

**Characteristics of immigrants in South Africa: A  
comparative analysis of immigrants from various regions in  
sub-Saharan Africa.**

**DRS Khumalo**

 [orcid.org/0000-0003-0497-0496](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0497-0496)

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements  
for the degree *Master of Social Sciences in Population Studies  
and Sustainable Development* at the North-West University,  
Mafikeng Campus

Supervisor: Dr. Karabo Mhele

Date of proposal submission: November 2023

Student number: 30029406

Version: Version 1

## **ABSTRACT**

**Background:** This study aimed to assess the challenges faced by South Africa in attempting to reduce the influx of immigrants into the country. Due to an insufficient local labour force, a recruitment system for labour migration was built to recruit miners from outside South Africa. After 1994, the democratic era opened opportunities for immigration from other sub-Saharan African regions, including the South, East, Central, and Western African regions, to seek better economic prospects. The main objective of this study was to examine the influence of different socio-economic and demographic factors on the flow of immigrants from various regions of sub-Saharan Africa into South Africa.

**Methods:** A 2016 Community Survey dataset was used to analyse the characteristics of immigrants in South Africa. Data were analysed using version 27 of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), and three methods were utilised: univariate analysis (frequency distribution), bivariate analysis (cross-tabulation and chi-square test), and multinomial analysis (logistic regression).

**Results:** This study revealed a relationship between immigration and South Africa. The results showed that the Southern African region had the most immigrants who resided within the country (87.7%) due to demographic, social, and economic considerations compared to other regions from sub-Saharan Africa. Central Africa contributed 4.2%. East Africa contributed 4.7%, while West Africa contributed 3.4% of immigrants to South Africa.

**Conclusions:** One can conclude that the study identified the challenges the country faces when planning for migrants in the country, also looking at which region is most likely to migrate into South Africa for socio-economic reasons and their prospects. However, this demonstrates the significance of cross-border and international migration from various regions of sub-Saharan Africa. Consequently, migration plays an important role in a country's development. The prospect that 12.5% of other sub-Saharan regions moved to South Africa in 2010 shows that asylum seekers, mainly from the East African region, immigrated to economic space. Moreover, implementing ways to reduce the influx of people immigrating to the country includes a broader understanding of recommendations for rethinking South African migration management strategies and policies. Furthermore, it shows precisely how migration has become a global phenomenon and how it has affected migrants in the receiving countries.

**Keywords:** Immigration, asylum seekers, refugees, sub-Saharan African Regions.

## **DECLARATION**

I, Dimpho Rowena Khumalo (30029406), declare that this work titled “Characteristics of immigrants in South Africa: A comparative analysis of immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa” is my original research work and has never been submitted for any degree or examination at any other University or Institution. I declare that the information contained in this document is a true copy of my thesis and has been approved for submission by my supervisor. This study was supervised by Dr. Karabo Mhele from the Department of Population Studies and Demography. This work is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Master of Social Science in Population and Sustainable Development degree at the North-West University, Mafikeng Campus, South Africa.

Name (student): Dimpho Rowena Khumalo

Signature: ***D. R. Khumalo***

Date: November 2023

Name (lecturer): Dr K. Mhele

Date: November 2023

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First, I would like to thank the Almighty God for guiding me and giving me the strength to work patiently on my project through all the obstacles I encountered. Working through this dissertation has been a journey with many emotional breakdowns. However, I always managed to push myself to work through and give it all. I am proud of myself for not always choosing to give up and, as such, for remembering that the purpose of my study is unique. I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Karabo Mhele, who expressed gratitude, support, and encouragement throughout my research. I would like to thank him for ensuring that I made it through this journey.

I would like to thank my mother, Elizabeth Khumalo, for always believing in me, no matter what. Her prayers and support have meant so much to me that I am truly grateful. Alongside my grandmother, Marry Nhlapo, for keeping me prayer consistently, and the rest of my family, who gave me words of encouragement, said that all would go well for me. I would like to thank my exchange JLU advisors from Germany for giving me the opportunity to present and advise on my work. Their words of involvement were also recognised. Without the contributions of the people mentioned above and God, I would not have done so on my own. Thank you all so much.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>II</b>
<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	<b>III</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	<b>IV</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	<b>VII</b>
<b>LIST OF APPENDICES</b> .....	<b>IX</b>
<b>ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</b> .....	<b>X</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 Background to the study .....	1
1.2 Statement of the problem .....	2
1.3 Main objective of the study.....	3
1.4 Specific objectives of the study .....	3
1.5 Research questions .....	4
1.6 Significance of the study.....	4
1.7 Scope of the study .....	4
1.8 Definition of concepts .....	4
1.9 The organisation of the study.....	5
<b>CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....	<b>6</b>
2.1 Introduction .....	6
2.2 Levels and trend of immigration in South Africa .....	6
2.3 Determinants of immigration .....	7
2.3.1 Unemployment.....	7
2.3.2 Marital status.....	8
2.3.3 Education .....	9
2.3.4 Age.....	10
2.3.5 Sex.....	10
2.3.6 Province .....	10

2.4	Theoretical framework .....	11
2.4.1	Migration Transition theory .....	11
2.4.2	Conceptual framework .....	13
<b>CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY .....</b>		<b>14</b>
3.1	Introduction .....	14
3.2	Research design.....	14
3.3	Data source.....	14
3.4	Sampling methods .....	14
3.5	Dependent variable.....	15
3.5.1	Independent variable .....	15
3.6	Study inclusion and exclusion criteria .....	16
3.7	Description of study variables.....	16
3.8	Method of analysis .....	16
3.9	Validity & reliability .....	17
3.10	Ethical considerations .....	17
<b>CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS.....</b>		<b>18</b>
4.1	Introduction .....	18
4.2	Bivariate analysis .....	23
4.2.1	Bivariate analysis .....	24
4.3	Multinomial Regression .....	28
<b>CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION .....</b>		<b>33</b>
5.1	Introduction .....	33
5.2	Main findings and discussion.....	33
5.3	Conclusions .....	36
5.4	Recommendations .....	37
<b>REFERENCE LIST .....</b>		<b>38</b>

**LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 2:1: Conceptual framework for characterises of immigrants in South Africa: Comparative analysis of various regions in sub-Saharan Africa..... 13

Figure 4:1: Univariate analysis table..... 19

**LIST OF TABLES**

Table 4.1 : Univariate analysis table ..... 21

Table 4.2: Percentage of immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa to South Africa.  
..... 22

Table 4.3: Bivariate Characteristics between immigrants to South Africa from various regions  
in sub-Saharan Africa..... 23

Table 4.4: Multinomial Logistic regression analysis for the relationship immigrants in South  
Africa: A comparison of sub-Saharan Africa regions..... 28



**LIST OF APPENDICES**

A1: Ethics approval letter.....41

## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STATSA	Statistics South Africa
SADC	Southern Africa Development Communities
TEBA	The Employment Bureau of Africa
WNLA	Witwatersrand Native Labour Association
NRC	Native Recruiting Corporation
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
CS	Community Survey 2016
EU	Enumeration Area

# CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background to the study

According to (Neubecker and Smolka, 2013), the phenomenon of international migration has been around for many generations in South Africa and has shifted from one form of migration to another. South Africa's immigration history dates back to the pre-colonial era, before the arrival of the first white settlers in 1652. However, little is known about the extent of migration during this period. This section focuses on the most recent immigration patterns. The most prominent factor influencing migration in South Africa is mining, through the discovery of diamonds, gold and other minerals, which led to significant inflows of people looking for work opportunities. (Mukumbang *et al.*, 2020) indicate that this was a turning point in migration, and it signalled the establishment of a new, strong economic development path in South Africa. The discovery of diamonds in Kimberly around the 1860s and gold in Witwatersrand in 1886 brought about changes in the country by attracting massive movements into South Africa, particularly through the demand for cheap labour that could not be satisfied by the local supply of workers.

Due to the insufficient local labour force, a central recruiting system for labour migration was built to recruit miners from outside and inside the South African Union. The Native Recruiting Corporation (NRC) began recruiting black, indigenous people to work in mines in 1912. Other recruitment agencies such as The Employment Bureau of Africa (TEBA) and Witwatersrand Native Labour Association (WNLA) started recruiting labour in the Southern African region from neighbouring countries such as Botswana, Mozambique, Swaziland, and Lesotho (Majee *et al.*, 2019). This set-in motion massive movement across South African borders for labour purposes. A study by Makhetha (2020) highlights that the number of migrant labourers from Lesotho in 1994 was about 101,032, representing 13.2% of the anticipated labour force, as per the Labour Force Survey. Although the number of Lesotho mineworkers employed in South African mines under the TEBA decreased from 1987 to 2012, Lesotho still contributed the highest number of migrant labourers in the country Dzingai (2016). Other countries, such as Mozambique, also sent substantial numbers of migrants, with the figure rising to 50 104 in 1990, which shows the migration pattern of the migrant labour force in South Africa. In addition to labour migrants from neighbouring Southern African countries, Kavuro (2015) indicates that the country continued to receive immigrants from the West and East African regions, such as refugees and asylum seekers.

Dick and Schraven (2019) emphasise that cross-border labour migration has long been observed due to those seeking employment. After 1994, the democratic era opened opportunities for immigration from other sub-Saharan African regions in South, East, Central, and West Africa, primarily to seek better economic prospects. Charron (2020) indicates that international migration is one of the pillars of relocation, especially for those who seek to escape instability in their countries. Later, other forms of African immigrants emerged, mostly from the West and East regions of Africa, including asylum seekers and refugees. As the economies of these countries deteriorated, many faced uncertainties, which posed a crisis of instability (Dithebe, 2017). Therefore, migrants from West Africa have begun to pursue migration to developed countries in search of a better economic life. Most of these migrants were professionals who arrived in South Africa as highly skilled doctors, teachers, or engineers (Teye *et al.*, 2015). In the East African region, migration is predominantly due to the non-voluntary movement of people inside countries, resulting in internal displacement and cross-border movement and refugee populations (Shimeles, 2010). Masolane (2019) mentioned that immigrants from countries such as Somalia, Ethiopia, Sudan, and Rwanda migrated to South Africa because of civil wars within these countries, and many people had to flee their homelands to become refugees in South Africa.

South Africa has gradually become an important destination for asylum seekers in sub-Saharan Africa. Estimations from the UNHCR (2022) indicated that South Africa hosted 250,250 refugees and asylum seekers from various regions, including Eastern, Western, and Central Africa. The source countries from Southern Africa include Botswana, Namibia, and Zimbabwe. Moreover, the number of asylum seekers grew from 6,800 in 1997 to 66,000 in 2013 and further rose from 112,000 to 121,600 in 2014 and 2015 (Van Lennep, 2019). Colby and Ortman (2014) state that in 2020, refugees and asylum seekers in South Africa were mainly from the East African region, with Ethiopia as the main source country. Furthermore, Somalia's chaos and civil conflict forced many people to flee their native country in pursuit of safety and a better life. Hence, many Somali refugees reached South Africa in search of economic opportunities. This study aims to examine the characteristics of immigrants and socio-economic factors in South Africa through a comparative analysis of various regions in sub-Saharan Africa.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

The influx of people from various regions in South, East, and West Africa has become a concern for South Africa. The most recent estimation from (SA, 2021b) indicates that there were about 3.95 million foreign-born people living in the country at the mid-point of 2021. This poses a

severe challenge to the country's stability, affecting service delivery and causing a more severe unemployment crisis than it was already experiencing. For example, the unemployment rate in the country has been estimated at around 32.9% (SA, 2022). The growth in the number of informal settlements and the decline in safety and social cohesion are some of the socio-economic consequences that have resulted from vast population expansion and economic growth. Pineteh (2017) concludes that this challenge creates additional problems when it comes to planning for migrants, especially because some will need special attention as they are likely to find it difficult to settle among the locals without some assistance from the authorities on issues such as security, access to health care, education, housing, and integration into society.

For example, Crush and Tawodzera (2014) suggest that school enrolment among immigrant children is low in South Africa. According to SA (2021a), there have been different estimations of the number of people in the country illegally, with the number of undocumented migrants estimated to be between 1,200,000 and 1,500,000. This lack of clearly established and accurate immigration data has allowed for the spread of misinformation and fuelled misconceptions regarding the lack of responsibility. Abramsky *et al.* (2018) avers that less restrictive regulations and procedures have made it easier for people to migrate to South Africa, which in turn has caused major migrant inflows into the country leading to critical economic growth conditions. Finally, the observation from the previous studies is that so far, no one has made a comparative analysis of the migration rates from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa or identified the major socio-economic drivers of such movements in South Africa. This study aimed to fill this gap by providing information from different African regions.

### **1.3 Main objective of the study**

The main objective of this study is to examine the influence of different socio-economic and demographic factors on the flow of immigrants from various regions of sub-Saharan Africa into South Africa.

### **1.4 Specific objectives of the study**

The study aims to answer the following specific objectives:

- To determine migration trends in various regions of sub-Saharan Africa between 2006 and 2016.
- To investigate the factors associated with immigration from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa.

## **1.5 Research questions**

The study aims to answer the following research questions:

- How do migration trends differ in different regions of sub-Saharan Africa between 2006 and 2016?
- What factors influence immigration from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa?

## **1.6 Significance of the study**

This study discusses the characteristics and socio-economic factors that lead immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa to South Africa. This also includes a broader understanding of recommendations for rethinking South African migration management strategies and policies. It will also aid authorities in dealing with migration issues correctly, as they will be well-informed about the state of immigrants in the country. The patterns and changes in immigration, alongside the characteristics of migrants from various sub-Saharan African regions, could provide answers to revive the phenomenon of migration in the country. This will greatly assist in fully comprehending the nature and relevance of migration, particularly regarding the country's current social decay. In addition, this research contributes to the existing body of knowledge and can be utilised by sub-Saharan African regions that are undergoing changes in the number and characteristics of immigrants in a country.

## **1.7 Scope of the study**

The primary objective of this study is to assess the challenges faced by South Africa when attempting to reduce the influx of immigrants into the country. This study examines the characteristics of immigrants in the country and compares various regions in sub-Saharan Africa. Secondary literature on the factors that influence immigration was sourced to support the variables and study objectives. The data will be coded, categorised, and analysed to reveal patterns and trends related to the influx of affected migrants. This study discusses the findings, recommendations, and factors associated with the flow of immigrants from various sub-Saharan Africa regions to South Africa.

## **1.8 Definition of concepts**

**Immigration:** Edo (2019) defined immigration as the process of coming to live permanently in a country other than the one in which you were born.

**Refugee:** According to Skran and Easton-Calabria (2020), a refugee is a person who has lost the protection of his or her country of origin and is unable to return because of a well-founded fear of persecution.

**Asylum seekers:** According to Murphy *et al.* (2021), asylum seekers are immigrants who have been forcibly displaced and may have fled their home country because of war or other threatening circumstances.

## **1.9 The organisation of the study**

Chapter one of the study presents the introduction and background of the study, along with the problem statement, objectives (including both main and specific objectives), research questions, and the scope and definition of the concepts of the study. Chapter two of the study presents an introduction to this study. This chapter further reviews the determinants of immigration from various sub-Saharan African regions, including trends and levels of migration patterns in South Africa. Chapter three of the study presents the introduction of the chapter, sources of data, description of the study variables, and methods of analysis. In Chapter 4, the study analyses data and presents the findings, and a summary of the chapter. This study provides a summary of the key findings, conclusions, and recommendations in chapter five.

## **CHAPTER 2      LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1      Introduction**

The main aim of this chapter is to review the theoretical framework and existing literature that sheds light on the reasons why people from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa migrate to South Africa. Further, this chapter also analyses the relationship between trends and patterns over the years. Furthermore, the objective of this literature review is to discuss the gaps in the existing research and highlight the characteristics of immigrants in the country. Therefore, it is important to review the variables that show the relationship between immigrants and migratory movements and to generate and evaluate ideas pertaining to a greater understanding of the socio-demographic factors that prevail.

### **2.2      Levels and trend of immigration in South Africa**

South Africa has a stable environment and an ongoing developing socio-economy in the region, which could perhaps be the major pull factor attracting a growing number of immigrants entering the country (Ruedin, 2019). Immigration has become an emotive and divisive topic in South Africa due to the country's perceived immigration-related difficulties. According to Stats SA, there were around 3.95 million immigrants living in the country, accounting for 5.8% of the total population. A more recent report by SA (2022) also showed that South Africa had the largest number of immigrants in any African country as of July 2020, with 2.9 million people, representing less than 5% of the total population of 60 million people. Although 853,000 people from various regions migrated to the country between 2016 and 2021, the number of immigrants has risen in recent decades, particularly with the introduction of democracy and the end of apartheid in 1994. South Sudan had the largest number of refugees, exceeding two million in the East African region in 2020, followed by the Southern African region estimation of immigrants from Zimbabwe, ranging from 500,000 to three million people.

This trend is also present in the West African region, with a total number of 30,314 immigrants who all arrived in South Africa. What may be of relevance here is that the country has the world's most progressive asylum laws, granting asylum seekers and refugees access to the same public services as citizens and allowing them to live and work anywhere in the country (Cohen, 2015). Thus, migration trends and patterns continue on an upward trajectory, as many immigrants from various sub-Saharan African regions who fled into their native countries to migrate to South Africa find it difficult to find refugee status documents in the country.



In 2017, SA (2021a) reported a total number of 75,512.00 refugees residing in the country. Refugees and asylum seekers from South, East, West, and parts of Central Africa include Botswana, Nigeria, DRC, South Sudan, Cameroon, and Zimbabwe. Although Lindley (2022) mentioned that this encouraged immigration into South Africa, the continuation of migrant inflows had an impact on migratory trend levels, with thousands of refugees being removed from neighbouring countries (Jinnah and Lowe, 2015). By contrast, South Africa had the highest number of people, excluding a high number of asylum seekers who were still in the process of determining their refugee status. Moreover, the Unity Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa had seen many of the trends in the ongoing movement from the period 2006-2016 and resulted in the lowest number of refugees and asylum seekers from 6,4% to 21,5%. A sizeable portion of emigrants, roughly 16%, have officially migrated, as reported by SA (2021a).

### **2.3 Determinants of immigration**

#### **2.3.1 Unemployment**

Unemployment is a daunting challenge faced by the South African government (Mabiala, 2013). People from various parts of sub-Saharan African regions have sought work in South Africa. Regardless of how African immigrants are considered to compete with native South Africans, they place a demand on resources such as schools and hospitals and, to a lesser extent, employment. Majee *et al.* (2019) argue that a positive relationship between immigration and unemployment could result in good expectations, as immigrants with different skills enter the country in some way, helping to create employment because they employ native South Africans. Thus, this could help improve the entry of skilled labour since the potential to alleviate skills shortages faces a crisis in South Africa. Lovell and Early (1976) indicate that immigration and unemployment are linked according to an ordinary least squares model used to evaluate the impact of unskilled immigrants on job prospects in numerous European countries. Nonetheless, before 1978, changes in immigration levels had no influence on the state of unemployment in South Africa. However, in the 1990s, changes in migration levels caused changes in unemployment (Cincotti *et al.*, 2020).

Powell *et al.* (2017) assessed the impact of immigration from the West African region (Nigeria), for instance, on housing, healthcare, and employment, and indicated that 94% of migrants moved from their place of birth to South Africa to avoid plantations and the massive oil disasters that prevailed in rural areas and vast parts of the country. A study on the Central African region found

skilled Tanzanian migrants in the United Kingdom who fled their home country due to the high unemployment rate facing considerable problems, such as the fact that it is impossible to secure a job without a “godfather” or someone with connections in the system (Atnafu *et al.*, 2014). Other studies by Sparreboom *et al.* (2020) have shown that immigrants from Southern Africa increased their labour force, which has an influence on low-wage occupations and unskilled employees for immigration and unemployment. In some instance, Sparreboom *et al.* (2020) revealed that the influenced the evaluation of the relationship between immigration and rising consumer demand for goods and services in South Africa, which contributes to the creation of employment for some of the immigrants residing in South Africa. Powell *et al.* (2017) assessed the impact of immigration from the West African region (Nigeria), for instance, on housing, healthcare, and employment, and indicated that 94% of migrants moved from their place of birth to South Africa to avoid plantations and the massive oil disasters that prevailed in rural areas and vast parts of the country.

### **2.3.2 Marital status**

According to Dush *et al.* (2018), migration arrangements change depending on the life stages that individuals go through, including changes in family size and the need for home changes. Colby and Ortman (2014) found that family-building activities are important migration factors and that movement is linked to marriage. They establish a clear link between marriage and migration by arguing that the likelihood of travelling increases as soon as people get married since couples often receive a new home to reside in or one partner moves in with the other. Czaika and Reinprecht (2022) revealed that this is an ongoing culture, whether individuals are marrying for the first time or remarrying. The study titled “*Migration Drivers: Why Do People Migrate? Introduction to Migration Studies*” demonstrates how many factors influence people to migrate to South Africa. According to Dush *et al.* (2018), migration arrangements change depending on the life stages that individuals go through, including changes in family size and the need for home changes. Colby and Ortman (2014) found that family-building activities are important migration factors and that movement is linked to marriage. They establish a clear link between marriage and migration by arguing that the likelihood of travelling increases as soon as people get married since couples often receive a new home to reside in or one partner moves in with the other.

Moreover, migration can inspire marriage in such a way that an individual’s socio-economic status is improved (Czaika and Reinprecht, 2022). According to Crivello (2011), married women are less likely to relocate than unmarried women. To determine how migration and marriage are

linked, various regions in sub-Saharan Africa have increased their likelihood of marrying after migration, which has become a strategy to expand marital opportunities. According to Moyo, and Nshimbi (2020), migration affects those who are married more compared to those who are unmarried. Divorced individuals are more likely to migrate from their country of origin, whereas widowed individuals are more likely to remain in their native countries. Others, authors such as Grant and Kohler (2022), demonstrate that certain individuals may need time to adjust to a new region and integrate into society. Subsequent reviews by Hyman *et al.* (2008) found that the benefits of migration helped improve mutual dependency among couples upon arrival at their destination, which was a more positive response.

### **2.3.3 Education**

According to Esipova *et al.* (2011), people with high levels of education are more likely to be international migrants. He further stated that individuals with at least a college education are twice as likely to move internally compared with those with only primary school education or lower. Additionally, educational differences play a significant role in determining who will migrate from sub-Saharan Africa to South Africa. According to Hussein and Manthorpe (2005), sub-Saharan African regions from the West and East Africa, relative to those from the Southern African region, saw individuals with secondary education as having a considerably better probability of migrating to South Africa. Caldwell (2019) contends that those with a high degree of education are equipped with the necessary abilities to boost their work alternatives and provide greater opportunities in the country.

Ntshidi (2017) indicates that this trend arises from those with postgraduate qualifications being less likely to migrate than those with an undergraduate degree. Despite this interruption in the pattern, any college graduate, including those with postgraduate qualifications, is twice as likely to migrate as someone who does not finish school. One study found that the key fundamentals that drive migration in South Africa emerged as jobs that pay better and offer opportunities for education, among other factors of more than 1.4 million individuals who migrated into the country from less developed countries between 2011 and 2016 (Morris, 2018). Adepoju (2006) demonstrates that high rates of unemployment and underemployment for university graduates tend to result in the migration of knowledge workers, for example, from the East African region (Ethiopia) to South Africa. This is because South Africa is likely to have better working conditions and opportunities for skill development for professionals who possess qualifications.

#### **2.3.4 Age**

According to SA (2022), people aged 15-34 years contributed to 34,3% of immigrants in South Africa, followed by those aged 35-44 years contributing to 17,5%. This demonstrates that migration begins at a relatively young age in various sub-Saharan African regions. Mukumbang *et al.* (2020) reviewed the proportion of immigrants in the older age groups from 55 to 64 years and compared migrants before the democratic government in 1994 due to long-term migration. They found that many individuals who had been immigrating from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa had been in the country for a longer time and made South Africa a permanent home. In the West African region, specifically Nigeria, one of the highest senior populations contributed to people who are aged 15-35 and were more likely to migrate to the Southern African region (Colby and Ortman, 2014). Light *et al.* (2020) predicted that reasons from various regions immigrating to South Africa dates back to job opportunities or the possibility of finding work; hence, younger people are more likely to go forth with that.

#### **2.3.5 Sex**

According to Moyo, and Nshimbi (2020), female migrants decreased from 49.4% in mid-year 2000 to 48.1% by mid-year 2020, whereas male migrants increased from 50.6% in mid-year 2000 to 51.9% in mid-year 2020. They examined how immigration impacted South Africa in a study that showed that the probability of migration was relatively higher for unemployed males than for females. According to SA (2015), migration patterns from 1990-2017 showed an increase in total migrants, with 44% of women being more likely to migrate to the country. Wood *et al.* (2019) argue that the quest for employment mostly drives male migration, as indicated by the exemption between migratory flows throughout the years that have changed. As times change though, things also start to differ; in regard to the pattern of stability, it is not a priority for males to be providers in this case. Furthermore, the conventional division according to gender, in which men migrate in search of employment and women eventually follow, and plays a significant role in determining which gender is more likely to migrate from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa to South Africa.

#### **2.3.6 Province**

Population estimates by SA (2022) show that South Africa will have a population of 60.4 million by 2022, a slight increase from 2021. One of the provinces with the highest influx of migrants is Gauteng, with 16.1 million people settling. The Western Cape is the second-largest province in South Africa that attracts immigrants. SA (2021b) indicates that Kwa-Zulu Natal is the third-

largest province to receive immigrants from various sub-Saharan African regions. In urban areas, there are several opportunities for the automotive, home appliance, and jewellery manufacturing industries to attract immigrants to consider permanently living in the province. Other provinces, such as the Northwest Province, receive migrants from the Southern African region, including neighbouring countries such as Botswana. Limpopo province was ranked fifth, and the rise in the number of people coming from Mozambique accounted for (2.1%). Hlongwane *et al.* (2021) indicate that Mpumalanga is an inter-regional migratory province where migrants would establish themselves for social integration but eventually move to a larger province with economic stability and opportunities. The two provinces that receive the least number of migrants are the Northern Cape and the Free State. Moyo, (2021) found that immigrants from less-established provinces prefer to move to more stable environments that have growth and better opportunities. Mlambo (2021) extended this perception by understanding and planning for South Africa's present and projected migration trends, which are critical for continued growth and development. Overall, people from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa migrated to South Africa despite the average number of citizens they already had.

## **2.4 Theoretical framework**

The Migration Transition theory motivates this study by discussing the findings that influence immigration through modernisation and economic development. Thus, development and demographic factors, such as education, marital status, unemployment, and other social changes, affect the stability of the receiving country. In this case, South Africa is evident with an increase in economic migrants across various sub-Saharan Africa regions. Moreover, theories such as the Push-Pull and Ravenstein's theory, do not entirely recognise how migration has an ambition and resource that enables such a move to take place. The conceptual framework is of significance in considering the noticeable contentions above to show the reality and resemblance of how South African migratory patterns have placed challenges on economic instability (De Haas, 2010).

### **2.4.1 Migration Transition theory**

Zelinsky (1971) migration transition theory states that migration to a country depends on how developed it is and the type of society it is. The motivation was to add geographic mobility to the demographic stages, connecting migration to the four phases. The first stage explained the pre-modern traditional society, which occurred prior to the introduction of urbanisation and involved little to no migration, with natural increase rates close to zero. To further comprehend this period, mobility rises while migration decreases. Consequently, high mortality in the pre-

modern stage reduces fertility and slows population expansion. The second stage is the early transitional society, which explains the lower death rates and higher population growth, resulting in significant migration from the countryside to cities; for instance, industrialisation improved public health and reduced mortality. Furthermore, the decline in death rates in developing countries tended to be much faster, indicating that increasingly rapid population expansion covered the gap between death and birth.

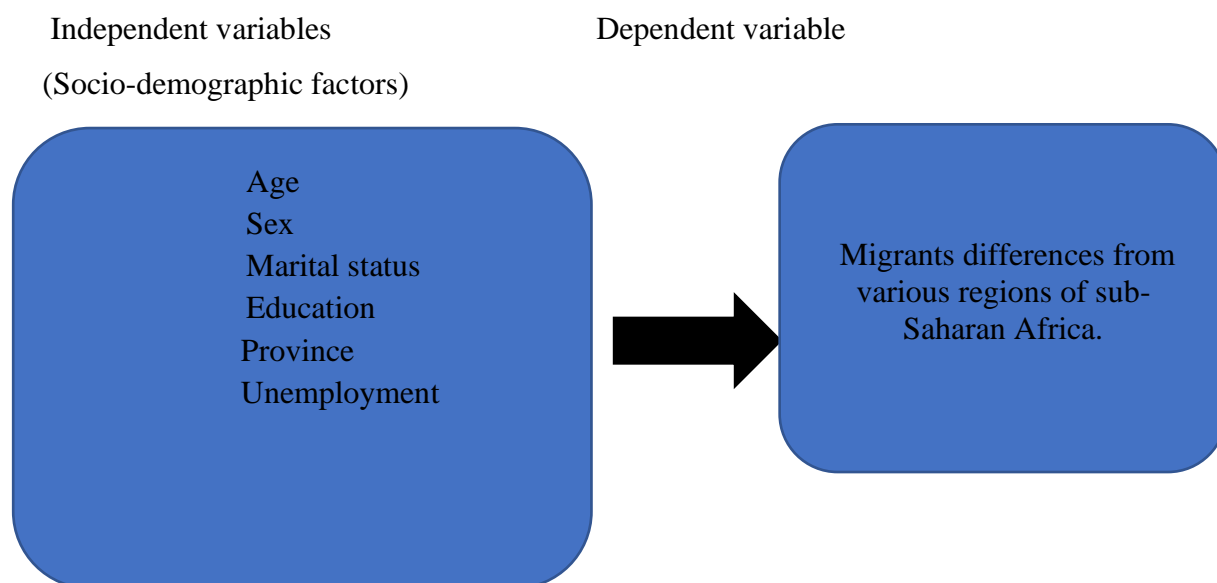
The third stage corresponds to how the mobility transition from urban-to-urban migration surpasses rural-to-urban migration, which continues to grow. Flahaux (2017) sought to understand the initial circular movements of internal migration that eventually increased over time, resulting in international migratory movements. This explains how developing countries gradually receive net-out migration to a change in net-in migration as a result of the weakening of social norms; mortality decreases as population growth slows down. During the fourth stage, movement from the countryside to the city continues, but the absolute and relative terms are reduced. According to Zelinsky (1971), the significant net immigration of unskilled and semi-skilled workers from developing nations contributes to the international mobility and circulation of skilled and professional workers.

Czaika and Reinprecht (2022) reveal that political, economic, social, historical, cultural and demographic circumstances show that receiving and sending countries distributed beyond the African idea of migrants as passive objects being pushed around by external “push” factors like poverty, violence suppression nor environment degradation. Furthermore, this concept helps to explain why development is frequently associated with greater levels of migratory and non-migratory mobility. Reviews later revised by De Haas *et al.* (2019) indicate that international mobility will continue because migration and development are interdependent fundamental aspects of society. The model relates to reversible, dynamic migratory tendencies that demonstrate how countries at higher levels of development would have stable net migration, whereas developing countries would not experience a reversal of emigration at a certain development point but rather excessive immigration from various regions over time. Therefore, this theory plays a role in the discussion of mobility development patterns. South Africa is an example of the capacity of excessive immigration from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa (Mahendra, 2014).

## 2.4.2 Conceptual framework

What the model suggests is the pattern of immigration observed in sub-Saharan African regions does not necessarily resemble the pattern of migration observed in the past, where immigrants were mostly from relatively poor countries, moving to those that were relatively “richer.” This model states that immigration development and demographic factors, such as education, marital status, unemployment, and other social changes, are affected, in turn affecting the stability of the recipient country. South Africa has shown an increase in economic migration, which cannot be explained by other emerging theories. As argued elsewhere, the push-pull model does not recognise that migration will take place only when there is an ambition and resource that enables such movements (De Haas, 2010). Flahaux, (2017) indicates the model relates to reversible, dynamic migratory shifts and demonstrates how countries with higher levels of development would have stable net migration compared to developing countries experiencing excessive immigration from various countries.

**Figure 2:1: Conceptual framework for characterises of immigrants in South Africa: Comparative analysis of various regions in sub-Saharan Africa**



## **CHAPTER 3      METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1      Introduction**

This section describes the data sources, study variables, research design, and method of analysis. The research methodology includes a clear indication of how the study was conducted. This unified and collaborative combination of methods characterised the study's goals by analysing the data and results that provided solutions to the research questions. Furthermore, this section outlines the importance of South African characteristics from various regions of sub-Saharan Africa.

### **3.2      Research design**

This study uses a quantitative method and, therefore, concentrates on various regions in sub-Saharan Africa. The aim of this research is to investigate the characteristics of immigrants in the country, as it is necessary to identify the association between migrants and the socio-economic factors that influence the receiving country of immigrants.

### **3.3      Data source**

Secondary data from the 2016 Community Survey (CS) were used in this study. A comparative analysis was conducted to observe various regions in sub-Saharan Africa and seek reasons for immigration in South Africa. The 2016 Community Survey (CS) was selected because it collected information relevant to this study. The survey is one of the main data sources for planning and monitoring the performance of various development programs, such as education, health, sanitation, water supply, housing, and transportation at the national, provincial, and municipal levels SA (2021c). Furthermore, the survey provides demographic information that is crucial for understanding population development. Thus, the goal of the community survey was to provide population estimates and household characteristics. The data will be utilised to inform Integrated Development Plans and budgets for infrastructure, among other variables, on education, unemployment, age, sex, marital status, and province, as well as focusing on the dependent variable in examining migrants' differences from various regions of sub-Saharan Africa.

### **3.4      Sampling methods**

The 2016 Community Survey (CS) sample was drawn using a two-stage stratified random sampling approach. The first stage involved the selection of enumeration areas, and the second stage involved the identification of housing units. The stratification is done for municipalities



that were announced as category B municipalities (local municipalities), and category A municipalities were classified as metropolitan regions at the time of the Census 2001. The goal of the 2016 Community Survey (CS) was to generate estimates of key indicators at the local municipality level. The sample was designed to produce direct survey estimates of these indicators at the municipal level.

### 3.5 Dependent variable

The dependent variable is migrant differences in various regions of sub-Saharan Africa.

#### 3.5.1 Independent variable

The selected independent variables are classified as follows: demographic (age group, sex) Socio-economic variable (marital status, level of education),and (province). They were categorised in groups. The independent variables show the relationship between immigration from various regions in sub-Saharan African to South Africa In this study, the independent variables were carefully selected based on a literature review.

**The table description of the study variables.**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Definition of variables</b>	<b>Code</b>
<b>Age group</b>	Age in completed years of the individual (grouped into five-year age groups).	0-19=0 20-29=1 30-39=2 40-49=3 50-59=4 60+=5
<b>Sex</b>	Defined as either male or female participant.	Male=1 Female=2
<b>Religious Belief</b>	Refers to the religious affiliation which people belong to.	Christianity= 1 Islam=2 No religion=3
<b>Martial status</b>	Marital status of the individual. To ascertain whether there are differences between married and unmarried persons.	Legally married=0 Cohabiting=1 Divorced=2 Separated=3

		Widowed=4
<b>Level of education</b>	The educational level implies the level which the respondent has reached or obtained the level qualification.	No education=1 Primary= 2 Secondary=3 Tertiary=4
<b>Province</b>	This represents the nine South African provinces.	Western Cape = 1 Eastern Cape = 2 Northern Cape = 3 Free State = 4 KwaZulu-Natal = 5 North West = 6 Gauteng = 7 Mpumalanga = 8 Limpopo = 9

### 3.6 Study inclusion and exclusion criteria

The inclusion criteria were applied to immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa and immigrants to South Africa for demographic and economic purposes. This study excluded the South African population because its focus was on determining the association between socio-economic factors, demographic factors, and immigrants.

### 3.7 Description of study variables

The core purpose of this study is to identify the characteristics of immigrants and compare regions in sub-Saharan Africa that have sent migrants to South Africa. As this was a comparative study utilising the 2016 Community Survey (CS), the variable codes were the same for both data sources. Variables were selected according to those used in the survey and divided into two categories based on the following: independent and dependent variables. The independent variables in this study were demographic (age group and sex) and socio-economic (marital status, level of education, and province) variables.

### 3.8 Method of analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27 was used for univariate, bivariate (chi-squared), and multinomial logistic regression analyses. Statistical methods, such as

frequency, univariate, chi-squared tests, and multinomial logistic regression analysis, were used to show the influence of demographic and economic characteristics differences from the different region of sub-Saharan Africa. Additionally, multinomial regression was used to calculate the relative risk from a particular region relative to those in Southern African region.

### **3.9 Validity & reliability**

Validity and reliability are measurement tools used to check whether the methods used in the study were appropriate and the findings were reliable. Identifying the consistency of immigrants ensures the reliability of the study's approach. Some quantitative instruments assess and measure the validity and reliability of the study. The sampling procedure was thoroughly discussed to ensure that the strategy and constraints were properly understood and to ensure the external validity of this research. To ensure that the accuracy was genuine and that most of the interpretations matched the facts, the analysis was validated twice. This dependability shows the relationship between the variables and examines the 2016 community survey (CS) projection technique.

### **3.10 Ethical considerations**

The information collected by Statistics South Africa in their surveys followed all necessary ethical considerations. This study used secondary data from the Community Survey 2016. The data were freely available for downloading and use. The study was approved for ethical clearance by North-West University, and the approval was provided (ethics number: N W U - 0 1 0 1 0 - 2 3 - A 7) of the Basic and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (BaSSREC).

## **CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS**

### **4.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, all results from the study are presented based on its objectives. The data presented in the table present various demographic aspects related to migration from sub-Saharan African regions to South Africa. Therefore, this section further explains the findings of the bivariate and univariate analyses, which explored the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, and in relation to socio-demographic factors, individual characteristics are presented. The findings of the multinomial logistic regression that identified immigrants in South Africa from various regions of sub-Saharan Africa are presented.

#### **4.1.2 Descriptive/Univariate analysis**

The findings in table 4.1 show the percentage distribution of the background characteristics of the respondents by percentage. The largest percentage of the population comes from the Southern Africa region, constituting 87.7%, followed by the Eastern Africa region at 4.7%, Central Africa at 4.2%), and Western Africa region at 3.4%.

**Table 4:1: Univariate analysis table**

<b>Various Regions in Sub-Saharan Africa</b>	<b>Population</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Southern Africa	649206	87.7
Western Africa	25244	3.4
Eastern Africa	34657	4.7
Central Africa	30832	4.2
<b>Age Group</b>		
0-19	61588	8.3
20-29	324713	43.9
30-39	256218	34.6
40-49	75405	10.2
50-59	15693	2.1
60+	6322	0.9
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	41633	56.3
Female	323307	43.7
<b>Religious Belief</b>		
Christianity	544585	73.6
Islam	29095	3.9
No religion	108041	14.6
<b>Marital status</b>		
Legally married	278962	37.7
Cohabiting	171621	23.2
Divorced	5101	0.7
Separated	1917	0.3
Widowed	6413	0.9
Single	275926	37.3
<b>Level of education</b>		
No education	59562	8.0
Primary	176878	23.9
Secondary	440034	59.5
Tertiary	63465	8.6
<b>Province</b>		
Western Cape	80131	11.0

Eastern Cape	26710	3.7
Northern Cape	5551	0.8
Free State	22343	3.1
KwaZulu-Natal	36390	5.0
Northwest	55760	7.7
Gauteng	364302	50.2
Mpumalanga	55937	7.7
Limpopo	78736	10.8
<b>Total</b>	<b>739940</b>	<b>100</b>

*Source: Author's own calculations from Community Survey 2016*

Those who are aged 0-19 reported (8.3%) of immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa to South Africa; those aged 20-29 represented the highest proportion of immigrants with (43.3%). Moreover, those who are aged 30-39 were followed closely by (34.6%) indicating a younger migrant population. On the other hand, individuals who have a lower representation reported within those who are aged 50-59 with (2.1%), while those who are aged 60 and above constituted (0.9%). Regarding the variable sex, male immigrants made up a larger portion of migrants and reported (56.3%), while females reported a lower proportion of (43.7%) respectively. Regarding religious beliefs, most immigrants identified as Christians, representing (73.6%) of the total migrant population. Islam and non-religious beliefs make up smaller percentages, at (3.9%) and (14.6%) respectively.

A substantial proportion of migrants were either legally married (37.7%) or single (37.3%). The numbers of cohabiting immigrants (23.2%), while divorced, separated, and widowed individuals reported lower percentages. The dataset includes the level of education attained by migrants. Most of the immigrants had a secondary education (59.5%), followed by primary education (23.9%) and a tertiary education (8.6%). A small percentage of migrants (8.0%) had no education. The provinces within South Africa where migrants reside are highlighted. This indicates that the Gauteng province had the highest concentration of immigrants of (50.2%), followed by the Western Cape (11.0 %) and Limpopo (10.3%). The lowest number of immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa resides in the Eastern Cape, which reported (3.8%), followed by the Free State, which reported (3.1%) and the least number of migrants is located in the Northern Cape, which reported (0.8%). Moreover, the total migration population calculated for all immigrants from various regions reported 100% migrating to South Africa.

**Table 4.1 : Univariate analysis table**

**A table illustrating migration trends from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa.**

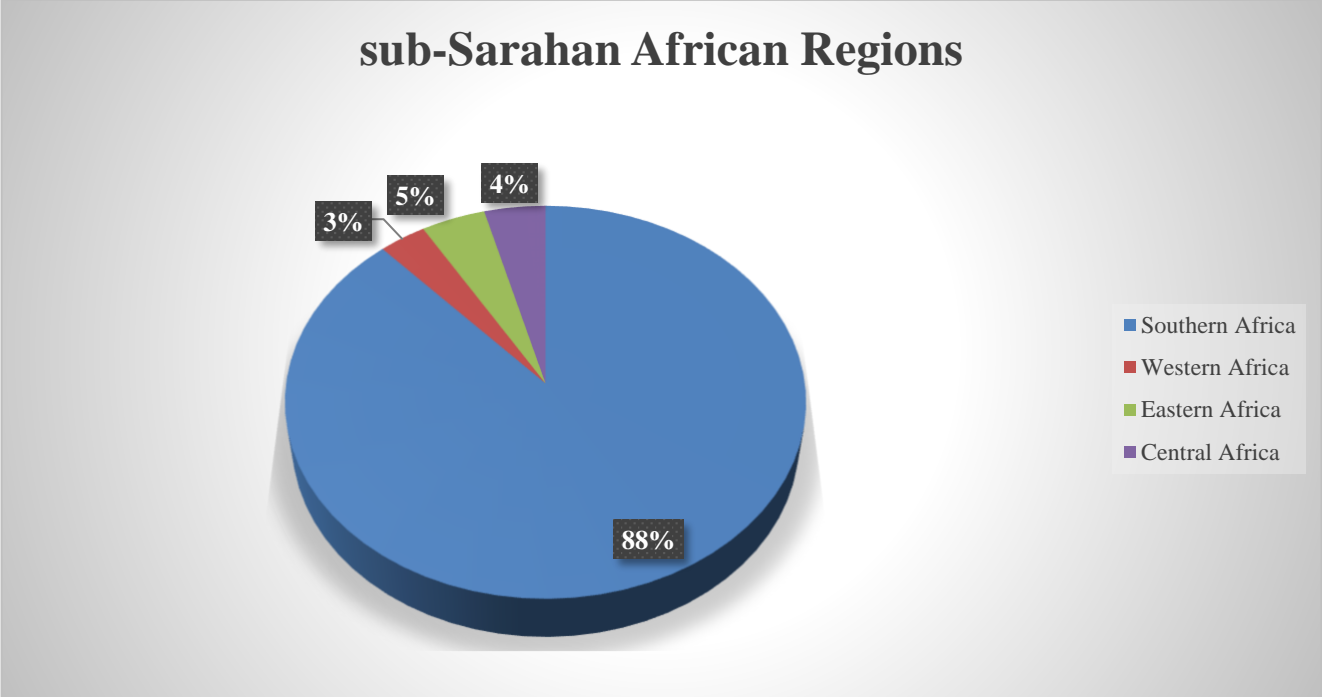
<b>Years moved to South Africa</b>	<b>Population</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
2006	54929	7.4
2007	59883	8.1
2008	80407	10.9
2009	75493	10.2
2010	95800	12.9
2011	48435	6.5
2012	53973	7.3
2013	66178	8.9
2014	59571	8.1
2015	92443	12.5
2016	43583	5.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>739940</b>	<b>100</b>

The year 2011 contributed to a decrease in the number of immigrants, and therefore the lowest proportion of immigrants was in the year 2016 of (5.9%). The percentage of immigrants in 2011 was (6.5%). Furthermore, in 2012, immigrants reported were (7.3%), this was followed by the year 2006 and reported (7.4%) immigrants. Moreover the number of immigrants began to increase in 2014, immigrants were reported (8.1%), and 2007 immigrants reported (8.1%). The year in 2010 accounted to (12.9%) of the total migration. This was followed by the year 2015, reported (12.5%). In 2009, migrants reported (10.2%), and in 2008, reported (10.9%). Furthermore, the total migration population for the years moved in from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa with (739940) immigrants and reported (100%).

#### **4.2.3 Profiling immigrants in South Africa from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa.**

Figure 4.1 shows the distribution of immigrants to South Africa. The Southern Africa region accounted for the highest percentage of immigrants, contributing approximately 87.7%. Immigrants from the Eastern African region contributed 4.7%, followed by Central Africa at 4.2%, and West Africa contributed the least, with only 3.4% of the immigrants coming from the region.

**Table 4.2: Percentage of immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa to South Africa.**





## 4.2 Bivariate analysis

**Table 4.3: Bivariate Characteristics between immigrants to South Africa from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa**

Variables	Various regions in Sub-Saharan Africa								χ <sup>2</sup>	
	South	%	East	%	West	%	Central	%	Value	P-value
<i>Years moved to South Africa</i>									11.0361	0.0000
2006	45961	7	2302	7	2386	9	4280	14		
2007	53800	8	1601	5	1423	5	3060	10		
2008	71347	10	2658	8	2286	9	4116	13		
2009	65322	10	3964	11	2330	16	3877	13		
2010	82656	13	5362	15	4004	9	3778	12		
2011	40590	6	3441	10	2155	10	2248	7		
2012	45231	7	3746	11	2535	11	2461	8		
2013	56921	9	3625	11	2812	8	2821	9		
2014	52369	8	3386	10	2036	8	1779	6		
2015	84411	14	3509	11	2624	10	495	6		
2016	41947	7	620	2	520	2	1900	2		
<b>Total</b>	<b>739940</b>									
<i>Age group</i>									17.0622	0.0000
0-19	54963	8	1803	5	1170	9	3652	12		
20-29	291815	45	16097	46	7256	25	9545	31		
30-39	218463	34	12948	37	12638	50	12169	39		
40-49	64181	10	3002	9	3576	14	4646	15		
50-59	13829	2	689	2	564	2	612	2		
60+	5955	1	110	0	41	0	208	1		
<b>Total</b>	<b>739940</b>									
<i>Sex</i>									132.5582	0.0000
Males	352232	54	27796	80	18828	75	17777	58		
Females	296975	46	6861	20	6416	25	13055	42		
<b>Total</b>	<b>739940</b>									
<i>Religious Belief</i>									304.6162	
Christianity	480229	75	18451	53	19481	77	26423	86		
Islam	13026	60	11307	32	2480	10	2283	7		
No religion	103692	14	1351	4	1935	8	1062	3		
<b>Total</b>	<b>739940</b>									
<i>Marital status</i>									27.8317	0.0000
Legally Married	243999	38	11890	34	9338	37	13735	40		
Cohabiting	160940	22	3208	9	3982	16	3491	10		
Divorced	4396	1	273	1	288	1	144	0		

Separate	1701	32	42	0	103	0	71	0		
Widowed	5997	10	106	0	30	0	280	1		
Single	232173	47	19139	55	11504	46	13110	38		
<b>Total</b>	<b>739940</b>									
<b>Level of education</b>									154.449	0.0000
No education	51469	12	4769	14	1477	7	1848	6		
Primary	165847	26	7122	21	1508	6	2401	15		
Secondary	390131	60	18618	54	12870	51	18415	60		
Tertiary	41759	6	4148	12	9390	35	8168	26		
<b>Total</b>	<b>739940</b>									
<b>Province</b>									56.3874	0.0000
Western Cape	61201	10	6334	18	2982	12	9614	31		
Eastern Cape	19291	3	4989	15	1896	8	534	2		
Northern Cape	4309	1	760	2	288	1	194	1		
Free State	19903	3	1314	4	686	3	440	1		
KwaZulu-Natal	31275	5	2112	6	1367	5	1636	5		
Northwest	52094	8	2598	7	607	2	461	1		
Gauteng	321678	49	10837	36	15786	63	16001	51		
Mpumalanga	51483	8	1961	6	903	4	1591	5		
Limpopo	74428	12	3472	10	614	2	223	1		0.0000

#### 4.2.1 Bivariate analysis

In this subsection, the dependent variable is cross-tabulated with the independent variables to observe the relationship, and the chi-square test statistic is used to test the significance level. Table 4.2 shows the association between the calculated chi-square test and the relationship between regions in sub-Saharan Africa and the different socio-economic factors. This study aimed to determine whether there was a statistically significant association between these socio-economic factors. The observed data shows that the number of immigrants from each region varies annually. In 2010, there was a substantial increase in the total number of immigrants from Southern Africa and East Africa. Migration trends differ by geographical area, which means that the Southern African region had the largest percentage of immigrants in 2015, accounting for 14%, followed by the year 2010, an increase of 13%, followed by 2008 and 2009, reported 10% of immigrants who migrated to the Southern African region. There was a steady decrease from the years 2013, which accounted for 9%, followed by 2007, which accounted for 7%, and 2011 which accounted for 6%. Furthermore, an increase in immigrants in the East African region accounted for 15% in 2010, followed by 2012, 2013, and 2015, at 11%. There was a slight decrease in 2008 of 8%, and in 2006, it accounted for 7%. The lowest percentage reported in

2007 accounted for 5% of immigrants. The West African region immigrants in 2009 contributed 16%. In 2012, they contributed 11%, while in 2011 was reported. 10%. The lowest number of immigrants was recorded in 2014 and 2013 at 9%. Central Africa in 2006 contributed 14% of total immigrants, followed by 2008 and 2009, 13%, in 2010 reported 10%, followed by a decrease in 2011 by 7% and in 2014 by 6%. The pattern in West Africa was relatively consistent, with percentages ranging from 2% to 14%. West Africa experienced the most significant fluctuations, indicating varying levels of immigration over time. The low value of  $p < 0.0000$  and the calculated chi-square value of 11.0361 obtained suggest that the association between the sub-Saharan African regions and years of immigration is statistically significant. The results showed a significant relationship between immigration and employment, marital status, sex, and province.

Additionally, those aged 20-29 in the Southern Africa region contributed to 45% of the entire immigrant population, followed by those aged 30-39, which contributed to 34%, followed by those aged 40-49 by 10%, followed by those aged 0-19 accounted 8% and the lowest age reported was that of 50-60 elderly of 2%. East Africa showed an increase of 46% in immigrants who migrated to South Africa, from those aged 20-29, followed by the those aged of 30-29, accounting for 37%. A decrease in the those aged 40-49 accounted for 9%, and the lowest contributed age were 0-19 contributed 5%. The Western African region proportion of immigrants falls with age, meaning those aged 30-39 accounted for 50%, followed by those aged 20-29 accounted for 25%, followed by 40-49 accounted for 14%, the lowest age was 0-19 accounted 9%, and the lowest age group of 50-60 elderly of 2%. Those aged 30-39 in Central Africa contributed to 39% of immigrants who migrated into South Africa, followed by the those aged 20-29 accounting for 31%. Those aged 40-49 accounted for 15%. The lowest age 0-19 contributed 12% and age group 50-60 elderly accounted for 2%. Very few immigrants are aged 60 years and above, implying that elderly people are less likely to relocate to South Africa. This information, together with a high chi-square value of 17.0622, indicates that the link between the variables has a strong chi-square value of 19.6738 and  $p < 0.000$ .

South Africa is an appealing employment destination. Furthermore, the gender distribution of immigrants revealed that males were most likely to migrate, accounting for 54% of the Southern African region of the immigrant population. Females accounted for 46% of the remaining immigrant population. In the East African region, males contributed to 80% of immigrants who migrated to South Africa, followed by females who contributed 20%. Furthermore, in the West African region, males accounted for 75%, and females accounted for 25%. Finally, in the Central

African region, females contributed the least percentage of 32%, and males contributed 58%. The table also shows the religious beliefs of immigrants from various regions. Christianity was practised by 75% of South African immigrants, followed by Islam religion which accounted for 60%, and no religion accounted for 14%. Furthermore, the percentage ranges to 14%. In the East African region, Christianity was practised 53%, followed by Islam religion contributed 32%, and no religion accounted for 4%. Furthermore, in the West African region, Christian immigrants contributed 77%. Islam, the second most widespread belief, accounted for 10%, and no religion contributed 8%. Additionally, Central Africa contributed 86% of immigrants, followed by Islam at 7% and in Central Africa, immigrants were non-religious believers at 3%. This study also examines the marital status of South African immigrants. The association of marital status details varied among immigrants from various regions, starting from the Southern African region. Legally married immigrants accounted for 38%, followed by cohabiting accounted for 22%, followed by 47% of single people, 30%), and 10% of immigrants who are widowed.

The East African region accounted for the legally married category at 34%, followed by separated people at 55%, followed by cohabitating at 9%, and the lowest was divorced at 1%. The Single category also has substantial representation, particularly in the West African region (46%), followed by the legally married category at 37%, while cohabitating contributed 16%, followed by the least immigrants in the divorced category, accounting for 1%. Central Africa region, with percentages of legally married ranging from 40%, followed by cohabitating accounting for 10%. Those who were single contributed to 38%, with the least in the separated category, 1%, followed by divorced immigrants. Furthermore, the legally married category had the highest percentage across all various regions, ranging from 34% to 40%. The single category also has substantial representation, particularly in the West Africa, East Africa, and Central African regions, with percentages ranging from 38% to 55%.

The cohabitation category is significant as well, with percentages between 9% and 22%. Other categories, such as divorced, separated, and widowed, represent a smaller portion of the immigrant population. Immigrants from the Southern Africa region for secondary education contributed 60%, followed by primary education contributed 26%), followed by no education accounting for 12%), and the least are from tertiary education 6%). Immigrants from the East African region contributed to the highest in secondary education 54%, followed by primary education 21%), no education accounted for 14%, and the least tertiary education reported 12%). Immigrants from the West African region contributed 51%, followed by secondary education, which contributed 35%, the least primary contributed 6%, and finally, no education contributed

7%. Furthermore, Central Africa reported 60%, followed by tertiary education, which contributed 26%, and primary education, which contributed 15%. The least no education of immigrants contributed to 6%. A comparative result showed that Central Africa had a higher proportion of tertiary educated individuals 36% and 24%, respectively, than those from Southern Africa and East Africa region contributed 6% and 12%, respectively). In comparison to other regions, immigrants from Southern Africa and East Africa region have a higher incidence of secondary education 60% and 54%, respectively).

This demonstrates that the educational attainment of immigrants appears to be influenced by sub-Saharan regions. The province shows this relationship, and a closer analysis of the data reveals the trends. Immigrants from the Southern African region contributed 49% in Gauteng Province, followed by 12% in Limpopo and 10% in the Western Cape. Furthermore, the Northwest province, as well as Mpumalanga, contributed 8%, followed by Kwa-Zulu Natal, contributing 5%, and the least provinces were Free State and Northern Cape at 3%. The East African region contributed 36%, where the Western Cape contributed 18%, followed by the Eastern Cape 15%, followed by Limpopo accounted 10%, the Northwest Province contributed 6%, Mpumalanga accounted for 6%, followed by Free State 4%, and the least accounted the Northern Cape province 2%. The trends and patterns from the Western African region show that Gauteng province, 63%, followed by immigrants in Western Cape contributed 18%, Eastern Cape contributed 8%, followed by Kwa-Zulu Natal contributed 5%, the least provinces are Northern Cape, Limpopo, and Mpumalanga. Central Africa contributed to 51% of immigrants, followed by the Western Cape at 31% and Kwa-Zulu Natal and Mpumalanga at 5%. The provinces that experienced the least immigrants were NorthWest, Eastern Cape, and Limpopo.

Furthermore, comparative results show that the West African region demonstrates a inclination toward residing in Gauteng, with a remarkable 63% of immigrants more likely to migrate to Gauteng. Conversely, the Southern African region contributes significantly to the Western Cape and Gauteng provinces, at 49% and 10%, respectively. The Eastern Cape province immigrants from the East Africa region, comprising 15% of Northern Cape and Limpopo, contributed to one of the lowest provinces recipient of migrants from the Southern Africa region, West, and Central Africa regions with 1%. Alongside Central Africa, 1%, followed by the West African region, accounted for 2% of the total immigrant population.

### 4.3 Multinomial Regression

**Table 4.4: Multinomial Logistic regression analysis for the relationship immigrants in South Africa: A comparison of sub-Saharan Africa regions.**

Characteristics	West Region	95%C.L		East region	95%C.L		Central Region	95%C.L	
	RRR	Lower	Upper	RRR	Lower	Upper	RRR	Upper	Lower
<b>Age group</b>									
0-19 ®									
20-29	0.78	0.58	1.08	0.40***	0.32	0.51	1.59***	1.22	2.06
30-40	1.84***	1.35	2.52	0.55***	0.43	0.71	1.92***	1.46	2.52
40-49	1.72***	1.2	2.46	0.65***	0.48	0.89	1.62***	1.15	2.27
50-59	1.35***	0.80	2.28	0.45***	0.27	0.75	1.66*	1.01	2.73
60+	0.25	0.05	1.10	0.53	0.17	1.65	0.81	0.32	2.01
<b>Sex</b>									
Male®									
Female	0.46***	0.40	0.54	0.39***	0.02	0.33	0.39	0.33	0.45
<b>Marital status</b>									
Married ®									
Cohabiting	1.13***	0.91	1.39	0.66***	0.54	0.82	0.58***	0.46	0.73

Divorced	1.81***	0.93	3.49	0.59	0.27	1.29	1.62	0.73	3.54
Separated	1.25***	0.46	3.37	0.55	0.16	1.92	0.48	0.11	1.96
Widowed	0.29	0.06	1.24	1.25***	0.55	2.84	0.61	0.24	1.55
Single	2.17***	1.81	2.61	1.59***	1.33	1.89	2.0***	1.76	2.3
<b>Religious belief</b>									
Christianity®	1.21***	0.91	1.60	0.61	0.49	0.76	2.19	1.54	3.10
Islam	6.71***	4.71	9.52	12.45** *	9.69	15.9	9.52***	4.14	11.7
No religious belief	0.68	0.43	0.97	0.19***	0.13	0.26	0.97***	0.37	0.93
<b>Level of Education</b>									
No education®									
Primary	0.31	0.22	0.45	0.33***	0.22	0.49	0.54***	0.44	0.68
Secondary	1.10***	0.83	1.47	0.97	0.67	1.42	0.59***	0.49	0.72
Tertiary	6.79***	4.97	9.27	3.60***	2.38	5.44	1.33*	1.01	1.75
<b>Province</b>									
Western Cape®									
Eastern Cape	1.97***	1.28	3.04	0.18***	0.12	0.27	3.20***	2.49	4.10
Northern Cape	1.29	0.72	2.28	0.30***	0.15	0.59	1.84***	1.26	2.69
Free State	1.15	0.77	0.71	0.19***	0.11	0.34	1.05	0.77	1.44
Kwazulu-Natal	0.85	0.60	0.18	0.37***	0.28	0.50	0.52***	0.38	0.71
Northwest	0.34***	0.22	0.54	0.08***	0.05	0.12	0.73*	0.56	0.95

Gauteng	1.26	0.99	0.59	0.39***	0.33	0.47	0.49***	0.40	0.60
Mpumalanga	0.44***	0.29	0.69	0.25***	0.15	0.44	0.49***	0.36	0.66
Limpopo	0.25***	0.17	0.38	0.03***	0.01	0.05	0.81	0.64	1.04
<i>Years Moved to SA</i>									
2006®									
2007	0.47	0.37	0.71	0.64***	0.42	0.96	0.6***	0.45	0.82
2008	0.56	0.30	0.84	0.73***	0.51	1.06	0.58	0.43	0.79
2009	0.69	0.48	0.99	1.19***	0.84	1.69	0.66	0.49	0.89
2010	1.1***	0.79	1.55	1.25***	0.89	1.76	0.60	0.43	0.83
2011	1.34***	0.93	1.91	1.62***	1.24	2.51	0.70	0.48	1.03
2012	1.43***	0.95	2.16	1.77***	1.14	2.32	0.70***	0.50	0.97
2013	1.26***	0.89	1.78	1.25***	0.88	1.78	0.65	0.46	0.92
2014	1.03***	0.71	1.48	1.16***	0.80	1.69	0.45	0.32	0.63
2015	0.97	0.67	1.41	0.78***	0.55	1.13	0.31	0.10	0.44
2016	0.41	0.25	0.69	0.32	0.19	0.54	0.18	0.00	0.30

**Note:** ® = reference category



This section compares the results of multinomial logistic regression analysis of immigrants in South Africa from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa. Table 4.3 results show that relative to those who came from the Southern Africa region, immigrants from the East African region had a higher risk ratio in the age group 20-29 [(RRR =1.59; CI:1.22-2.06)] compared to the reference age group 0-19. Conversely, those from Central Africa had a lower risk ratio of 0.40 ( $p < 0.005$ ), while the results were not statistically significant for immigrants from West Africa. Furthermore, immigrants from West Africa and East Africa in the age groups 30-39 and 40-49 had a higher risk ratio of immigration, while the risk was lower for all age groups coming from Central Africa, relative to those in the reference category. Results showed that females had a lower risk ratio of migrating compared to males. Relative to those coming from Southern Africa, a risk ratio of [(RRR= 0.46, 95% CI=0.40-0.547)] for immigrants coming from West Africa and those coming in from both Central and East Africa were 0.39 (CI) less likely to immigrate to South Africa ( $p < 0.005$ ). Regarding marital status, those who were single had a higher risk ratio for migration than those who were married. The risk ratios showed that those who came from East Africa and Central Africa were [(RRR=1.59, 95% CI=1.33-1.89 and [(RRR=2.0, 95% CI=1.76-2.3)] times more likely to have migrated to South Africa than married people. The results for West Africa were not statistically significant.

The results showed that those who were cohabiting from East Africa and Central Africa had lower risk ratios of [(RRR=0.66, 95% CI=0.54 -0.82)] and [(RRR=0.58, 95% CI=0.46-0.730)] compared with immigrants from West Africa. Furthermore, those widowed in West Africa and East Africa were 0.29 (CI) and 0.55 less likely to migrate to South Africa, respectively, compared to the reference category. Relative to those coming from the Southern Africa region, immigrants who follow the Islamic religion from East Africa had a higher risk ratio of [(RRR=12.45, 95% (CI=%9.69-15.9)] for immigrating to South Africa compared to Christians. Furthermore, immigrants coming from Central Africa were RRR= [(9.52, 95% CI= 4.14-11.7)] times more likely to migrate to South Africa compared to the reference category.

Those who were non-religious believers from West Africa were 0.68 (CI) less likely to migrate than those from East Africa ( $p < 0.005$ ). Regarding the level of education relative to those who came from the Southern Africa region, immigrants from West Africa had a higher risk ratio of people who held a tertiary education and were (RRR=6.79, 95% CI=4.97-9.27) times more likely compared to the reference category of (no education). On the other hand, those from East Africa had a lower risk ratio of people who held secondary education of 0.33 ( $p < 0.005$ ). Furthermore, immigrants from West Africa were 0.31 (CI) less likely to migrate to South Africa compared to

people coming from Central Africa. Results show that people immigrated to different provinces of South Africa, relative to those coming in from the Southern Africa region; immigrants from Central Africa had a higher risk ratio in the Eastern Cape province of [(RRR=3.20,95% CI=2.49-4.10)] compared to the reference category. Furthermore, people from the Northern Cape also had a higher risk ratio of [(RRR=1.84,95% (CI)= 1.26-2.69)] compared to the reference category. Moreover, in the Free State Province, the results show that people from East Africa were 0.19 (CI) and Central Africa 1.05 (CI) are more likely to migrate than those from West Africa. Furthermore, immigrants from West Africa and Central Africa in the Gauteng province had a higher risk ratio of immigration, whereas the risk was lower in the Limpopo, NorthWest, and Mpumalanga provinces from East Africa than in the reference category. People in KwaZulu-Natal coming from both Central Africa and East Africa were 0.53 ( $p<0.05$ ) and 0.85 ( $p<0.05$ ) times more likely to immigrate to South Africa compared to West Africa. Furthermore, those from East Africa had a lower risk ratio of 0.03 ( $p<0.005$ ), whereas the results were not statistically significant for immigrants from West Africa.

Moreover, relative to those coming from the Southern Africa region, one of the highest risk ratios are immigrants from East Africa who had a higher risk ratio in the year 2012 [(RRR =1.77, 95% CI=1.14-2.32)], compared to the reference category year 2006. In contrast, those from Central Africa had a lower risk ratio of 0.6 ( $p<0.005$ ). Furthermore, immigrants from West Africa and East Africa had a higher risk ratio of immigration, while the risk was lower for all years moved to South Africa coming from Central Africa relative to those in the reference category. On the other hand, both immigrants from the year 2011 from East Africa were [(1.62, 95% CI=1.24-2.5)] and [(1.34 95% CI=0.93-1.910)] more likely those from West Africa. Furthermore, immigrants from Central Africa had a lower risk ratio and were 0.6 times less likely to migrate compared to those from East Africa. In 2009, there was a slight increase in the number of immigrants coming in from East Africa and a higher risk-ratio of immigration of [(RRR=1.19,95% CI=0.84-1.69)], while the risk was lower for immigrants coming from West Africa relative to those in the reference category. Finally, the results show that, relative to the Southern Africa region, people from East Africa had a higher risk ratio to immigrants in the years 2011-2014 in South Africa compared to immigrants in Central Africa.

## **CHAPTER 5      DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

### **5.1      Introduction**

The chapter will first discuss the distribution of migrants by region of origin followed by the trends and the last section will deal with discussion of the main findings as well as conclusions and recommendations. Furthermore, this chapter provides a comprehensive review of the information presented in earlier chapters. Moreover, the last chapter aims to examine immigration to South Africa using a comparative analysis of sub-Saharan African regions.

### **5.2      Main findings and discussion**

The study findings reveals that distribution of migrants in South Africa showed that a significant majority of these migrants (88%) were from the Southern African region followed by (5% ) from Eastern Africa region (4%) from Central African region and the least came from the Western African region (3%). Migration trends and patterns continue to increase as many immigrants from various sub-Saharan African regions immigrate to South Africa. The results showed that migration rates increased gradually from 2006 with (7.4%) of the total migrants arriving that year. It increased to (10,9%) in 2008 and finally reaching a peak in 2010 with (12,9%) of the current migrants arriving in South Africa and thereafter, the trends declined again to (6,5%) in 2011 and increased later. The possible explanation for this increase up until the year 2010 is the attraction from the soccer world cup that was held in the country in that year.

Second, findings of the study show that the prospect for 12.5% of other sub-Saharan regions moved to South Africa in 2010 and included those who were asylum seekers, mainly from the East African region, who immigrated for economic space. The contribution to this could have resulted, that later on some asylum seekers or economic migrants come to South Africa in search because of unemployment and therefore created variety of exploitative practises, employment and better business opportunities. In line with study findings by Adepoju (2019) indicates that a noticeable shift in South Africa over the last decade have resulted in a severe less restriction of access to the asylum process, giving rise to a large population of hidden and undocumented refugees and asylum seekers who have become increasingly vulnerable.

Thirdly, the study revealed that there is an association ( $P=0.000$ ) between education level and and migrant differences in various regions of sub-Saharan Africa and migrates with a tertiary education were more likely to migrate to South Africa compared to people with no education. Education determines the level of migration to South Africa from all various regions of sub-Saharan Africa. Education is widely acknowledged as a primary motivator of migration because

it opens doors to and facilitates employment in foreign countries. According to the findings of a study by Antobam (2016) education is frequently regarded as an important factor in fostering long-term integration processes. This is due to the fact that education enables immigrants to acquire the skills necessary to enter the labour market, and it also enables education systems to assist migrants in understanding the traditions and culture of their new country. The finding of this study is similar to the finding of Esipova *et al.* (2011) which revealed that people with high levels of education are more likely to be international migrants.

Moreover, Adepoju (2019) suggested that migration rate flows to South Africa had increased due to demographic factors, and other social changes, affects the stability of the receiving country. The study findings show that prominent factors influencing migration in South Africa was mining through the demand for cheap labour that could not be satisfied by the local supply of workers, therefore central recruiting systems for labour migration were implemented to recruit miners. Moreover, the influence of gold and diamonds attracted neighbouring countries who came from the Southern African region and contributed the highest number of migrants in South Africa. In line with Lefko-Everett (2004) findings revealed an association of increased migrants in the Southern African region immigrating to South Africa.

The study found an association between religious belief and migrant differences in various regions of sub-Saharan Africa, the Islamic religious people were more likely to immigrate in South Africa from all three different regions in sub-Saharan Africa compared to Christians. The study findings is in line with the findings of Zlotnik (2003) who states that people who follow the Islamic believe from East Africa had a higher risk ratio of immigrating to South Africa compared to Christians.

One of the findings of this study showed that migration was strongly related to age of an individual. People who were aged 0-19 were less likely to migrate to South Africa compared to those who were aged 20-29 and 30-39. Further results, of the study showed that those coming from the Southern African region and East Africa region contributed to a higher distribution of 45%, by those who are aged 30-39. Furthermore, East African region contributed of 46% to those aged 20-29, followed by the those aged of 30-29, accounting for 37%. This may be attributed by migrant's perception of high chances of employment in South Africa, a lack of opportunities for good education and improved services may all contribute to the large number of young people to migrate. The study findings is in line with the findings of Thadani and Todaro (2019) who revealed that there is a strong association between age from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa.

Moreover, the study revealed that there is a strong association between sex and migrant differences in various regions of sub-Saharan Africa, males from all various regions in sub-Saharan Africa are more likely to migrate to South Africa compared to females. Female migrants decreased from (49.4%) in mid-year 2000 to (48.1%) by mid-year 2020, this may be attributed by the fact that women move primarily for family reasons, whereas males migrate mostly for employment, as they are responsible for their families (Bouchoucha 2010). The finding of this study is similar to the of Ngandwe (2013) who stated that the quest for employment mostly drives male migration compared to females.

Furthermore, the study revealed that there is a strong relationship between marital status and migrant differences in various regions of sub-Saharan Africa, married couples were less likely to migrate to South Africa from all three regions East, West and Central African regions than single people. However, this finding is contrary to the finding of Colby and Ortman (2014) which found that family-building activities are important migration factors and that movement is linked to marriage. They establish a clear link between marriage and migration by arguing that the likelihood of migrating increases as soon as people get married since couples often receive a new home to reside in or one partner moves in with the other. The study by Adepoju (2019) states that in most cases people with more capital and high education are more likely to get married and eventually migrate abroad to find better-paying work.

The study findings show an association between province and migrant differences in various regions of sub-Saharan Africa with ( $P=0.000$ ), the immigrants from the Southern African region contributed (49%) in Gauteng relative to those coming from West Africa and Central Africa and a lower likelihood for immigrants in the province of Limpopo, Northwest, and Mpumalanga from East Africa. Consequently, the current migratory movements in the country provide a historical context and help situate them from regional and global perspectives. It is evident that although South Africa has issues in terms of economic growth, it remains the country for many immigrants who hope to establish a better life for themselves and their families Galvin (2015) mentioned that the Gauteng province region was the destination for almost (40%) of migrant workers during the late 1990s.

The findings of the study indicate that the approach of immigrating into South Africa works for those who needed to find better opportunities prospects, and escape critical economic issues from their country of origin. The current migratory movements in the country provide a historical context and help situate them from regional and global perspectives. It is evident that although South Africa has issues in terms of economic growth, it remains the country for many immigrants who hope to establish a better life for themselves and their families.

### **5.3 Conclusions**

In conclusion, migration has become a significant process due to factors such as the population redistribution in South Africa. The contribution of human mobility to sustainable development is widely acknowledged, as migration plays a role in increasing people's safety, security, and access to opportunities. Perhaps, on the lighter side, migration has a better chance of reducing inequality when migrants of all skill levels are allowed to come legally and use their skills constructively. This study highlighted the importance of international migratory movements and trends of immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa. It has identified the challenges the country faces when planning for migrants in the country, and it also looks at which region is most likely to migrate into South Africa for socio-economic reasons and their prospects. However, this demonstrates the significance of cross-border and international migration from various regions of sub-Saharan Africa.

Despite the evidence offered here on the importance of migration in the lives of immigrants, this study also reveals knowledge gaps that require future research to enable policymakers to plan and deliver effective interventions and ascertain the number of people arriving in a country. The predominance of the sub-Saharan African migration stream might explain the increasing number of regions in South Africa. This indicates to the population of South Africa how immigrants permanently migrate for different reasons, with different ages and genders, whether they are married or not. Therefore, to reduce the influx of people immigrating to the country, a broader understanding of recommendations for rethinking South African migration management strategies and policies is required. Furthermore, the study showed precisely how migration has become a global phenomenon and how it has affected migrants in the receiving countries.

## 5.4 Recommendations

### Recommendations on security, illegal immigrants and social cohesion in South Africa

- Firstly, to improve economic situations from different regions perhaps implementing to lessen level migration in the region could help. As there are more immigrants coming to South Africa, the government should come up with policies that is accommodative of migrants, especially those that have better skills that are needed in South Africa.
- Planning for migrants, especially because some will need special attention as they are likely to find it difficult to settle among the locals without some assistance from the authorities on issues such as security, access to health care, education, housing, and integration into society.
- Strategies such as in avoiding the influx of immigrants for future purposes, increased bilateral and regional cooperation and coordination should be suggested. This will greatly assist in fully comprehending the nature and relevance of migration, particularly regarding a country's current social decay.
- The Department of Home Affairs could begin to correctly guide the government with information of which legal immigrants who are allowed to enter or leave South Africa.
- Finally, creating a new and restrictive policy regulation that includes a broader understanding for South Africa, this recommendation will be in full use to well-inform immigrants which in turn can help major migrant inflows into the country and avoid leading to critical economic growth conditions.

## REFERENCE LIST

- Abramsky, T., Mak, J., Zimmerman, C., Kiss, L. and Sijapati, B. 2018. Migration Planning Among Female Prospective Labour Migrants from Nepal: A Comparison of First-Time and Repeat-Migrants. *International Migration*, 56(4):197-216.
- Adepoju, A. 2006. Internal and international migration within Africa. *Migration in south and Southern Africa: Dynamics and determinants*:26-46.
- Adepoju, A. 2019. Regional and intercontinental migration in sub-Saharan Africa. *The SAGE handbook of international migration*:232-246.
- Atnafu, A., Oucho, L. and Zeitlyn, B. 2014. Poverty, youth and rural-urban migration in Ethiopia.
- Caldwell, B.C. 2019. *Deported Americans: life after deportation to Mexico*. Duke University Press.
- Charron, A. 2020. ‘Somehow, we cannot accept it’: Drivers of internal displacement from Crimea and the forced/voluntary migration binary. *Europe-Asia Studies*, 72(3):432-454.
- Cincotti, S., Elsner, W., Lazaric, N., Nesvetailova, A. and Stockhammer, E. 2020. Towards an evolutionary political economy. Editorial to the inaugural issue of the Review of Evolutionary Political Economy REPE. Vol. 1. pp. 1-12): Springer.
- Cohen, B.C. 2015. *Press and foreign policy*. 2321. Princeton university press.
- Colby, S. and Ortman, J.M. 2014. *The baby boom cohort in the United States: 2012 to 2060*. US Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration, US ....
- Crivello, G. 2011. ‘Becoming somebody’: Youth transitions through education and migration in Peru. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 14(4):395-411.
- Crush, J. and Tawodzera, G. 2014. Exclusion and discrimination: Zimbabwean migrant children and South African schools. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 15:677-693.
- Czaika, M. and Reinprecht, C. 2022. Migration drivers: why do people migrate. *Introduction to Migration Studies: An Interactive Guide to the Literatures on Migration and Diversity*:49-82.
- De Haas, H. 2010. Migration and development: A theoretical perspective. *International migration review*, 44(1):227-264.
- De Haas, H., Czaika, M., Flahaux, M.L., Mahendra, E., Natter, K., Vezzoli, S. and Villares-Varela, M. 2019. International migration: Trends, determinants, and policy effects. *Population and Development review*, 45(4):885-922.
- Dick, E. and Schraven, B. 2019. Global but not regional? The role of African regional migration regimes in the international governance architecture. *The Role of African Regional Migration Regimes in the International Governance Architecture (May 2019)*. Robert Schuman Centre for Advanced Studies Research Paper No. RSCAS, 33,



- Dithebe, M.E.V. 2017. *Illegal immigration and weak border controls in South Africa*. North-West University (South Africa).
- Dush, C.M.K., Jang, B. and Snyder, A.R. 2018. A cohort comparison of predictors of young adult union formation and dissolution in the US. *Advances in Life Course Research*, 38:37-49.
- Dzingai, M.C.N. 2016. *The impact of immigration on the planning of mining cities in the North West Province*.
- Edo, A. 2019. The impact of immigration on the labor market. *Journal of Economic Surveys*, 33(3):922-948.
- Esipova, N., Ray, J. and Pugliese, A. 2011. The many faces of global migration. *Geneva: International Organization for Migration (IOM)*,
- Flahaux, M.-L. 2017. The role of migration policy changes in Europe for return migration to Senegal. *International Migration Review*, 51(4):868-892.
- Grant, M.J. and Kohler, H.-P. 2022. Marriage Change and Fertility Decline in sub-Saharan Africa, 1991-2019.
- Hlongwane, T.M., Bozkurt, B., Barreix, M.C., Pattinson, R., Gülmezoglu, M., Vannevel, V. and Tunçalp, Ö. 2021. Implementing antenatal care recommendations, South Africa. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 99(3):220.
- Hussein, S. and Manthorpe, J. 2005. An international review of the long-term care workforce: policies and shortages. *Journal of aging & social policy*, 17(4):75-94.
- Hyman, I., Guruge, S. and Mason, R. 2008. The impact of migration on marital relationships: A study of Ethiopian immigrants in Toronto. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 39(2):149-163.
- Jinnah, Z. and Lowe, L. 2015. Circumcising circumcision: renegotiating beliefs and practices among Somali women in Johannesburg and Nairobi. *Medical Anthropology*, 34(4):371-388.
- Kavuro, C. 2015. Refugees and asylum seekers: Barriers to accessing South Africa's labour market. *Law, Democracy & Development*, 19:232-260.
- Lefko-Everett, K. 2004. Botswana's changing migration patterns. see <http://www.migrationinformation.org/Profiles/display.cfm>,
- Light, M.T., He, J. and Robey, J.P. 2020. Comparing crime rates between undocumented immigrants, legal immigrants, and native-born US citizens in Texas. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 117(51):32340-32347.
- Lindley, A. 2022. *The early morning phonecall: Somali refugees' remittances*. Berghahn Books.
- Lovell, M.C. and Early, J.F. 1976. Least-squares seasonally adjusted unemployment data. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, 1976(1):225-243.
- Mabiala, S.-J.S. 2013. Unemployment and immigration in South Africa.): WWW: [http://www.polity.org.za/article/unemployment-and-immigration-in ...](http://www.polity.org.za/article/unemployment-and-immigration-in-...)

Mahendra, E. 2014. Trade liberalisation and migration hump: NAFTA as a quasi-natural experiment.

Majee, W., Dinbabo, M., Ile, I. and Belebema, M. 2019. African immigrant and refugee families' perceptions on informational support and health status: A comparison of African immigrants living in South Africa and the United States. *African Human Mobility Review*, 5(3),

Makhetha, E. 2020. Artisanal miners, migration and remittances in Southern Africa. *Migration conundrums, regional integration and development: Africa-Europe relations in a changing global order*:257-270.

Masolane, L.J. 2019. *Management of the Socioeconomic Impacts of Immigration in South Africa-a Case Study of the City of Tshwane*. Stellenbosch University.

Mlambo, V.H. 2021. IRREGULAR MIGRATION, CROSS BORDER CRIME AND THE SECURITIZATION THEORY: A SOUTH AFRICAN REFLECTION. *Journal of Social Political Sciences*, 2(1):12-29.

Morris, R. 2018. *Leading and Managing Safe Secondary Schools in Gauteng*. University of the Witwatersrand, Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management.

Moyo, I. and Nshimbi, C.C. 2020. Of Borders and fortresses: attitudes towards immigrants from the SADC region in South Africa as a critical factor in the integration of southern Africa. *Journal of Borderlands Studies*, 35(1):131-146.

Moyo, K. 2021. South Africa reckons with its status as a top immigration destination, apartheid history, and economic challenges. *Migration Policy Institute*, 18,

Mukumbang, F.C., Ambe, A.N. and Adebisi, B.O. 2020. Unspoken inequality: how COVID-19 has exacerbated existing vulnerabilities of asylum-seekers, refugees, and undocumented migrants in South Africa. *International journal for equity in health*, 19(1):141.

Murphy, R., Keogh, B. and Higgins, A. 2021. An embodied distress: African asylum seekers' experiences of mental health difficulties while awaiting an asylum outcome in Ireland. *Transcultural Psychiatry*, 58(2):239-253.

Neubecker, N. and Smolka, M. 2013. Co-national and cross-national pulls in international migration to Spain. *International Review of Economics & Finance*, 28:51-61.

Ngandwe, P.J. 2013. The Paradox of Migration and the Interests of the Atomistic Nation-States: The Southern African Perspective. *Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal/Potchefstroomse Elektroniese Regsblad*, 16(1):426-449.

Ntshidi, A.T. 2017. *Patterns of rural-urban migration in South Africa*. North-West University (South Africa), Mafikeng Campus.

Pineteh, E.A. 2017. Illegal aliens and demons that must be exorcised from South Africa: Framing African migrants and xenophobia in post-apartheid narratives. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 3(1):1391158.

Powell, B., Clark, J.R. and Nowrasteh, A. 2017. Does mass immigration destroy institutions? 1990s Israel as a natural experiment. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 141:83-95.

SA, S. 2015. *Census 2011: Migration Dynamics in South Africa* <http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/Report-03-01-79/Report-03-01-792011.pdf> Date of access: 03 September 2022.

SA, S. 2021a. *Erroneous reporting of undocumented migrants in SA*. <https://www.statssa.gov.za/?p=14569> Date of access: 5 November 2022.

SA, S. 2021b. *Mid-year population estimates. (Statistical release P0302)*. <http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0302/P03022021.pdf> Date of access:

SA, S. 2021c. *Community survey 2016*. [https://www.statssa.gov.za/page\\_id=6283#:~:text=The%20Community%20Survey%202016\(C.S.Survey%20was%20conducted%20in%202007](https://www.statssa.gov.za/page_id=6283#:~:text=The%20Community%20Survey%202016(C.S.Survey%20was%20conducted%20in%202007) Date of access: 4 October 2022.

SA, S. 2022. *Mid-year population estimates. (Statistical Release P0302)*. <https://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0302/P03022022.pdf> Date of access: 20 October 2022.

Shimeles, A. 2010. Migration patterns, trends and policy issues in Africa. *African Development Bank, Working Papers Series*, 119,

Skran, C. and Easton-Calabria, E. 2020. Old concepts making new history: refugee self-reliance, livelihoods and the ‘refugee entrepreneur’. *Journal of Refugee Studies*, 33(1):1-21.

Sparreboom, T., Mertens, J. and Berger, S. 2020. The labour market impact of immigration in three sub-Saharan African economies. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*, 21(4):1225-1248.

Teye, J.K., Awumbila, M. and Benneh, Y. 2015. Intra-regional migration in the ECOWAS region: Trends and emerging challenges. *Migration and civil society as development drivers—A regional perspective*:97-124.

Thadani, V.N. and Todaro, M.P. 2019. Female migration: A conceptual framework. In. *Women in the Cities of Asia*: Routledge. pp. 36-59.

UNHCR. 2022. *Global Report 2022*. file:///C:/Users/Acer/Downloads/2305336E\_UNHCR-AR-2022\_web\_V3.pdf Date of access:

Van Lennep, T. 2019. Migration II: the South African migration policy landscape. *Helen Suzmanne Foundation*,

Wood, N., Charlwood, G., Zecchin, C., Hansen, V., Douglas, M. and Pit, S.W. 2019. Qualitative exploration of the impact of employment and volunteering upon the health and wellbeing of African refugees settled in regional Australia: A refugee perspective. *BMC Public Health*, 19:1-15.

Zelinsky, W. 1971. The hypothesis of the mobility transition. *Geographical review*:219-249.

Zlotnik, H. 2003. The global dimensions of female migration. *Migration information source*, 1:19-20.



Private Bag X1290, Potchefstroom  
South Africa 2520

Tel: 018 299-1111/2222  
Fax: 018 299-4910  
Web: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>

Senate Committee for Research Ethics  
Tel: 016 103 4446  
Email: [Feziwe.Mseleni@nwu.ac.za](mailto:Feziwe.Mseleni@nwu.ac.za)

07 August 2023

## ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER OF STUDY

Based on approval by the **Basic and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (BaSSREC)** on **04/08/2023**, the Basic and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee hereby **approves** your study as indicated below. This implies that the North-West University Senate Committee for Research Ethics (NWU-SERC) grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the study may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

<b>Study title: Characteristics of immigrants in South Africa: A comparative analysis of immigrants from various regions in sub-Saharan Africa.</b>																															
<b>Study Leader/Supervisor (Principal Investigator)/Researcher: Dr. K. Mhele</b>																															
<b>Student/Research Team: D.R.S. Khumalo (30029406)</b>																															
<b>Ethics number:</b>	<table border="1"><tr><td>N</td><td>W</td><td>U</td><td>-</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>0</td><td>-</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>-</td><td>A</td><td>7</td></tr><tr><td colspan="3">Institution</td><td colspan="5">Study Number</td><td colspan="2">Year</td><td colspan="5">Status</td></tr></table> <p><i>Status:</i> S = Submission; R = Re-Submission; P = Provisional Authorisation; A = Authorisation</p>	N	W	U	-	0	1	0	1	0	-	2	3	-	A	7	Institution			Study Number					Year		Status				
N	W	U	-	0	1	0	1	0	-	2	3	-	A	7																	
Institution			Study Number					Year		Status																					
<b>Application Type: Single study</b>	<b>Risk:</b> <table border="1"><tr><td><b>No risk</b></td></tr></table>	<b>No risk</b>																													
<b>No risk</b>																															
<b>Commencement date: 04/08/2023</b>	<b>Expiry date: 04/08/2024</b>																														
<b>Approval of the study is initially provided for a year, after which continuation of the study is dependent on receipt and review of the annual (or as otherwise stipulated) monitoring report and the concomitant issuing of a letter of continuation.</b>																															

### Special in process conditions of the research for approval (if applicable):

<p><b>General conditions:</b></p> <p><i>While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, the following general terms and conditions will apply:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• <i>The study leader/supervisor (principal investigator)/researcher must report in the prescribed format to the BaSSREC:</i><ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- <i>annually (or as otherwise requested) on the monitoring of the study, whereby a letter of continuation will be provided, and upon completion of the study; and</i></li><li>- <i>without any delay in case of any adverse event or incident (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the study.</i></li></ul></li><li>• <i>The approval applies strictly to the proposal as stipulated in the application form. Should any amendments to the proposal be deemed necessary during the course of the study, the study leader/researcher must apply for approval of these amendments at the BaSSREC, prior to implementation. Should there be any deviations from the study proposal without the necessary approval of such amendments, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.</i></li><li>• <i>Annually a number of studies may be randomly selected for an external audit.</i></li><li>• <i>The date of approval indicates the first date that the study may be started.</i></li></ul>
----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------