



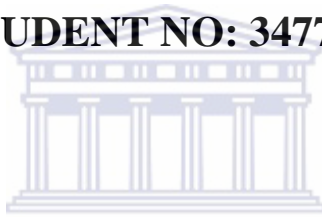
UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

**EXPLORING THE LINK BETWEEN YOUTH MIGRATION AND
FOOD SECURITY: A CASE STUDY OF ZIMBABWEAN YOUTHS
IN CAPE TOWN, SOUTH AFRICA**

BY

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**A mini-thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of Master of Arts in Development Studies at the Institute for
Social Development, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences,
University of the Western Cape.**

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November 2015

DECLARATION

I declare that *Exploring the link between youth migration and food security: A case study of Zimbabwean Youths in Cape Town, South Africa* is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Full name: **Sean Thulani Sithole**

Date **27 November 2015**

Signed:



DEDICATION AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This thesis is dedicated to the unconditional love and support from my aunt Sipiwe, her supportive husband and forever caring children who taught me that education is crucial in opening the golden doors of liberty, freedom and self-determination.

To begin with, I give thanks and praise to Lord God for the sound health and welfare that were essential to finish this thesis. Above all, my sincere appreciation and gratitude go to my supervisor Dr. Mulugeta Dinbabo. I have been incredibly privileged to have a patient, supportive and enthusiastic supervisor. His ideas, enthusiasm, motivation and encouragement throughout the writing of this thesis were crucial for its completion. I thank him for his precious time and consideration, his guidance on both this thesis and my career has been invaluable. I am forever thankful and grateful for his generous support.

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ABSTRACT

In recent times, debates on the connection between migration and development surfaced as essential discourses in contemporary development issues. Consequently, this led to the birth of what is currently popularly acknowledged or coined as the migration-development nexus. In addition, there has been an evolution of the food security topic in various developmental discussions. Nevertheless, little attention has been given to the relationship between international migration and food security in the context of development. Moreover, missing in the literature is the conversation on migration and food security with particular attention to youths who constitute a vulnerable yet economically active group. Furthermore, there has been an ongoing engaging debate on the impact of remittances, on one side macro-economists argue that remittances are important for the economies of migrant sending and receiving countries and view the use of remittances at the household level as destruction to growth and development. On the other, micro-economists are skeptical about the naïve view of the macroeconomists; on the contrary, they argue that the use of remittances at the household level is very vital for the livelihood of the poor and vulnerable societies.

This thesis empirically investigated the link between youth migration and food security in the setting of Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town, South Africa, in the perspective of south-south migration, the New Economics of Labour Migration and Livelihood Approaches, consequently introducing what the researcher identifies as the youth migration-food security nexus. The thesis focused on three key themes: 1) reasons for youth migration in connection to food security 2) the importance of remittances on food security in the place of origin 3) levels of food insecurity of Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town.

A combination of quantitative and qualitative research approach was applied in this study, where STATA version 12 statistical software was used for quantitative data analysis. The findings of this thesis reveal that there is an assenting link between youth migration and food security. Firstly, results point out that food insecurity or food shortage is one of the main causes of youth migration. Secondly, migration decision making is a collective and cooperative livelihood strategy used by many households or families. Thirdly, remittances from youths are vital for the livelihood of the people left in the place of origin and are primarily sent and used for food consumption. Lastly, although food security levels were still low there was an improvement of food security for youth migrants in Cape Town. Moreover, this research recognized a number of challenges that face

migrant youths in their need for food security, which include (a) lack of reliable income to buy food, (b) poor utilization of food or consumption of unbalanced diet, and (c) limited research on migration and food security issues. In contextualizing these challenges, the study concludes with remarks and recommendations for policy makers, governments and nongovernmental establishments among other organizations.



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ESAP-Economic Structural Adjustment Programme

FAO – Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

GMO - Genetically Modified Organisms

IOM – International Organization for Migration

MDC – Movement for Democratic Change

NELM – New Economics of Labor Migration

UNHCR – United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

ZANU PF - Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front

ZIMASSET - Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation



GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Kukiya Kiya – is a Shona word (Zimbabwe local language) used to refer to the informal ways of surviving by doing various informal activities for income generation.

Mbeu - is a Shona word (Zimbabwe local language) for seed crops.

Murambatsvina (Operation) - ‘a clearing out of rubbish’ was put into action by the Zimbabwean government in order to clean or remove garbage in towns and cities especially illegal homes, settlements and vending locations.

Ndakaguta - is a Shona word (Zimbabwe local language), which means the stomach is full or one is not hungry.

Zvakabhadhara pa Joza - is a Shona statement (Zimbabwe local language) used by Zimbabwean to refer to the fact that everything is okay/fine/very good or going according to plan in South Africa.

Zvinhu zvakaoma - is a Shona statement (Zimbabwe local language) which means things are tight, all is not well.

Zvirikufaya - is a Shona word (Zimbabwe local language) entails that all is well, everything is in order or life is good.



KEYWORDS:

- Zimbabwe
- South Africa
- Cape Town
- Youths
- Migration
- Food security
- Food insecurity
- Migration-food security nexus
- Migration-development nexus
- Remittances



"It is important to emphasize the positive contribution young migrants make to societies of origin, transit, and destination – economically and by enriching the social and cultural fabric. Most work hard to earn a living and improve their circumstances. The remittances they send to support families in their home countries are a major contributor to economies worldwide."

United Nations Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon, International Youth Day (UN News Centre, 2013)

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The dawn of the 21st century heralded the migration-development nexus discourse which resurfaced as an imperative subject in the development agenda and has expanded remarkably since then. Globally, the connection between migration and development has been important yet a controversial discourse which has led to an engaging academic contestation or scholarly debate and attention in the midst of policy makers, researchers, and academics among other stakeholders. Various ideas and recommendations have been put forward in recent times on how best to approach the migration-development nexus (Sorensen, Hear, and Engberg–Pedersen, 2002; United Nations, 2006; Castles and Wise, 2008; Bakewell, 2008; Skeldon, 2008; Piper, 2009; Wise and Covarrubias, 2009; Glick Schiller, 2011; Bronden, 2012; Sorensen, 2012; De Haas, 2012; Bastia, 2013). This points to the fact that there is a vast expansion of interesting, yet greatly disparate literature on migration and development dialogue showing its diversity and habitually ever-changing perspective.

The focus of the above publications and discussions was on the progressive impact that migration could possibly perform in developmental issues globally, and in the developing countries in particular. The above literature also shows continuity and paradox through a paradigm shift from macro issues, that exclusively viewed migration at an international and national level in the context of economic growth, to the micro extreme perspectives where migration through remittances is seen as a livelihood strategy which is beneficial to the migrant as well as family members left behind in the place of origin. Previously, as questioned by a number of scholars (Kapur, 2005; De Haas, 2005; De Haas, 2007; Crush and Pendleton, 2009; Crush, 2012), who have skeptical attitudes towards the notion that the household or individual use of remittances for basic necessities and not for productivity or investments, in turn, result in hindrance to economic

growth and development. This is a naïve and ideologically bankrupt view which is lagging behind contemporary development issues. This is so because migration benefits to households and their livelihoods are an important aspect of sustainable livelihoods, especially the availability of income and remittances to buy food and other basic commodities. As noted by De Haan (1999: 31), remittances are not only used into what many development professionals regard as productive investments, they are also a vital aspect of households' strategic planning for survival.

In addition, another key aspect of this argument is the disengagement between migration and food security, which is noted by Crush (2012) who argues that the major drawback of the discourse on migration-development nexus over the years has been the lack of methodological dialogues and limited attention on the linkages between human mobility and food security, especially in the framework of south-south migration. Thanks to Crush (2012) who makes interesting points by arguing convincingly that food insecurity is not considered as one of the main determinants of human mobility, the debate overlooks the fact that migrants cross borders in search of areas with better accessibility and availability of food sources, as well as migrating in order to meet the basic needs of people back in the place of origin. Both migration and food security aspects are fundamental in the development agenda; consequently, in recent times, there has been a genesis of literature combining migration and food security. Nevertheless, the key argument of this thesis is that missing from the existing and emerging academic debates on the marriage between migration and food security are narratives on the phenomenon of youth mobility in search of income for food security. Youths belong to a vulnerable group which faces challenges like high unemployment, being socially segregated, stigmatized, as well as low incomes and low salaries, just to mention a few, which in turn leads to the phenomenon of youth migration, hence youths should be involved in the migration-food security nexus debate.

It is equally important to note that recently, the international community has experienced a high rate of youth migration and food insecurity on one hand, and a vast amount of remittances sent to the places of origin on the other. In 2010, 27 million migrants globally in the 15 – 24 age category made up 12.4% of the 214 million international migrants, when migrants in the 25 – 34 age category are included in the same year; migrant youths represented one-third of international migrants (UNDESA, 2011: 12-13). In regard to food security, from 2011 to 2013, 842 million people or 1 in 8 in the globe was suffering from continuous hunger and food shortages, indicating that the Millennium Development Goal of eliminating extreme poverty and hunger by 2015 continues to be illusive (FAO, IFAD, and WFP, 2013: 4). Furthermore, in 2013, the overall

remittances were an astonishing \$542 billion, \$404 billion sent to the developing countries and the amounts are expected to rise in the coming years (World Bank, 2014: 2). In the African context, remittances have contributed immensely to the macro as well as the micro level development, especially for poverty reduction or sustaining livelihoods. This thesis argues that a development agenda that does not consider connecting youth migration and food security would be out of date on current developmental issues.

The purpose of this study is to empirically assess the link between youth migration and food security of Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town, South Africa. The theoretical frameworks to be discussed in this study to examine the youth migration-food security nexus are the Neo-classical, Neo-Marxist, then the more applicable theories to this study, which are the New Economics of Labour Migration and the Livelihoods Approaches. Using a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methodology, the study seeks to explore the dynamics, connection and various dimensions of the youth migration-food security nexus. Chapter 1 presents the background to the study. The following sections of the chapter provide (a) background to the research and study context, (b) significance of the study, (c) problem statement and research questions, (d) aims and objectives of the research and (e) provide the contextualization of the research. The chapter concludes with an outline of the thesis.

1.1 Background and Contextualization

The promising decade, 1980 - 1990

The independence of Zimbabwe in 1980 brought about immense joy, euphoria or jubilation; a new economic giant in Africa was born, and for a decade spanning from 1980 to 1990, the country was flourishing economically and socially. As noted by Sachikonye (2002), there were substantial investments and enormous developments in various sectors, more importantly, there was extensive economic growth, which led to the country becoming known as the bread basket of the region. The country's standard GDP growth rate was in the range of 4.5 percent from 1980 to 1990 (Steenkamp and Dobell, 1994: 664). Prior to independence, Zimbabwe was mainly a migrant-receiving nation and then became a migrant-sending nation after independence (Tevera and Zinyama, 2002; Bloch, 2006; Black et al, 2006; Crush and Tevera, 2010; Crush, Chikanda, and Tawodzera, 2012). Tevera and Crush (2003:6) note that, after independence, in the period 1980 to 1984, around 50 000 to 60 000 whites emigrated from Zimbabwe because of the new political environment under black rule, furthermore, the battle in Matabeleland in the 1980s and the subsequent killing of more than 20 000 Ndebele people, steered more mass departure of the black

population (Bloch, 2006: 69). However, despite a number of setbacks during the first decade of independence, it was a success story in the eyes of many with socio-economic and political conditions remaining stable.

Liberalized economy, 1991-1999

The inconsistent and sluggish economic growth in the late 1980s caused the ruling Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) to adjust their socialist programs. Consequently, in the early 1990s, a provisional pressure to get funds from the Bretton Woods institutions in order to cover its foreign debt led to the introduction of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP), and liberalized strategies were implemented (Potts and Mutambirwa, 1998; Jenkins and knight, 2002; Stoneman, 2004). Coincidentally, the 1992-1993 droughts which affected the region had a devastating effect on the country; food shortages turned the nation from a reputable surplus exporter to a mere importing state (Maphosa, 1994; Logan and Tevera, 2001). ESAP was introduced for sustainable short and long term expansion of the economy through cutting subsidies for consumers, rigorous reducing of government expenditure, pervasive liberalizing of prices as well as controlling imports on one hand and promoting the export of commodities, on the other (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). The effect was disastrous, 10 840 people lost their jobs in the private sector and parastatals between January 1991 and November 1992, and another 6 543 people lost their jobs in the public sector between June 1991 to November 1992 (Tevera, 1995: 83). Additionally, Tevera (1995) notes that expenditure reduction on both the health and education sectors led to retrenchments and poor service delivery, as well as inflation and food items' price increases caused by the devaluation of the Zimbabwean dollar. The result was devastating to almost all the sectors of the economy.

To make it worse, the economy began to collapse rapidly when in the late 1990s, a bonus to liberation war veterans was approved and implemented, which was equivalent to 3% of the GDP, and taking part in the conflict in the Democratic Republic of Congo drained the government's coffers, as well as the 1999 drought which destabilized the country to catastrophic effect (Federal Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2011: 5). To be specific, in 1997, the government of Zimbabwe compensated war veterans with Z\$50 000 each and lifespan pension of Z\$2 000 per month among other remunerations (Logan and Tevera, 2001:113). In the post-1996 period, the desire for more robust and extensive policies in order to overcome the disastrous impact of ESAP influenced the implementation of new guiding principles (Moyo, 2000). In January 1998, there were also food riots caused by a sudden increase in the cost of food (Raftopoulos and Mlambo, 2009: 203).

Contrary to the first decade of independence which was a success, the decade that followed with its liberalized economic policies, the Zimbabwean government sowed the seeds for a socio-economic disaster which followed.

2000 – Current

From the late 1990s to the early 2000s, land reform and the fast track land reform programmes were introduced where white farmers were evicted from their farms, and the farms were given to the indigenous population in order to boost employment through rigorous undersized agricultural production and utilization; profits were meant for investments, stabilizing food security and promoting equity in income distribution (Moyo, 2000). An estimated 4,300 of the 4,500 commercial farmers were evicted from their farms, along with thousands of black farm labourers (Hammar, McGregor, and Landau, 2010: 272). Interestingly, a majority of those who participated in the fast track land reform were mainly ZANU (PF) youths who used centralized intimidation and hostility (Raftopoulos and Mlambo, 2009).

In 1999, the socio-economic and political meltdown led to the formation of an opposition party called Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) which had a decisive and aggressive approach to the government and ZANU PF because of the crisis in the country (Raftopoulos and Mlambo, 2009: 204). MDC consisted mainly of student activists, youths and young men who were tired of the country's dramatic socio-economic and political collapse. In addition, many people left the country because of social, political and economic reasons. From the start of the 21st century, political violence and dire socio-economic conditions led to mass exodus within and across the Zimbabwean border (Hammar, McGregor, and Landau, 2010). Inflation reached above 700 percent in 2003, in the early 2000s, over 75 percent of Zimbabweans were categorized as poor (Tevera, 2005: 5), and hyperinflation was estimated to be officially 230 million percent at the end of 2008 diminishing both incomes and investments (Mlambo and Raftopoulos, 2009: 220). It became clear that the country was on the brink of collapse. In addition, in 2005 'Operation Murambatsvina'¹ was introduced and implemented by the government, it was 'a clearing out of rubbish' in urban areas where illegal houses and informal business operations such as vending areas, were demolished and destroyed 650 000 to 700 000 homes, with 2.4 million people, directly and indirectly, affected (Bourne, 2011:194). This operation was done in the name of restoring order.

¹ 'Operation Murambatsvina' was put into action by the Zimbabwean government in order to clean or remove garbage in towns and cities especially illegal homes, settlements and vending locations.

However, many people became homeless, some returned to the rural areas, and others left the country; the aftermath was devastating.

More notably, the implementation of land reform and its aftermath was outrageous. Hyperinflation became a national challenge, and the economy fell apart swiftly into levels which the global community had never witnessed. “In 1985...one pound was worth Z\$1.6, at the end of July 2008, on the parallel market, a pound was valued at one thousand trillion of the original Zimbabwean dollars” (Potts, 2010: 74). The government blamed economic sanctions from the west for the crisis. The economic meltdown in Zimbabwe led to an increase in ‘brain drain’ or in other words, increasing emigration of skilled Zimbabweans from the nation state, especially professionals in the health and education sectors because of better opportunities in foreign destinations (Tevera and Crush, 2003:1). As a result of the economic hardships in Zimbabwe, in the year 2000 alone, an estimated 500 000 Zimbabweans emigrated legally from Zimbabwe to South Africa, by 2008 the numbers had more than doubled to 1.25 million (Crush and Tevera, 2010:4). If illegal migrants are included the number of Zimbabweans, who migrated from Zimbabwe to South Africa during the same period the statistics will certainly be enormous. Unofficial estimations of Zimbabweans in South Africa were believed to be around 3 million (Johnston, Bernstein, and de Villiers, 2008: 5). In 2009, the Zimbabwean dollar’s reliability vanished and was replaced through the ‘dollarization’ of the economy, by using US dollar and other foreign currencies (Noko, 2011), up to this day, the country is still using foreign currencies.

The political crisis was also worsened by terrorization, brutality and torture of the MDC followers and officials by suspected youth militia of the ruling ZANU-PF during 2000, 2002, 2005 and 2008 general and presidential elections (Hafner-Burton, Hyde, and Jablonski, 2014). After the controversial elections in 2008, a unity government between ruling ZANU-PF and MDC was formed. However, it was short-lived, in 2013 ZANU-PF won the election and MDC was booted out of the government. In the same year, reforms on indigenization whereby at least 51 percent of businesses run by foreign owners were supposed to be handed over to the black Zimbabweans were fully implemented (Chowa and Mukuvere, 2013). This was meant to empower the youth, but corruption and nepotism caused these plans not to be met. Another classic example of corruption is the Marange or Chiadzwa diamonds which were believed to have the globe’s largest diamonds deposits (Maguwu, 2013). How they were exhausted remains a mystery since most of it were used for personal use by government and military officials, these diamonds could have been used to stabilize the economy. The decay of the economy of Zimbabwe resulted in the projected

unemployment figures of 70% in 2004; by 2008, it reached an incredible 94% (Morreira, 2010: 436).

Currently, ZimAsset which is a 5-year economic plan designed to make 2.2 million employment opportunities, get rid of food shortages, infrastructural development, and improved social services have been implemented (Rusvingo, 2015:4). However, the economy continues to shrink; the Zimbabwean youths are now hopeless because many university graduates have been turned into street vendors (Masekesa and Chibaya, 2014), Zimbabwe's unemployment levels are estimated to be 80%, and 68% of this percentage are vulnerable youths (Mukuhlani, 2014: 138). Over the years, remittances from abroad have played a vital role for many in Zimbabwe, a 2014 estimation indicated that \$1.8 billion was sent to Zimbabwe by Zimbabweans in the diaspora (The Africa Report, 2014). In the context of the crisis in Zimbabwe, remittances have saved the country from a total collapse.

To sum up, Zimbabwe's case has been viewed by Crush and Tevera (2010) as 'crisis-driven' migration, the socio-economic and political crisis has turned the once cherished breadbasket of Africa into a basket case². The Zimbabwean case is a tragedy, the economy, health and education sectors, have been crippled. Food insecurity and poverty are still major challenges, and millions of Zimbabweans have migrated to other countries, youths included, especially to South Africa for greener pastures. This includes food-insecure Zimbabweans from all walks of life that were pushed out by the disastrous situation in the country.

1.2 Significance of the Study, Problem Statement, Research Question and Hypothesis

1.2.1 Significance of the Study

This thesis should be looked at through the lens of the first proposition in the dialogue about migration, development and food security by contextualizing and conceptualizing youths. This study is focused on the connection between youth migration and food security of Zimbabweans in Cape Town, South Africa, in the context of migration-development nexus. The fact that there has been a global challenge in regard to the increasing numbers of youth migration, as well as food

²□The words 'bread basket to basket case' are mainly used in reference to Zimbabwe which used to provide enough food and other resources for its people and other countries to the extend of getting surplus, but in recent times with the food shortages and socio-economic crisis the once full basket (Zimbabwe) is now empty.

insecurity challenges influenced the motivation behind doing this study. This research goes beyond the current emerging literature on migration and food security by introducing a new phenomenon of linking youth migration and food security. The focus on youths is vital because, as noted before, they are vulnerable to a number of challenges like high unemployment, marginalization, and stigmatization, and whose distinctive wants, civil liberties, privileges, and risks are also not being considered by the migration and food security discourse. The study strives for the improvement of migrant youths' condition in relation to their livelihoods, especially food security issues. They have a responsibility to support and care for their households or families back in the place of origin as well. Against this backdrop, this research seeks to advocate for the inclusion of the migration-food security nexus, particularly youth migration-food security nexus in the next Millennium Development Goals or any other objectives by international organizations, as well as government policies, civil society contributions and non-governmental organizations amongst other stakeholders.

1.2.2. Problem Statement

In the last few years, there has been a growing interest in the migration and development discourse; accordingly, various conclusions have been made in the discipline. However, very few literatures (Drimie, 2008; Kassie et al, 2008; Choudhary and Parthasarathy, 2009; Bowen et al, 2011; Tripathi and Srivastava, 2011; Lacroix, 2011; Karamba, Quiñones, and Winters, 2011; Crush, 2012; Pendleton, Crush, and Nickanor, 2014; Zezza et al, 2011) have addressed the paradigm of migration and food security. The emergence of the migration and food security subject is also associated with migration and livelihoods. A number of scholars (Scoones, 1998; De Haan, 1999; Ellis, 2003; De Haas, 2005; Fagen and Bump, 2006; Pendleton et al, 2006) have done research on the impact and positive link between migration, livelihoods, and remittances.

However, most of these studies focus on internal or rural-urban issues when contextualizing migration and food security, and do not take into account that human mobility for better livelihood or for the need to be food secure also occurs across borders. Furthermore, the main limitation of these studies is that when contextualizing the migration and development debate, as well as the migration and food security or livelihoods' discussion, the narratives on youths have been unexplored. It is a crucial drawback because, as noted above, youths are a vulnerable group. In the background of this research, Zimbabwean youths over the years have been the most negatively affected group by the socio-economic and political crisis. In brief, appreciating the linkage

between youth migration and food security in the context of migration-development nexus is a fundamental development discourse which adds knowledge to the development agenda.

1.2.3. Research Questions

In relation to the research problems identified above, the primary purpose of this thesis is to provide answers to the research questions below:

- What are the causes of Zimbabwean youth migration?
- Are food shortages or food insecurities one of the main reasons for youth migration?
- Does migration, provide food security for Zimbabwean youths in the place of destination and what is the level of food insecurity for them?
- Do the remittances sent back to the household members left behind in the place of origin remitted for and used for food consumption?

1.2.4. Hypothesis

- The primary hypothesis to be tested in this research is: Youth migration has a significant impact on the food security for youth migrants themselves in the place of destination and for the household members in the place of origin.

1.2.5. Research Aims

- The main aims of this research are to examine the linkage between youth migration-food security nexus; appraise the motivational factors behind their decision to migrate in connection with food security; establish the effect of Zimbabwean youth migration to the food security of the migrant and migrant household members left behind in the place of origin. Especially the importance of remittances, and identify lessons and make recommendations that inform and expand contemporary youth migration and food security agenda.

1.2.6. Specific Objectives

This study endeavor:

- To examine the main reasons behind youth migration in connection with various challenges and opportunities that youths face
- To establish and appraise the motivational determinants of Zimbabwean youth migration choices in relation to food insecurity/security
- To explore the connection between youth migration and food security in the place of origin, especially the importance of remittances

- To assess the levels of food insecurity in the host country for the Zimbabwean youth migrants
- To provide relevant conclusions and recommendations for the stakeholders involved in both migration and food security development agendas

1.2.7. Chapter Outline

This research is organized into five main chapters. The structure of the study for this study is shown below:

- *Chapter 1* begins with a brief discussion of the migration and development debate, contextualizing different views on the role of remittances at both macro and micro level. Following this, it problematizes the issues of youth migration and food security at a global level. It then moves to the background of Zimbabwe's socio-economic and political history from 1980 – 2015 that led to the current crisis in the context of migration and food security in relation to youths. Finally, the chapter, in introducing the study and its background, will also focus on the significance of the study, problem statement, the aims, and objectives, and ends with a skeleton sketch of each chapter in this research.
-
- *Chapter 2* is split into two; it first gives an in-depth literature review, beginning with migration and food security, and then shifts to migration, remittances, and livelihoods at a global, regional, national and local level. This approach of looking at migration and food security then migration, remittances and livelihood was adapted, broadly showing various links in the context of migration and development. The section will then shift to the appraisal of the theoretical framework, by using the Neo-classical, Neo-liberal, New Economics of Labour Migration, and the Livelihood Approaches in order to best assess the theories behind the phenomenon of international migration. In the context of the theoretical section, this chapter argues that the New Economics of Labour Migration and the Livelihood Approaches are the most applicable theories to this thesis because they illustrate the connection between people in the place of origin and the migrants in the perspective of migration decision, food security and livelihood' strategies. Chapter 2 ends with the conceptual framework and conceptual definitions of terms vital to this study.
- *Chapter 3* presents general information on the research design and methodology. This chapter will open with a brief discussion on research design and the research philosophy of the study. It will then move to the methodology by discussing the application of the mixed

method approach. A concurrent triangulation strategy which was employed in this study will be discussed in detail as well as how it was applied. Quantitative and qualitative approaches are discussed in isolation showing comprehensive information on how they were differently applied and merged into a mixed methods approach. Then shift to data analysis and presentation, focusing on data analytical tools and procedures. The chapter will conclude with a broad explanation of research procedures, limitations, validity and reliability of the study, and the ethical statements.

- **Chapter 4** will provide the research findings based on the research questions for examining the link between youth migration and food security. The results are based on the background information, decision, and determinants of migrating, remittances, and food security/insecurity levels extracted from the answers in the questionnaires and semi-structured surveys. The presentation of the data to show various assumptions, implications and outcomes will also be demonstrated statistically and informatively.
- **Chapter 5** will sum up the study by giving a brief outline of the discussions in the whole study, giving concluding remarks and interpretations deduced. Chapter 5 will give the finale of the research by giving suggestions and recommendations as well as areas of further research.

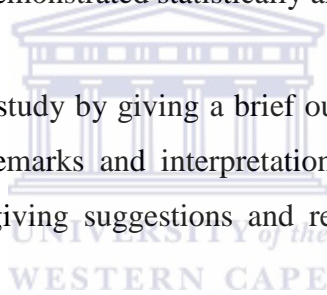
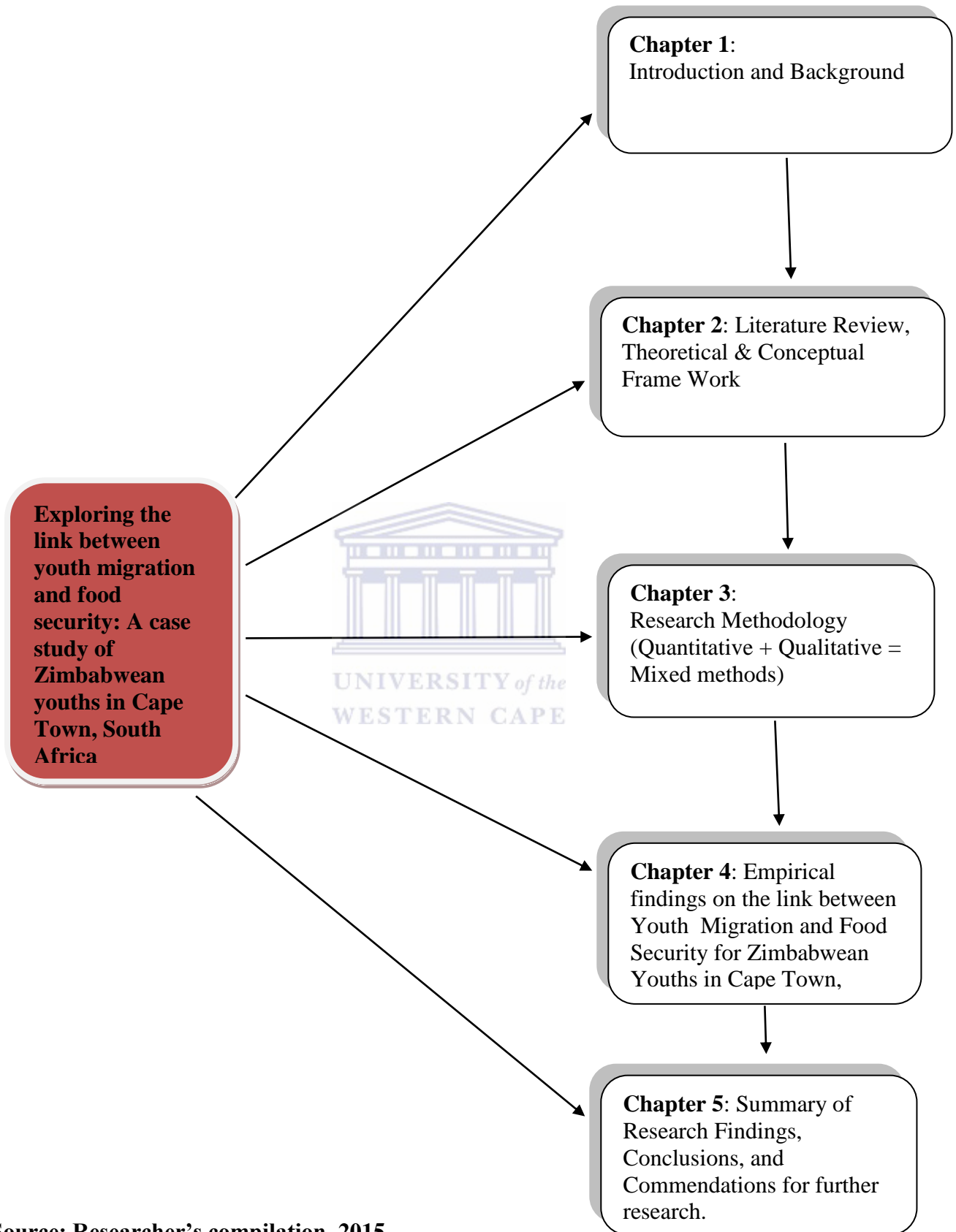


Figure 1: Logical Connections between the Chapters that Constitute the Thesis



Source: Researcher's compilation, 2015

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW, THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

The practice of migration to a new place of destination from the place of origin is influenced by a number of factors, with food playing a crucial role. In other words, food insecurity is one of the main determinant aspects of migration. Migrants leave the place of origin because of food shortages and go to the place of destination expecting to be food secure. In addition, population movement is a strategy used by many, in search of better livelihood. This section will look at empirical studies on migration and food security on one side, then migration, remittances and livelihood on the other side at a global, regional, national and local level.

2.2 Migration and Food Security

Recent research on migration and development has shown the connection between migration and food security. Lacroix (2011), using various case studies from Asia, Africa and a number of Islands, just to mention a few, gives interesting points on the global perspective on migration, rural development, poverty, and food security. The evidence provided varied results on the developmental potential of migration in a rural setup. His research indicated that several methods of remittances have a progressive effect on the production side of the migrant household farms. Nevertheless, he notes that there was no validation of the extensive progress of the agriculture sector in the countries examined, to him migration in isolation will not be able to upkeep any agricultural improvement schemes. However, migration proved that it can sustain household food security and eradicate poverty, especially through remittances, but he argues that in other locations explored more people who migrate come from urban areas hence migration sometimes has a narrow impact on rural dwellers.

Several empirical studies in India were conducted linking human mobility and nutrition issues, with a particular focus on malnutrition, food consumption and dietary matters (Choudhary and Parthasarathy, 2009; Bowen et al. 2011; Tripathi and Srivastava, 2011). Zezza et al (2011) examined the connection between migration and nutrition issues in third-world countries, using migration at a local, regional and international level, which resulted in various outcomes. Of great interest are the findings from the above research that indicated that child growth or improved dietary intake is linked to human mobility, especially in the poverty struck and vulnerable communities, this is through the importance of remittances used to access nutritious and sufficient

food. The same sentiments were found by De Brauw (2011) in the study on the link between migration and child development throughout the food price crisis in El Salvador; it demonstrates how migration is a household strategy for survival. The results illustrated that families or individuals, especially children, with relatives or connections abroad were not hit devastatingly as was the case for those who did not have links abroad due to the help of remittances. De Brauw shows that there is a strong linkage between families or individuals in rural areas of El Salvador that have associations abroad and receive remittances, particularly from the United States. In relation to the food prices' crisis, children who had relatives abroad consumed a better nutritious, healthy and balanced diet than those without migrant family members or relatives abroad.

The focus of the literature on the link between migration and food security in the context of internal migration has also paid much attention in rural communities; however, with food security recently being recognized as an urban challenge, the focus has shifted to rural-urban migration. This is shown by several publications (Frayne, 2005; Frayne, 2007; Crush, Grant, and Frayne, 2007; Drimie, 2008; Kassie et al, 2008; Frayne, 2010); the studies revealed that the social networks amongst rural and urban families are fundamental to survival strategies of the poor people in cities and that urban agriculture contributes to sustainable livelihoods, but its contribution is to a lesser degree. Urban dwellers that face food shortages are those who have little or no social links with rural communities. On the contrary, those with strong rural-urban links have the privilege of getting food from rural communities that counterbalance exposure to food insecurity. The mutual benefit is also seen through the fact that remittances and food transfers are not one-directional, there is a rural-urban as well as the urban-rural transfer of goods, commodities and money. The existence of reciprocal connections between rural and urban areas is vital to the sustainable living conditions of distraught urban dwellers.

Similar trends in the rural–urban connections where the mutual relations have helped as a survival strategy have been noticed in Zimbabwe. Tawodzera (2013) makes evident that survival of dwellers of Epworth, a low-income suburban location in the city of Harare, in relation to Zimbabwe's socio-economic meltdown, relies on the connections between rural and urban areas; food transfers from rural communities and how they have helped urban inhabitants in their quest for survival and food security. A comprehensive study by (Pendleton, Crush, and Nickanor, 2014) using Windhoek as a case study, illustrated the magnitudes and disparities in food security in the context of migration-food security nexus in connection to the swift increase of urbanism amongst a number of cities in Africa. The results showed that food security is not only a matter of whether

food is available but rather it is also now about accessibility which is grounded on income and the price of food. The poor families or individuals in the study area came from the rural communities and suffered from hunger and food shortages. However, with the dropping and uneven rural to urban food transfers as a source of food, results indicated that the migrants are in a risky and unsafe state.

A study by Karamba, Quiñones, and Winters (2011), on the link between migration and food consumption in Ghana, points to the idea that population movement does not extensively have an impact on how people or individuals spend on food. The research showed that it is solely in areas where there is a great number of human mobility where migration seems to escalate expenditure on food, more likely causing people from places where there is less migration to buy smaller amounts of nourishing food and consuming food away from the place of residence. In short, the effects of migration on food spending differ with areas under consideration, mainly because the level or number of people who migrate determines the effects of human mobility and food expenditure, the research found that areas where there is a high population movement result in high food expenditures.

The most thought-provoking response to migration and food security has been recommended by Crush (2012). This is an essential publication in the migration-food security debate, and it examined urbanism, internal and international migration in relation to food security in the African context. The article argues that shortages of food and food insecurity can surely be main causes for migration searching for better income-earning prospects. And that the main cause of urban food insecurity is not scarcities, but rather it is the deficiency in food accessibility, that is to say, lack of a consistent and dependable source of income for food consumption. The paper also compared migrants and non-migrants families; the results indicated that both categories face food insecurity challenges. However, in some cases, migrant households proved to be more food insecure, with both rural-urban and international migration rising rapidly as well as migrants also a combination of migrants and locals occupy the most impoverished locations in urban areas.

2.3 Migration, Remittances, and Livelihoods

The link between migration and livelihoods and the vital roles that human mobility can play in lessening the vulnerable people's challenges and eradicating poverty in the developing world are noticeable. Population movement is part of the livelihood strategies used by various communities

and individuals, in other words, migrants move in search of greener pastures or for sustainable livelihoods. Various scholars have endorsed migration as a strategic decision used by many households and vulnerable communities for poverty reduction and improved livelihoods (McDowell and De Haan, 1997; Scoones, 1998; De Haan, 1999; Skeldon, 2002; Kothari, 2002; Ellis, 2003). On the other hand, remittances have been viewed as having a positive developmental impact as well as being used as a source to get income to reduce poverty and also used to acquire basic needs (Maimbo and Ratha, 2005; Adams and Page, 2005; Adams 2006; Adams, 2011) especially during crisis years, hence, remittances can be a form of social protection, and that migrant families have better ways to earn a living than non-migrant families (Kapur, 2003).

For example, Serino and Kim (2011) did a research on the global impact of remittances on poverty reduction in sixty-six third-world countries from 1981 to 2005 using a quantile regression analysis, and also, a study by (Adams and Page, 2005) researched the link between migration and remittances at a global level using 71 less-developed countries. The empirical results of both studies indicated that remittances play a significant role in poverty reduction, especially in the poorest countries, thus, remittances play a social protection role.

Human mobility for a long time has been part of the Asian history, and in recent time migration for better livelihood has seen an increase of both internal and international migration in the region. Several empirical studies in Asia showed that remittances have a positive impact on livelihoods (Rigg, 2007; Vargas-Silva, Jha, and Sugiyarto, 2009; Ozaki, 2012). Ozaki (2012) examined the developmental effect of remittances from workers in South Asia, the results revealed that remittances helped to reduce poverty, as well as better well-being for families who receive remittances, which are usually used to buy food and accommodation expenditures. Corresponding evidence was shown by Samal (2006) with his study in rural communities of semi-arid and drought-vulnerable areas of Andhra Pradesh, India, indicating that remittances are a progressive result of migration and play a significant position in the livelihoods of many families. This study showed that remittances are mainly used for food, health expenses, clothes and other basic needs, in other words, remittances act as an important source of income to help the vulnerable communities.

In Latin America and the Caribbean region, human mobility and remittances have proven to be an important source of income to fight poverty. The research by Acosta et al, (2008) using cross-country regressions in the regions indicated that money or resources sent from abroad are an

important source for development and reduction of various inequalities and poverty, especially to families and individuals who receive financial resources from links abroad. De Haas (2006) in the Todgha oasis area in Morocco using qualitative inquiry on migrants and non-migrants demonstrated that remittances play an important positive role in both economic growth and improvement of livelihoods for households. The findings showed that there is a substantial connection between population mobility and high income for survival among individuals and families, households with migrant connections locally and abroad have a higher income than those without. In addition, investment in agricultural activities and other businesses for profit making by individuals and families with relatives or connections internationally proved to be crucial in earning a living.

In the context of West Africa, Azam and Gubert (2006) using a case study of Mali and Senegal found out that migration is mainly a phenomenon caused by household or communal choice as a strategy to safeguard themselves from any shocks or risks, and remittances being the main source of income for consumption. In Sub-Saharan Africa, the increase in the flow of remittances over the years has provided the region with the source of livelihood strategies by many households. For instance, (Gupta, Pattillo, and Wagh, 2009; Wagh and Pattillo, 2007) reported similar results by indicating that remittances have a straight-forward poverty reduction effect for families in the regions. Dodson et al, (2008) assessed the relationship between migration and remittances in Southern Africa in the context of gender aspects. Their results show that remittances are essential to the survival of many households and help them to deal with their vulnerability and poverty-stricken circumstances.

Moreover, in Southern Africa, the impact of remittances on household survival and poverty reduction has gained much interest in relation to a number of scholarly debates. Various studies by the Southern Africa Migration Project (SAMP), using its Migration and Remittances Survey (MARS) as a tool indicated that remittances, have been in recent times, vital as a basis of income for many households and economies (Pendleton et al, 2006; Dodson et al, 2008; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009; Crush et al, 2010). In the context of Zimbabwe, Tevera and Chikanda (2009) undertook a research on remittances from migrants and its connection with household survival. Tevera and Chikanda (2009) showed that money and goods transferred by migrants are vital to the families, individuals and economy of Zimbabwe. Their assessment also specified that in relation to the socio-economic and political watershed in the country, the main use of remittances is for basic needs like food, education payments, constructing houses and on health services, among other

things, and that the transfer of financial resources and other commodities by migrants has served many people from shortages of goods and financial resources to buy basic commodities.

Maphosa (2007) in his study in Southern regions of Zimbabwe indicated that remittances from South Africa play a crucial role in the well-being of a lot of families, through a better way of life by providing better-quality accessibility to health and education services as well as spending on dynamic undertakings and investments. Bracking and Sachikonye (2010) had the same sentiments with their empirical studies in urban Zimbabwe indicating that remittances from abroad are essential in poverty reduction; this is so because of their results, which point to the idea that many urban households mainly depend on remittances for food consumption and other basic commodities.

In summary, the literature review focused on a number of issues in the context of migration, food security, remittances, and livelihoods, particularly in the developing countries. The first point noted is that migration has a positive impact on diet, nutrition, and food consumption issues through remittances as a source of income which provides financial security for food security. Second point, food insecurity is not only a rural problem but also an urban challenge. In addition, the link between rural and urban households proved to be beneficial and reciprocal in the context of rural to urban migration, food transfers from rural areas help urban dwellers in their quest for food security, on the other side, remittances from urban areas help rural households in accessing food. Third point, migration is seen as a household strategy used for sustainable livelihoods, people migrate with the prospect in the mind of better-living conditions abroad as well as for those left behind in the place of origin.

The fourth and final point, migration is a vital way for poverty reduction and reducing the vulnerability of the poor through remittances being used as safety nets or for social protection. Nevertheless, the previous studies in the literature review did not take into account any investigation on the vulnerable youths, in connection to migration and food security, with the main emphasis being on better livelihoods. In other words, there is no systematic study, which prioritizes youths in the migration and food security discourse. Furthermore, there is over-emphasis on internal migration and food security or livelihoods, most of the literature is silent about migration and food security or livelihoods across borders. Taking into account the above-mentioned research gaps on the connection between migration and food security, this thesis presents an analytical framework and exploration of the link between youth migration and food

security. The hypothetical basis of the study is based on particular assumptions and overviews discussed in the next section.

2.4 Theoretical Framework

Introduction

Numerous theories over the years have emerged in trying to link the background nature, trends and features of migration with the determinants of population movement. The theoretical aspect of migration is not homogeneous, for this reason; this chapter will review a number of theories, starting from the Neo-classical to the Neo-Marxist up to the New Economics of Labour migration and the Livelihood Approaches theories in the context of migration and development. This section will also look at the two opposing views which De Haas (2010) termed optimists vs pessimists and a third which are the pluralists. The analysis highlights the most important theories, values, and perceptions showing how the concepts progressed by alternatively responding to the limitations of the other theories in isolation.

2.4.1 Migration and Development: Optimists View

2.4.1.1 Neo-Classical Theories

The optimists in the context of migration were mainly influenced by the neo-classical, developmental and modernization paradigms, which are associated with functional perspectives in society (De Haas, 2010: 231). The emergence of literature on migration in the 1880s was groundbreaking to the discourse of population movement at a global level. Ravenstein's publications (1885; 1889) where his famous 'laws of migration' were illustrated and are still considered as the mainstay, foundation, and genesis of most contemporary dynamic theories of migration. The general hypothesis of Ravenstein's concepts was that human mobility is very much linked to economic development. An outline of Ravenstein's laws of migration as noted by Dinbabo and Nyasulu (2015: 32-33) who cited De Haas (2010) are as follows:

- (a) The most human mobility takes place in a short distance.
- (b) Most population mobility is from agricultural to industrial areas.
- (c) Advancement and development of bigger towns or cities are primarily an outcome of migration and not natural progression.
- (d) Migration progress in connection with growth in industries, transport and commercial systems.
- (e) All human mobility or movements create a counter-flow.
- (f) The majority of women embark on short-distance migration whereas most men are involved in long distance or international migration.

(g) Economic development factors are the main cause of the most human mobility.

Similar assumptions by other neo-classical theorists also argue that migration is driven by spatial issues, job opportunities and better income expectations (Lee, 1966; Harris and Todaro, 1970; Zelinsky, 1971; Skeldon, 1997; Hagen-Zanker, 2008). In relation to the macro level, the neo-classical theory views human mobility through the lens of spatial issues linking it with the supply of labour, where the workforce migrates from places with low wages to places with higher wages; at a micro level, people who migrate are viewed individually, as beings that use logic and reason to make a choice after doing a cost-benefit analysis of the migration experience (De Haas, 2010). Moreover, Zelinsky's (1971) Mobility Transition Model views human mobility as a developmental activity which is done as a result of progression or growth at a certain location, as noted De Haas (2010) the mobility transition model is linked to Rostow's modernization theory, which shows progressed evolution from pre-modern to modern or advanced society.

In addition, influenced by Ravenstein's earlier works (1885; 1889), there is the Lee's (1966) model, which argues that population movement is a result of strategic calculations and assessment of the place of origin and host countries by migrants, looking at the benefits and shortcomings. This was well illustrated by the 'push and pull' factors model where push features are negative or discouraging aspects in the place of origin on one side, and on the other pull aspects are elements that entice and appeal to people to migrate to a new place of destination. For example, as pointed out by Dinbabo and Nyasulu (2015: 33), features like poverty, joblessness, and political tyranny pushes out people from their places of origins, and on the other side, better features in the place of destination like job opportunities, improved salaries and income, democracy and superior social protection system can pull people in. Moreover, there is the 'value expectancy model' which argues that the motivation for migration can be economic, objective oriented, the need for riches and prestige, luxury and well-being, need for independence and self-sufficient (De Jong and Fawcett, 1981).

Lastly, Todaro-Harris theory using a two-sector model of rural-urban and responded to the increase in rural to urban mobility of people and high urban unemployment in third-world countries, specify that population movement is an outcome of logical decision making to migrate to increase the standard of living by locating to areas where there are better living conditions, opportunities or higher wages as well as an income increase (Todaro, 1969: 138; Harris and Todaro, 1970: 126). As noted by Todaro (1969: 139) "in our model, the decision to migrate from

rural to urban areas will be functionally related to two principal variables: the urban-rural real income differential and the probability of obtaining an urban job.” To sum up, the argument of the optimists is that population movement is linked to economic development and growths. For instance, people migrate from less-developed places to more developed areas expecting to get better earnings or improved wages. However, in as much as the neo-classical theories of migration are essential in explaining the phenomenon of human mobility they have their shortcomings, which led to the paradigm shift and the emergence of the pessimists’ approaches.

2.4.2 Migration and Development: Pessimists

2.4.2.1 Neo-Marxist Theories

Contrary to the optimists, an opposing and critical paradigm shift emerged through the radical pessimists, which in relation to migration is linked to structural issues in society, argued that migration is a destructive and damaging phenomenon caused by inequalities among regions, which causes underdevelopment of the less developed and enriching the developed (De Haas, 2010: 233). The neo-Marxist theories of migration which materialized as a critique of neo-classical theories argue that human mobility is a result of unequal structures between the developing and developed regions. As noted by (De Haas, 2010: 233), it argues that economic and political muscle is unevenly shared amongst the developed and the less-developed parts of the world, as well as uneven accessibility to resources promoted by capitalists’ tendencies, which are exploitative in nature.

The neo-Marxist concepts are rooted in Karl Marx’s historical materialism (Castles and Miller, 2003); it is also connected to the dependency and world system theories which show the exploitative nature of the relationship between the cores of developed and the periphery of developing regions as a cause of lack of development in less-developed countries (Frank, 1969; Wallerstein, 1980). The unequal structures consequently result in population movement; pull features due to high labour demands in the labour-intensive features of the developed countries, as well as higher wages, are the drivers of migration from less-developed areas (Jennissen, 2007: 213). The logic behind the neo-Marxist theories is their emphasis on that population movement is mainly a result of imbalanced operational structures amongst the first world and third world locations.

To sum up, both optimist and pessimist views on migration tend to be very much opposing in relation to the developmental aspects of population movement. In the context of this study, the two

do not profoundly apply in the case of Zimbabwean youths who leave their country due to the socio-economic meltdown as well as a reactionary strategy for better livelihoods and to guarantee food security for themselves and their family members back. However, the two perspectives led to the birth of pluralist perceptions, which tried to be at the center by their developmental elements of migration, specifically at a social level. From the 1980's up to the 1990s, as noted by De Haas (2010: 241) the structural theory by Giddens (1984) led to the combination of actor and structure receptivity methods, which resulted in the genesis of the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) and the Livelihoods Approaches. The Pluralists, or in other words, the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) and the Livelihoods Approaches are at the heart of this study. In the framework of this research, the New Economics of Labour Migration and the Livelihoods approaches are appropriate for this study and form the foundation of the theoretical framework. Both theories help in the understanding and conceptualizing why youth are migrating from Zimbabwe to Cape Town, South Africa as well as their role in the migration-food security nexus.

2.4.3 Migration and Development: Pluralist View

2.4.3.1 The New Economics of Labour Migration

This study argues that the combination of the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) and the Livelihoods Approaches best illustrate the case of Zimbabwean youths. This is so because they mainly migrate from their place of origin due to a strategic decision by households, family members or relatives in order to meet the food needs, and for better livelihoods for those left behind as well as the migrants in the place of destination. The NELM signifies a major progression in the population movement discourse. With the growing attention on people-centred development in the last quarter of the 20th century, the NELM materialized with a critical view and expansion of the neoclassical theories which were viewed as passive in dealing with population movement and developmental issues (Massey et al, 1993). The hypothesis of this theory is that households or families strategically migrate to capitalize on income earnings as well as to reduce vulnerability to various threats. Hence, remittances offer a social protection, and the risk protection clarifies why human mobility can occur in situations where there are no differences in wages in the places of origin and destination (De Haas, 2010).

Earlier work by Stark (1978; 1991), which pioneered the NELM, rejuvenated the discourse of human mobility in the developing countries through placing collective aspects in societies and not individual assumptions at the core of choice and judgment regarding migration. The main perception of the NELM is that when people decide to migrate, the choices are not reached by

individuals; rather they are made at a broader level through collective elements such as strategic family or household decisions, in order to increase financial security and to reduce vulnerability and challenges related to market let-downs or unexpected risks (Stark and Levhari, 1982; Stark and Bloom, 1985; Taylor, 1999: 74), with remittances seen as central to better livelihoods by providing financial security (Stark 1980). As Taylor (1999: 74 - 75) puts it,

In the NELM, migration is hypothesized to be partly an effort by households to overcome market failures that constrain local production. Market failures include missing or imperfect credits and insurance market, which forces household farms to self-finance their production and to self-insure against income risk. Migrants provide their households with liquidity, in the form of remittances, which may be used to finance new production technologies, inputs, and activities. They also offer income insurance, by providing households with access to an income source that is not correlated or perhaps negatively correlated to farm income.

As noted by Taylor et al. (1996), previous work by neoclassical theorists tended to be too pessimistic and has a major drawback of failing to address the importance of remittances in supporting or sustaining families and societies. In other words, absent in the pessimist theories on migration is the importance of remittances, conversely at the heart of the NELM is the fundamental role that remittances play in sustaining livelihoods of many households which in turn becomes the main reason for migration decision.

2.4.3.2 Livelihood Approaches

The NELM has tellingly though usually overlooked theoretical linkage with the Livelihood Approaches to migration (De Haas, 2010: 244). The relationship between human mobility and livelihoods establishes the significant role that migration can play in lessening food insecurity for the migrant in the place of destination, and to family members left behind at the place of origin. The livelihood approaches originated from discussions on food security and food shortages (Sen, 1981), in emphasizing how vulnerable societies can become. Vulnerability in this context is at risk to an unexpected, calamitous or disastrous situation, for instance, food insecurity and food unavailability and inaccessibility (Ellis, 2003), which pushes individuals or household to migrate for a better life. Correspondingly, livelihood theories can be expressed as calculated or premeditated decisions of collective actions by individuals and households to sustain, secure and look up their livelihoods (De Haas, 2010: 244).

The risks which households can react to are common or aggregate risks, which have an effect, on the whole, nation state or location, then idiosyncratic or individual risk, which has an effect on a

few members of households in a particular community; however, in other instances both types of risks can take place at the same time (Deaton, 1997). In this viewpoint, migration has progressively been recognized as one of the main strategies or methods which households utilize to broaden, protect, and sustain their livelihoods. Human mobility can then be viewed as a strategy to obtain various assets, which give security against potential disaster and stress (Bebbington, 1999), for example, incomes and remittances can be assets used to sustain food shocks. Scoones (1998) and McDowell and De Haan (1997) share the same opinion by stating that migration is one of the strategic options in the sustainable livelihoods' framework, particularly in the developing world. De Haan (1999: 22) argues that remittances are one of the essential features of migration, particularly for the livelihoods of those left behind in the home country. Worth mentioning because of its link with the place of origin and place of destination for migrants, though not applicable to this study, is the theory of transnationalism which entails how migrants make and sustain socio-economic links in both home and destination country (Glick Schiller et al. 1992). This phenomenon is very significant because it illustrates how migrants turn their home and host locations into a singular linked place through various associations.

2.5 Conceptual Definition /Key Terms:

2.5.1 Migration

Migration can be defined as “a process of moving, either across an international border or within a State. Encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes refugees, displaced persons, uprooted people, and economic migrants” (IOM, 2004: 41). In general terms, migration is the phenomenon of human mobility or population movement from one location to another for a short or long period of time at a local, national, regional and international level.

2.5.2 Food Security

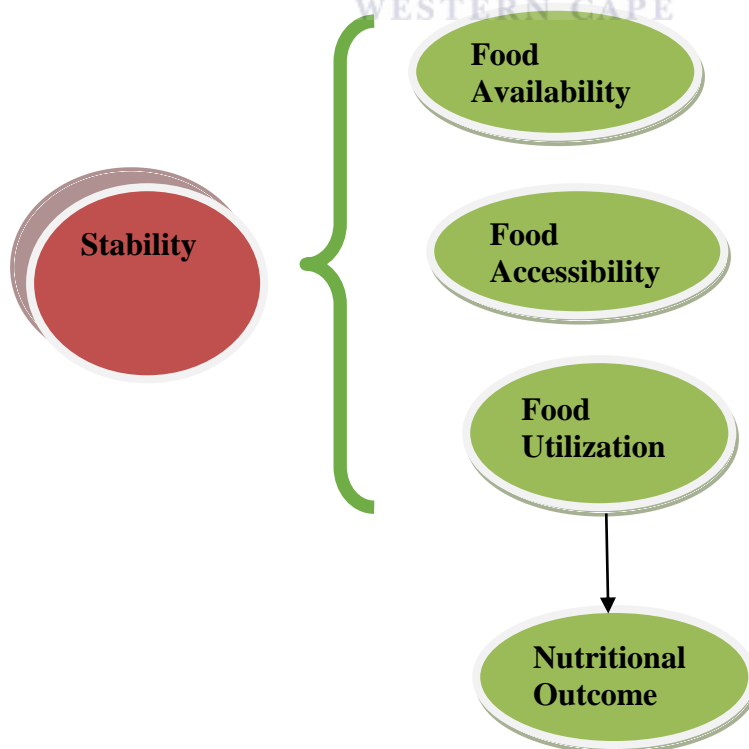
Since the second half of the 20th century, various conceptualization approaches have emerged in trying to define the term food security. The developments of the term food security with its complexities and various most accepted dynamics are shortened below:

When food security emerged, as noted by (Weingartner, 2004) particularly at Hot Spring Conference of Food and Agriculture in 1943, it was viewed in the perception of supply to guarantee that globally the human race has ample food for eating. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 recognized the right to food as a basic human right, and then the world food crisis from 1972 to 1974 also led to increased global attention on food security issues

(Maxwell and Smith, 1992: 6). The 1974 World Food Conference described food security as a situation when food is available anytime, adequately and with sufficient supply, which safeguards against instabilities in relation to how it is produced as well as the price allocations (FAO, 1996). As noted by (Maxwell, 1996: 291), a new dimension of food access and entitlement initiated by Sen (1981), considered food linked challenges as caused by set ups and practices in food governance and not solely by how food is produced or scarcity issues. This gave rise to the issue of food accessibility, vulnerability (Watts and Bohle, 1993), as well as sustainable aspects by Chambers (1989).

In light of the above, 1996 World food Summit stated that food security occurs when there is enough accessibility of food by all persons every time, adequate nutrients for good bodily shape and a better standard of living (FAO, 1996; Pinstруп-Andersen, 2009). Food security can also be determined by three aspects, namely, availability, accessibility and utilization (WHO, 2013), with an additional feature, which is stability (FAO, 2009). Additionally, for a long-time food has been seen as a major basic necessity, however, in recent times it has been linked to the significance of livelihood security as very fundamental (Maxwell, 2001).

Figure 2: Conceptualizing Dimensions of Food Security



Source: Adapted from Gross et al, 2000: 5

In short, availability of food is when food is physically present, which is linked to supply and production; food accessibility is when people have enough resources to buy food for a balanced diet; utilization is the degree in which people can acquire adequate food for a certain amount of time. And lastly, food stability is linked to the stability of food accessibility, utilization, and availability. All the above four constitute food security.

2.5.3 Youth

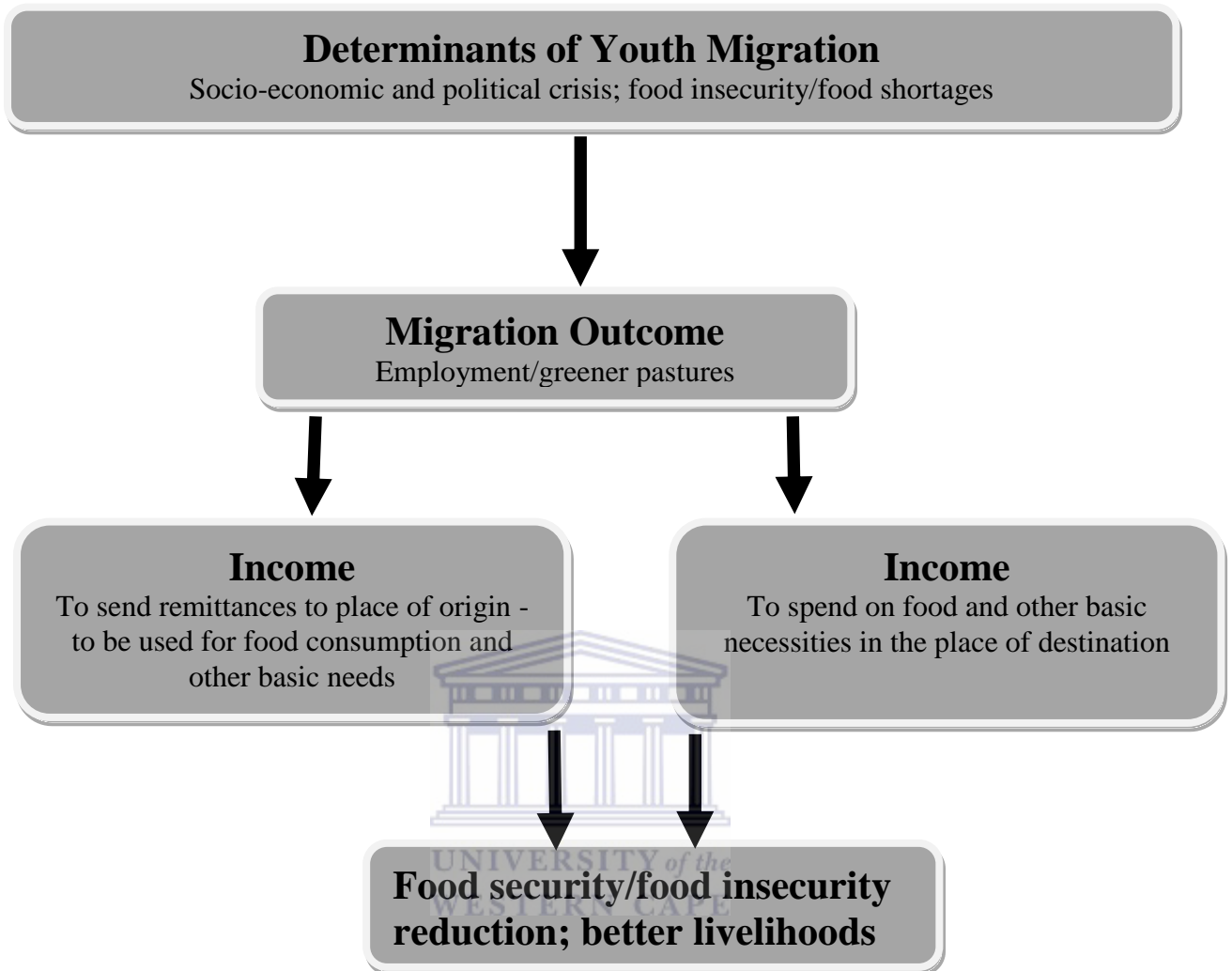
Globally, there is no consensus on the definition of youths; they are defined in many different ways, sometimes switched depending on the use of the term, especially whether it is for social use, economic use or for statistics' sake; however, the connotations are similar one way or the other. In the perspective of statistics usage, the United Nations understands youths as people in the 15 to 24 age classification (United Nations, 2001). In Africa, youth is defined as people aged between 15 and 34 (StatsSA, 2014).

2.5.4 Remittances

In recent times, the word remittances have been contextualized in the migration literature. However, in most instances it has remained undefined or mainly defined to mean money only sent back home by migrants from the place of destination, most notable is the fact that in the literature, the conceptualization of goods or commodities that are sent back to the place of origin has been absent. This thesis regards remittances as defined by (IOM, 2004: 54) as money, goods or commodities sent by migrants to their households, families, friends or any other individuals at their place of origin.

The connection between migration and food security on one hand, then migration, livelihoods, and remittances on the other has been identified and well-illustrated by the appraisal of the literature. However, in conceptualizing youth migration-food security nexus the framework below (Figure 3), consequently, was applied and is the conceptual foundation of this thesis. The framework illustrates the causes of youth migration and in what ways youth migration is essential to the improvement of people's livelihoods, especially food security levels or reduction of food insecurity at both the place of origin and place of destination. The most crucial point of this framework is the attainment of better access to food caused by employment opportunities, which guarantee a source of income for food consumption for the youth migrants in the host country. Furthermore, the incomes sourced by the youth migrants are also remitted back to households or family members for them to be used for food consumption among other basic needs, this result in the intake of nutritious and increased quantity of food consumed.

Figure 3: Conceptual Framework Youth Migration and Food Security



Source: Researcher's compilation, 2015

2.5.5 Chapter Conclusion

To sum up this chapter, several kinds of literature on migration and food security were reviewed to show the connection between the two, as well as the link between, migration, remittances, and livelihoods. Conceptual definitions of migration, food security, youths, remittances and the researcher provided a conceptual framework of the youth migration-food security nexus. Theoretically, various theories were revealed, the neo-classical theories give much emphasis on the economic reasons for migration, and the neo-Marxists argue that migration happens because of unequal structures of progression between advanced and unindustrialized areas. This study was established on the basis of the Livelihood Approaches to migration and New Economics of Labour Migration, which views migration as a collective and livelihood strategic decision generally made on a household or family level and emphasizes the importance of remittances and its benefit to people in the place of origin.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This section gives description and rationale of the research methodology applied in exploring the link between youth migration and food security among Zimbabwean migrants in Cape Town, South Africa. The chapter begins by providing details on the study area; before introducing a discussion of the research design, which is the mixed methods approach, in order to give a comprehensive and robust perspective on youth migration and food security. This includes a discussion of the qualitative approach based on semi-structured or in-depth individual interviews, in addition to a quantitative approach based on a structured questionnaire. This chapter also discusses the sampling techniques, in general, and non-probability sampling, in particular, especially snowball and purposive sampling. Finally, this section will also focus on ethical statements, limitations of the research, consistency and accuracy check of the study.

3.2 Study Area: Cape Town

The study was conducted at three locations in Cape Town, namely, Bellville, Rondebosch, and Observatory. Cape Town is a city located in the Western Province of South Africa and is second to Johannesburg as the heavily populated metropolitan in the country (Western Cape Government, 2013). Cape Town is also the tenth most populous city in the African continent (Morris, 2014). It is among the prominent multicultural cities around the globe which makes it very attractive to migrants (Expat Cape Town, 2014). Bellville, Rondebosch, and Observatory were selected because of a large number of Zimbabwean youth, migrant students, and workers. These areas also have a variety of food sources in an urban set up as well as representing two different suburbs, which are Northern and Southern suburbs.

Figure 4: Map of Cape Town showing Bellville, Rondebosch, and Observatory



Source: World Maps, 2015

3.3 Research Design

A research design is essential to any study since it provides a framework or act as the basis for gathering and evaluating data in a procedure that exhaust the possibilities of validity. As noted by Creswell (2009: 3) “Research designs are plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis.” Babbie and Mouton (2001) and De Vaus (2001) postulate that a research design is a scheme or approach on how a researcher is planning to conduct a study. In the framework of this study on the linkage between youth migration and food security, this section will look at various approaches used in the research design.

3.3.1 Research Philosophy

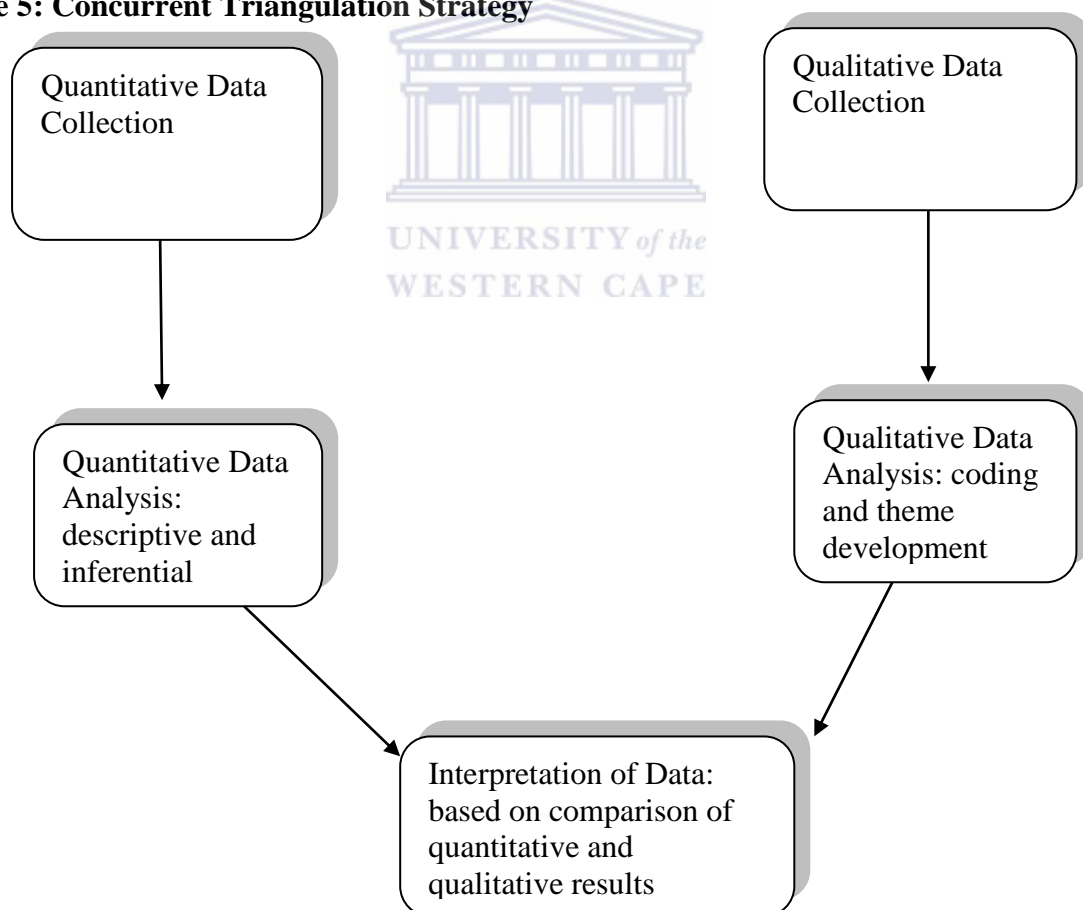
Research philosophy is a worldview or belief on the nature of research (Creswell, 2014: 6), including data collection, analysis, and presentation. Over the years, there has been no consensus in the academic debate on the various philosophies considered to be part of research methodology. However, as noted by Denzin and Lincoln (1994), knowledge of the person undertaking research, awareness of specific philosophies and knowledge of certain dogmas may influence the use of a particular methodology in research. In line with this, the reliability of the aims, objectives, questions, methodology and philosophy in any study is an important foundation and logic behind any research paper (Proctor, 1998). In research, there are ontological issues on the manifestation of knowledge, epistemological aspects, which deal with the theoretical aspects of knowledge, axiological issues in relation to the value of knowledge, rhetorical matters on how knowledge is written and methodological concerns on how knowledge is studied (Creswell, 2003).

In line with the above, there are two main types of philosophies used in academic research, which are the positivism which according to Creswell (2014: 7) is scientific and reductionist in nature and depends mainly on empirical research and the anti-positivism. The anti-positivism approach generally depends on considering and interpreting social behaviour of participants in research (Macionis and Gerber, 2011). In other words, positivism is based on scientific, quantifiable, and measurable research and tends to be more objective, while anti-positivism relies on observations, interpretations and tends to be more subjective in nature. A more comprehensive application of the two research philosophies will follow in the research methodology and design.

3.3.2 Concurrent Triangulation Strategy

A concurrent triangulation method entails a process, in which an investigator of the study gathers both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously during the same stage of information gathering, and then connects the two data sets to determine if there are any associations, discrepancies or similarities (Creswell: 2009: 213). Creswell also argues that this procedure commonly uses isolated quantitative and qualitative approaches concurrently, which are then combined as a way to counterbalance the flaws evident in one approach with the strong points of the other. The strong points of one enhance the advantages of the other. This research gathered data by using both quantitative and qualitative data concurrently but independently. The 60 structured interviews and six semi-structures interviews were done concurrently, and the results of the data assessment on the link between Zimbabwean youth migration and food security were established from both approaches.

Figure 5: Concurrent Triangulation Strategy



Source: Adapted from Davis and Higdon (2008) cited in Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010: 598)

3.4 Methodology

This research adopted a mixed method approach by using both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. The mixed methods as stated by Creswell (2014: 217) “involves the collection of both qualitative (open-ended) and quantitative (closed ended) data in response to research questions and hypothesis...the two forms of data are integrated into the design analysis through merging the data, connecting the data or embedding the data.” Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), share the same interpretation of mixed-method study which they argue to involve both qualitative and quantitative data gathering and analysis since the information gathered direct the inquiry under consideration. Quantitative research method entails systematically or scientifically using statistics, numerals or mathematically centred ways, which are quantifiable for data gathering and analysis (Neuman, 2000; Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Bryman, 2004; Given, 2008). Qualitative research approach focuses on behavioural issues on meanings, capabilities, practices, experiences, interactions, understandings and insights of human beings in their social life (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011; Savin-Baden and Major, 2013).

The logic behind and the core reason for using a mixed method approach is that both qualitative and quantitative methods have strong points as well as shortcomings, combining the two helps to minimize the flaws of each. Morse and Niehaus (2009) and Creswell (2014), note that when qualitative and quantitative approaches are integrated, they provide a more comprehensive analysis that overcomes the weaknesses of the two methodologies, hence they complement each other. The blending of qualitative and quantitative techniques in this research facilitated rigour and profound comprehension of the connection between youth migration and food security, a multifaceted link which needed rigorous research.

3.4.1 Quantitative Methods

3.4.1.1 Structured Questionnaire

Quantitative methods, as noted previously, involve numbers, statistics, calculations and scientific research approach. In relation to this, Babbie (1992) defined a questionnaire as a script with questions intended to obtain data suitable for exploration of a study. Correspondingly, Langdrige and Hagger-Johnson (2009) put forward that the use of a questionnaire implies a vital method of collecting information from a large number of people involved in the research, primarily for the need of quantifying data or examination using statistics. Regarding quantitative data collection in this research, a structured questionnaire was conducted on 60 Zimbabwean migrant youths in Cape

Town. To begin with, the structured questionnaire collected background information from the respondents, mainly demographic data. Secondly, information on living conditions and reasons for leaving Zimbabwe was gathered. Thirdly, information on the remittances' pattern to Zimbabwe in connection with food security was collected. Finally, data was collected on food access, dietary and months of food security of Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town.

3.4.2 Qualitative Methods

3.4.2.1 Semi-structured Individual Interviews

Six semi-structured individual interviews were carried out in Cape Town using open-ended questions. The selection of the respondents was performed through purposive sampling where the respondents were selected based on their knowledge of the socio-economic and political situation in Zimbabwe, as well as their awareness of food security/insecurity and remittance issues. Almost all the six interviews were carried out using a phone recorder, and only one was written on paper. The primary aim of conducting semi-structured interviews was to get in-depth and comprehensive information on the socio-economic and political situation in Zimbabwe in relation to food shortages and determinants of migrating to South Africa as well as food insecurity/security issues in South Africa.

3.5 Literature Review

This research reviewed various literature on migration, food security/insecurity, remittances, and livelihoods. The reviewed literature formed the basis or foundation of this study; various books, journal, and other published materials were reviewed. As argued by Mouton (2001), a literature review focuses on the prior studies or research and assists academics, students as well as scholars in identifying research gaps in a particular study area. This procedure facilitated application of the relevant theories, concepts, and contextualization of the study.

3.6 Sampling

In research, cases to be considered are chosen, the practice of selecting the cases to be observed is called sampling (Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter, 2006: 133), two widely known sampling procedures are probability and non-probability (Fowler, 2009). Probability sampling is a method, in which the prospect of finding a specific sample is determined through calculations (Fowler, 2009), on the other hand, non-probability sampling entails a type of sampling where the choice of observations to be investigated is not determined by the statistical principle of randomness (Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter, 2006: 139). In this study, non-probability sampling was applied in choosing participants in the structured questionnaire surveys; the type of non-probability

sampling used was snowballing where the respondents recommended people in their social networks. Snowballing sampling is the technique of stage by stage escalation of a suitably large sample through links, contacts, and references (Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter, 2006: 139). The reason for using non-probability sampling, specifically snowballing sampling method was the absence of dependable information about the total number and location of Zimbabwean migrant youths in the study area. Selection of participants for the semi-structured interviews was carried out by means of non-probability sampling through purposive sampling where participants were chosen due to the appropriateness to the research.

3.7 Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis is part of the basis of any research, interpreting and evaluating a study is essential (Bryman, 2012). This research collected qualitative and quantitative data, but in separation. The data was then combined during the analysis and presentation stage, where the information was matched and merged. The presentation was done at the same stage; nonetheless, quantitative outcomes were presented first, followed by the qualitative results.

3.7.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis entails “description and thematic text or image analysis” (Creswell, 2009: 218). In this study, six semi-structured individual interviews were conducted, through recording and in-depth texts, the data was then transcribed and examined to explore the link between Zimbabwean youth migration and food security in Cape Town, South Africa. A brief outline of each respondent was done then the information obtained was arranged into specific themes. To begin with, the first theme focused on the socio-economic and political situation in Zimbabwe as well as the drivers of youth migration to South Africa in relation to food security. The second theme looked at remittances from Zimbabwean youth migrants, and the part played by remittances for the needs of household or family members left in the place of origin. The third and last theme focused on the issues of food insecurity in both the place of origin (Zimbabwe) and the place of destination, which is Cape Town in South Africa.

3.7.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis involves the methods by which researchers modify or convert data to numerals, which are then involved in a statistical analysis; this is also known as the quantification of data (Babbie, 2009: 422). In this research, when data collection was done using 60 questionnaire surveys, the data was obtained and cleaned to check for any errors or irregularities.

Then the data was entered into Microsoft Excel to create a data set. The data set was then imported to STATA 12.0, which is statistical software. Descriptive statistics were then applied to define, simplify and review the data. The presentations of the descriptive statistics were shown through charts, graphs, tables, tabulations and distribution of frequencies among other things.

In addition, inferential statistics were applied in this research in order understand and make assumptions on the data set under study. Pearson’s chi-square test was used to test the relationship between categorical or independent variables where a null hypothesis was tested. The chi-square test was used to assess the connection between youth migration and food security, remittances, and food security as well as various issues that affect food security issues. Chi-square test is based on the principles that when a hypothesis is being tested, the significant value is equal or less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$) or 5% at 1 degree of freedom, there is an association between the variables under consideration, hence the null hypothesis cannot be accepted (Agresti, 2002). Then if the significant value is more than 0.05 (5%) it signifies that the variables are not associated with each other and are not statistically significant, hence the null hypothesis can be accepted (Agresti, 2002). Pearson’s Chi-square formula is shown below:

$$x^2 = \sum \frac{(\text{Observed count} - \text{Expected count})^2}{\text{Expected count}}$$

The rationale for using both descriptive and inferential statistics is the need to summarize and make a judgment on various probabilities in relation to the primary aim of this thesis, which is to explore or discover the connection between youth migration and food security using a case study of Zimbabweans in Cape Town.

In analyzing food security for Zimbabwean youth migrants, this research adopted the four advanced and practical techniques developed by the Food and Nutrition Technical Assistance Project (FANTA) and used globally to measure food security levels. The four procedures include the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS); Household Food Insecurity Access Prevalence (HFIAP); Household Dietary Diversity Scale (HDDS) and the Months of Adequate Household Food Provisioning (MAHFP) which are going to be discussed below in detail. The rationale behind choosing all four tools is that they provide different measurement techniques, which were combined in this research to show a comprehensive and practical analysis of food accessibility, availability, utilization, and stability.

3.7.2.1 Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS)

The HFIAS is used to calculate food accessibility by measuring, quantifying and scaling of responses to occurrence questions. This is done by calculating the level of food insecurity for the duration of 4 weeks prior to the investigation, firstly, the individual who is interviewed is asked whether the situation in the inquiry ever occurred in the last 30 days, with a 'YES' or 'NO' option on 9 questions (Coates, Swindale, and Bilinsky: 2007: 5). If the response is 'YES' to an incident in the inquiry, then a question to determine the frequency of occurrence is asked, with the options of (Rarely = once or twice; Sometimes = 3 to 10 times; Often = more than 10 times), all in the context of the past 30 days, the lowest mark '0' and the highest mark is '27', hence, a higher mark signifies more food insecurity, on the other hand; a lower mark represents low food insecurity levels (Coates, Swindale, and Bilinsky: 2007: 5 - 18).

3.7.2.2 Household Food Insecurity Access Prevalence Indicator (HFIAP); Household Food Insecurity Access-related Conditions and Household Food Insecurity Access-related Domains

The HFIAP pointer is dependent on the answers to the HFIAS inquiry; it categorizes individuals or households into 4 stages of food insecurity; these are food secure, mildly, moderately and severely food insecure (Coates, Swindale, and Bilinsky, 2007: 19). In addition, there is the Household Food Insecurity Access-related Conditions which quantify the proportion of participants who were affected by a selected and specific food insecurity condition, and then there are the Household Food Insecurity Access-related Domains that categorize the responses into three groups "Anxiety and uncertainty, Insufficient Quality, and insufficient food intake and its physical consequences" (Coates, Swindale, and Bilinsky, 2007:17 – 18)

3.7.2.3 Household Dietary Diversity Scale (HDDS)

The HDDS is more concerned with the quality or dietary aspects of food and quantifies food consumption of individuals or households 24 hours prior to the survey, by using twelve food categories, which are: (A) Cereals (B) Root/tubers (C) Vegetables (D) Fruits (E) Meat/poultry/offal (F) Eggs (G) Fish/seafood (H) Pulses/legumes/nuts (I) Milk/milk products (J) Oil/fats (K) Sugar/honey (L) Miscellaneous/any others (Swindale and Bilinsky, 2005). HDDS is calculated by counting the food categories consumed over the period under study (Hoddinott and Yisehac, 2002), hence, the higher the average quantity of the consumption of food in various categories signifies the better accessibility to food. The importance of the HDDS to this study is that it gave a clear indication of what type of food is consumed in relation to accessibility to a more balanced diet or nutritious food, hence measuring dietary issues is a key indicator of food security.

3.7.2.4 Months of Adequate Household Food Provisioning (MAHFP)

The MAHFP indicator entails identifying and capturing levels of accessibility and availability of food for a period of 12 months prior to the survey; respondents are asked to recognize months which they did not have enough access to food (Bilinsky and Swindale, 2007). As a result, the months identified are added, a high score out of 12 represents a high probability of food insecurity. A low score signifies a low possibility of food insecurity. The MAHFP is crucial in this research because it demonstrates how access to food is not similar in a period of time; different challenges and opportunities do affect access to food.

3.8 Ethical Statements

This research was undertaken between May and October 2015 based on the ethics and research guidelines of the University of the Western Cape. The starting point of this research began after the acceptance of the study proposal and ethical clearance from the Institute for Social Development and the faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of the Western Cape. The beginning of the questionnaire surveys and the semi-structured interviews started by informing the respondents about the aims and objectives of the study and giving them an information sheet with further clarification of the purpose of the study, possible risks and benefits of the study, and the contact details of the researcher, supervisor and head of the department. Participation in this study was voluntary and participants were allowed to skip any questions or withdraw from the questionnaire survey or interview at any time. The next stage was the signing of the consent form by both the researcher and the respondents as an agreement to participate in the research. Lastly, the researcher guaranteed that the information from the research was to be kept anonymous, confidential and pseudonyms were to be used in this research.

3.9 Limitations of the Study

This research was comprehensive, scientifically and systematically carried out, and it also managed to reach its objective, nevertheless, the researcher was also mindful of inevitable defects and other limitations. First of all, the methodology used in this thesis, which was applied because the number of the target group in the study area is not known, has some flaws, this is due to the non-probability sampling technique used and reasonably a small number (60 for questionnaire survey and six for in-depth interviews) of respondents used in the sample. Consequently, on a broad-spectrum, the outcomes or results in this research do not represent the general perspectives of the group or location under study, and general assumptions should not be founded solely on this

thesis. Hence future studies with bigger probability samples are recommended. Secondly, there were some challenges in locating the target group under study, as migrants, were reluctant to disclose their identity due to fear of discrimination, victimization, xenophobia or prosecution because of lack of proper immigration documentation. Fortunately, social networks used in this study to locate respondents proved to be very helpful.

Thirdly, the respondents expected to obtain a financial benefit from participating in the study. However, they freely cooperated after reading the information sheet, and developing an understanding of the significance and legitimacy of what the findings would be used for. Lastly, the dependability and consistency of the information from the respondents could have been inconsistent. This is so because when answering the four indicators of measuring food insecurity the respondents were asked to recall information from the past 24 hours, one week, one month and sometimes 12 months, hence there was a possibility of respondents forgetting or distorting information. To make sure that there was a rigorous check in reducing any falsification or fabrication of data, the researcher repeated the questions several times in order to make sure that there was consistency in the answers provided.

3.10 Reliability and Validity

In research, a rigorous study is essential in making it valuable, beneficial, credible and useful. Therefore, this study also focused on the issue of validity and reliability. Characteristics of a rigorous study include consistency, dependability, neutrality, quantifiable, regularized, unbiased, organized, schematized, and methodical (Davies and Dodd, 2002). Reliability is about the consistency in research, whereas validity encompasses the accuracy of the research results (Creswell, 2014). In making sure that this research was reliable, the research phases and procedures which included pseudonym names, locations, and dates when the interviews were done during the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data were evidently noted down in order to make the information more dependable and easy to trace the level of consistency. The interviews were also done on an individual level to make sure that no external influences would impact the answers of the respondents. Moreover, the sensitivity of the issues on migration and food security, especially in the context of Zimbabwe, meant that there was a possibility of overstatements and omission of important facts. To make the information more reliable, the respondents were notified that no harm was going to happen to them since the research was purely for educational purposes.

Furthermore, the research records were cross-checked to avoid any errors, and consistency check in the codification of the data was also revisited. In ensuring that there was validity in this study, the researcher implemented the triangulation method of using both quantitative and qualitative findings by comparing various themes in order to find similar and varied perspectives. In addition, follow-ups on at least six respondents were done in order to check the validity of the refined findings in order to guarantee accuracy and consistency. The researcher also extended the length of time to over one hour on each interview in order to get a vivid grasp of the target group, themes, and area under consideration; this maintained a comprehensive understanding and validation of the findings. Lastly, in some instances, an in-depth account of the themes under discussion through the inclusion of quotations and various first-hand information was provided for the sake of adding validity to the research results.

To sum up, this section provided a discussion of the research methodology applied in this thesis. This chapter validated the use of a combined or mixed approach of qualitative and quantitative techniques in exploring the dynamic and complex discourse of youth migration-food security nexus. The reason for using a mixed methods approach, as noted earlier, is to have a wide-ranging, insightful and vigorous research on youth migration and food security. As a result of using the mixed methods approach, this research managed to measure the levels of food insecurity, the reasons for migrating, and the importance of remittances in the context of food security. The empirical results were based on the use of the mixed methodology are shown in the following section.

CHAPTER 4: EXPLORING THE LINK BETWEEN YOUTH MIGRATION AND FOOD SECURITY: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings, analysis, and results on the link between youth migration and food security. For quantitative data, inferential and descriptive statistics of the 60 Zimbabwean youth migrants are provided through background and situations such as demographic information, employment status, socio-economic and political circumstances in Zimbabwe, the impact of migration and remittances on food security and the level of food insecurity of Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town (see Appendix 1). Then the qualitative data is presented through a brief summary of each of the six interviews followed by a discussion or dialogue section on identified themes.

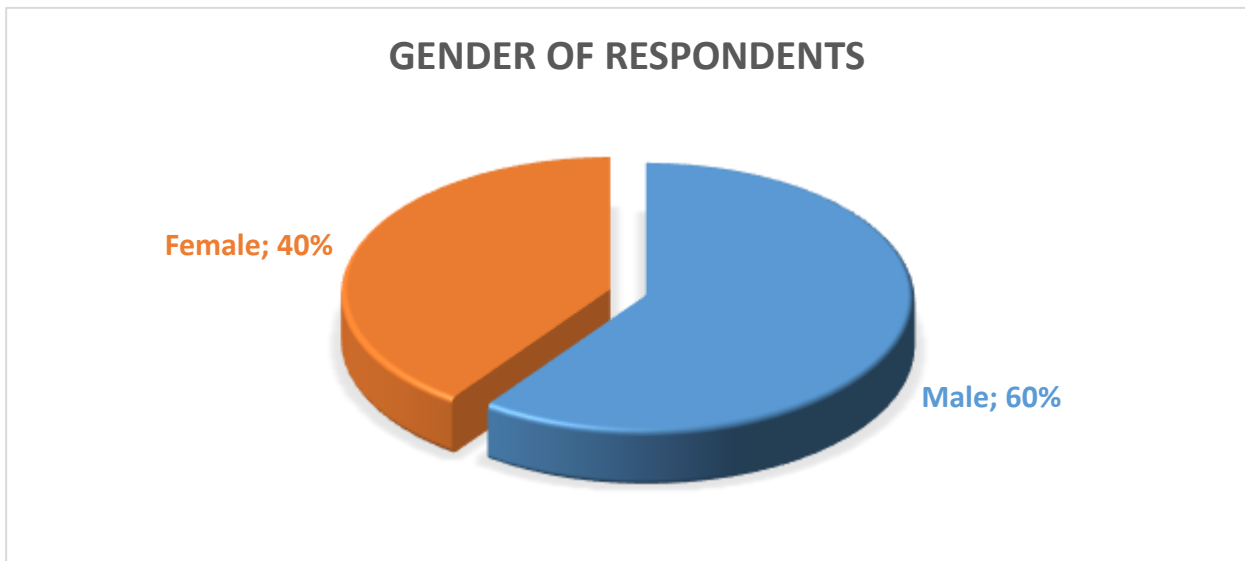
4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Neuman (2000) notes that in quantitative investigations, the importance is focused on its usefulness in quantifying variables and validating theories, or assumptions in order to show the links and variations of the data. In this research, descriptive and inferential indicators are applied to the quantification of the data. The numerical measurement of the data proved to be very useful in providing logical information with regards to answering the research questions and the accomplishment of the aims of the thesis. The quantitative data analysis is as follows:

4.1.1 Youth Background and Demographic Information

The survey made a background check to confirm the nationality of the respondents; all the 60 interviewed were Zimbabwean nationals. Out of the 60 respondents, 60% were males and 40% were females as shown in (Figure 6). The age breakdown in the survey included 36.7% aged between 25 and 29; 31.7% between 30 and 34; 30% between 20 and 24; while 1.7% were aged between 15 and 19 as indicated in Table 1. As depicted in Table 1, the majority 71.7% were single; 21.7% were married; 5% were divorced and 1.7% were not specified. The majority of the individuals in relation to the breadwinner in Cape Town indicated that 71.67% were breadwinners; 18.33% specified that their relatives such as brothers and sisters were breadwinners; 10% stated that their husbands were bread winners as presented in Table 2. The survey also illustrated that 38.3% had no dependents; 18.3% had three dependents; 18.3% had two dependents; 11.7% had one dependent; 6.7% had four dependents and 6.7% also had five dependents (Table 2).

Figure 6: Gender of Respondents



Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 1: Age and Marital Status of Respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Age	15 - 29	1	1.7%
	20 - 24	18	30%
	25 - 29	22	36.7%
	30 - 34	19	31.7%
Marital Status	Married	13	21.7%
	Widowed	0	0%
	Divorced	3	5%
	Single	43	71.7%
	Other: Specify	1	1.7%
N = 60			

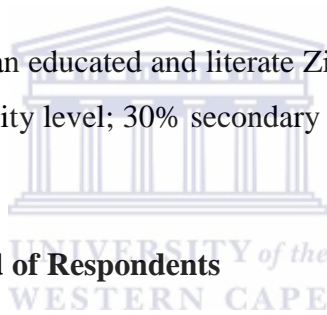
Source: Field Survey, 2015

Table 2: Breadwinner and Number of Dependents

Variable	Category	Number	Percentage
Breadwinner	Myself	43	71.67%
	Husband	6	10%
	Wife	0	0%
	Child	0	0%
	Other	11	18.33%
N = 60			
Number of dependents	One	7	11.7%
	Two	11	18.3%
	Three	11	18.3%
	Four	4	6.7%
	Five+	4	6.7%
	None	23	38.3%
N = 60			

Source: Field Survey, 2015

It is noticeable that the heritage of an educated and literate Zimbabwean population was evident in the survey, 60% completed University level; 30% secondary education; 6.7% vocational and 3.3% other categories (Table 3).

**Table 3: Educational Background of Respondents**

Educational Background	Category	Number	Percentage
	Primary	0	0%
	Secondary	18	30%
	University	36	60%
	Vocational	4	6.7%
	Other	2	3.3%
N = 60			

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Youth Employment Status

In this survey, the majority 76.7% indicated that they were unemployed prior to coming to South Africa while only 23.3% were employed before coming to South Africa as depicted in Table 4. In recent time, unemployment in Zimbabwe has become a massive national crisis, as stated by Rusvingo (2015: 2), the unemployment rate in Zimbabwe was now estimated to be 85 percent. However, the current situation in South Africa was remarkably better, 83.3% of the respondents were currently employed while only 16.7% were out of employment, 88% were employees and only 12% were self-employed (Table: 4). Out of the 50 respondents who said that they were

currently employed, 74% were employed as part-time, while only 26% were full-time (Table 4). Tellingly evident in this research is that Zimbabwe’s economic meltdown has caused negative effects through high unemployment in general and youth unemployment rates in particular. Clearly, the Zimbabwean youths have better employment opportunities in the new place of destination which is South Africa. This is evident through the comparison of their employment status in South Africa and employment status before migrating to South Africa (see Table 4).

Table 4: Employment Status of Respondents

Employment	Category	Number	Percentage
Employment status in Zimbabwe prior to migrating to South Africa	Employed	14	23.3%
	Unemployed	46	76.7%
N = 60			
Present employment status in South Africa	Employed	50	83.3%
	Unemployed	10	16.7%
N = 60			
Employment type in South Africa	Self-employed	6	12%
	Employee	44	88%
	Both		
N = 50			
Type of employment in South Africa	Part-time	37	74%
	Full-time	13	26%
N= 50			

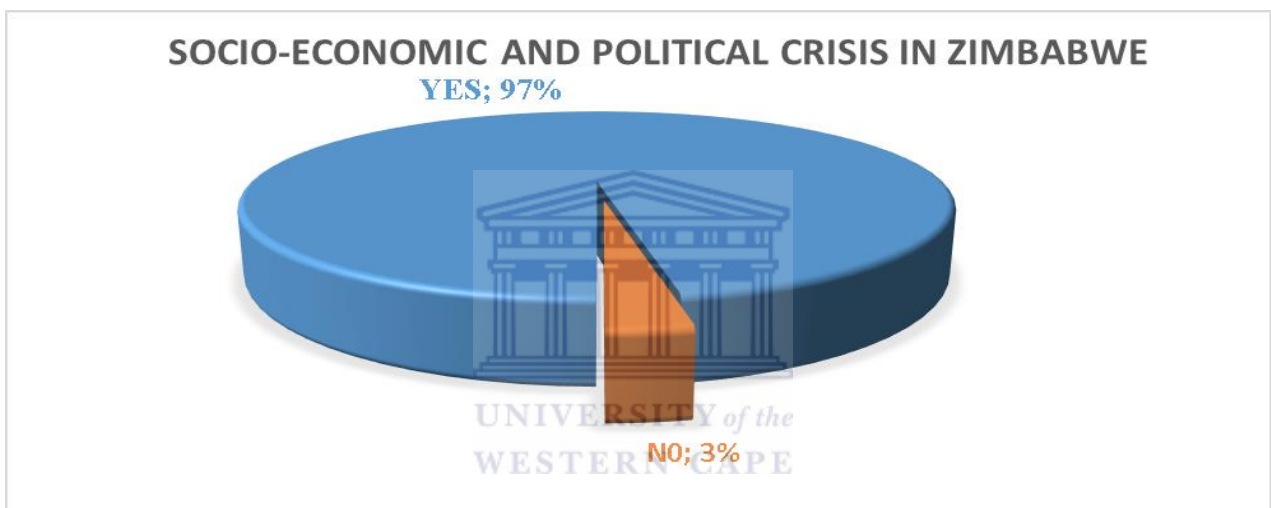
Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.1.2 Socio-Economic & Political Situation in Zimbabwe

The survey showed that a staggering 97% of the respondents believed that there was a socio-economic and political crisis in Zimbabwe while only 3% disagreed as illustrated in Figure 7. Common responses in connection with the socio-economic and political crisis in Zimbabwe were “unemployment,” “no jobs,” “water and electricity shortages,” “infighting in political parties,” “corruption” and “food shortages.” As expected, a majority, 88% of the respondents indicated that there were food shortages in Zimbabwe, only 12% opposed this view (Figure 8). The deteriorating socio-economic situation and the political crisis in Zimbabwe which has caused untold suffering and hardships for the citizens, and has recently reached calamitous levels due to high

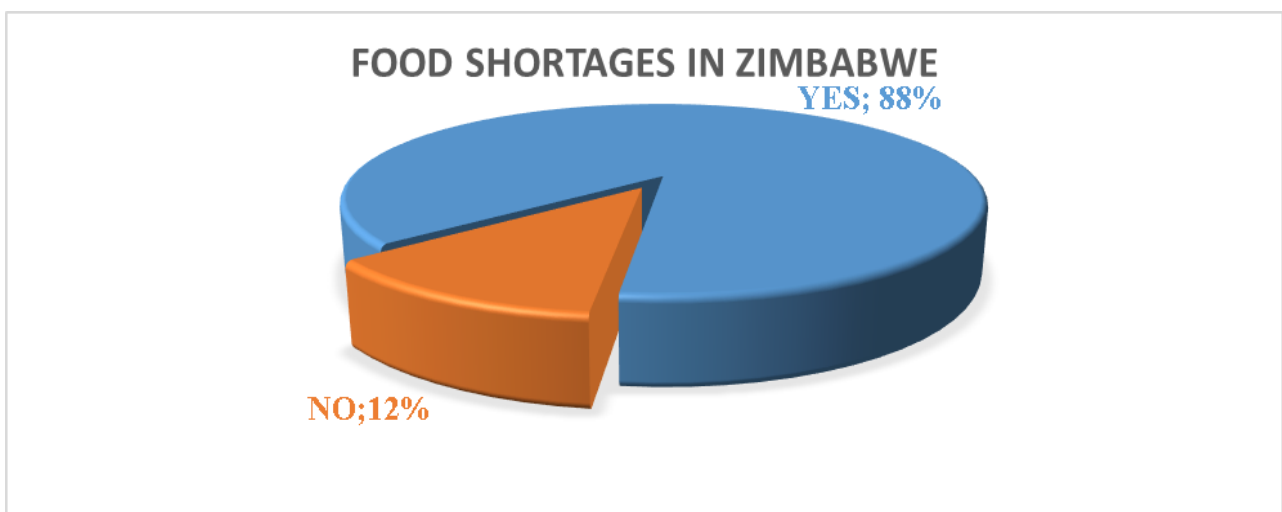
unemployment, food insecurity, poor service delivery, closure of many factories or industries, political violence and political infighting have also been well documented by a number of scholars over the years (Bond, 2000; Jenkins and Knight, 2002; Sachikonye, 2002; Raftopoulos and Phimister, 2004; Potts, 2006; Raftopoulos, 2006; Raftopoulos and Mlambo, 2009; Jones, 2010; Bourne, 2011; Mitchell, 2014). This validates the findings of this research, which pointed to the existence of a tragedy. It clearly shows that the socio-economic and political situation in Zimbabwe was now going through a terminal decline, and most sectors of the economy had now reached disastrous levels; the economy was indeed paralyzed.

Figure 7: Socio-Economic and Political Crisis in Zimbabwe



Source: Field Survey, 2015

Figure 8: Food Shortages in Zimbabwe



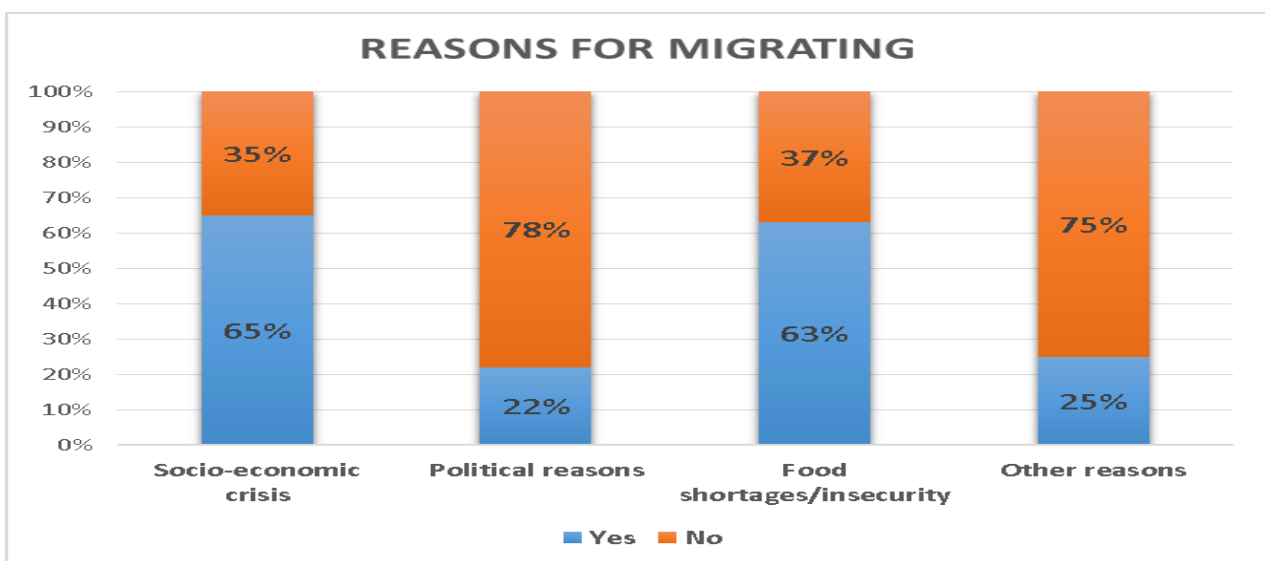
Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.1.3 Reasons for Migrating To South Africa

In the context of this study, the respondents were allowed to give multiple answers in relation to the drivers of migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa. 65% confirmed that socio-economic crisis influenced their decision to migrate while 35% differed. Only 22% indicated that political crisis influenced their decision to migrate while 78% opposed this opinion. 63% indicated that food shortages influenced their decision to migrate whereas 37% differed; 25% had other reasons to migrate such as coming to school (Figure 9). However, 75% did not have any other reason to migrate as represented in Figure 9. To put this into perspective, migration is generally viewed as a response to poverty, vulnerability to various risks and poor access to basic needs hence people move in search of greener pastures (Skeldon, 2002). Within Sub-Saharan Africa, cross-border migration is mainly a result of economic factors (Dinbabo and Carciotto, 2015).

In the case of Zimbabwe, poverty is very much linked to the determinants of migration where people run away from poverty to other countries seeking better opportunities and improved livelihoods (Dzingirai, Mutopo, and Landau, 2014). Along similar lines, with the socio-economic and political watershed in Zimbabwe, Crush and Tevera (2010:1) argue that population movement from Zimbabwe can be viewed as crisis-driven migration. Unsurprisingly, the findings of this research confirmed how the crippled and disjointed Zimbabwean economy, as well as the chaotic social and political circumstances, have overwhelmed many Zimbabweans and pushed many youths out of the country, in search of improved access to food and better opportunities elsewhere.

Figure 9: Reasons for Migrating to South Africa



Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.1.4 Family or Household Influence on Migration Decision

The family or household influence on migration decision was evident in most of the people interviewed, 70% of the respondents indicated that their household/family members influenced their decision to migrate, whereas only 30% differed (Table 5). General responses here were that family/households members advised that in South Africa, there were “greener pastures,” “better opportunities,” “jobs” and that migration would help the upkeep of the family/household members.

In addition, 63% of the respondents indicated that they migrated to South Africa in order to meet the food needs of family/household members back in the country of origin, while 37% differed (Table 5). This is linked to the NELM which states that migration is a strategic choice made at the household or family level, which is generally better than at an individual level and is primarily done in order to get an improved income, as well as to reduce or share the responsibility of possible risks (De Haas, 2010: 242-243). This is also in line with the livelihood approaches to migration, as argued by Ellis (2003), migration is vital for better livelihood of many communities. This study found out that reduction of food insecurity and a shortage of other basic needs by families or households is also attributed to the migration decision taking into account the understanding of how remittances could possibly play an important livelihood role in improving better access to food and other basic necessities.

In addition, there was a statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) link between (1) the influence of food shortages/food insecurity and (2) the influence of family/household members to the migration decision. Furthermore, there was also a statistically significant ($p < 0.002$) association between (1) the influence of food shortages/food insecurity on migration decision and (2) the migration decision in order to meet the food needs of the family/household members. Without a doubt, it is clear in this study that family/household members played a huge part in the migration decision in order to reduce the risk or vulnerability to food insecurity of themselves and the migrant family/household member.

Table 5: Migration Links with Family/Household Members

Variable	Category	Numbers	Percentage
Family or household members influence in the migration decision	Yes	42	70%
	No	18	30%
N = 60			
Migrated to meet the food needs of family/household members back home	Yes	38	63%
	No	22	37%
N = 60			

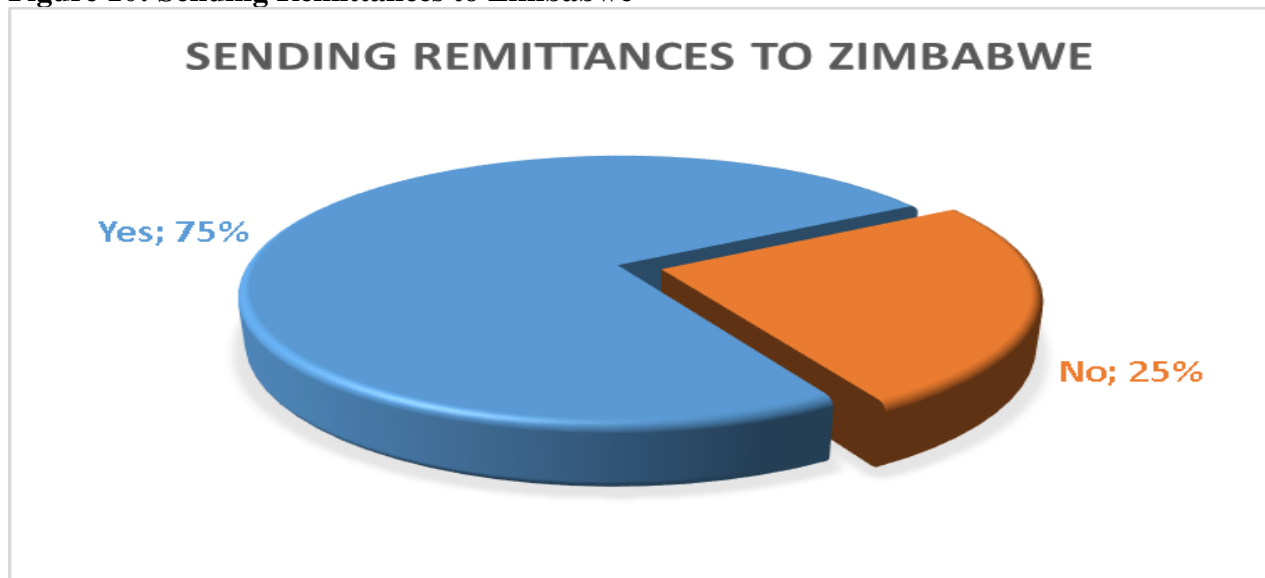
Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.1.5 Youth Migration, Remittances, and Food Security

The findings in this research found out that most Zimbabweans remit to their households, family or friends in Zimbabwe, the majority (75%) of the respondents in this research point out that they send money to Zimbabwe while only 25% do not send money (Figure 10). One of the main notions of the NELM is that human mobility and remittances send back to the place of origin provide financial resources, which help in reducing any potential risks (Taylor, 1999). To put it in another way, central to the NELM is that remittances send back to the place of origin play a crucial role in poverty reduction and to improve livelihoods of many households.

WESTERN CAPE

Figure 10: Sending Remittances to Zimbabwe



Source: Field Survey, 2015

The frequency of remitting money to Zimbabwe was as follows: 42.2% every month; 26.7% whenever possible; 22.2% every three months; while 4.4% for once a year and 4.4% twice a year as well (Table 6). Average money remitted each time to Zimbabwe was between R801 and R1500 representing 55.6%; 22.2% between R0 and R800; 15.6% between R1501 and R3000 then 6.7% between R3000 and R8000 (Table 6). Unsurprisingly, on the backdrop of the decaying and crumbling Zimbabwean economy where opportunities are scarce, remittances' behaviour revealed in this study indicates that resources are remitted back to the place of origin on a regular basis, as shown by the frequency of remitting, and are now a lifeline for many households with relations across borders in getting better access to food and other basic needs.

In line with this, as part of the study, respondents were asked whether they send money for it to be used for food consumption, a huge majority of 82.2% said yes while 17.8% said no. In addition, they were also asked whether they believe that the money they send is used for food consumption. 91.1% of the respondents said yes while 8.9% said no. Money remittances are important; however, this survey also asked respondents, whether they also send any food items/groceries back to their place of origin: only 10% of the respondents said they do send groceries while 90% said they do not send any groceries. In line with this, migration can make an important contribution to the livelihoods of family or household members left behind in the place of origin through remittances which could increase the chances of consuming a variety of foods contributing to a balanced diet (Karamba, Quiñones, and Winters, 2011; Zezza et al, 2011).

Table 6: Frequency and Average Remittances Sent to Zimbabwe

Frequency of sending remittances	Category	Number	Percentage
	Every month	19	42.2%
	Every 3 months	10	22.2%
	Twice a year	2	4.4%
	Once a year	2	4.4%
	Whenever possible	12	26.7%
Total =45			
Average amount sent each time to Zimbabwe	0 - R800	10	22.2%
	R801 - R1500	25	55.6%
	R1501 – R3000	7	15.6%
	R3001 – R8000	3	6.7%
	R8000+	0	0%
Total = 45			

Source: Field Survey, 2015

Ellis (2003) argues that if money remitted to the place of origin is used for food consumption it is logically mainly because of food shortages, which therefore plays a crucial role in establishing food security, especially in uncertain circumstances. In connection with this, there was a statistically significant ($p < 0.000$) relationship between (1) the sending of remittances and (2) the sending of the remittances for it to be used for food consumption, as well as (1) the connection between sending remittances and (2) believing that the remittances are used for food consumption ($p < 0.000$), see Table 7. Moreover, there was also a statistically significant ($p < 0.000$) linkage between (1) the sending of remittances for them to be used for food consumption and (2) the belief that the remittances are used for food consumption (Table 7). Furthermore, there is a statistically significant ($p < 0.049$) relationship between (1) migration in order to meet the foods needs of household/family members and (1) the sending food back to the country of origin (Table 7). Evidently, the data shows that one of the main reasons for migrating is to get income to send back to the place of origin. The remittances are mostly sent for them to be primarily used for food consumption and the migrants who sent the remittances do believe that the money is essentially used to buy food.

Table 7: Pearson Chi2 Results on Migration, Remittances, and Food security

Label	Chi-square	df	P	Conclusion
Remittances and Remittances for food consumption	32.17	1	0.000	Significant
Remittances and belief that remittances are used for food consumption	43.15	1	0.000	Significant
Sending of remittances for them to be used for food consumption and the belief that the remittances are used for food consumption	44.72	1	0.000	Significant
Remittances and migration in order to meet the foods needs of household/family members	11.57	1	0.001	Significant

Source: Stata Data Set, Field Survey 2015

4.1.6 Youth Migrants and food security

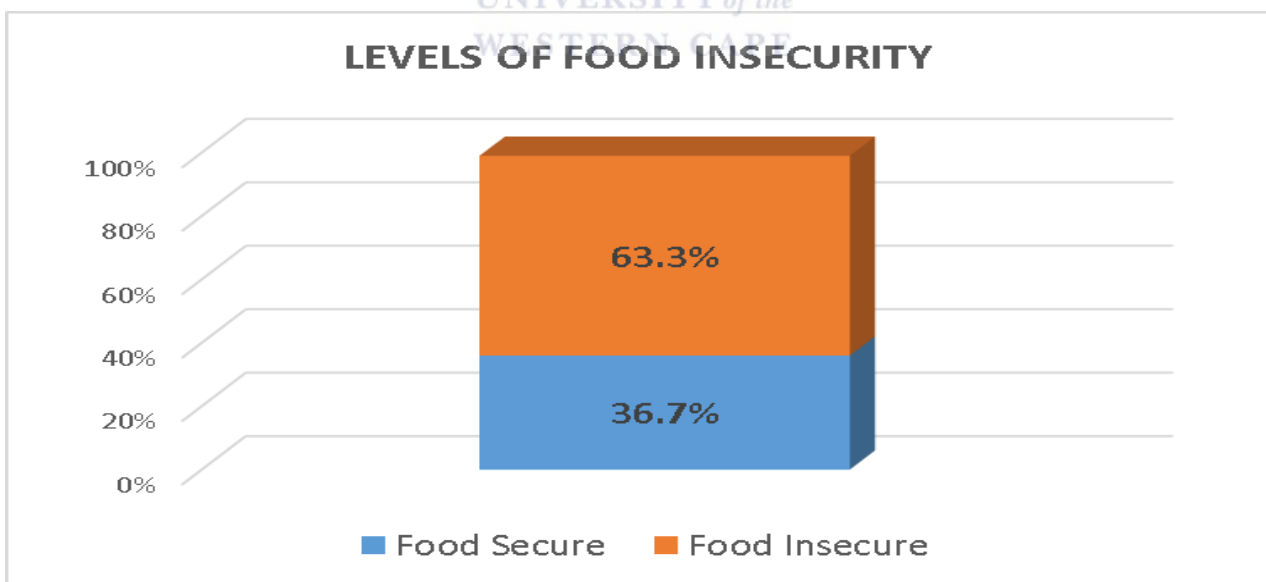
This section provides information and analysis on the food insecurity level of Zimbabwean youth migrants in Cape Town. The measurement of food insecurity was done by means of the Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS), Household Food Insecurity Access Prevalence Indicator

(HFIAP), Household Dietary Diversity Scale (HDDS), Household Food Insecurity Access-related Conditions, Household Food Insecurity Access-related Domains and the Months of Adequate Household Provisioning Indicator (MAHFP).

4.1.6.1 Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) and Household Food Insecurity Access Prevalence Indicator (HFIAP)

Measuring the access element of food insecurity is crucial and centered on the notion that the situation faced by the individuals or groups under study on food access effects can be predicted and provide answers or feedbacks that can be transcribed, calculated and interpreted (Knueppel et al, 2010). In line with this, the average HFIAS score for Zimbabwean youth migrants in Cape Town was 0.13; the mean score of the HFAIS was 3.66, median 2 and mode 0. The HFIAP scores had noteworthy variances: 36.67% food secure; 25% mildly food insecure; 26.67% moderately food insecure, and only 11.67% were severely food insecure. This shows that 63.3% of the respondents were food insecure, whereas only 36.7% were food secure as indicated in Figure 11. The HFIAS and the HFIAP show low general levels of severe food insecurity among Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town.

Figure 11: Zimbabwe Youths Food Insecurity Levels in Cape Town



Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.1.6.2 Household Food Insecurity Access-related Conditions and Household Food Insecurity Access-related Domains

The actions, opinions, experiences, pervasiveness in regard to food insecurity is well demonstrated by the access-related conditions and access-related domains (Coates, Swindale, and Bilinsky, 2007). With the complex nature of food insecurity measurement, the domains and conditions of access to food are crucial in providing information on the challenges and opportunities that people face in their quest to obtain better access to food. In measuring the food insecurity particular conditions through conducts and opinions of the participants, the Household Food Insecurity Access-related Conditions showed that 36.67% were worried that they would not get enough food while 63.33% were not worried (Table 8). The frequency was 20% for those who said rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks), 16.27% sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks). In terms of severe food insecurity conditions, only 6.67% indicated that there was no food to consume because of limited resources, 93.33% differed. Additionally, 8.33% indicated that they went to bed hungry because of insufficient food for consumption (Table 8). Moreover, a minority 1.67% point out that they went for the entire 24hours without consuming any food due to food scarcity (Table 8).

Another important measure of food insecurity is the Household Food Insecurity Access-related Domains which point to the fact that 47.22% had an insufficient quality of food; 52.77% had desired adequate quality of food. In regard to the quantity of food, 30% indicated that they had food consumption deficient, whereas the majority 70% had sufficient food intake. This means basically that in terms of food insecurity conditions over half of the respondents were not extremely worried about their situation, especially when it came to the quality or quantity of food. On the other hand, the food access-related domains were insightful and showed that the majority of the respondents had high or adequate food consumption.

Table 8: Household Food Insecurity Access-related Conditions

Question	Yes	No
In the past four weeks, did you worry that you would not have enough food?	36.67%	63.33%
In the past four weeks, was there ever no food to eat of any kind for you because of lack of resources to get food?	6.67%	93.33%
In the past four weeks, did you go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?	8.33%	91.67%
In the past four weeks, did you go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?	1.67%	98.33%
N = 60		

Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.1.6.3 Household Dietary Diversity Scale (HDDS)

The basis of giving emphasis to nutritional diversity, especially in the developing world and poor communities, where there is limited consumption of many kinds of foods is that focus on dietary issues is very important for food security because consuming a variety of food leads to a balanced diet (Ruel, 2003). In the context of this research, the levels of food insecurity were also measured using the HDDS which deals with the quality of the diet consumed by respondents. The mean score of the HDDS was 6.56 of the potential maximum of 12, which specify that on average, at least six different types of food categories were consumed by the respondents. The median and mode score was 6 and 5 respectively signifying that the respondents consumed at least or almost half of the food in the 12 food groups. The most consumed categories were Meat (96.7%), Oil/fats (90%); Sugar/honey (76.7%); Cereals (73.3%), Milk (73.3%); Vegetables (70%), the least consumed foods groups were Fish/seafood 6.7%; Root/tubers 18.3% and Pulses/legumes/nuts (26.7%) as presented in Table 9. The figures show that on average the respondents were consuming half of the 12 food categories, as well as high consumption of meat, oil or fats, sugar or honey, cereals, milk, and vegetables, mean basically that the Zimbabwean youth migrants in Cape Town were consuming high quality or generally sufficient nutritious diet.

Table 9: Food Consumption by Respondents

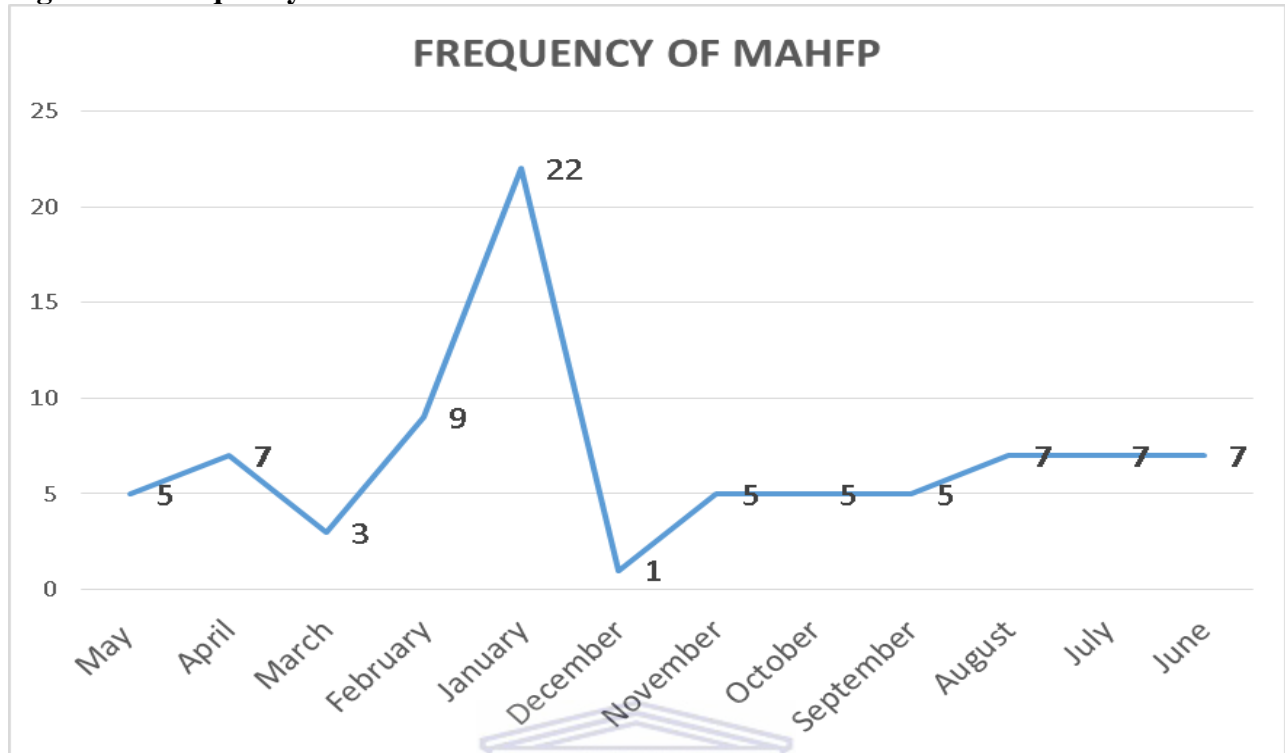
Food Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Cereals	44	73.3%
Root/tubers	11	18.3%
Vegetables	42	70%
Fruits	29	28.3%
Meat/poultry/offal	58	96.7%
Eggs	30	50%
Fish/seafood	4	6.7%
Pulses/legumes/nuts	16	26.7%
Milk/milk products	44	73.3%
Oil/fats	54	90%
Sugar/honey	46	76.7%
Miscellaneous/any others	16	26.7%

Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.1.6.4 Months of Adequate Household Food Provisioning (MAHFP)

The MAHFP is a very useful tool to measure the impact pointers on food accessibility through demonstrating the pattern of periods where the respondents did not have enough food to eat in a 12-month period (Bilinsky and Swindale, 2007). Furthermore, the MAHFP which measures whether the respondents managed to get a consistent supply of food for a period of 12 months was used to measure food insecurity. The results pointed out that 53.3% of the respondents experienced months when they did not have enough food to eat compared to 46.7% who had enough food to consume. The mean score for the MAHFP of the respondents was 1.38; the median was 1, and the mode was 0. This shows that at least for one month of months of adequate food provisioning the respondents had a month which they faced food shortages. In the context of the 12 months, which the months of adequate provisioning are measured, January, as shown in Figure 12, was the month which most of the respondents faced problems because of the lack of resources, this can be possibly attributed to the festive season spending resulting in what is commonly known as “January disease.” In other words, this situation is seasonal, many respondents noted that they spent more money during Christmas and New Year holidays through traveling, buying food and sending remittances, among other expenditures. As a result, when they come back to the place of destination in January, they usually face financial constraints, which in turn leads to low expenditure on food thereby causing food shortages.

Figure 12: Frequency of MAHFP



Source: Field Survey, 2015

4.1.7 Exploring Various Factors and Their Impact on Food Insecurity

According to the empirical findings in this research food insecurity levels among Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town seem to be very prevalent, 63.3% of the Zimbabwean youth migrants were food insecure while only 36.7% were food secure. Hence, it is important to understand the various factors or determinants of food insecurity, which is illustrated below.

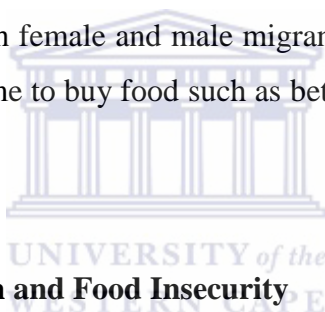
4.1.7.1 Income and Food Insecurity

The empirical findings of this research indicated that all those who earned R1500 or less were food insecure while on the other side 77.27% of the food secure participants earned an average of R3000 or more. Using Pearson’s chi-square cross tabulation, the research findings proved that the correlation between income and food security levels was statistically significance ($p < 0.039$), see Table 10, representing the positive influence of income on access to food. To put this into perspective, food insecurity is not only a matter of supply but also an issue of food access challenges faced by many individuals and households (Devereux and Maxwell, 2001). In addition, economic reasons are one of the main causes of migration, for instance, the high number of Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa (Dinbabo and Nyasulu, 2015: 31), can be attributed to the economic crisis in Zimbabwe. Hence, people migrate expecting to get employment opportunities, which consequently, result in getting an income to buy food and for day to day survival. To put

this into the vantage point of the connection between income and food insecurity, the average incomes generated by individuals in this survey proved to have a straightforward impact on the food insecurity levels, this is so because it may be rationally factual that more income conclusively, in turn, leads to better access to food.

4.1.7.2 Gender and Food Insecurity

Contextualizing gender in food insecurity issues is important because women are portrayed as central to food security yet their access to food is generally poorer and unstable than men because of socio-economic inequalities, which view women as inferior to men (Dodson, Chiweza, and Riley, 2012). On the contrary, this study tends to differ; it argues that gender has relatively a limited or less influence on food insecurity, especially for migrant youths. In terms of gender, the findings indicated that 50% of the food secure respondents were males while the other 50% were females, showing that there is no positive link between gender and food insecurity. This was further statistically justified by having a no significance ($p=0.229$) relationship, see Table 10. This is so because access to food by both female and male migrant youths was mainly dependent upon the opportunity to get a better income to buy food such as better-paying job; this is not particularly affected by gender-based factors.



4.1.7.3 Highest Level of Education and Food Insecurity

Generally, education is one of the factors that determine the amount of income that one can earn; education is also viewed as an income generator which helps to halt the poverty cycle (Tarabini, 2010). The assumption is that those who are more educated are likely to earn more and get better jobs than the less educated. Since the likelihood to earn more income is related to having better access to food, those who earn more income are expected to have the financial resources to have improved access food. However, the findings of this study showed that even though some of the Zimbabwean youth migrants were highly educated, had good jobs, decent salaries, which resulted in better access to food, most of them were not guaranteed to have good and high-paying jobs, which would, in turn, give them financial power to have a healthier access to food. Correspondingly, a Pearson Chi-square test of the association between education and food insecurity was not statistically significant ($p = 0.093$) indicating that the two variables were independent of each other, as per Table 10. In addition, among those who completed university education, 66.7% were food insecure. This is so because even those who were well educated were desperate to the extent of being employed as waiters or bartenders because the local economy is harsh on foreigners.

4.1.7.4 Food Prices and Food Insecurity

This research found out that 45% of the respondents faced food shortages due to price increases while 55% did not face any challenges. The common shortages of food were “meat and cooking oil.” The findings of this study also revealed that there is a relationship between high food prices and food insecurity, using Pearson Chi-square measure the result illustrated that there is a statistically significant ($p = 0.000$) association between the two variables (Table 10). Higher food prices from 2000 to around 2008 when the global community was strained by the global financial crisis resulted in consumption of less food and unbalanced diet by many poor families around the world (Brinkman et al, 2010). This thesis reinforces the assumption that price increases can lead to food insecurity of many vulnerable communities, and that high or increase of food prices can lead to a decrease in the consumption of nutritious and variety of food items.

Table 10: Pearson Chi2 Results on Various Factors and Their Impact on Food Insecurity

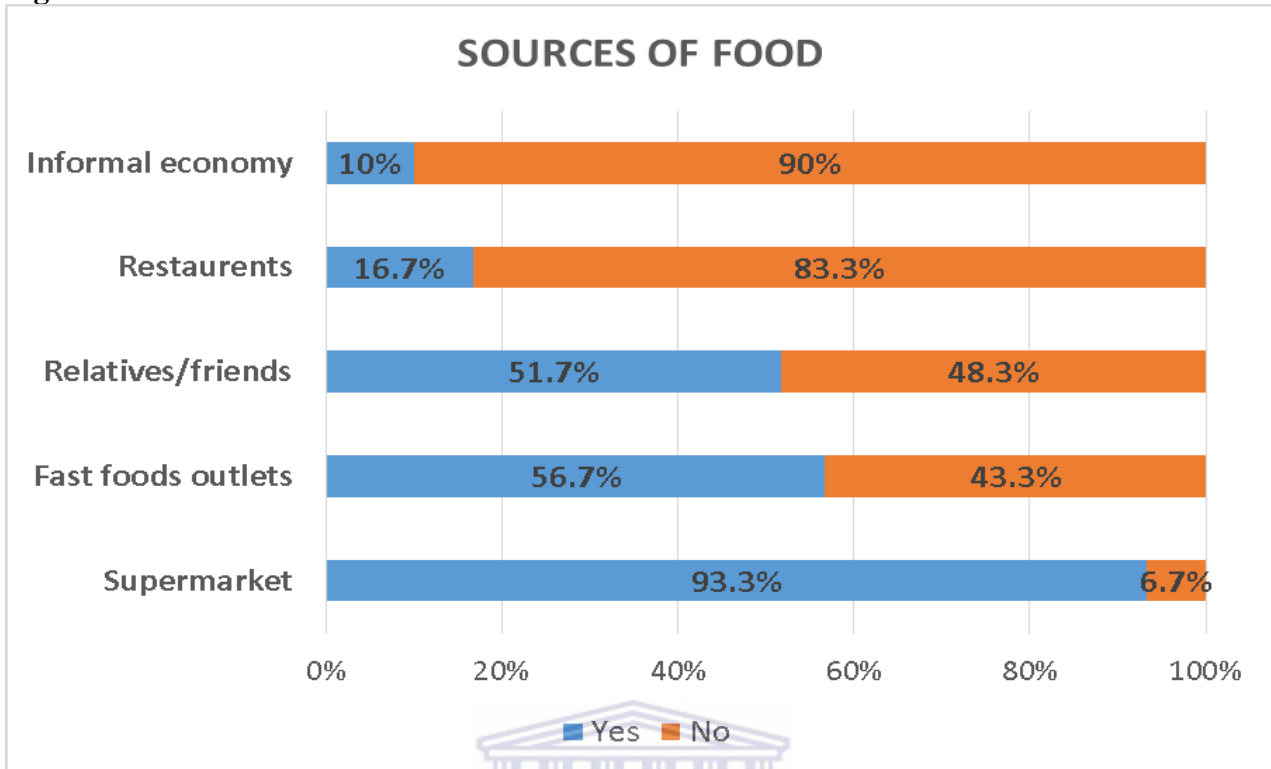
Label	Chi-Square	df	P	Conclusion
Income and food insecurity	8.36	3	0.039	Significant
Gender and food insecurity	1.44	1	0.229	No Significant
Education and food insecurity	6.41	3	0.093	No Significant
Food prices and food insecurity	20.48	1	0.000	Significant

Source: Stata Data Set, Field Survey 2015

4.1.8 Sources of Food for Youth Migrants

In relation to sources of food, the respondents were allowed to choose multiple answers, the findings indicated that most (93.3%) of the Zimbabwean migrant youth get their food from supermarkets, 56.7% from fast-food outlets, 51.7% from relatives or friends, 16.7% from restaurants then only 10% from the informal economy. This shows that most of the Zimbabwean youth migrants buy their food from the formal economy, with supermarkets playing a crucial role in the access to food, as well as fast-foods outlets, and social networks where people consume foods with relatives and friends.

Figure 13: Sources of Food



Source: Field Survey, 2015

Noticeably, the Zimbabwean youth migrants have a variety of food sources. However, since a majority of them are food insecure and do not earn a lot of money it points out to the fact that being food insecure is mainly as a result of having financial resources to spend on food. This emphasizes the argument by Crush and Frayne (2011) that in many urban areas in Africa food is spatially available due to the vast increase of supermarkets. However, food access remains a challenge because of either it is too expensive or people have no income to buy food.

4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Mouton, (2001) argues that qualitative research helps to understand and explain the dynamics of people's experience, the structure of their lives, opinions, assumptions, attitudes, behaviours, judgments and beliefs within the context of their social world. The qualitative research approach also helped to explore the opinions of respondents, in assessing the reasons and possible solution with respect to youth migration and food security, six randomly selected respondents (three male and three female) were interviewed using a semi-structured questionnaire (See Appendix 2). The six respondents were all youths. Four were employed and two were university students, additionally, all of them had, at least, a university degree.

4.2.1 Background of Case Studies

In order to understand and analyze the perspective of Zimbabwean youth migrants and to get inside opinions in examining the linkage between youth migration and food security, the six respondents from various backgrounds were asked a number of questions individually. Based upon the information obtained from the participants, various inferences were made. In an attempt to understand the relationship between youth migration and food security, different types of questions were raised. For example, questions were asked on socio-economic and political situation in Zimbabwe, their reasons for migrating to South Africa, the part which food shortages or food insecurity played in influencing their decision to leave Zimbabwe, influence of family/household members on migration decision, sources of food and questions were also posed on whether they send remittances for food.

Tinashe, a 29-year-old man migrated to South Africa in order to be able to provide his family and parents with basic needs. James, a 27-year-old man, left Zimbabwe because he was unemployed, and he migrated to South Africa to look for employment opportunities and a better livelihood. Constance, a 30-year-old university graduate, had also failed to find a job in Zimbabwe and decided to migrate to South Africa for greener pastures. Rufaro's circumstances, a 28-year-old male, were different and very interesting. He left Zimbabwe in 2006 to get a better and good education at tertiary level and wanted exposure to a different competitive environment. Prior to leaving Zimbabwe, he had been accepted into the University of Zimbabwe to pursue a degree in medicine, but because of the challenging economic and political climate in Zimbabwe, he thought it would be best to pursue his studies elsewhere in order to compete for regional and perhaps global employment opportunities.

Shamiso, a 31-year-old married woman, left Zimbabwe in 2002 to pursue tertiary education in South Africa. Her family members influenced her decision to migrate to South Africa, although she had been admitted to study at the University of Zimbabwe. Even though the standard of education remains high in Zimbabwe, the social and economic circumstances continue to deteriorate. For this reason, Shamiso saw getting a scholarship to study in South Africa as an opportunity she had to seize. Chipso, a 29-year-old woman, and a Ph.D. student, after being unemployed for three years migrated to South Africa in order to pursue her studies after she got a scholarship.

4.2.2 Discussion

Based on the case studies above seven themes emerged, these are: a) Socio-economic and political situation in Zimbabwe b) reasons for migrating from Zimbabwe c) impact of food insecurity on migration d) Household/family members influence on migration decision e) food security status in Zimbabwe and South Africa f) migration, remittances and food security g) sources of food. The themes are discussed in a separate manner; however, there is a substantial connection between them. In addition, the answers of respondents on each question regularly gave details on various themes, but the data is discussed in a logical sequence.

4.2.2.1 Theme 1: Socio-Economic and Political Situation in Zimbabwe

All the Zimbabwean youth migrants shared similar experiences on the worrying details on the socio-economic and political circumstances in Zimbabwe. The perspectives of the Zimbabwean youth migrants were that Zimbabwe was in serious socio-economic and political meltdown, which had reached devastating levels. All the Zimbabwean youth migrants interviewed explained how unemployment was the prevalent disaster in the country. James noted how the socio-economic and political situation in Zimbabwe was worsening, he mentioned that the economy was operating at a very low level, production capacity in industries also very low and that there were no jobs in industries. He said, “zvinhu zvakaoma” in Zimbabwe. Rufaro described the political and economic situation in Zimbabwe as very difficult for the average Zimbabwean, he said:

Politically, the current ruling party is experiencing a lot of infighting and differences; the opposition has its own challenges, and the economic situation is greatly impacted by that, unemployment is extremely high, not sure about the official figures, but it is said it is as high as 80% in the formal sector so people back home are really struggling.

This is in line with the claim that since 2000 the crisis in Zimbabwe led to the emergence of informal dealings popularly known as ‘kukiya-kiya’ which is an informal strategy of doing any kind of business to earn a living (Jones, 2010). The same sentiments were expressed by another respondent, Chipso, who said that there was high unemployment in the formal sector, resulting in many people joining the informal sector where almost everyone was finding it hard and challenging to address basic needs. She said, “I think everyone that I know is actually doing something in the informal sector so the formal sector is not like the major employer anymore.” In relation to the political environment in Zimbabwe, the participants expressed disillusionment with the nature of Zimbabwean politics. The majority of Zimbabwean youth migrants saw an absence of democracy in Zimbabwe, political stagnation, unpredictability and instability, infighting and succession disputes within political parties. Certainly, the political instability in Zimbabwe has

resulted in acceleration of socio-economic meltdown. However, with regards to political violence, the situation in Zimbabwe improved. Shamiso highlighted that there were political tolerance and stability contributing to the absence of political violence. Clearly, the socio-economic and political circumstances in Zimbabwe reached calamitous levels resulting in malfunctioning of almost all government sectors.

4.2.2.2 Theme 2: Reasons for Migrating from Zimbabwe

It is interesting to note that the deteriorating socio-economic situation in Zimbabwe resulted in many youths leaving the country for greener pastures. This was also evident in the interviews where the socio-economic and political decay directly or indirectly influenced the respondents to migrate from Zimbabwe to South Africa in search of better opportunities. The high rate in which Zimbabweans have migrated from Zimbabwe because of the deteriorating economy has been termed “survival migration” (Crush, Chikanda, and Tawodzera, 2012: 5). Additionally, since 2000 political and economic crisis in Zimbabwe has led to outwards migration at a high or unusual level (Hammar, McGregor, and Landau, 2010: 263). In this regards, the cases of Tinashe, James and Constance had many similarities and very reflecting upon the circumstances that they were all not employed before coming to South Africa and with the deterioration of the Zimbabwean situation, they faced a big challenge to sustain themselves resulting in them fleeing from Zimbabwe in order to meet their personal and family basic needs. Along similar lines but using a different strategy the cases of Rufaro, Shamiso and Chipo were very interesting and contemplative; they migrated from Zimbabwe in order to take up studies in South Africa.

In this context, the migration of Zimbabwean youths can be seen as a form of ‘brain drain’ and was also evident among students and graduates because of the economic hardships. Crush, Pendelton and Tevera (2005) note that students and recent graduates usually consider the prospects of leaving the country for better opportunities elsewhere. This was evident in the case of Shamiso and Rufaro, who were both accepted for enrollment at the University of Zimbabwe, but because of the socio-economic and political crisis in Zimbabwe opted to study in South Africa. Shamiso and Chipo, in particular, were fortunate to have secured scholarships to study in South Africa. What this means is that the crisis in Zimbabwe led to an exodus of youths, students included, interestingly many students strategically looked for scholarships to take up studies in the place of destination, hence getting scholarships proved to be an income generating activity.

4.2.2.3 Theme 3: Impact of Food Insecurity on Migration

The cases of Tinashe, James and Constance showed that some youths are breadwinners or major contributors of financial resources to buy food and other basic commodities. Certainly, the need for better livelihood was the reason for migrating from Zimbabwe. In describing his motivation for migrating to South Africa Tinashe said:

As an elder brother and person expected to be a bread winner at home I couldn't afford seeing family members suffering from food insecurity, this definitely will push you to go where the pastures are greener, South Africa being one of them, I had to move.

He also experienced direct pressure from his parents who were from a rural background and were suffering from poverty, and in need of “mbeu” in order to survive. Tinashe came from the “ghetto,”³ or high-density suburbs, where there was a high level of hunger and poverty, and as he noted where “a family of six cannot afford to have two decent meals per day so food insecurity is really prevalent in Zimbabwe and is hitting hard on the populace.” Since the period (2007 – 2011) most migrant youths left Zimbabwe when there was serious food insecurity. Hence, they migrated to South Africa in order to find employment opportunities, which would result in getting income to support the food needs of them and people back home. As noted by Munaku and Chigora (2010: 1) food shortages became common and a national catastrophe, especially between 2007 and 2008, resulting in many Zimbabweans migrating in search of better access to food. The case of Chipso was interesting; she left Zimbabwe in 2007 primarily to pursue a tertiary education in South Africa. However, food insecurity indirectly influenced her decision to migrate because when she left there were serious food shortages in Zimbabwe, hence money from the scholarship a lifeline for her and her family. Clearly, food insecurity is one of the main drivers of migration among Zimbabwean youths.

4.2.2.4 Theme 4: Household/Family Members Influence on Migration Decision.

One of the central premises of The New Economics of Labour Migration is that migration decision making is characteristically done at a household and not individual level and the sending of one household member to a new place of destination is due to the need to counteract any threats or market instabilities (Taylor, 1999). The household or family members of Zimbabwean Youth Migrants played a crucial role in the strategic migration decision. Nearly all the Zimbabwean youth migrants interviewed in this study explained how through a family verdict that migration for greener pastures, or better opportunities, was important for their survival and livelihood and that of

³ Ghetto is a word used to refer to high density areas in a city, where the poor or low income earners stay

their families as well. This was evident in the case of Chipo, who moved to South Africa after a family decision that her move to South Africa would result in a better standard of living for them. Along similar views, the cases of Rufaro and Shamiso show interesting perspective where families or households strategically encouraged their children or individuals to leave Zimbabwe, where there are deteriorating socio-economic and political conditions to pursue studies abroad in order to get exposure and attain a global competitive advantage. This, in turn, would result in decent employment opportunities, access to a dependable income and improved livelihood.

4.2.2.5 Theme 5: Food Security Status in Zimbabwe and South Africa

The opinion of all the Zimbabwean youths interviewed was that the situation on food security was much better in South Africa than in Zimbabwe. In South Africa, the Zimbabwean youths had better access to food than in Zimbabwe due to better income as a result of being employed. For example, at the time of the interview, Tinashe mentioned that his stomach was full after a good meal. His comparisons between Zimbabwe and South Africa in terms of food security were quite remarkable, he said, “right now as I am speaking ‘ndakaguta’ but if I was in Zimbabwe, I could have possibly been hungry,” he noted that there was a big gap between Zimbabwe and South Africa because in South Africa if one had a good job he could afford to have decent meals at the right time for breakfast in the morning, lunch in the afternoon and supper in the evening supper. Constance also noted that there were better opportunities in South Africa than in Zimbabwe, she said, “Zvakabhadhara pa Joza.” For James in terms of food security in South Africa “zvirikufaya” and he said that is why he was here. This shows the connection between employment, income and food security.

In Zimbabwe, the migrant youths have poor access to food because of unemployment and thus did not have resources to buy adequate food. To compound this, Chipo stated that there was no functional social security system, which could support the vulnerable and poor communities. Chipo interestingly, expressed her view that even if one had masters or doctoral degree and return home, he or she might not be able to do a meaningful contribution compared to the contribution that one can make while in South Africa, “so I would rather be a student in South Africa than go back to Zim and work.” She has been a student since 2007 and has been on three different scholarships for her bachelors, masters and doctoral studied and has been supporting her family through financial resources from her scholarships. Rufaro also mentioned an interesting point, that around 2008, there was no food on the shelves but currently because of the dollarization (USD) of the Zimbabwean economy, things are available in supermarkets, especially imports, although they

are expensive. As noted by Chipo, there is a link between unemployment and people not getting food or being food insecure, this is because many people face difficulties to get income because of being jobless which in turn affects the ability to buy basic foods. In recent times, climate change has been viewed as a catalyst in lowering food production, especially in the tropical and subtropical locations through low rainfall (Devereux and Edwards, 2004). This aligns with Shamiso's comment that there is low rainfall and that farming seasons have changed, and farmers in Zimbabwe are failing to adapt resulting in low yields and worsening food insecurity levels.

4.2.2.6 Theme 6: Migration, Remittances, and Food Security

In the context of Zimbabwe, a study by Dzingirai et al (2015) indicated that households with migrants have an improved standard of living or healthier livelihood than those without. This is due to remittances, which play a crucial part in reducing poverty by providing a source of income to buy basic needs. In this study, the majority of the Zimbabwean youth migrants interviewed sent money to their family or household members in Zimbabwe, and they see it as an essential responsibility. Crush (2012:1) argues that "Food security is certainly affected by international migration, for example; households in Zimbabwe rely heavily on remittances from around the world to purchase food and other necessities..." One of the primary reasons for migrants to move to a new place is to obtain the resources to support their families back in the place of origin.

Of great significance is that although money remitted to Zimbabwe was intended for food consumption, the migrant youths expected the money to be also used for other basic needs like school fees, clothes, and accommodation (Tevera and Chikanda, 2009). The case of Rufaro was very remarkable, in as much as he believed that remittances were crucial for the livelihood of most families in Zimbabwe, personally, he was not sending any money back home; however, he noted an important dimension of how migrant youths when they travel back to Zimbabwe, especially during the festive season, carry with them food for personal consumption as well as to give family and relatives. Chipo, in line with the issue of the significance of remittances, commented that:

Remittances goes a long way because in most families this started after 2007 when people started to go to the UK, US, most of my friends I know are not in Zimbabwe, they are outside somewhere US, UK, it's more like the money they send are crucial because I can imagine if they stop sending money, there will be a crisis at home.

This shows how some migrant youths are very insecure in regard to the food insecurity situation in Zimbabwe to the extent of traveling with their own food to consume during their visits to Zimbabwe.

4.2.2.7 Theme 7: Sources of Food

In Cape Town, the most common sources of food for Zimbabwean youth migrants were supermarkets and fast-food outlets. Nonetheless, other sources of food included restaurants, eating at relatives and friends' places and at work. Interestingly, Shamiso stated that another source of food was from Zimbabwean informal traders who buy food stuff from farms, for example, vegetables, potatoes and tomatoes just to mention a few, and sell at a cheap retail price. Shamiso preferred to buy from the Zimbabwean informal traders because the foodstuffs were being sold at a lower price than in supermarkets or fast-foods. The rise in obesity goes hand in hand with the upturn in food insecurity, especially among women (Townsend et al, 2001 cited in Crawford and Webb, 2011). Considering this, one specific participant, Shamiso rarely consumed food from fast-food outlets or restaurants because she was worried about eating genetically modified food (GMOs) which would result in her gaining a lot of weights.

4.3 Chapter Summary

In summary, the evidence from both qualitative and quantitative data suggests that the socio-economic crisis in Zimbabwe has been deepening without a clear solution causing many people to leave the country, youth included, for better opportunities and as a survival strategy. In addition, the socio-economic and political crisis has led to high unemployment, which has led to the majority of the citizens having poor access to food and other basic needs because of lack of financial resources. The results show that the socio-economic and political crisis has greatly contributed towards youth population movement. Noticeably, food shortages or food insecurity is one of the key factors that led many youths to migrate. It is also clear that family or household members in Zimbabwe play a pivotal role in the migration decision making. It is also worth noting the vital role which the Zimbabwean youths play in regard to sending remittances back home, which are also used for food consumption and other basic commodities. Lastly, another relevant issue in this study was that the data pointed out that most Zimbabwean youths in South Africa or Cape Town, in particular, are still food insecure. However, their opinions show that there is a big improvement from what they were experiencing back in Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Overview

In filling the gap in the migration, development and food security multi-paradigmatic nature, the purpose of this thesis was to explore the connection between Zimbabwean youth migration and food security in Cape Town. This study identified the causes of Zimbabwean youth migration, and the role which food insecurity plays as a factor for migrating, the role of migration in providing food security for Zimbabwean youths in the place of destination, and the impact of remittances sent back to Zimbabwe by Zimbabwean youth migrants to household or family members, as well as the use of remittances in connection with food consumption. Additionally, one of the main objectives of this research was to measure the food insecurity levels of Zimbabwean youth migrants in Cape Town. Various debates on the link between migration and food security in relation to livelihoods, specifically in the global south have been indecisive. Against this background, the main aim of this thesis was to examine the linkage between youth migration-food security nexus in the context of migration and development using qualitative and quantitative research methods for data analysis.

5.2 Summary of Findings

In exploring the relationship between Zimbabwean youth migration and food security in Cape Town the key empirical data from this research discovered that there is a positive link between youth migration and food security, the basis of this hypothesis is summarized below:

In examining the causes of Zimbabwean youth migration, the findings confirmed that the main reasons for migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa were socio-economic crisis and to some extent, political reasons. Most notably, in assessing the role that food insecurity or food shortages play in migration decision, the results indicated that without doubt food insecurity/shortages proved to be one of the main reasons for migration. This is so because most of the Zimbabwean youths interviewed indicated that they migrated from Zimbabwe because of food shortages or food insecurity in order to be food secure in South Africa or to provide income to spend on food for the family and relatives left behind in the place of origin. These findings substantiate the argument by Crush (2012) that food insecurity or food shortages are also part of the root causes of migration.

In addition, family/household influence in the migration decision proved to be very common, that is to say, most households or family members took part in the migration decision of the youth

migrants. Interestingly, in relation to the above point of the family or household influence on migration decision, a large number of the participants revealed that they left Zimbabwe for them to help the family or household members back home with their food needs. In brief, the empirical findings discovered that there is a positive and noteworthy connection between (1) migration from Zimbabwe because of food insecurity and (2) the influence of household/family members in the migration decision. As well as a positive link between (1) the influence of food insecurity on migration decision and (2) the desire to meet the food needs of family members in the place of origin.

Through the exploration of the connection between remittances and use of remittances for food consumption, the findings demonstrated that the majority of Zimbabwean youth migrants sent remittances to Zimbabwe, and most of them remit money, mainly for it to be used for food consumption, and were certain that the remittances they sent were used to access food. This study substantiates various researchers (Maphosa, 2007; Tevera and Chikanda, 2009; Bracking and Sachikonye, 2010) who empirically provided evidence that remittances are vital for the survival and livelihoods of many Zimbabweans, especially by providing resources for food consumption and other basic needs. The crucial role that remittances play in regard to food security was illustrated in this study by the statistically significant connection between (1) the remittances and (2) sending of remittances with the aim for them to be used to access food; (1) remittances and (2) belief that the remittances are used to buy food; (1) sending remittances for food consumption and (2) belief that they are used for food consumption; (1) migration to meet the food needs of family or household members and (2) remitting food groceries. However, notable is the fact that a large majority of the respondents were not sending any food groceries to Zimbabwe, as they preferred to send money.

The assessment of food insecurity levels of Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town indicated that the average HFIAS score was 0.13, mean 3.66, median 2 and mode 0, then the HFIAP indicated that 63.3% of the participants were food insecure, and on the other side, only 36.7% were food secure. The research also revealed that there is a major improvement in food security in South Africa relative to Zimbabwe for the youth migrants. This reinforces the argument by Crush (2012) that migration might lead to enhanced food access but then again, may not give assurance that scarcities will not occur. The major factor for the improvement in food security or better food access, for Zimbabwe youth migrants, was earning income. Most of the interviewed migrants managed to get some form of employment and income, which meant they had the financial

resources to buy food. In regard to dietary issues, the research revealed that the mean score for the HDDS was 6.56 out of 12, and mode 5, which signified that the respondents consumed about half of the 12 food categories used in this study. In line with the MAHFP, which measured the months which the participants had food shortages or problems in food access, the findings showed that 53.3% had months which they did not have adequate food for consumption, and the other 46.7% had no challenges or insufficient food in any of the months.

5.3 Recommendations

This thesis establishes various challenges and shortcomings in giving a comprehensive account of the relationship between youth migration and food security. That there is a need for collaboration, partnership, and action towards finding solutions, especially in the context of south-south migration. Four focal points are recommended in the context of youth migration-food security nexus in the global south:

Firstly, there is a need to promote job creation or employment opportunities for youth migrants since the outcomes of this research indicated that access to food is a challenge for migrants in general and migrant youths, in particular, due to the limited resources or lack of dependable income. Many youth migrants are generally students, employed as security guards, waiters and bartenders among other low-paying jobs yet many Zimbabwean youths are well educated enough to get high-paying jobs. Promotion of employment opportunities or job creation for youth migrants by policy makers and local government departments through recruitment based on experience, and qualifications would contribute to the host economy. Such employment opportunities would provide a dependable source of income which would be used for food consumption and for remittances, which would also benefit those left behind in the place of origin.

Secondly, this study revealed that some of the migrant youths consumed less nutritious foods due to either lack of knowledge shown by an over-reliance on fast-food outlets and supermarkets, which result in over consumption of meat-based diet. This shows poor food utilization. Hence, there is a need to address the challenge of unbalanced diet and consumption of limited nutritious foods. The governmental departments, non-governmental organizations like Scalabrini Centre, UNHCR, Refugee Centre, IOM and FAO among others in their various programmes on migrants must also introduce food programmes that educate and train migrants on the best practice in food utilization, especially on consumption of healthy plants based diets.

Thirdly, in recent times, migration and food insecurity concerns have been affecting many communities, and societies yet there are still treated as two separate concerns. Combining migration and food insecurity issues at local, regional and international, policy making need to be addressed. In the context of South Africa, migrants have been subjected to draconian immigration policies, xenophobia and various forms of segregation, while their food insecurity concerns are invisible or unattended. The integration of migration and food insecurity issues can be addressed through local and national departments, as well as international level through cooperation between the general populace, governments and non-governments such as UNHCR, IOM, and FAO that deal with migration and food insecurity issues. In addition, a rights-based approach to migration and food insecurity issues should be included in the post-2015 Millennium Development Goals, especially in the perspective of migrant youths; who have the right to food as well.

Finally, this research showed that several studies have emerged that try to address migration and food insecurity matters, especially in the context of rural and urban connections. However, there are still many research gaps in the sense that little attention has been paid to migration and food security beyond borders or at the international level. Therefore, there is a need to have more research on migration and food insecurity issues. Additionally, there is also the need to contextualize youths in the research, discussions, and debates on migration and food security. Information on the complex opportunities and threats that are part of the migration-security nexus, in general, and youth migration-food security nexus, in particular, is crucial as a framework for policy makers and various organizations in their policies or approaches.

5.4 Conclusion

This research represents a major contribution to the discourse or dialogue on migration and food security debate by contextualizing youths who are a vulnerable yet important actor in many economic activities. As highlighted before, without a doubt the results of this thesis revealed that there is a progressive connection between youth migration and food security. The research pointed out that socio-economic and political reasons are the main drivers of Zimbabwean youth migration to South Africa, and food insecurity or food shortage is one of them. Additionally, the research established that remittances are mainly sent and used for food consumption. Moreover, most of the Zimbabwean youth migrants are food insecure, but there is evidence of the improved food security situation in South Africa compared to Zimbabwe. However, findings of this thesis may not be generalized to represent the scenarios of other local, national, regional or international youth migrants and their food security situations. Nevertheless, this study highlighted various

considerations on the youth migration-food security nexus and provided recommendations for policy makers, government and non-governmental organizations as well as other global associations.



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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire: Zimbabwean Youths in Cape Town

Research Topic: Exploring the link between youth migration and food security: A case study of Zimbabwean Youths in Cape Town, South Africa

My name is Sean Thulani Sithole and I am a Masters student at the University of Western Cape in South Africa. I am conducting a study to investigate the link between Zimbabwean youth migration and food security. In line with this, I am inviting you to participate in this questionnaire. All information gathered in this questionnaire is anonymous and confidential. The information that you provide will be used solely for research purposes and it is expected that the outcome will help policy makers and various stakeholders in what can be improved in relation to youth migration and food security. It will take about 30 minutes to 1 hour to participate in this questionnaire. Your participation and contribution will be highly appreciated.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1) Nationality 2) Gender : (Male = 1) ; (Female = 2)

3) Age Category

(1)	15 - 19	(2)	20 - 24	(3)	25 - 29	(4)	30 - 34
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4) Marital Status

(1)	Married	(2)	Widowed	(3)	Divorced	(4)	Single	(5)	Other: Specify
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5) Who is the breadwinner/head of the family in Cape Town?

(1)	Myself	(2)	Husband	(3)	Wife	(4)	Child	(5)	Other: Specify
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6) How many dependents do you have?
Africa

One	Two	Three	Four	Five+	None
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)

7) When did you first come to South Africa

8) What is the highest level of schooling/education which you successfully completed?

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Primary	Secondary	University	Vocational	Other Specify:

9) Were you employed in Zimbabwe prior/before coming to South Africa? Yes = 1; No = 2

10) If yes, what was your occupation in Zimbabwe Prior to Migrating to South Africa?

11) Are you presently employed? Yes = 1 ; No = 2

12) If yes, what is your job title?

13) Please indicate the type of employment you currently hold?

1	Self-Employed / business owner	2	Employee	3	Both
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14) If an employee, is this work Full-time or part-time? Full time = 1; Part time = 2

15) How much do you earn, on average, per month?

(1) 0 –R800	(2) R801 - R1500	(3) R1501 – R3000	(4) R3000 – R8000	(5) R8000+
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16) Do you have any other sources of income? Yes =1 ; No = 2


17) If yes, specify type and amount earned

18) If you are not employed, what is your profession?

SECTION 2: INFORMATION ON LIVING CONDITIONS IN PLACE OF ORIGIN AND REASONS OF LEAVING

19) Do you believe that there is socio-economic and political crisis in Zimbabwe? Yes =1 ; No = 2

20) If yes, explain why?

 UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

21) Are there any food shortages in Zimbabwe? Yes =1 ; No = 2

22) What was the reason to migrate to South Africa?

(1) Socioeconomic crisis	(2) Political crisis	(3) Food shortages/ food insecurity	(4) Other Specify:
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23) Did food shortages or food insecurity influence your decision to leave Zimbabwe? Yes=1 ; No = 2

24) Did your family/household members back in Zimbabwe influence your decision to migrate to South Africa? Yes=1 ; No = 2

25) If yes, in what ways?

26) Did you migrate to South Africa to meet the food needs of your family/household members back in Zimbabwe? Yes=1; No = 2

SECTION 3: REMITTANCES

27) Do you send money to Zimbabwe? Yes=1; No = 2

28) If yes, how often do you send money to Zimbabwe?

1	Every month	2	Every 3 months	3	Twice a year	4	Once a year	5	Whenever it is possible/ intermittently
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29) On average, how much do you send each time to Zimbabwe?

1	0 - R800	2	R801 - R1500	3	R1501 – R3000	4	R3000 – R8000	5	R8000 +
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30) Do you send money to Zimbabwe for it to be used for food consumption? Yes =1 ; No = 2

31) Do you believe that the money you send to Zimbabwe is used for food consumption? Yes =1 ; No=2

32) How do you remit/send money to Zimbabwe?

Through friends / family	1
Bank Transfers	2
Formal Money Transfers Operator	3
Post Office	4
Through taxis/buses/trucks	5
Other: Specify	6

33) Do you ever send any food stuff/groceries to Zimbabwe? Yes =1 ; No = 2

34) If yes, what type of food/groceries do you send back to Zimbabwe?

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35) How often do you send foodstuffs/groceries to Zimbabwe?

Every month	1
Every 3 months	2
Twice a year	3
Once a year	4
Whenever it is possible / intermittently	5

36) How do you send food stuff/groceries to Zimbabwe?

Through friends / family	1
Personally	2
Post Office	3
Through taxis/buses/trucks/rail/	4
Other: Specify	5

SECTION 4: Food Security Levels for Zimbabwean migrant youths in Cape Town

37) How much do you spend on food per month?

1	0 - R800	2	R801 - R1500	3	R1501- R3000	4	R3000 –R8000	5	R8000 +
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38) What are your sources of food in the last 7 days (1 week)?

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39) Is there a time when you had food shortages due to price increases? If yes, for how long?

Daily	1
Once a week	2
Twice a week	3
Once a month	4

40) You faced shortages of which type of foods stuff due to price increases?

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4.1 Household Food Insecurity Access Scale (HFIAS) Measurement Tool

1) In the past four weeks, did you worry that you would not have enough food?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

1a) if yes: How often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

2) In the past four weeks, were you not able to eat the kinds of foods you preferred because of a lack of resources?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

2a) if yes, how often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

3) In the past four weeks, did you have to eat a limited variety of foods due to a lack of resources?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

3a) If Yes, How often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

4) In the past four weeks, did you have to eat some foods that you really did not want to eat because of a lack of resources to obtain other types of food?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

4a) If yes, how often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

5) In the past four weeks, did you have to eat a smaller meal than you felt you needed because there was not enough food?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

5a) If Yes, how often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

6) In the past four weeks, did you have to eat fewer meals in a day because there was not enough food?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

6a) If Yes, how often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

7) In the past four weeks, was there ever no food to eat of any kind for you because of lack of resources to get food?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

7a) If yes, how often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

8) In the past four weeks, did you go to sleep at night hungry because there was not enough food?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

8a) If yes, how often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

9) In the past four weeks, did you go a whole day and night without eating anything because there was not enough food?

1 = Yes	2 = No
---------	--------

9a) If yes, how often did this happen?

1	Rarely (once or twice in the past four weeks)
2	Sometimes (three to ten times in the past four weeks)
3	Often (more than ten times in the past four weeks)

4.2 The Household Dietary Diversity Score (HDDS)

Please outline the foods that you consumed yesterday for breakfast, lunch, dinner/supper or anything else in between the meals.

<i>Breakfast</i>	<i>Lunch</i>	<i>Dinner</i>	<i>Anything else in between meals</i>

Did the food you ate include any of the following?

Question	Food Category	Examples	YES	NO
1	Cereals	corn/maize, rice, wheat, sorghum, millet or any other grains or foods made from these (e.g. bread, noodles, porridge or other grain products) INCLUDE ANY LOCAL FOODS	1	2
2	Root/tubers	Yams, cassava, potatoes, pumpkin, carrots and any other made from roots.	1	2
3	Vegetables	Any vegetables	1	2
4	Fruits	Any fruits, including fruit juices	1	2
5	Meat/poultry/offal	Chicken, goat, beef, pork, lamb and any other in this category.	1	2
6	Eggs	Any egg	1	2
7	Fish/seafood		1	2
8	Pulses/legumes/nuts	Beans, peas. Include any other in this category	1	2
9	Milk/milk products	Any milk products including yoghurt and cheese	1	2

10	Oil/fats	oil, fats or butter added to food or used for cooking	1	2
11	Sugar/honey	sugar, honey, sweetened soda or sweetened juice drinks, sugary foods such as chocolates, candies, cookies and cakes	1	2
12	Miscellaneous/any others		1	2

4.3 The Months of Adequate Household Food Provisioning (MAHFP)

QUESTIONS		ANSWERS	
<p>1) In this stage, the focus is on your food supply during the last twelve months. Before responding, please reflect back on the last twelve months (May 2015 – June 2014). In the past twelve months, is there any months which you did not have adequate/sufficient/enough food to meet your needs?</p> <p>NB 1 (YES) 2 (NO)</p>		<input type="checkbox"/>	<p>NB IF THE ANSWER IS NO; DO NOT PROCEED TO QUESTION 2.</p>
<p>2) If YES, by using the months below please indicate the months you did not have adequate/sufficient/enough food to meet your needs? NB This consist of any kind of food from any source. Indicating: (1) to show month identified to be the one which you did not have adequate / sufficient/enough food to meet your family/individual needs, and put (0) if a month is not identified.</p>			
A) May		A	<input type="checkbox"/>
B) April		B	<input type="checkbox"/>
C) March		C	<input type="checkbox"/>
D) February		D	<input type="checkbox"/>
E) January		E	<input type="checkbox"/>
F) December		F	<input type="checkbox"/>
G) November		G	<input type="checkbox"/>
H) October		H	<input type="checkbox"/>
I) September		I	<input type="checkbox"/>
J) August		J	<input type="checkbox"/>
K) July		K	<input type="checkbox"/>
L) June		L	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you very much for your time. It is much appreciated!

Appendix 2: Semi-Structured Survey for Zimbabwean Youths in Cape Town

Research Topic: Exploring the link between youth migration and food security: A case study of Zimbabwean Youths in Cape Town, South Africa

My name is Sean Thulani Sithole and I am a Masters student at the University of Western Cape in South Africa. I am conducting a study to investigate the link between Zimbabwean youth migration and food security. In relation to this, I am inviting you to take part in this semi-structured survey. All information gathered in this semi-structured survey is anonymous and confidential. The information that you provide will be used solely for research purposes and it is expected that the outcome will help policy makers and various stakeholders in what can be improved in relation to youth migration and food security. It will take about 30 minutes to 1 hour to participate in this questionnaire. Your participation and input will be highly appreciated.

Living conditions in Zimbabwe and the reasons for migrating to South Africa

1. Explain the socio-economic and political situation in Zimbabwe.
2. Give details why you left Zimbabwe and enter South Africa.
3. Clarify the role which food shortages or food insecurity played in influencing your decision to leave Zimbabwe.
4. Describe the role and impact of family members back in Zimbabwe in influencing your decision to migrate to South Africa.
5. Explain if you migrated to South Africa to meet the food needs of your family/household members back in Zimbabwe.

Food Security and remittances to Zimbabwe

6. Give details on the situation on food insecurity/security in Zimbabwe.
7. Explain if yes, why you send money to Zimbabwe for it to be used for food consumption.
8. Explain, if you believe that the money you send to Zimbabwe is used for food consumption.

Food security - Zimbabwe migrant youths in Cape Town

9. What are your sources of food, and do you face any problems/challenges in trying to get food? Please explain.
10. Please explain the difference between Zimbabwe and South Africa in terms of your food security levels.
11. Do you have anything else to say?

Thank you very much for your time.

It is much appreciated!