



**UNIVERSITY OF  
KWAZULU-NATAL**  

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**INYUVESI  
YAKWAZULU-NATALI**

**THE PROSPECTS AND CHALLENGES OF RURAL-URBAN  
MIGRATION IN SOUTH AFRICAN CITIES: PERCEPTIONS  
FROM INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANS**

**By**

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## **DECLARATION**

I, Thama. C Ramuhulu, declare that;

- (i) The research reported in this dissertation is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged.
- (ii) Where other written sources have been used or quoted, then:
  - a) their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced; and
  - b) where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks and referenced.
- (iii) This dissertation has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.

Signature:



\_\_\_\_\_

Thama Cindy Ramuhulu

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Most importantly, none of this could have happened without my family. I wish to acknowledge the support and great love of my family, my mother, Samaria, my father, Selby, my brother, Martin and my little sister Wanga Maria. This dissertation stands as a testament to your unconditional love and encouragement. Above all, I Thank God for good health, tolerance, perseverance, patience and assurance during this journey.

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## **ABSTRACT**

Rural-urban migration is a global phenomenon which has been constantly shaping economies and societies. Rural-urban migration has played an important role in many countries' urbanization processes and continues to be important. There are a number of reasons why this migration is mainly about seeking better sources of income. Similarly, rural-urban migration has a variety of implications. In South Africa, rural-urban migration has occurred since the early 1990s during the gold rush period and was deterred by apartheid policies such as the community areas act and influx control legislation that limited the movement of Black Africans. In post-apartheid South Africa, urban areas have seen increasing numbers of people moving to urban areas for work-related purposes, but ending up settling down. Therefore, it becomes essential to understand how receiving metropolitan areas interpret the rapid rural-urban migration occurring in South Africa.

The study aimed to explore the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities based on the perceptions from Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) of metropolitan municipalities. As such, the study utilised secondary data from IDPs and supplemented by data from Statistics South Africa on population dynamics.

The study finds that metropolitan IDPs are generally aware of the socio-economic benefits of rural-urban migration for migrants and receiving cities, mainly through attracting skilled workers and enriching diversity. The findings also reveal that metropolitan municipalities in South Africa are experiencing major housing blockage problems, lack of infrastructure, informal settlements and a lack of urban planning strategies due to the increase in rural-urban migration. This is largely because the population growth in cities is putting tremendous strain on the availability of utilities which places pressure on governments to identify alternatives and establish plans to tackle service delivery issues in communities. It is recommended that the government needs to proactively introduce spatial planning and land-use management strategies that promote the creation of inclusive cities that protect sustainable development.

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## **LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATION**

GPS - Gauteng Spatial Outlook

IDP - Integrated development plan

NDP - National Development Plan

NGO - Non-governmental organisation

RDP - Reconstruction and Development Programme

SDF - Spatial Development Framework

SPLUMA - Spatial Planning and Land Use Management Act

Stats SA - Statistics South Africa

UN - United Nations

UN-DESA - United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

UNDP - United Nations Development Programme

## CHAPTER ONE

### 1.1 Introduction

Migration provides the world's most vulnerable communities with a vital livelihood mechanism instead of just a shock reaction. Despite widespread evidence that migration leads to household capital accumulation and positive changes both in the sending and receiving regions, politicians, policymakers, academics and even NGOs prefer to view migration as a mechanism of cultural, social and political destabilization (Taylor and Medina, 2013). Rural-rural migration mainly occurs in many developing countries, with workers from more impoverished regions moving to agricultural and industrial areas with more jobs (Antobam, 2016). Rural-urban migration is increasing, particularly in Asia's urban economies, and wage differentials and migration rates are rapidly rising. For example, in Bangladesh, in the early 2000s, two-thirds of all rural-urban movements grew (Afsar, 2003). Rural-urban immigration has also outgrown other kinds of migration in China and has increased dramatically in recent years due to the economic reforms and better employment opportunities in destination cities (Awumbila et al., 2011).

Across the African continent, the migration of rural to urban communities has been a popular activity. However, the challenges of migration vary from region to region. For example, in Western and North African regions, many migrants move to pursue better economic gains from their territories or the continent (Haas, 2016; Awumbaii et al., 2011). This confirms that people migrate in search of fertile arable soil from one place to another, a situation that causes both the sending region and the receiving region to have a problem. In South Africa, the population movement shows that larger cities usually see a net population increase while rural areas lose. Phulisani (2009) observes that the highest influx rate is in urban areas and secondary towns. The increasing rural-urban pay difference has historically triggered most urban migration in rural areas because cities (particularly metropolitan) conventionally provide more employment opportunities than rural areas.

In South Africa, as is the case in other parts of the world, the main reason for rural-urban migration is the disparities in economic development fortunes. In terms of economic prosperity, cities have consistently surpassed the rest of the nation because of the agglomeration effects that have made

cities the engines of economic growth and employment. Therefore, migration provides an opportunity to attract people from various skills and backgrounds to South African in pursuit of better economic prospects. This study explores the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South Africa's eight metropolitan municipalities as reported on the integrated development plans (IDPs).

## **1.2 Background of the study**

According to Mulcahy (2015), rural population migration happens because people are looking for better opportunities, as urban areas have a degree of economic activity, cultural and intellectual expression, and growth. Migration is an issue of critical interest and has been debated worldwide. Migration refers to people's movement to new destinations from their initial home (Aghena, 2011). The discovery of "diamonds and gold" in the second half of the 19th century, along with the subsequent industrialisation, has drawn thousands of South African refugees to the mines and factories (Antobam, 2016). In South Africa, traditionally, more and more people migrate to urban areas to work, but end up settling down (Statistics South Africa, 2018). Similarly, Africa's urban population has risen very rapidly, with 1,332,100,932 people as of 30 March 2020, and is expected to double by 2050 (World Meters, 2020). This results in pressure for services and a massive shortage of housing supply, forcing many African governments to discourage urban migration.

The governance of migration should become a part of Africa's urban planning and sustainable programs (UN-DESA. 2014). The cross-border dimension in African migration has always been important, partially representing most national borders' subjective existence, based on economic interdependence between ecological areas and partly promoting regional political and economic relations during the 1960s and 1970s (McGranahan et al., 2016). Migrants often migrate rapidly among counties, i.e., over the last period, a comparatively large proportion of people over West Africa have migrated to cities in Southern Africa (Human Sciences Research Council, 2008). It also becomes clear that, contrary to the perceptions of the developed world, the urbanisation cycle is not so much triggered by rapid industrialisation in the developing countries, but could also be attributed to population growth (Mulcahy, 2015).

Rapid rural-urban migration occurred in South Africa at the beginning of the 1990s during the gold rush period and curbed through apartheid policies such as the “group areas act and influx control legislation” that constrained the Black African movement in an effort to control, map and restrict their activity. (Aghsa, 2011). This deprived Africans of competitive jobs in cities and industrial hubs near cities as migration tends to flow to largely populated and industrialized areas. The abolition of apartheid laws in democratic South Africa created a resurgence in rural-urban migration in line with globalisation. More than 26 years into democracy, the South African government has not adequately addressed the growing migration and uneven development between cities and rural areas. Notably, rural-urban migration, in particular, has its benefits and drawbacks for the place of origin and destination from a socio-economic perspective.

### **1.3 Problem statement**

Migration from rural to urban areas has accelerated at a worrying rate in South African cities. According to UN-HABITAT (2014), migration to urban areas increases the pressure on local governments to adapt more rapidly to the urban population’s social service needs. The ongoing migration also places pressure on housing, which leads to an increase in informal settlements. The standard of rural life is adversely influenced by rural-urban migration in particular as migrants take their needed intakes into the region. The rural-urban population is triggering an influx of migration in urban areas leading to urban congestion, creating a shortage in public services, absence of basic food, housing ascent and unemployment (Flahaux, & De Haas, 2016).

According to Posel & Casale (2011), rural-urban migration is seen to reflect an increasing degree of disparity in rural-urban wages and economic prospects, as well as real hardship and poverty in rural areas, which are undesirable economic development factors. Poverty was initially deemed a significant factor in migration after the early 1990s, but the United Nations Development Programme (2009) asserts that the poorest people were already unable to travel because of the lack of resources. Noteworthy, government policy over rural and urban migration has been unclear for many years due to social dislocation in sending regions and strain on urban land, housing, and public services. In South Africa, Todes and Turok (2018) observe that the Government cannot fulfill its pledge of suitable well-located housing. The government needs to prepare the land in

advance to accommodate migrants and incorporate them into the city's physical and social position (Todes & Turok, 2018).

There is a complex predicament in the government since the "legislation and regulations" aimed at tracking activity trends in rural-urban migration have not been actively enforced (Boure, 2001). The high levels of urbanisation in post-apartheid South Africa have been dominated by migrants looking for greater financial empowerment (Awumbila et al., 2011). The high rate of rural-urban migration not only does it represent a significant degree of disparity of rural-urban wages and economic prospects, but it also represents total vulnerability and poverty in rural areas as negative aspects of economic growth and production (Awummbila et al., 2011). By exploring the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities based on perceptions from municipal IDPs, this research study will ascertain whether cities invest in people and places to realise the potential of livable and prosperous cities and prepare urban areas for migration.

#### **1.4 Aims and objectives**

The aim of this study is to explore the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities from perceptions of municipal IDPs.

The overall objectives are:

1. To explore the prospects of rural-urban migration in South African metropolitan cities
2. To explore rural-urban migration challenges in South African metropolitan cities
3. To assess how metropolitan municipalities manage rural-urban migration
4. To propose strategies to manage cities for migration in cities for their benefit.

#### **1.5 Questions**

The research question is: What are the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in south African cities?

The overall questions are:

1. What are the prospects of rural-urban migration in South African metropolitan cities?
2. What are the rural-urban migration challenges facing South African metropolitan cities?

3. How do metropolitan municipalities deal with rural-urban migration?
4. How can metropolitan cities manage migration for their benefit?

### **1.6 Significance of the study**

Considering the evidence that exists in the literature, rural-urban migration has been of significant focus and the number of rural-urban migration continues to grow. The study will explore the prospects and challenges pertaining to rural-urban migration in South African cities. The main beliefs pertaining to rural-urban migration are that it increases poverty in urban areas, but the overall prospects are mainly neglected. Understanding how municipal IDPs view and report on rural-urban migration will yield a coherent picture on the overall perception of rural-urban migration and what interventions the government can implement to improve the prospects of urbanisation in South Africa. As such, the findings of this study can be used to improve the existing rural-urban policies and plans as the key issues that push people away from their rural origins could be overcome and the spatial inequality between cities and rural areas can be proactively addressed.

### **1.7 Research methodology**

The approach of this methodology is qualitative research. According to Babbie and Mouton (2010), quality work focuses on the perception of phenomena that are important in their natural environment in terms of the analysis of conditions that people bring. This approach aims to comprehend the fundamental idea and perception behind rural-urban migration prospects and challenges in southern African cities. This work is focused on an interpretative approach, known as a qualitative research approach (Taylor & Medina, 2013). In this research, the interpretative approach is best suited because it requires textual analysis and review data and hypotheses on the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migrations in South African cities. As a means of gathering specific and needed information, the analysis relied heavily on secondary data from metropolitan IDPs and supplemented by data from Statistics South Africa. This research follows the method of content analysis, where meaning can be evaluated by the researcher in the analysis of the data.

### **1.8 Limitation of the study**

This research study is about the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities. The researcher faced constraints on the limited data on rural-urban migration from some

metropolitan municipalities, particularly on what is reported on their IDPs. Some municipalities such as the Bafallo City did not report on rural-urban migration on their IDPs, thus making it hard to have a comprehensive discussion. It was mainly Cape Town, Ekurhuleni, Johannesburg and Tshwane that largely reported on these issues. Also due to COVID-19, the researcher was unable to go and collect data which affected the presentation of the data because the research was then limited only on those Metropolitan municipalities that reported on rural-urban migration and had no data to analyse on the municipalities that did on report on the issue.

### **1.9 Chapter outline**

Chapter one provides an introduction, background, aim of the study, and the study's overall significance. Chapter two provides a review of existing theories and literature, particularly on previous studies and focuses on applicable theoretical and conceptual constructs. Chapter three focuses on rural-urban migration in South Africa from the gold-rush migration, migration and industrialisation, rural-urban migration in post-apartheid South Africa, and finally rural-urban migration by regional statistics. Chapter four outlines the methodology used in the research and some of the key ethical considerations the study had to consider. Chapter five, presents and discusses the results and findings of the study. The findings are discussed based on the key themes that emerged from the data analysis. Lastly, chapter six provides a summary of the findings, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

### **1.10 Chapter summary**

Chapter one summarized the research by highlighting some of the prior studies on rural-urban migration and its prospects and challenges. The section summarizes the contribution of this analysis on the broader literature of prospects and challenges pertaining to rural urban migration in South African cities. This chapter also highlighted some challenges faced by the researcher. A detailed background of the study in terms of the “push and pull” influences that causes rural-urban migration in South African cities will be discussed in chapter two. This is done by reflecting on literature and integrated development planning (IDP) of the eight metropolitan cities around rural-urban migration in South African cities.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Introduction

Many academics have remained interested in rural-urban migration (Antobam, 2016). This is also a common practice in South Africa and many other developing nations. In South Africa, the key explanation to rural-urban migration is the disparities in economic prosperity. In terms of “economic employment” growth, the towns have constantly outpaced the rest of the nation (Antobam, 2016). The same situation affects developing as well as developed countries. Rural-urban migration offers people the ability to improve their socio-economic stability (Crivello, 2011). Since citizens can now pursue their professions and business opportunities in the country, internal movements have been made simple (Boure, 2001). According to the UN-HABITAT (2014), the population increase in cities puts a great deal of strain on service delivery, housing and food supply.

Migration influences the population scale of the regions receiving and distributing areas. Wright (2011), notes that the growth of the rural population should decrease as urban populations rise as the mainstream of refugees are “males and females” in the “reproductive” stage groups. Consequently, older groups with lower fertility rates in rural delivery areas would predominate (Flahaux, and De Haas, 2016). Migration effects are viewed from two angles: migration which results in over-urbanisation, unemployment, income inequality, environmental stress and mismanagement of the population. On the other hand, migration is a crucial part of “development, juggling patterns, promoting industrialisation, improving the distribution of wages and integrating technology in agriculture, and generalizing migration as human rights” to ensure that the goal of enhancement of welfare and economic benefits is preferred (Flahaux and De Haas, 2016:4). The results of rural-urban migration on reception and distribution areas, in general, are social, economic, cultural, mental and demographical (Wright, 2011). This literature review chapter focuses on applicable rural-urban migration theoretical and conceptual constructs and key studies on this phenomenon.

## **2.2 Theoretical framework**

Migration is cautiously regarded as a significant livelihood feature in developing countries (Isiugo-Abanihe & Uche, 2014). Over the past few decades, numerous methodological and multidisciplinary approaches have attempted to examine the migration phenomenon and provide a basic understanding. Numerous theoretical and experimental studies deal with external and inner migration rates, features, causes, and effects. A review and objective appraisal of new hypotheses of migration is provided in the following section in emerging and developing countries, with a particular focus on rural-urban mobility.

### **2.2.1 Lee's Theory of Migration**

Lee revised the basic “push-pull” principle by establishing a general schema in which it was possible to position several spatial movements (Lee, 1966). Lee also tried to draw a range of assumptions about the aspects involved in migration, the extent of migration, the growth of streams and counterflows and refugee features. Migration influences are divided into “push” elements (region-linked factors), “pull” factors (target-linked factors), action barriers and personal elements (Lee, 1966). The “push” factors are those that cause a person to leave a place and go to some other place for various reasons. According to Paras (2020), low growth, unemployment and underdevelopment, weak economic circumstances, lack of resources for change, natural resource depletion and natural disasters, for example, can cause people to leave their native countries in search of better economic opportunities. Some of these factors are confirmed by Kainth and Singh (2010) in a Case Study of Brick Kiln Migrant Workers in Punjab, which notes that the land-man ratio has decreased in the region due to population explosion, resulting in a large rise in unemployment and underemployment. In rural regions, the implementation of capital-intensive manufacturing techniques into the agriculture sector and the mechanization of some operations minimize labor requirements. Migration is also an important factor in the unavailability of alternate sources of income (non-agricultural activities) in rural areas (Mohamed & Abdul-Talib, 2020).

On the other hand, “pull” factors refer to factors that draw migration to a region, such as better job prospects, higher salaries, services, better working conditions and facilities, etc. (Piras, 2016). When massive development in manufacturing, commerce and enterprise takes place, there is usually city ward migration. Piras (2016), furthers points out that country-to-city migration is

directly related to the trend of industrialization, technical development and other societal shifts that mark modern society's transformation in almost every part of the world. According to Kainth and Singh (2010), there is a trend for a large proportion of investment to concentrate in urban centres under the capitalist model of growth, which induces people to migrate to urban areas in the hope of better paying jobs. Often in search of greater cultural and leisure activities, people are often drawn to communities. Thus, “pull” factors work not only in rural-urban migration but also in other forms of domestic as well as foreign migration (Kainth and Singh, 2010). Some scholars suggest that the “push” factors are greater than the “pull” factors, since they believe that it is rural concerns that play a dominant role in population relocation rather than urban attractions. In the other hand, high investment rates in metropolitan areas are stressed by those who regard the “pull” factors as more significant, leading to more jobs and business prospects and a greater appeal for the urban way of life (Hungwe, 2020). There is a third group of researchers who claim that all “push and pull” variables are closely linked; those who are pushed into migration are simultaneously pulled by the expectation of finding something better elsewhere (Hungwe, 2020).

Lee believed the positive forces that contain or draw people in the region, negatives that repel or exclude the people of the region, and null forces that have no effects were all regions of origin and destination (Lee, 1966). Lee speculated that variables linked to circumstances in the place of origin are substantially higher than those related to destination regions. Such aspects in the parts of origin and destination are controlled by external factors that influence and encourage or delay the migration of individual thresholds (Lee, 1966). The concluding component of “Lee’s paradigm” is the idea of intervention problems. They establish friction in the migration process (transportation expenses, migration restrictions) and can restrict or postpone and also ban migration (“in the law case”). Each location holds a set of optimistic and negative aspects, with the conditions acting to keep people inside it or draw people from other places are positive factors, while negative factors continue to repel them (Lee, 1966). This is evident in the case study of Taliparamba Block, Kunnur District (Kerela) by Surabhi Rani (2018), which outlines that while some of these influences influence the majority of local residents, others have distinctive characteristics. The interplay of such factors within each area is a net result of migration.

Another significant argument is that the conflict between the regions of origin and destination is linked to a person's lifecycle stage. The long relationship between a person and a place will lead to an over-assessment of "positive factors" and an under-assessment of "negative factors" in the region of origin (Lee, 1966). Potential concerns will simultaneously confuse "positive and negative factors" both in the region of the receiving areas (Lee, 1966). The "push theory" can be regarded as a descendant of neo-classical economic theory and is generally related to the European Economic Growth of the nineteenth century (Monstead & Walji, 1978).

### **2.3.2 The Harris-Todaro Model of Migration**

In the early 1950s, economists focused on demographic issues and economic development in the less developed countries. It was thus normal for strategies underlining industrialisation to raise national incomes and reduce rural over-crowding. But this view was predominately debated in the 1960s when it became evident that despite respectable GNP growth, inequality and poverty persisted in developing nation because of globalization. This challenge has now led to the current paradigm that views rural-urban migration in less developed countries as a sign of underdevelopment and a contributing factor (Todaro, 1969). The latest convention has a theoretical basis in many of the least developed countries to understand city unemployment, which has been widely recognized mainly because of Todaro's (1970) work.

The Harris-Todaro model shows that, in some parametric fields, amplified urban jobs will potentially contribute to advanced city unemployment and even decreased national production ("the Todaro paradox"). This is provided that future migrants effectively respond to urban job opportunities and regard rural-urban migration solely as the phenomenon of economics (Todaro, 1970). This is evident in case study of Guwahati (India) (Upasana & Nissar, 2012), which saw migration as the process of adjustment in which workers broke up from various labor markets, some of them in the urban and rural parts, though seeking to increase projected profits belonging to them.

The model underlines the need for migrants to migrate through the possibility of joblessness in their areas of destination. Refugees will migrate, while their income exceeds that of their country of origin. This is because the demand of the migrants for better pay that in the long-run could

compensate for past losses (Smith and Todaro, 2003). Kasahun (2000), Brown and Neuberger speculate that some refugees were mostly "pushed away" by unfavorable mergers that rendered it unacceptable for continued residence. Enticing circumstances in other locations drive some people to abandon their residence ("pulled out"). Likewise, Bekure (1984) claimed that migration occurs when conditions of origin are unbearable or the destination is appealing. This confirms the importance of the push and pull theory as espoused by Lee.

### **2.3.3 The Sjaastad's Human Investment Theory**

Sjaastad presented a migration hypothesis in 1962, dealing with an investment decision concerning the projected charges and earnings of a person in the long run. Revenues include monetary and non-monetary problems with changes to psychological rewards related to the latter's role options. Likewise, both "nominal and non-monetary" consequences are affected. Monetary costs cover transport, land removal, and forgotten compensation during transit and planning of a new job (Sjaastad 1962). This may be attributed to drive factors such as jobs, wars and tensions, such as the abandonment of familiar settings, modern dietary habits and social activities. Analytical processes are generally confined to income and other quantifiable factors, as they are hard to quantify. The method suggests that individuals can increase their "true net profits" in working lives and relatively calculate "net real income streams" belonging to them in their current dwelling rather than in potential destinations in certain respects (Sjaastad 1962). Perfect knowledge does not necessarily lead to better outcomes as some investment decisions don't often deliver the predicted returns period because they can be ambiguous in any situation.

While Sjaastad concedes both "monetary and non-monetary costs and benefits", the estimate of net migration only contains monetary costs and non-psychological benefits. Sjaastad believes that migrants prefer to increase their lifetime actual net profits as they plan to travel. They at least have a rough idea of the origins of their lifetime profits both at the current residence and at the destination and the transfer cost. This idea does not work all of the time, or we have fewer displaced immigrants, some of whom survive without seeking employment for long term periods. According to Castelli (2018), the reasons for the unemployment of some migrants is because of lack of skills or education, and that many labour migrations flow predominantly consist of undocumented

migrants. Any high net migrant countries have uncompromising issues with unemployment too, which leads to migrants staying for an extended period without employment (Paserman, 2013)

The principle of human migration investment by Sjaastad regards the decision to relocate as an asset. The model explores migration variables at “macro and micro” levels that decide the "pressure" to migrate or the advantages of migration. Todaro (1969) established this hypothesis further on the basis of (anticipated) the possibility of job formation following migration, a “model of labour migration and urban unemployment” in the least developed countries. Todaro argues that as long as the pay gap is high, people move, people weigh both costs and benefits. This concept was integrated into the modern labor migration system, which views the migrant as maintaining close touch with the original household through remittances that help both support the household and secure the claims of the migrant to a future inheritance (Todaro, 1969).

#### **2.3.4 Migration and the Dual Sector Model of Economic Development**

According to Lewis (1954), the most uncomplicated premise proposed is that there are two sectors in the economy: the traditional sector industry and the new sector. The traditional sector is also recognised as the backward sector or the underdeveloped or subsistence industry (Hirota, 2002). Compared to the available services, there is a significantly low-income community. In these regions, the high population is attributed to increased fertility. The classical “Smith-Marx” argument supposes that this field’s labour pool is limitless (Gustav, 2004). Consequently, labour supply in these regions or, more precisely, excess to labour tends to be negative or marginal in contrast with capital. Because of the instability in the resource-to-population ratio, it is presumed that the marginal physical efficiency of labor is productive, figures calculation that measures the rise in demand (“agricultural production”) generated by this work component (Nicholson & Snyder, 2008).

Lewis states that companies in the industrial sector can make and spend income very rapidly because these relatively low wages are offered. According to the model, the rural sector’s productivity level is so small there that it would have no impact on total output if a massive outflow of workers in the manufacturing sector occurred from this sector (McCatty 2004). Lewis (1954) claims that increased savings and spending are beneficial to economic growth. When workers go

into production, their savings are increased as revenue grows, and this is the easiest way to develop the economy. Rural-urban migration is a core feature of “dual sector model” concept, as it permits the workflow from the farming subdivision into the manufacturing subdivision. According to McCatty (2004), the Lewis Dual Sector model has received many criticisms because the model underestimates the full effect of a rapidly increasing population on the weak economy, i.e. the impact on the surplus of agriculture. and wage rates and overall employment opportunity. The dual-sector model is more common in developing nations than developed nations because the model is used to analyze growth in developing nations.

The dual-sector model notes that excess work exists in the rural agricultural sector and people move to industry searching for jobs (McCatty 2004). In addition, to increase productivity, the urban industrial sector demands work transfer. It is assumed that workers are driven to new industries through higher pay. Todaro claims that even at increased urban unemployment rates and potential migrants are identified, high rural-urban migration levels will continue. Even with high unemployment, migration is influenced by economic growth, development and technological change. Most people migrate to urban areas with a lack of skills and no education. As a result, migrants are unemployed or earn urban revenues smaller than rural wages (Todaro, 1976). Similarly, the probability of city employment is contrariwise connected to the city joblessness degree (Todaro, 1976).

#### **2.4 Migration in the developing countries**

The quest for better jobs in rural areas of developing nations is only feasible by migrating somewhere else (Silver et al., 2018). Agricultural production, which is typically the principal economic activity in developing countries, is risky and affected by droughts and floods (Silver et al., 2018). As such, rural households rely on remote family members to provide remittances to purchase food because of high poverty rates. Further to this, the lack of good governance, absence of mainstream “democracy, political stability and the rule of law puts citizens in vulnerable situations. This leads to rural residents choosing to move to the city where the “political visibility” of improved governance and democratic principles can be comparatively higher (Ntshidi, 2017). Political conditions like civil war, racial strife and oppressive government legislation are major factors creating vast numbers of rural-urban refugees in the Third World (Ntshidi, 2017).

Many developing countries face many communal and economic problems that push people toward opportunity destinations (Antobam, 2016). Nevertheless, as shown by scholarly works around the world, rural-urban migration is not unique to developing countries as similar predicaments apply to both developed and developing countries (Beauchemin, et al., 2014). Rural-urban migration helps people to shift their “socio-economic livelihoods” (Crivello, 2011). Previously, the migration pattern in Africa used to be circular through villagers who traveled to work in mines, plantations and factories during the colonial periods returning after 2 to 5 years (Byerlee, 1974). In those days, villagers were able to leave their employment for a few months to visit their families at home and then return to their work or move to a new and better job altogether. But there is currently a lack of jobs in the cities that have made returning home risky for villagers with paid work, knowing their odds of finding a job again are very slim (McCall, 1955). Cities in developing countries that were once a haven of opportunities for refugees have now been infested with numerous problems such as deprivation, high child mortality, malnutrition, deterioration of the environment, pollution and insufficient housing (Herrmann & Khan, 2008).

As people now have the freedom to pursue their professions and economic prospects worldwide, this has been complemented by an increasing internal movement from rural areas to cities (Boure, 2001). The population increase in cities has made the supply of service, homes and food much harder. This is not easy as the urbanisation phenomenon has risen geometrically over the previous years in the developing nations (Yao Lu, 2015). For example, the last few years have been rapidly urbanised in areas such as Latin America and the Caribbean, North America and Oceania (World Bank 2016). The more migrants move into urban areas, the more “socio-demographical” problems they face because of the competition for resources. With the most being children, refugees face more well-being and nutrition challenges that are compounded by economic problems in urban areas (Todara & Smith, 2003). This condition eventually influences “mortality and morbidity”, thereby impacting their socio-economic wellbeing (Todaro & Smith, 2003).

Numerous African countries have experienced significant demographic increases over recent years, ranking in the top twenty African countries with the fastest relative population growth between the years 2009 and 2019 (UN-DESA, 2019). The metropolitan populace in Africa has increased relatively, from some 27% in 1950 to 40% in 2015, and is expected to reach 60% by

2050 (UN-DESA, 2014). All twenty top countries had major population growth in sub-Saharan Africa at that period. According to UN-DESA (2019), these 20 countries are the world's most rapidly-growing countries, with Africa already forecasting to cross 2 billion by 2050. For instance, demographic growth in Europe's population shows that there has been a slow population increase and other countries have decreased during the same period. Africa consists of 2.49% of the annual demographic change, Asia has 0.86%, Europe is 0.06% (WorldMeters, 2020). The latest demographic rise at the national level has been driven by a considerable increase in migration in Africa (UN-DESA, 2019).

According to Pineteh (2018), internal migration is considerably reduced than foreign migration, partially due to logistical problems in determining the size of such population transfer, especially in developed countries. It is estimated that 763 million people worldwide are affected by migration internally (Pineteh 2018). Countries with more internal refugees (including internally displaced persons) include Western and East Asian war zones and developed countries with environmental disasters (Ruhaman, 2018). Consequently, the influence of migration also needs to be understood and evaluated from a global south viewpoint, where many refugees live in the overcrowded metropolises in Asia, Africa and South America. The cities absorb the general population growth associated with external and internal migration and this places big demands on the city's infrastructure and public utilities, including education, jobs, sufficient housing, power, water, food. Migrants staying in the region also face problems of social stability (Pineteh, 2018).

## **2.5 Case studies on rural-urban migration benefits**

Migration paved the way for development and improved industrialisation processes. Economies of scale arise from the mass investment generated by cities as engines of growth and development (Wesen, 2015). When producers and customers are closer to each other, this makes for reductions in connectivity and travel costs (Wesen, 2015). A variety of higher-wage work openings are also provided by big cities, which will further fast-track the rate of technological advancement. Thus, the growth of cities permits municipalities to offer more productive services such as hygiene, sanitation, electricity, and transportation (Wesen, 2015). According to Chen (2011), The strongest positive outcome of urbanisation is that it is highly successful for economic development, scale saving, promoting a creative culture and paying better salaries and dividends for companies.

In principle, families can monitor the risks of their economic well-being by assigning family labour in multiple labor markets (Chen 2011). In times of better economic conditions and low rural labor productivity in urban areas, households may rely on money from urban migration to sustain their everyday life (Chen, 2011). According to Chen (2011), migration has the advantages of economic growth for rural households but is less effective in minimising inequality and relative deprivation in rural areas. In rural areas, migrants are typically educated but generally poor (Chen, 2011). Rural households often produce poor migrants, one factor that is likely to contribute to a widespread rural-urban welfare separation. For migrants to attain high-paying employment, the essential value of decent education demands greater investment in quality education in rural areas (Chen, 2011).

There is some evidence that towns are reducing rural poverty, providing more access to services, higher wages, better life expectancy and opportunities (Chen, 2011). China is one of the countries that has benefited and managed urbanisation. China managed to contain and channel migration from villages to small-sized towns despite developing an unparalleled degree of urbanisation (World Bank, 2018). China's most significant accomplishments in its accelerated urbanisation have been that living standards are crowded, but relatively few slums exist. With the fast growth of the Chinese economy, city deprivation has been brought under control (World Bank, 2018).

Malawi is also seen as one of the countries that can manage urbanisation (Plecher, 2020). Malawi ranks as one of the world's least developed countries. Forecasts suggest a faster urbanisation process could help boost economic growth by growing demand for more agricultural products among urban businesses and individual consumers, which could lead to poverty reduction in rural areas (Plecher, 2020). This is because many of the Malawians' livelihoods are agro-based and migration is one of the numerous household coping techniques applied by the citizens.

## **2.6 Case studies on rural-urban migration challenges**

The problems of migration in the metropolitan facilities are indispensable (Wesen, 2015). Firstly, rural-urban migration has a huge impact and effect on local planning arrangements. Overcapacity and urban overload, tweaking public facilities for neighborhoods such as learning, medical care and accommodation, widening basic demands and gradually reducing access to human well-being (Wesen 2015). There are more social upheavals such as theft, crime, unemployment and squatter settlements. This is evident in the case of Accra in Ghana, where rural-urban migrants exacerbated

the levels of pollution due to the flow of pedestrians, cars and congestions (World Bank, 2016). In one or two compound homes, for example, in Accra, some twenty families use the same toilet (World Bank 2016). Furthermore, houses are built in locations that are vulnerable to flooding and pollution of the city and water supplies. There are also concerns relating to waste disposal and the absence of transit networks. Usually, Accra, owing to human concentration, is more and more vulnerable to natural disasters (Owusu-Ansah et al., 2018).

Overcrowding and alarming demographic increases have unlocked the gateway for unparalleled poorest “urban poorest” of the disadvantaged at high-paced economic expansion combined with unceasing and enduring poverty (Wesen, 2015). Migration can also be expensive and lead to stressful working and living environments and psychological stress (Chen, 2011). Excessive urbanisation is a big consequence of rural-urban migration (Arndt et al., 2018). Migration has significantly increased the urban population over the years (Arndt et al., 2018). With reference to the case study of India, the rapid increase of the urban population is from 17% (1951) to 28% (2001) and is expected to reach 41% by 2030 (World Economic Forum, 2019). The boom in technology and manufacturing has caused urban residents’ tremendous problems, particularly through causing environmental degradation (World Economic Forum, 2019). The number of slums in metropolitan cities has also risen due to the high housing cost in urban areas, thus exacerbating housing insecurity (World Bank, 2016).

Because of the rising rural-urban migration, cities have problems in providing suitable accommodation and services for citizens and incoming arrivals (Wesen, 2015). In addition, internally displaced people are forced to remain within municipalities, which fail to sustain them due to war displacement, in temporary settlements or improvement settlements (Arndt et al. 2018). However, most economists agree that urbanisation is a natural result attributed to rural stagnation and successful economic growth, not an unwelcome force (Arndt, Davies & Thurlow 2018).

## **2.7 Lessons and Conclusion**

While rural poverty is common in rural areas, questions are posed about future urbanisation of poverty, with growing populous densities and their capacity to fund and provide services placing weight on local governments (Arndt et al., 2018). To accommodate rural-urban migration and avoid worsening urgent poverty, increased investment in major metropolitan areas is necessary

(Antobam, 2016). Another significant factor is the need to sustain and expanding investment in rural areas to deliver rural jobs and revenue for more impoverished citizens with already disproportionate urban migration (Antobam, 2016). Migration from rural to urban areas requires public investment in urban services and infrastructure. However, the increased urban investment must not cost rural investment to slow down (Arndt et al. 2018).

Researchers that focus on rural-urban migration have attempted to comprehend the relation between migration, the economic drivers of migration and the different impacts on migration areas. In Africa, more attention has been given to the economic motives of in-migration. Several migration factors such as “pull” and “push” factors have been recognized. Most studies show that there are many challenges regarding rural-urban migration than advantages with rural-urban migration. The following chapter focuses on the history of rural-urban migration in South Africa.

## **CHAPTER THREE: RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

### **3.1 Introduction**

Globally, the leading cause of rural-urban migration has mainly been the persistent unemployment (Wesen, 2015). Many migrants through hardship because of the massive influx of new inhabitants in unprepared cities. This adds to the problems of urban poverty, hunger, inadequate health conditions, slum development and the growing air pollution, congestion, crime and instability in slums (IOM, 2015). This chapter provides a thorough description of rural-urban migration history and trends in South African, from the Gold Rush period, rural-urban migration during the apartheid period and emerging trends in the post-apartheid era. The chapter also reviews the link between rural-urban migration and industrialisation.

### **3.2 Rural-urban migration in South African cities**

The late nineteenth-century saw the emergence of rural-urban migration and its effects on South Africa as the country was catapulted to the global economy by mining activities (Zuma, 2013). With the advancement of economic activities in South Africa, a larger portion of the population began a transition from agricultural production to working in the rapidly developing mining industry. As postulated by Lee (1966), migration happens due to push and pull factors. In this case, push factors would be the less desired job opportunities in rural areas and pull factors are the job opportunities in mines. This resulted in the movement of different population groups to urban settings searching for employment (Myroniuk & Vearey, 2014).

The early migration trends culminated in the majority of semi-urban Blacks and semi Afrikaaner population. However, with the rural-urban migration, these two population groups had different motivations and consequences, with Blacks becoming mineworkers, while Afrikaaner (Whites) were incorporated into state jobs (Boure, 2001). As shall be observed in the section on migration under apartheid, internal migration was a primary concern for the apartheid administration (Collinson et al., 2006). The apartheid administration monitored and limited the black population's patterns to improve the White minority's economic opportunities and restrict and limit African urbanisation (Ebrahim, Botha & Snowball, 2013).

### **3.3 Migration in the Gold Rush Period**

In 1886, gold was discovered in the Witwatersrand, in the Johannesburg District, resulting in a gold rush that attracted prospectors, labourers, shopkeepers and others from all over (Antobam, 2016). The areas around the mines quickly urbanised because of economic modernization, growth in industries and technological advancement, which acts as a pull factor towards those areas searching for employment. Housing was hastily built, and slums sprung up in some instances, resulting in poor spatial development, leading to a lack of service delivery and sanitation in those areas (Antobam, 2016). Johannesburg, previously a smaller center, had become South Africa's largest city within 10 years of the gold discovery (Zuma, 2013).

According to Zuma (2013), discovering the biggest gold reef in the world has led to the development and subsequent resettlement of the world's largest gold mines for prospectors, mining firms and, most specifically, mining staff. Johannesburg was planned from the outset to be divided based on race and synonymous with hierarchical structures that regulated and constrained the movements of workers into and through the city (Antobam, 2016). This is because Johannesburg or "Egoli, the gold city," is a town that has been founded on migration and mining but has been and remains misplaced by most of its inhabitants (Zuma, 2013). More than four million people now live in Johannesburg. Nearly half have been born in other South African provinces (internal migrants) and about 13% have been estimated in other countries (Stats SA, 2012).

Antiban (2016), observes that the gold that South Africa discovered in the 1800s prompted the mass migration of young men from remote areas, briefly employed in the mines. The implementation of the "hut-tax" created a burden for many young people to pursue jobs in the mining industry to pay the tax (Palmer et al., 2017). Consequently, the "hut-tax" served as a guiding force for people to pursue work in the mines. This resulted in millions of individuals being forced to relocate temporarily to white regions for mines, industry, agriculture, and domestic labor (Palmer et al., 2017). This forced migration demonstrates the combination of push and pull factors from a coerced perspective in line with the government's tax hut.

The government of South Africa has operated with the mining authority to establish a mechanism for taking young black men to work on mines from rural areas (Antobam, 2016). When the mining industry wanted to develop a network of seasonal labor to provide enough jobs, the government

sought to expand the boundaries of the races (later called “Apartheid”). In addition, government officials and mining officials have conspired to create a circulatory mechanism for oscillating migration where people work for fixed times in mines and return home to their rural “native lands” (Antobam, 2016). By sending miners home, the mining firms easily outsourced the long-term costs of treatment for those frequently dismal retired employees who, during their working times, had developed tuberculosis and silicosis on their mines (Palmer et al., 2017). The most fertile land has been kept for Whites, the rural “homelands” remained extremely deprived areas (Palmer et al., 2017).

### **3.4 Rural-urban migration and industrialisation**

According to Mulcahy (2015), industrialisation is the most significant factor to be recognized in the urbanisation process. The theory of “Self-Generated Urbanisation” stresses that industrialisation creates urbanisation. The modernisation theory notes that urbanisation is a product of new things and inventions in society through industrialisation (Tombari, 2019). Industrialisation is a supplement to the cycle of urbanisation by absorbing a significant number of rural migrants who are forced into urban areas by rural deprivation and unemployment (Mulcahy, 2015). Big industries are generally found in and around the urban locations that attract a larger number of workers. On the other hand, industrialisation tends to increase secondary and tertiary operations, which may encourage more urbanisation in other areas. Urban development is enabled by industrialisation (Mulcahy, 2015). Industrial growth is generating more employment and speeding up immigration to urban centers. Despite industry and trade concentration, wage disparity also facilitates the rural and urban moving of people and thus the urbanisation process (Haas & Marie-Laurence, 2016). Industrial concentration induces urban migration of people in the rural areas for economic reasons, leading to a rise in urban population (Mulcahy, 2015).

An industrialised community evolved in South Africa for a duration of time. It was a mechanism driven by state and capital interests, which were at times in dispute (Haas & Marie-Laurence, 2016). Industrial development was rapid during World War 2 and after, and the state had to change some of its racial policies due to the urbanisation pressures (Boure, 2001). During this decade of highly dynamic circumstances, both African and African nationalisms flourished because of the growth of industrialization, this led to the increase in industries in urban areas and resulted to job

creation causing people from rural areas to migrate to the cities. According to Boure (2001), industrialisation and manufacturing industries' growth attracted large numbers to the cities. This movement placed pressure on the city land as squatting increased on unoccupied land (Boure, 2001). People were confronting the state with restrictive circumstances that needed an alternative means of accommodation to the compounds and locations (Boure, 2001). Africans were denied land ownership in rural and urban areas and designated to be perpetual tenants, dependent on whites for existence and wages (Mulcahy, 2015).

Before the dawn of democracy, the international community's sanctions on the apartheid regime led to military industrialisation, which became a further key component of South Africa's industrial base (Boure, 2001). The state was the leading practitioner of industrial pathway. Most of this has been aimed at heavy industry related to coal and iron-ore mining (Haas & Marie-Laurence, 2016). In three respects, state-owned enterprises played an important role: they were conduits for public spending, they built and operated infrastructure, and they also followed the best minds of engineering and management (Mulcahy, 2015). Typically, industrialisation leads to the relocation of jobs to towns, automation and routine activities. For these factors, factory workers tend to lose their freedom, decrease their work satisfaction and feel alienated (Haas & Marie-Laurence, 2016). The separation between labor and wealth generates a large disparity between the wealthy and the poor. Capital investors tend to create a surplus of income and asset disparities from their economic operation (Haas & Marie-Laurence, 2016).

### **3.5 Rural-urban migration during apartheid**

According to Christopher (2001), about "two-thirds" of the populace of South Africa is in metropolitan districts and represents one of Africa's urbanised nations. For South Africa, however, the urbanisation period differs dramatically from other countries in Africa. The National Party's apartheid policies (1948-1994) affected the country's second half of the 20th century. Apartheid was a geographical term that means apartheid or apartness (Christopher, 2001). The strategy was directed at fully separating the black and non-black classes. Policies varied from segregating urban-suburban areas to establishing tribal reservations, known as homelands (or "bantustans"), to become autonomous "Black communities" (Christopher, 2001). Single and black culture constraints on liberty had an extensive history in the 18th century in South Africa (Lapping, 1986).

Thus, the avoidance and reversal of black urbanisation remain one of the key priorities of “apartheid policies.”

Consequently, after 1948 the changes were remarkable when it came to achieving full geographical and social segregation and were carried out by mobilizing massive support in the policy sector and displacing huge numbers of black South Africans (Christopher 2001). The government regulated the freedom of Black Africans from owning land and their legal aptitude to live as they wanted. There were two dimensions of isolation: urban apartheid and broad apartheid. City segregation was for black people, who would often live in urban neighborhoods, to establish different neighborhoods. Instead, the key goal was to move the majority of the Black community to indigenous reservations (Christopher, 2001). The concept of ethnic segregation of many racial categories is often enforced by banning Black citizens in white communities from possessing or renting land.

The Group Areas Act (1950), the Pass Laws Act (1952) and the Population Registration Act (1950) were the three main measures for the creation of poor and urban segregation. The Population Registration Act named every citizen’s demographic group that essentially established a person’s political and social rights (Christopher, 2001). The Group Areas Act allocated a tribal reservation for any group of black people and allowed the administration to exclude individuals who did not live in their population group. According to Beinart (2001), the government relied, in particular, on a scheme of passes to manage migration transfers and black urbanisation movements. The Pass Laws Act frequently obliged any black African citizen to hold an interior passport. If Black Africans did not apply for “passports” to affirm their permit to enter a specific area, they would be arrested.

The stringent regulations imposed by the apartheid government significantly restricted the geographical spread and the urbanisation process. The South African Administration moved a minimum of 3.5 million individuals vigorously from 1960 to 1983. In contrast, under the passport rule about 100,000 arrests were made a year (Beinart, 2001). South Africa’s urban areas remained roughly stable, with the proportion of rural citizens decreasing by around 15%, while homelands expanded sharply (Mulcahy 2015). These developments led to areas in homelands densely populated and could be classified in population density as urban, but not in relation to public

service provision or industrial production (Beinart 2001). Driven by government actions, this dislocated urbanisation regardless of economic factors (Beinart 2001). Apartheid policies have failed to counteract Black South Africans' urbanisation rate and have avoided the step of increasingly economically-induced urbanisation and have consequently driven the urbanizing movements away from (white) cities into their homelands (Mulcahy, 2015).

South Africa was an impoverished society where many citizens live in poverty and too few workers were working (Parnell & Simon, 2014). Apartheid education practices have contributed to low rates of black employers' investment in human resources. For most black learners, the standard of school education was weak. According to Todes and Turok (2018), the spatial division of apartheid continued to rule the world. The Land Act of 1913 set the foundation for geographical separation in restricting the Black African populace to just 13% of the land (Todes & Turok, 2018). This marginalized rural farming and detached white agriculturists from the competition, which led Black Africans to wages. The Native Urban Areas Act of 1923 limited black Africans in the cities as transient settlers and tightened influx restrictions, improving the cheap migrant labor mechanism in this way (Turok, 2014). The post-apartheid regimes have inherited root-and-fragmented social and space inequalities (Todes & Turok, 2018). Even as residents continue to migrate to cities to adapt to the reality of uneven growth in rural areas, basic public services have improved. This refers to a space-neutral position with a variety of benefits (Parnell & Simon, 2014).

### **3.6 Rural-urban migration in post-apartheid South Africa**

According to Posel (2010), the abolition of South Africa's racial segregation apartheid system contributed to dramatic societal transitions in this area in the late 1980s and early 1990s. These reforms most impacted black South Africans because they were the most marginalized apartheid group (Posel, 2010). While black people are still underprivileged today, freedom of movement is one of the advantages of socially shifting. Geographical travel is now legally open to all, formerly restricted by migration regulation laws. Traveling and living options prove to be social, economic and political barriers, but black people are no longer charged or fined to travel to these areas (Posel, 2010).

In the immediate aftermath of Apartheid's collapse, South Africa underwent significant population migration, when over a quarter of the country allegedly migrated during the five-year timeframe from 1996 (Zuma, 2013). The overall migration rate in 1996 was 26.4 percent, in 2001 dipped to 13.8 percent, and then in 2011 increased to 16.4 percent (Zuma, 2013). Census data analysis indicates that areas close to apartheid-based homelands are experiencing net migration (Cox et al., 2004). The flow of migration leads to spatial inequalities and urbanisation by increasing skills training in urban areas and enhancing ethnic diversity (Cox, 2004). Migration in South Africa is mainly urban districts. This is rural-urban displacement, but there is also significant step-movement from smaller to larger metropolises (Collinson et al., 2007). While other possible cities exist, Johannesburg is the main town for the majority of people. Approximately 40% of migrant jobs were in the Johannesburg metropolitan area were in the late 1990s (Cox et al., 2004).

Migrating to suburban parts seems to be becoming ever more necessary in parts of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa (Muhwava et al., 2010). Migration patterns have reformed dramatically in the last two years, significantly in South Africa, predominantly since early democratic times (Posel, 2016). Such trends are branded by both an uptick in female migration occurrence (Posel, 2016) and a growing frequency at which migrants return home (Stewart, 2016). Before the 1970s, most of the gold mining work contracts were for six months; over the next two decades, most mining work contracts were extended and highly stabilized (Stewart, 2016).

One trend that has improved dramatically since the beginning of the 90s is that migrants can travel around the country because of their freedom of mobility and because of stable contracts and better transport networks (Haas and Marie-Laurence 2016). The increased request for social services such as healthcare, housing and inadequate food availability, and the higher morbidity rates have resulted in many social issues. The country's high urbanisation has contributed to the high level of immigration among the South Africans, seeking to expand their economic potential since 1994 in the past few decades (Awumbila et al., 2011). For example, increasing industries and an increased urbanisation level have converted urban development into individuals moving from their homes, mostly rural areas (Landau, 2012).

According to World Meters (2020), at mid-year, it can be assumed that the South African population is to be 59.3 million by the end of 2020. While the key causes of population growth are

births and deaths, migration remains significant both demographically and politically, economically and socially. Between 2016 and 2021, the net immigration rose for South Africa by 1.02 million people (Statistics South Africa, 2019). The majority of migrants (47.5%) live in Gauteng, the lowest (0.7%) in Northern Cape (Statistics South Africa, 2018). Gauteng, which draws foreign migrants from rural provinces and also domestic migrants from Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal, and East Cape provinces, is recognized as an economic centre of the nation (Statistics South Africa 2018). Migrants can be classified according to economic, cultural, or environmental factors for a variety of reasons. These meanings also refer to the factors recognized as push or pull. The economic power of Gauteng is related to the influences of pull, which affects its migrant attraction. The most migrant population from 2016 to 2021 was received to Gauteng (Statistics South Africa, 2019).

Many of the factors making Gauteng a desirable destination are related to greater economic prospects, employment and the prospect of a better life. The second-largest number of migrants is in the Western Cape between 2016 and 2021 (Statistics South Africa, 2019). In this case, the push factors will move people down to the Western Cape from the Eastern Cape (EC) because of low economic activities and a lack of work prospects in the Eastern Cape (Statistics South Africa 2019). At the beginning of 2018, the Eastern Cape had 35.6% of the nation's maximum unemployment percentage, while the Western Cape had the lowest unemployment rate despite high rural-urban migration to the province. South Africa must consider and plan the existing and expected migratory trends to improve its planning prospects as 63% currently lives in urban parts and are projected to rise by 71% by 2030 (Statistics South Africa, 2019).

### **3.7 What are Integrated Development Plans (IDPs)?**

Integrated development Planning is a mechanism initiated by the government that municipalities adopt in the preparation of five-year development action plan (Cloete & Thornhill, 2005). Integrated development planning, also referred to as IDP, is the mechanism that provides guidance on municipalities budgeting and decision-making processes, a form of business strategy. According to Cloete and Thornhill (2005), Integrated Development Strategy can be seen as an overall framework for a single jurisdiction and for areas beyond the municipal boundary that are closely linked to development. In order to increase the quality of life for the people in a given

region, the IDP integrates the local government's decision-making and budgeting. The current requirements, challenges and services required for construction are taken into account (Gueli et al., 2007). For the region as a whole it looks at economic and social growth. Under Section 25 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 2000 (Act 32 of 2000), after the beginning of its term of office, each municipal council shall enact a single, inclusive and strategic plan (Integrated Development Plan or IDP) for the development of the municipality, which connects, incorporates and coordinates the plans and takes account of the proposals for the development of the municipality (Cloete & Thornhill 2005).

### **3.8 Why are Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) important?**

Under the direction of the Department of Cooperative Government, Settlement and Traditional Affairs, the Integrated Development Planning Strategy is implemented (Cloete & Thornhill 2005). It is a valuable tool for the promotion of inter-governmental cooperation ties between the three spheres of government. Municipalities are expected to coordinate their planning efforts with that of the national and regional realms, as well as those of municipalities that could be influenced by their planning, in order to ensure the alignment of the three spheres (Cloete & Thornhill 2005). The IDP outlines the planning process management mechanisms, the involvement of the public and the support structures, the planning timeframe, the distribution of tasks and positions, and the oversight of the process (Gueli et al., 2007). Therefore, the IDP essentially improves the delivery and creation of integrated services and encourages sustainable, integrated communities, offering a complete basket of services, as communities cannot be established in a fractured way.

Each municipality has a duty to ensure that essential services are used responsibly. With the use IDP and SDF, it is possible to concentrate on the basic needs of the populations, taking into account the services available (Cash & Swatuk, 2001). The goal is to reduce the financial pressure on multiple programs, while simultaneously minimizing the impact on the environment and ensuring that the needs of the society are addressed (Cash & Swatuk, 2001). According to Gueli et al. (2007), report that an IDP offers a structured decision-making and growth process, and since its lifespan is usually five years, it provides a timeline to achieve the deadlines of providing goods and services and provides a practical timeframe for proposals for project development. With the IDP in effect, attracting investment is better for the municipality. It also promotes stakeholder

engagement, and thereby offers a representative factor in the construction decision-making process. In addition, the IDP facilitates cooperation between departments and agencies of state, regional and national governments. In this, investments are converted into developments decided upon (Gueli et al., 2007). For the purpose of this study IDP were significant because they contained information about Rural-urban migration in South African municipalities. Instead of the researcher going out and conducting interviews and gathering data, IDP's provided the researcher with information needed for the study in order to make a comparative discussion on the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities.

### **3.9 Key Issues in Rural-Urban Migration in South Africa**

The modern democratic era reformed as free interprovincial movement is now taking place (Boure, 2001). South African towns such as Rustenburg, Ekurhuleni, Polokwane, Nelspruit, Vanderbiljpark have seen strong rapid growth (Statistics South Africa, 2012). There are also major industrial growth rates. These cities were among the metropolitan areas with the highest growth, averaging 1.6% to 2.9% average population growth over the last decade, as opposed to 1,4% for Cape Town (Statistics South Africa, 2012). That is because the "segregation" rules limiting the migration of rural people to urban areas were repealed (Ebrahim, Botha & Snowball, 2013). There is some growth of people in cities looking for improved livelihoods which attracts people into urban areas (Turok, 2014).

The patterns of travel between cities and small towns vary from rural to urban. In smaller towns and cities, migration to regional towns tends to be more permanent and, at least in some circumstances, migration to industrial, rural and urban areas (Mulcahy 2015). Some city officials see increased migration and diversity as a positive sign of South African cities' development as commercial and cultural centres. According to Mulcahy (2015), city planners have started to develop strategies for recruiting highly skillful migrants and refugees in both Johannesburg and Cape Town and have integrated them with the socio-economic networks of the region. Many of the city's representatives and residents feel frustrated by both foreign and domestic migration. There are repercussions such as social tensions with such a pattern of increased urbanisation, which lead to xenophobic attacks on foreigners (Awumbaii, et al., 2011). The outcome was that

immigrants were blamed for unemployment, economic decline, or epidemic outbreaks and the societal effects of violence and narcotics.

Migration provides municipalities with a variety of obstacles and opportunities to meet their mandates. However, there is little guidance on how to handle these gradually and mutually beneficially. Most local authorities have not established empirically informed and constructive approaches to domestic and international migration policies (Posel & Casale, 2011). Migrants tend to be seen mainly as a drain on public services, rather than as city residents to whom local government must contribute or possibly money. The consequences of rural-urban migration are felt at policy and social level and impacted households (Posel & Casale, 2011). Therefore, the current includes an overview of the opportunities and barriers for migration to rural-urban areas and suggest efficient strategies to mitigate rural-urban migration's significances in South Africa.

Statistics indicate that living resources are not adequate in urban areas, and the urban population is increasing rapidly. Those who move to metropolitan regions expecting to improve their socio-economic prospects end up having trouble finding places to stay (Ntshidi, 2017). Rural-urban migrants often have to settle outside of the urban area in shantytowns or informal settlements (Haas and Marie-Laurence 2016). Many residents have no reasonable safety requirements, access to freshwater, effective waste schemes, or adequate health care (Landau, 2012). However, research shows that people can prefer to move to urban areas because of insufficient opportunities in their areas of origin (Landau, 2012). Despite positive economic and social externalities in major cities, social costs such as congestion, noise and violence are imposed by a heavily clustered population (Ntshidi, 2017).

The consequence of high unemployment allows migrants to establish their jobs by supplying informal work and construction services. In this informal sector, people who cannot find jobs in the formal sector without unemployment insurance earn the much-needed income and provide much of the required inputs to formal sector development (Haas and Marie-Laurence 2016). According to Ntshidi (2017), increased rates of rural-urban migration settlements have created various social challenges and increased requests for free resources, including health care, accommodation and limited food supplies, and increased levels of morbidity (Ntshidi, 2017). Due to the high urbanisation of South Africans in 1994, the immigration rate among indigenous people

who are in search of greater economic empowerment has increased considerably (Awumbila et al., 2011).

### **3.10 Chapter summary**

This chapter has given a detailed explanation of the rural-urban migration in South African cities. It also looked at the connection between rural-urban migration and industrialisation in South Africa. It can be agreed that the apartheid legacy will persevere for several decades, and the inequalities of the past remain. Rural-urban migration leads to increased demands for social care, a rise in population density, and a scarcity of resources such as accommodation and lack of jobs. It can also be noted that in terms of its impact on demographic patterns and the allocation of capital, migration from rural-urban areas in South Africa was a significant occurrence. Factors like demographic redistribution in South Africa have brought about a severe wave of rural-urban migration. The next chapter will describe the research design used in the study, the type of research, and how it was carried out, predominantly the data collection method and data analysis methods used.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **Introduction**

The research focuses on rural-urban migration prospects and challenges in South African cities. This chapter explains the approaches used to gather and interpret data to address the study's aims, objectives and research questions. It outlines the study design and techniques used for collecting data and how the research data are analyzed. This study is based on qualitative research techniques concentrating on the subjects' perspectives and seeking to explain the explanations behind such interpretations of their behavior (Taole et al., 2008).

### **4.1 Definitions of research approaches**

#### **4.1.1 Qualitative research**

Various kinds of research methods exist, qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. Qualitative analysis is concerned with the development of social phenomenon theories. It helps people appreciate the social environment we live in and how things are (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2007). This study is qualitative because it is aimed at getting a deeper understanding of prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration using IDP's of different Metropolitan municipalities in South Africa. For this study, qualitative research was suitable because it is focused on the causal nature of the phenomena being studied, with the goal of presenting a rich, detailed and presentable image of the research. Qualitative analysis is basically part of the link between the phenomena and how it is formulated or perceived by individuals to be part of their reality (Maree, 2007).

Various influences, such as people's cultures, inform qualitative analysis and allows the researcher to be more observant (Hancock, Ockleford & Windridge, 2007). As a consequence, in its explanation of the phenomena being investigated, qualitative analysis is in-depth. In the epistemological area, qualitative analysis is generated because it deals with knowledge and how we come to know and understand the universe. Creswell (2014) pointed out that qualitative analysis is focused on what has been developed in the world, while Maree (2007) stressed that qualitative research is based on the attitudes and community structures of individuals, as well as their worldwide experiences.

### **4.1.2 Quantitative research**

The association between two or more variables, made up of an independent variable and a dependent variable, is essentially based on quantitative analysis (Creswell, 2014). The variable that is being observed, evaluated or calculated is a dependent variable, while the variable that can be modified, adapted and regulated is an independent variable. In order to calculate the relationship, the relationship between the variables is expressed by numbers. Quantitative approaches typically use ratings, tests, scales, questionnaires and measurements for daily use (Stone-Romero, 2004).

According to Creswell (2014), the key distinction is that qualitative research presents data in terms, while quantitative research presents numerical data through tables, graphs, etc. In this analysis, the quantitative study approach may not have succeeded because it does not rely greatly on words nor numbers. In addition, the research did not wish to challenge any conclusions, but tried to analyze IDP's and literature relating to rural-urban migration. The approach of quantitative analysis is based on objectivism as its ontological orientation, while qualitative research is supported by constructionism as it deals with how the universe has come to be created. Furthermore, while the epistemological orientation of quantitative analysis is positivism, qualitative research is interpretative as it is focused on social phenomena perceptions and findings (Creswell, 2014). The thesis was required to follow a qualitative analysis approach based on this context, since it tried to understand and explore the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities.

### **4.1.3 Mixed method research**

For many scholars, mixed-method analysis has become highly appealing because it allows the potential to use equally qualitative and quantitative study simultaneously. The study's strength into mixed approaches is that it complements both qualitative and quantitative studies with instruments that help generate a successful report (Spector, 2005). Mixed method analysis is advised, and if the researcher tries to explore more in-depth, the mixed-method study goes further, when either qualitative or quantitative analysis will do the job (Spector, 2005). The quantitative research approach may not have succeeded because it does not rely significantly on words but numbers.

The study adopted a qualitative research method because it sought to understand the relations between the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities.

#### **4.2 Research methodology**

According to Haradhan (2018), qualitative research focuses on understanding phenomena in their natural environments to be significant in terms of the interpretations people bring to those environments. The purpose of this approach is to understand the underlying concept and assumption behind the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities. Babbie and Mouton (2010), describe that the primary goal is to help the researchers to identify and understand aspects of human behavior and actions. This approach will fit this study since the research seeks to define the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities. This will allow the researcher to obtain rich and detailed knowledge from reviewing secondary data and literature about the prospect and challenges of rural-urban migration.

This research is based on the interpretative approach. This approach is known as a method for performing qualitative research (Taylor & Medina, 2013). In the quest to understand the social world, the interpretative model emphasises the importance of observation and perception. With interpretative, meaning in a given social context is extracted from beliefs, lived experience, and behavior (Kawulich & Chilisa, 2012). In this research, the interpretative approach will be the best suited because it will require textual analysis and review data and hypotheses on the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migrations in South African cities.

#### **4.3 Study setting**

South Africa is found at the south end of Africa, and its coastline extended to the northeast of “Mozambique on the Indian Ocean, close to the tip of Africa, more than 2,850 kilometers (1,770 miles) from the wild frontier of Namibia on the Atlantic western Coast” (Stats SA, 2012). The provinces are split into nine namely, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, North Cape, Limpopo, Free State, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and Gauteng. South Africa currently has a population of 59,432,639, based on the latest United Nations data from the World meter on Tuesday, 1 September 2020. At mid-year, according to UN results, The South African population is expected to be 59,308,690 by 2020. South Africa has 0.76% of the total population of the world. South Africa places 25 per population on the list of countries (and dependencies). In South Africa, the

population density amounts to 49 per km<sup>2</sup>. The territory's total area is 1,213,090 km<sup>2</sup>, with 66.7% of the urban area population (39,550,889 in 2020). According to Statistics from South Africa (2019), With about 15,2 million residents (25%) in the region, Gauteng has the majority part of South Africa's population. With a population estimate of around 11,3 million (19,2%) live in KwaZulu-Natal, KwaZulu-Natal is the second-largest province. North Cape is the province with the lowest South African population, with about 1.26 million residents (2.2%).



The research will focus on the 8 urban metropolises that is; Buffalo City (East London), City of Cape Town, Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality (East Rand), City of eThekweni (Durban), City of Johannesburg, Mangaung Municipality (Bloemfontein), Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality (Port Elizabeth), and City of Tshwane (Pretoria). The study analyses the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities using integrated development plans (IDP) of the country's eight metropolitan municipalities. A significant form of analysis is looking at the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration reported in IDPs.

#### 4.4 Research design

The numerous research operations view the development of research as the black-print and foundation of every analysis. Kothari (2006) claims in this respect that the study design helps to improve the methodology to capture the necessary data and strategies that will be used during

analysis before the researchers prepare. Regarding research design, Kothari (2006) noted that the survey's key focus was on the discovered ideas and observations, while the research seeks to provide a detailed analysis understanding of the scenario, exploratory (experimental) nature. The study design allows a researcher to strategize and conduct the study to obtain reliable findings. The research's goal is to thoroughly comprehend the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities. According to Haradhan (2018), qualitative research focuses on understanding phenomena in their natural environments to be significant in terms of the interpretations people bring to those environments. There are various research designs and will be discussed below in order to demonstrate the different reasons they are used. Depending on what is being investigated and how the investigator can get the best out of the phenomena under investigation, various testing designs are used with different kinds of outcomes (Bryman et al., 2011).

- Narrative research: The researcher is historically oriented and gathers knowledge and evidence about an individual's life by posing questions about the person living history that is being studied (Riessman, 2008). Using a narrative/storytelling perspective, the material that comes from the data collection is portrayed. The material must be correctly interpreted since it contains the lived reality of a person and must be portrayed as told in order to provide a clear view.
- Ethnography: This analysis is focused on an interpretation of anthropology or sociology; it often examines the perspectives of societies/communities in a common context in order to achieve a better understanding of a community or way of life (Creswell, 2014). The most effective approach to make use of this method of analysis is observation. Creswell (2014) noted that observations allow the investigator to analyze societies at play, so that they can use the data to equate it with the story or opinion. At a later point, the researcher may still add interviews if there is something that needs to be uncovered.
- Case studies: Case studies have become one of the most common methods of study since they have a clear emphasis. A community or individual that shares common roles, habits or entities is guided by case studies. The researcher sets out to investigate one or more classes that can be grouped under one domain, and helps in the gathering of data on the studied entity/entities (Bryman & Cramer, 2011).

In this study, the researcher wanted to explore more about the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities. This is important because instead of focusing on one Municipality, the researcher focused on all metropolitan municipalities we have in South Africa in order to understand the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration. This then revealed how different Metropolitan Municipalities view and manage rural-urban migration. There are other types of research, such as grounded theory and phenomenological research.

- Grounded theory: This is a form of study that follows from ethnography in terms of sociological affiliation being sponsored. Grounded theory is also associated with sociology and in deciphering experiences, the opinions of participants are significant (Charmaz, 2008). Grounded theory was not applicable to this study since the researcher did not conduct any interviews, but instead used secondary data.
- Phenomenological research: This study is focused on the metaphysical underpinnings of interactions in the physical world. Existentialism is at the core of this, or what has come to be known as the living reality in reference to the phenomena investigated by the investigator (Creswell, 2014). In this form of study, secondary data was the main method used to analyse data and was helpful, since some of the required information have already been gathered before.

#### **4.4.1 Case studies of IDP's of different Metropolitan Municipalities**

This research was undertaken through a case study research design as a means of focusing specifically on IDP's of the different Metropolitan Municipalities. Case studies are crucial because in the phenomena being investigated, they help restrict sampling to the most relevant studies. A case study focuses on an in-depth study in a specific context, as pointed out by Bryman and Cramer (2011). For the purpose of this study, various case studies of IDP's of different Metropolitan municipalities were used, with a particular focus on the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South Africa cities. Only by a qualitative approach will the in-depth knowledge needed by this study be sourced. IDPs are relevant because they are used as the umbrella strategy for a specific municipality and the areas immediately connected to construction that come under the municipal boundaries.

## **4.5 Methods of data collection**

Methods such as surveys, interviews and experiments are the main data gatherings from primary sources. It is obtained explicitly from primary sources in the context of the research project. On the other hand, secondary sources are derived from experiments, surveys, or other researchers' studies for academic purposes (Driscoll and Brizee 2017). For this research, secondary data sets will be used based on the research problem and objectives. To gather the appropriate and essential information, the analysis focused mainly on secondary data. A strict textual and content review of available work on rural-urban migration in South Africa will be utilized, primarily through IDPs. The research will use secondary data such as the IDP's of different metropolitan municipalities to assess the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities. There are numerous sources of secondary data used in this analysis, which are:

### **4.5.1. Journals/Periodicals**

In terms of data collection, journals and periodicals are more relevant. This is because journals offer up-to-date material, which books cannot often provide and secondly, journals can give detailed specifics on the subject a researcher is studying. The researcher used journals of different researchers to analyse the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities and compare them to different countries' data.

### **4.5.2. Published Electronic Sources**

Since the internet is getting more sophisticated, faster and open to the masses, the bulk of non-printed material is contained on the internet. Not all articles and books are published on the internet on open access. For some, you have to pay the premium while others are free. The researcher used published electronic sources to analyze and get views of different authors regarding rural-urban migration.

### **4.5.3. General Websites**

Websites usually not contain really accurate material and the authenticity of their material should be tested. The researcher was able to find information relevant to the study. Since the scientist has not performed the interview, general websites have helped the researcher obtain diverse viewpoints and perspectives on rural-urban migration prospects and challenges in South African cities.

#### **4.6 Reliability and validity**

As mentioned by Taole et al. (2008), reliability and validity are two primary standards in data quality determination under which validity presupposes authenticity, i.e. when a variable is non-trustworthy, it cannot be regarded. A measurement instrument is valid if all testing problems are measured and discussed, both in substance and in depth (Taole et al., 2008). In order to find out more about the focus needed to resolve problems in this study, the researcher performed a detailed review of the publications and research. Validity and reliability will help ensure that the results are recognized by fellow scientists as trustworthy and accurate, which is very relevant in qualitative research. We need to be aware of factors that cause risks to the validity and reliability of our outcomes (Malaysia, 2016). The researcher must not give a vague account of his study as it may risk being charged with false and inaccurate results.

The researcher presented, classified and explained their methodology for all techniques used to gather data. The constant comparative approach and the quest for alternative hypotheses or negative cases are another means of providing validity and reliability (Malaysia, 2016). This study will test the definitions, interpretations or hypotheses concerning the data comprising the normal and atypical elements of the data and obtaining validation (Engellant et al., 2016). By strict commitment to doing an “in-depth job” of explaining the study context and the conclusions fundamental to the research the scholar assured “transferability”. The researcher will also ensure that all the obtained material is noted, which will render the overall process impartial and all the data will be taken into consideration. The researcher will also remain impartial toward other researchers' opinions when data is collected. The researcher will read and considers the findings of different research and notes those findings.

#### **4.7 Methods of data analysis**

Information analysis is a technique whereby a researcher adopts and interprets a strategy to reduce data to useful information for decision-making. It is a method used to make sense of the gathered data (Haradhan, 2018). Data analysis is an essential stage of research methodology because it allows one to thoroughly work with raw data and reduce them to findings in line with the study (Creswell 2014). Specific empirical methods offer a means of making inductive data inferences

and distinguishing the signal from the noise present in the data. Data analysis requires a method of rigorous evaluation and interpretation to expose its signature elements and structure, a process

Data analysis is an important stage in the methodology of research because it helps one to deal thoroughly with raw data and minimize it to conclusions that are in line with the thesis. This is since as noted by Creswell (2014), the study chapter does not show all the data gathered. This is distinct from quantitative analysis, where the outcomes of a sample would present all the details. Taylor-Powel and Renner (2003) concluded that a successful interpretation of data is dependent on the researcher's interpretation of the data he has, adding that it is important for the researcher to take time to familiarize himself with the outcomes that arise and how they contribute to the study's goals and questions. The analysis of data covers analyzing, categorizing, tabulating or otherwise recombining facts to answer the original postulation of the sample (Yin and Graham, 1989). This study followed the method of content analysis, where the researcher evaluated meaning in the analysis of the data. In data analysis, the secondary data such as journals, Published Electronic Sources and general websites was vital because it will help to evaluate the prospects and the challenges of different metropolitan municipalities in South Africa. "Reading and re-reading" were needed for data analysis to highlight and mark relevant and insightful problems. The ultimate goal was to identify the prospects and contests of rural-urban migration in South African cities based on IDPs' perceptions.

#### **4.8 Chapter summary**

This chapter presented the research methodology that was adopted by this study, which was undertaken through case studies of different IDP's of Metropolitan municipality in South Africa. The last three chapters presented the results collected through content analyses and literature review. The discussion chapter will integrate the findings from the IDP's of different Metropolitan municipalities.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION**

### **5.1 Introduction**

The preceding chapter explained the research methodology that was used to navigate the data for this study. This study was carried out using a qualitative research method because it focused on the meaning that municipalities assign to rural-urban migration. The interpretative approach was used because it uses content analysis, the content being on the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migrations in South African cities. The study used secondary data, mainly from the IDP's of different metropolitan municipalities, published electronic sources and journal articles to evaluate the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African cities from municipal perspectives.

In this chapter, the analysis results are presented thematically and in a manner that links with the study's overall aims and objectives. The rural-urban migration and population trends in South African cities are also delineated in line with the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in cities. Lastly, the chapter will outline how municipalities manage the influx of rural-urban migration in South African cities.

### **5.2 Migration and Population Dynamics in South Africa**

Migration is primarily motivated by economic growth, global uncertainty and gradual environmental threats (UN DESA, 2019). Economic and mining advances in South Africa became rural-urban generators for skilled and unskilled labor workers in the Southern African region and elsewhere. In mid-year 2019, an estimated 4.2 million migrants were residents in South Africa, Africa's most developed economy and an especially desirable destination for those pursuing schooling and better job opportunities (UN DESA, 2019). The analysis of migration patterns reveals that because of economic opportunities like work and education, most people who move to Gauteng remain in Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni (City of Johannesburg IDP, 2020).

Table 5.1: Estimated provincial migration streams 2016 and 2021

Province in 2016	Province in 2021									Out-migrants	In-migrants	Net migration
	EC	FS	GP	KZN	LP	MP	NC	NW	WC			
EC	0	13 178	147 729	99 306	14 149	16 974	8 168	38 019	176 784	514 308	199 855	-314 453
FS	8 538	0	83 285	7 964	6 634	10 924	9 200	24 076	12 361	162 982	141 185	-21 797
GP	52 381	40 711	0	70 764	104 073	83 250	12 709	111 893	98 925	574 705	1 643 590	1 068 885
KZN	26 277	12 717	231 241	0	9 864	37 877	8 191	12 066	34 448	372 681	303 732	-68 949
LP	4 702	6 092	347 269	8 640	0	49 723	2 718	33 848	11 857	464 848	302 226	-162 622
MP	5 371	5 552	143 213	13 440	24 957	0	2 473	14 286	10 420	219 711	297 949	78 238
NC	4 567	9 187	17 309	5 862	2 746	4 491	0	13 162	18 869	76 193	89 252	13 059
NW	5 427	12 336	113 419	6 388	20 832	12 449	24 712	0	9 537	205 099	336 180	131 081
WC	53 435	8 435	65 554	13 826	6 105	7 669	13 464	8 824	0	177 313	493 621	316 308
Outside SA (net migration)	39 158	32 978	494 571	77 542	112 866	74 593	7 616	80 005	120 420			

(Source: Stats SA 2019)

With reference to table 5.1, the largest number of in-migrants were earned by Gauteng and the Western Cape. The Eastern Cape has witnessed the most significant number of migrant outflows due to a deficiency of economic prospects in the province, with the Eastern Cape province further expected to lose 324,000 people to migration between 2016 to 2020 (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Owing to the relatively larger population scale, Gauteng has achieved the maximum migration entry and departure volume. The Gauteng, Mpumalanga, Northern Cape, North West and Western Cape region net migration was positive (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Gauteng had the largest number of foreign migrants joining the provinces, with Western Cape coming second. This suggests that more people migrate to these provinces because of economic prospects, employment and the promise of a better life. This is in line with Todaro's (1969) observation that salary differentials drive individuals to abandon low-wage, labor-scarce regions in favor of high-wage, labor-surplus regions.

Table 5. 1: Distribution percentage estimated for regional share of the general population, 2002–2019

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
EC	14,1	13,9	13,8	13,7	13,5	13,4	13,2	13,0	12,8	12,6	12,5	12,3	12,2	12,0	11,9	11,7	11,6	11,4
FS	5,9	5,8	5,8	5,7	5,6	5,6	5,5	5,4	5,4	5,3	5,3	5,2	5,2	5,1	5,1	5,0	5,0	4,9
GP	21,0	21,3	21,6	21,8	22,1	22,4	22,7	23,0	23,3	23,7	24,0	24,2	24,5	24,8	25,0	25,3	25,6	25,8
KZN	20,8	20,7	20,6	20,5	20,4	20,3	20,2	20,1	20,0	19,8	19,8	19,7	19,6	19,5	19,4	19,3	19,3	19,2
LP	11,4	11,3	11,2	11,1	11,0	11,0	10,9	10,8	10,7	10,7	10,6	10,5	10,5	10,4	10,4	10,3	10,2	10,2
MP	7,6	7,6	7,6	7,7	7,7	7,7	7,7	7,7	7,7	7,8	7,8	7,8	7,8	7,8	7,8	7,8	7,8	7,8
NC	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2	2,2
NW	6,6	6,6	6,6	6,6	6,7	6,7	6,7	6,7	6,7	6,7	6,7	6,8	6,8	6,8	6,8	6,8	6,8	6,9
WC	10,4	10,5	10,6	10,7	10,7	10,8	10,9	11,0	11,1	11,2	11,2	11,3	11,4	11,4	11,5	11,6	11,6	11,6
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

(Source: Stats SA)

Table 5.2 shows the general population living in various provinces from 2002 to 2019. The provincial figures show that the population share is largest in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Western Cape, and Eastern Cape. It can be noted from the above table that the population in Gauteng is increasing every year and the KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape provinces are experiencing a decrease in population, but these provinces still have the highest population compared to other provinces. The regional population figures and institutions in South Africa are greatly affected by inter-provincial and foreign migration trends. In 2019, about 11.4% of the population of South Africa stayed in Western Cape. The Northern Cape (2.2%) has the lowest share of the population. The second-lowest proportion of the population in South Africa is in the Free state province, which makes up 4.9% of the population (Statistics South Africa, 2019). With these notable variances, it became important to focus on the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration in South African metropolitan areas through a widespread analysis of their IDPs.

The speed and balance of the interior immigration amid regions and towns remain intricate due to the mobility between secondary cities, major cities, urban centers and peripheries. It also brings possibilities and challenges as migrants express a wide range of complex ways to live in the region. Not all facets of migration are favorable. Migration can cost the province or the town a great deal,

leaving it without the requisite human resources to sustain long-term economic development (Lagakos, 2020). This flight of human capital may have a substantial economic cost since migrants benefit from subsidised scarce resources.

### **5.3 Rural-urban Migration Drivers and Prospects**

For the City of Ekurhuleni (2020), migration brings ethnic, political and social diversity. This is also evident in other parts of the world, like in Europe, where the surge of migrants offers an incentive as the country faces the big challenge of an aging population (World Economic Forum, 2018). According to Statistics South Africa (2019), migration will bring considerable economic advantages, a more competitive labor market, a greater skills pool, increased demand and a greater variety of creativity. For in-bound migrants, migration contributes to economic development opportunities and develop people's social lives by learning about different cultures, traditions, and languages.

The analysis of the City of Cape Town's IDP shows that migration is viewed as an incentive to bring people of diverse talents and cultural identities to the cities of South Africa (City of Cape Town IDP, 2020). Similarly, the City of Johannesburg sees migration as adding cultural and political diversity to the region and provides possibilities (City of Johannesburg IDP, 2020). For Tombari (2019), migration would have a profound positive effect on demographic development and labor and job participation, salaries and incomes, our national skills base, and net productivity. Tombari (2019), further notes that migration is seen as a cost-effective means of livelihood, yielding higher wages and greater well-being than those who stay. Zuma (2013) keenly observes that while rural-urban migration may harm urban jobs, rural migrants are also motivated by their aspirations of increased employment or earnings and their willingness to urbanize (Zuma, 2013).

The younger population with higher qualifications or expertise are expected to be migrants from rural to city areas. The analysis of the City of Johannesburg's IDP (2020) shows that the prolonged in-migration trends and demographic growth in Johannesburg result in the increased request for employment and services that exceed the number of available jobs and facilities, placing pressure on the City's service delivery capability. Mlambo (2018) observes that migrants with improved expertise, experience, ideas and money who return to their place of origin (rural areas) will make significant contributions to growth irrespective of the extent of their return. A good opportunity

for migrating people has been anticipated to achieve the income difference between rural and urban areas (Lagakos, 2020).

An analysis of the Nelson Mandela Bay IDP (2019), suggested that while demographic growth, low population density and high levels of social incoherence/family disturbance and deprivation are comparatively slow in the municipality, the municipality adopted a pessimistic outlook on rural-urban migration. This is because the municipality also views migration as a chance to attract persons of diverse skill sets and ethnic backgrounds into the City (Nelson Mandela Bay IDP, 2019). This will positively impact the Municipality because it will help promote integrated development, cheap and surplus labor, close the skills gap, and, finally, promote a diverse ethnic society and enhance tolerance. Migration has rejuvenated jobs in destinations or towns, allowed conventional sectors such as agriculture and services to be economically viable, encouraged business enterprise, sponsored social welfare and met the needs of emerging high-tech industries (Njwambe, Cocks, and Vetter, 2019).

### **5.3.1 Skills, labour and employment**

According to King and Shackleton (2020), increased demand for skilled jobs results in fierce competition with the rising urban unemployed numbers and informal sector growth and clear urban poverty indicators. Compared to the rest of the provinces, the City of Johannesburg is the largest employer of 2.09 million, and 41.58% of overall work in the province of Gauteng (City of Johannesburg IDP, 2019). The City of eThekweni IDP (2020), reveals that City-led residents have put a burden on infrastructure and on cities' ability to execute their growth priorities through work opportunities and access to public services. The latest migratory trends in the municipality of eThekweni suggest that the area has a significant number of low skilled employees, with the city hopes to recruit highly qualified employees. This shows that cities have become hubs for housing, governance, culture, and utilities, but urban centres, as linked to environmental pollution, overcrowding, and unemployment, as noted by King and Shackleton (2020).

The conditions that cause rural-urban migration are reported to be predominantly economic because of the Lack of options for jobs and the need to support themselves and their families and thus in the hope of seeking better opportunities beyond their place of origin (Levenson, 2019). In

the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality, the IDP (2020) states that people travel to Durban to reach work prospects in the city and easy access to cost-effective land and free utilities (eThekweni IDP, 2020). This view is also supported by migration patterns explained by Visagie and Turok (2017), that rising employment opportunities in towns influence and motivate rural-urban migration.

A content analysis of the City of Johannesburg's IDP (2020) reveals that the economic center draws people to migrate to the city due to its massive job opportunities as the most industrialized city in Africa and the country's economic hub. Similarly, Visagie and Turok (2017) observe that there are increasing job prospects for professional, semi-skilled and other working-class workers because of informal industries and economies of scale in growing cities. This is evident in Lee's push and pull theory of migration (1996), which suggests that there are drive forces that act to promote migration at the point of origin. and, on the other hand, pull factors (job opportunity, schooling, health facilities) are present at the destination that draw migrants. In the City of Johannesburg context, migrants are attracted to growing job opportunities and advanced incomes in the city.

While unemployment and underemployment in rural areas are growing, the affected individuals naturally prefer to take the chance to extend job opportunities in cities (Njwambe, Cocks & Vetter, 2019). The analysis of evidence from the Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality IDP (2020), has shown that high rural emigration essentially correlates with an uneven distribution of wealth in these villages (usually schooling and facilities). This shows that migrants are migrating from impoverished to wealthier provinces and towns from rural areas. Evidently so, Alexander (2019) observes the trend that the wealthiest provinces in South Africa are the primary receivers of rural-urban migration. It is noted from the above evaluation of the motives of rural-urban migration that the mainstream of refugees is from the lower castes and other deprived populations, as well as low-income groups.

Between 2011 and 2016, the largest population, continuously affected by migration, had a net migration rate of almost a million. The poorest province is the Eastern Cape. About half a million residents have relocated to other provinces, and only about 170,000 have migrated to the region (Microtrends, 2019).

Table 2: Population levels in South African metropolitan municipalities		
Metropolitan cities	Population	Migration Growth rate from 2019
Johannesburg	5,783,000	2.63%
Cape Town	4,618,000	2.08%
Ekurhuleni	3,894,000	1.99%
eThekweni	3,158,000	0.41%
Pretoria	2,566,000	3.76%
Nelson Mandela Bay	1,254,000	0.97%
West Rand	898,000	0.35%
Soshanguve	853,000	1.43%
Vereeniging	774,000	0.65%
Buffalo City	709,000	1.29%
Bloemfontein	567,000	1.19%
The uMsunduzi	527,000	1.15%
Rustenburg	509,000	4.95%
Witbank	454,000	3.65%
Polokwane	426,000	4.93%

Table 3 Source: Microtrends and World Meter (2020)

Past patterns suggest that much of the demographic and economic development and job creation in South Africa are generated from within the metropolitan areas of Gauteng and Cape Town, demonstrating the high migration rates in these regions. Although there are more significant migration and population development in these areas, Massey and Gunter (2020) observe that this does not result in equally rapid job production (Massey & Gunter, 2020).

## **5.4 Challenges of Rural-Urban Migration**

An analysis of rural-urban migration challenges reveals that most people moving to the Free State province remain in Mangaung, whereas most people are migrant workers in and around Bloemfontein because of the small job prospects in the area (City of Mangaung IDP, 2019). In turn, this places pressure on the municipality in rendering service delivery (City of Mangaung IDP, 2019). Migrants who move to Kwazulu-Natal settle in the eThekweni Municipality and are subject to an increase in migration rates from rural areas and small towns in KwaZulu-Natal, other areas of South Africa and other parts of Southern Africa. This has caused difficulties in projecting the rate of urbanisation and population development and a substantial number of new inhabitants seeking accommodation and services (eThekweni IDP, 2020). Therefore, it became essential to analyze the rural-urban migration challenges as outlined in the IDPs.

### **5.4.1 Service delivery**

Municipalities have the important task of providing essential services such as water provision, garbage storage, the supply of power, public health services, the irrigation of roads and flood water, street lighting and public parks and recreation. Due to the rapid rural-urban migration, the eThekweni Municipality experiences a growing backlog despite the excellent progress made in service delivery (eThekweni IDP, 2020). The IDP of eThekweni IDP (2020), further states that, although the fair share grant from the National Treasury covers a significant part of these expenses, Rural-urban migration means that sustaining or increasing these investments presents a significant challenge to municipal financial survival and sustainability. Nkabinde (2018) further reveals that Government-mobilized finances are not appropriate to fulfill the needs of the entire population.

While rural-urban migration is often thought to stifle service delivery, Nkabinde (2018) blames the government's departments for the failure to understand factors external to urban displacement in rural areas such as socio-economic factors and further associated problems. The case of eThekweni seems to be pointing to the observation that local authorities are unable to address the demands of an ever-increasing number of urban communities that influence service delivery performance. This can be observed throughout many metropolitan areas, where service delivery protests are predominately in poor areas.

### **5.4.2 The Informal Settlement**

In and near the major cities in the urban region of Cape Town, Johannesburg, eThekweni, Buffalo City, Nelson Mandela Bay and Mangaung, almost 6 million people live in informal accommodation (Statistics SA, 2019). The eThekweni Community Density Plan (2013) predicts that at a growth rate of 1.1%, the population will rise to 4.4 million by 2030 an additional 775,000 (eThekweni IDP, 2020). As Gauteng continues to draw in-migrants, the region faces a limited supply of low-cost accommodation, it is estimated to be 25% outside Gauteng and 10% outside of South Africa. For the City of Johannesburg (2019), the accommodation backlog is projected at 296 000 units, with total annual housing units of only 3 500. As high in-migration exists within the Municipality of Tshwane, the number of households is increasing and household infrastructure is bringing more pressure. In the short to medium term, this will lead to an uptick in the number of households not residing in a formal home since household infrastructure typically takes time to deliver (City of Tshwane IDP, 2019). Also, reports of housing-related demonstrations emerged as the main drivers of South African amenity protests from South Africa's Local Government Association data (2015).

The rural poor often move to urban areas, hoping and dreaming of a better economic life, such as schooling, employment with the hope of improving their livelihood in such circumstances (Levenson, 2019). However, the number of urban poor is rising in South African cities due to the increasing rural-urban migration. The eThekweni IDP (2020) reveals that migration impacts the economy, social care, infrastructure, accommodation, and basic household care backlog. With the rising population, the IDP reports that the eThekweni Metropolitan faces an urban crisis that leads to increased informal settlements, overcrowded schools, poor health, marked spatial inequality, higher prices of infrastructure and services, disturbed ecosystems, biodiversity and natural resources, changes in air quality, aesthetic and urban transformations (eThekweni Municipality, 2020). In the slum areas and among pavement dwellers, Mlambo (2018) also finds that the percentage of lower castes is typically higher than that for the city population as a whole.

According to the eThekweni municipality (2020), the rise in the North of eThekweni represents a trend towards the physical division between employment and population density. A majority of employees in the processing, storage and transportation industries live in the middle, South and

West, but many workers live in the Northern part of the region. With further analysis of the eThekweni municipality IDP (2020), the migration of the rural population has contributed to the urbanisation of areas considered rural and served as rural settlements. These areas were meant to be used as sanitation due to the large site sizes and only 300 liters of water per household were supplied in the standpipe. This phenomenon increasingly impacts the current infrastructure and quality of life. The projections of population rise and the patterns of migration in the City represent around 193,000 new residential areas. The northern zone projected to increase faster and lead to large-scale and urban inefficiency if unchecked (City of eThekweni IDP, 2020).

The Johannesburg IDP (2020) reveals that the crossing of massive population growth fueled by immigrants, historic backlogs and inadequate accommodation have contributed to a low volume invasion of land and the emergence of informal settlements in Gauteng. The city has put measures in place to bring geographically organized “human settlements” that meet the necessity to resolve the characteristics of apartheid and overcome the residents' urgent basic needs in informal settlements (and at the same time increase living standards). Ekurhuleni’s population increase, government policies, economic variables, housing scarcity, land availability, and inadequacy are identified as the real causes of informal settlements (City of Ekurhuleni IDP, 2020). This indicates that, with the growing population, the municipality is experiencing difficulties in providing basic housing that will accommodate new migrations. Even with the new policies, the municipality is still facing the challenges of housing insufficiencies increasing informal settlement in the city of Ekurhuleni.

After 1990, the density of metropolitan areas culminated of Ekurhuleni becoming the major urban complex in Gauteng, historically the highest number of informal settlements. According to Statistics South Africa (2016), Gauteng (81.8%) and Free State (80.0%), from a metropolitan standpoint, accounted for the highest share of towns where over 5% of the houses consist of informal backyard housing. A further 44% of the municipalities in the Western Cape were impacted and 38,9% in the North West were affected, with the majority of the informal settlements in the Western Cape driven by the inter-provincial movement from the Eastern Cape. In terms of the actual amounts of informal housing, the same provinces are also the most affected. The

population and informal populations are growing and demand for accommodation and free public services increases (statistics SA, 2016).

### **5.4.3 Infrastructure and Housing backlog**

According to PLANNING (2019), in South Africa, the need for housing is seen as a significant obstacle in the light of core concerns such as accessibility, people's tenure preference, and critical issues. Through decentralization, the local government has a greater role in responding to civic needs as the nearest to the residents. An analysis of the City of Johannesburg IDP (2020), reveals that a big problem for the region is the housing backlog. At present, the formal dwelling backlog is 18.5% from 21.5% in 2016. Improving accommodation provision is a key driver of the City's strategy to provide public amenities. Residents living in formal housing typically do not have greater access to sanitation, power, and waste disposal. Msindo (2018), reveals that, whilst the distribution of human settlements complies with the legal system, a joint responsibility between the national and the regional governments, the local function is restricted to coordinating and preparing the housing legislation. In some instances, the regional governments had greater duties, such as housing distribution, assigned to the municipalities (Msindo, 2018).

In the eThekweni municipality, housing development and location in the city are primarily focused on land supply and expense rather than on maintenance costs. As these projects are developed in inaccessible peripheral locations outside the urban/services edge, this has led to infrastructure backlogs that are correlated with high infrastructure costs (City of eThekweni IDP, 2020). The absence of service provision in these areas means that informal settlements at peripheral sites will promote urban sprawl as more people move to these areas. And because most peripheral areas are far from economic opportunities, this will harm the population. The region will be overcrowded with high unemployment and low service distribution rates. This is also observed by Adegun (2018), in that the South African housing deficit is diverse in nature and relies on core factors such as family systems, quick urbanisation, migration, low rural prospects, jobs, wage subsidies and access to housing financing. The backlog of accommodation includes illegal communities, overcrowding in hostels in public parks, unregulated rent in the courtyard, city centre overcrowding, the list in accommodation waiters and the general poor (Adegun, 2018). The housing backlog in the City of Johannesburg has grown informally and annually by approximately

1.81%, as a proportion of total households. In turn, this places pressure on the government to establish affordable housing and free land for development which is a key strategy for the city.

Johannesburg faces a host of economic development problems, including high levels of intra-urban migration, lack of skilled labor, youth unemployment and spatial unfairness. The City's IDP (2020) asserts that these challenges undermine the goal of attaining a 5% economic growth and require an integrated initiative from different stakeholders (City of Johannesburg IDP, 2020). For Alexander (2019), the vital effect of increasing rural-urban migration is the increased request to deliver social and basic services and needs in metropolitan municipalities, such as housing, water and power, sanitation, hospitals, clinics and schools. Although the authorities concerned have not budgeted for these changes, given the intensity of these trends. These trends are referred to as push and pull factors, where people are pushed from rural areas because of deficiency of employment and basic services and pulled to urban areas because of employment and better amenities.

An analysis of the Tshwane municipality IDP (2019), indicates that the number of households rises with high in-migration into an area, placing increased pressure on household infrastructure. Among the main issues revealed by the IDP evaluation is that the City of Tshwane, like most South African municipalities, faces a range of challenges in providing all households with a reliable and sustainable waste service, including an inadequate budget, a lack of adequate equipment and limited access to service areas (City of Tshwane, 2019). The rising urban population that needs access to public facilities and migration from rural areas to the City exacerbates these problems. Further to this, advances in resolving sanitation backlogs and the continuing growth of households, especially in informal settlements, have put additional pressure on household infrastructure due to high migration to the area as well as population growth (City of Tshwane IDP, 2019). This is also revealed in Ghana's case study, where the population faces serious housing issues (Awumbai et al., 2011).

The Cape Town Municipality's IDP (2020) assumes that intensified migration will draw people without sufficient expertise to the City's prevailing economic sectors, leading to the current problems of crime, unemployment, overcrowding and social unrest. The municipality points out that the possible problems of rural-urban migration have given rise to a sustainable growth agenda and execution orientation, which means meeting the needs of the existing inhabitants of the region

without adversely impacting the viability of the region and its future citizens (City of Cape Town IDP, 2020). For Njwambe (2019), the rapid population and unplanned growth changes contribute to an urban expansion with negative societal, cultural, and economic ramifications. The urban expansion also limits urban residents' capacity to supply even the most essential facilities such as housing, water sources, sanitation and solid waste disposal.

### **5.5 Managing Rural-urban migration and urban settlement policies**

The IDP analysis of the different Metropolitan Municipalities in South Africa shows an array of challenges: low or shortage of services, stagnant local economy and infrastructure, and housing backlog. For municipalities to manage these challenges, they must develop resilient strategies to enable municipalities to create mechanisms that will help address problems with rural-urban migration. In the hope of creating effective and resilient responses to rural-urban migration encounters, the City of Johannesburg has taken the task of making urbanisation work for Johannesburg and accepting migrants' rights to the city (City of Johannesburg IDP, 2020). An evaluation of the City of Johannesburg IDP (2020) shows that as long as it maintains efficient poverty alleviation and job prospects, the city can continue to draw migrants. This can be achieved by integrating detailed demographic statistics into strategy, planning, and budgeting to create forward-looking instruments and agendas capable of responding to infrastructure backlogs and environmental challenges.

With further analysis from the IDP's of the different Metropolitan Municipalities, it can be noticed that Municipalities in South Africa are experiencing major problems of housing blockage, lack of infrastructure, informal settlements, and a lack of urban planning strategies due to the increase in urban migration. The government in South Africa is rapidly implementing and introducing state-of-the-art spatial planning and land management strategies to protect sustainable settlement development facilities in response to rapid urbanisation (Arndt, Davies & Thurlow, 2018). Since 1994, at least 5,6 million organized houses had been constructed (Department of Human Settlements, 2016).

In order to establish a foundational basis for comprehensive urban planning and land use management, the Urban Planning and Land Use Management Act 16 of 2013 ("SPLUMA") created into force in 2015 (Arndt, Davies & Thurlow, 2018). This demands a cohesive and

organized method for planning for land use management for urban and rural growth. Somehow, SPLUMA seeks to encourage sustainable land development by restricting urban expansion and protecting the primary and unique agricultural land from urbanisation, through a coherently coordinated strategy. (Arndt, Davies & Thurlow, 2018). The Municipal Council of eThekweni is continuing to change the way accommodation is delivered better for the residents' needs. The aims of densification, social integration, and a more integrated urban form are being introduced in creative housing forms and urban design solutions (City of eThekweni IDP, 2020).

The City of Cape Town's IDP (2020) reveals that it has developed a sustainable growth strategy and execution priority, which involves addressing the needs of the existing city population without adversely impacting the city's stability and its future inhabitants. For the provincial government and municipalities, the task of executing government initiatives is typically flawed (Mlambo, 2018). Some policies offer useful understandings into how regions and cities expect to incorporate the SPLUMA mandated strategy orders and the 2030 "National Development Plan" (NDP). This recognizes the worth of geospatial knowledge for nationwide strategic expansion and requests for the creation of Strategic Data and Research Observatory (Gauteng Provincial Government 2014). The NDP agrees to reorganize cities into more efficient and interconnected municipal systems, including elements of regional restructuring policies and creating a detailed measurement tool, as part of a regional governance evaluation process (Arndt, Davies & Thurlow, 2018).

It is argued that the government need to improve the living conditions in rural areas to monitor and fight rural-urban migration, to generate prospects for industrial growth in these areas, and to ensure that there are sufficient socio-economic prospects (Arndt, Davies & Thurlow, 2018). With comment to this approach, the analysis of the City of eThekweni IDP (2020) indicates that it continues to stress the importance of real citizen improvements, improving service efficiency by increasing repairs and maintenance of basic infrastructure, speedy residential provision, engaging in better informal settlement circumstances, enhancing the climate to improve economic development and, eventually, decrease employment. The municipality has taken substantial measures to resolve the service delivery backlogs, a significant field of capital investment in the municipal budget to resolve backlog areas (City of eThekweni IDP, 2020).

## **5.6. Managing Migration for Development**

According to the Ekurhuleni Municipality (2019-2020), migration is an essential characteristic of development. Some local government authorities have seen growing migration and diversity as an incredibly encouraging indication of South African cities' growth as trade and cultural hubs (Lawrence & Rogerson, 2019). The city population will be added to the population of Africa and Asia by around 2.5 billion by 2050, primarily due to ongoing urbanisation and population growth in the world (World Economic Forum, 2017). Because of the cumulative rates of rural-urban migration, South African metropolitan municipalities face challenges such as service delivery, informal settlement, infrastructure and housing backlog and skills, labour and employment challenges that are placing pressure in the municipalities as rural-urban migration increases.

Strong urban development practices by delivering public utilities such as housing and other utilities are among the strategies of urban management that might serve as an attempt to regulate rural-urban migration and informal settlement (Mlambo, 2018). In the eThekweni Municipality, several other projects aim to encourage the development of jobs and the creation of innovative industries, such as the progressive strategic economy for change, which also aims to give disadvantaged women, youth and disabled people more opportunities. (City of eThekweni IDP, 2020). To minimise housing issues, the Ekurhuleni Municipality has collaborated with private and public housing delivery agencies to speed up distribution and promote inclusive housing in the private sector. Through its allies, urban areas have bundled the release of IRDP private sector growth prospects and flagship municipal property initiatives. (City of Ekurhuleni IDP, 2020).

Migrants commuting to more developed regions in terms of human growth are the most significant influences in terms of their income, education, and health, respectively (Yu, Shen and Liu, 2015). There is also a significant factor in rising human growth or global well-being in eliminating barriers in advance of human migration. According to Szabo (2016), the rising waves of migration in towns suggest that individuals are using their migration independence to boost their levels of human development. Visagie and Turok (2020) caution against the assumption that urban facilities can mask broad gaps between urban communities (Visagie & Turok, 2017). There are strong inequalities in many urban areas and similarly clear gaps of access to services that cannot bring excellent social amenities to a considerable proportion of the population.

The metropolitan officials have started to outline plans for attracting and integrating highly qualified migrants and immigrants into the socio-economic networks of the City in both Johannesburg and Cape Town (Lawrence and Rogerson, 2019). The City of Johannesburg is committed, by taking all practicable steps to remedy the situations or circumstances under which it finds itself, to include disadvantaged people, marginalized and excluded people. Through doing this, the vulnerable will have access to critical livelihoods, start constructing a central commodity, plan for urban economic inclusion, satisfy city life demands and negotiate city prices and finally get through the first round of the development ranking (City of Johannesburg IDP, 2020). The Cape Town City (2020) and Johannesburg City (2020), suggest that the sense of urbanisation and migrant displacement by public officials raises the spectre of progressive degeneration and economic and political divergence.

There is little advice on how to work with them in a progressive and mutually beneficial manner. So far, empirically based and constructive policy responses to domestic and international migration have not been established by most local authorities (Mlambo, 2018). In specific ways, migrants appear to be viewed solely as a drain on public services, rather than as city residents that need to be represented or even future opportunities by local government (Lawrence and Rogerson, 2019). This is evident in the exponential development of cities across South Africa that have been matched by the rapid growth of informal settlements referred to as slums (UN-Habitat, 2016). To improve these situations, the eThekweni Municipality acknowledges the duty to increase the population's literacy standards and ensure an adequate basis for the production of enterprises and employment that help the people enter the dynamic economic and manufacturing market (City of eThekweni IDP, 2020).

## **5.7 Chapter summary**

The analysis of metropolitan municipalities IDP's reveals that some municipalities note the positives of rural-urban migration but the analysis also reveals that majority of the municipalities in South Africa view rural-urban migration negatively, with particular focus on the challenges posed by increasing migration. It must also be noted that some municipalities such as Buffalo city do not include Rural-urban migration in their IDP reports. The city of Johannesburg continues to experience an increase in rural-urban migration because it is the economic hub, followed by the

city of Cape Town due to its investment. However, the increase in rural-urban migration in Metropolitan Municipalities poses challenges of lack of service delivery, infrastructure and housing backlog, and continuous growth in informal settlements. This resulted in municipalities developing strategies for dealing with these problems, but the strategies cannot achieve the aim for which they were planned. The next chapter summarises the findings and concludes this study.

## **CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **6.1 Introduction**

South Africa's rural-urban migration has developed into a widespread spectacle. The political dispensation that repealed all the strict laws regulating migration in South Africa earlier 1994 became common and allowed for the people's free movement. As detailed in the first section, this research intended to explore the prospects and challenges of rural-urban-migration in South African cities based on municipal IDPs. This chapter presents key findings from the study and some concluding remarks. Lastly, the chapter will also provide recommendations for going ahead with rural-urban migration in South African cities.

### **6.2 Background to the Study**

Migration tends to flow to largely populated areas that offer better economic outcomes. For Qin and Liao (2016), cities offer a more promising role than rural sides for businesses with social and health impacts. Rural migration happens because people are looking for better opportunities since urban areas have a degree of economic activity, cultural and intellectual expression, and growth (Visagie & Turok, 2017). The South African government has not adequately addressed this growing issue and makes speeding up socio-economic progress and development in rural areas impossible. Using Lee's push and pull theory, this study sought to explore the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration from perceptions of metropolitan IDPs. The push and pull theory were used as the theoretical basis based on how receiving municipalities view migration. The theory also shows that the factors linked to conditions in the region of origin will be more substantial than those linked to destination areas (Lee, 1966).

### **6.3 Objectives**

The study aimed to explore the prospects and challenges of rural-urban migration from perceptions of metropolitan IDPs.

1. To explore the prospects of rural-urban migration in South African metropolitan cities.
2. To explore rural-urban migration challenges in South African metropolitan cities
3. To assess how metropolitan municipalities manage rural-urban migration

4. To propose strategies to prepare metropolitan cities for migration

#### **6.4 Structure of the Dissertation**

The first chapter introduced the purpose and background of the research, the goals and objectives of the research, the research question, the importance, and the stud's limitation. Chapter two presented an overview of rural-urban migration literature, concentrating on the relevant theoretical and philosophical frameworks that underpin rural-urban migration. Chapter 3 gave an overview of rural-urban movement in South African cities, measured rural-urban migration during the apartheid period, migration during the Gold Rush, migration and industrialisation, rural-urban movement in post-apartheid South Africa and, finally, rural-urban migration by regional statistics. Chapter 4 outlined the research methodology for the study. The findings of the study were presented and discussed in Chapter 5.

#### **6.5 Summary of Key findings and Realisation of Objectives**

- *Objective 1: To explore the prospects of rural-urban migration in South African metropolitan cities*

The study found that metropolitan IDPs view rural-urban migration as raising a range of threats and opportunities for the receiving cities. Some of the benefits of rural-urban migration in metropolitan include the incentive to bring people of diverse talents and cultural identities to contribute to the growth of South African cities. Migration would have a profound positive effect on demographic development and labor and job participation, salaries and incomes, national skills base, and net productivity. It can be further noted that migration is seen as a cost-effective means of livelihood, yielding higher wages and greater wellbeing than for those who stay. Migration has rejuvenated jobs in destinations or towns, allowed conventional sectors such as agriculture and services to be economically viable, encouraged business enterprise, sponsored social welfare and met the needs of emerging high-tech industries.

Migration has a profound positive effect on demographic development and labor and job participation, salaries and incomes, national skills base, and net productivity. In some regions, the influx of skilled labor is contributing to the region's greater economic development, such as in the

city of Johannesburg, which remains the country's economic hub. It was further noted that prospects for human development act as push factors.

- *Objective 2: To explore rural-urban migration challenges in South African metropolitan cities*

Empirically, most local authorities have not established constructive policy approaches to rural-urban migration, as evidenced in the reporting on IDPs. Because of the increased rural-urban migration rates, South African metropolitan municipalities highlight challenges such as service delivery, informal settlement, infrastructure and housing backlog and skills, labour and employment challenges that are placing pressure in the municipalities as rural-urban migration increases. These challenges are common in all South African metropolitan municipalities. The IDP analysis revealed that there are more rural-urban challenges than prospects, and this is evident in the eThekweni and the City of Johannesburg.

The study has also observed that South Africans move to where the jobs are, away from poverty. Much of the demographic and economic development and job creation in South Africa are generated from metropolitan areas in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Cape Town, which demonstrate the high migration rates in these regions. Due to this, rural-urban migration is having a substantial impact on the service delivery backlog. The population growth in cities is putting great strain on the availability of utilities. This places pressure on governments to identify alternatives and establish plans to tackle service delivery issues in communities.

From the various IDPs, the study further found that the movement of massive population growth fueled by immigrants, historic backlogs and low-intensity invasion and the proliferation of illegal settlements in the city of Johannesburg and Ekurhuleni as well as Cape Town has resulted in insufficient housing. As such, the rapid growth of marginalized settlements, often referred to as slums, has mirrored the unprecedented expansion of cities across South Africa. Since there is not enough formal accommodation to accommodate the number of refugees, all of whom are extremely poor, there are slums.

- *Objective 3: To assess how metropolitan municipalities manage rural-urban migration*

The South African government has developed various informal settlement management measures to address the challenges of informal settlement, housing backlog and the poor or lack of services. The rapid population and unplanned growth changes contribute to an urban expansion with negative societal, cultural, and economic ramifications. The urban expansion also limits urban resident's capacity to supply even the most essential facilities such as housing, water sources and sanitation. Rural unemployment is increasing and pushes young people, often influenced by the growing bug of ambition and expanded opportunity to live in urban areas.

The study found that the rising waves of migration in towns suggest that individuals are using their migration independence to boost their levels of human development. The study also found that due to problems with increased migration in urban areas, Strong urban development practices by delivering public utilities such as housing and other services are one of the strategies of urban management that might serve as an attempt to regulate rural-urban migration and informal settlement. Both Cape Town and Johannesburg officials have begun to detail the strategies to recruit and incorporate highly-qualified migrants and immigrants into the city's socio-economic networks. For the eThekweni Municipality, several other projects aim to encourage the development of jobs and the creation of innovative industries, which aims to give disadvantaged women, youth and disabled people more opportunities.

- *Objective 4: To propose strategies to prepare metropolitan cities for migration*

The study found that Metropolitan municipalities have developed strategies to help deal with challenges that comes with rural-urban, but some of these strategies have not been successful in addressing some of the challenges. The South African government is increasingly designing and adopting modern comprehensive strategic planning and land use management strategies aimed at ensuring maintainable infrastructure services for human settlements in response to rapid urbanisation. The polices of land use are made to endorse mixed-use development and the efficiency use of land. This is significant in that it creates a sense of balance among conflicting private property interests. The biggest issue that makes these policies unsuccessful is that

politicians should not enforce them systematically and systematically with no regard to cross-cutting matters. There is also a need to improve living conditions in rural areas to monitor rural-urban migration, generate prospects for industrial growth in these areas, and ensure sufficient socio-economic prospects, so people do not see the need for coming to urban areas.

## **6.6 Recommendations**

Following the study of rural-urban migration opportunities and challenges in South African cities from metropolitan IDPs, the following recommendations have been generated in line with the findings:

- a. The backlog of service delivery, such as decent accommodation, water and sanitation, is one of the main aspects that arose from the findings of this study. The agencies involved, such as the Department of Human Settlement, Water and Sanitation and Municipalities, should fast track facilities more directly to basic amenities such as housing, water and sanitation in informal settlements.
- b. Building new social housing and social support centers, for instance, educational institutions, well-being organizations, and leisure facilities, taking note of the city's demographic progress, is vital for communities to provide the services needed and increase the quality of life.
- c. Many rural residents are drawn to cities by the accumulation of numerous modernisation components in urban areas and their considerable absence in rural areas attracted cities. The supply of social services to rural communities, such as improved health facilities, schooling, infrastructure, water and electricity, will also decrease the population influx to urban centres.
- d. The rural economy is struck hard by issues, including rural unemployment and sub-employment. An integrated rural development strategy is also required to upsurge farm productivity by improving exurban job performance by developing agricultural technologies.
- e. Enhanced interfaces and partnerships between municipalities in urban and rural areas would mean efficient process management. In defining goals and tracking expectations, urban planning can expressly incorporate demographic patterns and scenarios.

- f. The nature of the modern global economy benefits life in urban cities, though there are valid explanations for investing in rural regions. Due to the continuous influx of people to and from cities and the relatively high fertility rates of people residing in urban areas in South Africa, policymakers in many cities and larger cities must start preparing for rapid development.

## **6.7 Conclusion**

This research has helped to understand how metropolitan municipalities view rural-urban migration based on IDPs' perceptions in South Africa. As the diversity of migration literature shows, rural-urban migration is a dynamic process in which many influences play a part. Results from IDPs studied show that rural-urban migration has a significant bearing on capital distribution in South African cities. It also reveals that after the demise of the apartheid regime, the rural-urban movement has been a critical mechanism in terms of redistribution of population in South African cities. In urban areas of destination, migration has its challenges and raises social and security challenges. This includes the lack of service supply, the backlog of housing and utilities, and high unemployment. A more in-depth analysis of IDPs in different municipalities and relevant rural-urban migration literature in South African cities has shown that rural areas, have experienced a significant outflow of people bound to urban areas, especially in Gauteng, Western Cape, and KwaZulu-Natal provinces, in search of employment and service delivery.

The migration of people into urban areas has also expanded public services, demographic development and housing capacity problems. The government has responded slowly to the issue and has subsequently led to massive service delivery protests caused by the burdened infrastructure. It is important to improve capacity and ensure adequate funding for services to address rapid population development. In addition, all places of origin and destinations will gain advantages by addressing and promoting their place-based economies to counter rural-urban migration. The IDPs analysis shows that rural-urban migration is directly linked to the spread of informal urban settlements. As such, unwanted implications for all South African citizens are caused by the inability to handle migration.

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# Appendix A: Turnitin report

## Turnitin Originality Report

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