


# Chapter 12

## South African Destination Among African Women Immigrants

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### ABSTRACT

*The role of migration in the development of cities cannot be downplayed. Migration across the globe helps break space and place isolation. In these migrant dynamics, women and most especially foreign migrants play a vital role. Various factors account for the migration of women within Africa. This chap-*

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*ter identifies the dichotomy in-country experiences by African immigrant women to South Africa and therefore attempts to examine the African women migration trend into South Africa. The questions that guide the study include, What is the migration trend and the push and pull factors for women immigrant into South Africa? The questions asked are to bring about a better understanding of the state of Africa women's immigrants into South Africa.*

## **INTRODUCTION**

Humans are fluid, dynamic, and transient. Migration helps break space and place isolation in development. The concept of migration has over the years caught the attention of development experts. This is germane, owing to the resource demand of the estimated average of one billion global migrants in both origin and destination countries. Food Agriculture and Organisation (2017, p.1) iterate the complexity and fundamental component of structural transformation in developing countries through migration. It was buttressed by the widespread migration (both internal and international) in Africa over the century.

Although migration is portrayed as a crisis and social problem for “host” countries (Antonsich, Mavroudi & Mihelj, 2016). Historic colonial trading activity (Gwendolyn & Elliott, 1983) individual economic challenges such as poverty, unemployment, homelessness (Zinyama, 1990) civil unrest, wars, and political instability (Clark, 1986) are amongst the factors that contribute to international relocation. The post-colonial pattern of such movement of labour (skilled and semi-skilled) is from rural to urban Africa or shared mobility from one African country to another. This was why African continent has been reported to be dynamic.

United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTD) (2018) reported that in 2017, over 19 million international migrants within Africa are from African countries. Migration in Africa has been characterized by outflows, primarily to other countries on the continent, and to some extent other continental destinations. According to UNCTD (2018), the configuration of the top countries in Africa with the highest net migrant reception were South Africa (3.1 million), Côte d'Ivoire (1.2 million), Uganda (900,000), Libya (629,000), Kenya (577,000), Ethiopia (426,000), Chad (242,000), Gabon (213,000), Cameroon (206,000) and Tanzania (168,000). It was recorded that from 100 immigrants in Africa, 79 were Africans with females having a higher share and percentage. Female migration is growing in importance in Africa. Since 1990, the number of international female migrants increased from 7.4 million to 11.6 million in 2017. This trend is reflected in the corresponding increase in Africa's female population, which rose from 318 million in 1990 to 629 million in 2017 (UNCTD, 2018).

Flahaux and Haas (2016) mentioned that due to poverty and violent conflict, Africa is seen as a continent of mass displacement and migration. This is reflected in the increasing quest for improved livelihood from within and across Africa. The assertion of the choice to migrate therefore reflects an individual conditioning and struggle for survival. This struggle when looked at from the rational choice theory presents a consciousness of an individual to migrate. This consciousness, as highlighted by Haug (2008) and McAuliffe and Kitimbo (2018), is defined by social networking capacity and place mental psychology which results into ‘mass exodus’ of Africans into Europe or away from their country of origin.

At a continental stage, migration in Africa can be classified into internal and international migration. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) (2017) recorded that the capacity of African countries as a destination for migrants from fellow African countries and non-African cannot be ignored. Buttressing this assertion, the International Organisation of Migration (IOM) (2018) reported that migration in Africa involves large numbers of migrants moving both within and out of the region. UNDESA (2017) data show the importance of the Africa-to-Africa migration corridor. However, the report did not identify the factors that accounted for migration in Africa.

Mutume (2006) mentioned that issues such as human rights abuse, economic opportunity, labour shortages and unemployment, the brain drain, multiculturalism and integration, and flows of refugees and asylum seekers are peculiar characteristics of Africa migration. At national rural-urban migrant level, Popoola and Akande (2016) reported the effect of migration to influence food production, household income and remittance. Lending a voice to this, the factors of migration can be pull or push. Van Hear, Bakewell and Long (2018) wrote that explaining migration's inception and perpetuation has conventionally focused on disparities in conditions between place of origin and place of destination. This negative (push away from origin) or positive (pull to destination) factors are often region and individual defined. In his own stand, Adepoju (2006) was of the notion that migration is a response to structural disequilibria between and within sectors of an economy or between countries, in which gender sometimes poses an advantage or disadvantage.

According to the International Organization for Migration (2015), gender refers to the socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values, relative power and influence that society ascribes to people based on their assigned sex. Why there remains a male gendered migration bias of literature, Villares-Varela (2013) mentioned that authors perceive women migration was negligible. Despite a high number of female cross-border migrants which is a reflection of improved quality of life aspiration, numerous African traditional societies are still characterised by high gender inequalities against women (Adepoju, 1998; Goodman, 2002; Matulevich & Beegle, 2018). In fact, Adepoju (2006) stressed that in a typical traditional African society, which is customarily characterized by patriarchy, women migration was usually restricted and considered a taboo. However, the urbanisation, political and society generated struggle for survival has resulted into increase resource shocks across gender in Africa. This chapter through a gendered lens aims to know the state of African women migration within SADC with a keen focus on South Africa.

## **METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH**

African Union (AU) is interested in promoting Africa's growth and economic development by championing citizen inclusion and increased cooperation and integration of African states. This agenda for the inclusion and integration of Africans within Africa has generated increased migration from one region of Africa to another. SADC (2012) argued that the region's long and porous borders, economic attractions and the relative peace and stability make it a preferred destination and transit of both investment and persons. The intra-African migration is driven by risk and disaster (natural and human), economic and social ties and quest. Oucho (2007) was of the view that the SADC has been the subject of a sustained study of international migration over the last half century. Parshotam (2018) iterates that the nexus of migration and development (individuals and countries) within African Union's member states has continuously promoted intra-Africa migration. Although the regional union remains the only African

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regional organisation that has failed to fully support, ratify and implement a policy framework for free movement of persons (Parshotam, 2018). The reason is because of the uncontrolled and poorly managed migration which in turn translates into pressure, agitations and violence (afro-phobia and xenophobia) within the region.

The experience calls for a gender look at the migration state of African female immigrants in South Africa. This is buttressed by the preposition of Rampaul (2020), that gender and most especially female's wellbeing needs to be better investigated and conceptualised towards improved wellbeing of this vulnerable group. This is because migration and integration is important to the shaping of the collective African State (Mabera, 2017). In this chapter, the authors 'termed "foreign migrant" to be non-native indigenes of the country of destination (South Africa).

The data for this study was collected from Global Bilateral Migration Database (GBMD). Global matrices of bilateral migrant stocks spanning the period 1960-2000, disaggregated by gender and based primarily on the foreign-born concept are presented. Over one thousand census and population register records are combined to construct decennial matrices corresponding to the last five completed census rounds. The migration data captured from GBMD was classified based on the female gender focus of this study.

South Africa serves as the destination of travelers while the other African immigrant countries served as the study origin. Descriptive statistics such as frequency, percentage were used to explain a distribution of the migrants. The statistical package for social science (Intellectus Statistics) software was used to analyze data. Inferential analysis was conducted to examine median differences within the data years and analysis of variance used to investigate differences across gender from country of origin. Trend analysis was then conducted to establish the highest sending country into South Africa.

Based on the research question above, the chapter provided a thematic analysis of the review of literature on questions asked. A careful analysis was done focusing on the state of female African immigrant in South Africa.

## **THEORISING MIGRATION INTO SOUTH AFRICA**

This study aligns with the neoclassical and the migration system and network theories. Enigbokan, Edkins and Ogundele (2015) was of the view that the neoclassical theory remains one of the most influential theories of migration. It is focused on differentials in wages and employment conditions between countries as well as on migration costs as factors causing migration. This speaks to ease of mobility and access cost. European Commission (n.d) summed that the neoclassical theory assumes that labor markets and economies move towards equilibrium in the long run through trade and migration. It considers migrants as purely rational actors. Migrants move from societies where labor is abundant and wages are low, to societies where labor is scarce and wages are high. Decisions to migrate are taken at the individual level and consider that higher earnings in the long run compensate for the cost and risk of relocating.

To buttress this, Enigbokan et al. (2015) recorded that many Nigerians might be de-motivated to migrate to South Africa considering the cost of living in the country. The argument was that many non-SADC immigrants might tend to migrate and move to South Africa following the migration system and network theory. However, on getting there many often find it difficult to sustain basic living when compared to their livelihood experiences in origin country. The perception of South Africa as a stable state characterised by improved wages as against the origins state, aligns with preposition of Kurekova (2011).

In explaining the theory, migration is driven by geographic differences in labor supply and demand and the resulting differentials in wages between labor-rich versus capital-rich countries (Kurekova, 2011).

European Commission (n.d) explains that the migration system and networks theory focus on the nexus between people at origin and destination. Migratory movements are often connected to prior long-standing links between sending and receiving countries, like commercial or cultural relationships. These give birth to migration systems, i.e. two or more countries exchanging migrants, and migration networks, such as circular and diaspora-based migrations. People move where they can rely on someone they know. The processes are cumulative and do not necessarily tend to an equilibrium: the more the diaspora expands the more it will attract new migrants. Creating a balance and a well-coordinated migration between Nigeria and South Africa, Adesina (2019) suggested an improved development of home country and coordination among countries (Nigeria and South Africa). Dinbabo and Nyasulu (2015) accorded that migration among skilled workers and professionals in Africa from one nation to another is usually based on existing or just emerged networks. Enigbokan, Edkins, and Ogundele (2015) mentioned that the presence of an existing social network often influences migration decisions among immigrants. The study further identified that social network provides support system to intending and immigrants. It was reported that network is a major coping mechanism for immigrants when experiencing hardships and discrimination in host countries.

## **MIGRATION TREND IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Using data collected from Global Bilateral Migration Database (GBMD), a Friedman Rank Sum Test was used to test for variation in migration during the period. A Friedman rank sum test was conducted to examine whether the medians of year 1960 to 2000 were equal. The Friedman test is a non-parametric alternative to the repeated measures one-way ANOVA and does not share the ANOVA's distributional assumptions. The results of the Friedman test were significant based on an alpha value of 0.05,  $\chi^2(4) = 68.25$ ,  $p < .001$ , indicating significant differences in the median values of 1960, 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000.

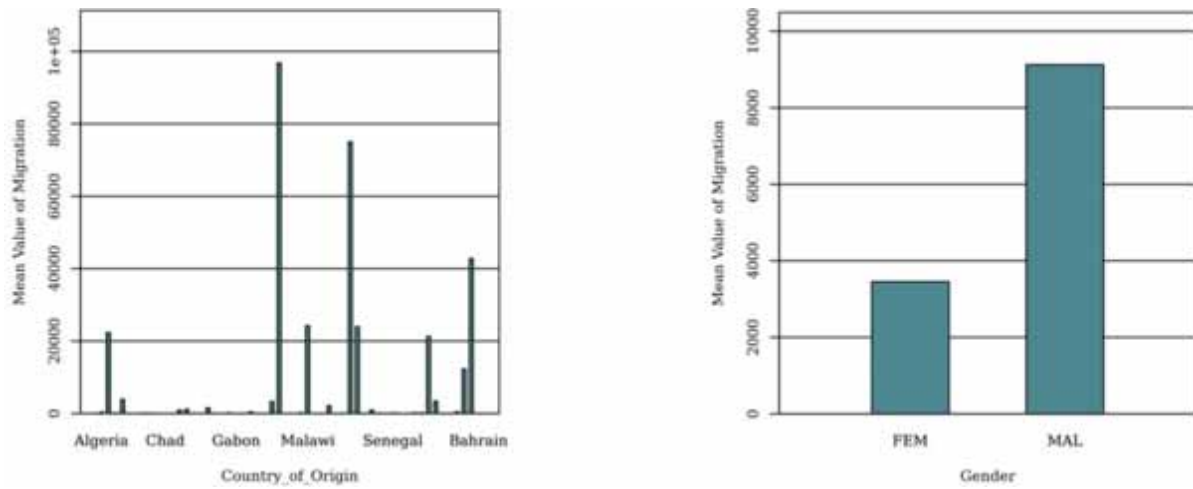
Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether there were significant differences in migration by country of origin and gender. The ANOVA was examined based on an alpha value of 0.05. The results of the ANOVA were significant,  $F(54, 483) = 19.07$ ,  $p < .001$ , indicating there were significant differences in migration among the levels of country of origin and Gender. The main effect, country of origin was significant,  $F(53, 483) = 18.95$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.68$ , indicating there were significant differences in migration by country of origin levels. The main effect, gender was significant,  $F(1, 483) = 25.53$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = 0.05$ , indicating there were significant differences in migration by gender levels. The country mapping of the women immigrant into South Africa is presented in Figures 3, 4 and 5.

The means and standard deviations are presented in Figure 1. The migration differences across gender and country is explained by the differences in factors and experiences of immigrants from various African Nations.

The percentage increase in global female migrants between 1990 and 2017 is represented in over 136% increase (Matulevich & Beegle, 2018) (see Figure 2). Changes in the share of female migrants differ widely by country. Between 1990 and 2017, the share of female migrants increased by at least one percentage point in 75 of the 211 countries with data.

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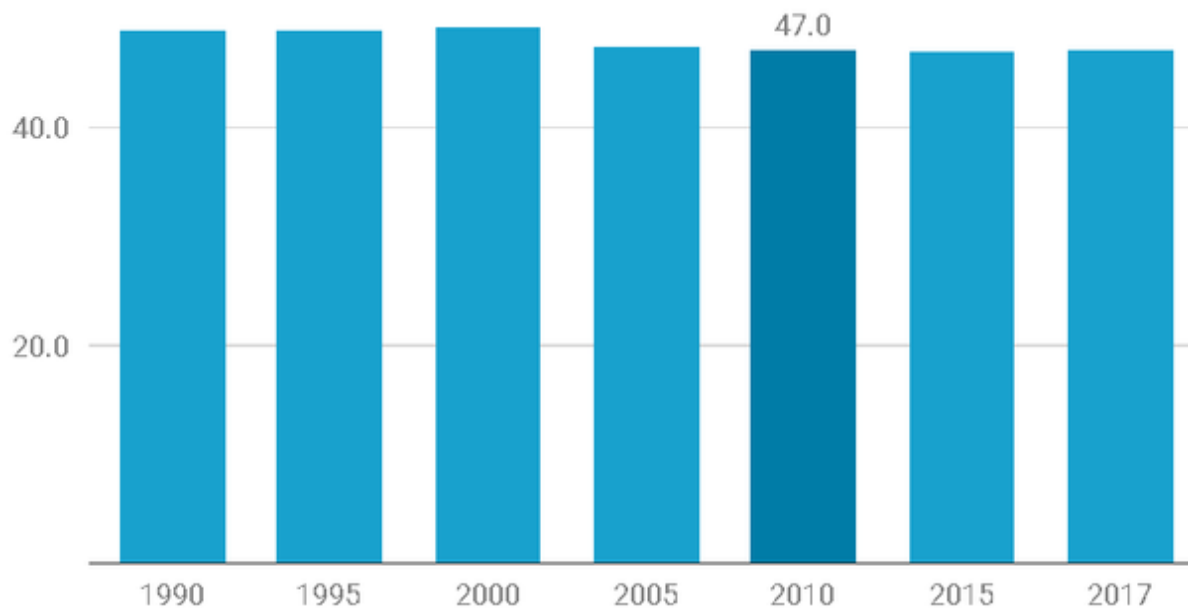
*Figure 1.*



In South Africa, it has been argued that migration was “purposefully” implemented by colonialist. Following the collapse of apartheid, documented migration in South Africa remained predominantly male (Crush & Dodson, 2007) as the quest for labour was mainly male gender-oriented. This was established in the Immigration Act of 2002 which stated that “two dominant models of migrant implied are those of the unaccompanied male migrant worker, as in the mining industry, and the skilled (male) breadwinner

*Figure 2.*

**Female migrants (% international migrant stock)**



with unemployed (female) spouse” (Crush & Dodson, 2007). The collection of female migrants in the country was mainly foreign nationals from SADC countries. Migration is a serious concern for females. More than 50 per cent of ‘foreign’ migrants are female. According to Phillips and James (2014:425) ‘foreign’ female migrants countered their “vulnerable position by constructing personal relationships with officials, they encounter with an attempt to negotiate the faceless bureaucracy of an inhumane system”. ‘Foreign’ female migrants have limited economic opportunities, limited access to services, and limited choices of shelter - yet - over the years there has been an increase of ‘foreign’ females migrating alone with the hope of finding their economic independence and empowerment.

Within Africa, migration of females into South Africa has majorly been from countries within the SADC. As presented in Figure 3, Figure 4 and Figure 5, the top senders among such countries include Lesotho (South African landlock country), Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Zambia, Swaziland, Botswana and Angola. Other African nations that have over the years become major senders are Congo, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Morocco, Sudan, Libya, Algeria, Egypt and Kenya (see Figure 5).

The sole purpose of the creation of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) in 1992 was to bring about a well-coordinated and regional integrated economic development of the Southern African region. The Southern African Development Community (2012) identified that the union was beyond a political movement for the independence of the region despite its relevance but encompasses a collective regional building through the effective coordination of utilisation of the specific characteristics and strengths of each country and its resources. It was reported that the objective of the regional union propelled around the regional self-dependence of countries. This regional dependence promoted the ease of mobility among the SADC member States.

Crush and Tevera (2010b) reported that in 2001, over 131,887 (66,033 black and 64,261 white) Zimbabwean-born people were in South Africa. It was reported that SADC remains the destination for many Zimbabweans, with the majority (55%) residing in South Africa, followed by Mozambique, Zambia and Malawi. Kiwanuka and Monson (2009) recorded that migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa can be said to be politically and economically driven. Studies (Idemudia, Meldrum, 2007; Reitzes, 1997; Williams & Wyatt, 2013) reported that the quest for economic sustenance is the driver of emigration of an estimated 3.4 million Zimbabweans away from their country and mainly into South Africa and other SADC countries.

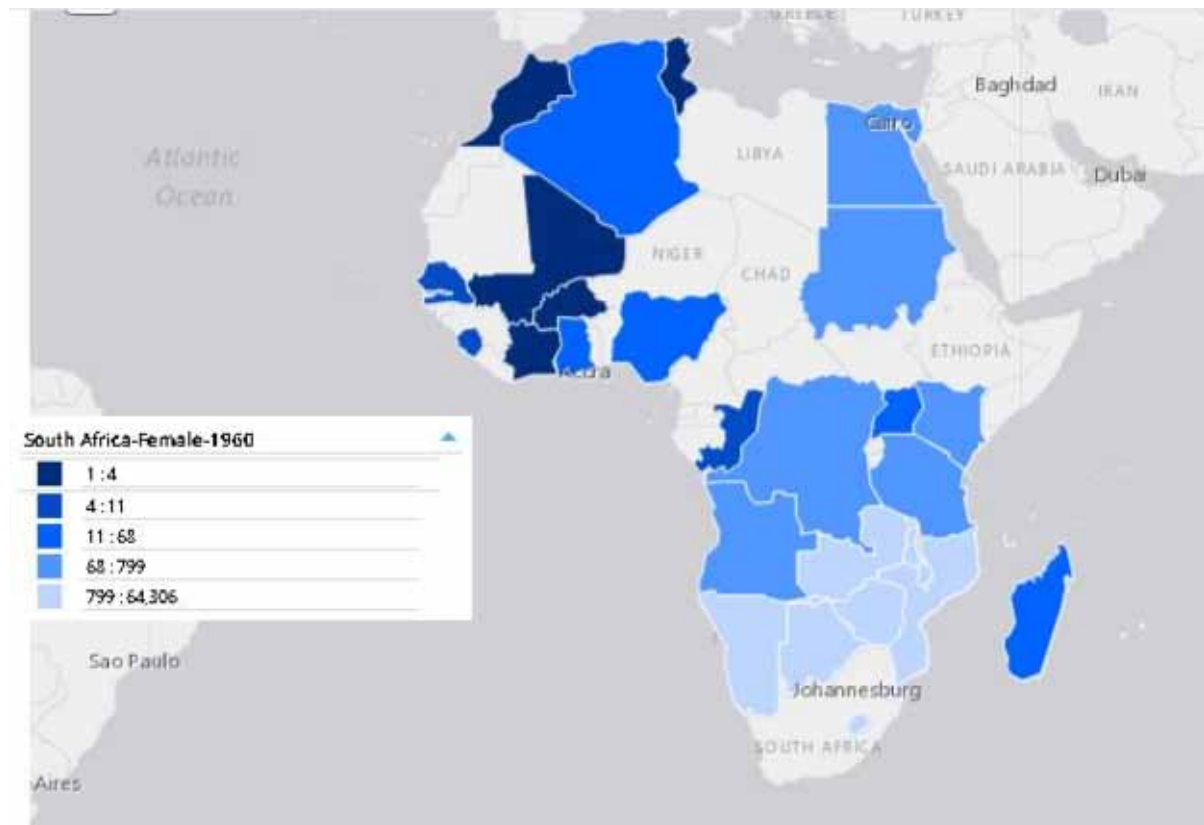
This livelihood struggles are more peculiar to Zimbabwean women. According to Mcduff (2015), the collapsed state of Zimbabwe, has resulted in stress and shocks to quality of life for women migrants.

Towards maintaining livelihood in host countries, many migrants are forced to work in mines as an easy form of employment available to them. De Vletter (2006) iterates that the South African mining industry is a popular destination for male Mozambican labour migrants who make up 25% of the gold mine workforce. The idea was that many of the women migrants are more vulnerable which gives rise to family defines forced return migration and unstable household mobility if their husbands do not get the mine jobs.

While for many African immigrant, the choice of migration might be forced. Studies reported that the cultural characteristics of the Tanzania as often nomadic promotes their capacity to easily migrate from one country to another (May, 2002; Msinde, 2006). Bee, Diyamett and Towo (2002) recorded that over the decade, female migration has been a well-known phenomenon among the people of Tanzania. For example, the Tanzanian Maasai are an indigenous ethnic group in Africa of semi-nomadic people who began migrating in the 15th century and entered in the “long trunk of land stretching across central Tanzania and Kenya during the 17th and 18th century” (Siyabonga Africa, 2019:1). During these early

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Figure 3.

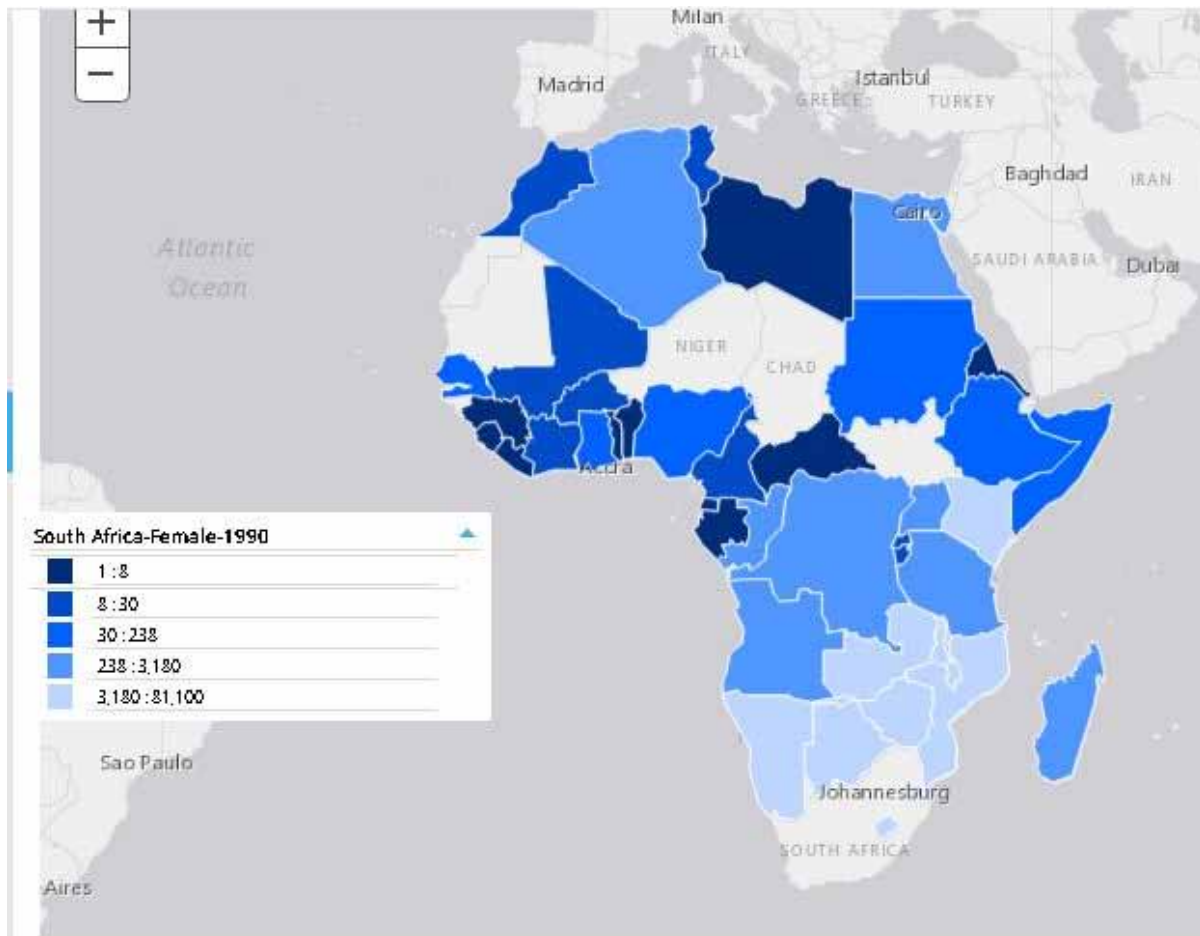


years, it was reported that a large number of of Tanzania men migrated (Nagol, 2006), leaving women behind. Msinde (2006) says this character of migration exclusion among females resulted in movement to nearby cities or countries. This improves their access and control of resources in their families. As many are often supported by the family (Elizabeth, 2017).

In Lesotho, migration proceeds to be a powerful living strategy over past decade. Tracing the history of female migration from Lesotho to South Africa, The United Nations International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (2006) identified two historical migration waves. One was the migrant from Lesotho to farm settlements Free State and migration because of mineral discovery in Johannesburg in the early 80's and 90's respectively. Botea, Chakravarty and Compennolle (2018) aver that while history argues for a masculine migration, female migration due to economic push factor has been on the increase. It was recorded that while the step-wise migration (often term) turns to long term migration based on their experiences, search for quality education is a major driver of female migration from Lesotho to South Africa. Migration for education abroad and study mobility has become a global phenomenon (Baas, 2011). Foreign education has been perceived as a means to improving career opportunity and enhancing household livelihood (Thomas and Logan, 2012). Regional mobility ease within SADC and poor state of learning environment and infrastructure in West Africa have been identified as a driver for educational migration (Akinrinade and Ogen, 2011; Isike and Isike, 2012). According to Wilkins and Huisman (2011), previous research found that the country and institution choices of interna-



Figure 4.

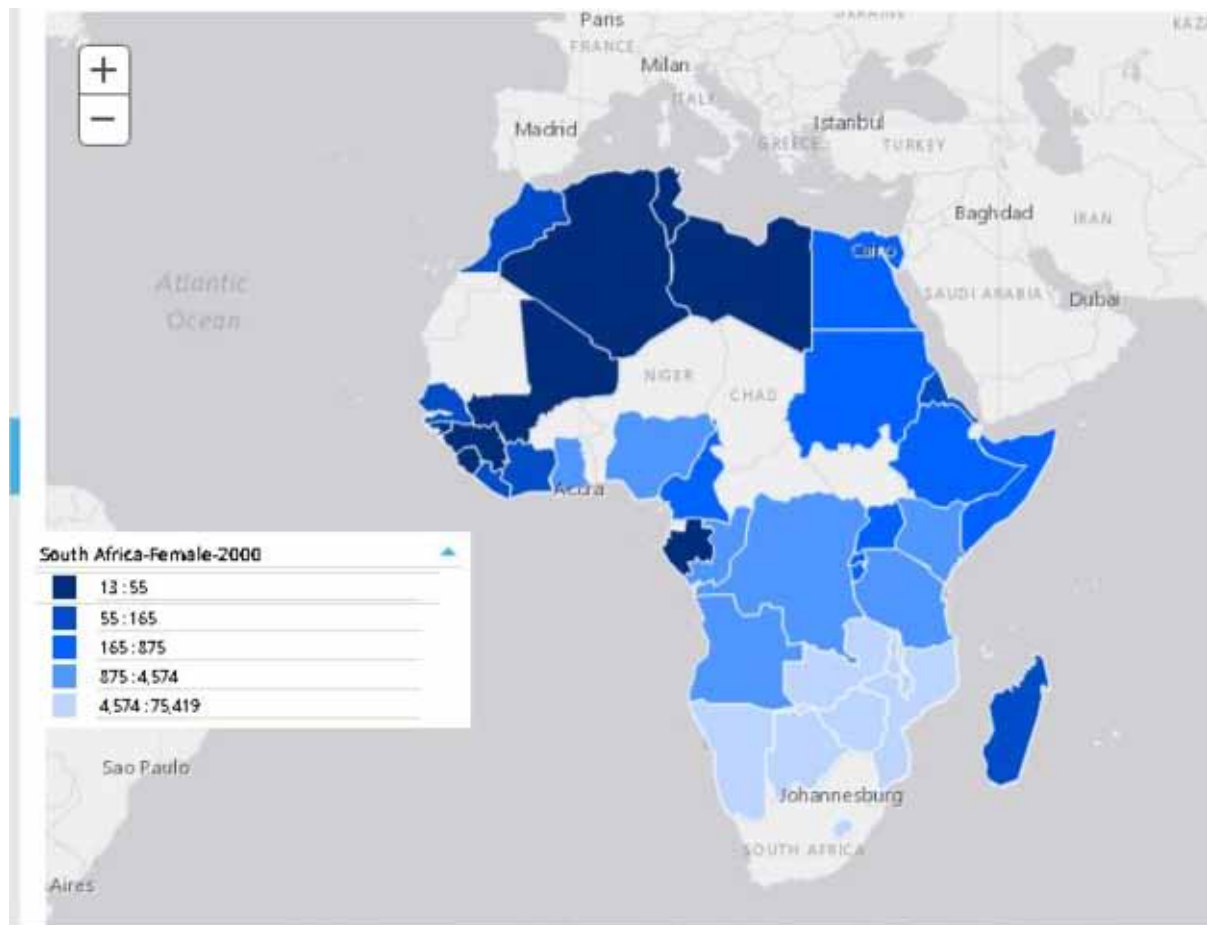


tional students are greatly influenced by recommendations they receive from others who have experience of undertaking higher education overseas. Chimucheka (2013) points out that the use of English as the teaching language attracts many students from other countries to study in South Africa as they will not be forced to learn other languages as is the case in some other countries.

Botea, Chakravart, and Compernelle (2018) reported that there has been an escalation in female migration due to the standstill in new hires of Basotho men in South African mines and simultaneous development of jobs primarily for females in the export garment sector. The textile sector matured into the largest formal employer in Lesotho according to UNCTAD (2012) which granted 39,000 jobs in 2011 with migrant females making up 90 per cent of the workforce. The percentage of Basotho (Lesotho) female migrants in South Africa has doubled over the last decade according to Botea, Chakravart, and Compernelle (2018) from 4 per cent in 2004 to 8 per cent in 2014, their migration experience is significantly different from males. In few instances, migrants move through South Africa to Malawi. According to IOM (2015), Malawi is an imperative transit country for immigrants travelling to other Southern African countries and a preferred destination choice (Malawi Census, 2008).

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Figure 5.



For example, Couldrey and Herson (2010) further state that female migrants in DRC exacerbate their vulnerability to violence and exploitation with the already low status of women in the Congolese society. This experience results into forced migration or gender based transnational human trafficking as reported in Madagascar (IOM, 2020). The seem-like experience as recorded by Musulum (2020) was that female migrants in Mauritius were characterised as the “new form of slavery” where women were unequally integrated into the capitalist system of production and the plantation economy of the country. The shaping of the capitalist economy as mentioned by Venditto (2018) is the reason why Namibian females through rural-urban migration looked for opportunities to develop their knowledge and escape ‘village life’ to explore economic independence. Many of which have a negative impact on the economy as the case is in Seychelles (World Bank, 2013). The major destination by many of these immigrants is South Africa.

Segatti, Adeagbo and Ogunyemi (2012), stated that the reason for increased Nigerian migrants to South Africa includes, skilled labour exchange, social, cultural and artistic exchanges. This migrant configuration is not limited to men alone. Mbiyozo (2018) aver that the number of women migrants is increasing in South Africa. A growing proportion is travelling independently of spouses or partners. This will continue to increase. It is reported that about 96,000 skilled visas issued to foreigners with African origin and 5% of the skilled visa holders were from Nigeria (Mbiyozo, 2018).

## **FEMALE IMMIGRANT PUSH AND PULL FACTORS**

In the past years, there has been significant increase in the number of African immigrants and refugees from other African countries (such as Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland, and Zimbabwe) to South Africa (Crush and Tevera, 2010a; Rasool, 2011). With female making up a substantial amount of the immigrant (Lan, 2008; Majikijela, 2017). Factors that have accounted for South Africa been the migration destination for Africa females are discussed below.

### **Political Factor, Refugee and Country Instability**

These reasons are either influenced by government policies, administrative practices or political instability that can make people to leave a habitual residence to other countries. Civil wars, state violence and political instability have caused female migrants to move out of their home counties. Hiralal (2017) identified that women from Rwanda, Somalia, Nigeria, Democratic Republic of Congo, and Burundi often consider South Africa as their destination due to her political stability. For instance, in Congo violent conflicts, underdevelopment, poverty, political instability and corruption force hundreds of thousands of Congolese to migrate and settle in South Africa. However recent crises in the world today continue to force millions of people out of their home countries. The mass influx of other fellow African migrants migrates to South Africa has raised widespread attention with sensationalist media reportage likening it to exodus where desperate Africans are escaping from poverty at home in search of opportunities in European countries (Flahaux and De Hass, 2016).

Zayas (2015) argued that migration generated children stressors such as the deportation of their parents, relocations of their homes and communities as their parents explore better employment opportunities are on the increase. The position was that children experiencing their parents' arrest, detention and deportation complicates many children's pre-existing stress and detrimentally impacts their mental health (Zayas, 2015). This is further complicated by the incidences of xenophobia and afro-phobia in Southern Africa and South Africa precisely.

### **Migration for Marriage and Family Reunification Purposes**

Martin (2004) argued that women are most likely to move for their spouse. As many women migrate to another country for their spouse (men) and family reunification is the main cause of women immigrating to places like Australia, Canada, Europe, New Zealand, and the United States (Ghosh, 2009). According to a survey in India, marriage was the cause of 89% of rural female migration and 59% of urban female migration (Ghosh, 2009). Similar study was also conducted in Nepal and it shows that 42% of the internal migrants moved across districts for marriage (Gartaula & Niehof, 2013).

In West Africa, women are independently migrating internationally, unaccompanied by their spouses to flee the rising levels of poverty, in order to meet their economic needs rather than relying on their husbands (Adepoju, 2005b:2). The decision to migrate across regional territories is not a personal venture, but, a familial affair that involves family participation in deciding who, where and when to move. Thus, when decisions are made that women join their spouse they are left with limited choices. In buttressing this, Adepoju (2004) pointed that male dominance with a traditional setting is the tool used to induce the migration of women to join their spouse. Simultaneously, the cross-border movements of the women/ men or together with spouses are likely to change gender relations and power inequality. For example,

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most Zimbabwean immigrant women migrate to join their husbands who migrated before them. In most cases, the husbands migrate first and their families would join them later after they are settled, which is a common practice among immigrant families.

### **Migration for Economic and Labor Purposes**

Women are increasingly migrating on their own often to enhance economic opportunities by seeking job or education. This trend is commonly referred to as feminization of migration (Apatinga, Kyeremeh, & Arku, 2020; Hofmann & Buckley, 2013; Thebe, 2019). Several studies reported that more than half of the global migrants are women migrating independently or as heads of households seeking employment opportunities (IOM, 2008; Ghosh, 2009). The rate of female migration is growing faster than male migration in many high-receiving countries. The International Labour Organization (ILO) (2015) estimates that globally, women account for between 50-80% of migrant population in nations of the world. In South Africa, Global Bilateral Migration Database (GBMD), data set reveals that of 713,664 African immigrants that migrated into South Africa either temporarily or permanently, 36% (262,699) of them which were women were from an African origin. This represented a 16.4% increase in African women immigrant into South Africa between the years 1960 and 2000. These factors are centered on the market and the economy of a nation.

Dzivimbo (2003), King (2012) and Makakala (2015) argued that limited job opportunities, unemployment and origin political events are some of the push and pull factors contributing to migration in developing countries. In a study of immigrants from Tanzania, many left their country in search of employment opportunities (Makakala, 2015). In search for jobs, many migrants settle mostly in South Africa's urban areas (Kok, 2006). Migrants play a positive role in the South African economy. They contribute immensely by providing jobs, paying rent, and providing affordable goods to the consumers. Wilkinson (2015) study shows that in South Africa, 11% of the migrants are employers while 21% are classed as self-employed and 32.65% are employed in South Africans informal sectors. Furthermore, in another study conducted on the immigrants in South Africa, 618 international migrants' traders interviewed, 31% rented properties from South Africans and employed 1,223 people of which 503 are South Africans. Most labor migrants hail from Lesotho, Mozambique, Swaziland, and Zimbabwe (Crush 2011; Lucas, 1987; Meny-Gibert & Chiumia, 2016).

### **Women Migration due Gender Based Inequalities and Discrimination**

Despite the large flow of female migrants, there is a lack of sex-disaggregated data in migration analysis (Beuchelt, 2018). Migration has continued to be a social phenomenon in individual's lives, however migration can be temporary, permanent, or circular it also includes migrates returning to their home country (Khan, 2020). Conversely, migration may also exacerbate vulnerabilities, abuse and trafficking, particularly when migrants are low skilled (Kastrup, 2013). According to Cohen and Layton-Henry (1997), many studies of migration have neglected women as a residual category as those who are not involved with migration. Nevertheless, women have generally been treated as dependent or family members. However, the turn up evidence has proven that women have been more independent actors than what was previously thought. Female migration has been hidden from history and feminist scholars have emphasized the importance of gender analysis on migration. According to Chant and Radcliffe (1992:2),

they stated that “gender-differentiated population movement may be significant in a whole range of ways to societies undergoing developmental change”.

Women are migrating in greater numbers and not merely as dependent or trailing spouse but as independent migrants. The feminist analysis has focused on the “feminization of migration” seeking to make gender an important category of analysis. Early studies on female migration described the exposure of women who labored under poor conditions and lacked choices (Buckley, 2017). Feminist studies of the contemporary period have located their argument within intersectionality theory seeking to show ways in which gender intersects with race, class and identity to illuminate a wide range of women’s experiences in the migration process (Landry, 2016). The novel gendered perspective has identified female immigrants in different geographical settings. In current times women are no longer passive victims and dependents but as head of households in the migration process (Nolin, 2006). Nevertheless, of recent, there have been studies documenting women’s agency in the migration process (Kiwanuka, 2010).

Hoang, Lam, Yeoh and Graham (2015) shows that some Southeast Asian women migrates specifically to escape forced marriage (Ferrant & Tuccio, 2014). Erulkar (2006) find that 23% of Ethiopian adolescent migrant girls migrated to avoid early marriage. The study went further and explains that other forms of gender-based discrimination prompting migration can be include early marriage female genital mutilation, gendered social stigmas or the potential for gender based violence. Ferrant and Tuccio (2015) study showed that countries with low level of discrimination have greater pull of migrant women. This greater pull may also be due to increase job market access for women. Baudasse and Bazillier (2014) finds that gender equality in the workplace is a pull factor for women. When lower levels of discriminatory social institution exist in origin countries, women are less likely to migrate to countries with higher levels of discrimination. However, women migrating from countries with the highest levels of discrimination often migrate to other countries with high level of discrimination.

### **Challenges faced by immigrant women in South Africa**

Nevertheless, in numeric terms, South Africa is a popular destination for migrants where females also suffer violence over hostility and social exclusion and exploitation (Adepoju, 2005a). Numerous female migrants lack funds and unemployment as many find it difficult to find a decent work thus enters the market as semi-skilled or unskilled workers in South Africa. Many are likely to work as hawkers, street traders and vendors (Hiralal, 2015). The socio-economic in South Africa is very difficult to what they imagined. Unemployment is another immigration impediment for women in South Africa. According to Hiralal (2017) from a study which was conducted in KwaZulu-Natal province on the female immigrants most of them face many obstacles to acquire a stable employment. Most women find themselves working as housemaids, babysitters and hir salons. Another challenging problem female immigrant face is the language barriers and inability to communicate in the local language. According to Ojong (2002) this is a common experience by female immigrants in KwaZulu-Natal South Africa.

Studies (Hirschman 1982; Smit & Rugunanan, 2014) have iterate the relevance of second language in destination country. For example, Gebre, Maharaj & Pillay (2011) aver that due to language barrier (inability to speak local South African languages) and the dialect and limited capacity to speak English, Ethiopian immigrants barely make an attempt to mix with other communities. Thus, it has deterred them from participating in the social life of other communities (p. 31). The inability for mainly their females to negotiate limits their social life, maximise economic opportunities, and ability to integrate in townships where they work or reside. Smit & Rugunanan (2014) reported that despite fact that Congolese and

## ***South African Destination Among African Women Immigrants***

Burundian women have been residing in South Africa for year, many find it difficult to perform formal negotiations, get blue-collar job and integrates conveniently into urban South Africa

## **ADAPTATION AND ASPIRATION OF FOREIGN WOMEN MIGRANTS**

The dynamics of migration has conditioned migrants to decide where to go and when to leave country of origin based on acquired mental perception of the place. The role of the mind, lived experiences and mental psychology according to Gurieva, Kōiv and Tararukhina (2020) has raised issues around migrant adaptation and aspiration. Their argument was that, migrants are usually concerned about maintaining their cultural identity in an enclosed manner at the destination country such that they easily adapt to the culture and setting of the destination.

Away from this, Van Mol et al. (2018) raised the assumption that migration aspirations are not simply a function of external factors such as natural disasters, political oppression, poverty, wage differentials, or historical formed political, economic, and cultural relations between countries. These factors according to Krummel (2015) can shape migration to be very empowering and disheartening to migrants. Hiralal (2017) made it a known fact that the traditionally migration has been structured towards males while females are perceived as and treated as adjuncts to male migrants because they came as part of family migration. Such migrants may include their wives and children as an accomplice. This experience can be somewhat disheartening for females that often culturally attached to their families. However, there has been a gradual change in the migration system. Lately females play the key roles in migration (Anthias, 2020). Migration can be empowering for women which allows women to have good access to employment and education improve gender equality, norms and strengthen their ability to make independent decisions and outcomes (Ghosh, 2009; Briones, 2009).

Based on the lived experiences of female migrants discussed in this chapter, the authors argue that, South Africa requires a systematic plan encompassing the issue of migration. For example, the proposed and planned “inclusive city” Durban has yet no formal public policy framework which addresses migration and inclusion. With the perpetual threat of violence within the city of Durban against people perceived as ‘foreign’, there is no better time than to start a more critical and creative participatory dialogue on what sort of policy frameworks would ensure a better urban existence for all people who live in Durban to create a true ‘inclusive city’.

There is the need to design a responsive municipal framework around inclusion and plan to mitigate tensions and conflicts for the foreigners. In a truly inclusive city, there is only solidarity, no segregation. Although as summed by Carling and Collins (2018, p.909) that imagined, desired, resisted, experienced, managed, and represented, migration is a multifaceted reality. This multi-dimensionality is why the authors conclude that the vulnerability of female gender in the various stages and process of Africa migration is both origin and destination defined. Hence, a less integrated and inclusive Africa for females as they continually become more exposed to the shocks of migration from country of origin and destinations. According to Ferrant and Tuccio (2014) discriminatory social institutions play a role in the push-pull factors of migration but only for women.

To better balance migration, the study identifies the need for the development of home country such that ‘forced’ and ‘poverty induced’ migration is curtailed. The argument of this study is that migration from various nations which is political, social or economic must be balanced. The political balance, tails towards promoting political balance across Africa, enhancing good social network and economic

livelihood capacity of citizen. Recognising the relevance of economic livelihood among African immigrant, this study suggest for bridging the gap of inequality among male and female. The authors argue that bridging this inequality gap will reduce households' vulnerability to migration shocks and stress.

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## **KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS**

**African Immigrant:** A person of African origin who has decided to move from his or her Africa country of citizenship into another, either on a temporary or permanent basis.

**Destination:** The choice location that an immigrant or emigrant is relocating to. This study sees destination as South Africa.

**Immigrant/Emigrant:** A person generally moving away from his or her country of origin into a different country location. He or she is seen as an immigrant in the host/destination country but as an emigrant in his or her country of origin.

**Migrant:** A person (male or female) that is engaging in the act of migration.

**Migration:** The act or process of moving from one country to another.

**Origin:** The country of citizenship from which a migrant (immigrant or emigrant is come from). It is usually the migrant's country of citizenship (by birth or law). In this study, the origin is mainly any Africa nation with exception to South Africa.

**Push/Pull Factors:** These are thing or indicators that serves as magnet of attraction to a choice location and a repellant away from country of origin and destination.