

RESEARCH ARTICLE:

Internal Migration: An Analysis of Associated Risks and Vulnerabilities of Women and Youth in KwaZulu-Natal

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Received: 23 November 2023 | Revised: 06 June 2024 | Published: 14 June 2024

Reviewing Editor: Dr. Olajumoke Ogunsanya, Durban University of Technology

Abstract

The abolition of the apartheid regime and the democratic process of 1994 led to the freedom of movement within South Africa. According to data, KwaZulu-Natal Province has had the second-highest rate of migration since 2000. The labour market and the provision of services are significantly impacted by these migration patterns. This paper analyses the migration patterns of women and youth in KwaZulu-Natal Province, as it examines the associated risks and vulnerabilities. The primary data for the study was obtained from the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report based on research it commissioned in 2014. The target population of this study comprises women and youth between the ages of 15-39 years old from all 11 districts of KwaZulu-Natal as they are more likely to migrate. Multi-stage sampling was used to select the clusters, households and ultimately the individuals to be surveyed. A cross-sectional survey of 1783 respondents were selected from various households in KwaZulu-Natal. Findings indicated that most of the women and young people who migrated did so for economic reasons. Findings also indicated that the migrants were exposed to health risks, gender-based violence, sexual exploitation, contracting and spreading the human immunodeficiency virus as well as exposure to danger to life and property. The paper contributes to a deeper understanding of migration patterns and their implications within the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa. The theoretical framework guiding this study is the "Push and Pull theory", which helps to elucidate the factors motivating and influencing migration decisions among young people in the region.

Keywords: crime; gender-based violence; internal migration; KwaZulu-Natal; youth

Introduction

Migration is the principal demographic process shaping patterns of human settlement, and it serves an essential role in human development (Bell *et al.*, 2015). South Africa's political transformation has led to a significant pattern of internal migration, with most people relocating permanently and temporarily across the country's provinces (Ginsburg *et al.*, 2021). The internal migration patterns in South Africa primarily involves movement from rural to metropolitan areas, largely due to the dismantling of apartheid racial segregation policies. This change from apartheid government to black majority leadership has allowed for greater freedom of movement, enabling individuals to seek better living conditions, employment prospects, and educational opportunities in different regions of the country (Ginsburg *et al.*, 2021; Ngwenya *et al.*, 2023). As noted by Dodson (2018), migration is part of a household's livelihood strategy, and thus an important means of poverty reduction. Internal migration has been defined or described as migration that involves relocating within the borders of a single country, encompassing moves from one place to another within that nation, as opposed to international migration, which pertains to the act of moving across national borders (Bouare, 2000; Kok, 2003; Dodson, 2018). Globally the determinants of internal migration include economic factors such as income differentials, unemployment rates, and poverty levels

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between regions (Alam and Mamun, 2022). Socioeconomic factors such as employment rate, population density, literacy rate, and city corporations influence migration patterns, with areas with higher economic activity, density, literacy, and urban centres attracting more migrants (Alam and Mamun, 2022). Demographic factors like age and gender influence migration, with younger people and females more likely to migrate internally, and many women migrate post-marriage to their husband's home region (Gökhan, 2008). The majority of research on the determinants of internal migration trends in South Africa focus on health (Ajaero, *et al.*, 2017; Ginsburg *et al.*, 2021, Pheiffer, 2021), crime (Kollamparambil, 2019), socio-economic and labour-related issues (Bouare, 2000). It is also worth noting that in South Africa, the youth, who are defined as people between the ages of 18-35 years old, make up the majority of internal migrants, with most moving between and within provinces for educational and economic reasons (Muhwava *et al.*, 2010; Lagakos, 2020).

One of the most apparent associated risks faced by women and youth as a result of internal migration is crime (Kollamparambil, 2019). South Africa is considered one of the most crime-prone societies in the world (BusinessTech, 2023). Of 44 countries in sub-Saharan Africa, South Africa is ranked as the 26th less peaceful nation. South Africa is ranked 130th out of 163 less safe countries to live in, and as the 20th most violent country to live in (BusinessTech, 2023). According to Kollamparambil (2019), South Africa has both one of the highest unemployment rates and income inequality levels in the world, the country has one of the highest crime rates in the world with homicide rates averaging 33.46 per 100,000 population in 2020 as compared to world average of 6.2 (UNODC, 2016). Women migrating from rural to urban areas for economic purposes are more likely to become victims of gender-based violence (GBV), sexual exploitation and exposure to contracting the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (Camlin *et al.*, 2010; Chisale, 2015). As noted by Pheiffer (2021), internal migration has had both beneficial and negative impacts. On the one hand, it has aided economic growth and development in urban areas; whilst on the other hand, internal migration has resulted in issues such as congestion; a strain on resources and infrastructure; an upsurge in crime rates; and greater vulnerability for the vulnerable population (youth and women) in relation to their health and security (Kollamparambil, 2019; Ginsburg *et al.*, 2021). The aim of this article is to investigate the internal migration trends and the risks and vulnerabilities that internal migrating women and youth experience. The article sheds light on the risks faced by vulnerable groups when migrating within the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa.

This study differs from prior studies on internal migration in South Africa by focusing specifically on the risks and vulnerabilities experienced by women and youth during migration within the KwaZulu-Natal province. While existing literature has explored various aspects of internal migration, including its determinants, impacts, and associated challenges, this study provides a more nuanced analysis by focusing on the experiences of two vulnerable demographic groups – women and young people. Firstly, the study contributes to the discourse on migration dynamics in South Africa by highlighting the differential impacts of internal migration on women and youth. While previous research has acknowledged the significance of internal migration for economic, social, and demographic changes within the country (Bouare, 2000; Ginsburg *et al.*, 2021), this study delves deeper into the specific risks and vulnerabilities faced by women and youth as they relocate within provinces, particularly in KwaZulu-Natal. By focusing on these demographic groups, the study sheds light on the intersectional dimensions of migration, considering how factors such as gender, age, and socio-economic status intersect to shape individuals' experiences and outcomes during migration processes. Secondly, the study extends prior research by emphasising the need for tailored policy responses to address the unique challenges faced by migrating women and youth (Ginsburg *et al.*, 2021). While existing literature has recognized the overall impacts of internal migration on development, infrastructure, and social cohesion, this study underscores the importance of addressing the specific vulnerabilities of women and youth to ensure more inclusive and equitable outcomes. By making policy suggestions aimed at mitigating the risks associated with internal migration for these demographic groups, the study contributes to ongoing efforts to promote social justice and inclusive development in South Africa.

Overall, this study offers a novel perspective on internal migration dynamics in South Africa by focusing on the experiences of women and youth within the context of the KwaZulu-Natal province. By highlighting their unique challenges and vulnerabilities, as well as proposing targeted policy interventions, the study enriches the discourse on migration governance and contributes to efforts aimed at creating more supportive and inclusive environments for all individuals, particularly those most at risk during migration processes. Underpinned by the Push and Pull theory, the article examines the factors influencing women and youth migration within the province and the associated risks resulting from these migration patterns. The article makes policy suggestions to address these risks and vulnerabilities, with the goal of promoting inclusive development and social justice in South Africa. The

main objectives include: (i) to examine the relationship between South Africa's political transformation and internal migration patterns; (ii) to understand the risk and vulnerabilities associated with women and youth migration within South Africa; and (iii) to analyze the 'Push and Pull' factors of women and youth migration within South Africa.

Theoretical Conceptualisation: The 'Push and Pull' Theory

Relying on Lee's 'Push and Pull' theory (Lee, 1966), the article examines the drivers of internal migration amongst the youth and women in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa. According to Lee; migration can be explained by 'push' (factors that forces people to leave a certain area) and 'pull' (factors that cause people to move to a certain area) factors (Lee, 1966). The 'Push and Pull' theory when applied in the context of youth migration shows that the youth make up a large percentage of migrants either to advance their economic opportunities or fleeing conflicts, poverty, youth unemployment and political instability (Lee, 1966; Lucas, 1997). South Africa's, socio-economic realities such as limited job opportunities and persistent poverty in rural areas often act as the 'push' factors that compel individuals to seek employment and economic stability in urban areas. Lagakos (2020) notes that urban centres offer greater access to formal employment, education, healthcare facilities, and other essential services that are often lacking in rural communities, hence having a great influence on youth migration (Lagakos, 2020). Mlambo (2018) identifies social factors such as family re-unification, educational aspirations and the desire for a better quality of life as motivating factors contributing to the 'pull' factors of migration amongst women and youth (Eigelaar-Meets, 2018; Mlambo, 2018). When examining the factors driving women and youth migration within South Africa, it is crucial to consider the complex interplay between political, economic, and social factors that influence people's decision to migrate. The study by Mlambo and Mpanza (2019) highlights the role of social media in driving women and youth migration in South Africa. They argue that technology provides young people with access to information about other places, making modern migration more facilitated and influenced through platforms like Twitter (X), Facebook, YouTube, WhatsApp and other social media platforms (Mlambo and Mpanza, 2019). These movement patterns bring with them risks and vulnerabilities that must be addressed in order to preserve the well-being of women and youth, who are the most vulnerable demographics in South Africa when it comes to internal migration-related risks (Kollamparambil, 2019). The Push and Pull theory provide insight into the reasons young people migrate and the factors that draw them to specific locations. It helps understand the challenges faced by migrants on their journey. Understanding the historical context and push and pull factors of women and youth migration in South Africa is crucial for developing targeted interventions and support systems that cater to the specific needs of this population (Maunganidze *et al.*, 2021).

Methodology

The research methodology serves to inform the reader of how the investigation was carried out, in other words, what the researcher did to solve the research problem or to answer the research question (Brink *et al.*, 2006). For this study we used a quantitative survey design employing questionnaires to collect data as recommended by (Polit and Beck, 2008). A quantitative approach is seen as objective as it relates to phenomena or conditions independent of individual thought. It is perceptible to all observers and relies heavily on statistics and figures (Unützer *et al.*, 2012). Data derived from observation and measurement is therefore numerically represented, is beyond chance and has applicability beyond the sample to a wider population Blanche *et al.* (2006); Burns and Grove (2005). The data used in this study was derived from a demographics study that was commissioned by the Department of Social Development (DSD) in KwaZulu-Natal in 2014. The DSD recognized the importance of migration in shaping the demographics of the province and conducted research to describe the migration patterns in KwaZulu-Natal, identify the causes of migration, examine the consequences of these migration patterns, and identify the key migration spaces and associated vulnerabilities.

The target population of this study comprised women and young people aged between 15 and 39 years, from all 11 districts of KwaZulu-Natal. The survey design called for a relatively large sample, owing to the expected rates of internal migration as well as the desire to report on inter-regional (provinces and districts) migration flows. The sample was based on a multi-stage stratified design, using a sampling frame constructed from the 2011 census of population and household listings updated for all the selected clusters. Multi-stage sampling was used to select the clusters, households and ultimately the individuals to be surveyed. A total of 1783 respondents were selected from various households in KwaZulu-Natal, to gather information on their behaviours, intentions, knowledge, attitudes, and opinions. Several steps were involved in the data analyses. First, the data had to be representative of the population distribution in the districts that were included in the survey. Second, robust statistics had to be

computed to show the interrelationships between explanatory variables like age, sex, education, marital status and economic activities to outcome variables like propensity to migrate, health status, health-seeking behaviours and knowledge, attitudes and practices on HIV.

Findings and Discussion

The data presentation and analysis provide a comprehensive examination of the risk and vulnerability of women and youth internal migrants in KwaZulu-Natal, drawing on quantitative data from the Department of Social Development and International Organisation for Migration, unpublished report (2015), to elucidate the patterns, causes, consequences, and policy implications of internal migration in the region. The data analysis conducted in the paper involved a rigorous process of extracting information from the primary data, coding the information, and classifying it into the dominant themes. This process allowed for a systematic examination of the key factors and to generate insights related to the respective risk and vulnerability of women and youth internal migrants in KwaZulu-Natal.

The demographic profile of the respondents, including their residence districts, age group, and sex, is presented in Table 1. About 52% of the interviewed youths were females, while 48% were males. Age was deliberately included as it is a significant factor in determining youth migration behaviour.

Table 1: Percentage distribution of the youth respondents by district, age group and sex

District of interview	Sex of Respondent	Age Group (years)				Total
		15-19	20-24	25-29	30-39	
Amajuba	Male	57.1	33.3	72.7	57.1	55.9
	Female	42.9	66.7	27.3	42.9	44.1
eThekweni Metro	Male	32.0	54.5	62.0	62.5	55.2
	Female	68.0	45.5	38.0	37.5	44.8
iLembe	Male	34.5	33.3	36.6	50.0	37.9
	Female	65.5	66.7	63.4	50.0	62.1
Harry Gwala	Male	39.2	56.2	40.0	55.6	46.0
	Female	60.8	43.8	60.0	44.4	54.0
Ugu	Male	27.7	47.8	65.2	46.7	43.5
	Female	72.3	52.2	34.8	53.3	56.5
uMgungundlovu	Male	56.8	41.5	45.6	36.4	43.9
	Female	43.2	58.5	54.4	63.6	56.1
uMkhanyakude	Male	48.7	48.8	52.8	41.0	47.9
	Female	51.3	51.2	47.2	59.0	52.1
uMzinyathi	Male	37.2	71.4	33.3	-	50.0
	Female	62.8	28.6	66.7	100.0	50.0
uThukela	Male	54.2	53.8	52.8	52.9	53.6
	Female	45.8	46.2	47.2	47.1	46.4
uThungulu	Male	41.1	57.7	67.5	56.5	53.6
	Female	58.9	42.3	32.5	43.5	46.4
Zululand	Male	57.9	37.9	48.1	27.3	47.7
	Female	42.1	62.1	51.9	72.7	52.3
Total	Male	44.2	49.9	52.6	47.5	48.5
	Female	55.8	50.1	47.4	52.5	51.5
Number	Total	527	615	381	260	1783

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

All the youth were asked whether they were currently in school as reflected in the figure below:

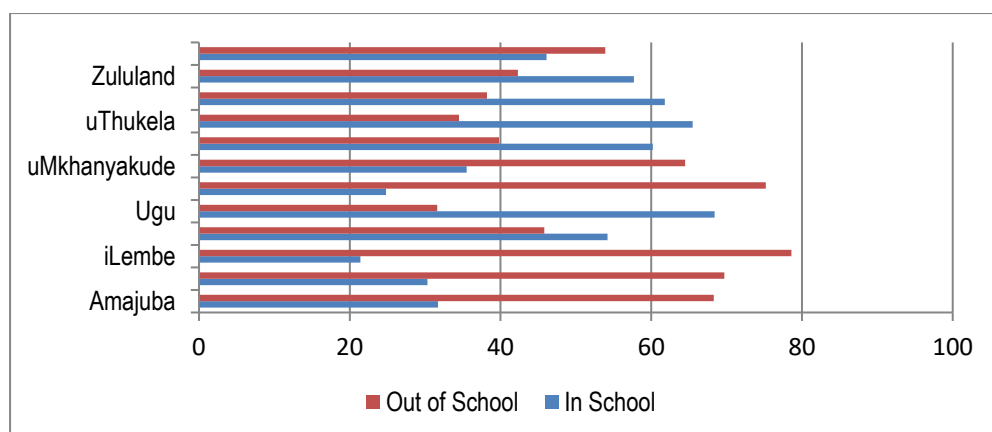


Figure 1: Percentage of respondents by current school attendance by district

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

The study found that 54% of the youths were still attending educational institutions, with no significant differences between males and females. However, there were wide variations between district municipalities, with more out-of-school youths in some areas and more in-school youths in others. School attendance was analyzed based on age, revealing that 26% of females and 16% of males were no longer attending high schools or universities. By age 20-24, 44% of males and 53% of females were already out of schooling. These findings highlight the need for better schooling policies and support for young people.

The survey classified youth into four categories: non-migrants, inter-district migrants, inter-provincial migrants, and international migrants. Non-migrants are those who have never moved from their birth district. Inter-district migrants are those born in another district in KwaZulu-Natal and moved to the district where they were interviewed. Inter-provincial migrants are those born in another province and moved to the district where they were interviewed. International migrants are those from other countries. Table 2 presents the distribution of migration status of the respondents.

Table 2: Distribution of youth by migration status by sex, age group and district

Background Variables	Categories	Type of Migrant			
		Non-Migrant	Inter-District Migrant	Inter-Provincial	International
Sex of respondent	Male	33.5	55.3	8.8	2.3
	Female	35.7	54.3	8.5	1.5
Age Group (years)	15-19	38.2	53.9	6.9	1.0
	20-24	34.2	54.1	9.8	2.0
	25-29	33.9	55.3	8.9	1.8
	30-35	30.5	57.1	8.9	3.5
District of interview	Amajuba	14.3	69.8	9.5	6.3
	eThekweni Metro	51.7	37.3	7.5	3.5
	iLembe	11.7	73.8	9.7	4.8
	Harry Gwala	28.6	47.4	23.4	0.5
	Ugu	80.5	10.5	7.5	1.5
	uMgungundlovu	5.6	79.4	13.6	1.4
	uMkhanyakude	35.0	59.4	3.0	2.5
	uMzinyathi	40.9	50.0	9.1	0.0
	uThukela	50.0	39.9	8.3	1.8
	uThungulu	15.9	82.1	1.9	0.0
Zululand	52.6	44.6	1.7	1.1	
Total		34.7	54.8	8.6	1.9

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

The study found that 35% of the youth in the sample had not migrated in their lifetime, but 55% had migrated from another district in KwaZulu-Natal, 9% from another province, and 2% from another country. The migration patterns were similar by sex and age group. However, the migration patterns in different districts were significantly different.

In Amajuba, 70% of the youth migrated from another district, while only 14% were non-migrants. In eThekweni Metro, 52% were non-migrants, while 37% migrated from another district. In iLembe, 74% migrated from another district, while only 12% were non-migrants. The youth population in various districts varies significantly, with 81% being non-migrants in Ugu, 79% in uMgungundlovu, 59% in uMkhanyakude, 50% in uMzinyathi, 50% in uThukela, 82% in uThungulu, and 53% in Zululand.

Factors associated with internal migration were also sought and classified into two (push factors and pull factors). The major push factors identified were economic in nature, comprising youth unemployment and socio-economic living conditions. The pull factors were identified as family commitment and education. The reasons for migration into each district are provided in Table 3.

Table 3: Reasons for migration

Main reason for Migration	District of Current Residence					Total
	Amajuba	uMgungundlovu	uMkhanyakude	uThungulu	Zululand	
Employment	31.2	25.4	19.2	44.5	33.9	31.5
Look for Work	11.9	19.7	17.3	11.8	16.9	15.5
Education	15.0	5.8	9.6	12.7	10.2	10.6
Join Family	22.5	20.8	38.5	14.5	14.4	20.4
Education for children	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.7	0.5
Better health facilities	1.2	4.6	1.9	1.8	1.7	2.4
Better Accommodation	13.1	12.1	3.8	2.7	5.1	8.6
Marriage	1.2	9.2	5.8	7.3	11	6.9
Other	3.1	2.3	3.8	4.5	5.1	3.6
N (N = total population of participants)	160	173	52	110	118	613

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

The push factors of internal migration

This section discusses the push factors of internal migration in Kwazulu-Natal under two distinct sub-headings, namely youth unemployment and socio-economic living conditions. Table 4 below presents the levels of youth unemployment figures in the selected districts of KwaZulu-Natal.

Table 4: Percentage of respondents by employment status and district

Sex	Employment Status	District					Total
		Amajuba	uMgungundlovu	uMkhanyakude	uThungulu	Zululand	
Male	Not working	45.6	15.3	22.9	21.6	15.8	25.0
	Fulltime employed	21.7	19.1	19.5	33.6	37.0	26.8
	Part-time employed	8.3	11.5	5.1	6.7	6.5	7.6
	Self-employed	8.9	22.1	7.6	12.7	10.9	12.2
Female	Not working	59.4	35.8	42.3	20.5	24.5	37.5
	Fulltime employed	10.6	9.8	6.7	36.3	22.6	16.6
	Part-time employed	7.4	8.3	2	4.8	1.9	5
	Self-employed	3.2	4.1	3.4	6.2	9.1	5.3
Total	Not working	53.1	27.5	33.7	21.1	20.4	31.9
	Fulltime employed	15.6	13.6	12.4	35.0	29.3	21.2
	Part-time employed	7.8	9.6	3.4	5.7	4.1	6.2
	Self-employed	5.8	11.4	5.2	9.3	9.9	8.4

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

In the table above, it is evident that only 21% of the total respondents indicated full employment in the formal sector. Notably, uThungulu and Zululand districts exhibited the highest rates of formal full employment at 35% and 29%, respectively, while uMgungundlovu and uMkhanyakude recorded the lowest rates at approximately 13% each. Among male respondents, approximately 26% reported full employment, with Zululand and uThungulu districts registering the highest proportions at 37% and 34%, respectively. Conversely, uMgungundlovu and uMkhanyakude had the lowest rates of male full employment, each around 19%. For female respondents, the rate

of full employment was lower at 17% overall. However, uThungulu district stood out with 36% of female respondents reporting full employment. Overall, 32% of all respondents indicated being unemployed. The highest unemployment rates were observed in Amajuba at 53%, followed by uMkhanyakude at 34%. Conversely, uThungulu and Zululand districts exhibited the lowest unemployment rates among all respondents, each around 21%. Socio-economic living conditions are also a major push factor in youth mobility and migration within and into KwaZulu-Natal, young people will naturally migrate to areas where the provision of basic amenities are available and accessible. This section discusses the findings from the study under three distinct sub-headings, namely (i) water, (ii) sanitation and (iii) energy.

The respondents were asked about their sources of water. The results are presented in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Percentage distribution of households by source of water

Source of Water	Amajuba	uMgungundlovu	uMkhanyakude	uThungulu	Zululand	All
Piped Tap within the yard	77.1	57.7	41.6	76.4	88.3	70.1
Street taps (standpipes) paid	2	1.5	0.4	13.6	2.3	3.7
Street Tap free	13.9	26.2	12.0	5.0	2.0	11.7
Borehole/well	0.5	2.5	9.0	2.1	1.0	2.7
Rainwater tank	0.0	1.9	4.1	1.4	1.0	1.5
Flowing river/stream	0.0	5.6	12	0.0	0.8	3.2
Dam/pool/standing water	0.0	0.9	5.6	0.0	0.0	1.1
Water tanker/truck	3.3	3.4	13.5	0.7	0.3	3.8
Other specify	3.3	0.3	1.9	0.7	4.3	2.3

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

The majority of households in KwaZulu-Natal have piped tap water within their yards, with Zululand having the highest percentage (88%). 70% of respondents reported getting their water from piped taps within their yards, while uMkhanyakude had the lowest (42%). Street taps are the second most important source of water, with 26% in uMgungundlovu and 14% in Amajuba using these sources. Water trucks or tankers are used by 4% of respondents. A small proportion of respondents get water from unprotected sources, with 3% from flowing rivers and streams. Other sources include rainwater tanks, boreholes or wells, paid street taps, dams, or pools, standing water, and unspecified sources. The study found that households in almost all districts still had to fetch water from more than 200 meters away from their residences.

Findings from the study show that sanitation in terms of toilet facilities impacted on the socio-economic living conditions of the youth, hence contributing to internal migration within KwaZulu-Natal. Table 6 presents the type of sanitary conditions of the households interviewed.

Table 6: Percentage of households and type of toilet facilities

Type of Toilet	Amajuba	uMgungundlovu	uMkhanyakude	uThungulu	Zululand	All
Flush toilet	72.4	46.2	12.3	80.7	48.6	53.4
Chemical toilet	3.9	7.2	0.4	5.5	2.3	3.9
VIP	4.5	5.0	33.8	8.0	29.9	15.9
Basic pit latrine	7.6	39.6	42.3	2.9	15.3	20.5
Bucket toilet	7.6	0.9	0.8	0.7	1.6	2.6
Neighbours' toilet	1.6	0.3	1.5	1.5	0.0	0.9
No access to toilet	1.6	0.0	8.5	0.4	2.3	2.3
Other	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.4

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

The sample reveals that 53% of households use flush toilets connected to sewerage systems, with 81% in uThungulu, 72% in Amajuba, and 33% in Zululand and uMgungundlovu. The highest proportion of basic pit toilets without ventilation is in uMkhanyakude (42.3%) and uMgungundlovu (39.6%). The third highest proportion has ventilated improved pit latrines (VIP). About 4% use chemical toilets and 3% use bucket toilet systems. From the above it is evident that youth would migrate to areas with better living conditions and basic amenities.

Access to energy is also a major push factor in internal migration. Energy impacts on the living conditions of people, particularly the youth who rely on energy for schooling and daily living activities. The unavailability or inaccessibility

of energy, particularly electricity, affects the socio-economic living conditions of people and is a push factor for internal migration to places where energy is more readily available. Table 7 presents the energy sources used by respondents in their various locations.

Table 7: Percentage who use the following Energy sources for cooking

Energy Source	Amajuba	uMgungundlovu	uMkhanyakude	uThungulu	Zululand	All
Electricity	81.8	80.2	33.5	91.0	90.3	77.3
Gas/LPG	1.3	2.2	9.4	5.7	2.8	3.9
Paraffin	12.7	9	0.8	0.4	0.8	5.1
Wood	2.8	8	54.1	2.5	6.1	12.8
Coal	1.3	0.6	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.5
Solar energy	0.3	0.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.3
Other	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.1

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

The study found that youth would migrate to have better access to cleaner and more efficient energy sources.

The pull factors of internal migration in KwaZulu-Natal

The study explores the "Pull" factors driving internal migration in KwaZulu-Natal, revealing that family commitments and education are the primary drivers. The discussion begins with family commitment and concludes with education as a key pull factor in women and youth internal migration.

Internal migration in the province are primarily driven by family commitments, with 27% mentioning joining a migrated parent, spouse, or child. The highest proportion of migrants in uMzinyathi (77.2%) and Amajuba (57.15) moved to join families, while only 14% in uThungulu and Zululand did. Women are most likely to migrate from rural areas to join their husbands or partners in urban areas, with 38.5% of migrants in uMkhanyakude joining family. The finding that family commitments are a primary driver of migration, particularly for women joining their husbands or partners in urban areas, aligns with the "Pull" factors identified in the theoretical frame of migration, specifically the Push and Pull theory. According to this theory, individuals are pulled towards migration destinations by factors such as better opportunities, improved living conditions, and social networks, among others. In the context of this study, family commitments act as a significant pull factor, attracting individuals to migrate to be with their family members who have already moved to urban areas. This aligns with the notion that individuals are drawn to migration destinations where they have established social ties and support networks, such as family relationships. For example, women migrating from rural areas to join their husbands or partners in urban areas are likely motivated by the desire to maintain or strengthen family bonds and access better economic and social opportunities available in urban areas. Therefore, the discussion of family commitments as a primary driver of migration can be linked to the pull factor of the theoretical frame by highlighting how individuals are drawn towards migration destinations by the prospect of reuniting with family members and benefiting from the social and economic opportunities available in those areas. This reinforces the importance of considering both push and pull factors in understanding migration dynamics and designing effective policies to address the needs of migrants and their families.

Education was also regarded as a primary reason for internal migration among youth in Harry Gwala, with about a third of those still in school relocating in the last five years. Overall, 34% of youth in other districts migrated for educational reasons, with almost 50% of in-migrants in Harry Gwala relocating for this purpose. The emphasis on education as a primary reason for youth migration in Harry Gwala and other districts aligns closely with the pull factor identified in the theoretical frame of migration, specifically the Pull theory. According to this theory, individuals are attracted to migration destinations by factors such as better educational opportunities, which promise personal and professional development. In the context of this study, the pursuit of education acts as a significant pull factor for youth migration. The availability of educational opportunities, such as access to quality schools, colleges, and universities, motivates young people to relocate to areas where they can pursue their academic goals and enhance their prospects. This aligns with the notion that individuals are drawn to migration destinations that offer better opportunities for personal advancement and socio-economic mobility. Therefore, the discussion of education as a primary reason for youth migration can be linked to the pull factor of the theoretical frame by highlighting how young people are attracted to areas with educational institutions that can facilitate their educational aspirations and contribute to their long-term success. This reinforces the importance of considering education as a key determinant

of migration patterns and underscores the need to invest in educational infrastructure and opportunities in both rural and urban areas to address the needs of migrating youth effectively.

Associated risks and vulnerabilities of women and youth migration in KwaZulu-Natal

In this survey, sexual violence was broadly defined as any sexual act perpetrated against the will of an individual (WHO 2015). Such acts could take a variety of forms, which include forced sexual intercourse, forced sexual contact, unwelcome sexual advances, and requests for sexual favours. All youth, regardless of age, were asked whether they had experienced any sexual violence in the 12 months preceding the survey. About 6% of the females and 3% of the males reported that they had experienced some form of sexual violence within the period. Table 8 indicates the percentage of respondents who had experienced different forms of sexual violence.

Table 8: Percentage distribution of respondents who experienced different forms of sexual violence.

Background Variables	Categories	Form of sexual abuse experienced				
		Forced sexual intercourse	Forced sexual contact	Unwelcome sexual advances	Requests for sexual favours	Other
District	Amajuba	40.0	40.0	0.0	20.0	0.0
	uMgungundlovu	20.0	0.0	80.0	0.0	0.0
	uMkhanyakude	75.0	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	uThungulu	46.4	7.1	14.3	17.9	14.3
	Zululand	30.8	30.8	30.8	0.0	7.7
Sex	Male	48.0	16.0	12.0	8.0	16.0
	Female	41.2	17.6	26.5	11.8	2.9
Age Group	15-19	66.7	0.0	16.7	16.7	0.0
	20-29	46.4	21.4	21.4	3.6	7.1
	30-39	20.0	20.0	20.0	26.7	13.3

Source: Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

The most prevalent form of sexual violence was forced sexual intercourse. Among individuals aged 15-19, an alarming 67% reported experiencing sexual violence. In comparison, for the age brackets of 20-29 and 30-39, the prevalence rates were 46% and 20%, respectively. In addition, within the instances of sexual violence reported in uMkhanyakude, 75% involved forced sexual intercourse.

For the purposes of this study, physical violence was defined as encompassing violent acts against someone, including slapping, pushing, hitting with an object, kicking, or beating. Respondents were asked whether they had experienced any form of physical violence from any person, partner, parent or adult relative and authority since migrating to their present location. Approximately 12% of the females and 11% of the males reported that they had experienced some form of physical violence in the 12 months preceding the survey. The rates of physical violence were similar for both males and females.

In KwaZulu-Natal, migration is a major factor in the transmission of HIV (Dzomba *et al.*, 2019a). Numerous studies have determined the role that labour migration plays in the HIV epidemic. Migrant labour is sent by several KwaZulu-Natal rural districts to other districts within the province and other regions of South Africa (Dzomba *et al.*, 2019b, Correa-Agudelo *et al.*, 2021). Research has identified female migration as a one of the determinant factors in the spread of the HIV epidemic in South Africa (Zuma *et al.*, 2003; Coffee *et al.*, 2007; Voeten *et al.*, 2010; Dzomba *et al.*, 2019b). A research study by Camlin, *et al.* (2010) drew attention to the notably high rate of HIV prevalence amongst female migrants. Several studies have confirmed that women migrants in KwaZulu-Natal actively contribute to the spread of the epidemic rather than being passive victims of it (Dzomba *et al.*, 2019b, Dzomba *et al.*, 2019a). In this study, respondents were asked about the use of condoms to prevent HIV spread and infection. Table 9 presents the Percentage of respondents who indicated the level of consistency in condom usage.

Table 9: Percentage of respondents who indicated the level of consistency in condom usage.

Background Variables	Categories	Consistency of Condom Use			
		Always	Mostly	Sometimes	Never
ID.5 District of Interview	Amajuba	41.4	11.6	30.6	16.4
	uMgungundlovu	24.7	15.4	37.5	22.4
	uMkhanyakude	20.9	17.8	37.4	23.9
	uThungulu	26.8	24.8	26.0	22.4

	Zululand	22.1	20.1	32.2	25.7
A.2 Sex of respondent	Male	29.0	18.9	34.2	18.0
	Female	27.3	16.2	31.4	25.2
Age Group	15-19	34.1	13.4	16.5	36.0
	20-29	29.8	20.1	37.2	12.9
	30-39	27.6	21.3	37.3	13.8
Migration Status	Non-Migrant	29.5	14.7	33.6	22.2
	District Migrant	30.1	23.3	25.4	21.2
	Provincial Migrant	25.1	23.4	29.9	21.6
	International Migrant	16.9	22.9	39.8	20.3

Source: Adapted from Department of Social Development and International Organization for Migration, unpublished report (2015)

According to the study, among sexually active individuals aged 15-19, 34% reported consistent condom use, while 36% reported never using condoms. In contrast, among individuals aged 20-29 and 30-39, 30% and 28%, respectively, reported always using condoms, while 13% and 14%, respectively, reported never using them. The statistics revealed concerning trends related to sexual violence and condom use among different age groups in KwaZulu-Natal and underscore the urgent need for targeted intervention programmes.

Summary of Discussion and Recommendations

This study relied on Lee's Push and Pull theory of migration (Lee, 1966) to examine the factors that influence youth and women internal migration within the KwaZulu-Natal province. The push factors were identified as youth unemployment and the poor socio-economic living conditions of youth and women. These findings are consistent with previous studies (Eigelaar-Meets, 2018; Mlambo, 2018), and the findings suggest that young people migrate from one district to the other to find employment, as well as to escape poor socio-economic living standards (Xiao *et al.*, 2022). The pull factors identified by the study indicate that the major pull factors for internal migration were family commitment and education. This is consistent with other studies conducted (Mlambo, 2018; Kanayo *et al.*, 2019; Mlambo and Mpanza, 2019) which indicate that joining a migrated family member is a mitigating factor for internal migration. Education, particularly tertiary education, which is mostly situated in major cities in KwaZulu-Natal is also responsible for internal migration within the province. These findings are also consistent with finds from various researchers (Muhwava *et al.*, 2010; Mlambo, 2018; Dlamini, 2020). Internal migration comes with many risks, particularly for the more vulnerable populations such as women and children. Risks such as sexual violence (Mkwananzi, 2022), physical violence (Ngwenya *et al.*, 2023) and HIV infections and spread have been identified. These risks are often more common amongst female migrants (Coffee *et al.*, 2007; Voeten *et al.*, 2010). It is therefore imperative for government to make adequate provisions to protect its most vulnerable internal migrants and ensure social justice for its citizens.

Large portions of South Africans are trapped in poverty, as noted by Mthembu and Mutambara (2018). In some parts, the poverty is so severe and as a result, socio-economic development progress is impeded, leading to rural de-population of the youth as well as women who migrate to fend for their children and families. To address the risks and vulnerabilities associated with internal migration, particularly amongst women and youth in South Africa, the article makes the following recommendations with the aim of promoting inclusive development and social justice in South Africa. It is crucial for policymakers to adopt inclusive migration policies that prioritize the well-being and protection of women and youth migrants. This requires a comprehensive approach that considers not only legal frameworks but also social support systems, access to education and employment opportunities, as well as healthcare services. By addressing these issues holistically, South Africa can create an enabling environment that promotes safe and sustainable internal migration whilst mitigating risks and vulnerabilities for women and youth. In essence, comprehensive legislation is needed to protect the rights and well-being of migrants within a country, addressing issues such as access to healthcare, education, employment opportunities, and social protection. The use of "proof of residence" in public institutions could prevent migrants from accessing these facilities, exposing them to risk. Clear guidelines and regulations on internal migration can prevent discrimination or exploitation. Improving the integration of migrants into local communities through social cohesion and cultural exchange can reduce isolation and marginalization. Targeted support programmes should cater to the specific needs of women and youth migrants, and programmes focusing on improving rural economies should be implemented. Rural tourism can create employment and develop rural entrepreneurs, while education, skills training, and start-up financing can help rural dwellers access start-up financing for their business ideas.

It is recommended that policymakers adopt an inclusive migration approach, focusing on regularizing undocumented migrants to protect their rights, contribute to social stability, and enhance economic development. Empowering women and youth migrants can reduce vulnerability to exploitation. Addressing internal migration risks requires legislative reforms, community integration, targeted support programmes, and inclusive policies. South Africa can create a safe environment for all migrants.

Conclusion

This article explores the challenges of internal migration in South Africa, focusing on the risks and vulnerabilities faced by women and youth in KwaZulu-Natal. It highlights the relationship between political transformation and migration patterns, highlighting historical factors that continue to shape current trends. The legal framework governing migration is scrutinized, emphasizing the need for holistic policies catering to the unique needs of women and youth migrants. Economic opportunities and social dynamics are identified as key drivers of migration, with specific hazards and vulnerabilities such as gender-based violence, exploitation, limited healthcare, and education access. The article provides policy recommendations to mitigate these risks and vulnerabilities for youth and women. The study was limited to the Kwazulu-Natal province in South Africa. Future researchers can conduct studies on how technological advancement can be harnessed for youth and women and other vulnerable groups in the rural areas to curb or stem rural–urban migration in South Africa.

Acknowledgement

International Organization for Migration South Africa (IOM); Department of Social Development KwaZulu-Natal (KZNDSD); National Institute for the Humanities and Social Sciences (NIHSS).

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