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**DIFFERING PATTERNS OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION IN  
SOUTHERN AFRICA: A REGIONAL ANALYSIS**

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A full thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for  
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## Declaration

Differing patterns of international migration in Southern Africa: A Regional Analysis, is my own work. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other university. Full reference details acknowledging all sources used or quoted have been provided.

Pamela James

Date: 14 November 2020



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## Abstract

The study analyses the changing patterns of international migration within the Southern African region. Topics surrounding migration are rapidly gaining importance, especially in the context of regional integration. Past research has focused primarily on South African migration, neglecting or, rather, paying less attention to the migration within other countries in the Southern African region. This study includes all the migration trends across the countries in Southern Africa while discussing contemporary migration trends within Southern Africa. The study interrogates the extent to which countries are exclusively sending countries or are exclusively receiving countries, or both. There has been a transition in the inflow and outflow of migration in Southern Africa. In the analysis the study also highlights changes in the demographic compositions of migrants, changes in their destinations and changes in their countries of origin. This study assesses the view that South Africa is the only African country that attracts migrants in Southern Africa. The study provides empirical evidence that other countries in Southern Africa are competitors in this regard. The study makes the assumption that there are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region. Secondly, there are countries that are more attractive to migrants within the region. Also, there are more migrants from Africa in each of the Southern African countries than from the rest of the world. Migration takes place not only in South Africa but transpires within the whole region. The study makes use of international data such as the United Nations global migration database (UNDESA) to conduct an analysis.

**Key words:** migration policy, migration systems, regional integration, immigration, emigration, SADC

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## Table of Contents

<b>Declaration</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>Abstract</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>Acknowledgements</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>Table of Contents</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>List of Tables</b>	<b>x</b>
<b>List of maps</b>	<b>xi</b>
<b>List of Figures</b>	<b>xii</b>
<b>List of Abbreviations</b>	<b>xiii</b>
<b>Chapter One</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Introduction</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Purpose of the Study	1
1.2 Background of the Study	1
1.2.1. Types of migration streams in Southern Africa.	2
1.2.1.1. Cross-border migration.	3
1.2.1.2. Permanent migration.	3
1.2.1.3. Labour migration.	3
1.2.1.4. Refugees and asylum seekers.	4
1.2.1.5. Feminisation of migration in Southern Africa.	4
1.2.1.6. Age and migration in Southern Africa.	5



1.2.1.7. Regional migration policies.	5
1.2.1.8. Immigration policies.	6
1.2.1.9. Emigration policies.	7
1.2.1.10. Permanent residence policies.	7
1.3 Research Problem	8
1.4 Research Questions	9
1.5 Hypotheses	9
1.6 Objective of the Study	10
1.7 Delimitation of the Study	10
1.8 Definitions	10
1.9 Thesis Outline	12
<b>Chapter Two</b>	<b>13</b>
<b>Literature Review</b>	<b>13</b>
2.1. Introduction	13
2.2 Migration	13
2.3 Drivers of Migration	13
2.3.1 Development processes as drivers of migration in and from Africa	14
2.3.2 The role of states and policies as drivers of migration	14
2.3.3 Climate change	14
2.3.4 Violence and political oppression	15
2.3.5 Labour demand and business opportunities	16



2.4 Theoretical Framework	16
2.4.1 Ravenstein's Laws of Migration	16
2.4.2 World systems theory	17
2.4.3 Neoclassical theory of migration: macro theory	18
2.4.4 Social network theory	18
2.4.5 Mobility transition theory	19
2.5 Conceptual Framework	19
2.5.1 Age selectivity	20
2.5.2 Sex selectivity	20
<b>Chapter Three</b>	<b>21</b>
<b>The Research Methods</b>	<b>21</b>
3.1 Introduction	21
3.2 Research Methodology	21
3.3 Geographical Scope of the Study	22
3.4 The Period of Study	23
3.5 The Research Data	24
3.6 Demographic Variables	24
3.6.1 Age	24
3.6.2 Sex	24
3.6.3 Country of origin and country of destination	25
3.7 Methods of Data Analysis	25



UNIVERSITY of the  
WESTERN CAPE

3.8 Migration Indicators Calculated	26
3.9 Ethical Considerations	27
<b>Chapter Four</b>	<b>28</b>
<b>Results of Data Analysis</b>	<b>28</b>
4.1 Introduction	28
4.2 Dominant Migration Flows	29
4.2.1 Immigration flows	29
4.2.2 Emigration flows	32
4.2.3 Net migration flows	35
4.2.3.1 Migrant-receiving countries.	35
4.2.3.2 Migrant-sending countries.	35
4.2.4 Dominant migration linkages and migrant attractions in Southern Africa	39
4.2.5 Age-sex migration in Southern Africa	47
4.2.5.1 Sex and migration	47
4.2.5.2 Age and migration	49
<b>Chapter Five</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>Discussion of Results</b>	<b>50</b>
5.1 Introduction	50
5.2 Research Design Procedures	50
5.3 Discussion of Results	51
5.3.1 Dominant migration flows	51





5.3.2 Immigration flows	51
5.3.3 Emigration flows	53
5.3.4 Net migration	54
5.3.4.1 Receiving countries.	54
5.3.4.2 Sending countries.	54
5.3.5 Dominant migration linkages and migrant attractions in Southern Africa	55
5.3.5.1 Historical factors.	55
5.3.5.2 Geographical factors.	55
5.3.5.3 Migration management policies.	55
5.3.6 Gender migration in Southern Africa	56
5.3.7 Age and migration in Southern Africa	57
<b>Chapter Six</b>	<b>58</b>
<b>Conclusions and Recommendations</b>	<b>58</b>
6.1. Introduction	58
6.2. General Conclusion	58
6.3. Confirmation of Hypotheses	59
6.4. Recommendations and Areas of Future Research	60
<b>Bibliography</b>	<b>61</b>



## List of Tables

Table 1. Countries in Southern Africa.	22
Table 2. Net migration flow by country for the years 2005, 2010 and 2015	36
Table 3. Migration country of destination by origin for the years 2005, 2010, and 2015	40
Table 4. Sex ratios in Southern Africa for the years 2005, 2010 and 2015	48



## List of Maps

Map 1. Immigration flows in % for Southern Africa-2005	30
Map 2. Immigration flows in % for Southern Africa-2010	30
Map 3. Immigration flows in % for Southern Africa-2015	31
Map 4. Emigration flows in % for Southern Africa-2005	33
Map 5. Emigration flows in % for Southern Africa-2010	33
Map 6. Emigration flows in % for Southern Africa-2015	34



## List of Figures

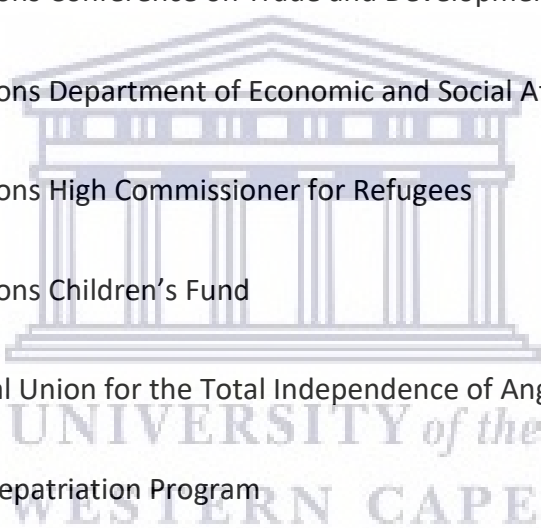
Figure 1. Southern African migration by age for the years 2005, 2010, 2015

49



## List of Abbreviations

IOM	International Organization for Migration
MPLA	The People's Movement for the Liberation of Angola
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
SADC	Southern African Development Community
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNITA	The National Union for the Total Independence of Angola
VOLREP	Voluntary Repatriation Program
WFP	World Food Program



# Chapter One

## Introduction

### 1.1 Purpose of the study

The study discusses the dimensions of intra- African migration in depth, focusing specifically on the Southern African region. The purpose of this study is to comparatively analyse the changing patterns of migration in Southern Africa. The study assists in showing the migration flows between countries in the region. In showing these flows, the study helps in establishing why such flows are taking place by discussing the different migration attractions in both the sending and receiving countries.

### 1.2 Background of the Study

Although international migration is a global phenomenon, the majority of movements include a few countries such as the United States of America, Germany, Saudi Arabi, the Russian Federation, the United Kingdom of Great Britain, Northern Ireland as countries of destinations and countries of origin being India, Mexico, China, Russian Federation, Syrian Arab Republic and Bangladesh, etc. (The United Nations, 2019). More than half of all foreign migrants live in Europe and Northern America, with 82 million in Europe and approximately 59 million in Northern America respectively. Sub-Saharan Africa, Central and Southern Asia, and Eastern and South-Eastern Asia are the areas with the most foreign migrants, followed by Northern Africa and Western Asia (UNDESA,2019). The vast majority of people in these states and regions migrate for reasons related to globalization, economic inequality, political instability, social inequality, gender discrimination, conflicts, civil Wars, etc. (International Organization for Migration, 2019).

Economic globalization has given a new twist to global migration, resulting in unparalleled levels of uprooting and human displacement. Since economic globalization exacerbates national inequality, many people see migration as an economic necessity rather than a preference (Ramune,2008). International migration, whether in terms of incomes, labor market prospects, or lifestyles, is a strong indicator of global inequality. Every year, millions of workers and their families cross borders and continents in an attempt to close the distance between their own situation and that of people in other, wealthier countries. In the development sector, there is a growing consensus that migration, including international, permanent, temporary, and seasonal migration, is a significant strategy for many of the world's poorest countries to diversify their livelihoods (Richard,2005)

All forms of movements, including mixed and irregular migration, labour migration and displacement due to conflict and natural disasters, are encountered in the Southern African region (Landau and Misago, 2018). Southern Africa is experiencing a high volume of migration because of its strong economic position on the continent which are due to job opportunities in the mining, manufacturing and agricultural industries (Landau and Misago, 2018). In some countries in the region, particularly in South Africa, Botswana and Zambia, industrial development and Angola's oil wealth have been magnets for both skilled and unskilled labour migrants from within the region and elsewhere, especially from the Horn of Africa (Landau and Misago, 2018).

### **1.2.1. Types of migration streams in Southern Africa**

There are different types of migration flows that take place in the Southern African region and these different migration flows are discussed below.

**1.2.1.1. Cross-border migration.** Cross-border migration refers to migration between countries with a shared border (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). There has been a massive increase in the number of migrants legally crossing borders over the last decade (Crush et al., 2006). The demand on scarce border control services has been immense (Crush et al., 2006). At many border posts, long delays and inefficiency have been encountered (Crush et al., 2006). Corruption has become endemic to many posts as travellers try to skip queues and gain illicit entry (Crush et al., 2006). Moreover, there has been a large influx of Africans from other parts of the country in the region, as well as significant growth in tourist arrivals from overseas (Crush et al., 2006).

**1.2.1.2. Permanent migration.** According to Kok and Gelderblom (2006), permanent migrations in the past which have involved European stock in Southern Africa, are not considered to be an ongoing process. Recently, however, some foreign nationals have been granted permanent resident status or have become naturalised (mainly in South Africa, Botswana and Namibia), having met the immigration requirements of their receiving countries (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). Most of these people are former residents of Southern or other African countries, while some are from Asian countries and some are Eastern or Central Europeans who migrated to Southern Africa after the fall of the former Soviet Union (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). They are known to have permanently migrated.

**1.2.1.3. Labour migration.** Labour migration to South Africa began in the nineteenth century with the movement of unskilled migrant workers to the mines (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). In post-apartheid South Africa, these figures have declined as a result of the country's policy of internalisation to reduce the size of and ultimately replace foreign labour (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). Labour migration has nevertheless remained a



persistent feature in Southern Africa, with some unskilled migrant labour remaining, as nationals of Lesotho, Swaziland and Mozambique continue to migrate to South African mines as well as to farms (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). Since the early 1990s, there has been a growing number of professional immigrant workers in the three major receiving countries, most of them from outside Southern Africa, as well as some from Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006).

**1.2.1.4. Refugees and asylum seekers.** Southern Africa has undergone a turbulent political change in the past and as a result has become both a source and a destination for local or foreign refugees (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). In addition, there has been a sub-category of forced emigrants consisting of asylum seekers who undergo more stringent screening than refugees before they are given asylum in the host countries (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). Over the last decade, refugees and asylum seekers have moved to South Africa and Botswana from Zimbabwe, Namibia and Swaziland (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). The ongoing economic crisis in Zimbabwe and the political upheaval since the turn of the century have led to a rising number of refugees and asylum seekers, posing significant challenges for the SADC Member States in general and Zimbabwe's neighbours in particular (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006). Countries like Namibia, Mozambique and South Africa, which have remained politically stable only in the last decade or so, have also received significant numbers of repatriated refugees and former asylum recipients, or returning citizens ready to engage in nation-building (Kok and Gelderblom, 2006).

**1.2.1.5. Feminisation of migration in Southern Africa.** Scholars have reflected internationally on the increasing feminisation of labour migration rises with the absolute number of female migrants and more women migrating as independent labour migrants in

their own right (Crush et al., 2006). In Southern Africa, men still predominate in cross-border migration. In Southern Africa there is a clear trend towards feminisation of labour migration, such as an increase in the number and proportion of female migrants and a change in the reasons for female migration, e.g. an increase in the number and proportion of women becoming independent migrants (Crush et al., 2006). Women are becoming more mobile than ever in Southern Africa (Crush et al., 2006).

**1.2.1.6. Age and migration in Southern Africa.** According to the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD),

youth unemployment levels on the continent are high and there is therefore a higher propensity to migrate among youth, as evidenced by the fact that Africa has the lowest median age of migrants in the world. Without accessible opportunities for decent work at home, youth will continue to move, seeking job opportunities wherever they can reasonably access them. (UNCTAD, 2018 p. 62)

**1.2.1.7. Regional migration policies.** Southern Africa has a long history of intra-regional migration, dating back to the mid-nineteenth century. Migration was most likely the only most vital issue linking all the varied colonies and countries of the sub-continent into one regional labour market during the twentieth century. However, entrenched patterns of migration have undergone major restructuring within the last 20 years (Crush et al., 2006).

Several broader changes underlie this shift towards greater intra-regional mobility:

- Firstly, social policy, a system designed to control movement and exclude outsiders, created new opportunities for internal and cross-border quality and new incentives for moving. The ensuing integration of the Republic of South Africa with the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region resulted in a significant

increase in legal and unsupported cross-border flows and new forms of mobility (Crush et al., 2006).

- Secondly, the region's reconnection with the global economy has opened it up to styles of migration ordinarily related to economic processes (Crush et al., 2006).
- Thirdly, growing rural and concrete financial conditions and states have pushed a lot of individuals out of households in search of a livelihood. One aspect of this has been a significant gender reconfiguration of migration streams (Crush et al., 2006).
- Finally, the countries of the SADC area unit are still addressing the legacy of mass displacement and forced migration. The impact of the Mozambican and Angolan civil wars continues to reverberate. Recurrent civil strife in the rest of Africa has generated mass exile movements and new varieties of asylum seeker to and within the region. The stop of hostilities and threat has confronted countries of asylum with issues of repatriation and integration. (Crush et al., 2006). The development of the SADC regional blocs brought forward laws and regulations to the movement of people or migration across Southern Africa. The SADC was among many other member states to create laws for its migrants. These laws include travel facilitation and rights of entry, laws with regard to labour mobility and rights of residence, etc. (Nita et al., 2017). Despite the shared borders or the geographical scope of the countries in Southern Africa they still need to obey these laws when migrating from country to country.

**1.2.1.8. Immigration policies.** Most of the immigration laws of the Southern African countries use an integrated framework to give temporary employment permission, where the regulation of the right of an individual to enter and remain in the country is coupled with the regulation of the right to work. Persons who are issued a temporary residence

permit for reasons other than employment can often also be issued a work permit. Work permits are also issued by countries such as Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, and Mauritius (Landau and Misago, 2018). In Botswana, work permits are regulated by the Work of Non-Citizens Act 11 of 1981 (Landau and Misago, 2018). The Department of Labour administers work permits in Lesotho in compliance with its rules. The Non-Citizens Work Exclusion Act controls work permits in Mauritius. Laws 25/99 and 26/99 in Mozambique control work visas (Landau and Misago, 2018).

**1.2.1.9. Emigration policies.** As there is so much intra-regional Southern African migration, it is also important to be informed of the protocols and rules for exits (Landau and Misago, 2018). Generally, the control of departures from Southern African countries by both citizens and non-citizens is relatively light (Landau and Misago, 2018). The form of action required is merely to produce a valid passport or travel document, to fill in a departure report and to depart through the mandated port of entry (Landau and Misago, 2018). In some countries (Lesotho and Tanzania), the departure of individuals continues to be largely unregulated (Landau and Misago, 2018). However, in Zimbabwe, with five different parts of migration legislation devoted to the process of reviewing and approving departures, departures are highly regulated (Landau and Misago, 2018). Zimbabwe, like many other Southern African nations, meets the standard of departure regulation within the framework of its main immigration legislation (Landau and Misago, 2018).

**1.2.1.10. Permanent residence policies.** Policies of permanent residence of the Southern African region differ to a fairly large degree (Landau and Misago, 2018). Swaziland does not have this category of State of Immigration at all. Where a category occurs, two models can be separated (Landau and Misago, 2018). Firstly, there is a model that considers

permanent residency as a temporary status extension (Landau and Misago, 2018). The category of permanent residence in a number of countries (e.g. Mauritius, Tanzania and Zambia) is scarcely differentiated from temporary residence, if at all (Landau and Misago, 2018). In two countries (Botswana and Namibia) permanent residence permits are issued by an autonomous, regulatory association, viz. the Migrants Selection Board (Landau and Misago, 2018). In Namibia, however, the Migrants Selection Board also makes temporary employment decisions, straddling the boundary between temporary and permanent residency (Landau and Misago, 2018). There is a sharp distinction between temporary and permanent residency in the second model. South Africa and Botswana have this model, whereby both permanent residents and citizens are dealt with in almost the same way, in contrast to those with only temporary residency (Landau and Misago, 2018). Lesotho maintains such a sharp difference as well (Landau and Misago, 2018).



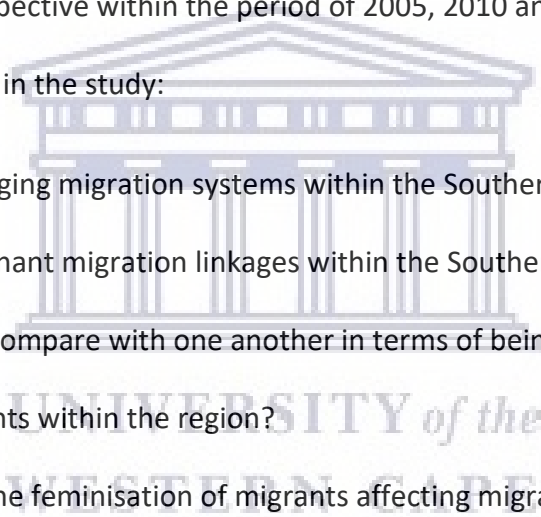
### **1.3 Research Problem**

By distinction, there's an associate intra-African dimension, characterised by the flow of migrants in and out of states or regions within the continent which has received very little attention within the migration and development discourse, despite its economic importance. Research papers have placed more attention on international migration and migration in South Africa, neglecting the migration of other countries within the Southern African region. In the Southern African region South Africa is the only country which is seen as a major attraction for migrants while other Southern African countries such as Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Malawi, Botswana, Swaziland, Mozambique, Angola, Zambia, etc. are neglected. Based on most research papers, it is believed that more migrants are migrating out of African borders, neglecting the fact that there are more intra-African migration cases as opposed to international migration (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018). Also,

limited research is available on topics related to linkages within Southern African countries and how they compare in being migrant attractions respectively. Topics surrounding the feminization and age composition of migrants also remain limited in the field of research. Males are still commonly viewed as being the ones to migrate and somewhat neglecting the growing trend of female migration across states. Young migrants are still the focus of most studies and little is discussed about the old migrants or child migrants that are also playing a pivotal role in the migration discourse.

#### **1.4 Research Questions**

Taking a comparative perspective within the period of 2005, 2010 and 2015, the following questions are investigated in the study:

- 
- What are the emerging migration systems within the Southern African region?
  - What are the dominant migration linkages within the Southern African region?
  - How do countries compare with one another in terms of being attractive to migrants or supplying migrants within the region?
  - To what extent is the feminisation of migrants affecting migration in Southern Africa?
  - What is the age composition of migrants in Southern Africa?

#### **1.5 Hypotheses**

- There are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region.
- There are countries which are predominantly more attractive to migrants within the region than migrants outside of the region.

- The Southern African migration population is more dominant in the young population than the older population.
- Male migrants are more dominant than female migrants in Southern Africa.

### 1.6 Objective of the Study

The study aims to meet the following objectives:

- To outline the different regional migration systems and how they link within Southern Africa.
- To identify and compare the migration attractions of various countries in the Southern African region.
- To show the dominant migration linkages within the Southern African region.
- To demonstrate that there have been changes in the age population of migrants in Southern Africa.
- To profile the distribution of Southern African migrants according to their gender.

### 1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study covers migration trends in the Southern African region using data from the United Nations Global Migrations database.

### 1.8 Definitions

**Southern Africa:** Countries within the Southern African region, being Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, South Africa, Swaziland, Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia, and Zimbabwe (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

**Migration:** The movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border or within a state. It is a movement of a population, encompassing any reasonably

movement of individuals, no matter the length, composition and causes of the movement and it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

**Region:** “a cluster of geographically proximate states with similar patterns of political, economic, and cultural interactions” (Volgy et al., 2014, p. 6).

**Regional migration:** The movement of people between regions (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

**Regional integration:** Regional integration refers to the process whereby states come together to sign agreements wherein they agree to cooperate in some common areas (Volgy et al., 2014).

**Destination country/receiving country:** A country that has received a certain number of refugees and migrants on a yearly basis by presidential, ministerial or parliamentary decision. Also known as the receiving country (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

**Origin country/sending country:** The country that is a source of migratory flows (regular or irregular). Also known as country of origin (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

**Immigration:** A process by which non-nationals move into a country for the purpose of settlement (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

**International migration:** Movements between countries (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).



**Intra-African migration:** The temporary or permanent movement of persons within the continent of Africa (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

**Labour migration:** “Labour migration is defined as the movement of persons from their home State to another State for the purpose of employment” (IOM, 2008, p. 1).

### 1.9 Thesis Outline

This study is split into 6 chapters. Chapter 1 provides the background to the study. It also includes the research problem, significance of the study, purpose of the study, objectives, scope and limitations. Definitions of key terms are also given in this chapter. Chapter 2 provides the literature review related to this study. It is discussed in the following order: the definition of migration, driver of regional migration, followed by a theoretical framework. The chapter then ends with a conceptual framework. Chapter 3 provides the description of research methods and data used in this study. Chapter 4 provides the results of the data analysis. Chapter 5 provides the discussion of results. Chapter 6 offers conclusions and recommendations.



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## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.1. Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to review existing literature pertaining to Interregional migration. This chapter focuses on the definition of migration, driver of regional migration. Followed by a theoretical framework. The chapter then ends with a conceptual framework.

#### **2.2 Migration**

Human migration is a physical movement of human beings either as individuals or as groups from one place to another place for in numerous causes. These migrations are not new and since time immemorial, the human beings have been shifting from one place to another as families, tribes, hordes and other forms of social groups for food, shelter, security and other reasons. The purpose of settling down, commonly known as migration and it has been a universal phenomenon. (Anburaj 2013, p. 1)

Interregional migration is the movement from one country to another within one region.

#### **2.3 Drivers of Migration**

Africa is often seen as a continent of mass migration and displacement caused by poverty, violent conflict and environmental stress. Although, poverty and environmental stress are the most common factors of migration, they are not the only ones. Other factors of migration are urbanisation, labour demand and business opportunities, climate change, violence and political oppression.

##### **2.3.1 Development processes as drivers of migration in and from Africa**

Recent studies (Flahaux and De Haas, 2016) indicate that increasing migration trends from Africa, as well as large numbers which are in intra-regional circulation, seem to be driven by social processes of development and social transformation occurring in Africa that have increased Africa's capacity and migration aspirations, a trend that is likely to continue in the future (Awumbila, 2017).

### **2.3.2 The role of states and policies as drivers of migration**

Policies' roles in shaping migration flows has been misunderstood in general and in Africa in particular, partly due to the lack of adequate policy data. The general increase in visa restrictions in terms of African citizens, however, may be a partial driver towards increasing spatial diversification of migration patterns away from colonial patterns (Mariama, 2017).

### **2.3.3 Climate change**

In recent years, the globe has witnessed frequent occurrences of weather extremes, from cyclones within the North Atlantic to high-impact hurricanes within the Caribbean and North America, floods in South Asia and severe droughts in Eastern Africa, which have led to severe famines. Such cases of weather extremes are results of global climate change.

Migration has conjointly been a response to environmental degradation and/or disasters. A distinction can be drawn between migration that occurs in the wake of chronic disasters or environmental degradation and migration that follows sudden-onset disasters such as floods and landslides, cyclones, hurricanes and windstorms. The latter – distress-push migration – is commonly temporary, until conditions improve and encourage people to return to their homes. Environmental hazards typically have additional semi-permanent impacts, such as droughts which cause salinification and also the degradation of soil quality. Areas stricken by environmental hazards offer fragile ecosystems and economic bases, most

especially for communities which depend upon agriculture. In areas wherever agricultural systems are mainly rain-fed, droughts will have a serious impact on food production systems and also the incidence of famine. Coping methods embody labour migration, often circular, to diversify incomes and reduce dependence on agricultural production. The impact of droughts is often lessened through remittances, with investments into technologies which allow for coping better with degraded soil. Environmental changes or disasters have conjointly been related to permanent migration. There are attempts made to relocate populations from areas in which droughts and famines are inveterate, such as in Yaltopya during the 1980s (Clapham, 1990). In recent years, war, acts of terrorism and conflict has resulted in massive food insecurity. Such conditions have worsened in some countries, with the risk of famine in parts of northeast Nigeria, Somalia, South Sudan and Yemen, and can contribute to new, major waves of migration (Clapham, 1990).

#### **2.3.4 Violence and political oppression**

In Africa, political tension, coercion and war have forced individuals to manoeuvre at various intervals between countries or abroad in search of basic safety and security (Adepoju, 1995, 2008). Conflict-induced displacement includes those who are forced to flee their homes for one or more of the following reasons and where the State authorities are unable or unwilling to protect them: armed conflict together with civil war; generalized violence; and maltreatment on the grounds of position, race, religion, political opinion or social group. (Adepoju, 1995, 2008).

Forced migration also occurs in response to border disputes, which have led to violent conflicts in several countries. Conflict is thus a driver of migration. Severe conflicts typically cause flows of internally displaced individuals or refugees if they flee across borders, yet

conflicts can also be a driver of economic migration (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

### **2.3.5 Labour demand and business opportunities**

South Africa and Libya have the very best stock of immigrants in Africa. South African demand for labour within the mining and construction sectors remains a vital driver of migration. Demand for domestic work and informal trade have also conjointly emerged as vital drivers of migration. Agriculture remains an important driver of migration to Côte d'Ivoire. More varied economies such as African countries attract labour from alternative regions. Since the 1980s, Libya has been a major destination for migrants from outside Africa, notably from Indonesia and Iraq, with demand in its oil industry fuelling economic migration. Since 2010, Libya has become a significant transit country for migrants heading to Europe, due in large part to its strategic location on the Mediterranean Sea and as a destination for migrants from sub-Saharan Africa. Immigration has played different roles in countries (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).



## **2.9 Theoretical Framework**

### **2.4.1 Ravenstein's Laws of Migration**

Ravenstein's seminal work on the Laws of Migration in the late nineteenth century provided the first systematic principles to explain migration dynamics (Ravenstein, 1885, pp. 167-227). His work was based on five general proposals: the first is the relationship that exists between migration and distance. He distinguishes between migrants from short to long distances, with male predominance in long-distance migration and female predominance in short-distance movements. Secondly, Ravenstein identifies a staged migration process: migrants, he observes, will first come from nearby villages to the centre of attraction or

urban area, but as industry and commerce continue to grow, they will also attract migrants from very distant villages. Thirdly, he notes differences in rural-urban propensity to migrate, with the urban population showing a lower propensity to emigrate than rural people.

Fourthly, Ravenstein argues that developments in technology and transport modes lead to an increase in migration. Ravenstein claims that the rationale behind the migration process is an individual's rational decision based on cost calculations and migration benefits.

Economic factors act as what Ravenstein defines as 'push' forces in the place of origin, which, in combination with what he calls 'pull' factors in the destination, explain migration flows. (Velázquez, 2000). He also proposed that in the country of origin, females are more mobile than males, but males more often migrate to destination countries (Grigg 1977, p. 42). Finally, he claims that migration is highly age-selective where there is a stronger tendency for migration in adults in the working age groups (Grigg 1977, p. 42).

#### **2.4.2 World systems theory**

According to Wallerstein (1974), the theory of the world system connects the determinants of migration with structural changes in world markets and migration is viewed as a function of globalisation, increased economic interdependence and the emergence of new forms of production. Strongly linked to foreign direct investment, flows from advanced economies to semi-developed or emerging economies, the expansion of export manufacturing and export agriculture has all led to a disruption in traditional work structures and mobilised new population segments into regional as well as long-distance migration. Mobility of capital is therefore a crucial factor for the theorists of the world system. Capital and labour mobility are presented in theory as interconnected and as two sides of one coin. While migration is a natural outcome of the disruptions and dislocations that inevitably occur in the

development of capitalism and can be observed historically, the theory also brings political and economic global inequalities. Historical-structural approaches deny that individuals are truly free to make migration decisions and present them in more deterministic forms as being pressured into motion as a result of broader structural processes. In recent years, the study of international migration has lost many of the world systems or the global perspective of development present in earlier works, perhaps because it is also difficult to derive a set of testable hypotheses and the character of this framework is strongly descriptive because it emerged as an ex-ante formulation of empirical facts (Kurekova, 2010).

#### **2.4.3 Neoclassical theory of migration: macro theory**

The neoclassical theory understands that migration is driven across markets by differences in labour returns. According to this theory, migration is driven by geographic differences in labour supply and demand and the resulting wage differentials between labour-rich and capital-rich countries. The central argument of the neoclassical approach thus focuses on wages. It predicts a linear relationship between wage differentials and migration flows under the assumption of full employment. Migration is determined by expected rather than actual earnings in the extended neoclassical models and the key variable is earnings weighted by the probability of employment (Kurekova, 2010).

#### **2.4.4 Social network theory**

One of the most important economic decisions an individual can make is the decision to migrate. This decision is influenced by many factors, from job prospects and differentials in amenities to considerations of the life-cycle and migration costs. In each of these factors, social networks play a prominent role. Migrants learn about opportunities and conditions in

potential destinations through social networks; at home, the structure of social networks of migrants shapes their ability and desire to leave (Kurekova, 2010). The migration network theory does not examine the determinants that initiate migration but, rather, what perpetuates migration in time and space. Migrant networks that frequently evolve into institutional frameworks help explain why migration continues even when wage differentials or recruitment policies cease to exist. The existence of a diaspora or networks is likely to influence migrants' decisions when choosing their destinations. The network theory also helps explain why migration patterns are not distributed evenly across countries but how they tend to form so-called migration regimes (Kurekova, 2010).

#### **2.4.5 Mobility transition theory**

This theory argues that economic development and accompanying social transformation coincide initially with increasing levels of emigration and a wider geographical reach. Processes of development typically expand people's access to material resources, social networks, education, media, and knowledge. Increasing income, education and access to information and networks therefore generally increase the capacity and aspirations of people to migrate (Awumbila, 2017).

### **2.5 Conceptual Framework**

To discuss migration, several theories have been formulated. Theories covered in this study include: the neoclassical theory of migration, Ravenstein's Laws of Migration, world systems theory, social network theory and mobility transition theory. Generally, the method of migration is selective. Hence this study is motivated by the selectivity principle of migration. Migrants are not homogeneous, that is, they are distinct in demographic attributes such as sex and age.

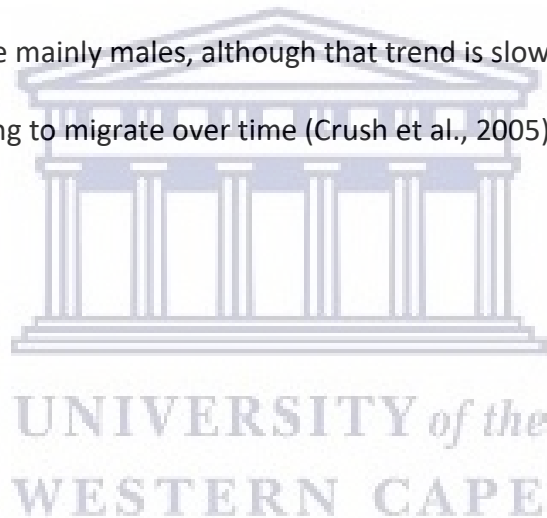


### **2.5.1 Age selectivity**

With young adults usually being the most mobile group of any population, the age distribution of migrants reflects age selectivity (Castro and Rogers, 1984). Usually, it is mostly young adults who tend to migrate in search of different opportunities in their destination countries and they are most likely to achieve their goals in their destination countries.

### **2.5.2 Sex selectivity**

Migration appears to be selective when it comes to gender. Previous studies have shown that migrants appear to be mainly males, although that trend is slowly changing as more women are steadily starting to migrate over time (Crush et al., 2005).



## Chapter Three

### The Research Methods

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the description of the research methodology. It provides information concerning the methods which are used in undertaking this study, as well as a justification for the use of these methods. The chapter also describes the various stages of the study, which includes the selection of the data collection process and the process of data analysis. The chapter ends with a discussion of ethical considerations.

#### 3.2 Research Methodology

This study analyses the changing patterns of migration within the Southern African region. This study follows a quantitative approach because it makes use of secondary data extracted from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs and because variables and statistical measures are used to analyse migration. The motive for using secondary data in this study was due to the fact that the data sets are longitudinal and the data collection is guided by expertise and professionalism. Unlike primary data, secondary data is fast and efficient and aims at gaining a broader understating of the subject matter which also triggered the use of secondary data. This study makes use of existing data for it's analyses hence a quantitative approach is suitable for the study.

This study was guided by the following research questions.

- What are the emerging migration systems within the Southern African region?
- What are the dominant migration linkages within the Southern African region?

- How do countries compare with one another in terms of being attractive to migrants or supplying migrants within the region?
- To what extent is the feminisation of migrants affecting migration in Southern African?
- What is the age composition of migrants in Southern Africa?

### 3.3 Geographical Scope of the Study

In this study the geographical scope focuses on the Southern African migrant population of all races, age groups, educational status, socio-economic status and residential areas.

Southern Africa consists of the following countries: Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Please see each country's details in the table below.

**Table 1. Countries in Southern Africa**

Country	Population Size	National Languages	Natural Resources	GNP (Gross National Product)
<b>Angola</b>	32,866,272	Portuguese (official), Umbundu, Kimbundu, Kikongo	Diamonds, oil, gas, fish, wildlife, sea and marine resources	\$97.01B
<b>Botswana</b>	2,351,627	English (official), Setswana	Diamonds, copper, nickel, cattle and wildlife	\$17.64B
<b>Lesotho</b>	2,142,249	Sesotho, English	Diamonds, wildlife, mohair and water	\$2.90B
<b>Malawi</b>	19,129,952	English, Chichewa (both official)	Tobacco, sugar, tea, cotton, groundnuts, coffee, fish and wildlife	\$7.16B

<b>Mauritius</b>	1,271,768	English (official), Creole, French, Indian languages	Sugar cane, beaches, sea, flora, fauna and other marine resources	\$16.12B
<b>Mozambique</b>	31,255,435	Portuguese (official), several indigenous languages, including Makhuwa	Prawns coal, gems, beaches, fauna, flora, gas, wood, marble	\$14.54B
<b>Namibia</b>	2,540,905	English (official), Afrikaans, German, Oshivambo, Herero, Nama	Diamonds, copper, uranium, gold, silver, lead, tin, zinc, fish	\$12.63B
<b>South Africa</b>	59,308,690	11 official languages including English, Afrikaans, Sesotho, Setswana, Xhosa and Zulu	Gold, coal, platinum, iron, ore, copper, timber, sugar, fish	\$353.53B
<b>Swaziland</b>	1,160,164	Swazi, English (both official)	Coal, asbestos, diamond, talc	\$4.12B
<b>Zambia</b>	18,383,955	English (official), Bemba, Lozi, Nyanja, Tonga	Minerals, wildlife, timber	\$25.88B
<b>Zimbabwe</b>	14,862,924	English (official), Shona, Sindebele	Asbestos, gold, copper, nickel, tobacco, platinum, chrome	\$20.39B

Source: Information obtained from nationsonline.org and Macrotrends

### 3.4 The Period of Study

The study will look at three dates, viz. 2005, 2010 and 2015. The study makes use of these dates due to the limitation of data found in the United Nation migration data portal.

### 3.5 The Research Data

The nature of the research data is demographic, focusing on the variables of migration such as place of origin, place of destination, sex and age. The research contains data that is obtained from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (UNDESA, 2017).

### 3.6 Demographic Variables

The study consists of a number of variables and the variables are as follows:

#### 3.6.1 Age

According to Castro and Rogers (1984), the age distribution of migrants represents age selectivity, with young adults and their infants or small children typically the most mobile group of any population. Age is one of the significant variables in any study of migration therefore this variable was utilised to recognise the migrant age dispersion in Southern Africa in the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. This variable assisted when testing the following hypothesis: *The Southern African migration population is more dominant in the young population than the older population.* Age is the interval of time between the day, month and year of birth expressed as the number of years lived by an individual that is, a person's age at their last birthday (StatsSA, 2011). The migrant age data retrieved from UNDESA was raw data. The age was captured into groups of 15 and 20 year intervals using Microsoft Excel, as follows: 0-19, 20-34, 35-54, 55-74, 75+.

#### 3.6.2 Sex

When it comes to gender, migration tends to be selective. Previous studies have reported that migrants tend to be predominantly males as women were prohibited from migrating in

the past but that trend is slowly changing as women are increasingly starting to migrate (Crush et al., 2005). This variable has been used to classify migrants of both males and females. Understanding whether an individual is a male or a female assists in identifying migrant sex differentials in Southern Africa, and understanding which sex is more represented than the others. This variable assisted when testing the following hypothesis: *Male migrants are more dominant than female migrants in Southern Africa*. The variables were recorded as male and female.

### **3.6.3 Country of origin and country of destination**

It is a well-known fact that migration in Africa is mainly motivated by geographical proximity (and other factors), as well as relative political stability in the country of destination, cultural ties and environmental factors (Gonzalez-Garcia and Mlachila, 2016). These two variables help in determining the migration patterns of migrants in Southern Africa. These variables assisted when testing the following hypotheses

There are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region; There are countries that are predominantly more attractive to migrants within the region than migrants outside of the region; and, There are more migrants from Africa in each of the Southern African countries than from the rest of the world.

### **3.7 Methods of Data Analysis**

To carry out data analysis for this study, information obtained from the UNDESA migration portal (UNDESA, 2019) was organised, recorded, and analysed using Microsoft Excel. To do a comparative analysis of migration trends between the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015, different migration indicators were calculated.

### 3.8 Migration Indicators Calculated

The immigration rate, emigration rate, net migration rate and sex ratio were calculated to determine the migration flows in the region.

**The immigration rate:** the number of immigrants arriving at a destination per 1000 population at that destination in a given year.

$$\text{Immigration Rate} = \frac{\text{Immigration Population}}{\text{Total Population Country of Destination}} * 1000$$

**The emigration rate:** the number of emigrants departing an area of origin per 1000 population in that area of origin in a given year.

$$\text{Emigration rate} = \frac{\text{Emigration Population}}{\text{Total Population Country of Origin}} * 1000$$

**The net migration rate:** the difference between immigration into and from the area during the year.

Where: I=Immigration

E=Emigration

Pt=population at time

$$\text{Net Migration Rate} = \frac{I - E}{P_t + P_{t+5/2}} * 1000$$

**Sex ratio:** the number of females per 100 males in the population.

$$\text{Sex Ratio} = \frac{\text{Male Population}}{\text{Female Population}} * 100$$

### 3.9 Ethical Considerations

In the study, ethics are maintained by making use of anonymity. For example, no names are revealed. In the theoretical analysis proper reference is given and ethical formalities are upheld throughout the research.





## Chapter Four

### Results of Data Analysis

#### 4.1 Introduction

The Southern African region is witnessing all kinds of movements, including mixed and irregular migration, labour migration and displacement due to conflict and natural disasters. Southern Africa is also experiencing a high volume of migration due to job opportunities in the mining, manufacturing, and agricultural industries (International Organization for Migration, 2019). Industrial development in some countries of the region, particularly in South Africa, Botswana, Zambia, and Angola's oil wealth were magnets for skilled and unskilled labour migrants from the region and elsewhere (International Organization for Migration, 2019).

This chapter provides an analysis using data from the 2005, 2010 and 2015 UNDESA data portal. Specifically, the study analyses the migration flows and migration trends within the Southern African region. The objective of this research is to address the research questions and hypotheses outlined in Chapter one. The research questions and hypotheses are answered through examining trends and flows in the related demographic variables. To demonstrate the changes on the demographic variables, the study draws comparisons between the 2005, 2010 and 2015 UNDESA migration data. This study uses maps, graphs, tables and statistical indicators to illustrate the migration trends within the Southern African region.

## 4.2 Dominant Migration Flows

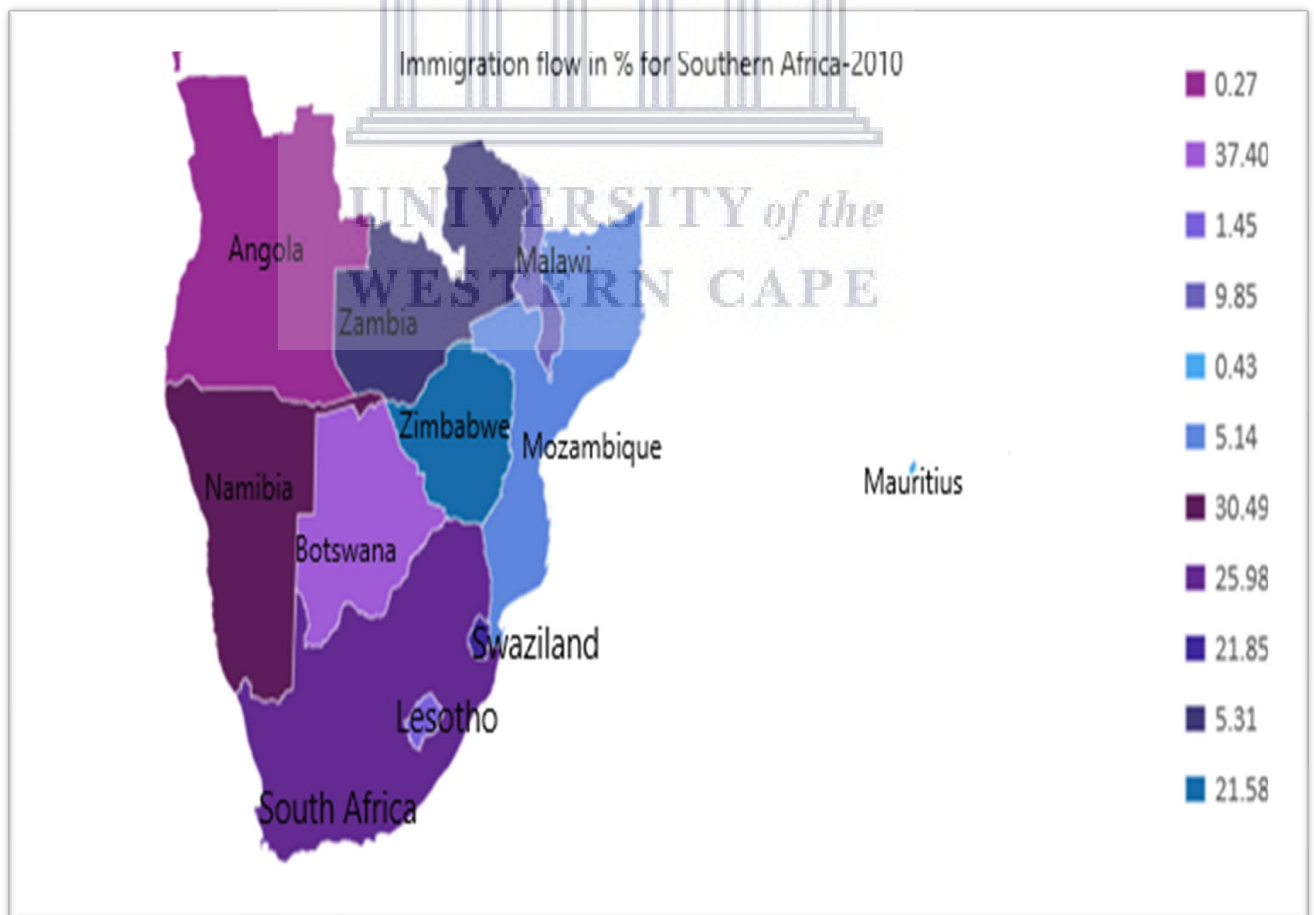
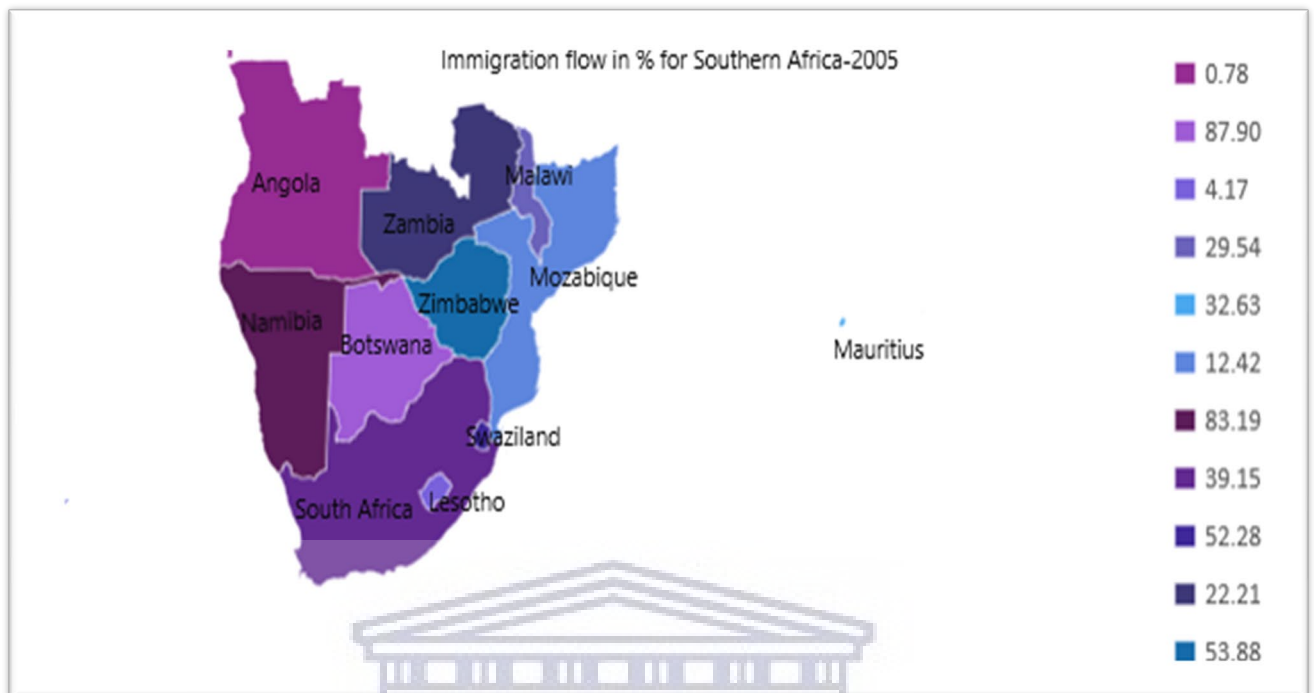
### 4.2.1 Immigration flows

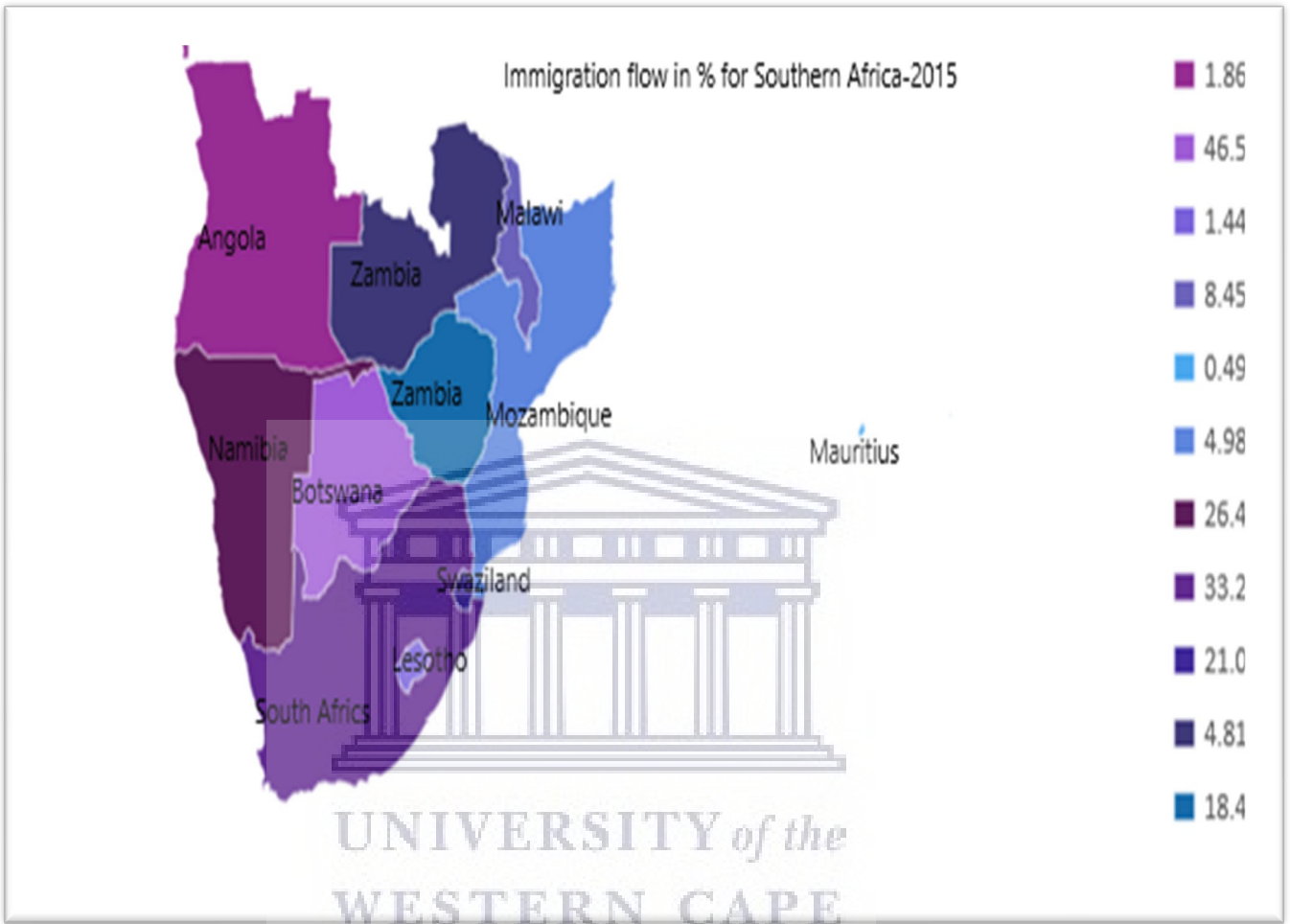
Based on the data observed in Maps 1,2 and 3 below, countries show migration trends in terms of increasing and decreasing immigration and emigration flows over the 12 month periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. An increase in immigration means that more migrants are coming into countries (which may or may not be their country of origin) and a decrease in immigration means that fewer migrants are moving into countries (which may or may not be their country of origin). An increase in emigration means that more migrants are leaving their countries of origin and moving into destination countries and a decrease in emigration means less migrants are moving out of their countries of origin and into destination countries.

The first observation concerns Angola, where the country shows an increase in the immigration flows from 2010 to 2015. The immigration flow in Angola increased by 0,78% in 2005, 0,27% in 2010 and 1,86% in 2015, meaning that increasing numbers of migrants moved to Angola between 2010 and 2015. Botswana shows immigration flows from 2005 to 2010 as ranging from 87,9 % in 2005, to a decrease in 2010 at 7,4%, but increasing in 2015 to 46.56%. This is a rapid increase in the country's immigration flow for the three periods. A rapid decline is observed in Namibia's immigration flows for the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. For 2005 the immigration flow for Namibia was 83,19%, for 2010 it was 30.49% and for 2015 the immigration flow was 26.4%. South Africa's immigration flow for 2005 was 39,15%, for 2010 it was 25.98% and for 2015 it was 33,25%. These figures show a steady decline between the three periods.

(Please see next page for Map 1,2,3.)

**Map1,2,3: Immigration flows by country for the years 2005, 2010 and 2015**





Source: Own computation using UNDESA data (2017)

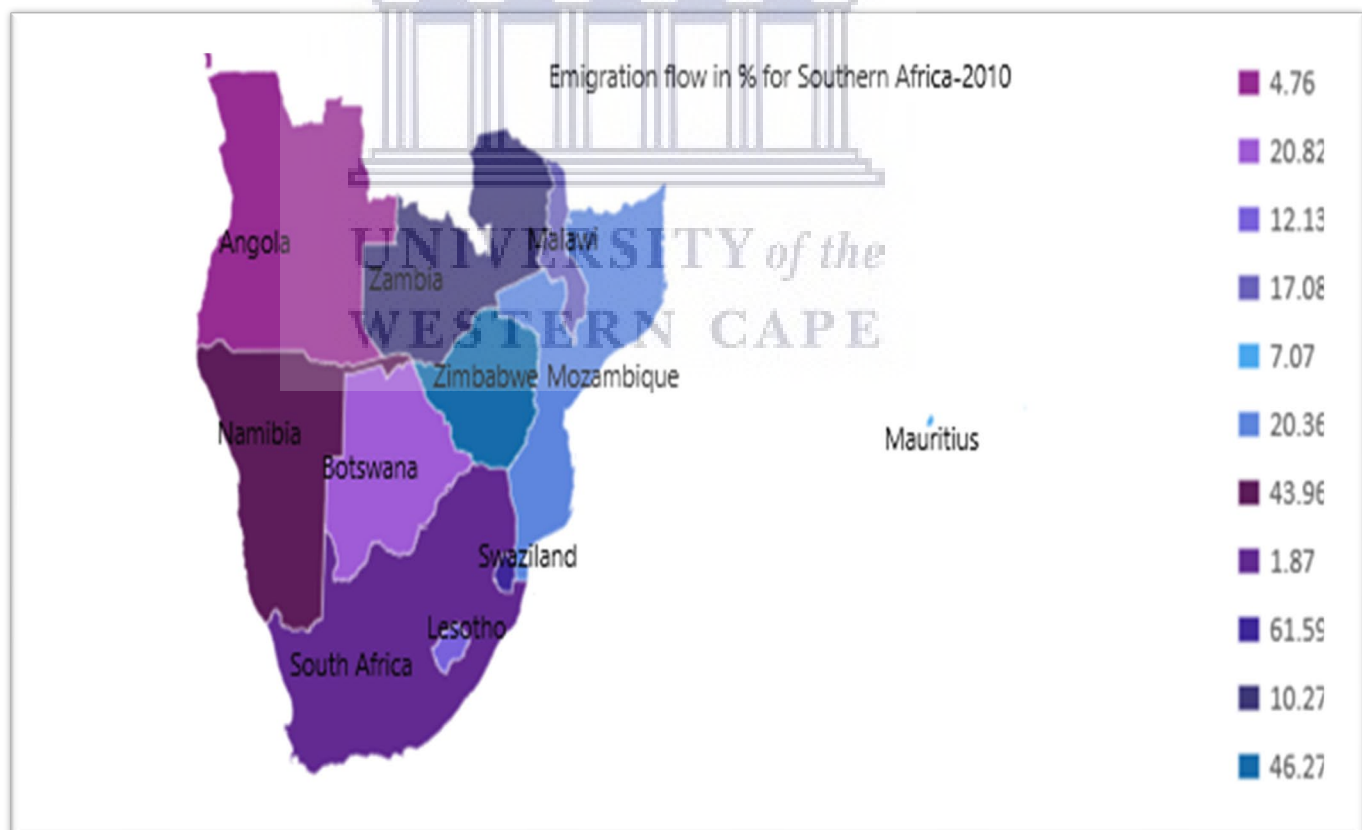
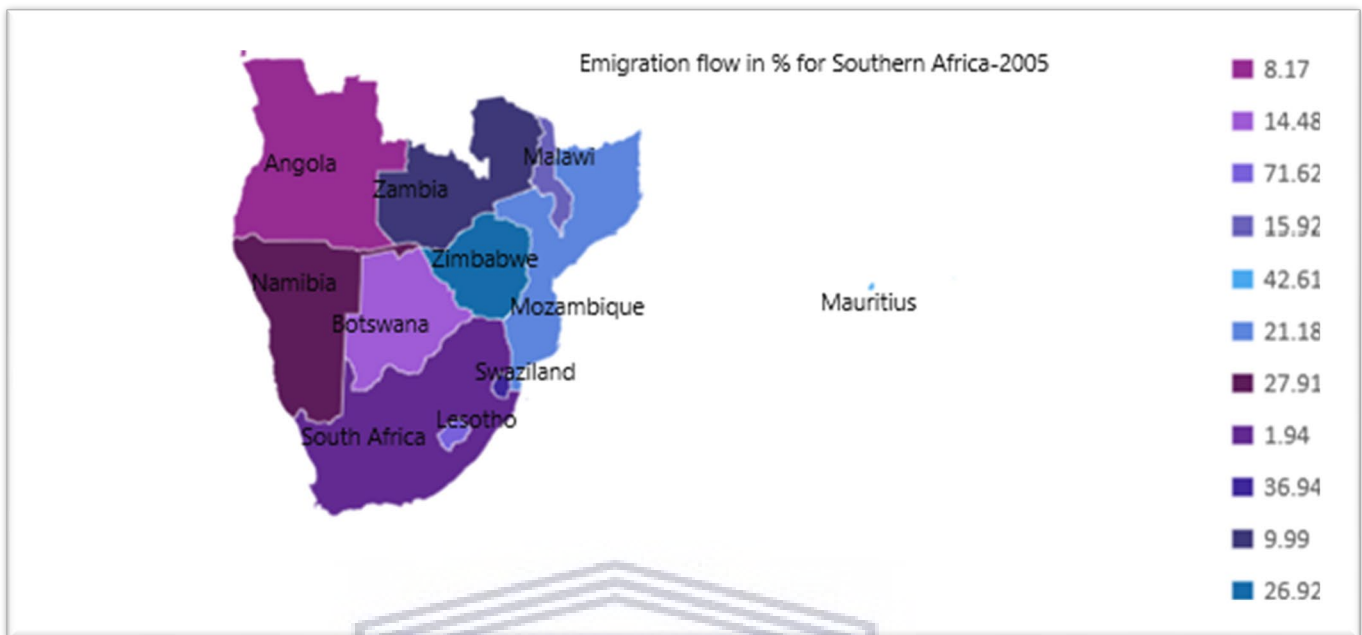
#### 4.2.2 Emigration flows

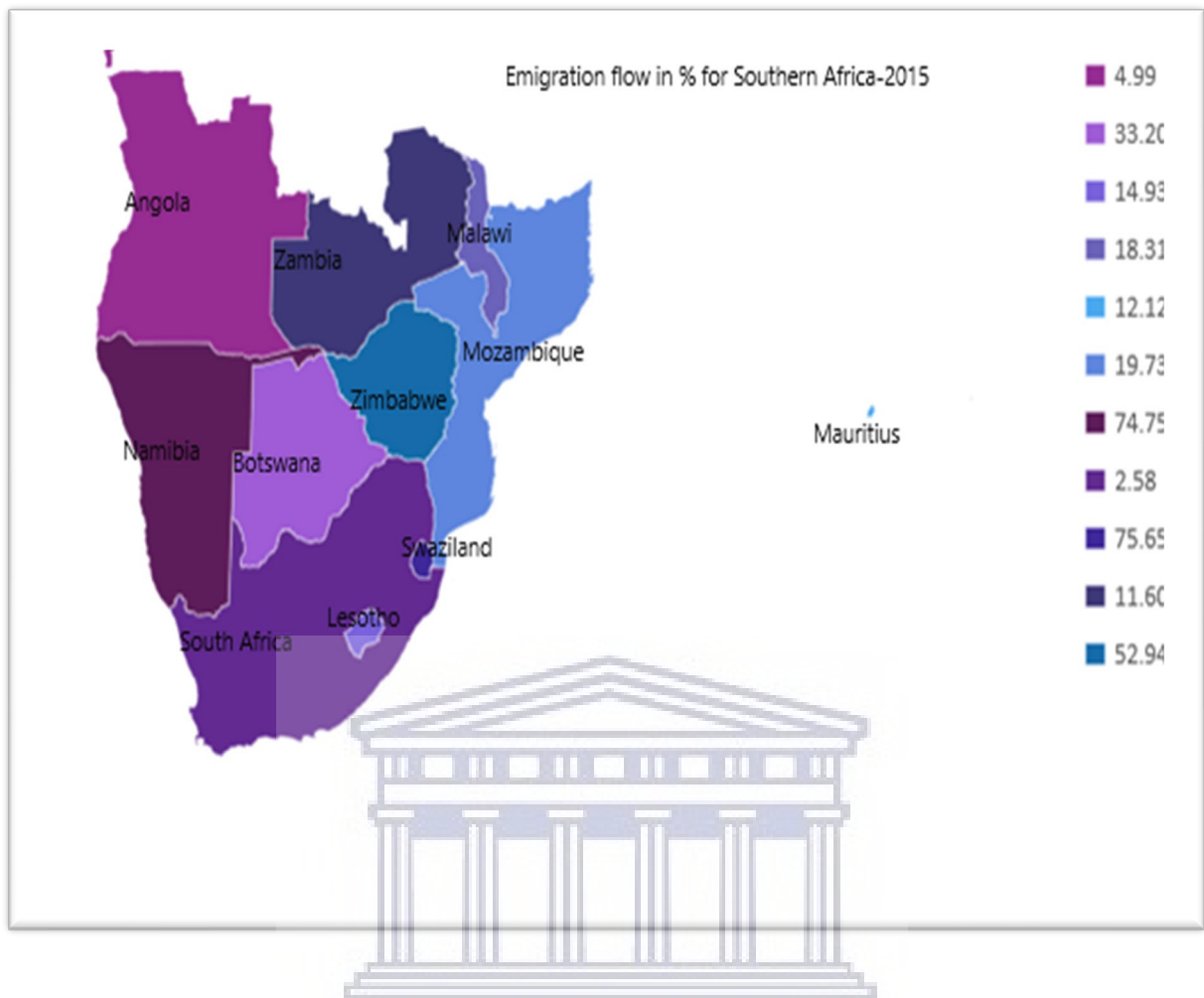
Based on Map 4,5 and 6 below, Angola shows a decline in emigration with an emigration flow of 8.17% in 2005, a flow of 4.76% in 2010 and 4.99% in 2015. These figures show a massive decline in the number of emigrants during the last two periods. The explanation for this decline can be traced back to the increase of immigration in Angola during these periods, as more people were entering Angola and less people were leaving Angola from 2005 to 2015. Lesotho shows an increase in emigration as seen in Table 3 below with an emigration flow of 71,62% in 2005, 12.13% in 2010 and 14,93% in 2015. South Africa shows a steady decline in emigration for the periods of 2005 to 2010, with an emigration flow ranging from 1.94% in 2005 to 1.87% in 2010 but a rapid increase from 2010 to 2015 which had an emigration flow of 2.58%. Zambia's emigration flow shows an increase of 16.11% from 2005 to 2015 with the emigration flows of 9.99% in 2005, 10.27% in 2010 and 11.60% in 2015. Zimbabwe's emigration flows exceeds all of the observed countries' emigration rates with an increase in emigration flows from 2005 till 2015. For 2005 Zimbabwe's emigration flow was 26.92%, in 2010 it was 46.27% and in 2015 the flow increased to 52.94%.

The increase in Zimbabwe's emigration flows can be traced back to the economic crises Zimbabwe has faced during the periods focused on in this study.

(Please see next page for Map 4,5,6.)

Map 4,5,6. Emigration flows by country for the years 2005, 2010 and 2015





Source: Own computation using UNDESA data (2017)

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### 4.2.3 Net migration flows

**4.2.3.1 Migrant-receiving countries.** Based on Table 4 below, Botswana and South Africa dominate in terms of being a receiving country as these two countries show a positive net migration over the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. Botswana shows a positive net migration flow in 2005, having a net migration of 4.13%, 2.08% in 2010 and a net migration flow of 1.79% for 2015. For South Africa the net migration increased from 0.67% in 2005, to 3% in 2010 and a net migration flow of 4.13% in 2015.

**4.2.3.2 Migrant-sending countries.** Table 4 denotes several countries which can be observed as sending countries based on their negative figures illustrated in the net migration flow column for the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. The first country observed is Angola with a net migration of -0.29% in 2005, -0.79% in 2010 and -0.66% in 2015. Angola's net migration flow shows a negative net migration, making this country one of those which is sending out migrants. The second observation concerns Lesotho which has a net migration of -1.85% in 2005, a net migration of -14.87% in 2010 and -18.92% in 2015. The third observation concerns Namibia with a net migration rate of -9.50% in 2005, -1.68% in 2010, and -6.59% in 2015. The migration trend in Namibia is particularly significant because there is a noticeable shift in numbers from 2005 to 2010 and from 2010 to 2015.

(Please see next page for Table 4)



Table 4. Net migration flow by country for the years 2005, 2010 and 2015

Net Migration Flow by country 2005							
Country	I-E	2005+2010 population	2010+2015 Population	Population	Net Migration/2	NM/2*1000	Net migration flow in %
Angola	-38856	42789851	23384131	66173982	-0.000587179	-0.00029359	-0.29
Botswana	65203	3786183	4107822	7894005	0.008259812	0.004129906	4.13
Lesotho	-29746	3991690	4054586	8046276	-0.003696865	-0.00184843	-1.85
Malawi	254700	14552235	31284914	45837149	0.005556628	0.002778314	2.78
Mauritius	-324742	1260579	2507410	3767989	-0.086184434	-0.04309222	-43.09
Mozambique	254619	44025494	50573568	94599062	0.002691559	0.00134578	1.35
Namibia	161250	4057193	4433778	8490971	0.018990761	0.00949538	9.50
South Africa	277693	99097562	106603336	205700898	0.001349984	0.000674992	0.67
Swaziland	-1543192	2095416	2168879	4264295	-0.361886783	-0.18094339	-180.94
Zambia	263289	25462230	13621865	39084095	0.006736474	0.003368237	3.37
Zimbabwe	650742	24774425	26512370	51286795	0.012688295	0.006344148	6.34

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Net Migration Flow by country 2010							
Country	I-E	2005+2010 population	2010+2015 population	Population	Net Migration/2	NM/2*1000	Net migration flow in %
Angola	-104787	42789851	23384131	66173982	-0.001583508	-0.00079175	-0.792
Botswana	32947	3786183	4107822	7894005	0.004173674	0.002086837	2.087
Lesotho	-239367	3991690	4054586	8046276	-0.029748793	-0.0148744	-14.874
Malawi	-105213	14552235	31284914	45837149	-0.002295365	-0.00114768	-1.148
Mauritius	-8276	1260579	2507410	3767989	-0.002196397	-0.0010982	-1.098
Mozambique	-358299	44025494	50573568	94599062	-0.003787553	-0.00189378	-1.894
Namibia	-28547	4057193	4433778	8490971	-0.003362042	-0.00168102	-1.681
South Africa	1234805	99097562	106603336	205700898	0.006002915	0.003001457	3.001
Swaziland	-42320	2095416	2168879	4264295	-0.009924266	-0.00496213	-4.962
Zambia	-67492	25462230	13621865	39084095	-0.001726841	-0.00086342	-0.863
Zimbabwe	-313451	24774425	26512370	51286795	-0.006111729	-0.00305586	-3.056

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Net Migration Flow by country 2015							
Country	I-E	2005+2010 population	2010+2015 population	Population	Net Migration/2	NM/2*1000	Net Migration flow in %
Angola	-87413	42789851	23384131	66173982	-0.001320957	-0.00066	-0.66
Botswana	28333	3786183	4107822	7894005	0.003589179	0.00179	1.79
Lesotho	-304549	3991690	4054586	8046276	-0.037849684	-0.01892	-18.92
Malawi	-165146	14552235	31284914	45837149	-0.003602886	-0.00180	-1.80
Mauritius	-14637	1260579	2507410	3767989	-0.003884565	-0.00194	-1.94
Mozambique	-399055	44025494	50573568	94599062	-0.004218382	-0.00211	-2.11
Namibia	-111930	4057193	4433778	8490971	-0.013182238	-0.00659	-6.59
South Africa	1699063	99097562	106603336	205700898	0.008259872	0.00413	4.13
Swaziland	-60229	2095416	2168879	4264295	-0.014124023	-0.00706	-7.06
Zambia	-107839	25462230	13621865	39084095	-0.002759153	-0.00138	-1.38
Zimbabwe	-476598	24774425	26512370	51286795	-0.009292801	-0.00465	-4.65

Source: Own computation using UNDESA data (2017)

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Based on the computation in Tables 2, 3 and 4, it is clear that there are several dominant movements taking place within the Southern African region which answers the study's question *What are the dominant linkages within the Southern Africa?* The computation in these three tables also supports the study's argument that South Africa is not the only dominant migrant sending and receiving country in the Southern African region.

#### **4.2.4 Dominant migration linkages and migrant attractions in Southern Africa**

Table 5 below shows the migration trends and linkages within the Southern Africa region for the years 2005, 2010 and 2015. The first observation concerns Angola's dominant migration destination.

(Please see next page for Table 5)



Table 5. Migration country of destination by origin for the years 2005, 2010, and 2015

Migration-country or area of destination by origin for 2005											
Country of Destination	Country of Origin										
	Angola	Botswana	Lesotho	Malawi	Mauritius	Mozambique	Namibia	South Africa	Swaziland	Zambia	Zimbabwe
Angola						166	591	4,172		205	
Botswana	1,992		1,829	2,579	1,056	665	1,036	20,917	391	7,203	17,752
Lesotho		104		36		23	4	2,492	36	67	67
Malawi						55,817		8,421		43,640	37,861
Mauritius								412			
Mozambique			6,895	55,058				17,730		4,673	21,168
Namibia	38,464	683	131	383	111	143		8,802	204	3,139	14,995
South Africa	19,714	20,747	133,937	30,697	4,213	220,867	52,210		37,439	27,621	220,867
Swaziland	87	69	167			10,145		10,980			
Zambia	98,521	319		9,665		842	251			2,170	12,444
Zimbabwe		4,134		102,611		145,462		19,010		29,766	

Migration-country or area of destination by origin for 2010											
Country of Destination	Country of Origin										
	Angola	Botswana	Lesotho	Malawi	Mauritius	Mozambique	Namibia	South Africa	Swaziland	Zambia	Zimbabwe
Angola						203	725	5,118		251	
Botswana	2,672		2,452	3,459	1,416	892	1,389	28,048	524	9,659	23,803
Lesotho		106		36		23	4	2,544	36	68	68
Malawi						54,826		8,272		42,865	37,189
Mauritius								541			
Mozambique			7,548	74,598				8,566		5,722	24,481
Namibia	37,063	658	126	369	106	137		8,481	196	3,024	14,449
South Africa	34,137	35,926	231,928	53,155	7,295	294,493	90,408		64,830	47,829	470,423
Swaziland	106	54	198			10,841		12,067			
Zambia	37,106	918		13,467		1 301	630	3,072			17,106
Zimbabwe		3,705		103,281		117,799		18,910		30,373	

Migration-country or area of destination by origin for 2015											
Country of Destination	Country of Origin										
	Angola	Botswana	Lesotho	Malawi	Mauritius	Mozambique	Namibia	South Africa	Swaziland	Zambia	Zimbabwe
Angola						1,676	5,987	42,266		2,072	
Botswana	3,550		3,258	4,596	1,881	1,185	1,845	37,265	696	12,833	31,625
Lesotho		108		36		23	4	2,610	36	69	69
Malawi						54,183		8,174		42,362	36,753
Mauritius								622			
Mozambique			8,403	83,050				9,536		6,370	27,254
Namibia	35,065	622	118	348	100	128		8,023	184	2,860	13,670
South Africa	62,135	65,391	295,504	96,751	13,278	370,347	164,558		82,601	87,057	604,248
Swaziland	122	41	221			10,393		12,511			
Zambia	38,542	953		13,988		1,351	654	3,190			17,768
Zimbabwe		3,286		107,849		94,382		18,610		30,662	

Source: Own computation using UNDESA data (2017)

**Angola.** For the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015, Angolans migrated mostly to Namibia, South Africa and Zambia. The recorded numbers of migrants moving from Angola to Namibia were: 38465 (2005), 37063 (2010) and 35065 (2015). The number of migrants from Angola to South Africa were: 19714 (2005), 34137 (2010) and 62135 (2015). The recorded numbers of migrants moving from Angola to Zambia were: 98521 (2005), 37106 (2010) and 38542 (2015). For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above. Migrants moving to Angola mostly come from South Africa and Namibia (see Table 5). According to this data it is evident that there is a dominant migration linkage between Angola and South Africa and between Angola and Namibia.

**Botswana.** Migrants from Botswana mostly migrate to South Africa and Zimbabwe. The numbers of migrants recorded as moving from Botswana to South Africa were: 20747 (2005), 35926 (2010), and 65391 (2015). The numbers of migrants recorded as moving from Botswana to Zimbabwe were: 4134 (2005), 3705 (2010) and 3286 (2015). Migrants moving to Botswana come mainly from South Africa and Zimbabwe. For a full representation of the data see Table 5.

**Lesotho.** Migration from Lesotho is mostly to South Africa and Mozambique. The numbers of migrants recorded moving from Lesotho to South Africa were: 133937 (2005), 231928 (2010) and 295504 (2015). The numbers of migrants recorded as moving from Lesotho to Mozambique were: 6895 (2005), 7548 (2010) and 8403 (2015). Migrants moving to Lesotho come mostly from South Africa, which shows a direct migration linkage between Lesotho and South Africa. For a full representation of the data see Table 5.

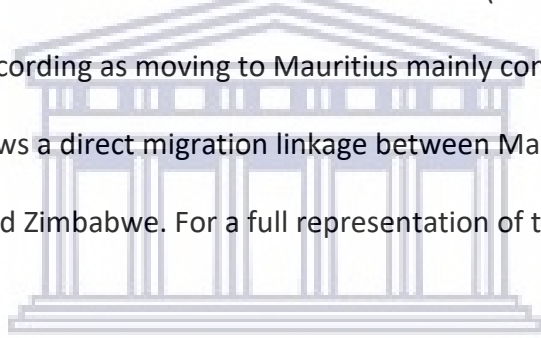
**Malawi.** Migration from Malawi is mostly to Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe. The numbers of migrants recorded as moving from Malawi to Mozambique were: 55058 (2005),



74598 (2010) and 83050 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Malawi to South Africa were: 30697 (2005), 53155 (2010) and 96751 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Malawi to Zimbabwe were: 102611 (2005), 103281 (2010) and 107849 (2015). Migrants recording as moving to Malawi mainly come from Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe, which shows a direct migration linkage between Malawi and Mozambique, Malawi and Zambia and Malawi and Zimbabwe. For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above.

**Mauritius.** Migration from Mauritius is mostly to South Africa. The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Mauritius to South Africa were: 4213 (2005), 7295 (2010) and 13278 (2015). Migrants recording as moving to Mauritius mainly come from South Africa and Zimbabwe, which shows a direct migration linkage between Mauritius and South Africa and between Mauritius and Zimbabwe. For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above.

**Mozambique.** Migration from Mozambique is mostly to Malawi, South Africa, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Mozambique to Malawi were: 55817 (2005), 54826 (2010) and 54183 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Mozambique to South Africa were: 220867 (2005), 294493 (2010) and 370347 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Mozambique to Swaziland were: 10145 (2005), 10841 (2010) and 10393 (2015). The numbers of migrants moving from Mozambique to Zimbabwe were recorded as: 145462 (2005), 117799 (2010) and 94382 (2015). Migrants recording as moving to Mozambique mainly come from Malawi, South Africa and Zimbabwe. For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above.



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**Namibia.** Migration from Namibia is mostly to Botswana and South Africa. The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Namibia to Botswana were: 1036 (2005), 1389 (2010) and 1845 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Namibia to South Africa were: 52210 (2005), 90408 (2010) and 164558 (2015). Migrants moving to Namibia mainly come from Angola and Zimbabwe. For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above.

**South Africa.** Migration from South Africa is mostly to Botswana, Mozambique, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. The numbers of migrants recording as moving from South Africa to Botswana were: 20917 (2005), 28048 (2010) and 37265 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from South Africa to Mozambique were: 17730 (2005), 8566 (2010) and 9536 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from South Africa to Swaziland were: 10980 (2005), 12067 (2010) and 12511 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from South Africa to Zimbabwe were: 19010 (2005), 18910 (2010) and 18610 (2015). Migrants moving to South Africa mainly come from Lesotho, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above.

**Swaziland.** Migration from Swaziland is mostly to South Africa. The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Swaziland to South Africa were: 37439 (2005), 64830 (2010) and 82601 (2015). Migrants moving to Swaziland mainly come from South Africa and Mozambique. For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above.

**Zambia.** Migration from Zambia is mostly to Botswana, Malawi, South Africa and Zimbabwe. The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Zambia to Botswana were: 7203 (2005), 9659 (2010) and 12833 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Zambia to Malawi were: 43640 (2005), 42865 (2010) and 42362 (2015). The numbers of migrants

recording as moving from Zambia to South Africa were: 27621 (2005), 47829 (2010) and 87057 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Zambia to Zimbabwe were: 29766 (2005), 30373 (2010) and 30662 (2015). Migrants moving to Zambia mainly come from Angola and Zimbabwe. For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above.

**Zimbabwe.** Migration from Zimbabwe is mostly to Botswana, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia. The numbers of migrants moving from Zimbabwe to Botswana were recorded as: 17752 (2005), 23803 (2010) and 31625 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Zimbabwe to Malawi were: 37861 (2005), 37189 (2010) and 36753 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Zimbabwe to Mozambique were: 21168 (2005), 24481 (2010) and 27254 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Zimbabwe to Namibia were: 14995 (2005), 14449 (2010) and 13670 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Zimbabwe to South Africa were: 220867 (2005), 470423 (2010) and 604248 (2015). The numbers of migrants recording as moving from Zimbabwe to Zambia were: 12444 (2005), 17106 (2010) and 17768 (2015). Migrants in Zimbabwe mainly come from Malawi and Mozambique. For a full representation of the data see Table 5 above.

The data in Table 5 proves that there are linkages between countries in the Southern African region. The Table shows that most countries in the Southern African region attractive destinations for migrants from different countries of origin. The data illustrated in the above Table answers the following study questions: *What are the dominant linkages within Southern Africa?* and *How do countries compare to one another in terms of being the attraction of migrants or supply of migrants within the region compared to the rest of the world?* It is clear that a lot of migration takes place in Southern Africa alone.

#### 4.2.5 Age-sex migration in Southern Africa

This section shows the trends in the age and sex migration for the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. The section is divided into two sections namely Sex and migration and Age and migration.

**4.2.5.1 Sex and migration.** Table 6 below illustrates the sex ratios of migrants in Southern Africa. The data is presented for different age groups and for the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. It is clear in the Table that there is an ongoing trend of female migration exceeding that of male migration. Botswana, Lesotho and Zambia are the countries that show a dominant trend in the migration of females with sex ratios which are over 100 across all age groups and for all the three periods. For Botswana, the sex ratios for the age group of 35-54 shows a dominant trend, reflecting the figures (proportion of males to females) of 160.45 for 2005, 161.18 for 2010 and 158.77 for 2015. For Lesotho the sex ratios for the age group of 35-54 also shows a dominant trend as the figures are 129.06 for 2005, 127.99 for 2010 and 127.87 for 2015. Zambia differs from the other countries as it shows a trend in feminisation in the older age group of 75+ with a sex ratio of 115.95 for 2005, 135,47 for 2010 and 132,86 for 2015.

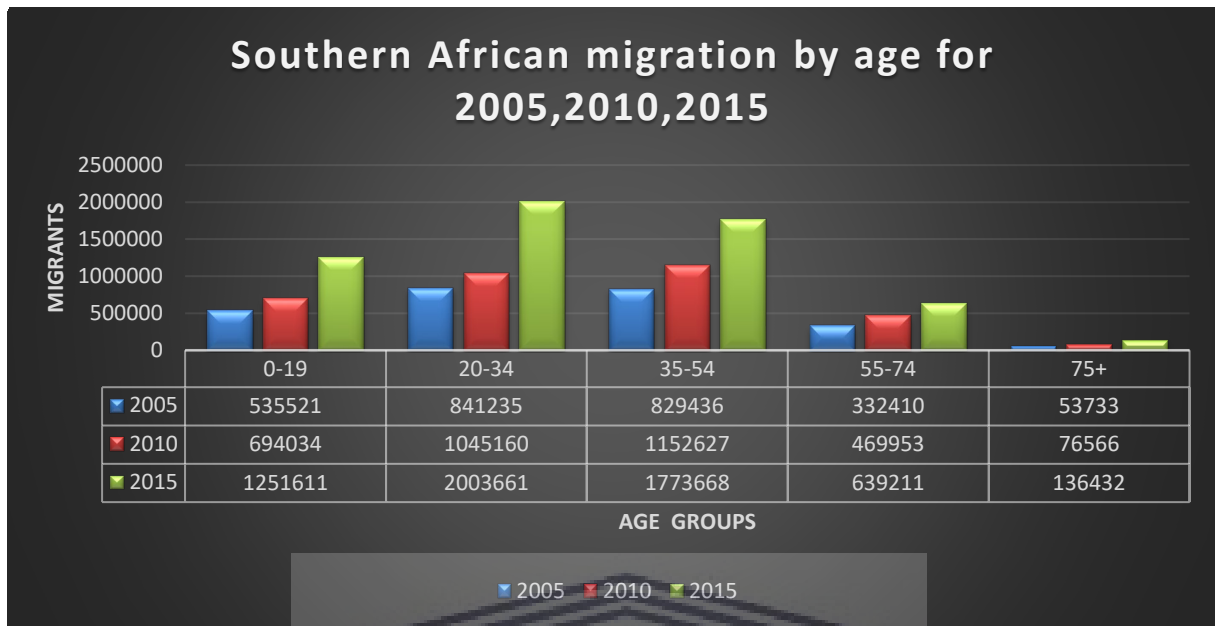
(Please see next page for Table 6)

**Table 6. Sex ratios in Southern Africa for the years 2005, 2010 and 2015**

<b>Migration sex ratio per country 2005</b>					
<b>Country</b>	<b>Ages 0-19</b>	<b>Ages 20-34</b>	<b>Ages 35-54</b>	<b>Ages 55-75</b>	<b>Ages 75+</b>
Angola	73,26	90,96	153,65	129,33	92,76
Botswana	117,87	134,67	160,45	136,25	121,32
Lesotho	112,91	115,84	129,06	102,42	53,85
Malawi	93,91	95,17	95,3	80,22	75,57
Mauritius	86,48	62,05	113,52	167,37	152,38
Mozambique	90,45	86,90	108,91	117,33	101,91
Namibia	109,36	129,84	118,76	107,39	80,82
South Africa	103,1	145,94	163,1	109,05	93,83
Swaziland	96,36	116,87	126,04	88,93	57,64
Zambia	95,86	104,08	108,43	113,52	117,95
Zimbabwe	94,22	132,15	168,98	123,41	96,47
<b>Migration sex ratio per country 2010</b>					
<b>Country</b>	<b>Ages 0-19</b>	<b>Ages 20-34</b>	<b>Ages 35-54</b>	<b>Ages 55-75</b>	<b>Ages 75+</b>
Angola	61,08	80,25	135,21	116,05	81,05
Botswana	108,83	80,25	161,18	131,13	101,57
Lesotho	112,85	125,38	127,99	100,84	55,56
Malawi	95,45	116,79	97,23	81,02	75,07
Mauritius	87,21	90,19	99,28	124,02	121,82
Mozambique	89,45	78,96	107,55	116,27	98,57
Namibia	108,76	87,18	122,26	108,54	72,86
South Africa	106,54	127,08	165,48	103,15	105,47
Swaziland	94,63	148,78	123,61	92,42	62,11
Zambia	93,2	108,95	108,19	119,75	135,47
Zimbabwe	93,7	100,24	163,1	122,91	95,87
<b>Migration sex ratio per country 2015</b>					
<b>Country</b>	<b>Ages 0-19</b>	<b>Ages 20-34</b>	<b>Ages 35-54</b>	<b>Ages 55-75</b>	<b>Ages 75+</b>
Angola	61,19	79,88	135,02	116,24	80,97
Botswana	106,40	124,25	158,77	128,82	100
Lesotho	112,96	117,30	127,87	101,88	55,26
Malawi	94,27	89,92	96,82	80,65	74,84
Mauritius	87,90	73,33	90,79	116,62	104,77
Mozambique	87,92	86,98	105,93	114,44	97,35
Namibia	108,75	126,19	122,38	107,99	72,35
South Africa	95,98	139,36	156,63	90,58	54,84
Swaziland	95,05	104,15	123,04	97,80	66,44
Zambia	91,19	98,32	105,97	118,31	132,86
Zimbabwe	90,12	127,13	163,10	114,47	91,84

Source: Own computation using UNDESA data (2017)

**4.2.5.2 Age and migration.**



**Figure 1. Southern African migration by age for the years 2005, 2010, 2015**

Source: Own computation using UNDESA data (2017)

Figure 1 above shows a graphical representation of the age migration population in the Southern African region for the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. Figure 1 shows a large proportion in the working ages from the age groups 20-34 and 35-54, which suggests that the young population migrates more than the older population. The information in Figure 1 supports the hypothesis of this study which states that *The migration in Southern Africa is dominated by a young population.*

## **Chapter Five**

### **Discussion of Results**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this study was to analyse the migration trends in the Southern African region in the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. The population of interest in this study were migrants of all ages, races, ethnic groups and genders across the Southern African region during the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. This chapter aims to elucidate and discuss the various migration trends and flows as outlined in Chapter Four. To remain consistent, this chapter is divided into different sections as was the structure in Chapter Four.

#### **5.2 Research Design Procedures**

The study uses comparative analysis to compare the different migration trends in Southern Africa for the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. Data for this study was obtained from the UNDESA database to achieve the objective of this study. The study also consisted of a set of variables to obtain the computation of immigration flows, emigration flows, net migration flows and the age-sex figures. The variables used are the age of migrants, sex of migrants, countries of origin and destination of migrants.

Data from the UNDESA portal was obtained in MS Excel format which made it possible to run the necessary statistical analysis. The study used the MS Excel software for the computation of data. This computation was then used in attempt to answer the research questions and the hypotheses mentioned in Chapter One.

## 5.3 Discussion of Results

### 5.3.1 Dominant migration flows

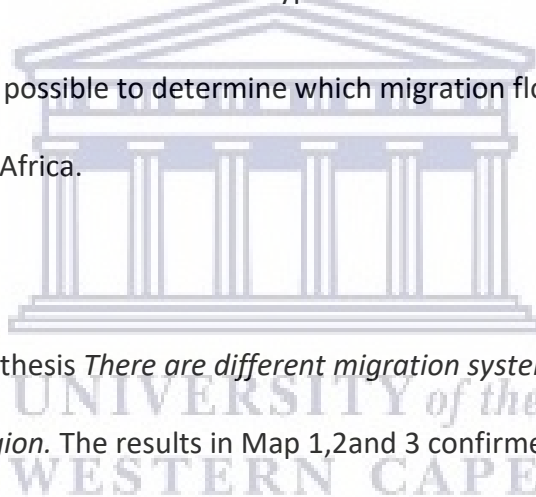
The previous chapter (Chapter Four) begins with outlining the dominant migration flows in Southern Africa between 2005, 2010 and 2015. To assess the different migration systems and dominant migration linkages in Southern Africa, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested: *There are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region;* and, *There are countries that are predominantly more attractive to migrants within the region than migrants outside of the region.* The results in Maps 1,2,3,4,5,6 and table 4, and 5 confirmed these hypotheses.

These hypotheses made it possible to determine which migration flows and linkages are dominant in the Southern Africa.

### 5.3.2 Immigration flows

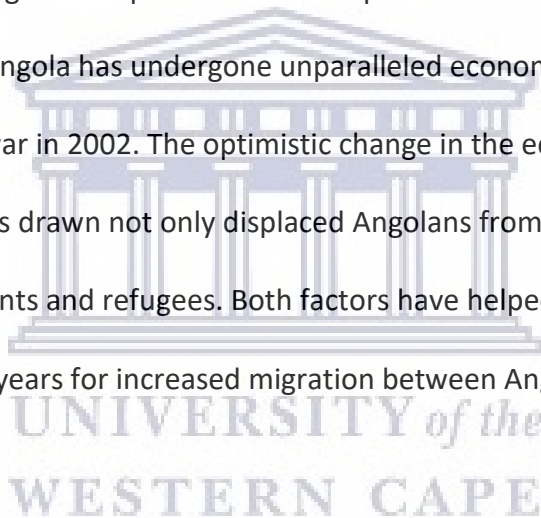
This study tested the hypothesis *There are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region.* The results in Map 1,2and 3 confirmed these hypotheses.

According to the observed data on immigration flows for Angola it is evident that the number of immigrants in Angola peaked between 2005 and 2015 and the possible reason for this is due to returning migrants from neighbouring countries such as Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia. Because of ideological differences between liberation movements, especially between MPLA and UNITA, war broke out shortly after the end of Angola's Portuguese colonisation in 1975 (Nangulah, 2005). The Angolan civil war, primarily waged between MPLA and UNITA, lasted for 27 years (1975-2002), leaving behind a decimated country, dispersing the majority of the population and destroying infrastructure. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) states that with the cessation





of hostilities between MPLA and UNITA forces in 2002, former Angolan refugees returned from exile (Nangulah, 2005). The Voluntary Repatriation Program (VOLREP) helped former Angolan refugees return between 2003 and 2012 (Nangulah, 2005). The UNHCR has worked closely with the Governments of Angola and asylum countries to enforce the voluntary repatriation process, as well as with other organisations, including the World Food Program (WFP), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), the International Organization for Migration (IOM) and several national and international non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (Nangulah, 2005). In addition, because of rising global oil prices and the suspension of military conflicts between MPLA and UNITA forces, Angola has undergone unparalleled economic and political stability since the end of the civil war in 2002. The optimistic change in the economic and political fortunes of the country has drawn not only displaced Angolans from exile, but also a whole array of commercial migrants and refugees. Both factors have helped create a favourable climate over the past few years for increased migration between Angola and its neighbouring countries.

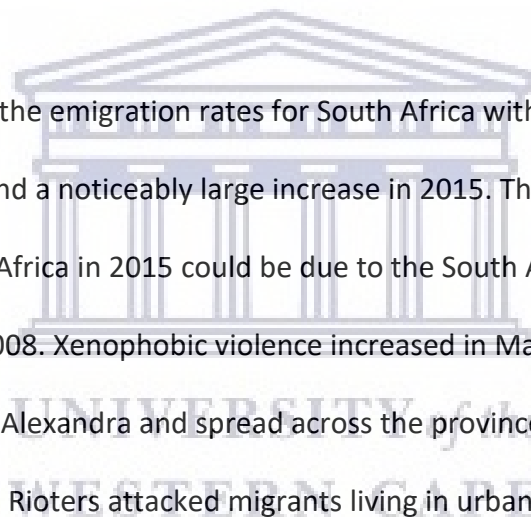


For Namibia, Map 1,2 and 3 in Chapter Four shows a decline in immigration rates between 2005, 2010 and 2015. This decrease could possibly be due to the fact that migrants who mostly migrated to Namibia (Angolans) were no longer migrating to Namibia but rather moving out of Namibia and back to Angola after the Angolan civil war. According to Khan (2020), Angolans were repatriated voluntarily from Namibia and other neighbouring countries between 2013 and early 2014. The last voluntary aided repatriation program started in August 2014 and ended in December 2014.

### 5.3.3 Emigration flows

This study tested the hypothesis *There are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region*. The results in Map 4,5 and 6 confirmed this hypothesis. As seen in Map 4,5 and 6, Lesotho, Zambia and Zimbabwe showed increasing emigration rates between 2005, 2010 and 2015. For Lesotho the increasing rate of emigration could be due to the fact that most of Lesotho's population migrate to South Africa for employment. Also, the Basotho people are moving to South Africa to purchase goods and services in high numbers and virtually every Mosotho has a relative who lives in South Africa (Mokoena and Balkaran, 2018).

Map 4,5 and 6 also shows the emigration rates for South Africa with a steady increase between 2005 and 2010 and a noticeably large increase in 2015. The sudden increase in the emigration rate for South Africa in 2015 could be due to the South African xenophobic attacks which started in 2008. Xenophobic violence increased in May 2008 when attacks started in the township of Alexandra and spread across the province of Gauteng, spreading rapidly across the country. Rioters attacked migrants living in urban communities and informal settlements (King, 2013). News of unimaginable brutality included reports of burning to death several migrants, raping women, and destroying property (King, 2013). This xenophobic abuse, which lasted until June, resulted in the death of many migrants, with hundreds wounded (King, 2013). Once the attacks ceased, officials reported the displacement of hundreds of thousands (King, 2013). The deaths and displacements of thousands of migrants in SA during the periods of xenophobic attacks caused an increase in South African emigration between 2010 and 2015.

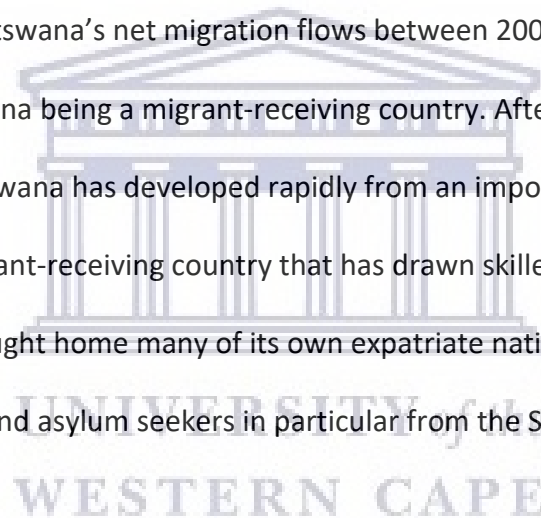


### 5.3.4 Net migration

Table 4 shows the computation of net migration rates which helps in identifying the dominant receiving and sending countries. There are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region. This section tested the hypothesis *There are countries that are predominantly more attractive to migrants within the region than migrants outside of the region*. The results in Table 4 confirmed this.

**5.3.4.1 Receiving countries.** Botswana is noticeably one of the countries which has increasing positive migration rates which indicates that it is a receiving country. The increasing numbers of Botswana's net migration flows between 2005, 2010 and 2015 can possibly be due to Botswana being a migrant-receiving country. After gaining independence from Britain in 1966, Botswana has developed rapidly from an impoverished migrant-sending country to a migrant-receiving country that has drawn skilled professionals from across the continent, brought home many of its own expatriate nationals, and has become a destination for refugees and asylum seekers in particular from the Southern African region (Crush, 2012).

**5.3.4.2 Sending countries.** According to the information in Table 4, Zimbabwe is one of the top sending countries in the Southern African region with increasing negative net migration rates between 2005, 2010 and 2015. These negative net migration rates could be due to the fact that Zimbabwe has been going through a period of unprecedented economic and political turmoil since 2000 (Mandiyanike, 2014).



### 5.3.5 Dominant migration linkages and migrant attractions in Southern Africa

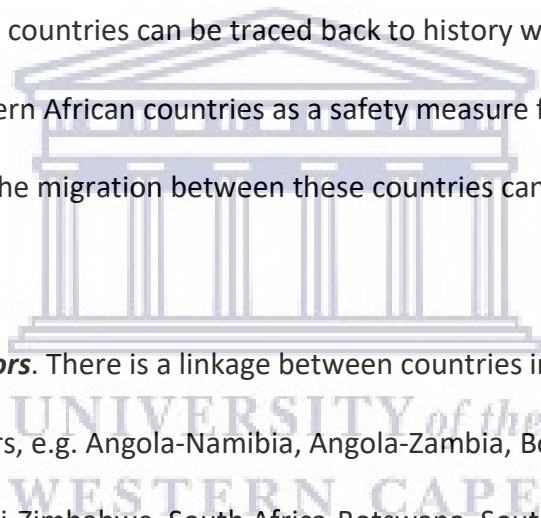
This section tested the hypothesis *There are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region*. The results in Table 5 confirmed this hypothesis.

Table 5 shows the migrant destination countries and the migration linkages between countries in Southern Africa. The reason why these countries are migrant destination countries and why they have a linkage can be broken down into two factors, namely historical factors and geographical factors.

**5.3.5.1 Historical factors.** For countries such as Angola, Namibia, South Africa and Zambia, the linkage between these countries can be traced back to history where migrants had to find refuge in other Southern African countries as a safety measure from war in their countries of origin. Thus, the migration between these countries can be seen as return migration, Khan (2020).

**5.3.5.2 Geographical factors.** There is a linkage between countries in Southern Africa because they share borders, e.g. Angola-Namibia, Angola-Zambia, Botswana-Zimbabwe, Zambia-Zimbabwe, Malawi-Zimbabwe, South Africa-Botswana, South Africa-Lesotho South Africa-Swaziland, etc. Thus, these migration linkages can be seen as being due to geographical proximity.

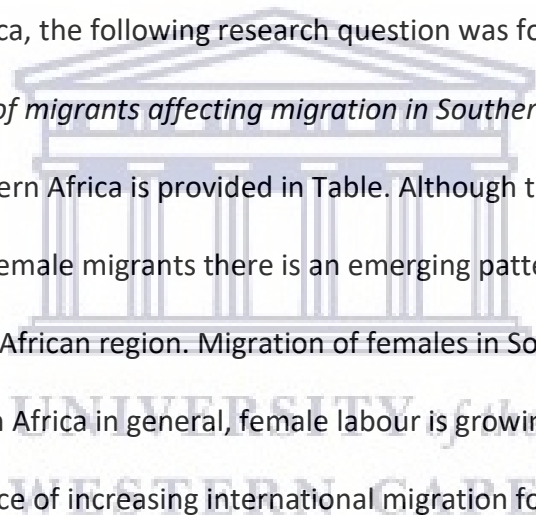
**5.3.5.3 Migration management policies.** Although there is an ongoing discussion on the harmonisation of migration policies and the amendment of current migration policies in the SADC, some member states of the community are practicing some migration management protocols within the region. The SADC countries adopted a visa policy framework for its member states meaning that people within the Southern African region need to provide visas upon their entry and these visas normally include limited stay regulations (African



Union, 2020). The Southern African government also adopts a border control policy to restrict illegal immigration into the country. In countries like South Africa and Botswana these policies are practiced strictly with penalties in place for any misconduct of migrants. Countries such as Botswana and South Africa are seen as migrant-receiving countries as their migration policies are based on attracting skilled migrants for economic gain.

### **5.3.6 Gender migration in Southern Africa**

This study tested the hypothesis *Male migrants are more dominant in migration than female migrants*. The results in Table 6 confirmed this. To assess the feminisation of migration in Southern Africa, the following research question was formulated: *To what extent is the feminisation of migrants affecting migration in Southern Africa?* Data for gender migration in Southern Africa is provided in Table. Although the number of male migrants exceeds that of female migrants there is an emerging pattern of increased female migration in the Southern African region. Migration of females in Southern Africa is growing in importance. In Southern Africa in general, female labour is growing faster than male labour and there is evidence of increasing international migration for employment among women, linked to higher levels of female education, the elimination of legal restrictions on female migration and changing standards in rural areas (Muzvidziwa, 2001). In Southern Africa, the increasing number of migrant women are from Zimbabwe in cross-border trade and other migratory niches are largely due to the ongoing dynamics of socio-economic structures, the decline in conventional, male-centred ways of living and the increase in female-headed households in response to structural adjustment policies (Muzvidziwa, 2001). At the same time, women are becoming increasingly more engaged in formal contract migration, for example in contract agricultural employment for women from

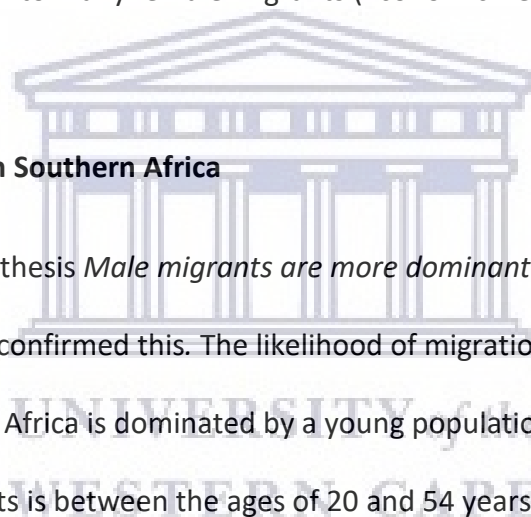


Lesotho in South Africa. Countries such as Angola with a large female population and women dominating in Angola's economic trade clarifies the country's rising number of female migrants. The large number of women migrants in Angola particularly, is due to return migration and due to the agricultural sector in Angola that comes as an attraction to mostly women. The Angolan war and its impacts have increased the workload of women as they have assumed greater responsibility for tasks usually carried out by men, such as caring for the home, disciplining male children, constructing and repairing homes, communicating with community leaders and officials of state, and fulfilling religious and social obligations. Angola is thus an attraction to many female migrants (Economic Development in Africa Report, 2018).

### 5.3.7 Age and migration in Southern Africa

This study tested the hypothesis *Male migrants are more dominant in migration than female migrants*. Figure 1 confirmed this. The likelihood of migration decreases with age.

The migration in Southern Africa is dominated by a young population. As shown in Figure 1, the average age of migrants is between the ages of 20 and 54 years and this can be explained if one considers economic factors; these are the ages at which migrants are actively migrating in search of better socioeconomic opportunities in neighbouring countries. These ages are considered to be the working migrant ages and explains why there is a large number of migrants migrating during those ages. Less migrants are observed in the population aged 55 to 75+ and this can be explained in terms of how migrants in this age group tend to prefer not to migrate; the older the age, the less likely a person will want to migrate, partly because of the economic value a person can offer as they get older (Castro, 1983).



## Chapter Six

### Conclusions and Recommendations

#### 6.1. Introduction

This study set out to examine the differing patterns of migration in Southern Africa for the periods of 2005, 2010 and 2015. Therefore, this section of the thesis summarises the overall empirical outcome from the research relating to this study and how it was carried out. The overall objective was to demonstrate emerging migration trends for the three periods. This was profiled through demographic variables such as sex, age, country of origin and country of destination. These characteristics helped in addressing the research questions and hypotheses set out in Chapter One of this study.

#### 6.2. General Conclusion

Through the analysis of the data, it can be concluded that interregional migration in Southern Africa has been showing significant trends for 2005, 2010 and 2015 respectively. The study demonstrated the different linkages between the countries within the region and their significance in comparison to one another. The also showed the dominant trends for countries of origin as well as destination countries, which results then indicated that other countries within Southern Africa are indeed receiving countries too, proving wrong the notion that South Africa is the only dominant migrant-receiving country in Southern Africa. It can be noted from the findings in the analysis chapter that the migration of male and female migrants differs in that males are migrating more than females although there is a growing trend of female migrants. Males have long been expected to migrate for economic purposes in order to support their families back at home (country of origin). The results in

this study further indicated that the migration in Southern Africa is dominated by a young population. This result was indeed expected as young people are constantly moving around to seek better opportunities elsewhere other than are available in their countries of origin.

### 6.3. Confirmation of Hypotheses

The hypotheses were confirmed by the use of different migration indicators. The immigration and emigration rate, net migration rate, and sex ratio indicator was used to test the variables. These statistical tests helped to answer the research questions and to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter One. The hypothesis *There are different migration systems among the countries in the Southern African region* was answered by using the immigration, emigration and net migration indicators to analyse the observed migration trends for the periods 2005, 2010 and 2010. The results were tabulated in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 in Chapter Four which confirmed this hypothesis.

The hypothesis *There are countries that are predominantly more attractive to migrants within the region than migrants outside the region* was answered by using the immigration, emigration and net migration results. These were tabulated in Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4 in Chapter Four which confirmed this hypothesis.

The hypothesis *The Southern African migration population is more dominant in the young population than the older population* was answered by using the graphical representation of data in Figure 1 which confirmed this hypothesis.

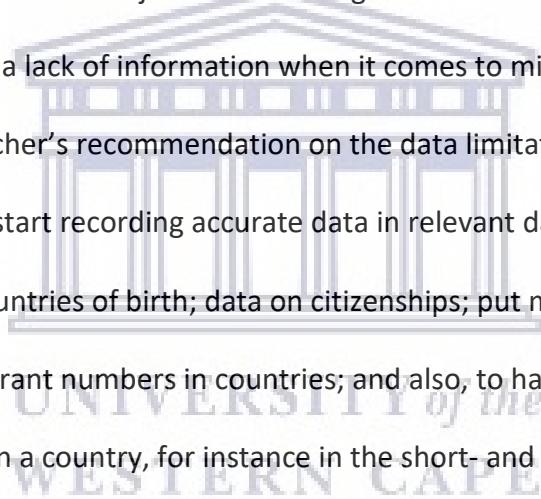
The last hypothesis, *Male migrants are more dominant than female migrants in Southern Africa* was answered by using the sex ratio indicator in Table 6 which confirmed this hypothesis.



#### 6.4. Recommendations and Areas of Future Research

Given the results obtained and the issues discussed in Chapter Four and Five of this study, it is recommended that more research in the area of interregional migration be conducted and not only in Southern Africa but in the whole African region. Whilst carrying out this study the limitation of literature on Southern African migration was also noted. It was difficult to find literature on the migration in Southern Africa especially, as most of the literature available concerns international states which was not of much significance to this study because it focused mostly on intraregional migration in Southern Africa.

The limitation of data remained a major barrier throughout the study. Limited data could be retrieved because there is a lack of information when it comes to migration especially in African states. This researcher's recommendation on the data limitation would be for the different governments to start recording accurate data in relevant databases; to record data on migration trends on countries of birth; data on citizenships; put measures in place to record accurate illegal migrant numbers in countries; and also, to have data available on the type of migrants that are in a country, for instance in the short- and medium-term, or migration for longer terms.



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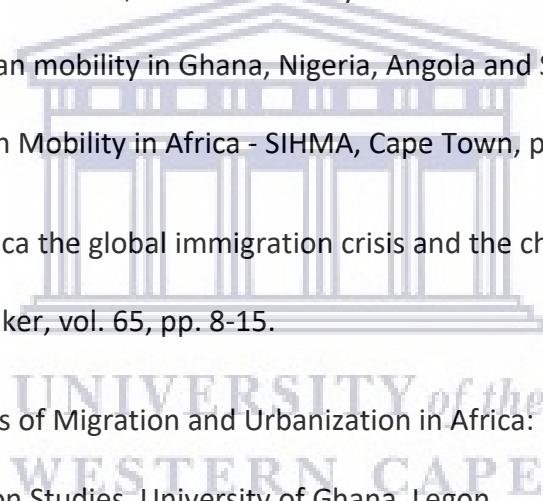
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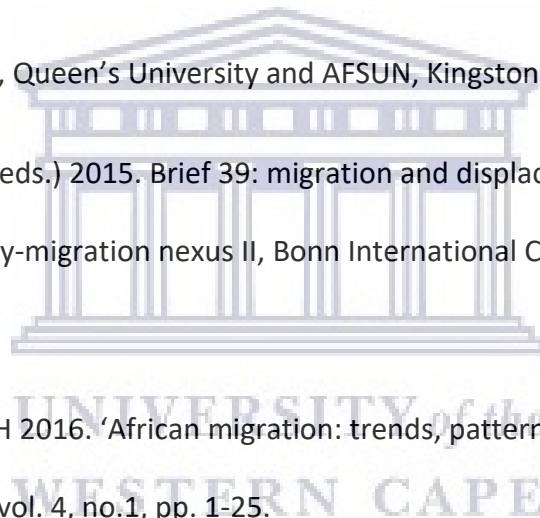
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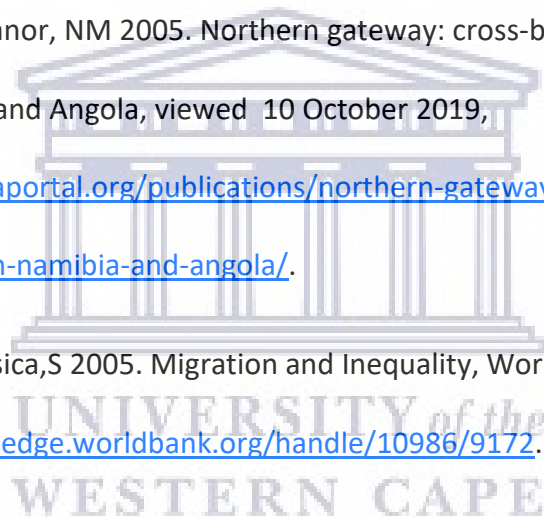
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