

Refugee Entrepreneurial Economies in Urban South Africa



Refugee Entrepreneurial Economies in Urban South Africa

**Jonathan Crush, Godfrey Tawodzera, Cameron McCordic
and Sujata Ramachandran**

SAMP MIGRATION POLICY SERIES NO. 76

Series Editor: Prof. Jonathan Crush

**Southern African Migration Programme (SAMP)
2017**

AUTHORS

Jonathan Crush is the CIGI Chair in Global Migration and Development at the Balsillie School of International Affairs, Waterloo, Canada.

Godfrey Tawodzera is Senior Lecturer, Department of Geography, University of Limpopo, Polokwane, South Africa.

Cameron McCordic is a Post-Doctoral Fellow at the Balsillie School of International Affairs.

Sujata Ramachandran is an Associate of the Southern African Migration Programme.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was made possible by UNHCR through the competitive call for proposals on measuring the “Economic Impacts of Refugees on Host Economies.” The authors of this report would like to thank the following team members for their assistance with the project: Caroline Skinner, Manal Stalguitis, Vanya Gastrow, Robertson Tengeh, Vimal Ranchhod, Bronwen Dachs and Maria Salamone. Our thanks also to the many key informants and refugee and South African informal entrepreneurs who agreed to be interviewed for the study. Finally, we wish to thank John Ravenhill, Tiffany Bradley and Jo-Anne Weston at the Balsillie School of International Affairs and Theresa Beltramo at UNHCR for their support.

© Southern African Migration Programme (SAMP) 2017

Published by the Southern African Migration Programme, International Migration Research Centre, Balsillie School of International Affairs, Waterloo, Ontario, Canada

First published 2017

ISBN 978-1-920596-35-4

Cover photo by Thom Pierce

Production by Bronwen Dachs Muller, Cape Town

Printed by Print on Demand, Cape Town

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted, in any form or by any means, without prior permission from the publishers

CONTENTS

PAGE

Executive Summary	1
Introduction	6
Research Methodology	8
Refugee Profile	11
Business Characteristics and Strategies	18
Entrepreneurial Economies	22
Conclusion	28
Endnotes	30
References	32
Migration Policy Series	37

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Cape Town Interview Locations	10
Table 2: Limpopo Interview Locations	11
Table 3: Sex, Age and Country of Origin Profile of Refugee Entrepreneurs	12
Table 4: Previous Places of Residence in South Africa	15
Table 5: Challenges Faced by Refugee Entrepreneurs in South Africa	17
Table 6: Economic Sector of Refugee Enterprises	18
Table 7: Goods and Services Offered by Refugee and South African Entrepreneurs	19
Table 8: Primary Sources of Refugee Start-Up Capital	20
Table 9: Business Strategies of Refugee Entrepreneurs	22
Table 10: Net Monthly Profit of Refugee Entrepreneurs	23
Table 11: Increase in Value of Refugee Enterprises	24
Table 12: Main Suppliers Used by Refugee Entrepreneurs	24
Table 13: Occupancy Status of Business Premises	26
Table 14: Employment Generation by Refugee Enterprises	27

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Year of Arrival in South Africa	13
Figure 2: Migration of Limpopo Entrepreneurs	14
Figure 3: Amount of Start-Up Capital Used by Refugee Entrepreneurs	21

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

More than 60% of the world's refugees now live in urban areas, according to the UNHCR. The social and economic impacts of refugee movements are therefore increasingly being felt in the towns and cities of host nations. The notion of “refugee economies” has been adopted to highlight the strong involvement of refugees in the many overlapping processes of production, consumption, exchange and entrepreneurship. As urban refugees increasingly become the norm in the urbanizing Global South, more research on the specifically urban economic impacts of protracted refugee situations is therefore urgently needed. Identifying the economic advantages and benefits associated with the presence of refugees is a key precondition for making governments more responsive to refugee needs and removing the barriers they face.

South Africa has adopted a “self-settlement” approach to refugees. The country imposes no restrictions on freedom of movement and the geographical locations where refugees can reside. They are not confined to refugee camps or physically separated from citizens, which means they have direct interaction with South Africans. The self-settlement model emphasizes self-sufficiency on the part of refugees in the process of resettlement, with little assistance from state authorities. Many urban refugees are unable, for various reasons, to access formal employment in the cities and turn to the informal economy for their livelihoods. Because urban informality is generally invisible to policy-makers, scorned by politicians, and seen as a site of desperation rather than opportunity, its economic significance is often minimized.

The primary aim of this report is to examine what we call “refugee entrepreneurial economies” in urban South Africa. Within the informal sector, refugee enclaves have often been viewed as stagnant pools of desperation, providing narrow opportunities and limited scope for advancement. But this is a misleading characterization. It is important to recognize the dynamism and growing complexity of South African refugee economies and to reshape our ideas about their positive economic impacts. In this report, we seek to broaden the image of refugees and their economic impacts beyond a narrow focus on their marginal status and vulnerability. They are viewed as dynamic agents with skills and capabilities who can play an integral role in transforming local settings and contributing to economic development. The report also addresses the question of whether geographical location makes a difference to the nature of refugee entrepreneurial economies by contrasting refugee enter-

prise in a major South African city (Cape Town) with that in several smaller towns in a different part of the country (Limpopo province).

Cape Town was chosen as one of two study sites because there is a significant concentration of refugees in the city. In 2015, SAMP conducted surveys of migrant entrepreneurs in Cape Town and Johannesburg and found that in Cape Town, one-third of the respondents were refugees. In recent years, refugee entrepreneurs have also been establishing businesses in smaller urban areas around the country. In contrast to Cape Town, very little research exists on refugee livelihoods and entrepreneurship in Limpopo, which was chosen as the second site for this study. The study focused only on informal sector business owners who hold refugee (Section 24) permits under the Refugees Act. Holders of asylum-seeker (Section 22) permits were not included as many of these migrants are unlikely to be refugees, as conventionally defined. In Cape Town, 504 refugees were interviewed in 12 different areas of the city using a survey instrument first developed by SAMP for the Growing Informal Cities Project. A similar number were interviewed in Limpopo in the towns of Polokwane, Musina, Louis Trichardt, Thohoyandou, Burgersfort and Tzaneen. In each of the two study sites, a “control group” of 500 South Africans was interviewed (1,000 in total). The survey was complemented with 50 in-depth interviews with business owners in each research location and three focus groups with refugees in each location.

The first section of the report compares refugee business owners in Cape Town and small-town Limpopo to ascertain if there are any significant differences in their respective socio-demographic and migration profiles:

- Male refugee entrepreneurs clearly dominate in both areas, with only 20-25% of business owners being women;
- The entrepreneurs in both locations tend to be relatively young with 80% in Cape Town and 77% in Limpopo under the age of 40. Very few entrepreneurs in either location were over the age of 50.
- There are marked differences in the countries of origin of refugee entrepreneurs. In Cape Town, the most numerous group was from Somalia. While there were some Somali-owned businesses in Limpopo and Ethiopian-owned businesses in Cape Town, the largest group in Limpopo towns was from Ethiopia. Some national groups were well represented in both places, including from the DRC and Zimbabwe. In both Cape Town and Limpopo, there were small numbers of refugees from the same countries, notably Burundi, Cameroon, Congo Brazzaville, Eritrea, Rwanda and Sudan.

- The majority of refugee business owners (over 90%) arrived in South Africa after 2000. Limpopo has a slightly greater proportion of recent arrivals than Cape Town. In Limpopo, there is a clear time lag between year of migration to South Africa and year of arrival in the province. As many as 64% of the refugee entrepreneurs in Limpopo had lived in another South African town or city first (compared to only 27% in Cape Town).
- The major reason for relocation from large cities to small-town Limpopo is the pattern of violence against non-South African informal businesses. Experience of violent crime and fears over personal safety were recurrent motives for moving to Limpopo, which appears to be a safer haven and less inhospitable business environment than South Africa's large cities. But while relocation to Limpopo may lessen the chances of victimization, it does not eliminate them. Many of the refugees interviewed in Limpopo told stories of being robbed and having their business premises destroyed. Police misconduct emerged as a greater problem for refugees in Limpopo.

Despite being located in very different parts of South Africa, and nearly 2,000 km apart, the Cape Town and Limpopo refugee entrepreneurs engaged in a similarly wide range of economic activities. The vast majority in both locations are in the retail sector (75-79%), followed by services (25-28%) and manufacturing (4%-8%). The kinds of goods being sold and services offered are very similar as well. Among the sampled Limpopo refugee entrepreneurs, the most common items sold are clothing/footwear, confectionary, soft drinks, and toiletries/cosmetics. In Cape Town, the most common items sold are cigarettes, clothing/footwear, personal accessories, and confectionary and beverages.

Given the common perception among South African policy-makers that refugees and other migrants are driving South Africans out of business, it is of interest to see if they are selling the same kinds of goods. While no product category is the exclusive domain of either group, South Africans dominate the sale of fresh and cooked food and refugees are more likely to be selling footwear, personal accessories, electronics and household products.

With regard to the business operations of refugees in the two locations, the main findings were as follows:

- The primary sources of business start-up capital in both areas were personal savings. Around 20% of both groups used loans from relatives, 12-14% loans from non-relatives and 12% gifts from relatives. Very few were able to access funding from banks, NGOs

or the UNHCR. The main difference worth noting was that more entrepreneurs in Limpopo were able to access goods on credit with which to start their businesses.

- The most common strategies include bulk purchasing, extended hours of operation, keeping business records, negotiating prices with suppliers, allowing customers to buy goods on credit, and competitive prices. Refugees consult other entrepreneurs, suppliers and the media for information about the price of goods. There was very little difference in the frequency of use of business strategies by the two groups of refugees. Living in a large city does seem to provide more opportunity for buying in bulk, negotiating with suppliers and getting information on prices from other entrepreneurs. Almost a third of the Limpopo refugees travel to Johannesburg to purchase supplies, while most Cape Town refugees obtain their goods in the city.
- Although refugees in Limpopo are able to start a business with a smaller capital outlay than those in Cape Town, their enterprises are not as profitable. The Limpopo refugees earned less on average than their Cape Town counterparts: ZAR7,246 versus ZAR11,315 per month.
- In both Cape Town and Limpopo there are clear indications of increased business value with significant upward movement out of the lowest value category of less than ZAR5,000. The proportion of businesses in the ZAR50,000-plus value category increased from 27% to 47% in Cape Town and in Limpopo from 15% to 42%, suggesting that higher-value businesses may actually be performing better in Limpopo than in Cape Town.

The establishment and growth of refugee businesses has economic spin-offs for a variety of South African stakeholders. The first beneficiaries are formal sector suppliers including wholesalers, supermarkets, fresh produce markets, retailers and manufacturers. Around two-thirds of the sampled refugees in both Cape Town and Limpopo purchase supplies from wholesalers, who are easily the largest beneficiaries of their patronage. Refugees in Cape Town are also more likely to patronize supermarkets and factories while those in Limpopo are more likely to patronize small shops. The average monthly spend at wholesalers was very similar in both Cape Town and Limpopo (ZAR35,000).

The second major beneficiary of the activities of refugee entrepreneurs is the South African treasury. While most businesses operate in the informal sector and are too small to

pay income tax, they pay VAT on most goods purchased from formal sector suppliers and do not claim rebates.

Third, as these refugees noted, they pay heavy rents to South African property owners. While over half of both groups of refugees paid rent to a private South African owner, this was more common in Limpopo (almost 66%). The average monthly rentals were very similar: ZAR4,838 in Cape Town and ZAR4,555 in Limpopo.

Fourth, the municipal government has a direct financial interest in its dealings with refugees. Particularly in Cape Town, refugees pay into municipal coffers through rent for business sites. This amounted to 22% of the refugee entrepreneurs compared with only 4% in Limpopo. These rents were higher in Cape Town, an average of ZAR879 per month compared to only ZAR311 per month in Limpopo. Also, as many as 28% of Limpopo-based refugees (and 21% of those in Cape Town) pay an annual licence fee to the municipality. The cost of a business licence is much higher in Cape Town at ZAR1,959 per year compared to ZAR752 per year in Limpopo.

Fifth, refugee businesses in the informal economy create jobs. Around half (52%) of the Cape Town refugee entrepreneurs and just under half (45%) of the Limpopo entrepreneurs employ people in their businesses. The Cape Town and Limpopo entrepreneurs were equally likely to employ South Africans (around 50% of the total number of jobs created). While the Limpopo entrepreneurs favoured female employees (51% versus 45% of total employees), both groups preferred to hire South African women than men (with 65-70% of South African employees in both sites being female).

Finally, it is clear from the accounts of refugees in both Cape Town and Limpopo that one of the primary beneficiaries of their activities in the informal economy is the South African consumer who can access goods and services much more cheaply than from formal sector suppliers. These include necessities such as cheaper food for the food insecure, luxuries such as household and personal products, and services such as panel-beating.

INTRODUCTION

More than 60% of the world's refugees now live in urban areas, according to the UNHCR. The social and economic impacts of refugee movements are therefore increasingly being felt in the towns and cities of host nations. In general, the presence of refugees among urban populations is more likely to be assessed in terms of perceived burdens than benefits.¹ Only recently has interest emerged in what has been characterized as the positive “economic lives of refugees.”² Some researchers have adopted the notion of “refugee economies” to highlight the strong involvement of refugees in the many overlapping processes of production, consumption, exchange, entrepreneurship, and development of financial and capital markets in host countries and beyond.³ However, it would be a mistake to imagine that there are discrete spatially and economically isolated “refugee economies” in the urban environment. Refugees may dominate particular economic and geographical niches in the urban economy but they continuously interact with and contribute to that economy in ways that are poorly understood. As refugees increasingly become the norm in the urbanizing Global South, more research on the specifically urban economic impacts of protracted refugee situations is therefore urgently needed.⁴

This report aims to contribute to recent literature that takes “refugee livelihoods” as its point of departure.⁵ A livelihoods perspective underscores the need to adopt a rights-based approach to the economic activities of forced migrants; to identify their resources, assets and skills; and to understand how they respond to their situation and secure their livelihood needs. This perspective represents a move away from welfare-centred models of engagement focused on meeting basic needs towards a capability approach, which emphasizes refugees’ agency, right to choose, and ability to control their own environments.⁶ Identifying the economic advantages and benefits associated with the presence of refugees is a key precondition for making governments and local elites more responsive to refugee needs and removing the barriers they face.⁷ This objective coheres with the UNHCR’s Global Strategy for Livelihoods, which underscores the need to enhance the economic capabilities of refugee populations and build on their own resilience.⁸

The sizable case-study literature on refugees and asylum-seekers in South Africa is dominated by an overwhelming sense of the problems they face and their marginalized existence, reinforcing an image of victimhood, exploitation and vulnerability.⁹ In recent years, a more troubling image has emerged of refugees as unfair and underhand competi-

tors who disadvantage poor South Africans.¹⁰ Both characterizations suffer from obvious problems. The former treats them in a restricted manner as undifferentiated, homogeneous populations defined by their marginalized status as recipients of protection in the host country. The latter views them in a prejudicial manner through a warped understanding of the nature of economic competition and refugee rights. Undue emphasis on their legal standing as refugees tends to minimize their educational qualifications and credentials, skills, and work experience in various fields. Furthermore, it underestimates their creative energies, determination and ability to overcome some of these challenges and rebuild their lives in South Africa.

Post-apartheid South Africa has relied on a “self-settlement” approach to refugees.¹¹ The country imposes no restrictions on freedom of movement and the geographical locations where refugees can reside. They are not confined to refugee camps or physically separated from citizens, which means they have direct interaction with South Africans with the potential for both conflict and integration into local communities. However, the South African self-settlement model does emphasize self-sufficiency on the part of refugees in the process of resettlement, with little assistance from state authorities.¹² Existing studies suggest that many urban refugees are unable, for various reasons, to access formal employment in the cities and turn to the informal economy for their livelihoods.¹³ Employment or self-employment in the informal economy becomes a desirable option, if not a necessity. Because urban informality is generally invisible to policy-makers, scorned by politicians, and seen as a site of desperation rather than opportunity, its economic significance is often minimized.¹⁴

The primary aim of this report is to examine what we call “refugee entrepreneurial economies” in urban South Africa. The report builds on case-study evidence on the activities of refugees in the South African informal economy.¹⁵ Within the informal sector, refugee enclaves have often been viewed as stagnant pools of desperation, providing narrow opportunities and limited scope for advancement. But this, too, is a misleading characterization. It is important to recognize the dynamism and growing complexity of South African refugee economies and to re-shape our ideas about their positive economic impacts.¹⁶ The important question is whether all forms of refugee activity in the informal sector are associated with economic precariousness and social marginality, or whether possibilities for real economic advancement exist.¹⁷

In this report, we seek to broaden the image of refugees and their economic impacts beyond a narrow focus on their marginal status and vulnerability. We view them as dynamic agents with skills and capabilities who can play an integral role in transforming local settings and contributing to economic development. This is not to undervalue the divergent ways through which refugees earn a living in South Africa, nor to gloss over their struggles and the pervasive discrimination, hostility and xenophobic violence they regularly encounter, nor to exaggerate the significance of refugee entrepreneurship. However, there is a need to recalibrate the narrow, partial and negative lens through which their economic potential is evaluated by politicians and policy-makers. Here, we also address the question of whether geographical location makes a difference to the nature of refugee entrepreneurial economies by contrasting refugee enterprise in a major South African city (Cape Town) with that in several smaller towns in a different part of the country (Limpopo province). Our aim is to ascertain whether geography matters in framing the activities, challenges and impacts of refugee entrepreneurial economies.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Most refugees are initially drawn to the major South African cities of Johannesburg, Durban, Port Elizabeth and Cape Town. In this study of refugee entrepreneurship, the city of Cape Town was chosen as one of two study sites because there is a significant concentration of refugees and a contextual literature on refugee entrepreneurship in the city.¹⁸ In recent years, refugee entrepreneurs have also been establishing businesses in smaller urban areas around the country. A police campaign called Operation Hardstick in Limpopo province in 2012 forcibly closed as many as 600 small businesses run by migrants and refugees, suggesting that this province had become a significant operating location for small-town entrepreneurs. In contrast to Cape Town, however, very little research exists on refugee livelihoods and entrepreneurship in Limpopo, which was chosen as the second site for this study.¹⁹

The study focused only on informal sector business owners who hold refugee (Section 24) permits under the Refugees Act. Holders of asylum-seeker (Section 22) permits were not included as many of these migrants are unlikely to be refugees, as conventionally defined. The South African government claims that 90% of asylum-seeker permit holders are “economic migrants” and not genuine refugees as defined by the Refugee Conventions. While this figure has been disputed by researchers, it is not possible to predict whether

any particular asylum-seeker permit holder will make the transition to full refugee status. Indeed, the majority probably will not.²⁰ In 2015, SAMP conducted surveys of migrant entrepreneurs in Cape Town and Johannesburg and found that in Cape Town, one third of the respondents were refugees.²¹ All potential respondents were asked if they had a Section 24 permit as a filtering question. They were not asked to show their permits to verify their claim as this would have been intrusive and redolent of police (mis)conduct. It is therefore possible that some of the respondents did not have Section 24 permits (which could explain why a small number were from countries with a limited or non-existent official record of successful refugee applications in South Africa). However, it is also possible to buy a false Section 24 permit through various back channels.

The number and geographical location of refugee enterprises in South Africa is unknown, which means that there is no comprehensive population from which to draw a sample. The study therefore relied on maximum variation sampling (MVS) using the methodology suggested by a recent study of the informal economy in Bangalore.²² The basic principle is that by randomly sampling within a selection of diverse and contrasting areas of the city, researchers can arrive at a sample that is very close to being representative. In Cape Town, the areas of the city in which the informal economy is known to operate were first identified. This allowed for the exclusion of significant areas of the city from the study, particularly high-income residential areas. Second, five different types of area were identified – commercial, formal residential, informal residential, mixed formal and informal residential, and industrial. Within each of these types, contrasting and geographically separated areas were chosen. There were two commercial areas (the CBD and Bellville), two industrial areas (Maitland and Parow), three formal residential areas (Observatory, Delft and Nyanga), three informal settlements (Khayelitsha, Imizamo Yethu and Masiphumelele) and two mixed formal and informal residential areas (Philippi and Dunoon).

The number of refugee business owners interviewed in each suburb is listed in Table 1. An attempt was made to interview similar numbers in each area. However, this was not always possible as it soon became evident that refugee entrepreneurs tend to cluster in certain areas of the city. In Nyanga, Dunoon and Masiphumelele, for example, where there is a great deal of hostility towards foreign nationals, it was difficult to find refugees conducting businesses. In contrast, residential areas such as Parow, Maitland, Cape Town CBD, Bellville and Observatory are considered relatively safe areas to conduct business. Interviews in one pre-selected area could not be carried out because of the intervention of the local

taxi association which demanded financial recompense in exchange for access to the area. It transpired that the association was running a protection racket, obliging refugees to pay daily “fees” for operating in the area. The association later changed its position on access but by then another area had been selected and the interviews completed.

Table 1: Cape Town Interview Locations

Suburb	No.
Bellville	91
CBD	103
Delft	26
Imizamo Yethu	34
Khayelitsha	25
Maitland	40
Masiphumelele	10
Parow	82
Philippi	21
Dunoon	42
Nyanga	3
Observatory	27
Total	504

In Limpopo, the majority of migrant entrepreneurs live in urban centres. Since many of these centres are relatively small, the primary criterion for the application of MVS in Limpopo was variable urban size. The selected towns are scattered around the province and include Polokwane (population of 130,000), Thohoyandou (70,000), Musina (43,000), Louis Trichardt (25,000), Tzaneen (14,500) and Burgersfort (6,000). The number of refugee business owners interviewed in each town is listed in Table 2. In Musina, close to the Zimbabwean border, the informal trade is dominated by refugees from countries including Ethiopia, Eritrea and Somalia, who deal in retail targeted at the Zimbabwean market. The same is true of Burgersfort, where most local people prefer to lease their business premises to migrants and refugees rather than operate businesses themselves. In Tzaneen and Polokwane, however, informal businesses operated by South Africans tend to dominate. In Tzaneen, in particular, there were few refugee entrepreneurs operating and those who were tended to congregate in the CBD.

Table 2: Limpopo Interview Locations

Town	No.
Polokwane	159
Musina	121
Louis Trichardt	36
Thohoyandou	59
Burgersfort	96
Tzaneen	33
Total surveyed	504

Sampling was conducted in each site using the mapped grid-pattern exhibited by streets. Streets were sampled one after another in successive fashion moving from west to east. After identifying the first five enterprises on a street, and randomly selecting the first of the five for the sample, every third refugee-owned enterprise was selected for interview. Where business owners were not available, fieldworkers made three call backs to the enterprise, after which a substitution was made. In the two study areas combined, a total of 1,008 refugee entrepreneurs were interviewed. The survey was administered using tablet technology and collected information on a wide variety of issues pertaining to business set-up, activities, operation, profitability, challenges, and economic impacts. The enterprise survey was complemented with 50 in-depth interviews with business owners in each research location and three focus groups with refugees from the same country in each location.

REFUGEE PROFILE

This section of the report compares refugee business owners in Cape Town and small-town Limpopo to ascertain if there are any significant differences in their respective socio-demographic and migration profiles. First, male refugee entrepreneurs clearly dominate in both areas, with only 20-25% of business owners being women (Table 3). This is generally consistent with the predominantly male character of refugee migration to South Africa. The entrepreneurs in both locations tend to be relatively young with 80% in Cape Town and 77% in Limpopo under the age of 40. Very few entrepreneurs in either location were over the age of 50. Accepting the International Labour Organization definition of “youth” in Africa as anyone under the age of 35, this would mean that 54% of those in Cape Town and

57% of those in Limpopo are youth entrepreneurs.²³ This means that there are no significant differences between the two groups of entrepreneurs in terms of age profile. However, it does mean that the difficulties and challenges facing young entrepreneurs in South Africa, and how these are addressed by refugee youth, warrant further investigation.²⁴

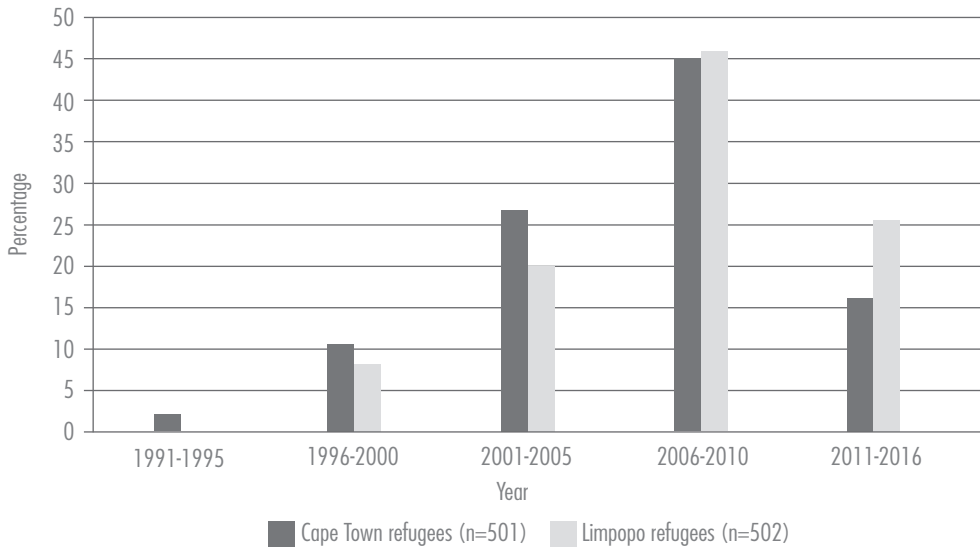
Table 3: Sex, Age and Country of Origin Profile of Refugee Entrepreneurs

	Cape Town %	Limpopo %
Sex		
Male	75.2	80.0
Female	24.8	20.0
Age		
<21	0.0	0.2
21-25	8.5	10.8
26-30	20.1	23.4
31-35	25.2	22.2
36-40	26.6	21.0
41-45	12.2	11.4
46-50	4.3	6.8
>50	3.0	4.4
Country of origin		
Somalia	26.9	7.4
DRC	16.9	11.0
Cameroon	11.6	0.8
Ethiopia	9.2	28.1
Zimbabwe	7.2	11.1
Congo Brazzaville	3.0	0.6
Burundi	1.4	0.6
Angola	1.0	0.6
Rwanda	0.8	0.2
Sudan	0.2	1.0
Eritrea	0.2	4.6
Other	21.6	34.4

Despite the similarities in sex and age breakdown between the two samples, there are marked differences in the countries of origin of refugee entrepreneurs. In the Cape Town sample, the most numerous group was from Somalia, which is consistent with other studies showing a significant Somali presence in the informal economy of the city.²⁵ While there are some Somali-owned businesses in Limpopo and Ethiopian-owned businesses in Cape Town, the largest group in this sample of refugee entrepreneurs in Limpopo towns was from Ethiopia (28%). Some national groups are well represented in both places, including refugees from the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) (17% in Cape Town and 11% in Limpopo) and Zimbabwe (7% in Cape Town and 11% in Limpopo). In both the Cape Town and Limpopo samples, there are small numbers of refugees from the same countries, notably Burundi, Cameroon, Congo Brazzaville, Eritrea, Rwanda and Sudan. In sum, both areas are dominated by refugees from one or two (different) countries but after that there is considerable diversity in the makeup of the refugee entrepreneurial population.

The vast majority of sampled refugee business owners (over 90% in both research locations) arrived in South Africa after 2000 (Figure 1).

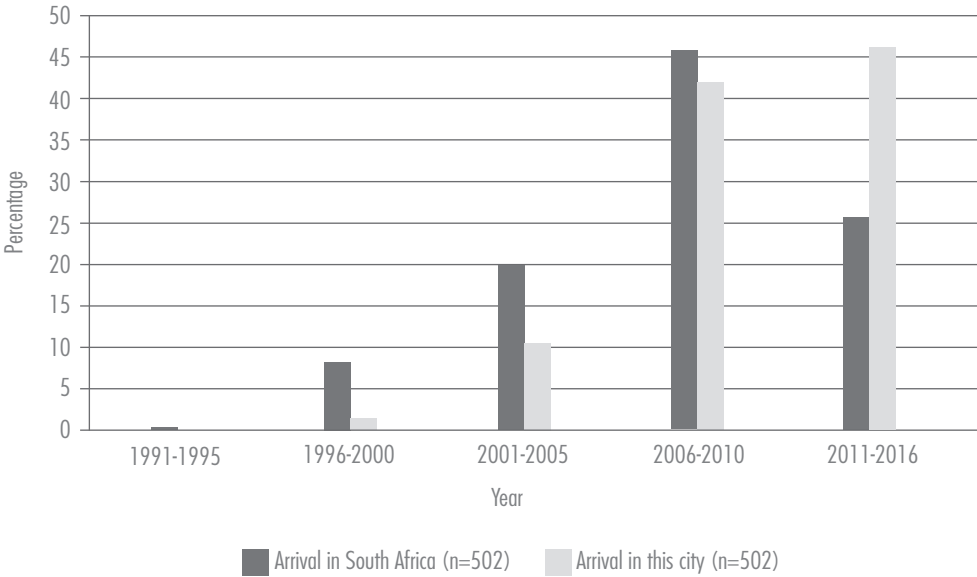
Figure 1: Year of Arrival in South Africa



Limpopo has a slightly greater proportion of recent arrivals than Cape Town. For example, 71% of the refugees in Limpopo migrated to South Africa after 2005 compared to 61% of those in Cape Town. Or again, 26% of those in Limpopo arrived in South Africa after

2010, compared to only 16% in Cape Town. This raises the possibility that more recent forced migrants may be avoiding the large cities and going straight to smaller urban centres. However, in Limpopo there is a clear lag between year of migration to South Africa and year of arrival in the province (Figure 2). As many as 64% of the sampled refugee entrepreneurs in Limpopo had lived in another South African town or city first (compared to only 27% in Cape Town) (Table 4). In other words, Cape Town was the first destination for nearly three-quarters of the refugee entrepreneurs in that sample while Limpopo was the first destination for only 13% of the entrepreneurs sampled there.

Figure 2: Migration of Limpopo Entrepreneurs



In the Limpopo sample, previous places of residence were dominated by the large cities, especially Johannesburg (29%) and Pretoria (13%), but also Durban (5%) and even Cape Town (5%), which is nearly 2,000 km away. The movement of refugees from Limpopo to Cape Town was much more limited. As many as 17% of the Limpopo refugees had lived in another town in the province, suggesting the existence of some intra-provincial mobility. This kind of movement was virtually absent in the case of Cape Town and the Western Cape province. In the Cape Town sample, the majority of the 28% who had lived in another urban area came from Johannesburg, with much smaller numbers from cities such as Pretoria and Durban.

Table 4: Previous Places of Residence in South Africa

	Cape Town %	Limpopo %
Major cities		
Johannesburg	15.7	29.0
Pretoria	4.2	12.9
Durban	3.2	5.0
Cape Town	n/a	4.6
Port Elizabeth	1.6	2.4
Other urban centres		
Other Western Cape	0.2	1.2
Other Limpopo	1.2	16.9
Other Gauteng	0.0	1.6
Other KwaZulu-Natal	0.2	1.2
Other Eastern Cape	0.2	0.2
Free State	0.4	1.6
North West	0.2	1.6
Northern Cape	0.6	1.4
Mpumalanga	0.4	6.7
<i>Note: Multiple response question</i>		

The major reason for relocation from large cities to small-town Limpopo is clearly the pattern of violence against non-South African informal businesses.²⁶ Nationwide xenophobic attacks on migrants and refugees in 2008 led to considerable loss of life, damage to property and internal displacement.²⁷ In 2015, widespread xenophobic violence again wracked the country. Unlike the indiscriminate violence of 2008, these attacks mainly targeted small informal businesses run by migrants, asylum-seekers and refugees. Media coverage of xenophobic incidents chronicles an escalating pattern of xenophobic violence directed at migrants and refugees between 2008 and 2015.²⁸ Refugee-owned businesses are regular targets of attacks and certain locations have witnessed collective violence in repeated cycles, including loss of store contents through looting and arson, damage to shop structures, forcible store closures, temporary or permanent displacement, and loss of life.²⁹ The impact of xenophobic violence is exacerbated by poor police response and follow-up. Refugees have little faith in police protection or judicial reparation.³⁰ According to one

study, the perceived failure of the authorities to control migration has exacerbated violent attacks on migrants and refugees.³¹

Some studies have suggested that attacks on refugee-owned businesses are instigated or orchestrated by South African competitors, including various shadowy informal business associations.³² This phenomenon – dubbed “violent entrepreneurship” – involves the use of intimidatory violence as a business strategy to drive non-South African competitors out of an area.³³ The most frequent and intense xenophobic attacks and instances of violent entrepreneurship have occurred in low-income neighbourhoods in large cities. The in-depth interviews with Limpopo refugee entrepreneurs confirmed that xenophobic violence was a major factor in relocation from cities of first refuge. One Somali refugee recounted how he had arrived in Johannesburg after a long and difficult journey through several countries; experiences consistent with that of other Somali refugees.³⁴ In Johannesburg, he lived with his brother and neighbours from the same village in Somalia. His brother operated a business buying goods in the CBD and selling them at his shop in Soweto. He worked for his brother for a while but found the experience unnerving: “I did not want to operate in Soweto. The people there were nice but there were others who were just rough. I had seen two people being killed in broad daylight and they were all foreigners and their shops were robbed. So I wanted to go somewhere else.” With his brother’s assistance he bought a small spaza (informal shop) in Orange Farm south of Johannesburg and ran it for a year:

Orange Farm was a good area for business but it was not safe. As a foreigner you are always conscious of your security and you can feel that this place is not good. It is far from the Johannesburg CBD and there are few police there. So even when there are robberies, the police come very late and sometimes they do not come at all. I was robbed seven times in the period that I stayed in Orange Farm. Most of the time the robbers would come when it is at night and you are still operating. They pounce on you with sticks, spanners or iron bars and they hit you hard. So I was almost killed twice and I thought this is enough. Let me leave this place. Then I left and came here.³⁵

Experience of violent crime and fears over personal safety were recurrent motives for moving to Limpopo. Interviewees moved to escape being injured or murdered rather than specifically to set up a new business. One Eritrean refugee, for example, had his spaza looted and burnt to the ground: “I came here because I was running for my life. I was not thinking of doing business, but of surviving. I was almost killed that night.”³⁶

Some have said that South African business owners are just as vulnerable to violent attacks and crime as their refugee counterparts and suggest that xenophobia is therefore not a factor.³⁷ However, the interviewees in Limpopo clearly saw the violence in Johannesburg and other centres as motivated by xenophobia. As the former Orange Farm business owner noted: “There were many spaza shops around me, but they kept stealing from me. Is that not xenophobia? Why not steal from the locals? The customers sometimes harass you because you are a foreigner. They take your goods and are a problem in paying. So, yes, I have been affected a lot by xenophobia.”

Limpopo province appears to be a safer haven and less inhospitable business environment than South Africa’s large cities. As many as 45% of sampled Cape Town refugees said that xenophobia had affected their business operations to some extent (20%) or a great deal (25%). The equivalent figures in Limpopo were 31% in total (19% to some extent and 12% not at all). Refugees in Cape Town appear to be more vulnerable to theft and physical attack from South African citizens. In the sample, 57% of refugees in Cape Town reported often or sometimes having goods and stock stolen compared to 39% in Limpopo. Similarly, 54% in Cape Town often or sometimes had money stolen compared to 32% in Limpopo.

But while relocation to Limpopo may lessen the chances of victimization, it certainly does not eliminate them. Many of the refugees interviewed in Limpopo told stories of being robbed and having their business premises destroyed. Police disregard for the rights of refugees and migrants is a significant problem in Cape Town and other large cities.³⁸ However, police misconduct emerged as a greater problem for refugees in Limpopo. This survey found that police harassment, demands for bribes, confiscation of goods, and physical violence were all more common in Limpopo than Cape Town (Table 5).

Table 5: Challenges Faced by Refugee Entrepreneurs in South Africa

	Cape Town (% often/sometimes)	Limpopo (% often/sometimes)
Theft of goods/stock	56.7	38.7
Theft of money/income	44.2	31.8
Physical violence by South Africans	23.5	19.2
Confiscation of goods by police	10.2	19.1
Harassment/demands for bribes by police	10.7	26.5
Physical violence by police	6.8	8.8
Verbal insults	32.6	35.7
Prejudice against my nationality	48.0	47.9

BUSINESS CHARACTERISTICS AND STRATEGIES

Despite being located in very different parts of South Africa, and nearly 2,000 km apart, the sampled Cape Town and Limpopo refugee entrepreneurs engaged in a similarly wide range of economic activities. The vast majority of the sample in both locations are in the retail sector (75-79%), followed by services (25-28%) and manufacturing (4-8%) (Table 6). The kinds of goods being sold and services offered are very similar as well. Among the sampled Limpopo refugee entrepreneurs, the most common items sold are clothing/footwear, confectionary, soft drinks, and toiletries/cosmetics. In Cape Town, the most common items sold are cigarettes, clothing/footwear, personal accessories, and confectionary and beverages (Table 7). Comparing the two, the main difference lies in the greater numbers of refugees selling confectionary, toiletries and cosmetics, and household products in Limpopo.

Table 6: Economic Sector of Refugee Enterprises

	Cape Town		Limpopo	
	No.	%	No.	%
Retail, trade and wholesale	400	79.4	378	75.0
Manufacturing	38	7.5	22	4.4
Services	128	25.4	143	28.4
Other	1	0.2	1	0.2

Given the common perception among South African policy-makers that refugees and other migrants are driving South Africans out of business, it is of interest to see if they are selling the same kinds of goods. While no product category is the exclusive domain of either group, it is clear from comparison with a control group of 1,000 South Africans in Limpopo and Cape Town that different market niches are occupied. This is particularly evident in the sale of fresh and cooked food (where South Africans are clearly in the majority in both locations) and footwear, personal accessories, electronics and household products (where refugees predominate) (Table 7). With regard to services, the main difference is in hair braiding and hair salons where there are more refugees than South Africans involved in both Limpopo and Cape Town.

Table 7: Goods and Services Offered by Refugee and South African Entrepreneurs

	Cape Town		Limpopo	
	Refugee %	South African %	Refugee %	South African %
Retail				
Soft drinks (e.g. Coke, Fanta)	23.0	12.4	21.6	13.8
Cigarettes	21.4	6.6	18.5	19.3
Clothing and footwear	18.8	12.4	20.2	3.5
Personal accessories (e.g. bags, sunglasses)	14.5	8.2	18.5	4.2
Confectionary (sweets/candies and cakes)	13.7	10.8	20.2	23.5
Fresh produce (fruits and vegetables)	11.3	17.3	15.5	35.7
Toiletries and cosmetics	9.5	3.4	20.0	4.4
Cooked food ready to eat	7.5	19.9	6.0	17.1
Electronics	6.3	1.4	8.7	2.1
Arts and crafts	5.0	1.4	0.2	0.9
Books/newspapers	3.8	0.8	2.0	0.5
Household products	3.6	2.4	15.1	4.2
Hardware/tools	1.6	1.8	2.8	0.5
Music/film CDs/DVDs	1.0	0.8	4.2	1.4
Car parts	0.8	0.8	0.2	0.2
Livestock (e.g. chickens)	0.2	2.4	0.2	1.1
Alcohol	0.4	0.2	0.4	1.6
Other	9.9	13.5	18.5	16.8
Services				
Haircutting and braiding	10.9	5.0	19.2	7.6
IT/internet	4.4	1.2	1.0	0.7
Telephone	1.6	0.0	1.6	2.3
Shoe repairs	1.2	2.0	0.2	1.9
Traditional doctor	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.0
Accommodation	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.4
Car repairs	0.2	0.8	0.8	1.6
Medicine (pharmacy)	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2
Transportation (taxi/passengers)	0.2	0.8	0.2	0.2
Car wash	0.0	2.6	0.8	4.1

REFUGEE ENTREPRENEURIAL ECONOMIES IN URBAN SOUTH AFRICA

Financial	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.5
Rentals	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.4
Transportation (goods)	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.2
Construction	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.2
Car parking/guarding	0.0	3.8	0.0	1.1
Other	5.4	5.2	5.8	5.5

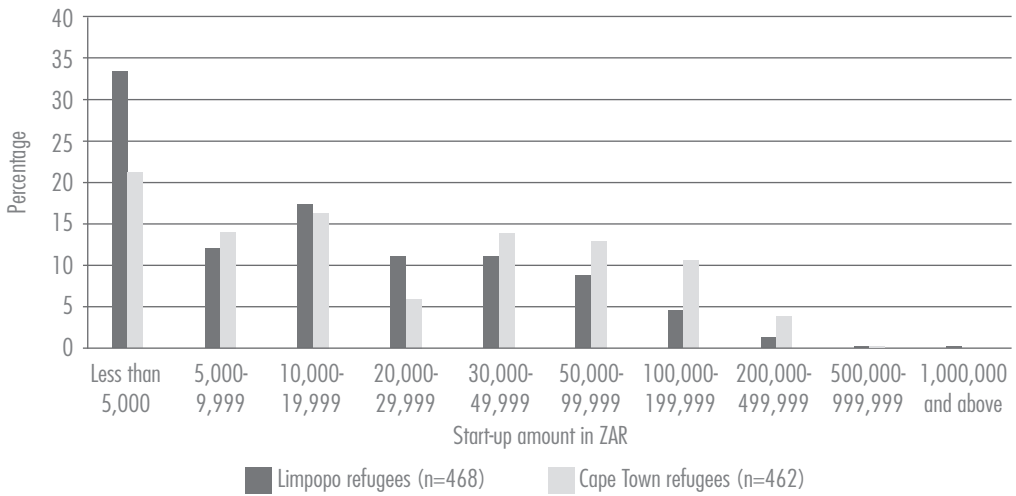
The primary sources of business start-up capital in both areas were very similar, suggesting that being in a large city does not provide additional financing opportunities (Table 8). Approximately 85% of the sampled refugees in both Cape Town and Limpopo used their personal savings to start their business. Around 20% of both groups used loans from relatives, 12-14% loans from non-relatives and 12% gifts from relatives. A small number in both areas used remittances from outside the country to establish their businesses. Only a handful of refugees in both areas were able to access funding from banks, NGOs or the UNHCR. The only difference worth noting was that more entrepreneurs in Limpopo were able to access goods on credit with which to start their businesses.

Table 8: Primary Sources of Refugee Start-Up Capital

	Cape Town %	Limpopo %
Personal savings	85.9	84.3
Loan from relatives	19.8	20.2
Gift from relatives	13.7	11.7
Loan from non-relatives	12.1	14.3
Loan from church	2.4	0.2
Money from relatives in another country	2.4	2.4
Loan from mosque	1.4	0.2
Loan from informal financial institutions	1.2	1.4
Bank loan	0.8	1.2
Loan from government agency	0.2	0.0
Goods on credit	0.0	9.1
Loan or grant from NGO	0.0	1.4
Loan or grant from UNHCR	0.0	0.4
Usurers/ <i>mashonisa</i> (money lenders)	0.0	0.2
Other source	2.2	6.9

Despite the similarities in sources of start-up capital, the amounts needed to establish a business did differ. In Limpopo, the sampled refugee entrepreneurs seemed to be able to start a business with less capital. Thirty-four percent had less than ZAR5,000 compared to 21% of the Cape Town refugee entrepreneurs and 63% had less than ZAR10,000 compared to 52% of the Cape Town entrepreneurs. At the other end of the scale, 27% of the sampled Cape Town refugees had more than ZAR50,000 in start-up capital compared to only 15% of those in Limpopo.

Figure 3: Amount of Start-Up Capital Used by Refugee Entrepreneurs



Despite their lack of prior business experience, refugees in South Africa have developed strategies to maximize their returns. Table 9 lists a variety of business strategies and shows how many sampled refugees employ them in the conduct of their business. The most common strategies include bulk purchasing, extended hours of operation, keeping business records, negotiating prices with suppliers, allowing customers to buy goods on credit, and competitive prices. Refugees consult other entrepreneurs, suppliers and the media for information about the price of goods. These are all commonsense business strategies and certainly do not fall into the category of underhand and secret tactics that the South African Minister of Small Business Development has accused them of employing. There was very little difference in the frequency of use of business strategies by the two groups of refugees. Living in a large city does seem to provide more opportunity for buying in bulk, negotiating with suppliers and getting information on prices from other entrepreneurs, however.

Almost one-third of the Limpopo refugees travel to Johannesburg to purchase supplies, while most Cape Town refugees obtain their goods in the city. This probably affords the latter greater opportunity for bulk buying, negotiation with suppliers and information-sharing.

Table 9: Business Strategies of Refugee Entrepreneurs

Operational Strategies	Cape Town %	Limpopo %
Obtain price information from other entrepreneurs	75.6	57.9
Purchase stock in bulk	69.7	56.3
Extended hours of operation	69.5	65.5
Negotiate prices with suppliers	67.7	59.8
Keep business records	59.4	55.7
Call suppliers for information on prices	57.2	61.2
Negotiate prices with customers	47.8	60.5
Offer credit to customers	42.0	44.8
Sell goods more cheaply than competitors	42.0	38.6
Charge different prices for different customers	37.1	30.3
Give discounts to regular customers	34.9	39.1
Consult media for price information	31.9	28.1
Partner with other businesses to distribute risk	28.1	34.2
Engage in shareholding	10.3	25.9
Purchase insurance	3.2	7.0

ENTREPRENEURIAL ECONOMIES

In this study, we use two measures of business success: (a) net monthly profit and (b) the difference between the current value of the enterprise and the initial capital outlay. With regard to the first indicator, net profit, it is clear that although refugees in Limpopo are able to start a business with a smaller capital outlay than those in Cape Town, their enterprises are not as profitable. The sampled Limpopo refugees earned less on average than their Cape Town counterparts: ZAR7,246 per month compared to ZAR11,315 in Cape Town (Table 10). Only one-third of the sampled Cape Town entrepreneurs made less than ZAR5,000 per month compared to 58% of those in Limpopo. Or again, 70% of the Limpopo entrepreneurs make less than ZAR7,500 per month compared to only 49% of those in Cape Town.

Table 10: Net Monthly Profit of Refugee Entrepreneurs

	Cape Town		Limpopo	
	%	cumulative %	%	cumulative %
<= ZAR2,500	14.7	14.7	18.1	18.1
ZAR2,501–ZAR5,000	18.6	33.3	40.0	58.1
ZAR5,001–ZAR7,500	15.5	48.8	10.9	70.0
ZAR7,501–ZAR 10,000	15.3	73.1	12.7	82.7
ZAR10,001–ZAR 12,500	6.2	79.3	3.0	85.7
ZAR12,501–ZAR 15,000	8.8	88.1	5.1	90.8
ZAR15,001–ZAR 17,500	1.4	89.5	2.3	93.1
ZAR17,501–ZAR 20,000	6.5	96.0	3.9	95.0
>ZAR20,000	4.0	100.0	5.0	100.0

As regards the second indicator of business success – the difference between the amount of start-up capital and the current value of the enterprise – in both Cape Town and Limpopo there are clear indications of increased value. For example, 21% of the sampled entrepreneurs in Cape Town started with less than ZAR5,000 but only 3% of the businesses were currently valued at less than ZAR5,000 (Table 11). In Limpopo, the equivalent figures were 34% (start-up) and 14% (current value). In both locations, therefore, there was significant upward movement out of the lowest value category. A similar pattern can be observed with businesses that started with less than ZAR20,000. In Cape Town, 51% fell into this start-up category but only 26% of businesses fell into this value category. The proportion of sampled business in the ZAR50,000-plus category increased from 27% to 47% and in Limpopo from 15% to 42%. This suggests that higher-value businesses may actually be performing better in Limpopo than they are in Cape Town.

The establishment and growth of sampled refugee businesses has economic spin-offs for a variety of South African stakeholders. The first beneficiaries are formal sector suppliers including wholesalers, supermarkets, fresh produce markets, retailers and manufacturers. Around two-thirds of the sampled refugees in both Cape Town and Limpopo purchase supplies from wholesalers, who are easily the largest beneficiaries of their patronage (Table 12). Other beneficiaries vary in relative importance, reflecting the difference between operating in a large city and a small town. For example, refugees in Cape Town are more likely to patronize supermarkets and factories while those in Limpopo are more likely to patronize

small shops. The fact that more Cape Town refugees purchase directly from farms is primarily a reflection of the existence of a market gardening area (the Philippi Horticultural Area) within the city limits.³⁹ The average monthly spend at wholesalers was very similar in both Cape Town and Limpopo. Otherwise, the amounts spent varied considerably but, in general, the more important the source, the greater the amount spent.

Table 11: Increase in Value of Refugee Enterprises

	Cape Town		Limpopo	
	Start-up %	Current value %	Start-up %	Current value %
<ZAR5,000	21.4	3.4	33.6	13.6
ZAR5,000–ZAR9,999	14.1	9.2	12.2	9.5
ZAR10,000–ZAR19,999	16.2	13.0	17.1	11.8
ZAR20,000–ZAR29,999	7.1	13.2	10.9	11.6
ZAR30,000–ZAR49,999	14.1	14.1	10.9	11.8
ZAR50,000–ZAR99,999	12.6	20.2	8.8	13.2
ZAR100,000–ZAR199,999	10.4	15.2	4.7	15.2
ZAR200,000–ZAR499,999	3.9	10.3	1.5	10.7
ZAR500,000–ZAR999,999	0.2	0.9	0.2	1.8
>ZAR1,000,000	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.7

Table 12: Main Suppliers Used by Refugee Entrepreneurs

	Cape Town	Limpopo	Cape Town	Limpopo
	No.	No.	Average monthly spend (ZAR)	Average monthly spend (ZAR)
Wholesaler	323	292	34,565	34,908
Direct from factory	64	18	9,575	20,278
Supermarkets	49	37	12,253	3,979
Fresh produce markets	28	21	28,021	2,000
Non-South African informal sector producers/retailers	24	43	9,121	15,549
Small shops/retailers	21	90	3,738	6,876
South African informal sector producers/retailers	13	19	7,631	3,859
Direct from farms	8	4	19,625	4,875
Other sources	28	18	14,855	4,586

The second major beneficiary of the activities of refugee entrepreneurs is the South African treasury. While most businesses operate in the informal sector and are too small to pay income tax, they do pay value-added tax (VAT) on most goods purchased from formal sector suppliers. One Ethiopian refugee in a Limpopo focus group observed that they not only paid VAT on goods but were unable to claim rebates:

There are many things we do to help the economy. We operate our businesses and we buy our stock from the wholesalers. We pay VAT there so our money is going into the economy. We pay a lot of money that way. Some of our people go to buy goods that are worth ZAR200,000 or even more. Some buy every week and some buy every day. So imagine if you are paying ZAR200,000 for goods and VAT is 14% so that is more than ZAR25,000 I am paying to the government. Even after paying this large amount of VAT we suffer because we cannot claim some of it because we do not have the documents. We are not registered. If we were registered, at the end of the year we would claim some of the VAT like South Africans do. We are actually paying more and contributing more through VAT than most South African small businesses.⁴⁰

Another participant claimed that business registration was impossible because “government does not want to register us.”⁴¹

Third, as these refugees noted, they pay heavy rents to South African property owners:

South Africans are surviving on us because we pay them money to rent their shops. I pay ZAR4,000 per month to my landlord to use the shop. That is a lot of money. How many local people can afford to pay that money? Locals do not pay that kind of money when they rent. They will pay ZAR1,000 or ZAR1,500 only, not ZAR4,000. We pay because we have no choice, we want to do business and survive.

While over half of both groups of refugees paid rent to a private South African owner, this was more common in Limpopo (almost 66%) (Table 13). However, the average monthly rentals paid to landlords were very similar: ZAR4,838 in Cape Town and ZAR4,555 in Limpopo. Renting also provides refugees with a modicum of protection. As one noted: “If your landlord is respected or feared, then you are okay because the thugs will not come and break in.”⁴² The Cape Town refugee entrepreneurs were more likely to own their business premises, although the numbers were small (7.4% compared to 2.2% in Limpopo).

Table 13: Occupancy Status of Business Premises

	Cape Town %	Limpopo %	Cape Town monthly rent (ZAR)	Limpopo monthly rent (ZAR)
Pay rent to private owner who is a South African (company or individual)	53.6	65.9	7,541	4,838
Pay rent to council/municipality	21.5	3.8	860	879
Pay rent to private owner who is not a South African (company or individual)	9.4	8.8	2,800	3,180
Owner or part-owner	7.4	2.2		
Rent-free, with permission	5.2	6.4		
Rent-free, without permission	1.2	10.6		
Share space/premises with others	0.0	0.4		
Other	1.6	1.8		

Fourth, the municipal government has a direct financial interest in its dealings with refugees. Particularly in Cape Town, refugees pay into municipal coffers through rent for business sites. This amounted to 22% of the refugee entrepreneurs compared with only 4% in Limpopo. Rents were higher in Cape Town, an average of ZAR879 per month compared to only ZAR311 per month in Limpopo. Also, as many as 28% of Limpopo-based refugees (and 21% of those in Cape Town) pay an annual licence fee to the municipality. The cost of a business licence is much higher in Cape Town at ZAR1,959 per year compared to only ZAR752 per year in Limpopo.

Fifth, there is a growing consensus in the research literature that migrant businesses in the informal economy create jobs for South Africans, and that this needs to be acknowledged by government. As one refugee observed: “The government does not want to accept that we are contributing. When they talk about us they make it look like we are only taking, taking and taking from the South Africans.”⁴³ Another pointed out the mutual benefits of employing South Africans:

We employ a lot of South Africans. If your business starts to grow, you employ, not only our people from Ethiopia, but also locals. They help with customers and other things. They speak the language and understand quickly what the customer wants. Even though I understand the language, there are words that I

*do not know and so it is better when you employ a South African, they will talk and agree and I will communicate with my employee. The locals need work and we also need workers, so it is a mutual benefit.*⁴⁴

Some refugees also find that employing South Africans is a form of security against theft, although it can be a double-edged sword:

*It is good security because they will know the local thugs and thieves and so they may tell them to leave you alone. If you have a bad employee, they may connive with the thieves and steal from you, so it is both ways. Sometimes we employ locals that we know, when we know their parents and we talk to them so that they do not steal and run away. It is better to employ someone from around the area, someone in the community.*⁴⁵

Around half (52%) of the Cape Town refugee entrepreneurs and just under half (45%) of the Limpopo entrepreneurs employ people in their businesses (Table 14). In terms of the profile of employees, the Cape Town and Limpopo entrepreneurs were equally likely to employ South Africans (around 50% of the total number of jobs created). While the Limpopo entrepreneurs favoured female employees (51% versus 45% of total employees), both groups preferred to hire South African women over men (with 65-70% of South African employees in both sites being female). What this suggests is that, in both large cities and small urban areas, refugee entrepreneurs may be providing jobs for more South African women than men and thereby contributing to lowering the female unemployment rate.

Table 14: Employment Generation by Refugee Enterprises

	Cape Town		Limpopo	
	No.	%	No.	%
Male South African	66	17.7	37	11.8
Female South African	120	32.2	82	26.1
Male from home country	101	27.2	81	25.8
Female from home country	28	7.5	26	8.3
Male from other countries	35	9.4	37	11.8
Female from other countries	22	5.6	51	16.2

Finally, it is clear from the accounts of refugees in both Cape Town and Limpopo that one of the primary beneficiaries of their activities in the informal economy is the South African consumer who can access goods and services much more cheaply than from formal sector suppliers. These include necessities such as cheaper food for the food insecure, luxuries such as household and personal products, and services such as panel-beating. One group of five Zimbabwean refugees in Cape Town (including a former teacher), for example, operate a panel-beating and spray-painting business in an industrial area of the city. In a focus group, they discussed at length how and why they had established the business, their business challenges and the nature of the service they offer to South Africans:

We are very good at this business. There are many people who come here because they cannot afford to repair their cars in these expensive garages, so we are offering them services otherwise they would not be driving their cars. That is a good service we are offering. Some of the customers actually go to the garages first and the charges there will make them come to us.⁴⁶

These refugees also argued, in a prescient manner, that their activities saved the South African government and the UNHCR from having to support them. As one commented: “In Europe the governments look after the refugees and every month they get paid like they are working. But here we are working for ourselves and are saving the government a lot of money.”⁴⁷

CONCLUSION

This paper aims to contribute to the literature on urban refugee livelihoods in the global South and, in particular, to a small but growing body of work on urban refugee entrepreneurship in cities of refuge.⁴⁸ The concept of “refugee economies” is a valuable starting point for restoring agency, self-reliance and innovation to populations all too often represented as passive victims. One of the defining characteristics of many large cities in the rapidly urbanizing South is the high degree of informality of shelter, services and economic livelihoods. As one study argues, this involves “highly mobile and provisional possibilities for how people live and make things, how they use the urban environment and collaborate with one another.”⁴⁹ Furthermore, these urban spaces provide for “upscaling a variety of entrepreneurial activities through the dense intersections of actors from different countries and situations.”⁵⁰ It is these dynamic, shifting and dangerous informal urban spaces that

refugees often arrive in with few resources other than a will to survive, a few social contacts and a drive to support themselves in the absence of financial support from the host government and international agencies.

South Africa is sometimes hailed as having an extremely progressive refugee protection regime by the standards of the rest of Africa. Refugees enjoy freedoms denied in other countries, including the right to move and live anywhere and the right to work and be self-employed. Many opt for employment and self-employment in the informal economy because they find it extremely difficult to access the formal labour market or to establish and operate a business in the formal economy. Newly-arrived refugees, including those with advanced skills and professional qualifications, initially find themselves accepting menial work on construction sites or as dishwashers in restaurants. Those with relatives or friends already in the country often work in their informal businesses until they have saved enough money to launch their own. They start small and with extremely hard work, self-sacrifice and hardship, their businesses take off. South Africa, then, provides an important example of refugee self-reliance, motivation and agency through informal entrepreneurship.

At the same time, South Africa is one of the most xenophobic countries in the world and migrants of any kind are extremely unwelcome. Large-scale violence directed at migrants and refugees wracked the country in 2008 and again in 2015. In between, extreme xenophobia, in the form of violent attacks on migrant and refugee-owned shops and small businesses, has escalated. The state refuses to acknowledge that xenophobia exists, much less that something should be done about it. Attacks on foreign businesses are dismissed as general criminality, which might be an acceptable rhetorical position if there was evidence that the police provide adequate protection and justice for the victims. The evidence of human rights observers, previous studies, and confirmed here, is that policing is lackadaisical at best and certainly does very little to protect refugees from re-victimization in their chosen country of refuge. The fact that informal businesses started and run by refugees have become a particular target means that the South African city has become a hazardous place for refugee entrepreneurs.

Refugee economic opportunity and entrepreneurial activity is likely to vary significantly between camp and urban environments. This report addresses the question of variability between urban environments within the same destination country by comparing refugee entrepreneurship in the large city of Cape Town with a population of over 3 million and several small towns in the predominantly rural province of Limpopo, none larger than

150,000. The research shows that refugee entrepreneurial activity in Limpopo is a more recent phenomenon and largely a function of refugees moving away from large cities such as Johannesburg where their businesses and lives are in greater danger. While Somali refugees predominate in Cape Town and Ethiopian refugees in Limpopo, the refugee populations in both areas are equally diverse and tend to be engaged in the same wide range of activities. Less start-up capital is needed in Limpopo but the refugees in both areas pursue similar business strategies and make similar contributions to the local economy. They face many of the same business challenges, including problems with documentation and the refusal of banks to offer credit, although small town policing appears to be harsher and more corrupt. While South African consumers clearly benefit from and appreciate their presence, migrant entrepreneurs are more vulnerable to xenophobic violence in Cape Town than Limpopo. In short, different urban geographies do shape the local nature of refugee entrepreneurial economies, but there are also remarkable similarities in the manner in which unconnected refugee entrepreneurs establish and grow their businesses in large cities and small provincial towns.

ENDNOTES

- 1 Omata and Weaver, "Assessing Economic Impacts of Hosting Refugees."
- 2 Jacobsen, *Economic Lives of Refugees*.
- 3 Betts et al., "Refugee Economies."
- 4 Koizumi and Hoffstadter, *Urban Refugees*.
- 5 Buscher, "New Approaches to Urban Refugee Livelihoods"; Jacobsen, "Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Urban Areas"; Omata et al "Refugee Livelihoods"; De Vriese, "Refugee Livelihoods: A Review of the Evidence."
- 6 Landau "Protection as Capability Expansion."
- 7 Lyytinen and Kullenberg, "Urban Refugee Research: An Analytical Report."
- 8 UNHCR, *Global Strategy for Livelihoods*.
- 9 Crush and Chikanda, "Forced Migration in Southern Africa."
- 10 Desai, "Xenophobia and The Place of the Refugee"; Gordon, "Welcoming Refugees in the Rainbow Nation."
- 11 Handmaker et al., *Advancing Refugee Protection in South Africa*.
- 12 Polzer Ngwato, "Policy Shifts in the South African Asylum System."
- 13 Achiume, "Beyond Prejudice"; Jacobsen, "Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Urban Areas"; Kavuro, "Refugees and Asylum Seekers."

- 14 Pavanello et al., “Hidden and Exposed”; Williams, “Out of the Shadows.”
- 15 Greyling, “Expected Well-Being of Urban Refugees and Asylum-Seekers”; Jinnah, “Making Home in a Hostile Land”; Owen, *Congolese Social Networks*; Smit and Rugunanan, “From Precarious Lives to Precarious Work”; Thompson, “Risky Business and Geographies of Refugee Capitalism”; Zack, “Jeppe.”
- 16 Skinner, “Street Trading Trends in Africa”; Roever and Skinner, “Street Vendors and Cities.”
- 17 Crush et al., *Mean Streets*.
- 18 Basardien et al., “Entrepreneurial Orientation of Spaza Shop Entrepreneurs”; Gastrow and Amit, “Somalinomics”; Gastrow and Amit “Role of Migrant Traders in Local Economies”; Tawodzera et al., *International Migrants and Refugees in Cape Town’s Informal Economy*.
- 19 Idemudia et al., “Migration Challenges among Zimbabwean Refugees”; Mothibi et al., “Xenophobic Attacks on Foreign Shop Owners and Street Vendors”; Ramatheje and Mtapuri, “Dialogue on Migration.”
- 20 Amit, “No Refuge”; Amit and Kriger, “Making Migrants ‘Il-legible.’”
- 21 Tawodzera et al., *International Migrants and Refugees in Cape Town’s Informal Economy*.
- 22 Williams and Gurtoo, “Evaluating Competing Theories of Street Entrepreneurship.”
- 23 Kew, *Africa’s Young Entrepreneurs*.
- 24 Fatoki and Chindoga, “Investigation into the Obstacles to Youth Entrepreneurship”; Gwija et al. “Challenges and Prospects of Youth Entrepreneurship Development.”
- 25 Basardien et al., “Entrepreneurial Orientation of Spaza Shop Entrepreneurs”; Gastrow and Amit, “Somalinomics”; Gastrow and Amit, “The Role of Migrant Traders in Local Economies”; Tawodzera et al., *International Migrants and Refugees in Cape Town’s Informal Economy*.
- 26 Crush et al., *Informal Migrant Entrepreneurship and Inclusive Growth*.
- 27 Hassim et al., *Go Home or Die Here*; Landau, *Exorcising the Demons Within*.
- 28 Crush and Ramachandran, “Doing Business with Xenophobia.”
- 29 Crush and Ramachandran, “Migration Myths and Extreme Xenophobia.”
- 30 Haile, *Immigrants and Xenophobia*; Okpechi, “Access to Justice by Refugees and Asylum Seekers.”
- 31 Steinberg, “Security and Disappointment.”
- 32 Crush and Ramachandran, “Doing Business with Xenophobia.”
- 33 Charman and Piper, “Xenophobia, Criminality and Violent Entrepreneurship.”
- 34 Jinnah, “Making Home in a Hostile Land”; Sadouni, “God is Not Unemployed.”
- 35 Interview with Somali Refugee, 12 March 2016.
- 36 Interview with Eritrean Refugee, 21 March 2016.
- 37 Piper and Charman, “Xenophobia, Price Competition and Violence in the Spaza Sector.”

- 38 Alfaro-Velcamp and Shaw, “Criminalising Migrants in South Africa.”
- 39 Battersby-Lennard and Haysom, “Philippi Horticultural Area.”
- 40 Focus Group Participant, Burgersfort, 1 April 2016
- 41 Ibid.
- 42 Focus Group Participant, Burgersfort, 1 April 2016.
- 43 Ibid.
- 44 Ibid.
- 45 Ibid.
- 46 Focus Group Discussion, Cape Town, 22 February 2016.
- 47 Ibid.
- 48 Campbell, “Formalising the Informal Economy”; Campbell, “Urban Refugees in Nairobi”; Gastrow and Amit, “Somalinomics”; Omata, “Refugee Livelihoods and the Private Sector”; Pavanello et al., “Hidden and Exposed”; Thompson, “Risky Business and Geographies of Refugee Capitalism.”
- 49 Simone, “People as Infrastructure.”
- 50 Ibid.

REFERENCES

1. Achiume, T. (2014). “Beyond Prejudice: Structural Xenophobic Discrimination Against Refugees” *Georgetown Journal of International Law* 45: 323-381.
2. Alfaro-Velcamp, T. and Shaw, M. (2016). “‘Please GO HOME and BUILD Africa’: Criminalising Migrants in South Africa” *Journal of Southern African Studies* 42: 993-998.
3. Amit, R. (2011). “No Refuge: Flawed Status Determination and the Failures of South Africa’s Refugee System to Provide Protection” *International Journal of Refugee Law* 23: 458-488.
4. Amit, R. and Kriger, N. (2014). “Making Migrants ‘Il-legible’: The Policies and Practices of Documentation in Post-Apartheid South Africa” *Kronos* 40: 269-290.
5. Basardien, F., Parker, H., Bayat, M., Friedrich, C. and Appoles, S. (2014). “Entrepreneurial Orientation of Spaza Shop Entrepreneurs: Evidence from a Study of South African and Somali Owned Spaza Shop Entrepreneurs in Khayelitsha” *Singaporean Journal of Business Economics and Management Studies* 2: 45-61.

6. Battersby-Lennard, J. and Haysom, G. (2012). "Philippi Horticultural Area" AFSUN and Rooftops Canada Abri International, Cape Town and Toronto.
7. Betts, A., Bloom, L., Kaplan, J. and Omata, N. (2014). "Refugee Economies: Rethinking Popular Assumptions" Humanitarian Innovation Project Report, Refugee Studies Centre, University of Oxford, Oxford.
8. Buscher, D. (2011). "New Approaches to Urban Refugee Livelihoods" *Refuge* 28: 17-29.
9. Campbell, E. (2005). "Formalising the Informal Economy: Somali Refugee and Migrant Trade Networks in Nairobi" Global Migration Perspectives No. 47, Global Commission on International Migration, Geneva.
10. Campbell, E. (2006). "Urban Refugees in Nairobi: Problems of Protection, Mechanisms of Survival, and Possibilities for Integration" *Journal of Refugee Studies* 19: 396-413.
11. Charman, A. and Piper, L. (2012). "Xenophobia, Criminality and Violent Entrepreneurship: Violence Against Somali Shopkeepers in Delft South, Cape Town, South Africa" *South African Review of Sociology* 43: 81-105.
12. Crush, J. and Chikanda, A. (2014). "Forced Migration in Southern Africa" In E. Fiddian-Qasmiyeh, G. Loescher, K. Long and N. Sigona (eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Refugee and Forced Migration* (Oxford: Oxford University Press), pp. 554-570.
13. Crush, J. and Ramachandran, S. (2015). "Doing Business With Xenophobia" In J. Crush, A. Chikanda and C. Skinner (eds.), *Mean Streets: Migration, Xenophobia and Informality in South Africa* (Ottawa and Cape Town: IDRC and SAMP), pp. 25-59.
14. Crush, J. and Ramachandran, S. (2015). "Migration Myths and Extreme Xenophobia in South Africa" In D. Arcarazo and A. Wiesbrock (eds.), *Global Migration: Old Assumptions, New Dynamics, Volume 3* (Santa Barbara: Praeger), pp. 71-96.
15. Crush, J., Chikanda, A. and Skinner, C. (eds.) (2015). *Mean Streets: Migration, Xenophobia and Informality in South Africa* (Ottawa and Cape Town: IDRC and SAMP).
16. Crush, J., Skinner, C. and Chikanda, A. (2015). *Informal Migrant Entrepreneurship and Inclusive Growth in South Africa, Zimbabwe and Mozambique*. SAMP Migration Policy Series No. 68, Cape Town and Waterloo.
17. Desai, A. (2008). "Xenophobia and the Place of the Refugee in the Rainbow Nation of Human Rights" *African Sociological Review* 12: 49-68.

18. De Vriese, M. (2006). "Refugee Livelihoods: A Review of the Evidence" Evaluation and Policy Analysis Unit, EPAU/2006/04, UNHCR, Geneva.
19. Fatoki, O. and Chindoga, L. (2011). "An Investigation into the Obstacles to Youth Entrepreneurship in South Africa" *International Business Research* 4: 161-169.
20. Gastrow, V. and Amit, R. (2013). "Somalinomics: A Case Study on the Economics of Somali Informal Trade in the Western Cape" ACMS Research Report, Wits University, Johannesburg.
21. Gastrow, V. and Amit, R. (2015). "The Role of Migrant Traders in Local Economies: A Case Study of Somali Spaza Shops in Cape Town" In J. Crush, A. Chikanda and C. Skinner (eds.), *Mean Streets: Migration, Xenophobia and Informality in South Africa* (Ottawa and Cape Town: IDRC and SAMP), pp. 162-177.
22. Gordon, S. (2016). "Welcoming Refugees in the Rainbow Nation: Contemporary Attitudes Towards Refugees in South Africa" *African Geographical Review* 35: 1-17.
23. Greyling, T. (2015). "The Expected Well-Being of Urban Refugees and Asylum-Seekers in Johannesburg" Working Paper 507, ESRA, Cape Town.
24. Gwija, S., Eresia-Eke, C. and Iwu, C. 2014. "Challenges and Prospects of Youth Entrepreneurship Development in a Designated Community in the Western Cape, South Africa" *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies* 6: 10-20.
25. Haile, T. (2012). "Immigrants and Xenophobia: Perception of Judicial System Personnel and Experiences of Ethiopian Immigrants in Accessing the Justice System in Newcastle, South Africa" MA Thesis, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban.
26. Handmaker, J., De la Hunt, L. and Klaaren, J. (eds.) (2011). *Advancing Refugee Protection in South Africa 2nd Edition* (New York and Oxford: Berghahn Books).
27. Hassim, S., Kupe, T. and Worby, E. (eds.) (2008). *Go Home or Die Here: Violence, Xenophobia and the Reinvention of Difference in South Africa* (Johannesburg: Wits University Press).
28. Idemudia, E., Williams, J. and Wyatt, G. (2013). "Migration Challenges among Zimbabwean Refugees Before, During and Post Arrival in South Africa" *Journal of Injury and Violence Research* 5: 17-27.
29. Jacobsen, K. (2005). *The Economic Lives of Refugees* (Bloomfield, CT: Kumarian Press).

30. Jacobsen, K. (2006). "Refugees and Asylum Seekers in Urban Areas: A Livelihoods Perspective" *Journal of Refugee Studies* 19: 273-286.
31. Jinnah, Z. (2010). "Making Home in a Hostile Land: Understanding Somali Identity, Integration, Livelihood and Risks in Johannesburg" *Journal of Sociology and Social Anthropology* 1: 91-99.
32. Kavuro, C. (2015). "Refugees and Asylum Seekers: Barriers to Accessing South Africa's Labour Market" *Law, Democracy and Development* 19: 232-260.
33. Kew, J. (2015). *Africa's Young Entrepreneurs: Unlocking the Potential for a Brighter Future* (Ottawa: IDRC).
34. Koizumi, K. and Hoffstadter, G. (eds.) (2015). *Urban Refugees: Challenges in Protection, Services and Policy* (London: Routledge).
35. Landau, L. (2008). "Protection as Capability Expansion: Practical Ethics for Assisting Urban Refugees" In D. Hollenbach (ed.), *Refugee Rights: Ethics, Advocacy, and Africa* (Washington DC: Georgetown University Press), pp. 103-124.
36. Landau, L. (ed.) (2012). *Exorcising the Demons Within: Xenophobia, Violence and Statecraft in Contemporary South Africa* (Johannesburg: Wits University Press).
37. Lyytinen, E, and Kullenberg, J. (2013). "Urban Refugee Research: An Analytical Report" International Rescue Committee and Women's Refugee Commission, New York.
38. Mattheisen, E. (2012). "'Because I am a Stranger': Urban Refugees in Yaounde, Cameroon" New Issues in Refugee Research Working Paper No. 244, UNHCR, Geneva.
39. Mothibi, K., Roelofse, C. and Tshivhase, T. (2015). "Xenophobic Attacks on Foreign Shop Owners and Street Vendors in Louis Trichardt Central Business District, Limpopo Province" *Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa* 11: 151-162.
40. Okpechi, A. (2011). "Access to Justice by Refugees and Asylum Seekers in South Africa" PhD Thesis, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.
41. Omata, N. (2012). "Refugee Livelihoods and the Private Sector: Ugandan Case Study" Refugee Studies Centre Working Paper Series No. 86, University of Oxford. Oxford.
42. Omata, N. and Kaplan, J. (2013). "Refugee Livelihoods in Kampala, Nakivale and Kyangwali Refugee Settlements: Patterns of Engagement with the Private Sector" Refugee Studies Centre Working Paper Series No. 95, University of Oxford, Oxford.

43. Omata, N. and Weaver, N. (2015). "Assessing Economic Impacts of Hosting Refugees: Conceptual, Methodological and Ethical Gaps" Refugee Studies Centre Working Paper Series No. 11, University of Oxford, Oxford.
44. Owen, J. (2015). *Congolese Social Networks: Living on the Margins in Muizenberg, Cape Town* (Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield).
45. Pavanello, S., Elhawary, S. and Pantuliano, S. (2015). "Hidden and Exposed: Urban Refugees" In K. Koizumi and G. Hoffstadter (eds.), *Urban Refugees: Challenges in Protection, Services and Policy* (London: Routledge).
46. Piper, L. and Charman, A. (2016). "Xenophobia, Price Competition and Violence in the Spaza Sector in South Africa" *African Human Mobility Review* 2: 332-361.
47. Polzer Ngwato, T. (2013). "Policy Shifts in the South African Asylum System: Evidence and Implications" LHR and ACMS, Pretoria.
48. Ramatheje, G. and Mtapuri, O. (2014). "A Dialogue on Migration: Residents and Foreign Nationals in Limpopo, South Africa" *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences* 5: 573-585.
49. Roever, S. and Skinner, C. (2016). "Street Vendors and Cities" *Environment and Urbanization* 28: 359-374.
50. Sadouni, S. (2009). "'God is Not Unemployed': Journeys of Somali Refugees in Johannesburg" *African Studies* 68: 235-249.
51. Simone, A. (2004). "People as Infrastructure: Intersecting Fragments in Johannesburg" *Public Culture* 16: 407-442.
52. Skinner, C. (2010). "Street Trading Trends in Africa: A Critical Review" In S. Bhowmik (ed.), *Street Vendors in the Global Urban Economy* (New Delhi: Routledge), pp. 184-207.
53. Smit, R. and Rugunanan, P. (2014). "From Precarious Lives to Precarious Work: The Dilemma Facing Refugees in Gauteng, South Africa" *South African Journal of Sociology* 45: 4-26.
54. Steinberg, J. (2012). "Security and Disappointment: Policing, Freedom and Xenophobia in South Africa" *British Journal of Criminology* 52: 345-360.

55. Tawodzera, G., Chikanda, A., Crush, J. and Tengeh, R. (2015). *International Migrants and Refugees in Cape Town's Informal Economy*. SAMP Migration Policy Series No. 70, Cape Town and Waterloo.
56. Thompson, D. (2016). "Risky Business and Geographies of Refugee Capitalism in the Somali Migrant Economy of Gauteng, South Africa" *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies* 42: 120-135.
57. UNHCR (2014). *Global Strategy for Livelihoods, A UNHCR Strategy, 2014-2018* (Geneva: UNHCR).
58. Werker, E. (2007). "Refugee Camp Economies" *Journal of Refugee Studies* 20: 461-480.
59. Williams, C. and Gurtoo, A. (2010). "Evaluating Competing Theories of Street Entrepreneurship: Some Lessons from a Study of Street Vendors in Bangalore, India" *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal* 8: 391-409.
60. Williams, C. (2013). "Out of the Shadows: Classifying Economies by the Extent and Nature of Employment in the Informal Economy" *International Labour Review* 154: 331-351.
61. Zack, T. (2015). "'Jeppe': Where Low-End Globalisation, Ethnic Entrepreneurialism and the Arrival City Meet" *Urban Forum* 26: 131-150.

MIGRATION POLICY SERIES

- 1 *Covert Operations: Clandestine Migration, Temporary Work and Immigration Policy in South Africa* (1997) ISBN 1-874864-51-9
- 2 *Riding the Tiger: Lesotho Miners and Permanent Residence in South Africa* (1997) ISBN 1-874864-52-7
- 3 *International Migration, Immigrant Entrepreneurs and South Africa's Small Enterprise Economy* (1997) ISBN 1-874864-62-4
- 4 *Silenced by Nation Building: African Immigrants and Language Policy in the New South Africa* (1998) ISBN 1-874864-64-0
- 5 *Left Out in the Cold? Housing and Immigration in the New South Africa* (1998) ISBN 1-874864-68-3
- 6 *Trading Places: Cross-Border Traders and the South African Informal Sector* (1998) ISBN 1-874864-71-3
- 7 *Challenging Xenophobia: Myth and Realities about Cross-Border Migration in Southern Africa* (1998) ISBN 1-874864-70-5
- 8 *Sons of Mozambique: Mozambican Miners and Post-Apartheid South Africa* (1998) ISBN 1-874864-78-0

- 9 *Women on the Move: Gender and Cross-Border Migration to South Africa* (1998) ISBN 1-874864-82-9
- 10 *Namibians on South Africa: Attitudes Towards Cross-Border Migration and Immigration Policy* (1998) ISBN 1-874864-84-5
- 11 *Building Skills: Cross-Border Migrants and the South African Construction Industry* (1999) ISBN 1-874864-84-5
- 12 *Immigration & Education: International Students at South African Universities and Technikons* (1999) ISBN 1-874864-89-6
- 13 *The Lives and Times of African Immigrants in Post-Apartheid South Africa* (1999) ISBN 1-874864-91-8
- 14 *Still Waiting for the Barbarians: South African Attitudes to Immigrants and Immigration* (1999) ISBN 1-874864-91-8
- 15 *Undermining Labour: Migrancy and Sub-Contracting in the South African Gold Mining Industry* (1999) ISBN 1-874864-91-8
- 16 *Borderline Farming: Foreign Migrants in South African Commercial Agriculture* (2000) ISBN 1-874864-97-7
- 17 *Writing Xenophobia: Immigration and the Press in Post-Apartheid South Africa* (2000) ISBN 1-919798-01-3
- 18 *Losing Our Minds: Skills Migration and the South African Brain Drain* (2000) ISBN 1-919798-03-x
- 19 *Botswana: Migration Perspectives and Prospects* (2000) ISBN 1-919798-04-8
- 20 *The Brain Gain: Skilled Migrants and Immigration Policy in Post-Apartheid South Africa* (2000) ISBN 1-919798-14-5
- 21 *Cross-Border Raiding and Community Conflict in the Lesotho-South African Border Zone* (2001) ISBN 1-919798-16-1
- 22 *Immigration, Xenophobia and Human Rights in South Africa* (2001) ISBN 1-919798-30-7
- 23 *Gender and the Brain Drain from South Africa* (2001) ISBN 1-919798-35-8
- 24 *Spaces of Vulnerability: Migration and HIV/AIDS in South Africa* (2002) ISBN 1-919798-38-2
- 25 *Zimbabweans Who Move: Perspectives on International Migration in Zimbabwe* (2002) ISBN 1-919798-40-4
- 26 *The Border Within: The Future of the Lesotho-South African International Boundary* (2002) ISBN 1-919798-41-2
- 27 *Mobile Namibia: Migration Trends and Attitudes* (2002) ISBN 1-919798-44-7
- 28 *Changing Attitudes to Immigration and Refugee Policy in Botswana* (2003) ISBN 1-919798-47-1
- 29 *The New Brain Drain from Zimbabwe* (2003) ISBN 1-919798-48-X
- 30 *Regionalizing Xenophobia? Citizen Attitudes to Immigration and Refugee Policy in Southern Africa* (2004) ISBN 1-919798-53-6

- 31 *Migration, Sexuality and HIV/AIDS in Rural South Africa* (2004) ISBN 1-919798-63-3
- 32 *Swaziland Moves: Perceptions and Patterns of Modern Migration* (2004) ISBN 1-919798-67-6
- 33 *HIV/AIDS and Children's Migration in Southern Africa* (2004) ISBN 1-919798-70-6
- 34 *Medical Leave: The Exodus of Health Professionals from Zimbabwe* (2005) ISBN 1-919798-74-9
- 35 *Degrees of Uncertainty: Students and the Brain Drain in Southern Africa* (2005) ISBN 1-919798-84-6
- 36 *Restless Minds: South African Students and the Brain Drain* (2005) ISBN 1-919798-82-X
- 37 *Understanding Press Coverage of Cross-Border Migration in Southern Africa since 2000* (2005) ISBN 1-919798-91-9
- 38 *Northern Gateway: Cross-Border Migration Between Namibia and Angola* (2005) ISBN 1-919798-92-7
- 39 *Early Departures: The Emigration Potential of Zimbabwean Students* (2005) ISBN 1-919798-99-4
- 40 *Migration and Domestic Workers: Worlds of Work, Health and Mobility in Johannesburg* (2005) ISBN 1-920118-02-0
- 41 *The Quality of Migration Services Delivery in South Africa* (2005) ISBN 1-920118-03-9
- 42 *States of Vulnerability: The Future Brain Drain of Talent to South Africa* (2006) ISBN 1-920118-07-1
- 43 *Migration and Development in Mozambique: Poverty, Inequality and Survival* (2006) ISBN 1-920118-10-1
- 44 *Migration, Remittances and Development in Southern Africa* (2006) ISBN 1-920118-15-2
- 45 *Medical Recruiting: The Case of South African Health Care Professionals* (2007) ISBN 1-920118-47-0
- 46 *Voices From the Margins: Migrant Women's Experiences in Southern Africa* (2007) ISBN 1-920118-50-0
- 47 *The Haemorrhage of Health Professionals From South Africa: Medical Opinions* (2007) ISBN 978-1-920118-63-1
- 48 *The Quality of Immigration and Citizenship Services in Namibia* (2008) ISBN 978-1-920118-67-9
- 49 *Gender, Migration and Remittances in Southern Africa* (2008) ISBN 978-1-920118-70-9
- 50 *The Perfect Storm: The Realities of Xenophobia in Contemporary South Africa* (2008) ISBN 978-1-920118-71-6
- 51 *Migrant Remittances and Household Survival in Zimbabwe* (2009) ISBN 978-1-920118-92-1
- 52 *Migration, Remittances and 'Development' in Lesotho* (2010) ISBN 978-1-920409-26-5
- 53 *Migration-Induced HIV and AIDS in Rural Mozambique and Swaziland* (2011) ISBN 978-1-920409-49-4
- 54 *Medical Xenophobia: Zimbabwean Access to Health Services in South Africa* (2011) ISBN 978-1-920409-63-0
- 55 *The Engagement of the Zimbabwean Medical Diaspora* (2011) ISBN 978-1-920409-64-7
- 56 *Right to the Classroom: Educational Barriers for Zimbabweans in South Africa* (2011) ISBN 978-1-920409-68-5

- 57 *Patients Without Borders: Medical Tourism and Medical Migration in Southern Africa* (2012) ISBN 978-1-920409-74-6
- 58 *The Disengagement of the South African Medical Diaspora* (2012) ISBN 978-1-920596-00-2
- 59 *The Third Wave: Mixed Migration from Zimbabwe to South Africa* (2012) ISBN 978-1-920596-01-9
- 60 *Linking Migration, Food Security and Development* (2012) ISBN 978-1-920596-02-6
- 61 *Unfriendly Neighbours: Contemporary Migration from Zimbabwe to Botswana* (2012) ISBN 978-1-920596-16-3
- 62 *Heading North: The Zimbabwean Diaspora in Canada* (2012) ISBN 978-1-920596-03-3
- 63 *Dystopia and Disengagement: Diaspora Attitudes Towards South Africa* (2012) ISBN 978-1-920596-04-0
- 64 *Soft Targets: Xenophobia, Public Violence and Changing Attitudes to Migrants in South Africa after May 2008* (2013) ISBN 978-1-920596-05-7
- 65 *Brain Drain and Regain: Migration Behaviour of South African Medical Professionals* (2014) ISBN 978-1-920596-07-1
- 66 *Xenophobic Violence in South Africa: Denialism, Minimalism, Realism* (2014) ISBN 978-1-920596-08-8
- 67 *Migrant Entrepreneurship Collective Violence and Xenophobia in South Africa* (2014) ISBN 978-1-920596-09-5
- 68 *Informal Migrant Entrepreneurship and Inclusive Growth in South Africa, Zimbabwe and Mozambique* (2015) ISBN 978-1-920596-10-1
- 69 *Calibrating Informal Cross-Border Trade in Southern Africa* (2015) ISBN 978-1-920596-13-2
- 70 *International Migrants and Refugees in Cape Town's Informal Economy* (2016) ISBN 978-1-920596-15-6
- 71 *International Migrants in Johannesburg's Informal Economy* (2016) ISBN 978-1-920596-18-7
- 72 *Food Remittances: Migration and Food Security in Africa* (2016) ISBN 978-1-920596-19-4
- 73 *Informal Entrepreneurship and Cross-Border Trade in Maputo, Mozambique* (2016) ISBN 978-1-920596-20-0
- 74 *Informal Entrepreneurship and Cross-Border Trade between Zimbabwe and South Africa* (2017) ISBN 978-1-920596-29-3
- 75 *Competition or Co-operation? South African and Migrant Entrepreneurs in Johannesburg* (2017) ISBN 978-1-920596-30-9

One of the defining characteristics of many large cities in the rapidly urbanizing global South is the high degree of informality of shelter, services and economic livelihoods. It is these dynamic, shifting and dangerous informal urban spaces that refugees often arrive in with few resources other than a will to survive, a few social contacts and a drive to support themselves in the absence of financial support from the host government and international agencies. This report addresses the question of variability in economic opportunity and entrepreneurial activity between urban environments within the same destination country – South Africa – by comparing refugee entrepreneurship in Cape Town, South Africa’s second largest city, and several small towns in the province of Limpopo. The research shows that refugee entrepreneurial activity in Limpopo is a more recent phenomenon and largely a function of refugees moving from large cities such as Johannesburg where their businesses and lives are in greater danger. The refugee populations in both areas are equally diverse and tend to be engaged in the same wide range of activities. This report shows that different urban geographies do shape the local nature of refugee entrepreneurial economies, but there are also remarkable similarities in the manner in which unconnected refugee entrepreneurs establish and grow their businesses in large cities and small provincial towns.