews are likely to produce adequate information (Cooper, 2003; Silverman, 2005). Personal interviews also enable the researcher to gather information through observing behaviour and facial expressions of respondents (Irvin, 2006; Rossi et al, 2004). (De Vos, 1998) notes that interviews enables the interviewer an ‘insider view’ of the issues under research and gives room for exploring other emerging avenues of research. Carrying out in-depth interviews also allows for systematic and orderly analysis of data while simultaneously ensuring that important data are not forgotten. Moreso, interviews became suitable given the fact that this was an exploratory/descriptive research and there was a large number of questions to be answered. In addition, the nature of the research requires that the meanings which respondents ascribe to various phenomena and personal contact are established. It is also requisite in this study that the researcher exercises control over the nature of those who supply data and the order and logic of questioning have to be varied. So following the above factors using structured interviews was more appropriate.

Officials from the Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department were interviewed to establish the measures taken by the governments in dealing with labor migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa and the consequences on diplomatic relations between the two countries.

3.4.2 Questionnaires

(Devaut, 1991) describes a questionnaire as a form used for collecting data. It is a set of written questions which calls for responses from the participants. (Wegner, 2000) argues that a
questionnaire generates data necessary for accomplishing the objective of the research project in as far as sourcing opinions from targeted population. Chances of obtaining unbiased responses are high because they are no names. Also the use of questionnaires allows uniformity in the way questions are asked thus ensuring comparability of answers. Questionnaires are considered a good research tool because they are not time consuming and information obtained can be used to corroborate that obtained through interviews. In this vein three (3) questionnaires were distributed to officials from the Johannesburg Department of Home Affairs and three (3) questionnaires to officials from Harare Immigration Department.

3.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

This sub-section discusses the population and the sampling design to be followed considering our qualitative approach to the research.

3.5.1 Population

Population can be defined as the total number of cases with a given characteristics from which a sample is drawn (Church et al, 1996; Sanders, 2004). (Wegner, 2000) delineates a population as a collection of observations of random variables under study and about which one is trying to draw conclusion. A population must include in very specific terms only those sampling units with characteristics that are relevant to the problem. The targeted population for the study was labor immigrants from Zimbabwe and officials from the Johannesburg Department of Home Affairs, Zimbabwean Embassy in South Africa, Harare Immigration Department. According to (Immigration South Africa, 2017) there are about 250 000 Zimbabweans working in South Africa in possession of visas.

3.5.2 Sampling

Sampling generally refers to the selection of a particular section of the population to be studied. (Dillion, 1990) states that a sample is a small part of the whole population which is studied and results are inferred on to the population. In other words sampling is a process of selecting sufficient and representative number of elements from the target population so that by studying or analysing the small group (sample) the results can be generalized to the target population with confidence. Alternatively, it is the procedure of selecting a representative subset of observations
from an identical population for purposes of understanding the all-inclusive population. There are several sampling techniques ranging from simple random, systematic, stratified, quota, convenience, cluster, multistage, snowball, purposive to self selection sampling. However, snowball, accidental and purposive sampling methods were used for the purpose of this study.

3.5.3 Sample Size

A sample size of twenty-six (26) was utilised in the study. Twenty (20) Zimbabwean immigrants, three (3) officials each from the Johannesburg Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department. There are various factors that are attributed to selecting a sample instead of studying the whole population. These encompass financial and time constraints and also the fact that samples can provide sufficiently accurate findings and truly reflect the population if they are selected properly. Furthermore, using samples for testing instead of testing all population would be more realistic, economic and saves time. Getting hold of a bigger sample for illegal Zimbabwean immigrants was difficult because they feared being arrested and deported. Due to the sensitivity of matter under study it was not feasible to draw a large number of Zimbabwean immigrants. They also indicated that journalists have interviewed them under the disguise of being researchers and they were afraid that the information could be circulated in Zimbabwe and put their lives and that of their family members in jeopardy. Most Zimbabwean immigrants refused to volunteer or to take part in the study for these reasons.

3.6 SAMPLING METHODS

A sample according to (De Vos et al, 2005, p. 194) comprises of elements of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study. Samples are drawn because researchers want to understand the population from which they are drawn and to explain facets of the population. A combination of non-probability sampling processes were employed in the study in the form of snowball, purposive and accidental sampling. These sampling processes were chosen because they were less complicated and more economical in terms of time and expense (Welman et al, 2005, p. 68). The study was conducted whilst the researcher had no budget to conduct the research hence the use of snowball, accidental and purposive sampling methods.
A snowball sampling method was one of the most suitable methods for the study considering the sensitivity of the issue and Zimbabwean immigrants were reluctant to participate in the interview exercise. Snowball sampling involves approaching a few people from the relevant population, who will act as informants and identify other respondents for inclusion in the study. The latter will in turn identify a further set of relevant individuals so that the sample grows in size until the desired size is met (Welman et al, 2005, p. 69). In the study Zimbabwean immigrants acted as informants and helped in identifying other immigrants who were then included in the study. That process assisted in the growth of the sample size.

An accidental sampling method was utilized to get hold of Zimbabwean immigrants. A characteristic of the accidental sampling method is that it involves using any case that happens to cross the researcher’s path, which has the characteristics needed for the study, until the desired size is met (De Vos et al, 2005, p. 69). Some Zimbabwean immigrants were met at a shop whilst buying food and asked to volunteer in the study.

A purposive sampling method was used to reach out to officials from Harare Immigration Department. A purposive sampling method refers to a sample in which the researcher deliberately obtain unit of analysis in such a manner that the sample obtained may be regarded as being representative of the population being studied (De Vos et al, 2005, p. 69).

3.7 DATA SOURCES

3.7.1 Primary Sources

(Onwuegbuzie et al, 2012) defined primary data as data originated for specific purposes of addressing the research problem. According to (Boslaugh, 2010) a primary source is a document created at the time of your research subject, about your research subject. Primary data was collected from Zimbabwean immigrants in Johannesburg and officials from Johannesburg Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department who were respondents in the study, through a structured interviews and questionnaires. This method of data collection is characterized by having a set of predetermined questions on an interview guide, in which the order of questions may be varied. Some questions may not be asked depending on the
organizational context. Additional questions may be added to get more clarity and the nature of questions may be altered to suit the educational level and background of the respondents (De Vos et al, 2005, p. 296 -297).

The rationale for utilizing a structured interview guide for officials from Johannesburg Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department was because they normally had no time to fill in questionnaires. Due to the clandestine nature of illegal migration, giving illegal Zimbabwean immigrants questionnaires were feasible since respondents could fill in their educational and biological information.

3.7.2 Secondary Sources

(Wegner, 2000) defines secondary data as the data that have been already collected and recorded by someone else and readily available from other sources. Data was collected from reports and documents from organisations that deal with immigration issues like IOM, SAHRC, LHR, FMSP, IRIN, MLAO, HSRC, ISS, SAMP and HRW, and from government documents. Information about what has been researched and documented on the socio-economic impact of Zimbabwean migration in South Africa; information about measures that are taken by the South African government to manage the migration issue, especially with regard to illegal Zimbabwean immigrants was collected from documents. These sources provided wealth data for the purposes of the research.

Secondary data is of paramount importance in establishing the context for background to the study, problem formulation and the reviewing of the literature. The researcher used secondary data because is readily available and is quick and cheap to obtain, and easy to interpret. Additionally, it assisted in complimenting data from current questionnaires and interviews resulting in a well-balanced research. However, the disadvantages of the method are that it is not specific – that is, not exactly what you want, not confidential and usually out of date. In addition, secondary data can be inadequate for what need to be researched. Thus, it may not meet the needs of researcher and the researcher may face challenges of variation in definition and inaccuracy or bias of data.
3.8 Validity and Reliability

The validity of qualitative research is often referred to as trustworthiness or credibility. Common methods of assessing validity include consistency checks. Independent coders can sample raw data and create codes or categories so that the consistency of data reduction methods can be assessed (Leech and Onwuegbuzie, 2007). Also common is the use of stakeholder checks. The research participants who generate the raw data, often called informants, may be asked to evaluate the interpretations and explanation pulled from the data. Other stakeholders, especially those affected by the research, may also provide commentary on the results.

To ensure that the data is valid and reliable the researcher herself has conduct the data collection process through structured interviews and questionnaires. The validity and reliability of the data collected was further reinforced by the fact that those given questionnaires are the ones who deals directly with immigration issues on a day to day basis with knowhow about the status quo. Thus, the research selected officials from Harare Immigration to ensure that the data is collected from the right sources. In-depth interviews guaranteed the validity and reliability of the data through having direct interactions with the respondents.

3.9 Data Presentation and Analysis Techniques

This is a qualitative research, implying that much of the data will be textual. The data will be presented in its textual form under a developed theme that progresses from the background to the study, problem statement, research objectives, literature review and collected data. The researcher will use various techniques to display and present data including the use of tables, pie charts and graphs to make it easier for the study to make conclusions from the findings. Although results can be expressed within the text of a report, data are usually more digestible if they are presented in the form of a table or graphical display.

Tables are a standard method of presenting qualitative or categorical data. This has to do with presentation of data in tabular form. A table is an array of data in rows and columns (Adedayo, 2000). Tabulation condenses a large mass of data and brings out the distinct pattern in a data in an attractive form. It enables comparison to be made easily among classes of data and takes up less space than data presented in narrative form. (Cooper, 2003) defined a table as a systematic
arrangement of data or information in a format that allows researcher or any reader to conserve variation or trends to make comparisons’. The simplest table is the two-column frequency table. The first column indicates the grouping of the data, while the second column lists the frequencies or count for each group.

The use of tables enables the researcher to keep original data intact and they provide structured information to readers which are easy to interpret. Tables were very effective in presentations since they were stripped down to focus on key findings and crisply presented (Statistical Service Centre, 2001).

A Pie chart consists of a circle, divided into sectors, which are proportional to the data. The sum of angles in circle is 360 degrees. A total of all the cases is found and the percentage of each case is calculated in relation to 360 degrees. (Sparrow, 1989), states that a pie chart is the most suitable diagram which can emphasise the proportion of occurrences. A pie chart is used to display the frequency distribution of a qualitative variable (whereas the histogram displays the frequency distribution of a quantitative variable). The relative frequency of each group or category is proportional to the number of degrees or angle of the pie. Each sector therefore represents the proportion of the total number of observations that belong to that particular category.

The researcher used pie charts because they give simplified pictorial enhancement of the data. It is often convenient to present data pictorially. Information can be conveyed much more quickly by a diagram than by a table of numbers. Charts can help a reader or audience to quickly get the salient point of an analysis or report.

Analysis of data is the process of gathering, modeling and transforming data. The goal is to highlight useful information, suggest conclusion and support decision making (Saunders, 2007). Data analysis using qualitative methods is regarded as a continuous process throughout the study, refining and reorganizing data in light of emerging results. Qualitative data analysis and collection occur together, a point emphasized by (Merriam, 2009). Qualitative analysis of text is often supplemented with other sources of information to satisfy the principle of triangulation and
increase trust in the validity of the study’s conclusions. Triangulation is a method used in qualitative research that involves cross-checking multiple data sources and collection procedures to evaluate the extent to which all evidence converges. This method is used to address the problem of subjectivity which is a common phenomenon with qualitative data.

3.9.1 Data Analysis Methods
Data analysis methods in qualitative research encompass thematic, comparative and content analysis. These methods were intertwined in this study. Thus the research was guided by the themes in the interview guide and pattern matching of dominant themes was done in line with the given research questions. The themes emerged from the data and were not imposed by the researcher (Guest et al, 2012). Data collection and analysis were done concurrently with this type of analysis.

With comparative analysis the data from different research subjects was compared and contrasted and the process continued until the researcher was satisfied that no new issues were arising (Dellinger and Leech, 2007). In this vein, the researcher compared and contrast interview and questionnaire responses from Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa and officials from Harare Immigration Department.

With content analysis data was coded according to content. The researcher worked through each transcript assigning codes which were numbers and words to specific characteristics within the text of collected data. The researcher read through each interview transcript and questionnaire and categorised the collected data (Singer and Willett, 2003). This analysis helped the researcher to quantify qualitative data.

3.10 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

The chapter presented the empirical information which justified the significance of the study, i.e., the research design, research methodology, population and sampling, sampling methods, data collection, analysis and interpretation of data. The responses from Zimbabwean immigrants working in Johannesburg on their socio-economic impact in South Africa, and responses from officials from the Immigration Department in Harare. The following chapter will focus on data
presentation and analysis of collected data, which gives the researcher results, meanings and major interpretation as related to the research study.
CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings, analysis and interpretations of results. The research sought to investigate the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on the Zimbabwe-South Africa diplomatic relations. The presentation of the results will follow two routes, namely those obtained from the Zimbabwean labor immigrants and those obtained from the Johannesburg Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department. Information on the motivations behind the migration of Zimbabwean labor and the socio-economic impact of Zimbabwean labor migration in South Africa was collected from Zimbabwean labor immigrants in Johannesburg. Information on the measures taken by the South African government to deal with Zimbabwean labor migration and the consequences on Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations was obtained from Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department officials. Data was presented using tables supported by discussions reflecting on literature and journals from organisations international migration issues.

4.2 Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of Results

Questionnaires were distributed to twenty (20) Zimbabwean immigrants in Johannesburg and three interviews were conducted with six officials per department from Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department. Data was collected from the 24th to the 27th of April from Zimbabwean labor immigrants and on the 2nd to 4th of May 2017 from government officials. The questionnaire for the Zimbabwean labor immigrants had three sections, the first section was on biographical information, section two had three questions investigating the causes of labor migration into South Africa and section three had seven questions investigating the socio-economic impact of Zimbabwean labor migration in South Africa. The one to one structured interview questionnaire for the government officials had four questions which were on the measures taken by government department to manage the migration of Zimbabwean labor into South Africa and the possible consequences on Zimbabwe-South Africa diplomatic
relations. Information collected from Zimbabwean labor immigrants on the socio-economic impact of their migration in South Africa is presented and analysed as follows:

**4.3 Demographic Information**

Under the biographical information the age, gender, level of education period and status of stay in South Africa is presented and analyzed.

**4.3.1 Age of Respondents**

The reason for probing the age of respondents was to determine the age group of Zimbabwean immigrants likely to migrate illegally into the country.

**Figure 1: Age group of respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of Respondents</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Total Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The research findings indicate that the large portion (79%) of Zimbabwean labor migrants fall between the age of 18-40. This implies the age group that is migrating from Zimbabwe to South Africa is relatively young and employable hence their decision to migrate to South Africa so that they will find jobs to support their families back in Zimbabwe. The above findings are confirmed by (Makina, 2007) who highlighted that the majority of Zimbabweans migrating to South Africa are between the age of 21 and 40.

### 4.3.2 Gender

The aim for probing the gender of respondents was to determine the gender of Zimbabwean labor immigrants likely to migrate to South Africa. According to the research findings, males are more likely to migrate than females, with males at 60% and females at 40%. The reason for the high number of male participation in the study may be due to the fact that females had closer ties and easily influenced one another against participating in the study than males. Female respondents indicated that they were afraid of putting their lives and those of their families in Zimbabwe at risk should it be known that they responded to the questionnaire.
4.3.3 Education

The reason for probing the level of education was to determine the educational level of Zimbabwean immigrants, who were in the country because, according to literature the educational level of some labor immigrants who are in the country is very low and they have no skills to contribute to the economy of South Africa (Solomon 2003, p. 91-92).

Figure 2: Age group of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education of Respondents</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Total Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1-7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 1-4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 5-6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate Degree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate Degree</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above research findings show that 75% of Zimbabwean immigrants have diplomas, degrees and postgraduate degrees. This means that a greater portion of Zimbabweans migrating to South Africa are well educated and have the potential to contribute positively to the South African economy. The above findings are supported by (Mba and Ekeopara, 2012, p. 41) who asserts that those with the skills or education move to developed countries where the return to their human capital is higher.

4.3.4 Period of Stay in South Africa

The aim of probing for the number of years in South Africa from Zimbabwean labor immigrants was to gauge how long they were likely to stay in the country and also determine what impact they may have on the economy of South Africa.
The findings indicate that fifteen percent (15%) of Zimbabwean immigrants were in the country for less than one year. Twenty percent (20%) fell on those who were in the country for one to two years. Thirty five percent (35%) of the people were in the country for three to four years. Thirty percent (30%) of people have been in the country for more than five years. The above findings may be attributed to the fact Zimbabwe has been going through economic challenges forcing people to go out of the country looking for employment in South Africa.

4.3.5 Status of Stay in South Africa

Eighty percent (80%) of the respondents were staying in South Africa legally since they had work permits given during the special dispensation period. Twenty percent (20%) of the interviewed respondents were staying in South Africa illegally because they did not have work permits or refugee status. The above findings are in consistency with revelations from (Crush and Tevera, 2010) and (Alich et al, 2014) who indicated that approximately 20% of Zimbabweans in South Africa were undocumented. Most of illegal Zimbabwean immigrants indicated that it was easier to enter the country illegally than legally hence their decision to enter illegally. Some said they would not wait and starve whereas there were other means of getting into South Africa easily.

Respondent 5 (17 April 2017) said, ‘I did not have money to apply for a passport and visa at that time so I decided to use the little money I had to travel and bribe my way into South Africa’.
Some respondents indicated that due to the economic situation that was obtaining on the ground there was no time to apply for visas.

4.4 The Causes of Migration into South Africa

To determine the causes of Zimbabwean labor migration into South Africa, respondents were asked three questions: (i) the reason for migrating to South Africa, (ii) pressing issues that led to Zimbabweans fleeing their country to South Africa, and (iii) the role played by social networks in promoting migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa.

4.4.1 The Reason for Migrating into South Africa

Most of the Zimbabweans when asked why they migrated to South Africa they were quick to point to the economic hardships Zimbabwe was going through making it difficult for them to find gainful employment. Some respondents indicated that due to the political turmoil they were forced to temporarily migrate to South Africa. Three respondents indicated the economy was not conducive for businesses to thrive and had no option than to legally cross the Limpopo River. From the interviews in this regard it becomes clear that, the pressing reasons are mostly economic than political.

Respondent 12 (28 April 2017) said ‘By the time I left the country in 2003 the economy had completely collapsed, besides not having a stable the currency was now useless due to hyper-
inflation, no fuel at the service stations and no commodities in the supermarkets. I had to leave my beloved country so that if I find a job I would be able to send food stuffs to parents back at home’.

4.4.2 Pressing Issues That Led to Zimbabweans to migrate from their Country to South Africa

When asked whether there were any pressing issues causing them to leave Zimbabwe for South Africa almost all respondents indicated that they left due to the poor economic conditions and came to South Africa to look for employment. This is confirmed by a study carried out by (McDonald et al, 2000, p. 826), which concluded that most immigrants come into the country to look for employment. Some argued that after acquiring employment they could be able to send remittances to their families in a form of basic commodities and money.

Respondent 19 (12 April 2017) said ‘After my husband died life became so unforthcoming and looking for a job in Zimbabwe was a nightmare and henceforth I decided to come to South Africa so that I work for the upkeep of my family’.

Zimbabwe is said to be using the South African and US currency exclusively, the other respondents indicated that they had to flee their country due to political persecutions with some respondents indicating that they nearly lost their lives. The fact that Zimbabwe does not offer loans to start small businesses and unlike South Africa, there were no grants either was one of the reasons mentioned for migrating to South Africa. There were some who came to South Africa for trade in crafts and also for buying commodities for resale back in Zimbabwe. In this instance, one can conclude that there are basically two pressing issues for Zimbabweans to migrate into South Africa, namely, economic and to escape political persecutions. Economic factors feature high with few indicating political persecution as a factor.

4.4.3 Social networks and migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa

Most respondents indicated that they came to South Africa alone without knowing anyone. Some sold livestock and handcrafts and used the money to bribe officials and to pay for transport to
help them migrate illegally to South Africa. To adjust and find a place to stay in South Africa on arrival, they were helped by other Zimbabweans who were already in the country and had shelter, who accommodated them for a short while until they found their own shelter.

Respondent 1 (7 April 2017) said ‘I had no friends or relatives in South Africa but was told of a Methodist Church in South Africa where I could get temporal accommodation whilst looking for a job and that was enough guarantee for me to come to South Africa’.

Some were assisted by family members to migrate i.e. brothers, sisters and parents. Of those who came with the assistance of family members, i.e. brothers, sisters and parents. They were provided with food, shelter and were also assisted to get jobs. Some were loaned money for travelling and which was paid back once they obtained jobs. Most respondents said that they already had family members who had migrated in the country which made it easier for them to cross the border because they were provided with transport money, bribes to cross the border had been paid, were offered accommodation, food and some jobs were even arranged for them. Other respondents indicated that they used to come to South Africa for trading purposes and then decided to stay and look for employment.

From the responses it can be deduced that social networks played a role in the migration of Zimbabweans from their country, with family members offering transport fees, shelter, food and helping immigrants in securing jobs. Some came into the country without knowing anyone but were accommodated by other Zimbabweans who were already in the country. This confirms the perceptions made by (Cross et al, 2006, p. 13) and (Maharaj, 2004, p. 6) where the majority of immigrants are said to have contacts in destination areas.

4.5 The Socio-Economic Impact of Zimbabwean Labor Migration in South Africa

To determine the socio-economic impact of illegal migration six questions were asked and they were as follows: (i) employment details of labor immigrants, (ii) their perception of the South African labor system and their views on the treatment they receive from their employers, (iii)
their contribution to the South African economy, (iv) access to health facilities, (v) access to social welfare grants, and (vi) perceptions of the attitudes of South Africans towards them.

4.5.1 Status of Zimbabwean Immigrants in South Africa

In determining the socio-economic impact of Zimbabwean labor migration in South Africa, respondents were asked whether they were legally employed and the kind of employment in which they were engaged. Most of respondents were into either teaching or training and facilitation of banking and insurance programs at private colleges. Some female respondents indicated that it was really difficult to find decent jobs despite being graduates. Some were involved in manual labor such as construction work, boiler making and upholstery. Some did electrical work like fixing fridges and cars. They, however, was no evidence of any jobs being created by Zimbabwean labor migrants. Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents were staying in South Africa illegally since they did not either have work permits or a refugee status.

Respondent 11 (13 April 2017) said “The economic turmoil in Zimbabwe had become so unbearable to an extent of literally failing to put food on the table for his family hence my decision to migrate illegally to South Africa as the currency here is much stronger than the Zimbabwean one”.

4.5.2 Zimbabwean Immigrants Perception of the South African Labor System

In response to the question whether they thought the South African labor system was fair to Zimbabweans, the majority of respondents indicated that they were not treated fairly. Out of twenty (20) respondents only five (5) said they were treated fairly. It was apparent that when they were referring to a fair treatment they related it mostly to working conditions than remuneration. The majority said they were not treated fairly:

- One, they were given tasks which South Africans refused to do and were paid less than what a South African would be paid if he/she was doing the same job.
- Two, they worked long hours and also weekends without remuneration for overtime worked.
• Three, they were harassed by the South African Police despite of having work permits.
• Four, they are treated like animals and told they bring diseases in the country.
• Five, although some employers are seen as good, some respondents said most South African employers are bad.
• Six, if employed they do not have rights like South Africans and should they get injured at work they were not even given medical care.
• Seven, the South African labor system is said to be concerned more with productivity/profit at the expense of illegal immigrants.
• Eight, they had no choice over the way they were treated by South Africans because they were foreigners in the country and felt that South Africans took advantage of that fact.

4.5.3 The contribution of Zimbabwean Immigrants on the South African economy

Almost all the respondents argued that Zimbabwean immigrants contributed to the South African economy. The following reasons were given:

(i) Buying Power
They said they were contributing through the buying of commodities since South Africa was one of the countries supporting the economy of Zimbabwe. Most Zimbabweans were said to be buying everything from South Africa, especially basic commodities.

Respondent 8 (11 April 2017) indicated that ‘Many Zimbabweans in South Africa are buying local commodities to send to their relatives and families home since they are not employed and can not afford to fend for themselves’. These goods were bought to support families in Zimbabwe and also for resale, hence the South African formal and informal business sectors were booming. They also indicated that the bribes that the South African police extorted from them helped boost the economy of the country

(ii) Skills
They said they were offering skills in engineering and construction. They also said that stadiums for 2010 and Reconstruction and Development Programme houses were built by Zimbabweans for a less cost. They do hard labor and take jobs that South Africans refuse to do.

Respondent 15 (2 April 2017) said ‘One of the major contributions that Zimbabweans have brought into the country was technical skills much needed in the construction, engineering, information, communication and technology’.

4.5.4 Access to health facilities
To establish the impact of labor migration by Zimbabweans on the health system, the respondents were asked whether they are able to access health services. The majority of respondents indicated that they accessed health services i.e., clinics and hospitals without problems and the clinics did not ask for identity documents in order to offer them medical treatment. They, however, indicated that some nurses were xenophobic and diagnosed them with sexually transmitted infections without even running tests. Other respondents indicated that some nurses would not even touch them. They were accused by some nurses of selling medicine to other Zimbabweans or taking the medication to Zimbabwe and would thus be only offered painkillers for all their ailments. Nonetheless, generally the respondents were impressed that health services were free as compared to their country.

Respondent 6 (23 April 2017) said ‘The first time I went to the clinic I was surprised not to be asked for money. But the nurses were not that welcoming because they took their time to attend to me and were sought of rude whilst diagnosing me’. This is in contrast to the findings of the study conducted by (Danso and McDonald, 2000, p. 15) in which it was found that although immigrants expect to have access to facilities, they want to pay for them.

4.5.5 Access to social welfare grants
When asked whether they thought illegal Zimbabweans should have access to social welfare grants a few immigrants said they thought they should have access to social welfare grants and some said they shouldn’t. Those who said yes indicated housing, disability grants, old age pension, child support grant and other types of grants like food parcels and loans to start small
businesses. One respondent indicated that South Africa had the capacity to take care of its own people and foreigners and should thus take care of everyone living in it.

Respondent 16 (9 April 2017) said ‘I have no intention of settling in South Africa and would like to go back to my country as soon as things get back to normal, so my concern is working and any grants’.

They indicated that getting grants would keep them in the country and that is not what they wanted. Grants were said to be for South Africans and not for foreigners. Other respondents indicated that since they did not have South African identity documents they did not think about accessing social welfare grants. What they wanted was jobs, food and money to start small businesses. According to (Millard, 2008, p. 42), only immigrants who have permanent residence are entitled to social assistance in South Africa.

4.5.6 Perceptions on the attitudes of South Africans towards Zimbabwean immigrants

Half of the respondents felt that South Africans were xenophobic, and treated immigrants like animals. Despite holding immigrants are accused of bringing diseases like sexually transmitted infections, cholera and increasing the crime rate (theft) and prostitution.

Respondent 9 (12 April 2017) said ‘Despite having a passport and a valid work permit I get harassed by the police every other day threatening to deport me if I do not give them some money’.

Almost all the respondents confirmed that South African police where highly xenophobic, extorting money from them, or threatening to deport them if they refused to pay. There was only one respondent who was exposed to violence where the house she was renting was stoned just because she was a foreigner. A lot of the respondents mentioned that South Africa needs to understand that the situation in Zimbabwe was beyond their control and that during the apartheid era Zimbabweans helped South Africans who were in exile. They felt that South Africans should return the favor.
4.6 FINDINGS FROM GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

4.6.1 PRETORIA DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS

Information collected from the Pretoria Department of Home Affairs on the measures taken by the government in dealing with labor migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa and the consequences on diplomatic relations between the two countries is presented in this section.

Five questions were asked and they were; (i) on the immigration status of Zimbabweans leaving in South Africa; (ii) the measures taken by the department to deal with labor migration of Zimbabweans; (iii) the perceived effectiveness of those measures; (iv) perceptions on the consequences of those measures on the Zimbabwean South African diplomatic relations and (v) the impact of Zimbabwean immigrants on the human resources of the country. The respondents provided the following information:

(a) The immigration status of Zimbabweans in South Africa

When asked on the status of Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa the officials the greater part of the immigrants was legally staying in South Africa since they were issued with work permits during the special dispensation. However, the respondents further noted that Zimbabweans would be required to follow visa application procedures when their current permits expire. The respondents highlighted that despite some immigrants getting special dispensation permits there were Zimbabweans who were staying illegally in South Africa

Respondent 1 (3 May 2017) said ‘We have given Zimbabweans a grace period through special dispensation permits and now they are required to follow required procedures to get permits when those ones expire’.

(b) Measures Taken by the Department of Home Affairs in Dealing with Migration Issues

Respondents from the Department of Home Affairs in Pretoria said they have a legislation meant to deal with labor migration like the Immigration Act, Refugees Act and Passport and Travel Document Act.
Respondent 3 (5 May 2017) said ‘As the Department of Home Affairs we have an inspectorate that enforces compliance with the legislation governing migration into South Africa’. Another official said ‘Illegal foreigners are against the law but the problem is that there is no person power to monitor the process and we have to rely on South African Police Services’.

Two of the three respondents interviewed emphasized that there was no war in Zimbabwe for anyone to qualify for refugee status and those who seek asylum were given an opportunity to apply. From the responses given by the Home Affairs respondents it seems most of the problems with regard to managing labor migration were due to lack of person power and resources.

(c) The Effectiveness of the Measures taken by the South African Government to Control Migration

The laws on immigration were seen as effective by respondents although some problems were indicated as hampering the smooth application of the law. The lack of resources compels the Department to rely on the SANDF and SAPS to arrest and deport illegal immigrants. The borders were seen as porous due to the lack of manpower and corruption by border officials.

Respondent 2 (6 May 2017) said ‘We have challenges with our internal control mechanism resulting in the creation of fraudulent documents by corrupt officials which weakens the measures taken to control migration into South Africa’. This above statement is confirmed by the commotion and confusion which is sometimes witnessed at Beitbridge Border post.

(d) Perceptions on the Consequences of Those Measures on the Zimbabwean South African Diplomatic Relations

Government officials from the Pretoria Department of Home Affairs indicated that policy measures taken by the South African government were in line with the SADC protocol for the movement of people and hence could not in any way harm diplomatic relations between South Africa and Zimbabwe. However, thirty three percent (33%) of the respondents raised concerns
over xenophobic tendencies on fellow African immigrants by some South African citizens saying that this could polarize diplomatic relations between South Africa and other SADC countries, Zimbabwe not excluded.

Respondent 1 (3 May 2017) said ‘We can not run away from the fact that the xenophobic attacks are damaging the reputation of South Africa and could jeopardize its diplomatic relations with other African countries’.

(e) The Impact of Zimbabwean Labor Migration on the Human Resources of the Country

Officials from the Department of Home Affairs in Pretoria highlighted that Zimbabwean labor immigrants brought about competition and quality in the South African labor market, which is positive gesture towards the country’s economic growth.

Nonetheless, respondent 1 and 3 hastened to say, ‘South Africans are now having difficulties in getting jobs than before and some are now terming the employment of foreigners in South Africa as wrong employment’.

4.6.2 HARARE IMMIGRATION DEPARTMENT

Information collected from the Harare Department of Immigration on the measures taken by the government in dealing with labor migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa and the consequences on diplomatic relations between the two countries is presented in this section.

Five questions were asked and they were; (i) on the perception of the department’s officials on the way the South African Government dealt with migration of Zimbabweans into the country; (ii) what the South African government should do to improve their immigration policy measures; (iii) the perceived impact of South African immigration policy measures on the Zimbabwean South African diplomatic relations; (iv) the trend in which Zimbabweans have been immigrating to South Africa; and (v) what should be done to retain Zimbabweans in the country. The respondents provided the following information:
(a) Perceptions on the way the South African Government Deals with Zimbabwean Labor Migration

Respondents from the Harare Department of Immigration regarded the measures as good as long as they were implemented correctly. Their response seem to agree with (CoRMSA, 2009) which purports that the policies governing movement between South Africa and Zimbabwe represents a positive shift towards a rational, coherent and regionally beneficial migration management approach. However, the respondents could not hide the fact that there were rumors about the South African Police Service and South African National Defense Force soliciting for bribes.

Respondent 1 (3 April 2017) said ‘Though the South African policy towards labor immigration sounds effective what leaves a lot to be desired is that the Department of Home Affairs has left the Police and Army to deal with illegal immigration and this to an extent is to be blamed for illegal Zimbabwean immigrants that are said to be residing in South Africa’.

(b) What the South African government should do to improve their immigration policy measures.

The South African government should ensure that there is the same playing field between Zimbabwe and South Africa in terms of working hours, working environment and remuneration. Respondent 3 (21 April 2017) said ‘Zimbabweans working in South Africa deserve to be treated fairly at work places and they should be accorded their dignity. There is no reason whatever for them to be treated as if they are less than South Africans’.

(c) The perceived impact of South African immigration policy measures on the Zimbabwean South African diplomatic relations.

The respondents confirmed that the South African policy measures towards Zimbabwean labor migration could not harm the relationship between the two countries as long as they were implemented correctly.
Respondent 2 (10 April 2017) said ‘South Africa was implementing the immigration policy according to its legislation within the framework laid out in the SADC Protocol on the movement of people so there was no reason to think that their policies will cause disputes between Zimbabwe and South Africa’.

(d) The trend in which Zimbabweans have been immigrating to South Africa.
The respondents reflected that the migration of Zimbabwean labor to South Africa was at its peak in the period between 2002 and 2008 owing to economic and political instability that took place in the country. After the period of 2008 the rate at which people were leaving the country subsided.

Respondent 3 (21 April 2017) said ‘Economic policy measures taken in 2008 such as the inception of multi-currency stabilized the economy and fewer Zimbabweans went out of the country’.

(e) Measures to retain Zimbabwean human capital in the country.
All the respondents agreed that Zimbabwe was losing expertise and experience in strategic sectors of the economy through brain drain, especially migration to South Africa. They further consented that brain has a negative impact on the economic growth of a nation. Nonetheless, the respondents hastened to say that there was no quick solution to the brain drain the country was experience since the economy had less to offer to the experienced professionals who were leaving the country to look for greener pastures in South Africa.

Respondent 1 (3 April) said ‘Zimbabweans will only stop migrating to South Africa if our economy could generate the employment and the environment they see abroad, without that we can not talk of retaining Zimbabweans in this country’.

The above argument is reinforced by (Mawadza, 2008) who purports that economic conditions in Zimbabwe have led to a steady emigration of professional and skilled persons to South Africa and elsewhere.
4.4 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Findings from the research showed that about 60% of males are more likely to migrate against 40% females. According to the study about 75% of Zimbabweans who migrate to South Africa have diplomas, degrees and postgraduate degrees. It was also concluded that 65% of the respondents were in the country for more than three years. About eighty percent (80%) of Zimbabwean immigrants were staying in South Africa legally since they had work permits given during the special dispensation period.

According to the research findings migrations by Zimbabweans to South Africa was mainly driven by economic and political factors. Economic factors feature high with few indicating political persecution as a factor. Social networks were found to be playing a pivotal role in the migration of Zimbabweans from their country to South Africa, with family members offering transport fees, shelter, food and helping immigrants in securing jobs. Those who went to South Africa without knowing anyone were accommodated by other Zimbabweans who were already in the country.

The research concluded that most of Zimbabweans in South Africa had work related challenges, that is they were not getting same salaries with South Africans for the same job and sometimes could work for longer hours. The study also revealed that most Zimbabweans were buying everything from South Africa, especially basic commodities. Findings from the research were that Zimbabweans offered skills in engineering and construction and do hard labor and take jobs that South Africans refuse to do. The study highlighted that Zimbabwean labor immigrants brought about competition and quality in the South African labor market, which is a positive gesture towards the country’s economic growth.

It was indicated from the research that Zimbabweans were accessing health services i.e, clinics and hospitals without problems and the clinics did not ask for identity documents in order to offer them medical treatment beside few cases were they were not properly treated.

In a nutshell the research concluded that policy measures taken by the South African government were in line with the SADC protocol for the movement of people and hence could not in any way
harm diplomatic relations between South Africa and Zimbabwe. However, the research confirmed that xenophobic tendencies on fellow African immigrants by some South African citizens could polarize diplomatic relations between South Africa and other SADC countries, Zimbabwe not excluded.

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY
In this chapter an analysis of the research findings was presented. Data was collected from twenty (20) Zimbabwean labor immigrations in Johannesburg and three (3) officers each from the Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Department of Immigration. The aim of the chapter was to investigate the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration to South Africa on the diplomatic relations between the two countries. Chapter five will draw conclusions from the research findings together with literature review outlined in chapter two. The chapter will also make recommendations.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

5.1 INTRODUCTION
The previous chapter focused on the analysis and presentation of data gathered. This chapter summarises the study, draws conclusions based on the research findings and literature review on the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on the Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations. The research interrogated how the measures taken by the South African government in regulating Zimbabwean labor migration will possibly impact on the diplomatic relations between the two countries. Recommendations based on the findings and literature review will also be
made to the South African government, Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department. Finally, the chapter highlights the possible areas for further study.

5.2 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH

The research was meant to determine the impact of Zimbabwean labor migration on the Zimbabwean-South African diplomatic relations given the measures put in place by the South African government to deal with the migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa. The study was undertaken in the City of Johannesburg. In achieving the objectives of this study, the research outlined the chapters as follows;

Chapter one: The chapter indicated the nature of the research problem, objectives of the study, the research questions, definition of concepts, assumptions, the significance of the study, purpose of the study, the research design, delimitations of the study, limitations of the study and ethical consideration.

Chapter two: The literature review formed the theoretical framework for the research. It gave an overview of labor migration and practices from a global perspective, labor migration in Africa, labor migration in South Africa, the causes of Zimbabwean migration to South Africa, and the theories of international migration. From the literature it became apparent that social networks and the political and economic conditions in Zimbabwe were seen to be playing a major role in the migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa.

Chapter three: The chapter dealt with the research methodology, giving explicit analysis of the design used, the area under study, the population of the study, sample selection method and size, data collection methods and analysis. The study employed interviews, questionnaires, government documents and peer reviewed journals as major data collection instruments. It was conducted in the city of Johannesburg for Zimbabwean immigrants. The study targeted Zimbabwean immigrants population and the Department of Home Affairs (Pretoria) and Harare Immigration Department. It utilised different types of sampling methods, i.e snowball (for government officials) and accidental (used for Zimbabwean immigrants). A structured questionnaire was used to collect data from Zimbabwean immigrants and interviews were used
for officials from government departments. Reaching immigrants was difficult as most of them refused to take part in the study as they were reluctant to release information.

Chapter four: The chapter dealt with the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data. The responses gathered through the structured questionnaire were sorted, coded, organized and indexed, and then analyzed and interpreted. The sample size was twenty four (26) Zimbabwean immigrants and two (3) officials per department from the Pretoria Department Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department. The focus was to get the perceptions on the impact of Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa on diplomatic relations between two countries given the measures taken by the South African government to manage the migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa.

Chapter five: The chapter presented the conclusion drawn from the research basing it on the literature review and the findings of the study. Recommendations were also made.

5.4 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS
The study was undertaken in the city of Johannesburg and in Harare. Response rate for questionnaires and interviews was hundred percent (100%). Respondents from the Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department displayed in-depth knowledge on migration issues. They offered useful insights and credible information that can be relied upon.

Seventy nine (79%) of Zimbabwean labor migrants in South Africa fall between the age of 18-40. According to the research findings, males are more likely to migrate than females, with males at 60% and females at 40%. The study found that 75% of Zimbabwean immigrants have diplomas, degrees and postgraduate degrees. It was also concluded that 65% of the respondents were in the country for more than three years. Eighty percent (80%) of the respondents were staying in South Africa legally since they had work permits given during the special dispensation period.

The research discovered that there are basically two pressing issues for Zimbabweans to migrate into South Africa, namely, economic and to escape political persecutions. Economic factors
feature high with few indicating political persecution as a factor. Social networks were found to be playing a pivotal role in the migration of Zimbabweans from their country to South Africa, with family members offering transport fees, shelter, food and helping immigrants in securing jobs. Those who went to South Africa without knowing anyone were accommodated by other Zimbabweans who were already in the country.

The study concluded that a good number of Zimbabweans working in South Africa were either into teaching or training and facilitation of banking and insurance programmes at private colleges. It was found that it was not easy for Zimbabweans to find decent jobs in South Africa despite holding a tertiary qualification, especially females. Some were involved in manual labor such as construction work, electrical work, mechanics, boiler making and upholstery. There, however, was no evidence of any jobs being created by Zimbabwean labor migrants. Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents were staying in South Africa illegally since they did not either have work permits or a refugee status.

The research found out most of Zimbabweans in South Africa had work related challenges, that is they were not getting same salaries with South Africans for the same job and sometimes could work for longer hours. Revelations from the study showed that most Zimbabweans were buying everything from South Africa, especially basic commodities. Findings from the research were that Zimbabweans offered skills in engineering and construction and do hard labor and take jobs that South Africans refuse to do. It was indicated from the research that Zimbabweans were accessing health services i.e., clinics and hospitals without problems and the clinics did not ask for identity documents in order to offer them medical treatment. They were, however, indications that some nurses were xenophobic and diagnosed them with sexually transmitted infections without even running tests and some nurses would not even touch them. The study found that Zimbabweans in South Africa were not concerned about accessing social welfare grants but jobs since they did not intend to settle in South Africa. Some alarming revelations from the research were that 50% of Zimbabweans felt that South Africans were xenophobic, and treated immigrants like animals. The above sentiments were further reinforced by the fact that despite holding work permits immigrants were being accused of bringing diseases like sexually transmitted infections, cholera and increasing the crime rate (theft) and prostitution.
Findings from the Department of Home Affairs in Pretoria were that they have a legislation meant to deal with labor migration like the Immigration Act, Refugees Act and Passport and Travel Document Act. However, the department bemoaned lack of person power and resources as the main reason behind the problems with regard to managing illegal migration. The laws on immigration were found to be effective although some problems were indicated as hampering the smooth application of the law. The lack of resources compels the Department to rely on the SANDF and SAPS to arrest and deport illegal immigrants. Outcome from the research was clear to the fact that policy measures taken by the South African government were in line with the SADC protocol for the movement of people and hence could not in any way harm diplomatic relations between South Africa and Zimbabwe. However, the research confirmed that xenophobic tendencies on fellow African immigrants by some South African citizens could polarise diplomatic relations between South Africa and other SADC countries, Zimbabwe not excluded. The study highlighted that Zimbabwean labor immigrants brought about competition and quality in the South African labor market, which is a positive gesture towards the country’s economic growth. Findings from the study showed that the greater part of the immigrants was legally staying in South Africa since they were issued with work permits during the special dispensation.

The Harare Department of Immigration regarded the measures as good as long as they were implemented correctly. However, the study found that some officials from the South African Police Service and South African National Defense Force were soliciting for bribes in order for illegal Zimbabweans not to be deported. Findings from the study pointed to the fact that there was no level playing field between Zimbabwe and South Africa in terms of working hours, working environment and remuneration. The research also discovered that the migration of Zimbabwean labor to South Africa was at its peak in the period between 2002 and 2008 owing to economic and political instability that took place in the country. After the period of 2008 the rate at which people were leaving the country subsided. From the research findings it became clear that there was no quick solution to the brain drain the country was experience since the economy had less to offer to the experienced professionals who were leaving the country to look for greener pastures in South Africa.

5.4 CONCLUSION
From the discussion on the impact of Zimbabwean Labor migration to South Africa on the diplomatic relations between the two countries it can be concluded that measures taken by the South African government to control Zimbabwean migration pose no threat to the diplomatic relations of the two countries. This follows the fact that South Africa prescribes to SADC Protocol on the movement of people implementing its migration laws. Nonetheless, due to lack of resources the Department of Home Affairs has left the South African Police Services to deal with the issue of illegal immigrations. Consequently, the stanza has resulted in some in corrupt tendencies where the SAPS was soliciting for bribes to an extent of harassing Zimbabwean immigrants who are staying legally in South Africa threatening to depot them if they refuse to pay. Xenophobic tendencies by some police officers, immigration officers and some South African citizens have become a security threat to Zimbabweans despite holding work permits. In a nutshell corrupt tendencies by some officials from SAPS and immigration department and xenophobic by some South African citizens wield the potential to dent the Zimbabwean South African diplomatic relations if they are not addressed.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations in this study are based on the findings of the study and the body of literature reviewed and presented in chapter two. The recommendations are made to the South African Government, the Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department.

The South African government must comprehend the nature of regional and international immigration dynamics so that they may be in a position to effectively and efficiently manage Zimbabwean labor migration. Crush et al (2005(a):5-6) mentions that it is important to understand illegal migration in the regional and historical context.

Apartheid is said to have destabilized many African countries and those countries supported the liberation struggle for South Africa. The South African government is thus asked to be sympathetic to illegal immigrants from those countries that supported it. In
addressing the root cause of migration and helping in the economic development of those countries affected, South Africa will reduce population movement by those to its country (Solomon 1996, p. 11).

If the situation in Zimbabwe is not resolved, it will affect countries like Botswana, Namibia and South Africa; hence the problem should not be regarded as only a Zimbabwean one. (Sriskandarajah, 2005, p. 5; Berne, 2004, p. 10) suggest bilateral consultations between affected countries to address migration issues. (FMSP, 2007, p. 9) indicates that the South African government should be prepared to accept that the illegal migration of Zimbabweans into the country might be a temporary issue.

Deportation of Zimbabweans as a way of managing illegal migration according to literature and the findings of the study is not a solution because they return soon after deportation (FMSP 2007, p. 10). It is seen as a waste of taxpayer’s money because deported illegal immigrants always find ways of coming back into the country. The deportation should be coupled with other measures to deter the illegal migration like prosecution of smuggling rings and individuals, employers of illegal immigrants, police and Home Affairs officials who extort bribes from illegal immigrants and stricter border controls.

The smuggling of illegal immigrants should be regarded as a high priority crime. This should be done through establishing migration networks and exchanging information on illegal migration to help come up with preventative measures (Berne 2004, p. 11).

In terms of xenophobia, the government should prosecute perpetrators of xenophobic violence, past and present to discourage any further tendencies. Solutions to the Zimbabwean problem should be accepted and supported by all South Africans, hence the importance of educating the public to halt xenophobia (Crush, 2008, p. 41; FMSP and MLAO, 2007, p. 1).
Giving permits to illegal immigrants who can prove that they have jobs, housing and means to support themselves will help to reduce and manage illegal migration (The Report of the Secretary General-United Nations General Assembly, 2004, p. 43).

Porous borders, lack of staff and bribery by the Department of Home Affairs officials is said to increase illegal migration into South Africa according to (HRW, 2006, p. 8). It is important that a “turnaround” strategy be implemented which will include the provision of resources to manage illegal migration to South Africa. According to (Berne 2004, p. 16) border control measures should be effective, efficient, fair and transparent. They should show how corruption would be prevented. In this study, immigrants indicated that it cost a R50 bribe to enter the country illegally. This shows that there are no measures in place to deal with corruption by officials.

Human rights must be respected and people to be should be treated with dignity and respect irrespective of their nationality.

Foreigners should be paid according to the rates applicable to South Africans.

The South African labor system should have policies in place to protect foreigners in the country.

The issuing of permits should be a form of protection from being abused by employers.

South African employers who employ illegal immigrants should be prosecuted. The Department should make sure that before deportation, illegal immigrants are paid their dues by employers to prevent their exploitation where immigration is called when illegal immigrants are to be paid. The findings of this study indicate that it was a tendency of employers both in formal and informal settings to report illegality of immigrants to avoid paying them. The findings are supported by (Solomon 2000, p. 7).
There should be a central place where foreigners are registered and jobs should be given in accordance with their qualifications.

South Africa should understand that the situation in Zimbabwe is beyond labor immigrants’ control and thus need to be sympathetic towards them. The view is supported by Mello, 2008, p. 21) in which he indicated that South Africa should take cognizance of the contribution made by other countries with regard to its economic growth.

The immigration department should put stringent measures at the border to ensure that no one crosses into South Africa illegally.

The immigration department should establish a workable relationship with their South African counterparts to ensure Zimbabwean legal immigrants are treated accordingly in South Africa and that Zimbabweans do not overstay their visit in South Africa.

Immigration officers should be deployed at all departure points to check the legality of everyone boarding a bus for South Africa.

Police and immigration officers involved in giving Zimbabweans without passports smooth passage to South Africa should be prosecuted and dismissed from work.

5.6 Possible Areas for Further Research

Whilst, the study focused on Zimbabwean immigrants in Johannesburg, Pretoria Department of Home Affairs and Harare Immigration Department it is imperative a future study be done which encompasses other areas in South Africa where Zimbabwean immigrants are residing.
It is of paramount to conduct a comprehensive study in future on the perceptions of South Africans on Zimbabweans immigrants in South Africa. South African Police Services (SAPS) and South African citizens should be key respondents in the research.

A study on the environment of the Beitbridge border post should be conducted in future focusing on the immigration officers and police officers stationed at the border post. The research should include interviewing Zimbabweans as they cross the border post.

Citizens of other countries residing in South Africa have not been part of this study. It is of essence that a study will be carried out in future to establish the reasons why they are in South Africa, the challenges they are facing and their socio-economic impact on the South African economy.

Another research should be done to establish whether the Zimbabweans in South Africa have an intention to come back home and what will be the factors they will consider before coming back home.

Lastly, another study should be carried to establish the perceptions of foreigners on the measures put in place by the South African government to regulate labor migration.
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APPENDIX A: STRUCTURED QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE FOR ZIMBABWEAN LABOR IMMIGRANTS

1. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1.1 Age
1.2 Sex:

| M | F |

1.3 Level of Education

| Grade 1-7 | Form 1 - 4 | Form 5 - 6 | Diploma | Undergraduate Degree | Postgraduate Degree |

1.4 Number of Years in South Africa

| Less Than One Year | One to Two Years | Three to Four Years | Five Years + |

1.5 Status of Stay in South Africa

| Legal | Illegal |

2. CAUSES OF ZIMBABWEAN LABOR MIGRATION INTO SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 Why did you choose to migrate to South Africa?

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2.2 Are there any pressing issues that led you to leave your country to South Africa?

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2.3 Did you come to South Africa because of knowing people who migrated to the country before, and what role did they play in your choosing to migrate into the country?

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3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT OF ZIMBABWEAN LABOR MIGRATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 Are you employed in the country, and what type of employment are you engaged in?

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3.2 Do you think Zimbabwean immigrants are treated fairly by the South African labor system, and what changes would you recommend, if any?

3.3 Are you well treated by your employers?

3.4 Are you of the opinion that the Zimbabwean labor immigrants are contributing to the economy of South Africa?
3.5 Are you able to access health services in the country?

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APPENDIX B: STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE PRETORIA DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS

1. Measures taken by the South African government to control labor migration of Zimbabweans into South Africa and the impact on diplomatic relations between the two countries.

1.1 Which measures are in place by your department to deal with migration issues?

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1.2 How effective are the measures in place to deal with labor migration?

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1.3 What is your perception on the effect of measures taken by South Africa to control Zimbabwean labor migration on Zimbabwe and South Africa diplomatic relations

1.4 What impact do you think Zimbabwean labor migrants have on the human resources in South Africa?

1.5 Can you shed more light on the immigration status of Zimbabweans in South Africa?
APPENDIX C: STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE HARARE IMMIGRATION DEPARTMENT

1.1 What is your perception of the way the South African government deals with Zimbabwean labor migration into the country?

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1.2 What do you think South Africa government should do to improve their immigration policy measures?

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1.3 In your own opinion does the way in which South Africa is handling Zimbabwean immigration issue pose any threat on diplomatic relations between the two countries?

1.4 What has been happening to the trend in which Zimbabweans have been immigrating to South Africa?

1.5 What do you think should be done to retain Zimbabweans in the country since Zimbabwe is losing experienced professionals to South Africa?