



The Impact of Migration and Remittances: The Case of Migrant Households in Endingeni Rural Area in Ladysmith.

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DECLARATION

This research report represents the work that has been carried out in KwaZulu-Natal, Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith, under the supervision of Nompumelelo Nzimande.

I Sakhile Mazibuko (214519606) hereby declare that this dissertation is my own work. It has not otherwise been submitted in any form to any institution. The information from other sources used in this dissertation is duly acknowledged both in the in-text and in the reference list. The research of this dissertation was carried out in the School of Built Environment and Development Studies, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus, Durban, South Africa.

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Signature

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Date

ABSTRACT

Migration and remittances with their growing volume and stable nature have become a topic of interest to many researchers. Migration generally impact positively on migrant households because it is associated with improved standard of living. The aim of this study is to understand the effects of migration and remittances as well as migration decision making in migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. An in depth understanding of the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households in rural area of Endingeni in Ladysmith is important and this study aims to learn and understand the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households. The researcher further intend to study the decisions for migration and the effects of migration and remittances on migrant households. This study aims to provide information and statistics on the impact of migration and remittances with regards to the particular rural area of Endingeni and contribute in enhancing knowledge in the study of migration and remittances in South Africa and their impact on migrant households.

To achieve this - a qualitative approach was explored, where a sample of 20 participants from migrant households in the rural area of Endingeni in Ladysmith were interviewed through individual semi-structured interviews.

The study found that majority of migrant households receive remittances from their members who migrated for employment. Household's standard of living and limited opportunities of generating income in rural areas is noted as a main reason that encourage people to migrate for employment and send remittances to their families left behind. Migration is often a household's strategy for its survival and livelihoods. Thus households act collectively in making migration decision for their members. And as a result migration benefits several households through remittances and improve their livelihoods. This study recommend that further research be done on exploring how migration and remittances affects migrant households in order to know more about migration and remittances.

Key words: migration, remittances, households, migrants, rural areas, livelihoods

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I would like to express my gratitude to my research participants, without them this study would have not been possible; I am humbled and honoured.

My supervisor for her patience, support and guidance; I am short of words to express my gratitude.

To my family and friends for the support, advices and words of courage which kept me going.

The foregoing research attempted by all means possible to observe the Research Policy of the institution, which is the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The researcher further formalized the requirements for the Research Ethics Committee by signing the relevant documents and observing all the ethics protocol as required by the University by-laws.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my blessed grandmother and the entire Mazibuko family.

DEFINITIONS

Migration – “The movement of persons away from their place of usual residence, either across an international border or within a State” (IOM, 2011:135).

Remittances refer to the money and goods that are transmitted to households by migrant workers working outside their communities of origin. In addition they are “private international monetary transfers that migrants make, individually or collectively” (IOM, 2011:178).

Household “a household is a group of persons who live together and provide themselves jointly with food and/or other essentials for living, or a single person who lives alone” (Stats SA, 2004:8).

Rural area -is defined as “any area that is not classified *urban*. Rural areas are subdivided into tribal areas and commercial farms.” (Stats SA, 2004:14). This area is rural because it categorizes traditional dwelling which is a dwelling made of clay, mud, reeds or other locally available materials. This is a general term which includes huts, rondavels.

Employment- “an activity in which a person is engaged for pay, profit or family gain or a combination of any of the three” (Stats SA, 2004:8). The lack of employment opportunities in rural bothers households and influence the initiation of migration by households members to find employment elsewhere and benefit with their families.

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Chapter 1- Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Migration and remittances have remained a worldwide phenomenon that affect different areas in the world. The study of migration and remittances has gained attention due to the trends in migration and remittances both internationally and internally. International and internal migrants who migrates across and within boarders have both contributed to the increasing trends in migration and remittances. The recently upward trends of migrant's monetary flows has led to the increment of emphasis on remittances, thereby every day gaining more importance research and policy consideration on their impact (Lubambu, 2014). In several places, the incident of migration and remittances is stimulated by such factors. The lack of employment, low salaries and wages and such delays in receiving salaries and wages encourage people to improve their livelihoods through migrating from their areas of origin to work abroad and send remittances (Vladicescu et al, 2008). Migration has contributed to improvement of people's lives in both origin and destination countries, it has also provided an opportunity for several people to create meaningful lives (McAuliffe and Ruhs, 2018). Thus the incident of migration and remittances is growing and trends are noted.

The number of migrants working abroad has extensively grown, with thousands of young individuals migrating every day from their home countries to secure employment in rich countries and start sending remittances back home in countries of origin (Mehedintu et al, 2019). Through these remittances sent, developing countries are the most benefiting countries in the share of remittances. It is noted that "there are large differences across regions, with the highest gains (in percentage terms) accruing to migrants from Sub- Saharan Africa (619 percent) and the lowest to migrants from the Middle East and North Africa and Europe and Central Asia" (World Bank, 2005:37). This concurs with the findings of Ellyne and Mahlalela (2017) that remittances to Africa have increased substantially and are currently the prevalent source of external financial flows. In addition, United Nations projections pointed out that remittances to the region of Sub-Saharan Africa will keep growing (Migration and Development Brief 31, 2019). This reflects the high volume of migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa to developed regions.

Migration and remittances as external financial flows contribute to the development of origin countries. Remittances are an in effect indicator of the links maintained by migrants with areas of origin at different levels that are micro, mezzo and macro (Adepoju, 2006). In sending countries remittances have thus became a key source of income thereby boosting their economy. United Nations (2011) asserts that remittances from migrants are a significant and growing source of foreign income for a number of developing countries. Studies found that remittances in other countries are equivalent to more than three

times the official development assistance and can contribute to human welfare and economic development (Migration and Development Brief 31, 2019; Lubambu, 2014). It is documented that remittances have positive impact on the growth of GDP when financial markets are relatively weak (Lubambu, 2014). For instance from 2003, the portion of total remittances in GDP of all developing states has become constant at around 1.75 percent (United Nations, 2011). This reflects that other economies are reliant on the flows of remittances.

Accordingly remittances have been acknowledged as an important mechanism to poverty alleviation. Remittances are a helping hand sustaining poor migrant households (Adepoju, 2006). Such analysis across countries worldwide have actually indicated the effects of remittances on poverty reduction, as well as remittances ability to alleviate poverty and promote human development are reported as beneficial overall development (United Nations, 2011). The effects of remittances that are due to migration has also transformed countries and households to partake in migration so as to increase their income and improve their well-being. Partly because migration is associated with limiting negative effects on food security for families (Vargas-Lundius et al, 2008). It is a potential mechanism for households to diversify income to overcome their financial crisis situations by means of remittances that reduce poverty and empower households to meet their needs. For instance, remittances have been related with increased household funds for education, health and entrepreneurship where in most situations all of this have high social return (United Nations, 2011).

Frequently, migration is a household strategy to supplement its income hence the decision to migrate is made collectively by the household at large rather than solely individual. To underpin this Vargas-Lundius et al (2008), notes that in general, migration is a household decision and is a highly difficult process which considers different aspect that involve benefits, costs, risks and other aspects that influence decisions to leave or stay in the household. However if expected benefits worth more than any other aspect, household members migrate and then send remittances. Additionally the process of migration and remittances has been characterised by male migrants from rural households. However the increasing number of migrants involve the participation of females in migration especially at the internal level (Posel and Casale, 2003). Thus household member migrate and then remittances through different channels which are either formal or informal transfer channels.

This study focuses on the impact of migration and remittances in migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. This chapter provides a contextual understanding of the problem as well as the rationale and the research problem statement. It also states the main aims of the research and research questions, the value of the study. Finally the chapter will outline the structure of the dissertation.

1.2 Context and Rationale

The rural urban migration is on the rise and it is believed that is due to such reasons that include better livelihoods. Rural areas have few opportunities for generating income, a situation that has persisted for many years. Hughes et al (2007) found that rural migration encompasses the majority of movement in the southern African region over the last 100-150 years ago. Whereas land and infrastructure are part of the reasons for these movements, but employment remain a predominant reason for migration (Muhwava et al, 2013). Every year rural migrants perceive it valuable to migrate to towns and cities to search for work so they can support their families (Rwelamira and Kirsten, 2003). For that reason “migration has been seen as a response to the socio-spatial inequalities as people migrate in anticipation of securing better livelihoods” (Dube, 2015:3). Migration allow migrants to raise income for their families to overcome family financial constraints.

People migrate to urban areas for better income opportunities. Consequently notable migration in South Africa has been particularly circular and benefiting migrant households with remittances. Dzomba (2014), argue that in South Africa considerable circular migration results in remittances being a foremost source of income for the migrant household. It has appeared that in South Africa there is a large number of people who send and receive domestic remittances where this is due to the high number of internal migrants sending remittances to their households (World Bank, 2017). The role played by migration and remittances is often seen as significant in improving household’s livelihoods and is perceived as a more significant process in generating income for various households. The province KwaZulu-Natal is viewed as a sender of migrants whereas Gauteng and Western Cape provinces are net receivers (Rogan et al, 2009). This is partly due to that these provinces appear to have great economic activities than KwaZulu-Natal. Therefore people move from KwaZulu-Natal to these richer provinces and from rural areas to cities.

1.3 Problem Statement

In rural areas there are limited opportunities that can enable people generate income to overcome households’ financial constraints. Therefore many people leave rural places for their families and their lives, this in most cases have such positive impact on the livelihoods of migrant households. In the rural area of Endingeni a large number of people have migrated because of limited economic opportunities that can support their livelihoods and this has continued for years. In general, reasons for migration often originate from various observed benefits that may be achieved by the family if one or more member migrate and send remittances. The central thrust of the study will be ascertaining the impact of migration and remittances as well as migration decision making in migrant household.

Migration and remittances have been a subject matter of concern and affect migrant households in rural areas. Migration is important to migrant households through remittances which are a stable source of income for various families in developing countries, particularly in rural areas (Vargas-Lundius et al, 2008). Thus remittances help mitigate financial restrictions while allowing smooth consumption and overcome difficulties in times of crisis. Actually remittances contribute to the survival and wellbeing of rural households (Vargas-Lundius et al, 2008). They further noted that flows of remittances to rural areas are important for developing regions and lead to economic growth in rural areas.

When migrants migrate, secure jobs and earn income, then send remittances to their families left behind. Whereas remittances are an important achievement of migration and have positive impact on migrant households. Once households make a costly and risky decision for their member/s to migrate to another area, it generally consists of the anticipation of income increase which is described by the economist as the present value of lifetime earnings (World Bank, 2005). As a results migration is possibly valued as an important means for households in rural areas because of limited income generating activities. Rural households find it valuable for their members to migrate and earn income elsewhere rather than staying in the place of origin while being unable to earn income and improve livelihoods. In the view of World Bank (2005) emigration generally impose hardships on household members in the area of origin, however it also improves household's income and increase household's ability to pay costs that reduce those hardships.

In KwaZulu-Natal there are limited studies exist on the impact of migration and remittances and households migration decision making in rural areas. While migration and remittances affects migrant households and remittances are determinants of households in making migration decisions for their members. It is argued that in South Africa most labour migration originated from rural areas, where there are few opportunities for generating income (Posel et al, 2004). However studies examining migration and remittances have predominantly focused on its general impact on communities and on country at large while leaving out its impact on migrant families and migration decision making in rural households. As rural households believes and participate in migration there is a necessity to find out how do they make decision for migration and how does the process of migration affects them.

1.4 Study Aim

The main aim of this study is to understand the effects of migration and remittances in migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. While in South Africa there is such information and statistics on the impact of migration and remittances in migrants' households however there is no information and

statistics particular to this rural area. This study aims to fill this gap and contribute in enhancing knowledge in the study of migration and remittances in South Africa and their impact on migrant households.

1.4.1 The Objectives of the Study seeks to:

1. To understand migration decision making process in a household
2. To understand the household's source of income and the contribution of remittances to overall sources of income.
3. To learn the perspectives of these families regarding the impact of remittances on the household well-being.

1.5 Research Questions

In line with the aims stated above, the following research questions are addressed in this study:

1. How the decision for the migrant to migrate was made?
2. What are household sources of income?
3. What is the impact of remittances in household expenditure?
4. What are the threats faced by the household regarding the role of remittances in the household?
5. How does the family perceive migration and remittances and the relationship with their migrant?

1.6 The Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is structured into five chapters:

Chapter one is the introduction chapter and provides a context and rationale; the problem statement; main aims and questions of the research as well as value of the study.

Chapter two provides research methodology of the study. The chapter describe the background of the study; the research design; the sample; explains the data collection and data analysis methods. Finally it presents the ethical consideration that guided the researcher. It further discuss the limitations of the study.

Chapter three presents the literature review which addresses the extent of migration and remittances at both international and internal level (South Africa); the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households, the demographic characteristics of migrants as well as the transfer of remittances. This is followed by theoretical framework which guides the study.

Chapter four presents the discussion of findings of the study.

Lastly *Chapter five* presents a summary and conclusions of the entire dissertation as well as recommendations based on the findings of the study.

Chapter 2: Research Methods

2.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology that was used in this research. The chapter firstly describe the research design and then presents the sampling. It further presents data source which states the methods used to collect and analyse data, discuss rigour for the study and finally explains limitations of the study.

2.2 Research Design

It is important to have a research design for a research to meet its aims and answer the research question. This is because it serve as linkage between research questions and aims as well as the implementation of the research. In terms of Adarkwa (2017), research design provide step by step account of method being applied to answer the research question and meet the aims of the research and for that reason it is quiet important in a study. Neuman cited in Alpaslan (2010:16) defined research design “as a plan of strategy, specifying how and from where participants will be selected, the data gathering techniques to be used and how data collection and analysis will be done.” According to Thyer cited in Kumar (2011:96) “a research design is a procedural plan that is adopted by the researcher to answer questions validly, objectively, accurately and economically.” Thus research design consist of what the researcher want to discover and also determine the best way to do it (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

For the purpose of this study the descriptive research design was used. Descriptive research design “as its name suggest, descriptive research seek to provide an accurate description of observation of a phenomena” (Nielsen, 2011:25). It is used to provide a detailed description of what was being explored. A major purpose of many studies in social sciences is to describe situations and events (Babbie & Mouton, 2001), while the purpose of this study is to describe the situation of migration and remittances on migrant households in Endingeni rural area. In this instance the study chose to use descriptive research design in order to find out the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith and to learn their decision making and perceptions regarding migration and remittances as well as how does it affects them.

2.2.1 The Qualitative Research Approach

This study has undertaken qualitative research approach with the purpose of having an in-depth understanding of migration decision making process and impact of migration and remittances on migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. Kumar (2011:343) asserts that “qualitative research is based upon the philosophy of empiricism, follows an unstructured, flexible and open approach to enquiry,

aims to describe than measure, believes in in-depth understanding and small samples, and explores perceptions and feelings than facts and figures.” In addition, qualitative research is a form of scientific research that consist of an investigation that look for answers to a question, systematically uses a predefined set of procedures to answer the question, gather evidence, produce findings that were not determined in advance and produce findings that are appropriate beyond the immediate margins of the study (Tolley et al, 2016). The qualitative research is useful for investigating social conditions and clarifying them in detail. It studies people in their natural setting to recognize how their experiences and behaviours are shaped by the setting of their lives (Hennink et al, 2011), where it emphasis is on giving a holistic understanding of the social setting in which the study is conducted. Thus qualitative research is undertaken in this research to understand the experiences, opinions and behaviour of migrant households who receive remittances, how they cope with the situation of migration and remittances and how this impact on their households.

It is argued that qualitative approaches are used in producing knowledge, as well as in design and testing of quantitative questionnaires in order to understand unexpected results of survey and to understand sensitive issues, perceptions, cultural contexts and other components of the social world that are difficult to measure quantitatively (Coast et al, 2009). In addition for complex issues, statistics may show what is happening while not providing the reason why it is happening, so qualitative research may be key to find out why something is happening. The reason of using a qualitative instead of quantitative approach in this study arise from the main aim of the research study, which is to understand migration decision making process and the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. Furthermore the qualitative approach allow the interpretation of individuals experiences, opinions and behaviours without being restricted to quantified measures.

According Terre Blanche et al (2006) the qualitative method permit researchers to study issues in depth, openness and in detail as researchers identify and try to understand sorts of information that appear from the data. Thus interactions with people which is the main concern of qualitative research usually help researchers gain deeper insights into why people do what they do. For that reason, in this study qualitative approach is believed to be effective to offer a greater insight and extensive understanding of migration decision making as well as the impact of migration and remittances on migrant household within Endingeni rural area.

2.3 Sampling

2.3.1 Study Area

The study took place in rural area of Endingeni which is located at Matiwanoskop village which has a population of 10075 in ward 24 of Alfred Duma Municipality (Ladysmith) UThukela District Municipality under Midlands Region in KwaZulu-Natal. This is a rural type of community governed by chief and dominated by Africans who speak IsiZulu. Since Matiwanoskop is a village, it consist both activities of rural and urban settlements. Moreover community member's participation is acknowledged. This may be that community members participate in decision making and in electing their political representatives which are ward councillors. The community has no shopping centres or malls since it is a rural area nonetheless consists of agricultural practices, taxi industry, trading stores and tuck shops. The rate of employment is very low, since employment opportunities are limited. This prompt family members within the community to migrate for labor to support their families through remittances. As a result, migration and remittances has become prevalent in the area as way to escape poverty and improve livelihoods in many households.

This study specifically focused on Endingeni rural area as the area of concern with limited economic opportunities that lead people to migrate for better economic opportunities in urban areas that can benefit them with their families. This research aims at understanding the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households as well as their decision making regarding migration and remittances. Therefore the area of Endingeni was selected for the study because it was easily accessible without difficulty to the researcher as he is based there and possibly would observe the prevalence of migration and remittances impact on migrant households.

2.3.2 Target Population

This is the aggregation from which the sample is truly selected (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The target population for this study was migrant households who have a member or members who migrated for work and sending remittances to the household. Those households who are within the rural area of Endingeni in Ladysmith where the study specifically focused, including both males and females from remittance receiving households. A total of 20 migrant households from Endingeni were sampled and 20 participants from each of these migrant households were interviewed.

2.3.3 Sample Size

There are approximately 957 households in in rural area of Endingeni in ward 24 of Alfred Duma Local Municipality (Ladysmith). Of these total households a total of 20 migrant households from Endingeni were

sampled and 20 participants from each of these migrant households were interviewed. After a careful consideration of the area of Endingeni this number of 20 was obtained. The area of Endingeni have a dispersed settlement pattern, households in this area are situated far from each other. Thus it was believed that each chosen and interviewed household in the study, is almost on behalf of the large proportion of the area. The small sample size was used because the possibility of obtaining such sample was lessened by several reasons that include funding and time. Consequently the researcher was advised to at least study 20 migrant households.

2.3.4 Sampling Strategy

A sample is a purposefully selection of an element of the whole population to gain knowledge and information (Hollaway and Wheeler, 2010:137). Sampling is an important part of the research procedure and specific sampling method chosen has to be suitable for the research topic and questions. This research used two methods of sampling: purposive and snowball sampling.

A purposive sampling which is also known as judgmental, selective or subjective is a non-probability sample where participants are selected based on characteristics of a population and the objectives of the study (Goodman, 1961). According to Yin cited in Gentles et al (2015:1778) purposive sampling refers to “the selection of participants or sources of data to be used in a study, based on their anticipated richness and relevance of information in relation to the study’s research questions.” In addition the power and reasoning of purposive sampling lies in selecting participants from which the researcher can explore a great deal about issues important to the purpose of the study and this produces insights and in-depth understanding (Gentles et al, 2015). Thus participants were selected for their ability to provide rich information as the main concern of purposive sampling is the researcher’s judgement as to who can provide rich information to achieve the objectives of the research (Kumar, 2011). In this study, migrant households who receive remittances were chosen as participants.

For instance in the study of exploring the relationship among international migration and remittances in a case of African migrants in Cape Town. Purposive sampling was utilised for the reason that some migrants who send remittances were known by the researcher. In some cases selecting the sample based on researcher’s judgement and objectives of the study is appropriate for the study (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). In this study purposive sampling was preferred for the reason that some migrant households in Endingeni rural area were visible to the researcher, thus in sampling these households the researcher would collect enough data for research objectives.

Snowball sampling which also known as chain sampling, chain-referral sampling or referral sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where existing study subjects recruit future subjects from among

their acquaintances (Goodman, 1961). The snowball sampling also refers “to process of accumulation as each located subject suggest other subjects” Babbie and Mouton (2001:167). Furthermore it is “the process of selecting a sample using networks. To start with, a few individuals in a group or organisation are selected and the required information is collected from them. They are then asked to identify other people in the group or organisation, and the people selected by them become a part of the sample” (Kumar, 2011:190). This sampling strategy was used to include any referred migrant household which is a remittance receiving household and willing to participate in the research.

For example in study of understanding homelessness and migratory behaviour snowball sampling was used because homeless people are extremely mobile and difficult to recruit and find. Babbie and Mouton (2001) states that snowball sampling is applicable where it is difficult to locate participants of a specific population. For that reason snowball was used to reach the required number of participants for this study.

2.3.5 Profile of the Sample

Migration and remittances is common within the area of Endingeni, there are many households who have migrant workers and receive remittances. Nonetheless an effort of obtaining a sample of such population came with its own challenges, given their nomadic nature. In this study the researcher approached households of Endingeni who have migrants who migrated for work and send remittances. The researcher asked for their attention and explained the study. Upon meeting with the participants the researcher presented an approach letter which briefly describe the research and also involve details of the study supervisor. The researcher further gave details about the study. Through this participants were clear and willing to participate in the study. Some of them had no problem, they just agreed for the interviews to be conducted at that time while some arranged the meetings for another time with the researcher.

During meetings with the participants the researcher asked them to suggest other migrant households that are within the area. The researcher also asked from participants to pass the message to other migrant's households who may be willing to participate in the research. Some of the participants referred the researcher to types of participants needed for the study and that is how the study obtained other participants. As a results 20 migrant's households were selected, where 8 participants were reached through purposive sampling and 12 participants were reached through snowball sampling. These 20 participants participated very well however 4 of them didn't want to be recorded but they were willing to be part of the study. They suggested that the researcher can take notes during the interview and they provided some rich information for the study. The researcher took notes and these interviews were a bit

hard to conduct than other interviews but they proved to be successful. After each of these interviews the researcher wrote down everything said by the participants immediately to ensure the availability of data.

2.4 Data Source

2.4.1 Data Collection

Data collection approaches are the means in which a researcher gathers data for the research. There are different major approaches of data that a researcher can use in the research process. Kumar (2011) categorized data collection as primary and secondary data. In the context of this study, the researcher used primary and secondary data. According to Kumar (2011) primary data source provide the first-hand data and the data is collected using the first approach, whereas secondary data source provide the second-hand data which is collected and achieved by other people.

2.4.1.1 Primary Data Collection

Semi-structured in-depth interviews which is a qualitative method of inquiry was used for this study. Boyce and Neale (2006:3) defined in-depth interviewing as “a qualitative research technique that involves conducting intensive individual interviews with a small number of respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea, program, or situation.” To add on this, qualitative in-depth interview is a form of framework where the practices and standards are not recorded only, but also completed, challenged and supported (Jamshed, 2014). In qualitative studies interviews are a regularly used form of collecting information. They involve a form of interaction between the researcher and individuals, therefore are considered to be crucial in obtaining information, beliefs and opinions of participants on the study. The interaction between the researcher and participants provide the whole picture of the issue being studied (Boyce and Neale, 2006) as well as participant’s perspective. Due to that interviews give more comfortable atmosphere when collecting information and participants feel free to interact with the researcher as opposed to filling out a survey (Boyce and Neale, 2006:3).

The value of in-depth interviews lies in that they provide more detailed information than what is obtainable through other data collection methods such as surveys (Boyce and Neale, 2006:3). This stipulates that in-depth interviews are useful in studying sensitive issues and in studies that require detailed information. Within demography and population studies “qualitative approaches incorporate a richness of information that cannot be captured using only quantitative data” (Coast et al, 2009). Thus interviews can provide data on attitudes and behaviour as well as perceptions of individuals on an issue since they collect data in the form of spoken language rather than in numbers. Whereas this offers best information regarding

the experiences of individuals on a certain issue. To underpin this, Hennink et al (2011) postulates that the use of interviews is for eliciting information about individual experiences on specific issues.

This research consisted of semi-structured interviews to seek information on experiences of migration and remittances in migrant households. These semi-structured interviews are made of interview guide, which is a representation of questions need to be explored by the interviewer (Jamshed, 2014). Interview guides help keep the interview focused in an anticipated way and are valuable for exploring and understanding participants more thoroughly. This concurs with that semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to combine a set of pre-determined open questions with the opportunity for the interviewer to explore particular themes or responses further (Terre Blanche et al, 2006). Open-ended questions were used and they allowed the flow of discussion with participants and this provided rich data for the study. At the start of each interview the researcher read out the consent form and clarified the aim of the research to the participants in a language they understand, particularly in IsiZulu and English. This was to make certain that participants understood what is required by the study and its objectives. As a result a total of 20 interviews were conducted and participants contributed well in the study. A tape recorder was used to record interviews that were conducted in a private and conducive environment to circumvent such any possible disturbances and ensure that the recording sound clear. Moreover questions were included where it was important to seek clarity and further information.

2.4.1.2 Secondary Data Collection

On the other hand secondary data was obtained from the existing sources. Secondary sources of data are generally regarded as existing academic literature. Through literature review the researcher can build upon the existing body of knowledge and hence avoid duplication (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). It is contended that “literature review informs the researcher on what has already been done on the topic as well as the gap within the existing literature” (Adarkwa, 2017:56). This concurs with the assertion of Kumar (2011) that there are incidents when the researcher’s data have already been collected by someone else and the researcher only need to extract the required data for the purpose of his/her research. The study has consequently built upon the findings of other researchers. The selection of findings, concentrated on those that are relevant, drawn from academic sources such as books, journals, articles, internet sources, research reports and dissertations focusing on migration and remittances as well as its impact on migrant households. Additionally, findings were also drawn from relevant international organizations and government reports.

2.4.2 Methods of Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process whereby the researcher bring structure, order and sense of the collected data. According to Terre Blanche et al (2006), data analysis encompasses the researcher to read through his data repetitively and engage in activities of separating the data and building it up again in novel ways. This study used interpretive data analysis with the aim of offering thick description which is an in-depth description of the characteristics, processes, transactions and contexts that form a phenomenon as well as a description of the role of the researcher in constructing this description (Terre Blanche et al, 2006). The interpretive analysis of data consist of five steps of analysing the data: familiarisation and immersion, inducing themes, coding, elaboration as well as interpretation and checking. Therefore through these steps:

- Recordings were listened multiple times, data was transcribed and summaries of each interview were made.
- Languages of the research participants was used to label the categories. The study then looked for common themes from the information provided by the participants.
- Different sections relevant to the research were marked and most important points relevant to the research topic were written down and different colour highlighters were used as symbols.
- The study explained the information that has not been captured by the original system. For instance the information spoken when the recorder was switched off. This was also the opportunity to revise the coding system.
- The study interpreted the data against literature and the theoretical framework.

2.5 Rigour (*Trustworthiness*)

This element can have any kind of effect between a quality and a poor research approach and findings. According to Babbie & Mouton (2001:277), trustworthiness is considered as “another approach to clarifying the notion of objectivity as it is manifested in qualitative research, is found in the highly influential work of Lincoln and Guba (1985). For them, the key criterion or principle of good qualitative research is found in the notion of trustworthiness.” Hence trustworthiness is the criteria for judging goodness and quality of a research and is determined by four concepts which show validity and reliability in qualitative research (Kumar, 2011). Additionally, it is about establishing how credible, transferable, dependable and confirmable the research is for it to be accepted as an academic research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Credibility refers to a situation of ensuring that the data collected from the study participants corresponds to the research questions (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). To ensure credibility, the researcher was guided by the interview schedule during the interviews to keep the interviews focused and to limit asking misleading questions.

Transferability is “the extent to which the findings can be applied in other context or with other respondents” (Babbie and Morton, 2001:277). This was reached by ensuring a thick description of data that acknowledges migrant households who are remittances receivers as experts.

Dependability according to Babbie and Morton (2001:278) “an inquiry must provide its audience with evidence that if were to be repeated with the same or similar respondents (subjects) to the same or similar context, its findings would be similar.” This research report is made point by point clarifying data collection and data analysis so that the review could be reproduced. The study utilized request review with a specific end goal to build up trustworthiness: research supervisor had to analyse the research procedure, interpret the research data and the data analysis to guarantee that the discoveries are reliable and review can be repeated.

Confirmability refers to “the degree to which the findings of the research study were the product of the focus of the inquiry and not the biases of the researcher involved in this inquiry” (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:278). Additionally this “refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others” (Kumar, 2011:172). This was achieved by submitting the transcripts of the interview recordings and the field notes to research supervisor to review.

2.6 Limitations

- i) Other participants did not attend the interview on the time agreed and even thereafter when rescheduled. Snowball sampling was used to get other participants.
- ii) Some participants were not concentrating during the interview and thus they were not providing rich information, therefore snowball sampling was used to get other participants.

2.7 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the methodology that was used in this research project. The chapter also revealed the research design that was used, the sample population and how the sample was selected and then data verification. This chapter included discussion on methods of how data was collected and analysed and study limitations.

Chapter 3- Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

Since the past decades, the flows of migration and remittances worldwide are growing in a large extent (United Nations, 2017). The relationship between migration and remittances receive much interest for researchers and policy makers. The literature on international migration is growing due to the high levels of migration. Researchers contended that there has been a globalization of migration, which is the propensity for an ever increasing number of countries to be crucially affected by migration (De Haas et al, 2018). Migration has accelerated over the past decades, migrants migrates over progressively long distances where origins and destinations have become substantially more diverse (De Haas et al, 2018). As a result this drastic international migration has influenced the flows of remittances and therefore it is of important in this context to recognize the increased possibilities of migrants which lead to remittances, thereby having such impact on migrant families. Notwithstanding the often more substantial international migration flows between global countries, this study focuses on internal migration. Moreover the literature on international migration is broad and migration is said to have effects on households, communities and countries of origin at large through remittances (Hagen Zenker 2015). As a result this literature per se, discusses some of these effects.

In this case, motives of migration will be explored and the way in which migration and remittances affect migrant families. For instance migration is perceived as a way to escape financial hardships in a family by sending a member to earn income elsewhere (Stapleton, 2015). This may suggest that if labour is considered as an export then remittances are a portion of the compensation that returns to the place of origin for exporting labour services (Taylor, 1999). Thus households send their members to such destinations and then benefit from remittances sent by these members. This concurs with the premise that migration is seen as an investment on the part of migrant and the household, where investment returns produce greater earnings in a destination (Yang, 2015). This may happen as a result of household desire to overcome financial strain and improve livelihoods.

This study explores the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. This chapter addresses the level of migration and remittances, internal migration in South Africa, the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households. In addition, it addresses the demographic characteristics of migrants as well as the transfer of remittances. The New Economics of Labor Migration theory will be used as the theoretical framework guiding this study. Lastly, there is conceptual framework supporting the theoretical framework.

3.2 The Level of Migration and Remittances

The increasing numbers in migration has been the subject matter of concern worldwide. This is believed to be facilitated by different reasons which include economic opportunities for better livelihoods. As migration is used as a source of support for families to improve their livelihoods through remittances sent by their members who migrated to earn income for the family (Rwelimira and Kirsten, 2003). This means migration generates key positive returns for the migrant in the place of origin. For instance “migrant remittances have made possible a drastic improvement in the living conditions of millions of households in migrant-sending countries” (De Haas, 2005:1277). In this section the extent of migration and remittances will be discussed in three parts; firstly globally, secondly sub-Saharan Africa and then lastly South Africa.

3.2.1 Global

Due to economic, demographic, socio-cultural and political reasons that influence migration it has been found that “one of every seven persons in the world is a migrant, and there are 250 million international migrants and more than 750 million internal migrants” globally (Migration and Development Brief 27, 2017:13). Migration is increasing at both international and internal level. Large numbers of people have become migrants globally as migration currently seems to be easily initiated through modern transportation, which has facilitated the movement of people by making it easier and less costly to migrate (United Nations, 2017) from one area to another. As a result even if people are in search of better life for themselves and their families, migration becomes a means to achieve this through modernization.

According to Samuel and George (2002), the improvement of communication and transportation has facilitated migration process. Through communication, migrants become aware of migration destinations. The modernization brought about such useful sources of information for migrants, which include electronic media, internet and social networks that raise awareness and give information to access of better life opportunities in destination areas (Samuel and George, 2002). Moreover the networks between migrants and non-migrants also contributed to migration. It is said that social networks formed by earlier migrants from one's own family and community of origin further encourage migration (Samuel and George, 2002).

In the current century various changes have been noted in migration. Particularly in the last two decades, international migration has increased in the recent years from 173 million in 2000 to 220 million in 2010 and to 258 million in 2017 (United Nations, 2017). Among these numbers, labour migration is considered to be one of the foremost factors contributing to migration increase (Wester, 2017) since it usually occurs voluntarily after the migrant has weighed the benefits of migration.

Most of the migrants are said to be found in developed parts of the world where most of them come from developing regions. According to United Nations (2017), two thirds of international migrants, about 64 percent, which equals to 165 million migrants live in high income countries. These countries are located in developed regions of Asia, Europe and North America. Highest receiving countries for international migrants in 2017 included United States, Germany and Saudi Arabia. Among top sending countries India was leading followed by Mexico which have 11.9 million migrants in US in 2017 (Migration and Development Brief 29, 2018). These regions may be considered to have better opportunities that benefit migrants. For instance this is also noted on internal migration where migrants are mostly found in urban areas coming from rural for opportunities that can benefit them and share their earnings as remittances with their households behind.

Due to migration, remittances have been found to have a positive impact on migrants and their families' in areas of origin. This may be that in some cases migration decisions often stems from family as a strategy to supplement income. There is an estimated amount of \$413 billion that has been sent to countries of origin as remittances by migrants in 2016 (United Nations, 2017). This amount of remittances has increased over the years due to increasing migration levels. The inflow of remittances to countries of origin has increased (Migration and Development Brief 29, 2018). In addition, as large proportion of migrants is found in high income countries, this is the reason for remittances inflows to developing countries. Catrinescu et al (2009), argue that for various countries, remittances have driven macroeconomic development for the most part by increasing national disposable income.

Remittances have accelerated, for instance "remittance flows to low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) increased by an estimated 8.5 percent in 2017, to reach \$466 billion" (Migration and Development Brief 29, 2018:3). Nonetheless a new record has been set where "Remittance flows to low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) grew by 9.6 percent in 2018 (up from the 8.8 percent rise in 2017), to reach a record \$529 billion" (Migration and Development Brief 31, 2019:1). In the distribution of US \$ billion remittances, top recipients of them are Asian countries followed by other countries from America and Africa. This is that in 2018 - India, China, Mexico, Philippines, Egypt Arab Republic and Nigeria were top six highest recipients of remittances inflows (Migration and Development Brief 31, 2019). This suggest that large number of migrants in developed nations come from some of these countries. As by 1990 the Mexican population of origin covered 6 percent of the total US population (Massey et al, 1994).

The increase flows of remittances is the results increase migration and is also explained by the increased competition in the remittances market, transfer costs, more remittances flow into formal channels as well as the improvement in capturing remittances in many developing countries (Vargas-Lundius et al, 2008).

Moreover the increased remittances may be also noted as due to internal migration also not international migration only. For instance Vargas-Lundius et al (2008) asserts that there is a rising number of individuals migration between developing nations or internally. For instance “in Vietnam, 4.3 million people migrated internally between 1994-9, compared to only 300,000 who left the country” (Crush, 2007:4). This postulate that in some countries internal migration outnumber international migration, thus people migrate more internally rather than internationally.

3.2.2 Sub- Saharan Africa

In the developing region of sub Saharan Africa, it has been observed that migration and remittances also take place. It is said that sub Saharan Africa is one of the regions that have faster growth of international migrants. According to United Nations (2017:5) “between 2000 and 2017, the number of international migrants in Africa and Asia grew by an average of 3.0 and 2.8 per cent per annum, respectively.” Additionally in the sub-Saharan Africa, it is argued that South Africa is a major hub of international migrants especially from African countries, China and India (Hughes et al, 2007). Thus most of the international migrants in Africa are found in South Africa. This is evidenced by that it is the only African nation that appear among the top 18 immigrant’s destination countries which are said to host half of world migrants (Keynes, 2019).

Furthermore, South Africa had the highest number of immigrants in the top 20 African migrant countries in 2015 (McAuliffe and Ruhs, 2018). South Africa hosts the large number of migrants in the region and in Africa and 67.1 percent of these migrants come from Southern African Development Community (SADC) (Hughes et al, 2007). This means it is also a hub of intra-regional migration for countries in the southern African region. It is claimed that intraregional and internal migration in developing nations is usually far more essential than abroad migration in terms of the number of people involved, particularly from rural areas (Vargas-Lundius et al, 2008). In addition to this in most cases internal migration is often found to surpass international migration. For example, evidence in South Africa suggest that in year 2001 the province of Gauteng had the total population 8.8 million while 3.6 million of these people were internal migrants from other provinces and 473 000 were international migrants from other countries (Crush, 2007). Thus people migrate to better their livelihoods and in the region migration to South Africa is crucial to countries of origin due to migrant’s remittances.

In the sub Saharan African region there was limited literature in terms of remittances. Nonetheless, this has evolved over time as migration is on the rise, such literature is gradually becoming available in the region. Adarkwa (2017:21) stated that:

“Transfer of remittances to families and friends of migrants from Africa has gradually gained the attention of actors and agencies of development as its significance to economic development becomes more and more self-evident and data on inflows become more readily available.”

Over the past years, the study of migration and remittances has gained attention, partly because of growth in migration and remittances flow. For instance this can result to an expanding of detailed literature on remittances in the sub-Saharan African region. According to Migration and Development Brief 29 (2018:33), remittances to the region of sub-Saharan Africa “grew from \$34 billion in 2016 to \$38 billion in 2017 and they are expected to continue to grow in 2019.” Whereas the largest remittance recipient nations in sub-Saharan Africa who accounted for more than 50 percent of remittances in the region in 2017 included Nigeria, Senegal, Ghana and other countries were trailing behind.

3.2.3 South Africa

Still on sub-Saharan Africa, the focus on international migration found that most labour migrants in the region are attracted into one country. In sub-Saharan Africa the southern African region experience more number of migrants. McAuliffe and Ruhs (2018) states that the southern African region through the advantage of its strong economic location in the continent encounters a high volume of migration because of job opportunities in the mining, agricultural and manufacturing industries. Among these volumes of migrants to the southern African region, South Africa is the most targeted destination. It has been asserted that “in terms of the number of immigrants, South Africa is the most significant destination country in Africa, with around 3.1 million international migrants residing in the country (or around 6% of its total population)” (McAuliffe and Ruhs, 2018:46). Most of these migrants are said to originate from Zimbabwe. Since year 2000, South Africa experienced more volumes of Zimbabwean migrants (Makina, 2013). Zimbabwean migrants enter the country due to economic reasons that have led to market failure in their country. Therefore in South Africa as their destination country, they hope to find better effective economy that may help them lift up their families back home. For that reason these migrants send remittances to support their relative's livelihoods (Makina, 2013). As a result this forms part of migration and remittances sent from South Africa to SADC countries. Where the value of R6.1 billion (US \$820 million) was sent from South Africa to SADC countries (Hughes et al, 2007).

Furthermore it is said that the region is still experiencing migration flows. These flows mostly originate from Ethiopia and Somalia and involve mixed migrants including economic migrants (McAuliffe and Ruhs, 2018). The continuous flows of migration has impacted on growth of population in the country. Among components of population change, migration remain to be significant and not only demographically but also economically, socially and politically (Stats SA, 2018). It is further noted that the most targeted

destination by international migrants in the country is Gauteng. In this instance, Stats SA (2018) ascertained that large number of international migrants is found in Gauteng (47,5%) whereas the least settle in Northern Cape province (0,7%). Hence Gauteng is considered the main economic hub for migrants in the country as it pull both international and domestic migrants from rural provinces for instance KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo and Eastern Cape (Stats SA, 2018). Migration for economic reason has persisted as a predominant influence of migration in South Africa and has led to high migration.

3.3 Internal Migration in South Africa

International migration is said to be high at all times as there is large number of people living outside their countries of origin. However “internal migration within countries is even more voluminous” (Crush 2007:4). In South Africa per se internal migration has been noted and is growing. It is said that “there are many people who cross inter-provincial boundaries for work but maintain close links with their household in another province” (Crush, 2007:16). This suggest that migration in South Africa is generally circulatory since most of the internal migrants migrate for work while maintaining ties with their families left behind in places of origin. Migration across provinces in South Africa whether permanently or temporary is extremely important for the reason that since the end of apartheid migration has accelerated and is continuing to grow (Crush 2007).

South Africa experience growth in both international and internal migration since pull and push factors attract and compel people to migrate. The 1993 Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development (PSLSD) and the 1995, 1997 and 1999 October Household Surveys found that in 1993 there were more than 1.3 million households who reported migrant worker as their members and in 1999 there was an increase to 1.7 million households (Posel and Casale, 2003). The increase may be due to such reasons that can also include bureaucratic system changes that took place in the country, which involve change from apartheid to democratic government. However as people always move within and around the country, it become difficult to have exact information on migration. Mazars et al (2013), estimated about 3 million international migrants and argued that it is difficult to obtain accurate data and total number of migrants in South Africa because of inadequate data collection systems and incident of irregular migration.

Internal migration seem to have increased in South Africa in the last decades, where more people moved to urban areas to seek financial support for their families left behind. This indicate that South African population is extremely mobile as “nearly 5 million people are estimated to have changed their province of primary residence since 1992. This is far larger than the number of international migrants either arriving

in or leaving South Africa” (Crush, 2007:17). Furthermore such trends have been noted and this is evidenced by that in “2015, 31% of South African adults (11.6 million individuals) either sent or received money to or from family members, parents, and children in the past 12 months” (World Bank, 2017:87). This postulate that South Africa has large volumes of internal migrants. As it has been noted that the volume of internal migrants in the country is large and growing since the end of apartheid (Crush, 2007) typically these are labour migrants who migrate for work.

3.3.1 The History and Pattern of Migration in South Africa

In South Africa there is a long history of labour movement, stretching from the late 19th century due to the discovery of diamonds and gold mines in Gauteng (Stapleton, 2015). Migration to mines became prevalent, where people migrated from rural areas and also from outside the country to these mines for employment. This has been an alternative for poor livelihoods in rural areas, where their economy is low and also for financial contingencies that would occur. According to Nagarajan (2009), migration is frequent in rural areas and is considered as a strategy of improving households livelihoods.

In addition, rural families are trapped in low economies, so their process of overcoming this is migration. Low economies of rural areas have long contributed to migration and has been the most cause for rural-urban migration pattern. In terms of Hughes et al (2007), rural-urban migration is the large component of movements in the Southern African region over the past 100 to 150 years. In addition to this, historically, migration of people from rural to urban areas in South Africa was an integral part of partaking in labour market and also individual and households plan for better living standard (Casale and Posel, 2006). This form of migration has led to major growth of migration in the country. Such better opportunities of economy in urban areas than in rural are a most important magnetisms of migrants.

The transformation from apartheid era to democracy in South Africa has impacted on migration and its patterns. Migration in the country originated from racially discriminating policies of apartheid that almost restricted migration and settlement of non-whites in destination areas (Stapleton, 2015). This prohibited permanent residence as it made it impossible for migrants to permanently stay in destination areas. The Group Areas Act No. 41 of 1950 divided South African cities and towns into separated residential and business areas while removing Coloureds, Blacks and Indians from areas classified for white employment, it required physical separation and isolation among races by creating residential areas that are different for each race (Group Areas Act, 1950). Thus migrants had to migrate temporary and this resulted in a circular pattern of migration, where people have to migrate to work in urban and then come back home in rural areas (Stapleton, 2015).

On the other hand circular nature of rural-urban migration may have been advantageous to maintain migrant's attachments with their families that could be lost through permanent migration. Posel (2001) noted that the circular migration pattern in South Africa led migrants to actively sustain ties with their families and communities of origin. Migrants therefore do maintain ties with their families through remittances, which affirms that one of the motivations to migrate to urban areas is to earn income that can improve the living standard in the family. Cai (2003) asserted that people who migrate for economic opportunities are more likely to remit, as they are financially responsible for families behind in the place of origin and this in some instances do maintain family ties.

It is argued that since the arrival of democracy there has been inflow of both international and internal migrants in places of economic activities (Kihato, 2017). New policies of democracy tend to treat people equally in migration destinations and this seem to have contributed to migration growth and its patterns. The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act No. 4 of 2000, promote equality and prevent unfair discrimination, the act also eliminate social and economic inequalities that were generated by the apartheid and brought about suffering of the majority people (Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act, 2000). This led to migration increase and better opportunities for migrants. Although this Act has been introduced and implemented, regardless of apartheid restrictions that have been left, the circular pattern of migration which is rural-urban migration appears to persist (Stapleton, 2015). This indicate that people migrate because of low economic opportunities in rural areas not that they want to migrate permanently, the aim is to earn income that will overcome family financial strains in rural areas.

As migrants migrate to urban areas, their destinations are either near or far from their areas of origin. In most cases migration is found to be targeting towns, cities and metropolitans. These destinations lead migration to be inter provincial, intra- provincial or inter- district. This relates to that in South African small cities such as Ekurhuleni, Rustenburg, Polokwane and Nelspruit there have been a major rapid increases of migration taking place due to increasing economic activity (Ntshidi, 2017). Moreover between 2011 and 2016 there are more than 1.4 million South Africans who migrated from poor- to better-performing provinces for employment, economic opportunities and other services (Morris, 2018). The findings from the Census 2011 dataset reveals that in major inter-provincial migration streams during the period 2001–2011, 41.68 percent of internal migrants migrated to Gauteng (Stats SA, 2015). Gauteng stands out as a leading province followed by Western Cape for drawing large stocks of migrants from other provinces. According to Mazars et al (2013), Gauteng is the dominant economic engine of South Africa especially the city of Johannesburg as it is the most targeted migrant's destination. This is supported by the history of labour migration that can be drawn from gold and diamond mines which are located in this city.

Consequently, numbers of migrants in Gauteng are largely increasing. It was revealed in census 2011 that between 2001 and 2011 – the population in Gauteng grew by 31 percent where in Western Cape grew by 29 percent (Mazars et al, 2013).

Additionally, metropolitans and cities in provinces account for more migrants since migration focus is on high income areas. Therefore the pull of migrants from other provinces is high, suggesting that most receiving areas of migrants' from rural are metropolitan cities that include Johannesburg, Cape Town, Pretoria and Durban (Shezi, 2013). This is underpinned by that migrants, both internal and international are largely concentrated on urban and semi-urban areas (Mazars et al, 2013). In this case majority of rural migrants have responded to the lack of jobs in rural areas by migrating to cities with the hope of securing an improved future (Visagie and Turok, 2018). This has benefited migrants who move within and out of the province or districts because of destinations that are economically productive.

3.3.2 The Context of KwaZulu-Natal

The province of KwaZulu-Natal has also contributed to migration as a sender and receiver of migrants. According to Socio-Economic Review and Outlook (SERO) (2017), net migration of KwaZulu-Natal province from 2011 to 2016 was -684 and was one of the lowest negative net migrations following the Eastern Cape province. This indicate that the province is losing its population to high economic provinces due to migration. It has been documented that since year 2000, among other provinces, KwaZulu-Natal has the highest number of working age migrants who have relocated from the province (Rogan et al, 2009). For instance, as most of migration destinations with better opportunities are outside the province, it thus possible for working age migrants to migrate to other provinces. This compel people to move out of the province to reach these destinations considered to be the greatest hubs of migrants.

Moreover, KwaZulu-Natal has the highest population behind Gauteng province as it has about 11 384 722 people of which is a share of 19.7 percent of the national population (SERO, 2019). Its migration is also high within the province and is dominated by rural-urban migration. People within the province migrate between rural and urban areas with the desire to improve their quality of life (Visagie and Turok, 2018). They intend to earn income when migrating and maintain ties with their households either physical, emotional but mostly financially through sending remittances. The quiet intense circulation between urban and rural areas indicate that migrants are still attached to their families and ties are quite strong (Collinson et al, 2006).

Within the province migration tend be inter-district, since it is concentrated into cities. Migration focus is on large districts that have cities and economically productive. As this internal migration is economically influenced, findings from Censuses (1996 and 2001), Labour Force Surveys and Panel Data (KIDS 1198

and 2004) found that the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality and UMgungundlovu District Municipality have large numbers of migrants, where EThekweni have 51 percent and UMgungundlovu have 14 percent compared to other municipal districts in KwaZulu-Natal (Rogan et al, 2009). These municipalities are the largest in the province and have more attraction for migrants. The Klipriver (Alfred Duma Municipality-Ladysmith) reported to have about 17.52 percent of migrants who were absent from home for work (Rogan et al, 2009). This means in KwaZulu-Natal remittances have been a significant source of income in many households and this influence people to migrate. Rogan et al (2009) argued that the advantages of employment through migration is therefore channel to other family members through wages and goods, thereby the migration of employable household members is significant in terms of alleviating household poverty.

The difficulty in securing employment in faraway cities or towns has influence migration into nearby cities or towns where it may be less costly to migrants than it may be in more distant metropolitans (Posel and Casale, 2003). Employment likelihoods may be the motive for internal migration which involve short distance movements. Posel and Casale (2003), in their work of migration in KwaZulu-Natal, suggested that insecurity about employment is on the rise and increase the demand for other options in migration. But migration is key to better opportunities as rural areas deprive families to better life with low opportunities, some migrate and find employment. Visagie and Turok (2018), argued that regardless of the obstacles migrants face in attempting to enter urban labour markets, the findings show that many succeeded in securing jobs and upsurge their incomes. Then share earnings with their families through remittances.

3.3.2.1 UThukela District Municipality

People move within and out of UThukela District Municipality district because of economic opportunities. The Alfred Duma Local Municipality (municipality of concern) which is one of the three municipalities in the district of UThukela, is strategically located along the N3 corridor which links Durban and Gauteng as well as the N11 which links it with Mpumalanga Province. The Alfred Duma Local Municipality comprises of 36 wards and 22 of these wards are rural and some of them are regulated by the Traditional Authorities (Alfred Duma Municipality, 2016). The local municipality is perceived as a major economic hub for migrants in the district, since most economic activity is concentrated in it (UThukela District Municipality, 2016). It is the largest local municipality in the district, thus it attracts more migrants from other local municipalities within the district and also migrants from outside the district. However in UThukela District Municipality it has been noted that people migrate to larger districts that are economically productive and also outside the province where their destinations are economically well. This is partly because the district

is predominately rural and is described by poor socio-economic indicators like low economic, low income and limited access to services (UThukela District Municipality, 2016). About 80% of the municipality is rural whilst 20% is urban (Alfred Duma Municipality, 2016). The low economic and income indicators are the reason for people to migrate to other districts municipalities that are economically productive.

Additionally, “at the municipal level, most internal migration is towards municipalities that are highly urbanized” (Crush, 2007:17). This is due to lack of economic opportunities and as a result migration to large cities and metropolitans whether within or outside the province is key in generating income. It is documented that in the Alfred Duma Local Municipality working age people are migrating to cities like Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Gauteng to look for jobs (Alfred Duma Municipality, 2016). This pattern of migration to these destinations is likely to be initiated since the municipality is located between these migration destinations. The municipality rests on the railway route, which runs between Durban and Johannesburg (Alfred Duma Municipality, 2016). In this particular instance, roads and railway networks act as associations to particular places of opportunities for migrants from this municipality.

3.4 The Impact of Migration and Remittances on Migrant Households

When migration take place, it is almost anticipated that it will have such impact on the household in the place of origin. Migration and remittances has ripple effect where livelihoods of the migrant family in the place of origin are affected. Since household members are concerned about the financial well-being of the family, migrate and send remittances as household income. The relationship between migration and remittances appear to have positive effects on origin household's economy. In this instance Redehegn et al (2019), asserts that migration shape migrant sending households through indirect channels to make households improvements, as migrants often remit portion of their earnings to families of origin therefore remittances provide potential foster to increase household income and improve general conditions in households of origin. They have become a source of income that finance family needs. In this instance, migration often improves the family living conditions and ensures food security, school enrolment and health as well as investment (Biyase, 2012). Hence remittances seem to have contributed to a better living standard in many developing areas.

Nonetheless such studies have found different impact of migration and remittance on household's livelihoods and receiving areas. There is still disagreements pertaining the incident of migration and remittances levels and their potential impact on rural economies (Rwelimira and Kirsten, 2003). This means as most households achieve positive returns from migration, some households do not benefit from migration. This part of dissertation will discuss the impact of migration and remittances on household poverty reduction, income inequality, health, education and investment. The intention of this section is to

show how migration and remittances improve or worsen household's livelihoods and how remittance receiving households differ from non-remittance receiving households who were similar before the incidence of remittances.

3.4.1 Poverty Reduction

Migration and remittances has a major positive effect because in most cases they contribute to poverty reduction in families. Both international and internal migration play a role in poverty reduction. In this case remittances have been found having direct impact on reducing poverty in sub Saharan Africa (Hagen-Zanker, 2015). In terms of Biyase (2013), such findings indicate that the level of poverty in Guatemala has been reduced by both internal and international remittances, whereas the 2006 household survey in Mali ascertained that through remittances poverty rates decreased by 5%, furthermore it has been also discovered that in Fiji and Tonga remittances has reduced poverty. Using 2008 National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS) database Biyase (2013) found that in South Africa the rate of poverty from observed household's income without remittances is higher compared to observed poverty from income with remittances. This is because remittances contribute to income of the household and such increased income may bring about positive impact in the household. As a result "remittance-receiving households have higher incomes and levels of consumer spending and lower incidences of poverty relative to similar households that do not receive remittances" (Ratha, 2013:5). Through remittances poverty and inequality has been lessened in 10 Latin American and Caribbean nations (Biyase, 2013).

In some cases poverty may be the reason for migration since migration can be a process to improve conditions. Therefore migration is a response to poverty when household migrant has migrated and send remittances. When associating migration and poverty, it has been found that in remittance receiving households, remittances contribute a large source of income annually and as a result the most important expenditure category for remittances in all households is food (Rogan et al, 2009). It can be said that food is the foremost need in all households and those who receive remittances it means they spend their income mostly to this foremost need. Among the shares of remittances spending for each category, food remain the greatest expense, followed by housing and consumer goods (Hagedom et al, 2013). Furthermore according to Ratha (2013), remittances are linked with increased household income and consequently they are a powerful force of anti-poverty in many developing areas.

In South Africa, the impact of migration and remittances on poverty have different evidence. As migration draw workers from within and outside the country had such positive effect on some households. In this instance, remittances sent by mine workers in South Africa to their families in Lesotho reduced poverty and in other cases by large amounts (Katseli et al, 2006). Thus this means Lesotho migrant households

benefited from remittances from South Africa than their counterparts who are poor and have no migrant worker. However in some cases impact of remittances on poverty tend to be different. Remittances may improve or worsen poverty, it rest on how things went for a migrant in destination area. Rwelamira and Kirsten (2003) in their study found that although the majority of households claimed that migration improves household's livelihoods nonetheless 12.6% of households regarded migration as a negative light, stating that it exacerbated poverty in household. This is due to the fact that household members migrate in search of jobs and not secure jobs or earn enough to remit (Rogan et al, 2009). Therefore the migrant household may be similar as other non-migrant households or conditions be worsened. Nonetheless if things went well for the migrant in destination, conditions may be improved and such income inequality among households may be observed.

3.4.2 Income Inequality

Migration and remittances impact on households may be associated with the existence of inequality among households. Since sources of income in households may be different, households who rely on remittances income or contribution of remittances in their income, differs from their counterparts. In this case such analysis pointed out the relation of remittances to increased income inequality in Africa and Latin America (Ratha, 2013). This suggest that households who do not engage in migration due to such reasons that include lack of means to send a member to work and then benefit from remittances, may remain in low social status than their counterparts. As a result, migration initially raise inequality as households with resources are able to send workers abroad and then receive remittances as a share of their member's earnings (Ratha, 2013). In this instance the main prompt for remittances may be to strengthen or raise inequality between areas and families. Though, remittances do improve social and economic conditions within particular areas of origin nevertheless their immediate outcome is to increase inequality between rural areas and households (Skeldon, 2008). In some instances they may be associated with influencing migration due to income inequality.

Likewise migration and remittances may be the reason for inequality and the inequality may be the reason for migration and remittances vice versa. It is said that usually the strong driver of migration is inequality and these factors are mostly relevant in South Africa in terms of access to land and resources (Rogan et al, 2009). This means families who lack such access may engage in process of migration with the aim of improving the living standard of household. Furthermore international migration may be related to high inequality than internal migration (Rogan et al, 2009). This is because migration abroad produces large valuable remittances inflows and also provides an outlet for people without jobs (Rahman et al, 2015). On the other hand when income inequality does exist migration and remittances become a process to decrease it. Katsel et al (2006), found that in rural Mexico income inequality has been reduced by

remittances. They further noted that in Morocco inequality overall remained fairly constant as poverty was reduced by remittances through boosting mean income of families. Accordingly remittances acted as way out of inequality.

3.4.3 Health

Migration as a coping strategy among households can increase income that can combat health shocks. Remittances can resolve family financial strains and enable the household to achieve access to services such as health-care (Nagarajan, 2009). Members of remittance receiving households show improved well-being than they were before receiving remittances. The remittance receiving households in Mexico and Sri Lanka were found to have lower rates of infant mortality and their children during childhood have higher levels of weight than those of non-remittance receiving households (Ratha, 2013). This concurs with that remittances particularly in low income households are associated with improved health of children in Nicaragua and Guatemala (Nagarajan, 2009). It is thus clear that increased household income through remittances have a significant role in ensuring health of household members.

Additionally, the state of health among household members may be essential for generating income. According to Nagarajan (2009), health is another advantage for poor household's capability to earn income. When household members access health they may be fit to work and contribute to household income. Remittances are considered as key earnings that can ensure household health. In particular the remittances effect can empower large household investment in education and health care (Démurger, 2015). However remittances are not always used directly on health services to ensure household health. In this regard "remittances may not be explicitly invested in increased health care use, they can be spent on goods and services that result in healthier conditions, like better sanitation, housing, nutrition, or access to clean water" (Nagarajan, 2009:51). Moreover social and migrant networks also offer knowledge of resources that could encourage households to adopt healthier lifestyles (Nagarajan, 2009). It is quite apparent that non remittances receiving households are deprived from good health by financial constraints or low income. Good health status is also important in education of children which can be also financed by remittances.

3.4.4 Education

Migration is related to improved life, households also spend remittances on education of their children. As a result migrant children are likely to enroll and attain education. A study from six sub Saharan African countries indicated a strong relationship between average number of household members with secondary education and they are recipients of international remittances (Ratha, 2013). This suggest that remittances pay for education so that children may be educated. To add on this, as remittances boost

household's income to alleviate poverty and access to health services, therefore children of these households are likely to have education since these remittances resolve factors that can affect schooling of children and lead to dropping out. A study in Salvador and Philippines showed that children of migrants once they have enrolled in school, they are less likely to drop out (Ratha, 2013). Whereas these nations are among the top remittances receiving countries globally, it is possible that the motives behind remittances are high. Accordingly remittances results in extended education in migrant's children household (Katseli et al, 2006). In this case if a household was not receiving remittances children would end up dropping out in school and search for better life because of situation in household.

Migrant household children enroll in different education than that they use to enroll in before receiving remittances or where the children of their counterparts enroll. Children of migrants enroll in better schools because remittances cover the costs and thereby investing in their children. For instance in Ethiopia and Sri Lanka migrant children are enrolled in private education as opposed to those of their counterparts (Ratha, 2013). Migrant households ensure that their children attain high quality education. It is argued that spending remittances on education is a particular way of investment that improve household opportunities and contribute to its development (Sikder et al, 2017). Remittances play an integral part in the education of these children by affording the costs of private school while non-remittance receiving households do not afford private education and their children enroll in public school. According to Katseli et al (2006), education level rises with the share of received remittances income. If the household receive remittances and is able to finance education without having to limit income for other needs, this may be the reason for these children to attain higher educational level. This indicate that the way in which household receive remittances may indeed often matter on further level of education (Katseli et al, 2006). This means if a household receive remittances and is extremely poor, it may prioritize remittances to other necessities and further level of education may be considered after these necessities.

Furthermore education of migrant children financed by remittances can be evaluated in different ways. Hagen-Zanker (2015) considered two effects on education of migrant children; 1) effects of remittances on children access to education and 2) effects of remittances on schooling outcomes. It is possible that migrant children can have full access to education while their education attainment is not adequate. As much as migration has positive returns on education access however may not always have positive education attainment (Hagen-Zanker, 2015). In this instance, migration of a parent impose psychological costs on children that may lead to negative impact on their education. The other migration impact on education may be observed on people in the place of origin rather than on migrant children only. Migrants can likewise exchange learning about better advances to improve productivity at home and raise awareness about well-being and education issues, this can result in improved outcomes of human

development (Nagarajan, 2009). Migration have extra knowledge which benefit migrant family and place of origin. They can also have increased awareness of education outcome of their children to be positive.

3.4.5 Investment

Remittances can influence household to spend income by investing as a way of generating more income. Remittances enable the household to participate in high risk economic activities that may perhaps be beneficial and reduce poverty and would be difficult to achieve without remittances (Ratha, 2013). Remittances are integral in offering household access to engage in income generating activities that may be advantageous to the household by being a control force to anti-poverty. Remittances enable access to investments such as self-employment which can improve standard of living for the household (De Haas, 2007). For that reason other families ensure their children access education with the intention of benefiting from them in the foreseeable future. In the spending of remittances to education “the amounts spent on education may essentially be intended to train the next generation for employment in towns or overseas” (Skeldon, 2008:9). This can be other intended benefits of migration by household, perhaps among household income sources remittances has valuable contribution.

Still on impact of remittances on investment Adams (2008) summarized three points in view of spending remittances in investment: (1) The ‘neutral’ view -remittances are just like any other money and are spent in the same way as other income sources; (2) The ‘pessimistic’ view -migration and remittances change household’s spending behaviour in a way that is less beneficial for development and (3) The ‘optimistic’ view -migrant households are more likely to invest in productive investment, e.g. human capital.

Migrant households may spend money on investment or consumption. Nevertheless households consider financial contingencies and this lead household to strictly spend income in a non-risk way that is beneficial to the household. This can facilitate household to spend remittances on investments such as a business, assets and other as it is argued that migration is associated with entrepreneurship (Nagarajan, 2009). For instance, in Mexico and the Philippines remittances inflows are associated with increased small-business investments, higher accumulation of assets and higher levels of self-employment in migrant areas of origin (Lubambu, 2014). Through investing remittances, households might have to choose from available investment opportunities as they cannot invest on opportunities that are not available. Because “the extent to which remittances are spent on investment, not just depends on potential money available for investment, but also the investment opportunities available in a country and the extent to which a household is enterprising’ or more risk-taking” (World Bank, 2006 cited in Hagen-Zanker, 2015:7). Even if investment opportunities are available household may prioritize when

spending remittances income. This also depend on the conditions of the household receiving remittances and need to invest.

On the other hand migrant households save remittances as an insurance for problematic incidents. It has been found that in rural Botswana among migrant households there was large remittances flow to the village experiencing severe droughts (Katseli et al, 2006). This indicate that remittances were the main source of income in households of the village as the presence of drought brought about negative effects on agriculture and livestock in which households depend on for income. Alternatively in some rural areas remittances are invested on housing rather than on agriculture and livestock that may be affected in periods of droughts. In South Africa, housing investment with migrant investing in rural houses for retirement has replaced traditional urban ties based on agriculture and livestock (Posel and Casale, 2003). This investment form may also indirectly impact on migrant household better health.

3.5 The Demographic Characteristics of Migrants

According to United Nations (2017), less than half of international migrants globally are women. Male migrants outnumber female migrants though this varies according to regions in the world. As migration is on the rise, this may reflect an increasing number of female involvement in migration but in some regions this is rare or not taking place. It is stated that since year 2000, there has been increasing proportion of female migrants internationally in all regions except Asia (International Migration Report, 2017). In this regard it is possible that Asian women are trapped by such reasons to migrate and these may perhaps include cultural and religious or other reasons.

The majority of international migrants approximately 74 percent in 2017 were aged 20 to 64 years (International Migration Report, 2017). This means people between these ages are believed to be grown up and fit to work than elders and those younger than these ages. As a result young individuals often migrate for work and when they are older they come back to the household. In this case, “young adult are more likely to have positive net expected return on migration due to their longer remaining life expectancy or social norm requiring them to migrate in search of better life” (Ngobeni, 2014:16). Nonetheless onset of elderly or ill health the instinct is homecoming to areas of origin. In addition to this, majority of young adults are at the beginning of their careers and still looking for opportunities to benefit from, so they may be more prone to migrate as the age also allow them to migrate.

In 2017 the median age of international migrants was 39.2 years, whereas in year 2000 it was 38.0 years (United Nations, 2017). This indicate that there has been an increase in the median age of international migrants and this may be due to occurred migration changes. On the other hand the increase in the median age of migrants vary according to regions. As the median age of migrants in developed regions

that consists of high income countries is high and in developing regions is low, for instance sub-Saharan Africa has the youngest median age of migrants (United Nations, 2017). Such reasons among regions may influence median age of migrants.

As regions differ, this influence changes in migration and migrant characteristics. In South Africa, the increase in labour migration has been linked to growing number of women migrant, leaving rural areas for jobs in urban areas (Posel and Casale, 2003). Particularly such push and pull factors has led women to partake in migration and contribute to trends of migration. Though the “majority of migrant workers in South Africa are men,” the labour migration of women has brought about changes in migrants gender structure (Posel and Casale, 2003:5). Furthermore gender structure of migrants also reflect migration distances as women are less than half in international migrants. In this case, Posel and Casale (2003:6) were right pertaining that “there is evidence that female labour migrants stay closer to home than male migrants.” With this it is clear that in most cases females migrate internally perhaps typically within provinces and districts. Therefore less contributing to international migration.

There is another characteristic that has been noted among migrants and is key to note as it play a role in female migration. This include marital status that either deprive or allow people to migrate. In South Africa married women are less likely to migrate while those who are not married are more likely to migrate (Posel and Casale, 2003). It is argued that among African women migration increase simultaneously with the reported marital status decline (Posel and Casale, 2003). This indicate that most migrant women are not married and are empowered as they look forward to have opportunities that can benefit them. In KwaZulu-Natal, it is claimed that women are increasing in internal migration and are never married, educated and engaged in some form of employment (Rogan et al, 2009). It is further stated that in KwaZulu-Natal 72 percent of employed migrants have never married (Rogan et al, 2009). For this reason, some people may perceive marriage as a barrier to migration and even to some male migrants.

Black Africans from rural areas account for a large number of migrants in the country and KwaZulu-Natal province. These African migrants leave their families behind to find work so they can boost family living standard and conditions. Posel and Casale (2003) noted an increase of households in all races reporting to have one labour migrant as the member of the household. It has been mentioned in this study that most migrants migrate from rural due to lack of economic opportunities that can improve their lives with their families. Therefore the increment of African rural households reporting migrant workers, indicate out migration of rural residents to urban areas for employment (Posel and Casale, 2003). This clearly suggest that Africans are a foremost race among migrants in the country. These Africans come from large different and struggling households. It is said that migrants are likely to be from underprivileged and

multigenerational households (Muhwava, et al, 2013). This may be the reason prompting household members to migrate in order to improve the conditions. When the household is large, it may need one or more of its members to depend on. Household size in KwaZulu-Natal is considered to be key typical that drive migration (Nagarajan, 2009). If the household include elders and large number of children, this may place pressure to members who are at working age to migrate and seek employment. Therefore members may migrate for work and remit earnings to children and elders left behind.

3.6 The Transfer of Remittances

The transfer of remittances by migrants to their households usually take place in two ways. These include formal and informal remittance channels. These channels differ in that they transfer remittances differently. As the volume of remittances is noteworthy, the channels in which these remittances are transferred and received is also important as these channels are also evolving (Techno Serve, 2016). This may have a role to play in capturing remittances sent by migrants and in making such changes with regards to remittances. This part of dissertation will highlight formal and informal channels of remittances as well as the process and perspective of remittances channels to show how these channels function and that such factors contribute to the use of such channel.

3.6.1 Formal Remittance Channel

As its name suggest formal it means it is a legal accepted system of transferring remittances. In this study formal channel of remittances is referred to the transfer of cash and goods sent using regulated channels (Nzabamwita, 2015). Furthermore these remittances are captured by Central Bank's book of account or other national institutions and can also be attained through IMF Balance of Payment Statistics publications and other country reports (Nzabamwita, 2015). Therefore formal channel of remittances consist of formal financial institutions which are regulated and registered systems for transferring remittances. These systems are advantageous in reporting the amount of remittances sent without estimating because every remittances sent are recorded. These systems are controlled severely as they operate under such policies. According to Nzabamwita (2015), formal channels of remittances include banks/ATM, post office, retail, mobile or digital, exchange houses and Money Transfer Operators (MTOs). Though MTOs in South Africa need to be registered with South African Reserve Bank (SARB) as financial institutions that channel remittances.

Remittance channels are growing and they are effective in different ways. Techno Serve (2016), stipulated that over the previous decade from the time when Shoprite introduced money transfer at its Money Market counter in 2006 there has been an explosion of offerings by retailers, banks and mobile

partners targeted to remittance users. Currently banks are mostly used to transfer remittances, these services allow account holders to conduct money transfer to any South African cell phone which the receiver can retrieve at the ATM with the access code and PIN (Techno Serve, 2016). This form of remittances transfer seem to be easily initiated because it can be done at any time and people do not have to stand long queues of sending money as it usually happens. Thus the increase in the use of this channel reflect the recent change from the use of informal channels like sending cash with friends or relatives to the use of other channels like banks/ATMs or through money transfer services offered by supermarkets (World Bank, 2017). Consequently formal systems of remittances promotes development through accommodation and distribution of remittances (Nzabamwita, 2015). This stipulate that these channels have positive effects on government, financial sector, remitters and their families. Additionally formal channels are important because they function as an access point to formal financial inclusion by facilitating and increasing access to financial services (Lubambu, 2014). Particularly they bring contact of individual and households with financial services such as savings (Nzabamwita, 2015). This concurs with that households who receive remittances are likely to have bank accounts than their counterparts (Ratha, 2013). Therefore through formal channels it is easy to capture remittances sent than remittances sent through informal channels.

3.6.2 Informal Remittance Channels

These channels are regarded as illegal since they are not registered as financial institutions that transfer remittances. In these channels remittances are sent informally and they are not recorded, instead they are estimated and counted in financial institutions statistics (Nzabamwita, 2015). The foremost thrust of these systems is that they are not reported and function outside the mainstream of the financial sector (Nzabamwita, 2015). So remittances cannot be captured as these systems function without regulations. They seem to be simple to conduct transfer of remittances. In these systems remittances are carried by migrants themselves, friends and family or sent with transport agencies (Hughes et al, 2007). Some migrants who have difficulties in using formal channels prefer using these informal and they are beneficial to them. In South Africa illiteracy, privacy concerns and distrust are noted as some factors that lead migrants to use informal channels (Nzabamwita, 2015). In addition, informal channels offer benefits to migrants who have limited learning and to illegal migrants as well as short term migrants (Nzabamwita, 2015). Hence informal channels are an active remittances transfer channel for all migrants.

Due to easy access to informal channels people prefer to use them since they don't even require such documents to initiate. Informal channels are a reason for the devastating preponderance of remittances

from South Africa to the SADC region (Hughes et al, 2007). Whereas in South Africa for domestic remittances in 2015 they accounted for about 28 percent, they are third frequently used channel as they were trailing behind banks which account for 43 percent and supermarkets who account for 42 percent (World Bank, 2017). The advantages of using informal channels to transfer remittances may be that they need no documentation and they avoid sending and receiving charges. This concurs with that they are preferable because of costs, speed, convenience, trust and reliability especially if they are in form of goods (Nzabamwita, 2015). However the disadvantage of informal channels is that due to crime such as the presence of robbery, remittances may end up not reaching the household. Regardless of their advantages these channels in some instances are regarded as transfer of illegal cash and goods. According to Nzabamwita (2015), informal channels may be used to enable crime, drugs, smuggling of illegal migrants, fraud and gambling.

3.6.3 The Process and Perspective of Remittances

This is concerned with the system in which remittances are sent and received. Some migrants prefer using such channel to transfer remittances because of such reasons. For instance “the migratory status and the linguistic, cultural or socioeconomic (e.g. income level or profession, age) status of both the remitter and recipient in their respective countries may also influence choice of channel” (Lubambu, 2014:24). Furthermore the environment of both the sender and receiver of remittances may also influence the channel to be used (Nzabamwita, 2015). This may be that other receivers may lack access to other remittance systems. In this case, rural areas have no formal channel institutions for receiving remittances, so recipients have to travel to town to retrieve remittances. As a result informal channel where the migrant or relative carry remittances is more valued and less costly. Additionally this has been noted as the most common African method for migrants in remitting (Nzabamwita, 2015). This seem to have persisted but such changes have been observed in the system.

In this case, informal systems vary according to countries and are regarded differently in countries. This means a system may be formal in one country while informal in another country due to such regulations (Nzabamwita, 2015). Thus, policy implications in the country also influence the system of remittances channel. The so called informal money transfer systems (IMTS) are not in line with South African government’s obligation under finance and investment protocol, thus government has less interest in implementing protocols for these systems (Nzabamwita, 2015). Accordingly the policy framework in South Africa seeks to protect stability and integrity of the market and the obedience of immigration laws. It is also designed to resolve government issues of its broader objectives of market development and

consumer protection (Nzabamwita, 2015). Moreover the policy also seek to ensure the benefits of remittance sending in the country.

3.7 The Theoretical Framework (*New Economics of Labour Migration Theory*)

This study is framed with the New Economics of Labour Migration Theory. As migration is perceived in different perspectives, so even the decision to migrate may be made differently. This theory is concerned with collective decision making for migration. According to Massey et al (1993:436), the crucial understanding of new economics of labour migration approach is that:

“migration decisions are not made by isolated individual actors, but by larger units of related people- typically families or households-in which people act collectively not only to maximize expected income, but also to minimize risks and to loosen constraints associated with a variety of market failures, apart from those in the labour market.”

This suggest that individuals are not in position to make a decision to migrate but rather the household act collectively to make the decision since migration aim is to improve financial wellbeing of the household.

This theory perceives migration as a form of ideal allocation of production factors to the benefit of both sending and receiving areas. The theory argues that decisions about migration are often made in the context of what is best for an entire family or household (Kurekova, 2011), thus migration is way to expand the family's sources of income to overcome financial strains. This is supported by that migrants in developing countries are not only inspired to migrate for their own intentions but also for the survival of the household (Stats SA, 2015). This may be that if there is no income and family welfare, then remittances from migrant family members can be cornerstone of household's economic well-being. Migration befits an attractive substitute for income, which is necessary for a family to sustain living (Porumbescur, 2015). Household members migrate and remit portions of their earnings back home.

The household may ensure in their decision that migration offer positive returns and is made to a destination where positive returns can be achieved. In this case, migration is initiated after comparing the extent net returns in each migration destination and select the destination given that highest value may be achieved (Massey et al, 1993). This also suggest that the decision to migrate is not made in a short period of time since the household need to compare the destinations and the local economy. Thus the desire to migrate and expected net returns of migration lead the decision for migration to develop over a long period of time (Weeks, 2011). This may ensure that economic conditions in the destination area are not failing like local economy. Furthermore the comparisons have to generate benefits and costs as well

as the satisfaction or deprivation of migration in the household (Stark, 1991). Thereafter acknowledging the risks, the family sits down and decide who migrate and who stay in the household.

Employment is one of the foremost major means of generating income for a households. Various households both non farming and farming depend on wages of their members as sources of household income for their livelihoods. So “if local economic conditions deteriorate and employment levels fall, or if a family member is injured and cannot work, the household's livelihoods may be threatened by a reduction or loss of income” (Massey et al, 1993:437). Therefore a households may have to consider other alternatives to maintain the livelihoods and these may include migration of family member to a particular destination to secure employment and bring income to the family. If the family found that foreign economy is well, then migration to that destination may be a strategy for household's source of income that can support the family and reduce risks (Massey et al, 1993). This migration can be regarded as unemployment insurance though such means of generating income may be there, migration may likewise be there to be income source if other means have failed to bring household income.

Migration decision making in a household is also influenced by the society in which the household lives. Societal norms and lifestyle are key in influencing the behaviour of migration and its decisions. Weeks (2011) argue that cultural and social norms are important because they provide the perspective in which the household might consciously consider migration as necessary to be initiated. In communities these social and cultural norms also consider demographic in the decision for migration and this can demotivate migration to occur in some way. Such social norms can emphasize the importance of the community while discouraging migration to occur (Weeks, 2011). However as societies are different this may also depend on whether the household lives in traditional and modern type of society. In traditional society decisions for migration tend to be bias. These societies are mostly found in rural areas, where in most cases family work together for its survival even on migration decisions while also being bias.

Rural households seem to have no conflict in that they work collectively in managing their living. In this rural community of concern, tradition is taking part and is considered in all decisions to be made. In households where decision making is made by men, men may use their control to maximize income, then they may often decide on themselves to be migrants (Posel, 2004), rather than their women. They may have considered what is best for the family. In this rural community, patriarchy is playing a huge role and decision making involve patriarchy. In this instance, women in rural areas are more prone to be the subject of man's will in determining whether to migrate or not (Posel and Casale, 2003), since their anticipated role is in childcare and this prohibit their migration to work. In these communities, the authority to forbid women to migration and enforce their roles is with chief, father and the husband (Posel, 2004).

However since there is democracy, some of the things are changing and there is also a demand for income, some women are seen partaking in migration typically those who do not have husbands.

Additionally, migration beliefs may become the community beliefs in such instances. The decisions to migrate in the community encourage men to be the migrants. In traditional community, the expectation of gender norms and gender division of labour is part of their identity and consequently men are expected to behave well and be providers in their households (Hadebe, 2010). This means decision to migrate lies in that men have to go for work and remit money to support the family. Women have to be left behind to look after children since it cannot be the woman who migrate instead of the man as that man may become disrespected and lose his dignity in the community (Hadebe, 2010). In most cases rural decision making always consider what keep a man's dignity and respect in the community.

3.7.1 The Perpetuation of International and Internal Movement

Although migration occur as a result of diversifying household income that offer better livelihoods and minimize risks in households, such conditions facilitate the possibility of migration to occur. The conditions that initiate international migration might be quite different in relation to those that perpetuate migration through time and space (Massey et al, 1993). These conditions also play a role for household migrants in reaching their destinations. In this case migrant networks can increase the likelihood of migration. They are defined as "sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin" (Massey et al, 1993:448). Such interaction among certain individuals also make migration easy to occur by lowering the cost and risks of migration.

In this instance it is possible for one to migrate in a place where there are people he or she share such ties with them. Hence if one person has migrated, others may talk to that person about employment opportunities and then join that person. A study of Filipino immigrants in Hawaii indicated that networks functioned well to lead them to jobs in Hawaii (Massey et al, 1994). It is claimed that network connections create a type of social capital that can attract individuals upon to access foreign employment (Massey et al, 1993). This increases the possibility of migration as a strategy to household financial wellbeing.

3.8 The Conceptual Framework

In general, migration and remittances are a significant aspect of livelihoods in rich areas as migrants search for a better living. "Migration is essentially a response to structural disequilibria between and within sectors of an economy, or between countries. Economic disparities between and within countries strongly

influence migration” (Adepoju, 2006:26). As a result, essentially migration and remittances are potentially valuable to the socio economic situations of various nations (IOM, 2012). This part of the dissertation briefly explore concepts of migration and remittances.

3.8.1 Migration

Migration across and within countries and continents has been initiated ever since the origin of human evolution. Thus the amount of migration in the modern world is larger than ever it was in the past (Nzabamwita, 2015). Migration concept is appropriate to both humans and animals depending on the situation but there is no existing universal acknowledged description of migration (Hristoski and Sotiroski 2012:3). In this context, migration is described as “the movement of persons away from their place of usual residence, either across an international border or within a state” (IOM, 2011:135). This movement is facilitated by such reasons and can either be voluntary or involuntary/forced.

Voluntary migration is where migrants are well up-to-date, capable and willing to migrate (Weeks, 2011). This encompasses of households or individuals who prepare for migration and able to finance it costs. On the other hand, forced migration do not involve features of willingness to migrate but people migrate in their usual places of residence against their will due to environmental and safety reasons (Webster, 2017). These involves natural disasters and persecution that threatens the lives of individuals, families or communities. Additionally the other reason may be development-induced displacement. Unlike involuntary migrants, among voluntary migrants, a dominant reason that encourage migration is the job market. In the view of Adepoju (2006), actually the absolute increase in the figures of people enduring hardships as well as developing and broadening inequality in incomes and opportunities within countries, prompt people to migrate. Hence people tactically allocate their accumulated wealth to destinations where there will be better rewards for them and their household’s improvement (Massey et al, 1994). This means spatial location of economic opportunities and jobs results in migration and largely form the direction of its movements.

Conceptually, the international and internal migrations takes place in addition to one another. In the assertion Adepoju (2006) of both international and internal migration are the results of multifaceted social and economic factors, while the key determination is migrant's pursuit of better economic well-being. It has been pointed out that migration provides better opportunities for socio-economic development to migrants and their households (Dzomba, 2014). This means economic development encourage both international and internal migration especially when people have means and willingness to migrate.

Migration has been conceptualized as an enduring circulation process in origin and destination areas. The literature of migration over the years has been encompassed by several concepts ranging from circular migration, labour migration, rural-urban migration, commercial migration and other (Adepoju, 2006). In these concepts, the concept that best capture the principle and specificity of migration dynamics in Africa is the circular migration (Adepoju, 2006). Circular migration starts and end at household as migrants move back and forth between area of origin and destination across and within national boundaries. The circular labour or temporary migration is a specific form of migration, which emerged to be a well-known feature in South Africa (Dzomba, 2014), motivating migration between rural and urban.

Rural urban migration- migration has been characterized by migrants from rural to urban areas in southern Africa. Ever since the discovery of mines in South Africa, people have migrated from rural to urban areas in search of better of opportunities (Stapleton, 2015). It can be said that migration to cities is a response to perceived greater jobs and other economic opportunities. Persistent disparities and difficulties in economic opportunities between poorer rural and richer urban areas increase migration in Africa and elsewhere (Adepoju, 2006). Further noted that individuals move when they are incapable to fulfill their desires within the economic opportunities in their areas of origin. Additionally, individual and household characteristics encourage the decision to migrate among migrants (Schoorl et al, 2000). On the other hand, migrant networks has further facilitated migration. Migrant networks offer support for individuals and families before, during and after migration (Schoorl, 2000). These are power connections for migrants to succeed in destination and send remittances back home.

3.8.2 Remittances

Remittances refer to the money and goods that are transmitted to households by migrant workers working outside their communities of origin. They are “private international monetary transfers that migrants make, individually or collectively” (IOM, 2011:178). According to Faist cited in (Nzabamwita, 2015:20) “the flow of money, goods, knowledge and universal ideas - called remittances, are prevalent - and can have a positive effect on what it is called development effect in the countries of emigration.” It is documented that two thirds of circular migrants are employed in jobs for payment and two thirds of these migrant workers, remit something back home in rural (Collinson et al, 2006). Remittances earned and transferred by migrants can be either tangible or intangible. Those that are tangible consist of remittances like cash and goods, whereas intangible remittances consist of knowledge and value. It is said that there are different kinds of remittances’.

It is argued that remittances have been firmly embedded in the historical development of migration structures. Remittances are conceptualized as cash, goods and social remittances. Cash and goods remittances are considered as reallocation of migrant earnings which offer additional source of income to households that allow them to consume or invest more than they use to (Nzabamwita, 2015). This agree with the findings that migrant remittances are persistent links among migrants and their households as well as community and countrywide levels, help keep up and improve livelihoods of poor households, by furnishing basic needs, paying basic services, education fees for siblings or children and healthcare in particular, investing in real estate and improving agricultural production (Adepoju, 2006; Dzomba, 2014). On the other hand social remittances are referred to “the innovative ideas, practices, mindsets, values and attitudes, norms of behaviour, cultural influence, work ethics and social capital (knowledge, experience and expertise) that migrants mediate and transfer from host to home country” (Nzabamwita, 2015:22). Further notes they include features of skills, personalities, worldviews and behaviors brought by migrants when returning home. Such channels are used to transfer remittances.

Formal and informal channels are categorized channels that transfer cash and goods remittances. Though social remittances are transferred through a series of cross-linking modalities (Nzabamwita, 2015). Formal transfer channels are legal whereas informal remittances transfer channels are illegal and remittances sent via informal channels are estimated rather than counted due to unavailability of information. The transfer of remittances is discussed above from page 34-37.

3.9 Conclusion

According to the research the study has gathered such information, as this study looks at the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. The study ascertained that migration and remittances are not growing in great levels internationally only but also internally. When it comes to rural places the study ascertained that migration is prevalent due to low economic opportunities. This prompt people to migrate to urban areas in order to earn income and improve household's livelihoods. Consequently in most cases, migration and remittances found to have positive effects on household's livelihoods and the area of origin. It has been also indicated that young men outnumber women in migration and in South Africa per se, African rural households account for large number of migrants. When it comes to transfer of remittances, the remitting member uses the preferable and possible channel on receivers to transfer remittances. Additionally, the discussion of the New Economics of Labor Migration theory provided a conceptual understanding on migration decision to be a result of household engaging collectively to improve its livelihoods and minimize financial contingencies. Lastly concepts of migration and remittances were briefly explored.

Chapter 4: Presentation and Discussion of Findings

4.1 Introduction

This study describes the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. The in-depth interviews were conducted with a total of twenty participants from each migrant household. The purpose of the study was to obtain answers to the research questions stated in page 5 in Chapter 1.

This chapter specifically deals with the results pertaining to the above research questions. Content and thematic analysis was used to analyse the data obtained through in-depth interviews and to develop themes, which give structure to this chapter. The presentation and discussion of findings will begin with a profile of participants and their households which intends to give a background for the findings. Themes will be presented through the use of new economics of labor migration theory and literature. The new economics of labor migration theory which has been chosen as the theoretical framework for this study guides the presentation and analysis of the findings. This theory views migration decisions as a household or family decisions rather than individual's decision. According to this theory the family or household act together to make a decision not only to maximize income but also to minimize risks and financial contingencies.

4.2 The Participants and Households

In overall, interviews were conducted with 7 males and 13 females. This reflects the distribution by age, especially in older ages. Table A contains the demographic data of these twenty participants and households who were reached through purposive and snowball sampling. The ages of participants ranged from 23 to 70, with an average age of 35 years. All participants confirmed that they have migrants in their households and they receive remittances. The majority of participants are old adults where they are related to migrants by being parents, aunties or uncles. Although some participants are children, nephews and siblings of migrants. Moreover the migrant's households where participants came from consist of large number of people in the household. The number of people in households ranged from 4 to 14 with the average number of 6 people and there are only 3 participants who reported to be 5 or less in their households. All participants were Zulus and they all came from Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith.

Table A – Profiling of Participants

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Ethnic Group	Marital Status	No. in hh	R/ship to Migrant/s	Year of migration	Migrated to
1. Mr Mdluli	Male	67	Zulu	Married	6	Nephew	1993	Johannesburg
2. Sabelo	Male	35	Zulu	Single	11	Brothers	2011, 2013	Johannesburg
3. Ntombi	Female	34	Zulu	Single	5	Sister	2005	Johannesburg
4. Mama Dludlu	Female	56	Zulu	Married	6	Son	2010	Johannesburg
5. Mr Khuzwayo	Male	56	Zulu	Single	13	Aunt	1970s	Johannesburg
6. Mama Mkhize	Female	52	Zulu	Single	13	Son, nephew	2009	Johannesburg
7. Sphelele	Male	35	Zulu	Single	10	Brother	2007	Durban
8. Mama Ntuli	Female	50	Zulu	Single	4	Daughter	2018	Johannesburg
9. Ndumiso	Male	24	Zulu	Single	14	Cousin	2009	Durban
10. Gogo Hlabisa	Female	69	Zulu	Married	5	Daughter	2014	Johannesburg
11. Mr Makhoba	Male	66	Zulu	Married	6	Migrant	1974	Newcastle
12. Mama Mchunu	Female	54	Zulu	Widowed	8	3 Sons	2007, 2010	Johannesburg
13. Melokuhle	Female	33	Zulu	Single	6	Brother	2003	Johannesburg
14. Ncaml	Female	35	Zulu	Single	7	Sister	2006	Johannesburg
15. Mama Malinga	Female	47	Zulu	Single	7	Son	2018	Mpumalanga
16. Mr Mavimbela	Male	40	Zulu	Single	9	Sister, 2 nephews	2006, 2009	Johannesburg Ladysmith
17. Wiseman	Male	23	Zulu	Single	9	Father, sister	1979, 2014	Manguzi Pinetown
18. Mama Mtolo	Female	42	Zulu	Married	9	Husband	2001	Johannesburg
19. Gogo Cele	Female	67	Zulu	Married	7	Daughter	2004	Johannesburg
20. Mama Shitolo	Female	52	Zulu	Married	6	Husband	1999	Cape Town

4.3 The Findings

This section presents themes that emerged from the analysis of the data. These themes include household circumstances, household sources of income, the impact of migration and remittances on the household, the transfer of remittances as well as educational level of household migrant members in keeping with the new economics of labour migration approach.

4.3.1 Household Circumstances

The circumstances experienced by households lead to the incident of migration and remittances. This is partly because migration often offers financial opportunities, not only to migrants but also to their particular households and families (Dzomba, 2014). These financial opportunities are significant in supporting households and improving their livelihoods. In this study, participants spoke about the reasons for migration, decision to migrate and how migrant/s actually migrated. These will be discussed in this section.

4.3.1.1 Reason for Migration

Participants expressed that the reasons that compelled their relatives to migrate from the household was to search for work and then send remittances to the household. According to Melokuhle (female, 33 years):

“Our grandmother died and after that we had no provider or someone to look after the household and its needs, so as he was the only male person in household he had to do something to bring bread (food) on the table because the situation at home wasn’t really convincing, it was not good at all. He then migrated to look for a job so that he can support the household and care for its needs.”

And Mr Mavimbela (male, 40 years):

“It was just... living conditions...forced them that they must find jobs because at the end it is needed to work so that the household can survive.”

Moreover Ndumiso (male, 24 years) added that:

“He wanted to better our living standard, build a more comfortable and solace home for us”

This concurs with that migrants react to push and pull reasons, migrating for employment to earn income to improve household’s standard of living (Nagarajan, 2009). Thus this reflects that household or

individual tactics directed at easing the prevalence of poverty is by means of migration and remittances. For some households though, their living standard and resource constraints influenced the migration for economy. Since economic migration is generally undertaken in response to household resource constraints (Nagarajan, 2009).

Participants expressed that their relatives migrated for economically motivated reasons, which are helpful to the entire household. In this instance Sabelo (male, 35 years), in response to the question, on the main reasons that prompt migration stated that:

“Is because he has to grow as he is boy, he has to look after himself and be able to build a home and be independent as a man... show that he has grown up, he is a man. Also that he went to study, so he had to do what he was studying for as he liked to study what he was studying.”

And Ncami (female, 35 years) asserted that:

“She had to be independent. She wanted to be independent and also upkeep her child.”

These extracts show that migrants migrate from areas of origin to uplift themselves and achieve financial independence. It is said that people migrate both within and outside their countries for the reason that their expectations in the area of origin are lower than those in respect of the destination area (Renklin, 2017). As a result economic migration is noted as a common reason for migration and in general, it is thought that through economic migration people tend to migrate from rural to urban areas as rich areas with higher wages and more jobs opportunities (Francis, 2014). These higher wages and job opportunities in developed areas may also influence the decisions of migration in households.

4.3.1.2 Migration Decision

It is argued that migration is used by households as a means to diversify their income and improve their capability and adaptability to respond to such shocks that may somehow interfere consumption (Nagarajan, 2009). Therefore it is well known that in some instances migration decisions are generally made by households. Thus participants mentioned that their relatives migrated after the family engaged in a discussion for migration process. According to Mama Mtolo (female, 42 years):

“In that case we engaged in a discussion as a family with mother in law also and we found that it will be good when its him who leave as there is no employment here and we have children so as a wife it is almost expected even in the community it is well know that woman have to look after children while men are working to support the livelihoods

of their families. You also know that men cannot raise children as women thus it is women's duty."

And Gogo Hlabisa (female, 69):

"there was just a discussion due to the situation that being here it happen that you hope to secure employment but not...do you see that matter?... search for it where you search as nowadays it's time for CVs and so on, then expect that you will be called just like that nonetheless it don't happen or so... up until we see that time is goes on as well as years also..."

While Mama Mtolo (female, 42 years) asserts that:

"We discussed it as family that they are going to look for jobs... there was a need since there was no one, life was not going well."

Rogan et al (2009) noted that a number of push and pull factors have been known as determinants of the decision to migrate. This in keeping with the new economics of labour migration, which recognizes family as part of the migration trade-offs, costs and benefits, hence the decision to migrate is a mutual decision taken by the migrant and the household. The household is therefore important to consider in remittances and migration questions (Nagarajan, 2009).

The study also found that some migrants did not engage with their households with regards to the decisions to migrate although the intentions to migrate were to help their households. Sphelele (male, 35 years) stated that:

"He got the job, our neighbour got him a job, he migrated just like that, and there was no discussion that took place in the household about his migration."

And Ndumiso (male, 24 years) states that:

"I won't say there was a process with regards to his migration decision but as man growing up, you know that uhm... when you grow up you face more responsibilities and challenges, (you know)... that so Afrocentric, everybody know, every man know that when they grow up they have to cater for their families"

This in assertion of Weeks (2011:282) "at the individual level, migration is viewed as an investment in human capital (investments in individuals that can improve their economic productivity and thus their overall standard of living)." Hence this also improve household's wellbeing and livelihoods as people migrate and reach their destination in such ways.

4.3.1.3 How Household Member/s Migrated

The way in which migrants migrate and reach their destinations is often influenced by other people. Renklin (2017) argues that migrant's destination is often through their relatives and friends living at the place of destination, who therefore provide information regarding the place. According to Mr Mdluli (male, 67 years):

“Upon his leaving we were at Johannesburg with his aunt in law (my wife) so he talked to us because of opportunities as it is known that jobs are easily accessible in Johannesburg so it was just that... he was coming to us.”

This confirms the assertion of Qiu and Wu (2016) that households are better insured in the community risk sharing networks once one or more family member has migrated. It has been noted that with the assistance of social networks, migrants move across class and spatial limits, which also avoid structural disadvantages (Renklin, 2017). Other migrants also get access to jobs through these networks. For instance Ntombi (female, 34 years) stated that:

“She was going to someone who is a family relative, who got her a job.”

And Mama Mkhize (female, 52 years) further emphasized that:

“They migrated to one of our extended family member who was in Johannesburg, who is also the one who told them about the job opportunity. I was here at home by the time they were leaving.”

Massey et al (1993) concurs with this finding where network connections establish a type of social capital that individuals can draw upon to secure access to employment in destination. The results show that networks play a significant role in migration and enable poorer households to afford the costs of migration (Hagen-Zenker, 2010).

However some participants came out to state that their relatives migrated on their own without joining any migrants who may be friends or relatives to them in destinations. Mama Ntuli states that:

“uhm she... what will I say...? An opportunity arose because of a phone call she received that she has to do an interview. Then ...She arrived there to do it and wait for couple of time she wait and I heard her phoning me to say, it is said that on a certain day she is starting at work.”

And Mr Makhoba (male, 66 years):

“No (head shakes) I was going on my own sorrow. That time trains were still being used, I woke up in the morning here and boarding the bicycle taken from some boy whom I said please lend me a bicycle. I went and arrived at Newcastle station, where there were jobs that time, they have already called me. By the time I arrived they took me, that was my way in to employment, we then went and we were told to register, we registered... ohw it was then my employment from there.”

This suggest that such factors drove migrants to take risk by migrating, thus this benefit them and their families. Hence migration is a specific process that tends to pull people who are educated, skilled and highly motivated from their sending communities (Massey et al, 1993). In addition the social capital also play a role among the migration as social capital draw upon individuals and facilitate migration between areas (Stapleton, 2015) and generally can be understood as an individual's access to migration, for migrants to earn income for their households.

4.3.2 Household Sources of Income

The study found that remittances are an important source of household's income. To underpin this, studies generally have documented that in migrant households, remittances have been a main source of income (Posel and Casale, 2003). Among household's sources of income they have higher contribution and in some households they are the overall source of income. According to Wiseman (male, 23 years):

“There are no other sources of income except the ones that are... it's only them who provide the household with source of income.”

And Mama Dludlu (female, 56 years):

“It is him who is giving us money as there is no one who is even receiving grant.”

This concurs with the findings of Hughes et al (2007) where remittances form a major contribution to household incomes in the region of southern Africa. They further found that the importance of remittances to the incomes of migrant households may also reveal household difficulties in accessing incomes in the area of origin. Therefore remittances are a rescue to household's financial difficulties when there is no other income or stable income. Sabelo (male, 35 years) said that:

No there is no other (source of income) at the moment, because before we used a tractor for fetching wood in the forest and then sell them. Since it's (tractor) broken it is currently quite. The remittances sent by him are key and overall household income.

And Mama Ntuli (female, 50 years):

“I am also trying but she is the one who we can say she is really working in the household.”

For instance the importance and contribution of remittances have been noted by many studies. Pendelton et al. (2006) cited in (Rogan et al, 2009) found that in all households surveyed in their study, the large number of these households received remittances, which in most cases make the largest amount of yearly income in these households. Moreover in the KwaZulu-Natal Income Dynamics Survey (KIDS) survey more than third of all households in 1993 and 1998 either received kind or cash remittances during the year of survey (Rogan et al, 2009). This suggest that remittances have been long being the main or large source of income in households.

Nonetheless as remittances are key source of income in these households, some participants mentioned social grants as key income source in their households. Mr Mdluli (male, 67 years) said that:

“We are now earning pension and then remittances from him also... As he has children, he is just supporting with that he is giving to us as we survive with pension. He is just really supporting not that we depend on him, we don't depend on him because he currently have so many demanding needs and as his children are at institutions of higher education, he also support them.”

And Mr Mavimbela (male, 40 years):

“It is money of my mother's old age grant, foster care grant of her two grandchildren who are my nephews as well as remittances from these households' migrant members.”

Thus social grants are an important source of income to many households. Posel et al (2006:6) found that “the old age pension, is one of a number of social assistance grants in South Africa (other significant grants being those for people with disabilities and those for poor children).” Furthermore according to (South African Government News Agency, 2011) the 2010 General Household Survey (GHS) discovered that in four provinces across South Africa grants were prevalent as a source of income in households. Likewise according to Stats SA, 44.9% of households across South Africa are reliant on grants, whereas the other 62.4% rely on incomes from salaries (South African Government News Agency, 2011). Where these incomes also include remittances. Mama Shitolo (female, 52 years) said:

“It is income from him as he is working as well as child support grant of these three children.”

And Ntombi (female, 34 years):

“It is child support grant as well as that she is working.”

Mama Mtolo (female, 42 years) added that:

"I may say that we got money through the remittances from my husband and child support grant..."

Ndumiso further stated that:

"it's granny's pension as well as remittances from Xolani."

"Along with social assistance from its well-developed welfare system, remittances and public transfers contribute a significant component of South African household income" (Nagarajan, 2009:8). It has been noted that households obtain salaries from many forms of employment, together with remittances, pension and income from businesses (Ngatane, 2019). This reflects that among other income sources for households, remittances and social grants have been major sources of income in households they have such impact.

4.3.3 The Impact of Migration and Remittances on Migrant Households

Migration and remittances affects households positively and this confirms their standard of living. Migration driven by remittances have come to be a rational survival means to sustain the living standard in variety of low income nations (Nzabamwita, 2015). This is because migration consist of the transfer of knowledge, resources and networks that are unreachable to households and remittances are one of the least contended links through which migration can improve living standards and human capital outcomes (Nagarajan, 2009). This section will discuss the remittances and household expenditure, challenges of migration and remittances to households as well as the relationship between household and migrant member to show how migration and remittances affect migrants households.

4.3.3.1 The Remittances and Household Expenditure

The remittances shape household expenditure. Posel and Casale (2003:14) in their study of migration and remittances indicated that:

"Between 1993 and 1999, a large and growing proportion of rural African households from which migration occurred reported receiving remittance income; and at the least, the value of these transfers continued to represent a significant share of the household's total expenditure."

Several studies reveals that remittances are mostly used to finance household expenditures such as consumption and investment (Nagarajan, 2009). Remitted funds can be used to balance out the acquisition of basic needs or to increase the consumption as well as on productive investments such as in education, health or infrastructure (Hagedom et al, 2013). A number of participants stated that

remittances from migrant members in households are primarily spent on food, education and building households. According to Mr Khuzwayo (male, 56 years):

“In particular uh... the household needs... it’s just food, which is the need of money... also to try for children to further their studies in educational institutions.”

And Mr Mdluli (male, 67 years):

“In the needs of food ... just food and other... building the home as well as supporting his children in institutions of higher education.”

This concurs with what has been found by South African Migration Project (SAMP) that a large number of households purchase food and other basic goods with remittances and the purchase of these primary goods accounts for two to six times more than other kinds of expenditure (Hughes et al, 2007). Moreover Ndumiso (male, 24 years) stated that:

“We buy food and with the remaining money sometimes we buy cement and I will go fetch the sand in the river and make blocks just to extend houses... sometimes its cement, sometimes we buy maybe tiles...”

This shows that households use remittances for consumption rather than investments. As “food and housing are some of the most basic household investments, covering the needs that must be met first in any household... spending in these areas may indicate that a household had inadequate supplies of food and shelter before remittances” (Hagedom et al, 2013:17). Furthermore on this, a research in Nigeria also indicated that a huge amount of income from remittances is spent on housing (Parida et al, 2015). As a result remittances increase the expenditure of food and housing while enabling greater consumption of finance.

In addition, remittances help reduce poverty through provision of basic or supplementary income (Adarkwa, 2017). Participants expressed other primary needs of households that are met through remittances. For instance Mama Dlodlu (female, 56 years) on the spending of remittances said:

“On food, electricity, there is also a child who is studying in a school which is in town, we also pay for her fees in school and so many needs of the household.”

And Sabelo (male, 35 years):

“Remittances help when there is shortage of needs in the household like food, they buy household food or even if there is someone who is sick and need to be rushed to hospital,

thus remittances are used as well as for young children who are schooling to get pocket money when they go to school.”

In this case, the prevailing research in SADC countries indicate that remitted funds are significant in allowing households to meet basic needs and purchase basic services (Hughes et al, 2007). It is noted that remittances contributes to incomes for service delivery as households pay for education, health, water, electricity as well as other services provided by the state (Hughes et al, 2007; Vladicescu et al, 2008). While Nagarajan (2009) further noted that remittances help sustain household consumption in the course of an unanticipated health shock.

It is thus clear that migration plays an integral role in households since it general impact on household's consumption smoothing positive (Qiu and Wu, 2016). Participants further stated other needs that are covered by remittances. According to Mama Ntuli (female, 50 years):

“Yes food and pay for insurance like funeral cover, since in the stokvels I'm the one who is trying to pay.”

Mama Malinga (female, 47 years):

“In grocery... and also much more of what the household lack as well as clothing, as children often ask to wear something.”

This postulate that, as remittances befits extra income for households, it is likely that the change they encounter may have effects in the composition of spending in some particular goods (Medina & Cardona, 2010). Moreover as some households become able to afford and satisfy their needs with remittances, it has been concluded that remittances are an essential mechanism for rural families to escape poverty (Nagarajan, 2009). Although at some point they can bring some challenges.

4.3.3.2 Challenges of Migration and Remittances

As much as migration and remittances have positive effects on households, they are associated with such challenges. However participants said there are no serious problems that are due to migration it is just those minor situations that need them at home. According to Mr Makhoba (male, 66 years):

“There's nothing serious, can you see if you are not in the household my boy, your things are damaged because even the hack you may come back lost, as there is no one who look it for you yeah, you see even when grandmother was still alive people came here to lend things and grandmother would give them, she ended up not giving them because these things were not brought back.”

This suggest that members who migrate have special roles in households and these roles may shift to other people but if there is no one to perform such roles it means it would wait for the migrant. It is noted that the transition period from adjustment to adaptation begins when available household members take over the roles and responsibilities of those who migrated (Vladicescu et al, 2008). Nonetheless in some situations this does not happen. As Wiseman (male, 23 years) asserted that:

“yeah... there are such things that happen in that way because there are some points where... like (thinking)... some situations basically need my father since he is not around... no one could be able to do such things and also for my sister as she has kids too, she is also a parent and some other times probably the kids need her and so she is away while her kids needs her.”

And Mr Khuzwayo (male, 56 years):

“Yah sometimes there are such challenges as there are some challenges that do not need money... that needs people who are old so that you can have suggestions because money is not an individual's life, there are cases where you need a person besides that you need money.”

This in keeping with the assertion of Vladicescu et al (2008) that when a member or members have migrated some household roles may not be performed. This means other available members may not be in a position of performing such roles and need the migrant member himself or herself. This bring some gaps in the household daily life activities and also weakens some bonds between members. As Gogo Cele (female, 67 years) claimed that:

“One of the challenges is that she hardly come back at home because of work, so she lack time to bond with her children and us as her family. And the other challenge....no there is no other challenge that I have noted.”

Accordingly it is clear that migration affect parenting roles (Vladicescu et al, 2008), as it separates children from their parents. Hall and Posel (2019) asserts that previous researches of kinship in southern Africa have reported the extended and complex structure of households where household members were absent due to migration and children live with other family members rather than their biological parents.

4.3.3.3 The Relationship between Household and Migrant Member

Participants were of the point that as there are no serious challenges brought by migration even the relationship between the household and migrant member is said to be good. Thus individuals only migrate for employment and they tend to return after a while so this also influence their relationship. The good

relationship between migrants and their households reflects that households influence the migration of their members so as to boost their financial welfare (Collison et al, 2006). In terms of the relationship between households and migrant members Mama Dludlu said:

“It is still good... He doesn't always come back he otherwise skip one month or two months and come back... he doesn't go for a while without coming back... If he is not coming back he has the right to phone us and he do phone to check up on us and ask mom what are you in shortage of? Do you still have money in your account? And I do say I still have money boy.”

And Mama Mtolo (female, 42 years):

“...it is still good...they do come back, if one didn't come back he do report why he didn't come back. Such as in Good Friday all of them didn't come back...”

Collison et al (2006) argue that communication and remittance data confirmed that the links between families and their migrant members are quite solid. On their study, they discovered that a surprising number of temporary migrants who have communicated with their rural households in the two weeks prior to the interview. This agree with what has been found by Redehegn et al (2019) that notwithstanding the growing rate of migration, families of origin are still tied closely with their migrant communities and perhaps migrant visits in public holidays is constant. Thus this can reflect a good relationship and that migrants are tied to their households. Additionally, Melokuhle (female, 33 years) said:

“The relationship is still good...He do come back, he really do come back, I can't even count how often but he do come back.”

While Mama Shitolo (female, 52 years) said:

“Yeah... auu! It is still good... (Laughing...) eish... he hardly come back because of the distance and employment, perhaps he come back twice or 3 times a year. However we also use visit him with my children especially in during school holidays but not every year.”

This confirms the conjecture of (Gelderblom and Kok, 1994) cited in (Collison et al, 2006) that as the circulation of migration among urban and rural areas is quite concentrated, it could be believed that when migrants arrive in urban simply form bases of the rural household and not entirely new and independent urban based households. This means that people who migrate temporarily from areas with limited employment opportunities to places of employment, retain a base in their families of origin to which they would return eventually (Heintz and Posel, 2008). For that reason this maintains the relationship of a

migrant and his or her household in rural. Consequently the relationship that exist among households and their migrants, influence households to perceive migration and remittances in such way.

4.3.4 Perceptions of Migration and Remittances by Households

As migration is associated with such effects on household's lives, households have such perceptions towards the role of migration and remittances in their households. In this case Mama Mkhize (female, 52 years) asserted that:

"I see it as a good thing because we survive through it and most of what we have is through migration and remittances from my boys. Thus I perceive it as a helping process in this household."

And Wiseman added that:

"what I can say uhm... there is no problem with that... because they are doing what's best for whole of us, probably if it was... the ball was on their course, probably they would be around the family, spend some time with the family but since it's like... that's why they need to..."

This in keeping with the assertion of De Haas (2007) that such evidence indicate that remitted funds work as an insurance income and safeguard households from income shocks that may be due to economic deterioration and other factors. Thus households perceive migration and remittances as a valuable process through which they benefit from. In addition to safeguarding the household against income shocks, migration and remittances often contribute positively on household's livelihoods (De Haas, 2007).

4.3.4.1 The Impact of Migration on Family Unit

Some participant were of the view that although migration and remittances impact positively on the household livelihoods but it is not good on the other side. According to Gogo Hlabisa (female, 69 years):

"Though you won't upkeep or accommodate all needs but then that... even though in some cases you can see that you not yet there but then you thank what you've just got... but then it's not good to be far away from each other. It's not good because there are lot of things... as where she is, money is needed. She could be using this money here in the household... do you see that?"

It is believed that the understanding of improved livelihoods is through the satisfaction of basic needs and attainment of consumer goods (Jung, 2015). Accordingly the most important part of migration is that it brings additional income to the household and can hence ease budget for household members in the

place of origin, however on the other side it can impose social cost on the household (Démurger, 2015). Moreover in this case Sphelele (male, 35 years) said:

“In my opinion, I can say that... uhm it doesn't treat me well because we're separated. We're not living together but then because of that he is out of the household due to work ay... mhh there is no much I can say on that.”

And Mama Mtolo (female, 42 years):

I can say that it is of important to the household and it has played a significant role in changing the situation in the household. We really appreciate even though it brought separation of the family but it is so important especially that we are able to afford most household needs.

Thus as much as migration separate households with their members but the remittances somehow serve as an appreciation of migration. Perhaps without remittances migration would be perceived negatively. For instance (Ndlovu and Tirege, 2018) noted that at times unlikely expectations among those members who stayed in the household behind can lead to hatred especially if they feel remittances are not enough and this hatred can result in breakdown of households. Because migration entails the absence of an economically active member of the family while the loss of this member's time inputs to both market and household production (Démurger, 2015). As a result in households the course of becoming used to loss of a member due to migration may consist of eliminating that member from daily life of the household, consequently periodic visits by migrant become awkward (Vladicescu et al, 2008). This is due to the reason that the household has adapted to live without the member.

4.3.5 Channels of Transferring Remittances to Households

Remittances are involved in different channels through sending customers as well as receivers. This consist of the processing of related information from/to other several providers and platforms functioning among sending and receiving channel (Mela et al, 2017). These platforms are either formal or informal and channeling remittances often rest on which one is preferable by both the sender and recipient. In the study, formal channels appeared to be the most used platform to transfer remittances. Mama Dludlu (female, 56 years) stated that:

“He use to send it at the bank. He said I must open a bank account so that he can send it at the bank.”

According to Sabelo (male, 35 years):

“He used to send them at the bank because coming here to bring remittances would be a difficult task so if he send them at the bank, he become able to continue with his activities there without having to travel here.”

Peberdy (2017) coincides with this finding that South African migrants are more prone to remit money in formal channels. This reflects that migrants and their households are familiar with formal channels (banks) and perhaps they trust banks and are accessible to them. It is noted that generally banks offer money transfer capacities that are quick and safe (Truen et al, 2005). Whereas the improvement in banks as channels also offer cell phone banking and other migrants and households use these platforms to transfer and receive remittances. According to Mama Mtolo (female, 42 years):

“Currently I have Capitec bank account so every time or in most cases he just transfers it through cellphone banking and then I retrieve in ATM. Before he use to send them into my bank account. However during the time after finding employment he use to send them through post office as I had no bank account and we just saw that bank account is needed as there is also no que at bank as it is in retailers.”

And Gogo Cele (female, 67 years):

“Before she use to send it at the post office or at the bank account of my husband. When time goes on she transfer it on the cellphone of my younger daughter or her old son and they retrieve it from the ATM. You know that there are many ways of sending and receiving money nowadays.”

Mela et al (2017) argue that technological advance have offered access to the payment elements of the channels for remittances. The use of these channels by households and their migrant members postulate that they have easy access to them. Moreover the advancement in technology also offer the transfer of remittances in retails and sometimes in partnership with banks. Participants are familiar with these channels. Ndumiso (male, 24 years) said:

“He usually send via instant money... the Pep store thing... and we retrieve money in ATMs and in stores (retailers).”

While Mr Mdluli (male, 67 years) said:

“He sent them at the bank or in retail such as Shoprite.”

Truen et al (2005) noted that the Shoprite retailer has started offering remittance service using its connection with Capitec Bank. Thus people use these channels rather than informal channels. However

as much as households are familiar with formal channels and use them, in some cases they do use informal channels. For instance Mama Shitolo (female, 52 years) stated that:

“He use to send them through my account, also when he is coming home he carry the money and give to us as well as what he have bought for the household or we travel to town with him to get money for household’s needs.”

And Mama Mkhize (female, 52 years):

“They use to send them via Shoprite or send them with someone especially neighbors, friend or members of extended family who are coming here in the area. And so we receive them in Shoprite money market and also from that someone they gave.”

For that reason it is possible that such factors affect the choice of remittance channel to be used by a sender and recipient. In this case when migrants carry remittances or send them with friends or relatives usually lead to remittances being delivered and received within household’s premises (Truen et al, 2005). This avoid the costs and risks that are associated with sending and retrieving remittances.

4.3.6 The Educational Level of Household Migrant Members

In terms of education of migrants, participants reported that their household members have education and some include tertiary education before they migrated for employment to where they are. According to Sabelo (male, 35 years):

“He studied in Durban University of Technology (DUT), it is just that I don’t have complete details about what he was studying but he studied in DUT and after he completed he went to Johannesburg for jobs.”

And Mama Dlodlu (female, 56 years):

“He first went to Durban to study and after studying he went to Johannesburg for job... in fact he studied three years in UKZN Westville and graduated in his fourth year. And in his fifth year he was almost employed and about to graduate for second time for the studies he did in his fourth year.”

Gogo Hlabisa (female, 69):

“She completed matric...and she furthered her studies in QwaQwa (UFS).”

In the view of Hughes et al (2007), a large number of university graduates and executives almost leave their places of origin annually, adding most PhD graduates living abroad. Thus few opportunities in rural

prompt individuals to seek employment elsewhere and this is how the event of migration arise. Dzomba (2014:12) claimed that “in migrant demographic profiles, educational attainment and occupational status are positively related to migration probabilities.” Thus the level of education is the reason for household members to migrate for opportunities that benefit them and their families. As other migrants are said to have at least college education or matric. Mama Ntuli (female, 50 years) asserted that:

“She has matric, she also studied at Amajuba College.”

And Mama Malinga (female, 47 years):

“Uhm... what he studied for though? He studied for Financial Management at Amajuba College after he completed matric.”

Mr Mavimbela (male, 40 years):

“What I know is that two of them have matric and the other one has grade 11 the one who is female.”

This reflects that migrants in general possess higher levels of education than their counterparts who are non-migrants (Schoorl et al, 2000). This is emphasized by Makiwane (2010) cited in (Dzomba 2014) that majority of migrants possess higher educational results than non-migrants in households. It is thus clear that through migration, educated population is significant to raising productivity both in households and in the country's economy.

In the study, there is no migrant reported to have no education by the time of migrating, even though they don't hold higher level of education but they do have secondary or primary education. According to Ntombi (female, 34 years):

“Uhm... she was in lower levels actually. ehh... she had grade 9.”

And Mr Khuzwayo (male, 56 years) added that:

“As old people uh... I think my aunt had standard 4.”

On the other hand livelihoods of the households are important for migration as people even migrate with low levels of education just secure jobs and support their families. According Muhwava et al (2013) to relatively low levels of income per capita may be an important contributory factor to continuing great levels of temporary migration regardless of education as some jobs demand uneducated people.

4.4 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the findings of the study, it appeared from the findings that migration and remittances impact positive on migrant households. The discussions were in line with the themes identified from the data analysed. The new economics of labor migration framework was used in the discussions to show how migration decisions are made as well as how migration and remittances affects households. Migration and remittances has positive effects on migrants households in the places of origin. People will continue to migrate and send remittances for better living standards of their households.

Chapter Five: Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to understand the effects of migration and remittances in migrant households in Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith. Drawing a sample of participants from migrant households who are receiving remittances in the rural area of Endingeni in Ladysmith, the researcher was able to go through the effects of migration and remittances and the experiences of migrant households. This study employed qualitative research approach through the use of individual semi-structured interviews to find out an in depth understanding about the impact of migration and remittances on migrant households.

This chapter presents a summary and conclusions of the salient findings of the study. The chapter further presents recommendations based on the findings of the study. Summary of the findings and analysis for this study is presented in relation to the research objectives and questions, where conclusions is presented in relation to research aim and problem statement. The recommendations are presented in relation to participant's views as well as in relation to the importance of migration and remittances for further research.

5.2 Summary of the Findings and Analysis

In understanding migration decision making process in a household, it is said that when household member/s migrate, the households often act collectively in making migration decision. In this case individuals are not in position to make migration decisions but the decision to migrate is made by the household in the context of what is best for the entire household. Migration is a frequently used strategy for household's survival and improved livelihoods. It was discovered that when households lack means of survival, they send their members elsewhere to secure income as means of the household's survival. Likewise even the household members if they see the need to leave the household for employment and send remittances they do migrate but before migrating they consult their families. Thus most migrants migrate for their households and they migrate after the household has engaged in a discussion about migration and calculated the risks, costs and benefits of migration. When the benefits are higher than the risks, possibly households decides for their member/s to migrate. The intention of engaging as a household in decision is to ensure that migration offer positive returns and respond to lack of employment and income generating activities in rural areas. Hence households expects a lot from migration, remittances per se, are one of the returns or benefits of migration to migrant household.

Employment is one of the central means of generating income for families, so as there are no or limited employment opportunities in rural areas, families and their members decide to use migration as way of

generating income elsewhere by sending their members and then receive remittances. However some people decide on their own to migrate without consulting their households. Households do not consider this as a problem because they believe in that at some point it can be valuable to the household. This means other people migrate for their own reasons not for the entire family reasons but their migration is beneficial to their families due that they migrate and provide their families when struggling financially.

Moreover the environment where households are located also influence migration and its decisions in households. Various households use migration to generate income and as a result other households often join the process of migration. On the other hand migration decisions in the community of Endingeni rural area tend to be bias as in most cases households prefer male members to migrate rather than females. This is associated with that they usually consider what is best for the family, so even the migration of a male person instead of a female is considered as best. Consequently, male members from several households migrate and send remittances that become the household's key source of income.

In understanding the household's source of income and the contribution of remittances to overall sources of income. The ease migrant households experience in migration is that they receive remittances, which have come to be the important source of income. When migrant members migrate for employment they share the portion of their earnings with their households in the area of origin. These received remittances empower households to meet and afford their basic needs. This reflects that before remittances households were struggling to meet their basic needs, hence remittances came to be a rescue. In other households remittances are the main source of income while in other households are not the main income but rather form a major contribution to household's overall income.

Remittances are a rescue to households who face difficulties in generating income or to those households who do not have stable or proper sources of income. Although remittances are the central or major source of income in many households, it appeared that a number of households within the country of South Africa largely depend on government social grants. Social grants such as old age pension grant, child support grant as well foster care grant are the second most source of income in South African households following the income from salaries which also include remittances. It is clear that remittances and social grants are leading sources of income in many households.

Furthermore other remittance receiving households do not depend on remitted funds but rather on social grants. For instance other migrant households revealed that although they receive remittances however remittances do not meet all their needs but their contribution worth a lot to the household income and it does make a difference. Thus social grants are mentioned as the most significant source of income which also rescued the household even before the incident of migration. Also when migrants experience

difficulties in destination and become unable to remit, social grants safeguard the households. Social grants and remittances plays an integral part in households, thus they shape household expenditure.

In response to the research question, of what is the impact of remittances in household expenditure? Migrant households are optimistic with regards to migration and remittances since migration and remittances positively affect them. Families expect a lot from migration and thus it does provide and enable to them to overcome their financial constraints and contingencies as well as to improve their livelihoods. Participants and their households appreciate migration for their livelihoods as remittances. Remittances contributed to improved livelihoods in migrant households and it was found that remittance receiving households tend to have better living standards than their counterparts. It is clear that migration and remittances has become a means of survival to sustain the livelihoods in many migrant households.

Remittances are associated with poverty alleviation because remitted funds are used in household expenditure such as consumption and investment. Households use remittances to cover the basic needs such as food, education and infrastructure. It appeared that most households spend remittances on food which is the major basic need of every household. And for that reason remittances reduce poverty and are associated with increased household income that allow households to meet their basic needs. This means in absence of migration and remittances it would be difficult for households to meet their primary goods and improve their livelihoods, nonetheless remittances have become an essential mechanism for households who want to satisfy their needs.

Additionally, migrant household use remittances mostly for consumptive purposes as they spend them on food and housing while covering these basic needs contribute to good health of household members. Remittances also are spent on goods and services that results in good health condition of household members. Moreover remittance receiving households also educate their children with these remitted funds. Which means they also invest remittances in education which may somehow yields positive returns in the household in future. Consequently migration and remittances process may always be perceived as good although at some point it doesn't satisfy the household.

In response to how does the family perceive migration and remittances and the relationship with their migrant? The perceptions are that migration and remittances is important and valuable to the household. Migration and remittances are highly appreciated due to their positive effects on the household and its wellbeing. Through the incident of migration, it is said that remittances uplift poor households who are unable to afford although at some point it is associated with separating families.

In many migrant households, migration is not a challenge and the relationship between households and their migrant members is still good. The good relationship reveals that migrants only migrate for

employment to improve the livelihoods and are likely to return after a while especially onset of older ages. They migrate due to low economic opportunities they face in rural areas but they maintain the relationship with their families as in fact they still dependent on their families rather than forming new ties in the destination. Migrants maintain their ties through communicating and visiting their households when their get time and mostly during public holidays. However migration separate families as it involves the absence of a family member/s who is needed by the family while this absence also worth a lot to the household. Due to absence of other member/s such changes may occur in the household. For instance migrant member's roles and responsibilities have to shift to available members of the household while other roles and responsibilities cannot be performed by any available in the household member/s but need only the migrant. As a result this disrupt family life and in that manner migration is perceived negatively on the household. It doesn't treat families well that they are separated with their members.

On the other hand the satisfaction of the household's basic needs through remittances, serve as an appreciation of migration. In consequence households become familiar with the loss of a member through migration and the member also become eliminated in household's daily life. This means although migration brings income to the family but it is associated with social cost. Households have also adapted to live with these social cost since they understand the need that influenced their members to migrate and thus they benefit from migration of their members.

5.3 Conclusions

The problem statement for this study is that many rural people leave their places of origin for their households and their lives because of limited economic opportunities that can be let them supplement family income and respond to household's financial constraints. The central thrust of the study was to ascertain the impact of migration and remittances as well as migration decision making in migrant households.

Migration of household members lead to improved standard of living and affects the wellbeing of households and the spending. Other families become dependent on remittances for their basic necessities. But migration also affects family unit through separating households with their members. The relationship migrant members have with their households is still good and remittances are a gratefulness of migration. Households are happy for their members that they migrated and their migration is fruitful to the household. Moreover the community is also benefiting from migration because of migrant networks that connect community members from other households to migrate and earn income for their families.

It appeared from the study that there is high prevalence of migration in the area and it has positive impact on migrant households and their expenditures. The absence of economic opportunities in rural areas is

noted as a dominant cause of migration that separate families with their members although it offer positive returns. The study discovered that households were willing to see their members employed near household but lack of employment opportunities led them to migrate in order secure employment in rich areas. It can be said that if rural areas had more opportunities of generating income, perhaps household members would never migrate.

5.4 Recommendations

This part pulls largely from the recommendations made in the literature, it was felt that it is significant that respondents views about migration and remittances are involved. Taking into account what participants said is important in order to implement initiatives that may be effective. The most cited factor of migration is lack of economic opportunities in rural areas thus migration and remittances are a response to this factor. It is recommended that a research be done on exploring how migration and remittances affects migrant households in order to know more about migration and remittances. As well as how migration decisions are made and what is the impact of those decisions.

Additionally in this regard, it is also recommended that government need to ensure that economy is created in rural areas. Government and other relevant stakeholders that like the corporate world must undertake to expand such income generating activities in rural areas, so that fit households members could be able to access economic opportunities and employment around their households. Consequently this will encourage people to seek employment around their households, thereby limiting the costs of migration. It will also circumvent the separation of families with their members.

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Appendixes

Appendix A- Information Sheet and Consent to Participate in Research

Date:

To whom it may concern

My name is Sakhile Mazibuko from University of KwaZulu-Natal, student 214519606 and my contact numbers are 0782216722 and email address 214519606@stu.ukzn.ac.za.

You are being invited to consider participating in a study that involves research in migration and remittances. The aim and purpose of this research is to understand the migration decision making and impact of migration and remittances in migrant's households at Endingeni rural area in Ladysmith, KwaZulu-Natal. The study is expected to enroll 20 participants from each remittance receiving households in the rural area of Endingeni, Ladysmith. It will involve the individual semi structured interviews which will be about one hour and with your informed permission I would like to record the session. The duration of your participation if you choose to enroll and remain in the study is expected to be an hour. The study is not funded.

The study involve no risks and/or discomforts. There is nowhere in the study where you will feel uncomfortable. Should you feel upset by anything that has been said during the interview, I will be there for you to talk about it afterwards; or we can communicate with my supervisor to talk about it.

This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (approval number HSS/1506/018M).

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at (0782216722) or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Your participation in this research is voluntary and no payment will be made for your participation. Should you agree to participate, you are allowed to withdraw from the study any time. Please note that all the information that you may share during the interview will be kept confidential by myself as the researcher and my research supervisor and will not be divulged to anyone else. Your names and identity will remain confidential as pseudonyms will be used in my research report. The interview transcripts will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after five years.

CONSENT

I () have been informed about the study entitled (Migration and remittances) by (provide name of researcher/fieldworker).

I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to answer questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

I have been informed about any available compensation or medical treatment if injury occurs to me as a result of study-related procedures.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher at (0782216722).

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION

Research Office, Westville Campus

Govan Mbeki Building

Private Bag X 54001

Durban

4000

KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA

Tel: 27 31 2604557 - Fax: 27 31 2604609

Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Additional consent, where applicable

I hereby provide consent to:

Audio-record my interview / focus group discussion YES / NO

Video-record my interview / focus group discussion YES / NO

Use of my photographs for research purposes YES / NO

Signature of Participant

Date

Signature of Witness
(Where applicable)

Date

Appendix B- Interview Guide

Individual Semi-structured Interview Reschedule

Introduction

- Introduction of self
- Thank the participant for participation
- Purpose of research
- Ethical considerations:
 - Digital recording
 - Confidentiality - link to choice of pseudonym
 - Voluntary of participation
 - Access to findings
- No right or wrong answers
- Estimated time frame of interview

Section A – Demographic Questions

- When did he/she migrate?
- Where did he/she migrated to?
- How old is he/she?
- Is he or she married?
- Does he/she have children? If yes, how many?
- Who do you live with in the household?
- How many of you are in the household?
- Who is the head of the household?
- Who is the provider/ breadwinner in the household?
- How many of you are dependent to this person?
- What is your relationship with the migrant?
- Are there any obligations for migration in the household?

Section B - Open-ended Questions

1. When did he/she leave the household?
2. What process was involved in making a decision for him/her to migrate?
3. How did he/she migrate? Who was there when he/she was leaving?
4. What was the reason prompting him/her to migrate?

5. What level of education does he/she have?
6. What type of job is he/she doing?
7. What sources of income do you have in the household?
8. How does remittances sent by him/her contribute to the overall household income?
9. How does he/she send remittances? How and where do you receive remittances?
10. Where does the household spend remittances?
11. What impact does remittances have in the household?
12. What challenges are faced by the household and the migrant that are due to migration and remittances?
13. How does the household perceive migration and remittances?
14. How is the relationship between the household and the migrant member?
15. How often he/she come back in the household?