

**PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS IN PRETORIA ON SERVICE
DELIVERY IN THE
DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS**

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DECLARATION

I, Samuel Augustine Umezurike, declare that this report is my original work and was completed unaided. It is being submitted for the fulfilment of degree of Masters of Public Administration at the University of Zululand. I declare that the work has never been submitted before for any other examination or degree in any institution.

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ABSTRACT

By way of introduction, this study claimed that largely for socio-political reasons as well as the general impact of globalization, information and communication technology, all synthesized as pull or push factors, migration has become a major phenomenon in Africa in the 21st century. Recent studies have also identified South Africa as a major destination for African immigrants since the end of apartheid. It is against this background that the study is aimed at investigating perceptions about African immigrants and attitudes towards them by the officials of the Department of Home Affairs, the official agency that is constitutionally mandated to handle immigrant affairs in South Africa. Theoretically, the study agreed with Neocosmos (2008) that several theories that seek to explain xenophobic attitudes and perceptions have not fully satisfied curiosity, especially regarding the behaviour of some officials. The study therefore turned to '*Makwerekwere*' theory as propounded by Matsinhe in 2011. To achieve the above stated objective the study adopted both quantitative and qualitative research approaches, specifically the main data collection instrument of a questionnaire, sent to a sample of 300 Tshwane/Pretoria-based immigrants from six selected African countries. After rigorous data analysis, expressed in various tables and charts, the findings indicate that while Xenophobia is not South Africa's official state policy, from the opinions of African immigrants and their experiences, some officials of the Department of Home Affairs have over time displayed negative attitudes towards African immigrants. In conclusion, the study suggests that corruption exists in the Department (in the views of African immigrants) and African immigrants feel that the government (state authority) has not attended to this phenomenon with the seriousness it requires.

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Table of Contents

1.1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.2	BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	2
1.3	STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM.....	3
1.4	THEORITICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY	3
1.5	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	4
1.6	RESEARCH PROPOSITION	4
1.7	OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	4
1.8	RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	5
1.9	METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION AND RESEARCH DESIGN	5
1.9.1	Data collection methods	5
1.9.2	Sampling method.....	6
1.9.3	Target population	7
1.9.4	Measuring instrument	7
1.9.5	Method of data analysis	8
1.10	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	8
1.11	OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS.....	9
	CHAPTER TWO.....	10
	LITERATURE REVIEW	10
2.1	INTRODUCTION	10
	SECTION A	10
2.2	MIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION	10
	SECTION B	24
2.3	LITERATURE REVIEW ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT	24
	CHAPTER THREE	33
	THEORITICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY.....	33
3.1	INTRODUCTION	33
3.2	THEORITICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF ‘MAKWEREKWERE’ IN SOUTH AFRICA	33
3.3	IDEOLOGY OF MAKWEREKWERE BY MATSINHE.....	36
3.4	MAKWEREKWERE AS A FACTOR/SYNDROME IN SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS IN SOUTH AFRICA	37
	CHAPTER FOUR.....	40
	RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	40

4.1	INTRODUCTION	40
4.2	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	40
4.3	METHOD OF RESEARCH.....	40
4.4	QUALITATIVE APPROACH.....	41
4.5	QUANTITATIVE APPROACH.....	41
4.6	AIMS OF THE STUDY	42
4.7	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	42
4.8	RESEARCH PROPOSITION	42
4.9	RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	43
4.10	RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	43
4.12	TARGET POPULATION/SAMPLE SIZE.....	44
4.13	PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION.....	44
4.14	QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION	45
4.15	PILOT STUDY	47
4.16	DATA ANALYZIS/INTERPRETATIONS	47
4.17	ETHICS OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS.....	48
4.17.1	Informed Consent	48
4.17.2	Voluntary Participation.....	49
4.17.3	Privacy	49
4.17.4	Confidentiality.....	49
4.17.5	Professional Ethics and Ethic Committees	49
4.18	LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH.....	50
4.19	CONCLUSION.....	50
	CHAPTER FIVE	51
	DATA ANALYSES AND INTERPRETATION	51
5.1	INTRODUCTION	51
5.2	PERSONAL BIODATA.....	51
5.2.1	Age	51
5.2.2	Gender	55
5.2.3	Resident Area of Respondents in Tshwane.....	58
5.2.4	Level of Education	60
5.2.5	Number of Years in South Africa.....	62
5.2.6	Employment	65
5.2.7	Type o Employment.....	67

5.3	PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS ON DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS SERVICE DELIVERY TO AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS	70
5.3.1	Visitation to Home Affairs Department	71
5.3.2	Purpose of Visit	74
5.3.3	How documentation	78
5.3.4	Assessment of Service	82
	Table 5.11: Responses to the question: <i>Would You Assess the Service You Received as Satisfactory?</i>	82
	Figure 5.27: Responses to the question: <i>Would You Assess the Service You Received as Satisfactory?</i>	83
5.3.5	If satisfactory, why do you think so?	85
5.3.6	Would you describe the competence of immigration officials with the immigration laws as satisfactory?	89
5.3.7	MAJOR SUGGESTIONS FROM THE RESPONDENTS	92
	CHAPTER SIX.....	93
	CONCLUSION	93
6.1	FINDINGS OF THE STUDY	93
6.2	SUMMARY	95
6.2.1	Aims of the study	95
6.2.2	Research proposition.....	95
6.2.3	Objectives of the study.....	96
6.3.	RECOMMENDATIONS	96
6.4	SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	98
6.4	CONCLUSION	98

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Immigration and migration are international phenomena that cut across borders around the world. Historically, trans-national migration in Africa took place in the 18th century during European economic crises and eventual European expansion, and resulted in the colonization of the continent. In South Africa, European migration gave rise to apartheid, and shipment of cheap labour from Asia and other parts of Africa by white investors (South African Parliamentary report, 2008).

The end of apartheid in South Africa and the advent of universal suffrage in 1994 changed the country, with cities originally exclusively for the white minority becoming objects of attraction to African migrants and peoples from around the world, including investors, expatriates, professionals, artisans and refugees (Laudau & WaKabwe-Segatti, 2009). Many theories have been used to explain the immigration and migration, including economic, social and political, but of significance to this study is that it is one of the most defining and striking topics of 21st century and is now characteristic of the political, social and economic life or discourse of most nations and peoples (Kalitanyi & Visser, 2010).

South Africa is the largest economy in Africa (Marwa, 2010) and as such is one of the major recipients of migrants on the continent, largely because of the changed policies in socio-political system after apartheid and her developed facilities in terms of infrastructure. For instance, Nigeria, the most highly populated black nation in the world, with an estimated 150 million inhabitants, has a poor socio-political culture, poor infrastructure and high rates of unemployment. As a result it has experienced migration of citizens, skilled and unskilled, around the world, in particular to South Africa. Zimbabwe, also with her failed leadership and socio-political system, has experienced one of the greatest migrations in African history, again with the majority leaving for South Africa. The experiences of African migrants on arrival in the country, however, might not always live up to expectations, and this study will therefore examine their opinions of service delivery, specifically in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan City, South Africa, with particular reference to the Department of Home affairs.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

At the inception of democracy in South Africa in 1994, the new South Africa the numerous challenges included reconciling decades of mismanagement and redistributing the country's vast wealth, concentrated in the hands of the white minority and expanding service delivery to the urban and rural poor whom the apartheid regime had previously undermined. A particular challenge was the inclusion of the majority of South Africans into the mainstream socio-political system, and one that required building a people-oriented or participatory political culture and system (Peberdy, 2001).

Enshrined in Chapter 1 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) was an end to any form of racism and the entitlement of all citizens to equal rights, privileges and benefits. This would include efficient service delivery from the public services. In 1995, the year before the ratification of the Constitution, the government had released a white paper on transformation of public services, introducing a new framework for the implementation of policies in a new era for improvement of the general well being of South Africans. Another major step was taken in 1997 to introduce a white paper on public service delivery, popularly known as the *Batho Pele principles*, the principles of which were consultation with the customers, service standards, access, courtesy, information, openness, transparency, redress, and value for money, all of which were meant to satisfy the customers.

However, in spite of the efforts of government and policies aimed at ensuring efficient service delivery, the post-1994 governments have fallen short of rendering the much desired effective service delivery to South Africans. There have been protests and counter-protests in several sectors and localities in protest against poor service delivery, including the so-called 'xenophobic' attacks on African immigrants in May 2008 (Dodson, 2010), which left a number dead and thousands homeless. One argument, or theory, put forward for the violent behaviour was poor service delivery and competition by African migrants for services such as housing, water, electricity, jobs and local women (Dodson, 2010).

As outlined in Chapter 3 of the Constitution, the government consists of three levels of government, namely, National, Provincial and Local. The three levels and their branches are involved in service delivery and the numerous protests in the country constitute an indictment of all of them. Accusations and counter-accusations of poor service delivery, corruption, inefficiencies and maladministration have been levelled at the Department of Home Affairs, which despite its numerous regional offices has not shown effectiveness in the performance

of such functions as regulation of migration; registration of births, marriages and deaths; and documentation of identities and issue of passports (SAMP, 2005).

The Department of Home Affairs is involved in many diverse functions, responsibilities and duties with regard to immigration, playing crucial functions in the everyday life of South Africans and immigrants. This study considers the theory of '*Makwerekwere*' in investigating the opinion of African immigrants on the state of service delivery to them and how it has affected globalisation in Africa. There are currently indications that immigrants and South Africans alike continue to complain on service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs, while most studies on the topic have failed to address the perceptions of African foreigners in this regard.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Service delivery is a major issue in South Africa, both within government and outside government circles, but even South Africans seem to be highly dissatisfied with the inadequacy of it at all levels, causing South Africans to protest on the streets on several occasions. The major problem is that most studies on immigrants and migration in South Africa tend to concentrate more on xenophobia, while studies on service delivery tend to focus on South African citizens receiving poor service delivery. This study recognises that effective service delivery is as important to immigrants in South Africa as it is for citizens. In the context of this study, the concern is with service delivery by the Department of Home Affairs, using Pretoria as a case study.

1.4 THEORITICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Matsinhe, drawing from Elias's Dynamics of colonial relations, developed '*Makwerekwere*' theory to argue that what is called 'xenophobia' today in South Africa is very much beyond that. He preferred the term 'Afrophobia' and further contended that the asymmetries produced by the painful socio-emotional situation of apartheid gave rise to a colonized self of black South Africans (Matsinhe, 2011). Neocosmos (2008), Matsinhe (2011), and Isike and Isike (2012) have agreed that the psycho-social syndrome is used by poor and unemployed South Africans mostly to exclude African immigrants in socio-political terms. This study

considers this theory in arguing that poor service delivery which African foreigners receive is caused by the same syndrome exhibited by the Department of Home Affairs' officials.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of the study is of fourfold:

- 1) It is expected that the authorities of South Africa, the Department of Home Affairs in particular, home governments of African immigrants, and role-players in international public administration in Africa will use the findings of the study in future policymaking and implementation, especially with regard to immigration and migration on the continent.
- 2) The study analyzed the weaknesses and strengths of service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs, particularly to African immigrants in the country.
- 3) The study made recommendations on better service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs, mostly to the immigrants in South Africa.
- 4) The findings of the study will help in re-moulding and re-modelling the relations of African states and South Africa, both in bilateral and multilateral relations frameworks.

1.6 RESEARCH PROPOSITION

The research proposition is that African immigrants fear the negative perceptions of them held by the Department of Home Affairs' officials adversely affect the quality of service they receive in the Department.

1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the study are to:

- Gauge the views of African immigrants on service delivery they receive from the Department of Home Affairs.

- Analyse and recommend best practice for better service delivery by the Department of Home Affairs to African immigrants in South Africa generally.

1.8 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Against the background outlined above, the research questions are as follows:

- What are the views of African immigrants on service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs?
- What suggestions can African immigrants offer to facilitate better service delivery by the Department of Home Affairs?

1.9 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Research methodology is the system of collecting data and the subsequent processing of the data collected. For Babbie (2007) research design is the plan or protocol for a particular study. This study relied on both primary and secondary sources of data to develop a theoretical framework suitable for studying the perceptions on service delivery with regard to the Department of Home Affairs to African immigrants in South Africa. The primary data was collected through distribution of questionnaires to African immigrants resident in Pretoria, while the secondary data was collected through review of official documents of governments of African states and South Africa, including their respective constitutions and possible bilateral agreements signed between them. Other sources of secondary data included reports, prints, electronic media and published articles, journals and books. The study employed a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods of research.

1.9.1 Data collection methods

There has been little work on perceptions of African immigrants in South Africa on service delivery with regard to the Department of Home Affairs. However, relevant works were reviewed on immigration, migration and service delivery in the South African context.

Questionnaires were distributed to African immigrants in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed in Pretoria Central/West, Pretoria East, and Pretoria North. Those who responded represented the sample size, since it

was not possible to distribute the survey questionnaires to all African immigrants in these areas.

1.9.2 Sampling method

Sampling is the process of identifying, selecting and isolating cases of smaller groups from the broader group (population) that will be observed or studied in a research process (Babbie, 2007). A purposive or judgmental sampling technique is a type of non-probability sampling that allows for units to be selected on the researcher's judgment, mostly on the ground of which ones will be the most representative or useful for the purpose of the research (Babbie, 2007). Such a procedure allowed existing knowledge of the researcher to influence the areas in which participants were located.

The clear reason for the choice of non-probability sampling is that the South African statistics record from the 2001 census did not have reliable documentation of African foreigners residing in the various areas of Pretoria in which samples were to be collected. Lengthy searches by the Department of Home Affairs could not provide such documents. In circumstances in which there is lack of exact known populations, Baker (1999) has advised that a non-probability method may be used. Purposive or judgmental sampling techniques therefore were chosen because the researcher's knowledge of African immigrants in South Africa played a major role in identifying areas in which nationalities to be studied could be located.

Ngwenya's (2010) study on expatriate communities in Africa also failed to provide the exact population of African migrants of the six nationalities to be sampled. Thus, the study depended on a random distribution of questionnaires in shopping malls, workplaces, the Department of Home Affairs' offices and homes of African immigrants of the nationalities to be sampled. Existing knowledge of the researcher on African immigrants shows that most reside in cities or suburban areas, since they avoid townships out of fear for safety and for employment reasons. However, those who do live in townships and informal settlements were also surveyed.

1.9.3 Target population

The target population was African foreigners resident in South Africa, with a clear choice of two countries in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), namely Zimbabwe and Mozambique. In Western Africa, two countries sampled were Nigeria and Ghana, while Ethiopia and Uganda were the clear choices in the Eastern part of Africa.

Out of the 300 questionnaires distributed, 50 respondents were chosen from each nationality sampled. This means that each of the three regions chosen: Southern, Western and Eastern, received 100 questionnaires each.

Each of the three areas sampled in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality of South Africa: Pretoria Central/West, Pretoria East, and Pretoria North, received 100 questionnaires.

In the distribution of the questionnaires to each area and nationality, the researcher was gender-sensitive and tried to achieve a balance by identifying female African immigrants for sampling. Where available, it was 50% to 50% representation of both sexes in all criteria, from locations, nationalities, and regions. Chapter 4 discusses the process in greater depth.

1.9.4 Measuring instrument

Nominal measures have features of exhaustiveness and exclusiveness of variables while the ordinal measures have attributes that can be ranged in order. On the other hand, interval measures have characteristics of ranking and at the same time with equal distance, while the ratio measures have all the qualities of nominal, ordinal, and interval, but by extension a true zero point (Babbie, 2007).

Nominal measures, ordinal measures, interval measures and ratio measures were used to ascertain accuracy of the survey questionnaires, which were divided into sections. The first posed personal questions to the respondents on such issues as age, gender and nationality, while the second posed questions on the opinions of the respondents on service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs. The questionnaires consisted of closed questions to ensure standard data analysis.

1.9.5 Method of data analysis

Most analysis of quantitative research of today is handled by highly sophisticated computer programs such as Statistical Programs for the Social Science (SPSS), but there must be a numerical representation in order to allow computers to manipulate the data being observed. For the purpose of this research, the qualitative and quantitative methods were explored in an attempt to analyze both types of data collected during data collection.

The analysis was univariate, which Babbie (2007) argues is the analysis of a single variable mainly for the purpose of description. The descriptive statistics were used to present the characteristics of the variable. Tables and charts were also used for interpretation and analysis of data. The unit of analysis is the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in South Africa, whereas the survey questionnaires targeted African immigrants resident in the area.

1.10 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

One of the major limitations of the study was the limited literature on service delivery of the Department of Home Affairs, especially to African immigrants in South Africa.

The empirical aspect of the study distributed only 300 questionnaires to African immigrants in the City of Tshwane, but these did not fully represent the views of all African immigrants in South Africa, especially with regard to other provinces and areas in which questionnaires were not distributed.

Another limitation was that the data collected from the 300 African immigrants who received the questionnaires in the City of Tshwane in South Africa did not represent the perceptions of all the African nationalities resident in South Africa, as only six countries were chosen for empirical evidence of the study and so some nationalities were missed.

Communication was a problem because the questionnaire was presented only in English, while many African immigrants preferred French, Portuguese or their African home language.

There was some fear on the part of respondents that the information collected would be used for official purposes or for ones other than research. The respondents did not always have sufficient trust in the researcher.

1.11 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

In order to carry out a systematic study, it was structured into the following chapters:

Chapter one provided the general introduction, background, preliminary literature review, theoretical framework, aims and significance, statement of problem, research proposition, research objectives, research questions, research limitations, method of data collection, data analysis and method of data interpretation, and finally overview of chapters.

Chapter two provides a comprehensive literature review on immigration and migration and finally on service delivery in the South African context.

Chapter three presents the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study.

Chapter four will detail the research design and methodology used.

Chapter five presents the data analysis and interpretations of the study.

Chapter six is a summary of the research, making recommendations and drawing a conclusion based on the findings.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A literature review is a conceptual analysis of the body of knowledge as written by others on the subject, and a critical examination of the approach and methods used to conduct such research. With the additional aim of positioning the topic being researched within this larger body of knowledge, this chapter will provide an extensive and comprehensive literature review in order to synthesize and analyze what has already been written on the subject and identify strength and weaknesses of such research. It will also compare and contrast various definitions and conceptualizations of immigration, migration and service delivery, bearing in mind that there are no generally accepted definitions of the concepts by contributors. Instead, the study will conceptualize them based on what has already been written on the topic.

This chapter aims at bridging the gap between what has been written on the topic, in such a way that it is conceptually and methodologically insufficient, and what has not been written, and so clarify the gaps, shortcomings and weaknesses of the existing knowledge (Auriacombe, 2001:22). For this purpose, the literature review is an indispensable as well as undisputable part of any research, meaningful study or proposal.

Since the study centres on Service delivery to African foreigners in South Africa, with particular reference to the Department of Home Affairs, and in order to achieve the objectives of the study, the chapter will be divided into sections: Section A will deal with literature on immigration and migration, while section B will provide an extensive review of literature that deals with service delivery, particularly in South African context.

SECTION A

2.2 MIGRATION AND IMMIGRATION

‘Migration’ can be defined as the movement across boundaries of people wishing to find a new residence, semi-permanent or permanent, while ‘immigration’ is the process of passing through or entering a country with the purpose of residing there (*Oxford English Dictionary* 2003: 597, 743). Around the world, migration and immigration have continued to attract the attention of individuals, leaders, governments, and organizations (international, regional and local), including governmental and non-governmental. Most states and regional organization,

be it a super power or economy, middle class or third world, face a dilemma in handling migration and immigration, therefore it is not surprising that they have frequently reviewed policies and guidelines. In such a move the United States of America (USA), the world's strongest and largest economy, initiated a proposal to reform her immigration policy in 2004. The Bush-led administration proposed a temporary work permit programme in which willing foreign workers would match willing employers in the USA. Under this arrangement, the jobs that US citizens were unwilling to take up would be available for the foreign workers and illegal immigrants who were willing. After some time the window would be closed to illegal immigrants, restricting opportunities only to foreign immigrants from outside the USA. Under the arrangement the foreign workers were to be issued with a legal temporary work permit for a period of three years, with provision and permission to move out of and into the country (*US Congressional digest*, 2005).

According to Steven Camarota, director of research for the Center for Population Studies In March 2005, it was reported that more than 35.5 million immigrants were living in the USA, the highest in the history of the country at the time. About 12.1% of the US population had been born outside the USA, however, the state authorities were undecided on what to do with approximately 11 million illegal immigrants living in the country. Some analysts have argued in favour of immigrants as a source of cheap labour and thus a benefit to the economy, while others have worried about issues of legality. In either case, the common opinion is that illegal immigrants are looking for a better life than their home countries could provide (Cabrera, 2006).

Africa is a continent with a notorious experience of exploitation from activities associated with slavery, colonialism, imperialism, and neo-colonialism. These have led to unequal division of international labour and unequal exchange of goods and services between developing African economies and developed European capitalist economies. As a result, the continent is characterised by political instability, war, tribalism, mismanagement, poverty and penury. Africa, a continent with over 50 nations and population of about 900 million, many of poor socio-political status, has experienced a South to North trend of migration to developed economies such as USA, Canada, Australia, and Europe. Stebleton (2007), in studying the developmental skill needs of African immigrants in the USA observed that professionals needed to help solve the diverse problems of African immigrants, including maintaining their family ties at home (see also Kent, 2007, on Africa Population in the USA).

The last three decades have witnessed the highest levels of migration from Africa to North America, largely because of war, ethnic conflict and the poor socio-economic base. The number of documented and undocumented immigrants in the USA has continued to grow. Myers (2004) examined the settlement pattern of African immigrants in urban Kansas and concluded that they play major role in changes taking place on a socio-political level, in an area that formerly comprised mainly indigenes.

It is estimated that there are over 120 million migrants around the world, including asylum seekers, clandestine migrants and refugees, with another estimated 2 million joining every year. This number represents one out of every 114 people as displaced (Solomon, 2003). Generally, the trend of migration has constantly been seen from developing to the developed, confirmed by Nwonwu (2010), who studied the flow of immigrants from struggling economies to more successful economies within the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC).

Migration in the world has not only been from South to North and East to West, but also from the South to the South, which Ngwenya (2010) argues have been ignored by contributors to literature on immigration largely because of the widespread perception in the direction of flow of immigration from poor countries to rich countries. His study considered expatriates in the South-South flow, finding labour mobility is actually more common between developing countries than from them to developed countries. Zondi and Motsamai (2010) assert that South-North migration has created expatriates of African origin who migrated to Europe, America, Asia and Southern America for the purpose of trading their skills and labour. The paper argued that they aimed at turning the traditional 'brain drain' to African advantage, by becoming developmental and wealth-creating agents who transmitted their remittance from the host countries (see Maharaj, 2010, for the African 'brain drain', factors responsible, implications and effects; See also Matou & Mutanga, 2010; Knop, 2010, on migration theories and developmental issues).

Freeman (2010) examined the Chinese rapid investment in the African continent and the growing worries of neo-colonialism and invasion of local economies in an era that experienced continues migration of Chinese people to African states and agreed that Africa is fast losing her economy to foreign investors. The liberals argue for the positive contributions made by immigrants to developed economies, and advocate that the immigration policies be relaxed. Rowthorn (2004) considered four factors, namely, unemployment and wages, government finances, aging and population, but sharply disapproved of dependency on a

foreign workforce in the name of immigration (see Matlou & Mutanga, 2010, on migration impact on socio-political systems around the world).

In examining self-employment and earnings among immigrants in Australia, Le (1999) used the empirical evidence to conclude that while the paid employment sector had higher pay for foreigners than Australians the reverse was the case in the self-employment sector, where generally the native Australians were ahead of foreign born investors. His study indicates that skills make the difference in the determination of pay and working conditions.

Greenwood (2001), in a paper on individual narration of British emigrants' experience in South Africa, discussed how the British government was able to use its colonial influence to allow for the free movement of British citizens around its colonies, including assisting them to settle. The paper intended to use individual experience and narration of British settlers to make a clear break in existing writings on British settlers in South Africa, which previously depended on government documents, policies, government statistics, debates and legislation. The timeframe covered by the paper was 1945 to 1960, and saw mostly settlement from metropolis to periphery, to the advantage of British emigrants (Greenwood, 2001).

South Africa, with its international standard facilities and as the largest economy in Africa, has continued to play a prominent role in Africa since attaining democracy in 1994, although sometimes very much unwillingly (Adebajo, 2007). Such roles include playing host to African international migrants after 1994, when it opened its borders to the international community. Hansen, Jeannerat and Saddouni (2009) contended that African migrants still see South Africa as a transit country to the wider world, or at least as a place of temporary residence while in contact with the wider system. Generally, immigrants in South Africa do not desire permanent residence. The country lies between developing and developed countries in the world, making it a target from immigrants from African countries.

Since development is relative, and not all 'third world' or developing countries are equal, the developing countries that experience more development and political stability are more likely to attract immigrants. In this context, South Africa, a new democratic capitalist state with a relatively stable economy, the best infrastructure and largest economy in Africa, has experienced an influx of immigrants similar to the same experience of the more developed capitalist West (Nwonwu, 2010; Solomon, 2003).

South Africa is one of the country's worst affected by the AIDS/HIV pandemic, but has policies that are inclusive of immigrants' welfare. However, as mentioned in Chapter 1,

Vearey (2008) consistently argues that the African immigrants, mostly economic asylum seekers and refugees, struggle to access the basic rights to which they are entitled by policies and the Constitution, which state that South Africa belongs to all who live in it. This study was conducted in Johannesburg, with empirical evidence on those employed in the informal sector, especially HIV-positive foreigners in need of ARVs. It had supporting evidence that even African immigrants who were professionals were frustrated by the South African socio-political system (Vearey, 2008).

The above-mentioned study of the Yao ethnic community in the Mangochi district, conducted by Vawda (2009), looked at how these Malawian nationals had capitalized on their religious faith to consolidate their survival in Malawi, and further experience between Malawi and South Africa. He was convinced that their identity was harnessed in harmony with their religion and, being trans-national migrants, they based their survival on their common faith as Muslims. This was clear evidence that religious, cultural and all social identity could enhance survival, even in foreign lands as immigrants often do.

Vigneswaran, Araia, Hoag, and Tshabalala (2010) found that South African law enforcement agencies often corruptly assist Zimbabweans to break the laws and policies guiding immigration in South Africa, but at the same time are overzealous in documenting their offences. They concluded that the situation was a product of state power monopoly which has also resulted in the deportation of foreigners, including large number of Zimbabweans. In light of Zimbabwe's failed leadership and socio-political system, its citizens have continued to seek asylum around the world, with neighbouring South Africa being a major recipient. Johnson and Roman (2008) examined the experiences of Zimbabwean immigrants' en-route to South Africa and concluded that the South African system does not make life better for them.

Studying Zimbabwean migrant workers in the neighbouring Limpopo Province of South Africa, Rutherford (2008) found them vulnerable as they tend to accept lower wages than their South African counterparts, not least because they are paid in a currency that is of much higher value than that of the Zimbabwean dollar. This perceived undercutting of the labour market is not popular with many South Africans (Rutherford, 2008).

Gebre; Maharaj; and Pillay (2010) investigation of Ethiopian community residents in Durban found that most moved to South Africa for economic opportunities that the Ethiopian state could not provide. They defined 'migration' as movement of people from one place to

another, but in this case one country to another with clear causes and apparent positive and negative effects. Over time, the major reason for migration and immigration is in search of a better life, employment and wider ranges of opportunities.

From studies of the Congolese community in Durban, using interview method to examine various contemporary issues affecting immigrants in Africa, Joseph (2010) argued that Congolese migrants in South Africa have a distorted notion of the economic and political liberality of the country before leaving. Travelling through neighbouring Zimbabwe, Tanzania, Mozambique, Botswana, and Namibia, some aim to move on to Europe, or at least achieve a better life in South Africa. However, their dreams are often shattered by the hard conditions they experience on arrival in South Africa, ranging from discrimination to lack of the much desired freedom which they could not find at home (Joseph, 2010).

Kalitanyi and Visser conducted research on the poor treatment of African immigrants in South Africa's socio-political system, but their conclusion was that they made positive contributions to the development of the host country, with entrepreneurial skills that were ultimately transferred to South Africans. The research was conducted in Cape Town using African foreigners as empirical evidence to demonstrate the advantageous position of the South African state in allowing free participations of immigrants in the socio-political system (Kalitanyi & Visser, 2010). This is also a notable characteristic of the global economic system presently, as 'no country is an island', irrespective of its economic strength of such a state.

From research by Landau and Wa Kabwe-Segatti on South African state policy in frustrating human mobility and sometimes undermining it, which they argued underlies South Africa's immigration policies and regulation, they noted that South African reform in post apartheid could benefit very much from the contributions of immigrants. Apparently, post apartheid South Africa has difficult choices to make on the immigration policies of the country. Rejection of immigrants' contribution to the economy would be suicidal while inclusion of the immigrants' contribution in the political economy of South Africa would be very much beneficial to South African political-economy as the economy continue to grow although with numerous challenges including high level of crime, poverty and unemployment (Landau & Wa Kabwe-Segatti, 2009).

Aregbeshola examined South Africa as an attraction of migration to Africans in this age of globalization. He attributed it to the interdependency of the world system, arguing that every

nation and region in the world directly or indirectly promotes migration either by importing or exporting human capital. He regarded it as a trend that any economy cannot resist because globalization has brought the world system together. He further examined migrants' contribution to the South African economy (Aregbeshola, 2010).

Klotz (2000), while writing on migration at the end of apartheid, suggested that South Africa should exclude racism both in her internal and external foreign policies. He condemned the restrictions on migration as such policies were working against the new democratic regime. In his opinion, the xenophobic behaviour of South African state and public alike does not uplift the system and called on activists for the rights of migrants and against violence to use all the legal socio-political means within their reach to realize the potential of South Africa in the pursuit of its democratic principles, including national, regional and international opportunities (Klotz, 2000).

From their research into free movement of citizens of SADC, and the challenges confronting the 1995 draft protocols, Oucho and Crush recalled that South Africa gave no support to the initiatives. Rather, its response and counter-proposal clearly demonstrated a naïve stance in the free movement initiatives in the region, as South Africa bullied the regional organization with its political and economic prowess. The most developed capitalist economy in Africa, it is often accused of neo-colonial ambitions on the continent, making a constant effort in the direction of free trade in Africa, and elimination of two-way taxes as opposed to free movement of people around the continent (Oucho & Crush, 2001).

Crush and Dodson (2007) criticized South Africa's inability to eliminate apartheid methods of immigration control, citing the continued influence of the Alien Control Act of 1991 in subsequent immigration acts. The paper condemned the policies derived from apartheid laws that have continued to frustrate SADC in their effort to harmonize migration and immigration within the region. The perception is that progress cannot be made as long as South Africa continues to be over-protective of its territory as against developmental plans for the region (Crush & Dodson, 2007).

A similar view was held by Trimikliniotis (2008), who lamented how South Africa had used her might in SADC to demobilize the arrangement of the organization on free movement of the citizens of the member countries. Rather than allow free movement of people, South Africa is only interested in free trade, portraying her neo-colonial ambitions as a regional and continental power. Its immigration policies are not very different from those of apartheid,

which ensured that there was no free movement of African foreigners to South Africa except on the cases of required labour to serve South African interests. The new regime has ensured that it is protective of state interest over regional and continental interest, in spite of its past history. The labour system and organisation has also excluded immigrants, who in turn are open to exploitation by the South African system (Trimikliniotis, 2008).

Collinson (2010) carried out research on post-apartheid South Africa, considering the stress and strain on the system which the country inherited from the apartheid era. Looking at migration, health and poverty, most especially in rural areas, the study considered the relationships between rural migration, poverty, sex and ultimately households. It found that migration was associated closely with the HIV pandemic, although not directly in some cases in South Africa. It is likely that those migrants who return home often will not likely be involved in careless sex with outside partners. The study has a strong perception that infant survival and the death rate in South Africa have strong links with migration (Collinson, 2010).

Ulicki and Crush conducted research in the 1990s, when democratic South Africa had liberalized migration to a certain level, but noted that the Free State province was greatly dependent on the labour of Lesotho's migrants, who were mainly farm and mine workers. A major coincidence was the retrenchment that befell the mining sector during this period. The researchers agreed that no policy guided the transfer of workers from the mining sector to farm sector, and the major casualties were the Lesotho migrants, who had to struggle in a labour market already full, while their lack of skills invariably made it difficult for them to acquire new jobs (Ulicki & Crush, 2007).

Examining the nature of immigration in South Africa, including the roles of immigrants involved in both legal and illegal dealings, Adepoju (1996) pointed out that Lesotho, Malawi, and Mozambique had been the major supplies of labour to apartheid South Africa, recognizing that the pattern changed over time with Lesotho taking the lead. South African society has continued to experience a large amount of immigration from other African countries, especially after 1994. The social problems confronting the country, such as crime, poverty, unemployment and HIV, did not deter African foreigners because South Africa was ahead of them in terms of economic strength. The study found that foreign nationals in South Africa were of more than 100 nationalities around the world, while the labour migrants provided skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled labour (Adepoju, 1996).

Strydom and Cronje (2008) noted that migration is an international phenomenon, which left no community untouched. However, in the case of South Africa, migrants face a wide range of issues, such as lower life expectancy, family problems, diseases, high mortality rate and crime. Urban congestion has been added to by the influx of immigrants and South Africa is not coping in terms of developing new cities and infrastructures to accommodate them. Their study focuses on the experience and perceptions of Mozambican citizens resident in Mpumalanga province, which has a common boundary with Mozambique (Strydom & Cronje, 2008).

Research by Peberdy (1999) on immigration problems in South Africa considered that its democratic principles had been compromised by the perception that illegal immigrants were entering the country to escape economic and political depression prevalent in African countries. The paper argued that the South African political system has characteristics of xenophobic behaviour, making it possible to practice inclusive policies which exclude the African immigrants' interests. The former minister of home affairs, Mangosuthu Buthelezi was of the opinion that the influx of illegal immigrants into South Africa complicated the immigration problems of the country, announcing publicly that it would put the interest of its own people first, a view in contradiction to the preamble of the Constitution (Peberdy, 1999).

Comparing South Africa and Australia, both former colonies of Britain, Davidson (2006) identified significant differences when apartheid was in operation, as Australia fought against racism both in Australia and beyond, including South Africa. However, the establishment of democracy in South Africa has not strengthened the relationship between the countries. The paper noted two important exchanges of migration, namely the move by Australian miners and in the turn of the last century, and a significant movement of South Africans to Australia in the present age. The paper remarked that the end of apartheid did not help matters in the relationship between the two countries as the relationship was only able to remain cordial. Business between the two countries has however continued to grow (Davidson, 2006).

Solomon (2003) found that the average South African earns 36 times more than the average Mozambican, and that neighbouring countries were afflicted with poverty, citing Tanzania, and Zambia. The end of apartheid opened up South Africa to nationals of neighbouring countries that were experiencing poverty, war, environmental problems and socio-political mismanagement. It was estimated at the time that the number of illegal immigrants in South Africa were over 2.1 to 4.1 million, aggravating crime and insecurity, which the country lack

the resources, capacity or commitment to manage, unlike developed Europe, USA, Canada, and Australia (Solomon, 2003). Though it was particularly so before the current economic recessions the world is experiencing.

Researching on a larger scale than before the so-called xenophobic attacks carried out on African foreigners in South Africa in 2008, Hansen et al. (2009) concluded that there had long been tensions between South Africans and foreign nationals over accusations by South Africans that foreigners were stealing jobs and local women. The apparent reasons often cited were frustration amongst ordinary South Africans at the democratic dispensation's failure to fulfil its promise of a better life for ordinary citizens, and instead admitting African immigrants (Hansen et al., 2009).

Hughes (2007) observed the particular relationship which existed between indentured Indians and Africans, including the reactions of the Africans to the arrival of Indians in South Africa more than 150 years ago. The paper critically related the conditions of indenture contract which brought Indian community to Natal, noting that at the expiration of the contracts the Indians engaged in small scale agriculture and farming. The moment the contract of indenture was signed it signalled the migration experience of Indians to South Africa. The contract did stipulate that at expiration of contract after five, years such a person could resign the contract, return to India or find another job at his/her own pace and risk. However, the Indian community remained in South Africa, with only about a quarter returning to India (Hughes, 2007). On contemporary Indian community in Africa and reason for migration, (see Modi, 2010).

According to Gordon (2010), the victory over racial segregation and other aspects of apartheid only created a new era of contestation over social and economic rights, the product of which is a new discriminatory system that ensures exclusion of African immigrants from socio-economic rights in the political system. He further described the laws guiding immigration as 'draconian', of which most are derived from apartheid rules and regulations. His central argument is that the xenophobia which exists in the public domain is fuelled by a state policy that has failed to exhibit inclusive policy of foreigners (Gordon, 2010).

A study by Laher (2008) sampled 345 South Africans in Johannesburg to determine what informed antagonism of African foreigners, using the integrated threat theory approach of Stephan and Stephan. Factors responsible for prejudice were found to be inter-group anxiety,

realistic threats, symbolic threats and negative stereotypes and patterns of communication (Laher, 2008).

Xenophobia is defined as a strong feeling of dislike or fear of people of other countries (*Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary, 2003*), and could be manifested on any level, ranging from the authorities to civil society or from the powerful to the powerless. Not always fear it may sometimes be an attitude, complex of either superiority or inferiority, and also a practice (Dodson, 2010). Nor need it always be manifested as a form of violence, but rather systematic behaviour towards non-nationals or indigenes (immigrants). In many cases it is evident that xenophobia exists because of the presence of immigrants and migrants in society.

The complex nature of immigration and poor understanding of the phenomenon made possible the xenophobic attack on African foreigners with regard to the timing, namely a period in which Thabo Mbeki was calling for an 'African Renaissance' and the first football World Cup to be held in Africa was approaching. Immigration is an international phenomenon, and the reasons for it are closely related, be it in America, Asia, Europe, Oceania or Africa, namely to do with economic related issues, a better life, job, housing and social services (Morapedi, 2007). McDonald and Jacobs (2005) observed that xenophobia seems to have fully matured and is widespread in Southern Africa, writing that Southern Africans show an extraordinary consistency in their antagonism towards foreigners, most especially those from other countries in Africa and particularly those deemed to be illegal immigrants in the region.

There is xenophobia throughout Southern Africa, but according to McDonald and Jacob (2005) it is more prominent in Botswana, South Africa, and Namibia. The other countries, Swaziland, Mozambique and Zimbabwe, are more tolerant of foreign nationals in their countries. This difference could be related to economic issues, since observation shows those with better economies, South Africa, Namibia, and Botswana attract more foreigners. On the other hand they manifest more xenophobia than other countries because the very wealth attracts more immigrants, and a vicious circle forms. Since immigration is mostly caused by a search for a better life, it follows that there are likely to be more foreign nationals in countries with strong economies than in those with economies that are struggling. Xenophobia manifests itself in daily activities, including government and government policies, through officials, the media and manner of reporting, as well as through the public and daily social life.

Neocosmos found those in government and positions of authority have made comments or statements which suggested that they are also xenophobic, for instance former Home Affairs minister, Mangosotho Buthelezi, who said that if South Africans would have to compete with millions of aliens it would mean sacrificing the reconstruction and development programme of the country (Neocosmos, 2008). For a person at ministerial level to make such a xenophobic statement is an indictment of the political culture of South Africa. There are also indications implicating the democratic government in their failure to fulfil their political promises to the citizens, and instead turning an accusatory finger at aliens as being responsible for unemployment, disease, a high crime wave and general social instability. The police also engage in exploitation of immigrants, while the experience in Lindela detention is that of exploitation and clear ill treatments of immigrants (Neocosmos, 2008)

Media reports about immigrants are subjective, not objective, usually indicting the immigrants as criminals. Many researchers like Neocosmos; Danso and McDonald argue that the electronics and print media incite xenophobia in a society that already holds negative views of foreigners. The media has a responsibility for reporting to the general public about immigration and the cost of it to South African society, but it must also balance such reports with positive aspects of immigration, including their contribution to the economy. For instance, immigrants compete with South Africans for jobs but they are also wealth creators. Immigrants use basic facilities such as water, housing, electricity and basic amenities, but are willing to pay for them, and to pay taxes (Danso & McDonald, 2001).

In the public domain, immigrants are subjected to steady verbal and physical abuse; the popular way of disgusting immigrants is by calling them '*makwerekwere*' by so saying, citizens use the pejorative term to show outright rejection of aliens in their country. It amounts to rejection and humiliation, not far from terms in Namibia, and Botswana (Morapedi, 2007).

Having studied the lives of African foreigners from Nigeria and Congo who reside in Johannesburg, Morris (2008) found that indigenous black South Africans used physical features to identify them for victimisation. He traced the origin of xenophobia to the apartheid era, when laws placed restrictions on black immigrants entering South Africa, and recalled that opening the borders in the 1990s led to the increase of legal and illegal immigration to South Africa. Morris (2008) sees the complexities associated with the influx as having contributed to increased crime and unemployment, a shortage of resources, and pressure on the infrastructure.

Writing on the xenophobic character of South African society, Harris (2002) has argued that the new 'rainbow nation' inaugurated by President Nelson Mandela in 1994 has demonstrated a shift from the former notorious segregation to unity, from unpopular legislated apartheid system to popular democracy. However, the shift did not end prejudice and violence, as foreigners, particularly African foreigners, are presently the new victims of directed attacks against them by the new system. The study arguably located xenophobia within South African as a phenomenon and social pathology. Harris also argued that South African democracy has created outsiders and newcomers, who are refugees and asylum seekers from African countries, residing in cities. This is unlike other countries, where they live in camps, but it is for the fear of their lives and safety. African foreigners in South Africa are targeted by South African state agencies and the public partly because the new contest for space in the socio-politics of South Africa (Harris, 2003).

Neocosmos (2008) disagrees with theories of scapegoats, frustration, aggression, relative deprivation, isolation, biology, apartheid, post-apartheid, transition and nationalism that have been put forward to explain xenophobia in South Africa, arguing that poverty, unemployment and other social problems could be understandable, but that the targets could not be well explained by those theories since all races other than African foreigners are not targeted for xenophobic acts (Neocosmos, 2008). This study agrees with Neocosmos, that the theories discussed above have not satisfactorily explained why African immigrants are targets of xenophobia in South Africa. 'Afrophobia' would provide a better framework for understanding the discrimination that exists against African immigrants in South Africa today, because African immigrants have been the target while whites, Indians and other races have not (Neocosmos, 2008).

The theory of *Makwerekwere* by Matsinhe argues that the fantasies created by indigenous South Africans to depict African foreigners as 'they' (illegal, foreign, criminals, drug traffickers) do not resemble the reality. Matsinhe (2011); and Isike and Isike (2012) have examined how indigenous black South Africans use narcissism and minor differences to create a 'we and they' syndrome, with 'we' representing indigenous South Africans and 'they' being African foreigners. Instances abound where physical appearance, such as ways of dressings, bodily physique, and inability to speak South African local languages have been an instrument used to identify the African immigrants, subjecting them to different but cruel forms of humiliation, such as heavy-handed strip searches, suspicion of various kinds, eventual arrest, detention, humiliation, torture and all forms of assault, at the hands of the

state apparatus, including the police, immigration officials and Home Affairs officials (Matsinhe, 2011; Isike & Isike, 2012).

As noted above, in an outbreak of xenophobia in May 2008, South Africans took to the streets attacking, assaulting, killing and destroying African foreigners and their property. The violence started in Alexandra, spreading to other parts of Gauteng province, KwaZulu-Natal, Western Cape, Southern Cape, Mpumalanga, North West and Free State. Dodson argued that the attacks of May 2008 were xenophobic and attributed the causes to the complex, economic, social, and cultural factors, including both the contemporary and historical. He also contended that ordinary experiences of xenophobia are part and parcel of everyday life of ordinary immigrant in South Africa, only in a less violence manner (Dodson, 2010). The May 2008 attack left more than 60 people dead, including South Africans and African foreigners, while thousands were left homeless.

SAMP (2005), while writing of the Quality of Migration Service Delivery in South Africa, made an interesting observation using the survey of Home Affairs Officials, South African Citizens and foreigners to examine their perceptions on Home Affairs service delivery. In the light of widespread criticism of the Department by the media, and private discussions suggesting a wide range of failures by the Department in their responsibilities towards South Africans and non-South Africans alike, the study made a broad survey of Home Affairs Officials, South African Citizens and non-South African Citizens. The results showed a discrepancy between the media reports on Home Affairs performance and assessment when compared to the respondents' answers, which showed that the Department was not in crisis over service delivery generally, both in the view of customers and officials. SAMP (2005) also made a striking breakthrough in conducting a study of perceptions of service delivery in South Africa's Department of Home Affairs, making a broad survey involving officials and clients of the Department. However, since their research was in disagreement with the view of the general public in their private discussions and media reports on the Department, one would question the objectivity of such research outcomes. This study would narrow the survey to perceptions of African foreigners in order to examine whether the trend or result would be in line with SAMP's view or whether it would show any difference in the opinions of African foreigners.

This research is also justified since most literature reviewed shows trends of interests in the studies of the policies and legislation guiding immigration and migration around the world, particularly in South Africa. Some concentrate on the political, economic, and social

implications of immigration and migration policies, while others were of the view that immigrants and migrants could have positive or negative effect on the socio-political conditions of a country. Such authors highlight reasons for migration and immigration as often being socio-economic and political. Many also concentrated on the xenophobic behaviour of societies, pointing out factors such as inter-group anxiety, realistic threats, symbolic threats and negative stereotypes, and patterns of communication for prejudice and fear (Laher, 2008). Many made analyses and recommendations aimed at preventing xenophobia and managing it where it exists.

However, the many pieces of research in the areas of immigration, migration, and xenophobia have failed to produce adequate studies on the service delivery to immigrants in South Africa, particularly service delivery from Home Affairs to African immigrants. This study aims to bridge that gap. As SAMP (2005) noted, it is the legal responsibility of the Home Affairs of South Africa to implement and manage the policies and laws on migration and immigration, which apparently made it inevitable for all foreigners to visit the Department with regard to legalizing entry and stay. Such responsibilities make research on the service delivery of the Department of Home Affairs to immigrants a matter of necessity and importance, since it affects the entire socio-political system in South Africa.

SECTION B

2.3 LITERATURE REVIEW ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

Since the demise of apartheid and eventual inception of democracy and majority rule in South Africa in 1994, the three branches of government of South Africa, parliamentary, executive and judiciary have been reportedly found wanting in keeping to their promise of accelerated and improved service delivery. This may be due to wide range of challenges inherent in the system, including the inherited problems from apartheid and new challenges (Neocosmos, 2008). It is therefore interesting to note that there have been analyses from different perspectives to explain the failures and successes of the South African government in service delivery.

Former President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki identified a major problem in the South African socio-political economy when he acknowledged that the state had two parallel economies, first world and third world, in other words developed and underdeveloped. In his

analysis, the first world economy of South Africa had features of modernity and produced the majority of the country's wealth. It was also highly globalized and well integrated into the world political economy. On the other hand, the third world was not developed, but dysfunctional with evidence of an inability to generate growth. Thus, South Africa has laid out developmental targets since 1994, setting a target in 2004 for poverty reduction from 1/3 to 1/6 of households in 2014, unemployment from 30% to 15%, and expansion of services of various kinds (Levin, 2007).

Burger's analysis was centred on poverty conditions in South Africa, but he argued that effective service delivery is necessary to South African citizens because of the obvious roles it could play in the possible eradication of poverty. His study further warned against short-sightedness in policymaking and formulation because such could lead to a possible failure on the part of government, while admitting that it has caused implementation to fail since end of apartheid. If the new democratic South Africa is to succeed, a high level of planning should be undertaken, with careful execution (Burger, 2005).

Karuri-Sebina; Hemson; and Carter examined developmental local government and *Botha Pele* principles, but the common idea was that it is an effort toward alleviating poverty and improving service delivery to the general public in the new era of the country. They agreed that the South African Public service will be judged by service delivery efficiency. In their view the essence of good governance is to make life better to citizens. They also agreed that developmental local government can make a vital change in this direction (Karuri-Sebina et al., 2010; See also Mubangizi and Gray (2011) on putting the public into public service delivery for social welfare).

Mubangizi and Mubangizi's examined South Africa's diverse wealth in terms of human and material resources, and the effort of government to use available resources to alleviate poverty. Thus, South Africa explored the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), both of which aimed at improving the life of the South African citizens as the nation targeted effective service delivery in various ramifications (Mubangizi & Mubangizi, 2005).

Mubangizi, while writing on poverty alleviation and service delivery and a possible conceptual framework workable for South Africa's service, argued that the country has made effort in poverty eradication using poverty alleviation strategies. The paper using three major reports on poverty and alleviation in the history of South Africa agreed on the link between

poverty alleviation and service delivery. The paper further criticized the first Carnegie Commission report of 1929-1930 on white poor in South Africa for its lack of vision for the entire country. Rather than being of benefit to both blacks and whites it further impoverished blacks and favoured whites. Nor did the second Carnegie report of 1984 help, as recommendations again excluded poverty alleviation on the part of blacks. The paper agreed that the poverty and inequality report of 1997 was comprehensive as it identified all the inabilities that increased poverty, including those effecting both blacks and whites, such as lack of natural, social, institutional and human assets (Mubangizi, 2009).

Naidoo and Xollie (2011) examined the critical situation of service delivery in South Africa since the democratic dispensation in the country, pointing out the constant crisis the system has continued to experience in service delivery, despite the steady effort of the government in the direction of improvement centred on articulated leadership, improved managerial capacity, and workable developmental initiatives. The paper supports the argument advanced by the former president that the socio-political economy is divided into two parallels, the developed and underdeveloped (rich and poor), of which hope lies in an improved service delivery based on improved leadership, managerial capacity and proper developmental initiatives.

Smith and Vawda examined the transformation that had taken place in Cape Town Local Government since 1996 democratic transition to democracy. The major challenge was the inclusion of the majority of the population in the policymaking as the democratic government grappled with poverty reduction. The simple aim was to improve quality of service delivery to South Africans, especially those in the group deprived of a better life during apartheid days (Smith & Vawda, 2003).

Regarding the election of the local government of 2006, Booysen's (2007) study asserted that the election was also a referendum as it proved wrong the assumptions that the previous protests of poor service delivery were against the ANC-led government. Rather, it was protests purely against poor service delivery because the election still saw majority support for the ruling party. The study noted that over 900 protests of poor service delivery took place between 2004 and 2006, while the parliamentary report showed 881 illegal protests were recorded in the same period, but a good point about the system was its ability to recognize the people's freedom to peaceful protests. On the election of 2011, Clark expressed the same view, because the service delivery protests in the country did not prevent the ANC being re-elected (Clark, 2011).

Nleya conducted research on the macro-economy of development policies on water delivery, extending it to urban policies in South Africa. He remarked that most urban poor South Africans live in informal settlement close to urban areas but compared it to rural areas of which both have experience of poor service delivery, as in water supply, sanitation and housing, during apartheid era. The study concluded that the indelible marks of apartheid are still problematic in the service delivery to informal settlements and rural areas but an improved strategy should be put into place to ensure that water supply is free to the poor South Africans, including those of the informal settlements who have been denied their privileges of better life under a democratic dispensation (Nleya, 2008).

Viljoen (2010) noted that South Africa has a unique environment and topography and is making progress in provision of safety water supply to citizens. He argued that the World Health Organization (WHO) Water Safety Plan was excellent, as the Rand Water, large water company service provider approved of the Water Safety Plan. This is a clear move of South Africa to improve service delivery to South Africans as the country tackles poverty in the democratic dispensation. He is of the view that clean water is life necessity and providing it to South Africans both to the reach and poor is a government responsibility (Viljoen, 2010).

McKechnie and Bridgen discussed the burden South Africa is carrying due to lack of skills and manpower, especially in the engineering sector, and agreed on the adverse effect of the situation on service delivery. Their paper highlighted confrontations such as the historical education legacy which ensured underdevelopment of blacks and development of the minority white, global demand for skills in the engineering sector and the movement of such skills out of South Africa, deficiencies in the present educational system, poor performance in sciences, and fall in traditional artisans and training. In their view, there is need for the improved engineering sector, particularly electrical, in order to achieve effective service delivery in the public and private sector (McKechnie & Bridgen, 2008).

Lombard (2008) investigated of the South African government's effort in balancing the injustice of the past, which had led to massive investment in social security with a little left for social service delivery. Social development, however, is emerging as a major contributory factor in the second decade of South African democracy, unlike in the first decade in which it did not. His hope was that the state will only be solidly developed if the service delivery is made effective (Lombard, 2008).

Allais researched the educational reform in South Africa after 1994, noting that the government's first step in education reform was a national qualification framework made up of mostly outcomes, but about 10 years later the reform was met with too many challenges. However, the reforms were intended to address inequality in the socio-political system. His paper noted the vital roles a high quality educational system could play in the development of a country, particularly in a country with the past of South Africa (Allais, 2007).

AFRIMAP and the Open Society Foundation for South Africa reported positive change in South African service delivery in the education sector as the country pushed for improved conditions for its citizens. In the first place, the policy framework of education allows for equality of all South Africans in access to learning. The perception is that the Department of Education (DoE) is on course to achieve the target of providing basic education to citizens by 2015 as mandated. The literacy rate increased for 15 to 24 olds from 88% to 90% from 1990 to 1994, with enrolment rates on the increase, and the pass rate also on the increase. The study used the Western Cape and Limpopo Provinces as relatively well and poor funded (AFRIMAP and Open Society Foundation for South Africa's 2007 report).

Research on perceptions of service delivery by HIV/AIDS infected persons in South Africa by Giya (2010) observed the negative attitudes of politicians toward the eradication of the disease. Politicians, it found, including grassroots politicians and councillors, are only willing to declare their AIDS/HIV results only when they test negative. Their decision is based on the fear of rejection and stigma attached to the disease, which they believe could cost them their jobs, as the expected reaction of the public could be to distance themselves from such politicians. The paper advocated an effective fight against the stigma through prevention, care, treatment and attention to the orphans, and all those who are vulnerable. In this argument, a positive attitude is required from the politicians in a fight against the HIV pandemic (Giya, 2010).

AFRIMAP and Open Society Foundation for South Africa, while investigating service delivery in the Health Department admitted the grave dangers and challenges of diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis. The millennium goals of the Health Department are in line with those of the WHO (World Health Organization), which includes reduction of child and maternal rates, with a controlling mechanism for their spread. However, life expectancy is on the decrease, as is spending on healthcare with regards to GDP. The scourge of HIV/AIDS is mostly responsible for lower life expectancy, but government intentions and efforts to improve healthcare are not being taken for granted, which increases in health

facilities and services could explain better (AFRIMAP and Open Society Foundation for South Africa 2007 report).

Booyesen (2003) criticized the inequalities which exist in rural-urban health services in South Africa while noting the existence of discrepancies in the urban areas. The problem is over-dependency of those who reside in rural areas on public healthcare, compared to those who reside in the cities, who have higher chances of private healthcare. Apparently, the public healthcare in South Africa is in a poor state; however, decentralization of the health to local level may close the discrepancies.

Whittaker; Burns; Doyle; and Lynam (1999) emphasized South Africa's position on the continent as the most industrialized country in Africa, with a population of over 40 million. The public and private sector provide healthcare but with a striking dominance of public sector providing healthcare for over 70-80% or more of the total population. The paper argued that the healthcare has changed drastically from a hospital base to primary healthcare in recent years. However, the latest trend is a multi-disciplinary approach in its provision. The paper is in agreement with that of Booyesen (2003) on over-dependency of the common people on healthcare in South Africa.

Kuye and Naidoo (2003) were concerned about the impact of modern technology in service delivery in the computer age; however, they agreed on the need to utilise new technology and to improve quality of service delivery in the socio-political system of South Africa. An e-delivery strategy in the public sector is aimed at re-engineering government efforts in the current way of running the political economy of the country, by involving the larger sectors, including the private sector and Small and Medium Enterprises (SMMEs), all of which have major roles to play in socio-political development (Kuye & Naidoo, 2003).

Visser and Twinomurinzi (2008) observed that failures of e-government and public service delivery in South Africa are not far from what is obtainable in other developing countries. In the effort of governments around the world to seize the ample opportunity provided by the computer age to improve service delivery, attempts have been made to define e-government or e-governance. It is clear that both are methods of using information and communication technology (ICT) to enhance governmental processes. The paper noted that in South Africa the principle of *Batho Pele*, or *people first*, does not align with e-government or e-governance. However, the paper suggested alignment of e-government and *Batho Pele*

principles to ensure effective use of e-government in service delivery in South Africa (Visser & Twinomurinzi, 2008).

On effective service delivery, Whittaker et al. (1998) argued in favour of seemingly closing the gap between the private and public sector in a practical sense, because of the steady effort being made to achieve effective service delivery in the right directions. Government of democratic states often involves the private sector in the service delivery through public sector-private sector partnership or direct employment of the private sector by the public sector to deliver much desired service to the general public. The paper reiterated that the essence of a state is to ensure the stability of the system both politically and economically, in other words of the welfare of the citizenry. In view of this function, the state would have to harness its resources to ensure effective service delivery. In South Africa, there are clear cases of private sector participation in the public service delivery (Whittaker et al., 1998)

Elhiraika (2007), while writing on fiscal decentralization and service delivery in South Africa, argued in favour of fiscal and financial autonomy on the part of sub-national government in South Africa and African countries. He observed that the political autonomy in the sub-national government of South Africa contrasts with the lack of fiscal and financial autonomy in the sub-national government. Decentralization is favoured in different countries for different reasons, but a constant reason is effective service delivery at the grassroots. Centralization has hampered development and service delivery in South African. It has also affected accountability, since monitoring inter-governmental transfers has increased corruption in Africa through lack of transparency in such inter-governmental relations. Using provincial government to theorize, the paper argued for improved accountability, transparency and effective service delivery to the people through greater revenue and fiscal autonomy on the part of lower levels of government (Elhiraika, 2007).

Raga and Taylor (2005) researched accountability and ethics on public service delivery from South African perspectives, but agreed that the principles are commonly used to promote good governance and effective service delivery. The paper agreed on the simple goal of accountability, which is giving account and being responsible for accounts. Ethics, on the other hand, underpin boundaries between rights and wrongs. The paper argued that ethics and accountabilities produce transparency and openness in the public sector, which apparently increases productivity in service delivery (Raga & Taylor: 2005). For failures of the democratic dispensation since 1994 on facts, fictions and fabrications of service delivery in South Africa, (see Khosa, 2001).

Maserumule's (2007) study on public service delivery in South Africa simply centred on the impact of misunderstandings between the directors-general and ministers often negatively reported to the general public by the media. The paper noted the administrative roles of the directors-general, whom the civil service rules agree are the administrative heads of the departments and part of the civil service, while the ministers are the political heads of the departments, though appointed by the President, who is the head of the Cabinet. The study further called for the contribution of scholars in solving this problem of misunderstandings between the political heads and administrative heads, arguing that the assumptions of the media that both political and administrative heads adhering to their traditional roles cannot solve the problem. They rather called for postulations and theories that could be workable.

The Department of Home Affairs is charged with the popular functions of managing, making, and implementing immigration laws and policies by the Constitution, but the Department is regularly accused by the media and general public of not being accessible to the customers and media. Other functions that the Department is charged with include registration of births, deaths, and provisions of identity documents, including passports. The former Director-General (Barry Gilder) of the Department concurred to the accusation in 2003 when his nationwide tour revealed inefficiency and the ill-equipped state of the system (SAMP, 2005).

The discovery by the director-general led to a 'Turnaround Strategy' in the Department's service delivery, which among other things was intended to make it accessible to the customers. However, the survey sample showed that the Department's officials were not conversant with the internal Turnaround Strategy; rather they were conversant with the popular *Botha Pele* principles of service delivery. But the major deficiency in service delivery in South Africa has traditionally been the inability of the political system, policy makers, civil servants, and contributors on service delivery to strike a balance between the service delivery to South African citizens and African immigrants in South Africa. Policymakers have often been accused of making xenophobic statements, while writers and proponents of effective service delivery have often concentrated on the delivery, only with regards to South African citizens. In the case of the Department of Home Affairs the emphasis has continued to be in line with delivering to the South African citizens. It is only a handful of literature and policies that have been directed towards enhancing delivery to African immigrants, who have suffered series of humiliation in the form of xenophobia and diverse deprivations at all levels.

This study is therefore directed towards addressing service delivery to African foreigners and immigrants in South Africa in general, as balance is required between service delivery to South Africans and immigrants. As long as the Department of Home Affairs continues to be in charge of immigration and migration policies, effective service delivery cannot be achieved without inclusive policies towards foreigners, whose documentation is the responsibility of the Department? This study aims at addressing the issue by providing relevant research that could change from the conservative literature, which previously addressed service delivery from the point of South African citizens at the expense of immigrants.

It is of importance to address the issue since South African citizens have been able to express their feelings on what they perceive as poor service delivery through labour unions, strikes, protests including the peaceful, violent, legal and even illegal means, but the most unfortunate direction taken was the violent protest against African foreigners in South Africa in 2008, which was xenophobic (Dodson, 2010). The attack on African foreigners who experience even worse service delivery than their South African counterparts is a clear indication of the alienation of immigrants in South African socio-political system. It is also unfortunate that African foreigners have been alienated from the labour organizations in South Africa and do not have any chance of protesting against poor service delivery.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORITICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Theories are conceptual frameworks of analysis in social sciences. There are bodies of ideas, principles and doctrines that have been proved or are yet to be proved with evidence, but which form the basis of analyzing social problems. For the purpose of this study the chapter examines xenophobia in the South African socio-political system, theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study, and the ‘*Makwerekwere*’ theory service delivery in the Department of home affairs in South Africa.

3.2 THEORITICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF ‘MAKWEREKWERE’ IN SOUTH AFRICA

The preliminary study of immigration and xenophobia in South Africa in Chapter Two, the literature review, revealed that many have attempted to explain the occurrence and existence of xenophobia in South Africa from different perspectives, theses and theories (Matsinhe, 2011). For the purpose of better understanding the phenomenon, this chapter will briefly highlight some of the theories that have been put forward to explain xenophobia in South Africa.

The thesis of scapegoat was put forward to explain the directed attacks of xenophobia on African foreigners by the South African black indigenes, citing blame for the socio-political deficiencies of the country on fellow Africans from African countries who migrated from African states for either economic or political reasons. Such deficiencies in the socio-political system gave rise to African immigrants being blamed for the spread of HIV/AIDS, high crime levels, and unemployment. This has been compared to taking out frustrations of society on black immigrants in the country, mostly emanating from the frustrated poor and unemployed black South Africans (Morris, 2008; Matsinhe, 2011).

This is also similar to Stephan and Stephan’s integrated threat theory, as used by Laher, while writing on South African antagonism toward African foreigners in Johannesburg, in which he argued that the antagonism was a product of frustration from black South Africans about failures of the post-apartheid period in the political system (Laher, 2008).

Another theory put forward to explain xenophobia in South Africa was relative deprivation theory, which agreed with the theory of the scapegoat. The theory of relative deprivation postulated that South African citizens' failure to cope with the emerging failures and slowness in addressing the inadequacies and inequalities of apartheid past eventually led to dissatisfaction and frustration of poor South Africans, thereby producing deprived masses that turned against African foreigners. The theory posited that attacks on and hatred of African foreigners by poor and unemployed black South Africans were indeed xenophobic (Harris, 2002; Matsinhe, 2011).

Isolation theory asserts that seclusion, exclusion and isolation of South Africa during the apartheid era were responsible for the xenophobic behaviour of South Africans towards African immigrants. The theory advanced that the end of apartheid signalled an overwhelming and sudden opening of borders and an influx of immigrants from Africa and the wider world. The theory agreed that xenophobia came into the system because of the sudden but over-exposure of South Africans to strangers in the country, which to them was not the essence or reason for gaining their freedom. It is a new trend in the lives of the South African population, which is also not acceptable to black South Africans who still battle with poverty (Matsinhe, 2011).

The biocultural theory was also put forward to explain the antagonism of black South Africans against African foreigners. Promoters of this theory argue that the claims of black South Africans that physical biological and cultural differences are easily visible in the African foreigners make it easier for black South Africans to know others through their skin. This is an argument that claims those physical features, clothing style and inability of some to speak any of the South African local languages make them look different and thus set them up for targeting as scapegoats. Proponents of this theory locate xenophobia within these physical differences, albeit not based on realistic evidence (Isike and Isike, 2012; Matsinhe, 2011).

Apartheid and post-apartheid transnational period theory propounds that xenophobia could be located within the state apparatus, such as the South African Police service and Department of Home Affairs, and broader social institutions such as the media, who have given negative impressions about African immigrants. In this context, African foreigners have been labelled 'illegals, illegal aliens, illegal immigrants, criminals and in most cases drug traffickers', most often without evidence. This has led to victimization of African immigrants in the country at all levels (Harris, 2002; Matsinhe, 2011).

Nationalism theory situated xenophobia in post-apartheid South Africa because it argued that poverty can actually explain frustration, powerlessness and desperation of those responsible for it, but cannot explain the reason for them targeting African foreigners. The theory further posits that the only explanation is that the division of South Africa into rural and urban areas, rural for the poor black South Africans and urban for rich white minority during apartheid, gave way to South African blacks having the impression that change in the socio-political system meant that other African countries were poor and undeveloped, putting African foreigners in a position similar to that of black South Africans during apartheid, and South Africans in the position of whites. As argued above, other races of foreigners are not targeted for xenophobic acts (Neocosmos, 2008). This study agrees with Neocosmos that the theories discussed above which have been put forward to explain xenophobia in South Africa have not satisfactorily explained why African immigrants are targets of xenophobia in South Africa. 'Afrophobia' would provide a better framework for better understanding of the discrimination that exists against African immigrants in South Africa today.

The study will therefore turn to the '*Makwerekwere*' theory as provided by Matsinhe in 2011, while writing on xenophobia in South Africa. According to Matsinhe, Elias who used socio-emotional dynamics of group relations to analyze the hatred and antagonism that exists between two groups of people who resemble or look alike, there are two groups - the *established* and the *outsider*. The established often propagate the physical aspects of the outsiders as the basis of their inferiority to the established, making it inevitable for them to set them apart (Matsinhe, 2011). Under this circumstance, the established propagate positive attributes as their signs of superiority. The members of the established groups and those who aspire to make it to the group often take pride in being cleaner than the outsiders. The situation could create a socio-political condition that makes it inevitable for the outsider groups to be subjected to inhuman conditions, as stigmatized by the established groups. Elias therefore argued that with time the asymmetric power dynamics will give birth to the weaker groups' identification with the established groups. This is a situation that makes the weaker groups absolutely measure their self-worth and value with established groups' social standard. In line with the outsiders' thinking, they develop self-contempt, which shows self-destruction in terms of behaviour, including destruction of those who resemble them most (Matsinhe, 2011).

3.3 IDEOLOGY OF MAKWEREKWERE BY MATSINHE

Matsinhe, drawing from Elias's Dynamics of colonial relations, developed '*Makwerekwere*' theory to argue that what is called 'xenophobia' in South Africa is very much beyond that, and he rather called it 'Afrophobia', contending that the asymmetries produced by the painful socio-emotional situation of apartheid gave rise to a colonized self of black South Africans (Neocosmos, 2008; Matsinhe 2011). In his thesis, Matsinhe rightly compared the black colonized self of black South Africans to what Fanon wrote about his own people, the Antilleans, who did not see themselves as blacks but as whites after their colonial experience (Matsinhe, 2011).

Matsinhe explained that the apartheid experience of black South Africans who were formerly stigmatized by the white minority who saw and treated them as social unfit made it inevitable for the citizenship of South Africa to be synonymous with being white. He explained that the transition from apartheid to democracy created a similar situation in which black South Africans saw the opportunity to stigmatize foreign blacks (Matsinhe, 2011). The theory further stressed that the distorted consciousness of black South Africans by the white domination during apartheid created the very colonized self that make black South Africans look out for unnecessary fantasies that could set apart the African foreigners, creating a similar social gap that existed during apartheid days between white and black South Africans.

In his analysis, the oppressor's positions and privileges became the envy and aspiration of the oppressed. The black South Africans who were oppressed under apartheid have taken on the position of their oppressed, creating 'others' in the socio-politics. These 'others' are the black foreigners who migrated to South Africa from their troubled countries and situations (Matsinhe, 2011).

The theory of *Makwerekwere* by Matsinhe argued further that the fantasies created by indigenous South Africans to depict African foreigners as 'they' (illegals, foreign, criminals, drug traffickers) do not exist in any form. Thus, Isike and Isike (2012); and Matsinhe (2011) highlighted how indigenous black South Africans have used narcissism of minor differences to create a 'we and they' syndrome, with 'we' representing indigenous South Africans as against 'they', who are the African foreigners and seen as outsiders who look like 'us'. Instances abound where physical outlooks such as way of dressing, bodily physique, and inability to speak South African indigenous languages have been used to identify the African foreigners, subjecting them to different forms of humiliation such as heavy strip searches,

suspensions of various kinds and eventual arrest, detention, humiliation, torture and all forms of assault by the state apparatus, such as the police and immigration services (Isike & Isike, 2012; Matsinhe, 2011).

Matsinhe further contended that such outlooks have also been used by the public to select African foreigners for discrimination. Crime on African foreigners is not rare in the socio-political system of South Africa, because in the eyes of the locals, African foreigners are strangers who are jobseekers. South Africans also accuse African foreigners of spreading diseases in the country (Matsinhe 2011; Neocosmos 2008).

This theory of Makwerekwere by Matsinhe further highlighted that in South Africa are those foreigners whom South Africans labelled as jobseekers, job takers and even takers of their local women. This group comprises African immigrants, while the white immigrants are called and known as tourists or investors. The South African blacks have also accused African foreigners of smelling and stinking, because of their failures to use modern technologies such as body perfumes, and deodorants (Isike & Isike 2012; Matsinhe 2011).

3.4 MAKWEREKWERE AS A FACTOR/SYNDROME IN SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Historically, South Africa is a state that has a unique history in Africa, with the longest colonial (apartheid) experience. One would be inclined to assume that segregation has not been as successful in any other society, at least until 1994 when the apartheid regime finally gave way to a democratically elected dispensation (Harris, 2002; Krantz, 2008). It has also been noted that prior to 1948, when the National Party led government officially endorsed racial segregation in the body politics of South Africa, racism was rife, but it only became law in 1948 (Krantz, 2008). This created a socio-political situation in the body politics of victors and vanquished weak and strong, oppressed and oppressor, inferior and superior, advantaged and disadvantaged.

In the colonial days of South Africa, the whites remained in advantageous positions, subjugating other races in the country and thereby creating a social system that accommodated inhumanity in the form of apartheid, with state resources, including human and material, being used to perpetuate the segregation. During those days, the black South African natives, coloured and the Indians were the oppressed, while the whites were the oppressors (Krantz, 2008).

As a state that has failed to guarantee equality in its socio-political system, at least historically, the end of apartheid only opened a new chapter for a new form of discrimination in the country, this time the black race against its own. Black South Africans have, for psycho-social reasons, created a system that puts African foreigners in the position similar to that of the apartheid days (Harris, 2002; Neocosmos, 2008; Matsinhe, 2011).

The most problematic factor about the discrimination is the stand or position of the state in this supposed transformation. In the apartheid days it was the white minority at the helm of state affairs, using state resources including human and material to contain opposition against apartheid. Currently, however, the indigenous black majority has resorted to another method after apartheid to create another 'they', the oppressed. This time African foreigners are the oppressed, and the local black South Africans are the oppressors. Although the state did not support the xenophobic acts of local black South Africans, at least openly, officially or legally, the question is begged as to whether the state has used its resources well enough to prevent it. Instances abound, from the activities of the public officials to their public statements, and overall state policy with regards to state immigration and policies that guide immigration in South Africa (Harris, 2002; Morris, 2008; Neocosmos, 2008).

The treatment of African immigrants by the public, for instance the notorious xenophobic violence against African foreigners in May 2008, and the state's inability to bring it under control for more than two weeks, was an indictment on the part of South African state authorities. This brings into account President Mbeki's denial speeches in which he claimed that it was pure criminal activities by hoodlums (Neocosmos, 2008).

The situation looks better when the poor treatment of the African immigrants is put into consideration in the state security services. The police have targeted African foreigners using narcissism of minor differences to identify African foreigners for possible strip searches, embarrassment and eventual unlawful arrest, with accompanied assault and detentions (Isike and Isike, 2012). Neocosmos claimed that African foreigners have been maltreated in the Lindela detention camp, detained unlawfully and without being deported to their home countries. Some are also deported to their home countries without following the due process. It is the assumption of the police, immigration, and Home Affairs Department that African immigrants are criminals and drug dealers (Neocosmos, 2008).

In the process of the field work, the researcher discovered that many African immigrants are uncomfortable discussing or airing their views on matters concerning immigration and the

Department of Home Affairs, partly because they are angry with the treatment and harassment they have received from officials in the past. Some are also afraid of commenting because they fear being deported. Respondent no 2 from Mozambique, on answering whether he has visited the Department of Home Affairs, said “no” because he feared deportation. This he said he had heard from others who had visited. Continuing, the same respondent admitted having to pay an imposter who helped him secure the necessary permit to reside in South Africa.

Respondent no 3, also from Mozambique, claimed that the Department of Home Affairs officials maltreat African immigrants who should have been treated like clients but agreed that such an attitude was simply a manifestation of xenophobia, which is what Home Affairs officials had in mind when dealing with African immigrants. The same respondent also felt that the officials were well trained and aware of their works and rules, but refused to help foreigners unless they insisted on their rights. Respondent no 16, also from Mozambique, admitted that the officials of the Department were not fair to African foreigners on his visit to the Home Affairs. Respondent no 27, from Zimbabwe, complained of the unstable service from the Department, with too much delay in service for African foreigners. Respondent no 34, from Zimbabwe, called the Department’s service to African foreigners a skeleton type. Respondent no 38, from Zimbabwe, called for improved service of the department with regard to neglected African immigrants.

It is in the light of the socio-political conditions described above that the study seeks to approve or disapprove the research proposition of this study. The research proposition is: African immigrants fear that the negative perceptions of African immigrants held by the Department of Home Affairs’ Officials affect the quality of service they receive the Department. In order to clarify the proposition, the study will utilise the theory of *Makwerekwere*, as discussed above, to establish or disapprove the research proposition.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter Four of this study will focus on the research design and method used to conduct the research. The chapter will further provide an overview of qualitative and quantitative methods which Chapter One highlighted were the methods combined in the conduct of this research. The chapter will also discuss research aims, significance of the study, research proposition, research questions, research objectives, sample technique, target population/sample size, procedure of data collection, questionnaire distribution, pilot study, validity of data, measures and data analysis/interpretations, ethics of the research process and finally limitations of the study.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Selecting a research design involves the process of deciding on the most suitable approach to use in conducting a research or study. The research design is non-experimental because none of the variables were conditioned in the course of the study for any purpose (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009:189). Therefore, none of the variables studied were manipulated to show any influence over one another. This research was also carried out over a particular period of time. Laher (2008) called such research a *cross-sectional study*. The period which the research was conducted ran from 1st November, 2010, when the researcher started drawing up the proposal for the study, through 2011 to February, 2012, a total of 16 months.

4.3 METHOD OF RESEARCH

Research methodology is the system of collecting data and the subsequent processing of the data collected. The view is that research design is the plan or protocol for a particular study. This study relied on both primary and secondary sources of data to carry out a systematic study in order to develop a theoretical framework suitable for studying perceptions of African immigrants in South Africa of service delivery with regard to the Department of Home Affairs.

The study was a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods of research. Mouton (1996) has acknowledged that a researcher can combine the various approaches of social research to conduct a study and still arrive at an acceptable scientific result. Theories of social sciences generally guide the choice of methods to be used in the conduct of a social research. There are two major distinct approaches used in the gathering of data in any research project, namely the qualitative and the quantitative methods, both of which adopted for the purpose of this study.

4.4 QUALITATIVE APPROACH

The qualitative approach is grounded in the interpretive social science theories. The qualitative method of research is system of reporting observations without the use of numbers (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009:147-150), and takes the form of observing the participants carefully with possible interaction with them, while the researcher is taking notes or writing up observations. Gravetter and Forzano (2009:147-150) agree that observation and notes taken during careful observations of participants are usually narrated and summarized, mostly through the descriptive approach of interpretation. Therefore, a qualitative method of research is often common with descriptive studies.

4.5 QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

A quantitative methodology takes data from the participants with the aim of transforming them into statistical or mathematical representations. The information collected from participants is often and particularly known as 'primary data'. The entire research process is objectively constructed and the findings are usually representative of the population being studied in form of selection of sample which will represent the larger population. The main strengths and advantages of the quantitative approach of research are found within the orbit of precisions to manipulations and eventual possibilities of control over variable/variables (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009: 147). The method therefore provides answers which have much more accuracy than mere opinions and narrations. Conclusively, quantitative methods of research normally measure characteristics of individual participants with the aim and objective of obtaining scores and numbers, which are ultimately converted to statistics for the purpose of interpretations/analysis of such data (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009:147).

4.6 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The study critically examined the various services to African immigrants by the Department of Home Affairs, such as performance of marriages, issuance of resident permits, study permits, work permits, permanent residence, asylum, citizenship, general documentation and legalization of African immigrants in South Africa.

Another aim was to bridge the gap in the literature, as the literature review revealed a lack of research in the area of service delivery to immigrants in South Africa, particularly in the Department of Home Affairs, the services of which are vital to immigrants' documentation.

4.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It is expected that the authorities of South Africa, the South African Department of Home Affairs in particular, Home governments of African immigrants, and role players in international public Administration in Africa will use the findings of the study in future policymaking and implementation, especially with regard to immigration and migration in Africa.

- The study analyzed the state (weaknesses and strengths) of service delivery in South Africa's Department of Home Affairs particularly to African immigrants in South Africa.
- The study made recommendations on service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs, mostly to the immigrants in South Africa for future use.
- The findings of the study will help in remoulding and remodelling the relations of African states and South Africa both in bi-lateral and multi-lateral relations frameworks in future.

4.8 RESEARCH PROPOSITION

- African immigrants fear that the negative perceptions of African immigrants held by the Department of Home Affairs' Officials affect the quality of service they receive in South Africa

4.9 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions are as follows

- What are the views of African immigrants on service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs?
- What suggestions can African immigrants offer to facilitate better service delivery by the Department of Home Affairs?

4.10 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The described the views of African immigrants on service delivery they receive from the Department of Home Affairs of South Africa. The study analyzed and recommended best practice for better service delivery by the Department of Home Affairs of South Africa.

4.11 SAMPLE TECHNIQUES

Sampling is the process of identifying, selecting and isolating cases of smaller groups from broader group (population) that will be observed or studied in a research process. Two types of sampling techniques was implored; Purposive sampling and random sampling. Purposive or judgmental sampling technique is the type of non-probability sampling that allows for units to be studied by the researcher to be selected on the ground of researchers judgment mostly on the ground of which ones that will be the most representative or useful for the purpose of the research (Babbie 2007). Such procedure allowed existing knowledge of the researcher to influence the areas where African immigrants in the areas sampled were located.

The clear reason for the choice of non-probability sampling is because the South African statistics record of 2001 census did not have reliable documentation of African foreigners who reside in the various areas of Pretoria where samples will be collected for the study. The Department of Home Affairs of South Africa could not provide such document after serious searches. Under circumstance where there is lack of exact known populations, Baker (1999) advised that non-probability method could be used to run such a study. Purposive or judgmental sampling technique therefore became a viable choice because the researcher's good knowledge of African immigrants in South Africa played major role in identifying areas where nationalities to be studied could be located. Ngwenya's (2010) study on expatriate communities in Africa also failed to provide enough ground on the exact population of

African migrants of the six nationalities to be sampled for the purpose of this research. Thus the study depended on distribution of questionnaire in malls, work places, Department of Home Affairs' offices and Homes of African immigrants of the nationalities sampled. It is called random sampling.

The questionnaire was distributed to African immigrants in the areas. Pre-knowledge of the researcher on African immigrants shows that most of them reside in cities or Sub-Urban areas in South Africa since they do avoid townships out of fear of safety and employment reasons, however those who live in townships and informal settlements will also be surveyed.

4.12 TARGET POPULATION/SAMPLE SIZE

The target population was African foreigners resident in South Africa, with a clear choice of two countries in SADC (Zimbabwe and Mozambique). In Western Africa, two countries sampled were Nigeria and Ghana while Ethiopia and Uganda were the clear choices in the Eastern part of Africa. Out of the 300 questionnaires distributed, 50 respondents were chosen from each nationality sampled. Each of the three regions chosen, Southern, Western and Eastern Africa thus received 100 questionnaires each.

In the distribution of the questionnaires in each area and nationalities, the females could not receive equal representation with male in the distribution of the questionnaires, which the proposal indicated would ensure gender balance. The distributions of the questionnaires were randomly distributed among the target population, regardless of sex, because the gender equality aimed at could not work out practically. With regards to the residential areas, in the practical sense, the distribution could not achieve equality amongst the respondents' areas since those met in particular areas could have been there on visits. For example, one who received the questionnaire in Pretoria North could have visited the area from Pretoria West or East.

4.13 PROCEDURE OF DATA COLLECTION

Research methodology is the system of collecting data and the subsequent processing of the data collected. Research design is the plan or protocol for a particular study. This study relied on both primary and secondary sources of data to carry out a systematic study of perceptions of African immigrants in South Africa on service delivery with regard to the South African

Department of Home Affairs. The primary data was collected through distribution of questionnaires to African immigrants while the secondary data was collected through official documents of government of African states and South Africa, including their respective constitutions and possible bilateral agreements signed between the states. Other sources of secondary data included reports, prints, electronic sources and published articles, mostly journals and books. The study is a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods of research.

4.14 QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION

There has not been enough work on perceptions of African immigrants in South Africa on service delivery with regard to the Department of Home Affairs of South Africa. However, relevant works were reviewed on immigration, migration and service delivery in South African context.

Questionnaires were distributed to African immigrants in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality of South Africa. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality of South Africa in Pretoria Central, Pretoria East, and Pretoria North. Those who responded represented the sample size since it was not possible to distribute the survey questionnaires to all African immigrants in the areas.

Six research assistants were employed to assist in the distribution of the questionnaires in all the areas sampled. One research assistant was employed from each of the six nationalities sampled: Nigerian, Ghanaian, Ethiopian, Ugandan Zimbabwean and Mozambican. The research assistants were trained on how to assist in the distribution of the questions based on the approach to be used in relating with the respondents and how to obtain the information required while following acceptable research ethics.

The research assistants of each of the countries targeted focused on assisting the researcher in collecting information from his own nationalities in the three areas sampled; Pretoria Central/West, Pretoria East, and Pretoria North. Various Departments of Home Affairs were targeted as catchment areas for most foreign nationals who were found in the area due to their regular visits with regard to obtaining or extending their permits.

Malls and business places were also targeted. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed but 180 returned, of which 168 were considered usable as 12 were invalid and data contained could not be captured or analyzed. On distribution of questionnaires, some of the respondents

filled in the questionnaires immediately, while some asked the research assistants or the researcher to keep the questionnaires with them and return to pick them up. Consequently, many could not be returned.

One striking factor about the respondents was that most did not want to comment about the Department of Home Affairs, either out of fear or concern that the numerous pieces of research conducted have not changed the service delivery they received from the Department. Those from West Africa (Ghana and Nigeria) were the most frightened of providing information since they did not want to have anything to do with the Department. However, obtaining information from them was made easier because most could communicate in English and as such easily relate with the researcher and research assistants. Out of 50 questionnaires distributed to Nigerians, all were returned as usable, while out the 50 questionnaire distributed to Ghanaians, only 28 were useable.

Ugandans were more willing to fill in the questionnaires, but there was a major problem of locating them and most complained that they could not answer questions in English because they had no former education. Consequently, 28 were returned as useable out of the 50 distributed. In the case of Ethiopians, they were also willing to fill in the questionnaires but consistently complained that their problem lay with timing, since they could not afford to miss attending to their customers during their time of business, and the only opportunity to meet them completely relied on meeting them in their retail shops on the streets. However, a total of 21 useable questionnaires were returned out of the 50 distributed.

The distribution of the questionnaires to Zimbabweans was problematic because the research assistant employed for the purpose of assisting in the location and subsequent distribution 'disappeared' with over 20 questionnaires. However, a total of 20 useable were returned out of the 30 that were effectively distributed directly by the researcher. The Zimbabweans were not very keen on answering questions about the Home Affairs Department, feeling it had failed and humiliated them in the wake of the Zimbabwean crisis, which they believed made them come to South Africa looking for opportunities.

Among all countries studied, Mozambique was the most problematic for several reasons: their claims that they had no permits as respondents were limited to those who had a permit, and they generally had poor understanding of English, asking for the questionnaires in Portuguese. However, 20 useable returns were made for the data capturing and subsequent analysis.

4.15 PILOT STUDY

The piloting of the questionnaire was embarked upon to make sure that the researcher redefine with clarity and put out on trial the variables, measurement processes, and other research plans, in order to reduce the margin of error. No matter how carefully questionnaires are designed there is always the possibility of error, so a pre-test of the questionnaire was conducted in full and in part, to reduce the margin of error. It has been observed that a common research error emanates from failure by researchers to carry out a pilot study, thereby rushing into the main study without being sure that the procedures are suitable for the research. This study could not allow such errors to creep in; therefore the pilot study was taken seriously.

For the purpose of this study and for the reason of excellence, the questionnaire was firstly given to a university professor and a doctorate degree holder in political science, both highly qualified researchers, for review and corrections. The questionnaire was approved by both. After approval by both academics and renowned researchers, 30 questionnaires were used to run the pre-test in the three areas of Pretoria East, Pretoria Central/West and Pretoria North all in Tshwane Metropolitan City. The 30 questionnaires represented 10% of the targeted respondents selected for piloting. The pre-test showed outright responsiveness towards the achievement of the objectives, aims and significance of the study. This pilot study was conducted between 1st of October and 14th of the same month in 2011.

4.16 DATA ANALYSIS/INTERPRETATIONS

Most analysis of quantitative research of today is handled by highly sophisticated computer programs like Statistical Programs for the Social Science (SPSS), but for this purpose there must be a numerical representation in order to allow computers to manipulate the data that is being observed, as Babbie (2007) noted. For the purpose of this research, the qualitative and quantitative method of research was explored in an attempt to analyze both the qualitative and the quantitative data collected.

The analysis was basically univariate, which Babbie (2007) agreed is the analysis of a single variable mainly for the purpose of description. The descriptive statistics were used to present the characteristics of the variables. Tables and charts were also used for interpretation and

analysis of data. The unit of analysis was the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in South Africa whereas the survey questionnaires targeted African immigrants resident in the area. It therefore means that inferential statements were often used to link the sample population and larger population of African immigrants in South Africa, while describing any of the variables.

4.17 ETHICS OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

The term ethics means moral principles which control or influence conduct considered correct, mostly those of a given group (*Oxford English Dictionary*, 2003: 395). To a larger extent, the principles of conduct are important to researchers as they assist on the issue of the content of researchers with regards to ethical behaviour in a particular profession. Nachmias and Nachmias (1996:77-76) observed that participants' rights and the obligations of the researcher are essential to successful research, but that ethical issues are often related to the type of research being conducted. During the data collection of the study, verbal consent was required and obtained from the participants.

The researcher and assistants briefed the participants on the type of information they wanted from them, and the definite reason why the information was being obtained, and for what purpose it would be used. The explanations were clearly made by the researcher and sometimes assistants to the participants before the respondents could start answering the questionnaires. Therefore, participants' consent was voluntarily obtained. For the purpose of this research some of the ethical guidelines that were followed included informed consent, privacy, confidentiality and professional ethics.

4.17.1 Informed Consent

Obtaining informed consent means that respondents have the privilege of getting the full explanations on the purpose of the research, that obtaining data from the respondents should be guided by mutual understanding. In the time of obtaining the information for the purpose of this research the researcher and research assistants took their time to explain the essence of the research to respondents and clearly explained this to them.

4.17.2 Voluntary Participation

The respondents had the choice of responding to the questionnaires or turning them down. Anybody who was approached to obtain information who objected was politely allowed to do so. The respondents were fairly treated and all who filled in the questionnaires did so of their own accord. Gravettor and Fornoza (2009:108-109) have agreed that voluntary participation means that the researcher explained to respondents that refusing to fill in the questionnaires would not attract any form of punishment or sanction. In the course of collecting data for this research every respondent approached by the researcher or research assistants was told clearly that participating was optional and as such filling in the questionnaires or not could not attract any sort of fine, or penalty of any type.

4.17.3 Privacy

Privacy of the respondents was highly respected during the sample collection process of this study. The researcher and research assistants asked for the permission of the respondents beforehand. The researcher and research assistants avoided intrusions into the private property of the respondents.

4.17.4 Confidentiality

Gravettor and Fornoza (2009:108-109) write that confidentiality means that those things which are personal shall remain so. This is the clear assurance that the information being received from the respondents would not be used for any purpose other than the one for which it was obtained. During the collection of data for this research, the researcher and research assistants consistently assured the respondents of the confidentiality of any information obtained from them. This confidentiality means that anonymity is assured. No personal information of the respondent shall be disclosed.

4.17.5 Professional Ethics and Ethic Committees

Gravettor and Fornoza (2009:108-120) regard the roles of professional ethics as allowing the rules and regulations of a profession to guide the conduct of the researchers. According to them, universities and research institutes have established codes of conducts that researchers should follow in order to ensure professionalism. For the purpose of standards in this research, the study was conducted following all the rules and regulations guiding research

studies in University of Zululand in South Africa. The general rules guiding studies in social sciences were thoroughly observed during the collection of data from respondents and throughout the research process.

4.18 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

One of the major limitations of the study was the limited literature on service delivery of the Department of Home Affairs most especially to African immigrants in South Africa.

- The empirical aspect of the study distributed only 300 questionnaires to African immigrants in the City of Tshwane of South Africa, but the 168 questionnaires that returned do not fully represent the views of all African immigrants in South Africa especially with regard to other Provinces and areas that questionnaires were not distributed.
- Another limitation of the study was that the data collected from the 168 African immigrants who received the questionnaires in the City of Tshwane in South Africa did not represent the perceptions of all the African nationalities resident in South Africa as some nationalities were missed since only six countries have been chosen for empirical evidence of the study.
- Communication was a problem because the questionnaires were presented only in the English language while many African immigrants preferred French, Portuguese and their African home language.
- Fear on the part of respondents that the information collected may be used for official purposes or any other purposes other than research. The respondents did not trust the researcher or research assistants.

4.19 CONCLUSION

This chapter has successfully been used to explain the method used for the conduct of this research. The chapter did show clearly that the study was conducted using the quantitative and qualitative methods of research. This chapter therefore paves way for the next chapter and analysis of the data collected in the field.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSES AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The research methodology provided in Chapter Four outlined the basis on which the data collection was made. This chapter therefore presents data in a manner suitable to the questionnaires of the research as designed by the researcher for analysis. It is also worth noting that the data collected has already been reduced to a format attached to the study as appendices, but specially linked to the data analyzed and interpreted in this chapter.

Data was analyzed using a descriptive method, as noted in Chapters One and Three. The required results were presented in tables and charts, as percentage. The chapter focuses on the analysis and interpretation of data collected from the immigrants of six nationalities of Africa which, namely Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Ethiopia, Uganda, Ghana and Nigeria, residing in the City of Tshwane in South Africa where the samples were collected. The essence of data analysis and interpretation is to bring the data collected to an understandable state, to make it possible for the relationships between variables of the research problems to be presented logically with intention of providing viable answers to the research proposition and research questions with possible conclusions for the research.

5.2 PERSONAL BIODATA

The personal biodata discussed, analyzed and interpreted all the questions posed to the respondents in the questionnaires that have to do with personal issues such as age, gender, education, residential area, employment history, and nationality. Personal biodata was followed by the perceptions of African foreigners on the service delivery of the South African Department of Home Affairs to African immigrants resident in the country.

5.2.1 Age

For the purpose of this study and convenience of data collection and analysis, age as a variable was classified into six categories, as shown in the Table 5.1 (below) and in the subsequent Figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3.

Table 5. 1 : Age brackets of the participants

Country	18-25YRS	26-35YRS	36-55YRS	56-70YRS	71 and AB	Total	%
Mozambique	4	11	4	0	1	20	11.9
Zimbabwe	3	10	5	1	2	21	12.5
Ethiopia	5	15	0	1	0	21	12.5
Uganda	3	19	6	0	0	28	16.6
Ghana	4	20	4	0	0	28	16.6
Nigeria	4	27	15	3	1	50	29.7
Total	23	102	34	5	4	168	
%	13.6	60	20	2.9	2.3		

The data collection showed that a total of 168 respondents were collected, of which 11.9% were Mozambicans who reside in Tshwane, and 12.5% were Zimbabwean nationals residing in the same area. 12.5% of the respondents claimed to have come from Ethiopia, but another 16.6% were citizens of Uganda, also African immigrants in South Africa. 16.6% of the sample collected came from the state of Ghana. Nigeria had the largest representation with 29.7% of the total respondents.

The sample size had 13.6% of those under the age of 18-25 years and the respondents under the age 26-35 years had 60%, which is the largest represented in the sample. Respondents under the age of 36-55 years had a representation of 20%, which is the second largest in the age bracket. The Sample population under the age of 56-70 years had a representation of 2.9%, while the least represented were those above the age of 71 years (2.3%). Table 5.1 (above) and Figure 5.1 (below) clearly illustrate the above analysis. It therefore follows that the result of the study will be biased towards people within the age bracket of 26-35 years of age, as the most represented in the study.

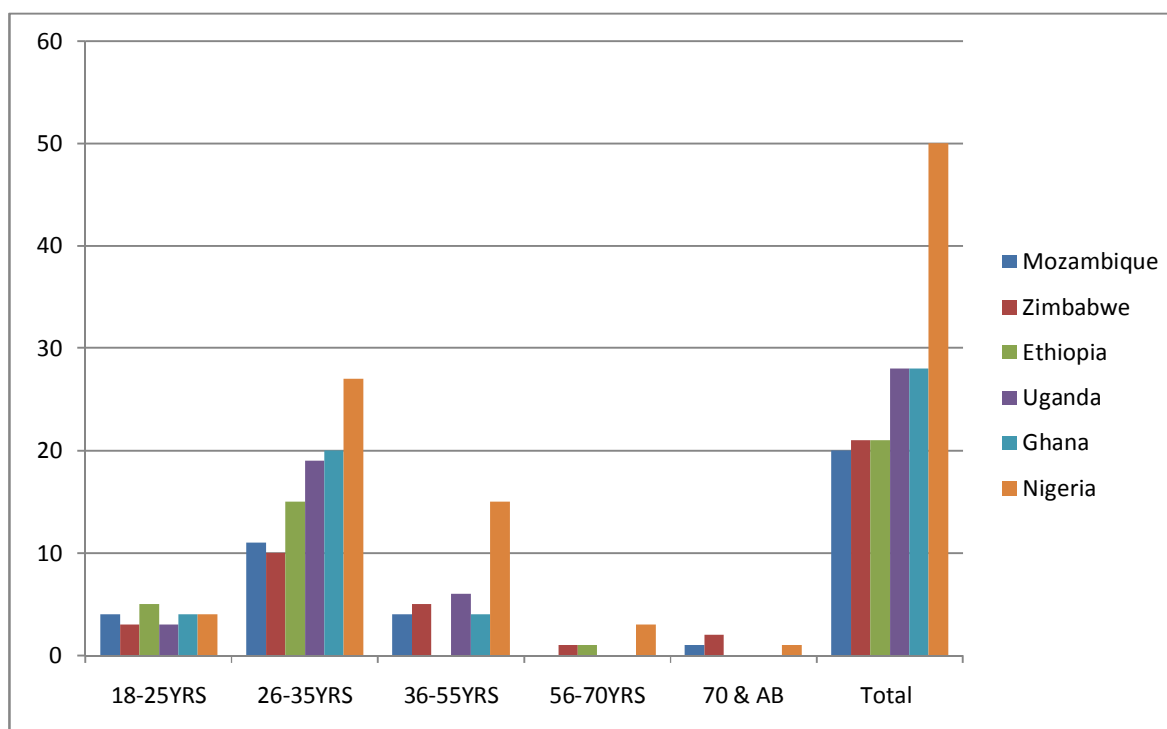


Figure 5.1: Age brackets of the participants

The age bracket representation from the Figure 5.1 (above) and the Table 5.1 (above) indicates that the respondents who are immigrants from Mozambique have 2.4% within the age of 18-25, while those within the age of 25-35 were 6.5%. Those from the same country who are within the age of 36-55 made up 2.3% of the sample population, as against 0% of people under the age of 55-70, while those above 71 years were just 0.5%.

In the case of Zimbabwe, 1.8% were between 18-25 years of age, while those from the same country under the age of 26-35 years were 5.9%, The sample from the age of 36-55 adds up to 2.9%, against those who claimed to be of the age bracket of 55-70 years with a total of 0.6%. Those from Zimbabwe who were above 71 years of age added up to 1.2%.

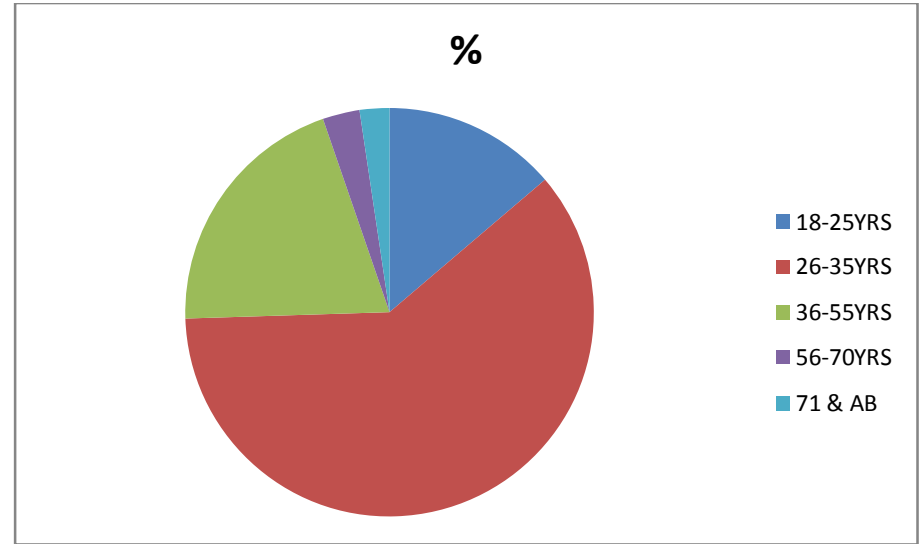
With regards to Ethiopia, the sample populations who were within the age bracket of 18-25 are 5.9% and those between the ages of 26-35 are 9%. Those within the age of 36-55 years recorded 0%. The samples collected within the age range of 55-70 years were only 0.6%, while above 71 years showed a zero percentage.

The sample populations who were Ugandans within the age range of 18-25 were 1.8%. Those with the largest representation were within the age of 26-35 and recorded 11.3% as against 36-55 who are of 3.6%. Those above 55% recorded 0%.

Those from Ghana who were within the age range of 18-25 years were 2.4%, while those within the age range of 26-35 were 12% of those who responded. Those within the age of 36-55 were 2.4%, while those above 55 years had 0% percentage representation, as no one claimed to be within that age bracket.

The samples collected who were within the age of 18-25 were 2.4% while the sample population between the ages of 26-35 years had the most representation, with 16%. 9% represented the people within the age range of 36-55 years. Those Nigerians who responded who claimed to be under the age of 56 and 70 were 1.8% as against those who claimed to be above the age of 71 who were 0.5%.

Figure 5.2 shows the age distributions that responded in percentages while Figure 5.3 illustrates each country’s respondents in percentages.



18-25YRS-----13.6%

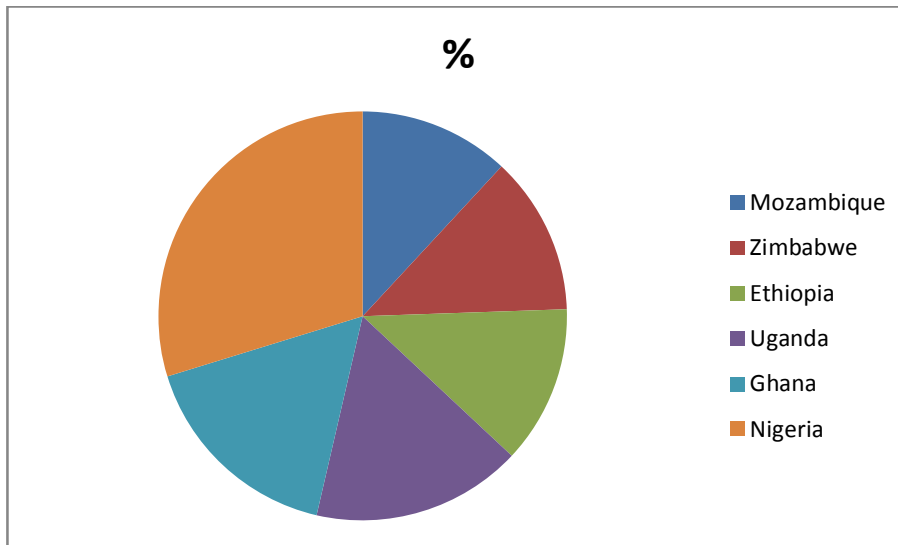
26-35YRS-----60%

36-55YRS-----20%

56-70YRS-----2.9%

71 and AB-----2.3%

Figure 5.2: age distributions



Mozambique-----11.9%

Zimbabwe-----12.5%

Ethiopia-----12.5%

Uganda-----16.6%

Ghana-----16.6%

Nigeria-----29.7%

Figure 5.3: Age distributions by nationality

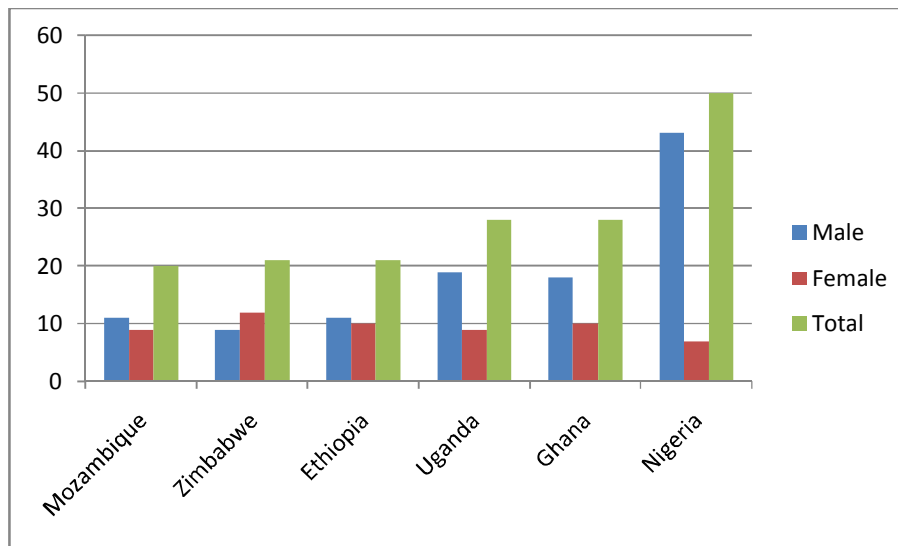
5.2.2 Gender

In the conduct of this research, gender was classified into the categories of male and female respondents, but clearly could not maintain the outline of the proposal to collect 50% male respondents and 50% female respondents. From Table 5.2 (below) there is a clear indication that the results were biased towards males, because of the greater representation of 66% against 33.9% females.

Table 5.2: Gender and nationality

Country	Male	Female	Total	%
Mozambique	11	9	20	11.9
Zimbabwe	9	12	21	12.5
Ethiopia	11	10	21	12.5
Uganda	19	9	28	16.7
Ghana	18	10	28	16.7
Nigeria	43	7	50	30
Total	111	57	168	
%	66	33.9		

The total number of African immigrants who responded were 168 out of which 66% were male and 33.9% female. The data collection showed that a total of 168 respondents were collected, of whom 11.9% were Mozambicans residing in Tshwane and 12.5% Zimbabwean residing in the same area. 12.5% of the respondents claimed to have come from Ethiopia but another 16.6% were citizens of Uganda. 16.6% of the sample from the state of Ghana in West Africa. Nigeria had the largest representation with 29.7%. Figure 5.4 (below) shows the gender breakdown of respondents.

**Figure 5.4:** Gender breakdown by nationality

The results show that males were more represented than women, however, out of the 11.9% Mozambicans who responded 6.5% were male while 5.4% were female, of the total respondents who answered this question.

In the case of Zimbabwe, 5.4% were male while 7.1% were female, which indicates that Zimbabwe has a different trend in the male to female representation compared to other countries sampled, and in relation to the total respondents who answered the question on gender.

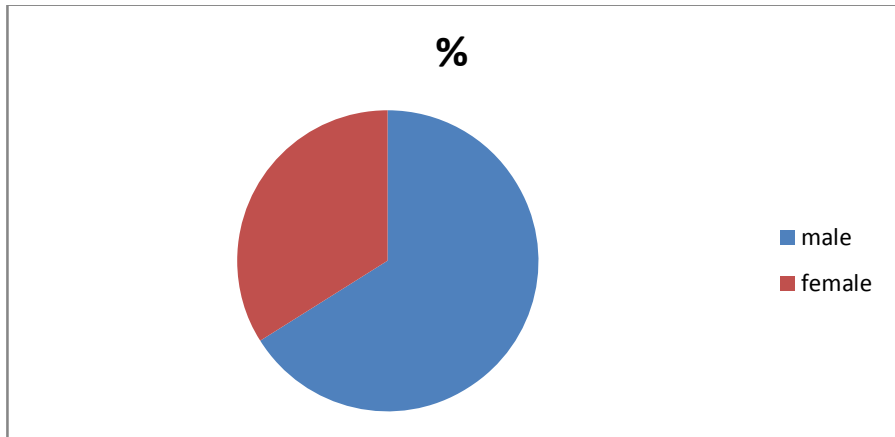
The respondents from Ethiopia had 6.5% male respondents while those who claimed to be female were 6%, in view of the total sample populations of all the nationalities.

Immigrants from Uganda who responded to the question were 19, representing 11.3% male as against 9 respondents representing 5% female when tied to the overall respondents to the question.

The samples collected from the Ghanaian immigrants resident in Tshwane showed that 11% were female, while 6% were male, when compared to the total respondents who answered this question.

Nigeria, the most represented of all countries sampled, had 26% as male and 4% as female out of the total sample populations who responded to the question.

Table 5.2 (above), Figure 5.4 (above) and Figure 5.5 (below) illustrate the gender distribution of the respondents in percentages.



Male-----66%

Female-----33.9%

Figure 5.5: Gender distribution in percentages

5.2.3 Resident Area of Respondents in Tshwane

In the case of the areas where respondents reside in the City of Tshwane, this was classified into three major areas, as follows: Tshwane East, Tshwane Central/West and Tshwane North. Table 5.3 (below) demonstrates this trend.

Table 5.3: Residential areas in Tshwane

COUNTRY	T. East	T. C and W	T. North	Total	%
Mozambique	6	8	6	20	11.9
Zimbabwe	0	21	0	21	12.5
Ethiopia	8	10	3	21	12.5
Uganda	6	19	3	28	16.7
Ghana	2	21	5	28	16.7
Nigeria	9	33	8	50	30
Total	31	112	25	168	
%	18.5	66.7	15		

The above table shows that 18.5% of the respondents collected claimed to reside in Tshwane East, while 66.7% claimed that they resided in the Central/West area, against the 15% who live in the Northern part of the City. Table 5.3 (above) and Figure 5.6 (below) illustrate the population distribution of the respondents within Tshwane Municipality.

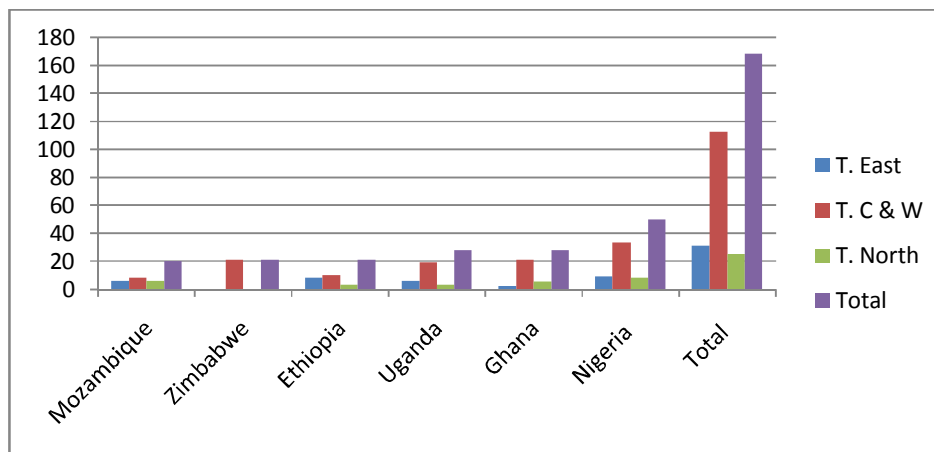


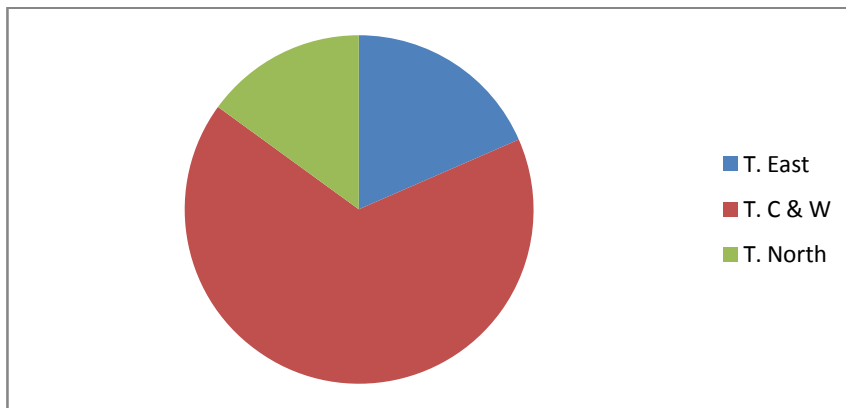
Figure 5.6: Population distribution within Tshwane Municipality

Among the 11.9% Mozambicans who responded were 3.6% who claimed that they lived in Tshwane East. Another 4.8% from Mozambique claimed they resided in the Central and West of the City, while 3.6% claimed to be residents of Northern part of the City. Those who claimed to be Zimbabwean immigrants that were sampled showed zero percent residing in the East of the City, as 12.5% claimed they lived in the Central/West and no one claimed to reside in the Northern part of the City.

The sampled population from Ethiopia who claimed that they were legal residents of Tshwane East were 4.8%, while 6% responded in agreement to residing in the Central and West of the City. The sampled populations who come from Ethiopia who live in the Northern part of the City were 1.8%. Respondents who come from Uganda residing in the Tshwane East were 4%. The larger population sampled who come from the same country, Ethiopia, who reside in the Central and West totalled 11.3%, as against the residents who claimed to live in the North, at 1.8%.

Ghanaian immigrants sampled who claimed to reside in the Eastern part of the City were 1.2%, but those from Ghana who live in the Central and West were 12.5%, while only 3% claimed to have their residences in the Northern part of the City.

Nigeria, which has the largest respondents, had 5% claiming to live in Tshwane East, as against 23% residing in Tshwane Central and West and another 5% in the Northern part of the City. Figure 5.7 (below) shows the population distribution of the respondents in percentages according to resident areas.



T. East-----18.5%

T.C and W-----66.7%

T. North-----15%

Figure 5.7: Population distribution according to resident areas

5.2.4 Level of Education

For the purpose of this study, data collection and analysis of education was classified into primary, secondary and tertiary education or qualification. Table 5.4 (below) illustrates this trend.

Table 5.4: Level of education

COUNTRY	PRIMARY	SECONDARY	TERTIARY	Total	%
Mozambique	3	14	3	20	11.9
Zimbabwe	5	8	8	21	12.5
Ethiopia	0	12	9	21	12.5
Uganda	1	10	17	28	16.7
Ghana	4	15	9	28	16.7
Nigeria	1	18	31	50	30
Total	14	77	77	168	
%	8.4	46	46		

The data collection showed that data from a total of 168 respondents were collected; showing 11.9% to be Mozambicans who resided in Tshwane, while 12.5% were Zimbabweans residing in the same area. 12.5% of the respondents claimed to have come from Ethiopia but another 16.6% are citizens of Uganda who are also African immigrants in South Africa. 16.6% of the sample comes from the state of Ghana located in West Africa. Nigeria has the largest representation with 30%.

A subtotal of 8.4% claimed to have primary education, while 46% agreed to have acquired secondary education, with another 46% claiming to have acquired tertiary education either in their home countries before relocating to South Africa or in South Africa.

Respondents who come from Mozambique who have only primary education were 1.8%, which is much lower than the 8.3% who claimed to have secondary education. Another 1.8% claimed they had tertiary education.

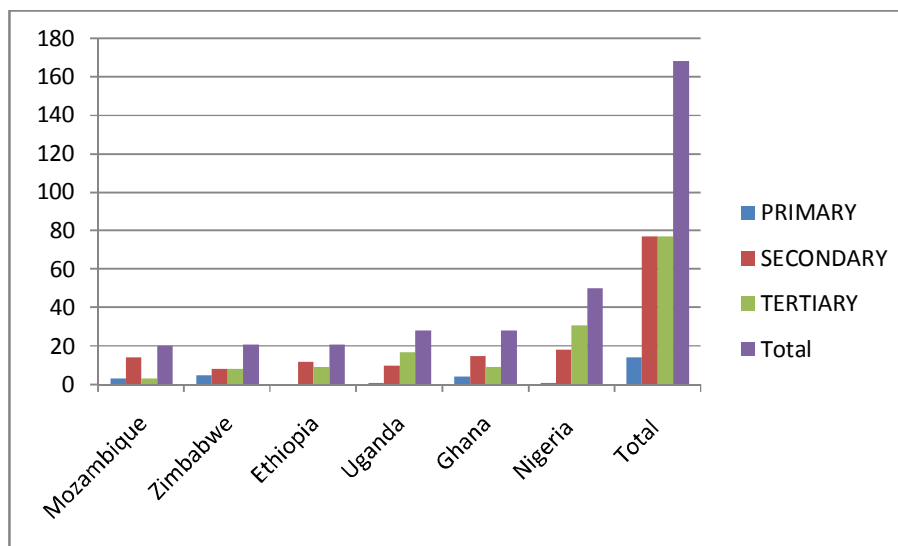


Figure 5.8: Levels of education

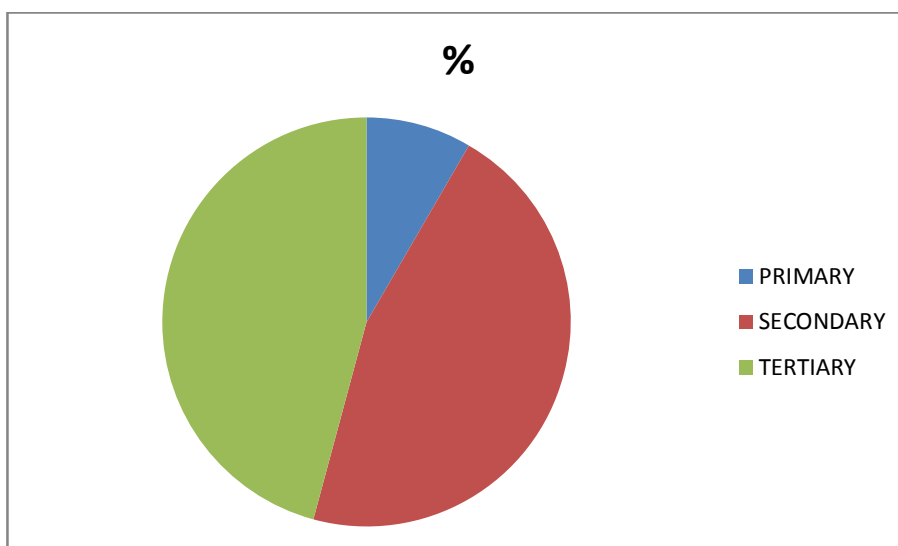
Of those who had relocated to South Africa from Zimbabwe, 3% claimed to have only primary education, while 4.8% claimed to have secondary education, and another 4.8% tertiary education qualification.

In the case of respondents from Ethiopia, no one claimed primary education but 7.1% agreed to having had secondary education, which otherwise is quite higher than those who claimed they had tertiary education (5.3%).

Those from Uganda who were sampled had 0.6% claims to primary education, as against 6% claims of secondary education, while a greater number, 10.1%, claimed to have had a tertiary education.

1.8% of the immigrants who responded and who claimed came from Ghana who claimed they have primary education were 2.4% s against 9% who had a secondary education qualification, which is higher than the 5.4% who claimed to have a tertiary education qualification.

Nigeria had the most respondents, with 0.6% agreeing to having received a primary education and 10.8% claiming a secondary education, while a larger 18.5% claimed tertiary education. Table 5.4 (above), Figures 5.8 and 5.9 (below) illustrate the educational qualification of immigrants who responded.



Primary education-----8.4%

Secondary education-----46%

Tertiary education-----46%

Figure 5.9: Education levels

5.2.5 Number of Years in South Africa

Respondents were asked to classify how long they have been living in South Africa, based on four categories as Table 5.5 (below) illustrates.

Table 5.5: Years spent in South Africa

COUNTRY	0 – 12 Months	1 – 5 Years	6 – 10 Years	Over 10 Years	Total	%
Mozambique	1	12	5	2	20	11.9
Zimbabwe	3	12	5	1	21	12.5
Ethiopia	7	11	2	1	21	12.5
Uganda	3	15	7	3	28	16.7
Ghana	8	15	5	0	28	16.7
Nigeria	6	32	8	4	50	30
Total	28	97	32	21	168	
%	16.7	58	19	12.5		

The data collection showed that a total of 168 respondents were collected, of which 11.9% were Mozambicans who resided in Tshwane and 12.5% were Zimbabweans residing in the same area. 12.5% of the respondents claimed to have come from Ethiopia but another 16.6% were citizens of Uganda,. 16.6% of the sample from the state of Ghana in West Africa. Nigeria had the largest representation with 30%.

Table 5.5 (above) and Figure 5.10 (below) illustrate the distribution of number of years the immigrants who responded claimed to have lived in South Africa.

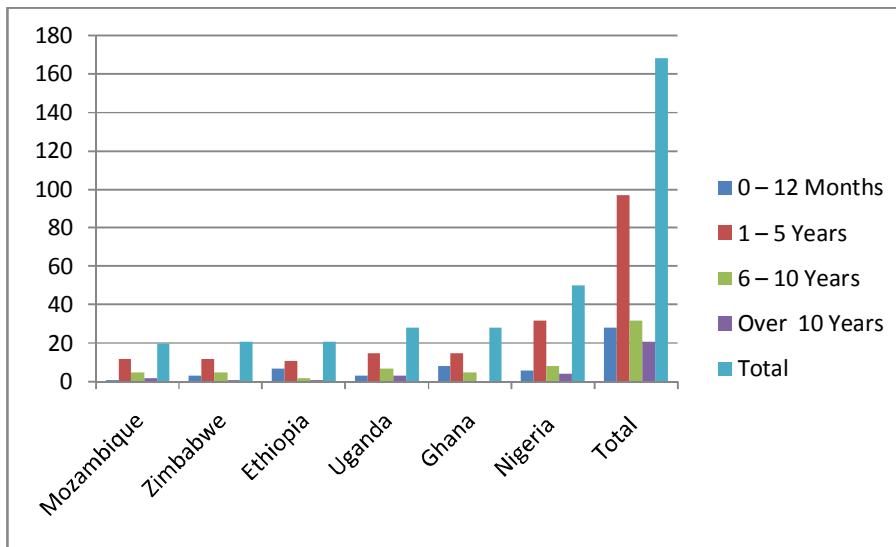


Figure 5.10: Number of years in South Africa

Among respondents sampled who claimed to be nationals of Mozambique, 0.6% claimed that they had lived in South Africa for less than one year, as against a larger 7.1% who claimed to have been living in the country for 1-5 years, with another 3% claiming to have been in the country for 6-10 years. Those who responded with a claim of over 10 years in South Africa were only 1.2%.

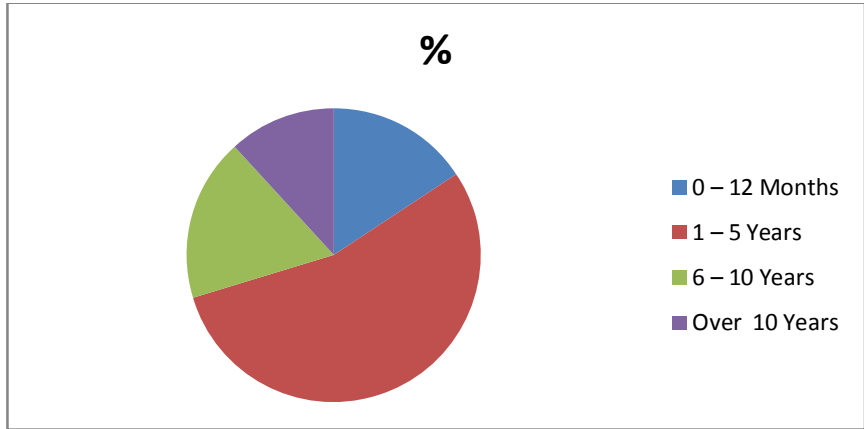
Immigrants who were sampled who claimed to have migrated from Zimbabwe had 1.8% claiming to be of legal residents in South Africa for only less than 1 year; another 7.1% claimed to have been in the country for 1-5 years, while 3% agreed to having been immigrants in South Africa for 6-10 years. Only 0.6% claimed they had been in the country for more than 10 years.

Immigrants from Ethiopia who responded to having been in the country for less than 1 year were 4.2%, which is much less than the 6.5% who agreed to having been in the country for 1-5 years. Those from the same country who claimed to have stayed in the country for 6-10 years were 1.2%, as against 0.6% who claimed to have lived in there for more than 10 years.

Respondents from Uganda who claimed to have been in the host country for less than 1 year were 1.8%, while as many as 9% had claims of having been in the country for 1-5 years. Another 4.2% claimed they had been in the country as immigrants for over 10 years.

Ghanaians who responded positively to being in the host nation, South Africa, for less than 1 year were 4.8% as against a large 9% who had resided in the country for 1-5 years. Some 3% claimed to have been in the country for 6-10 years. No one responded to having been in the country for more than 10 years.

Nigeria, the most represented in the study had 3.6% claiming to have been in the country for less than one year; however, a staggering 19% claimed to have stayed in the country for 1-5 years. Another 4.8% agreed to having been in the country for 6-10 years, while 3.4% claimed to have been in the country for over 10 years. The figure below illustrates the number of years immigrants had resided in South Africa in percentages.



0-12 Month-----16.7%

1-5 Years-----58%

6-10 Years-----19%

Over 10 Years-----12.5%

Figure 5.11: Number of years living in South Africa

5.2.6 Employment

Table 5.6: Years in employment

COUNTRY	Employed	Unemployed	Total	%
Mozambique	12	8	20	12.3
Zimbabwe	13	7	20	12.3
Ethiopia	4	16	20	12.3
Uganda	17	9	26	16
Ghana	17	11	28	17.2
Nigeria	22	26	48	30
Total	85	77	162	
%	52.4	48		

The data collection showed that a total of 162 respondents representing about 96% of the total respondents responded to this question of whether employed or unemployed. Over 3.6% failed to respond to the question. Data of those who did respond indicated that 12.3% were Mozambicans residing in Tshwane, while 12.3% were nationals of Zimbabwe residing in the same area. 12.3% of the respondents claimed to have come from Ethiopia but another 16% were citizens of Uganda who also are African immigrants in South Africa. 17.2% of the sample from the state of Ghana in West Africa. Nigeria has the largest representation with 30%. Table 5.6 (above) and Figure 5.12 (below) depict employment distribution of those who responded to the question on being employed or unemployed.

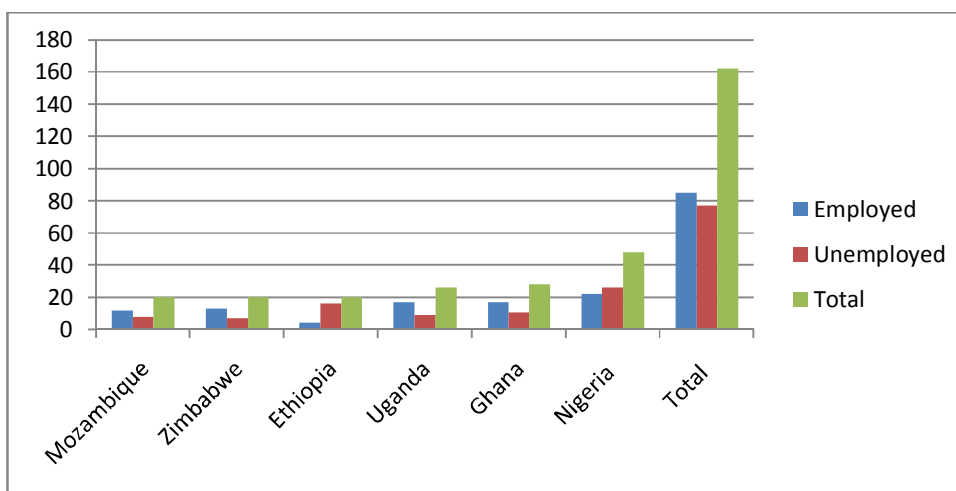


Figure 5.12: Employment or unemployment rates

The table also showed that those who responded in the affirmative to being employed were 52.4% of the sample population that responded to the question, as against 48% who claimed to be unemployed. This figure is consistent with the claims of some writers that immigrants are job creators not liabilities to the South African system, since those who are employed are higher than those who are not employed. At the same time most foreigners claimed that they were employed in the informal sector, indicating that most African immigrants in South Africa are self-employed (See Aregbeshola 2010 for the entrepreneur benefits of immigrants to South African economy).

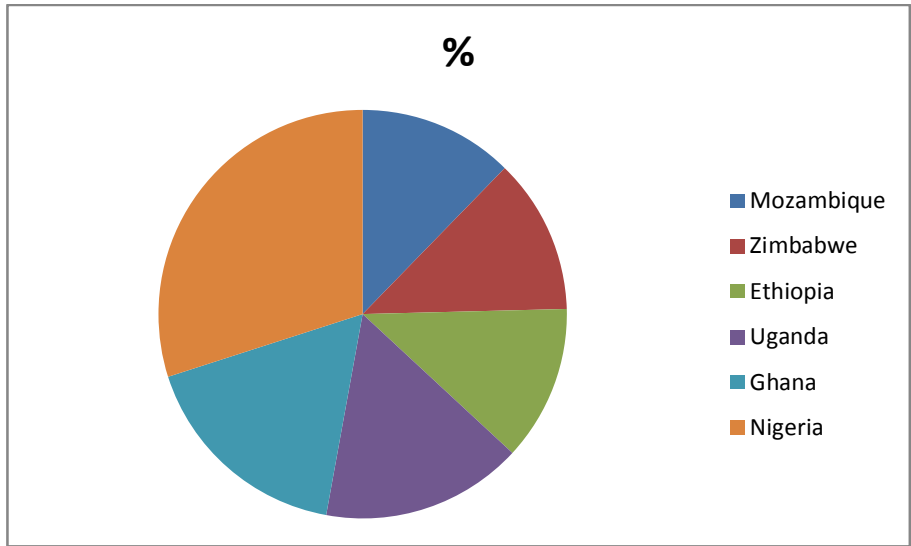
The data showed that out of the sampled population of the study who responded to this question, 7.4% Mozambicans claimed they were employed while 5% were unemployed.

In view of the Zimbabweans who responded, 8% claimed to be employed as against a smaller number, 4.3%, who claimed to be unemployed.

Ethiopians had a smaller 2.5% claim to being employed when compared to the large 10% who claimed they were unemployed.

The Ugandan sample showed that 10.5% were employed as against a smaller sampled population of 5.6% who claimed not to be employed.

Nigerian respondents who claimed to be employed were 13.6%, while a higher 16% said they were not currently employed. Figure 5.13 (below) illustrates those who responded to the question in percentages in line with nationalities.

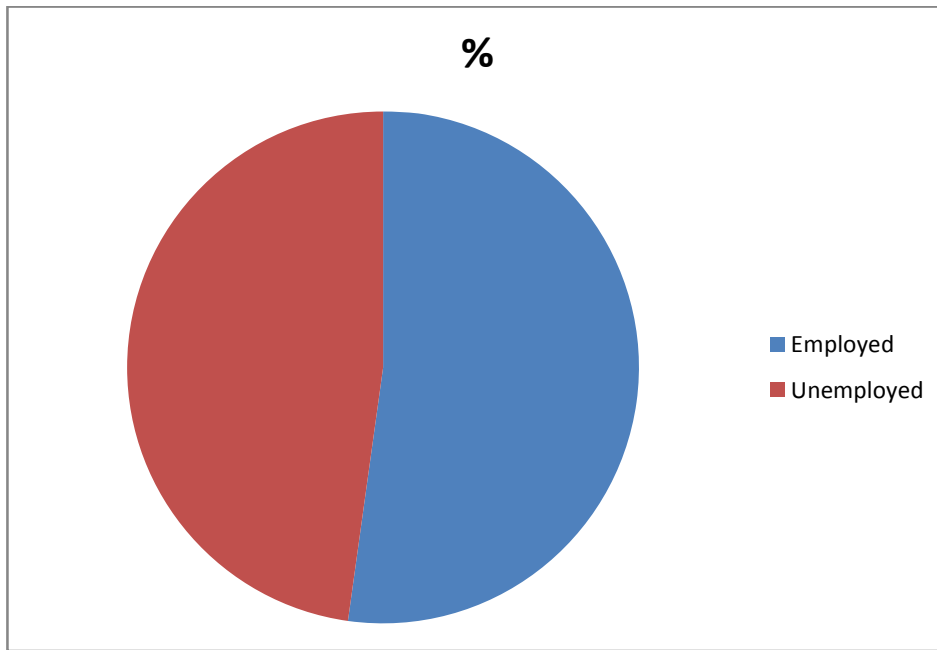


Mozambique-----12.3%

Zimbabwe-----12.3%

Ethiopia-----12.3%
 Uganda-----16%
 Ghana-----17.2%
 Nigeria-----30%

Figure 5.13: Percentages in employment



Employed-----52%
 Unemployed-----48%

Figure 5.14: Overall employment ratio

Figure 5.14 is a pie chart that illustrates percentages of those immigrants who are employed and those who are not employed, of those who responded to the question among the nationalities sampled.

5.2.7 Type o Employment

Employment was classified into two major types, formal and informal. Formal employment represented all immigrants who responded in agreement to having work in corporate bodies such government establishments, multinational organizations and all formal organizations,

while those considered to be employed in the informal sectors were all those who responded as being self employed or working in the retail businesses owned by individuals.

Table 5.7: Types of employment, formal or informal

COUNTRY	Formal	Informal	Total	%
Mozambique	3	14	17	16.5
Zimbabwe	8	8	16	15.5
Ethiopia	2	8	10	9.7
Uganda	11	8	19	18.4
Ghana	11	10	21	20.4
Nigeria	9	11	20	19.4
Total	44	59	103	
%	43	57		

Those who responded to this question out of the total population sampled were 61% out of which 16.5 were immigrants from Mozambique. Another 15.5% who responded were Zimbabweans while 9.7% were Ethiopians. The respondents from Uganda who responded to the question of type of employment were 18.4% as against 20.4% of Ghanaians. Nigeria had low respondents here as only 19.4% responded to their type of employment. Table 5.7 (above) and Figure 5.14 (below) illustrate the sector fell in terms of formal or informal work in percentages.

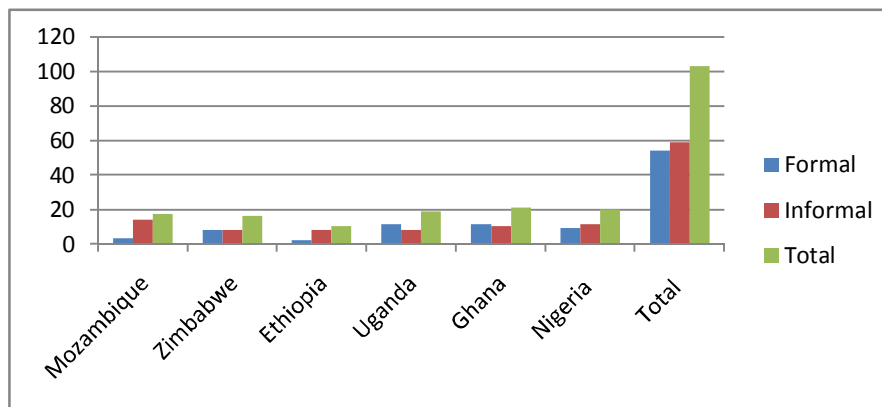


Figure 5.15: Formal or Informal employment

Data collected shows that most respondents from Mozambique were employed in the formal sector; there are 13.6% against the 2.9% who were informally employed.

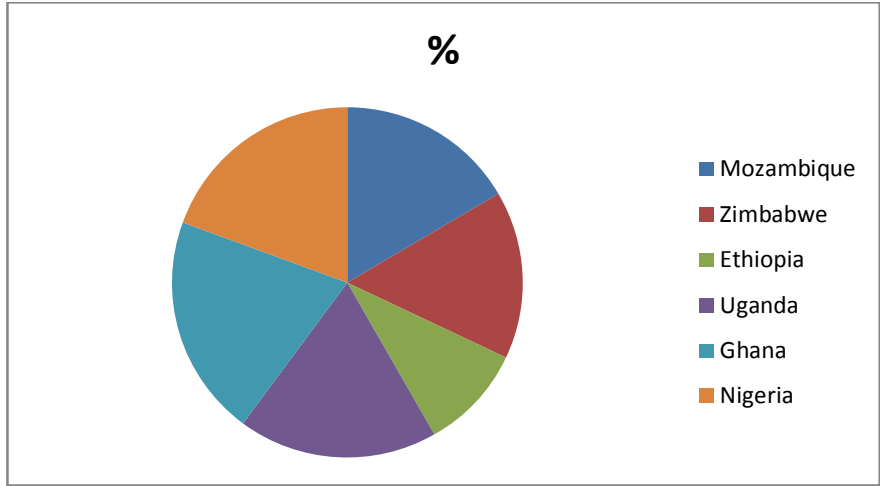
As for the Zimbabweans who responded to the question of type of employment, those who agreed to have formal jobs and informal jobs were 7.8% and 7.8% respectively.

Ethiopia had the lowest claims of formal jobs, with only 1.9% claiming to be in the formal sectors as against a large 7.8% who claimed they did not have a formal job but were informally employed.

Those from Uganda who claimed to be formally employed were 10.7 as against 7.8% claims of employment in the informal sector. It is a surprise result on the part of Ugandan respondents that most have been employed by a cooperate body.

Immigrants from Ghana who claimed to have formal employment were 10.7% as against another 9.8% who claimed to have employment in the informal sector of the economy.

Nigerian immigrants, who showed a poor response to this question, had 8.7% claims of formal jobs and 10.7% informal jobs claims.



Mozambique-----16.5%

Zimbabwe-----15.5%

Ethiopia-----9.7%

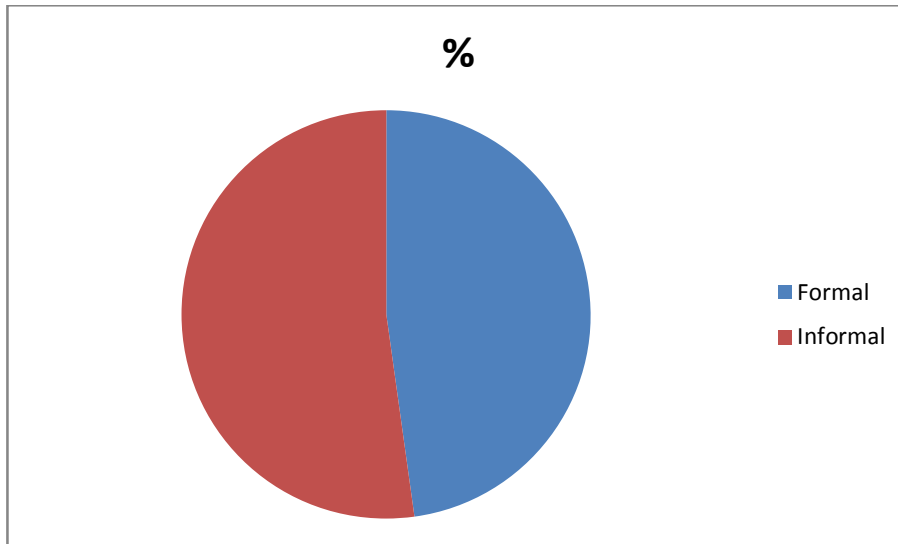
Uganda-----18.4%

Ghana-----20.4%

Nigeria-----19.4%

Figure 5.16: Formal Employment figures

Figure 5.16 (above) illustrates the respondents of each of the nationalities sampled in percentages.



Formal-----43%

Informal-----57%

Figure 5.17: Formal or informal employment

The pie chart above (figure 17) illustrates the percentages of total respondents to this question of type of employment which clearly shows that those in informal sectors outweighs those in formal sectors with 43% claiming to be in formal sector while 57% claimed to be employed in the informal sector.

5.3 PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS ON DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS SERVICE DELIVERY TO AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS

This section discussed, analyzed and interpreted all the questions posed to the respondents in the questionnaires that have to do with perceptions of African immigrants on the service delivery by the South African Department of Home Affairs to African immigrants resident in the country. The following will now be analyzed: Have you visited Home Affairs; What was the Purpose of the visit? How did you do your documentation? Would you assess the service

you received as satisfactory? Why do you say so? and, finally, Would you describe the competence of the immigration officials as satisfactory?

5.3.1 Visitation to Home Affairs Department

Table 5.8: Answers to the question, *Have you visited Home Affairs?*

COUNTRY	Yes	No	Total	%
Mozambique	15	5	20	12.3
Zimbabwe	18	3	21	12.9
Ethiopia	18	2	20	12.3
Uganda	27	-	27	16.6
Ghana	20	6	26	16
Nigeria	44	5	44	27
Total	142	21	163	
%	87.1	12.8		

Those who responded to this question *Have you visited Home Affairs?*, out of the total population sampled were 97%, of whom 12.3% were immigrants from Mozambique. Another 12.9% who responded were Zimbabweans, while 12.3% were Ethiopians. The respondents from Uganda who responded to the question of visitation to Home Affairs were 16.6% as against 16% of Ghanaians. Nigerian respondents had 27% who responded to this question.

A total of 87.1% who responded claimed that they had been to Department of Home Affairs in South Africa, as against 12.8% who responded that they had never been to the Department of Home Affairs, for whatever reasons. Table 5.8 above and Figure 5.18 below illustrate the claims of visitation and non-visitation to the Department of Home Affairs by African immigrants in line with nationalities who were sampled.

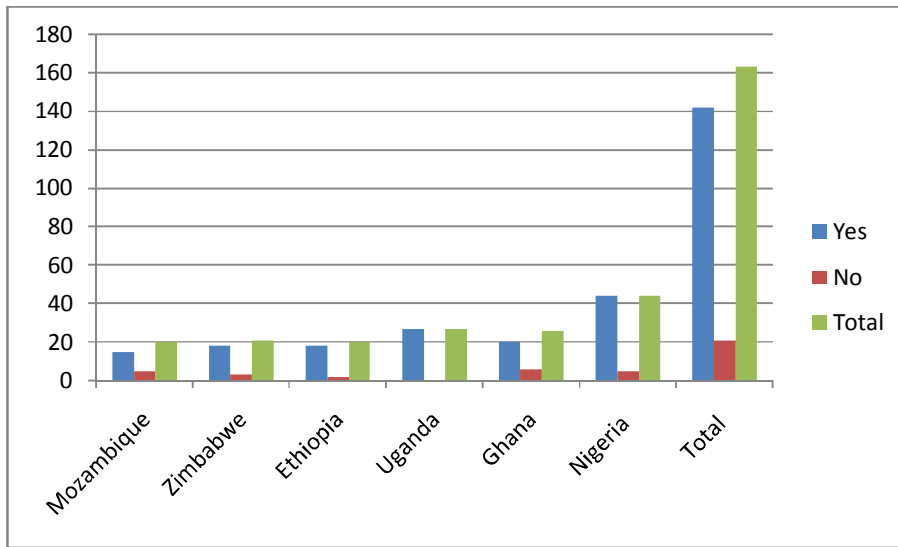


Figure 5.18: Answers to the question, *Have you visited Home Affairs?*

Those who claimed to have come from Mozambique who said ‘yes’ to having been to the Department of Home Affairs for one reason or the other were 9%, while 3% said that they had not been to the Department of Home Affairs for any purpose.

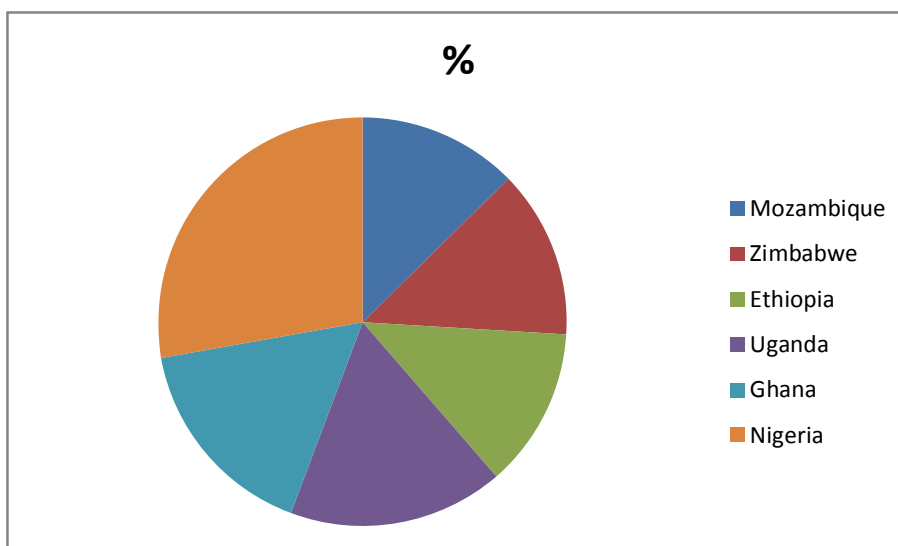
The sampled population who were Zimbabwean immigrants who responded had 11% claims of having visited the Department of Home Affairs as against another 1.8% who vehemently maintained that they have not been to the Department.

The Sample population from Ethiopia who claimed that they had been to Department of Home Affairs were 11%, many more than the 1.3% who claimed that they had never been to the Department.

The sample population from Uganda who responded to the question of having been to the Department was 16.6%, of which all responded in the affirmative.

Immigrants sampled from Ghana and who responded to having been to Department of Home Affairs were 12.3%, as against the lower 3.6% who claimed that they have never been to Home Affairs Department.

Nigeria recorded a numerous 27% claims to having been to the Department, while a lower 3% claimed that they had never been to the Department for whatever reasons.



Mozambique-----12.3%

Zimbabwe-----12.9%

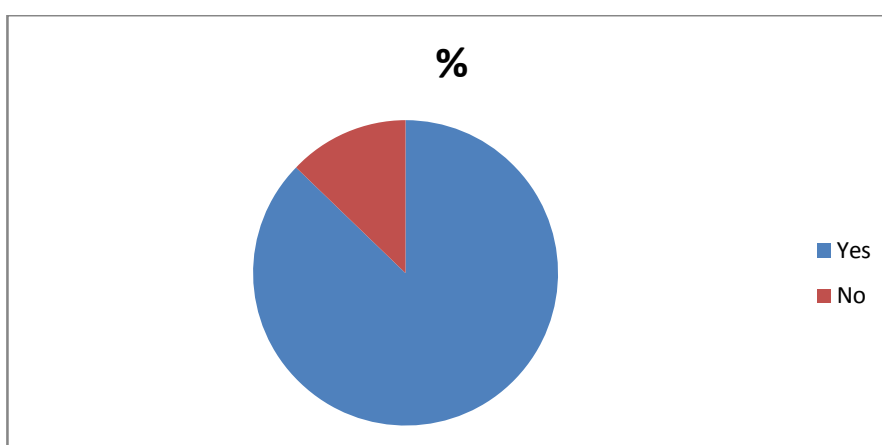
Ethiopia-----12.3%

Uganda-----16%

Ghana-----16%

Nigeria-----27%

Figure 5.19: Respondents sampled



Yes-----87.1%

No -----12.8%

Figure 5.20: Respondents who had visited Home Affairs

Figure 5.20 above illustrates the respondents to the question of visitation to the Department of Home Affairs in percentages in line with the nationalities sampled, while Figure 5.19 depicts the positive and negative response to the same question, with larger percentages of 87.1 claiming to have been to Home Affairs Department as against a lower 12.8% claiming not to have been to the Department, for whatever reasons.

SAMP (2005) had noted that it is the responsibility of Department of Home Affairs to implement and manage migration policy and legislation. It is therefore not surprising that as many as 87.1% of the African immigrants had visited the Department of Home Affairs for purposes of documentations and legalization of permit to reside in South Africa.

5.3.2 Purpose of Visit

Table 5.9: Purpose of visit to Home Affairs

COUNTRY	Documentation	Others	Total	%
Mozambique	10	6	16	11.4
Zimbabwe	18	1	19	13.6
Ethiopia	16	3	19	13.6
Uganda	24	2	26	19
Ghana	19	1	20	14.2
Nigeria	36	4	40	29
Total	123	17	140	
%	88	12.1		

Those who responded to this question out of the total population sampled were 83.3%, of whom 11.4% were immigrants from Mozambique. Another 13.6% who responded were Zimbabweans, while 13.6% were Ethiopians. The respondents from Uganda who responded to the question of purpose of visitation to Home Affairs were 19% as against 14.2% of Ghanaians. Nigerian respondents had 29 % who responded to this question.

Those who responded to the question of purpose of a visit to Department of Home Affairs were 88% who claimed to have been there for the purpose of securing their documentation for the purpose of a relevant permit, while only 12.1% claimed to have been there for

purposes other than documentation. Table 5.9 (above) and Figure 21 (below) depict the responses of the respondents in percentages in line with the nationalities that responded.

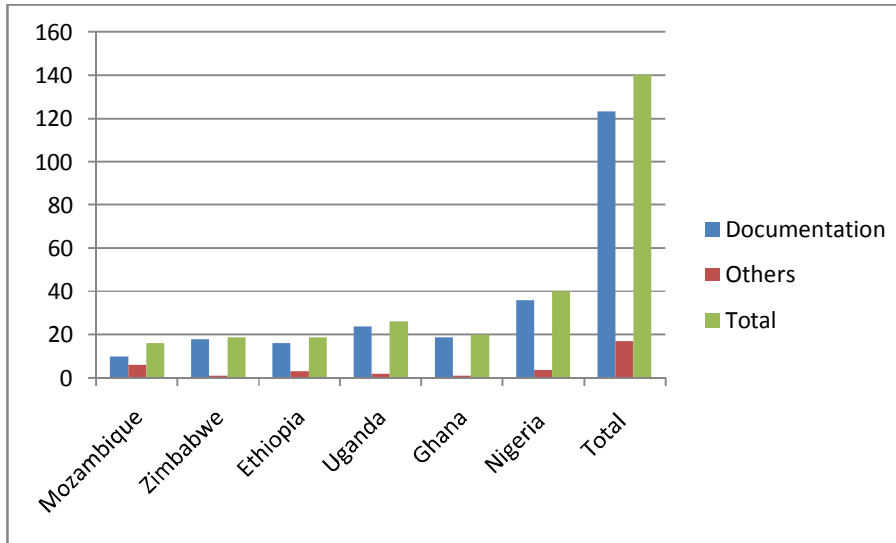


Figure 5.21: Purpose of visit to Home Affairs

Those from Mozambique who said ‘yes’ to having been to the Department of Home Affairs for the reason of documentation were 7.1%, while 4.2% said that they had not been to the Department of Home Affairs for the purposes of documentation but for other reasons, such as visiting friends or accompanying them.

The sampled population of Zimbabwean immigrants had 12.9% claims of having visited the Department of Home Affairs for a clear purpose of legalizing their permit as against another lower 0.71% who vehemently maintained that they have not been to the Department for the purpose of documentation but for other reasons.

The sample population of Ethiopians who claimed that they had been to the Department of Home Affairs for the purpose of documentation were 11.4%, very far above the 2.1% who claimed that they had never been to the Department for the purpose of documentation but for other purposes, mainly personal.

All the sample population from Uganda who responded to the question of purpose of visiting the Department were 17.1% claims of documentations, far above the lower 1.4% claims of visitation for purposes other than documentation.

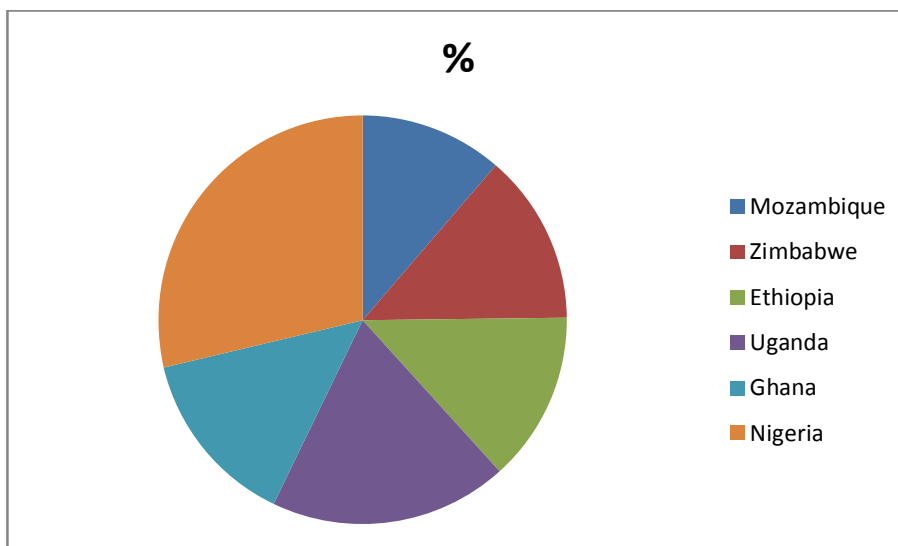
Immigrants sampled from Ghana who responded to having been to the Department of Home Affairs for purposes of documentation were 13.6%, as against the lower 0.71% who claimed they had been to the Department for reasons other than documentation.

Nigeria recorded a high 25.7% of claims to having been to the Department for documentations, while 2.9% of Nigerian immigrants who responded to this question claimed that they have been to the Department of Home Affairs for other purposes.

Figure 5.22 (below) further illustrates the percentages of sampled populations who responded to having been to the Department for documentation or any other purpose in percentages, and in line with nationalities sampled, while Figure 5.22 illustrates the number of respondents who admitted to having been to the Department for the purpose of documentation, which totalled 88% as against 12% who admitted having been to the Department for other purposes other than documentation. Most of the 88% who claimed to have been to the Department of Home Affairs went for the purpose of documentation, such as application for resident permit, marriage, study permit, work permit, application for permanent resident and even citizenship.

Respondent no 3 from Mozambique admitted visiting the Department of Home Affairs to get a resident permit, although he was unsuccessful. He further recommended better service delivery for African foreigners due to poor service available to African immigrants. Respondent no 4 from Mozambique claimed to have visited for the purpose of asylum. He was successful in his application but called for decentralization of powers to give permits to African foreigners.

Respondent no 156 from Nigeria claimed he visited Department of Home Affairs for the purpose of getting married to a South African citizen. He made it clear that the services rendered to African Foreigners in the Department are terribly poor. He complained of too much delay in the service delivery of the Department and also claimed that its officials used their office to intimidate foreigners, mostly when African immigrants were involved. It follows that immigrants must in one way or another deal with the Department of Home Affairs, either directly or indirectly if they wish to reside legally in South Africa.



Mozambique-----11.4%

Zimbabwe-----13.6%

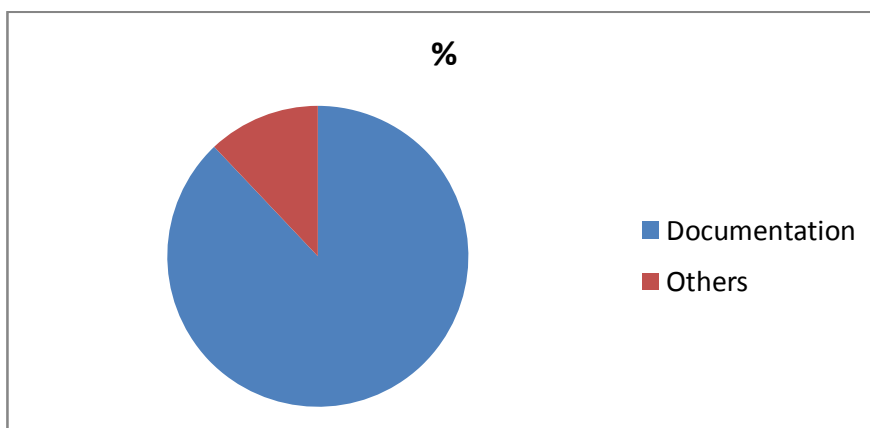
Ethiopia-----13.6%

Uganda-----19%

Ghana-----14.4%

Nigeria-----29%

Figure 5.22: percentages of sampled populations who responded to having been to the Department for documentation



Documentation-----88%

Others-----12%

Figure 5.23: Purpose of visit to the Department of Home Affairs

5.3.3 How documentation was made

Table 5.10: Method of doing the documentation

COUNTRY	Self	Agent	Total	%
Mozambique	5	8	13	11.6
Zimbabwe	14	3	17	15
Ethiopia	17	2	19	17
Uganda	7	5	12	10.7
Ghana	11	7	18	16
Nigeria	23	10	33	29.5
Total	77	35	112	
%	69	31.2		

Those who responded to the question of how they did their documentations out of the total population sampled were 66.6%, of whom 11.6% were immigrants who claimed to have come from Mozambique, a Southern African country. Another 15% who responded were Zimbabweans, while 17% were Ethiopian immigrants in the host country. The respondents from Uganda who responded to the question of how they conducted their documentations at Home Affairs were 10.7% as against 16% of Ghanaians. Nigerian respondents totalled 29% who responded to this question.

Those who responded to the question of how they did their documentations in the Department of Home Affairs were 69%% who claimed to have been there for the purpose of securing their documentation for themselves and by themselves, while only 31.2% claimed to have done it through agents. Table 5.10 (above) and Figure 5.24 (below) show the numbers of respondents who admitted to doing their documentation by themselves or through agents, also in line with nationalities sampled.

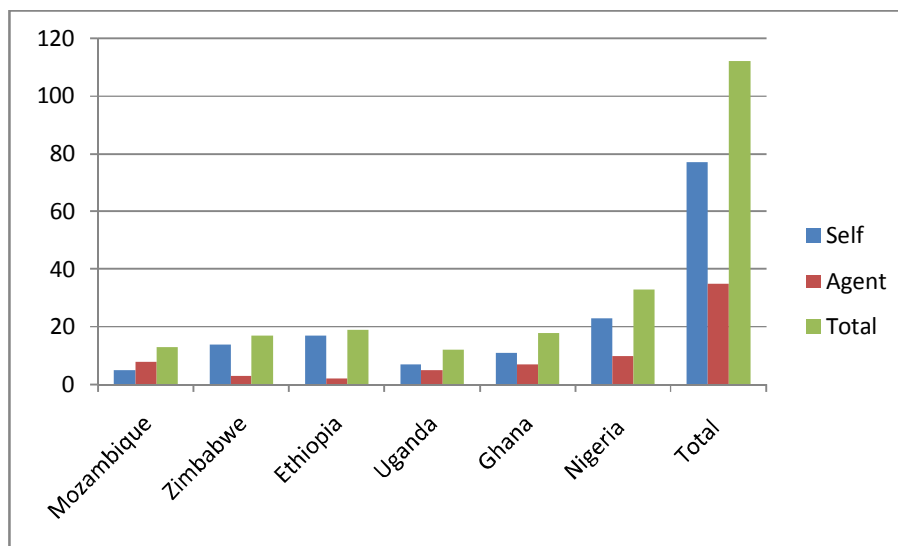


Figure 5.24: Method of doing documentation

Those from Mozambique who responded ‘yes’ to having been to Department of Home Affairs for the reason of self documentation were 4.5%, while 7.1% said that they had not been to Department of Home Affairs for the purposes of documentation but worked through an agent.

The sampled population who were Zimbabwean immigrants had 12.5% claims of having visited the Department of Home Affairs for a clear purpose of legalizing their permit by themselves, as against another lower 2.7% who vehemently maintained that they had not been to the Department for the purpose of documentation, but rather had used the so-called agents or imposters, whom they paid to do their documentations for them.

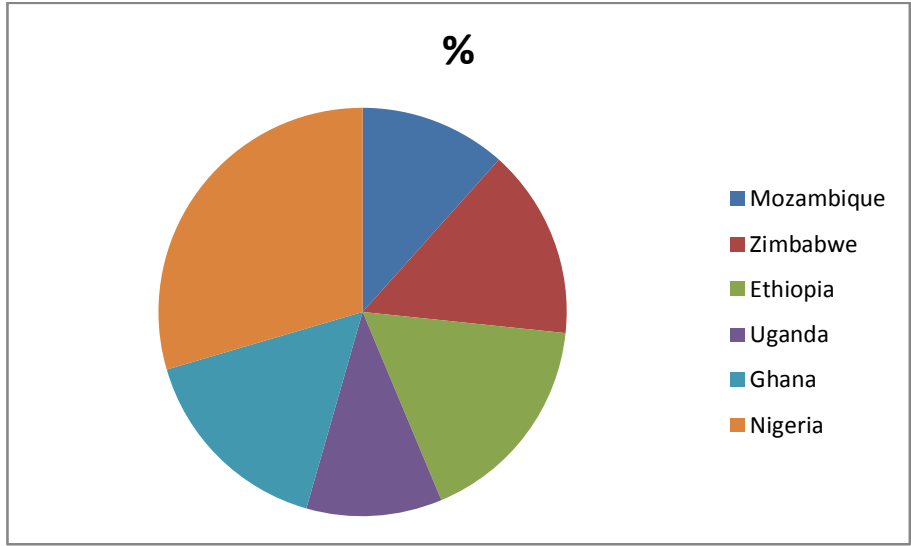
The sample population from Ethiopia who claimed to have been to the Department of Home Affairs for the purpose of Documentation by themselves was 15.2% ,very far above 1.8% who admitted that they have never been to the Department for the purpose of documentation but preferred doing same through agents who had contacts in the Department.

All the sample population from Uganda who responded to the question of purpose of visiting the Department for personal documentations were 6.3%, slightly above the lower 4.5% claims of using paid imposters or agents as a convenient means of documenting.

Immigrants sampled from Ghana and who responded to having been to Home Affairs for the purposes of self documentation were 9.8%, as against the lower 6.3% who claimed that they

had never been to Home Affairs Department for self-documentation but had to do so through agents.

Nigeria recorded as many as 20.5% claims of having been to the Department for self documentation, while 8.9% of Nigerian immigrants who responded to this question claimed that they had never been to the Department for reason of self documentation, but did so through paid agents. Figures 5.25 and 5.26 (below) show the numbers of respondents visiting for self documentation and the use of agents in line with the nationalities sampled.



Mozambique-----11.6%

Zimbabwe-----15%

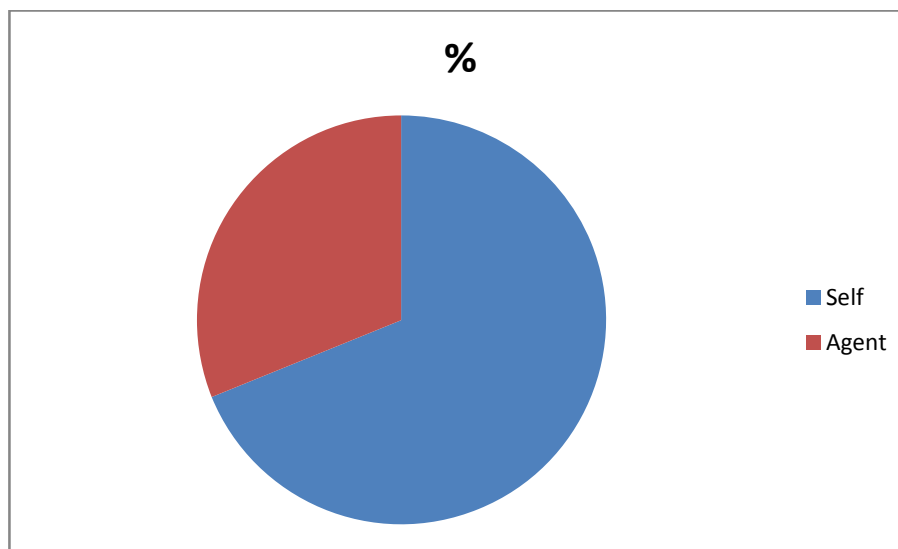
Ethiopia-----17%

Uganda-----10.7%

Ghana-----16%

Nigeria-----29.5%

Figure 5.25: Nationalities visiting Home Affairs for documentation in percentages



Self documentation-----69%

Agent -----31%

Figure 5.26: Documentation by self or agent

SAMP (2005), reported that the Department of Home Affairs of South Africa has a bad image among the public and media, foreign and local customers. Neocosmos (2008) wrote that xenophobia in state agencies like the police, Lindela detention centre and Department of Home Affairs is common. Neocosmos also agreed that state agencies extort money from African immigrants. Partly because of the fears of unknown on the part of desperate African immigrants, a number of them have resorted to paying imposters, who call themselves ‘agents’ to facilitate their permit applications and renewals.

The African immigrants have given some reasons for resorting to the use of the so-called agents or imposters. Respondent no 2 from Mozambique admitted to using a paid agent to obtain his permit largely because doing it in person could jeopardize his stay in South Africa, and since it was much more difficult and risky. He was also afraid of deportation. Respondent no 16 from Ethiopia asserted the he did not want to go there himself because he did not want to fail in getting the permit. He then used a paid agent. He also complained that the very insult and assault on African foreigners starts from the gate where the security guards often react angrily by biting African foreigners at any slight misunderstanding. These attitudes of ill-treatment of African foreigners as reported by respondents are consistent with the theory of *makwerekwere*, in which Matsinhe (2011) argued that African immigrants are singled out

for discrimination because of the perceived differences in outlooks. This is also supported by Isike and Isike (2012).

5.3.4 Assessment of Service

Table 5.11: Responses to the question: *Would You Assess the Service You Received as Satisfactory?*

COUNTRY	Yes	No	Total	%
Mozambique	9	8	17	12
Zimbabwe	9	10	19	13.5
Ethiopia	2	18	20	14.2
Uganda	17	11	28	20
Ghana	10	11	21	15
Nigeria	17	32	49	35
Total	64	90	140	
%	46	64.2		

Those who responded to the question of assessment of the service received were 83.3% out of the total population surveyed, of whom 12% were immigrants who claimed to have come from Mozambique, a Southern African country. Another 13.5% who responded were Zimbabweans while 14.2% were Ethiopian immigrants resident in the host country, South Africa. The respondents from Uganda who responded to the question of assessing the Department of Home Affairs were 20% as against 15% who claimed to have emigrated from Ghana. Nigerian respondents had comprised 35%.

Those who responded to assessing the service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs were 46% claimed it was satisfactory service, while a higher 64.2% claimed it was unsatisfactory. Table 5.11 (above) and Figure 5.27 (below) are further expressions of respondents in line with the nationalities who answered the question on whether they received satisfactory service or not.

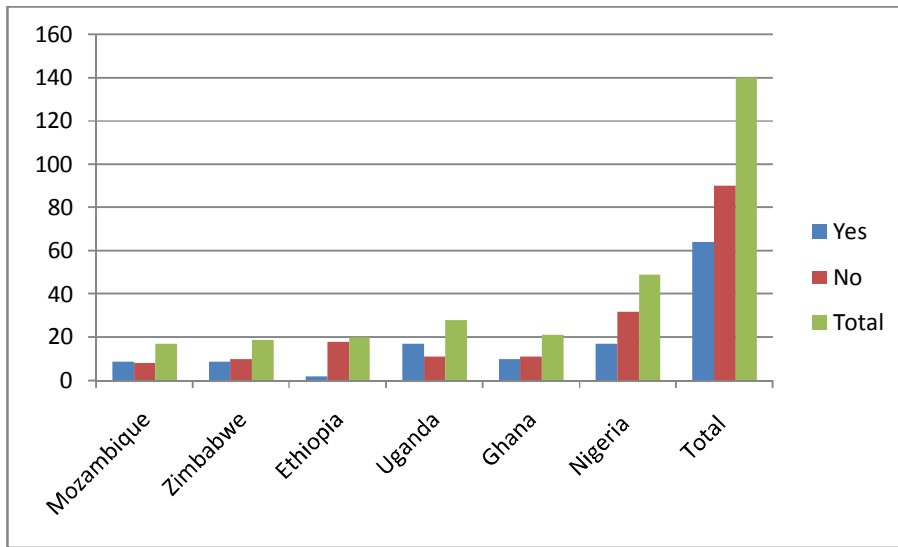


Figure 5.27: Responses to the question: *Would You Assess the Service You Received as Satisfactory?*

Those who come from Mozambique who said yes to having had satisfactory service from the Department of Home Affairs for whatever purpose they went for were 6.5%, while 5.7% claimed to have had poor service for any purpose they had been for.

The sampled population who are Zimbabwean immigrants had 6.4% claims of having had satisfactory service on their visit to the Department of Home Affairs, with another higher 7.1% disagreeing with the quality of service available to African immigrants.

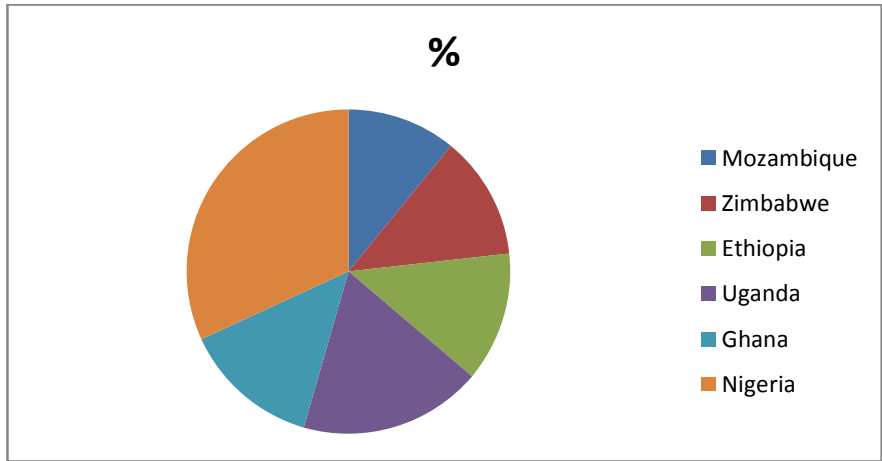
The sample population from Ethiopia who claimed to have had satisfactory service from the Department of Home Affairs were 1.4%, much lower than the 12.9% who disapproved of the service delivery they had received from the Department.

The sample population from Uganda who claimed to having had satisfactory service from the Department was 12.4%, far above the 7.9% who claimed they received poor service on their visit to the Department.

Immigrants from Ghana who responded to having had satisfactory service from the Department of Home Affairs were 7.1% as against the slightly higher 7.9% who claimed to have had poor service delivery when they visited for self-documentation

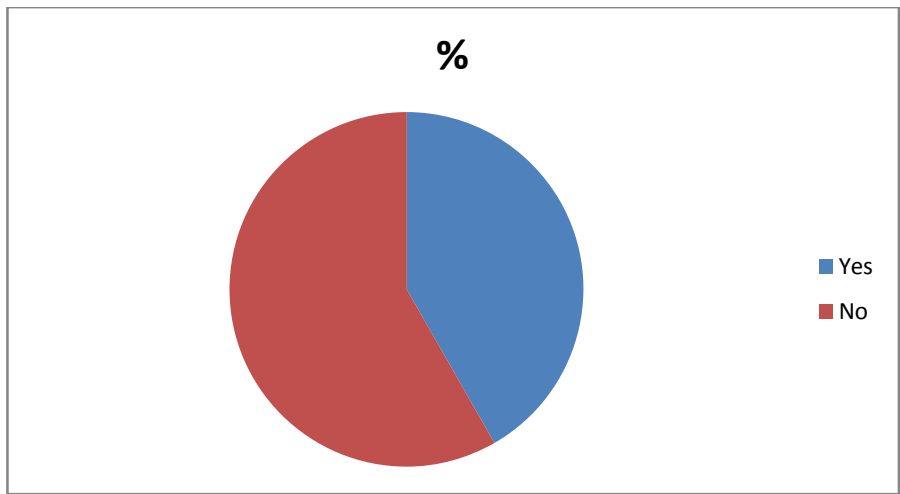
Nigerians recorded a high 12.1% of claims to having had satisfactory service from the Department, although an even higher 22.8% of Nigerian immigrants who responded to this

question disapproved the service they received. Figures 5.27; 5.28; and 5.29 reflect responses to the assessment of service received from the Department of Home Affairs.



Mozambique-----12%
Zimbabwe-----13.2%
Ethiopia-----14.2%
Uganda-----20%
Ghana-----15%
Nigeria-----35%

Figure 28: Assessment of service received from the Department of Home Affairs by nationality



Yes----46%
No----64%

Figure 29: Assessment of service received from the Department of Home Affairs by percentage

This result is consistent with speculation or reports by the media that the Department of Home Affairs was in crisis over service delivery (SAMP, 2005). In respect to African immigrants' poor service delivery by the Department, it is generally viewed as xenophobia, but Afrofobia or *Makwerekwere* will suffice it here as it explains better why African foreigners are subjected to such poor treatment by the Department's officials, whereas other immigrants, such as whites, are generally regarded as investors or tourists, and as such treated well. Other theories, such as scapegoat, relative deprivation, nationalism, biculturalism, post-apartheid are superficial approaches to the problem as they do not account for why Africans are the subjects of poor service delivery (See theory of *Makwerekwere* by Matsinhe 2011).

Respondent no 106 from Ghana claimed that he could not apply for a permit in person but used an agent because the officials of the Department of Home Affairs did not have time for African immigrants, rather the whites, who received favourable treatment. He condemned the attitudes of the officials because he claimed that African foreigners deserve better treatment on their own continent. Respondent 107, also from Ghana, expressed his disappointment in the service he received from the Department of Home Affairs because he claimed that Africa foreigners are welcomed with xenophobia by them. The respondent further claimed that African immigrants are denied rights to South African public administration because of discrimination prevalent in the country's socio-political system.

5.3.5 If satisfactory, why do you think so?

Table 12: Answers to the question: *If satisfactory, why do you think so?*

COUNTRY	Good Policy	Good officials	Total	%
Mozambique	12	3	15	13.3
Zimbabwe	12	3	15	13.3
Ethiopia	11	3	14	12.4
Uganda	13	6	19	17
Ghana	12	9	21	19
Nigeria	17	12	29	25.6
Total	77	36	113	
%	68.1	31.8		

Those who responded to the question of why they considered the service of Home Affairs satisfactory were 67.3% of the total population surveyed, of whom 13.3% were immigrants who claimed to have emigrated from Mozambique, a Southern African country.

Another 13.3% who responded were Zimbabweans, while 12.4% were Ethiopian immigrants resident in the host country, South Africa. The respondents from Uganda who responded to the question of why they thought that the service of the Department of Home Affairs was satisfactory were 17%, as against 19% of Ghanaians. There were 25.5% of Nigerian respondents to this question.

Those who responded to why they considered the service delivery in the Department of Home Affairs satisfactory were very low. Those who claimed to have had satisfactory service from the department because of good policy were higher, with 68.1%, while 31.8% considered the officials as good. Table 5.12 (above) and Figure 5.30 (below) confirm the trend of respondents to their choice of good officials and good policy in line with the sample population of surveyed nationalities.

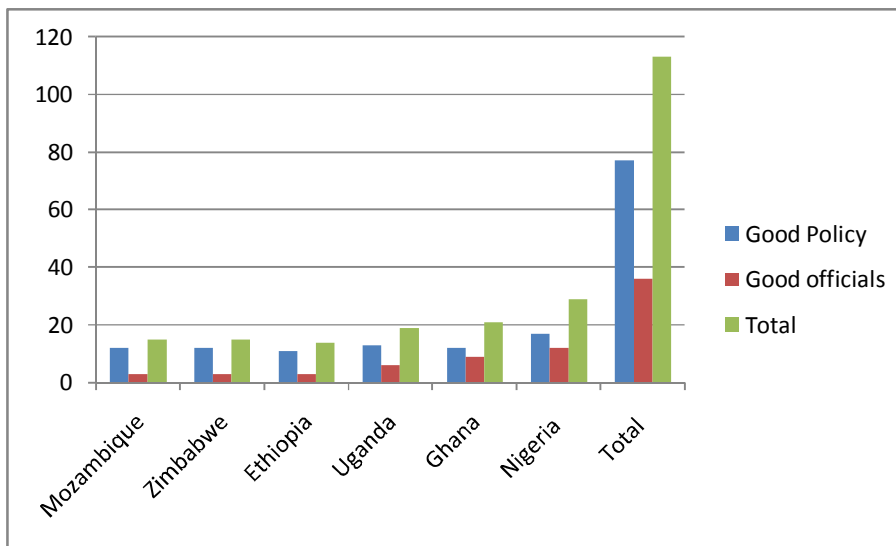


Figure 5.30: Assessment of policy and officials

Those from Mozambique who said ‘yes’ to having had satisfactory service from the Department of Home Affairs for whatever purpose they visited because of good policy were 10.6%, while 2.7% said that they received well by the Department of Home Affairs, because the officials were good at what they did.

The sampled population of Zimbabwean immigrants had 10.6% claims of having had satisfactory service at the Department of Home Affairs, because of good policy, while 2.7% agreed that the officials were good at what they were doing.

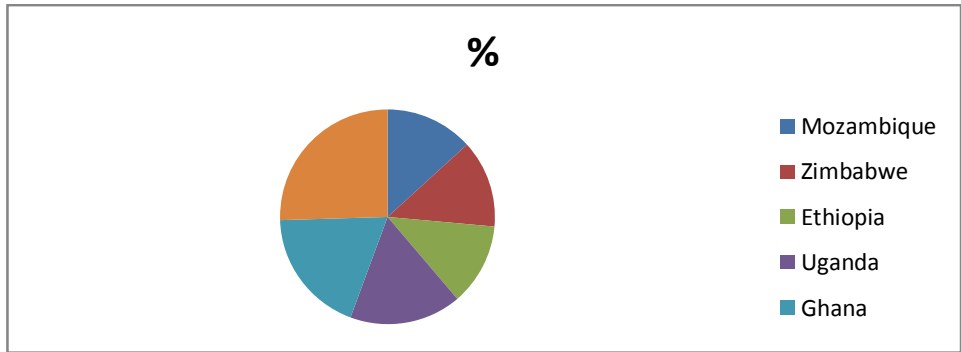
Sample population from Ethiopia who claimed that they have had satisfactory service from the Department of Home Affairs because of good policy were 9.7% higher than 2.7% who disapproved of the policy but agreed that the officials were good at their job

All the sample population from Uganda who responded to positive satisfactory service from the Department because of good policy were 11.5%, far above the lower 5.3% who claimed that they had good service because of officials’ efforts.

Immigrants sampled who claimed to come from Ghana who responded to having had satisfactory service from the Department of Home Affairs purely because good policy was in place were 10.6% as against lower 8% who claimed that they had good service from Home Affairs Department because good officials were at work.

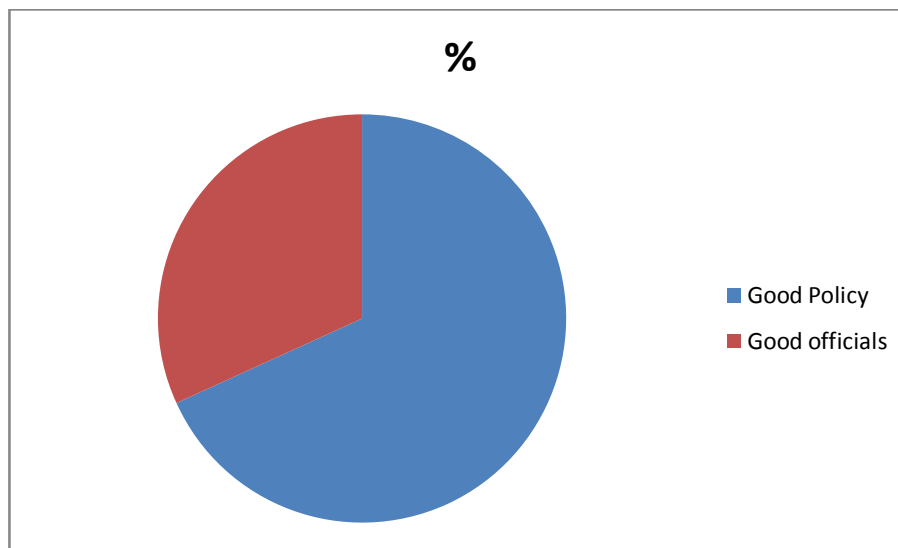
Nigeria recorded 15% claims to having had satisfactory service from the Department because of the good policy that South Africa has in place towards immigration while a lower 10.6% of Nigerian immigrants respected the fact that the officials are doing the best job.

Figures 5.31 and 5.32 below express the respondents’ nationalities in percentages and choices between good policy and good officials.



Mozambique-----13.3%
 Zimbabwe-----13.3%
 Ethiopia-----12.4%
 Uganda-----17%
 Ghana-----19%
 Nigeria-----25.6%

Figure 5.31: Respondents’ nationalities in percentages



Good policy-----68%

Good officials-----32%

Figure 32: choices between good policy and good officials

The outcome of the result is consistent with the theory of *Makwerekwere* as propounded by Matsinhe (2011) and supported by Isike and Isike (2012), which asserted that African foreigners are selected in South Africa for discrimination at all levels. Neocosmos (2008) argued that parliamentarians, the police, the Lindela detention centre and the law itself had been giving a straight message of South Africa being invaded by illegal immigrants, especially those from African countries who were considered as threats to national development and stability. The Department of Home Affairs has been part of this discrimination since 1994, when South African borders were opened to the wider world. Neocosmos also argued that the xenophobic behaviour of South African society has been consistent with state agencies while it is not with the public. The result of 68% approval of state policy on immigration by respondents shows that the discrimination received from the Department of Home Affairs is not a state policy but acts of omission or commission of the its officials. Morris (2008) agreed that the South African State does not have anti-immigration policy as her official policy or legislation. So far the ruling party (ANC) does not have such policy and no political party has emerged with such policy as a party manifesto since 1994, when democracy prevailed in the country.

Respondent no 18 from Mozambique stated that both the state policy on immigration and officials are anti-immigration because of the bad treatment they give to African foreigners. He further argued that the officials deliberately hurt African foreigners because they are xenophobic. Respondent no 19 from Mozambique called on the Department of Home Affairs officials to respect black race by attending to them without insults and humiliation when processing their permits. The same respondent no 19 from Mozambique claimed that it was a deliberate act to ensure exclusion of blacks in the country in as much as they were not indigenous South Africans. Respondent no 24 from Zimbabwe condemned the delay in service delivery to African foreigners caused by the Departments' officials but approved the overall state policy on immigration, he further disagreed with officials behaviour towards African foreigners because the laws says that people in South Africa must be treated equally.

5.3.6 Would you describe the competence of immigration officials with the immigration laws as satisfactory?

Table 13: Answers to the question: *Would you describe the competence of immigration officials with the immigration laws as satisfactory?*

COUNTRY	Yes	No	Total	%
Mozambique	13	4	17	11.4
Zimbabwe	8	10	18	12
Ethiopia	8	11	18	12
Uganda	13	13	26	17.4
Ghana	7	14	21	14
Nigeria	16	32	48	32.2
Total	65	84	149	
%	44	56		

Those who responded to the question of assessing the competence of immigration officials with regards to knowledge of the laws guiding immigration service of the Department of Home Affairs as satisfactory were 88.7% out of the total population surveyed, of whom 11.4% were immigrants who claimed to have emigrated from Mozambique.

Another 12% who responded were Zimbabweans while 12% were Ethiopian immigrants resident in the host country, South Africa. The respondents from Uganda who responded to

the question were 17.4% as against 14% who claimed to be Ghanaians. Nigerians who responded to this question totalled 32.2%.

Those who responded who claimed to have considered the competence of the officials with knowledge of the law as satisfactory were 44% while 56% considered the officials as novice to the laws of immigration. Table 5.13 (above) and Figure 5.33(below) illustrate the same.

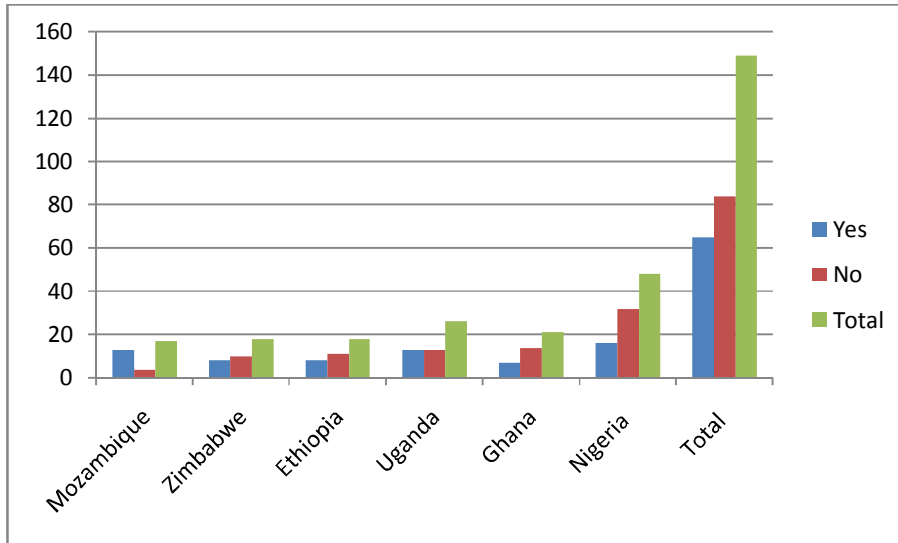


Figure 33: Answers to the question: *Would you describe the competence of immigration officials with the immigration laws as satisfactory?* (by nationality)

Those from Mozambique who approved the knowledge of immigration officials with the laws were 8.7%, while 2.7% disapproves of the officials' knowledge of the laws guiding immigrations in the country.

Those from Zimbabwe who approved were 5.4%, while 6.7% disapproved of the officials' knowledge of the laws guiding immigration in South Africa.

Those from Ethiopia who approved were 5.4%, while 7.4% disapproved of the officials' knowledge of the laws with respect to immigration.

Those from Uganda who approved were 8.7%, while 8.7% disapproved of the officials' knowledge of the laws that govern immigration in the South African state.

Those from Ghana who approved were 4.7%, while 9.4% disapproved of the officials' knowledge of the laws which management of the immigration is based.

Those from Nigeria who approved were 10.7%, while 21.5% disapproved of the officials’ knowledge of the law guiding immigrations.

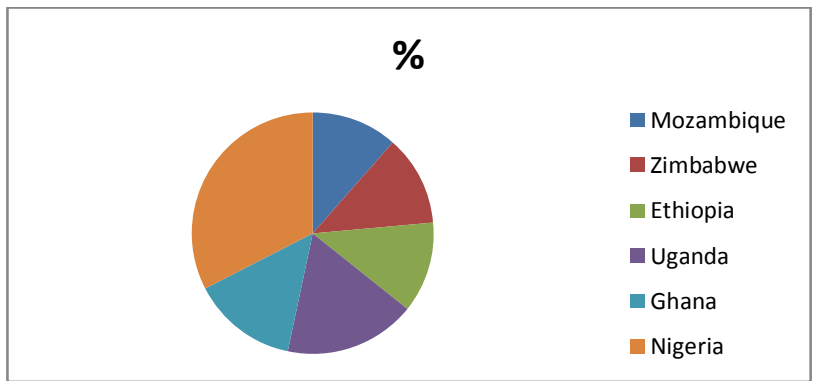
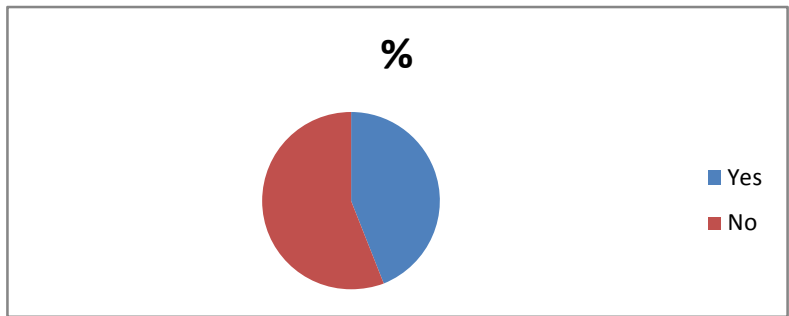


Figure 5.34: Knowledge of immigration officials with the laws



Yes-----56%

No-----44%

Figure 5.35: Knowledge of immigration officials with the laws

SAMP (2005) have pointed out that the higher percentage of the Department of Home Affairs’ black officials are not conversant with the laws and policies guiding immigrations while writing for SAMP (South African Migration Project) except for *Botha Pele* principles. For instance more than 79% of black officials were not conversant with immigration act. In the opinion of African immigrants who responded to the assessment of the immigration officials, 56% argued that they were not aware of their jobs. Respondent no 56 from Ethiopia recommended that the workers should be trained further while respondent no 52 feel that corruption was responsible for the poor treatment African foreigners received from the officials. Respondent no 66 from Uganda thought that the officials were not competent. Respondent no 73 from Uganda complained that the officials regard asylum applicants from

Africa as stupid people. Respondent no 121 from Nigeria complained that the officials gave complicated, distorted and unreliable information to African customers, depending on nationality, which he agreed could be a strategic method of discriminating against African immigrants.

5.3.7 MAJOR SUGGESTIONS FROM THE RESPONDENTS

Respondents were asked to give advice or make recommendation on what best to do to ensure general service satisfactions to African immigrants resident in South Africa by the Department of Home Affairs. Below are some of the major suggestions African immigrants who responded made.

1. Improved service delivery through policies and officials
2. Improved standard of service delivery to world standards
3. Decentralised power to give permits to regional level
4. In-service training for the staff and officials
5. Changes in the law guiding immigration to ensure that immigrants are included in the policy formulations and implementations
6. End to discrimination against immigrants in the Department of Home Affairs to ensure service delivery balance between the citizens and immigrants
7. End to making changes that target African immigrants negatively
8. Employment of more staff for better and faster service delivery
9. Strict observance of the law regarding immigration
10. Faster service delivery is required
11. End to corruption in the Department
12. Infrastructural improvement in the Department of Home Affairs
13. End of xenophobia (*Makwerekwere*)
14. Employment of foreigners to assist in service delivery and language translations
- 15.** More flexible by Department to help immigrants, especially neglected African foreigners.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

Chapter six provides findings, summary, recommendations and conclusion based on the findings of the study.

6.1 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This chapter addresses issues in view of statistical results of Chapter Four. The chapter will elaborate significantly on the results of the study. The purpose of the study was to use the theory of '*Makwerekwere*' as propounded by Matsinhe (2011) and supported by Isike and Isike (2012) to explain the widely reported poor service delivery of the Department of Home Affairs offer to the African immigrants in the country. It has already been established through other academic media that African immigrants in South Africa face widespread discrimination in the socio-political system of South African in form of xenophobia (for xenophobia in South Africa see Harris 2003; Crush and Dodson 2007; Morris 2008; Dodson 2010; Gordon 2010; Joseph 2010; Kalitanyi and Visser 2010; Neocosmos 2010). Matsinhe (2011) called the same syndrome '*Makwerekwere*' in order to explain better the discrimination towards African foreigners in South Africa, especially with regards to why they are the target, which previous theories failed to address.

The study made most effort to establish link between poor service delivery to African immigrants from the Department of Home Affairs and the '*Makwerekwere*' syndrome, which is a common factor in the South African system. This explanation is useful in examining the xenophobia in the outbreaks of violence against African immigrants in May 2008 and the sporadic reports on maltreatment of African immigrants in the Department of Home Affairs. The analysis of information collected during this research shows that African immigrants claimed to be targets of caricature and ill-treatment by the Department of Home Affairs officials.

Findings of the study showed that

1. Xenophobia, Afrophobia or *Makwerekwere* phenomenon is not a state policy in South Africa but those who deploy it do so in their personal capacity to disgust and reject African immigrants in South Africa. As at the current socio-politics of South Africa

since 1994, the ANC led government does not condone anti-immigration, policy at least officially. No political party has so far emerged with an anti-immigration view as the official party manifesto since the end of apartheid. Therefore, the South African government, constitution and immigration laws do not approve discrimination against African immigrants at the Department of Home Affairs but officials' acts of omissions and commissions are responsible for the discrimination African foreigners in the Department.

2. Department of Home Affairs officials practice Xenophobia, Afrophobia and *Makwerekwere* to discriminate against African foreigners. In the process of conducting this research, it was discovered that African foreigners fail victim of discrimination by the officials of the Department in the process of application to acquire relevant permits to reside in the country. African foreigners confirmed that because of the reference to them as *Makwerekwere* or alien by the Department of Home Affairs officials, to give them poor and unsatisfactory service when applying for permits, while European immigrants are treated better and generally regarded as investors or tourists by the officials (Matsinhe, 2011).
3. Corruption is endemic in the Department of Home Affairs as has been reported in the past and in evidence from the African immigrants who responded during data collection of this study. The scenery is not different from the Lindela detention centre where African immigrants are treated as '*Makwerekwere*', detained illegally without deportation to Home countries. In some cases African immigrants are deported without following due process as required by the international or South African law guiding immigration and deportation. The Police also use narcissism of minor differences like complexion, way of dressing, language and smell to identify African immigrants for victimization and exploitation (Neocosmos, 2008). The respondents to the study confirmed this because most had faced arrest because of minor outlooks and perceived differences.
4. South African has not made a serious effort to fight ill treatment of African immigrants in the Department. The state failure to put under control the popular violent attacks on African foreigners in the May 2008 for more than two weeks and the consistent denial of the state that the violence was not xenophobic is a possible obvious reason. The feeling of insecurity among African foreigners in South Africa is another apparent reason to appreciate state failure to control xenophobia in spite of

the standard security system of South Africa. The police on many occasions have failed to act when foreigners are attacked or victimized by hoodlums. The idea of *Makwerekwere* is often deployed to avoid proper actions on the part of the police when African foreigners are in need of the protection of state security. The same idea of *Makwerekwere* is deployed to defend the inactions and actions of the police and other state agencies when it comes to failure to protect African immigrants. The Department of Home Affairs had been an accomplice to this attitude towards African foreigners. Neocosmos (2008) wrote that xenophobia is a state discourse largely because of the restricted citizenship to indigenous South Africans, while attempts had been made continuously by the state to exclude every other form of citizenship.

6.2 SUMMARY

Summary of the study will be based on the aims of the study, research proposition and finally research objectives which ultimately answered the research questions of the study.

6.2.1 Aims of the study

The study utilized ‘*Makwerekwere*’ theory as propounded by Matsinhe (2011) to critically examine the various services to African immigrants by the Department of Home Affairs, such as performance of marriages, issuance of resident permits, study permits, work permits, permanent resident, asylum, citizenship, general documentation and legalization of African immigrants in South Africa.

Another aim was to bridge the gap in literature as literature review shows a lack of enough research in the area of service delivery to African immigrants in South Africa particularly service by the Department of Home Affairs, of which the services are vital to immigrants because of need for their documentation. This study may therefore serve as a contribution to the perceptions of African immigrants in South Africa.

6.2.2 Research proposition

That African immigrants’ fear that the negative perceptions of them held by the Department of Home Affairs’ Officials affect the quality of service they receive from the Department has been argued in the study.

6.2.3 Objectives of the study

One of the objectives of the study was to describe the views of African immigrants on service delivery they receive from the Department of Home Affairs. The study has sought African immigrants' views on the service delivery they receive from the Department of Home Affairs.

A second objective is to analyze and recommend best practice for better service delivery by the Department of Home Affairs of South Africa. The study also noted the suggestions of African immigrants for a better service delivery from the Department as contained in chapter five of the study.

6.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The study hopes to make a contribution to literature on perceptions of African foreigners in South Africa on the service delivery they receive from the Department of Home Affairs. Therefore, social workers, psychologists, government and other stakeholders could use the findings to help in finding workable solutions to the prejudice that is prevalent in South Africa today towards African immigrants, be it called *Makwerekwere*, Afrophobia or xenophobia. It has also provided a theoretical framework suitable for a better understanding of the poor service delivery to African immigrants by the Department of Home Affairs.
2. The South African government can make more elaborate policies that are also more inclusive of African immigrants in the country in order to reduce inter-group anxiety for the purpose of a better state. Laher (2008) recommended campaigns that will demonstrate the similarities between African foreigners and South Africans. Such understanding of similarities would certainly remove or reduce the tension between the African immigrants and South Africans. It then will impact positively on the Department of Home Affairs' service delivery to African immigrants.
3. South African leaders should take it as a point of duty to explain to the South African public and state agencies the advantages and the disadvantages of the presence of immigrants in South Africa. There are reports and counter-reports that the media, state officials and state agencies are biased in their reports against African foreigners. Such should be turned around through a consistent effort of the state.

4. Powerful networks and campaigns should be used to change the perceptions of the Department's officials about Africa immigrants. Individuals, private and public sectors should be involved in the campaign.

5. Corruption and exploitation of African immigrants in South Africa by the Department of Home Affairs officials should be seriously met with the full force of the law. State agencies and individuals must be involved in the fight since corruption and bribery are malpractices as well as illegal acts, whether committed against African immigrants or South African citizens.

6. In-service training is recommended for the staff of the Department of Home Affairs' officials. The forum should be used to educate the officials on the need to treat all customers fairly and equally. The staff should also be acquainted with immigration laws and legislation.

7. An increased cultural exchange between host country, South African and other African countries will be a major breakthrough to ending or reducing poor treatment of Africans immigrants by the Department of Home Affairs officials. Such will show South Africans that African immigrants are very normal. Isike and Isike (2012) have commended the work of the Nigerian film industry in this direction, whereby 'stars' have improved the cultural values and images of Nigeria. This they argue has improved understanding of Nigerian culture, ranging from language, marriage, family, religion, dressing to hairstyle. It is recommended that Africa should embark on similar projects. African foreigners resident in South Africa should also market their image and values to the South African system, including insisting on their rights when infringed by the officials of the Department.

8. In the colonial days, Africans at home and in the diaspora worked together against colonial rule, at and eventually gained independence. Africa also rallied around South Africa during the apartheid days and today South Africa has freedom. During colonialism in Africa and apartheid in South Africa, African countries and people stood together solidly to overcome oppression and injustice. The Organization of African Union (OAU), now the African Union, provided common ground for African people to work together to overcome colonialism and apartheid. Interestingly, before the formation of the OAU, Pan-Africanism with Africans in the diaspora organized to salvage the African image.

In like manner, the African Union today can provide a good ground for Africa to create a better atmosphere for the end of xenophobia, Afrophobia or *Makwerekwere*. Particular emphasis should be laid on Southern Africa, especially South Africa, where it has been noted that African immigrants are ill-treated. This type of move shall provide good ground and

opportunity for the Department of Home Affairs to put to an end the poor treatment of African immigrants by its officials. A renewed and reinvigorated Pan-Africanism and the new African renaissance as philosophized by former President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki are required to fight the scourge of prejudice in Africa. All the stakeholders should be involved in order to achieve the objectives.

6.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of the study is of fourfold:

It is expected that the authorities of South Africa, the South African Department of Home Affairs in particular, Home governments of African immigrants, and role players in international public Administration in Africa will use the findings of the study in future policy making and implementation especially with regard to immigration and migration in Africa. The aim would be to end poor treatment of African immigrants where ever they reside in Africa. In a globalized world, Africa cannot be left behind because of minor differences in outlook.

The study has analyzed the state (weaknesses and strengths) of service delivery in South Africa's Department of Home Affairs, particularly to African immigrants in South Africa. It therefore provided an opportunity for improvement in service delivery of Department of Home Affairs to African immigrants.

The findings of the study will help in remoulding and remodelling the relations of African states and South Africa both in bi-lateral and multi-lateral relations' frameworks in future since plights of African immigrants shall be taken into consideration in future policy formulations and implementations in Africa.

6.4 CONCLUSION

The world is fast becoming a 'global village' through technology of transportation and communication. Therefore, it is a world in which no country, either strong or weak, can afford to be isolated. To be so would be detrimental. Europe is fast coming together with the use of common currency and through the European Union. The African Union needs to take a bold step in the direction of finding a common ground on issues affecting the continent.

South Africa is the largest economy in Africa and is expected that the country must play major role in order to move Africa forward.

Xenophobic South Africa will not be able to play major role in moving Africa forward. South Africa having been able to defeat apartheid with much assistance from Sister African states cannot undermine the need to respect other Africans even when they reside in South Africa. The study agrees with SAMP (2005) that the Department of Home Affairs is not in crisis generally. However, African foreigners are picked on by the Department of Home Affairs officials to discriminate against because of the '*Makwerekwere*' syndrome endemic in South Africa since the country opened their borders to the wider world in 1994.

South Africa must act now that is timely in order to prevent a repeat of the past in which all state resources and powers were used to enforce apartheid and maintain a racial order. The state must use resources within the state to ensure that narcissism of minor difference between South Africans and African immigrants does not destroy the 'rainbow nation', because to allow the existence of discriminatory service within the Department of Home Affairs will contribute to self-destruction.

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APPENDIX 1

PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS IN PRETORIA ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS

INSTRUCTIONS: 1. Please tick e.g (✓)

2. Please support your arguments to express your perception or opinion in the space provided.

3. Informed Consent

SECTION A: Personal Biodata

1. **Age:** 18-25 26-35 36-55 56-70 Above 71
2. **Gender:** Male Female
3. **Country:** Mozambique Zimbabwe Ethiopia Uganda Ghana Nigeria
4. **Resident Area in Pretoria:** Pretoria East Pretoria Central/West Pretoria North
5. **Level of education:** Primary Secondary Tertiary
6. **No of Years in South Africa:** 0- 12 Months 1-5 years 6-10 Years over 10 Years
7. **Employment:** Employed Unemployed
8. **If employed what type of employment** Formal Informal

SECTION B: Perceptions on service delivery by Home Affair Deparment

9. Have you been to any Department of Home Affairs in South Africa since you relocated? Yes No

APPENDIX 2

PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS IN PRETORIA ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN DEPARTMENT OF HOME AFFAIRS

NO	AGE	G	C	RES AREA	EDU	N YS IN SA	EMP	T.OF EMP	V HA	PUR H.DYDU	C	S SAT	WHY	I K LAW
R1	2	1	1	3	2	3	1	1 1	1	2	2	1	1	1
R2	2	2	1	2	3	2	2		2		2			
R3	2	1	1	1	2	3	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1
R4	2	1	1	1	3	2	1	2	1	2		1	2	1
R5	1	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	2		2	2	1	2
R6	1	2	1	3	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
R7	3	1	1	3	3	2	1	2	1	2		2	1	1
R8	2	1	1	3	2	2	1	2	1	2		2	1	2
R9	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
R10	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
R11	2	2	1	3	2	3	1	2	1	1		1	1	1
R12	2	1	1	1	2	4	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1
R13	2	1	1	2	1	4	1	2	2					
R14	3	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2		2
R15	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1
R16	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1		2	1	2
R17	3	1	1	1	2	3	2		1	2		1	1	1
R18	1	2	1	1	1	1	2		1	1	1	1		1
R19	3	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1
R20	5	1	1	2	2	3	1	1	2		2			
R21	3	1	2	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
R22	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
R23	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	2	2		2			
R24	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	2
R25	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
R26	5	1	2	1	1	1	2		1	1		1	1	1
R27	1	1	2	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	2		2
R28	3	1	2	3	2	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
R29	2	2	2	1	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	2		2
R30	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2
R31	1	2	2	1	1	1			2			2		2
R32	5	2	2	2	1	4	2		1	1	1	1	1	1
R33	3	2	2	3	2	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
R34	3	1	2	3	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2
R35	2	2	2	3	3	2	1	2	1	1		2	2	2

R36	2	2	2	2	3	2	2			1	1		1	1	1
R37	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	2		1	1	1	1	1	1
R38	4	2	2	1	1	2	2			2	2	2			
R39	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	1		1	1	1	2		2
R40	3	1	2	3	1	3	2	2		1	1	1	2	2	
R41	2	1	2	3	2	2	1	2		1	1	2	1	1	1
R42	1	1	3	3	2	1	2			2	1	2	1	1	1
R43	1	1	3	3	2	1	2	2		1	1		2	1	2
R44	2	2	3	2	3	1	2	2		1	1	1	2	1	2
R45	2	2	3	2	3	1	2	2		1	2	1	2		2
R46	2	2	3	1	2	1	2	2		2		2	2	1	1
R47	4	1	3	3	2	4	2			1	1	1	2		1
R48	2	2	3	2	3	2	1	1		1	1	1	2	1	1
R49	2	1	3	2	3	2	1	1		1	1	1	2	2	2
R50	2	2	3	1	2	3	2			1		1	1	1	1
R51	2	1	3	1	2	2	2			1	1	1	2	1	
R52	1	1	3	1	2	2				1	1	1	2	1	2
R53	1	2	3	2	2	2	2			1	1	1	2		2
R54	2	1	3	1	2	3	2	2		1	1	1	2		1
R55	2	2	3	2	2	2	1	2		1	1	1	2	1	2
R56	2	2	3	2	3	1	2			1	1	1	2		2
R57	2	1	3	1	2	2	2			1	1	1	2		2
R58	2	2	3	2	3	2	1	2			2				
R59	2	1	3	1	2	2	2			1	1	1	2	1	1
R60	2	1	3	2	3	2	2			1	2	1	2	1	1
R61	2	2	3	1	3	2	2	2		1	1	1	2	2	2
R62	1	1	3	2	3	1	2			1	1	1	2	2	2
R63	3	2	4	2	3	2	2				1		2	1	1
R64	2	1	4	1	3	2	1	2		1	1		2	1	2
R65	3	2	4	3	2	2	1	2		1	1	1	1	2	1
R66	2	2	4	1	2	2	2	2		1	1	1	2	1	2
R67	3	1	4	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2
R68	2	2	4	2	3	2				1	1	2	2		2
R69	2	1	4	2	2	3	1	1		1		1	1	2	
R70	2	1	4	1	2	2	2			1	1		2		1
R71	2	1	4	2	3	1	1	1	1	1	1		1		1
R72	2	1	4	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1		1		1
R73	1	2	4	2	3	2	2			1	1		2		2
R74	2	1	4	2	3	3	1	2		1	1		1		1

R75	2	1	4	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
R76	3	1	4	3	3	4	2			1	1	2	1	1	2
R77	2	1	4	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1
R78	2	1	4	1	2	3	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1
R79	2	2	4	2	2	2	2			1	2		1	2	2
R80	3	2	4	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1
R81	2	1	4	2	2	2	2	2		1	1		1	2	2
R82	2	1	4	2	3	2	2			1	1		2		2
R83	1	2	4	3	2	4			1	1	1	2	1	2	2
R84	2	1	4	2	3	3	1	2		1	1		1	1	1
R85	2	1	4	2	3	3	1	2		1		2	2		2
R86	2	1	4	2	2	3	1	2		1	1		1	1	2
R87	3	1	4	2	3	4	2			1	1	1	1	2	1
R88	2	1	4	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	2
R89	2	1	4	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1
R90	1	2	4	2	3	1	1	1	1	1	1		2		1
R91	2	2	5	2	2	2	1	1		1	1	1	2		2
R92	3	1	5	2	1	3	1	2		1	1	2	1	2	2
R93	2	1	5	2	2	1	1	1		2	2	1	1	2	2
R94	3	1	5	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	1
R95	1	1	5	2	3	1	2			2		2	1	2	1
R96	1	2	5	3	1	1	1	1		2		2	2	1	
R97	2	2	5	2	1	2	1	2		1	1	1	1	1	
R98	2	1	5	2	3	2	1	1		1	1		2	1	1
R99	2	1	5	2	2	2	1	2		1	1	1	2		2
R100	2	1	5	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
R101	1	2	5	2	2	2	2	2		2		2	2	1	2
R102	2	1	5	2	3	1	2			1	1		2	1	2
R103	2	1	5	2	3	2	1	2		2		1	2	1	1
R104	2	2	5	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2
R105	2	2	5	2	2	2	2			1	1		2	2	2
R106	2	1	5	2	2	1	2		1	1	1		2	2	2
R107	2	1	5	2	2	1	1	2		1	1		2	2	2
R108	1	1	5	2	3	3	1			1	1				
R109	2	2	5	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1		1	2	
R110	2	1	5	2	2	1	2				1				
R111	2	1	5	2	3	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1
R112	2	1	5	2	2	2	2	2		1		2	2		
R113	3	1	5	3	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
R114	2	1	5	3	2	2	2	2		1		1	2	1	2
R115	2	2	5	2	3	3	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
R116	2	2	5	1	2	2	2	2		2		2	2	2	1
R117	2	2	5	3	2	1	2								2

R118	3	1	5	3	2	2	2	2		1	1		2	1	2
R119	2	1	6	2	3	1	2			1	1		2		1
R120	3	1	6	2.00	3	2	2			1	1		1	1	2
R121	3	1	6	2	3	2	1	1		1	1		1		2
R122	3	1	6	2	3	2	1	2		1	1		1	1	2
R123	2	1	6	1	3	2	1	2		1	1	1	1	1	1
R124	2	1	6	3	2	2	2			1	1	1	2	1	2
R125	2	1	6	2	2	1	1	1		1	1		2	1	1
R126	3	1	6	1	3	4	2			1	1	1	2		2
R127	3	1	6	2	2	3	2			1			2		2
R128	3	1	6	3	3	3	1	2		1	1	1	2		2
R129	2	1	6	2	2	2	1	2		1	1	1	1	1	1
R130	2	1	6	1	3	2	1	2		1	1	1	1	1	1
R131	3	1	6	1	1	4	1			1	1	2	2	1	1
R132	3	1	6	2	3	4	1	1		1	2	1	2		2
R133	2	1	6	2	3	2	1	1		1			1	2	1
R134	2	1	6	2	3	1	2			2		2	1	1	1
R135	2	1	6	2	2	2	2			1	2	2	1	2	1
R136	3	1	6	2	3	2	1	2		1	1		2	2	2
R137	2	2	6	2	3	3	2			1	1		2	2	2
R138	4	2	6	2	2	3	2			1	1	1	2	2	2
R139	2	2	6	2	3	2	2			1			2		2
R140	2	2	6	2	3	2	2			1			2		2
R141	3	1	6	2	2	2	1	2		1	1	1	2		2
R142	2	1	6	2	3	2	1	2		2		2			
R143	4	1	6	1	3	2	1	2		1	2	2	2		2
R144	1	1	6	3	2	2					1		2		2
R145	2	1	6	2	3	2	1			1	1	1	1	2	2
R146	2	1	6	2	3	2	2			1	1	1	1	1	2
R147	2	1	6	2	3	2	2			1	2	1	2	2	2
R148	2	1	6	2	3	1	2			2	1	1	1	1	2
R149	2	1	6	2	2	2	2			1	1	2	2		
R150	2	1	6	1	3	2	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1
R151	1	1	6	2	2	2	2			1	1	1	1	1	1
R152	2	1	6	2	2	2	1	2		1	1	1	2		1
R153	3	1	6	3	3	3	2			1	1		2	1	2
R154	3	1	6	2	3	3	2			1	1		2		2
R155	2	1	6	2	3	3				1	1	1	2		2
R156	3	1	6	2	2	4	2			1	1	1	2		2
R157	1	1	6	2	3	2	2			1	1	2	2		2
R158	4	1	6	2	2	2	2			1	1	1	1	2	1
R159	1	1	6	3	3	1	1	1		<u>1</u>		2	2		2
R160	5	2	6	2	2	1	2	1		1	1		1	2	1

R161	2	1	6	1	3	2	1	1		1	1	1	2	1	2
R162	2	1	6	3	2	2	2			1		1	2	2	2
R163	2	2	6	1	2	2	2			2		2	2	2	2
R164	2	1	6	2	3	2	1	1		1	1		1	2	1
R165	3	1	6	1	2	2	2			2		2	2		2
R166	3	2	6	3	2	2	2			1	1		2	1	1
R167	2	1	6	2	3	2	1	2		1	1	1	2	1	2
R168	2	1	6	3	3	3	1	1		1	1	1	2		2

APPENDIX 3

THE STRUCTURE OF THE ABOVE CODE BOOK (APPENDIX 3 PERSONAL BIO-DATA)

COLUMN NO	VARIABLE	RESPONSE	CODE
No1-5	Age	18-25 26-35 36-55 56-70 71 and Above	1 2 3 4 5
No1-2	Gender	M F	1 2
NO1	Country	M Z E U G N	MOZAMBIQUE ZIMBABWE ETHIOPIA UGANDA GHANA NIGERIA
NO1-3	RESIDENT AREA	EAST CENTRAL AND WEST NORTH	1 2 3
NO1-3	LEVEL OF EDUCATION	PRIMARY SECONDARY TERTIARY	1 2 3
NO1-4	NO OF YEARS IN SA	0-12MONTHS 1-5 6-10 11 AND ABOVE	1 2 3 4
NO1-4	EMPLOYMENT	EMPLOYED UNEMPLOYED FORMAL EMPLOYMENT INFORMAL EMLOYM	1 2 3 4

APPENDIX 3

PERCEPTIONS OF AFRICAN FOREIGNERS ON DHA

COLUMN	VARIABLE	RESPONSE	CODE
NO1-2	VISIT TO DHA	YES	1
		NO	2
NO1-2	PURPOSE	DOCUMENTATION	1
		OTHERS	2
NO1-2	HOW DID YOU DOC	SELF	1
		AGENT	2
NO1-2	SERVICE SATISFACTION	YES	1
		NO	2
NO1-2	WHY	GOOD POLICY	1
		GOOD OFFICIALS	2
NO1-2	IMMIGRATION KNOWLEDGE OF THE LAW	YES	1
		NO	2