T.C.
ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

# THE IMPACT OF ECONOMIC FACTORS ON EMIGRATION IN ZIMBABWE (2008-2019)

MASTER’S THESIS

**NOAH MAULANI**

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL POLICY

ANKARA, 2020

T.C.

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

# THE IMPACT OF ECONOMIC FACTORS ON EMIGRATION IN ZIMBABWE (2008-2019)

MASTER'S THESIS

**NOAH MAULANI**

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL POLICY

SUPERVISOR: PROF. DR. ERDAL TANAS KARAGÖL

ANKARA, 2020

# ÖZET

**Ekonomik Faktörlerin Zimbabve'de Göç Üzerindeki Etkisi (2008-2019)**

**Noah Maulani (175215722), Ankara Yıldırım Beyazit Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Sosyal Politika Anabilim Dalı**

Zimbabve'nin diğer ülkelere göçü, ekonomik, sosyal ve politik faktörleri içeren birçok faktör tarafından tetiklendi. Zimbabve'nin göçünün ana nedeni, 2008 ve 2019 yılları arasındaki zorlu ekonomik koşullardı. Zimbabve'liler göçü Zimbabve'de var olan yaşanmaz koşullardan kurtulmanın bir yolu olarak kull, and ılar. Zimbabve'nin göçünün zimbabwe'nin ekonomisi üzerinde hem olumlu hem de olumsuz etkileri vardı. Para transferleri ekonomi üzerinde olumlu bir etkiye sahipti ve altyapıyı geliştirmek ve yoksulluğu azaltmak için kullanıldı. Bununla birlikte, beyin göçü Zimbabve ekonomisi üzerinde olumsuz bir etkiye sahipti.
Yazar, göçün nedenlerini ve göçmenlerin zimbabwe'den diğer destinasyonlara göç etme kararını ne ölçüde etkilediğini araştırmak için karışık bir metodoloji kull, and ı. Covid - 19 p, and emisinin salgını nedeniyle, araştırmacı araştırmanın anketlerini yönetmek için çevrimiçi platformlardan yararl, and ı. Katılımcıların tepkilerinin derin bir analizinden sonra, araştırma, Zimbabve halkının önemli bir yüzdesinin göç ettikleri hedef ülkelerdeki ekonomik statülerini ilerletmek için göç ettiğini buldu. Ekonomik nedenlerden dolayı göç etmenin yanı sıra, çalışma Zimbabve halkının eğitim ve aile birleşimi de dahil olmak üzere başka nedenlerle göç ettiğini buldu. Araştırmacı, Zimbabve hükümetinin zimbabve'deki göçü dengelemek için uygulayabileceği tavsiyelerde bulundu.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** Zimbabve, göç, ekonomik faktörler, ekonomik olmayan faktörler.

# ABSTRACT

**The Impacts of Economic Factors on Emigration in Zimbabwe (2008-2019)**


**Noah Maulani (175215722), Ankara Yıldırım Beyazit University, Graduate School of Social Sciences, Department of Social Policy**

The emigration of Zimbabweans to other countries was triggered by many factors that included economic, social, and political factors. The major cause for the emigration of Zimbabweans was the hard-economic conditions between the years 2008, and 2019. Zimbabweans used emigration as a way of surviving the unliveable conditions that existed in Zimbabwe. Emigration of Zimbabweans had both favorable , and unfavorable effects on Zimbabwe's economy. Remittances were a favorable effect on the economy, and were used for the development of infrastructure, and were also used to reduce poverty. However, brain drain had a negative impact on the economy of Zimbabwe. The researcher used mixed methodology to investigate the reasons for emigration, and to what extent the factors influenced the decision of emigrants to emigrate from Zimbabwe to other destinations. Due to the outbreak of the COVID- 19 pandemic, the researcher utilized online platforms to administer questionnaires of the research. After a deep analysis of the responses from the participants, the research found that a significant percentage of Zimbabweans emigrated for advancing their economic status in destination countries they emigrated to. Apart from emigrating for economic reasons, the research also discovered that Zimbabweans emigrated for other reasons that included education, and family reunion. The researcher provided recommendations the government of Zimbabwe can implement to balance migration in Zimbabwe.

**Keywords**: Zimbabwe, emigration, economic factors, non-economic factors.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

# ABBREVIATIONS

AfDB – African Development Bank

CPI – Consumer Price Index

EU – European Union

GDP – Gross Domestic Product

ILO – International Labour Organisation

IMF – International Monetary Fund

RBZ – Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe

ZIMSTAT – Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

# CHAPTER 1

## 1.1 Introduction

It is more transparent that the present magnitude of global migration is out of the ordinary, surging, and with unimaginable impact on the globe. Statistics for the year 2019 showed that 270 million people lived not in their country of birth. Mixed migration consists of people who migrate on both involuntary, and voluntary basis, asylum seekers, and refugees. The impacts of migration on economies are often given less priority in contrast to humanitarian aid. Investigating these impacts from an economic point of view can provide policymakers with research-based knowledge that can be used to craft key policies addressing the growing problem. Crafting all-inclusive laws that endorse the amalgamation of economic, and noneconomic emigrants into hosting countries, can better manage the movement of emigrants as well as alleviating unfavorable effects on economies in a region. This requires host nations to guarantee that the necessary tools, and resources for example local language training courses, affordable education, and employment opportunities can be accessed with ease upon arrival. This entails that host nations to make available infrastructures that permit migrants to effortlessly connect with their country of origin through easy cash transfers, and unrestricted movement, without any risk of being deprived of re-entry.

The study used mixed research approach to gather, and analyze data to draw an informed conclusion, and suggest recommendations the government of Zimbabwe can consider implementing to reduce migration imbalances. The study sort to find the main reasons for Zimbabweans to emigrate to other destinations, and give a better, and fathomable explanation of this trend.

## 1.2 Background to the Study

Over the past 40 years, Zimbabwe's net migration has been driven mainly by domestic factors. Zimbabwe has been affected by social, economic, and political challenges that have stirred migration within, and outside of the border of Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe's social, political, and economic crises are the primary drivers of the movement of professionals, and skilled workers within Zimbabwe, and to other countries. An estimate of above four million Zimbabweans has been reported to be living abroad on both a temporary and permanent basis. Internal migration in Zimbabwe is triggered by major events such as economic meltdown, and natural disasters. With regard to international migration, Zimbabwe has shifted from being a receiving country of migrants to a sending country (Mlambo, , 2010).

The deflationary and depressed economic environment pushed many Zimbabweans out of Zimbabwe to other destinations, for instance, the United Kingdom, and South Africa searching for better economic conditions. Zimbabweans who have moved to other cities and countries for increased economic opportunities fall under the bracket umbrella term 'economic migrants.' Therefore, economic migrants can be defined as people who move from their native land for economic purposes and only to seek material betterment in their lives. Economic migrants end up accepting working conditions, and salaries that are not standard, and hard for the people in the hosting countries to accept thus threatening the employment chances of the people in the host countries. Economic migrants become victims of hate speeches, and violence targeted on foreigners because they accept working conditions that are not acceptable to the locals of the host countries.

The Neoclassical view that argues that the movement of people is triggered by the availability of jobs, better wages, and better working conditions (Vuuren, 2012). In the 1960s Zimbabwe was chosen by the British colonizers to become a place of many industries where labor was exported from countries such as Malawi, and Mozambique (Mutopo, 2014. ). This was a time when people from different origins came to seek mining and farming jobs in the mines, and farms that were owned by the white minority in Zimbabwe (Rutherford, 2001). During this period, migration was working in favor of Zimbabwe because it resulted in the economic, and infrastructural development that was mainly composed of migrant workers.

The increased growth in migration rose at the end of 1970. The extended fight for freedom triggered the humongous domestic, and international migration of Zimbabweans in need of safe, and protected zones (Dzingirai, et al., 2015). Townships were fairly secure as compared to rural areas, this indicates why Salisbury (now Harare- the capital city of Zimbabwe), and

Bulawayo were more attractive, and most preferred destinations for many economically active rural dwellers (Anich, Crush , Melde , & Ouchu , 2014). This movement of Zimbabweans from rural areas to urban areas would be reduced immediately after there was a ceasefire. This was the migration trend that was triggered by war prior to the attainment of independence.

The new migration trend began right after Zimbabwe was declared an independent state in the early 1980s, and extends to the present-day. This new trend of migration resulted from economic reforms the government implemented and can be categorized into two categories (Crush & Tevera , 2010). The first category of migration after independence increased in the late 1990s owing to the adoption of the economic structural adjustment programs (ESAPS), and the second category increased in the early 2000s after the government implemented l, and reform that led to 2008's economic that had GDP shrinking by 50%, and hyperinflation (ZIMSTATS, 2012 ). Zimbabwe's total unemployment rates surpassed 70%, prompting people to migrate from Zimbabwe to other destinations with increased employment opportunities (Rusvingo, 2015). This became the new migration trend that was primarily driven by poor economic conditions.

The migration of Zimbabweans in the country, and internationally rose due to several identifiable domestic factors. Internal factors that led to the migration of Zimbabweans (both local, and international) includes economic hardships, inflation, unemployment, low rate of industrialization, droughts, high level of corruption within the government, unproductiveness of local farmers, increased numbers of illegal drug users, and uncertainty of power of the Zimbabwean dollar. Many Zimbabweans have been intentionally, and unintentionally participating in forced migration.

A large volume of Zimbabweans has emigrated to countries like the United Kingdom, and South Africa seeking asylums. The major reasons for seeking asylum include fear of political persecution and political instability. With these uncertain economic, and political environments, most Zimbabweans have moved from one city to another within Zimbabwe, and from Zimbabwe to other countries with high hopes of getting better living conditions. This movement of Zimbabweans in, and out of Zimbabwe has negatively affected the rate of growth development that is worth making further investigation. The unbalanced migration patterns had both favorable, and favorable effects on the growth of the economic, social structure such as family structure, the political image of the country, and the supply, and demand of labor in the country. A brief comparison will be made on the migration outlook for Zimbabwe, and Turkey to find room for improvement of migration policies in Zimbabwe.

### 1.3 Problem Statement

The emigration of Zimbabweans to other countries has risen triple-fold at the beginning of the 21st Century due to several identifiable economic factors. Between 2008, and 2019 (time understudy), the economic factors that were leading to the emigration of Zimbabweans include economic hardships, inflation, unemployment, low rate of industrialization, unproductiveness of local farmers, and uncertainty of power of the Zimbabwean currency. The period under investigation (2008-2019) was characterized by hyperinflation, currency, and economic policies inconsistence, alleged violent elections (of 2008, 2013, and 2018), Government of National Unity (GNU) of 2009, and the end of a 37year presidency of the late Robert Gabriel Mugabe. These factors prompted migration leading to the researcher selecting 2008 to 2019 as the period to be studied. Because of the aforementioned factors, a large volume of Zimbabweans has emigrated to countries such as the United Kingdom, and South Africa for economic gains. The emigration of Zimbabweans to other near and long distant countries negatively affected the rate of economic growth that was worth making further investigation.

### 1.4 Research Purpose

The study investigated factors leading to emigration in Zimbabwe with the purpose of identifying the primary factors driving migration in Zimbabwe. The study also examined the extent to which economic factors have influenced the emigration of Zimbabweans. The research analyzed the economic environment, and conditions leading to the emigration of Zimbabweans, with the aim of finding ways of reversing this emigration pattern. The study also examined in brief Turkey's migration patterns with the purpose of getting lessons, and improve Zimbabwe's policies, and conditions that can lead to return migration. Therefore, the main purpose of the research was to analyze Zimbabwe's factors that determined the pace of emigration of Zimbabweans, in order to identify possible solutions to this emigration dilemma.

### 1.5 Research Significance

The relevance and importance of this study were to trace the factors that destabilized the economic environment, and conditions that drive the emigration of Zimbabweans.

Zimbabwe's economic environment was the key determinant of the emigration of Zimbabweans. Analyzing these economic conditions enlightened their effects on crucial development elements thus establishing the importance of this study. Breaking down economic factors that affect the emigration of Zimbabweans led to the discovery of policy structures that can become the source of return migration to Zimbabwe.

### 1.6 Research Objectives

1) To investigate the main causes of emigration in Zimbabwe
2) To examine the extent to which economic factors influenced the decisions of Zimbabweans to emigrate to other countries
3) To evaluate the impacts of emigration on the economy of Zimbabwe.

### 1.7 Research Questions

1) What are the main causes of emigration in Zimbabwe?
2) To what extent have economic factors influenced the decision of Zimbabweans to emigrate?
3) What is the impact of emigration on the economy of Zimbabwe?

# CHAPTER 2:

## 2. Literature Review

The evaluation of literature on Zimbabwe's economy and migration history is covered within an outline that included pre-independence years (1965-1979), the new government at independence (1980-1979), the economic liberalization years (1990-2000), the economic crises era (2001-2007) as well as post-2007. The movement of people in, and out of Zimbabwe antedated arranged colonial boundaries created by the colonialists such that even after the founding of these boundaries Zimbabweans continued moving in, and out of Zimbabwe for various reasons. Hence, the movement of Zimbabweans in, and out of Zimbabwe was driven by socio-economic, and political factors. Emigration of Zimbabweans to countries like the United Kingdom and South Africa gained momentum after the occurrences of a series of events that had negative impacts on the st, and ard of living of most Zimbabweans. The motive for general migration became more socio-economic, and political.

Zimbabwe, now officially known as the Republic of Zimbabwe, formerly Rhodesia, is a landlocked sovereign state in the southeast region of Africa. Zimbabwe shares a 200kilometer border with the Republics of South Africa, Botswana, Zambia (Arnold, 2014 ). The capital city for Zimbabwe is Harare. Zimbabwe attained a majority rule, and independence on 18 April 1980 after a lengthy period of British colonial rule, and a 15-year term of white-dominated rule under Ian Smith from 1965 (Moorcraft & McLaughlin, 2010).

Ian Smith who was a former Prime Minister Rhodesia(now Zimbabwe) on 11 November 1965 Rhodesia was no longer under the rule of the United Kingdom. The newly Rhodesian government under Smith crafted a new constitution. The then British Prime Minister (Harold Wilson), declared the new Rhodesia of Smith an illegal state, and an act of rebellion (Watts, 2005) . In 1965 the United Nations Security Council declared actions (of declaring Rhodesia independent from the British Empire) by Smith illegal, and called on the then Prime Minister of Britain, Wilson, to resolve the dispute. The British government responded by suspending the leadership of the Reserve Bank of Rhodesia and froze Rhodesian assets in Britain. Britain further reacted by imposing economic sanctions on Rhodesia in the same year (Mlambo A. S., 2008). The British Prime Minister, Harold

Wilson, called upon the United Nations for backup to put an end to the Rhodesian insurgence (Watts, 2005).

Rhodesia received economic sanctions in 1965, and Smith's government responded by adopting measures that strengthened the economy through the promotion of local manufacturing to create a non-reliance, and self-sufficient country in major (Michel, 2018). Smith's government also intervened by controlling prices of goods, and services, salary rates, interest rates, and the rate of currency exchange (Gowlland-Debbas, 1990). This boosted protectionism, local investment, and contributed to increased economic growth from 1965 to 1973. Inflation during this period did not exceed 4 % per year, and the economy grew by 8 % yearly. Nevertheless, this growth was transient and ended in 1974 because of the negative effects of the liberation war, sanctions from the international community, and the oil-linked worldwide recession (Masaka, 2011).

Before independence, Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe) established an economy that relied on the manufacturing of limited primary products, particularly, tobacco, and chrome (Kandiah, 2001). Therefore, such reliance was easily affected by economic shocks. The economy thrived and invited more white immigrants increasing their numbers to 307,000 from 200,000 (Makambe, 1980). The composition of these immigrants who later settled in Zimbabwe included the British middle class, Tanzanians, Angolans, Belgian Congo, Kenyans, and people from Mozambique (Scott, 1954)A fairly balanced economy was established that saw Rhodesia transforming from being a primary producer who relied on farming into an industrial economy that was diversified. (Rakodi, 1986). These economic achievements received less contribution from foreign aid.

In the second decade after independence, the Zimbabwean government began implementing economic reforms through the ESAPs, joined the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) (Moore, 2001) during the Laurent Kabila era in the late 1990s that negatively affected the national budget, and the government also paid off war-veterans huge amounts of money that were not budget for (Murisa, 2010). In the same period, many professionals lost their jobs due to the downsizing of industries, and in 1992 there was a drought that reduced food security in Zimbabwe. From the year 2000 to 2018, the government implemented the Land  Reform Program that further reduced agricultural outputs, the Zimbabwean dollar began to lose value at a fast rate, prices of basic good increased, the government started to fail to provide basic services such as medical services due to lack of funds, and social service systems collapsed (Cliffe, Alexander, Cousins, & Gaidzanwa, 2011). All these domestic factors prompted the emigration of Zimbabwe to other countries notably South Africa, Namibia, the United States of America, and the United Kingdom.

In 1980, yearly inflation was at 5.4 %, and monthly inflation was averaged at 0.5 % (Chhibber, 1989). The currency of ZW$2, ZW$5, ZW$10, and ZW$20 notes were issued by the central bank (Coorey, Clausen, , Funke, Muñoz, & & Ould-Abdal, 2007). At the time of independence, the exchange rate between the United States dollar, and the Zimbabwean dollar stood at 1,48 USD: 1 Zimbabwean dollar meaning that the Zimbabwean dollar was more powerful than the United States dollar. Over 95 % of any money transactions are conducted in local currency. After the Lancaster House Agreement of 1979, the majority ruled in early 1980, and sanctions were lifted, and under the new government, Zimbabweans enjoyed a short-term economic improvement. Zimbabwe's economic growth between1980, and 1981 surpassed 20% (Tigere, 2016). Nevertheless, increased foreign demand Zimbabwe's precious minerals, and droughts reduced the economic growth rate between 1982, and 1984. A transient economic recovery in 1985 came from the processing of agricultural products. (Richardson, 2007). Between 1980, and 1990, the county's GDP grew averagely by 4.5%

The economy began to fail after the government paid off bonuses to war veterans in 1997 (the was equivalent to 3 % of the country's Gross Domestic Product). The government also joined the Congo War in 1998 that resulted in overspending due to that commitment (Bolt, 2015). In the year 1999, Zimbabwe was a victim of a drought that further deteriorated the economy more to which the country could not recover from (Mukwada & Manatsa , 2013). In 1999, Zimbabwe faced its first delinquency on its arrears from the World Bank International, Monetary Fund, and African Development Bank, adding to arrears from Western lenders thus reducing its eligibility, and credibility to borrow from the international financiers.

The period between 1980, and 2018 saw the beginning of mixed trends of migration that were a reaction to major natural, and man-made events in Zimbabwe. The first decade after the attainment of independence, was a decade of balanced migration with people from countries such as Germany, Russia, and the United Kingdom coming to Zimbabwe with investment intentions mainly in areas of mining, and agriculture (Potts, 2010). In the same period, the government of Zimbabwe introduced key educational reforms that resulted in many Zimbabweans becoming more educated in different fields of the economy thus started migrating for economic reasons.

Before the year 1990, Zimbabwe experienced eras of mixed economic achievements. Between 1960, and 1980, the country's GDP growth proportions were approximately 4.5 % per year, indicating policies implemented by the government that promoted local investment in agriculture, and manufacturing (Moyo & Tsakata Mafuso, 2017). The policies that followed were aimed at creating a self-sufficient, and non-reliant country (Doxey, 1987). Starting from independence, the country's economic performances were mixed, resulting from policy inconsistency, and unfavorable weather conditions that directly had a negative effect on agricultural productivity. Zimbabwe recorded its robust after-independence economic performance between 1980, and 1990 (Moyo & Tsakata Mafuso, 2017). The government social assistance schemes such as subsidized education and health programs overwhelmed the government's sources of finance (Makina, 2016). The decision to emigrate was made based on the changes in the economy.

The liberation came with a revival in the economy, with the country's GDP growth per annum at 5.5% from 1980 to 1990. Economic development in the country exceeded the normal rates for Sub-Saharan Africa between 1980, and 1990 (Moyo & Tsakata Mafuso, 2017). The economic development was driven by positive internal, and external conditions such as the removal of economic sanctions by the international community, demand of local products, and economic liberalization. The period was characterized by temporary economic improvements as well as meltdowns that were caused by unfavorable weather conditions (Makina, 2016). The overall tendency of the economy in the 1990s indicated low investment, an adverse internal milieu, and reductions in output from manufacturing companies because of lack of foreign currencies (Mutopo, 2014. ).

From 2000 to 2008, reduced economic activities in Zimbabwe resulted in a sharp decline of 50 % in GDP. The economic crises were induced by several factors varying from poor economic policy enactment, and implementation, poor governance, loss of trust, and support from international actors, low investment, and capital flight from Zimbabwe (Makina, 2016). The inflation rates amplified greatly from the year 2000, reaching quadruple numbers in 2006. In 2007, hyperinflation sparked and was the highest in 2008 in the world.

This was caused by printing valueless currency from the central bank, increased public expenditures by the government. Continued high rates of inflation in the country led to real output reduction because of the high cost of production, and price control heightened shortages of basic needs (Gallagher & Muzorewa, , 2017). Claiming of productive commercial farms, and s by the unskilled black Zimbabweans from the skilled white farmers who had the capital to maintain production weakened food productivity.

Zimbabwe's slow economic development reflected low levels of investment (Murisa, 2010). The level of local, and foreign investment in the country since 2000 was insufficient to maintain levels of existing capital and was unable to increase productivity. This resulted in poor economic performance in turn had a domino effect of increased poverty levels, and high unemployment rates (Besada & Moyo, , 2008). The poverty rates grew from 42% to 63 % between 1995, and 2003. Income inequality increased and was at 57% in 2003 using the Gini coefficient (Makina, 2016). In 2015, the unemployment rate was at 80 % (Chitiyo, Vines, & Vandome , 2016). In 1980, Zimbabwe was ranked number ten in countries with high gross national income (GNI) per capita in the Sub-Saharan countries region, but in 2005 it was in the 34th position out of a total of 48 Sub-Saharan countries. (Makina, 2016).

Between 1999, and 2008, Zimbabwe's main economic sectors (manufacturing, agriculture, and mining) contracted because of policy inconsistency that reduced the economy's capability to respond to shocks. Agriculture drives Zimbabwe's economy. While agriculture's contribution to the country's GDP was less than manufacturing, agriculture continued to contribute to export percentage as well as providing sustained livelihoods for most Zimbabweans (Chitiyo, Vines, & Vandome , 2016). Agriculture had a direct link to manufacturing as the sector provided raw materials essential in the manufacturing sector. (Besada & Moyo, , 2008). Agricultural productivity reduced drastically especially after the implementation of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme. (Dzingirai, et al., 2015). From 1999 to 2008 agriculture's value-added reduce by 66 %. The overall reduction was mainly caused by the implementation of fast track land reform program, unfavorable weather, capital flight, poor infrastructure, and excessive control of prices (Huni, 2018). Lack of property right negatively affected agriculture by shunning away investment.

Under heavy protection, and government funding, the manufacturing industry realized significant growth in the 1960s. Nevertheless, since attaining sovereignty in 1980, the output of the manufacturing sector grew at a tortoise's pace. In the first decade of independence, the annual growth of the manufacturing sector was averaged at 2.7% that was less when compared to the annual growth of 11 % recorded between 1965, and 1975 (Sibanda. D, 2016). Economic development was reduced by an overvalued exchange rate and limited foreign currency. The manufacturing sector's value slightly increased in the second decade of independence after the government implemented economic reforms such as economic liberalization, and reduced import restriction. Manufacturing led all other sectors of the economy between 1990, and 2000 (Sikwila, 2013). However, the manufacturing sector declined after the year 2000 when agriculture was no longer productive. The declining tendencies in the manufacturing sector resulted from several factors that included policy inconsistency, high rates of inflation, increased shortages of foreign currency, the unrealistic exchange rate of the local currency, and the USD, fuel shortages, labor emigration, and excessive price control.

The services sector significantly contributed to Zimbabwe's GDP and accounted for approximately 48%, and 49 % of GDP in the 1980s, and 1990s respectively. While the services sector's value addition reduced by 18 % between 2000, and 2008, its GDP share grew to 54 % in the same period as agriculture, and manufacturing sectors were shrinking because of the economic crises (Moyana H. V., 2002). The services sector's economic activities that included tourism, personal services, transportation, communications, and financial services deteriorated rapidly with time due to poor governance, and lack of rule of law.

Zimbabwe's migration patterns can be explained in the socio-economic, and political context. Between 1965, and 1990, Zimbabwe had a balanced migration pattern. While the non-native population who were living in Zimbabwe approximated 626,821 in 1990, the number reduced to 207,000 by 2014 (Chikanda, 2005). These immigrants engaged in economic activities in agriculture, and manufacturing, and some were employed in the informal sector. Before 1990, labor moved to Zimbabwe because the economy was offering better employment. The immigrants possessed special skills in areas such as agriculture, and mining (Chikanda, 2005). After the year 2000, a large number of foreigners (among them were investors and knowledgeable farmers) flew the country after the government poorly implemented the fast track land reform program that was characterized by human rights violation, foreigner intimidation, and violence. At the time the country's foreign relations soured because of the human rights violation, property rights violation, and torture of foreigners (Maphosa, Makurira, & Juru, 2019). Many Zimbabweans lost their jobs because companies downsized, closed down as well as moved capital to countries with favorable conditions.

Migration specialists such as Massey et al. (1998) identified major theoretical approaches of global migration as well as categorizing them into theoretical approaches that describe the commencement, and continuation of migration (Massey, et al., 1993). The ignition of migration can be explained by the following four main theories of migration that are the Dual Labour Market Theory, the New Economics of Labour Migration, Neo-classical Economic Theory, and the World Systems Theory. From these theories of migration, indicators causing migration are identified. The indicators causing migration as derived from the mentioned theories of migration are wage disparities between two regions, the availability of employment in two countries, and disparities in the standards of living in two countries. Wage differences between states may continue to exist for decades (Massey et al.1998). This ignition of migration may prompt the emigration of labor to flow as long as these wage differences continue to exist. Salary inequality can be the ignitor of emigration from a country (Jennissen, 2004). The Institutional theory and Network theory explain why migration flows might continue in the future. These theories attempt to elucidate reasons for migration flows might continue to rise if the initial inducement to migrate has reduced.

This research focused on emigration at a macro-level that emphasizes the macroopportunity structure such as the economic structure of a country covering wage, and employment opportunity differentials. From the aforementioned theories, the Neoclassical Economic theory was chosen by the researcher because it theoretically explains better wages and employment opportunity differentials with precision. The Neoclassical Economic was the earliest theories established to enlighten labor migration (Harris & Todaro, 1970). The theory views migration as resulting from topographical disparities between demand, and supply of labor. These disparities occur both at the internal (or national) level and international level. International migration is triggered by wage differences in countries as well as labor markets (Todaro, 1976). According to this theory, if wage differences were removed, the migration of labor from one region to another would stop. The Neoclassical Economic theory states that most labor migrants move from poor places to rich places, and investment moves in the reverse route, with higher expectations of profit from investments made in less developed countries (Lewis, 1954). The Neoclassical Economic theory also states that workers that have acquired high skills migrate from rich countries where there is capital to poor countries that do not have the capital to secure higher earnings on their learned skills. Labour markets remain chief instruments encouraging emigration.

At the micro-level, the Neo-classical Economics thesis states that migration of laborforce internationally is triggered by inequalities in employment remuneration as well as employment rates and that emigrants assume that employment remuneration is higher in the destination countries than their countries of origins (Arango, 2017). The Neoclassical theory argues that people with a higher potential to emigrate approximate and evaluate the benefits, and costs of relocating. According to the Neoclassical Theory, the emigrants calculate and estimates the cost of emigrating with expectations of attaining the highest benefits in a specified time (Constant & Massey, 2002). The available capital to migrate for each potential emigrant can boost their possibility of employed in the potential destination and expects higher returns, and hence affects the likelihood of each person to migrate. According to this concept, the mentioned elements can affect the likelihood of a person intending to emigrating. The Neoclassical theory argues that migration is projected to extend only and until expected earnings (incomes, and employability) have been equalized at the international level (Vanhove, 2018). The Neoclassical theory not only considers the different wages in the scrutiny but also personal characteristics that determine employability, and employment remunerations (Brown & Lauder, 2006). The theory also put into serious consideration the general working conditions, and technologies in the destination country, that will assist potential emigrants to calculate the overall cost of migration. In a nutshell, the decisions to emigrate, as stated by the Neoclassical theory, are made by the people intending to migrate stemming from differences in labor markets.

Table 1 Literature analysis

| **Author** | **Main concept** | **Main findings** |
|---|---|---|
| Lewis (1954) | Neoclassical theory | Labour is transferred from developing countries to developed countries, and the rich countries invest in poor countries to maximize profits by exploiting cheap labor , and loose investment policies |
| Scott (1954) | Sources of immigrants to Zimbabwe | Immigrants came from Britain, Belgian Congo, Kenya, Tanzania, and Mozambique |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Makambe (1980) | Migration, and population before independence | About 200,000 whites immigrated to Zimbabwe, and the white population increased to 307,000 |
| Rakodi (1986) | Economic stability before independence | A balanced economy was established, and Zimbabwe diversified its economy becoming the manufacturing giant in the region |
| Chhibber (1989) | Zimbabwean currency postindependence | After independence, ZW$2, ZW$5, ZW$10, and ZW$20 notes were issued. |
| Massey (1998) | Wage differentials | Differences in wages trigger migration, and people emigrate from countries offering low wages to countries offering high wages. |
| Moore (2001) | Post-independence economic programs implemented by the government | The government implemented the Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAPs), joined the Congo war, paid warveterans with unbudgeted money, , and the Fast Track L, and Reform Program (FTLRP) |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Kandiah (2001) | The economic history of Zimbabwe | Zimbabwe's economy was based on limited primary products mainly chrome, and tobacco |
| Watts (2005) | 1965 sanctions in Zimbabwe | Zimbabwe was sanctioned for the creation of the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) |
| Mlambo (2008) | Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) foreign assets | Zimbabwe's foreign assets were frozen after the Smith government created an independent government, and affected the economy |
| Besada, and Moyo (2009) | GDP of Zimbabwe | Zimbabwe's GDP started to drop each year after independence |
| Potts (2010) | Migration trends after independence | Mixed migration trends were observed with investors from Germany, Russia, and Britain moving to Zimbabwe |
| Cliffe, Alexander, Cousins, and Gaidzanwa (2011) | Service delivery system in Zimbabwe | The government of Zimbabwe started to fail to provide basic needs , and the failure was connected to the performance of the economy |
| Masaka (2011) | Inflation 1965-1973 | Inflation averaged at 4 percent annually |
| Anold (2014) | Location of Zimbabwe | Zimbabwe is in the southern Africa region with South Africa, Botswana, |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | | Mozambique, and Namibia as its neighbors |
| Dzingirai et al (2015) | Failing of the key economic sectors of Zimbabwe | Agriculture, manufacturing, mining, and service sectors shrunk because of poor policies implemented by the government of Zimbabwe resulting in increased rates of unemployment |
| Chitiyo, Vine, and Vandome (2016) | Unemployment rates | An average of 80 percent unemployment rate was recorded after 2008 |
| Makina (2016) | Inflation after 2005 | In 2007 there was hyperinflation that made it difficult for people to save for investment. |
| Tigere (2016) | Inflation after independence | After independence, inflation exceeded 20 percent leading to impulse buying. |

## 2. 1 Conceptual Framework

The research's conceptual framework is centered on Ravenstein's Law (5, and 8) of Migration which are:

Law 5: Migrants move to further destinations with well-established, and advanced industries (Ravenstein , 1885).

Law 8: Migration is caused by economic factors (Ravenstein , 1885).

According to Law 5 of Ravenstein's Law of Migration, most migrants who travel from their original countries are men who are educated. The canters of commerce and industry are characterized by employment opportunities, and wages as compensation for employment (Lee, 1966). Labour is transferred from areas of low industrialization to areas of high industrialization where they have an opportunity to be employed. Law 8 of

Ravenstein's Law of Migration detailed that the chief determinant of migration is the stability of an economy of a state (Ravenstein , 1885). An economy that has a high level of uncertainty pushes migrants from places of birth resulting in the emigration of important labor. The concept of the movement of Zimbabweans from Zimbabwe, and the causes of the movement is best conceptualized by Law 5, and 8 of Ravenstein's Law of Migration.

The study used indicators of the economy that include wage differences, the availability of employment, working conditions, standards of living, and economic advancement to analyze the movement of labor from Zimbabwe. These indicators are also discussed in breadth, and depth by the research in the following paragraphs.

The availability of employment is an economic indicator that is used by many people to determine if they can emigrate or not. For an advanced understanding of employment, the research stated by defining what employment is. ILO describes the unemployed as individuals capable of working who report that they are not working, have been actively, and continuously looking for employment for at least two fortnights; and are prepared to work if given job opportunities (International Labour Organization, 2019 ). This definition of employment from the International Labour Organisation also includes people who are working in the sector that is not regulated by the government as employed. However, a condition called "working while poor" is not covered in the definition of employment from the International Labour Organisation. Working while the poor is defined as individuals who are employed but their wages fall below the poverty line. These individuals are unable to access basic needs with the employment remuneration that is below the poverty line. At this point, the research introduces the concept of productive employment to further fathom decent employment. The International Labour Organization (ILO) has defined employment that is productive as a type of a profession that generates sufficient income(s) to permit a worker to provide a decent extent of consumption above the poverty line to his/her dependents (Ripley & Hartrich, 2017). With this type of employment, workers can live above destitution lines.

The availability of employment depends on the level of industrialization a country has achieved, functioning industries, and investment in the country. A country that has achieved a higher level of industrialization can offer employment to its citizens, and incoming emigrants (Kohli, 2004). The country is characterized by low rates of unemployment and the citizens who are unemployed file for unemployment benefits from the government. The number of functioning industries in a country is a determinant of the availability of employment in the country (Singh & Jun, 1999). A country that has more industries that are functioning at full capacity, can employ most of its citizens, and immigrants as well. Low industrial capacity results in high unemployment rates. This triggers the emigration of citizens to a county characterized by high industrial capacity.

Both local, and international investments lead to the creation of employment in a country. A country that has citizens who can save money, has more local investors than a country with citizens who cannot save. Good policies, stable economy, and pollical stability lure international investors, and poor policies, unstable economy coupled with political instability shun international investors. Investment creates job opportunities for both the citizens of a country and immigrants. Enhancements of the investment environment are vital for job creation in a country (Ndao, Hima, Rabiou, & Lama, 2004). The establishment of new industries and the development of current industries in the economy are preconditions for employment creation thus reducing unemployment rates in a country. The significance of establishing new industries creates expands, and create new jobs in sectors of the economy. Newly established industries offer employment opportunities to employment seekers, and employees retrenched from downsizing or closed industries. (Reynolds, et al., 2005)

A wage differential is defined as the difference in remunerations between workers possessing similar skills in different localities, and different industries. It is used by potential emigrants to evaluate the benefits of moving to a different geographical area. According to Neoclassical theory wage differentials are determinants used by migrants to decide to move to another geographical region (Petras, 1981). According to the Neoclassical theory, wage differences in sending countries, and receiving countries is the major variable for explaining trends of migrations. Static models are used to forecast the percentage of individuals considering migration to increase chances of attaining better wages (Todaro, 1976). As a result, the Neoclassical theory implies that the immigrant populace in the receiving country rises if economic disparities continue.

The determinants of wages include the level of education attained, human capital such as training, and work experience. The migrant with the highest level of education, personal training, and more years of experience is likely to move from a country where the employment remuneration is low or has no value to a country where the employment remuneration is high. The following wage equation sums up the determinants of the wage of worker:

$$W=X(E+H)$$

Where *W* is the wage, *X* is skills acquired, and X is made up of *E* which represents the education level, and *H* represents human capital such as training and work experience.

Economic factors determine standards of the labor of the country, employment, and unemployment rates as well as the overall performance of its economy. If economic environments are unfavorable and show signs of possible further decline, more individuals will consider emigrating to a destination with a healthy economy. This may lead to people migrating from rural to urban areas, and from their country of origin to another country.

Economic migrants are tempted to participate in cross-border emigration with high expectations of accessing better employment opportunities, higher labor compensation, and to flee unfavorable economic environments existing in their home country. These emigrants originate from low, and middle-income countries where the level of literacy is increasing (Piesse, 2014). Labour compensation for individuals with low educational backgrounds in low-, and medium-income countries remains relatively low as compared to those individuals with the same educational status in higher-income countries. This wage difference gives highly-skilled individuals high wage expectations in high-income countries thus migrating from low-income countries migrating to high-income countries. This type of migration is also called south-north migration, and for many decades been the major type of economic migration. The "south" is characterized by very limited employment opportunities, low wages, and dehumanizing working conditions whereas the "north" has more employment opportunities, high wages as well as better working conditions. This type of migration is driven by the income gap between low-income countries, and high-income countries.

In south-north migration, people from low-income countries migrate to high-income countries for employment purposes, and they sent remittances to family members in their home country. South-south migration has increased between 2000, and 2019. For example, in 2013 south-south, and south-north migration accounted for 36%, and 35% of all international migration respectively (United-Nations, 2014). South to south migration is determined by an individual's identity connections, proximity, income disparities as well as seasonal economic activities. Due to the aforementioned reasons, 80% of south-south migration occurs between countries with adjoining borders where similar cultural identities may be established (Ratha & Shaw , 2007). South-south migration is increasing because of fewer barriers to migration such as visa-free, and reduced costs of travel as well as relocation. In general, migrants coming from the south are less skilled and have attained low education levels therefore becoming difficult for them to travel to high-income countries.

To a greater degree do economic migrants possess the power to choose their next destination than humanitarian migrants. Many humanitarian migrants such as asylum seekers, and refugees escape to the closest safe country that will admit them but economic migrants can travel to other countries that either can accommodate their set of skills or with a better economic environment than their home country. Pull factors (such as better economic conditions) in the destination country have more influence on the decision-making process of economic emigrants (Piesse, 2014).

# CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY DATA

## 3.1 Methodology, and data

The choice of research approach for this study was mixed research design to produce better, and rich results. The mixed research approach is a method for conducting a study that consists of data gathering, evaluating, and combining both quantitative (for example experiments, and surveys), and qualitative (for instance focus groups, interviews) research methods (Creswell, 2012). The mixed research method was used by Campbell, and Fiske in 1959, Sieber in 1973, and Jick in 1979 (Jick introduced the triangulation method of validating data). Explanatory sequential design was used by the researcher to give the extent of the impact of economic factors on emigration in Zimbabwe. Explanatory sequential design first collected on the events that led to emigration using quantitative data collection method through surveys (Fischler, 2015). The second step in the explanatory sequential design was to explain the results from the quantitative phase. The researcher conducted interviews to gain knowledge of the experience of the participants (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011).

Interviews were conducted to attain further elaborated experiences of the participants on how they survived during the period under study. This approach was used by the researcher to craft a better understanding of Zimbabwe's emigration patterns. The study chose mixed research method to get the emigration trends patterns of Zimbabweans between 2008, and 2019, and the trends came from the quantitative research method. Qualitative research method was used to complement the quantitative research method. Combining qualitative, and quantitative research approaches validated the results and provided a clear understanding of reasons for emigration. Mixed research methodology was selected by the researcher for its flexibility, and adaptability to many study designs (Harrison , Reilly, & Creswell , 2020). Mixed research methodology collected rich, and comprehensive data that reflected the participants' point of view on the impact of economic factors on emigration in Zimbabwe.

Quantitative data reflected what reasons led to emigration, and how many Zimbabweans emigrated, actual inferences could not be made without qualitative research because it answered why, and how Zimbabweans emigrated to other countries. Quantitative data included close-ended information to measure the impact of economic factors on emigration. The researcher developed a structured that was created on Google forms, and the link of the questionnaire was sent to the participants of the study. The researcher used correlational quantitative research, and correlational research determined the extent of a relationship between economic factors, and emigration using numerical data. Using this research method, reconnections between, and amongst several facts were analyzed and interpreted by the researcher (Wisdom & Creswell , 2013 ). This research acknowledges trends, and patterns of the impacts of economic factors, and emigration in Zimbabwe. However, it did not dig deep in its assessment to demonstrate the causes of these observed emigration patterns. The researcher there used the qualitative research method to give a deeper understanding of the impacts of economic factors on emigration in Zimbabwe (Creswell, 2012). The study used descriptive data analysis from SPSS and JASP analysis software. The researcher used descriptive statistics to characterize the features of the data that was collected from the participants of the study. Together with graphic evaluations, they created the basis of virtual quantitative evaluation of data.

Qualitative data consisted of open-ended data gathered through observations, focus groups, and interviews (Creswell, 2012). The researcher interviewed participants of the study to explore the depth of impacts of economic factors on emigration in Zimbabwe. An open-ended type of questionnaire was developed by the researcher to let the participants of the study to give their experience in Zimbabwe in-depth and unlimited answer structure. Case study qualitative research method was used to study the emigration cases in Zimbabwe. A case study is defined as a gathering, analyzing, and presenting a detailed account of a specific participant, place, or country (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011).

Cumulative case studies were used by the research by collecting combined information from several sites that had study information, and the information over at different times (Creswell & Poth, 2017). The participants of the study for the interviews were selected from people who were in Turkey, and they suggested other Zimbabweans in other parts of the world. To gain a better insult into the root causes of emigration in Zimbabwe between 2008, and 2019, and semi-structured phone call interviews were conducted with 15 Zimbabweans who were living in Turkey, Holl, and, the United Kingdom, and South Africa. Data collected from the participants of the study through surveys and interviews were triangulated to establish an empirical conclusion.

This study used purposeful, and snowballing sampling methods. Purposeful sampling also called purposive or selective sampling, is a sampling method that is used by researchers to select participants capable of providing detailed accounts of a concept that is under investigation (Creswell & Poth, 2017). The researcher purposely selected Zimbabweans who emigrated to other countries as participants for this particular study. The Zimbabweans emigrants qualified to participate in this research because they left Zimbabwe for a particular reason which the research sort to find. Snowball sampling is where research participants recruit other participants to participate in the research (Creswell & Poth, 2017). Snowballing was also used to reach the unknown Zimbabwean emigrants who were in different countries. The snowballing sampling technique was appropriate in this study because it assisted the investigator to reach research participants who were hard to reach. The sample size that was targeted by the researcher was 130 Zimbabweans in the diaspora, and the response turnout was 105 responses.

### 3.2 Data Collection, and Analysis

Data collection is defined as a systematic method of gathering, and measuring data from different sources to attain an accurate image of a specific area of interest (Harrison , Reilly, & Creswell , 2020). Data collection enabled the study to provide answers to research questions, analyze collected data, and predict forthcoming possibilities, and trends of migration patterns of Zimbabweans. In this study, collecting accurate data was key to maintaining the truthfulness, and originality of this research. Data for this particular study was gathered from primary, and secondary sources that include published documents. The main sources of raw data were collected from surveys, and the Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (ZIMSTAT) because it is the government institution that is responsible for government data collection including migration data. Raw data was collected through emigration surveys that consist of 14 questions. The surveys were administered through online google forms. Other secondary data were collected from the Department of Immigration, and Control on the number of Zimbabwe leaving Zimbabwe, and the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe (RBZ) on the movement of remittances to Zimbabwe, and expenditures. Other government public records on economic factors leading to migration were considered as sources for this study.

The study used empirical analyzing tools to analyze the effects of economic factors on emigration in Zimbabwe. The empirical approach will rely on real emigration data that was collected in this study. JASP statistical analyzing software was used to analyze collected for this study. JASP is an open-source as well as cost-free graphical software for analyzing statistical data. The study chose to use JASP statistical analyzing software because of its user-friendliness, and it is cost-free. The study also used SPSS to analyze data collected from the participants of this study.

The study chose the economic factor as the key variable. The choice to emigrate from Zimbabwe to other destinations depended on the stability, sustainability, capabilities, and performance of the economy. The employability of Zimbabweans depended on the availability of functional industries in Zimbabwe, and major industries have been closed in Zimbabwe. The research demonstrated how the economic factor was the main reason for people to emigrate. Other non-economic variables that were used in this research were political and social reasons.

Zimbabwean migrants were presented with two choices; either to stay in Zimbabwe where the living conditions are poor, unliveable, and unbearable or they can choose to emigrate to other destinations where there are better life opportunities and better living conditions. The study tested the hypothesis (or thesis statement) that Zimbabweans were influenced by unfavorable economic conditions to emigrate to other destinations that have favorable economic conditions.

### 3.3 Limitations to the Study

Limitations of a study are defined as characteristics of research methodology that influence the underst, and ing of the results from research (Price & Murnan. , 2004). This research has identified the following limitation to this study: The research identified time management as its first limitation. This research was set by the department to be completed within 2 academic semesters. The complexity of the research needed proper time management for it to be completed in 2 semesters. To this limitation, the research categorized phases of the thesis , and set a timeline for each phase. The researcher gave a timeline of two months for every phase of the research. The research had a total of 4 phases , and the research was completed in 12 months.

Accessing research participants physically due to the outbreak of the Novel Corona Virus 2019 (Covid-19) was the second limitation identified by the research. Research is meaningful when its participants are easily accessible. The researcher created online research surveys, and distributed to the participants of the research. The feedback of these surveys came directly to the researcher through a server that was designed for that purpose. The research also collected data by communicating with key research participants via a secured emailing system.

# CHAPTER 4:

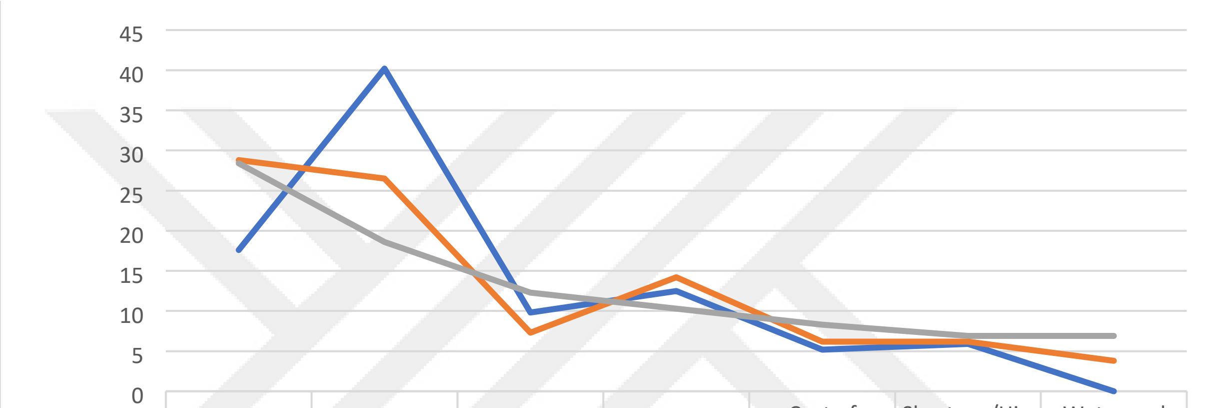
The economic performance of Zimbabwe between the years 2008, and 2019 was influenced by the political environment, economic policies enacted by the government, business environment, and economic sanctions. Zimbabwe conducted presidential elections in March, and June (Re-run) 2008, July 2013, and July 2018. Economic blueprints that were crafted between 2009 and 2019 in Zimbabwe include Indigenisation, and Economic Empowerment Act (2008), Short Term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP) 1, and 2 (2009-2010, and 2010-201 respectively), Mid Term Plan (2011-2015), Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimASSET) (2013-2018), and Transitional Stabilisation Programme (TSP) (2019-2020). These elections and economic blue-print affected the economic performance due to the way they were conducted and implemented which resulted in investors having second thoughts on whether to continue business or not to invest in Zimbabwe. Sanctions were implemented by the United States of America (USA) starting in 2003 and were extended by the incoming presidents of the USA, and the European Union (EU). The USA and the EU cited the undermining of the democratic process in Zimbabwe by the government of Zimbabwe as the main reason for implementing these sanctions. The following chapter section discusses the indicators of economic performance in Zimbabwe.

## 4.1 De-industrialization, and Informalization of the Economic Sector in Zimbabwe

An analysis of the economic literature points out that the creation of employment in sectors of the economy is essential for structural change and the advancement of productivity. Development in industry productivity can originate from the changes from the restructuring of production to increase productivity such as technology upgrades, and from reallocating employment in all sectors as workers migrate from low-productivity sectors to high-productivity sectors (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). Structural change enhances working conditions as well as standard of living of workers. Therefore, structural change fuels economic growth that decreases destitution on a transient, and permanent basis (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). Productivity is therefore related strongly to the pace of elimination of unemployment, and poverty vulnerabilities.

Instead of achieving positive structural change as conversed above, Zimbabwe has been going through a structural regression evidently through economic informalisation, deindustrialization, and increase reliance on natural resources. In 1992, the manufacturing sector accounted for 26.9% of GDP but in 2002 it declined to 7.2%. Between 2009, and 2014, the manufacturing sector's annual average contribution to GDP was 11.7%. Industrial capacity utilization was 35.8%, 18.9%, and 10% in 2005, 2007, and 2008 respectively demonstrating a sharp decline. In 2011, it increased to 57% at its peak after the government implemented the multicurrency system, and in 2015 it fell to 34.3%. (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). Between 2011, and 2014, over 4,610 industries shutdown retrenching over 55,443 employees.

Figure 1 Major capacity limitations (in %) from 2013 to 2015



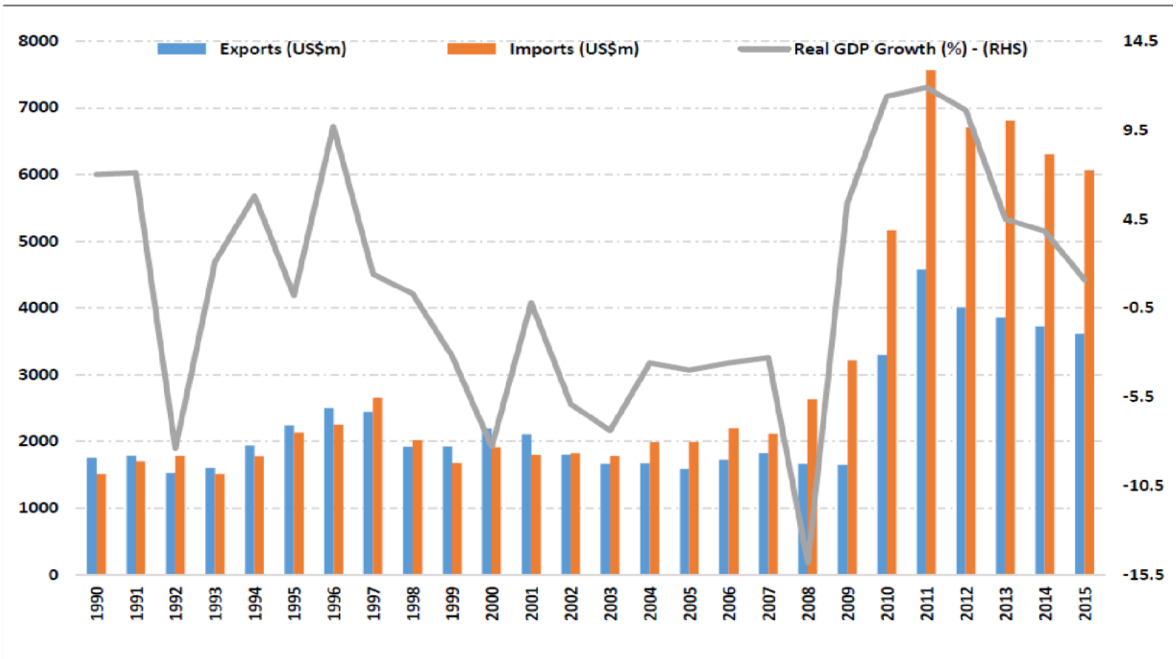

| | local demand | Capital limitations | Machinery constrains | Rivalry from imports | Cost of conduting business | Shortage/High cost of raw materials | Water and electricity shortages |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2013 | 17.6 | 40.2 | 9.8 | 12.5 | 5.2 | 5.9 | 0 |
| 2014 | 28.8 | 26.5 | 7.3 | 14.2 | 6.2 | 6.2 | 3.8 |
| 2015 | 28.4 | 18.6 | 12.3 | 10.3 | 8.3 | 6.9 | 6.9 |

Source: Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (2015)

From 2009 economic recovery was mainly supported by the mining, and agriculture sectors. Therefore, mining was the leading export sector due to the increased export of precious minerals such as gold, diamonds, and platinum (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). Mining became the backbone of the economy, a role previously played by agriculture prior to the economic crises. The mining sector employed more Zimbabweans than any other sector. Export recovery was mainly driven by raw materials emanating from mining, and agriculture (Tyson, 2017). Agriculture and mining were the major employers during that time.

Between 2009, and 2012, Zimbabwe's reliance on mining, and agriculture increased. This dependence on primary commodities increased the vulnerability of the economy to negative changes in global markets as wells as uncertain weather patterns (Moyana H. V., 2002). Besides heavy dependence on agriculture and mining, exports were undervalued at the point of sale. Zimbabwe exported two major minerals that were diamonds, and platinum that were extracted from Zimplats, Mimosa, and Unki (platinum mining companies), Mbada (a diamond mining company), and ZIMASCO (chrome mining company). This indicated that the economy of Zimbabwe was more vulnerable to the commodity cycle (Huni, 2018). Commodity cycles only created seasonally employment especially in agriculture (Pratt, 2020). At this point, the country was importing more, and cheap products than it was exporting.

Figure 2 Export-import tendencies against GDP growth from 1990 to 2015




Source: World Bank (2017)

## 4.2 Low investment levels

Investments and savings are two important ingredients of economic growth and employment creation. Yet, in Zimbabwe, these two components had been contracting since independence (Sikwila, 2013). In 2015, domestic savings were at -11% of GDP, which was far below when compared to other South African countries' domestic savings. For instance, South Africa had a savings-to-GDP percentage of 19%, Angola, and Tanzania over 20%, Mauritius, 11%. , and Botswana 38%. Zimbabwe's national, and foreign investment pools were close to dry especially after 2003 when the government implemented unfriendly investor policies that chased away and blocked investment. (Muzurura & Sikwila, 2018). The lack of saving resulted in a lack of local investment that had a negative effect on reducing employment creation in Zimbabwe.

Investment plays a pivotal role in growing economies. Investments lead to infrastructural development through the construction of industries. According to Carmody (2017), poor infrastructure is a huge blockade to speed economic growth and reducing poverty, particularly in Africa. Therefore, statistics have indicated developing infrastructure by 1% raises the GDP of a country by the same percentage. Infrastructure decreases the cost of production as well as widening access to physical markets hence improving productivity, and develops the economy.

In the early 1990s, Zimbabwe once had the best infrastructure was in Southern Africa. However, as the economy sunk the infrastructure greatly deteriorated thus affecting productivity (African Development Bank, 2011). Infrastructural deterioration was linked to a lack of periodic maintenance, particularly in water, power, transport, and sanitation. In sectors controlled by the government for instance energy, transportation (both road, and rail), and communications, operational losses increased because of low service prices.

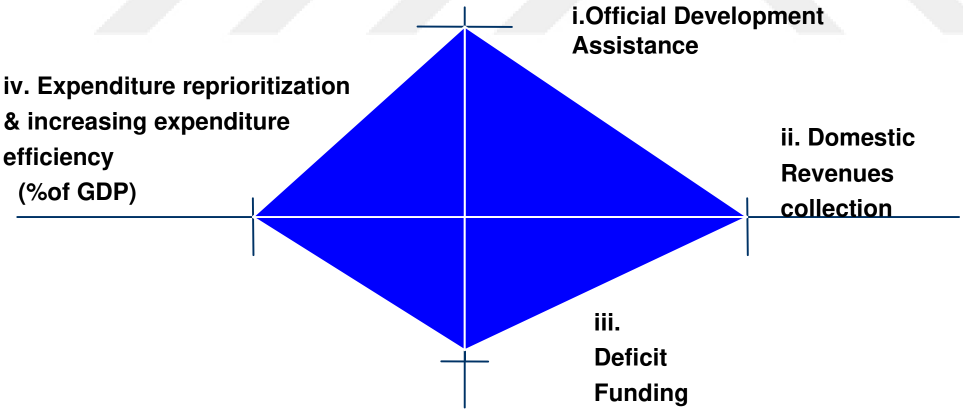
The depreciation of physical infrastructure led to the failure of government institutions to efficiently deliver basic services such as water, and electricity. The problems originated from an incoherent approach to management, and lapse among several government institutions involved (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). This was further worsened the transfer of skills through the emigration of skilled Zimbabweans. In addition, government institutional were underfunded to maintain the already existing infrastructure. As infrastructure plays the important role of fuelling economic activities, its depreciation had negative effects on the productiveness of economic sectors such as agriculture, and also heavily reduced the quality of services in the country (Maphosa, Makurira, & Juru, 2019). The AfDB (2011) stated that an estimation of US$14.2 billion was essential to revive infrastructure for the period 2011 to 2020, this could result in employment creation for Zimbabweans.

Transparency and accountability issues especially around precious minerals were two enemies of economic progress in Zimbabwe. As indicated by the Fiscal Review Statement (2015), the country was losing at least US$1.8 billion yearly through fraud, illegal selling of gold, and diamonds, externalization, tax evasion, and corruption (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). For example, diamonds in Zimbabwe were a mineral resource that was benefitting many Zimbabweans including those residing in areas where the resource was located. Getting employed at those diamond companies was based on nepotism.

Fiscal space is the ability of a government to give financial capital for a specific purpose on the condition that the fiscal position is maintainable in the short-run, and longrun (Roy, Heuty, & Letouze, 2007 ). The fiscal space diamond is a fiscal space analytical tool that illustrates the scope of the government to craft economic policy action, (Zimbabwe Economic Policy Analysis and Research Unit, 2010) , and manage government resources raised through fiscal ways (Roy, Heuty, & Letouze, 2007 ). The important elements of a fiscal diamond include:

i. official development assistance;
ii. domestic revenue collected through taxes;
iii. deficit funding through borrowing (internal, and external); and
iv. expenditure reprioritization, and increasing the efficiency of the expenditure.

**Figure 3 Fiscal space diamond**

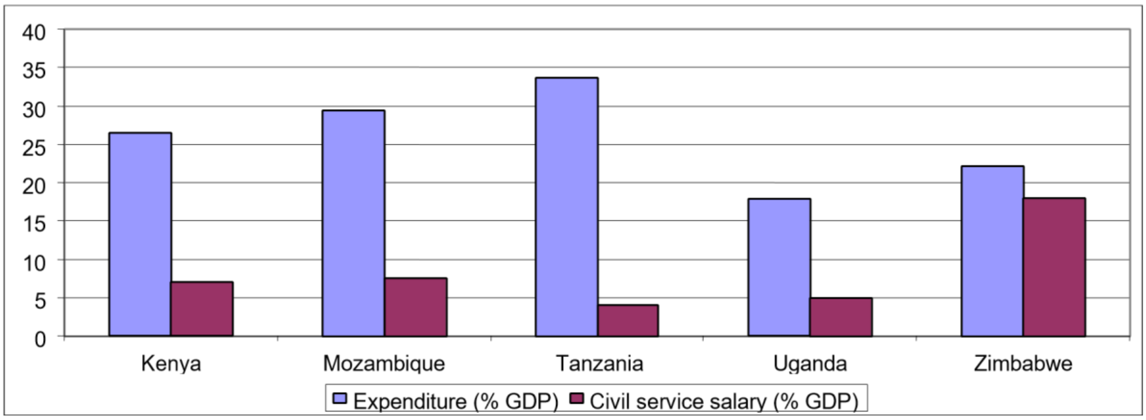



Source: UNDP (2007)

Since dollarization in 2009, the government did not utilize all four elements of the fiscal space diamond. Due to the lack of real re-engagement with the global actors, official aid for development cut-off, and the aid that the government received was in many cases humanitarian. Accessing internal, and external loans were not achievable because of unpaid loans, and lack of debt resolution (Chitiyo, Vines, & Vandome , 2016). Internal borrowing was very limited due to outstanding debts. Because of lack of political will, the four elements of the fiscal space diamond were not utilized.

The main source of domestic revenue in Zimbabwe taxes. With the closure of many companies, revenue collection was also affected because the informal sector was not taxed (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). During this period, the government collected fewer taxes at the same time public expenditure increased. Increasing public expenditures for January to October of 2016 was at US$3.84 billion, contrary to a public spending target of US$3.32 billion leading to a difference of US$520 million (Chitiyo, Vines, & Vandome , 2016). The scope for resource mobilization was very finite resulting in reduced employment creation. Most of the collected revenue was channelled toward compensating civil servants. Impulse expending connected to famine-linked importation of grain amounted to US$253.5 million, December 2015 income payment debts were at US$119.4 million, and credit servicing was at US$100.9 million causing the budget to overwhelm (Makina, 2016). Zimbabwe's high employment expenses were the highest in sub-Saharan Africa (Zimbabwe Economic Policy Analysis and Research Unit, 2010). The following graph compared the expenditure composition of Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zimbabwe.

Figure 4 Expenditure Composition for Kenya, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zimbabwe.




Source: Developed by ZEPAPU (2010) from the Ministry of Finance (2010), and Kramarenko et al (2010)

Domestic credit rose abruptly from US$250 million when the Government of National Unity ended in 2013 to US$3.7 billion in 2016. The government's solution to the financial gap was to borrow from local creditors, and treasury bills were used to settle government debts (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). By October 2016, the total debt (both internal, and external debts included) was at US$11.2 billion (putting into context, that debt was 79% of GDP) past the endorsed sustainable percentage of 60%, proving that Zimbabwe was deep in debt crisis (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). At this point, two main sources of financing government operations were heavy borrowing and excessive taxation. (Tyson, 2017). These debts have hindered the government of Zimbabwe to apply for development loans. Without these development loans, it has been difficult for Zimbabwe to attain any tangible development. This has limited the government's ability to employ more people.

The government agreed with its international creditors to implement a payment plan, in Peru in 2015. However, payment due dates of paying back USD1.8 billion by April of 2016, and extensions that were to be paid by October the same year were missed. The debt settlement terms through the Arrears Clearance Strategy signed between the government, and the international financial institutions were not met (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017). This debt clearance target has not yet been achieved. This translates that the government of Zimbabwe is required to clear all its debts before borrowing any loans for development.

### 4.3 Zimbabwe poverty levels

The research acknowledges that poverty has more than one definition, and it is contextually defined. All the available definitions of poverty can be categorized into:

i) destitution as possessing less than the internationally set minimum; ii) poverty as possessing less than others in the community, and iii) poverty as possessing a feeling of having less to get along (Hagenaars & De Vos, 1988).

The first category of poverty definitions is used by international, and humanitarian organizations to define poverty to assist the most vulnerable in society. The United Nations in the World Summit for Social Development 1995 report, defined destitution as a state of an extreme lack of primary needs such as food, and shelter (United-Nations, Work Summit for Social Development, 1995). The research used the Basic Needs Approach to define poverty in Zimbabwe. This method identifies the absolute minimum as essentials such as shelter, food, and clothes.

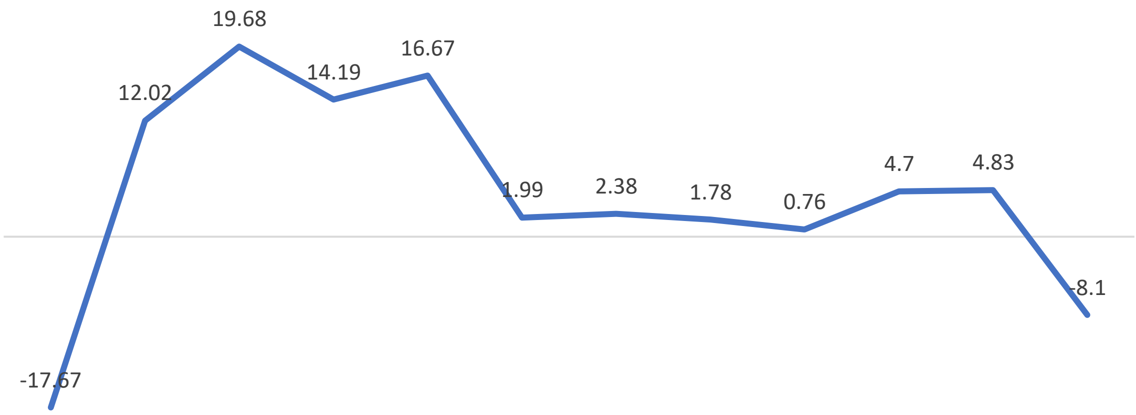
A large populace in Zimbabwe was living under the poverty line. The major contributor to the just mention of poverty conditions in Zimbabwe was the lack of meaningful, and decent employment. Many Zimbabweans were living in extreme destitution. The World Bank characterizes extreme destitution as surviving on $1.25 or less a day (World Bank, 2020). Extreme poverty percentage increased from 29% (4.7 million people) to 34% (5.7 million people) in 2018, and 2019 respectively. This sharp increase was mainly caused by the economic meltdown and high inflation. Reduction of agricultural output after weatherrelated famines further worsened existing economic hardships in rural areas. One out of ten households in rural areas were spending a day without food, and two out of 10 houses in the urban areas spent a day foodless (World Bank, 2020). In addition, the l, and ing of Cyclone Idai worsened the conditions by reducing food security especially in three eastern provinces that produce 30% agricultural produce for Zimbabwe (World Bank, 2020). The World Bank (2020) projected that poverty levels continue to increase in 2020 but it can be reduced after reviving or boosting agricultural productivity. Lack of cash shortages, and cumulating public expenditure can further sustain poverty levels.

## 4.4 Gross Domestic Product

In 2019, Zimbabwe's GDP was reduced by 7.5% (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2020). Foreign currency shortages, fuel, and electricity shortages, extreme famines, and 2019 devastating Cyclone Idai contracted economic activities, particularly agriculture, and mining, which reduced by double-digits (World Bank, 2020). The processing of main minerals such as coal, diamond, gold decreased by at least 27% at the same time output of agricultural products such as maize (which is the staple food of Zimbabwe), reduced by half of its normal level in 2018. This resulted in increased food insecurity which was used as a reason by Zimbabweans to emigrate.

In 2019, reduced demand for domestic products led to account deficit (about 1% of GDP) (World Bank, 2020). The country is also one of Africa's natural resource hubs endowed with vast fertile lands, and mineral resources such as gold, coal, copper, iron ore, and lithium. Behind this glamour, in 2008, the country registered a negative GDP growth rate of 17.7%, but gradual economic recovery over the last decade has led to positive growth of Zimbabwe's GDP. However, 2019 marked a difficult year for the country as the economy once again contracted by -8.3% in 2019 (World Bank, 2020).

Figure 5: Zimbabwe GDP Growth Rate (in %)




Source: IMF, 2020

The following bar graph illustrates the budget balance to GDP between 2014-2024. The national budget of Zimbabwe has been negative concerning GPD. This was an indication that the economy was underperforming, and according to the predictions in the graph, it will continue to underperform.

Figure 6 Zimbabwean Budget balance relation to GDP (2014-2019)

Source: IMF 2019

In 2019, the fiscal deficit was 4.9% of GDP and is likely to increase in the future (World Bank, 2020). Fiscal strengthening actions that were agreed by the government, and the IMF under the IMF Staff Monitored Program were anticipated to reduce public spending, and reduce monetizing of the fiscal shortfall. On contrary, the supplementary budget that was presented on the 1st of August 2019, had an increment in public spending to respond to the negative effects of the famine, and salary increase. Such actions by the government led to economic instability and inflation that resulted in the emigration of Zimbabweans.

Figure 7 National debt relative to GDP from 2013 to 2020


Source: IMF (2020)

### 4.5 The Zimbabwean dollar

Looking into the history of the Zimbabwean dollar gave an insight into its changes in value from the independence of the country (18 April 1980) to the period under discussion (2008-2019). The Zimbabwean dollar (ZWD) became a legal tender in 1980 after the attainment of independence to have economic freedom. The symbol of the Zimbabwe dollar is a dollar sign (ZW$) and was only used in Zimbabwe (McIndoe-Calder T. , 2018). At its inception, the value of the Zimbabwean dollar (ZW$) was exchanged with the United States dollar (USD) at the rate of 1:1.5, meaning that the ZW$ was more powerful than the USD at the time of the independence of Zimbabwe. The ZW$ replaced the Rhodesian dollar that was a legal tender during the Ian Smith colonial government of Rhodesia. The Rhodesian Dollar was legalized in 1970 after Ian Smith (former Rhodesian Prime Minister) unilaterally declared the independence of Rhodesia from Great Britain in 1960. At the time of independence, Zimbabwe had a strong economy that was backed up by its strong ZW$ currency. Zimbabwe was the breadbasket of Africa that in the later years turned into a begging bowel of Africa.

Over time, the Zimbabwean dollar lost its value drastically, and this contributed to the meltdown of the economy. The policies that were enacted by the government of Zimbabwe led to the ZWD$ losing value (McIndoe-Calder, Bedi, & Mercado, 2019). The implementation of Economic Structural Adjustment Program (1990-1995), paying off of the war veterans in 1997(over 60 000 war veterans were paid ZW$50 000 that was equivalent to USD3 00 at that time) with money that was not budgeted for, poorly implemented land reform program, overprinting of the ZW$ by the governors of the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, and Indigenisation, and Empowerment Act of 2008 that required the foreigncontrolled business to offer 51% of their shares to the native Zimbabweans. These factors and government enacted policies resulted in Zimbabwe having a 165 000 percent inflation rate, the highest to be recorded in the world in 2008 (McIndoe-Calder T. , 2018). On the 2nd of February 2009, the rate of exchange of the Zimbabwean dollar to one USD was ZW$ 300,000,000,000,000. The largest note that was printed in Zimbabwe was the 100 trillion ZW$ note that was equivalent to USD 5 in 2009. After the adoption of the Government National Unit, the ZWS$ was dropped, and a multicurrency system was adopted with the USD dominating.

During the multicurrency system, there was a problem of change because the USD that was in circulation only came in larger notes starting from 1,2,5,10,20,50, and 100. The shortage of coins in the system was resulting in impulse buying, and the government intervened by introducing coins bearing the name Bond Coins in 2014 (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2016). The new bond notes were meant to ease the problem of change and reducing impulse buying. In 2016, the governor of the central bank of Zimbabwe introduced the Bond Note as a local currency, and at the time of introduction, one Bond Note was equivalent to one USD. However, this currency was only usable in Zimbabwe. The currency's official life was from 2014 to 2018. In 2019, the governor of the central bank of Zimbabwe introduced another currency with the name Real Time Gross Settlement (RTGS) dollar that was a merger of Bond notes, and coins, and electronic money (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2019). The governor of the central bank of Zimbabwe announced that the new currency (RTGS) was to be exchanged at a rate of 1:1 with the USD, and all those who had real USD in their bank accounts were now having the RTGS in the same accounts. The ZW$ quickly lost its buying power in the period under study.

The cash crisis in Zimbabwe was an indication of multifaceted economic faults that was rooted in the macroeconomy from investment, production as well as consumption. The multi-currency system of 2009 was introduced in an economy that was already recessing that required comprehensive economic restructurings beyond the currency problem to resolve. The Zimbabwean economy has not been performing well since 2000 (Chitiyo & Kibble, 2014). The country experienced a fall in production in the manufacturing, and mining sectors as well as in Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). In February of 2009, the government implemented a multicurrency system where the USD was the most powerful currency, and this measure reduced hyper-inflation, slightly restored economic, and political stability, improved budgetary practice, and reinvented monetary reliability (Maenzanise, 2016). Apart from the notable gains in economic stabilization between 2009, and 2012, the economy remained fragile, with GDP growth collapsing from peaks of 10.6% in 2010 to low levels of 4% in 2018 (Kanyenze, Chitambara , & Tyson, 2017).

### 4.6 Public Sector Budget

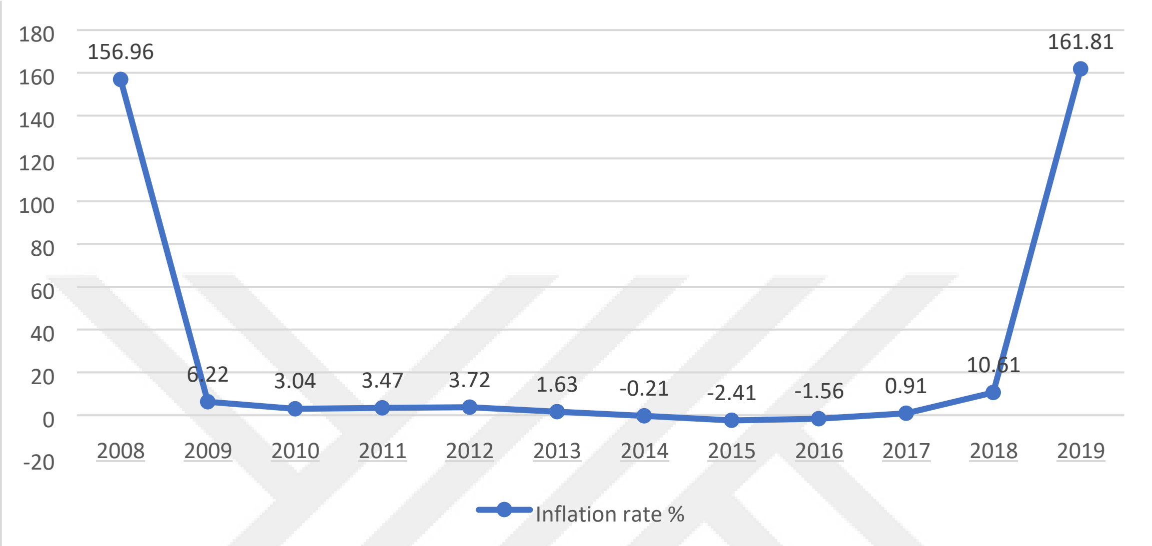
The public-sector budget, its structure, and financing were partly to blame for the liquidity, and cash crisis. Zimbabwe experienced several economic challenges that included poor revenue mobilization, increased public expenditure, fiscal deficit, and low export performance. For instance, the government had, as in September 2018 borrowed $9.6 billion (GoZ, 2019) from the domestic banking system through Treasury bills, thus sucking out a substantial amount of liquidity that could have been available for the private sector development. The quality of loans in the banking sector deteriorates with time reducing a significant percentage of liquidity from the country's financial sector. The percentage of Non-performing loans (NPLs) increased from 1% to 20.14% in December 2009, and 2014 respectively (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2019 ). The decline of credit portfolio in banks further worsened the financial crisis in Zimbabwe.

Zimbabweans lost confidence, and trust in the government, and the banking sector because of lack of cash in the system, and excessive government control on cash withdrawals (Makina, 2016). Lack of trust, and confidence in the banking sector together with high penal charges, and high-interest rates on deposits reduced domestic savings by -11% of GDP (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2018). This created a massive savings-investment gap. Fixed capital formation was reduced by 8%, indicating an increased consumption, and dissaving tendencies of Zimbabweans.

### 4.7 Inflation

From 2018, inflation levels increased and were driven by Zimbabwean dollar devaluation, and commodity price instability. In July 2019, yearly inflation reached 230%, and prices of food increased by 319% in the same month whereas non-food inflation rose by 194% (World Bank, 2020). On 24 June 2019, the government made the Zimbabwe dollar the only legal tender marking the end of the multicurrency system that in place for more than 10 years. With low local currency backup, access to international financial support was very limited that further depreciated the local currency (World Bank, 2020).

Figure 8 Annual inflation rate from 2008 to 2019




Source: IMF (2020)

Consumer Price Index (CPI) is an important indicator of the economy. It is used to quantify vicissitudes in the prices of goods, and services in a specified period in an economy. The Consumer Price Index (CPI) covers housing, transportation, health/medical care, education, communication, food, and beverages, recreation, clothes, and shoes. CPI is used to evaluate how strong or weak a currency of a country is. It used to make important economic policies of a country. In Zimbabwe, the major elements of CPI include food, and non-alcoholic liquor housing equipment, and maintenance, and transport. Other components of the CPI are alcoholic drinks, tobacco, clothing, footwear, impulse goods, and services, health, communication, culture, recreation, hotels, and restaurants. The following tables summarize the CPI of Zimbabwe.

Table 2 Consumer Price Index (CPI) of Zimbabwe 2009-2018

| Customer Price Index 2009 -2018 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Food, and NonAlcoholic Beverages | Alcohol, and tobacco | Clothing, and footwear | Housing, water, electricity, gas, and other fuels | Furniture household equipment, and maintenance | Health | Transport | Communication | Recreation , and culture | Education | Restoration , and hotels | Miscellaneous goods , and services | All items |
| **Weights** | **31.3** | **4.9** | **5.9** | **6.9** | **7.9** | **1.4** | **8.4** | **2.7** | **2.3** | **4.3** | **1.1** | **6.5** | **100** |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2009 | 52.9 | 49.6 | 50.6 | 51.6 | 52.6 | 61.9 | 40.1 | 95.7 | 53.2 | 42.1 | 48 | 55 | 56.2 |
| 2010 | 54.9 | 54.8 | 55.8 | 56.8 | 57.8 | 62.2 | 41.9 | 121.6 | 52.1 | 59 | 52.6 | 55 | 57.9 |
| 2011 | 57.1 | 57.5 | 58.5 | 59.5 | 60.5 | 62 | 45.1 | 123.5 | 52.2 | 61.3 | 55.2 | 57.4 | 60 |
| 2012 | 59.7 | 61.1 | 62.1 | 63.1 | 64.1 | 63 | 46 | 133.2 | 52.5 | 67 | 58.6 | 59 | 62.2 |
| 2013 | 60.8 | 64.3 | 65.3 | 66.3 | 67.3 | 64.7 | 48.4 | 119.6 | 52.3 | 73.9 | 59.6 | 59.5 | 63.2 |
| 2014 | 58.9 | 65.5 | 66.5 | 67.5 | 68.5 | 65.2 | 48.7 | 114.6 | 51.8 | 85.7 | 60 | 58.3 | 63.1 |
| 2015 | 56.9 | 65.7 | 66.7 | 67.7 | 68.7 | 65.7 | 48 | 98.7 | 51.4 | 85.9 | 59.4 | 57.8 | 61.6 |
| 2016 | 55 | 64.9 | 65.9 | 66.9 | 67.9 | 65.6 | 46.9 | 97.1 | 51 | 94.9 | 59.4 | 56.8 | 60.6 |
| 2017 | 56.4 | 65.1 | 66.1 | 67.1 | 68.1 | 65.7 | 46.6 | 96.9 | 51.9 | 94.3 | 60.2 | 58 | 61.1 |
| 2018 | 64.8 | 69.6 | 70.6 | 71.6 | 72.6 | 70.7 | 50.5 | 96.5 | 62.6 | 96.1 | 66.1 | 66.1 | 67.6 |

Source: ZIMSTATS (2019)

### 4.8 Investment, and Emigration in Zimbabwe

Investment is using capital to acquire assets or properties with the aim that those assets and properties in turn generate income over time (Besley & Ghatak, 2010). There are two main categories of investment namely local, and foreign direct investment. Local investment is investment owned by the indigenous people in the same country while Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) is a foreign-based investment. Also referred to as domestic investment, local investments are assets in someone's country of origin (Caves, 1971). In Zimbabwe, the local investment environment was disturbed mainly by a lack of savings. Incomes that the Zimbabwean people have been receiving were used for everyday expenses such as paying for rent, food, and other bills. The Zimbabwean dollar lost value faster than the increment of salary. Hyperinflation was another reason why Zimbabweans were not able to save. The local investors in Zimbabwe were very few despite the government’s effort to increase local investments through the Indigenous, and Empowerment Act of 2008. Lack of local investment resulted in reduced employment creation thus Zimbabweans emigrated.

Foreign direct investment (FDI) is defined as a form of investment made by a person or a company in one country into a business located in another country aiming to retain profits (Tsang & Yip, 2007). FDI is categorized as a cross-border investment, and the owner of assets in his/her country has control over the running of the assets located in another country (Lipsey, Feenstra, , Hahn , & Hatsopoulos, 1999). Zimbabwe has had an up, and down foreign direct investment flow. FDIs are important because they create employment locations where assets are located. The coming of investment into a country exp, and s the capital to labor ratio, thus increasing the need for labor. Salary increment can reduce the inspiration for emigration (Bryan & Morten, 2019). By investing in other countries, multinational companies can increase emigration by giving details of the destination country by indicating that there is more capital, and employment opportunities in the country they are headquartered. Such investments can be pull factors attracting potential emigrants toward the investment-source countries (Javorcik, Özden, Spatareanu, & Neagu, 2011). FDI makes emigration more attractive by raising the hope that workers are paid more where the FDI is coming from (Sassen, 1990). More DFIs results in more employment opportunities. After the implementation of the multicurrency recovery measure, Zimbabwe received a sizable direct investment in 2009, but in the later years was not stable. Foreign direct investment (FDI) was very limited during the period under examination thus affecting the ability to create employment, and reduce poverty levels in Zimbabwe.

Unemployment remains one of the major problems that continue to affect Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe experienced involuntary unemployment. Involuntary unemployment is defined as a status when a person who is capable of working cannot get payable work even if he or she willing to exchange his/her service for lower compensation (Vroey, 2004 ). According to Keynes' General Theory of Employment, involuntary unemployment is when the unwaged person is prepared to provide labor for a wage that is equal to or less than the minimum wage (Keynes, 1935). Putting the theory into context, Zimbabweans are experiencing involuntary unemployment because of limited employment opportunities.

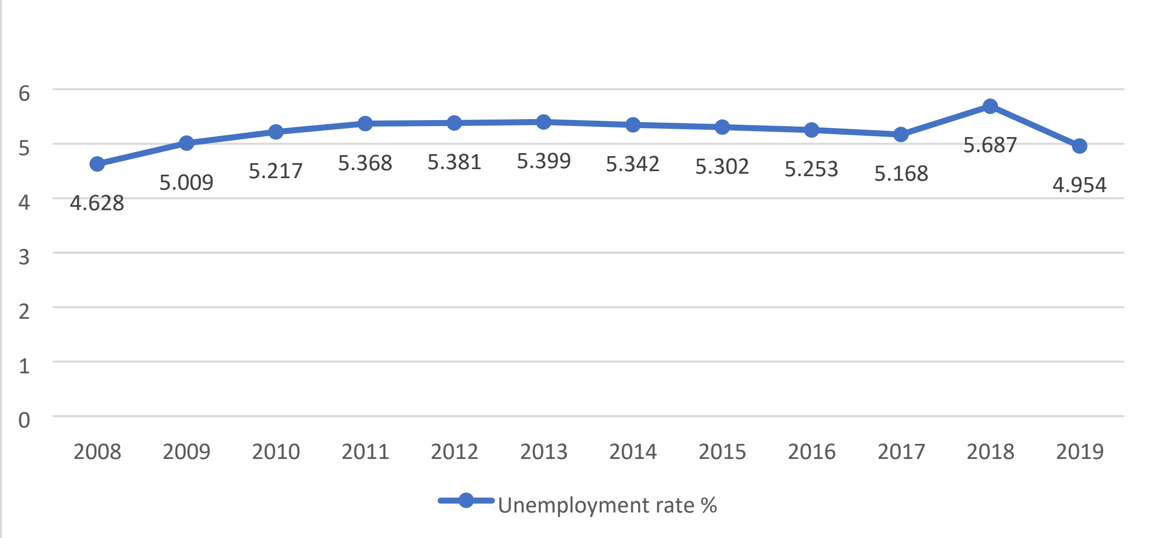
Unemployment statistics in Zimbabwe remain very controversial. Whereas international organizations like the World Bank, ILO, and even the Zimbabwean government have maintained that unemployment rates in Zimbabwe have been ranking below 10% in the last decade, economic analysts and the media have vehemently denied such statistics

(Maulani & Agwanda , 2020). Media reports such as newspapers engaged in both local, and international publications commonly infer to unemployment rates as high as 80-85 percent and are heavily informal. One of the reasons for these diverse variations in unemployment statistics originates from the understanding of the term 'unemployment'. The internationally acclaimed definition of unemployment provided by institutions such as ILO or World Bank offers a precise, and clear understanding of the term.

On the contrary, the popular view of what would constitute unemployment to several ordinary citizens from Zimbabwe is far from what ILO acclaims. Many ordinary Zimbabweans who despite being engaged in some form of work, tend to consider him/herself as unemployed because he/she lacks what can be regarded as a 'proper job' (Maulani & Agwanda , 2020). The conventional understanding of employment does not provide any differences between 'good' or 'bad' jobs. Even though no one indicator can quantity job quality, a combination of indicators can provide an idea of what could constitute a decent job. Decent work constitutes employment opportunities for both men, and women to access productive, and decent work in environments of security, equity, equality, freedom, and human dignity (ILO, 2012).

The precise number of Zimbabweans who emigrated to other countries is unknown. According to the International Organisation for Migration, about half a million to 3 million Zimbabweans are employed and living outside of Zimbabwe. Out of the estimated figures, between 1, and 1.5 million Zimbabweans were living in South Africa alone (Crush & Tevera, 2010). The main reason for Zimbabweans to emigrate was mainly a lack of decent employment.

**Figure 9 Unemployment rate from 2008 to 2019**




Source: World Bank , and Government of Zimbabwe (unemployment rates made based on International Labour Organization's modeled estimates) (2020)

### 4.9 Economic Sanctions in Zimbabwe

EU, and the USA in 2002, and 2003 respectively, implemented sanctions programs in Zimbabwe, and they cited that the Zimbabwean government had violated the democratic process and human rights in Zimbabwe. The E U sanctions contained a travel ban, and asset freeze on selected individuals, and companies as well as an arms embargo (Lester & O'Kane, 2020). The USA sanctions program on Zimbabwe, executed by the Department of the Treasury Office of Foreign Assets Control (OFAC) in 2003 under the Presidential Executive Order issued (E.O.) 13288. E.O. 13288 issued by George W Bush (former president of the USA from America from 2001 to 2009) sanctioned targeted individuals, and companies in Zimbabwe because of the undermining of democratic organizations or progressions in Zimbabwe (OFAC, 2013 ).

In 2008, after the 2008 controversial presidential elections, the OFAC E.O. 13469 passed measures targeting government officials as well as companies under the ownership of the government (OFAC, 2013 ). The sanctions were renewed over time (by the Obama Administration 2009 –2017, Trump Administration 2017–current, and the European Leaders), and had unfavorable effects on the economic performance of Zimbabwe. The sanctions prohibited companies to do business with the people listed on their blacklist, and the government of Zimbabwe. Sanctions on Zimbabwe blocked the flow of business, and FDIs into Zimbabwe thus downsizing industries in Zimbabwe. Transacting, and trading with

Zimbabwe became nearly impossible because of these sanctions. Only through the OFAC, a company could transact with the government of Zimbabwe. These Sanctions undermined economic growth, and performance in Zimbabwe thus contributing to the emigration of Zimbabweans to other countries.

The chapter unveiled a detailed account of Zimbabwe's economic history leading to the emigration of Zimbabweans to other economically stable destinations. The unstable economic performance detailed in this chapter was the main reason why many Zimbabweans left the country for personal economic gain and better employment opportunities.

# CHAPTER 5: RESULTS, AND DISCUSSION

This research tested the hypothesis that unfavorable economic factors (availability of jobs, poor wages, poverty, poor living conditions that resulted from economic hardships, and poor business environment) led Zimbabweans to emigrate to other destinations with a better economic environment. The researcher used a mixed methodology to collect data to answer the research questions of the study. The researcher used mixed research approach tools to craft a questionnaire that incorporated other factors that could have led to the emigration of Zimbabweans, and these included social factors (such as a family reunion, and education), and political factors. The researcher collected demographic data from 105 participants of the study to determine which gender had a greater percentage of emigrants. The participants of the study were asked their country of birth to determine whether they were born in Zimbabwe or not. This question gave light on the citizenship status of the participants at birth. The employment statuses of the participants were asked to test if they were employed in Zimbabwe and their current country of residence. The data were analyzed using both JASP and SPSS data analysis software. These software were also used to generate graphs, and charts that were further translated using qualitative methods of data interpretation. At the end of the chapter, the results of the tested hypothesis and the answers to the research questions were reviewed.

## 5.1 Gender Distribution

According to Ravestein Laws of migration, women are more migratory than men. However, in this research, men were more migratory than women. The percentages of men, and women were 65,4 , and 34,6 respectively.

Figure 10 Gender Distribution


Source: Raw data collected from the participants of the study (2020)

The bar graph above indicated that there were more male emigrants than women emigrants. Zimbabwean men emigrated to other destinations because statically they were more educated than Zimbabwean women. The major motivation for many Zimbabweans was the level of education attained by individuals. The determinant contributed to more men leaving Zimbabwe than women.

### 5.2 Main Reasons for Leaving Zimbabwe

The structured questionnaire that was distributed to the participants of the study covered economic reasons included unemployment in Zimbabwe, low income, poverty, job transfer, and poor business environment. Social reasons that were used in this research were family and pursuing education. To identify other reasons for emigration, the researcher also included political reasons and added an option of writing other reason(s) for leaving Zimbabwe if the participants did not find the reason(s) for emigrating on the list of reasons provided in the questionnaire. Economic reasons constituted more percentage (unemployment (32%) +low income (17.6%) + poverty (10.4%) +job transfer (3.7%) +poor business environment (2%) =65.7%), followed by pursue an education with 25.4 %, and family reunion with 8.9 %. The study uncovered that economic conditions from 2008 to 2019 were worse than before leading to many Zimbabweans leaving the country.

Table 3 Main Reasons for Leaving Zimbabwe

| Reasons for leaving Zimbabwe | Percent |
|---|---|
| Unemployment in Zimbabwe | 32.0 |
| Pursue an education | 25.4 |
| Low income | 17.6 |
| Poverty | 10.4 |
| Family reunion | 8.9 |
| Job transfer | 3.7 |
| Poor business environment | 2.0 |
| Total | 100.0 |

Source: Raw data collected from the participants of the study (2020)

According to the data collected by the researcher, more participants of the study identified economic reasons as the main reasons for emigrating from Zimbabwe to other countries. In Zimbabwe, there were higher unemployment rates as stated by the participants. Of those who were employed 21.9 percent stated that their incomes were not sufficient to carter for basic needs such as rent/shelter, food, water, and clothes. 6.1 percent of those who were working while in Zimbabwe stated that their salaries were sufficient to cover the basic needs. All the 105 participants stated that in the countries that they were residing their income was sufficient to cover the basic needs. These unfavorable working conditions influenced Zimbabwe to emigrate to other destinations. The literature of the study also indicated that this new trend of migration resulted from economic factors than non-economic factors (Crush & Tevera , 2010). Those participants who left because of low incomes considered the availability of better wages in the countries they decided to emigrate to. Wage differentials in Zimbabwe and emigrants' destination to a greater extent influence the decision made by the Zimbabweans to leave the country.

### 5.3 Destinations for Zimbabweans Between 2008, and 2019

The questionnaire also included destinations where Zimbabweans immigrated to. According to the data collected from the participants of the study, South Africa was the top destination where most Zimbabweans emigrated to. 47 participants indicated that they were staying in South Africa. It was easier for most Zimbabweans because of the easy border restrictions, and it was visa-free. Most Zimbabweans who went to South Africa were not employed in Zimbabwe. Turkey was the second destination of Zimbabwean emigrants. Turkey's economic conditions between the period under study were better and attracted many Zimbabwean emigrants. They were more emigrants who traveled to Turkey to further their education than those seeking employment opportunities. The third top destination for Zimbabweans emigrants was the United Kingdom. The fourth destination for Zimbabwean emigrants was China. The common factor in these countries was that they had stable and strong economies that had more job opportunities.

The following top destinations were characterized by thriving economies with more employment opportunities as well as offering better wages. Such better economic conditions in the destination countries had more influence on the decision-making process of Zimbabwean economic emigrants (Piesse, 2014). The deflationary and depressed economic environment pushed many Zimbabweans out of Zimbabwe to other destinations, for instance, the United Kingdom, and South Africa searching for better economic conditions (Mlambo, , 2010). According to the data collected from the participants of the study, most Zimbabweans emigrated to destinations in the following table.

Table 4: Top destinations

| Current Residence | No of Participants | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Turkey | 26 | 24.762 |
| South Africa | 47 | 44.762 |
| United Kingdom | 11 | 10.476 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| United States of America | 2 | 1.905 |
| Botswana | 1 | 0.952 |
| Australia | 1 | 0.952 |
| Holl, and | 1 | 0.952 |
| China | 6 | 5.714 |
| Mozambique | 2 | 1.905 |
| Malawi | 1 | 0.952 |
| United Arab Emirates | 2 | 1.905 |
| Namibia | 1 | 0.952 |
| Germany | 1 | 0.952 |
| Russia | 1 | 0.952 |
| Pol, and | 1 | 0.952 |
| Zambia | 1 | 0.952 |
| Total | 105 | 100.000 |

Source: Raw data collected from the participants of the study (2020) The following table indicates the years when the participants of the research departed Zimbabwe. Most participants of the research departed Zimbabwe in 2010 and 2016. These two years were identified as having better chances of leaving Zimbabwe because the government had started using a multicurrency system that allowed people to use currencies such as USD to acquire traveling documents. During this short-lived economic recovery owing to the use of a multicurrency system, Zimbabweans saw a window of opportunity to acquire necessary traveling documents such as passports so that they would leave Zimbabwe since they predicted that the measure would not last long based on uncertainty economic policies made by the government in the previous years.

Table 5 Year of departure from Zimbabwe

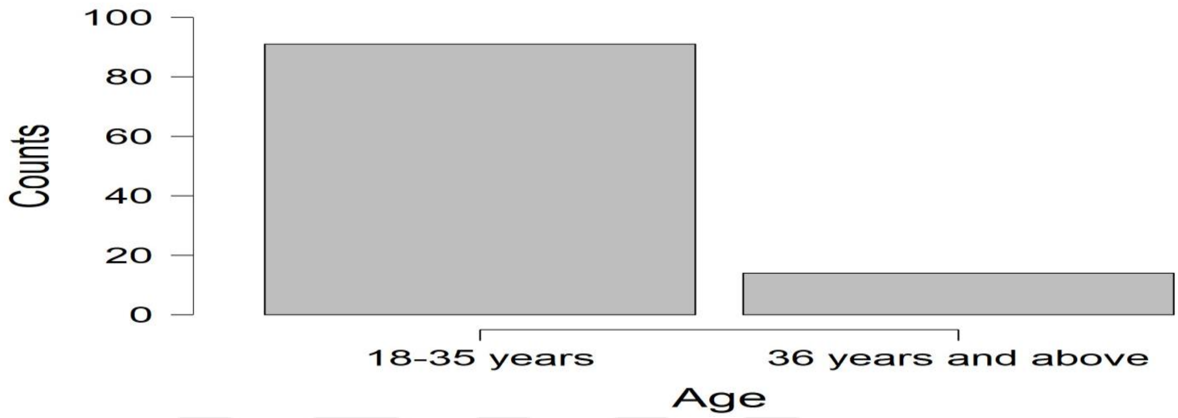
| Year of departure from Zimbabwe | No of Participants | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| 2008 | 3 | 2.857 |
| 2009 | 5 | 4.762 |
| 2010 | 15 | 14.286 |
| 2011 | 6 | 5.714 |
| 2012 | 8 | 7.619 |
| 2013 | 11 | 10.476 |
| 2014 | 3 | 2.857 |
| 2015 | 12 | 11.429 |
| 2016 | 15 | 14.286 |
| 2017 | 13 | 12.381 |
| 2018 | 8 | 7.619 |
| 2019 | 6 | 5.714 |
| Missing | 0 | 0.000 |
| Total | 105 | 100.000 |

Source: Raw data collected from the participants of the study (2020)

**5.4 Emigrants' Ages**

The research considered the age of Zimbabwean emigrants to determine their economic activeness. The constitution of the Republic of Zimbabwe (Chapter 2 subsection 20) defines youths as individuals who are aged between 18, and 35 years. The research used the definition of the youths from the Zimbabwean constitution to group participants. The researcher categorized the age of the participants into those who fell between the ages of 18, and 35 years as youths, and 36 years, and above as elders. The individuals who fell between were the ones who were considered most economically active. 91 participants were aged between 18, and 35 years and 14 participants were aged 36 years, and above. This is an indication that youths constituted a larger percentage of Zimbabwean emigrants. There were more economically active people who left Zimbabwe between the years 2008, and 2019, and this had a negative impact on the economic growth of Zimbabwe. The following bar graph shows a representation of the composition of Zimbabwean emigrants between 2008-2019.

Figure 11 Age distribution for the emigrants




Source: Raw data collected from the participants of the study (2020)

### 5.5 Education Levels of Zimbabwean Emigrants

One of the major determinants of emigration considered by the researcher was the highest level attained by the participants of the study. According to the data collected by the researcher, participants who had attained at least a high school education opted to emigrate from Zimbabwe. Those who had attained high school education emigrate to study degrees of their choice. The data from the participants reflected that there were more degreed Zimbabwean emigrants. This meant that the government lost a lot of highly qualified professionals that could have better the Zimbabwean economic situation. The following table shows the highest levels of education that were acquired by Zimbabwean emigrants between the years 2008, and 2019.

Table 6 Education levels of the emigrants

| Highest education | No of Participants | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| High School | 9 | 8.571 |
| Diploma | 19 | 18.095 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Degree | 43 | 40.952 |
| Master's Degree | 26 | 24.762 |
| PhD | 8 | 7.619 |
| Missing | 0 | 0.000 |
| Total | 105 | 100.000 |

Source: Raw data collected from the participants of the study (2020)

### 5.6 Likelihood of Returning to Zimbabwe

The question of whether the Zimbabwe diaspora community would return to Zimbabwe would sound unpatriotic to ask, however, the researcher included the question in the questionnaire to gain an insight on whether Zimbabwean in diaspora would return. The return of Zimbabweans in diaspora depends on the state of the economy as well as other noneconomic factors. Zimbabweans in the diaspora have been exposed to better living conditions in developed countries. The cost of reallocating back to Zimbabwe might be greater and may be considered high for Zimbabweans in the diaspora to return to their motherland. The bright side is that the exposure life in developed countries, Zimbabweans in diaspora would be in a better position to assist in the development of the country. The skills and expertise acquired while living abroad can be essential for the country's development. Nonetheless, the country's preparedness to integrate many Zimbabweans who emigrated from the country is debatable and questionable. The economy of Zimbabwe has been attempting to recover, and the rate of success had been unable to provide opportunities for the high percentage of the unemployed in Zimbabwean.

The participants were asked by the researcher whether they considered returning to Zimbabwe. This question was asked by the researcher to anticipate the number of Zimbabweans who considered returning to Zimbabwe. 32 participants responded that they were not considered returning to Zimbabwe because of poor economic conditions, and only 4 out of 105 participants confirmed that they considered returning to Zimbabwe. The following table comprises responses from the participants of the study whether they considered returning to Zimbabwe or not.

Table 7 Likelihood of returning to Zimbabwe

| Likelihood of returning to Zimbabwe | No of Participants | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| No | 32 | 30.476 |
| Maybe | 30 | 28.571 |
| Not decided/not sure | 30 | 28.571 |
| Most likely | 9 | 8.571 |
| Yes | 4 | 3.810 |
| Missing | 0 | 0.000 |
| Total | 105 | 100.000 |

Source: Raw data collected from the participants of the study (2020)

International organizations like the World Bank, ILO, and even the Zimbabwean government have maintained that unemployment rates in Zimbabwe have been ranking below 10% in the last decade, economic analysts, and the media, however, have vehemently denied such statistics (Maulani & Agwanda , 2020). The acclaimed the 90% employed were living paycheck to paycheck making employment in Zimbabwe unproductive. The study noted that the basic needs and services were not being met by many Zimbabweans. Given the just described situation, the researcher asked if there were conditions to change in Zimbabwe so that they could consider returning to Zimbabwe. The participants cited improvement of the economic conditions could only make them return to Zimbabwe. The table below shows the conditions stated by the participants so that they could consider returning to Zimbabwe.

Table 8 Recommendations from the participants

| Recommendations | No of participants | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Improved living conditions | 20 | 19.048 |
| High income | 12 | 11.429 |
| Increased availability of jobs | 22 | 20.952 |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Political stability | 3 | 2.857 |
| Better business environment | 4 | 3.810 |
| All of the above | 44 | 41.905 |
| Missing | 0 | 0.000 |
| Total | 105 | 100.000 |

Source: Raw data collected from the participants of the study (2020)

### 5.7 Cross analysis of literature data, and findings

The main findings in the literature reflected that the economic conditions before independence in Zimbabwe were favorable, and this resulted in a balanced migration pattern in Zimbabwe. The business environment attracted investors from countries such as Germany who invested in sectors such as mining, and agriculture. Investments in such sectors ensured the availability of reproductive employment in Zimbabwe. Fewer people were emigrating from Zimbabwe because of the availability of employment with meaningful salaries that made people save for investment purposes. Banks managed to function effectively because Zimbabweans would come to deposit their savings that increased with time. Other sectors of the economy functioned without disruptions because the economy was running effectively. Inflation during this period remained under 4 percent.

However, after attaining independence, the sectors of the economy began to deteriorate. Between 1980, and 2000, investors were still coming to invest in Zimbabwe but their number had reduced because of the deteriorating economic environment. During this period, Zimbabweans began to emigrate to other countries such as the United Kingdom. After the government implemented policies such as the Fast Track Land Reform Program, many companies left Zimbabwe leaving many Zimbabweans unemployed. The agricultural sector failed to produce food sufficient to feed the country. Poverty rates increased at a faster rate than before. The Zimbabwean dollar drastically lost its value.

Between 2008, and 2019, the number of Zimbabwean migrants increased. In 2008, there was hyperinflation that made saving impossible, and most Zimbabweans lived paycheck to paycheck. Unemployment rates increased, and poverty increased with the access to basic needs such as food, and water was very limited. Zimbabweans would survive by going to neighboring countries such as South Africa, Mozambique, Zambia, and Botswana to buy food. Countries in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) devoted themselves to cooperate in all areas, including economic area, to improve regional development. However, the major difference in the SADC members is that they have achieved different levels of both economic, and democratic development. This affected the level of accountability in SADC countries leading to underdevelopment in some member states, and high levels of corruption in others that have negatively affected the quality of lives, case in point Zimbabwe. These hard situations triggered massive emigration of Zimbabweans to other countries in search of employment and better living conditions. More Zimbabweans left Zimbabwe between 2008, and 2019 than in other periods.

Figure 12 A summary of movement migrants to , and from Zimbabwe

**PRIOR INDEPENDENCE**

More immigrants coming to Zimbabwe to invest in sectors such as mining , and agriculture. Less Zimbabweans emigrated because they were employed , and the economic conditions were better.

↓

**AFTER INDEPENDENCE (1980-2000)**

There was balanced migration during this period. The economic conditions began to deteriorate but a very slower rate because the Zimbabwean currency was still a strong currency , and investors were still coming but the numbers had reduced by 50 percent. Zimbabweans began to emigrate but maintaining a balanced migration

↓

**2001 to 2007**

Unbalanced migration trends with many Zimbabwe emigrating to other countries such as South Africa , and the United Kingdom. The implementation of poor macro-policies led to many companies closing down , and unemployment increased to over 70 percent.

↓

**2008 to 2019**

Unbalanced migration continued with more , and more Zimbabweans emigrating to South Africa, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States of America , and other countries. Economic conditions worsened, unemployment rates increased, poverty rates increased , and education emigrants increased when compared to other periods. Economic emigrants dominated the population of Zimbabweans in diaspora

Zimbabweans in the diaspora were noted to be sending money back to their beloved ones living in Zimbabwe. Remittances were considered a major source of income for most Zimbabweans who were left by their beloved ones who travelled abroad. At the national level, remittances were used for infrastructural development. People with relatives abroad built houses, and shops using the money that was sent from abroad. Remittances were considered sources of foreign currency, and it benefitted the economy most since the country was suffering from massive shortages of foreign currency. At the household level, remittances were used to curb poverty. Zimbabweans with relatives in diaspora received remittance that they used to increase their food security and to meet health needs. Remittances were also used to pay tuition fees for the families' children. Huge amounts of remittances came from South Africa, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and China.

The negative part of this type of migration was brain drain. As observed from the responses of the participants, most of the Zimbabwean emigrants were highly trained personnel who could have participated in the economic development of the country. They contributed to the countries that were residing. The skills that they learned in Zimbabwe were used in other countries with better remunerations. In this regard, Zimbabwe is viewed as an exporter of trained labor. This type of export had less benefit to Zimbabwe than the destination countries. Between 2008, and 2019, brain drain was the main negative impact that was observed by the research.

According to the data collected from the participants of the research, to a greater degree economic factors influenced the decisions of Zimbabweans to emigrate to other countries. The hypothesis that economic factors lead to the emigration of Zimbabweans was correct. The researchers also observed that Zimbabweans emigrated for other reasons such as acquiring education, and family reunion. Emigration was used as a successful survival strategy by Zimbabweans to increase their sources of income, and economic advancement. Remittances were observed as the main positive impact, and brain drain as a negative impact of emigrations of Zimbabweans to other countries.

# CHAPTER 6:

## 6.1 Conclusion

This research aimed to measure the extent to which economic factors led to the emigration of Zimbabweans to other better destinations. The study used a mixed methodology to investigate, collect data, analyze, and crafting a conclusion on the impacts of economic factors on emigration in Zimbabwe. A mixed methodology was employed by the researcher because it was more appropriate to the nature of the study and gave more insight into the impacts of economic factors on emigration in Zimbabwe between 2008, and 2019. The study conducted a survey by distributing an online google form to the participants of the study. 105 Zimbabweans took part in the study without coercion, and honestly. The study used JASP, and SPSS software to combine and analyze data collected from the participants of the study as well as creating graphs, and tables that were further translated, and explained by the researcher.

Based on an explanatory sequential design, to a greater extent economic factors were the push factors that led to the emigration of many Zimbabweans to other destinations. According to the results of the study, the researcher concluded that the emigration of Zimbabweans between 2008, and 2019 was largely driven by poor economic performance, lack of employment, lack of meaningful salaries, and closure of companies in Zimbabwe. The results of the study indicated that the movement of Zimbabweans from Zimbabwe to other countries was, to a greater extent, motivated by poor economic conditions in Zimbabwe. However, the study unveiled there were other factors that led to the emigration of Zimbabweans to other countries. These factors included emigrating for the purposes of acquiring education and reuniting with families in other countries. These social factors had less influence on the emigration of Zimbabweans to other countries.

The study focused on the reasons for emigration in Zimbabwe. People in the 21$^{st}$ Century are more migratory than those before them because of the interconnectedness of the world. Migrating from point A to point B is made easy by the use of advanced, and fast transportation systems. Migration has consequences on both the countries of emigrants, and the destination. The study intended to unveil the major reasons for the emigration of

Zimbabweans to other countries. The major variable that was tested in this study was the economic factor, and the other reasons were also considered. The hypothesis for this study was that the economic conditions of Zimbabwe influenced the decision of Zimbabweans to emigrate to other countries. According to the results of the study, the hypothesis that was tested by the study was true.

The study reviewed existing literature on migration, and economic conditions. From the literature that was thoroughly reviewed, the study uncovered that the period between 2008, and 2019 was weakly investigated by other researchers. The period that was covered by the study was a time when the economic conditions in Zimbabwe worsened, and many Zimbabweans emigrated to other destinations with better economic conditions. In 2008, Zimbabwe experienced recording-breaking hyperinflation in the world. The unemployment rate rose and was averaged at 80 percent. The buying power of the Zimbabwean dollar reduced leading to the government abandoning the weak currency, and adopted the multicurrency system with the United States dollar dominating in the economy, and was used alongside the other currencies such as the South African Rand. The adoption of this multicurrency system set Zimbabwean on a failed path because the real economic power was held by the owners of the currencies. Coupled with other non-economic factors, the Zimbabwean living conditions worsened leading to the exiting of many Zimbabweans from Zimbabwe heading to other destinations with better economic conditions.

Data was collected from the participants of the study through online forms, and online interviews because there was a Covid 19 outbreak that affected the accessibility of the participants. The online forms and interviews provided a better insight into the extent to which the main reasons for emigration in Zimbabwe. Structured online surveys collected quantitative data that was analyzed by the JASP, and SPSS by the researcher. They provided the numbers of both economic emigrants and non-economic emigrants. Descriptive analysis in both the software for analyzing were used by the researcher to vividly, and easily convert raw data from the participants to understandable information. The researcher employed a qualitative design to interpret and convert data from the participants of the study to dig deep into how the economic factors influenced emigration in Zimbabwe.

The data that was collected in this study indicated that to a greater extent the economic factors influence the participants to exit Zimbabwe. Other factors influenced the few participants of the study to leave Zimbabwe, and these factors were social namely pursuing education, and reuniting with families. The participants recommended that for them to consider coming back to Zimbabwe, economic conditions in Zimbabwe should improve. More emphasis was placed on the availability of jobs with better, and meaningful remunerations. Most participants when asked if they could consider returning to Zimbabwe they responded with a negative response. This meant from the larger population of Zimbabweans in the diaspora only a small population is considering returning to Zimbabwe.

The movement of Zimbabweans prior to, and after independence was investigated by the researcher. Prior to independence, under the leadership of the late Prime Minister Smith, Zimbabwe (formerly known as Rhodesia) the economic environment attracted migrants from European countries such as Germany. The business environment was known to protect the interests of the investors, and investors came knowing that their interests were served. This coming of investors resulted in the opening of new companies that employed many Zimbabweans. The German investors invested heavily in the mining sector that resulted in many Zimbabwean being employed in the mining sector. Few Zimbabweans were emigrating to other countries because of shortages of employment.

Between 1980, and 2000, under the Mugabe leadership, the economic conditions began to deteriorate thus affecting the availability of employment. The late president Mugabe implemented Education for All policy that stated that every Zimbabwean would access education at a low cost or no cost at all. This resulted in many Zimbabweans getting educated that assisted them to get employment in Zimbabwe, and other countries. However, in 1990, the government implemented the Economic Structural Adjustment Program that required the government to cut on expenditure by retrenching method. Thousands of Zimbabweans were retrenched, and this was the genesis of the retrenchment of workers by both the government and companies in the private sector. Due to poor policy implementation, the economy started failing as did the service delivery system. During this period, a few Zimbabweans who had the financial means emigrated to countries such as the United Kingdom.

After 2001, the government implemented the Fast Track Land Reform Program that had a huge negative impact on the economy. The Fast Track Land Reform Program was a program implemented by the government of Zimbabwe to take back land from the white owners and redistributed it to the black Zimbabweans. The idea was noble but the method used to execute the idea was questionable. The land was taken violently from the whites, and this attracted sanctions from the United States of America and the United Kingdom. The economic sanction deepened the economic wound and led to the shutting down of productive companies in Zimbabwe. Many Zimbabweans were laid off from their jobs thus increasing unemployment rates in Zimbabwe. In the year 2008, food prices rose exorbitantly, and poverty rates skyrocketed making it very difficult for many households to live above the poverty lines. Many Zimbabweans opted to become economic migrants so that they could better themselves economically.

The period that was thoroughly investigated by the researcher, 2008 to 2019, recorded the worst economic situations ever in the history of Zimbabwe and increased migration of Zimbabwe from Zimbabwe. The Zimbabwean dollar lost its value completely to an extent that the government in 2009 chose to use other foreign currencies such as the United States dollar, and the South African rand as legal tenders in Zimbabwe. This measure was short-lived and was a knife to the heart of the economy of Zimbabwe. The economy never recovered, and the best, and viable option for many Zimbabweans was to emigrate to other countries to gain better salaries and better economic conditions. In conclusion, poor economic conditions were the main reasons for emigration in Zimbabwe between 2008, and 2019.

### 6.2 Recommendations

The study has unveiled that overall poor economic performance led to many Zimbabweans exiting the country. The study identified economic sanctions on Zimbabwe as a major blockade of economic growth in Zimbabwe. The United States of America and the European Union stated that if the economic sanctions on Zimbabwe are to be removed, Zimbabwe should make certain economic, and political reforms. It is important to acknowledge that the removal of economic sanctions on Zimbabwe will result in economic growth through a continuous, and undisrupted flow of FDIs into the economy of Zimbabwe that will lead to the opening, and reopening of industries in Zimbabwe. The newly opened industries in Zimbabwe will offer productive employment with better wages that will lead to return migration.

The participants of the study recommended that the government should improve the implementation of macroeconomic policies. the economic blueprints stated in this study were brilliant economic blueprints that could have yielded more positive results. However, the implementation of such excellent economic blueprints is poor. The Zimbabwean government should have strong management, and monitoring tools when implementing these economic blueprints. The three main elements of policy monitoring are evidence/data gathering, evidence evaluation, and influence of policy decisions. The Zimbabwean government has weak evidence or date gathering systems that need to be advanced. The evaluation process is very weak, and the systems are used are merely up-to-date. The solution to the strong implementation of policies lies in e-government. Zimbabwean government should improve e-government to reduce high levels of corruption in Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe uses a system that is full of paperwork, and the rate at which the e-government is introduced is very slow. This system nurtures corruption, and this undermines how data is collected, analyzed evaluated during the implementation of economic policies. Turkey, for instance, has an e-government that works properly making it easy for the tracking of policy progress. The government of Zimbabwe should copy, and improve e-government from a developed country such as Turkey.

The participants also suggested that the government should increase investor confidence. Both national, and international investors have lost confidence in the economy of Zimbabwe. The confidence was lost due to economic policies such as the Indigenous Empowerment Act of 2008 which required all foreign-owned companies to offer 51% of their shares to the indigenous black Zimbabweans. In 2018, the Indigenous Empowerment Act was amended, and the amendments were incorporated into the Finance Act of 2018 which stated that for any business to operate in the 12 sectors of the economy of Zimbabwe, it should be owned by a Zimbabwean citizen, and for the new business to be set up in Zimbabwe, the owner of the business should be granted permission by the Minister of Finance, and Economic Development. The Finance Act of 2018 amended that ownership of the businesses in Zimbabwe was extended to include citizens of Zimbabwe, and not limited to indigenous black Zimbabweans. This move by the government was an applausable effort but has not yielded tangible results that can lure Zimbabweans living in the diaspora to return to Zimbabwe. There is a need for the Zimbabwean government to craft economic policies that will attract more investment to the country that will lead to productive employment creation.

Study literature reflected that the currency of Zimbabwe (ZW$) has been losing value rapidly over time, and it is a known fact that bad currency drives away good currency. The economy of Zimbabwe is running on a bad currency that is continuously discouraging the flow of investment into Zimbabwe. The Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe should introduce a national currency that is printed on valuable paper that is backed up by commodities such as gold, diamonds, and platinum. The government should stop printing fiat money that is not backed up by any physical commodities such as diamonds but rather by the word of government. The government should then refrain from using a foreign currency, such as the USD, as national its national currency because it undervalues the Zimbabwean dollar. Fixing the issue of currency will enable to stabilize the economy, and citizens will be able to open savings accounts that they will utilize. The study observed also that what drove Zimbabweans out of the country is a weak currency that discourages savings. Savings are good for economic growth because they lead to local investment and the opening of local industries that can employ the locals.

The participants also suggested that the government should embark on land reallocation. Unreproductive land that was distributed through the Fast Track L, and Reform Program (FTLP) should be seized, and be redistributed to farmers with the capacity to produce using that l, and. Poverty indexes in Zimbabwe have been high partly because of incapable black farmers who benefitted from the Fast Track L, and Reform Program, and we're not producing according to l, and allocated to them. The government of Zimbabwe is importing maize to feed its citizens, and yet farmable land is idle and underutilized. By redistributing l, and capable farmers food security will be ensured, and Zimbabweans may return to Zimbabwe.

The study also grasped that national budgeting in Zimbabwe has been very weak, and a significant percentage of the budget pays civil servants. The government should strengthen its budgeting system, and focus on developmental projects that regenerate revenue. In the Southern African region, Zimbabwe has the weakest budgeting system that places more focus on national issues that do not regenerate revenue. Strengthening good fiscal governance increases transparency, and accountability, and rebuild citizen trust in any government. This can be achieved by developing a more strategic vision of public expenditures; better aligning budget, and policy objectives such as performance-based budgeting, and modernizing public control, and audit frameworks. The public expenditure of Zimbabwe has been criticized for including non-developmental expending such as buying luxurious cars for government officials. This type of spending only results in budget deficits that are not good for the economic performance of Zimbabwe. Performance-based budgeting aims to improve the efficiency, and effectiveness of the public. It ensures the crafting of cost-effective, and efficient budgeting frameworks that yield better service delivery in a country. The government of Zimbabwe should make national budgets based on performance for the deliverance of public services. The deliverance of public services has been very poor with water, and electricity services being the worse. Better service system delivery is essential for economic performance. A better service delivery system is driven by better economic performance, and this will result in a migrant return.

## REFERENCES


African Development Bank. (2011). *Private Sector Development as an Engine of Africa's Economic Development.* African Development Bank.

Anich, R., Crush , J., Melde , S., & Ouchu , D. (2014). *New Perspective on Human Mobility in the South.* London: Springer.

Arango, J. (2017). Theories of international migration. . In *International migration in the new millennium* (pp. 25-45). Routledge.

Arnold, G. (2014 ). *Guide to African political , and economic development.* Routledge.

Besada, H., & Moyo, , N. (2008). *Zimbabwe in Crisis: Mugabe's policies , and failures.*

Besley, T., & Ghatak, M. (2010). Property rights , and economic development. . In *H, and book of development economics (Vol. 5)* (pp. 4525-4595). Elsevier.

Bolt, M. (2015). *Zimbabwe's Migrants , and South Africa's Border Farms: the roots of impermanence (Vol. 50).* . Cambridge University Press.

Bowen, G. A. (2009 ). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*.

Brown, P., & Lauder, H. (2006). Globalisation, knowledge , and the myth of the magnet economy. *Globalisation, Societies , and Education, 4(1),*, 25-57.

Bryan, G., & Morten, M. (2019). The aggregate productivity effects of internal migration:

Evidence from indonesia. *Journal of Political Economy,*, 2229-2268.

Carmody, P. (2017). *The new scramble for Africa.* John Wiley & Sons.

Caves, R. E. (1971). International corporations: The industrial economics of foreign investment. . *Economica*, 1-27.

Chhibber, A. (1989). *Inflation, price controls, , and fiscal adjustment in Zimbabwe (No. 192).* . World Bank Publications.

Chik, and a, A. (2005). Nurse migration from Zimbabwe: analysis of recent trends , and impacts. . *Nursing Inquiry, 12(3),* , 162-174.

Chitiyo, K., & Kibble, S. (2014). Zimbabwe's international re-engagement. In *The long haul to recovery.* The Royal Institute of International Affairs: Chatam House.

Chitiyo, K., Vines, A., & Vandome , C. (2016). The domestic , and external implications of Zimbabwe's economic reform , and re-engagement agenda. *The Royal Institute of International Affairs.*

Cliffe, L., Alex, and er, J., Cousins, B., & Gaidzanwa, R. (2011). An overview of fast track land reform in Zimbabwe: editorial introduction. *Journal of Peasant Studies, 38(5),* , 907-938.

Constant, A., & Massey, D. S. (2002). Return migration by German guestworkers: Neoclassical versus new economic theories. *International migration*, 5-38.

Coorey, S., Clausen, , J. R., Funke, N., Muñoz, S., & & Ould-Abdal, B. (2007). *Lessons From High Inflation Epidsodes for Stabilizing the Economy in Zimbabwe.* IMF Working Papers.

Creswell. (2012). *Educational reserch: Planning, conducting , and evaluating quantitative , and qualitative research 4th Ed.* N J: Pearson Education.

Creswell, J. W., & Plano-Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing , and conducting mixed research method* . California: BMJ Publishing Group.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, N. C. (2017). *Qualitative inquiry , and research design: Choosing among five approaches.* . Sage publications.

Crush, J., & Tevera , S. D. (2010). *Zimbabwe's exodus: Crisis, migration, survival.* . African Books Collective.

Crush, J., & Tevera, D. S. (2010). *Zimbabwe's exodus: Crisis, migration, survival.* African Books Collective.

Doxey, M. P. (1987). *International sanctions in contemporary perspective.* . Springer.

Dzingirai, V., Eva-Maria , E., Loren, L., Litchfield , J., Mutopo , P., & Nyikahadzoi, K. (2015). Migrating out of Poverty in Zimbabwe. *Moving out of poverty* (p. 27). Sussex: University of Sussex.

Fischler, A. S. (2015). *Mixed Methods.* Nova Southeastern University.

Gallagher, M. J., & Muzorewa, , S. C. (2017). The Economic Growth in Peru , and the Economic Struggles of Zimbabwe. *JBET*.

Government of Zimbabwe. (2019). *February 2019 Monetary Policy Statement.*

Gowll, and -Debbas, V. (1990). *Collective responses to illegal acts in international law: United Nations action in the question of Southern Rhodesia (Vol. 11).* . Martinus Nijhoff Publishers.

GoZ, G. o. (2019). *The 2019 Budget Statement.*

Hagenaars, A., & De Vos, K. (1988). The Definition , and Measurement of Poverty. *The Journal of Human Resources*, 211-221.

Harris, J. R., & Todaro, M. P. (1970). Migration, unemployment , and development: a two-sector analysis. *The American economic review*, 126-142.

Harrison , R. L., Reilly, T. M., & Creswell , J. W. (2020). Methodological rigor in mixed methods: An application in management studies . *Journal of mixed methods* .

Huni, S. (2018). *The mining regulatory framework , and its impact on the drive for beneficiation in Zimbabwe between 2009 , and 2016* . Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

ILO. (2012). *Youth Employment Interventions in Africa Mapping Report of the Employment , and Labour Sub-Cluster of the Regional Coordination Mechanism (RCM) for Africa.* ILO: Geneva.

International Labour Organization. (2019 ).

Javorcik, B. S., Özden, Ç., Spatareanu, M., & Neagu, C. (2011). Migrant networks , and foreign direct investment. *Journal of development economics*, 231-241.

Jennissen, R. (2004). *Macro-economic determinants of international migration in Europe.* Groningen: University of Groningen.

K, and iah, M. (. ( 2001). *Rhodesian UDI.* . London : Institute of Contemporary British History, University of London.

Kanyenze, G., Chitambara , P., & Tyson, J. (2017). *The Outlook for the Zimbabwean Economy* .

Keynes, J. M. ( 1935). *The General Theory of Employment, Interest, , and Money.*

Kohli, A. (2004). *State-directed development: political power , and industrialization in the global periphery.* . Cambridge : Cambridge university press.

Lee, E. S. (1966). A theory of migration. *Demography*, 47-57.

Lester, M., & O'Kane, M. (2020, May 25). Retrieved from European Sanctions: Law, Practice , and Guidance : https://www.europeansanctions.com/region/zimbabwe/

Lewis, W. A. (1954). Economic development with unlimited supplies of labour. . *The manchester school*, 139-191.

Lipsey, R. E., Feenstra, , R. C., Hahn , C. H., & Hatsopoulos, G. N. (1999). The role of foreign direct investment in international capital flows. In *International capital flows* (pp. 307-362). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Maenzanise, C. (2016). *Analyzing the public policy framework in promoting sustainable Socio-economic development. Case study: Zimbabwe (2000-2015).*

Makambe, E. P. (1980). The Nyasal, and African Labour'Ulendos' to Southern Rhodesia , and the Problem of the African'Highwaymen', 1903-1923: A Study in the Limitations of Early Independent Labour Migration. African Affairs. *African Affairs* , 548-566.

Makina, D. (2016). *"Study on Zimbabwe's Macroeconomic stability , and Policy Options",.*

Maphosa, E., Makurira, R., & Juru, M. (2019). Construction , and property development under austerity in Zimbabwe. In *Aspects of Real Estate Theory , and Practice in Zimbabwe: An Exploratory Text.*

Masaka, D. (2011). Moral paralysis in Zimbabwe's economy: A challenge to the Government of National Unity (GNU). . *International Journal of politics , and good governance, 2(2.2),*, 1-25.

Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A., & Taylor, , J. E. (1993). Theories of international migration: A review , and appraisal. In *Population , and Development Review* (pp. 431-466.).

Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A., & Taylor, J. E. (1998). *Worlds in motion: Underst, and ing international migration at the end of the millennium.* Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Maulani, N., & Agw, and a , B. (2020). Youth Unemployment , and Government ProEmployment Policies in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Social Policy Conferences, 78*. Retrieved from https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/iusskd/issue/53124/735537

McIndoe-Calder, T. ( 2018). Hyperinflation in Zimbabwe: money dem, and , seigniorage , and aid shocks. . *Applied Economics*, 1659-1675.

McIndoe-Calder, T., Bedi, T., & Mercado, R. (2019). Hyperinflation in Zimbabwe. In *Hyperinflation in Zimbabwe* (pp. 9-25). Cham.

Michel, E. (2018). *The White House , and White Africa: Presidential Policy Toward Rhodesia During the UDI Era, 1965-1979 (Vol. 9).* . Routledge.

Mlambo, A. S. (2008). 'We have Blood Relations over the Border': South Africa , and Rhodesian Sanctions, 1965–1975. *African historical review*, 1-29.

Mlambo, A. S. (2010 ). *History of Zimbabwean Migration.*

Moorcraft, P. L., & McLaughlin, P. (2010). *The Rhodesian war: A military history.* Stackpole Books.

Moore, D. (2001). Neoliberal globalisation , and the triple crisis of'modernisation'in Africa: Zimbabwe, the Democratic Republic of the Congo , and South Africa. *Third World Quarterly, 22(6),* , 909-929.

Moyana, H. V. (2002). *The political economy of l, and in Zimbabwe* . Mambo Press.

Moyana, H. V. (2002). *The political economy of l, and in Zimbabwe (No. rev. ed.).* Mambo Press.

Moyo, L., & Tsakata Mafuso, L. (2017). The effectiveness of foreign aid on economic development in developing countries: A case of Zimbabwe (1980-2000). *Journal of Social Sciences, 52(1-3),*, 173-187.

Mukwada, G., & Manatsa , D. (2013). Geospatial , and  temporal analysis of drought years in Zimbabwe, 1940–1999. *Geographia Polonica, 86(4),*, 313-326.

Murisa, T. (2010). Social development in Zimbabwe. In *Development Foundation of Zimbabwe.*

Mutopo, P. ( 2014. ). *Women, L, and  , and  Mobility in Zimbabwe: Experiences of Fast Track L, and  Reform,*. Leiden: Brill Publishers.

Muzurura, J., & Sikwila, M. (2018). Taxation, private fixed domestic investment behaviour , and  Zimbabwe economic growth. *merican Journal of Humanities , and  Social Sciences*, 26-39.

Ndao, M., Hima, A., Rabiou, A., & Lama, J. (2004). *World development report 2005: a better investment climate for everyone.* The World Bank.

O'Leary, Z. (2014). *The essential guide to doing your research project (2nd ed.).* SAGE Publications, Inc.

OFAC, O. o. (2013 ). *Zimbabwe Sanctions Program.* Washington DC : Department of the Treasury .

Pan, G. (2019). *The Push-Pull Theory , and  Motivations of Jewish Refugees. In: A Study of Jewish Refugees in China (1933–1945).* Singapore: Springer. doi:https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-9483-6_9

Petras, E. M. (1981). The Global Labor Market in the Modern World-Economy. . *International Migration Review,*, 44-63.

Piesse, M. (2014). Factors Influencing Migration , and  Population Movements – Part 1. Retrieved 10 21, 2020, from https://www.futuredirections.org.au/publication/factors-influencing-migration-, and -population-movements/

Potts, D. H. (2010). *Circular migration in Zimbabwe & contemporary sub-Saharan Africa.* . Boydell & Brewer.

Pratt, T. ( 2020). *The potential of the informal economy for development in Zimbabwe. .* LSE.

Price, J. H., & Murnan. , J. (2004). “Research Limitations , and the Necessity of Reporting Them.”. *American Journal of Health Education*, 66-67.

Rakodi, C. (1986). Colonial urban policy , and planning in Northern Rhodesia , and its legacy. . *Third World Planning Review, 8(3),*.

Ratha, D., & Shaw , W. (2007). Causes of South-South Migration , and Its Socioeconomic Effects. Retrieved 10 21, 2020, from https://www.migrationpolicy.org: https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/causes-south-south-migration-, and -itssocioeconomic-effects

Ravenstein , E. G. (1885). The Laws of Migration. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 167–227.

Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe. (2016).

Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe. (2018).

Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe. (2019).

Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe. (2019 ). *ZAMCO Report to the Public Accounts Committee.* Harare .

Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe. (2020).

Reynolds, P., Bosma, N., Autio, E., Hunt, S., De Bono, N., Servais, I., & Chin, N. (2005). Global entrepreneurship monitor: Data collection design , and implementation 1998–2003. *Small business economics*, 205-231.

Richardson, C. J. ( 2007). How much did droughts matter? Linking rainfall , and GDP growth in Zimbabwe. *African Affairs, 106(424),*, 463-478.

Ripley, M., & Hartrich, S. (2017). *Measuring productive employment.*

Roy, R., Heuty, A., & Letouze, E. (2007 ). *Fiscal space for what? Analytical tool from Human Development Perspective* . Istanbul: UNDP.

Rusvingo, S. L. (2015). The Zimbabwe soaring unemployment rate of 85%: A ticking time bomb not only for Zimbabwe but the entire SADC region. *Global Journal of Management , and Business Research*.

Rutherford, B. A. (2001). *Working on the margins: black workers, white farmers in postcolonial Zimbabwe.* Zed Books.

Sassen, S. ( 1990). *The mobility of labor , and capital: A study in international investment , and labor flow.* . Cambridge University Press.

Scott, P. (1954). Migrant labor in southern Rhodesia. . *Geographical Review, 44(1),* , 29-48.

Sib, and a, B. (2019). *ZIMBABWE'S MONETARY POLICY REGIME , AND THE CASH CRISIS.* Harare.

Sib, and a. D. (2016). *"Economic Update: The Economics of Populist Policy Making", November – December 2016,* . Harare. .

Sikwila, M. (2013). *Dollarization , and the Zimbabwe's Economy.* North West University South Africa.

Singh, H., & Jun, K. W. (1999). *Some new evidence on determinants of foreign direct investment in developing countries.* The World Bank.

Sub-committee, U. M. (1964 ). *he requirements , and supplies of high level manpower in Southern Rhodesia: 1961-1970* . Salisbury: University College of Rhodesia , and Nyasal, and , Department of Economics. .

Tigere, T. K. (2016). *The rationale behind Zimbabwe's foreign policy re-alignment in the context of re-engaging the West (2009-2016).*

Todaro, M. P. (1976). Urban job expansion, induced migration , and rising unemployment: a formulation , and simplified empirical test for LDCs. *Journal of Development Economics*, 211-225.

Tsang, E. W., & Yip, P. S. (2007). Economic distance , and the survival of foreign direct investments. *Academy of Management Journal*, 1156-1168.

Tyson, J. (2017). *Zimbabwe–A roadmap for economic transformation.* London: ODI, SET Programme.

United-Nations. (1995). *Work Summit for Social Development.* United Nations.

United-Nations. (2014). *International Migration 2013: Migrants by Origin , and Destination.* United Nations. Retrieved from https://esa.un.org/unmigration/documents/PF_South-South_migration_2013.pdf

Vanhove, N. (2018). *Regional policy: A European approach.* . Routledge.

Vroey, M. D. (2004 ). Involuntary Unemployment: The Elusive Quest for a Theory. *Conference on the History of macroeconomics.* Louvain-la-neuve: Universite catholique de Louvain.

Vuuren, P. (2012). Zimbabwe: Migration , and Brain Drain. *Research Gate*.

Watts, C. (2005). Killing kith , and kin: the viability of British military intervention in Rhodesia, 1964–5. . In *Twentieth Century British History,* (pp. 382-415.).

Wisdom , J., & Creswell , J. W. (2013 ). *Mixed methods: Intergrating quantitative , and qaulitative data collection , and anlaysis while studying patient-centered medical home models.*

World Bank. (2020). *The Work Bank in Zimbabwe* . Retrieved from The World Bank: https://www.worldbank.org/en/country/zimbabwe/overview

Zimbabwe Economic Policy Analysis , and Research Unit. (2010). *Measures to enhance Zimbabwe's fiscal space.*

ZIMSTATS. (2012 ). *Zimbabwe Central Statistical Office Report on Poverty 2012.* Harare : ZIMSTATS.

## ATTACHMENT : Research Survey Questions

RESEARCH SURVEY ON THE REASONS FOR EMIGRATION IN ZIMBABWE.

The researcher politely invited participants to voluntarily participate in his research and ensured that their responses remained anonymous. The research identified himself as Noah Maulani, studying a Master's Degree in Social Policy at Ankara Yıldırım Beyazit University. The researcher communicated to the participants that the data that were going to provide would be used for academic purposes (master's thesis purpose) by the researcher. The researcher communicated to the participants that their responses would be kept confidential by the researcher. The researcher thanked the participants for agreeing to participate in the research and asked the participants the following questions.

Are you willing to voluntarily participate in this study?

Answer 1: Yes (1)

Answer 2: No (2)

*Question 1)* What is your gender?

Answer 1: Male (1)

Answer 2: Female (2)

*Question 2)* What is your age?

Answer 1: 18 - 35 years (1)

Answer 2: 36 years , and  above (2)

*Question 3)* What is the highest education level you attained?

Answer 1: High School (1)

Answer 2: Diploma (2)

Answer 3: Degree (3)

Answer 4: Master's Degree (4)

Answer 5: PhD (5)

Answer 6: Other…

*Question 4)* In which country were you born?

Answer 1: Zimbabwe (1)

Answer 2: Other…

*Question 5) I*n which country are you currently residing in?

*Question 6)* What was the main reason for leaving Zimbabwe?

Answer 1: Pursue an education (1)

Answer 2: Unemployment in Zimbabwe (2)

Answer 3: Low income (3)

Answer 4: Poverty (4)

Answer 5: Job transfer (I was transferred from Zimbabwe to the country that I am currently residing) (5)

Answer 6: Poor business operating environment (unprofitable business environment , and /or lack of respect for property rights) (6)

Answer 7: Political reasons (7)

Answer 8: Family reunion (8)

Answer 9: Other…

*Question 7)* What was your employment status during your stay in Zimbabwe?

Answer 1: I was employed (1) (Skip to question 9)

Answer 2: I was not employed (2) (Answer the next question)

*Question 8)* If you were not employed, what was the main reason for unemployment?

Answer 1: No job markets for my profession (1)

Answer 2: Retrenchment (2)

Answer 3: The company I was working for closed down (3)

Answer 4: Other…

*Question 9)* If you were employed, was your income sufficient for covering the basic needs (such as rent/shelter, food, water, clothes). If you answered question 8, please skip this question.

Answer 1: Yes (1)

Answer 2: No (2)

*Question 10)* What is your employment status in the country you are residing in?

Answer 1: I am employed (1) (Please answer the next question)

Answer 2: I am not employed (2) (Skip to question 12)

*Question 11)* If you are currently employed, is your current income sufficient to cover your basic needs (such as rent/shelter, food, water, clothes)? Skip this question if it is not applicable to you. Answer 1: Yes (1)

Answer 2: No (2)

*Question 12)* When did you leave Zimbabwe? (Please just write the year you left Zimbabwe, for example 2009)

*Question 13)* Do you intend to return (permanently) to Zimbabwe?

Answer 1: No (1)

Answer 2: Maybe (2)

Answer 3: I am not sure (3)

Answer 4: Most likely (4)

Answer 5: Yes (5)

*Question 14)* What do you recommend so that you can return to Zimbabwe?

Answer 1: Better education systems (1)

Answer 2: Improved living conditions (improved access to water, improved access to electricity, improved access to affordable food, affordable shelter, affordable internet) (2)

Answer 3: High income (3)

Answer 4: Increased availability of jobs (4)

Answer 5: Political stability (5)

Answer 6: Better business environments (6)

Answer 7: All of the above (7)

Answer 8: Other…