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African female migrants and housing acquisition in South Africa: a comparison between 2001 and 2011 Population Census

Koketso Percy Mokabati (4015167)

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Supervisor: Dr. Philomene Nsengiyumva

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Declaration

I, Koketso Percy Mokabati, hereby affirm that 'African female migrants and housing acquisition in South Africa: a comparison between 2001 and 2011 Population Census' is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any academic institution, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete reference.

Koketso Percy Mokabati November 2021

Signed……

Acknowledgment

First and foremost, let me thank God, the Almighty for his never-ending grace. I would like to express my deep and sincere gratitude to my research supervisor, Dr. Philomene Nsengiyumva for her patience, support and most importantly her indispensable guidance throughout this research. You are a tank of knowledge and I am grateful for having done this under your wing. From our first meeting, to this day, you have shown me nothing but immense support. I would not have achieved this without you and I will always forever be grateful. I would also like to acknowledge and thank my parents, Stephen Dithata Mokabati and Ntebo Onnica Mokabati for their wise words of encouragement, love and continued support throughout this journey. Moreover, I could not have completed this thesis without my beloved sister Kgothatso Jessica Mokabati, my two brothers Tlotlo Mokabati and Olebogeng Mohukubu, and Nthabiseng Twabile. I am grateful for all your support.

THANK YOU!!!

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to my late grandmother, Motshwane Sinah Mathibe. I am thankful for the role that you played in my life. Thank you for your prayers and endless support, I love you.

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Acronyms

ANC- African National Congress

CSIR- Council for Scientific and Industrial Research

DHA- Department of Home Affairs

DHS- Department of Human Settlements

ILO- International Labour Organization

MDG-Millennium Development Goals

NDP- National Development plan

NELM- New Classical Economies of Labour

NURCHA- National Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency

RDP- Reconstruction and Development Programme

SA-South Africa

SDG- Sustainable Development Goals

SPSS-Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

SSA- Sub-Saharan Africa

Stats SA-Statistics South Africa

UN-United Nations

UNESCAP- United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific

UNDP- United Nations Development Programme

UNDESA- United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

UNHRC-United Nations Human Rights Council

Abstract

African female migrants make up a large portion of the population in general and in South Africa in particular. This includes both the documented and the undocumented female migrants. Nonetheless, they are confronted with a housing challenge in the countries of destination. This study seeks to examine the types of housing, the methods of housing acquisition, and the size of housing that African female migrants have access to. This study used secondary data of the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses, gathered from the (Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) database to look into African female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa. The study used the Chi-square test statistic to measure the relationship between the variables of interest. The analysis of this study was completed using SPSS version 27. The study performed univariate and bivariate analyses by means of cross-tabulation and the Chi-square test statistic to measure the relationship between the variables. Multivariate analysis was used to identify the factors contributing to housing acquisition. Using the 2001 and 2011 Population Census data, the study identifies the factors associated with African female migrants' housing type, housing tenure status, and housing size by linking them with socio-economic, migratory and socio-demographic variables.

The study revealed that most of the African female migrants in South Africa are not married and the majority are between the ages of 15-35 years old with secondary education. The study found that majority of them is unemployed and not economically active. Furthermore, the study shows that majority of African female migrants in South Africa live in rented informal housing, in one-room housing. The results indicated a relationship between the variables under consideration. Age, marital status, level of education, employment status, income, and country of birth have an influence on housing acquisition among African female migrants in South Africa. Based on the findings, the government and the policy makers should develop the laws of migration in South Africa to improve the housing acquisition of African female migrants. Removing all forms of institutional barriers to African female migrants should also be prioritized to increase female productivity and empowerment so as to facilitate the economic development in South Africa and in Africa as a whole.

Keywords: African female migrant, Housing type, Housing tenure, Country of birth, Citizenship

CHAPTER 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

In the past fifteen years, female migration has become a common observable fact. Throughout those years, however, male migration had higher statistics compared to female migration (Nsengiyimva and Tati, 2017:3271). According to Hassan (2020:76), globally, migration is an issue that has always been centralized around males. Many researchers perceive migration as a masculine associated phenomenon. Globally, it is believed that the likelihood of migration among males is greater than the likelihood of migration among females.

The invisibility of female migration during pre-colonialism, colonialism and the apartheid era always seemed like females were inactive in terms of migration. This belief was created because females were perceived as housewives, child bearers and caregivers. Female roles were deemed to be centralized around the household which grounded their attention towards their children and their families. The focus of this study is on the change of residence or housing among African female migrants who cross the borders of their countries or states, into South Africa (SA) for a lengthy period of time or permanently (Mhlongo *et al.*, 2018).

In the past, migration has always been associated with gender and currently, it is evident that females are now beginning to migrate more than males, mostly in the African continent (Hassan, 2020:76). The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) (2018) states that there have been a relatively high number of female migrants in the African continent during 2017. During that year, Europe and Africa had recorded the most refugees in the world: Europe recorded 39% of female refugees, while Africa recorded 51% of female refugees. Most of the refugees in these two continents state that migration is largely influenced by the pull factors such as employment, enhanced standard of living which includes housing, quality education and safety and security.

Since the advent of democracy in 1994, South African cities have become important destinations for the continent's refugees, asylum seekers and economic migrants in general and female migrants, in particular. A survey conducted in 2003 by the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) found, for example, that close to one-quarter of Johannesburg's inner-city residents were born outside of South Africa. South Africa's National Development Plan

(NDP) 2030 outlines development goals and objectives that relate to both migration and gender, and recognises that female migration is likely to increase. In recent years, the number

of female migrants has increased globally, and they now make up almost half of the migrant population. In Africa, females make up 49% of the migrant population. The number of female migrants in South Africa has quadrupled in the last fifteen years. There were 519 315 international female migrants in South Africa in 1990 and 1 007 320 in 2013. In 2017, South Africa reported the highest share of mixed female migrants in Africa with 1.8 million, followed by Uganda with approximately 898 000 female migrants.

In South Africa, apartheid took place during the First Industrial Revolution. During this time, plenty of minerals were discovered, including gold (in Johannesburg) and diamonds (in Kimberley). A great number of people migrated from their home towns in different provinces and they were forced into slave-like labour on the mines. Most of them were males because "male power" in the labour-force was the key to increased production and additional profitability (Freedman, 2012).

This division of labour never favoured females who were focused in household chores and agricultural production in their respective communities. As females were of no use in industrial-type of labour, they had no reason for migration. Female migration is now influenced by the notion of women empowerment. Governments across the world are now giving females opportunities to conquer the world and as a result, migration among females is rapidly increasing (Freedman, 2012).

According to Gouws (2018), currently females are becoming increasingly educated and this education influences the desire for them to become successful. These days, females covet economic independence more than anything else and many females want to pursue professional careers; this makes them want to take opportunities to migrate. There is evidence in many African countries, including South Africa, Botswana, Lesotho, Zambia and Malawi to name a few (Vause and Toma, 2015) and these countries have policies to empower females. Policies like the Millennium Development goals have been amended by some of the African countries that seek to empower females and eradicate poverty.

Many female migrants in the African continent to South Africa are mainly from the sub-Saharan African region. These countries include Lesotho, South Africa, Malawi and Zimbabwe among others (Greenburg and Polzer, 2008). Most of the countries in this part of Africa are considered to be Third World or underdeveloped countries and as a result, people have to make other plans of survival. According to Akileswaran and Lurie (2010), scores of females from

underdeveloped countries in the sub-Saharan Africa migrate into the neighboring developing countries and this affects the service delivery in the places of destination.

Greenburg and Polzer, (2008) stated that many African female migrants in South Africa are irregular migrants who enter low-skilled employment. No legal visa pathways are available to them so they are largely unable to engage in the formal economy. Most find employment in informal, domestic and agricultural sectors. Data from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Centre and International Labour Organization (ILO) shows that male migrants are more likely to be employed than women migrants in developing countries (Greenburg and Polzer, 2008).

The 2012 Quarterly Labour Force Survey indicates that male migrants have a 56% higher probability of finding employment than female migrants in South Africa. Migration can be a key tool for women's economic empowerment (Stats SA, 2014). It can also hold important socio-economic benefits for host and home countries, including gendered remittances and labour market integration (Vause and Toma, 2015). However, that does not automatically mean life in the country of destination will be better (Farley, 2019). South Africa's current migration system does not consider gendered aspects of migration and consequently fails to consider gender specific migration drivers, trends, and vulnerabilities given those African female migrants always need a place to stay in the areas of destination (Greenburg and Polzer, 2008).

In most cases, it becomes very tough for female migrants to find a place to stay in the country of destination. Overall, seventeen African countries have housing deficits of more than one million units. The housing acquisition becomes very huge and is a tough challenge. These female migrants become community members in informal settlements and they live under very dreadful conditions (Pheiffer, 2021). Research has shown that a billion people live in slums worldwide, and two million households live in informal housing in South Africa. The stated goal of the South African government was to overcome this housing backlog by 2014; but doubling the budget will achieve this by only 2030 (Mistro and Hensher, 2009).

As it is part of the policy of the South African government that each citizen should own a house, many females desire to live in their own houses as well. However, they find it difficult to achieve because of lack of sufficient income in the areas of destination. Many own hair-salons, they are street vendors and they sell cooked food in taxi ranks. Some make money out of the worst situations like prostitution and drug-selling (Akileswaran and Lurie, 2010). They

therefore, become home owners or rent housing in informal settlements, especially in South Africa.

According to Anand and Rademacher (2011), many female migrants in South Africa enter the housing market through informal housing because of factors such as the inability to apply for subsidized housing, inflating costs of ownership and low levels of income. Gunter (2014) states that the formal less expensive housing in cities like Johannesburg in South Africa has a backlog that can be estimated to be around one million houses and this has been a constant number for twenty-five years now. Gunter (2014) further states that this backlog of houses portrays a large influx of immigration and the inability of the social housing sector to keep up with the demand for less expensive houses.

According to the perspective of Todes (2012), the low-cost formal housing in South Africa has simply been unable to develop at a rate that the population is growing at and as a result, there has been an increase in the informal housing and many new female immigrants are somehow forced to find shelter in those informal settlements.

Informal housing in South Africa is occupied by the poorest citizens and the new immigrants in the country. According to Bekker (2002), female migrants usually move to places where there is better infrastructure and opportunities. However, according to the area in to which each of the female immigrant move to, there are different situations and conditions; this can be with regards to the quality and the level of education, the levels of income and the different job opportunities that requires people of various skills and qualifications.

According to Nsengiyumva (2013), the areas that are outside metropolitan municipalities are where land and government subsidized housing schemes are easily reached which may facilitate housing ownership among female immigrants. This idea is controversial to metropolitan areas where accessing resources and housing is largely competitive for female migrants and the general standard of living is very high. In this case, migration causes a challenge with regard to the service delivery in area of destination.

The United Nations (2001) states almost 40% of urban population growth can be ascribed to both international and internal migration. The other 60% of urban increase is estimated generally to be because of natural increase in the population. According to (Stats SA, 2003), the number of female headed households is also increasing rapidly in South Africa with a total increment of 4.1% between 1996 and 2001. Nsengiyumva (2013) notes that now many female

migrants are heading households and they are breadwinners. Thus, they carry every responsibility despite being poor.

However, little is known about whether female migrants from other African countries have increased between 2001 and 2011. Statistically, little is known about the top African countries that are sending mostly female migrants to South Africa. In terms of numbers, the province which is receiving the most African female migrants is still unknown. Moreover, the type of housing, tenure status, and the size of housing female migrants opt to stay in is still under researched.

As far as migration is selective, the socio-demographic, socio-economic, and migratory characteristics that influence female migrants to stay in a particular type of housing are still under researched. Therefore, the aim of this study is to explore the main type of housing African female migrants access across all nine provinces of South Africa, and to measure the relationship between socio-demographic, socio-economic, migratory characteristics of African female migrants and housing related variables, especially housing type, housing tenure, and the size of housing in order to inform the policy makers to improve the lives of African female migrants in South Africa.

1.2 Problem statement

The main concern is that, while international female migration is not a new phenomenon, females have long been absent from research in this area (Boyd and Grieco, 2003; Morokvasic, 2008). Men were perceived to be the only protagonists of international mobility while women were seen as either forsaken or passively following their husbands. However, from the 1980s, research increasingly brought women to the forefront of attention and claimed to observe a rising global trend towards a feminization of migration flows (Castles and Miller, 1998; Piper, 2005).

Many female migrants worldwide in general, and in Africa in particular, are head of households (Kabajuni, 2009), and breadwinners of their households (Nyirasafari, 2009). Despite the responsibilities they carry with them, the reality is that many female migrants are poor, who earn low incomes. In addition, African female migrants occupy jobs that are not only rejected by the local population, but also, they take inferior jobs compared to their educational qualifications (Tacoli, 2012). They are generally poorly paid; they experience unsatisfactory employment which leads to poor living conditions. This includes accessibility to inadequate housing across all nine provinces of South Africa (Obaid, 2006; Tacoli, 2012).

In the feminization of migration, little has been documented in relation with African female migrants' insertion in the housing market, especially the type of housing, the methods of housing acquisition, and the size of housing they live in, across all nine provinces of South Africa. Also, little is known whether the number of African female migrants has increased between 2001 and 2011. Statistically, little has been researched about the top African countries that are mostly sending female migrants to South Africa. In terms of the number of migrants, the province which is mostly receiving African female migrants is still unknown.

Knowing that migration is selective, the socio-demographic, socio-economic, and migratory characteristics that influence African female migrants to stay in a particular type of housing is still under researched in the existing body of the literature. If nothing is done to dramatically change the situation, poor urban planning and inadequate housing supply will severely constrain South Africa's structural transformation. The shortage of housing will lead to an increase in slums, which are associated with a number of social problems: overcrowding, poor sanitation, and high crime rates.

This study aims to measure the magnitude of African female migrants in South Africa. It identifies the direction of African female migration across all nine provinces, and it measures the relationship between African female migration characteristics and housing acquisition. It contributes to the existing body of knowledge by informing the policy makers the selectivity of African female migrants and their vulnerability in the housing market across all nine provinces of South Africa

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1.3 Research questions

The following research questions were investigated through this study:

- Does the number of African female migrants who have moved to South Africa, increased from 2001 to 2011?
- What are the top African countries that female migrants are more likely to come from?
- In South Africa, what are the type of housing African female migrants are more likely to stay in?
- Are the type of housing, tenure status, and the size of housing of African female migrants influenced by socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory characteristics such as age, marital status, and level of education, province, and citizenship?
- What are the factors contributing to housing type, housing tenure, and to the size of housing that African female migrants, are more likely to stay in?

1.4 Hypotheses to be tested

In this study the following hypotheses will be tested:

- The number of African female migrants has increased from 2001 to 2011.
- Mozambique and Zimbabwe are the top African countries that African female migrants are more likely to come from.
- African female migrants are more likely to stay in one room rented informal housing in South Africa.
- The housing type of African female migrants is influenced by African migrants' characteristics such as age, level of education, province, employment, income, citizenship, just to name a few.

1.5 Aims and objectives of the study

Aim:

The main objective of the study is to examine the types of housing; the methods of housing acquisition and the size of housing those African female migrants have access to in South Africa.

The specific objectives are:

- To determine whether the number of African female migrants has increased from 2001 to 2011.
- To identify the top African countries that female migrants are more likely to come from.
- To ascertain the type of housing, the tenure status, and the size of housing that African female migrants are more likely to stay in.
- To measure the relationship between the socio-demographic characteristics and the type of housing African female migrants are more likely to stay in.
- To identify the factors contributing to housing type, housing tenure status and the housing size African female migrants are more likely to stay in.

1.6 Rationale of the study

The study will inform the government the increasing feminization of migration in South Africa, and the types of housing, the methods used to access housing, and the housing size that African female migrants stay in South Africa, in relation to age, population group, level of education, employment, just to name a few. It will further inform the policy makers the vulnerability of African female migrants on the housing market in South Africa, and for the policy makers to act, accordingly.

1.7 Definition of key terms

Adult: All members of the population aged between 36-60 years old (Lehohla, 2014).

Census: A census can be defined as a survey of the complete sequence of observation elements that make up a specific population.

Children: All members of the population aged between 0-14 years old (Lehohla, 2014).

Elderly: All members of the population aged 61 years old, and above (Lehohla, 2014).

Feminisation of migration: A trend or a pattern of migration by females.

Housing acquisition: The act of acquiring or gaining possession of a house.

Housing size: Refers to a total number of rooms within a household.

Housing tenure: Refers to a legal status in which a person is entitled to occupying housing/accommodation.

Housing type: Refers to a type of house that a person lives in.

Informal settlements: Areas where groups of housing units have been constructed on land that the occupants have no legal claim to, or occupy illegally.

Internal migration: A change of residence within a country or state: from urban to rural, rural to urban, urban to urban and rural to rural.

International migration: A change of residence while crossing a border or state to live in a host country for a long period of time/permanently.

Migration selectivity: A notion that a sub-set of people migrate based on the same characteristics.

Migration: Migration can be defined as a change in a person's permanent or usual place of residence.

South Africa: The southernmost country on the African continent, renowned for its varied topography, great natural beauty, and cultural diversity, all of which have made the country a

favoured destination for travellers since the legal ending of apartheid (Afrikaans: “apartness,” or racial separation) in 1994.

Youth: All members of the population aged between 15-35 years old (Lehohla, 2014).

1.8 Organization of the study

The research is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 deals with the introduction: background of the study, the statement of the problem statement, rationale of the study, objectives and hypothesis. Chapter 2 presents the literature review. Chapter 3 deals with the methodology that is going to be used. Chapter 4 contains the findings and data analysis. Chapter 5 discusses the findings critically and lastly, Chapter 6 is the presentation of the conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews existing literature on African female migration, integrating it with the acquisition of housing in South Africa. The chapter will consist of two sub-sections namely: the theoretical literature and the empirical literature. The section on the theoretical literature will focus on reviewing the theories that are related to migration and housing. The second section will review empirical literature from the existing studies aligned with African female migration and housing from different scholars and researchers.

2.2 Theoretical perspectives on migration

In the past, scholars and researchers have always integrated migration and masculinity. This is one of the main reasons why there is insufficient knowledge on African female migration, especially in the South African context. Majority of the existing research shows that scholars and researchers focus mostly on migration by males and existing theories like the push and pull theory, networking theory and migration selectivity theory among others. From these mentioned theories, none have actually created a concept of female migration and housing acquisition. This research will solely focus on the African female migrants and their housing acquisition in South Africa.

2.2.1 Push and pull theory of migration

Migration is a global event that is influenced by numerous factors, which include social, economic, environmental, cultural, health, education, transportation and political factors. Kim *et al.* (2003) argue that migration always occurs because of the push and the pull factors. According to Butler (2016), the push and pull theory of migration is seen to be a very attractive method as it integrates factors that have an influence on the final decision-making process for migrants. However, the theory is criticized for not articulating the propensity of a person to migrate (Kanayo *et al.*, 2019). A few researchers have asserted that the push factors are influenced by limited opportunities in the place of origin and the existing pull factors are caused by better opportunities in the place of destination (P. Krishnakumar and T. Indumathi, 2014).

Globally, migrants are pushed from under-developed countries and developing countries to developed countries or they are pushed from the developing countries to the developed countries. Push factors usually drive individuals to leave their usual places of residence while pull factors do the opposite as they attract individuals into immigrating into an area. Push

factors may include: fewer opportunities, less employment, poor education and adverse climatic conditions while pull factors may include: entertainment, good quality education, enhanced employment opportunities and better safety and security (Krishnakumar and Indumathi, 2014).

According to Kanayo *et al*., (2019), migration theories are mostly centralized around economic factors because it is a common characteristic among people from the developing countries. Lee (1996) revised Ravenstine's theory of migration and his perspective is that Ravenstine missed some of the most influential factors of migration. Lee then proposed a revamped analytical framework for migration. He spotted some of the models which in most cases were used by geographers and demographers to give a rather specific and precise explanation for the push and pull theory of migration (Kanayo *et al.*, 2019).

According to Nsengiyumva (2013), Lee states that there are four main factors that influence the idea of migration in a human mind. These factors related to the place of origin of a migrant, factors that relate to the country of destination and the intervening challenges which can be the migration laws, physical and personal factors and the distance. According to Lee (1996), the attributes, 'plus', 'minus' and 'zero' can be used to explain the processes of migration: 'plus' are factors that encourage the process, 'minus' are factors that discourage the process and 'zero' are cases in which the migrant is indifferent".

2.2.2 Neo-classical theory

The Neo-classical theory of migration states that the idea of migration is influenced strongly by employment opportunities that exist to the migrant at the beginning phase and the expected income differentials (Wimalaratana and Wickramasinghe, 2016). The Neo-classical theorists believe that a person only migrates to a country of destination if they know they will one way or the other benefit. They either benefit through salaries and wages, education and prestige in the host nation.

Massey (2002) states that, if the migrant does not benefit in the host nation, the probability of them returning home is at a maximum. The idea of benefitting even pushes the migrant to settle for any type of labour, as in most cases, they are considered to be unskilled. This results in them earning low incomes.

Most African female migrants however, struggle to find well-paying jobs and this minimizes their chance of acquiring decent housing. According to De Haas (2010), the Neo-classical

theory believes that the labour markets and economies move towards an equilibrium point through trade and migration. Migrants are just reasonable actors, as they move from societies where labour is abundant and wages are low, to societies where labour is scarce and wages are high. The decision to migrate is taken interpersonally with the consideration that higher remittances will in the long run compensate for the cost and the risk of migrating.

Wimalaratana and Wickramasinghe (2016) say that the labour market rules and regulations manage international migration of both nations, at the receiving and the giving ends. However, according to the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP) (2007), in majority of the developing counties, migration does not occur out of the willingness of an individual but rather it occurs because of the influential factors such as poverty, civil rights, restraining state policies and living conditions, including housing.

2.2.3 New Economies of Labour Migration (NELM)

The New Economies of Labour Migration (NELM) has been developed with the objective of coming against the assumptions and the conclusions of Neo-classical theory. NELM looks at migration from the intrapersonal level to meso units such as families, households or other culture-defined units (De Haas, 2010). A very crucial perception of NELM is that the decision to migrate is not made by an individual solely but it is a decision that is made by an individual with influence and consideration of those around them; this is usually the family.

According to Wimalaratana and Wickramasinghe (2016), this is a decision that families and households make, looking at a possible increment of income and as a strategy of risk management in the context of market failures in the labour market. Migrants in this case prefer to live in rented houses with the aim of achieving the family's biggest objectives. However, NELM challenges the Neo-classical approach only to a point if it focuses on the structural conditions of the migrant, not just the labour market.

The conceptual framework created around the function of the family and the household has shown that the income acts as part of an agreement that works for everyone as far as the migrant and the migrant's family is concerned. NELM's focus on labour as a pooled resource of a household has become a very crucial criterion when compared to the individual role played by the migrant in the Neo-classical explanation (De Haas, 2010).

2.2.4 Networking theory

According to Wimalaratana and Wickramasinghe (2016), labour migration can happen for various reasons. Some reasons are: increased individual income, enhanced risk management of household income and an international displacement with a market penetration strategy. Even through the observation of several reasons, these reasons cannot single-handedly explain the actual trends and patterns of migration.

Factors such as the geographical proximity to nation states, availability of social networks, organizations and cultural historical factors need to be focused on. According to Arengo and Baldassare (2002), migration network involves a group of intrapersonal bounds that connect migrants and relatives together. Friends or countrymen delivers information, provide information on financial back-ups, manage employment opportunities and accommodation in numerous supportive ways. These are the networks that decrease the cost and movement of migrants and they also increase the expected net returns of migration, according to Wimalaratana and Wickramasinghe (2016).

These networks however, influence towards improving opportunities for other migrants during their process of decision-making. Several migrants either live with their fellow countrymen upon their arrival in South Africa, or they later move out to rent their own places. The newly arrivals live mostly in informal settlements unless they are stable, financially. According to De Haas (2010), the networking theory focuses on the relationship between individuals at the area of origin and at the area of destination. Migratory movements are usually interlined prior to long-standing interrelations between the countries at the giving end and the countries at a receiving end.

2.2.5 Migration selectivity theory

Migration selectivity theory argues that individuals migrate based on their attributes and characteristics as some individuals with different characteristics are less likely to migrate. This proves without a doubt that migration is a selection process. For example, educated and skilled people from under-developed countries are more likely to migrate to developing and developed countries. This is because they perceive themselves to deserve better opportunities and they believe that they can actually live a better life with the knowledge that they have (Frazier and Tetty-fio, 2006).

Kok and Aliber (2005) state that in most instances people with different attributes and characteristics migrate because of factors such as education, employment, better housing

acquisition, safety and security. The theory of migration selectivity also believes that individuals aged between 18 and 35 years are more likely to migrate than individuals who are in their 40s and individuals who are pensioners. However, people in retirement are also more likely to migrate than those who are in their 40s (Frazier and Tetty-fio, 2006).

According to Eigelaar-Meets (2018), since the migration selectivity theory believes that the characteristics and the attributes influence an individual's idea to migrate, and then it is safe to say that the very same characteristics and attributes influence and determine the nature of a migrant stream from place to place. Recently, South Africa has been experiencing an influx of African female migrants.

Most of the African female migrants immigrate into South Africa to seek employment or education. Legal immigrants who seek employment are either skilled, semi-skilled or have an educational background (Akileswaran and Lurie, 2010). Those who immigrated illegally are mostly unskilled. They migrated because they have been recruited by a family member, a friend or someone else around the community.

Most of the illegal female migrants find it very difficult to acquire housing. They end up staying in informal settlements while most of the females who have migrated legally with a well executable plan stay in flats or unit dwellings. In most cases, the selectivity of migration is based on the skills and education. Hence, the individual characteristics can determine the nature of the migration (Akileswaran and Lurie, 2010).

The current study associates ideas from various sources of literature regarding the varying attributes and characteristics of African female migrants on selectivity as a path of trying to comprehend the relationship between age, marital status, educational level, citizenship, household headship, country of enumeration, duration of residence, year moved, country of birth, housing type, housing tenure, and the material used, all in the context of South Africa.

In this study, the relationship between housing acquisition and African female migrants' characteristics will be studied using the notion of the migration selectivity theory. The study will therefore assess whether the migration selectivity theory explains the housing type African female migrants occupy, their tenure status, and the material used to construct a dwelling in South Africa.

2.3 Empirical literature

This section of the review discusses the literature that is available regarding factors that are associated with African female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa.

2.3.1 The study area of South Africa

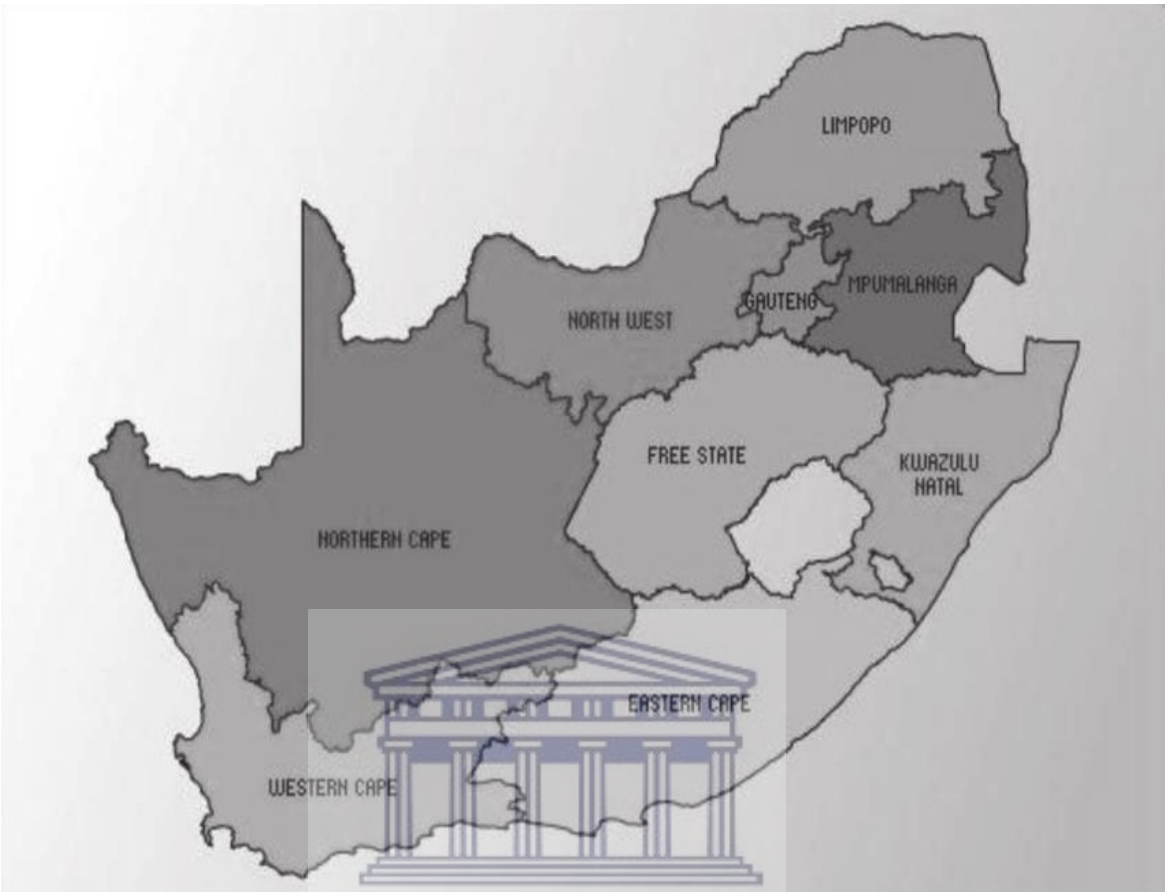
In 2019, Statistics South Africa estimates the mid-year population at 58.78 million and approximately 51.2% is female. The black African population is in the majority (47.4 million) and constitutes approximately 81% of the total South African population (South Africa's People and Tibane, 2018). The White population is estimated at 4.7 million, the Coloured population at 5.2 million and the Indian/Asian population at 1.5 million. Gauteng Province comprises the largest share of the South African population, with approximately 15.2 million people (25.8%). KwaZulu-Natal is the province with the second largest population, with an estimated 11.3 million people (19.2%) (Tibane, 2018). With a population of approximately 1.26 million people (2.2%), Northern Cape remains the province with the smallest share of the South African population.

About 28.8% of the SA population is younger than 15 years and approximately 9.0% (5.3 million) is 60 years or older (Stats SA, 2020). Of those younger than 15 years, the majority resides in Gauteng (21.5%) and KwaZulu-Natal (21.1%). Of the elderly (those aged 60 years and older), the highest percentage 23.9% (1.27 million) resides in Gauteng. The proportion of elderly persons aged 60 and older is increasing over time as life expectancy at birth for 2019 is estimated at 61.5 years for males and 67.7 years for females. The infant mortality rate for 2019 is estimated at 22.1 per 1 000 live births (Tibane, 2018).

2.3.1.1 Brief overview of the population distribution in South Africa

According to Statistics South Africa (2020), South Africa is the twenty-fourth most populated country globally with a total population of 59 308 690 individuals. Out of these individuals, 66.3% is found in urban areas and the remaining 33.7% is found in both the rural areas and the informal settlements. South Africa is divided into nine provinces namely: North West, Northern Cape, Western Cape, Gauteng, Free State, Eastern Cape, Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal and Mpumalanga (see Figure 2.1). Of all the nine provinces, Gauteng is the most densely populated with a total population of 15 488 137 (over 20%) while the Northern Cape is the least populated with 1 292 786 individuals (below 3%).

Figure 2.1: Map of South Africa depicting the nine provinces



Source: Stats SA, 2005

2.3.1.2 Metropolitan areas

Municipalities in South Africa, according to Nsengiyumva (2013), are multidimensional settlement divisions of local government that are one step below provincial government, representing the lowest democratically elected government structures in the country. These metropolitan municipalities take care of important issues such as the development of infrastructure and service delivery such as water and electricity among other things. South Africa has eight metropolitan municipalities namely: Buffalo City (East London), City of Cape Town, City of Johannesburg, City of Tshwane, Ekurhuleni Metropole (East Rand), City of eThekwini (Durban), Manguang Municipality (Bloemfontein) and Nelson Mandela Metropole (Port Elizabeth) (Karuri-Sebina *et al.*, 2016).

2.3.1.3 Non-metro areas

Non-metropolitan municipality areas are firstly divided into district councils and then local municipalities, which make up non-metropolitan municipality areas in mostly rural areas (Nsengiyumva, 2013). Local districts, or Category B municipalities, are subdivided. Local municipalities also share jurisdiction with the district municipality in which they are located in non-metropolitan areas (South African Government Information, 2009).

2.4 Migration pattern in South Africa

Migration is an important demographic process as it shapes the age and sex structure of the provincial population. According to Stats SA's mid-year population estimates for 2019, for the period 2016-2021, Gauteng and Western Cape are estimated to have experienced the largest inflow of migrants of approximately, 1 643 590 and 493 621, respectively. Gauteng and Western Cape received the highest number of in-migrants for all periods (Stats SA, 2020). The Eastern Cape and Gauteng experienced the largest number of outflow of migrants. Owing to its relatively larger population size, Gauteng achieved the highest number of in- and out-flows of migration. Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Northern Cape, North West and Western Cape received positive net migration over all three periods (South African Government Information, 2009; Tibane, 2018).

For all periods, the number of international migrants entering the provinces was the highest in Gauteng, with Western Cape ranking second. The provincial estimates show that Gauteng has the largest share of the population followed by KwaZulu-Natal, Western Cape and Eastern Cape (South African Government Information, 2009). Inter-provincial as well as international migration patterns significantly influence the provincial population numbers and structures in South Africa. By 2019, about 11.4% of South Africa's population lived in Western Cape. Northern Cape has the smallest share of the population (2.2%). Free State has the second smallest share of the South African population constituting 4.9% of the population. Limpopo and Eastern Cape (both 33.3%, respectively) have the highest proportions of persons younger than 15 years. The highest proportions of elderly persons, aged 60 years and above, are found in the Eastern Cape (11.3%), the Northern Cape (10.2%) and the Western Cape (10%), according to (Tibane, 2018).

2.4.1 International female migration overview

Globally, the economic, demographic and technological advancements have increased the influx of migrants. Although the flow varies by country, the factors that influence migration are largely the same. According to H. Sultana and A. Fatima (2017), the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) (2013) stated that there were approximately 232 million foreign migrants spread across the globe. Out of the total, 59% are in developed regions and 41% are in developing regions, with female migrant workers accounting for half of the total (Stats SA, 2020).

Sultana and Fatima (2017) continue to state that migrant movement from south to south is approximately 36%, and from north to north is approximately 35%, while flow from north to south is very low, at around 6%. Around 71% of foreign migrants come from the continent of South America. Furthermore, according to the international migrant stock by country, Europe has 70 million international migrants, Asia has 61 million, and North America has 50 million international migrants (Stats SA, 2020).

More than 90% of global migrations are for the purpose of finding work; migrants may travel alone or with their families. Migrants contribute to development by generating revenues for their home country, which contributes to economic growth, and by filling labour market shortages at their destination (Stats SA, 2020). Remittances alleviate financial constraints, stimulate economic development and minimize unemployment in the recipient region (Sultana and Fatima, 2017). It boosts women's trust and empowers them, particularly in the case of female migrants. These advantages come with drawbacks such as limited government rules and regulations, visa processing agent misuse and low salaries (International Labour Organisation (ILO) Report, 2011).

Female migrants account for nearly half of all migrants worldwide, at 49% (UN, 2010; Weiss and Thakor, 2010). Scholars accept, however, that in the late 1970s, the foreign migration share shifted to male workers, and females were seen migrating as wives and daughters, following their fathers and husbands. The migration pattern has changed in favour of female migrant workers since the late 1990s. The flow of female migrant workers has been rising for the past six decades. Since 1960, female worker migration has risen by around 0.2% per year. Female migrant share has been steadily increasing, from 47.2% in 1970 to about 49% in 2010 (Sultana and Fatima, 2017).

When looking at the push and pull factors, such as a poor economic condition at home and attractive wages in migrant destinations, there are numerous reasons for migration among married and single women. However, external factors such as the migrant's family affect his or her decision to migrate. According to Millan-Franco *et al*. (2019), the parents of married and single female migrants claimed that their daughters migrated because of their poor financial condition and their desire to save money in order to start a small business or fund their children's education. The underlying reason for their migration appeared to be high unemployment and a lack of economic opportunities for women in the villages. Unmarried women, in particular, migrated to support their parents and siblings while also saving for a future marriage. Parents played a minor role in their daughters' migration decisions, though their permission was frequently sought (Millan-Franco *et al.,* 2019).

2.4.2 African female migration in South Africa

Female migration patterns are under-studied and usually the rationale behind the female and the male migration is not the same. Female migration is often interconnected to and impeded by the female reproduction roles (Stats SA, 2020). As a result, females migrate for shorter periods of time that is either for trading or for doing seasonal work. In the past, females around the world never migrated independently as their migration always depended on males. However, at the present time, females migrate independently. They are usually single and those who do not have children (Gouws, 2010).

The migration of females independent of males is referred to as the "feminization of migration" and is on numerous cases linked to the "feminization of poverty" (Gouws, 2010). This is because of the escalating numbers in poverty-stricken females and children because of severe economic instability in some developing countries in the sub-Saharan African region (Adepoju, 2008).

The reasons for female migration must be comprehended in the sense of increased economic globalization, which has a greater effect on developed and developing countries and leads to the formation of transnational migration trends in which people create hybrid identities as they move between countries (Stats SA, 2020). Females are migrating inter-regionally to ensure the survival of their families and at the same time attempting to change traditional gender roles within families and society (Adepoju, 2008).

Intra-regional migration has a long tradition in southern Africa, dating back to the mid-nineteenth century. However, it has undergone significant transformation in the last twenty

years. Greater liberalization in the region, as well as the end of apartheid and the opening of the borders of the country with the most prosperous economy on the continent encouraged migration (Crush *et al.,* 2005). The region's reintegration into the global economy, rising rural and urban poverty, and the gender realignment of the migration stream are all contributing factors. The Zimbabwean economy's collapse over the last decade has had a significant impact on migration of Zimbabweans, especially Zimbabwean women, to neighboring countries, especially South Africa (Crush *et al.,* 2005).

2.4.3 Immigration in post-apartheid of South Africa

Immigrants from Africa arrived in South Africa in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, changing the demographic landscape of the country. Women played an important role in migration, arriving as labourers, refugees, self-sufficient workers and illegal migrants. Many studies of migration have treated women as a residual group, as those left behind (Hiralal, 2017; Cohen, 1997). Women have been viewed as dependents or family care-givers everywhere they have crossed a border. Hiralal (2017) continues and emphasizes that females were essentially the personal belongings of male staff.

After the country's democratic inauguration in 1994, the number of foreign migrants and refugees from other African nations, as well as, to a lesser degree, from South Asia, has increased significantly. In Africa, female migration has been gradually increasing. In the past, women in southern Africa were frequently prohibited from migrating (Cohen, 1997). Traditional male-dominated migration trends are changing today, thanks to a growing number of African women migrants (Hiralal, 2017; South African Institute of International Affairs, 2008).

Due to both push and pull factors such as political instability, poverty, drought, and unemployment, many international and domestic migrants, including women from the Democratic Republic of Congo, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, Zimbabwe, Rwanda, Somalia, Nigeria, and Burundi, have pursued sustainable livelihoods and political stability in South Africa. South Africa is a common destination for many migrants in the region because it is perceived to be relatively stable and prosperous (Kihatso, 2007).

Many would likely live in urban areas where there are job opportunities when they arrive. However, for many migrants, especially women, the socio-economic reality in South Africa differs dramatically from their expectations. According to Hiralal (2017), studies by Kihatso (2007), Kallivayalil (2010) and Orlaff (1995) have reported that women migrants face

significant difficulties, and that they are more likely to be disadvantaged by their migration experience than their male counterparts.

Although South Africa is becoming a more popular destination for migrants in terms of numbers, it is also a dangerous and insecure place for women migrants who face abuse, open hostility, social isolation and economic exploitation (South African Institute of International Affairs (SAIIA), 2008). Hiralal (2015) states that low literacy, a shortage of capital and unemployment are all disadvantages for many female immigrants. Many people fail to find good jobs and end up working as semi-skilled or unskilled workers. For many women immigrants, the informal sector has become a vital source of income. Many are hawkers, street traders and vendors.

African female migrants find it difficult to explore the new and complicated conditions in which they find themselves and as wives, mothers and women, they face numerous challenges. Many females live in substandard, overcrowded housing and they face police brutality, sexual assault and patriarchal discrimination and have trouble finding formal jobs. These factors have intensified domestic violence among some African immigrant women to a certain degree (Hiralal, 2017).

2.4.4 Migration and livelihoods

Immigration and settlement are distinguished by patterns of family and community. This is evident in immigrant studies in Europe, the United States and South Africa. Social capital drawing makes it possible for immigrants to diversify their trade, minimize risk and pool resources. Congolese, Indian, Somali and Nigerian-owned companies have relationships that cross industrial and spatial boundaries (Kok *et al.,* 2006).

The latest xenophobic attacks on foreigners in South Africa in 2007 and 2008 have changed the spotlight on how South Africa treats its migrants. While many claim that migrants further limit access to resources in a highly unequal world, others say that migrants are net contributors in terms of their expertise, wealth and experience to the economy of the country (Kok *et al.,* 2006).

2.4.5 The vulnerability of African female migrants to HIV/AIDS

South Africa has the largest HIV epidemic in the world, with an estimated 7.5 million people living with HIV (Tibane, 2018). Although migrants to South Africa were historically made up of young males seeking work, the country has now become the regional migration hub in southern Africa for women. Estimates indicate that the number of women migrants in South Africa has quadrupled since 1990 (Crush *et al.,* 2017). Up to four million foreign migrants lived in South Africa in 2017, according to a UNDESA, 2017 estimate. Within this population, the large number of foreign migrants may face unique challenges above and beyond the broad challenges faced in South Africa (Hankivsky, 2014; Taylor, 2020). A confluence of factors exposes many foreign migrants to regular discrimination, exploitation, economic dependency and xenophobia. While female migrants-specific evidence is limited, focus group discussions carried out with seventy-nine mixed female migrants in Cape Town indicated that all participants experienced xenophobia at both the community and official levels which in turn affects the housing they access (Mbiyozo, 2018).

The interplay between migrant-specific issues and gender inequality within the dominant systems of structure and power may place foreign female migrant at high risk of HIV infection along with other major risks. While evidence on the ways that mobility influences HIV risk is limited, research reveals more risk behaviors and higher HIV prevalence among migrant than non-migrant women in South Africa (Zuma *et al.*, 2003; Camlin *et al.*, 2010; and Munyewende *et al.*, 2011).

2.4.6 Integration of African female migrants on the housing market

According to Charlton (2004), the National Department of Housing focuses on encouraging and empowering women in the building industry and the housing sector in general, as well as women-headed households as housing beneficiaries. Under the pretence of one of the housing institutions, the National Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency (NURCHA), there is a 'Women for Housing' project. 'Women for Housing' is a Section 21 corporation that provides housing professionals with knowledge, networking opportunities and support. Through advocacy, training, and support services, it seeks to enable women to take a prominent role in the housing sector.

Charlton (2004) continues to state that, Bridgitte Mabandla, the previous Minister of Housing, highlighted the connection between women's access to housing, clean water, and sanitation and equality and empowerment. "In many instances, it is actually through accessing housing

and other basic needs that the notion of equity and empowerment can finally and practically be realized" (Mabandla, 2003). "The government is committed to ensuring that the proportion of housing subsidies allocated to women is reflective of the percentage of female-headed households in each province," (Mabandla, 2003).

The National Department of Housing (NDoH) reported some progress in targeting female-headed households as subsidy recipients, with 50.5% of all accepted subsidies going to female-headed households (NDoH, 2003). Furthermore, a "housing world that assumes prosperous nuclear families increasingly accumulating wealth on the outskirts of cities is obviously unsuitable for many women's needs" (Charlton *et al.,* 2003).

The position of women in housing in South Africa "appears to be biased towards including women in the physical construction of housing," according to one study (Women for Housing *et al.,* 2003). Women for Housing and their allies point out that "Women can and do play a wide range of professional roles in the housing industry. Women's contributions and roles as beneficiaries, residents, or new homeowners benefiting from the housing construction phase are often poorly understood" (Women for Housing *et al.,* 2003).

Also with this wider viewpoint on women's participation in housing, it seems that marginalized groupings of people within the category of women such as abused women and the variety of needs these groupings may have, have not been strongly championed by this organization, or by the Department of Housing itself (Charlton, 2004).

As challenging as it is for African female migrants to acquire housing in South Africa, there are other challenges that females are faced when given the location of the housing and the neighbourhood. There is a lot of assimilation challenges African female migrants face in South Africa. Since 2008, this has been most visible in South Africa, with an uptick in xenophobic attacks, domestic violence and racial discrimination, especially against African migrants.

The language barrier, or the inability to communicate in the local spoken language, is among the most significant barriers for immigrant women. Language acquisition is a common occurrence among South African immigrant women. "If you cannot speak Zulu or the local language in most of the South African provinces, you are treated as a stranger, and they discriminate against you," Tia, according to Hiralal (2017), in an Interview, (3 March 2015).

Hiralal (2017) goes on to say that, due to socio-economic and cultural factors, women immigrants have reacted differently to domestic violence. Men have been able to influence and dominate women's lives as a result of their family and social isolation in the host country.

2.4.7 Female access to housing in South Africa

Housing is not exclusively a female concern, however. If the housing policies and programmes want to be efficient and effective, they need to consider the realities of the livelihood of females. In a social context, access to housing by females is very complicated and difficult as it is influenced by numerous factors such as patriarchy, customary and religious laws and domestic violence (Charlton, 2004).

In most societies around South Africa, values and norms around patriarchy tend to underpin the relations of gender. These values and norms have the most underlying consequences as far as housing is concerned. Housing policies also prefer couples and because of that, majority of the female-headed households become discriminated against (IDASA, 2002).

According to Charlton (2004), women's rights to land and housing have been seriously harmed by patriarchy succession under customary law. Furthermore, traditional land ownership is tribal, with privileges vested in male traditional leaders. Traditional authorities give land and housing to the heads of households, who are mostly men (IDASA, 2002). As a result, women's access to land and housing is conditional on their partnership with male offspring. Women's minority legal status under customary law (regardless of age or marital status) has traditionally prohibited them from owning land or housing without the permission of a male spouse.

Domestic violence has a profound effect on women's housing rights. The fact that housing is usually in the name of the man makes women's housing situation particularly tenuous in instances of domestic violence. Shelters for battered women are limited to some urban areas. In addition, most shelters only provide accommodation for a limited period of time (IDASA, 2002).

Women's access to adequate housing is thus informed by the historical, social and economic context within which women seek to access housing. Discriminatory laws and practices have limited African woman migrants' access to housing and other socio-economic rights. They have disproportionately affected Black women (Charlton, 2004).

2.4.8 Policies on migration in South Africa

One of the prominent features of immigration policy in apartheid South Africa is its racial exclusivity. The Aliens Protection Act, 1991 (Act No. 96 of 1991), originating from the Immigrants Regulation Act, 1913 (Act No. 22 of 1913), primarily exempted Blacks, according to Bank (2001:133). He also states that Black people could only reach South Africa illegally between 1913 and 1986 or as contract workers since they were not allowed to apply for either temporary or permanent residence permits (Bank, 2001).

The study of immigration policy should take us beyond the task set for this article. Nevertheless, some of the past policies have had a significant impact on African migrant women and these past policies discriminated against people based on gender, class and race (Crush, 2003). On gender issues, however, immigration law 'is silent' (South African Migration Programme (SAMP), 2001). Crush (2003) points out that the Aliens Control Act, enacted in 1913 to control people's passage to South Africa, galvanized apartheid.

Together with the 1913 Immigration Control Act, this act allowed entire groups to be prevented from entering the country (Crush, 1998). White immigrants (men and women) were free to migrate to South Africa (Crush, 2000) but women were seen as dependent on male migrants rather than as future migrants themselves. This act excluded Indian women and those who were married under Islamic law (Crush, 1998). The Act was amended in 1930 to exclude Jewish migration, especially from Eastern Europe (Crush, 1998).

Crush (1998) also demonstrates how the Immigration Amendment Act of 1937 improved the mine labour system and allowed Black mine workers to reach South Africa but prohibited them from demanding their own homes (Fokwang, 2006). As such, Africans became refugees instead of colonists and had to return home when employers in South Africa no longer needed them (Crush, 1998). The relocation of mines omitted women as workers (Fokwang, 2006). Men were given fixed contracts to ensure that they returned home and that mine workers' families did not move (Crush, 2000).

Women were oppressed because as domestics in White households, the only opportunities for paid work were always leading to abuse and violent attacks from their employers. Some resorted to drug trade and other illegal activities and, as such, Black women came to be perceived as moral polluters in urban areas (Crush, 2000). Migration policies excluded and criminalized Black migrant women (Fokwang, 2006).

2.4.9 South African National Housing Policy

According to the South African Constitution (1996), everyone has the right to access adequate housing, and this makes it significant for the government to take necessary legislative measures to ensure that the constitution is obeyed. As an answer to the constitution, the state has introduced different programmes that can assist with access to adequate housing through the Housing Act, 1997 (Act No. 107 of 1997) (National Department of Human Settlements, 2010).

The main objective of the policy principles on housing is to cater for poor households with houses and to deliver essential services, including water and electricity on an equitable basis. The limited state resources that are available make the housing provision, security and comfort top priorities to ensure sustainability in the country.

Ten years after the housing programme's launch in 1994, a systematic analysis of the programme's results and improvements in the country's socio-economic context was conducted. The Integrated Plan for Sustainable Human Settlement, also known as "Breaking New Ground" or "BNG", was approved by Cabinet in September 2004 (National Department of Human Settlements, 2010). The Comprehensive Plan, while maintaining the core principles of the Housing White Paper, focuses on enhancing the standard of housing and housing environments by incorporating neighborhoods and settlements. It also establishes new basic standards for housing products, enhancing privacy and ensuring long-term viability by allowing for the introduction of a variety of social and economic amenities in housing developments. The Integrated Plan also focuses on Informal Settlement development in order to achieve the United Nations Millennium Development Goals of improving the lives of poor residents (ANC, 1994; Bond, 2000; Indicator SA, 2000; NDoH and Scales, 2002). Housing departments in all different levels of government, along with Housing Support Institutions, have been thoroughly revamped to facilitate the delivery of the Comprehensive Plan.

Similarly, the National Housing Code of 2000 has been significantly adjusted. The National Housing Code of 2009 aims to make housing project implementation easier by being less prescriptive while also offering consistent guidance (National Department of Human Settlements, 2010).

2.4.10 South African National Housing Policy on females

The South African Housing Policy legislative as well as other measures are important steps toward facilitating women's access to appropriate housing (Taylor, 2002). However, there are still a few barriers to overcome. It has been noted, for example, that title deeds are frequently not registered in women's names (Surplus People Project and Center for Rural Legal Studies, 1998). The insufficient number of state-funded women's shelters has also been brought to light (Commission on Gender Equality, 1998).

The lack of a clear approach that results in adequate state shelters for women fleeing domestic abuse leads to a housing infrastructure that is not adequately prepared to cope with one of the most urgent crises that women face. Since the housing subsidy system works on a once-off basis, it has further been reported that many women are compelled to remain in abusive marriages in order to maintain their housing (Surplus People Project, 1997; Weiss and Thakor, 2010).

Furthermore, the poor quality of housing, combined with extreme restrictions on credit, has an especially negative impact on women. Despite the remarkable number of legislative measures, there are still some significant gaps in facilitating women's housing access in terms of the housing budget's implications for women. According to IDASA (2002), Section 26(2) of the Constitution mandates that the state take fair steps to realize housing rights within its finances. Budgets are not the only resource available, but they are a crucial one without which the desired housing access would be difficult to achieve. Unfortunately, examining the housing budget in terms of gender is complicated.

Recent reforms have emphasized the importance of observable outputs in evaluating success. Subsidies funded, serviced and subserviced sites allocated, housing units constructed and so on are some of the proposed housing delivery indicators. Both provincial and national departments, on the other hand, have so far focused mostly on setting goals and have been far less vigilant in reporting on past performances. Furthermore, neither the goals nor the planned implementation measures are gender-specific (Nattrass, 1994).

2.4.11 Housing subsidy in South Africa

A housing subsidy is a funding for poor households by the government, provided those households/individuals meet the beneficiary criteria (Official Guide to South Africa, 2020). Among others, the core objective of the Department of Human Settlements (DHS) as far as housing is concerned, is to prioritize its service delivery and to ensure that the poor are catered for.

Another area of responsibility relates to providing the housing subsidies to the most deserving families and individuals. This is where the bulk of the housing backlog exists, affecting mainly those who earn below R3500 per month. The Official Guide to South Africa (2020) and (Stats SA, 2019) indicate that there has been a significant increase of 13.1% for households that have received housing subsidies from the government between 2002 and 2019.

Notably, there were a higher percentage of female-headed households (23.1%) who received subsidies compared to the male-headed households (15.5%). This is on par with the policies amended by the government which give preference to households headed by individuals who are the most vulnerable. These households include females and individuals with disabilities (Stats SA, 2019).

2.4.12 African female migrant's access to housing and the economic implications

The economic realities of females in South Africa have had an impact on their right of housing access. IDASA (2002) states that 40% of females who were employed in 2001 were in the unskilled job market and about 20% of them were earning R200 every month. This is in comparison to only 9% of males who are employed (Budlender, 2002). As a result, housing ownership and renting become very difficult and it causes an influx in informal settlements.

According to IDASA (2002), African females are the most vulnerable to unemployment and in most instances they are paid the least. The majority of females, who are over ten years old, work at least 216 minutes every day on average. They do unpaid housework, care work and community work. Men, however, only work for 83 minutes a day on a daily basis on average (Budlender *et al.*, 2001). Certain work patterns also have interruptions that can have a negative influence on movements and earnings in the workplace, and ultimately on women's access to credit and their ability to afford housing.

2.4.13 Social housing in South Africa

Social housing is characterized as housing provided by housing organizations for low-to-moderate-income people that excludes immediate private owners. Significantly, well-located housing offered by the state's housing program is often inaccessible to the poor. The majority of this housing has been in the form of social housing which has been subsidized by the government (Charlton, 2004). It generally takes the form of inner-city flats available for rent or purchase over a five-year term but it is widely accepted to be prohibitively costly for the poor. The high initial capital construction costs of manufacturing the units, as well as the higher monthly operational costs of this type of housing, results in significantly high rents in social housing (Onatu, 2018).

According to Charlton *et al.* (2003), social housing makes up a very small part of accommodation to this day, accounting for only 1.5% of the subsidies that have been accepted, with the 'sixty-odd' social housing organizations that are operational in South Africa that manage a total of around 25 000 units (Onatu, 2018). With different degrees of participation, organizations own and operate these units independent from the government, in part to prevent the use of this housing in politically motivated rent attacks. This form of housing appears to be a significant drive for the National and Housing Departments in the future, according to some documents. This is partially due to the need for a more streamlined urban form, since most social housing is in the form of 3-4 floors building 'walk-up' flats or the renovation of high-rise inner city buildings (Charlton, 2004).

Many housing critics argue that, in addition to affordable housing, other types of rental housing should be promoted, both to increase density in the city in other ways and to reach out to the poorest sections of the population (Charlton, 2004). Non-social housing rental may, as an alternative, provide help and assistance to individual landowners to build or expand household rental stock, many of which currently exists in the form of backyard shacks, cottages and rooms in private residences. Nevertheless, this is not recognized as part of the answer by the housing policy. The National Department of Housing has yet to express a clear position on this issue, and no government aid is available. However, there is obviously a thriving private sector market that can provide this service (Social Housing Policy, 2003).

2.4.14 Future immigration trends and social networks

It is difficult to predict what direction future trends in an area as diverse as immigration will take. South Africa has a wealth of internal migration and rapidly-growing global migration literature. The above literature shows that migration researchers generate studies in migration because the gender concept highly exposes power relationships, resource distribution and social relationships (Bracking *et al.,* 2006).

Progressively more research in regulations and migration is undertaken. Also, qualitative research is being carried out on those who respond to policy imposition (Colson, 1991). Increased transnational migration studies further contribute to migration generation as they trace the reasons some migrants 'leave home' and why others stay, locating individual experiences in larger gender processes.

2.5. An identified gap in the theoretical literature

The study on African female migrants and housing acquisition in South Africa is conducted through the review of various theories, including the Push and Pull theory, the Neo classical economies theory, the social networking theory, the migration selectivity theory and the New economies of labour theory. However, none of the above-mentioned theories has a direct link on African female migrant and housing acquisition, especially in the South African context. This serves as proof that there is no statistical information that interrelate African female migrant and the housing acquisition in the South African context. From every theory mentioned, not even one theory can link the housing acquisition and African female migration in South Africa; no theoretical discussions whatsoever integrating the two phenomena at hand. The theoretical literature has also been ineffective in assessing the profile of African female migrants and the housing acquisition thereof. As a result, the migration selectivity theory guides this research. To incorporate this theory into the context of this research, one may use it to examine whether migration selectivity theory explains female migration and access to housing acquisition. This means that migration is selective in the place of destination as it influences the housing type, the housing tenure and the housing size African female migrants are more likely to stay in.

2.6 Conceptual framework

Migrants are not similar considering their demographic characteristics such as age, country of birth, marital status, citizenship, population group, education, and the year moved. As a result, migrant accessibility to services, such as housing, is often linked to these demographic

characteristics (Nsengiyumva, 2013; Duba, 2020). According to different studies that have been written by various scholars and researchers, many females tend to be vulnerable to migration when they are single. However, married females also migrate and this is usually because of their individual characteristics, personal attributes and the desire to live around or close to their spouses or partners. There is no clear theory that guides migration and housing acquisition by African females in South Africa, as stated in the study's gap. Nevertheless, the migration selectivity theory can still be used to justify African female migrants and housing acquisition. The conceptualization is achieved in accordance with the variables of interest and the hypotheses that have been presented.

2.6.1 Education selectivity and housing acquisition

Immigrant selectivity describes the notion that migrants are not a random sample of the population at origin, but differ in certain traits such as educational attainment from individuals who stay behind. Research has shown that migration is selective according to levels of education and this in turn influences the access to services in the areas of destination.

There is a broad consensus that education increases employment opportunities and returns to wages, and helps mitigate the risks and costs of moving (Bernard and Bell, 2018). An educated migrant who is better informed about employment opportunities and living conditions in other regions have more sophisticated ways of estimating net migration gains (Greenwood, 2014). The decision to migrate is therefore viewed as a function of wage differentials at destination and origin, net costs of moving and a set of individual characteristics such as levels of education.

Generally, highly educated migrants are more likely to have skills and knowledge needed in the areas of destination. Hence they have human capital which helps them in their adaptation. Empirical studies on the consequences of educational selectivity, for example, highlight its relevance for learning the destination language with more positively selected individuals acquiring language skills faster (Spörlein and Kristen, 2018). It is assumed that an educated migrant is more likely to be employed in the formal sector, earn better income and tend to stay in a formal housing in a good area (Bernard and Bell, 2018).

According to these hypotheses, cross-national differences in the degree of educational selectivity of migration could be interpreted as reflecting differences in levels of human capital and this facilitates the access to scarce resources in the areas of destination including housing (Lall and Selod, 2006).

2.6.2 Marital status selectivity and housing acquisition

Various studies indicate that married couples are more likely to migrate. This is because they want to raise their children and grow their families in countries with better economic situations. However, a fair share of research on female migration has also indicated that many female migrants usually migrate on their own, that is, without their families and spouses/partners (Nsengiyumva, 2013). In this study, those migrants will be recorded as single, ceteris paribus. In South Africa, married females are more trusted with renting full houses and flats. It is hypothesized that the married African female migrant is more likely to acquire a 4-bedroom house and a single African female is more likely to live in a rented flat, a rented backroom or a flat in an informal settlement depending on the nature and the documentation of the migration.

2.6.3 Age selectivity and housing acquisition

Individuals who leave their country of origin rarely represent a cross-section of the origin population but differ in important characteristics from individuals who remain in their home country. Among the most frequently described features are age and gender (Lindstrom and López Ramírez, 2010; Ro *et al.*, 2016). Hence, African female immigrants who are more likely to migrate into South Africa are young and between the ages of 20-30 years (Charlton, 2004). They are more likely to migrate because they are the ones who are more likely to take risks and adventure. They migrate for different grounds which include economic opportunities, education advancements or for marriage reasons. These young migrants, however, need a place to stay in the country of destination. In this regard, it can be assumed that the younger a migrant is, the more they can access housing easily because they can be accommodated by anyone they know, who migrated before.

2.6.4 Employment selectivity and housing acquisition

Economic theories of migration suggest that economic immigrants are self-selected to destinations based on their abilities. Highly skilled and motivated people tend to migrate to labour markets with broader opportunity structures, while less capable individuals choose markets that are more sheltered (Haberfeld *et al.*, 2019). There is an assumption that African female migrants migrate to South Africa for different reasons which includes the search for better economic opportunities (Nsengiyumva, 2013).

One of the beliefs is that South Africa has better employment opportunities as it is developing rapidly (Duba, 2020); this has encouraged immigration, both documented and non-documented. Most of the African female migrants work as domestic workers, hairdressers,

street vendors and small business owners. Through these occupations, they struggle to earn an income to be able to afford a decent place to stay.

It is hypothesized that if more migrants are employed in the formal sector and earn a decent income, this will facilitate affordability to renting or owning a good sized house in a safe area. However, due to their condition of employment, they might settle in informal settlements, flats in town or they rent cheap backrooms in townships. These female migrants then become vulnerable to violent attacks, xenophobia, exploitation, abuse and racial discrimination.

Some African female migrants offer scarce skills in their adoptive country and they occupy some of the well-paying jobs. These types of African female immigrants live in their own houses or they are renting decent apartments in safe and secure areas close to their working environment. A small portion of these African female migrants comprises of students; they usually live in student accommodations or safe and secure apartments closer to their educational institution. They can afford decent accommodation which depends on their family financial background or their academic financial sponsorship. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that being an employed African female migrant with good income can contribute to a better type of housing, especially formal housing.

2.6.4 Income selectivity and housing acquisition

The majority of Africa female migrants in South Africa are not employed as their migration status is not documented. These females immigrated into South Africa because they predicted a better standard of living and generally an improved lifestyle. The African female migrants are usually aged between 20-35 years old and they identify migration as the most convenient way to escape from poverty.

However, they usually struggle and they end up working as domestic workers, sex-workers and drug dealers. Some researchers state that this makes them earn less and it becomes a challenge as they now cannot afford decent housing (Miraka and Mainza, 2016). They end up living in brothels; some of them rent backrooms in townships and cheap flats in central business districts of different towns in South Africa.

They become associates in dangerous businesses because of their desperation to accrue wealth, and they are more likely to become victims of drug abuse, xenophobia, racial discrimination as well as acquire HIV/AIDS (Akileswaran and Lurie, 2010). However, there are some African female migrants that have immigrated into South Africa legally and their likelihood of finding respectable employment is high. Some of them get paid well depending on the type of skills

and jobs that they occupy. They can afford decent apartments and houses in safe and secure neighborhoods.

CHAPTER 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the methods of the study are investigated and explained. The chapter also discusses the data used in this study to research African female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa. The research perspective is also outlined as well as the reason it was used. In the second section of the chapter, the research design was highlighted, the sampling techniques and the methods of data collection was explored. The insight to the conceptualization of the data prior to the analysis was also outlined. Furthermore, the methods used to analyse the data and to test the hypotheses formulated were explained. The objective of this study is to examine the relationship between migratory variables, socio-demographic variables, household variables, socio-economic variables, the types of housing, methods of housing acquisition, and housing size African female migrants are more likely to stay in the areas of destination.

3.2 Scope and perspective

The study on African female migration and housing acquisition is quantitative analysis because the variables are expressed in terms of numbers. Statistically, there is limited information concerning the profiles of African female migrants and housing acquisition. The study is based on the socio-demographic, migratory and socio-economic characteristics of African female migrants such as age, marital status, education level, province of usual residence and country of birth, to mention a few.

Furthermore, the study focuses on housing-related variables such as housing type, housing tenure status and housing size. Bringing together socio-economic, socio-demographic, migratory and housing related variables and the study captures the relationship between African female migration and the housing situation in the context of South Africa. The migratory variables such as the year of movement, province of usual residence and country of birth were used to understand the direction of migration and the influence these have on the acquisition of housing of African female migrants. Using both the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses, the study further captures whether the number of African female migrants have increased between these two periods.

3.3 Research design

A research design can be referred to as "a master plan specifying the methods and procedure for collecting and analysing the needed information" (Akhtar and Islamia, 2016). Duba (2020) states the research design can be seen as a structure of a study that is adopted to guide the gathering and analysis of data. The research methods the researcher chooses must be able to answer the research questions that have been formulated in the study.

The research design used in this study is a cross-sectional design and this is mainly because the study utilizes data from both the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses of South Africa. The data was collected from one point at the same time and it is used to investigate the connection between a person's characteristics or qualities and their resulting attitude which is their proclivity toward a particular outcome under investigation (Nsengiyumva, 2013). The interest of the study, from a statistical perspective, lies in what the methods are of housing acquisition, the type of housing and the size of housing African females acquire in South Africa.

3.4 Data sources

This study used the 2001 and the 2011 Population Censuses, both accessed from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). It is actually only 10 % of the census data that Stats SA made available to public users. The rationale behind using these data sets is that they cover all the variables of interest in this study, and these are very essential variables for the completion of the study. The 2001 Population Census was conducted on the 9th to 10th October 2001, covering every person who was present on census night. Individuals were enumerated with the aim of collecting data on persons and households across the country using a constant methodology. The household data that was collected was inclusive of data on each household, each individual in attendance in the household on the night of the census, the services that are at the disposal of the members of the household, the household residents, the hostels residents as well as all the unmentioned different living quarters and the individuals who spent the night of the census in hotels and institutions (Stats SA, 2016).

The 2011 Population Census was expected to take place from the 9th to the 31st October 2011. However, since the census could not be finished on time, the date had to be extended until December 2011. The population census planning began in 2003 and was checked in 2008 following the 2007 Community Survey. A pilot survey was conducted in 2008 and 2009 to

assess the methodology and procedures. The findings of the pilot test were used to further refine the methodologies and procedures for a 2010 re-test. This was the last pilot test until the real census which took place in 2010. As a result, the data was supposed to be conducted in the same month as the main census (Statistics South Africa, 2010; Duba, 2020).

The 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses are very useful data sets as they will provide information on all housing, socio-demographic, socio-economic, migratory and housing and household variables. These data sets have influenced the researcher to access the information and analyse the magnitude of African female migrants and housing acquisition in South Africa.

3.5 Data collection

This study utilizes secondary data obtained from Statistics South Africa Stats (SA). The 2001 Population Census and 2011 Population Census are the second and third censuses to be conducted since 1994 in South Africa, following the 1996 Population Census. Every individual is enumerated at the place of their presence, during the night of the census; this method of data collection is known as the de facto method (United Nations, 2014).

The census data was collected by enumerators who had been trained. Face-to-face interviews with respondents were used to gather data. When a respondent wants to fill out the questionnaire on their own, the enumerator will give them the necessary instructions and encourage them to complete the questionnaire on their own. The questionnaire was written in English, but translations into other official languages were available.

3.6 Description of the variables

The main purpose of this study is to examine the types of housing, methods of housing acquisition, and the housing size that African female migrants acquire in South Africa. The variables were selected according to those that were utilized in the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses. The independent variables of the study were chosen according to the conceptual framework of the study. These variables were divided into four categories in relation to the following characteristics: socio-demographic variables, socio-economic variables, migratory variables and housing and household related variables.

In order to determine possible relationships between housing and African female migrants in South Africa, the variables of interest were categorized as follows:

3.6.1 Socio-demographic variables

The socio-demographic variables described African female migrants' characteristics as follows: age, marital status, level of education and the province of residence.

3.6.1.1 Age of the respondent

The enumerator performing the interview takes note of the age of each member of the household. The enumerator asks the respondents, "What is the person's age in completed years?" According to Stats SA (2011), age is a period of time measured from the day, month, and year of birth. The cumulative number of years that a person has lived is used to calculate their age. Age was grouped into 4 categories: 1= children (0-14 years old); 2= youth (15-35 years old); 3= adults (36-60 years old); 4= the elderly (61 years and older). This variable explains the age grouping of African female migrants in South Africa.

3.6.1.2 Marital status

This variable looks at the patterns and trends of marital status among African female migrants in South Africa. This is in relation to the migration selectivity theory. The question that the enumerator asked was "What is the (name's) present marital status?" The respondent's answers were recorded into the following categories: 1= Married; 2= Living together like married partners; 3= Never married; 4= Widower/ widow; 5= Separated; 6= Divorced. In this study the responses were categorized into four categories: 1= Married; 2= Not married; 3= Divorce; 4= Separated; 5= Widowed. The variable of marital status explains the differentials of housing acquisition among African female migrant in the context of South Africa.

3.6.1.3 Education level

The question was, "What level of education have you completed?" It was made clear to the enumerators that the emphasis should be on the highest level of education completed, not the level that the person is currently studying under, in order to assist in assessing the highest level of education that each member of the household has completed. The final coding of the variable was the following: 1= no schooling; 2= primary education; 3= secondary education; 4= tertiary education; 5= other. This variable describes how African female migrants' educational attainment affects their housing acquisition, as well as the form and quality of housing.

3.6.2. Socio-economic variables

This study has only two socio-economic variables of interest, namely: Employment status and Income category.

3.6.2.1 Employment status

According to Stats SA (2016), to be considered unemployed, a person must have been out of work for seven days prior to the survey interview, have no job attachments, and be ready to start working within the next two weeks, or have taken steps to start their own business in the four weeks prior to the survey interview (Nsengiyumva, 2013).

The respondents had to answer three questions regarding this variable. The questions that were asked were based on the seven days prior to the start date of the population censuses on October 10th, 2011. The questions that the enumerators asked were as follows: Did (name) work for a wage, salary, commission or any payment in kind (including paid domestic work), even if it was for only one hour? In this study this variable was re-coded into the following categories based on the definition of unemployment by Nsengiyumva (2013) as mentioned above. The variable final coding was as follows: 1= Employed; 2= Unemployed; 3= Not economically active.

3.6.2.2 Income category

"What income category best describes your monthly or gross income before any deductions?" was the question. This question was designed to decide the income category which better represents the respondent's gross or annual income before any deductions. It considers all sources of income, including government grants. The respondents had the option of providing details on their monthly or annual income. The coding was done as follows: 1= No income; 2= Low income; 3= Middle income and 4= High income.

3.6.3 Migratory variables

In this study a migrant is referred to as a person who has stayed at a usual place of residence for not less than six months, which is 25 weeks as per the South African date calendar. These migratory variables are independent variables and they describe migration patterns according to space and time.

3.6.3.1 Country of birth

The enumerator's question was "In which country in Africa were you born?" The answer to this question was recorded as follows: 1= Lesotho; 2= Namibia; 3= Botswana; 4= Zimbabwe; 5= Mozambique; 6= Other. The variable, 'country of birth', assists in measuring the differentials among African female migrants from different African countries in relation to housing acquisition.

3.6.3.2 Year of movement

The enumerator's question was "When did you move to this place?" With this variable, if the respondent moved more than once, the month and year of the last movement was recorded. The period of movement should not be before October 2001. This variable was recorded as follows: Month MM/Year YYYY example: 04/1999. In this study this variable was recorded as follows: 1= 2001; 2= 2002; 3= 2003; 4= 2004; 5= 2005; 6= 2006; 7= 2007; 8= 2008; 9= 2009; 10= 2010; and 11= 2011.

3.6.3.3 Province of usual residence

The question: "In which province does (name) usually live?" was asked of the respondents in order to determine the province in which they usually reside. The final code list was: 1= Eastern Cape; 2= Western Cape; 3= Northern Cape; 4= Free State; 5= KwaZulu-Natal; 6= North West; 7= Gauteng; 8= Mpumalanga; 9= Limpopo; 10= outside RSA; and 11= do not know.

3.6.4 Housing and household related variables

Housing variables are variables that describe the housing type, number of rooms, type of material used for rooms, type of material used for walls, number of rooms as well as walls and roof conditions.

3.6.4.1 Housing type

This variable has been created from another variable "Main dwelling type". The question that was asked by the enumerator was "Which of the following best describes the main dwelling and other dwelling(s) that this household occupies?" The categories for this variable were as follows: 01= House or brick/concrete block structure on a separate stand or yard on a farm; 02= Traditional dwelling/hut/structure made out of traditional materials; 03= Flat or apartment in a block of flats; 04= Cluster house in a complex; 04= Townhouse (semi-detached house in a complex); 06= Semi-detached house; 07= House/flat/room in backyard; 08= Informal dwelling (shack in backyard); 09= Informal dwelling (shack not in backyard, e.g., in an informal/squatter settlement or on a farm); 10= Room/flat let on a property or a larger

dwelling/servants' squatters/granny flat; 11= Caravan/tent and 12= Other. In this study the categories to the variables are as follows: 1= Formal; 2= Informal; 3= Traditional and 4= Other. This variable helps by determining the types of houses that most African female migrants acquire according to their differences.

3.6.4.2 Housing tenure status

The question that was asked by the enumerator regarding housing tenure status was as follows: "What is the housing tenure of this dwelling?" This question was asked with the aim of determining the basis on which the house or dwelling has been occupied. The answers to this question were recorded as follows: 1= Rented; 2= Owned but not fully paid off; 3= Occupied rent free; 4= Owned and fully paid off and 5= Other. However, in this study the answers to this variable were recorded as follows: 1= Rented; 2= Owned but not fully paid off; 3= Occupied rent free; 4= Owned and fully paid off.

3.6.4.3 Housing size

This variable is derived from the variable "Rooms" of the Population Census 2011. According to the Population Census metadata (2011), a room is defined by walls and not by different materials which includes curtains, boxes or room dividers. With this variable the respondents were asked to exclude kitchens and bathrooms and only count the garage if other members of the household were living in them. The question asked was "How many rooms are there in the main dwellings of this household"? The respondents had to choose an appropriate answer by choosing a number that corresponds to the number of rooms in the house from 1-25. In this study, the answers were recorded as follows: 1= 1; 2= 2-3; 3= 4-5; 4= 6-7; 5= 8-9; 6= 10+.

3.7 Methods of data analysis

The primary goal of data analysis is to equate actual results to predicted results. Because of the large data set and numerous variables, using a computerised statistical software to perform the data analysis was beneficial and the SPSS version 27 was used. The data was analyzed using univariate, bivariate, and multivariate statistical methods. The data set was explored using univariate analysis, such as descriptive statistics. The relationship between the independent and dependent variables discussed in this research was tested using bivariate analysis, which included cross-tabulation and Chi-square test statistics. The factors that are associated with African female migrants and housing acquisition in South Africa were also determined using multivariate analysis, specifically logistic regression. A cut off p-value of 0.05 was used, and any value less than 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

3.7.1 Univariate

Univariate analysis is a study of a single variable and the study would provide the details of the univariate. The univariate will be the first method used for data analysis as it describes and explores the data. The univariate analysis is descriptive and it grants the frequencies and the percentage distributions of each variable. This method of the analysis will be used to describe the profile of the study population. Having information on the profile of the study population is significant and beneficial in implementing the bivariate analysis. This segment discusses the descriptive statistics used in the examination of the African female migrants and housing acquisition in South Africa.

3.7.2 Bivariate

The data analysis in this study was conducted using SPSS version 27. The order started with performing descriptive analysis and the Chi-square test to check the association between African female migrants' characteristics and housing related variables in South Africa. The 2001 Population Census and 2011 Population Census data sets were used for the purpose of comparison. The bivariate analysis was used to test the relationship between the variables to see whether a relationship exists. In this study, cross-tabulation presents the distributions of categorical variables in a two-way table, simultaneously with the intersections of the categories of the variables appearing in the cells of the tables.

The Chi-square test statistic was performed, as it is commonly used for testing relationships between categorical variables. The Chi-Square test statistic was, therefore, utilised to evaluate tests of independence when using a cross-tabulation (also known as a bivariate table). The test of independence assessed whether an association exists between the two categorical variables by comparing the observed pattern of responses in the cells to the pattern that would be expected if the variables were truly independent of each other. Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to measure the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variables. The Phi coefficient is a statistical mesure that is utilized to examine the association between two dichotomous variables and the Cramer's V measures how strong is the association of those two variables.

The formula of Chi-square:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(o-e)^2}{e}$$

Where f_o = The observed frequency (the observed counts in the cells) and
f_e = The expected frequency

As depicted in the formula, the Chi-Square statistic is based on the difference between what is actually observed in the data and what would be expected if there was truly no relationship between the variables. In case the *p*-value (labelled Asymp. Sig. in SPSS) is less than 0.05 then we can conclude that the variables are not independent of each other and that there is a statistical relationship between the categorical variables.

3.7.3 Multivariate

Multivariate analysis was perfomed to identify the factors associated with African female migrants and their housing acquisition in South Africa. In this regard, a logistic regression model was used by dichotomising housing related variables. For example, housing type was dichotomised as: 1= Formal housing; 0= Other types of housing; housing tenure was dichotomised as: 1= Renting, 0= Other methods; housing size was dichotomised as: 1= room size, 0= Other sizes. This dichotomisation was performed for both 2001 and 2011 Population Census data sets.

3.7.4 Logistic regression

In the case of logistic regression, the independent variables were used in the model at the same time. The Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test determines how closely observed and expected probabilities correspond. A p-value >0.05 means that the model fits the data in this case. Furthermore, a degree of significance cut-off point of 5% was used.

If the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test statistic is greater than 0.05, as it should be for well-fitting models, it means the model's prediction fit the data at an appropriate stage, according to Nsengiyumva (2013) and Duba (2020). Any variable with a p= 0.05 value, as well as variables with a p= 0.06 value, was considered significant in the results.

The distinction to be made here is that this is not the same as, which gives a p> 0.05. The Wald estimate indicates the relative value of each variable in the model. The odds ratios are given by Exp(B), which is another way of saying the probability of an occurrence occurring. According

to Majikijela (2015), the mathematical expression of the logistic regression used in the study is as follows:

$$In\frac{P}{1-P} = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \beta_3 x_3 + \ldots\ldots + \beta_i x_i$$

The logistic assigns a coefficient β to each of predictor (independent variable) which calculates its independent differentials to the dichotomous variable (dependent variable), InP1-P is the representation of the dependent variable in this model. When all other variables (xi) remain constant, the regression coefficient βi increases natural logarithm (log-odds) for a one-unit increase in the predictor variable (xi). It assesses the relationship between xi and natural logarithm (log-odds) after taking into account all other (xi) variables.

CHAPTER 4: Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

This section of the study aimed at examining the characteristics of African female migrants and the housing acquisition in South Africa. The data analysis was initiated through a univariate analysis which outlined the distribution of the data by examining the characteristics and their magnitude. The association between the dependent and the independent variables was also assessed through cross-tabulation and Chi-square statistical testing. This type of analysis is classified as the bivariate method of data analysis. A summary depicting all the values of the Chi-square, phi and Cramer's V results will be shown in table 4.26. Lastly, the multivariate method of analysis was utilized through the use of the logistic regression. This assisted in indicating the factors that have an influence on African female migrants and their housing acquisition in South Africa.

4.2 Sample composition

The focus of this study is on international migration and the scrutiny is on the migration of African females and their acquisition of housing in South Africa. According to Table 4.1 below, the data from the 2001 and 2011 Population Census datasets indicates that in 2001, South Africa had a total of 21984 (n= 21984) African female migrants. These African female migrants were mostly from Mozambique (28.6%), Zimbabwe (20.3%) and Lesotho (19.6%). The majority of the female migrants (49.4%) had indicated that they migrated into South Africa during their youth years and some when they were already adults (32.9%). The data continues to reveal that 47.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa are not married and only about 40.9% of the African female migrants are married. Furthermore, 43.8% of the female migrants have completed at least secondary school while 21.8% of them have completed their primary education and only 12.6% have completed their tertiary education. (58.8%) of the African female migrants in South Africa receive no monthly income whatsoever and 28.1% receive a low monthly income. (20.2%) of the females are employed and from that percentage, only 2.3% earn a high monthly income. A huge 34.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa are not economically active. The percentage of African female migrants who live in formal housing is 0.9%. Of those houses, 13.4% are houses that are rented.

The findings on Table 4.1 below, continues to show that South Africa has a total of 32380 (n=32380) African female migrants in 2011 and these female migrants were mostly from Zimbabwe (59.8%) and Mozambique (23.2%).

Majority of the female migrants have indicated that they mostly migrated into South Africa during their youth years (68.8%) and some when they were already adults (18.3%). The data continues to reveal that 60.7% the African female migrants in South Africa are not married and only about 35.0% of the African female migrants are married. Furthermore, 63.2% of the female migrants have completed at least secondary school while only 7.3% have completed their tertiary education. (32.7%) of the African female migrants in South Africa receive no monthly income, whatsoever and 23.6% are not economically active. Only about 44.4% of the females are employed and from that percentage, only 21.7% earn a high monthly income. (11.2%) of the African female migrants live in formal housing. However, 63.4% of the houses are rented.

According to Miraka and Mainza (2016), migration of the African female migrant is influenced by income selectivity and housing acquisition among other attributes and characteristics. Contrary to Miraka and Mainza (2016), the study indicates that most African females in South Africa immigrated into the country between the ages of 14-35 years. However, the study agrees that most of these females are not married and the majority of them have completed their secondary education and only a few earn high incomes.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of African female migrants

Frequency distribution tables					
POPULATION CENSUS 2001			**POPULATION CENSUS 2011**		
Variable	**Frequency**	**Percent**	**Variable**	**Frequency**	**Percent**
Age			**Age**		
Children	2179	9.9	Children	3844	11.9
Youth	10855	49.4	Youth	22023	68.8
Adults	7061	32.9	Adults	5940	18.3
Elderly	1889	8.6	Elderly	573	1.8
Total	21984	100.0	Total	32380	100.00
Marital status			**Marital status**		
Married	8997	40.9	Married	11324	35.0
Not married	10457	47.6	Not married	19641	60.7
Divorced	717	3.3	Divorced	303	0.9

Separated	276	1.3		Separated	257	0.8
Widowed	1537	7.0		Widowed	855	2.6
Total	21984	100.0		Total	32380	100.00
Level of education				**Level of education**		
No education	4799	21.8		No education	2488	8.2
Primary Education	4788	21.8		Primary Education	6186	20.5
Secondary education	9626	43.8		Secondary education	19091	63.2
Tertiary education	2771	12.6		Tertiary education	2203	7.3
Total	21984	100.0		Other	2412	0.7
				Total	32380	100.0
Income category				**Income category**		
No income	12930	58.8		No income	17329	32.7
Low income	6175	28.1		Low income	2913	11.9
Middle income	2369	10.8		Middle income	7633	33.7
High income	510	2.3		High income	4505	21.7
Total	21984	100.0		Total	32380	100.0
Employment status				**Employment status**		
Employed	6769	30.8		Employed	12880	44.4
Unemployed	4089	18.6		Unemployed	9196	32.0
Not economically active	7602	34.6		Not economically active	6704	23.6
Total	21984	100.0		Total	32380	100.0
Housing type				**Housing type**		
Formal	206	0.9		Formal	3635	11.2
Informal	127	0.6		Informal	2135	6.6
Traditional	38	0.2		Traditional	190	0.6
Other	21613	98.3		Other	26420	81.6
Total	21984	100,0		Total	32380	100.0
Housing tenure				**Housing tenure**		

Rented	89	13.4		Rented	18205	64.3
Owned but not yet paid off	38	5.7		Owned but not yet paid off	352	4.3
Occupied rent free	150	22.6		Occupied rent free	7344	16.6
Owned and fully paid off	129	19.4		Owned and fully paid off	5914	11.3
Other	259	38.9		Other	565	3.5
Total	665	100,0		Total	32380	100.0
Country of birth				**Country of birth**		
Lesotho	4300	19.6		Lesotho	5084	15.7
Namibia	1865	8.5		Namibia	188	0.6
Botswana	542	2.5		Botswana	241	0.7
Zimbabwe	4458	20.3		Zimbabwe	19358	59.8
Mozambique	6289	28.6		Mozambique	7509	23.2
Other	4530	20.6				
Total	21984	100.0		Total	32380	100.0

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.3 Life time migration

According to Stats SA (2015), quarter of all international migration movements in South Africa happens between Gauteng and Limpopo, and Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal. For an evaluation of the life time migration, Table 4.2 below indicates the distribution of migrants according to the province of usual residence and the country of birth. The findings in Table 4.2 indicate that in 2001, 23.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa from Lesotho were largely distributed across Gauteng Province, followed by13.1% distributed across Free State. The findings also reveal that 26.8% African female migrants from Namibia were largely distributed across the Western Cape Province, followed by 22.7% from Gauteng. Moreover, the findings show that 43.8% African female migrants from Botswana were largely distributed across Gauteng Province followed by 9.4% who were distributed across Eastern Cape. Looking at Zimbabwe, 36.1% African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across Gauteng province, followed by 16%who were distributed across KwaZulu-Natal. Looking at Mozambique, 38.3% of the African female migrants who were from Mozambique were largely distributed across Gauteng Province, followed by 13.4% who were from Mpumalanga. (22.3%) of the African female migrants who were from other countries were distributed across Gauteng Province, followed by 14.6% who were distributed across the KwaZulu-Natal Province. The Table 4.2 also indicate that in 2011, 47.6% of the African female migrants from Lesotho were largely distributed across Gauteng Province, followed by 20.4% who were distributed across Free State Province. Looking at Namibia, 39.9% of the African female migrants from Namibia were largely distributed across Gauteng Province, followed by 27.7% who were distributed across the Western Cape. Moreover, 48.1% 0f the African female migrants in South Africa who were from Botswana were largely distributed across Gauteng Province, followed by 23.3% who were distributed across Limpopo Province. Looking at Zimbabwe, 64% of the African female migrants in South Africa were from Zimbabwe and they were largely distributed across Gauteng Province, followed by11.6% that was distributed across Limpopo Province. Looking at Mozambique, 57.0% of the African female migrants were from Mozambique and they were largely distributed across Gauteng Province, followed by 14.7% who were distributed across Mpumalanga.

Table 4.2: Province of usual residence by country of birth

Variable	Province of usual residence 2001									
Country of birth	**WC**	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GP**	**MP**	**LIMP**	**Total**
Lesotho	7	16	7	21	15	15	43	18	11	160
	5.9%	12.1%	6.4%	13.1%	5.6%	5.6%	23.1%	7.5%	3.1%	100.0%
Namibia	18	6	11	7	3	2	16	2	3	66
	26.8%	8.6%	16.2%	9.1%	3.0%	3.0%	22.7%	1.5%	3.0%	100.0%
Botswana	0	6	0	0	0	3	18	3	0	32
	0.0%	9.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.3%	43.8%	6.3%	0.0%	100.0%
Zimbabwe	21	20	7	0	35	8	79	7	17	219
	8.8%	8.3%	2.4%	0.0%	16.0%	3.7%	36.1%	3.2%	7.8%	100.0%
Mozambique	9	21	0	6	12	28	132	43	26	321
	0.3%	4.0%	0.0%	1.9%	3.7%	8.7%	38.3%	13.4%	8.1%	100.0%
Other	3341	2916	780	1424	4221	1462	6436	1566	2505	22314
	11.6%	10.1%	2.7%	4.9%	14.6%	5.1%	22.3%	5.4%	8.7%	100.0%
Total	3377	2963	794	1687	4279	1981	6704	1631	2555	21984
	11.4%	10.0%	2.7%	4.9%	14.4%	5.1%	22.6%	5.5%	8.6%	100.0%
	Province of usual residence 2011									
Lesotho	207	260	24	1035	243	678	2419	112	80	5084
	4.1%	5.1%	0.5%	20.4%	4.8%	13.3%	47.6%	2.2%	1.6%	100.0%
Namibia	75	6	12	13	4	14	52	6	6	188
	39.9%	3.2%	6.4%	6.9%	2.1%	7.4%	27.7%	3.2%	3.2%	100.0%
Botswana	8	10	2	4	6	42	116	3	49	241
	3.3%	4.1%	0.8%	1.7%	2.5%	17.4%	48.1%	1.2%	20.3%	100.0%
Zimbabwe	1793	496	56	165	726	896	12393	480	2253	19358
	9.3%	2.6%	0.3%	0.9%	3.8%	4.6%	64.0%	2.5%	11.6%	100.0%
Mozambique	63	13	2	52	283	852	4277	1107	809	7509
	0.8%	0.2%	0.0%	0.7%	3.8%	11.3%	57.0%	14.7%	10.8%	100.0%
Total	2146	785	96	1269	1262	2482	19257	1708	3197	32380
	6.6%	2.4%	0.3%	3.9%	3.9%	7.7%	59.5%	5.3%	9.9%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample from both the 2001 and 2011 Population Census: WC= Western Cape; EC= Eastern Cape; NC= Northern Cape; FS= Free State; KZN= KwaZulu- Natal; NW= North West; GP= Gauteng; MP= Mpumalanga; LIMP= Limpopo

4.4 African female migrants' characteristics and housing acquisition

Acquisitionof housing can vary according to different charecteristics as a result of the influence of socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory characteristics. In support of the above mentioned hypothesis, Akileswaran and Lurie (2010) stress that most of the African female migrants in South Africa are influenced by similar, if not the same characteristics, most of which are socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory variables. In addition, the Institute for Democratic Alternatives in South Africa (2002) states that demographic, economic and social characteristics have a huge influence as far as the housing acquisition is concerned in South Africa and these factors also contribute to the selectivity of migration across the world.

4.5 African female migrants and housing type 2001 and 2011

4.5.1 Distribution of housing type by age

The UN (2011) and Majikijela (2015) state that individuals in their youth are more likely to migrate to different countries than individuals in their adult or elderly years. This youth migration is often influenced by the economic instability of the country of origin. In most instances, the ultimate goal of youth migration is to gain and sustain economic stability, quality education and sometimes marriage security and improved health care (Todes, 2012).

The findings in Table 4.3 indicate that in 2001 formal housing comprised of 40.1% of the African female migrants who were in their youth, followed by 39.5% who were in their adult years. Looking at the distribution of African female migrants across informal housing, 50.3% of the African female migrants who made up a majority were in their youth, followed by 45.5% who were in their adult years. Moreover, looking at the distribution of African female migrants in traditional housing, the findings indicate that 47.4% were in their adult years, followed by 42.1% who were in their youth. According to Green and Hendershott (1996), age has a partial effect on housing acquisition. However, the findings on Table 4.3 further indicate that in 2011, 63.2% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across formal housing were in their youth, followed by 32.8% who were in their adult years.

Moreover, looking at the distribution of African female migrants in informal housing, 67.6% were in their youth, followed by 30.6% who were in their adult years. Furthermore, looking at the distribution of African female migrants across traditional housing, 57.4% who made up a majority were in their youth, followed by 32.1% who were in their adult years. Most of the

African female migrants in South Africa are in their youth and it is very difficult for them to find employment because some of them are unskilled, they have no education and thus it is very difficult for them to find employment. This means that they are vulnerable to exploitation and cheap labour. The findings indicate that there was a 19.5% increase in African youth migrants in South Africa and a11% decrease in the population of adult African female migrants from 2001 to 2011.

In addition, the Chi-square test statistic was used to examine the relationship between age and housing type. The results revealed that the p-value was 0.00 <0.05 and as a result, there is a statistically significant link between age and housing type. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to assess the strength of the relationship between age and housing type. The Phi and Cramer's V results indicate that there is a moderate relationship between age and housing type.

Table 4.3: Housing type by age

Variable	**Age group 2001**				
Housing type	**Children**	**Youth**	**Adults**	**Elderly**	**Total**
Formal	1	70	70	36	177
	0.01%	40.1%	39.5%	20.3%	100.0%
Informal	2	94	87	8	191
	0.02%	50.3%	45.5%	4.2%	100.0%
Traditional	0	16	18	4	38
	0.00%	42.1%	47.4%	10.5%	100.0%
Total	3	182	175	48	406
	0.03%	45.1%	43.1%	11.8%	100.0%
	Age group 2011				
Formal	5	3122	1621	194	4942
	0.1%	63.2%	32.8%	3.9%	100.0%
Informal	3	1953	885	49	2890
	0.1%	67.6%	30.6%	1.7%	100.0%
Traditional	0	109	68	13	190
	0.0%	57.4%	35.8%	6.8%	100.0%
Total	8	5184	2574	256	8022
	0.1%	64.6%	32.1%	3.2%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.2 Distribution of housing type by marital status

Akileswaran and Lurie (2010) state that most migrants are recruited into the migration process by either their friends or family members. It is easier for unmarried African female migrants to relocate because most of them are not bound by marital obligations. The findings in Table 4.4 indicate that in 2001 34.5% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across formal housing were not married, followed by 24.3% who were widowed. Looking at informal housing, the findings show that 45% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across informal housing were not married, followed by 28.3% of the African female migrants who were married. Looking at traditional housing, majority (60.5%) of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across traditional housing were married, followed by 23.7% of those who were not married. According to Drew (2014), married couples are likely to live in formal housing compared to unmarried individuals due to their generally better socio-economic status. Moreover, in 2011, formal housing accommodated about 59.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were not married, followed by 27.8% who were married. The findings further show that looking at informal housing, majority (66.5%) of the African female migrants were largely distributed across this housing type and they were not married, followed by 23.4% who were married. Looking at traditional housing, the data indicate that 58.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across traditional housing were not married, followed by 24.2% who were married. The findings revealed surprising results; unmarried African female migrants were largely distributed across formal housing more than African female migrants with other marital statuses. These findings could be influenced by the unmarried African female migrants living in formal housing are in fact living with someone who is employed and earning enough to live in formal housing. They could be living with their friends, family members or the cohabitation partners. The findings indicate a 23.4% increase in African female migrants who were unmarried from 2001 to 2011 and a 3.8% decrease among African female migrants who were married and living in formal housing from 2001 to 2011. Furthermore, When Chi-square test statistic was used, the findings indicated a p-value of $0.00<0.05$ and the data demonstrated that there is a significant link between marital status and housing type. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were also evaluated, and the results indicate that there was a very strong definitive relationship between marital status and housing type.

Table 4.4: Housing type by marital status

Variable	Marital status 2001					
Housing type	**Married**	**Not Married**	**Divorce**	**Separated**	**Widowed**	**Total**
Formal	45	61	23	5	43	177
	25.4%	34.5%	13.0%	2.8%	24.3%	100.0%
Informal	54	86	9	12	30	191
	28.3%	45.0%	4.7%	6.3%	15.7%	100.0%
Traditional	23	9	1	4	1	38
	60.5%	23.7%	2.6%	10.5%	2.6%	100.0%
Total	122	156	33	21	74	406
	30.0%	38.4%	8.1%	5.2%	18.2%	100.0%
	Marital status 2011					
Formal	1375	2922	144	109	392	4942
	27.8%	59.1%	2.9%	2.2%	7.9%	100.0%
Informal	677	1922	59	62	170	2890
	23.4%	66.5%	2.0%	2.1%	5.9%	100.0%
Traditional	46	112	8	6	18	190
	24.2%	58.9%	4.2%	3.2%	9.5%	100.0%
Total	2098	4956	211	177	580	8022
	26.2%	61.8%	2.6%	2.2%	7.2%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.3 Differentials of housing type by the highest level of education

According to Todes (2012), A lot of migrants with less education or no education at all often live in informal housing upon their arrival in the place of destination, they struggle to find employment and they are often discriminated against and ultimately what they find will be informal as a result of little wages. The findings on table 4.5 indicate that in 2001 48.6% of the African female migrants who were more likely to stay in formal housing had secondary education followed by 27.1% of those who had tertiary education. The data show further that there were 41.9% African female migrants who were more likely to stay in informal housing, who completed secondary education, followed by 33.5% of those who had with primary education. Looking at traditional housing the findings show that 65.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across traditional housing had no education, followed by 18.4% who had primary education.

Moreover, the findings further indicate that in 2011, 64.0% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across formal housing had completed their secondary education, followed by 15.4% of the African female migrants in South Africa who had at least completed their primary education. The findings also show that looking at informal housing, 64.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across informal housing had completed their secondary education, followed by 23.3% who had completed their primary school. The results also show that looking at traditional housing, 46.8% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across traditional housing had completed their secondary education, followed by 27.4% who had completed their primary education. Most of the African female migrants with secondary and tertiary education were living in formal housing. This could be because they were likely to get employed as compared to those with no education and primary education. African female migrants with primary education or no education are likely to live in traditional housing in rural areas because of the very low standards of living. These African female migrants are considered as unskilled and in most cases they are exploited if employed. They are considered as cheap labour and they can either afford to live in traditional or informal housing.

The findings of this study support Todes (2012) as they show that there were more African female migrants in South Africa with no schooling who were distributed across informal housing. The association between the highest level of education and housing type was also tested using the Chi-square test. The p-value = 0.00< 0.05 according to the findings. As a result,

the highest level of education and the housing type have a statistically significant link. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to assess the strength of the relationship between highest level of education and housing type. The tests revealed that there was moderate correlation between the housing type and the highest level of education.

Table 4.5: Housing type by the highest level of education

Variable	Education 2001					
Housing type	**No education**	**Primary education**	**Secondary education**	**Tertiary education**	**Other**	**Total**
Formal	23	20	86	48		177
	13.0%	11.3%	48.6%	27.1%		100.0%
Informal	45	64	80	2		191
	23.6%	33.5%	41.9%	1.0%		100.0%
Traditional	25	7	6	0		38
	65.8%	18.4%	15.8%	0.0%		100.0%
Total	93	91	172	50		406
	22.9%	22.4%	42.4%	12.3%		100.0%
	Education 2011					
Formal	409	758	3155	558	50	4930
	8.3%	15.4%	64.0%	11.3%	1.0%	100.0%
Informal	254	672	1867	81	8	2882
	8.8%	23.3%	64.8%	2.8%	0.3%	100.0%
Traditional	42	52	89	6	1	190
	22.1%	27.4%	46.8%	3.2%	0.5%	100.0%
Total	705	1482	5111	645	59	8002
	8.8%	18.5%	63.9%	8.1%	0.7%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.4 Distribution of housing type by the income category

Fuller Housing Centre Report (2014) states that overpopulation in informal housing poses a significant amount of distress in South Africa. This has been an issue for over twenty-seven years since many Africans are migrating into the large cities of South Africa in search for improved employment opportunities and better living standards. However, the standard of living of each individual is largely influenced by the individual's financial/economic stability. The findings in Table 4.6 below indicate that 45.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across formal housing were earning a low income, followed by 24.3% who were earning a middle income.

The findings also indicate that 60.7% African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across informal housing and they were earning no income, followed by 36.6% who were earning a low income. Looking at traditional housing, 50% of the African female migrants in South Africa were evenly distributed across traditional housing; these were the African female migrants who were earning low and middle incomes. Moreover, the table shows that in 2011, 42.3% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across formal housing were earning a middle income, followed by 29.1% who were earning a low income. The table also shows that 44.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across informal housing were earning no income, followed by 33.2% who were earning a middle income.

Looking at traditional housing, the findings indicate that 37.4% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across traditional housing were earning no income, followed by 33.2% who were earning middle income. The table has provided surprising results as it shows that in 2011 and 2001 people with either no income or low income were largely distributed across formal housing. It is unlikely for a person who does not have income or who has low income to afford formal housing. The only possibility of this is if these African female migrants live with other people who can afford formal housing. Most of the people with no or low income were also largely distributed across traditional and informal housing because they cannot afford formal housing and they are not employed, if employed the money that they earn is not enough. The findings indicate that there was an improvement in the overall standard of living from 2001 to 2011. There was a decrease in African female migrants who were earning low and no income and there was an increase in the African female migrants who were earning middle and a high income. These findings support what (Pheiffer, 2021; Anand and

Rademacher, 2011) said that “most migrants live in informal housing types in areas of destination”. It also validates that most of the African female migrants do not earn enough to see financial liberation (Akileswaran and Lurie, 2010). In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between income category and housing type. The findings indicated a p-value= 0.00< 0.05 and as a result, there is an association between income category and housing type. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to determine the strength of the relationship between income and housing type. The tests indicated that there was a strong relationship between these two variables.

Table 4.6: Housing type by income category

Variable	Income category 2001				
Housing type	**No income**	**Low income**	**Middle income**	**High income**	**Total**
Formal	41	81	43	12	177
	23.2%	45.8%	24.3%	6.8%	100.0%
Informal	116	70	4	1	191
	60.7%	36.6%	2.1%	0.5%	100.0%
Traditional	19	19	0	0	38
	50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total	176	170	47	13	406
	43.3%	41.9%	11.6%	3.2%	100.0%
	Income category 2011				
Formal	1438	593	2090	821	4942
	29.1%	12.0%	42.3%	16.6%	100.0%
Informal	1274	490	959	167	2890
	44.1%	17.0%	33.2%	5.8%	100.0%
Traditional	71	51	62	6	190
	37.4%	26.8%	32.6%	3.2%	100.0%
(Total	2783	1134	3111	994	8022
	34.7%	14.1%	38.8%	12.4%	100.0%

Source: Author’s calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.5 Distribution of housing type by the employment status

The influence of women empowerment in Africa in general, and in South Africa in particular, hasopened routes for female migration in the continent. Unfortunately, some women become victims of unemployment and economic inactivity. This consequently injects large numbers of African female migrants in informal and traditional types of housing (Anand and Rademacher 2011; Pheiffer, 2021).

The findings on Table 4.7 indicate that in 2001, 51.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in formal housing were employed, followed by 25.2% who were not economically active. The findings show that 42.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were unemployed were largely distributed across informal housing followed by 34.6% who were not economically active.

Looking at informal housing, the table also shows that 47.4% of the African female migrants who were living in traditional housing were not economically active, followed by 23.7% of those who were both employed and unemployed. Furthermore, the table indicates that in 2011, 65% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in formal housing were employed followed by 19.4% who were unemployed. Looking at informal housing, 53.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across informal housing were employed, followed by 31.1% who were unemployed. The findings also show that 54.1% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across traditional housing were employed, followed by 26% who were not economically active.

The findings revealed that a lot of African female migrants who were employed were largely distributed across traditional and informal housing. This is because the African female migrants are serving as cheap labour and because traditional housings are mostly in rural areas and jobs in such environments are limited and they do not pay enough to afford formal housing. The table shows a slight improvement from 2001 to 2011 as there were more employed African female migrants and less not economically active African female migrants from 2001 to 2011.

However, there was also a slight increase among African female migrants who were unemployed in South Africa from 2001 to 2011. A Chi- square test with a p-value = 0.00 < 0.05 demonstrated a significant association between employment status and housing type. The Phi and Cramer's V were also examined, and the results indicate that there is moderate correlation between employment status and housing type.

Table 4.7: Distributionof housing type by employment status

Housing type	Employed	Unemployed	Not economically active	Other	Total
	Employment status 2001				
Formal	106	15	52	33	206
	51.5%	7.3%	25.2%	16.0%	100.0%
Informal	28	54	44	1	127
	22.0%	42.5%	34.6%	0.8%	100.0%
Traditional	9	9	18	2	38
	23.7%	23.7%	47.4%	5.3%	100.0%
Total	143	78	114	36	371
	38.5%	21.0%	30.7%	9.7%	100.0%
	Employment status 2011				
Formal	3119	933	750	750	4802
	65.0%	19.4%	15.6%	15.6%	100.0%
Informal	1531	887	436	436	2854
	53.6%	31.1%	15.3%	15.3%	100.0%
Traditional	98	36	47	47	181
	54.1%	19.9%	26.0%	26.0%	100.0%
Total	4748	1856	1233	1233	7837
	60.6%	23.7%	15.7%	15.7%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.6 Distribution of housing type by country of birth

Akileswaran and Lurie (2010) state that South Africa has a lot of pull factors that are very influential in the migration of the Basotho in South Africa. South Africa is one of the fastest developing countries in Africa and this makes it very vulnerable to migration from underdeveloped and other developing countries such as Zimbabwe and Mozambique. The findings in Table 4.8 indicate that in 2001, 33% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across formal housing were Zimbabweans, followed by female migrants from other African countries (25.2%). Looking at informal housing, the findings show that 44.1% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across informal housing were from Lesotho, followed by 35.4% Mozambican female migrants. The findings also show that 76.3% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across traditional housing were from Mozambique, followed by 7.9% who were from Botswana and Zimbabwe.

Furthermore, the table indicates that in 2011, 64.2% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across formal hosing were from Zimbabwe, followed by 17.2% who were from Lesotho. Looking at informal housing the findings show that 49.7% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across informal housing were from Zimbabwe, followed by 25.9% who were from Lesotho. Moreover, looking at traditional housing the findings indicate that 44.7% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across traditional housing were from Zimbabwe, followed by 30% who were from Mozambique.

The findings indicate that there were more female migrants from Zimbabwe and Mozambique in South Africa and many were living in traditional housing. These migrants are from the economically poor countries in the African continent and they are largely distributed across traditional housing because they cannot afford to pay for formal housing. The study also revealed that many Basotho female migrants were distributed in informal housing and these findings validated the above statement by Akileswaran and Lurie (2010).

From 2001 to 2011, there has been a decline in African female migrants from the countries under study except from Zimbabwe. The population of Zimbabwean female migrants in South Africa increased by more than double from 2001 to 2011. In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between country of birth and housing type. The findings have shown that p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant

relationship between country of birth and the housing type. To measure the strength of the association between country of birth and housing type, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a weak relationship between the variables.

Table 4.8: Housing type by country of birth

Variable	Country of birth 2001						
Housing type	**Lesotho**	**Namibia**	**Botswana**	**Zimbabwe**	**Mozambique**	**Other**	**Total**
Formal	36	21	2	68	27	52	206
	17.5%	10.2%	1.0%	33.0%	13.1%	25.2%	100.0%
Informal	56	14	0	5	45	7	127
	44.1%	11.0%	0.0%	3.9%	35.4%	5.5%	100.0%
Traditional	1	0	3	3	29	2	38
	2.6%	0.0%	7.9%	7.9%	76.3%	5.3%	100.0%
Total	93	35	5	76	101	61	371
	25.1%	9.4%	1.3%	20.5%	27.2%	16.4%	100.0%
	Country of birth 2011						
Formal	863	57	49	3174	799		4942
	17.5%	1.2%	1.0%	64.2%	16.2%		100.0%
Informal	748	7	16	1435	684		2890
	25.9%	0.2%	0.6%	49.7%	23.7%		100.0%
Traditional	47	1	0	85	57		190
	24.7%	0.5%	0.0%	44.7%	30.0%		100.0%
Total	1658	65	65	4694	1540		8022
	20.7%	0.8%	0.8%	58.5%	19.2%		100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.7 Distribution of housing type by year of movement

Ever since the new democratic South Africa in 1994, there has been a housing backlog of about two million houses in South Africa. The need for housing is critical in South Africa and this makes it ten times worse for migrants (Fuller Housing Report, 2014). The findings in Table 4.9 show that in 2011, 26.2% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across formal housing. These African female migrants had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 16.2% who had migrated in 2010. Looking at informal housing, 23.9% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across informal housing, migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 17.3% who had migrated in 2010.

Furthermore, the findings show that looking at traditional housing, 24.1% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across traditional housing had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 14.6% who had migrated in 2010. The findings indicate that there was an improvement from 2001 to 2011. African female migrants living in traditional housing had decreased drastically and African female migrants living in formal housing increased significantly. This was because of the improved economic activity in South Africa from 2001 to 2011. However, manyAfrican female migrants still remained in informal housing. Many female migrants were employed, even if some were exploited in the work place and they did not mind serving as cheap labour because the situation was better than the one back home; they would rather work in rural areas and live in traditional housing or work in a city, earn less and live in informal housing. In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between housing type and year of movement. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing type and year of movement. To measure the strength of the association between housing type and year of movement, Phi and Cramer's V tests was used. The tests showed a weak relationship between the variables.

Table 4.9: Housing type by year of movement

Variable	Year of movement 2001 – 2011											
Housing type	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**Total**
Formal	73	90	125	151	185	216	305	434	482	578	936	3575
	2.0 %	2.5 %	3.5 %	4.2 %	5.2 %	6.0 %	8.5%	12.1 %	13.5 %	16.2 %	26.2 %	100.0 %
Informal	38	52	59	87	112	120	176	216	227	321	443	1851
	2.1 %	2.8 %	3.2 %	4.7 %	6.1 %	6.5 %	9.5%	11.7 %	12.3 %	17.3 %	23.9 %	100.0 %
Traditional	3	6	6	5	10	9	17	21	20	23	38	158
	1.9 %	3.8 %	3.8 %	3.2 %	6.3 %	5.7 %	10.8 %	13.3 %	12.7 %	14.6 %	24.1 %	100.0 %
Total	114	148	190	243	307	345	498	671	729	922	1417	5584
	2.0 %	2.7 %	3.4 %	4.4 %	5.5 %	6.2 %	8.9%	12.0 %	13.1 %	16.5 %	25.4 %	100.0 %

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.8 Distribution of housing type by the housing size

A lack of adequate housing provision leads to overcrowding, unsanitary and unsafe living conditions. This creates accommodation difficulties for the migrants. Most of the migrants in Africa are excluded from the host country's housing policies, and as a result, they are vulnerable to hostile societal pressures. This is mostly perpetuated by exclusivity (Poizer and Greenburg, 2008). The findings in Table 4.18 indicate that in 2001, 33.3% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across formal housing were living in 1 room houses, followed by 29% who were living in 4-5 room houses. Looking at informal housing, 70.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who live in informal housing were living in 1 room housing, followed by 27.5% who were living in 2-3 room houses. The table also shows that 57.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across traditional housing were living in 1 room houses, followed by 28.6% who were living in 2-3 room houses.

Moreover, the findings also reveal that in 2011, 29.7% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across formal housing were mostly living in 2-3 room housing, followed by 24.7% who were living in 4-5 room houses. The table also shows that looking at informal housing, 58% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were

largely distributed across informal housing were living in 1 room houses, followed by 35.9% who were largely distributed across 2-3 room houses. The findings continue to show that 48.7% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across traditional housing and they were living in 2-3 room houses, followed by 32.6% who were living in 1 room houses.

The findings on this table indicate that there was an improvement from 2001 to 2011 as many African female migrants in South Africa were more distributed in formal housing better than they were in 2001. The findings show however, African female migrants are still largely distributed across informal housing and this could be perpetuated by the fact that most of them are in their youth. They struggle to find employment and if they find any, it does not pay them enough to afford formal housing. In 2011 there were less African female migrants in traditional housing as many are distributed in urban areas. There were more opportunities than there were in 2001. In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between housing type and housing size. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing type and housing size. To measure the strength of the association between housing type and housing size, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a strong relationship between the variables.

Table 4.10: Housing type by housing size

Variable	Housing size 2001						
Housing type	**1 room**	**2-3 rooms**	**4-5 rooms**	**6-7 rooms**	**8-9 rooms**	**10+ rooms**	**Total**
Formal	23	17	20	5	2	2	69
	33.3%	24.6%	29.0%	7.2%	2.9%	2.9%	100.0%
Informal	36	14	0	1	0	0	51
	70.6%	27.5%	0.0%	2.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Traditional	4	2	1	0	0	0	7
	57.1%	28.6%	14.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total	63	33	21	6	2	2	127
	49.6%	26.0%	16.5%	4.7%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%
	Housing size 2011						
Formal	1248	1636	1361	773	325	163	5506
	22.7%	29.7%	24.7%	14.0%	5.9%	3.0%	100.0%
Informal	1438	891	143	6	2	0	2480
	58.0%	35.9%	5.8%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	100.0%
Traditional	91	136	35	10	7	0	279
	32.6%	48.7%	12.5%	3.6%	2.5%	0.0%	100.0%
Total	2777	2663	1539	789	334	163	8265
	33.6%	32.2%	18.6%	9.5%	4.0%	2.0%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.6 Housing tenure status and the characteristics of African female migrants, 2001 and 2011

4.6.1 Distribution of housing tenure status by age

Ammuddin (2019) states that feminization of migration has encouraged empowerment among women of different ages. This has influenced a change in the economic backgrounds of different individuals. Females in their youth are more likely to migrate to different countries depending on the push factors of their place of origin and the pull factors of their place of destination. The findings in Table 4.11 indicate that in 2001, 35.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in rented housing were in their youth, followed by 33.1% of those who were in their adult years.

The findings also indicate that 16.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across owned but not yet paid off housing were adults, followed by 5.3% who were in their youth. Moreover, the table also indicates that 24.1% of the African female

migrants who were distributed across housing that has been occupied rent free were mostly the youth, followed by 20.6% who were adults. The findings continue to indicate that 51.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across owned and fully paid off housing were the elderly, followed by 19.7% of those who were adults.According to Akileswaran and Lurie (2010), many female migrants in South Africa between the ages of 25 and 35 years are renting in informal areas. However, in 2011, 73.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across rented housing were in their youth, followed by 56.3% of those who were in their adult years. According to Table 4.11 about 12.5% African female migrants were living in housing that was owned but not yet paid off and most of them were children, followed by 7.7%who were in their elderly years.

The findings also revealed that 37.5% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free were children, followed by 22.3% who were adults. The findings also revealed that 48.4% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed in housing that is owned and fully paid off were in their elderly years, followed by 14.8% who were in their adult years. The findings in this table have indicated that a lot of youth female migrants were distributed across rented housing more than all the other age groups in both 2001 and 2011.

This is because individuals aged between 15-35 years old are likely to relocate more than individuals in other age groups. The findings also reveal that many of the adult and the elderly African female migrants in South Africa live in either owned but not paid off housing or owned but paid off housing more than other African female migrants in other age groups. This is because most individuals in these age groups are employed and they earn enough to pay off a house bond or to buy a house. They are also less likely to rent housing.

Furthermore, Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between the ages and housing tenure. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00< 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between the ages and the housing tenure. To measure the strength of the association between the ages and the housing tenure, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. All the tests showed moderate relationship between the ages and the housing tenure.

Table 4.11: Housing tenure by age

Variable	Age 2001				
Tenure status	**Children**	**Youth**	**Adults**	**Elderly**	**Total**
Rented	4	73	52	11	140
	0.10%	35.3%	33.1%	25.0%	37.7%
Owned but not yet paid off	0	9	26	1	36
	0.00%	5.3%	16.6%	2.3%	9.7%
Occupied rent-free	8	58	48	6	112
	20.0%	24.1%	20.6%	13.6%	30.2%
Owned and fully paid off	2	26	31	26	83
	0.002%	15.3%	19.7%	59.1%	22.4%
Total	3	170	157	44	371
	100.00%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Age 2011				
Rented	4	3725	1378	56	5163
	50.0%	73.9%	56.3%	22.6%	66.7%
Owned but not yet paid off	1	169	160	19	349
	12.5%	3.4%	6.5%	7.7%	4.5%
Occupied rent-free	3	721	545	53	1322
	37.5%	14.3%	22.3%	21.4%	17.1%
Owned and fully paid off	0	426	363	120	909
	0.0%	8.5%	14.8%	48.4%	11.7%
Total	8	5041	2446	248	7743
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.6.2 Distribution of housing tenure status by marital status

Todes (2012) believes that South Africa experiences an influx of African migrants who are not married because it is easier for them to relocate and start new livelihoods. The findings in Table 4.12 indicate that in 2001, 46.7% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across rented housing were divorced, followed by 44.1% who were unmarried. Moreover, 26.7% of the African female migrants who were living in housing that was owned but not yet paid off were mostly divorced, followed by 12.5% who were separated.

The findings also show that 37.6% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that were occupied rent free were married, followed by 34.2% who were unmarried. The table also shows that 35.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who lived in owned and fully paid off housing were widowed, followed by 31.3% who were separated. According to Grinstein-Weiss *et al*. (2011), many married couples who are earning a low income are more likely to own housing as compared to individuals who are earning a low income and are single or separated.

Moreover, the findings show that in 2011, 69.3% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across rented housing were not married, followed by 67.7% of those who were married. Looking at housing that is owned but not yet paid off, 9% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that is owned but not yet paid off were divorced, followed by 5.6% who were married. The table also shows that 23.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across occupied rent free housing were divorced, followed by 22.2% who were separated. The findings also indicate that 25.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that is owned and fully paid off were widowed, followed by 14.4% who were separated.

The findings of this table indicates that many female migrants who are divorced, separated, married and not married are mostly living in rented housing. This is because these African female migrants are vulnerable to relocation as they have less to consider before initiating their morbidity. African female migrants who were divorced and widowed in South Africa were largely distributed across housing that was owned but not yet paid off and housing that was owned and fully paid off. This is because some have earned “after marriage dividends” that give them enough to buy houses or some just earn enough money to pay house bond/rent with intention to buy.

Most such African female migrants are in their adult and elderly years, they are employed and economically active, they earn middle or a high income and they have completed their secondary/tertiary education. The findings indicate a 37.4% increase in African female migrants in South Africa who were living in rented housing who were married from 2001 to 2011 and only 25.2% increase in African female migrants who were living in rented housing who were not married from 2001 to 2011. A noticeable fact about these findings is that from 2001 to 2011, there have always been more African female migrants who are unmarried in South Africa than those who are married.

Furthermore, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between marital status and housing tenure. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00< 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between marital status and the housing tenure. To measure the strength of the association between marital status and housing tenure, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests discovered a weak relationship between housing tenure status and marital status.

Table 4.12: Housing tenure status by marital status

Variable	Marital status 2001					
Tenure status	**Married**	**Not Married**	**Divorce**	**Separated**	**Widowed**	**Total**
Rented	33	67	14	5	21	140
	30.3%	44.1%	46.7%	31.3%	32.8%	37.7%
Owned but not yet paid off	9	9	8	2	8	36
	8.3%	5.9%	26.7%	12.5%	12.5%	9.7%
Occupied rent-free	41	52	3	4	12	112
	37.6%	34.2%	10.0%	25.0%	18.8%	30.2%
Owned and fully paid off	26	24	5	5	23	83
	23.9%	15.8%	16.7%	31.3%	35.9%	22.4%
Total	109	152	30	16	64	371
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Marital status 2011					
Rented	1364	3324	111	97	267	5163
	67.7%	69.3%	55.8%	58.1%	47.5%	66.7%
Owned but not yet paid off	113	179	18	9	30	349
	5.6%	3.7%	9.0%	5.4%	5.3%	4.5%
Occupied rent-free	329	790	46	37	120	1322
	16.3%	16.5%	23.1%	22.2%	21.4%	17.1%
Owned and fully paid off	210	506	24	24	145	909
	10.4%	10.5%	12.1%	14.4%	25.8%	11.7%
Total	2016	4799	199	167	562	7743
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.6.3 Housing tenure status by the highest level of education

The findings in Table 4.13 indicate that in 2011, 46% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across rented housing have completed their tertiary education, followed by 44.7% of the African female migrants who completed their secondary education. The table further indicates that 16% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that is owned but not yet paid off completed their tertiary education, followed by 12.6% who completed their secondary education. (44.2%) of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free completed their primary education, followed by 42.1% of the African female migrants who have no education, whatsoever. The findings further indicate that 36.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that was owned and fully paid off have no education, followed by 30% of the African female migrants who have completed their tertiary education. The findings also indicate that in 2011, 78.4% of the African female in South Africa who were largely distributed across rented housing have completed their tertiary education, followed by 72.6% of the African female migrants who have completed their secondary education. Moreover, 7.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across housing that is owned but not yet paid off completed their tertiary education, followed by 7.2% who have no education.

The findings also reveal that 28.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free have no education, followed by 22.6% who completed their primary education. The findings in Table 4.13 continue to reveal that 33.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across owned and fully paid off housing had no education, followed by 14.4% with primary education. Most of the African female migrants with secondary and tertiary education in South Africa possess scarce skills and they are under a work/study permit. The majority of them are living in rented housing because they only migrated for either economic and educational purposes.

They have no intentions of a permanent relocation to South Africa because of the families back home. Moreover, the findings had surprising results as they revealed that a wide majority of the African female migrants with no education and primary education were largely distributed across owned and paid off housing as well as owned and not yet paid off housing in 2011. Also, the majority of these females were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent

free in 2001. The results noticeably dispute the fact that some of the 2001 female migrants in South Africa were unable to live in fully owned and rented housing because it was difficult for them to find employment (Budlender, 2002).

Furthermore, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between the highest level of education and housing tenure. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00< 0.05 and as a result, there is a statistically significant link between the highest level of education and the housing tenure status. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to assess the strength of the relationship between the highest level of education and housing tenure status. The tests showed a moderately strong relationship between housing tenure status and the highest level of education.

Table 4.13: Housing tenure by highest level of education

Variable	Highest education level 2001				
Tenure status	**No education**	**Primary education**	**Secondary education**	**Tertiary education**	**Total**
Rented	13	33	71	23	140
	17.1%	38.4%	44.7%	46.0%	37.7%
Owned but not yet paid off	3	5	20	8	36
	3.9%	5.8%	12.6%	16.0%	9.7%
Occupied rent-free	32	38	38	4	112
	42.1%	44.2%	23.9%	8.0%	30.2%
Owned and fully paid off	28	10	30	15	83
	36.8%	11.6%	18.9%	30.0%	22.4%
Total	76	86	159	50	371
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Highest education level 2011				
Rented	209	815	3589	493	5106
	30.6%	57.7%	72.6%	78.4%	66.6%
Owned but not yet paid off	49	74	175	47	345
	7.2%	5.2%	3.5%	7.5%	4.5%
Occupied rent-free	197	319	754	45	1315
	28.8%	22.6%	15.3%	7.2%	17.1%
Owned and fully paid off	229	204	426	44	903
	33.5%	14.4%	8.6%	7.0%	11.8%
Total	684	1412	4944	629	7669
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.4 Distribution of housing tenure status by income category

A huge fraction of migrants in South Africa enter the country by informal housing and many rent housesbecause of various factors such as the inability to apply for subsidized housing, inflating costs of ownership and low levels of income (Pheiffer, 2021). The findings in Table 4.15 indicate that 41.4% of the African female migrants who were distributed across rented housing were earning low income, followed by 40% who were earning no income. The findings also show that 30.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that is owned but not yet paid off were earning a middle income, followed by 27.8% of the African female migrants who were earning a low income and no income. The findings continue to indicate that 52.7% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that has been occupied rent free were earning no income, followed by 43.8% of the African female migrants who were earning a low income. Moreover, the findings indicate that 44.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across owned and fully paid off housing were earning a low income, followed by 39.8% who were earning no income.

Moreover, the findings indicate that in 2011, 36.5% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across rented housing were earning a middle income, followed by 35.9% who were earning no income. The findings further revealed that 41.7% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that was owned but not yet paid off were earning a middle income, followed by 22.6% of the African female migrants who were earning a high income. Looking at housing that was occupied rent free, 49.7% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free were earning a middle income, followed by 29.7% who were earning no income. Moreover, 44.4% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that was owned and fully paid off were earning no income, followed by 27.9% who were earning middle income.

The results in the study indicate that there was a population increase among African female migrants in South Africa from 2001 to 2011. In this decade, South Africa was developing very fast since the first democratic elections in 1994. This meant that there was an increase in employment and there were great efforts from the South African government to empower women through the amendments of new policies that promoted equality. The liberalism and the gender equality policies made South Africa an ideal place of migration. Furthermore,

African female migrants who earn middle and high income were largely distributed in owned but not yet paid off housing in 2001 and 2011, with a fraction being distributed in rented housing in both 2001 and 2011. In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between income category and housing tenure. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 <0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between income category and the housing tenure. To measure the strength of the association between income category and housing tenure, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The results showed a moderate relationship between housing tenure status and income category.

Table 4.14: Housing tenure status by income category

Variable	Income category 2001				
Tenure status	**No income**	**Low income**	**Middle income**	**High income**	**Total**
Rented	56	58	21	5	140
	40.0%	41.4%	15.0%	3.6%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	10	10	11	5	36
	27.8%	27.8%	30.6%	13.9%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	59	49	4	0	112
	52.7%	43.8%	3.6%	0.0%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	33	37	11	2	83
	39.8%	44.6%	13.3%	2.4%	100.0%
Total	158	154	47	12	371
	42.6%	41.5%	12.7%	3.2%	100.0%
	Income category 2011				
Rented	1831	675	1866	734	5106
	35.9%	13.2%	36.5%	14.4%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	83	40	144	78	345
	24.1%	11.6%	41.7%	22.6%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	393	204	654	64	1315
	29.9%	15.5%	49.7%	4.9%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	401	169	252	81	903
	44.4%	18.7%	27.9%	9.0%	100.0%
Total	2708	1088	2916	957	7669
	35.3%	14.2%	38.0%	12.5%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.5 Distribution of housing tenure status by employment status

The feminisation of migration at this point was driven by economic liberalism. Even though there was an increase in African female migrants' employment in South Africa, they still face abuse, discrimination and exploitation. Most of them do not get paid adequately and they are known for providing cheap labour (Akileswaran and Lurie, 2010). The findings in Table 4.15 indicate that in 2001, 46.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across rented housing were employed, followed by 21.5% who were unemployed. Moreover, 62.9% of the African female migrants who were living in owned but not yet paid off housing were unemployed, followed by 15.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were not economically active. The results in Table 4.15 also show that 37.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that were occupied rent free were employed, followed by 27.5% of those who were unemployed. The findings continue to indicate that 31.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across owned and fully paid off housing were employed, followed by 26.2% who were unemployed.

Furthermore, the findings indicate that in 2011, 59.7% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across rented housing were employed, followed by 24.6% of those who were unemployed. The findings also reveal that 67.3% of the African female migrants in South Africa were distributed across housing that is owned but not yet paid off were employed, followed by 16.8% who were unemployed. The findings also show that 61.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were distributed across housing that had been occupied rent free were employed, followed by 20.4% who were unemployed.

Moreover, the results continue to indicate that 46.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across housing that was owned and fully paid off and were employed, followed by 28.7% who were unemployed. The increment of the population from 2001 to 2011 did not affect the distribution of these African female migrants; it just affected the fractions of the African female migrants and each housing tenure status. Many of the unemployed and not economically active migrants were largely distributed in rented and housing that was occupied rent free. According to Gouws (2010), many female migrants migrate independently and in most instances they fall victims to unemployment in the place of destination.

This now becomes very difficult because they are now forced to live in places that they can afford. Some end up living in shelters and churches, and some rent in informal settlements. Usually these type of migrants fall victims of abuse and discrimination. Chi-square statistical test was performed to testing the relationship between employment statuses and housing tenure. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00< 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between the employment status and the housing tenure. To measure the strength of the association between employment status and housing tenure, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used, and the tests showed a strong relationship between the variables.

Table 4.15: Housing tenure status by employment status

Variable	Employment status 2001			
Tenure status	**Employed**	**Unemployed**	**Not economically active**	**Total**
Rented	61	28	146	130
	46.9%	21.5%	11.5%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	22	4	53	35
	62.9%	11.4%	15.9%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	41	30	198	109
	37.6%	27.5%	24.5%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	19	16	797	61
	31.1%	26.2%	15.7%	100.0%
Total	143	78	1194	335
	42.7%	23.3%	34.0%	100.0%
	Employment status 2011			
Rented	3031	1248	797	5076
	59.7%	24.6%	15.7%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	224	56	53	333
	67.3%	16.8%	15.9%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	866	260	146	1272
	68.1%	20.4%	11.5%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	379	232	198	809
	46.8%	28.7%	24.5%	100.0%
Total	4500	1796	1194	7490
	60.1%	24.0%	15.9%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.6 Distribution of housing tenure status by country of birth

Hiralal (2017) states that southern African countries such as Lesotho, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Angola, Botswana and Namibia contribute greatly to the migration numbers of African female migrants, into South Africa. These female migrants move to South Africa because they want to improve their economic situation and if this does not always turnout as planned, they end up in informal settlements with very poor financial stability (Akileswaran and Lurie, 2010). Botswana and Namibia has fewer African female migrants in South Africa because of the economic, political and social stability of these countries. The findings in Table 4.16 indicate that in 2001, 38.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across rented housing were from Lesotho, followed by 37.2% who were from Zimbabwe.

The findings revealed that 48.3% of the African female migrants were largely distributed across housing that was owned but not yet paid off were from Zimbabwe, followed by 24.1% from Mozambique. The findings continued to reveal that 37.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free were from Mozambique, followed by 30.3% from the Basotho female migrants. Moreover, 45.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across housing that is owned and fully paid off were from Mozambique, followed by 20.3% from Lesotho.

Furthermore, the findings indicate that in 2011, 68.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across rented housing were from Zimbabwe, followed by 15.3% from the Basotho female migrants. The table also shows that 43.2% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that has been owned but not yet paid off were from Zimbabwe, followed by 32.2% from the Basotho female migrants. Moreover, 45.9% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free were from Mozambique, followed by 29% from the Basotho female migrants.

(39.6%) of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that was owned and fully paid off were from Mozambique, followed by 29.9% who were from Lesotho. The African Basotho female migrants in South Africa have been distributed across rented and occupied free housing both in 2001 and 2011. In 2001, many Namibian female migrants were largely distributed across rented and occupied rent-free but

this changed as these female migrants were dominant in owned but not paid off housing in 2011. Botswana female migrants in South Africa increased significantly in 2011 and there were about 6% of them who lived in owned and fully paid off housing. The distribution of Zimbabwean female migrants in South Africa remained unchanged as it was in 2001, in to 2011. Mozambican female migrants who were renting increased significantly in 2011, but the distribution was as it was in 2001. Furthermore, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between country of birth and housing tenure. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00< 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between country of birth and the housing tenure. To measure the strength of the association between country of birth and housing tenure, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed no relationship between the variables.

Table 4.16: Housing tenure status by Country of birth

Variable	Country of birth 2001					
Tenure status	**Lesotho**	**Namibia**	**Botswana**	**Zimbabwe**	**Mozambique**	**Total**
Rented	43	6	2	42	20	113
	38.1%	5.3%	1.8%	37.2%	17.7%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	3	5	0	14	7	29
	10.3%	17.2%	0.0%	48.3%	24.1%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	33	23	2	10	41	109
	30.3%	21.1%	1.8%	9.2%	37.6%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	15	10	2	13	34	74
	20.3%	13.5%	2.7%	17.6%	45.9%	100.0%
Total	94	44	6	79	102	325
	28.9%	13.5%	1.8%	24.3%	31.4%	100.0%
	Country of birth 2011					
Rented	781	44	49	3496	736	5106
	15.3%	0.9%	1.0%	68.5%	14.4%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	111	11	4	149	70	345
	32.2%	3.2%	1.2%	43.2%	20.3%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	381	2	7	603	322	1315
	29.0%	0.2%	0.5%	45.9%	24.5%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	270	7	4	264	358	903
	29.9%	0.8%	0.4%	29.2%	39.6%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.7 Differentials of housing tenure status by year of movement

South Africa experienced a high volume of migration due to the country's improved economic stability, mining, manufacturing job opportunities and agricultural job opportunities. These opportunities are magnets for both skilled and unskilled African female migrants. This mobility was hugely influenced by democracy in South Africa (UN, 2018). The findings in Table 4.17 below indicate that in 2011, 27.9% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across rented housing had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 18.2% who had migrated into South Africa in 2010.

The findings also show that 20.8% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing that was owned but not yet paid off had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 15.6% who had migrated into South Africa in 2010. Moreover, 25.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing that has been occupied rent free had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 15.3% who had migrated into South Africa in 2010.

The findings also show that 19.9% of the African female migrants who were recorded in owned and fully paid off housing had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 12.4% who had migrated into the South Africa in 2010. The findings show an increase in the population overtime from 1996 to 2011. Many of the African female migrants live in rented housing, and housing that has been occupied rent free in South Africa upon their arrival. This could be influenced by the fact that many female migrants migrate into South Africa as recruits and upon their arrival they usually live with someone they know which is usually a close family member, including spouse or a close friend.

In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between housing tenure status and year of movement. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00< 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing tenure status and year of movement. To measure the strength of the association between housing tenure and year of movement, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a weak relationship between the variables.

Table 4.17: Housing tenure status by year of movement

Variable	Year of movement 2001 – 2011								
Tenure status	2001	2002	2003	2004	2008	2009	2010	2011	Total
Rented	74	107	121	185	652	755	983	1507	5399
	1.4%	2.0%	2.2%	3.4%	12.1%	14.0%	18.2%	27.9%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	12	23	22	29	46	64	74	99	475
	2.5%	4.8%	4.6%	6.1%	9.7%	13.5%	15.6%	20.8%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	31	36	52	59	154	165	192	325	1256
	2.5%	2.9%	4.1%	4.7%	12.3%	13.1%	15.3%	25.9%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	32	30	46	49	93	98	100	161	809
	4.0%	3.7%	5.7%	6.1%	11.5%	12.1%	12.4%	19.9%	100.0%
Total	149	196	241	322	945	1082	1349	2092	7939
	1.9%	2.5%	3.0%	4.1%	11.9%	13.6%	17.0%	26.4%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.5.8 Distribution of housing tenure status by housing size

The findings in Table 4.18 indicate that in 2001, majority of the African female migrants in South Africa (53.2%) were largely distributed across rented housing in 1 room houses, followed by 23.4% who were living in 2-3 room houses. Moreover, 40% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across housing that is owned but not yet paid off who were living in 2-3 room houses, followed by 26.7% of the African female migrants who were living in 4-5 room houses.

The findings on the table also reveal that 66.7% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free and many were living in 1 room houses, followed by 25% who were living in 2-3 room houses. The findings also indicate that 41.2% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across housing that was owned and fully paid off and they were living in 4-5 room houses, followed by 29.4% who were living in 1 room houses.

The findings in Table 4.18 also shows that in 2011, 48.6% of the African female migrants were distributed across rented housing and these African female migrants were living in 1 room houses, followed by 33% of the African female migrants who were living in 2-3 room housing. Moreover, 29.1% of the African female migrants were largely distributed across housing that is owned but not yet paid off and most of them lived in 6-7 room houses, followed by 25.4% who were living in 4-5 room houses.

The findings also reveal that 39.4% of the African female migrants were distributed across housing that has been occupied rent free and these African female migrants were living in 2-3 room houses, followed by 27.9% who were living in 1 room houses. The findings continue to show that 31% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in houses with 4-5 room houses were largely distributed in owned and fully paid off housing, followed by 30.2% who were living in 2-3 room houses.

The findings on this also reveal that most of the African female migrants in South Africa were living in housing that was occupied rent free in 2001. In 2011 they were mostly renting formal housing. Most of the African female migrants live in one room houses because of the low rate of employment of the African female migrants in South Africa, even those who are employed do not earn enough to afford better housing. However, there was an improvement from 2001 to 2011 as fewer African female migrants in South Africa were living in housing that was occupied rent free but were now flooding towards owned but not yet paid off housing as well as rented and owned and fully paid off housing. In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between housing tenure status and housing size. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing tenure status and housing size. To measure the strength of the association between housing tenure status and housing size, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a strong relationship between the variables.

Table 4.18: Housing tenure status by housing size

Variable	Housing size 2001						
Housing tenure	**1 room**	**2-3 rooms**	**4-5 rooms**	**6-7 rooms**	**8-9 rooms**	**10+ rooms**	**Total**
Rented	25	11	8	1	1	1	47
	53.2%	23.4%	17.0%	2.1%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	1	6	4	3	1	0	15
	6.7%	40.0%	26.7%	20.0%	6.7%	0.0%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	32	12	2	1	0	1	48
	66.7%	25.0%	4.2%	2.1%	0.0%	2.1%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	5	4	7	1	0	0	17
	29.4%	23.5%	41.2%	5.9%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total	63	33	21	6	2	2	127
	49.6%	26.0%	16.5%	4.7%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%
	Housing size 2011						
Rented	2006	1372	463	220	68	34	4163
	48.2%	33.0%	11.1%	5.3%	1.6%	0.8%	100.0%
Owned but not yet paid off	43	84	157	180	105	49	618
	7.0%	13.6%	25.4%	29.1%	17.0%	7.9%	100.0%
Occupied rent-free	469	661	359	111	41	38	1679
	27.9%	39.4%	21.4%	6.6%	2.4%	2.3%	100.0%
Owned and fully paid off	259	546	560	278	120	42	1805
	14.3%	30.2%	31.0%	15.4%	6.6%	2.3%	100.0%
Total	2777	2663	1539	789	334	163	8265
	33.6%	32.2%	18.6%	9.5%	4.0%	2.0%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.7 Housing size and African female migrants' characteristics, 2001 and 2011

4.7.1 Distribution of housing size by age

According to Coleman (2010) migrants are likely to be invested in housing in their elderly years because the majority of the individuals accumulate a huge fraction of their personal assets under full ownership during their elderly years. The findings in Table 4.19 indicate that in 2001, 62.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 1 room houses were in their youth, followed by 33.8% who were in their adult years. The findings also reveal that 49% of the African female migrants who were living in 2-3 room houses were in their adult years, followed by 42.3% who were in their youth. Moreover, 44.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 4-5 room houses were in their adult years, followed by 33.9% who were in their elderly years. The findings continue to indicate that 58.6% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across houses with 6-7 rooms were in their adult years, followed by 29.4% who were in their youth. (51.2%) who were living in houses with 10+ rooms were in their youth, followed by 31.5% of those who were in their adult years. According to Coleman (2010), youth migrants are likely to rent a bachelor (1 room) in a place of origin as they are at a point where they are starting a new life in the labour force market. However, the findings also indicate that in 2011, 69.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 1 room houses were in their youth, followed by 28.7% who were in their adult years. The findings also show that 64% of the African female migrants who were living in 2-3 room houses were in their youth years, followed by 32.8% who were in their adult years. The findings continue to show that 60.8% of the African female migrants who were living in houses with 4-5 rooms were in their youth, followed by 33.3% of those who were in their adult ages.

Moreover, 52.3% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 6-7 room houses were in their youth followed by 41.4% of those who were in their adult years. The findings also show that 48.7% of the African female migrants who were living in 8-9 room houses were in their youth, followed by 44.7% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were in their adult years and 69.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in houses with 10+ rooms were in their youth, followed by 15.7% of the African female migrants who were in their childhood years.

The findings on this table surprisingly indicate that many African female migrants who live in houses with many rooms are in their youth. This is a surprise because they are highly unemployed and they are also largely distributed across informal housing. However, this could

be because some of them are living with people who can afford a house of such a size. Education could also be a beneficial and influential factor in a sense that in some instances educated individuals are more likely to be employed and earn enough to afford houses of their desired size. The adults are mostly earning middle incomes and this somehow makes them immune to living in houses with increased rooms. Most of them live with their families and as a result they need a house/home that can accommodate the entire household. In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between housing size and age. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing size and age. To measure the strength of the association between housing size and age, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a moderately strong relationship between the variables.

Table 4.19: Housing size by age

Variable	Age group 2011				
Housing size	**Children**	**Youth**	**Adults**	**Elderly**	**Total**
1 room	0	87	47	5	139
	0.0%	62.6%	33.8%	3.6%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	0	44	51	9	104
	0.0%	42.3%	49.0%	8.7%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	0	12	25	19	56
	0.0%	21.4%	44.6%	33.9%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	0	5	10	2	17
	0.0%	29.4%	58.8%	11.8%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	0	1	5	1	7
	0.0%	14.3%	71.4%	14.3%	100.0%
10+ rooms	1593	8764	5352	1422	17131
	9.3%	51.2%	31.2%	8.3%	100.0%
Total	1593	8913	5490	1458	17454
	9.1%	51.1%	31.5%	8.4%	100.0%
	Age group 2001				
1 room	4	2172	892	44	3112
	0.1%	69.8%	28.7%	1.4%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	3	1833	939	91	2866
	0.1%	64.0%	32.8%	3.2%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	1	856	469	83	1409
	0.1%	60.8%	33.3%	5.9%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	0	241	191	29	461
	0.0%	52.3%	41.4%	6.3%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	0	74	68	10	152
	0.0%	48.7%	44.7%	6.6%	100.0%
10+ rooms	3836	16847	3381	316	24380
	15.7%	69.1%	13.9%	1.3%	100.0%
Total	3844	22023	5940	573	32380
	11.9%	68.0%	18.3%	1.8%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.7.2 Distribution of housing size by marital status

According to Grinstein-Weiss (2011), unmarried African female migrants in South Africa are less likely to own houses as compared to married females. They are rather more likely to rent houses. The findings in Table 4.20 indicate that in 2001, 50.4% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 1 room houses were unmarried, followed by 28.8% who were married. The table also show that 36.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across housing with 2-3 rooms were married, followed by 35.6% who were unmarried.

Moreover, the findings show that 26.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 4-5 rooms were married, followed by 23.2% of those who were unmarried. (41.2%) of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 6-7 room houses were married followed by 29.4% who were widowed. The findings also show that 42.9% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across 8-9 room housing were evenly distributed between being married and widowed, followed by 14.3% of those who were unmarried.

Furthermore, the findings reveal that 48.4% of the African females who were largely distributed across houses with 10 and more rooms were unmarried, followed by 40.3% who were married. The findings also reveal that in 2011, 67% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing with one room houses were unmarried, followed by 23.7% of the African female migrants who were married. Moreover, 62.4% African females in South Africa who were largely distributed across 2-3 room houses were unmarried, followed by 25.8% of those who were married.

Looking at 4-5 room houses, 55.5% African female migrants who were largely distributed across housing with 4-5 rooms were unmarried, followed by 29% of those who were married. Moreover, 49% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across 6-7 room houses were unmarried, followed by 33.8% of those who were married. The table also shows that 46.7% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across 8-9 room houses were unmarried, followed by 42.9% of those who were married.

The findings continue to show that 60.3% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 10 rooms or more were unmarried, followed by 37.9% who were married. The findings indicate that married African female migrants in South Africa were more likely to live in houses with a lot of rooms than those with other types of

marital statuses in 2001. This is driven by the fact that most of these females are not living alone as they live with their families. This poses a significant increase in the disposable income which then makes it easier to afford a much bigger housing size. Unmarried African female migrants are mostly distributed across 1 room houses in 2001 and they were dominant in houses with more than 1 room in 2011. This is because of the gradual increase in the feminization of migration from 2001 to 2011. However, another reason could be that these unmarried African female migrants are living with people who are employed and who have enough income to afford houses of this size.

In addition, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between housing size and marital status. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing size and marital status. To measure the strength of the association between housing size and marital status, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a weak relationship between the variables.

Table 4.20: Housing size by marital status

Variable	Marital status 2001					
Housing size	Married	Not Married	Divorce	Separated	Widowed	Total
1 room	40	70	3	7	19	139
	28.8%	50.4%	2.2%	5.0%	13.7%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	38	37	8	7	14	104
	36.5%	35.6%	7.7%	6.7%	13.5%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	15	13	7	3	18	56
	26.8%	23.2%	12.5%	5.4%	32.1%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	7	3	2	0	5	17
	41.2%	17.6%	11.8%	0.0%	29.4%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	3	1	0	0	3	7
	42.9%	14.3%	0.0%	0.0%	42.9%	100.0%
10+ rooms	6926	8284	506	217	1198	17131
	40.4%	48.4%	3.0%	1.3%	7.0%	100.0%
Total	7029	8408	526	234	1257	17454
	40.3%	48.2%	3.0%	1.3%	7.2%	100.0%
	Marital status 2011					
1 room	737	2084	68	53	170	3112
	23.7%	67.0%	2.2%	1.7%	5.5%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	740	1788	71	61	206	2866
	25.8%	62.4%	2.5%	2.1%	7.2%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	408	782	42	45	132	1409
	29.0%	55.5%	3.0%	3.2%	9.4%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	156	226	17	14	48	461
	33.8%	49.0%	3.7%	3.0%	10.4%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	50	71	8	2	21	152
	32.9%	46.7%	5.3%	1.3%	13.8%	100.0%
10+ rooms	9233	14690	97	82	278	24380
	37.9%	60.3%	0.4%	0.3%	1.1%	100.0%
Total	11324	19641	303	257	855	32380
	35.0%	60.7%	0.9%	0.8%	2.6%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.7.3 Distribution of housing size by the highest level of education

According to Todes (2012), individuals who have completed secondary and tertiary education are likely to get employment and they are somehow prone to ownership of formal and family orientated housing that is in safe and secure environments in areas of destination. The findings in Table 4.21 indicate that 51.8% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across the houses with 1 room had completed their secondary education, followed by 28.1%who completed their primary education. The table also shows that 34.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 2–3 room houses had no education, followed by 30.8% who had completed their primary education.

The findings continue to show that 50% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 4-5 room houses had completed their secondary education, followed by 21.4% who had completed their tertiary education. Moreover, the findings indicate that 47.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 6-7 room houses had completed their secondary education, followed by 17.6% of the African female migrants who had completed primary education, tertiary education and who had no education. The findings also indicate that 57.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 8-9 room houses had completed their tertiary education, followed by 28.6% who had completed their secondary education.

The findings also show that 42.3% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 10 or more rooms had completed their secondary education, followed by 24% who had completed their primary education. The findings also indicate that in 2011, 68.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 1 room houses had completed their secondary education, followed by 20.1% who had completed their primary education.

Looking at 2-3 room houses, 62% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 2-3 room houses had completed their secondary education, followed by 19.2% who had completed their secondary education. The findings also reveal that 58.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across 4-5 room houses had completed their secondary education, followed by 16.3% who have completed their tertiary education. Moreover, the findings reveal that 58.1% of the African female migrants in

South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 6-7 rooms had completed their secondary education, followed by 18.3% who had completed their primary education.

Looking at houses with 8-9 rooms, the findings indicate that 66.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who had completed their secondary education were largely distributed across 8-9 room houses, followed by 14.6% of those who had completed their tertiary education. Moreover, the findings show that 63% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were distributed across houses with 10 or more rooms had completed their secondary education, followed by 21.2% who had completed their primary education. Usual assumptions suggest that educated people are likely to own houses with many rooms.

However, the study has proved that this is not the case. African female migrants were less distributed across housing with many rooms. This is because many of them have migrated individually, they are not married and they are securing economic stability for a better future when they return to their respective countries of birth. Many African females, who are living in houses with numerous rooms, either had no education or had low education; they were married or probably living with people who can afford the house as they are less likely to be employed.

Furthermore, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between housing size and the highest level of education. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing size and the highest level of education. To measure the strength of the association between housing size and the highest level of education, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a weak relationship between the variables.

Table 4.21: Housing size by the highest level of education

Variable	Education 2001					
Housing size	**No education**	**Primary education**	**Secondary education**	**Tertiary education**	**Other**	**Total**
1 room	24	39	72	4		139
	17.3%	28.1%	51.8%	2.9%		100.0%
2-3 rooms	36	32	31	5		104
	34.6%	30.8%	29.8%	4.8%		100.0%
4-5 rooms	11	5	28	12		56
	19.6%	8.9%	50.0%	21.4%		100.0%
6-7 rooms	3	3	8	3		17
	17.6%	17.6%	47.1%	17.6%		100.0%
8-9 rooms	1	0	2	4		7
	14.3%	0.0%	28.6%	57.1%		100.0%
10+ rooms	4119	3999	7241	1772		17131
	24.0%	23.3%	42.3%	10.3%		100.0%
Total	4194	4078	7382	1800		17454
	24.0%	23.4%	42.3%	10.3%		100.0%
	Education 2011					
1 room	217	624	2132	122	11	3106
	7.0%	20.1%	68.6%	3.9%	0.4%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	318	550	1773	189	30	2860
	11.1%	19.2%	62.0%	6.6%	1.0%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	125	216	824	229	11	1405
	8.9%	15.4%	58.6%	16.3%	0.8%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	34	84	266	70	4	458
	7.4%	18.3%	58.1%	15.3%	0.9%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	13	13	101	22	2	151
	8.6%	8.6%	66.9%	14.6%	1.3%	100.0%
10+ rooms	1781	4699	13995	1571	158	22204
	8.0%	21.2%	63.0%	7.1%	0.7%	100.0%
Total	2488	6186	19091	2203	216	30184
	8.2%	20.5%	63.2%	7.3%	0.7%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.7.4 Distribution of housing size by the income category

According to Montoya (2002), the demand for housing the present day has injected an upward pressure on prices, and this has perpetuated a situation where price growth has outpaced income growth. The findings in Table 4.22 indicate that in 2001, 56.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across 1 room houses and they were earning no monthly income, followed by 41% who were earning low monthly income. The findings also indicate that 49% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across 2-3 room houses and they were earning no monthly income, followed by 42.3% who were earning low income. Moreover, 42.9% of the African female migrants were largely distributed across 4-5 room houses and they were earning a low income, followed by 28.6% of those who were earning a middle income.

The findings also indicate that 47.1% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across 6-7 room houses and they were earning a low income, followed by 35.3% of those who were earning no income. Moreover, 57.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were distributed across 8-9 room houses were earning a low income, followed by 28.6% who were earning a middle income. (60.1%) of the African female migrants who were largely distributed in houses with 10 rooms or more rooms were earning no income followed by 28.3% who were earning a low income. The findings also indicate that in 2011, 38.7% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across 1 room houses were earning a middle income, followed by 38.5% who were earning no income. Looking at 2-3 room houses, the findings on the table indicate that 39.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed across housing with 2-3 rooms were earning a middle income, followed by 35.6% who were earning no income. Looking at houses with 4-5 rooms, the findings indicate that 34.4% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 4-5 rooms were earning a middle income, followed by 30.5% who were earning no income.

The findings also indicate that 43.4% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 6-7 rooms were earning a middle income, followed by 26.5% who were earning no income. Moreover, 49.3% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed across 8-9 room houses were earning a middle income, followed by 22.4% of the African female migrants who were earning a high income. The findings also show that 59.6% of the African female migrants who were largely distributed in houses with 10 or more rooms were earning no income, followed by 18.7% who were earning a middle income.

The data indicates that many African females who were earning low incomes and middle incomes were mostly distributed in houses with a number of rooms. This is because many were earning enough to afford such houses. However, it is surprising for African female migrants with low/no income as they do not earn enough, if not at all. The logical assumption is that they are living with someone who earns enough to afford the house. Furthermore, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between housing size and the income category. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing size and the income category. To measure the strength of the association between housing size and the income category, the Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a moderate relationship between the variables.

Table 4.22: Housing size by the income category

Variable	Income category 2001				
Housing size	No income	Low income	Middle income	High income	Total
1 room	78	57	2	2	139
	56.1%	41.0%	1.4%	1.4%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	51	44	8	1	104
	49.0%	42.3%	7.7%	1.0%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	13	24	16	3	56
	23.2%	42.9%	28.6%	5.4%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	6	8	2	1	17
	35.3%	47.1%	11.8%	5.9%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	0	4	2	1	7
	0.0%	57.1%	28.6%	14.3%	100.0%
10+ rooms	10301	4855	1636	339	17131
	60.1%	28.3%	9.5%	2.0%	100.0%
Total	10449	4992	1666	347	17454
	59.9%	28.6%	9.5%	2.0%	100.0%
	Income category 2011				
1 room	1199	481	1205	227	3112
	38.5%	15.5%	38.7%	7.3%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	1021	422	1121	302	2866
	35.6%	14.7%	39.1%	10.5%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	430	171	485	323	1409
	30.5%	12.1%	34.4%	22.9%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	118	50	200	93	461
	25.6%	10.8%	43.4%	20.2%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	33	10	75	34	152
	21.7%	6.6%	49.3%	22.4%	100.0%
10+ rooms	14528	1779	4547	3526	24380
	59.6%	7.3%	18.7%	14.5%	100.0%
Total	17329	2913	7633	4505	32380
	53.5%	9.0%	23.6%	13.9%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.7.5 Distribution of housing size by the employment status

Housing acquisition is one of the major challenges in South Africa, according to Greenburg (2008). Housing access for migrants in South Africa is a challenge that has no quick answers and it becomes a lot more difficult if the person is unemployed. The status of unemployment forces many migrants to overpopulate the informal housing and informal settlements in South Africa. The findings in Table 4.23 indicate that in 2001, 34.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 1 room and were employed, followed by 33.1% who were not economically active. The findings also show that 37.5% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 2-3 room were not economically active, followed by 31.7% who were employed.

The findings also show that 42.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 4-5 room were employed, followed by 30.4% with other employment statuses. The findings continue to show that 52.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 6-7 room were employed, followed by 17.6% who were unemployed and 17.6% who were not economically active.

Moreover, the findings show that 71.4% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 8-9 rooms were employed, followed by 14.3% who were unemployed and who were not economically active. Furthermore, the findings also show that 34.3% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 10 or more rooms and they were not economically active, followed by 30% who were employed.

The findings also indicate that in 2011, 58.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in one room houses were employed, followed by 27.8% of those who were unemployed. The findings also show that 59.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were largely distributed across houses with 2-3 rooms were employed followed by 23.5% who were unemployed. Moreover, the findings indicate that 62.2% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were distributed across 4-5 room houses were employed, followed by 20.0% who were unemployed.

Looking at 6-7 room houses, the findings reveal that 52.9% of the African female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed in 6-7 room houses and they were employed, followed

by 18.2% who were not economically active. The findings also show that 70.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in houses with 8-9 rooms were employed, followed by 15.3% who were not economically active. The findings also reveal that 38.2% of the African female migrants who were distributed across houses with 10 or more rooms were employed, followed by 35.1% who were unemployed. The findings indicate an improvement in the employment status of African female migrants in South Africa.

The study results have shown that many African female migrants, who are living in houses with the most rooms, are employed. However, there is a fair share of not economically active African female migrants who were also living in such houses. This is because they might have been living with someone who can afford. A lot of the African female migrants who are living in 1 room houses are employed according to the findings and this could be because they just want shelter for as long as they are working, they have no interest of living in houses with a lot of rooms rather they are saving their income for when they return back home.

Moreover, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between housing size and employment status. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing size and the employment status. To measure the strength of the association between housing size and the employment status, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a moderate relationship between the variables.

Table 4.23: Housing size by the employment status

Variable	Employment status 2001				
Housing size	Employed	Unemployed	Not economically active	Other	Total
1 room	48	41	46	4	139
	34.5%	29.5%	33.1%	2.9%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	33	26	39	6	104
	31.7%	25.0%	37.5%	5.8%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	24	3	12	17	56
	42.9%	5.4%	21.4%	30.4%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	9	3	3	2	17
	52.9%	17.6%	17.6%	11.8%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	5	1	1	0	7
	71.4%	14.3%	14.3%	0.0%	100.0%
10+ rooms	5142	3507	5877	2605	17131
	30.0%	20.5%	34.3%	15.2%	100.0%
Total	5261	3581	5978	2634	17454
	30.1%	20.5%	34.3%	15.1%	100.0%
	Employment status 2011				
1 room	1805	857	417		3079
	58.6%	27.8%	13.5%		100.0%
2-3 rooms	1678	658	468		2804
	59.8%	23.5%	16.7%		100.0%
4-5 rooms	838	269	241		1348
	62.2%	20.0%	17.9%		100.0%
6-7 rooms	294	65	80		439
	67.0%	14.8%	18.2%		100.0%
8-9 rooms	102	20	22		144
	70.8%	13.9%	15.3%		100.0%
10+ rooms	7763	7127	5412		20302
	38.2%	35.1%	26.7%		100.0%
Total	12480	8996	6640		28116
	44.4%	32.0%	23.6%		100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.7.6 Distribution of housing size by the country of birth

Large average housing sizes are observed across much of Africa and the Middle East (UN, 2017). The findings in Table 4.24 indicate that in 2011, 41.0% of the African female migrants who were living in 1 room houses were from Lesotho, followed by 29.5% who were from Mozambique. The findings also show that 43.3% of the African female migrants who were living in 2-3 room houses were from Mozambique, followed by 22.1% who were from Lesotho.

Moreover, the findings indicate that 48.2% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 4-5 room houses were from Zimbabwe, followed by 21.4% from Namibia. Moreover, 35.3% of the African female migrants who were living in 6-7 room houses were from Lesotho and Zimbabwe, followed by 23.5% from Mozambique. The findings also indicate that 57.1% of the African female migrants who were living in 8-9 room houses were from Zimbabwe, followed by 28.6% from Mozambique. The findings show that 36.1% of the African female migrants who were living in houses with 10 rooms or more were from Mozambique, followed by 25.6% from Zimbabwe. The findings also indicate that in 2011, 59.2% of the Africa female migrants in South Africa who were living in 1 room houses were from Zimbabwe, followed by 20.5% who were from Lesotho.

The findings also indicate that 58.1% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 2-3 room houses were from Zimbabwe, followed by 21.7% who were from Mozambique. Moreover, the findings in the table show that 59.3% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 4-5 room houses were from Zimbabwe, followed by 21.6% who were from Lesotho. The findings continue and indicate that 53.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 6-7 room houses were from Zimbabwe followed by 28.6% from Lesotho.

The findings also indicate that 58.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa were living in 8-9 room houses were from Zimbabwe, followed by 26.3% who were from Lesotho. (60.2%) of the African female migrants who were living in 10 or more room houses were from Lesotho, followed by 24.5% were from Mozambique. African female migrants from Lesotho and Zimbabwe had occupied houses with several rooms in South Africa. In 2011, they were dominant in houses with 5 rooms or more. Some of the logical reasons behind such events or decisions could be the economic status of the country of origin.

Migrants move to other countries with the aim of improving their livelihoods and many African female migrants see it fit to settle in developing countries like South Africa because they stand an improved chance of achieving their personal goals and objectives. Moreover, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between housing size and country of birth. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing size and the country of birth. To measure the strength of the association between housing size and the country of birth, Phi and Cramer's V tests was used. The tests showed a weak relationship between the variables.

Table 4.24: Housing size by the country of birth

Variable	Country of birth 2001					
Housing size	Lesotho	Namibia	Botswana	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Total
1 room	57	13	3	25	41	139
	41.0%	9.4%	2.2%	18.0%	29.5%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	23	18	2	16	45	104
	22.1%	17.3%	1.9%	15.4%	43.3%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	7	12	0	27	10	56
	12.5%	21.4%	0.0%	48.2%	17.9%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	6	1	0	6	4	17
	35.3%	5.9%	0.0%	35.3%	23.5%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	1	0	0	4	2	7
	14.3%	0.0%	0.0%	57.1%	28.6%	100.0%
10+ rooms	4206	1821	537	4380	6187	17131
	24.6%	10.6%	3.1%	25.6%	36.1%	100.0%
Total	4300	1865	542	4458	6289	17454
	24.6%	10.7%	3.1%	25.5%	36.0%	100.0%
	Country of birth 2011					
1 room	638	3	14	1841	616	3112
	20.5%	0.1%	0.4%	59.2%	19.8%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	538	18	23	1666	621	2866
	18.8%	0.6%	0.8%	58.1%	21.7%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	304	27	20	836	222	1409
	21.6%	1.9%	1.4%	59.3%	15.8%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	132	7	6	248	68	461
	28.6%	1.5%	1.3%	53.8%	14.8%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	40	7	1	89	15	152
	26.3%	4.6%	0.7%	58.6%	9.9%	100.0%
10+ rooms	3432	126	177	14678	5967	24380
	14.1%	0.5%	0.7%	60.2%	24.5%	100.0%
Total	5084	188	241	19358	7509	32380
	15.7%	0.6%	0.7%	59.8%	23.2%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

4.7.7 Distribution of housing size by the year of movement

Housing plays a significant role in driving the growth of an economy. However, there has been persistence in decreasing the housing size and increasing the complexities of migration (Cohen, 2020). The findings in Table 4.25 indicate that 26.2% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in one room houses had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 18.4% who migrated in 2010.

The findings also indicate that 26.6% of the African female migrants who were living in 2-3 room houses in South Africa had migrated into the country in 2011, followed by 16.7% who had migrated in 2010. The findings further indicate that 32.5% African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 4-5 room houses had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 16.5% who had migrated in 2010. Moreover, the findings also reveal that 34.8% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 6-7 room houses had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 20.7% who migrated in 2010.

Furthermore, 30.6% of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in 8-9 room houses had migrated into South Africa in 2011, followed by 15.7% who had migrated in 2010. (29.0%) of the African female migrants in South Africa were living in houses with 10 rooms or more followed by 18.6% who had migrated in 2010. The findings indicate that many African female migrants in South Africa migrated into the country in 2010 and 2011 and this was because of improvements to include women/females in the migration policies over time, from 2001 to 2011.

However due to the increase in migration, the African female migrants are densely and largely distributed in one room houses; this is because of their affordability as there is not enough employment and income. Furthermore, the statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between housing size and the year of movement. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.00 < 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between housing size and the year of movement. To measure the strength of the association between housing size and the year of movement, Phi and Cramer's V tests were used. The tests showed a weak relationship between the variables.

Table 4.25: Housing size by the year of movement

Variable	Year of Movement 2001-2011											
Housing size	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**Total**
1 room	46	54	68	99	116	170	239	318	359	488	695	2652
	1.7%	2.0%	2.6%	3.7%	4.4%	6.4%	9.0%	12.0%	13.5%	18.4%	26.2%	100.0%
2-3 rooms	23	56	70	84	112	132	218	304	318	388	618	2323
	1.0%	2.4%	3.0%	3.6%	4.8%	5.7%	9.4%	13.1%	13.7%	16.7%	26.6%	100.0%
4-5 rooms	24	22	24	40	45	52	93	114	159	186	366	1125
	2.1%	2.0%	2.1%	3.6%	4.0%	4.6%	8.3%	10.1%	14.1%	16.5%	32.5%	100.0%
6-7 rooms	7	5	8	8	16	17	21	39	40	75	126	362
	1.9%	1.4%	2.2%	2.2%	4.4%	4.7%	5.8%	10.8%	11.0%	20.7%	34.8%	100.0%
8-9 rooms	1	6	2	4	8	5	8	13	18	19	37	121
	0.8%	5.0%	1.7%	3.3%	6.6%	4.1%	6.6%	10.7%	14.9%	15.7%	30.6%	100.0%
10+ rooms	330	338	474	613	837	1253	1730	2519	3148	3998	6231	21471
	1.5%	1.6%	2.2%	2.9%	3.9%	5.8%	8.1%	11.7%	14.7%	18.6%	29.0%	100.0%
Total	431	481	646	848	1134	1629	2309	3307	4042	5154	8073	28054
	1.5%	1.7%	2.3%	3.0%	4.0%	5.8%	8.2%	11.8%	14.4%	18.4%	28.8%	100.0%

Source: Author's calculations from the 10% sample for both 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses

Table 4.26: Summary of exploration of relationships

Bivariate relationship	Variable of measurement	Test statistic-Value and significance 2001			Test statistic-Value and significance 2011		
		Chi-square	Phi	Cramer's V	Chi-square	Phi	Cramer's V
Housing type & age	Housing type	V=69.173 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.063 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.036 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=2152.979 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.258 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.149 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & marital status		V=175.449 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.100 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.058 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=1451.422 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.212 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.122 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & highest level of education		V=93.386 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.073 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.042 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=284.140 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.097 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.056 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & income category		V=110.872 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.80 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.046 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=1867.850 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.240 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.139 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & employment status		V=94.975 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.74 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.43 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=692.467 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.517 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.111 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & country of birth		V=125.609 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.085 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.049 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=596.836 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.136 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.078 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & year of movement		**Not Applicable**			V=89.990 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.057 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.033 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & housing size		V=19919.270 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=1.068 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.617 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=24885.903 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.877 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.506 P=0.000 P<0.05
		Test statistic-Value and significance 2001			**Test statistic-Value and significance 2011**		
Housing type & age	Housing tenure status	V=73.579 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.376 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.217 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=642.199 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.282 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=1.63 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & marital status		V=57.821 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.333 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.167 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=192.812 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.154 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.077 P=0.000 P<0.05

Housing type & highest level of education		V=119.490 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.479 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.277 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=708.738 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.296 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.148 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & income category		V=54.860 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.325 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.188 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=338.275 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.204 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.118 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & employment status		V=110.156 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.4600.266 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.266 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=146.774 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.136 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.096 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & country of birth		V=123.917 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.488 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.244 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=818.578 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.318 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.159 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & year of movement		**Not Applicable**			V=73.619 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.105 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.053 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & housing size		V=632.168 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=1.103 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.551 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=890.902 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.332 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.166 P=0.000 P<0.05
		Test statistic-Value and significance 2001			**Test statistic-Value and significance 2011**		
Housing type & age	Housing size	V=117.920 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.082 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.047 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=2697.242 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.289 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.167 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & marital status		V=184.394 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.103 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.051 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=1868.167 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.240 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.120 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & highest level of education		V=60.133 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.59 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.034 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=365.727 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.110 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.055 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & income category		V=88.264 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.071 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.041 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=2317.410 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.268 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.154 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & employment status		V=58.902 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.058 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.034 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=1188.888 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.206 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.145 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & country of birth		V=66.115 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.062 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.031 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=416.469 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.113 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.057 P=0.000 P<0.05
Housing type & year of movement		**Not Applicable**			V=416.469 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.113 P=0.000 P<0.05	V=0.057 P=0.000 P<0.05

Source: Author's own calculations from 10% of the 2001 and 2011 Census data

4.7.8 Factors contributing to access of formal housing in 2001

Table 4.27 below show that an omnibus test of model co efficient was significant with p=0.00<0.05 and -2 log likelihood revealed that the model fits the data, the Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated that p=0.106 > 0.05 and this means that the test was significant and also serves as a confirmation that the model perfectly fits the data. Looking at the influence of marital status on the likelihood of living in a formal house, the findings revealed that married and not married African female migrant had increased chances of living in formal housing by 5.776 and 3.065 times higher than the widowed African female migrants. Furthermore, the findings also reveal that African female migrants with no education had increased chances of living in formal housing by 1.959 times higher than African female migrants with secondary education.

Living with no income is cumbersome, as it limits affordability and deprives accessibility. Interestingly, the findings reveal that African female migrants in South Africa who earn no income have an increased likelihood to live in a formal house by 2.796 times higher than the African female migrants who earn high monthly income. This are very surprising result because according to Charlton (2004), migrants who earn high income can fortunately live in formal housing upon their arrival in the area of destination unlike migrants who depend on no source of income, their likely to live in traditional housing. Being unemployed African female migrants have increased chances of living in a formal house by 3.384 times higher than the not economically active African female migrant. Looking at the influence of country of birth on the formal housing, African female migrants from Mozambique were the most likely to live in formal housing with a 0.525 likelihood of living in rented housing.

4.7.9 Factors contributing to access of formal housing in 2011

In accordance to Table 4.27, the motive of the study is to highlight and explain the variables that determine the possibilities of African female migrants in South Africa staying in formal housing in 2011. The omnibus test of model coefficients was statistically significant with p= 0.00 <0.05. In addition, the model summary has indicated that the model fits the data with -2 Log likelihood with p= 0.105 >0.05. Moreover, the Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicate that p=0.031< 0.05 and this shows that the data perfectly fits the model. Looking at the variables which were significant in 2011, the findings of the study reveal that age increases the chances of staying in formal housing by African female migrants in South Africa. The

results indicate that being children female migrants have an increased likelihood of staying in formal housing by 3.703 times higher than the elderly African female migrants in South Africa who are not living in formal housing and the youth also have increased chances of living in formal housing by 1.857 times higher than the elderly African female migrants in South Africa.

The results continue and show that marital status was one of the factors that influence the acquisition of formal housing by African female migrants in South Africa in 2011. It revealed an increment in the likelihood of married and not married African female migrants to live in formal housing in South Africa by 3.730 and 1.857 times higher than the widowed African female migrants in South Africa respectively. This is because majority of the African female migrants in South Africa are either married or unmarried. Furthermore, the findings indicate that education is one of the factors that can determine the African female migrants in South Africa's likelihood of staying in formal housing.

Income category is one of the factors that can determine the likelihood of an African female migrant to stay in formal housing. The findings interestingly show that African female migrants with no income have an increased likelihood of living in a formal house by 1.274 times higher than African female migrants in South Africa with high income. Fiscally, it is exceedingly unlikely for someone to live in a formal house while earning no money; nonetheless, the reason is logically set to be a social structure issue; African female migrants must be living with someone who can afford formal housing in South Africa.

The findings have also revealed that African female migrants who earn low monthly income in South Africa have a decreased chance of living in a formal house by 0.606 times lower than the likelihood of females who were earning high monthly income in 2011. Another surprising result showed that employed African female migrants had a decreased likelihood of living in formal housing by 0.721 times lesser than African female migrants in South Africa who were not economically active. African female migrants from Lesotho and Botswana had a decreased likelihood of living in Formal housing by 0.742 and 0.87 times lower than African female migrants from Mozambique.

Table 4.27: Logistic regression output on access to housing type in South Africa

2001							2011					
Variable	**B**	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**	**B**	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**
Age group			2.142	3	.544				211.208	2	0.000	
Children	15.777	998.602	.000	1	.987	7113290.993	1.316	0.267	24.270	1	0.000	3.730
Youth	-.805	.632	1.619	1	.203	.447	0.619	0.268	5.343	1	0.021	1.857
Elderly@	-.888	.617	2.073	1	.150	.411						
Marital status			47.378	4	.000				230.102	4	0.000	
Married	1.754	.279	39.411	1	.000	5.776	1.072	0.105	103.580	1	0.000	2.920
Not married	1.120	.292	14.684	1	.000	3.065	0.592	0.104	32.468	1	0.000	1.807
Divorced	.395	.340	1.347	1	.246	1.484	0136	0.168	0.653	1	0.419	0.873
Widowed@	.461	.555	.691	1	.406	1.586	0.109	0.186	0.340	1	0.560	0.897
Education			3.750	3	.290				4.264	4	0.371	
No education	.672	.380	3.129	1	.077	1.959	0.047	0.232	0.041	1	0.840	1.048
Primary	.360	.331	1.185	1	.276	1.433	0.177	0.220	0.644	1	0.422	1.193
secondary@	.116	.240	.232	1	.630	1.123	0.201	0.214	0.886	1	0.347	1.223
Income category			13.502	3	.004				165.833	3	0.000	
No income	1.028	.508	4.090	1	.043	2.796	0.242	0.081	8.981	1	0.003	1.274
Low income	-.025	.433	.003	1	.954	.976	-	0.086	34.122	1	0.000	0.606
High income@	.124	.433	.082	1	.775	1.132	0.501	0.072	67.216	1	0.000	0.553
							-					
							0.593					
Employment status			3.430	3	.330				24.293	2	0.000	
Employed	.945	.656	2.071	1	.150	2.572	-	0.073	20.131	1	0.000	0.721
Unemployed	1.219	.695	3.077	1	.079	3.384	0.327	0.069	0.202	1	0.653	0.970
Not economically active@	.814	.624	1.701	1	.192	2.257	- 0.031					
Country of birth			7.826	4	.098				18.914	3	0.000	
Lesotho	-.347	.284	1.491	1	.222	.707	-	0.074	16.387	1	0.000	0.742
Namibia	-.336	.346	.943	1	.331	.714	0.298	0.283	0.58	1	444	1.242
Botswana	.680	.746	.830	1	.362	1.973	0.217	0.064	4.190	1	0.041	0.87
Mozambique@	-.645	.289	4.980	1	.026	.525	- 0.131					
Constant	3.087	.555	30.973	1	.000	21.919	.165	.291	.321	1	.571	1.179

NB: The last category is the reference with @

Source: Author's own calculations from 10% of the 2001 and 2011 Census data

4.7.10 Factors contributing to staying in rented housing in 2001

The main factors influencing the likelihood of African female migrants in South Africa to live in rented housing were identified using the logistic regression. The omnibus model coefficients show that p=0.000, and the model summary indicates -2 Log likelihood, and Hosmer Lemeshow test shows a p=0.000<0.05, which indicates that the model fits data.

Looking at the variables in Table 4.28 in 2001, age group was found to be significant. This implies that African youth female migrants in South Africa had decreased chances of staying in rented housing by 0.701 times lower than the African female migrants in their elderly years. Marital status was also seen to positively influence the likelihood of African female migrants to live in rented housing. The results have indicated that married African female migrants have an increased likelihood of staying in a rented house by 1.247 times more than the African female migrants who are widowed. African female migrants who were not married had decreased chances of living in rented housing by 0.875 times lower than the widowed African female migrants.

Divorced African female migrants also had a decreased chance of living in a rented house by 0.749 times lower than the widowed African female migrants. According to Bonnet *et al.*, (2010), this is possibly because of the fact that a passing of a spouse can drastically affect the standard of living in a household, sometimes resulting into a downsize (from owning to renting), all as a result of a change in the household income. Bonnet *et al.*, (2010) further states that, the housing consumption presents economies of scale that are lost when a partner dies. The option thereof in such a situation is to live in rented housing. This is mostly perpetuated by the dependence of females on males, mostly financial dependence.

Moreover, the findings of the study revealed that education has a significant relationship with renting a place to stay. A direct correlation between age and housing tenure status is that educated individuals are more likely to afford and own housing (Duba, 2020). The results of the study indicate that African female migrants with no education have an increased likelihood of staying in rented housing by 4.998 times higher more than African female migrants who have completed their tertiary education in South Africa. The findings also indicate that African female migrants in South Africa who have completed their primary education have an increased likelihood of staying in a rented housing by 2.950 times higher than African female migrants in who had completed their tertiary education.

The findings have also shown that country of birth has a significant relationship with rented housing and the results have indicated that African female migrants from Lesotho has decreased chances of staying in rented housing by 0.405 times lower than the African female migrants from Zimbabwe. The findings have also revealed that African female migrants from Namibia has increased chances of staying in rented housing by 2.537 times higher than African female migrants from Zimbabwe possibly because female migrants from Namibia migrate for a short time with no intention to stay and look for a long term accommodation. Another reason according to SADC (2019) is that migration from countries such as Botswana, Namibia, Eswatini, Lesotho and Zambia is driven by slow-onset disasters such as drought.

4.7.11 Factors contributing to access of rented housing in 2011

Looking at the likelihood of the African female migrants in South Africa to stay in rented housing in Table 4.28, the model summary indicated -2 log likelihood, the omnibus test of model coefficients was significant at p=0.000< 0.05 and a Hosmer and Lemeshow of p=0.002<0.05, which means the model fits the data. The findings reveal that in 2011 there were fewer factors contributing to staying in rented housing. Nonetheless, age is one of the factors that play an important role in the influence of African female migrants staying in rented housing.

The findings indicate that children African female migrants (aged 0-14 years) in South Africa have increased chances of living in a rented house by 2.011 times higher than the elderly African female migrants in South Africa. Marital status has also proven to have a significant relationship with staying in rented housing. The results indicate that married and not married African female migrants in South Africa have increased chances of staying in rented housing by 3.143 and 1.533 higher than the widowed African female migrants in South Africa respectively.

Level of education showed to be another variable that influence the African female migrant's likelihood of living in rented housing. The results show that African female migrants with no education and those with primary education has increased chances of staying in rented housing by 2.232 and 1.405 times more than African female migrants who have completed their tertiary education. This is driven by the fact that these African female migrants are living with individuals who are employed, who earn enough income to allow them to afford rented housing. Some of these migrants are working as street vendors. They sell sweets, snacks,

cigarettes, grilled chicken gizzards, grilled corn, fruits and vegetables from their home gardens in the streets and the income that they make enables them to afford rented housing.

Looking at income category, the findings show that income category has a positive influence on the likelihood of African female migrants to stay in rented housing. The findings continue and indicate that the African female migrants who earn no income have increased chances of staying in rented housing by 1.363 time higher than those who earn high monthly income while African female migrants who were earning low income had a decreased likelihood of staying in rented housing by 0.811 times lower than those who were earning high income.

According to ILO (2020), many female migrants experience double discrimination in their countries of destination. They get paid less than the male migrants and they get paid less than the females of the country of their destination. This is very hard for African female migrants because in South Africa they also experience discrimination in their neighbourhood and this puts their safety and security under threat. This largely influences their decision-making, regarding housing. A vast majority of the female migrants would prefer to live in owned but not fully paid off housing in South Africa which they call the bond houses/rent-to-buy houses. These types of houses are usually in the safest environments where the safety and security of migrants are not at risk.

The employment status was also found to be significant. The findings indicated than employed and unemployed African female migrants in South Africa had decreased chances of staying in rented housing by 0.662 and 0.853 times lower (respectively) than African female migrants who were not economically active. Country of birth showed to be another variable that has a significant relationship with staying in rented housing. The findings indicate that African female migrants who are from Lesotho and Namibia and Botswana have less chance of living in rented housing by 0.819 and 0.485, and 0.623 times lower than those from Mozambique

Table 4.28: Logistic regression output on access to housing tenure status in South Africa

Census 2001							Census 2011					
Variable	**B**	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**	**B**	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**
Age group			41.312	3	.000				89.000	2	.000	
Children	.443	.416	1.132	1	.287	1.557	.698	.272	6.582	1	.010	2.011
Youth@	-.356	.107	10.968	1	.001	.701	.289	.273	1.117	1	.291	1.335
Elderly@	-.088	.104	.731	1	.393	.915						
Marital status			67.336	4	.000				465.982	4	.000	
Married	.221	.068	10.620	1	.001	1.247	1.145	.100	129.959	1	.000	3.143
Not married	-.134	.064	4.321	1	.038	.875	.427	.099	18.614	1	.000	1.533
Divorced	-.289	.089	10.604	1	.001	.749	.038	.162	.056	1	.813	1.039
Widowed@	-.131	.121	1.176	1	.278	.877	-.268	.174	2.371	1	.124	.765
Education			680.730	3	.000				86.538	4	.000	
None	1.609	.085	359.217	1	.000	4.998	.803	.200	16.079	1	.000	2.232
Primary	1.082	.078	190.152	1	.000	2.950	.340	.185	3.379	1	.066	1.405
Secondary	.296	.068	18.902	1	.000	1.345	.143	.180	.627	1	.429	1.154
Tertiary @							-.101	.188	.289	1	.591	.904
Income category			27.237	3	.000				72.866	3	.000	
No income	.184	.191	.927	1	.336	1.202	.310	.061	25.985	1	.000	1.363
Low income	.049	.182	.074	1	.786	1.051	-.210	.069	9.231	1	.002	.811
High income@	-.275	.185	2.210	1	.137	.759	-.105	.057	3.378	1	.066	.901
Employment status			29.743	3	.000				50.086	2	.000	
Employed	-.175	.119	2.153	1	.142	.840	-.413	.059	49.796	1	.000	.662
Unemployed	.158	.120	1.739	1	.187	1.172	-.159	.052	9.178	1	.002	.853
Not economically active@	.172	.108	2.524	1	.112	1.188						
Country of birth			27.484	5	.000				93.863	3	.000	
Lesotho	-.904	.217	17.280	1	.000	.405	-.200	.065	9.394	1	.002	.819
Namibia	.931	.453	4.220	1	.040	2.537	-.724	.184	15.454	1	.000	.485
Botswana	-.271	.892	.092	1	.761	.762	-.473	.054	77.110	1	.000	.623
Zimbabwe	-.572	.236	5.847	1	.016	.565						
Mozambique@												
Constant	2.095	.019	12006.149	1	.000	8.123	1.021	.287	12.693	1	.000	2.775

NB: The last category is the reference with @

Source: Author's own calculations from 10% of the 2001 and 2011 Census data

4.7.12 Factors contributing to access of housing of one room among African female migrants in 2001

In this study, housing size was one factor used to identify housing acquisition by African female migrants in South Africa. The Hosmer Lemeshow test showed that the test was significant with p=0.901>0.05 and the omnibus test of model coefficients showed that the test was statistically significant, with p=0.000<0.05, which confirms that the model fits the data perfectly.

The results show that African female migrants in their youth years had a decreased likelihood of living in 1 room housing in South Africa by 0.155 times lower than African female migrants in their elderly years. Marital status is another contributing factor that plays a significant role in influencing the chances of the African female migrants living in a 1 room house in South Africa. The results show that married, not married and divorced African female migrants in South Africa all have increased chances of living in a 1 room house by 4.440, 3.085 and 3.364 times higher than the widowed African female migrants in South Africa. Arguably, these are surprising results because African female migrants who are married are likely to be living in a household of more than 2 people, unless if they have left other family members at home. Even at that, most of them are likely to get employed, this is driven by the fact that these are individuals who are highly employable and they are likely to afford and live in formal housing with more than 1 room.

Akileswaran and Lurie (2010) state that most African female migrants leave their marriages to come and search for a better secure economic stability. They live in informal housing upon their arrival in the area of destination and usually they live in 1 room houses, with reference made by female migration from Lesotho to South Africa, particularly in the North West Province. The findings continue to show that African female migrants in South Africa with primary education had decreased chances of living in 1 room housing by 0.319 times less than African female migrants with tertiary education. This could be perpetuated by the amount of discrimination that the African female migrants receive in South Africa, including being exploited by cheap labour and the fact that most of the African female migrants with tertiary education in South Africa are undocumented. They get exploited because if they attempt at complaining, they get threatened to be taken to the authorities for deportation (Weeks, 2015).

As suggested by Duba (2020); Ngum (2011), migrants with advanced education have the means to afford houses with more than 1 room housing and also, they might be more aware than those with low education levels of the necessity of a house with more than 1 room. The country of birth was also identified to be significant. The findings indicated a decreased likelihood of living in a 1 room house from African female migrants from Lesotho by 0.541 times lesser than those who were from Mozambique.

4.7.13 Factors contributing to access of housing of one room among African female migrants in 2011

Looking at the likelihood of living in a 1 room house by African female migrants in South Africa in Table 4.29, the model summary indicated -2 log likelihood and a Hosmer and Lemeshow of $p=0.196>0.05$, the omnibus test of model coefficients was significant at $p=0.000<0.05$, which means the model fits the data. The findings reveal that there are more factors contributing to the housing size in 2011 as compared to in 2001. Nonetheless, age is one of the factors that plays an important role in the acquisition of housing in South Africa.

The findings indicate that African female migrants in their childhood in South Africa have an increased likelihood of living in a 1 room house by 43.936 times higher than those in their elderly years. Another variable that the study used to examine the likelihood of African female migrants to live in 1 room houses in South Africa is the marital status. The findings on the study indicate that there is a significant relationship between marital status and housing size. The results interestingly show that the married African female migrants in South Africa had an increased chance of living in a 1 room house in South Africa by 2.704 times higher than African female migrants who were widowed.

This is surprising because majority of the married individuals, especially in Africa have big families. This then does not make a 1 room house suitable, however. It is also believable due to the fact that currently in South Africa there is a huge employment problem and a huge gap in the income distribution which then makes it very difficult for individuals in the working class to afford houses with more than 5 rooms. The results also indicated that unmarried African female migrants in South Africa also have an increased chance of living in a 1 room house by 1.261 times higher than those who were widowed. This is because of the rapid increase of the female migration across the world as these females aim at securing job

opportunities and economic stability. They are living in small housing because they are not permanent residents of the country of destination. Most of them are even building houses in their countries of origin (Todes, 2012).

Education also showed a significant relationship with housing size and the findings indicated that being female migrants in South Africa with no education, primary education and secondary education, all haddecreased chances of living in a 1 room house by 0.470, 0.415, and 0.455 times lower, respectively than African female migrants with tertiary education. To some extent, these are surprising results because migrants with tertiary level education are highly employable and they earn enough to afford decent housing with more than 1 room. The income category was also found to be significant. The results reveal that being African female migrants earning no or low income decrease the chances of living in 1 room housing by 0.716 and 0.411 times lower than the African female migrants who were earning high income. This could be because those African female migrants with no or low income cannot afford even one room. They might be sharing or squatting somewhere.

The employment status was also seen to be significant in relation to the housing size. the results revealed that being unemployed African female migrants in South Africa decrease the chances of living in 1 room houses by 0.571 times lower than those who were not economically active. This is believed to be perpetuated by poverty and unemployment. Furthermore, the results have also revealed that being African female migrants from Lesotho and Botswana decreases the chances of living in 1 room houses by 0.825 and 0.875 times less than being a Mozambican female migrant in South Africa.

Table 4.29: Logistic regression output on access to housing size in South Africa

Census 2001							Census 2011					
Variable	**B**	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**	**B**	**S.E.**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(B)**
Age group			3.749	3	.290				84.255	3	.000	
Children	14.752	1000.135	.000	1	.988	2550903.071	3.783	.655	33.314	1	.000	43.936
Youth	-1.867	1.036	3.248	1	.072	.155	.060	.408	.022	1	.883	1.062
Elderly@	-1.666	1.027	2.628	1	.105	.189	-.337	.408	.680	1	.410	.714
Marital status			29.946	4	.000				280.279	4	.000	
Married	1.491	.311	22.924	1	.000	4.440	.995	.117	71.887	1	.000	2.704
Not married	1.126	.314	12.843	1	.000	3.085	.232	.114	4.119	1	.042	1.261
Divorced	1.213	.641	3.583	1	.058	3.364	-.136	.187	.530	1	.467	.873
Widowed@	-.019	.466	.002	1	.967	.981	-.106	.208	.257	1	.612	.900
Education			5.205	3	.157				37.099	4	.000	
None	-.805	.598	1.814	1	.178	.447	-.756	.342	4.879	1	.027	.470
Primary	-1.143	.568	4.046	1	.044	.319	-.880	.333	6.993	1	.008	.415
Secondary	-1.051	.543	3.748	1	.053	.349	-.788	.329	5.725	1	.017	.455
Tertiary@							-.243	.343	.503	1	.478	.784
Income category			1.496	3	.683				110.397	3	.000	
No income	-.057	1.147	.003	1	.960	.944	-.334	.091	13.619	1	.000	.716
Low income	-.170	1.142	.022	1	.882	.844	-.889	.096	85.247	1	.000	.411
High income@	.098	1.127	.008	1	.931	1.103	-.750	.086	76.317	1	.000	.472
Employment status			7.530	3	.057				57.134	3	.000	
Employed	.166	.800	.043	1	.835	1.181	.089	.507	.031	1	.861	1.093
Unemployed	-.159	.755	.044	1	.834	.853	-.549	.079	48.878	1	.000	.578
Not economically active@	1.737	1.009	2.967	1	.085	5.683	-.420	.069	37.328	1	.000	.657
Country of birth			9.235	4	.055				8.793	3	.032	
Lesotho	-.614	.234	6.870	1	.009	.541	-.192	.074	6.800	1	.009	.825
Namibia	-.517	.356	2.107	1	.147	.597	.281	.322	.764	1	.382	1.324
Botswana	-.010	.613	.000	1	.987	.990	-.133	.062	4.586	1	.032	.875
Mozambique@	-.107	.292	.135	1	.714	.898						
Constant	6.451	.990	42.497	1	.000	633.154	3.437	.435	62.470	1	.000	31.103

NB: The last category is the reference with @

***Source*: Author's own calculations from 10% of the 2001 and 2011 Census data**

CHAPTER 5: Discussion of the results

5.1 Introduction

This study sets out to examine the relationship between African female migrants and their acquisition of housing in South Africa. The emphasis is on how migrants' demographic, socio-economic, and migratory characteristics influence the acquisition of housing. This chapter gives a discussion on the findings in Chapter 4 to give an insight as to how the research questions were addressed and how the hypotheses were tested through the application of the research design. The discussions are organised to reveal the relationship between African female migration and acquisition of housing from a gender perspective. The study suggests that African female migrants' acquisition of housing varies from migrant to migrant based on their characteristics. For the purpose of comparison, the study used the data from both the 2001 Population Census and the 2011 Population Census which was requested from Statistics South Africa. The data was analysed using the SPSS software, version 27.

5.2 Reaffirming the problem and review of the methodology

A detailed discussion of the problem of this study occurred in Chapter 1 highlighting insufficient comprehensive research regarding the relationship between African female migration and acquisition of housing. Also noted was that there is little information on African female migration concerning their demographic, socio-economic and migratory characteristics. The study used the design and methodology drawn in Chapter 3. Lifetime migration was computed to determine the direction of migration using the country of birth and province of usual residence. The study used secondary data from the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses which was conducted by Statistics South Africa. The relationship between the dependent and independent variables was examined. The independent variables consisted of socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory variables. On the other hand, housing related variables were used as dependent variables in the analysis. For the preparation of the analysis, the data were conceptualised using SPSS software, version 27. After conceptualising the data, the analysis was carried out using univariate analysis to explore the data. Bivariate analysis by means of a Chi-square test statistic was used to test the relationship between the dependent and independent variables, while multivariate analysis by means of logistic regression was used to highlight factors contributing to housing acquisition. In this regard, the dependent variables were dichotomised.

5.3 Distribution and composition of African female migrants in South Africa

There is a lack of information on migration and gender in South Africa. Comprehensible and reliable gender statistics are crucial for measuring and monitoring the realities of women's lives across the region (Stats SA, 2020). Chapter 4 starts by outlining the size and composition of African female migrants in South Africa from the 2001 Population Census and the 2011 Population Census. Demographic and socio-economic variables, such as age group, marital status, level of education, income category and employment status, country of birth and year of movement were examined. The analysis is in line with migration selectivity theory which claims that migration is not a homogenous practice but differs based on individuals' characteristics (Eigelaar-Meets, 2018).

The study found that the majority of African female migrants in South Africa were from Mozambique in 2001, while in 2011 the majority of the African female migrants were from Zimbabwe. These findings were supported by Mazars (2013) that Zimbabweans are the largest group of non-nationals residing in South Africa, and their number is estimated at two million, including both regular and irregular migrants. Botswana and Namibia had the least number of female migrants in South Africa. Previous studies explain this by looking at the migration history of South Africa, where African females were subjected to patriarchy and were perceived to be the child bearers and home groomers. The traditional pattern of migration within and from Africa, which has been male-dominated, is increasingly becoming feminised.

The findings show that the majority of Mozambican and Zimbabwean female migrants in South Africa were largely distributed in Gauteng Province. This corresponds to what Weeks (2015) stated that people from vulnerable countries are more likely to migrate to developed and developing countries. This vulnerability of the countries of origin is measured by the economic instability as well as the food stability in the country. Countries like Mozambique and Zimbabwe are still inferior in the food chain of the world economies. This has made these countries prone to neo-colonialism. It has resulted in a low currency, lack of food security, lack of safety and security and limited economic involvement in the global economies of trade, among others.

African female migrants from their countries of origin migrate to find comfort and improved stability in other countries. According to Duba (2020), these migrants migrate into provinces that are filled with many economic opportunities when they get into South Africa. These include the Gauteng Province, the Western Cape Province, Free State and the North West

Province. The rationale behind this is the characteristics that these African female migrants possess, and this can influence the type, the tenure and the size of the housing they stay in, in those areas. This further implies that there are variations in developments between these areas. Since the Gauteng and the Western Cape provinces are more economically developed than any other province in the country, this may be the reason for this migration direction. These provinces also have developed transport systems and infrastructure which include housing. The security and safety is also a prioritized matter by the respective local governments (Duba, 2020; Mbatha & Roodt, 2014).

Conforming to migration selectivity theory discussed in Chapter 2, the study reveals that a large number of African female migrants in South Africa, who come from African countries, are young people in their youth and adult years with small proportions of children and elderly people. This validates the notion that most females are participating in mobility and that these females are starting to settle in cities that can provide a handful of economic, social and political opportunities and freedom (Nsengiyumva, 2013).

African female migrants had limited chances to migrate into South Africa during the apartheid regime with the strict racial rules that were governing the country and the colonial setup in the African continent at that time. However, they found themselves free to move after the abolition of colonialism and apartheid in the twentieth century (Duba, 2020; Pillay, Tomlinson and Du Toit, 2006; Reed *et al.*, 2012). Mbatha and Roodt (2014), claim that one of South Africa's biggest socio-economic challenges is the high rate of unemployment from a lack of skills and education among its populace. The unemployment rate is believed to be highest among the youth and rural dwellers. However, the study found that most of the African female migrants in 2001 and 2011 were employed and earning incomes ranging from high to no income, the majority had attained secondary education, followed by those who had no education.

As suggested above, this confirms that migrants with education are more likely to be economically stable, employed and earning a middle/high income. They are also likely to stay in formal housing although the majority prefer rented housing. Moreover, according to Ndabeni (2014), education is one of the factors influencing the propensity of movement

because educated migrants have greater chances to explore. It is also evident from the findings that migration is selective based on age. It was found that young (15-35 years) and adult (36-55 years) migrants are more involved in migration undertakings than children and elderly people. Stats SA (2020) indicates that the youth have a tendency to migrate into South Africa

on an individual level. This is driven by the fact that they believe that they actually stand a better chance of success than the older family members.

They believe that with a chance of growing and learning about the culture and the opportunities of South Africa, a migrant child is likely to own and run a successful business in South Africa than an elder migrant. The findings in Table 4.1 indicate that there were few child African female migrants in South Africa. However, the number increased significantly in 2011. The migration consideration for this gender and cohort is very essential for the policies and the plans of development such as the Millennium Development goals and Sustainable Development goals which focus on women empowerment and children to a certain extent.

Migration of the elderly (61+ years old) is usually overlooked by many researchers and scholars and this in turn influence vulnerabilities and inequalities. The umbrella considerations for this cohort are also essential as strategies and plans of development also focus on the migration of the elderly woman migrants, especially the African female migrants. The findings in Table 4.1 showed that there was a decrease in the elderly African female migrants in South Africa from 2001 to 2011. This is because they are highly unemployable, unless if they accompany someone.

In line with the size and composition of African female migrants, the following hypothesis was formulated: The number of African female migrants has increased from 2001 to 2011. The results in Chapter Four confirmed this hypothesis. Table 4.2 revealed that migrants who were enumerated in 2011 exceeded migrants that were enumerated in 2001. This was persuaded by the constant developmental implementations that took place in South Africa between 2001 and 2011. The introduction of the Millennium Development goals in 2000 advocated for women empowerment across the SADAC region in Africa.

This contributed immensely to the feminization of migration in Africa and the general African female migration into South Africa together with the emergence of the Sustainable Development goals and the National Development Plan. These development strategies were developed as a national global plan that can assist in the poverty eradication in the developing and the underdeveloped countries (Stats SA, 2015).

5.4 Country of birth and African female migration in South Africa

This section attempts to answer the following research question: 'What are the top African countries that African female migrants in South Africa are likely to come from?' The purpose of this question was to determine which African countries contributed the biggest share of migrants to South Africa. The findings in Table 4.1 indicate that the majority of African countries were represented in the statistics of origin of migrants in both censuses.

In the 2001 census, the majority of the African female migrants in South Africa came from Mozambique, followed by those who came from Zimbabwe. Namibia and Botswana had the least populations of female migrants in South Africa. In 2011, Zimbabwe had the majority population of female migrants in South Africa, followed by Mozambique. Namibia and Botswana still contributed the least number of female migrants in South Africa. There are two possible factors which can explain this sharp increase.

Firstly, the introduction of the Zimbabwean Special Permits programme by the Department of Home Affairs (DHA) in 2010 could have aided the documentation of Zimbabwean immigrants in South Africa. The second factor could be more of a push factor driving people out of Zimbabwe in search for better opportunities. The deterioration of the Zimbabwean economy between 2001 and 2011 was likely to be the main reason why the proportion of Zimbabwean female migrants increased sharply between the two periods (Majikijela, 2015). Table 4.1 reveals an upward trend from 2001 to 2011 which means that despite these events taking place between the two periods, the number of African female migrants coming into the country increased. This outcome might have resulted in xenophobic attacks which caused many African immigrants losing their lives while others feared for their lives. These events might have also caused fear to potential African female migrants (Duba, 2020; Majikijela, 2015). Furthermore, between 2010 and 2011, the rate of female migrants moving to South Africa increased sharply as the majority came during the census year of 2011.

The findings confirmed that countries in southern Africa are still the main source of female migrants to South Africa, with the majority who came from Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Lesotho, both in 2001 and 2011. For both censuses, the majority of African female migrants came from the SADC region even though there were changes in those countries who were contributing female migrants to South Africa. In as much the results indicate a decrease in the proportion of migrants coming from the SADC region, however, it still remains the main area that contributes migrants to South Africa.

5.5. African female migrants and housing type

Another objective of this study was to examine the association between the African female migrants' socio-demographic and socio-economic, migratory characteristics and housing type in South Africa. The study first examined the situation of housing acquisition by African female migrants in South Africa. The findings show that African female migrants are more likely to access informal housing (shacks, shanties, caravans, tents, boats) than formal housing (house on separate stand, flat or town house, room in backyard) in South Africa.

When looking, particularly at access to housing type, African female migrants are likely to live in informal housing than formal housing in South Africa. This is influenced by both the socio-economic and the socio-demographic factors upon the African female migrants' arrival in South Africa. The findings also show that the majority of the African female migrants are likely to live in informal housing in South Africa because employment opportunities that come up for these African female migrants are mostly in the informal sectors where they earn low incomes.

5.5.1 Access to housing type by age

Age is central to any study of the migration process. Age is important when analysing the acquisition of housing by African female migrants in South Africa because it is one of the most influential factors that play a role in the decision to migrate or not (Brichall, 2016; Nsengiyumva, 2013). In the context of this study, the hypothesis is that, "There is a relationship between African female migrants' age and the acquisition of housing type in South Africa". The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is an association between African female migrants' age and access to housing type. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to measure the strength of this association. The results confirm a strong association for both 2001 and 2011. The results reveal that youth and adult migrants were more likely to access formal housing than children and elderly migrants.

The findings also revealed that the majority of the African female migrants moved to South Africa between 2010 and 2011. This can be explained by economic factors and political factors. Young people and adult migrants are participating more in the labour market which means they have limitations as to the type of formal housing they are able to afford. This is the reason African female migrants are distributed across informal areas and living in informal housing. African female migrants in their childhood years are likely to be living under someone else's roof who are in their youth, adult or elderly years and most who can afford formal housing.

Despite that, there are still other migrants who live in informal housing but are able to offer accommodation to these children. The migrant who is accommodating them is usually a family member or at least they are from the same area of origin as these African female migrants who are in their childhood years. This then agrees with Akileswarand and Lurie (2010) that youth and adult African female migrants in South Africa are concentrated in informal areas of South Africa and this is because of lack of education, low income, unemployment, working in the informal sector and the nature of their migration among other very influential factors.

5.5.2 The differentials of housing type by marital status

Marital status is also considered to be a very significant factor in the study of migration and access to housing (Charleton, 2004). In the context of this study, the hypothesis is that, "There is a relationship between African female migrants' marital status and the type of housing that they live in". A Chi-square statistical test was used to test if there is a relationship between housing type and marital status. The findings revealed that there is an association between African female migrants' marital status and the housing type that they live in, in South Africa. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were also used to measure the strength of this association. The results show a moderate association between marital status and housing type for both 2001 and 2011.

The results reveal that married and unmarried African female migrants were more likely to access formal housing than divorced and separated African female migrants. However, the findings also show that the majority of the married African female migrants were living in tradition housing only in 2001 and formal housing in 2011, while unmarried African female migrants in South Africa were mostly living in informal housing in 2001 and in 2011. Furthermore, according to Table 4.4, the findings indicate that in both 2001 and 2011 there were more widowed African female migrants in formal housing than divorced African female migrants. The reason might be that widowed African female migrants are accommodated by their male kin. Moreover, widowed African female migrants are more likely to benefit/inherit their husband's estates (including formal housing) than divorced African female migrants. Divorced African female migrants are likely to remain with inheritance from the divorced husband and it is not enough to afford formal housing in the areas of destination. They start from the beginning and they learn to fend for themselves. Many end up in the informal areas, earning enough to afford formal housing.

According to Kudo (2014), marriage has an enormous influence on female migration and the type of housing they live in. Several cultures in Africa, including South Africa, believe that once a woman is married, she has to migrate to the location of her husband in order for them to start or grow their family; this influenced the notion of a formal house for many families. However, there are still newly wedded families that live in traditional housing, especially in Africa. Only a limited percentage migrated internationally in the African continent and across the globe.

The findings also revealed that majority of the African female migrants migrated into South Africa between 2001 and 2011. This can be explained by the motivation of the African female towards economic independence and the implementation of development plans. According to Deborah Posel (2012), culture plays a huge role in the feminization of migration. Female migration, especially across Africa, is influenced by issues such as the oppression of a female child caused by patriarchal customs and values and the accessibility of education among others.

5.5.3 Access to housing type by level of education

One of the objectives of this study was to measure the relationship between the socio-demographic factors and the housing type that African female migrants in South Africa were likely to stay in. African female migrants' level of education was identified to be one of the important determining factors of the African female migrants' access to housing type in South Africa. Using a Chi-square statistical test, the study found an association between African female migrants' level of education and access to housing type in South Africa in both 2001 and 2011.

When looking at the strength of association, the Phi and Cramer's V tests show very strong association for housing type and the highest level of education in South Africa. This argument was supported by Duba (2020) and Ngobeni (2014) as they stated that education is one of the aspects that encourage the inclination of movement. Also, education may have an impact on access to services, including housing and opportunities in areas of destination. Migrants with secondary and tertiary education are more likely to have access to formal housing, as compared to those having no education or with just primary education. According to Nsengiyumva (2013), African female migrants with tertiary and secondary education are highly employable and majority of those who are employed earn enough income to afford basic needs such as housing.

This suggests that African female migrants with secondary and tertiary education are more likely to have skills that can enable them to have good jobs and ultimately being able to afford their preferred housing types than those with primary or no education. Surprisingly enough, the findings also suggest most of the African female migrants with no education could afford to live in formal housing. Possibly, they might be accommodated by others.

5.5.4 Access to housing type by employment status

The objective was to measure the relationship between socio-economic factors and housing type. The hypothesis, "Level of income and employment status is associated with African female migrants' acquisition of housing" was formulated. To confirm this, a Chi-square statistical test was employed to test the hypothesis.

In this section, the objective was to measure the relationship between employment status and the housing type that African female migrants in South Africa were likely to stay in. It is assumed that employed African female migrants in South Africa have a greater chance of accessing formal housing than those who are not economically active and unemployed. In this regard, data analysis was performed to examine whether African female migrants' employment status influences accessibility to housing type. The Chi-square test statistics confirmed that there was an association between the two variables in both 2001 and 2011. The strength of association was moderate in both 2001 and 2011.

Looking at access to housing type and employment status in South Africa in 2001 and 2011, Ndodana (2008) argues that there is a solid link between the standard of housing and poverty in South Africa. This means that the unemployed and those who are not economically active African female migrants are most likely to access low quality housing, while for employed migrants, access improved with good quality housing. However, the findings of this study prove otherwise as many of unemployed and not economically active African female migrants were staying in better quality housing than the majority of the employed African female migrants in South Africa in 2011.

These were very interesting results but they concur with Yust *et al.* (1997) that the not economically active African female migrants who live in formal housing are usually housewives and they have someone to take care of their needs, including housing.

5.5.5 Access to housing type by income

The objective was to measure the relationship between socio-economic factors and housing type. The hypothesis, "Level of income is associated with African female migrants' acquisition of housing" was formulated. To confirm this, a Chi-square statistical test was employed to test the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing type and African female migrants' income category. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be strong in both 2001 and 2011.

The study shows disparities in African female migrants' access to housing type based on their income category. This is supported by Pillay *et al.* (2002) and Duba (2020), who state that South Africa's economic realities have repercussions for people's access to scarce resources, such as access to housing and better quality housing. Surprisingly, the findings revealed further that African female migrants with middle and no income can also acquire formal housing. These results contradict with the findings of (Duba, 2020) and (Smith and Hanson, 2013) that household income is one of the core determinants of access to improved scarce resources.

Hence, the study indicates that African female migrants with high incomes are more likely to access formal housing. This means that African female migrants with high levels of income can afford to pay for a good quality house with many rooms as opposed to those with low or no income. As Nam and Son (2015) highlight that household bills constitute five percent of the monthly expenditure. This is the reason migrants with low or no income are more likely to stay in remote areas in informal settlements in low quality housing due to affordability.

5.6. The differentials in housing tenure status among African female migrants in 2001 and 2011

Another objective of this study was to examine the association between the African female migrants' socio-demographic and socio-economic characteristics and housing tenure status in South Africa. The findings show that African female migrants are more likely to stay in rented housing than owned and fully paid off housing in South Africa. This is influenced by both the socio-economic and the socio-demographic factors upon the African female migrants' arrival in South Africa with perpetuation from the selective characteristics that influenced the migration of these African females.

5.6. 1 African female migrants and housing tenure status by age

As stated above, age is a core variable when examining African female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa. According to Nsengiyumva (2013), age is among the few features that can pose an influence on the acquisition of housing. Age is a very significant variable that can have an influence on the housing tenure status of the African female migrants in South Africa. In this study, African female migrants in South Africa who are in their childhood years are examined. Child African female migrants have proved to migrate into South Africa, whether on their own or with their family members. Nsengiyumva (2013) have shown that there are presently children migration streams that accompany African female migrants who are their mothers and sisters.

The findings in Table 4.11 have shown that the majority of the child African female migrants were staying in housing that was occupied rent free followed by those who were staying in rented housing in 2001. However, this pattern changed in 2011. The majority of the child African female migrants were now staying in rented housing, followed by those who were living in housing that was occupied rent free. This is because the migration consideration of this gender and cohort is very essential since the policies and the plans of development such as the Millennium Development goal and Sustainable Development goal focus on women empowerment and children, to a certain extent, according to Brichall (2016). This means that occasionally, African female migrants are offered free accommodation in shelters upon arrival, or they are accommodated by friends and relatives in their areas of destination.

Moreover, based on the theory of selectivity, the number of the African female migrants in their childhood years increased significantly from 2001 to 2011 because South Africa had developed, rapidly, policies empowering children and women. This influenced the idea of migration because these African female migrants were likely to receive quality education and economic empowerment in this rapid developing country than in some of their countries of origin.

The findings also indicate that the majority of the African female migrants who were in their youth were staying in rented housing in both 2001 and 2011. According to Frazier and Tetty-fio (2006), the selectivity of their migration was based on numerous factors but the two most important factors were education and employment. Many of the African female youth migrants migrated into South Africa to find economic independence, economic liberalism and better-quality education. These helped them afford renting or owning a place to stay.

Some African female migrants, however, do not earn enough to afford buying and owning houses. They rather earn enough to rent housing in informal areas. Those who earn enough live in owned but not yet paid off housing or owned and fully paid off housing but they comprise a small proportion of migrants. However, only about 30% of the sampled population in 2001 and 2011 were living in housing that was occupied rent free.

Furthermore, Table 4.11 indicates that majority of the adult African female migrants in South Africa were staying in rented housing in both 2001 and 2011. According to Jolly and Reeves (2005), some African female migrants in their adult years migrate to escape social stigma and to avoid pressure to marry and to live with restricted freedom. Many settle for any opportunity in the country of destination and they often live from hand to mouth. This deprives them from affording assets such as housing and most of them are either renting or living in housing that they occupy for free.

The study shows further that the African female migrants who were in their elderly years were mostly populated in housing that is owned and fully paid off in 2001 and 2011. The reason might be because most of them are already financially secure, they often migrate for better quality healthcare, safety and security and better-quality education for their children/grandchildren. They are less likely to stay in rented housing unless they plan on returning to their country of origin.

In this section, the objective was to measure the relationship between age and housing tenure status of African female migrants. The hypothesis, "age is associated with housing tenure African female migrant is more likely to stay in" was formulated. To confirm this, a Chi-square statistical test was employed to test the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing tenure status and age of African female migrants. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be moderate in 2001, and it was strong in 2011.

5.6. 2 African female migrants and housing tenure status by marital status

Marital status is another core factor when examining the channel in which African female migrants access housing to stay in the areas of destination. In this section, marital status is utilized in outlining the differences in the housing tenure status of the African female migrants in South Africa. The objective was to measure the relationship between demographic factors and housing tenure status. The hypothesis, "marital status is associated with African female migrants' acquisition of housing" was formulated. To confirm this, a Chi-square statistical test

was employed to test the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing tenure status and African female migrants' marital status. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be weak in both 2001 and 2011. The findings in Table 4.12 indicate that majority of the married African female migrants in South Africa in 2001 were living in housing that was occupied rent free. Possibly, it was still possible to offer free accommodation to new arrival migrants who could not afford a roof over their heads.

In addition, it could be that African female migrants were working in informal sectors with meagre incomes which cannot allow them to afford renting or buying their own place to stay. The findings show that in 2011 the majority of the married African female migrants were staying in rented housing. Possibly because from 20021 to 2011, the situation was improving in the country, even African female migrants could be able to afford a place to stay own their own. In general, there was an increase in job opportunities. However, there was development in the health care system and the quality of education. Regardless of these developments, it was still a problem for the African female migrants to penetrate the labour force as it still favoured South African citizens.

The findings also show that unmarried and divorced African female migrants were largely distributed across rented housing in both 2001 and 2011, while those who were separated were evenly distributed across owned and fully paid off housing in 2001 and rented housing in 2011. The widowed African female migrants were largely distributed across owned and fully paid off housing in 2001 because the majority of them could inherit their late husband's estates and this would enable them to pay off their debts, including the housing bond, if any.

Akileswaran and Lurie (2010) further stresses that this depends on whether the husband was working before he passed on, the type of work he was doing, the kind of tax he was paying and if they had any savings. Inheritance plays a major role in housing because it has allowed many families to buy and own housing, depending on the proceeds of the estate.

5.6.3 The relationship between housing tenure status and level of education

According to Majikijela (2015), education in the labour market is used as a proxy to measure the skills of an individual and as a determinant of the capabilities of an individual to perform an assigned task. This means that education plays a very critical role as far as employability is concerned. This means that between 2001 and 2011, migration brought migrants of quality which is consistent with the framework of the Immigration Act of 2002 which focused on attracting skilled migrants. Irrespective of educational attainment, male African migrants employed in the formal sector were higher in proportion than their female counterparts.

The objective was to measure the relationship between socio-demographic characteristics and housing tenure status among African female migrants. The hypothesis, "Level of education is associated with housing tenure status of African female migrants" was formulated. To confirm this, a Chi-square statistical test was employed to test the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing tenure status and African female migrants' highest level of education. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be moderately strong in both 2001 and 2011.

Dodson (1998) states the majority of the African female migrants in South Africa have completed their secondary education. The motive of their migration was to ensure that they become better people to ensure that they build their respective careers. The findings in Table 4.13 indicate that African female migrants in South Africa with no education were largely distributed across occupied rent-free housing in 2001 and rented housing in 2011. According to these findings, the data show that there was an improvement in terms of accessing the accommodation among African female migrants who cross-borders into South Africa. This was due to the improvement of the South African economic and development in terms of infrastructure and improvement in terms of housing backlogs.

The findings further indicate that African female migrants with primary school were largely distributed in housing that was occupied rent free in 2001 and rented housing in 2011. This is because, generally, African female migrants with no education have less chances of being employed in the formal sector. They find to rent or buy a place to stay difficult. Moreover, they, therefore, opt to be accommodated by friends, relatives, or by the government in shelters. Furthermore, these African female migrants are considered as cheap labour because of their poor educational background (Dodson, 1998). Thus, they cannot afford to rent or to buy a house.

Majority of the African female migrants with secondary education were distributed across rented housing in both 2001 and 2011. This is a cohort that could enter the labour market. Some of them came into South Africa to further their education while others came for employment. However, some of them are still exploited because they are not citizens of South Africa and they also earn generally low wages. This means that they cannot afford to buy and to own houses and as a result they resort to renting (Tati, 2010). The findings also show that African female migrants with tertiary education were also largely distributed in rented housing in both 2001 and 2011. The results agree to the literature in saying that these African female migrants were highly employable in South Africa, especially within the health and education sectors (Majikijela, 2015). They can afford to live in owned and fully paid off housing but they rather settle for rented housing because they usually return back home to their countries of origin when they retire (Yust *et al.,* 1997).

5.6.4 Differentials in housing tenure status by income category

According to Mafikidze and Mbada (2008), African female migrants in South Africa earn little income; this however, is influenced by numerous factors including the nature of their migration, education attainment and the type of employment among others. According to Todes (2012), income has an influence on the standard of living of every individual in every country, including the migrants. In South Africa, African female migrants do not earn enough to afford all their basic needs, including housing. This is because of the nature of employment that majority of the African female migrants are exposed to. For example, street vending and domestic services cannot help an individual into affording housing, and hence, majority of the African female migrants find renting as a better option.

The objective in this section was to measure the relationship between demographic characteristics of African female migrants and housing tenure status. The hypothesis, "income category is associated with housing tenure of African female migrant" was formulated. To confirm this, Chi-square test statistic was employed to test the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing tenure status and African female migrants' income category. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be moderate in both 2001 and 2011.

The findings on Table 4.14 indicate that in 2001, majority of the African female migrants in South Africa were earning no income and they were largely distributed in housing that was occupied rent free, followed by those who were staying in rented housing. According to Stats

SA (2018), most of the African female migrants who migrated into South Africa between 1999 and 2005 were dependent on the head of household, most of who were men.

The findings also show that in 2011, African female migrants who were earning no monthly income were staying in housing that was owned and fully paid off. These findings were very interesting and surprising because this cohort of females cannot afford housing as they earn no profits. According to Yust *et al.* (1997), these females are likely to be housewives. They are not employed but they do house work, they raise children and grow their families, but financially they depend on their spouses.

The findings in Table 4.14 also show that majority of the African female migrants who were earning low incomes were largely distributed in housing that was owned and fully paid off in both 2001 and 2011. These African female migrants possibly buy housing in informal settlements due to their affordability. Another assumption is that some of them generally live with people who can afford to buy or own a house (Mafikidze and Mbada, 2008). The findings also revealed that African female migrants in South Africa who were earning a middle income were staying in owned but not yet paid off housing in 2001.

However, the findings from 2011 data set also revealed that this cohort of female was largely distributed across occupied rent free housing. According to Brichall (2016), these African female migrants are mostly employed in the government institutions, most of which according to Majikijela (2015) are within the education and the health departments. These migrants are entitled to the same benefits as the South Africa citizens, among which include subsidised housing. African female migrants who were earning high incomes were mostly staying in housing that was owned but not yet paid off in 2001 and 2011. These migrants can afford to buy housing and they often stay with others who earn low or no income. They pay bonds and they live in very safe and secure neighbourhoods.

5.6.5 Housing tenure status by employment status

According to (Dodson *et al.*, 2008), it is very difficult for female migrants to acquire employment in their area of destination, globally. This is the case for African female migrants in South Africa, where the economy of South Africa is driven by the mining industry and financial industry and has always been dominated by males to date. However, female migrants from African countries, especially from Zimbabwe are very much employable in the education and the health sectors in South Africa. Zimbabwean female migrants have attributes with very high educational status, and internationally, these females possess very marketable skills. Majority of the African female from countries like Lesotho and Mozambique are dominant in domestic services, trading, self-employment and informal sector production.

In this section, the objective was to measure the relationship between employment and housing tenure status. The hypothesis, "employment status is associated with housing tenure of African female migrants" was formulated. To confirm this, a Chi-square statistical test was employed to test the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing tenure status and African female migrants' employment status. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be strong in both 2001 and 2011.

The findings in Table 4.15 indicate that majority of the African female migrants in South Africa who were employed were living in rented housing in both 2001 and 2011. According to Gouws (2010), most of the African female migrants who are participating in the labour market can at least earn an income that allows them to rent housing in urban areas, unless they are paid middle or high incomes. The findings also indicate that African female migrants in South Africa who were unemployed were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free in 2001 and this is because the majority of these females were living in rural areas or are farm workers and some were living in shelters that had been offered by societal institutions such as churches or NGOs.

However, the data also surprisingly show that in 2011, the majority of the unemployed African female migrants were staying in owned and fully paid off housing. According to Akileswaran and Lurie (2010) and Yust *et al.* (1997), this is because they might have been living with someone who is financially secure to afford buying housing in South Africa. Moreover, the findings indicate that African female migrants in South Africa who were not economically active were largely distributed across housing that was occupied rent free. These African female migrants were offered free housing because of the nature of the job they are doing and

earn a decent income, or they join their friends or relatives who could accommodate them for free.

The findings also interestingly show that this cohort was largely staying in housing that was owned and fully paid off. Yust *et al*. (1997) believe that this is because of other socio-demographic issues such as marriage because according to African culture, people who are married are supposed to live together and share the same accommodation. In South Africa, sex work is not recognised as means of earning an income. However, some African female migrants use it to survive and rent a place to stay, especially in North West Province where female migrants from Lesotho live in Freedom Park informal settlement.

5.6.6 Distribution of housing tenure status by country of birth

According to Brichall (2016) and Majikijela (2015), South Africa experienced an influx of female migrants from neighbouring African countries, most of them who are part of the Southern African Development Committee (SADC). SADC is a regional economic community that is made of sixteen countries including Botswana, South Africa, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia and Zimbabwe, among others. According to Brichall (2016), SADC countries have the most population of African female migrants in South Africa and this is because of the push and the pull factors that are found in these countries with the economy and education being at the helm of everything.

One of the objectives of this study was to measure the relationship between country of birth and housing tenure status. The hypothesis formulated in this regard is that "country of birth is associated with housing tenure status African female migrants are more likely to stay in". In order to confirm this hypothesis, a Chi-square test statistic was used to measure the association. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing tenure status and African female migrants' country of birth. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be moderate in 2001.

The findings in Table 4.15 indicate that majority of African female migrants from Lesotho were likely to stay in rented housing in 2001 and owned and fully paid off housing in 2011. This is because many Basotho families have migrated significantly into South Africa between 2001 and 2011. The two countries share borders and many are now migrating to better their education and for business and employment opportunities.

The findings also show that the Namibian female migrants were largely distributed across occupied rent free housing in 2001 and owned and fully paid off housing in 2011. This is

because majority of the African female migrants from Namibia who were enumerated in South Africa in 2001, had low levels of education and struggled to find employment which made them resort to free housing such as shelters of the Department of Social Development, NGOs and religious shelters.

The findings further show that African female migrants from Zimbabwe were largely distributed across owned but not yet paid off housing in 2001, while in 2011, majority were renting. The reason might be that female migrants from Zimbabwe, as male migrants in general, come to South Africa with reasonable levels of education and skills needed in the areas of destination. The findings also show that African female migrants from Mozambique were largely distributed across owned and fully paid off housing in 2001 and occupied rent-free housing in 2011.

5.7. The differentials among African female migrants and housing size

Another objective of this study was to examine the association between the African female migrants' socio-demographic and socio-economic, and migratory characteristics and housing size in South Africa. The findings show that African female migrants are more likely to stay in 1 room housing than in 10+ room housing in South Africa. This is influenced by both the socio-economic and the socio-demographic factors upon the African female migrants' arrival in South Africa with perpetuation from the selective characteristics that influenced the migration of these African females.

5.7.1 African female migrants' housing size by age

The main objective in this section was to measure the relationship between housing size and age of African female migrants. By means of a Chi-square test statistic, the study confirms an association between the two variables. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing size and African female migrants' age. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be strong in both 2001 and 2011. This confirms research by Poizer (2008) who found that age is an important factor to consider when looking for housing to stay.

The study found that majority of African female migrants were largely dominated in the 15-45 age groups, and they were living mostly in one room. According to Stats SA (2012), migrants who migrate into South Africa in their childhood years do not always migrate into South Africa alone. According to the international law and regulation, children under certain age, usually come with their families and their close relatives who accommodate them.

Duba (2020) agrees with Coloman (2010) in stating that African female migrants in their youth years are increasing in South Africa where economic independence and financial stability are very crucial. This cohort of African female migrants usually migrates alone or with friends from the country of origin. They generally struggle to find employment and they live in one room housing in informal areas. This is because they do not earn enough to live in housing with more rooms.

The findings continue to reveal that majority of the African female migrants in their adult years in South Africa were living in housing of about 8-9 rooms in both 2001 and 2011. Coleman (2010) states that most of the African female migrants who influx into South Africa, are from the poorest countries in Africa. They see South Africa as a country filled with opportunities. Most of them migrated into South Africa in the early stage of their life and by the time they reach their adult years, they are likely to have saved money to buy, own or rent to buy housing.

They also usually motivate and encourage their family members to migrate into South Africa and some even grow and live with their families. At this stage, they usually know how to make a living in South Africa and they even start their small businesses to help afford housing in secured areas with enough rooms. The findings also revealed that majority of the elderly African female migrants in South Africa were staying in 4-5 room housing in 2001 and 6-7 room housing in 2011.

5.7.2 The relationship between housing size and marital status

Marital status is an important factor when examining housing size. According to Foye (2016), marital status has a significant influence on the decision of housing acquisition regarding the housing type, size and design. Africans generally believe in marriage and big families and this directly impacts the choice of the type and size of their living space.

The findings in Table 4.20 indicate that in 2001, married African female migrants in South Africa were mostly staying in 8-9 room housing and in 2011 they were mostly staying in 10+ rooms housing. This is because most of the married African female migrants believe in big families (Foye, 2016). This naturally creates the desire of living in a house with a lot of rooms. The findings also revealed that in 2001 and 2011, majority of the African female migrants who were not married, in South Africa were living in 1 room houses. This makes sense because single African female migrants do not need a lot space as married females do.

According to Grinstein-Weiss (2011), the majority of the African female migrants in South Africa who were not married, migrated into South Africa on their own. They came to seek

financial development, improved quality education, better standard of living and social liberalism including escaping traditional marriages among other reasons. Some of these women find convenience in living in one room houses as they could return to their places of origin while some do not have a choice but to live in one room houses due to their financial standards and realities.

The findings in Table 4.20 also revealed that most of the African female migrants in South Africa who were divorced were staying in 6-7 rooms in 2001, 8-9 room housing in 2011 and the separated African female migrants in South Africa were staying in 4-5 room housing in both 2001 and 2011. The findings continued to also indicate that majority of the African female migrants in South Africa who were widowed were living in housing with 8-9 room in both 2001 and 2011. According to Greenburg and Poizer (2008), majority of the widowed African female migrants in South Africa claim estate and pension fund payouts of their husbands after their passing as per the South African constitution. The amounts depend on the type of job that the husbands were doing and thus the wives are able to remain in the big houses that they were living in of their late husbands.

However, some of these females after an incident like this, return back home. The specific objective of this section was to test the hypothesis that "There is relationship between female migration and housing size in South Africa." Hence, the finding supported the hypothesis that there is relationship between the two variables, and that the relationship was strong for 2001 and 2011.

5.7.3 Level of education of African female migrants and housing size

According to Majikijela (2015), the migration selectivity theory on education suggests that educated people tend to migrate more than uneducated people and that education increases the probability of employment. Hence, education increases the chances of employment to earn a decent income. Therefore, an enhanced income gives access to scarce resources, including housing of good quality and bigger size.

The general objective was to measure the relationship between demographic factors and housing size. The hypothesis formulated in this regard was "the housing size of female migrants is influenced by level of education. In order to test this hypothesis, a Chi-square test statistic was used to measure whether there is a relationship between the two variables. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing size and African female migrants' highest level of education. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be weak

in 2001 and 2011. This means that, the higher level of education, the more chances of accessing bigger size of housing.

According to the findings displayed in Table 4.21, the study shows that majority of the African female migrants in South Africa who had no education and who had completed their primary education were staying in housing with 2-3 rooms in 2001 and 2011. Todes (2012) states that African female migrants with low levels of education have a very low probability of being employed, unless it is in the informal sector and rendering domestic services, as stated by Brichall (2016). This makes them victims of exploitation and cheap labour. Therefore, it becomes impossible for them to be able to afford housing with more than 2-3 rooms.

Interestingly, the findings indicate further that most of the African female migrants with secondary education in South Africa were staying in 1 room housing in 2001. Actually, there are employment opportunities in South Africa for individuals with secondary education and tertiary education. Furthermore, the findings indicated that majority of the African female migrants who had completed their tertiary education were staying in 8-9 room housing in 2001 and 6-7 room housing in 2011.

5.7.4 The influence of income category on housing size

The main objective in this section was to examine the relationship between housing size and level of income. For this reason, a hypothesis was formulated in this regard. To test this hypothesis, a Chi-square test statistic was used, and the findings supported the hypothesis for 2001 and for 2011 that there is a relationship between income and the size of the house African female migrants are more likely to stay in. This means that the more income you get the bigger size the housing you stay in.

The findings of the study further indicate that majority of the African female migrants in South Africa who are earning no monthly income were living in 10+ rooms housing in both 2001 and 2011. Accrording to Yust *et al.* (1997), majority of the African female migrants who live in big size houses who are not working usually depend on someone who earns enough income to afford the house and the expenses that come with it. Such females are culturally African orientated and they still believe that a woman's job is to bare children and to grow a family.

The findings also indicate that majority of the African female migrants in South Africa who are earning low monthly incomes in 2001 were living in 8-9 room housing and 1 room housing in 2011. According to Montoya (2002), many of the African migrants who came into South Africa were escaping from poverty in their countries. Some of them were documented and

some were undocumented. It is unfortunate because majority of the policies governing the housing and labour departments believe that South African citizens should always be given first preference when it comes to opportunities. This increases their unemployment and makes the African female migrant vulnerable to unemployment, exploitation, cheap labour and starvation.

Furthermore, the findings in Table 4.21 continue to reveal that majority of the African female migrants who were earning middle and high monthly incomes were staying in 8-9 room housing in both 2001 and 2011. According to Nsengiyumva (2013), African female migrants who earn middle and high incomes have the buying power and that allow them to live according to their respective personal desires and preferences.

5.7.5 African female migrants' housing size by employment status

Restrepo (1999) and Nsengiyumva (2013) agree that many African female migrants in South Africa can rarely find a job because of the discrimination they come across on the labour market and even if they are lucky enough to secure formal employment, they will still be paid too low to afford housing. This is a reality for many African female migrants in South Africa; they are victims of inequality, discrimination and xenophobia. Depending on their desperation to find employment and their level of education, the only jobs that are always open for them are domestic service jobs but they also pay too little to enable them to afford housing, let alone medical bills. Most of them overwork themselves as they do several jobs in order for them to afford rent, but not decent housing.

One of the objectives of this study was to measure the relationship between demographic factors and housing size. The hypothesis was formulated in this regard that the "housing size of African female migrants is subjected to the employment they get". Hence, a Chi-square test statistic was utilised to measure the link between these two variables. The findings of the study support the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing size and African female migrants' employment status. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be weak in 2001 and moderate in 2011.

According to the findings, majority of the African female migrants in South Africa who were employed were living in 8-9 room housing in both 2001 and 2011. According to Greenburg and Poizer (2008), employed African female migrants are usually able to accumulate big assets if they are married. This is because they can easily acquire financial assistance from their

partners. Those who are unmarried and have no means of financial assistance cannot afford all of their basic needs, including housing.

The findings also indicated that majority of the African female migrants who were not employed in South Africa were living in 1 room housing in 2001 and 10+ room housing in 2011. Brichall (2016) stated that in 2001, African female migrants migrated into South Africa mainly to escape poverty from their countries of origin and only a few of them actually had scarce skills which were in demand in South Africa. Most of the uneducated African female migrants were scattered in rural areas as farm workers, and housekeepers where they could not afford large housing. In this situation, they could be accommodated into churches and shelters of small rooms by NGOs and community centres.

The study revealed further that in 2011, not economically active African female migrants were accommodated in housing of 2-3 rooms. The reality is that those African female migrants might be accommodated by some other people who can afford to pay for housing.

5.7.6 Differentials in housing size and country of birth

The main objective in this section was to measure the relationship between housing size and the country of origin of African female migrants. The hypothesis, "country of birth is associated with African female migrants' acquisition of housing" was formulated. To confirm this, a Chi-square statistical test was performed to test the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between housing size and African female migrants' country of birth. The strength of this association was measured and it was found to be weak in 2001 and 2011.

Constant *et al.* (2007) and Nsengiyumva (2013) state in the housing issue, there is increasing evidence that African female migrants' households have more than one income or have members who earn high incomes who are likely to own housing with a bigger size than that of a household that sees only one income with some of the members being unemployed or earning low incomes. Many African female migrants come into South Africa for employment and other opportunities (Majikijela, 2015).

The findings in Table 4.23 indicate that majority of the female migrants from Lesotho in South Africa were staying in 1 room housing in 2001. The findings support Akileswaran and Lurie (2010) as they stated that most of the female migrants from Lesotho in South Africa are poor and they are populated in the informal areas. The findings also indicated a huge improvement among the Basotho female migrants as they indicate that in 2011, African female migrants were mostly staying in 6-7 room housing in South Africa.

Furthermore, the findings also indicate that African female migrants from Namibia living in South Africa were largely distributed across 4-5 room housing in 2001 and 8-9 room housing in 2011. Unlike other African female migrants from other countries, Namibian female migrants in South Africa are mostly employed and they are educated as most of them migrate into South Africa for better job offers and advanced education (UN, 2017).

Moreover, the findings continue to indicate that female migrants from Botswana in South Africa were largely staying in 10+ room housing in 2001 and 4-5 room housing in 2011. According to (UN, 2017), migrants from Botswana, Lesotho, Eswatini and Namibia are likely to get comfortable and secure in South Africa because some of their biological histories are traced back to South Africa. Most of them have families whom are full South African citizens and as a result, they are highly employable and they have high chances of living in a house of a preferred size.

The findings also indicate that majority of the African female migrants from Zimbabwe were staying in 8-9 room housing in 2001, 10+ room housing in 2011 while majority of the African female migrants from Mozambique in South Africa were living in 2-3 room housing in 2001 and 10+ rooms in 2011. According to Constant *et al.* (2007) and Greenburg and Poizer (2008), most of the African countries believe in large families and they glorify marriage and child-bearing. Most of the African female migrants from Zimbabwe and Mozambique were living in big size housing because many were living together as large families and majority of those who were living independently were living in small size housings in 2001.

5.9 The predictors of housing acquisition among African female migrants in South Africa in 2001 and 2011

In addition to the univariate analysis which is the method used to describe the data, bivariate analysis was also utilised by means of cross-tabulation to see the patterns of the percentages. Chi-square test statistic was performed to measure the association between housing type, housing tenure status, housing size and socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory characteristics of African female migrants. In this section, logistic regression was utilised to identify the factors contributing to housing acquisition among African female migrants in the country of destination which is South Africa. The 2001 and 2011 Population Census data sets were used in this study for comparison to see if there has been an increase of African female migrants between these two periods. Knowing that there is already an existing housing backlog

in South Africa, it was assumed that migrants from other African countries can add pressure on the housing sector, upon arriving in South Africa.

5.9.1 Factors contributing to African female migrants' housing type in South Africa

African female migrants choose housing based on different factors including affordability, safety and security, comfort, time and distance in the area of destination (Nsengiyumva, 2013). However, it is very unfortunate that based on their profiles and reality not all of them get to live according to their personal preferences and desires. African female migrants in South Africa live in different types of housing, different housing tenure status, and different sizes of housing. According to Weeks (2015), the type of housing that a migrant resides in upon their arrival in a place of destination is influenced by many factors, among which include their financial status, reason for migration, nature of migration, skills and qualifications. The following section discusses the variables that were associated with factors influencing African female migrants living in formal housing in 2001 and 2011.

5.9.1.1 Factors contributing to living in formal housing in 2001

Variables that influence the access to formal housing among African female migrants in South Africa in 2001were identified by means of logistic regression analysis. The omnibus test of model coefficients was statistically significant and the model summary indicates that the model fits the data. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated that the test is significant and this serves as a confirmation that the model perfectly fits the data.

The findings in Table 4.27 show that marital status had an influence on the likelihood of an African female migrant to live in formal housing in South Africa in 2001. The findings indicate that married and unmarried African female migrant had increased the chances of living in formal housing than the widowed African female migrants. Yust *et al.* (1997) supports this argument that married African families normally believe in staying in formal housing unless they do not have other options to do so. By default, they resort to informal housing in informal settlements which is sometimes due to the affordability.

Regarding female migrants who are not married, they are likely to stay in formal housing because they are career orientated and the policies promote independence among them. Furthermore, the findings also reveal that African female migrants with no education had increased the chances of living in formal housing than African female migrants with secondary education.

Majikijela (2015) argues this and state that employability relies on qualifications and skills and through this, African female migrants who have secondary and tertiary education are more employable and more likely to own formal housing than females with no or low education levels. Yust *et al.* (1997) agrees but also state that most of the African female migrants who live in formal housing with low or no education might be living with someone who is able to take care of all the housing expenses.

Interestingly, the findings also reveal that African female migrants in South Africa who do not earn an income have the likelihood of living in a formal house than the African female migrants who earn high monthly income. These are very surprising results because according to Charlton (2004), unlike migrants who rely on no source of income, migrants who earn a significant salary can live in formal housing when they arrive in their destination area. Moreover, the findings show that being an unemployed African female migrant has increased chances of living in a formal house than being not economically active African female migrant. Looking at the influence of country of birth on the formal housing, African female migrants from Mozambique were the most likely to live in formal housing.

5.9.1.2 Factors contributing to living in formal housing in 2011

Variables that influence the access to formal housing among African female migrants in South Africa in 2011 were tested. The omnibus test of model coefficients was statistically significant and the model summary indicates that the model fits the data. Moreover, the Hosmer and Lemeshow test was also significant and it confirmed that the model fit the data.

Age was identified as one of the contributing factors that influence the likelihood of living in formal housing in South Africa. The study found that the younger the age of an African female migrant, the higher the likelihood of them to live in formal housing. The findings in Table 4.27 show that African female migrants in their childhood and youth years have increased the chances of living in formal housing in South Africa. This implies that African female migrants in their adult and elderly years are less likely to live in formal housing.

This means that African female migrants in their adult and elderly years struggle to afford formal housing because of lack of decent employment over their years as migrants. According to Majikijela (2015), adults aged between the ages of 36 to 59 years old struggle to find employment in South Africa because a lot of programmes aim at empowering the youth of the country.

The results continue to show that marital status was one of the factors that influence the likelihood of living in formal housing among African female migrants in South Africa in 2011. The findings indicated an increased likelihood of staying in formal housing among married and unmarried African female migrants in South Africa than the divorced and the widowed African female migrants in South Africa, respectively. According to Stats SA (2021), married African female migrants are likely to stay longer in South Africa and apply for permanent residence because they sometimes migrate with their families and their children grow up in South Africa.

Unmarried African female migrants are also likely to remain in South Africa provided they are working or they own successful businesses that makes their stay in South Africa very comfortable. The reason might be that majority of the African female migrants in South Africa are either married or unmarried. Furthermore, the findings indicate that education is one of the factors that influence the likelihood of the African female migrants of staying in formal housing in South Africa.

Income category is also identified as one of the factors that can influence the likelihood of an African female migrant to stay in formal housing in 2011. The findings interestingly show that African female migrants with no income have an increased likelihood of living in a formal house higher than African female migrants in South Africa with high income. The findings also revealed that African female migrants who earn low monthly incomes have decreased chances of living in a formal house than those who were earning high monthly incomes in 2011.

The other surprising result showed that employed African female migrants had a decreased likelihood of living in formal housing than African female migrants in South Africa who were not economically active. Moreover, African female migrants from Lesotho and Botswana had a decreased likelihood of living in formal housing than African female migrants from Mozambique. According to Akileswaran and Lurie (2010), for some odd reason, in South Africa females from Zimbabwe, Zambia, DRC and Mozambique are more employed in the formal labour sector than African female migrants from Lesotho, Botswana, Namibia and Swaziland. Most of the African female migrants from Lesotho in South Africa work as domestic workers and they do not earn enough to afford formal housing and other basic necessities.

5.9.2 Factors contributing to housing tenure status in South Africa

According to Nsengiyumva (2013), many African female migrants in South Africa live in different places and a substantial migration stream of women is observed to be living in informal settlements of South Africa. Some migrants move with their families, some move independently and some are dependent on other people for accommodation. According to Nsengiyumva (2013), the demand for housing is very high in the cities and in response, creation of rented housing emerged and to date many African female migrants live in rented housing, particularly in areas of destination. The following section discusses the variables that were associated with African female migrants living in rented housing in 2001 and 2011.

5.9.2.1 Factors contributing to living in rented housing in 2001

The main factors influencing the likelihood of African female migrants in South Africa to live in rented housing in 2001 were identified using the logistic regression. The omnibus model coefficients proved to be statistically significant, and the model summary indicates that the model fits the data. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test also proved to be significant which confirm that the model fits the data.

Looking at the variables in Table 4.28 in 2001, age group was found to be significant. This implies that African youth female migrants in South Africa lower the chances of staying in rented housing than the African female migrants in their elderly years. According to IDSA (2002), people in South Africa (migrants or not) are likely to get employment between the ages of 20-35 years old. This is a cohort or population that is gaining independence and the most likely to move out of home towards urban areas and into industries. It makes perfect sense for youth migrants to be the most likely cohort in terms of staying in rented housing because this cohort is the likeliest to move to cities to seek for better opportunities. This creates a gap in housing, and the only efficient and effective solution is usually rental housing.

Marital status was also seen to positively influence the likelihood of African female migrants to live in rented housing. The results have indicated that married African female migrants have more chances of staying in a rented house than the African female migrants who are widowed while African female migrants who were not married had less chances of living in rented housing than the widowed African female migrants. Charlton (2004) states many African females have traditional matrimonies and when they divorce, they are entitled to a fair share of dividends and assets, alongside their spouse as provided by law.

This allows them to buy houses, or at the very least the affordability to fully pay it off. However, widowed African females face a different situation, as they battle to obtain the funds of their late spouses, following death. Some families have no plans in place, leaving the female (wife) to survive for herself and her children. This makes it difficult for the wife because of the usual ways of living and such situations have pushed many widowed females to stay in rented housing. The findings show that divorced African female migrants also had a decreased chance of living in a rented house than the widowed African female migrants in South Africa.

Moreover, the findings of the study revealed that education has a significant relationship with renting a place to stay. A direct correlation between age and housing tenure status is that educated individuals are more likely to afford and own housing (Duba, 2020). Charlton (2004) argues that even though education can be used as a measure of affordability and housing ownership, it is important to bear in mind that there are still people who do not have any education but they own houses and are able to afford to rent housing. This implies that being more educated does not mean that you can afford and access housing. It only means that you have increased chances of being employed which can then give you a chance of affordability of housing and the related rentals.

The results of the study indicate that African female migrants with no education have more chances of staying in rented housing than African female migrants who have completed their tertiary education in South Africa. The findings also indicate that African female migrants in South Africa who have completed their primary education have an increased likelihood of staying in a rented housing than African female migrants who had completed their tertiary education.

The findings have also shown that country of birth has a significant relationship with rented housing and the results have indicated that African female migrants from Lesotho has decreased chances of staying in rented housing than the African female migrants from Zimbabwe. The findings have also revealed that African female migrants from Namibia has increased the chances of staying in rented housing than African female migrants from Zimbabwe possibly because female migrants from Namibia migrate for a short time with no intention to stay and look for a long term accommodation. Another reason according to SADC (2019), is that migration from countries such as Botswana, Namibia, Eswatini, Lesotho and Zambia is driven by slow-onset disasters such as drought.

5.9.2.2 Factors contributing to living in rented housing in 2011

The main factors influencing the likelihood of African female migrants in South Africa to live in rented housing in 2011 were identified using the logistic regression. The model summary was statistically significant and the omnibus test of model coefficients was also significant. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test was significant as well which means that the model perfectly fits the data.

According to the findings, there were fewer factors in 2011 that contributed to people staying in rented housing. Nevertheless, one of the most important elements driving the influence of African female migrants living in rented housing is their age. The findings indicate that child African female migrants (aged 0-14 years) in South Africa have increased chances of staying in a rented house than the elderly African female migrants in South Africa. According to Yust *et al.* (1997), child African female migrants migrate with their parents for a better financial security and education.

They migrate to cities where housing is in high demand. The immediate convenient housing available to many migrant families is rental housing. Marital status has also proven to have a significant relationship with staying in rented housing. The results indicate that married and unmarried African female migrants in South Africa have increased chances of staying in rented housing than the widowed African female migrants in South Africa, respectively.

Level of education has shown to be another variable that influence the African female migrant's likelihood of living in rented housing. The findings suggest that African female migrants with no or only a primary education had a higher likelihood of living in rented housing than African female migrants with a tertiary education. This is due to the fact that these African female migrants live with employed individuals who generate enough income to be able to purchase or rent housing. A few of these migrants sell their commodities on the street. They sell candies, nibbles, cigarettes, grilled chicken gizzards, grilled maize, fruit and vegetables from their backyard gardens on the sidewalks, and the money they earn allows them to rent a home.

Looking at income category, the findings reveal that income category has a beneficial impact on the likelihood of African female migrants to stay in rental accommodation. The findings show that African female migrants with no earnings have a higher chance of staying in rented housing than those with a high monthly income while African female migrants with a low income have a lower risk of staying in rented housing than those with a high income.

According to the IDASA (2002) and the International Labour Organization (ILO) (2020), many female migrants face double prejudice in their destination areas. They are paid less than male migrants and receive less aid than the local female migrants in the country of destination. This is particularly difficult for African female migrants in South Africa, as they face discrimination in their communities, jeopardizing their safety and security. This has a significant impact on their housing decisions.

The vast majority of female migrants prefer to live in housing that is owned but not fully paid off, sometimes known as bond houses or rent-to-buy houses in South Africa. These types of residences are usually located in the safest areas, where migrants' safety and security are not jeopardized. The status of employment was also discovered to be crucial. Employed and unemployed African female migrants in South Africa had lower probability of staying in rented housing than African female migrants who were not economically active (Brichall, 2016; Majikijela, 2020).

Country of birth showed to be another variable that has a significant relationship with staying in rented housing. The findings indicate that African female migrants who are from Lesotho and Namibia and Botswana have less chances of living in rented housing than those from Mozambique. They, possibly, tend to stay in owned housing depending on their demographic characteristics as migration is selective.

5.9.3 Factors contributing to housing size in South Africa

According to Bekker and Cross (2002) for an ordinary South African citizen and for African female migrants, housing size in South Africa depends on the size of the household (number of household members who share the same resources in a house). This implies that in South Africa large families are likely to live in bigger houses than small families. Nsengiyumva (2013) agrees but also states that income has a very big impact on the size of the housing that African female migrants live in. It is sensible and common that people who live in larger housing are usually people with bigger families. However, it should also be noted that people usually buy, build and choose housing based on affordability. As a matter of fact, a lot of people who have money usually live in much bigger houses even if they are only a nuclear family of three. The following section discusses factors associated with African female migrants living in one room housing in 2001 and 2011.

5.9.3.1 Factors contributing to living in 1 room housing in 2001

In this study, housing size was used to identify the number of rooms African female migrants are more likely to stay in the areas of destination. In this regard, logistic regression analysis was used to identify the factors that influence African female migrants to stay in one room. The Hosmer Lemeshow test showed that the test was significant and that the omnibus test of model coefficients was statistically significant, which confirms that the model fits the data perfectly.

The results show that African female migrants in their youth had a decreased likelihood of living in 1-room housing in South Africa than African female migrants in their elderly years. This is because the youth are likely to live by themselves which makes a 1-room house very convenient for a young African female migrant than elderly African female migrants who have to live with their families. Moreover, marital status is another contributing factor that plays a significant role in influencing the chances of the African female migrants living in a 1- room house in South Africa.

The results suggest that African female migrants in South Africa who are married, unmarried or divorced had higher chances of living in a one-room house than widowed African female migrants in South Africa. Charlton (2002) agrees and state that unmarried African female migrants are likely to live in one room housing even through cohabitation. Most of those who are unmarried working individuals, usually settle for studio and bachelor accommodation in areas of destination. These are maybe surprising findings, because married African female migrants are more likely to live in a house with more than two people, unless they have left other family members at home. Even yet, the majority of them are likely to find work, given the fact that they are highly employable persons who are likely to be able to buy and live in formal accommodation with more than one room.

Akileswaran and Lurie (2010) state that some African female migrants leave behind their spouses and cross borders in search of better economic opportunities and for other reasons. In case they do not have relatives or friends to accommodate them, they resort to informal housing with one room upon arrival in their countries of destinations. This is referred to the African female migrants from Limpopo, for example, particularly in North West Province. The findings continue to show that African female migrants in South Africa with primary education had decreased chances of living in 1 room housing than African female migrants with tertiary

education. This might make sense because it can be assumed that African female migrants with only primary school can hardly afford to rent one room.

However, it can be possible for those who have tertiary education since they can be employed and earn an income in their countries of destinations. This is an indication that African female migrants are marginalised in the housing market. Week (2015) support this argument by showing that though some African female migrants move into South Africa with tertiary education, with the potential to be employed, they face a problem with documents. Hence, even if they are employed, they are subjected to exploitation and cheap labour.

As suggested by Duba (2020) and Ngum (2011), migrants with advanced education have the means to afford houses with more than 1 room housing and also, they might be more aware than those with low education levels the necessity of a house with more than 1 room. The country of birth was also identified to be significant. The findings indicated a decreased likelihood of living in a 1 room house from African female migrants from Lesotho by 0.541 times lower than those who were from Mozambique. Possibly, African female migrants from Lesotho cross border to South Africa for livelihood but do not intend to settle and stay long in the country.

5.9.3.2 Factors contributing to living in 1 room housing in 2011

Looking at the factors contributing to living in a housing of one room among African female migrants in South Africa, logistic regression analysis was performed. The data shows the model summary indicated-2 log, likelihood. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test was significant. The omnibus test of model coefficient was significant, which means the model fits the data.

Hence, the model indicates that some variables were significant. In fact, age is one of the determining factors that influence access to scarce resources among migrants, in general. Thus, the findings revealed that being African female migrants in their childhood increases the likelihood of staying in housing of one room in the country of destination than the elderly African female migrants. The findings on the study indicate that there is a significant relationship between marital status and housing size. Interestingly, the results show that married African female migrants had an increased chance of living in a 1 room house in South Africa than African female migrants who were widowed.

These are controversial findings because according to Reeves and Krause (2017) it is common that majority of the married females live together with their families in big houses, especially in developed and developing countries. Even so, the findings are not surprising in the context

of South Africa due to large housing backlog faced by South Africa (Charlton, 2004). The results also indicated that unmarried African female migrants in South Africa also have an increased chance of living in a 1-room house than those who were widowed. This is due to the significant increase in female migration around the world; these women seek work opportunities and economic security, and they live in small housing because they are not permanent residents of the destination country. Even in their home countries, the majority of them are building homes from the little income that they save while working in South Africa (Todes, 2012).

Education also showed a significant relationship with housing size. The study revealed that African female migrants in South Africa with no education, primary education, or secondary education had lower chances of living in a one-room house than African female migrants with tertiary education. These results make sense because African female migrants with no schooling, primary education and with secondary education might find it difficult to afford a room in a house compared to those who have tertiary education. However, African female with tertiary education migrate with skills which help them to access an employment with decent income.

Hence, it becomes easy to access the housing market. Moreover, the income category was significant. The results reveal that being African female migrants earning no or low income decrease the chances of living in 1 room housing than the African female migrants who were earning high income. This could be because those African female migrants with no or low income cannot afford even one room. They might be sharing, squatting somewhere, or are accommodated by a friend or a relative.

The employment status was also found to be significant in relation to the housing size. The results revealed that being an unemployed African female migrant in South Africa decreases the chances of living in 1-room houses lower than those who were not economically active. This is believed to be perpetuated by poverty and unemployment. Furthermore, the results have also revealed that being African female migrants from Lesotho and Botswana decrease the chances of living in 1-room houses than being a Mozambican female migrant in South Africa.

CHAPTER 6: Conclusion and recommendations

6.1 Introduction

African female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa was the focus of this study. The aim was to examine the types of housing, housing size and the channel they use to obtain a place to stay in the country of destination. In this regard, socio-demographic, socio-economic, and migratory characteristics of African female migrants such as age, marital status, level of education, employment status and level of income just to name a few, were explored to measure the influence they have on housing acquisition. To evaluate migration variables, migratory characteristics such as country of birth, province of usual residence, and year of movement were used. Housing and household variables such as housing type, housing tenure status and housing size were also explored. The study utilized the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses secondary data which was obtained from Stats SA to address the objective of this study and to measure the relationship between African female migration and housing acquisition in the context of South Africa. SPSS statistical software version 27 was used to analyse the data.

To investigate the distribution of the variables utilized in this study, univariate analysis by descriptive statistics was performed. Bivariate analysis, such as, cross-tabulation, Chi-square test statistics, Phi and Cramer's V tests were also used to examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables. In addition, the study utilized multivariate analysis by using binary logistic regression to identify the factors that influence African female migrants' housing acquisition in South Africa. The study explored existing theories such as push-pull theory, conflict theory, Neo-classical economies of labour theory and migration and selectivity theory. Given that there is no cohesive theory applicable to migration and housing acquisition, the study developed a conceptual framework based on these theories from the literature to lead this study of African female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa. The independent variables mentioned above were explored as the characteristics of the African female migrants to highlight the migration selectivity among African female migrants in South Africa as per the theoretical framework. It can be noted from the findings of the study in Chapter Four that the acquisition of housing among African female migrants is influenced by different factors including age, marital status, level of education, income category, employment status, and country of birth, year of movement and province of usual residence.

6.2 The characteristics of African female migrants

According to the univariate test, the number of African female migrants in South Africa increased from 21 984 in 2001 to 32 380 in 2011, with the majority of them coming from Mozambique in 2001 and Zimbabwe in 2011. Botswana and Namibia had the lowest percentage of female migrants in South Africa throughout the study period, at 12.3%. The findings revealed that the majority of African female migrants enumerated in Population Census of South Africa between 2001 and 2011 were in their youth, with a total increase of 19.4% between 2001 and 2011. According to Charlton (2004), the economy of South Africa drew many African female migrants throughout the research period, since it was one of the fastest expanding and developing economies in Africa and the world.

The findings of the study also showed that most of the African female migrants in South Africa were unmarried in both 2001 and 2011. This is because many African females migrate at an early age. Most of them avoid traditional marriages as they are a common practice among African women in their early ages. Migration offers a chance to independence and liberalism (Arengo and Baldassarre, 2002). The findings correspond to Arengo and Baldassarre (2002) as they indicate a total increase of 13.1% among single African female migrants between 2001 and 2011.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that in both 2001 and 2011, the majority of African female migrants in South Africa had completed their secondary education. According to Todes (2012), after the advent of industrialization and the end of colonialism, many Africans were willing to be educated. This enabled them to migrate more in search of higher-quality education and better job possibilities. The majority of African females began to develop ambition and started to place greater emphasis on their careers. In Africa, South Africa is the ideal place to advance your career.

Additionally, the statistics suggest that in 2001, the majority of African female migrants in South Africa were unemployed. This is because after the mining resources were discovered, South Africa has had more economic opportunities. This, however, helped men more than women. According to the findings, approximately 19% of females were unemployed. The statistics also suggest that more migrants were employed in 2011, with a total rise of 12%, but there was also a 13.4% increase in the number of unemployed African females. According to Todes (2012), the reason why some African female migrants are not economically active is because they are married and are housewives who are not actively searching for work.

Nonetheless, the research revealed that in 2001, the majority of African female migrants in South Africa earned a low income, whereas in 2011, the majority earned a middle income. According to Akileswaran and Lurie (2010), females were not treated and compensated equally as males. He claims that this is still true at many companies. Most organizations, on the other hand, have abandoned the inequity system.

From 2001 to 2011, the studies revealed a lot of commonalities in the characteristics of African female migrants in South Africa which supports the study's hypothesis. On the basis of qualities, migration is selective. In this case, the majority of youth were not married, had completed secondary education, were either employed and earning a low or a middle income or were unemployed and not economically active, and were from Zimbabwe or Mozambique.

6.3 Magnitude and direction of migration

South Africa has been proven to be one of the fastest developing countries in the world and as a result, some African female migrants chose South Africa as their place of destination to empower themselves and live a better life. According to the Fuller Housing Centre Report (2014), the rapid influx of African female migrants put immense pressure on the housing sector, and this contributed to the existing housing backlog in South Africa. Weeks (2004) agrees and supports this statement by further stating that African female migrants in South Africa all move towards the cities and this adds to an existing housing backlog in the areas of destination.

Two hypotheses were formulated in this section to examine the trends and the patterns of African female migration in South Africa. The first hypothesis is "*the number of African female migrants has increased from 2001 to 2011"* was formulated to confirm whether there was an increase in African female migrants in South Africa under the period under study. This study shows that about 47.3% of female migrants have increased throughout the period under study. The literature reflects a wide range of economic reasons including employment, business ownership among young African females and education advancement as a source of women empowerment. This supports the migration selectivity theory, according to which the majority of migrants are young and seeking stable living conditions.

The second hypothesis is "*Mozambique and Zimbabwe are the top African countries that are more likely to send African female migrants in South Africa*" was formulated. This was to determine the top African countries that sent more migrants to South Africa in the period under study. In this regard, the study found that the majority of African female migrants in South Africa were both from Mozambique in 2001 and from Zimbabwe in 2011. Botswana and

Namibia had the least number of female migrants in South Africa. It is evident from the findings that the majority of the African female migrants in South Africa in 2001 were from Mozambique, and they were largely distributed in Gauteng Province with 57%, while the majority of the African female migrants who came from Zimbabwe in 2011 were largely distributed across Gauteng Province with 67%. This is not surprising because Gauteng is a highly urbanised province and a hub of economic opportunities.

6.4 Access to housing

The hypothesis "*African female migrants' housing acquisition is influenced by socio-economic and socio-demographic characteristics such as age, marital status, the highest level of education, income category and employment status*" was formulated. The study has revealed that housing is a huge problem for African female migrants in South Africa regardless of the emergence of democracy in the country, the implementation of the policies and the development strategies that have been adopted and amended across the African continent.

Despite the efforts of the South African government in developing policies such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which seeks to prioritize the delivery of basic services, yet these basic services remain to be a dream to some communities in South Africa, including African female migrants. Access to housing remains to be a challenge and societies remain to be divided. Housing supply and delivery then becomes a problem for the South African government because of the already existing backlog. This in turn perpetuates the emergence of informal settlements and unequal societies within South Africa. The study revealed that housing remains a serious problem in South Africa especially among African female migrants. The latter are still marginalised on the housing market because they are foreign women with low incomes.

Housing subsidies appear to benefit the wealthy more than the poor for whom they were intended and it does not consider African female migrants because they are foreigners and also because they are women. This casts doubt on the government's efforts to address historical inequities; it also contributes to the perception of African female migrants in South Africa who are also marginalized and least prioritized. This ultimately also opens doors for xenophobia, discrimination and violent attacks due to the system benefiting the wealthy, while the poor become poorer. The poor South African population believes that migrants benefit what they should be benefitting and they insist that the government should "rightfully" put their needs

ahead of the needs of the migrants. This puts further strain on the acquisition of housing among African female migrants.

Even though South Africa is facing a crisis of unemployment, the majority of the African female migrants still believe that they can earn and work for a better life in South Africa. In general, the study revealed that African female migrants tend to mainly move to large cities in South Africa such as Johannesburg in Gauteng, Cape Town in the Western Cape and Durban in KwaZulu-Natal. This is because they are South Africa's most industrialized and economically sound cities. Therefore, African female migrants migrate more towards those urbanized cities in search of greater prospects and more convenient access to basic amenities such as housing. As a result, these movements are thought to affect service delivery, as they lead to increasing demand for services, including housing.

6.4.1 Housing types

According to the study's findings, the majority of African female migrants in South Africa lived in informal housing between 2001 and 2011. Many experts believe that the fast rising population in city areas, as well as the increase in the demand for opportunities in South Africa was encouraged by the transitory development.

The study also discovered that most of the African female migrants who are staying in informal housing were either unemployed or not economically active in 2001. However, the study shows further that there are female migrants who were employed but staying in informal housing. This means that African female migrants who were employed were not earning enough to afford formal houses. Furthermore, the study has shown that there are African female migrants with similar characteristics who are living in formal housing. The literature argues that the logical rationale behind this is that they were living in formal housing possibly because they were accommodated by someone who earns enough to afford formal housing. Arengo and Baldassarre (2002) state that some African female migrants depends on their male counterparts or family members who migrated before them.

The study proved that living in formal housing in South Africa is very difficult for African female migrants unless if they are employed and earn a decent income. The findings confirmed a significant relationship between housing type and socio-economic, socio-demographic and migratory variables such as employment status, age, educational level and country of birth among others by means of cross-tabulation and Chi-square test statistic. Phi and Cramer's V tests strengthened the association.

6.4.2 Housing tenure status

Looking at housing tenure status and African female migrants' characteristics, the findings of this study confirmed that there is a relationship between housing tenure status and the socio-economic, socio-demographic, and migratory characteristics. The findings in this study showed that the majority of the African female migrants in South Africa who were living in rented housing were mainly in their youth, both in 2001 and 2011. According to Ammuddin (2019), youth migrants are more likely to live in rental housing, possibly because they are not earning enough to buy their own places. Besides that, young people are not stable and they are more likely to move numerous times from place to place.

Looking at marital status, the 2001 data set revealed that married African female migrants were more likely to stay in an occupied rented free housing. These are, possibly, women who accompany their husbands who stay in the accommodations provided by their employers, for example, in the mining sector. The 2011 data set indicated that married African female migrants were staying in rented housing possibly because there has been financial improvement from 2001 to 2011 with better employment and a decent income to be able to afford renting.

Furthermore, the findings show that African female migrants with no education were staying in free accommodations, yet those who had secondary and tertiary were staying in rented housing. This means that the more educated you are, the more employable you are with a chance of earning a good income. This increases affordability for accommodation (Todes, 2010). The housing tenure also depends on the country where African female migrants come from. The study showed that female migrants from Zimbabwe and Mozambique were more likely to stay in owned but not fully paid dwellings.

6.4.3 Housing size

The findings of the study showed that the majority of the African female migrants in South Africa were living in 1-room housing in both 2001 and 2011. The majority of these female migrants were in their youth. Unfortunately, for some living in a 1-room house is not beneficial as it is inconvenient given the circumstances. However, living in 1-room housing was convenient to some African female migrants because of the affordability (Grinstein-Weiss, 2011).

The study also revealed that unmarried African female migrants were more likely to live in 1-room housing. This is advantageous for them since it allows them to live on their own and enables them to save more money. African female migrants who live with their families, on

the other hand, will not feel the same way because this compromises their life style. For example, they always find themselves with no or limited sense of privacy. Low income and unemployment are the biggest factors of this compromise in many informal settlements (Backer *et al.*, 2003).

Another finding of the study was that the majority of African female migrants in South Africa who live in a 1-room house have completed their secondary education. Nonetheless, they continue to have a stronghold in the informal economy and they continue to dominate the informal housing sector. According to Todes (2012), educated African female migrants are migrating to South Africa to further their education or find better job possibilities. Furthermore, the survey found that in 2001, the majority of African female migrants had no income, but in 2011, the majority had a moderate income which means there was improvement in their living conditions.

According to Akileswaran and Lurie (2010), this might be linked to the purpose of migration as it is known that migration occurs to different people for different reasons. According to Coleman (2010), it is influenced by the majority of the female migrants who are living on their own and it is actually a matter of preference and comfort for them. For some, a 1-room house is convenient in terms of the capacity of their families but for others this is inconvenient and it presently depends on their financial circumstances.

Nevertheless, the study also showed that some of the African female migrants who were employed and earning decent incomes were living in houses with more than 10 rooms. This also included some of the unemployed females. According to Coleman (2010), those African females might be depending on their spouses, families or friends who migrated before them.

The findings confirmed a significant relationship between housing size and socio-economic, socio-demographic and migratory variables such as employment status, age, educational level and country of birth among others by means of cross-tabulation and Chi-square test statistic. Phi and Cramer's V tests also confirmed a moderate association.

6.5 Recommendations and future research

Feminisation of migration, specifically of African female migration is likely to continue to be common in South Africa. This is mainly because South Africa offers more appealing economic possibilities and better access to basic services than those available in their countries of origin. As a result, migration in general and female migration in particular, brings individuals closer to services and economic opportunities.

6.5.1 Policy recommendations

The findings in Chapter 4 indicate that South Africa had a rapid influx of African female migrants between 2001 and 2011. A pattern of movement within the country among these females is also evident and it can be safely concluded that the majority of the African female migrants are migrating to cities that are closer to major urban areas. This then causes over-population in those areas and it ultimately leads to insufficient accommodation.

In most communities, the government shuts down unregistered rental accommodation and deems them as illegal, regardless of the effectiveness of the rental accommodation in terms of providing the most effective ways of dealing with housing shortage. Instead of shutting these rental accommodations down, the government should rather push for the legalization of such services as they have over time proven to be very helpful to many African female migrants who earn a low income. However, in many communities, this has led to much socio-economic challenges, overpopulation and a strain on service delivery that required immediate government intervention.

At present, the government has no tenure policy beyond the implicit goal of turning every tenant into an owner-occupier. Given current rates of household formation and the huge backlog of housing demand, this is really unrealistic. Rental housing accommodates large numbers of South African families, including African female migrants, who will continue to do so for many years to come. In any case, renting is a housing choice that is very important to many people such as single women, recent migrants, students, newly established households and the very poor, none of whom are in a position to buy or build their own accommodation. Without access to the affordable rental housing, the already rapid pace of urban land invasions is likely to increase further.

The South African government can also adopt the refugee resettlement programs and the Dispersal Scheme of Glasgow. They both intend to divide the accommodation among asylum seekers and refugees across the country. This helps by monitoring the numbers of migrants and

will influence migration of the African female skilled workers. These strategies could also go as far as combating violence against African female refugees, discrimination, marginalization and xenophobic attacks.

Lastly, given that majority of the African female migrants migrate to provinces of high economic opportunities upon their arrival in South Africa, it is recommended that the government should make available low-cost housing in those highly urbanised provinces. The amendment of the legislature of South Africa is very essential in this regard, and the National Development Plan (NDP) and the tender system should be reviewed to consider African female migrants in South Africa in order for the self-employed to afford housing on their own.

The government has to come up with a solution and rescue the local government. Housing is very essential and the government keeps on failing the citizens and the migrants. This is a basic need and it is drafted in all South African public rights-related policies. However, it is never brought into reality. Given that every citizen is required by law to have housing, the government should assist African female migrants in obtaining low-cost or free accommodation. According to the South African constitution, every citizen, regardless of financial means, is entitled to housing. In terms of housing, questioning the legislature and revisiting policies will be critical in bridging the gap between citizens' rights and those of African female migrants.

6.5.2 Future research

In light of the findings and arguments made in this thesis, it is suggested that more studies be done in the field of African female migrants and housing in South Africa. Mainstreaming gender in research, interventions and policies related to migration should be a priority. Developing specific research on women's vulnerabilities, as well as interventions should be cultivated to address them.

A lack of literature on African female migrants was also discovered when conducting this research. As a result, it is advocated that the South African government and the Department of Home Affairs develop initiatives to assist highly educated migrants in finding suitable jobs that will allow them to make a reasonable living and afford better housing.

There were several issues with the Population Census statistics from 2001 and 2011. The data used in this study had problems with some of the variables for 2001 and 2011. Since some variables were omitted, it was impossible to analyze some trends. Hence, several critical variables were not examined in this study such as household headship, period of movement,

and duration of residence. The motive for migration was not included in this analysis because it lacked consistency. It was recorded in the 2001 Population Census but not in the 2011 Population Census.

Additionally, another key characteristic that could not be examined was African female migrants' occupation which restricted the opportunity to identify the occupations African female migrants are more likely to be employed in. Moreover, it is also important to state that the researcher used data from the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses and they were both outdated. However, the researcher's options were compromised because these were the only available data sets which provided migration variables. Hence, these data could not generate updated information. Therefore, the absence of some variables made it impossible to make proper comparison between 2001 and 2011. As a result, it is recommended that Statistics South Africa avoid omitting the essential migratory variables when developing future census questionnaires.

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