

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the study

Until decades most classification of Diasporas prioritized their disastrous origins and harsh consequences. The term 'diaspora' implied forcible dispersion was found in Jewish (Cohen, 1996) Bible verses Deuteronomy (28:25), along with the inclusion of a vociferous Old Testament warning that "Dispersion to foreign lands" contained the punishment for individuals who had ignored the righteous ways and forgotten the previous commandments. So nearly, in fact, had 'diaspora' become linked with this nation Jewish belief that the roots of the words to sow broadly. And also for the Greeks, the remark was applied to characterize the ancient (800-600 BC) colonization of Asian minor and Mediterranean in the archaic era. Even though some displaced ancient Greeks to Asian minorities due to poverty, civil and inter-state wars, 'diaspora' basically had a positive implication. Expansion through pillage, military invasion, colonization and people's mobility was the most dominant characteristics of the Greek diaspora (Cohen, R., 1996).

Besides diaspora's classification, for past decades, the notions of diaspora and transnationalism have come to serve as a conspicuous research concept by which to perceive the even of international migration and shifting of state borders around all people. Transnationalism refers to the process of crossing the political border while, the diaspora is broadly used to describe religious or ethnic minorities settled in foreign countries but have an "imagined homeland", though trans-nationalism is frequently used only to denote migrants' permanent links with all countries and more widely to seize and different social group which is trans-nationally operative chains, sets and institutions. Furthermore, although diaspora and trans-nationalism are infrequently used reciprocally, the two words indicate different

thoughtful genealogies. The renaissance of the understanding of diaspora and the manifestation of transnational approaches might be used effectively to research a key study of socio-political revolution and metamorphosis (Faist, 2010).

The dilemmas of human mobility across international borders, in the early 21st century, have become more indisputable than ever before (Castles, 2013). The main drivers of migration such as demography, economy and politics impressively continue, despite the public resentment towards migration in some welcoming countries, but still remains supported. Labor migration is both international and intercontinental, a combination of all skill levels and potentials which is important to the global economy. Because migration also includes the inflow and outflow of goods, capital, intellectual property, and culture-people which is an essential element of globalization. So far, governments control the entry of immigrants as a sign of internal sovereignty. At the moment when regulatory structures for the market, finance and several other forms of international partners have been approved, global governance of migration remains prominent, mainly for its weakness.

Unlike old migration, contemporary people's mobility is a global phenomenon emerges due to political, economic, social and cultural factors which influence the Nation-State directly by creating diverse links, transcontinental or transnational arenas, as well as local or regional people move to the major world's advanced economy (Wenden, 2009).

Within the current global economy, skilled human power has become one of the crucial determinants of production, rooting society's capacity to produce and remain competitively (Grossman, 2010). Skill-based works are becoming more mobile, empowering them to pursue education and job opportunities in foreign lands. At the same time, this might complement a net profit for the host country, while it could indicate a considerable loss of skilled human capital from the country of origin. The occurrence of brain drain, denoting the exit of human power coming from emigration, is perceived to be a negative impact towards many home

countries. It is viewed that almost half of the scientists who are educated in developing countries leave the country of origin search for better future in developed countries (Turner, 2003).

In the USA there are more African scholars (scientists and engineers) contributing to the country's development, yet the continent is lacking such skilled human capital and even the numbers anticipated to be higher than that of the skilled labor in the whole Africa (Mouton, 2007). This emigration of skilled labor comes at an enormous cost. As a result, brain drain has caused the loss of Skilled human capital in Africa, about an estimated \$4 billion annually (Girma, 2007 and Girma, 2007).

The total number of international migrants as reported by IOM in 2020 has reached about 272 million worldwide, out of which the two-thirds constitute "labour migrants" (IOM, 2020). This number remains an insignificant percentage of the global population (3.5 per cent) implying that the majority of the population worldwide at 96.5 per cent are likely to be residing in their country of birth. Nevertheless, the estimated size and percentage of global migrants at present exceeds some hypothesis made for the future five decades (2050), were of the order of 230 million or 2.6 per cent.

Historically, unlike many African countries, migration from Ethiopia is still very recent, having started mainly in the 1970s. However, Nigeria and Ethiopia are the highest immigrant origin countries in Africa as a result of political and economic uncertainties and also a result of voluntary immigration in search of education and job opportunities. A high number of the population has migrated into foreign countries, with the United State of America and Canada as the largest recipients. Due to massive people influxes, Africa is considered the first continent to contribute to the huge number of immigrants. As previously reported by Anderson (2015), the number of immigrants from Africa to the U.S.A has been on the rise, "roughly doubling" every year especially since 1970. In the year 2015, African immigrants'

population hit 2.1 million whereas in the year 2000 the number was just 881,000, but has had a gradual growth since 1970 (with only 80,000 African born residences). The estimated number of Nigerian immigrants stands at 25 per cent of total U.S based immigrants, constituting the first and second most populated immigrant groups in the USA with that of Ethiopia 15 per cent of immigrants living in the U.S, thereby making up first and second most populated immigrant groups residing in USA (MPI, 2015; Douglas *et al*, 2013). Under chapter two, the author will provide brief information on Ethiopian migration.

Like some other developing countries, many African countries encounter strong constraints in relation to access to the funding needed for the achievement of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). For instance, the recent investment volumes (Rustomjee, 2018), yearly deficits, inaccessible funding to achieve the SDGs by both the governmental and private institutions is estimated at US\$210 billion according to the report of the United Nation Conference on Trade and Development 2016 (UNCTAD). Owing to these bottlenecks, many African nations are in search of innovative sources of capital for investment that supports domestic, customary and external capitals. Accordingly, diaspora is included within those innovative resources, although diaspora engagement principles as policies in Africa are new terminologies and recent practices. For example, the African diaspora was recognized by the AU in late 2003, Nigeria in the 1990s and Ethiopia in 2002 respectively, while a system for integration with global diaspora communities of Africans was equally established by AU. In spite of geographical limitations, African diasporas, especially Nigerians, Ethiopians and Somalis in foreign nations, have significantly contributed to the process of overall developments and support of communities in home countries (Virgil Hoehn et al., 2011).

Normally, globalization has shaped (Terrence, 2009) the way migration flows as well as the establishment of diaspora and other multifaceted international organization systems and work. By reducing the cost of communication and transportation, globalization has created

such an easy environment for migrants to create networks that bring together geographically-separated people, in a way that leads them to economic, political and social improvements in the countries of origin as well as host countries. Besides achieving socio-economic development, individuals enforced across the border due to conflict or economic challenge generally have a precise set of outrageous memories and nevertheless, create specifically a “group of conflict created diasporas” that “clings” to very essential symbolic “binds” to their home country. These diasporas are often motivated and engaged in the home country’s politics with the intention of stabilizing instability and nation-building by promoting the democratic system.

Most of the studies conducted using case study approach show that ‘remittances ‘flows from diasporas toward home countries, have led to arguments concerning the powerful impact of diaspora remittances capacity in developing economies and their links to development. For example, a case study by Koser (2003), shows that since Eritrea gained their independence from Ethiopia, the diaspora is known to be involved in nation-building, and the economic development process of the homeland. Inflows of remittance from the diaspora have multiple advantages and among these are conflict resolutions, humanitarian aid and amongst others, however, mostly focused on poverty reduction. Comparative research on three African countries such as Nigerian, Kenyan, and Ethiopian diaspora shows that the diasporas are mostly engaged in nation-building and conflict resolution processes, yet Ethiopian diaspora members are highly involved in escalation and wrecking of conflict in Ethiopia despite their contribution to development (Beyene, 2015 and Adugna, 2019).

Even though studies on migration nexus development is becoming a global concern, seeing through theoretical optics is not yet deeply developed (Wimalaratana, 2016 and Tesfamichael, 210). Therefore, to provide more insight into the topic, the author adapts some

theories such as governmentality, embracing, tapping, transnationalism aspect, the concept of remittances.

The amount of the remittances flow to India was estimated US\$21.7 billion in 2004, while in US\$ 21.3 billion to China, (De, Ferranti, et al., 2007; Gungwu,1993 and Akyeampong 2012). China and India have very strategic and strong DEPs that caused them to be the first two top countries in the world receiving huge amounts of remittances from their diaspora population.

1.2. Research question

To promote diaspora engagement in community development, engagement policy approach, reforms and the role of host countries and IOs as key engaging partners, this thesis seeks to answer the following research questions;

What is the contribution of diaspora for the development of their homeland?

What are the policy approaches that the Ethiopian government is using to mobilize and engage, Ethiopian diaspora in poverty reduction and reforms on engagement policies?

What is the intention behind host countries and IOs engaging with diaspora to reach out communities back home?

1.3. Literature Review

Immigration and development: The Nexus

There are different debates on “migration nexus development”. Oltmer, (2015) categorized it in three phases according to its chronology: migration debate based on his point of view, from 1950-60, argued to be the first “optimistic phase” where the emphases were set on the impacts of remittances and temporary migration for doing business, all in consecration benefit for economic development. The second phase starts from 1970-80, which is known as a period of contradiction where migration was perceived as a cause of dependency of the

South on North, underdevelopment, and poverty in terms of “brain drain”. Yet the third phase starting from the 1990s onward has been debated as decades of “optimism” where the concept of brain drain switched to the concept of ‘brain circulation. Viewing migration as a source of remittances, cooperation, temporary leave and return home with advanced capital in ways which impact home and host countries positively (Brzozowski, 2008) and (Karin et al., 2008). In fact, the concept of the Brain Drain (Maurice Schiff, et al., 2018) debate is still alive in several academic discourses.

Numerous factors such as economic, political, social, and natural disasters can be responsible for the migration of the people across the world. Today's migration is complex (Ezzarqui et al., 2006), to ascertain its actual causes, structures, and frequencies. Generally, it is linked to the context of “geographic mobility” or searching for a better future. In the migrations, migration is often (Snarr, et al., 2005) denoted as a seek for refugees and asylum that can be periodic or permanent and also migration for job opportunities. The processes are greatly linked with different dimensions like global economic development, social and geographic factors (Kasan et al., 2012). And also (Wimalaratan, and Wanger, 2016) policies of the host countries and international law of immigration have an equal impact on growing international migration. Under article 13, human mobility is recognized as a part of human rights and people are allowed to leave their homeland, especially at a time of instabilities and persecution.

Migration provides several opportunities that can generate a lot of benefits for both host and home countries, moreover to the migrants and their families. The income that migrants earn from overseas can be numerous compared to what they can generate from the same jobs in their home countries. For instance, the research carried out by Clemens and Michael in 2009 revealed that the number of salaries obtained by employees in the USA to the salary paid by indistinguishable employees compilation (with the same homeland, decades of educating, age

and gender, and urban/rural inhabitant) overseas ranged from 15.45 for employees in Yemen to 1.99 employees in the Dominica Republic, with an average of 4.11 (Clemens, et al, 2009). The salary variation and equivalent income obtained from migration are higher for low-skilled employees, compared to high-skilled employee's income in developing countries. The growth in migrants' income can also play a considerable role to enhance the well-being and human development of diaspora's families both directly and indirectly, through remittances (Gibson et al., 2009). Predominantly, the beneficial outputs of migration for immigrants and their households go further economically and fitfully, including accommodations in many dimensions of social developments, like health and education. A report released by WB's High Dynamic Range in 2009 stated that the migrants from underdeveloped nations, on a median, achieved a 15 double grown profit, a doubling education engagement level, and a 16 double devaluation in child death after inhabiting developed countries.

The AU has defined diaspora as a group of people residing overseas and willing to engage in developmental activities of their home countries. This diaspora is mainly categorized into two broad groups called first and second and third-generation migrants, and various strategies and program focus have been created based on these three categories. The first generation is mainly engaged in the provision of medical assistance such as combating malaria, HIV/AIDS and in the conflict resolution process, for example in Darfur, an area in South Sudan and the establishment of "South-South institutional integration". In 2012, the UA and later in 2013 international organizations organized the first African global diaspora summit together with the leaders of AU member states, South and Latin American countries, including representatives of the African diasporas (Pdufaa et al, 2013).

Engaging diaspora and designing policy has become the interest of every immigrant sending countries. There are different arguments on states' approach with regard to diaspora

engagement policy (DEPs). Gamlen (2006) has criticized and states the four major aspects that illustrate the nature of engagement policy; impartiality or “default position” of state in managing emigration and immigration; setting policy on the aspect on core vs periphery or depending on neoclassical economic perspectives, that views migration as a labour market growths to develop the economy, reversely produce a high amount of capital; using “Ethnic-nationalism” notion and prioritizing political agenda instead of engaging diaspora for development.

Remittances flow from abroad to Ghana is benefiting several households in different regions of the country. Therefore, financial flows in forms of remittances are providing access for several poor people in many developing countries like Africa (Gabriel et al., 2013). Remittances at Macro-level can play a great role as well as a reliable capital for constant income to many people particularly, less privileged groups (Mohamoud, 2003). Likewise, remittance operates as a “safety net” for people who are poor in various nations where the government has a shortage to allocate and provide a resource (Hettige, et al., 2018) and also address the issues. Further, remittances provide a lifeline for many poor people as well as in other sustainable development affairs (Muhammad . et al, 2016).

In general, diasporas’ remittances are grouped into two main classes: monetary and non-monetary or financial and social remittances in forms of values and types of action. In different ways capital influxes, which are in forms of money financed by international institutes, organizations and privates individuals in the desire of higher incomes and interest rates on remittances which are funds sent by diasporas to their family members and communities. Diasporas’ remittances are equally an indication of the unrelenting engagements of diasporas in their families and communities of the home countries. These are not similar but different from Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and capital inflows which are mostly invested regularly since remittances can be sent across through formal and informal

agencies. According to Gabriel (2015) in certain instances of informal money transfer, informal agents may take the largest chunk of remittances channel.

Table 1 Top Remittances Receiving Countries

2000		2005		2010		2015	
India	12.84	China	23.63	India	53.48	India	68.91
France	8.61	Mexico	22.74	China	52.46	China	63.94
Mexico	7.52	India	22.33	Mexico	22.08	Philippines	28.48
Philippines	6.96	Nigeria	14.64	Philippines	20.56	Mexico	25.23
South Korea	4.86	France	14.64	France	19.90	France	23.35
Spain	4.86	Philippines	13.73	Nigeria	19.75	Nigeria	18.96
Turkey	4.56	Belgium	6.89	Germany	12.45	Pakistan	19.85
USA	4.40	Germany	6.87	Egypt	12.45	Egypt	16.58
Germany	3.64	Spain	6.66	Bangladesh	10.85	Bangladesh	15.38
UK	3.61	Poland	6.47	Belgium	10.35	Germany	15.36

(Source; Ruhs, 2018)

Indeed, the available report on remittances flowing into Ethiopia is not consistent, for instance, going by the official figure of the IMF for 2014 and 2015 estimates the total amount remitted into Ethiopia stood at USD 3-3.5 billion, which accounts for 7.4 per cent GDP. Whereas a report by National Bank of Ethiopia (NBE) was estimated to be USD 3.7 billion in 2015 yet, WB report in 2014 has been estimated at USD 624 million or 0.29 per cent of GDP which is very low compared to that of IMF and the NBE reports. Between 2014 and 2015, the NBE estimates for private individual cash transfers was USD 2.7 billion which is a quadruple of the estimation of the WB.

The discrepancy in figures reported is common and shows methods of gathering and analyzing, which in turn illustrates the deep-rooted challenges in finding relevant information to estimate the total amount of remittances which flows into Ethiopia. Despite the fact that does challenges exist, justification based on data obtained from National Bank of Ethiopia and World Bank (NBE and WB) concluded that remittance inflow has been on the increase

for the past few years, for instance from USD 790.3 million in 2009 to 2.7 billion in 2015 as well as from USD 262 million in 2009 that grew to USD 624 in 2015.

1.3.1. Knowledge Gap in Previous Studies

There are a lot of debates and hypotheses concerning concepts of remittances, diaspora's impact on development as well as the role of states' policies approaches. However, the majority of the research carried out on diaspora engagement seems to be dominated by the concept of identity and nationalism perspectives to determine the role of diaspora in homeland development, with less concern on the role home government's policy approaches, reforms and host countries and IOs. And also the overwhelming perception by societies policymakers, governments, and social media on migration are deeply built upon negative pessimism that perceives immigration as a threat instead of opportunity. In fact, studies concerning diaspora and their roles in development are a very recent phenomenon. To address the problem and understand the aspect, more research and analysis are needed particularly in Africa.

1.4. Objectives of the study

The general objective of this study is to understand migration development nexus. The specific objectives of the work are: to analyze policy approaches which government of Ethiopia is using to mobilize and engage its diaspora, to examine the diaspora role and the form of contributions to their homeland, as well as the role of the home countries (US) and IOs in supporting diaspora engagement.

1.5. Significance of the study

Besides bridging the knowledge gap which exists in previous studies, this study is important since it covers many numbers of beneficiaries and stakeholders such as migration nexus development scholars because most studies on diaspora related topics are likely influenced by identity and ethnic- nationalism and citizenship. And also diaspora issues are more

pronounced on social media, and international migration on “pessimistic” perceptions or brain drain narratives (Burbaker, 2005). In addition, this research will give recommendations to policymakers and governments who are often engaged in the process of policy design and implementation and thirdly for diaspora communities to create awareness on the benefits of integration and devotion to enhance socio-economic development in their country of origin.

1.6.Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is a map or blueprint for a research study that emerges from the existing theories in a subject of research inquiry, which help to test and determine hypotheses of conducted research analysis (Adom, et al., 2018 and Vela, 2001). Therefore, to develop the concept the author uses different theoretical paradigms such as the theory of governance, interconnectedness, transnationalism, and New Economics of Labor Migration and concept remittances and engagement policy (Kurekova, 2011).

Diaspora engagement policies project is defined as the observation that increasingly our migration policy is becoming to matter much more, whereas migration policy was internationally conceived as immigration policy. To fill this gap proponents started to see the behaviour of home states for they are becoming more active and begun to form policies towards out migrants and their descendants in the diaspora. For example, most of the states are using large-scale celebrations dedicated to immigrants and their descendants. There is also another aspect of the engaging diaspora which is attempts of the state to capture the resources in the diaspora; skills, knowledge, investment, and connection with influential actors in a foreign land (Gamlen, 2014). There are three theoretical approaches that have been discussed by Gamlen and his further scholars; tapping, embracing and governing diaspora. These theoretical concepts elaborated the intention to engage the diasporas, how and why states are acting in this particular way towards despotism.

Tapping (Gamlen, 2014) is based on around the notion that states are instrumental irrational actors who are pursuing a material interest in the diaspora while embracing approach sees states behaviour or attempts to engage diaspora in order to embrace the lost portion of the population due to emigration. In the case of embracing diaspora nation-states are less instrumental irrational actors and they are being driven by more value rational rather than instrumental irrational.

The academic discourse on governmentality and policy flow both attempt to exceed the rational-actor model of statehood (Gamlen, 2014). Governmentality deals with both identity and rationality as a result of power, examining processes of focus making which represent the rational actor. Although, policy flow literature denies the conventional constant representation of “unitary, rationally acting states” interchanging static and fully designed policy paradigms: it illustrates a realm in which policy notions are being advanced, gathered, disassembled, disaggregated, diffused, adapted, renovated, reformatted, and rebuilt in different frameworks as they move and flow through multifaceted systems of actors in diverse positions and measures of governance. Gamlen claims that by “ moving beyond the rational-actor model”, these academic writing suggest a promising beginning for a substitutive theoretical sequence on diaspora institutions and diaspora governance that sending state using.

The theory of governmentality (Foucault, 1991 [1978]) is gradually popular in diaspora Vs nation-state approach. Widely, it serves how ruling nations and framings become main less through force than through the consensus and self-regulation of those ruled. Neoliberalism Studies concerning governmentality especially pursue to comprehend how philosophies of “government celebrate and simulate free markets constructing decentralized governance without government” says Gamlen: a condition in which enabled stakeholders are galvanized through ‘market-mimicking’ policies approach to undertake obligation for their own self-

management (Gamlen, 2014 and Dean, 1999). Instead of scheduling commerce, states authorize it by reducing negative externalities and augmenting positive spillovers. In this case, they push market actors away from zero-sum deals and toward win-win results, raising the productivity of markets in causing whole benefits.

According to Gamlen (2014), Governmentality is obtaining ground in the research of state–diaspora relationship for governments lack reliable forcible powers beyond their political limit or legal jurisdictions, and so, the efficiency of extra-territorial policies approach depends on the capacity to cause migrants self-classify as loyal, self-instructing subjects. Contracting on Ferguson (2002), Gamlen (2006), and Collyer (2006) studies “transnational governmentality” supporting origin state attempts to establish diasporas. These scholars claim that Neoliberal governmentality is also important to the idea of “diaspora strategies,” that establish diasporas as “communities of knowledge-bearing” subjects committed to both globalizing and marketizing national development in sending states (Durand, 2004; Larner, 2007; Gamlen, 2013; Pellerin and Mullings, 2013:10). The Foucauldian idea of “pastoral power” similarly enlightens Fitzgerald’s study of Mexico’s emigration policies as parallel to the influences of the Catholic Church over its scattered groups (Fitzgerald, 2009). In another place, Gamlen underlines the approach that diaspora institutions use to enable a decentralized, market-emphasised means to global migration governance. In the meantime, Stielike evaluates the “governmentalities of the migration and development discourse” (2014), and Kunz and Maisenbacher (2013) on the other side focus on the “productive power” inherent in related international attempts to “responsibilize migrants for migration management”, establishing diaspora members as “partners" who, like states, “win” from international migration (Gamlen, 2014).

The dynamics of control do not take part merely within the borders of nation-states. Today, countries face an interconnected, globalized world illustrated by high velocity and scale of

flows of people, trade technology capital, and ideas. As the human mobility across borders expands, the means and mechanisms utilized to cope them grow as well. Since the late 20thc, an ever-growing number of transnational and international attempts have been made to regulate the events, affairs, and behaviour that exceed political borders.

According to interconnectedness theory, development actors, particularly the international financial institutions, have been one of the most influential producers of transnational procedures, norms, and notions, utilizing aid as a diffusion means. Jus as economic orthodoxy has developed “over time from an emphasis on the role of the state in planning and investment” in the early 1960s and 1970s, to the macroeconomic regulation and Washington Consensus of market liberalization of the 1980s, to poverty mitigation and market institutions in the 1990s, for the achievement of the MDGs and development of governance agents in the 2000s so, also, have aid modalities evolved in search of more effective means of translating these norms into development outcomes (Dollar, 2000).

1.6.1. The New Concept of Diaspora and Transnationalism

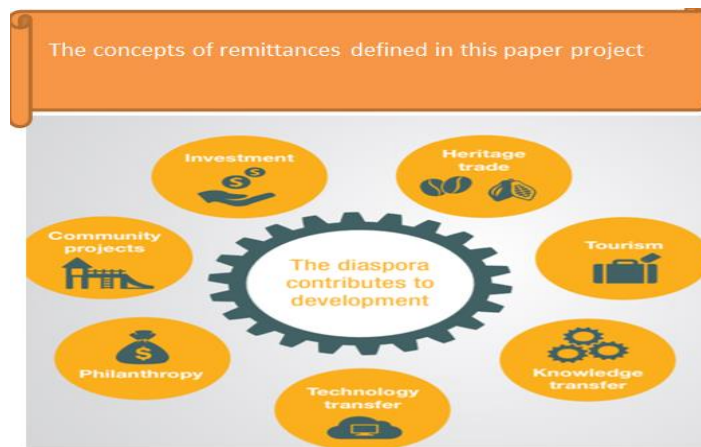
For the past few decades, transnationalism has been the main concern of social science themes (Sara et al.,2018). To illustrate the immigrant’s entry into a modern American life at early 1910, Randolph Bourne was used (Bourne, 1916) far “before the ground-breaking publication *Nations Unbound*”: *Transnational projects, postcolonial predicaments and the Deterritorialized National States*’ by Linda (1994). While transnationalism was used majorly to show an economic phenomenon, specifically the global reorganization of the production process, revealing it as an unavoidable structural-economic change beyond human tradition. Some scholars, such as Nina Glick et at., have defined Transnationalism, as a process through which immigrants form social arenas that bond together their homeland and their host country (1994, 1) and their aim was, as Glick (2007a) argued, not to only define patterns

of living across boundaries, although to advance the social theory that is not yet used “the nation-state as the principal unit of analysis” (Sara, 2018).

The increasing attentiveness of the cultural and spatial interconnectedness of individuals, cultural structure and things and also economic activities, which Glick Schiller and her partners headed, have encouraged scholars from various disciplines to reconsider their viewpoints and agendas of study. According to Waldinger (2013), correctly figured out, transnationalism becomes a conceptual landmark in the social sciences in common and migration research in particular (Pries, 2008). The enlargement of its conceptual extent caused not only an increase but also a compressing of the notion as Bauböck (2010) indicated in the introduction of the edited book on ‘ diaspora and Transnationalism ’.

“Transnational Approaches” perceive migration as a system including a person, households, extended families, and society at home and also an agent in destination countries. At the same time, they emphasize on the mobility of the people, goods, services and innovations beyond geographical limits, adherent of transnationalism also emphasis on the individuals and geography, and social, economic and political frameworks established within transnational networks (TNW), (Basch, 2008; Schiller, 2013). Migration and remittances can support development stages in home countries while bringing sociocultural, economic and psychological influences on the host and society. TN views, and to lower limits, New Economic Labor Movements, try reuniting agency, arrangement, and the context in people mobility-development discourses, that shall be the aim of practical action on the development power of peoples’ movement and remittances (Joseph, 2007 and Korbieh, 2008).

Fig 1. Concept of Remittances

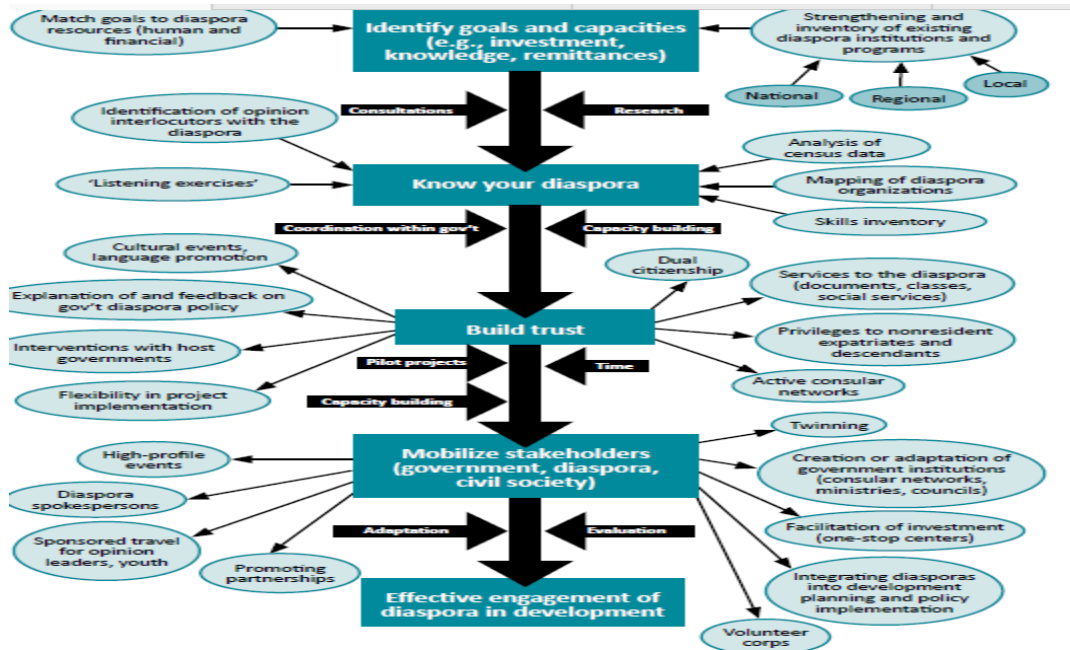


(Source: UNDP, 2018)

Remittances cannot be considered as a replacement for other inessential of development resources, but are the important financial source for various developing nations. Immigrants remittances institute one of key means by which diaspora leads to economic improvement in wealth within the household and communities in the homeland. As the diagram shows above, remittances can take various forms, such as financial, charity and social, everything that potentially helps family and society to get better off poverty and access to education and health upkeep, attaining quality of lives and other facilities that state alone may not fulfil (UNCTD, 2018).

1.7. Road map of diaspora Engagement policy

Figure 1 policy model

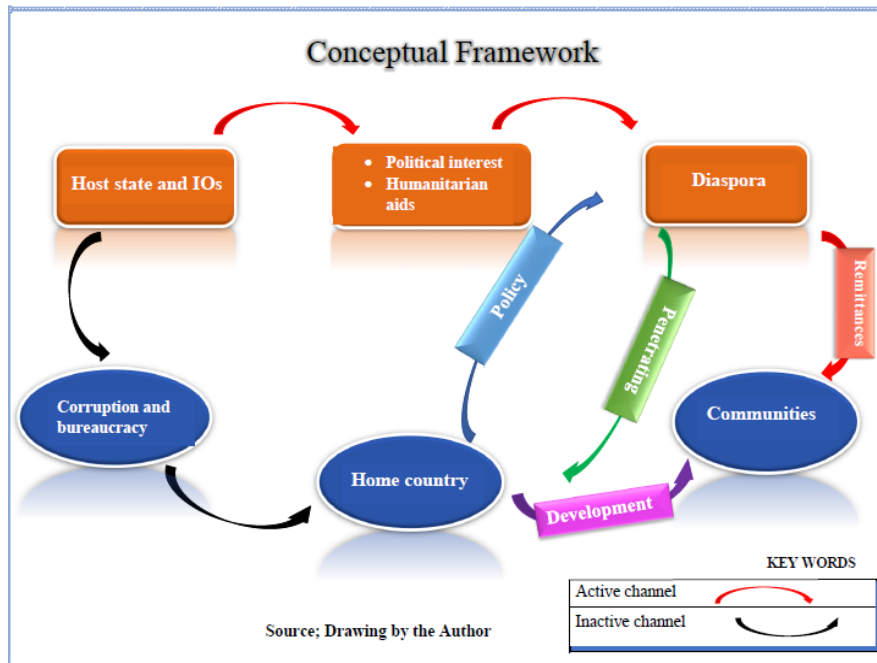


(Source IOM, 2012)

The author has adapted a diaspora engagement policy road map from the Handbook published by International Organization for Migration which was published in 2012 to use as optics to examine Ethiopian diaspora engagement policy approach. This Handbook is prepared for diaspora policy makers, host and home countries so that they could use it as a road map.

1.8. Conceptual Framework

Diagram 3 conceptual framework



1.9. Argument

To represent the researcher’s synthesis of the literature to explain a phenomenon in this thesis, the author uses the above conceptual diagrams. Because the conceptual framework elaborates not only the author’s synthesis but also helps explain the phenomenon and clarify the argument of the thesis.

Based on the conceptual framework that this research seeks to explain the role of diaspora in development by the support of homeland policy and as well as the role of host and IOs in facilitating the community development in Ethiopia, there are three hypotheses that this claims; first, beyond remittances, diaspora can support their community back home by offering humanitarian aid, technology transfer, enhancing good governance, knowledge and skill transfer, nation-building and etc. Second, engagement policies need to be inclusive; because setting appropriate policy of diaspora engagement can change brain drain into brain circulation; third, host-state can use diaspora as an agent to penetrate home-country for a

THESIS DIASPORA FOR DEVELOPMENT....TADELECH BUBAMO WELDE

different purpose. In another word, diaspora can be used as political, cultural and economic projects by IOs, NGOs and host states to provide aid through diaspora, by using them as a channel to reach out the needy community, when they have no confidence in government due to corruption and lack of transparency (Gamlen, 2012).

1.10. Research Methodology

This research is exploratory and qualitative, which is intended to understand the impacts of diaspora on development and state role in engaging diaspora.

1.9.1 Technique of data Collection

The process of data collection has mainly relied on secondary data sources from published books, academic journals, white paper (published on official internment) and available documents from the internet.

1.11. Scope of the Research

In 2002 the government of Ethiopia established specific organizations saddled with the mandate of motivating and cooperating diaspora in two of her Federal Ministries. This section of the Foreign Affairs Ministry is known as Ethiopian Expatriate Affairs General Directorate (EEAGD). Therefore, the time coverage of this research study limits its analysis from 2002 onward. The very specific deep emphasis of the conducted research will focus more on policy reforms and the sectors where diasporas are remitting, especially education, health and technology transfer.

1.12. Structure of the Discussion

Generally, this thesis has five chapters: the first chapter has included; introduction research questions, literature review and conclusions, objectives and significance of the research, theoretical framework, concepts of remittances, argument, knowledge gap in previous studies, the scope of the study, research types, and methodology. Chapter two started by summarizing emigration from Ethiopian, Ethiopian diaspora organizations in the USA and

areas of engagement in their homeland and also their network with NGOs. Chapter three discusses the Ethiopian diaspora engagement policy approach and reforms. In chapter four, beam its light on how the US as a host country and NGOs are engaging Ethiopian diasporas. In chapter five, the author has ended the discussion by drawing a conclusion on the topic.