

PATTERNS OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

By

A T NTSHIDI

Student No. 23260742 ORCID No: 0000-0002-4399-678X

**A mini-dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the Masters of Social Science in
Population Studies and Sustainable Development degree at the North-West University,
Mafikeng Campus**

Supervisor: Professor. Ayiga Natal

October 2017

Acknowledgements

My heartfelt gratitude goes to Professor Ayiga Natal, who tirelessly supervised and directed me in this tedious academic journey. “KISIRERENG IJO LOKASUBAN”. Mr. Kennedy Machira, who continuously assisted me during the write-up of this mini-dissertation. May the Lord bless you abundantly.

Above all, glory and honour to “the giver of life, the Almighty God, the Father, the Son and the Holy Spirit.” I Thank God for good health, tolerance, perseverance, patience and assurance during this journey.

My gratitude is also extended to all my lecturers for the encouragement they rendered when I needed it most. To all my colleagues, this programme was made easier because together we stand. Kgomoitso Makgeledisa and Nimrod Mhambi, you’re constant and consistent advice is highly appreciated. Ntswaki Letsapo, Victor Gaowelwe and Shuping Molema and Oratile Monareng, your emotional support can never go unnoticed. “KEA LEBOGA BARATIWA BAKA!”

Not forgetting my awesome, blessed family; Obakeng Moremong, Tshepiso Ntshidi, Thapelo Africa and my angel Rorisang Ntshidi, for the unceasing prayers, inspiration, motivation and financial and emotional support during my studies. Without you, I would be nowhere in life. My giant gratitude goes to NSFAS and NRF, the financial sources that have made it possible for me to be what I am today. THANK YOU!

Dedication

I dedicate this to **Martha Ntshidi**, the most loving grandmother in the whole world. Without you

I am nothing but with you the future is certain. I LOVE YOU OUMA!

Declaration

I, Abigail Tumisang Ntshidi, hereby declare that this mini-dissertation, which is submitted to the North-West University (Mafikeng Campus), for the degree of Master of Social Sciences in Population Studies and Sustainable Development, is my own work and has not been submitted for a degree in any university.

Abigail Tumisang Ntshidi

Signature:

Date: 11/09/2017

Abstract

Background: In South Africa, rural-urban migration trends are increasing at a fast rate, from 15 per 1000 in 2001 to about 28 per 1000 in 2011, with people aged 0-14 years joining the migration stream. This movement has its own advantages and disadvantages for both the place of origin and the destination and has resulted in extensive social-economic pressure, especially in the receiving areas.

Objective: The study investigated the patterns of rural-urban migration among native South Africans between 2001 and 2011 using census ten per cent sample data based on usual place of residence.

Method: Basic descriptive statistics were used to describe variables in terms of frequencies and percentages. Bivariate analysis and logistic regression model were used to estimate factors associated with rural-urban migration in South Africa over the two study periods.

Results: The prevalence of rural-urban migration in 2001 and 2011 were 53,998 and 117,604 respectively. Furthermore the study found that South Africans who were aged 31 or older represented the largest proportion of the migrants in 2001 (36.8%) and 2011 (39.2%). This was followed by youth aged 14 years and younger. Moreover, the study found people with physical disabilities was associated with decreased likelihood to migrate in 2001 (OR=0.69, 95% CI [0.66-0.71], $p < 0.001$) and more likely to migrate in 2011 (OR=1.25, 95% CI [1.20-1.28], $p < 0.001$). In respect to gender, in 2001, females were more likely to transfer to urban areas, (OR=1.12, 95% CI [1.09-1.13], $p < 0.001$) compared to males (reference point). Conversely, it was found that females were significantly more likely (OR=1.01, 95% CI [0.90-0.92], $p < 0.001$) to move to urban areas than their male counterparts in 2011. Other factors such as marital status, level of education, employment status, and father alive and mother alive, and income status were significant predictors of rural-urban migration. It is worth noting that children ever born (CEB) to migrants had an insignificant association with rural-urban migration in 2001 and CEB was found to be a significant predictor of rural-urban migration in 2011.

Conclusion:

The study concludes that the high rate of migration of the disabled from rural areas to the urban areas in the two periods leads to a recommendation that those urban areas should have facilities that are equipped to accommodate disabled people. Furthermore, the results also show that rural-urban migrants in South Africa are young, educated, largely unemployed and never married. Migrants with the above characteristics pose serious social and security challenges in the urban areas of destination. Their predominance in the Southern African migration stream could explain the increasing level of violence and other crimes in urban areas of South Africa. It is therefore recommended that the South African government and the private sector create effective programmes that can provide employment opportunities and skills development for the abovementioned migrants.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements.....	i
Dedication.....	ii
Declaration.....	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Abbreviations and Acronyms	ix
List of Tables	x
List of figures.....	xi
Chapter One	1
Introduction.....	1
1.0 Background of the Study	1
1.1 Problem statement.....	5
1.2 Objective of the study	6
1.3 Research questions.....	6
1.4 Study hypotheses	7
1.5 Study rationale/Significance of the study	7
1.6 Layout of the thesis.....	9
Chapter Two.....	10
Literature Review.....	10
2.1 Introduction.....	10
2.2 State of migration in the developing and developed countries	11
2.2.1 Rural-urban migration in Sub-Saharan Africa.....	13
2.2.2 South African experience of rural-urban migration	14
2.3 Factors influencing rural-urban migration	15
2.3.1 Socio-economic factors	15

2.3.1.1	Education and rural-urban migration	16
2.3.1.2	Income status and rural-urban migration	17
2.3.1.3	Employment and rural-urban migration.....	18
2.3.2	Demographic characteristics	21
2.3.2.1	Age and rural-urban migration.....	22
2.3.2.2	Gender and rural-urban migration	22
2.3.2.3	Race and rural-urban migration	23
2.3.2.4	Disability status and rural-urban migration	24
2.3.3	Individual factors.....	25
2.3.3.1	Parental survival and rural-urban migration	26
2.3.3.2	Marital status and rural-urban migration	27
2.3.3.3	Children ever born and rural-urban migration	28
2.4	Theoretical framework.....	29
2.5	The conceptual framework	30
Chapter Three.....		34
Methodology		34
3.1	Introduction.....	34
3.2	Study setting.....	34
3.3	Study Design.....	35
3.4	Data Source.....	36
3.5	Variables and Measures	36
3.5.1	Dependent Variable	37
3.5.2	Independent Variables	37
3.6	Analytical procedures	40
3.6.1	Univariate analysis	40

3.6.2	Bivariate analysis.....	41
3.6.3	Multivariate analysis.....	42
3.7	Data quality	43
3.6	Limitation of the study.....	48
Chapter four		50
Results.....		50
4.1	Introduction.....	50
4.2	Demographic profile of the study population	50
4.3	Differentials of migration status by selected background characteristics.....	54
4.4	Differentials in migration rate of the selected factors.....	59
4.5	Predictors of rural-urban migration	63
4.6	Discussion	68
Chapter five.....		71
Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations		71
5.1	Introduction.....	71
5.2	Summary of the findings.....	71
5.3	Conclusion	72
5.4	Recommendations.....	73
References.....		74

Abbreviations and Acronyms

CEB	:	Children Ever Born
IOM	:	International Organization of Migration
NDP	:	National Development Plan
RSA	:	Republic of South Africa
SADC	:	Southern Africa Development Communities
SPSS	:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSA	:	Sub-Saharan Africa
STATSA	:	Statistics South Africa
WHO	:	World Health Organization

List of Tables

Table 3.1: Definition of variables	39
Table 3.2: Myer index calculation for 2001	44
Table 3.3: Myer index calculation for 2011	45
Table 4.1: Percentage distribution of the study population by selected background Characteristics..	52
Table 4.2: Differentials in migration status by selected background characteristics 2001 and 2011.....	56
Table 4.3: Differentials in migration rate	59
Table 4.4: Binary logistic regression showing Odds Ratios of factors predicting migration in 2001 and 2011.....	65

List of figures

Figure 2.1	Conceptual framework.....	32
Figure 3.1	South Africa map	35
Figure 3.2	Myer blended index graph	46

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0 Background of the Study

Migration is defined as a relocation of people from their original place of residence to new destinations (Agensa, 2011). Migration comes in two forms, that is, the international and internal migration. International migration consists of movement from one country to another. It involves crossing an international border from one country to another country (Adamnesh et al., 2014). Boure (2001) defines internal migration as the relocation of people from mostly rural areas to the urban areas within the country's borders. Furthermore, in this type of migration the place of origin is where the migrant comes from (rural areas) and the place of destination is where the migrant is heading to (urban areas). Migration can also be viewed as a circular migration, also known as temporary migration, and it is defined as a repetition of migration by the same individual between two places (rural to urban or vice versa).

Patterns of rural-urban migration in South Africa are not new. For instance, rural-urban migration has a long history reaching as far back as the early nineteenth century (Antobam, 2016). South Africa's rural-urban migration depended on the labour migration, where Black men were recruited for mining and farm work while White men were being absorbed into state employment (Evans, 1997; Posel & Casale, 2006). The migration of labour guaranteed wealth in the economy but instantaneously produced poverty and patterns of unemployment that still prevail in South Africa (Antobam, 2016). Antobam (2016) further posits that the influx of rural-urban migrants in South Africa before and after democracy in 1994 independence is a clear response to years of imbalance in the socio-economic development between urban and rural areas.

Rural-urban migration occurred in South Africa from the 1960s until the early 1990s. This was an outcome of the apartheid policies such as the Group Areas Act and Influx Control Legislation that restricted the movement of Black Africans in an attempt to regulate, control and limit their movement (Gelderblom, 1994; Agensa, 2011). This was aimed at developing White economic opportunities by the forceful removal of Blacks from their commercial lands to the so-called 'homelands' and also to control the urbanization and migration patterns of Blacks (Kok, 2003).

The demise of apartheid in South Africa resulted in the abolition of these acts and policies and ended the control and restrictions of movement of the Black population into and within urban areas (Antobam, 2016). This explains the recent high rate of Black rural-urban migration. More than 70% of urban dwellers today are Blacks (Boure, 2001). Although the apartheid era has come to an end, many South Africans are still imprisoned in the legacy of the apartheid homeland policy and find it hard to escape this situation (Landau, 2012). Furthermore, the apartheid policies had serious ramifications on the age and gender structure of the population in various regions, and strikingly negative consequences for social cohesion and family stability (Collinson, 2007). Wentzel et al. (2006) posit that the long-lasting impact of apartheid still remains and South Africa's spatial distribution still reflects its planning. Migration involves the poorest and most marginalized people who live in rural areas and former homeland areas or townships (Antobam, 2016).

The problem of rural-urban migration is not unique to South Africa as there is an avalanche of literature that points to the fact that both African and European countries are also faced with the same problem. For instance, in Europe, the advent of industrialisation across cities remains the major factor that caused people to move from less developed rural areas to support the growing economies in urban areas (Hatton & Williamson, 1998). This situation increased the influx or

movement of people from the rural areas to the urban settlements. However, this tendency has a number of effects on the receiving cities. For instance, rural-urban migration results in increased demands for social services, and increased population density which results in shortage of infrastructure such as housing, lack of employment, shortage of food and increased morbidity levels as a result of environmental degradations (Todaro, 1969; Agensa, 2011; Hatton and Williamson, 1998). These problems are also prevalent in South Africa as the rural-urban migration has increased to unparalleled proportions since democracy in 1994 ;it is estimated that 80% of the South African population will be residing in urban areas in 2050 (SAnews.gov, 2017). Like in the rest of the developing world, this rapid urban growth has placed significant pressure on natural and human systems that underpin and maintain settlements. Thus it is evident that urbanization and migration have played a key role in shaping the urban experience.

The movement of people from rural to urban areas has become a common practice on the African continent. However, the migration challenges vary from one region to another. For instance, in West and North African regions, Haas (2016) indicated that the regions have a number of migrants that either move within their regions or from the continent in order to seek better economic gains (Awumbaii, et al., 2011). For example, people move from one region to another seeking arable and fertile land, a situation which triggers a problem both for the sending region and the receiving region. It is imperative to note that migration creates a shortage of skilled labour in the sending regions and cause much socio-economic risk for and from migrants as they try to settle in the receiving regions (Agensa, 2011).

In Southern Africa, South Africa is one of the countries which have a large number of internal and international migrants. The Gross Domestic Product growth rate has been slowing down from 4.2

in 2000 to 1.3 in 2015 and a change in the inflation rate from 7.02 in 2000 to 3.8 in 2015, movement of people from rural to urban areas in the country increased from 52.5% in 2000 to 64.8% in 2015 (World Bank, 2016).

The increased patterns of rural-urban migration settlements have resulted in a lot of social problems in the form of high demand for social services such as health care facilities, housing, and led to inadequate food supply and an increased level of morbidity. Due to the high level of urbanisation that the country has experienced over the past decades since 1994, there have been high levels of immigration among the native South Africans seeking better economic empowerment (Awumbila et al., 2011). For instance, growing businesses and the high levels of urbanisation have translated into people leaving their place of birth, predominantly rural, to the urban set-up (Landau, 2012).

Studies that have explored the effect of rural-urban migration in South Africa were either limited in their scope or did not account for other significant factors such as the effect of parental survival status on migration decisions, and to understand migration from rural and urban perspective so as to provide a feasible policy direction to solve migration challenges in South Africa. For instance, in his study, titled “*Migration into Rustenburg local municipality between 1996 and 2001*”, Kibet (2013) opines that the majority of the migrants are migrating to Rustenburg because of the employment opportunities in mining, and migrants from other provinces such as Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal relocate to Rustenburg to sell their skills. This study is thoroughly done but it is not a true reflection of rural-urban migration in South Africa as it only deals with a specific geographical area. Some important indicators such as individual influence on rural-urban migration were omitted in the study as its direction was towards socio-demographic indicators that the current study seeks to pursue. Boure (2001) made strides towards an explanation of internal

migration in South Africa; the study concentrated on investigating the determinants of internal migration and did not comprehensively pursue the contribution of the individual factors to migration status. The main objective of the study was to examine the influence of the selected determinants of a migrant's decision to migrate, but did not highlight the contribution of individual factors to rural-urban migration.

Despite numerous studies carried out (Kibet, et al 2013, Kok, et al, 2003 and Boure, 2001) and policies made (Department of Rural Development and Land Reform framework policy, 1996) over time to improve on the state of rural-urban migration in South Africa, the rural-urban migration is still prevalent in the country, with undesirable effects becoming a common phenomenon in the country. There is complicity on the part of the government as there is little enforcement of laws and policies that try and control the behavioural trends in rural-urban migration in relation to its effect (Boure, 2001). Against this background, the current study explores the patterns and trends of rural-urban migration in South Africa using South African 2001 and 2011 census data in order to investigate the pull and push factors influencing rural–urban migration. In this regard, particular attention was placed on socio-economic, demographic and individual perspectives.

1.1 Problem statement

Rural-urban migration in South African has been increasing at an alarming rate. It increased from 15 per 1000 in 2001 to 28 per 1000 in 2011 (South Africa Statistics, 2012). The youth have a high prevalence in the rural-urban migration stream (Stats SA, 2006). This is a cause of concern as

trained human resources are moved from rural to urban areas, a phenomenon also known as brain-drain (Kimani, 2016). This phenomenon retards the development of rural areas as not only skilled human resources, but also the most able age group is transplanted away from where the impact on development is the greatest. On the other hand rural-urban migration creates a problem of population explosion in urban areas leading urban congestion, which creates deficits in social facilities, lack of basic food commodities, a scramble for housing, and unemployment (Gross, et al., 2009). Other negative aspects of rural-urban migration are family dissolution among the migrants from the sending areas and increased environment degradation in the receiving areas, among others (Somik et al., (2006).

This study therefore attempted to assess the patterns of rural-urban migration in South Africa. In doing so the 2001 and 2011 censuses were used.

1.2 Objective of the study

The main objective of the study was to examine the patterns of rural-urban migration in South Africa. To achieve this objective, the following specific objectives were examined:

- i. To determine the prevalence of rural-urban migration in South Africa for the periods 2001 and 2011; and
- ii. To examine the socio-economic, demographic and individual factors influencing rural-urban migration in South Africa for 2001 and 2011.

1.3 Research questions

The following research questions were used to augment the specific objectives;

- i. What was the migration–flow of rural-urban migration in 2001 and 2011?; and

- ii. What were the socio-economic, demographic and individual factors that influenced rural-urban migration in South Africa in 2001 and 2011?

1.4 Study hypotheses

The following study hypotheses were tested in the study:

- i. Disabled people are less likely to migrate to urban areas ;
- ii. People who are unemployed are more likely to migrate than people who are employed;
- iii. People having secondary or higher education are more likely to migrate than people with no or primary education;
- iv. There is no difference in the migration of males and females in South Africa;
- v. People with both living parents are more likely to migrate than people with only one parent surviving;
- vi. Migrants with more than two children are more likely to move to urban areas.

1.5 Study rationale/Significance of the study

Currently, our understanding of rural-urban migration phenomenon in South Africa is limited in terms of relevant measurement that could predict future movement of the population and overcoming data limitations (South Africa Statistics, 2012). This is in partly due to lack of analysis of large scale data that can shed more light on migration, especially regarding factors and processes that influence rural-urban migration decisions in South Africa. The need for a study on migration is further compelled by the widespread migration streams from rural to urban areas that started manifesting itself after the end of apartheid.

The rationale of the study is that rural-urban migration produces developmental problems for both the sending and receiving areas. These include overcrowding and congestion in receiving areas. It also results in strains on urban social services, and both unemployment and underemployment can emanate.

Therefore, the study is to assist policy makers to formulate policies that will help to prevent or at least reduce the migration-flow of migrants from rural to urban areas. For example, this can be achieved through creating opportunities in rural areas through rural development policies and programmes that can create employment opportunities, schooling opportunities and provision of facilities, among others. Policies are needed for the increasing of urban infrastructure so that urban areas are able to accommodate the increasing number of urban residents.

The study is contributing to the recent scholarly debate in area of rural-urban migration and its determinants using nationally representative census data collected between 2001 and 2011 and provide essential information about rural–urban migration based on socio-economic and demographic perspectives.

Lastly this study will contribute and provide solutions to service providers in planning for the provision of community services and facilities that have to be aligned with the migration and urbanization trends. This will in turn assist the relevant authorities to meet the needs and demands of the influx of migrants in the urban setting. Furthermore, rural areas also need to be developed and to be provided with services that will improve the wellbeing of its residents and enhance sustainable human development.

1.6 Layout of the thesis

The mini-dissertation is organized into five Chapters. Chapter one is the introductory chapter which presents the background to the study, the statement of the problem, objectives of the study, rationale of the study, objectives and study hypotheses. In the second chapter the literature review and the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study are presented. The methodology used in the study, which comprises study design, source of data and methods of data analysis are presented in chapter three. Chapter four is devoted to the results of the study. The chapter describes the study population assessed the prevalence of rural-urban migration and identified some of the factors influencing rural-urban migration. The summary, conclusion, and recommendations of the study are presented chapter five.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Many scholars have dealt with the rural-urban migration (Adepoju, 1998; Antobam, 2016; Boure, 2001; Agensa, 2011). This practice is not only common in South Africa but it is universal in nature. Time brings many changes with it and people find themselves compelled to move from one place to another in pursuit of different goals such as education and economic interests (Antobam, 2016). South Africa is not spared from this scourge as families are torn apart and social cohesion is disturbed (Bennett, et al., 2015). However, not all is lost as there are also benefits of people intermingling with each other. While there is concern about the decay of morals due to movements, *Ubuntu* (humanness) a South African philosophy that is highly held still holds meaning to the society. *Ubuntu* is togetherness, kindness, honest and good principles towards one another and encourages people to unite as one (Makgoro, 1997). Although the values that moulded uniqueness as South Africans according to our ethnic groups are desirable, it is no longer possible to have those divisions as time is dynamic. The hybrid values that develop from the grouping of people from different backgrounds, different walks of life and different beliefs and values make South African communities unique as a rainbow nation. However, the rule of nature has it that everyone has to maintain their territory. As such, internal migration causes social ills as people clash for survival over jobs and other social opportunities, which culminate in social ills such as xenophobia (Antobam, 2016). Therefore, this literature review is carried out in the study in order to identify the gaps existent in the previous studies and to add onto literature that examines the subject from

other perspectives. The study is based on relevant theoretical and conceptual frameworks that are existent in other fields of studies.

2.2 State of migration in the developing and developed countries

South Africa is faced with internal movements as a lot of social and economic challenges and opportunities are experienced and compel people to move (Antobam, 2016). However, this rural-urban migration is not uncommon to other countries as evidenced by scholarly works around the world (Bull-Kamanga, 2003; Chowdhury, et al., 1972; Cris Beauchemin, et al., 2014). Both developed and developing countries are faced with the same predicament. This is because rural-urban migration provides opportunities for people to enhance their socio-economic livelihood (Crivello, 2011). Statistics reports and records present that rural-urban migration is so common with 50.5% of the world's population dwelling in urban areas (World Bank, 2016). Rural-urban migration is a universal phenomenon and it is not a unique practice to South Africa. The new constitutional dispensation in 1994 loosened the stringent and repressive laws of apartheid that restricted and limited movements of people between urban and rural areas (Boure, 2001). Internal movements have been made easy as people are now free to pursue their careers and economic opportunities anywhere in the country (Boure, 2001). However, the majority of migrants are the youth. This has not been easy as the population explosion in cities causes a lot of pressure on service delivery, housing and food supplies. While most old school South Africans bemoan the erosion of *Ubuntu* in the society, it is good to note that this philosophy still holds water in our society as evidenced by the court's judgement in *State versus Makwanyane*. This negative effect of rural-urban migration cannot be allowed to cloud one's judgement as there are benefits in the intermingling of people from different places. Many scholars have dealt with this issue and this

study approaches the same subject through the lens of the socio-economic, demographic and individual influence on rural-urban migration areas.

The trend of urbanization has been geometrically increasing each year in the developed countries (Yao Lu, 2015). For instance, countries such as those in Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, Northern America and Oceania have rapidly urbanized in the last years (World Bank, 2016). Urbanization has had significant implications on the three demographic phases namely, fertility, mortality and migration. It is imperative to note that the more people migrate to urban areas the greater socio-demographic challenges they have. For example, migrants with more children in the urban setting experience more challenges to health care, nutritional support and later experience economic burden (Todara & Smith, 2003). This situation ultimately has an impact on mortality and morbidity which consequently affects their socio-economic livelihood (Bull-Kamanga, 2003).

Studies have it that the majority of those that migrate have requisite skills. Cris Beauchemin et al., (2014) posit that Dakar migrants are wealthier and educated, thus, their migration projects are costly and highly supported by the migration laws. This is due to the fact that the migrants in turn support the development of their places of birth via sending remittances. However, according to the study by Isiugo-Abanihe (2014), Nigerian internal migration is selective in terms of education, skills and professions. Migrants in Nigeria are relocating due to the attractive economic opportunities in urban settings. In other African countries, migrants have been associated with a number of factors, including high levels of crime, inadequate housing, and inadequate social services as result of high population influx (Onokala, et al., 2013).

2.2.1 Rural-urban migration in Sub-Saharan Africa

In sub-Saharan Africa, migration rate is lowest in comparison to the whole world (World Bank,2016). However,the intra-regional migration is very high in the sub-Saharan Africa(SSA) region; for instance, most people migrate from one African country to another. As a result of socio-economic circumstances, a high proportion of people who migrate are either skilled or unskilled (Kok, et al., 2003).

In Sub-Saharan Africa, the movement of people is not balanced as well. This is because most African countries have high levels of urbanization. There are increased levels of development which attract an influx of skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labour from the rural to the urban sector(Agensa, 2011). This results in a high proportion of squatter settlements in the urban sector due to the need of people to support urbanization development (Bouare, 2001). For instance, the International Organization for Migration(IOM) indicates that high levels of urbanization translate into increased level of squatter settlement and decreased life expectancy due to inadequate support as a result of the increased population in urban areas. As such, in the urban sectors, the majority of the middle class is not capable of supporting themselves due to low wages and the high rate of unemployment(Antobam, 2016). For example, the unemployment rate in Nigeria has increased to 13.3% in the second quarter of 2016 from 12.1% in the first quarter of 2016; this is the highest unemployed rate since 2009 (Nigeria National Bureau of Statistics, 2016). The unemployment rate in Kenya increased to 40% in 2011 from from 12.7% in 2006 (Kenya National Bureau of Statistics,2016). In the above mentioned countries the unemployment rates have increased gradually over the years resulting in massive protests and high crime rates. South Africa is also faced with similar challenges concerning rural-urban migration which culminated in a population explosion and causes problems in social service delivery(Boure, 2001).

2.2.2 South African experience of rural-urban migration

Rural-urban migration and its impact on the South African society first became embedded, established and concentrated in the late decades of the nineteenth century as mining activities catapulted the country onto the world's monetary stage (Boure, 2001). As South Africa evolved, entrepreneurial society and agriculture turned into a less alluring employment option as people left their place of origin to seek for jobs in the mines at the end of the 1800s. As such, various population groups began migrating towards urban settings (Kok & Collinson , 2006). This resulted in the bulk rural-urban migration of Blacks and rural Afrikaners. However, these population groups had different motives and outcomes for their rural-urban migration, with Blacks being mining labourers while the rural Afrikaners (Whites) were being absorbed into state employment (Boure, 2001). On the same note, internal migration predominantly became a cause of concern and thus, became a foremost preoccupation of the apartheid government (Collinson, et al., 2006). The apartheid government took steps to regulate and control the movement of the Black population in order to enhance economic opportunities of the White minority and to control and limit African urbanization (Kok & Collinson , 2006; Evans, 1997)

With the advent of the new political era in 1994, this has changed as there are now free interprovincial movements (Boure, 2001). For example, there have been major rapid growths taking place in South African small cities due to increasing economic activity in cities such as Rustenburg, Ekurhuleni, Polokwane, Nelspruit and Vanderbiljpark (Stats SA, 2006). These cities are among the fastest growing urban areas with an average annual population growth rate of 1.6% and 2.9 % over the last decade compared to Cape Town with 1.4% (Stats SA, 2012). The reason for this trend is abrogation of the apartheid laws that restricted the movement of people from rural to urban areas (Gelderblom & Kok, 1994). There has been some economic growth in urban areas,

which pulls people to urban areas in search of better living opportunities (Collinson, 2007). However, with such a trend of amplified urbanization there are consequences such as social tensions, leading to xenophobic attacks from natives on foreigners (Awumbaii, et al., 2011). Furthermore this results in a high unemployment rate in urban settlements and high crime rate which create enormous environmental glitches and health risks which at the end pose challenges for government service provision (Haas & Marie-Laurence, 2016). Not only are the effects of rural-urban migration felt at the government and social level, but households have also been affected. It is, therefore, imperative for the current study to investigate the patterns of rural-urban migration and to recommend appropriate policies to deal with the consequences of rural-urban migration in South Africa.

2.3 Factors influencing rural-urban migration

2.3.1 Socio-economic factors

Migration of people from rural to urban areas is considered to be the most significant socio-economic factor which results in a number of positives to both rural and urban areas (Bull-Kamanga, 2003). According to Lee (1966) and Ravenstain's (1889) theory, a better economic environment in cities has an impetus to increase the livelihood of the people and this attracts the movement of people from rural to the urban sector. For instance, such socio-economic factors result in people getting better pay, and developing their rural households after earning better salaries from urban settlements. This also helps in increasing life expectancy of the population. Furthermore, according to Lee (1966) and Ravenstain's (1889) theory, better income levels is a direct benefit to the life of the people in the economy.

The influx of people with different socio-economic backgrounds into the urban setting often creates an imbalance in the cities. This generates xenophobic attacks, labour exploitation, poor housing and the high crime rates, high divorce rate, drug abuse and the spread of HIV/AIDS (Cris Beauchemin, et al., 2014). It is therefore imperative to explore the trends on how education influenced rural urban migration in the country from the perspective of the 2001 and 2011 Census data.

2.3.1.1 Education and rural-urban migration

According to a study by Hussein (2005), education levels of migrants pressurize them to make a decision to advance their education. Hussein (2005) further states that migrants with secondary education have a significantly better chance to migrate to urban settlements as compared to their counterparts with primary education. Furthermore, Caldwell (1969) posits that those individuals with a high level of education are equipped with requisite skills which will enhance their employment options and offer better opportunity in urban areas. This in turn, provides educated migrants with a better competitive advantage to settle in urban settings. However, according to Lee's theory (1966), the only minor exception to the rule occurs with people who have post graduate qualifications. Those with post-graduate degrees are less likely to migrate than those who graduate with an under-graduate qualification (Antobam, 2016). Although there is this occurrence in the pattern, it can be said that any college graduate, including those who hold post-graduate qualifications, are twice as likely to migrate as someone who did not finish school. It would appear that from these differences those educational status characteristics of individuals reflect professional training (Funnah, 2001).

Therefore educational characteristics are meticulously related to migration; the more educated a person is, the better the chances for them to migrate to other places in search of self-enhancement in terms of employment and a better livelihood for themselves and their families (Crivello, 2011). However, the connection between migration and education is not always positive. For instance, people can migrate to an urban area in pursuit of educational attainment but end up not being able to obtain it due to social inequalities and insufficient access to necessary funds to finance their educational attainment (Nunn, et al., 2014).

2.3.1.2 Income status and rural-urban migration

Previous studies posit that income has a bearing on the state of rural-urban migration around the world. For instance, in China, increased income has been associated with high levels of rural-urban migration (Gugler, 2004). On the same note, in another Asian Tiger (Taiwan), the government standardized the rate of income among the people in order to reduce the movement of workers and provide stability with the performance of organization (Yao Lu, 2015). However, the situation is completely different in Africa. Agensa (2011) and Casale et al. (2006) reiterated that the inadequate policy to police migration at an internal level has no effect to make people stay in a province for a period of time. In his study, Agensa (2011) pointed out that lack of policies to support local people have no influence on their migration status. Similarly Casale et al. (2006) indicated that internal migration is inadequately supported by government, and is a source of xenophobia as foreigners provide cheap labour and receive low pay without complaints.

On the same note, it is observed that the income differential between rural and urban areas is the key element for internal migration (Boure, 2001). For instance, in the Harris-Todaro model, the model assumes that the migration decision is based on expected income differentials between rural

and urban areas rather than just wage differentials. This implies that rural-urban migration in a context of high urban unemployment can be economically rational if expected urban income exceeds expected rural income (Zhu & Zhongmin, 2004). Similarly, Walker & Kennan (2006), reiterated that the association between income and migration decisions is driven by both geographic differences in mean wages and by a tendency to move in search of a better location match when the income realization in the current location is unfavourable.

Rural-to-urban migration causes overcrowding and unemployment in cities as migration rates surpass urban job creation rates, with many people ending up in unproductive or underproductive employment in the informal sector. Thus, the current study anticipates evaluating the income status relation to rural-urban migration in South Africa using census 2001 and 2011.

2.3.1.3 Employment and rural-urban migration

In Europe, employment has caused people to move internally within the Euro-Zone seeking for better jobs. For example, the World Bank (2016) indicates that as a result of the economic crisis in Greece, the majority of people moved from Greece to other Euro-nations in pursuit of better jobs that would enrich them for their survival. In Tanzania, industrialization of the city of Dar-es-salaam has seen the majority of the people from the upland region of the country start to patronise Dar-es-salaam because of its economic progress (Bull-Kamanga, 2003). For instance, a majority of the people who are predominantly traders visit the port-city seeking for better trade opportunities. Furthermore, the city position of the port remains the major pull factor as it gives high employment to the people due to extensive activities coming from the port (Brettell, 2017).

In South Africa, the urban growth of the metropolitan areas such as Gauteng and North West province, in addition to the high level of mining in these provinces, leads the majority of local

South Africans to choose to visit these provinces to seek employment due to the economic growth and mining activities (Kibet, 2013). This results in many families migrating to the cities upon getting either permanent jobs or some long-term temporary mining jobs.

In another aspect, as the population of the country increases, the economic activities meant to support the population follow. These results in a high level of school service demand and job creation to support the growing population, hence it is a pull factor that attracts or increases influx of migrants at local level (South African Government, 2012). Unemployment with an alternative of job related activities has resulted in high levels of rural-urban migration. For instance, in the *Rural-urban migration in Nigeria: consequences on housing, health-care and employment* study, the results indicate that 94% of the respondents moved from their place of birth to the urban areas because of the high rate of unemployment in the rural areas (Johannie, 1988; Adnafu et al., 2014).

With the growing number of people migrating from the rural areas to the urban centres, there are also likely to be problems of overcrowding which intensifies the problems of communicable diseases and pollution (Posel & Casale, 2006). A significant cause of urban employment problems is the astonishing growth in urbanisation and the incapability of these urban centres to utilize or absorb the urban labour that was created through the process of urbanization (Cleveland, 1991; Agensa, 2011). The other problem is the extremely slow pace of industrialization as compared to urbanization (Nunn, et al., 2014). Furthermore, Nigeria has precipitated the most perilous magnitudes of capitalism by intentionally establishing inequality and poverty in society (Gross, et al., 2009). The approach used by the Nigerian government is organized by the bourgeoisie and has resulted in the establishment of poverty through the process of generating unemployment (Johnnie, 1988). Similarly, in India, unemployment is a major push factor because people leave their spouses

in the rural areas in seeking employment opportunities (Hina, et al., 2015). In the South African situation, rural dwellers, too, migrate to urban areas in search of employment opportunities in order to be able to provide for their families that are left behind (Posel & Casale, 2006).

On the same note, employed people with continuing alternative income generating activities have less preference of being internal migrants (Ullah & Sofi, 2013). A study by Lu (2015) indicates that a stable economic growth is always short of labour in that it offers both skilled and semi-skilled workers a living. This implies that rural-urban migration cannot be suppressed as the economy that is growing has an opportunity to create more employment for the people. Therefore, the current study plans to explore the effect of employment status on the rural-urban migration over the period 2001 and 2011 in South Africa using census datasets.

Around the world, the majority of the youth are moving from one region to the other in pursuit of socio-economic interests. For instance, the majority of migrants are separated from their parents because of education gains. For example, in South Africa most of the youth migrate from rural areas to urban areas in pursuit of furthering their studies in the universities or colleges (Kalule-Sabiti & Kibet, 2006). According to Landau (2012), the high level of youth out-migration from rural areas leaves behind the dependent population which is contributing to economic growth at a slow pace. These results in the slow economic development of rural areas compared to their urban counterparts.

Economic development in South Africa differs across the provinces; for instance, some universities have better infrastructure and courses. For example, supposedly a university offers the best agricultural course. This causes a high level of internal migration from other provinces such Mpumalanga. Recently, internal migration of the youth in academic pursuits has resulted in a

struggle and headache for them and their parents. In South Africa, higher education institutions nationwide have been involved in strikes and that resulted in universities closing prematurely. Therefore, this resulted in students from other provinces struggling to find temporary accommodation while waiting for the re-opening of universities. Furthermore, among adults, when they get a job in another province they intend to move along with their family, including children, causing children to be victims of internal migration. (Hall & Posel, 2012). Hall (2010) posits that families are better off sticking together even if it means moving around with children in pursuit of better living conditions.

Assuming the significance of employment for financial security, identity, social inclusion and well-being, it is crucial to gain an understanding of employment and how rural-urban migration affects the quality of finding employment in urban settlement.

2.3.2 Demographic characteristics

Migration is a process that affects socio-economic and demographic dynamics of the society. So it is imperative to study the effects or impact of migration on demographic factors in order to be able to create policies to deal with the consequences of rural-urban migration within the country's borders. The factors that this study investigates in terms of demographic factors are as follows; age, population group, disability status and gender.

2.3.2.1 Age and rural-urban migration

Due to the rural –urban migration, the urban areas experience influx of people in their reproductive ages that are able to increase the population growth and change the structure of the population in urban area; this results in the increase of slums, crime and environmental problems (Burns & Grove, 2001). Therefore, based on the aforementioned discussion, there is a need to explore the effects of age in form of the children, adolescents, young adults and adults in the country using census data.

2.3.2.2 Gender and rural-urban migration

Weeks et al., (2010) posit that rural-urban migration is gender selective; for instance, in South Africa during the Apartheid era, males were the predominant migrants due to the high demand of mining labour systems. The female internal migration rate was low because females were considered perpetual minors in the African tradition social systems (Weeks, et al., 2010). They were expected to seek permission from their husbands to migrate (Collinson, et al., 2006). However, the position has shifted as females can now migrate to urban areas in pursuit of educational opportunities or to advance their careers (Agensa, 2011). Modern day females are the ones that migrate a lot due to women empowerment such as the Affirmative Action strategy. Women are now able to make their own decisions without conforming to the social norms that state that men are the decision makers (Collinson, 2007). Additionally, the gender selective internal migration often results in the imbalanced gender ratio which affects marriages, family dislocations and reproductive behaviour in rural areas. However, urban cities are faced with problems such as overcrowding or congestion, strains on urban social services and unemployment (Boure, 2001).

Furthermore, according to Wiest (2016), migration is not only gender-selective but age-selective. For instance, migration selects young women which results in an uneven spatial development in both the source areas and hosting areas. Chort (2014) further states that women's migration decision is not well thought out or executed carefully due to the fact that they are forced to migrate due to their current circumstances, such as single motherhood with the sole responsibility for their children and need to provide for them. This normally results in the uncalculated cost or restriction experienced in the destination areas (Chort, 2014). However, Wiest (2016) states that women correctly plan to relocate, especially the young women that are given more preference in the employment sector, especially those with skills. Thus it is imperative that this study investigates the effects of gender on rural-urban migration.

2.3.2.3 Race and rural-urban migration

Race has been associated with push factors that affect communities. For instance, a study by Silverstein (2005), argues that race created a number of integration challenges among the white migrants who were moving from one community to another in search of economic stability. Accordingly, Kritz & Gurak (2015) reiterated that migrants experience a lot of challenges as a result of their racial status, more especially when they migrate to an area that is predominantly occupied by people with varying races. In South Africa, studies indicate that since 1994, the black population mobility increased tremendously, and Blacks were found to be more prone to rural-urban migration as compared to other races such as Whites, Indians, and mixed races (Kibet, 2013). The Black/African population mobility spans from the rural dimensions to urban areas.

Previous studies highlight that racial migration is a precursor of a number of social factors such as seeking high social and economic power, agricultural stability and matrimony reasons (Casale & Posel, 2006; Todaro & Smith 2003). However, the majorities are Black/Africans and there are still

cultural differences which sometimes lead to xenophobic practices among the indigenous people and such conditions lead to integration problems and difficulties in host communities (Posel & Casale, 2006). It is thus imperative to explore the trends on how race affects rural urban migration in the country from 2001 and 2011 Census data perspectives.

2.3.2.4 Disability status and rural-urban migration

Many studies do not account for the people living with disabilities as one of the key contributing factors in rural-urban migration under the demographic variables. According to the White Paper on the Integrated National Disability strategy (2003), rural areas do not have sufficient equipment or services to cater or care for people living with disabilities, hence, in the urban areas it is required by law that each and every facility offers services that will enable people living with disabilities to utilize public facilities such as toilets without any problems. Rural areas lack such facilities and specialized doctors to deal with people with disabilities (Antobam, 2016; Funnah, 2001). Thus, those with disabilities prefer to migrate to urban areas. However, the migration decision is not only based on the service attainable in the urban areas, but also on whether the person can afford them.

Funnah's (2008) thesis, *The Socio-economic and Demographic Characteristics of rural-urban youth migration in the North West Province of South Africa*, based on the 1996 South African census, found that a small proportion of the youth in 1996 had some kind of disability, whereas 92.4% did not have disability. The study further explains that those with multiple disabilities are a burden to their families and cannot be easily integrated into the society in the rural areas. Thus, it is imperative for those with multiple disabilities to be in an environment which is suitable and able to care for them efficiently and also specialized in such services (Funnah, 2001). Furthermore, those care centres are mostly established in the urban areas. It is therefore imperative to explore

the trends on how people with disabilities influence rural-urban migration in the country from 2001 and 2011 Census data perspectives.

2.3.3 Individual factors

Individual factors in this study are considered to be factors that affect the individual's decision to migrate such as parental survival, marital status and children ever born. According to the neoclassical theory, understanding migration as an individual-decision for income expansion is grounded on cost-benefit calculation (Corker, 2013). Furthermore, the deprivation theory concurs with the neoclassical theory in viewing individuals as the main actors in migration decision but assumes that individuals who are less advantaged within a community have the utmost inspiration to migrate from their place of origin (Aghsa, 2011). Both theories articulate that migration seems to be the only option to those individuals who are disadvantaged in the rural areas and is a means of improving their socio-economic positions by migrating to the urban setting.

However the new economics of migration theory differs from the neoclassical and deprivation theories. The new economics of migration theory views an individual decision-maker in the migration process as not an individual decision at all but it is mostly influenced by the family opinions and the decision is made by the family rather the individual. For example, the family decides or chooses to send a family member to migrate to maximise expected outcomes for the group. The migration of an individual and/or family or community member is a considered decision based on expected better opportunities or outcomes at the place of destination (Antobam, 2016).

2.3.3.1 Parental survival and rural-urban migration

Parental survival has an impact on an individual's decision to migrate from a rural area to urban settlement. If the parents are not alive the individual is often forced to migrate to other places in search of employment in order to be able to provide for his siblings especially if the migrant is from a poor family that depends on day-to-day income. It is identified by researchers such as (Agensa, 2011; Nunn et al., 2014 and Crivello, 2011) that migrants often have significant family responsibilities including caring for siblings, assisting parents, and contributing economically to the household.

In Mexico, the situation of an absent father in a household has been on the rise due to fathers migrating to the United States in search of better living opportunities that can enable them to care for their families financially (Nobles, 2013). This results in the family structure being shattered, meaning that the mother has to care for all the children by herself, although in some circumstances the father is in constant touch with his family by sending remittances to the mother in order to support his children and provide for their necessities (Nobles, 2013).

According to Noble (2013), 1 in 5 children in Mexico will experience the father's migration to the United States. The level is significantly higher in the rural communities of Mexico than in the urban areas. This therefore, demonstrates the wealth difference between rural and urban areas. Rural fathers depart to the United States for the benefit of their families and to be able to provide for their needs rather than those in the urban areas whose decisions to migrate might not be based on the family's needs but rather on furthering his career (Haas & Marie-Laurence, 2016). Furthermore, male migration encourages female-headed households and family disintegration. Similarly, in South Africa, most households are female-headed. This is the result of high male

migration levels in the country in pursuit of employment opportunities in the urban areas (Agensa, 2011).

According to Hall (2010), female rural-urban migration increased by 34% from 11% in 2009; this includes the women who came with their children to the urban areas. However, some women left their children in the rural areas. In South Africa it has become a norm that children are left behind in the rural areas under the custody of their grandparents, while their mothers and their fathers pursue their education and careers in order to be able to provide for their children (Posel & Casale, 2006). In Nairobi, for instance, mothers who migrate to other places without any family or connection end up staying in the slums and their children's life expectancy is cut short due to the insufficient water, sanitation and toilets, not to mention diseases found in such places (Konsiega, et al., 2006).

Therefore it is imperative to study the relation between an individual's decision to migrate and parent's survival. It is stated that if both parents are alive, there is a higher chance of individuals deciding to migrate to urban areas because they will have parental support, both financial and emotional, rather than those without parents who may inherit parental responsibilities towards their siblings (Nunn, et al., 2014).

2.3.3.2 Marital status and rural-urban migration

Around the world, the increase of female migration has led to a decline in marital rates. This changes the basic household and family structure. The decline of marital rate may be that woman prefers to migrate while they are single in order to make their own decisions without seeking

permission from their partners (Adepoju, 1998; Hina et al., 2015). It also enables them to migrate freely in search of employment opportunities. Similarly, according to Casale and Pasel (2003), without seeking any permission whatsoever from a male person, women are more inclined to migrate at any time they wish. Casale and Posel, (2003) found that regression results demonstrate that married women are less likely to migrate than their unmarried counterparts. This is because women are expected to look after and care for the children while the men earn a living to support their families (Crivello, 2011). The other point on regression results indicate that an adult female who has children under the age of 6 years is less likely to migrate. On the contrary, if an adult woman has children of school-going age (7-14 years), the odds of migrating to other places are more likely (Brettell, 2017).

2.3.3.3 Children ever born and rural-urban migration

Previous studies have shown that children less than 14 years are likely to experience forced migration by their parents (Brettell, 2017; Hall & Posel, 2012; Wiest, 2016). For instance, military parents may be relocated due to their work and their children are forced to move with them every time without being consulted, because of their inability to make mature decisions and as a result of their minor status (Bennett, et al., 2015). These circumstances may either be positive or negative on the child's growth and development (Konsiega, et al., 2006). Studies have shown that children who do not have a place to call home often find it difficult to integrate into the society or community they are currently living in (Hall & Posel, 2012). According to Hall (2012), in Australia, a large number of children have lost their childhood due to their forced participation in illegal hard labour. In Kenya, children are often forced to work, especially those children residing in the rural areas, where the parents perceive them as investments. Those children start providing for their individual households by working in the agricultural fields. It has been perceived and

observed that child labour laws do not really apply in the rural setting, unlike in the urban areas (Konsiega, et al., 2006).

Furthermore, studies indicate that when parents migrate or separate, children are either forced to relocate with one parent or both parents to a new place, or they are left behind by their parents and are then indirectly affected by migration (Cebotari, et al., 2016). On the same note, sometimes children are left behind in their place of birth while one parent or both parents migrate. Such children experience difficulties in their education, physiologically and emotionally. In the study by Cebotari et al., (2016), the results show that indeed children are affected psychosocially, especially by migration of the mother rather than the father; however, such results are gender selective.

The literature indicates that there is a connection between children (whether left behind at the birthplace or those who migrated to a new destination and migration decision of parents) and their health conditions (Bennett, et al., 2015). Such conditions have their pros and cons in relation to the child's health, whether physical, mental or emotional. Thus it is important to observe or study the trends of children migration in South Africa and come up with policies to deal with the nightmare of forced child migration (Atnafu, et al., 2014).

2.4 Theoretical framework

The current study adopts the pull-push theory by Lee which was developed in 1966. The theory states that the Push and Pull factors influence the acts of migration. The push factors are factors linked to the source area such as underemployment or unemployed opportunities, poor living conditions, low income, lack of public services such as education facilities. Pull factors are connected with the hosting area. Those may include better job opportunities, better living

conditions, better education prospects and better medical care (Lee, 1966). These push and pull factors are used as a springboard and foundation to the study in order to explain why people move from one place to another.

Studies that have used this model in the past, like *“Elderly Migration: An Analysis of Push and Pull Factors”* by Grieg Robertson Alley (1996), used the theory of push and pull. The’s (2014) study titled *“Pull and Push Factors of Migration: A Case Study in the Urban Area of Monywa Township, Myanmar,”* was based on this theory and used the following variables to test the correlation between age, gender, occupation, educational level of migrants, house location, better living condition, employment, and political factors and migration.

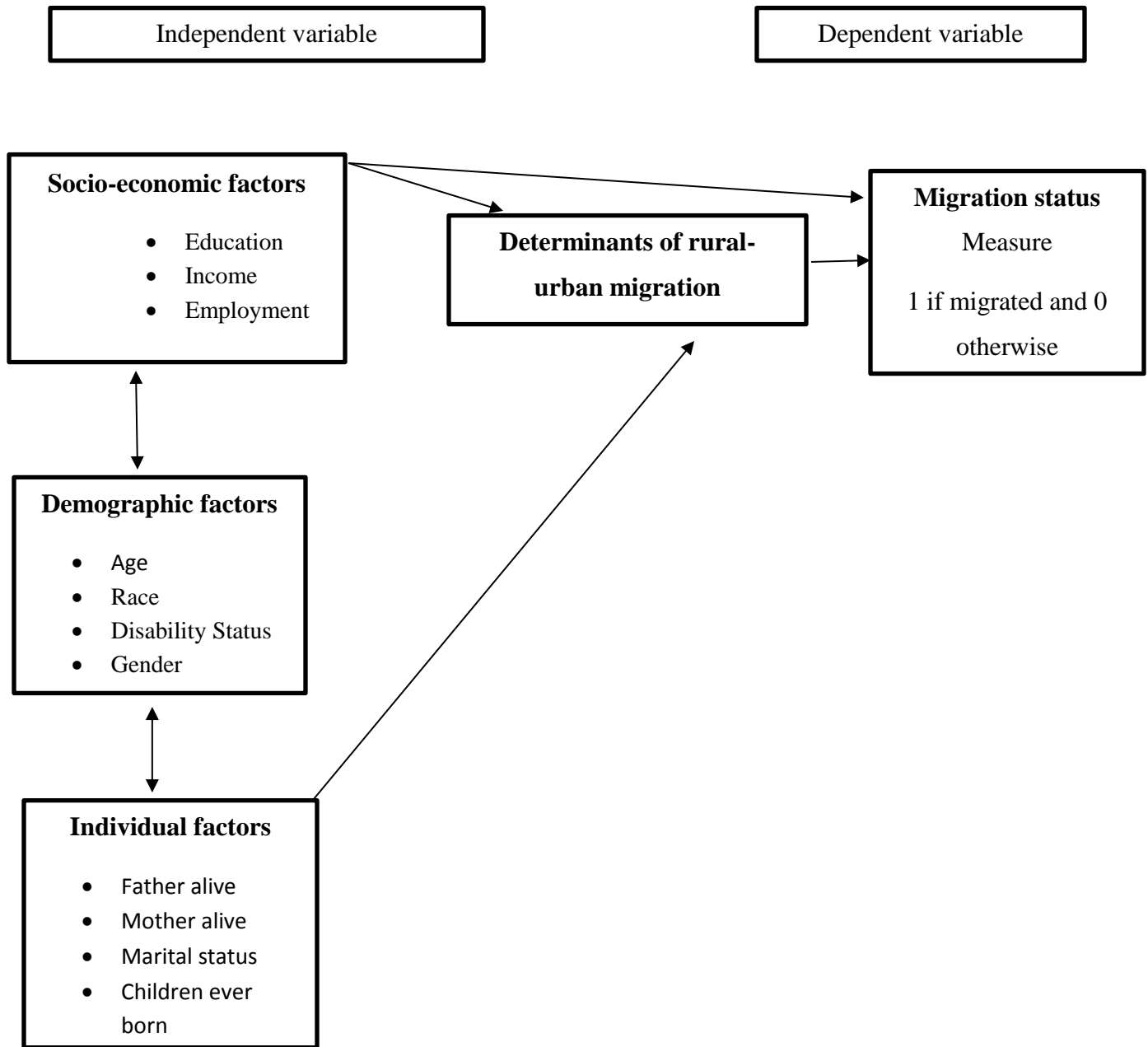
The above studies did not explore the individual factors in testing for the correlation of socio-economic characteristics and the independent variables used. Therefore, this current study is imperative because its variables tested against the migration status include individual factors such as father alive, mother alive, marital status and children ever born. As such, the study engages the Push and Pull theory in order to hypothesise and test how race, age, disability gender, education, income status , employment status , maternal and paternal survival , marital status and number of children ever born in the family estimate rural-urban migration in South Africa between 2001 and 2011.

2.5 The conceptual framework

Migration is cautiously believed to be a significant feature of livelihoods in developed countries where migrants pursue better living (Isiugo-Abanihe & Uche , 2014). Lee, in 1966, re-evaluated the concepts that contribute to the act of migration and divided them into push factors and pull factors; this is known to be a useful framework for arranging factors encouraging migration. Those

push and pull concepts have components. For instance, pull factors are associated with the negative conditions in the area of origin such as unemployment, bad climate, poor living conditions and lack of adequate medical centres, whereas pull factors are described as factors that attract the individual to migrate such as better living conditions, better income opportunities, and educational opportunities, and health care centres, among others.

Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework explaining migration flows



This study adopts the push and pull framework model to describe rural-urban migration in South Africa in order to identify which pull and push, socio-economic, individual factors and demographic characteristics influence this movement. These variables are shown in Figure2.1. In

the conceptual model, different measurement of the demographic, socio-economic and individual's variables are conceptualized to affect the probability of the variable outcomes. The framework is significant and primarily used to define and test the findings on the characteristics of migrants in the study.

Chapter Three

Methodology

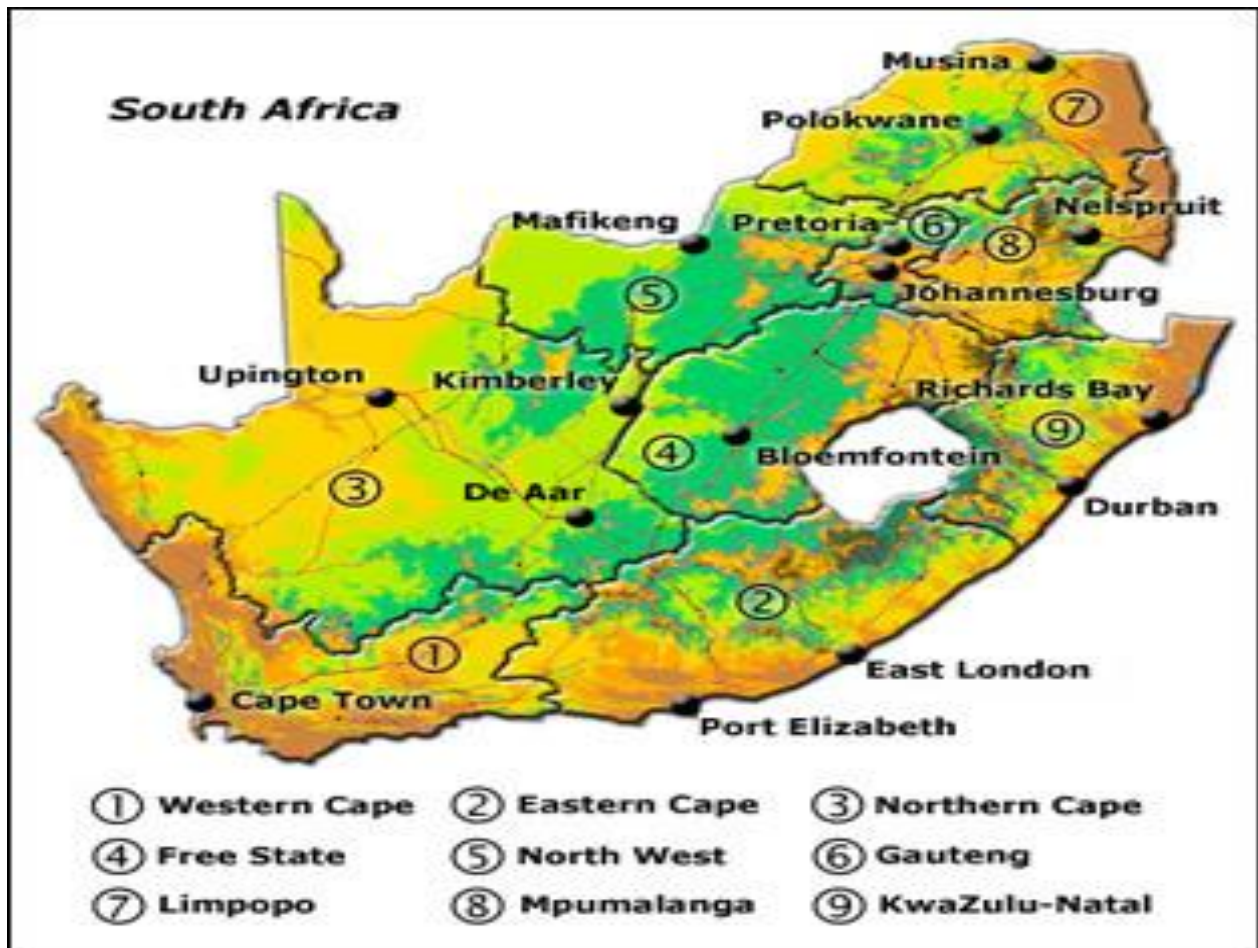
3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in the study. It specifically describes the study settings and study design. Also described in this chapter are data source, the variables which the study used and their measurements. The data quality assessment and analysis methods are also described in this chapter.

3.2 Study setting

The Republic of South Africa lies at the southern part of the African continent, stretching from latitude 22° to 35° S and longitudinally from 17° to 33°E. The country is divided into nine provinces, namely, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, Northern Cape, North West, Limpopo, Free State, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and Gauteng. According to the World Bank (2016), the total population of the country in 2015 was estimated to be 54.9 million. The South African population growth rate was estimated at about 1.6 % in 2015 down from 2.6 % in the 1960s. Labour force participation by gender stands at 43.8% females and 61.2% of males; and the unemployment rate was 23% for males and 27% for females in 2014. Urbanization rate of South Africa was estimated to be 37% in 2015 (Kibet, 2013).

Figure 3.2: Map of South Africa



Map produced: Mary Alexander, <https://www.MediaClubSouthAfrica.com>

3.3 Study Design

This study uses a cross-sectional and quantitative design. According to Claire et al., (2013), this design takes measurements of variables as they are at the time of the study. The quantitative method was used because the study aimed at explaining the relationship between variables and how these change over time. Burns and Grove (2001) argue that research design is the blueprint for conducting a study and maximizes control over factors that could hinder the legitimacy of the

findings. Study design assists a researcher in strategizing and implementing the study in order to obtain valid results.

3.4 Data Source

The study is based on data obtained from the 2001 and 2011 South African 10% sample Censuses. The 2001 and 2011 Censuses are the latest censuses that were conducted after the democratic transition in 1994 and are datasets that are capable of addressing the aims and objectives of the study from a national perspective. The main objective of collecting census data is to provide up-to-date information on population variables for planners, policymakers, researchers and development managers which would assist in the establishment, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of initiatives aimed at improving the quality of life of the population. Both censuses used the *de facto* method of population count. The censuses collected information on previous place of residence and usual place of residence. The information provided by a census confirms whether a person has migrated or not. If it turns out that the person has moved, census data will indicate where the person moved to or from.

The sample technique utilized for both censuses was the systematic stratified sample of households. By using this method, clusters were selected from a list of enumeration areas (EAs) as defined in the 2001 and 2011 censuses. The reason for using the 10 % sample size is because it is feasible and it is nationally representative.

3.5 Variables and Measures

In this section, the main variables used in the study are described. Rural-urban migration is viewed as circular migration also known as temporary migration and it is defined as a repetition of migration by the same individual between two places (rural to urban or vice versa). The definition

of migration in the South African context by Kok et al (2003) refers to those movements that involve a change in usual place of residence from one magisterial district to another.

3.5.1 Dependent Variable

The response variable used in the study was derived from usual place of residence and was recorded and renamed as migration status. In the census questionnaire respondents were asked “Where were you born? How long have lived in this area?”

From this question a variable on migration status was generated.

Migrants here are defined as individuals born within rural dwellings of South Africa who have migrated to the urban areas. Migration events in this paper are considered to be the place of birth as origin and urban area as the destination. For purposes of easier analysis the original response variable presented by the data set was recorded to form a new binary response variable. This re-coded variable was categorized as ‘never migrated and ever migrated’. The category ‘never migrated’ comprised respondents who reported to have never moved from their current geographical location in the last 10 year period and those in the category ‘ever migrated’ are those reported to have relocated from their original place of birth and participated in the circular rural-urban migration.

3.5.2 Independent Variables

A number of predictor variables were identified and these together with response variables are presented in Table 3.1. Some of these variables are continuous and categorical in nature. The independent predictor variables comprise demographic, socio-economic and individual characteristics. The demographic variables include age, gender, population group, people with

disabilities. The socio-economic variables referred to in this study are level of education, income status and employment status. That is, there is evidence of linkages between education, earnings and market productivity. In other words, migrants who are more educated tend to migrate more in search of better paying jobs in the urban areas where their skills can be more effectively used to enhance themselves in the work environment. Conversely, migrants who fail to complete high school face very limited and diminished employment prospects. Other variables (individual variables) included as predictor variables are survival of parents, children ever born and marital status.

Furthermore, current age of respondents is categorized in 5 and 10 years group in order to be able to include all the population ranging from 0- 31+years. Gender is classified as males or females. With regard to population group the respondents are categorized as African, coloured, Indian/Asian, white and others. Disability status is conveniently categorised as yes or no; education variable used was the highest level of education attended categorized as: no education, primary school, secondary school and tertiary. Income status was categorized as yes or no. Employment status was classified as employed or unemployment. Father alive was categorised as yes or no, also for mother alive. Marital status of respondents was classified as never married, married, cohabiting or separated. Lastly children ever born defined as the actual number of children born alive to women (Haub, 2013) was classified as less than 2, 3 to 4 children or 5 children and above.

Some of the above predictor variables were re-coded from their original codes as reflected in the Census data into a form that is applicable to the objectives of the current study. Especially, the following variables were re-coded: age of respondents (<14, 15-19, 20-30, 31+), level of education

(No education, Primary, Secondary and Tertiary), disability status (Yes or No), income status (Yes or No) and marital status (Never married, married, cohabiting or separated). In addition children ever born was recorded as <2, 3-4, 5+.

The details of how these variables are described and measured are presented in table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1. Variables Definitions and Variables Coding

Variable	Definition	coding
Response/ Dependent variables		
Migration status		0- Never migrated 1- If migrated
Predictor /Independent variables		
Demographic variables		
Age	This variable was obtained by asking the respondents to report their age in completed years.	0- <14 1- 15-19 2- 20-30 3- 31+
Gender	Gender is dichotomous in nature.	0- Male 1- Female
Population group	Racial groups of respondents	0- Black / African 1- Coloureds 2- Indian/ Asian 3- White 4- Other
Disability status	This was obtained by asking respondents “do you have any disability?”	0- No 1- Yes
Socio-economic variables		
Level of education	Educational attainment of respondents was obtained by asking the respondents ‘what is your highest level of education?’.	0- No education 1- Primary 2- Secondary 3- Tertiary
Income status	This was obtaining by asking the respondent whether or not	0- Yes 1- No

	they earned any incomes from a source.	
Employment status	Employment was obtained by asking the respondents “what is your employment status?”	0- Employed 1- Unemployed
Individual variables		
Father alive	Father’s survival status was obtained by asking “is your father alive?”	0- Yes 1- No
Mother alive	Mother’s survival status was obtained by asking “is your mother alive?”	0- Yes 1- No
Marital status	Marital status of respondents was obtained by asking “what is your marital status?”	0- Never married 1- Married 2- Cohabiting 3- Separated
Children Ever Born	Number of children was obtained by asking “how many children do you have?”	0- <2 1- 3-4 2- 5+

3.6 Analytical procedures

In this study, data was analysed by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 23. Data analysis was done at three levels including univariate, bivariate and multivariate.

3.6.1 Univariate analysis

Univariate analysis was the first method of analysis used in the study. It is descriptive in nature. It presents the frequency and percentages distribution of each variable. This method of analysis is used to describe the profile of the study population. Knowledge of the profile of the study population is useful in implementing the bivariate analysis (Cooper and Weekes, 1983). This section discusses the descriptive statistics used in the examination of the relationship between each

of the socio-economic, demographic and individual factors and rural-urban migration in South Africa.

3.6.2 Bivariate analysis

Bivariate analysis was the second method of analysis that was used in the study. According to Shumate and Palazzo (2010), bivariate analysis is conducted through four stages. Firstly, it is used to evaluate whether the value of the Migration status (dependent variable) is correlated to the values of the each social-economic, demographic and individual factors (independent variables) through detecting the nature of the relationship between the two variables, especially in relation to the reference category. Secondly, it is used to demonstrate the direction of relationship between the associated variables. Here the variables may be related positively or inversely. Thirdly, it is used to evaluate the significance of the association between the variables. Lastly, it is used to estimate the strength of the association between the dependent and the independent variables. Each demographic, socio-economic and individual variable was statistically analysed together with the response variables. This task is done in the form of cross tabulations which indicated frequency and percentage distribution. Bivariate analysis of the response variable and each of predictor variables allowed a clear indication of pattern of 'rural-urban migration' under varying measurements of demographic, socio-economic and household predictor variables.

The Pearson Chi-square test was used to test for the association between the demographic, socio-economic and individual characteristics of respondents and the dependent variable "migration status." Pearson Chi-square test is selected due to the categorical nature of the dependent and independent variables. The equation used for the Pearson chi-square test was of the form:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^i \left(\frac{O_{ij} - E_{ij}}{E_{ij}} \right)^2$$

Associations are determined at confidence interval of 95% and a significance level of 5% estimated to have a significant relationship with the response variables. All variables which produced p-values of less than 0.05 in the Pearson Chi-square test were estimated to have a significant relationship with the dependent variable. Therefore, the further the p-value is from 0.05, the stronger the relationship between the predictor and the dependent variable.

3.6.3 Multivariate analysis

At multivariate level, the binary logistic regression (BLR) method was used to identify the demographic, socio-economic and individual variables that predicted migration status in the Pearson's Chi-square for further testing and investigation at the multivariate level. These are variables which had a p value of less than 0.05. Here the method was applicable to the response variable "migration status". Migration status was measured as never migrated and coded "0," or ever migrated and coded "1". The method was chosen because it is suitable for use in studies in which the dependent variable has binary outcomes irrespective of whether the predictor variables are continuous, binary or categorical in nature (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000). The model is also suitable for this study because the model does not make any assumptions about the distribution of the predictor variables. Logistic regression is simply an extension of the bivariate analysis in the sense that more than two variables can be analysed at once (Menard, 2002; Hosmer and Lemeshow, 2000). The never migrated status was used as the reference category. The binary logistic regression model used was of the form:

$$\log\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} \beta_i x_i + \epsilon_i$$

Where p is the probability of migrating and $1-p$ is the probability of not migrating, β_i is the vector of Odd Ratio and x_i is the vector of the hypothesized variables in the study defined from demographic, socio-economic and individual perspectives, α is the constant and ϵ is the stochastic error term.

3.7 Data quality

Blended- Myer index

Myer index evaluates the quality of single-year age distributions while Whipple's index examines the preference or avoidance of reporting of ages ending with each of the ten digits 0-9. The index is first calculated by calculating the weighted population report on age ending with each of the ten digits and then expressed as the "blended population" on each digit as a percentage of total "blended" population. It is based on the assumption that there are no systematic irregularities on the ages reported. The aggregate population of each age ending in one of the ten digits should be almost 10% of the total blended population (Kpedekpo, 1982). The sum of the blended population on each digit is expected to be equal to 10% of the total blended population. A sum of more than 10% of the total blended population at a given digit suggests the presence of over-selection or preference of age ending in that digit, while a negative deviation suggests avoidance of ages ending in that digit(Bureau, 1985).

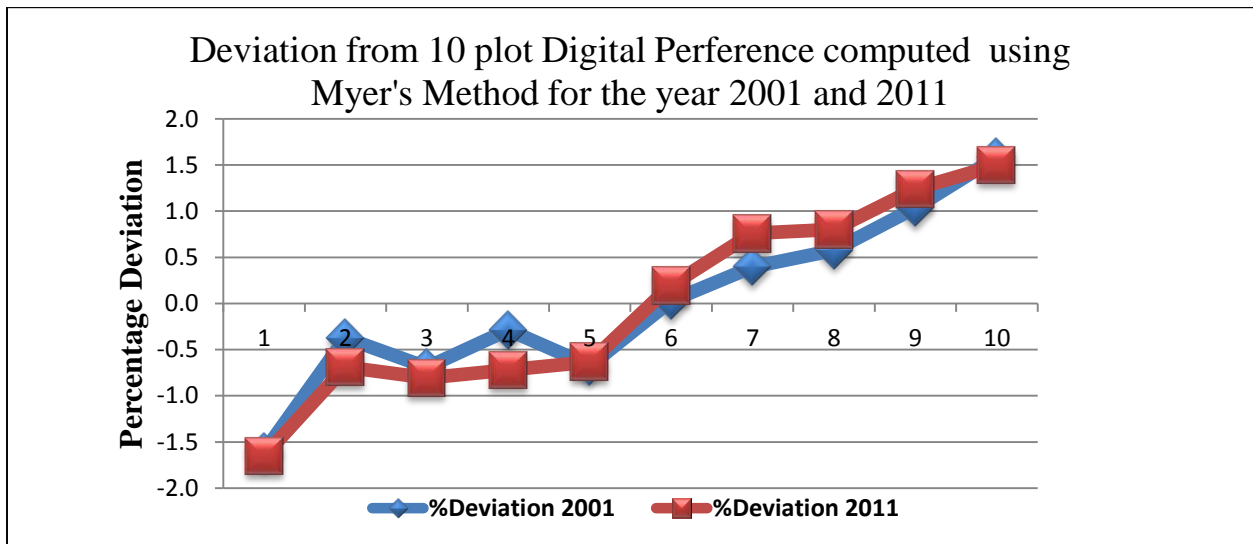
Table 3.2: Application of Myer’s Method to Age Data according to South African Census of 2001

Terminal digit	Ages 20-29	Ages 31-39	Ages 40-49	Sum (20-49)	weight	Ages 20-49 Weight product	Sum (31-49)	weight	Ages 31-49 Weight product	Blended sum	% Distribution	Deviation from 10	2001 Absolute Deviation
0	75112	54508	44157	173777	1	173777	98665	9	887985	1061762	8.4	-1.6	1.6
1	75405	60169	46478	182052	2	364104	106647	8	853176	1217280	9.6	-0.4	0.4
2	68265	55070	42159	165494	3	496482	97229	7	680603	1177085	9.3	-0.7	0.7
3	63704	54688	42646	161038	4	644152	97334	6	584004	1228156	9.7	-0.3	0.3
4	65504	47600	37563	150667	5	753335	85163	5	425815	1179150	9.3	-0.7	0.7
5	65312	50095	37549	152946	6	917676	87644	4	350576	1268252	10.0	0.0	0.0
6	65256	51319	34490	151055	7	1057385	85799	3	257397	1314782	10.4	0.4	0.4
7	62214	49784	34206	146204	8	1169632	83990	2	167980	1337612	10.6	0.6	0.6
8	60331	51104	34165	145599	9	1310391	85269	1	85269	1395660	11.0	1.0	1.0
9	62905	48639	34966	146510	10	1465100	83605	0	0	1465100	11.6	1.6	1.6
Sum				1575342			911345			12644839	100.0		7.3
Index													3.65

Table 3.3: Application of Myer’s Method to Age Data according to South African Census of 2011

Termin al digit	Ages 20-29	Ages 31-39	Ages 40-49	Sum (20-49)	weight	Ages 20-49 weight product	sum(31- 40)	Weight	Ages 31-49 Weight Product	Blended sum	% Distributio n	Deviatio n from 10	2011 Absolute Deviation
0	91037	71038	50177	212252	1	212252	121215	9	1090935	1313187	8.3	-1.7	1.7
1	93867	72153	54458	220478	2	440956	126611	8	1012888	1453844	9.3	-0.7	0.7
2	87289	65898	51426	204613	3	613839	117324	7	821268	1435107	9.2	-0.8	0.8
3	87075	59876	50151	197102	4	788408	110027	6	660162	1448570	9.3	-0.7	0.7
4	84450	61314	42703	188467	5	942335	104017	5	520085	1462420	9.4	-0.6	0.6
5	86471	61978	45358	193807	6	1162842	107336	4	429344	1592186	10.2	0.2	0.2
6	86923	61391	45736	194050	7	1358350	107127	3	321381	1679731	10.8	0.8	0.8
7	81931	57033	46057	185020	8	1480160	103190	2	206180	1686340	10.8	0.8	0.8
8	81584	56358	45707	183649	9	1652841	102065	1	102065	1754906	11.2	1.2	1.2
9	79275	57067	43177	179519	10	1795190	100244	0	0	1795190	11.5	1.5	1.5
Sum				1958957			1099056			15611481	100.0		9.0
Index													4.5

Figure 3.3: Digit Preference for South Africa 2001 and 2011



Deviation of each percentages of the blended population from 10.0 along each of the terminal digits is presented in figure 3.3. The most preferred terminal digits in 2001 of the South African population were 2, 4 and 5 in the order of the preference, whereas they were 1, 3 and 6 in the 2011 South African population. Furthermore, the most avoided terminal digits in 2001 South African population were 2, 6 and 4 while in 2001 were 0, 9 and 3. Tables 3.2 and 3.3 present the computation of Meyer’s index for 2001 and 2011 respectively of the South African population. The most selected terminal digit in 2001 was 9 (1.6%), whereas 1 (1.7%) was the most selected in 2011 South African population. Furthermore, the Tables indicate that the least selected terminal digit for both reports on South African population was 1.

The calculated index indicates that 3.7% of the 2001 and 4.5% of the 2011 South African population reported ages with incorrect final digits. Only 20-49 was used for both datasets.

3.6 Limitation of the study

The study would have been better if a longitudinal approach was used in order to study the changing patterns of the people in a closely spaced time span. This would have been a better way to understand the socio-economic and individual factors affecting migration in South Africa at provincial level. However, due to the challenges in obtaining such data, the study used census data which is a cross sectional data that does not take into consideration the recursive data collection, which translates to the major limitation of the study.

A Census is a national counting of all household and individuals residing in the country and most of the questions asked are general in nature. Since a census generally enumerates all the individuals in a country it is expected to have problems such as over-enumeration and under-enumeration errors, it is believed that those who are under-enumerated are not evenly spread in geographical terms and their effects thus become more pronounced for smaller administrative areas leading to record bias. Another major limitation of census data is that most questions are left unanswered with responses like ‘unspecified’ or ‘not applicable’ are being used to answer questions on issues like disability status. Furthermore, a census could not provide or determine whether the respondents were from rural or urban areas and it is not suitable to determine the causes of rural-urban migration. Thirdly, another limitation from using census data was that persons who lived in the same place at the time of Census 2001 as that in which they were enumerated at the time of Census 2011, were regarded as non-migrants, irrespective of whether they may have moved in between and then returned.

In terms of the sample size of the population, the researcher believed that the higher the sample size, the fewer errors it has and the statistic results can be generalised for the whole population.

With regard to intermittent flows over the 10 years period, it can be said that the long inter-censal period acts as a severe limitation (Aghsa, 2011)

Chapter four

Results

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the source of data and defined the analysis process of the study. In this chapter, the results of the analysis are presented. The first part presents and discusses the descriptive univariate analysis which describes the profile of the study population. In the second part, the results of the bivariate analysis which examined the association between demographic, socio-economic and individual characteristics are presented. In the third part, the results of the binary logistical regression which identified the predictors of rural-urban migration are presented.

4.2 Demographic profile of the study population

The total number of South African, including rural-urban migrants and non-migrants, was 36,880,250 and only 53, 998 were rural-urban migrants prior to 2001; this figure is obtained from the 2001 census data under the ‘five years ago’ variable. In the 2001 census questionnaire respondents were asked “Five years ago (at the time of Census '96) was (the person) living in this place (i.e. this suburb, ward, village, farm, informal settlement)?”

Table 4.1 presents the demographic profile of the study population. The variables included in the profile are age, gender, population group, disability, education, income, employment status, father alive, mother alive, marital status and children ever born. Table 4.1 below shows the rural-urban migrants in 2001 was 53998 and whereas in 2011 were 117604. Furthermore, the tables indicate that the median age of the study population was about 26 years in both the 2001 and 2011 censuses,

which is considered to be young. The majority of them were in the 31 years or older age group followed by those in the less than 14 years age group. The people aged 31 years or older were 40.9% in 2001 and this dramatically increased to 53.5% in 2011. In 2001, 25.9% of migrants were within the ages of 0-14 years compared to those in 2011 with a slight decrease to 16.6%. In 2001, 10.5% of the study population was within the 15-19 year age group while in 2011 the same age group comprised 6.8%. Only 22.7% in 2001 were within the age group of 20-31 years and that slightly increased by 1% in 2011.

In terms of gender, the study found that in both 2001 and 2011 datasets, female migrants were more than their male counterparts. The females constituted a higher percentage, 52.2% in 2001 and 50.1% in 2011, compared to males at 49.8% in 2001 and a slight increase to 49.9% in 2011. With regard to population groups, the study found that in 2001, Black/ Africans formed the majority of the population in South Africa and contributed 79.3%, and Indians/ Asians were the minority with a population of 2.5%. In similarity, in 2011, the Black/African population increased to 80.2% whereas the Indian/Asians slightly decreased to 2.4%.

Table 4.1 below indicates that the highest proportion of the population had no disability, 92.7% in 2001 and 76.5% in 2011 respectively. Furthermore, the table below shows that the majority of the population in 2001 had attained secondary education, at 40.3%. Only 7.0% of the population analysed attained tertiary education in 2001. However, in 2011 the proportions of the population with secondary and tertiary education were 46.7% and 23.1% respectively, which indicated an increase from the 2001 level.

With regard to income, the study found that in 2001 the majority of the study subjects, comprising 62.0%, earned no income as compared to 33.0% in 2011 which indicated that there was a decline in the population not earning any income between 2001 and 2011. Looking at employment status, the majority of the study population was unemployed with 72.7% in 2001 as compared to 41.7% in 2011. Additionally, it can be observed from table 4.1 below that a considerable percentage of people in 2001 had surviving fathers (58.0%) and mothers (74.7%) compared to 52.1% and 33.4% respectively in 2011. The data presented indicates a decrease in paternal and maternal survival between 2001 and 2011. Regarding the marital status of the study population, in 2001 the majority (61.8%) indicated that they were not married, and 5.0% were cohabiting. However, the proportion of not married decreased intensively to 46.4%, while the proportion cohabiting increased to 7.3% in 2011. Finally, table 4.1 below shows that the majority (70.5%) of the study population had five or more children in 2001. However, in 2011, the proportion of study population having five or more children increased to 75.0%.

Table 4.1 Percentage distribution of the study population by selected background Characteristics.

Selected characteristics	2001 N(53998) %	2011 N(117604)%
<i>Demographic factors</i>		
Age		
<14	25.9	18.6
15-19	10.5	6.8
20-30	22.7	21.1
31+	40.9	53.5
Gender		
Males	49.8	49.9
Females	50.2	50.1
Population groups		
Black/African	79.3	80.2
Coloured	9.3	9.0
Indian/ Asian	2.5	2.4
White	8.9	8.2
Others	-	0.2
Disability		
No	92.7	76.5
Yes	7.3	23.5
<i>Socio-economic factors</i>		
Level of education		
No education	23.7	14.0
Primary	29.0	16.2
Secondary	40.3	46.2
Tertiary	7.0	23.1
Income Status		
Yes	38.0	67.0
No	62.0	33.0
Employment status		
Employed	20.3	58.3
Unemployed	79.7	41.7
<i>Individual factors</i>		
Father alive		
Yes	58.0	52.1
No	42.0	47.9
Mother alive		
Yes	74.7	33.3
No	25.3	66.6
Marital Status		
Never Married	61.8	46.4
Married	26.3	38.7

Table 4.1 Continues...

Selected characteristics	2001 N(3688025) %	2011 N(4172660)%
Cohabiting	5.0	7.3
Separated	7.0	7.6
Children ever born		
<2	24.4	21.2
3-4	5.1	3.8
5+	70.5	75.0

N: Total number of study respondents

4.3 Differentials of migration status by selected background characteristics

In this study the migration status of rural-urban migration was measured as yes if a person ever migrated and no if a person never migrated. This was probed by asking the question “Did you ever migrate to an urban dwelling?”

The differentials of migration status are presented in Table 4.2 below by demographic, socio-economic and individual characteristics of the respondents. Differentials by age show that overall migration increased with age. The majority of migrants belonged to the 31 years or older cohort (40.9%), followed by those in the <14 year age cohort (25.9%) in 2001. Similarly, the majority of migrants in 2011 were in the 31 years or older age group which increased slightly to 53.5% while the minority of migrants were in the <14 years age group, at 18.6%. Migration status was significantly associated with age at $p < 0.001$ in both datasets.

Surprisingly, females were more dominant than males in the rural-urban migration streams in South Africa. Table 4.2 indicates that in 2001, 50.2% of females joined the rural-urban migration compared to 49.8% of males. Similarly the same pattern was observed in 2011 when 50.1% and 49.9% of females and males respectively joined the rural-urban migration stream. Migration status was also significantly associated with sex at $p < 0.001$.

Empirical evidence suggests that most of the rural-urban migrants in South Africa are Blacks/African followed by Whites while the Coloureds and Indian/Asians make up a much smaller proportion of migrants. Table 4.2 shows that in 2001, 77.4% of Black/Africans migrated compared to 11.6% of Whites and 2.3% of Indian/Asians. However, in 2011 both the Black/African and White population groups had the same proportion of 42.5% rural-urban migrants while Indian/Asian migrants increased to 6.5%. Migration status was significantly associated with population group at $p < 0.001$.

As expected, the majority of rural-urban migrants did not have disabilities. The proportion of rural-urban migrants who did not have disabilities was 92.7% in 2001 and 76.5% in 2011. The migration experience by disability in 2001 and 2011 suggests that the volume of migration by disability status declined between 2001 and 2011. Migration status was significantly associated with disability status at $p < 0.0001$ over the 2001 and 2011 periods.

Differentials in migration by level of education and income status were also assessed. The data presented in Table 4.2 shows that in 2001, people with secondary education (40.3%) dominated the rural-urban migration stream followed by those with primary education (29.0%). However, in 2011, migrants with secondary education increased to 46.7% and those with primary education decreased to 16.2%. In addition, migrants with tertiary education increased from only 7.0% in 2001 to 23.1% in 2011. Furthermore, in 2001, 62.0% of migrants did not have any income compared to 33.0% in 2011 which is an indication that increased income opportunities decreased the migration rate in 2011.

The level of education and income were significantly associated with the migration status of respondents at $p < 0.001$ in 2001 and 2011. Additionally, an assessment of the effect of employment

status shows that in 2001, about 72.2% and 27.3% of migrants were unemployed and employed respectively compared to 41.7% and 58.3% respectively in 2011. The results show that employment status was significantly associated with migration status of respondents at $p < 0.001$ in 2001 and 2011.

Regarding differentials in migration status by paternal and maternal survival, data in Table 4.2 show that 58% and 42% of migrants had surviving and dead fathers respectively, compared to 52.1% of migrants whose fathers had died and 47.9% of migrants whose mothers were alive in 2011. In addition, in 2001 and 2011, the majority of migrants (74.7% and 33.4% respectively) comprised people whose mothers were alive. This finding suggests that unlike father's survival, migration was highly likely if a mother had died than if a father had died. Paternal and maternal survival status were significantly associated with migration status of respondents at $p < 0.001$ in 2001 and 2011.

Table 4.2 Differentials in migration status by selected background characteristics 2001 and 2011

Selected Characteristics	2001		Migration Status		2011	
	No	Yes	Chi-square	No	Yes	Chi-square
	N(3634027)%	N(53998)%		N(4055056)%	N(117604)%	
Demographic factors						
Age						
<14	32.8	25.9		31.4	18.6	
15-19	11.3	10.5		10.4	6.8	
20-30	19.1	22.7	1414.2***	20.1	21.1	71.0***
31+	36.7	40.9		38.1	53.5	
Gender						
Males	47.2	49.8		47.6	49.9	
Females	52.8	50.2	149.7***	52.4	50.1	249.9***
Population groups						
Black/African	79.3	77.4		81.2	42.5	
Coloured	9.3	8.7		9.0	7.8	
Indian/ Asian	2.5	2.3	516.7***	2.2	6.5	296.8***
White	8.9	11.6		7.3	42.5	
Others	-	-		0.3	0.7	
Disability						
No	94.9	92.7		80.4	76.5	
Yes	5.1	7.3	517.3***	19.6	23.5	20.1***
Socio-economic factors						
Education levels						
No education	24.4	23.7		17.3	14.0	
Primary	33.6	29.0		29.2	16.2	
Secondary	37.4	40.3	1078.0***	46.6	46.7	278.5***
Tertiary	4.6	7.0		6.9	23.1	
Income Status						
Yes	31.9	38.0		58.2	67.0	
No	69.1	62.0	1271.1***	41.8	33.0	74.3***
Employment Status						
Employed	20.3	27.3		78.6	58.3	
Unemployed	79.7	72.7	1637.2***	21.4	41.7	147.4***
Father Alive						
Yes	60.5	58.0		53.4	52.1	
No	39.5	42.0	137.1 ***	46.6	47.9	71.7 ***

Table 4.2 continues...

Selected Characteristics	2001		Migration Status		2011	
	No	Yes	Chi-square	No	Yes	Chi-square
	N(36340227) %	N(53998)%		N(4055056) %	N(117604) %	
Mother alive						
Yes	76.9	74.7		28.9	33.4	
No	23.1	25.3	140.1***	71.1	66.6	22.1***
Marital Status						
Never Married	65.7	61.8		66.4	46.4	
Married	23.1	26.3		21.6	38.7	
Cohabiting	5.0	5.0	413.9***	6.6	7.3	125.6***
Separated	6.2	7.0		5.4	7.6	
Children ever born						
<2	24.2	24.4		20.7	21.2	
3-4	5.3	5.1	5.5	4.8	3.8	246.7***
5+	70.5	70.5		74.5	75.0	

Level of Significance: ***p<0.001 **p<0.05 *p<0.1

Regarding the marital status and number of children ever born, Table 4.2 indicates that the majority of respondents who migrated were never married (61.8%) followed by those who were married (23.1%) and separated (7.0%) in 2001. Nonetheless, in 2011 migrants who were never married decreased to 46.4%, followed by an increase in married migrants at 38.7% and separated migrants slightly increased to 7.6%.

Lastly, in 2001, the majority of migrants had 5 or more children (70.5%), while the minority of migrants had three to four children (5.1%). In 2011, the proportion of migrants who had 5 or more children increased to 75.0%, while those who had three to four children decreased to 3.8%. Migration status was found to be significantly associated with marital status in 2001 and 2011 at

$p < 0.001$. On the contrary, children ever born were not statistically associated with migration status in 2001, although children ever born were significantly associated with migration status $p < 0.001$ in the year 2011.

4.4 Differentials in migration rate of the selected factors.

The differentials in migration rate of the selected factors are presented in Table 4.3. The table shows that overall the South African rural-urban migration rate has increased from 2001 to 2011 in all the selected variables of the study.

Differentials by age show that overall migration increased with age. The migration rate of migrants aged 31 years or more increased from 16.3 per 1000 in 2001 to 39.1 per 1000 in 2011, followed by those in the 20-30 year age cohorts; their migration rate moved from 17.3 per 1000 in 2001 to about 29.3 per 1000 in 2011. This overall increase in age differentials is due to the influx of young people joining the migration stream.

Interestingly, migration rate of males was higher than females. In 2001, male's migration rate was 15.5 and it increased to 29.5 per 1000 in 2011 as compared to their female counterparts whose migration rate moved from 13.9 per 1000 to 27.0 per 1000 in 2011.

It was expected that for the South African rural-urban migration rate, the Black/African population should be higher compared to other racial groups. However, that is not the case, as the White population migration rate has increased extremely as compared to other population groups, from 19.9 per 1000 in 2001 to 144.5 per 1000 in 2011, followed by Indians/Asians whose migration rate increased from 13.7 per 1000 in 2001 to 78.9 per 1000 in 2011.

Table 4.3 Differential in Migration Rate

Selected characteristics	2001			2011		
	No	Yes	Rate	No	Yes	Rate
<i>Demographic factors</i>	N(3634027)	N(53998)	Per 1000	N(4055056)	N(117604)	
Age						
<14	1192087	13986	11.6	1273288	21874	16.9
15-19	411880	5665	13.6	421726	7997	18.6
20-30	694932	12253	17.3	815066	24814	29.5
31+	1335128	22094	16.3	1544976	62918	39.1
Gender						
Males	1714003	26898	15.5	1930207	58684	29.5
Females	1920024	27100	13.9	2124849	58920	27.0
Population groups						
Black/African	2883975	41798	14.3	3292705	49982	15.0
Coloured	336819	4680	13.7	364955	9173	24.5
Indian/ Asian	91460	1241	13.4	89211	7644	78.9
White	321773	6279	19.1	296019	49982	144.5
Others	-	-	-	12165	823	63.4
Disability						
No	3447892	50055	14.3	3260265	89967	26.9
Yes	186135	3943	20.7	794791	27637	33.6
<i>Socio-economic factors</i>						
Level of education						
No education	886228	12819	14.3	701525	16465	22.9
Primary	1220466	15655	12.7	1184076	19052	15.8
Secondary	1358579	21763	15.8	1889656	54921	28.2
Tertiary	168754	3761	21.8	279799	27167	88.5
Income status						
Yes	1122694	20542	18.0	2360043	78795	32.3
No	2511333	33456	13.1	1695013	38809	22.4
Employment status						
Employed	735517	14742	19.6	3187274	68563	21.1
Unemployed	2898510	39256	13.4	867782	49041	53.5
<i>Individual factors</i>						
Father Alive						
Yes	2197600	31314	14.0	2165400	61272	27.5
No	1436427	22684	15.5	1889656	56332	28.9
Mother Alive						

Yes	2794437	40354	14.2	1171911	39280	32.4
No	839590	13644	16.0	2883145	78324	26.4

Table 4.3 continues..

Selected characteristics	2001			2011		
	No	Yes	Migration Rate	No	Yes	Rate
	N(3634027)	N(53998)	Per 1000	N(4055056)	N(117604)	
Marital Status						
Never Married	2388514	33353	13.8	2692557	54568	19.9
Married	839464	14179	16.6	875892	45513	49.4
Cohabiting	182485	2703	14.6	267634	8585	31.1
Separated	223564	3763	16.6	218973	8938	39.2
Children ever born						
<2	881188	13186	14.7	24932	864329	28.8
3-4	192251	2738	14.0	4469	199112	22.4
5+	2560588	38074	14.7	88203	3109220	28.4
Overall Rate			14.6			28.2

Similarly the coloured population migration rate in 2001 was the same as the Indian/Asian at 13.7 per 1000 but increased at a different speed, at 24.0 per 1000 in 2011. The Black/African migration rate was not increasing at such a fast rate rather at a steadier rate from 14.3 per 1000 in 2001 to about 15.0 per 1000 in 2011

Regarding differentials in migration rate by disability, the migration rate of migrants with disabilities increased extremely as compared to their counterparts. The migration rate of migrants living with disabilities in 2001 was 20.7 per 1000 and increased to 33.6 per 1000 in 2011, as compared to migrants without disabilities; their migration rate was 14.3 per 1000 in 2001 and moved to 26.9 per 1000 in 2011.

Regarding differentials in migration rate by level of education, Table 4.3 indicates that migration rate increases with education attainment of respondents. Migration rate of migrants with tertiary education increased from 21.8 per 1000 in 2001 to 88.5 per 1000 in 2011, followed by migrants with secondary education, who moved from 15.8 per 1000 in 2001 to about 28.3 per 1000 in 2011. Furthermore, for those with no education, their migration rate was higher than those with primary education attainment.

Regarding differentials in migration rate by income status and employment status, Table 4.3 shows that the migration rate of income earners was higher than their counterparts. For those with income, their migration rate increased from 18.0 per 1000 in 2001 to 32.0 per 1000 in 2011 when compared to their counterparts who did not earn any income. Furthermore, as expected, the migration rate of migrants who were unemployed is greater than those who are employed. In 2001, the migration rate of unemployed migrants was less (13.4 per 1000) than those who are employed (19.6 per 1000). However, the migration rate of those who are employed increased at a slow pace (21.1 per 1000) as compared to the unemployed (53.5 per 1000) in 2011.

Regarding differentials in migration rate by paternal and maternal survival, Table 4.3 shows that for migrants whose fathers were alive, their migration rate was less (14.0 per 1000) as compared to their counterparts at 15.5 per 1000 in 2001. However, in 2011 the migration rate of those whose father was not alive increased to 28.9 per 1000 as compared to those with father alive at 27.5 per 1000. For migrants with surviving mothers, their migration rate increased from 14.2 per 1000 in 2001 to 32.4 per 1000 in 2011 as compared to their counterparts.

Lastly, for differentials in migration rate by marital status and children ever born, Table 4.3 indicates that the migration rate of those married and separated are the same at 16.6 per 1000 in 2001. However, their migration rate increased differently, for instance, the rate of those who are

married increased to 49.9 per1000, while those who are separated increased to 39.2 per 1000in 2011. Additionally, regarding children ever born to migrants, the migration rate of all groups was similar in 2001. However, in 2011, for migrants who had five or more children, their migration rate increased from 14.7 per 1000 to 28.4 per 1000as compared to migrants with three or four children, whose migration rate moved from 14.0 to 22.4 per 1000.

4.5 Predictors of rural-urban migration

Results for predictors of rural-urban migration are presented in Table 4.4. Based on the results, in 2001, the age of the respondents was statistically significant in influencing rural-urban migration in the country. For instance, in 2001 those that were aged 31 years or older were associated with an increased likelihood (OR=1.07, 95%CI [1.04-1.09], $p<0.001$) of migrating to urban areas compared to the reference group aged <14. On the contrary, the study found that those aged 15-19 (OR=0.71) and 20-31 (OR=0.83) were significantly less likely to migrate compared to their counterparts aged 14 and below. In 2011, the age groups 15-19 and 20-31 portrayed a different picture compared to 2001 in that there was an increased likelihood to move to urban settings at these ages. The study showed that migrants who were aged 31 years or older were more likely (OR=2.28, 95%CI [2.25-2.32], $p<0.001$) to transfer into urban areas compared to their counterparts aged 14 years or lower. In respect to gender, in 2001, females were more likely to transfer to urban areas at Odd Ratio of 1.12 compared to males (reference point). Conversely, it was found that females were significantly more likely (OR=1.01, $p<0.001$) to move to urban areas than their male counterparts in 2011.

Conversely, in 2001, the Coloured (OR=0.74, $p<0.001$), Indian/ Asian (OR=0.71, $p<0.001$) and White (OR=0.70, $p<0.001$) populations were significantly less likely to migrate to urban areas as

compared to the Black/African (Reference point). Being Coloured, Indian/Asian and White were significant predictors of rural-urban migration at $p < 0.001$. On the contrary, for 2011 the study found an inverse relationship on rural-urban migration by race. Coloureds were associated with increased likelihood (OR=1.64, 95%CI [1.61-1.68], $p < 0.001$) of migrating from rural-urban settlement than their Black/African counterparts. On the same note, the study found that Indians/Asians had a higher likelihood (OR=5.01, 95%CI {4.88-5.14}, $p < 0.001$) of migrating than Black/Africans. Furthermore, Whites were also significantly more likely to migrate (OR=11.22, 95%CI [11.08-11.37], $p < 0.001$) than Black/Africans.

Table 4.4 also presents the effects of disability status and level of education on migration showing that although persons with disability (OR=0.69, 95%CI [0.66-0.71], $p < 0.001$), tertiary education (OR=0.71, 95%CI [0.69-0.74], $p < 0.001$), primary education (OR=0.65, 95% CI [0.63-0.67], $p < 0.001$) and with secondary education were significant less likely (OR=0.58, 95% CI [0.55-0.60], $p < 0.001$) to have migrated in 2001, those with disability were significantly more likely to have migrated (OR=1.25, 95%CI [1.20-1.28], $p < 0.001$) in 2011. The table also shows that those with secondary level education (OR=1.25, 95% CI [1.24-1.27], $p < 0.001$) and tertiary education have significantly more likelihood (OR=4.36, 95%CI [4.55-4.45], $p < 0.001$) to have migrated in 2011, but those with primary education were less likely (OR= 0.70, $p < 0.001$) to have migrated in 2011. The respondents were also significantly less likely to have migrated in 2001 if they received an income (OR=0.73, 95%CI {0.72-0.74}, $p < 0.001$); if their fathers were dead (OR=0.90, 95%CI [0.89-0.92], $p < 0.001$); if their mothers were dead (OR=0.83, 95%CI [0.87-0.91], $p < 0.001$); and if they were separated (OR=0.88, 95%CI [0.84-0.93], $p < 0.001$), married (OR=0.83, 95%CI [0.80-0.85], $p < 0.001$) or cohabiting (OR=1.00, 95% CI [0.97-1.04], $p < 0.001$) in 2001. The respondents were also significantly less likely to have migrated in 2011 if their fathers had died (OR=0.95,

95%CI [0.94-0.96], $p < 0.001$) and if their mothers had died (OR=0.03, 95%CI [0.03-0.03], $p < 0.001$). Furthermore, respondents with five or more children were significantly less likely (OR=0.96, 95% CI [0.92-1.00], $p < 0.05$) to have migrated in 2001. A similar result was observed for 2011 (OR=0.98, 95%CI [1.00-1.00], $p < 0.001$) for respondents with five or more children and three or four children (OR=0.78, 95%CI [0.75-0.80], $p < 0.001$).

Table 4.4 Binary logistic regression showing Odds Ratios of factors predicting rural-urban migration in 2001 and 2011

Selected characteristics	2001		Bivariate model		2011	
	Odd ratios	95% CI	lower	upper	Odd ratio	95% CI
	lower	upper	lower	upper	lower	upper
Demographic factors						
Age of migrant						
<14	1.00				1.00	
15-19	0.71***	0.69	0.72		1.10***	1.08 1.13
20-30	0.83***	0.81	0.86		1.73***	1.70 1.76
31+	1.07***	1.04	1.09		2.28***	2.25 2.32
Gender						
Males	1.00				1.00	
Females	1.12***	1.09	1.13		1.01***	0.90 0.92
Population groups						
Black/African	1.00				1.00	
Coloured	0.74***	0.72	0.74		1.64***	1.61 1.68
Indian/ Asian	0.71***	0.69	0.74		5.01***	4.88 5.14
White	0.70***	0.65	0.73		11.22***	11.08 11.37
Others	-	-	-		6.15***	5.74 6.60
Disability						
No	1.00				1.00	
Yes	0.69***	0.66	0.71		1.25***	1.20 1.28
Socio-economic factors						
Education levels						
No education	1.00				1.00	
Primary	0.65***	0.63	0.67		0.70***	0.68 0.71
Secondary	0.58***	0.55	0.60		1.26***	1.24 1.29
Tertiary	0.71***	0.69	0.74		4.36***	4.27 4.45
Income Status						
Yes	1.00				1.00	
No	0.73***	0.72	0.74		1.46***	1.44 1.50
Employment Status						
Employed	1.00				1.00	
Unemployed	1.48***	1.45	1.51		2.63***	2.60 2.66
Individual factors						

Father alive							
Yes	1.00				1.00		
No	0.90***	0.89	0.92	0.95***	0.94	0.96	

Table 4.4 continues..

Selected characteristics	2011	Bivariate model			2011	
	Odd ratio	95% CI		Odd ratio	95% CI	
		lower	upper		lower	upper
Mother alive						
Yes	1.00			1.00		
No	0.89***	0.87	0.91	0.03***	0.03	0.03
Marital Status						
Never Married	1.00			1.00		
Married	0.83***	0.80	0.85	2.56***	2.53	2.60
Cohabiting	1.00	0.97	1.04	1.59***	1.55	1.63
Separated	0.88***	0.84	0.93	2.02***	1.97	2.06
Children ever born						
<2	1.00			1.00		
3-4	1.01	0.99	1.03	0.78***	0.75	0.80
5+	0.96**	0.92	1.00	0.98***	1.00	1.00

***p<0.00 **p<0.05 *p<0.1; OR: Odd Ratio; C.I implies Confidence Interval; ® Reference category

Conversely, the results show that respondents were significantly more likely to have migrated if they were unemployed (OR=1.48, 95%CI [1.45-1.51], p<0.001) in 2001, if they earned income (OR=1.46, 95%CI [1.44-1.50], p<0.001) in 2011 and were unemployed (OR=2.63, 95%CI [2.60-2.66], p<0.001) in 2011. Married respondents (OR=2.56, 95%CI [2.53-2.60], p<0.001) separated respondents (OR=2.02, 95%CI [1.97-2.06], p<0.001) and cohabiting respondents (OR=1.55, 95%CI [1.55-1.63], p<0.001) were also significantly more likely to have migrated in 2011.

4.6 Discussion

This study assessed the pattern of rural-urban migration in South Africa in 2001 and 2011 and showed that rural-urban migration increased between 2001 and 2011. A number of factors predicted rural-urban migration. These include age of respondents which revealed that people in the 31 years or older group were more likely to have migrated, which is consistent with a study finding by Kalule-Sabiti and Kibet (2006) which found that people aged 15-44 years were more likely to migrate than other age groups. This trend is due to lack of job opportunities in the rural areas. According to Corker (2013), people migrate from their place of residence in search of economic and educational opportunities. It is well known that economic motives such as the search for cash employment, improvements in education for employment-related needs are all important determining factors of migration (Corker, 2013). It is not surprising to note that most migrants are in the working category or are those who move to the destination areas to pursue their higher education.

The results clearly indicate that migration is similar for males and females; this may be attributed to the changing norms of the society which include gender equality and the same employment opportunities for both sexes (Wiest, 2016). These results are similar to Rajan's (2013) findings which indicated that females and males have the same rates of migration, which shows increasing gender equality. This is because males and females have equal access to educational opportunities and are able to postpone marriage and family building if they deem it fit. However, this is in contrast with the African traditional norms, where a female's duties are to bear children and take care of the family for the rest of her life (Adepoju, 1998). Previously in South Africa, males were dominating the migration streams under the apartheid labour system, which prohibited women and children from accompanying their husbands to mines and farms (Antobam, 2016).

Furthermore, there is an escalation of people with disabilities towards rural-urban migration. This is because of the employment policy changes which encourages people with disabilities to apply for work and stand a better chance of being employed compared to people without disabilities (South Africa Department of labour, 1998). According to Belinda et al. (2016), this is because the society is unprepared for the incorporation of migrants with a disability and also their loved ones cannot sufficiently care for them as they need a particular care routine.

The results also show that there is an increase of migrants with tertiary education attainment. It is expected that the higher the education the greater the chances of migrating and therefore finding a better job which ultimately leads to better income (Haas & Marie-Laurence, 2016). This is because most employment opportunities are located in the urban areas rather than rural areas (Kok, et al., 2003). It is crucial that rural areas offer the tertiary graduate employment opportunities which in turn will develop the rural areas both economically and socially. This may decrease the rate of brain drain experienced in the rural areas.

The study demonstrates that people without income are less likely to join the migration stream from rural to urban areas. This means that lower income earners are more likely to be pulled towards urban areas. These results concur with the study findings by Kibet et al. (2006) where it is stated that income differentials in rural and urban areas play a role in pulling migrants to urban areas. This finding is similar to other studies which found that lack of income acts as a major push factor and forces or encourages people to migrate to urban areas in search of employment opportunities that will pay them a salary or wages (Yao Lu, 2015).

The study also found that people whose fathers have died are more likely to migrate. This result can be attributed to the pressures people face to take care of their father's responsibilities and

provide for their families after experiencing paternal deaths. It is likely that some of these people become the only ones who can take care of the family and therefore decide to migrate in search of employment. According to Owusu et al (2013), migrants with a deceased parent are often forced to migrate to urban areas in order to be able to provide for their siblings and the rest of the family, because they automatically inherit parental responsibilities.

Furthermore, the study findings show that never married people dominated migration streams in both 2001 and 2011 periods. The finding is consistent with the study by Brettell (2017) which found that migrants are usually young, single and in the prime of their lives. This can be explained by the fact that being married and having children is often seen as an obstacle to migration (Kaur, 2012). This is consistent with the observation in this study that people with fewer children were less likely to migrate. The presumption here is that migrants do not need to seek self-development or economic opportunities in order to provide for their children. However, migrants with five or more children were more likely to migrate in this population, which does not agree with the view that having a family could be an impediment to migration. This is because migrants with a large number of children are pressurized to provide for them. In addition the results which are more believable are those that state that migrants with five or more children have a better chance to migrate than those with fewer children, because with more children equals more mouths to feed and shelter, meaning it is imperative that the parent or parents have to migrate to urban areas to seek better paying work with benefits.

Chapter five

Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

Rural urban migration in South Africa has become a common phenomenon. This trend became fashionable with the constitutional dispensation which abolished all the stringent rules that governed internal migration in South Africa before 1994. The 2001 and 2011 census datasets have presented results that show push and pull factors of migration within the borders of South Africa.

5.2 Summary of the findings

The main objective of this study was to investigate the patterns of rural-urban migration in South Africa using the 2001 and 2011 censuses. The study found that there is indeed an association between migration and the selected demographic (age of respondents, gender, population groups (race), and disability status), socio-economic (level of education, income status and employment status) and individual factors (father alive, mother alive, marital status). However, children ever born were insignificant and show that this variable does not have associations with rural-urban migration in South Africa. The following are the major findings of this study. The findings are presented in the order of results as indicated in chapter Four. The main significant factors contributing to rural-urban migration are:

- a. Age cohorts, indicating that respondents in younger age cohorts were more likely to participate in the rural-urban migration in the country.
- b. Respondents with no education and primary education were less likely to relocate to urban settings as compared to those with secondary or tertiary education.
- c. Females as likely to participate in the rural-urban migration as their male counterparts.

- d. The rate of participation in rural-urban migration of people living with disabilities increased throughout the 10 year period and high numbers of them are relocating to urban areas.
- e. Migrants with both parents alive were more likely to move from rural areas to urban areas compared to those with deceased parents.
- f. Respondents who are unemployed and those who were not earning any income were more likely to participate in rural-urban migration.

5.3 Conclusion

From the results of the study, it can be concluded that rural-urban migration has been an important process in South Africa over the study period in terms of its influence on the population dynamics and resource distribution. It also shows that since the end of apartheid, rural-urban migration has become a very significant process in factors such as population redistribution in South Africa. The results also show that, as is the case elsewhere, rural-urban migrants in South Africa are young, educated, largely unemployed and never married. Migrants with the above characteristics pose serious social and security challenges in the urban areas of destination. Their predominance in the Southern African migration stream could explain the increasing level of violence and other crimes in urban areas of South Africa. The large number of young, unemployed, never married and educated rural out-migrants could be explained by the high level of unemployment in rural areas; lack of opportunities for good education and improved services in rural areas; and dysfunctional family structures which have become a major feature of South Africa's family institutions.

However, migrating to urban areas has its own costs. These include lack of integration mechanisms in urban areas leading to the upsurge in violent crimes; isolation and emotional depression leading

to drug abuse; and urban destitution and prostitution due to lack of income in rural areas leading to the spread of sexually transmitted infections including HIV and AIDS among migrant communities.

5.4 Recommendations

Given the above findings of the study, the following are recommended in order to reduce rural-urban migration streams and change the characteristics of migrants as well as to provide for the wellbeing of migrants in places of destination.

- a) This study has demonstrated that most migrants are the youth. It is imperative that the National Youth Policy which is more able to address the needs of this vulnerable population is in place. The policy should, among other things, address the serious level of unemployment in rural areas and provision of vital services such as education, sports and recreation facilities and other social services in rural areas and be able implement those services.
- b) Due to the equal nature of female and male rural-urban migration, it is suggested or recommended that the government should ensure and provide adequate and equal access for women to basic needs in the places of destination in regard to employment opportunities, education, shelter and other basic services. It is imperative that women know their rights and have information about violence against them, whether sexual or gender-based violence and address violence in all forms aggressively.
- c) The rural-urban migration of people with disabilities has been increasing for the last 10 years, disability facilities in the urban areas need to be upgraded in order to ensure that persons with disabilities in urban areas become properly integrated and functional.
- d) There is a need to implement policies that will check the welfare of children as they are migrating to other provinces as a result of their parents' migration. This policy is to assist in

solving problems that children are subjected to such as child labour, child trafficking and all sorts of abuse in the receiving destination.

- e) With the high awareness of the importance of education to the people, rural areas only offer primary and secondary education facilities, whereas urban areas offer colleges (FET) and universities; this situation encourages students to migrate to urban areas in order to be enrolled in higher education facilities. These students find it difficult to return to rural areas due to unemployment. Therefore, it is recommended that higher educational institutions be developed in the rural areas to check the outflow of students from rural areas. It is also recommended that government and the non-government organizations offer students paid vocational placements in rural areas immediately after the completion of their studies.

References

Adepoju, A., 1998. Linkages between internal and international migration: the African situation.. *Published in selected articles initially published in 1984 to commemorate the 50th Anniversary of International Social Science Journal*, UNESCO, Paris.

Afsar, R., 2000. *Rural-Urban Migration in Bangladesh: Causes, Consequences and Challenges*. Dhaka.: University Press Limited.

- Agensa, R., 2011. Rural to urban migration as household decision evidence from Kenya.. *Review of Development Economics*.
- Alley, G. R., 1996. “*Elderly Migration: An Analysis of Push and Pull Factors*”. New York: University Press.
- Antobam, S., 2016. Migration, Urbanisation and Development in South Africa. *Social Development of South Africa: Advances and Emerging Issues*, pp. 117-143.
- Atnafu, A., Oucho, L. & Zeitlyn, B., 2014. Poverty, youth and rural-urban migration in Ethiopia. *Migrating out of Poverty*, pp. 1-23.
- Awumbaii, M., Alhassan, O. & Badasu, M. D., 2011. *Socio-Cultural Dimensions of Migration in Ghana*. Ghana: Woeli Publishing Services.
- Bennett, R., Hosegood, V., Newell, M.-L. & McGrath, N., 2015. Understanding Family Migration in Rural South Africa: Exploring Children’s Inclusion in the Destination Households of Migrant Parents. *POPULATION, SPACE AND PLACE*, 21(1), pp. 310-321.
- Boure, O., 2001. Determinants of internal migration in South Africa..In *Southern African Journal of Demography*. ISSN:1682448. *Population Association of Southern Africa*, pp. 23-28..
- Brettell, C. B., 2017. Marriage and Migration. *Annual Review of Anthropology Vol. 46:- (Volume publication date November 2017)* .
- Bull-Kamanga, L., 2003. Urban development and the accumulation of disaster risk and other life-threatening risks in Africa, *Environment and Urbanization*, vol. 15, No. 1. p. 93–204.
- Bureau, U. C., 1985. *Evaluating Census of the Population and Housing*. Washington DC: Bureau of the Census.
- Burns, N. & Grove, S., 2001. *The practice of nursing research: Conduct, critique and utilization (4th ed)*. W.B.Saunders. USA: Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- Caldwell, J., 1969. *African Rural-Urban Migration: The movement to Ghana's Town Cambera*. Canberra: Australian National University Press.

- Cebotari, V., Valentina , M. & Siegel, M., 2016. Child development and migrant transnationalism: the health of children who stay behind in Ghana and Nigeria. *Journal of Development Studies*, 53(3).
- Chort, I., 2014. Mexican migration to the U.S A: What do unrealised migration intentions tell us about gender equality?. *World Development Australian National U.P*, 59(1), pp. 535-552.
- Chowdhury, A., Aziz & Stoeckel, K. J., 1972. Out Migration from a Rural Areas of Bangladesh. *Rural Society vol. 37, no. 2.*
- Claire, B., Craig , H.-S. & Ashraf, K., 2013. *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African perspective. 5th edition.* Cape Town: Juta & Company LTD.
- Cleveland, D., 1991. Migration in West Africa: A Savanna Village. *Perspective Africa*, 61. pp. , 222-46..
- Collinson, M., 2007. Migration, settlement change and health and post-apartheid South Africa: Triangulating health and demographic surveillance with national census data. *Scandinavian Journal of Public Heath.*
- Collinson, M., Kok, P. & Mark, P., 2006. *Migration and urbanization in South Africa.* Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
- Corker, J., 2013. *Internal migration to Kinshasa 1970-2007: Investigating migrant characteristics in times of insecurity and economic crises.* Busan, South Korea, IUSSP, p. 26.
- Cris Beauchemin, P. S., Bruno, S. & Marie-Laurence, F., 2014. New patterns of migration between Senegal and Europe. *migration between Africa and Europe*, pp. 1-33.
- Crivello, G., 2011. Becoming somebody: youth transitions through education and migration in Peru. *Journal of youth studies*, 14(4), pp. 395-411.
- Department of Rural Development, 1998. *Department of Rural Development and Land Reform framework policy.* Pretoria: Department of Rural Development.
- Evans, I., 1997. *Bureaucracy and Race.* Berkeley: University of California.
- Funnah, T. P., 2001. *The Socio-economic and demographic characteristics of rural-urban youth migration in the North West Province of South Africa.* Mahikeng: North West university.

- Gelderblom, G. & Kok, P., 1994. *Urbanization: South Africa's Challenges, Vol.1: Dynamics*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Gross, S., Chew, C. & Matthias, 2009. Shrinking Cities: Causes and Effects of Urban Population Losses in the Twentieth Century. *Nature and Culture*, p. 231–254.
- Gugler, J., 2004. *World Cities Beyond the West, Globalization, Development and Inequality*.. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Haas, H. D. & Marie-Laurence, F., 2016. African migration: trends, patterns, drivers. *Comparative Migration Studies. a Springer open Journal*.
- Hall, K., 2010. *"Migrant mothers and mobile children: New possibilities for exploring child poverty dynamics in South Africa*. Johannesburg, South Africa., University Press.
- Hall, K. & Posel, . D., 2012. *Inequalities in children's house-hold contexts: place, parental presence and migration*.. Cape Town: University Cape Town.
- Harris , J. R. & Todaro, M. P., 1970. Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-sector Analysis. *The American Economic Review*, vol. 60, no. 1, pp. 126-38..
- Hatton, T. J. & Williamson, J. G., 1998. *The Age of Mass Migration Causes and Economic Impact*. Oxford: Oxford University press.
- Haub, C., 2013. *Trends in adolescent fertility: A mixed picture*.. [Online] Available at: <http://www.prb.org/Publications/Articles/2013/adolescent-fertility.aspx> [Accessed 29 April 2017].
- Hina, K., Tanveer , A. N. & Muhammand, A. K., 2015. Socio-economic determinates of rural-urban migration in Pakistan. *J.Asian Dev*, 4(3), pp. 1-14.
- Hosmer, D. W. & Lameshow, S., 2000. *Applied logistic regression. 2nd edition*.. s.l.:Wiley.
- Hossain, K., 2003. *Male involvement in family planning in Bangladesh: factors constraining low use and the potential for augmenting the CPR*. Bangladesh: Centre for Policy Dialogue.
- Isiugo-Abanihe & Uche , C., 2014. *Migration in Nigeria:A Country Profile 2014*, s.l.: International Organization for Migration.

Johnnie, P. B., 1988. Rural-urban migration in Nigeria: Consequences on housing, health-care and employment. *Migr World Mag.*, pp. 22-9..

Kalule-Sabiti, I. & Kibet, M., 2006. Youth Migration and Poverty. *Journal of Youth Development*, Vol. 2, pp. 37-48.

Kaur, R., 2012. Marriage and Migration: Citizenship and Marital Experience in Cross-border Marriages between Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal and Bangladesh. *REVIEW OF WOMEN'S STUDIES* vol xlvii no 43, pp. 78-89.

Kennan, J. & Walker, R. J., 2011. The effects of expected income of individual migration decisions. *Econometrica. Journal of the econometric society: An international society for the advancement of economic theory in its relation to statistics and mathematics*, Vol 79(No 1), pp. 211-251.

Kenya National Bureau of Statistics, 2015. *KNBS*. [Online] Available at: <http://www.knbs.or.ke/> [Accessed 24 November 2016].

Kibet, M., 2013. Migration into Rustenburg local municipality between 1996 and 2001.. *Journal of Social Development in Africa*, pp. 65-85.

Kimani, N., 2016. Brain Drain: Can Africa keep its best and brightest?. *Daily Maverick*, 09 May.

Kok, P. & Collinson, M., 2006. "Migration and urbanisation in South Africa". Report 03-04-02, Pretoria: Statistics South Africa..

Kok, P. O., Donovan, M., Boure, O. & Van Zyl, J., 2003. *Post Apartheid Patterns of internal Migration in South Africa*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Konsiega, A., Zulu, E. M. & Ye, Y., 2006. *Assessing the Effect of Mother's Migration on Childhood Mortality in the Informal Settlements of Nairobi*, s.l.: s.n.

Kpedekpo, 1982. *Essentials of Demographic Analysis for Africa*. London: Heinemann educational books Ltd.

Kritz, M. M. & Gurak, D. T., 2015. U.S. Immigrants in Dispersed and Traditional Settlements: National Origin Heterogeneity. *International Migration Review*, 49(1), pp. 106-141.

- Landau, L. B., 2012. Changing Local Government Responses to Migration in South Africa. *Die Erde. Journal of Geographical society of Berlin Vol 143, No 3.*
- Lee, E., 1966. Lee, E. "Theory of Migration" in M. Kefyfitz (ed), *Demography, Vol.3 ,No.1..* America: A publication asociation of America .
- Makgoro, Y., 1997. "Ubuntu and the Law in South Africa" in *Colloquium Constitution and Law.* Potchefstroom: University Press.
- Mckay, A. & Boakye, L.-Y., 2006. *Migration Between Ghana's Rural and Urban Areas:The Impact on Migrants. Welfare.* United Kingdom: University of Bath.
- Menard, S., 2002. *Applied logistic regression. 2nd edition.*Pretoria: SAGE..
- Nigeria National Bureau of Statistics, 2016. *Gross Domestic Product (GDP) Report.* Abuja – Nigeria: National Bureau of Statistics.
- Nobles, J., 2013. Migration and Father Absence: Shifting Family Structure in Mexico. *HHS Public Access , Author Manuscript.*
- Nunn, C., McMichael, C., Gifford, S. M. & Correa-Velez, I., 2014. 'I came to this country for a better life': factors mediating employment trajectories among young people who migrated to Australia as refugees during adolescence. *Journal of youth studies, 17(9),* pp. 1205-1220.
- Onokala, C. K., Ajaero & Paience, C., 2013. The Effects of Rural-Urban Migration on Rural Communities of Southeastern Nigeria. *International Journal of Population Research Volume 2013 (2013), Article ID 610193, 10 pages,* p. 10.
- Owusu, S. A., Adaawen & Boabang, December 2013. North-South Migration and Remittances in Ghana. *African Review of Economics and Finance, Vol. 5, No.1.,* pp. 29-45.
- Posel, D., 2003. "The Collection of National Household Survey Data in South Africa (1993-1999): Rendering Labour Migration Invisible".. *Development Southern Africa,* p. 361 – 368..
- Posel, D. & Casale, D., 2003. "What has been Happening to Internal Labour Migration. in *South Africa, 1993 – 1999?" The South African Journal of Economics 71(3),* p. 455 –479.

Posel, D. & Casale, D., 2006. *"Internal migration and household poverty in post-apartheid South Africa"*. In *Poverty and Policy in Post-Apartheid South Africa*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council Press.

Ravenstein, E. G., 1889. The Laws of Migration. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, pp. 241-305.

Reza, C. D., Partridge, A., Kekana, D. & Musundwa, S., 2013. *Rural Livelihoods in South Africa: Saldru Working Paper 122.NIDS Discussion Paper 2013/4*, Cape Town: SALDRU, University of Cape Town.

SAnews.gov, 2017. *Brand South Africa*. [Online] Available at: <https://www.brandsouthafrica.com/governance/government/iudf-270515>

Shumate, M. & Palazzolo, E. T., 2010. Exponential random graph (p*) models as a method for social network analysis in communication research.. *Communication Methods and Measures*, 4(4);, pp. 341-371..

Silverstein, . A. P., 2005. IMMIGRANT RACIALIZATION AND THE NEW SAVAGE SLOT: Race, Migration, and mmigration in the New Europe. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, Volume Vol. 34:363-384.

Somik, V. L., Harris, S. & Zmarak, S., 2006. Rural-Urban Migration in Developing Countries: ASurvey of Theoretical Predictions and Empirical Findings. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 3915*, p. 63.

South Africa Department of Labour, 1998. *Technical Assistance Guidelines on the Employment of People with Disabilities*, Pretoria: Department of Labour Chief Directorate of Communication.

South Africa Statistics, 2012. *Census 2011 Provinces at a glance / Statistics South Africa*, Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

South African Government, 2012. *South African Government*. [Online] Available at: <http://www.gov.za/issues/national-development-plan-2030> [Accessed 3 November 2016].

Stats SA, 2006. *Migration and Changing Settlement Patterns: Reports no.03-04-01(2006)*, Pretoria: Statistic South Africa.

Swanson & Dalene, M., 2007. Ubuntu: An African contribution to (re)search for/with a 'humble togetherness'. *Journal of Contemporary Issues in Education*, pp. 53-67.

Thet, K.-K., 2014. Pull and Push Factors of Migration: A Case Study in the Urban Area of Monywa Township, Myanmar,. *News from the world statistic* , 1(4), pp. 1-7.

Todara, M. P., 1969. A model of labour migration and urban unemployment in less developed countries.. *The American Economic Review*, vol. 59, pp. 138-148..

Todara, M. & Smith, P., 2003. *Economic Development, eighth edition*. 11th ed. New York: Addison Wesley.

Ullah, A. I. & Sofi, M. D., 2013. The Influence of Factors of Migration on the Migration Status of Rural-Urban Migrants in Dhaka, Bangladesh. *HUMAN GEOGRAPHIES—Journal of Studies and Research in Human 46 Geography*, p. 45–52.

Venture, D. E., 2013. *IOM Addresses the Health of Migrants in the Southern Africa Mining Sector*. New York: International Organization for Migration (IOM).

Weeks, J., Davis, J. & Lopez-Carr, D., 2010. *Migration, Remittances, and Cattle: Implications for Land Use Change and Food Security in Central America: Papers of the Global Land Project Open Science Meeting.*, Central America: Arizona State University Press.

Wenzel , M., Viljoen, J. & Kok, P., 2006. "Contemporary South African migration patterns and intentions" In: P.Kok, D. Gelderblom, J.O. Oucho and J. van Zyl (eds) *Migration in South and Southern Africa. Dynamics and determinants*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Wiest, K., 2016. *Women and Migration in Rural Europe: Labour Markets, Representations and Policies*. England: Palgrave Macmillan .

Wiest, K., 2016. *Women and Migration in Rural Europe: Labour Markets, Representations and Policies*. England: Palgrave Macmillan.

World Bank, 2016. *Annual Report*. [Online] Available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/en/about/annual-report> [Accessed 2016 November 1].

Yao Lu, 2015. Internal migration, international migration, and physical growth of left-behind children: A study of two settings. *Health & Place, Volume 36*, pp. 118-126.

Zhu , Y. & Zhongmin, W., 2004. Income Differential and Out-migration: the Impacts of Between-gap and Within-gap. *Journal of Chinese Economic and Business Studies Volume 2, Issue 1*, pp. 27-37.