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Migration from the Northern Cape.

by
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Migration from the Northern Cape

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

In South Africa, the causes of migration and its impact on society first became entrenched, institutionalised and studied in the latter decades of the 19th Century as mining activity catapulted the country onto the world economic stage. As South Africa evolved into a more modern, capitalist society and agriculture became a less attractive employment option due to a period of crisis at the end of the 1800s, various population groups started migrating towards urban centres. Rural Afrikaners who had been displaced from their land and Black labour migrants constituted the bulk of migrants to urban centres. These population sub-groups were quite different in the motivations and outcomes of their migration, with many of the rural Afrikaners being absorbed into state employment while Black movers were mostly labour migrants.

Today, migration is the subject of renewed focus in South African research and policy circles as fears of its destabilising consequences on provincial economic and spatial planning are re-ignited. Population movement can impact heavily on housing, education, food security, public health, public order and institutional development with potentially dire consequences for both the immigrant and native population. The potential magnitude of the destabilisation effect has prompted some researchers (Cross and Omoluabi, 2006; Weeks, 1996) to suggest that of the three demographic processes (fertility, migration, mortality), migration could have the greatest short-term impact on society. The societal impact of migration is explained by Weeks (1996: 229):

"Although the consequences of migration for the individual are of considerable interest (especially to the one uprooted), a more pervasive aspect of the social consequences of

migration is the impact on the demographic composition and social structure of both the donor and host areas. The demographic composition is influenced by the selective nature of migration, particularly the selectivity by age. The donor area typically loses people from its young adult population, those people then being added to the host area. The host area has its level of natural (resources) increase at the expense of the donor area."

Cross (2006: 205) argues that the very vision of a successful socio-demographic transition is at stake – in order for migrants to escape poverty, cities need to provide rural in-migrants with the foundations and tools they require to be successful by helping them enter the job market, provide quality education to their children and invest in their futures.

Migration can also impact positively on migrant and native populations by increasing human capital, filling employment gaps, increasing the market for goods and facilitating better service delivery by the concentration of populations. In the South African context, migration can also be seen as a potential tool for redressing inequities (Kok et al, 2006: 3). In the past, segregationist policies prevented people of colour from moving to areas with more opportunities and better service, resulting in a perverse situation of high population concentrations in relatively rural areas. Research after the abolition of influx control in 1986 and democratisation in 1994 was therefore understandably concentrated on finding out whether migration patterns would change as a result.

The incomparability and shallow nature of South African datasets in terms of migration has been lamented by many researchers attempting to document and analyse the phenomenon. Many studies have focused on smaller regions within the country rather than on a national level. The demarcation of new provinces and the vastly different characteristics of nine provinces render the generalisation of local studies to the national level an inane exercise. It is with this realisation that we will confine our later discussion to the Northern Cape.

Chapter 2 will describe and capture the essence of migration as well as provide a solid economics-inspired framework which we can employ to analyse migration with specific reference to the Northern Cape experience. This will be achieved by defining terms describing migration, reviewing economic and non-economic theories dealing with the initiation and perpetuation of migration and concluding with a theoretical discussion on migration selectivity elucidated by recent South African evidence. Chapter 3 will provide a general profile of Northern Cape, while chapter 4 will explain the methodology on how the different migration groups are derived. Chapter 5 will provide a descriptive analysis of the migrants from the Northern Cape, with reference specifically to the migrants' demographic, location, work and household characteristics. Finally, chapter 6 will present a multivariate analysis of the migration decision at the census year, as well as the labour force participation and employment of the Northern Cape migrants to other provinces, using several of the variables in the descriptive analysis in chapter 5. Chapter 7 concludes the report.

CHAPTER 2
MIGRATION LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 DEFINITIONS OF MIGRATION

The definition of migration is complex and inspires lively debate among researchers of population movements. In contemporary South Africa, migration is generally understood to reflect the major societal changes caused by the movement of people from rural to urban areas. From a development perspective it is also useful to distinguish between different kinds of migration so that poverty alleviation and spatial planning are more successful in their implementation. This section will first define migration and then briefly discuss terms associated with migration to introduce the reader to the terminology used in the rest of the paper.

Migration can be defined as "the crossing of the boundary of a predefined spatial unit by persons involved in a change of residence" (Kok et al, 2006: 10). Our paper uses South African Census data where the spatial unit is magisterial districts as demarcated for Census 1996. Accordingly, we will define migration as: *a change in the magisterial district of usual residence*. Thus, movements within the same district are disregarded as well as visits (temporary migration) from other districts.

Migration origin, household/community of origin and **sending area** are all terms used to refer to the place where the migrant comes from. Similarly, **migration destination, receiving region** and **destination area** are used to describe the place where the move ends.

A **labour migrant** is defined by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) as being an individual "who is absent from home (or country) for more than one month of a year for the purpose of finding work or working."

Internal migration refers to moves within the same country. In most of our analyses, this term will apply. Within the same country, people who migrate are **out-migrants** from their sending area and in-migrants into the destination area.

Intra-migration refers to moves out of the magisterial district but within provincial boundaries. **Residential mobility** refers to movements within the same migration-defining area such as changing addresses in the same magisterial district.

Circulatory migration refers to migration of a family or individual in the earlier stages of their lives to an urban area and who return to the rural sending area upon retirement.

Oscillatory migration refers to the phenomenon of regular movement between the community of origin and areas where employment is pursued or gained. Typically, the individual moves to the city, returning periodically to the family left behind in the rural area. **Gravity flow** refers to permanent migration of people.

2.2 ECONOMIC THEORIES AND MODELS OF MIGRATION

2.2.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature on migration abounds with assertions that economic considerations are the real root of migration decisions. The literature overwhelmingly suggests that migration decisions are almost entirely motivated by economic considerations, and that economic incentives or disincentives would be adequate to encourage or discourage migration. However, the absence of attitudinal or psychological explanations for migration decisions is hard to dismiss and the unavailability or inaccessibility of attitudinal data for previous studies implies that a "best possible explanation" (in these cases highlighting only economic variables) must suffice. Indeed, as Morrison (1980: 8) cited in Kok et al (2006) acknowledges: "... (migration researchers) must content themselves with data that only partly satisfy their conceptual requirements."

This caveat aside, economic factors do explain a significant part of the migration decision. This section on the economic theories of migration draws largely from Massey et al's (1993, 1994) and Kok et al's (2006) seminal reviews of theories on international migration. It is our contention that these theories on international migration can be applied to all spatial levels of migration.

Massey et al (1993) distinguish between four economic theories of migration: neo-classical economic theory, dual labour-market theory, world systems theory and the new economics of migration. All of these theories seek to explain the same phenomenon, albeit using different assumptions and conceptual frameworks. At the micro-level, neoclassical economics views income maximisation constrained and facilitated by the labour market as drivers of migration, while the "new economics of migration" looks at a number of markets to explain the migration decision (Massey et al, 1993: 432). Dual labour market theory and world systems theory generally focus on more aggregated levels of decision-making or trends (Massey et al, 1993: 440). The former links market structure differentials to immigration and the latter ascribes immigration to the natural processes originating from market penetration and globalisation.

2.2.2 ECONOMIC FACTORS WHICH CAUSE MIGRATION

2.2.2.1 Neo-classical economics

(A) Macroeconomic model

Developed in the 1950s and 1960s to explain labour migration's role in economic development, this theory proposes that migration is caused by geographic differences in demand for and supply of labour. Wage differentials differ between two spatial entities because of differences in the labour-capital ratio. Areas with a high labour-capital ratio have lower equilibrium market wages while countries with lower labour-capital ratios have higher equilibrium wages. Simple demand and supply curves suffice to explain the wage differential, and the wage differential between the two areas induces migration from the low-wage area to the high-wage area. The move, if large enough, lowers supply of labour and causes a rise in equilibrium wages in the capital-poor area and an increase in the supply of labour which lowers the equilibrium wage in the capital-rich

area. Eventually the markets reach equilibrium, with the wage differential reflecting only the pecuniary and psychic costs of migration (Massey et al, 1993: 433).

The flow of workers is mirrored by investment flows between capital-poor and capital-rich countries. The returns on investment in relatively capital-poor regions are high compared to more capital-abundant regions, making them more attractive for investment. Massey et al (1993) caution that one must take the heterogeneity of labour into account and conceptually distinguish between the flow of labour and the flow of human capital. More lucrative returns to human capital in a human capital-deficient environment also induce the movement of human capital from the capital-rich country to the capital-poor area. Managers, technicians and other skilled personnel migrate to maximise returns to their particular skills sets.

To summarise, neoclassical economic migration theory assumes the following:

- Wage differentials between geographic areas induces migration.
- Once the wage differentials have been eliminated, migration will stop and will not reoccur in the absence of a wage differential.
- Flows of human capital respond to the rate of return to human capital, which may cause the flow of skilled labour to move in the opposite direction as unskilled labour.
- Migration is primarily driven by labour markets, and the way for governments to control migration is to regulate or influence labour markets in both sending and receiving areas.

(B) Microeconomic model

While the macroeconomic model of migration describes migration processes at a highly aggregated level, the microeconomic model of migration (Todaro, 1969) is aimed at understanding the calculations that rational individuals make in deciding whether to migrate or not. The underlying premise of the model is that the individual makes a cost-benefit calculation in respect of migration, with an expected positive net return inducing migration. Individuals move to where they perceive the greatest pecuniary returns to their skills sets, but before they can make the decision to move to a higher-wage area, they must take various costs into account. These include the costs of moving, maintenance costs while looking for work, difficulty in adapting to a new culture, labour market structure or learning a new language and the psychological costs of cutting ties with relatives and friends (Massey et al, 1993: 434).

The potential migrant calculates the costs and benefits of moving to another country and migrates to where the expected discounted net returns are highest over time. The net returns are estimated by observing the earnings associated with the individual's skills set in the destination area multiplied by the probability of finding paid employment. The following equation encapsulates the decision-making process:

$$ER\ (0) = \int_{0}^{n} [\ P_1(t)\ P_2\ (t)\ Y_d\ (]) - P_3\ (t)\ Y_o\ (t)]e^{-rt}\ dt - C\ (0)$$

where *n* is the number of time periods; ER (0) is the expected net returns to migration calculated at time 0 just before departure; $P_1(t)$ is the probability of avoiding deportation from the destination region (value of 0 if illegal migrant or 1 if legal migrant); $P_2\ (t)$ is the employment

probability at the destination region; P_3 *(t)* is the earnings in the sending community; Y_o *(t)* is the earnings if employed in the destination area; *r* is the discount factor and *C (0)* is the total (including psychological) cost of migration. If ER (0) is positive for a possible destination, the rational individual decides to migrate; if negative he/she chooses to stay; and if calculated to be zero, the individual is indifferent between migration and staying. Therefore, the individual migrates to the place with the highest expected net returns to migration.

Migration is a function of both the earnings and employment rate differentials between two regions. Characteristics which increase the likelihood of employment in the destination country will increase the likelihood of migration, ceteris paribus. Similarly individual characteristics, technologies or social conditions which reduce the costs of migration will increase the probability of migration. Total or aggregate migration is the sum of individual cost-benefit inspired moves. In the absence of differentials in earnings and employment probabilities, migration does not occur. On the other hand, migration continues until expected net returns are equalised between the two regions. Migration decisions are only influenced directly by disequilibrium between labour markets. It is also possible that migration costs are negative due to the destination region being psychologically attractive. Governments can control immigration through policies which reduce or increase expected earnings and employment probabilities in either the sending or receiving area, or by increasing or reducing the pecuniary and psychological costs of migration.

2.2.2.2 The new household economics of migration

The new economics of migration theory asserts that households, rather than individuals make migration decisions. Families or households act collectively to maximise expected income, diversify or minimise risk and to smooth the impacts of imperfectly functioning markets (Stark and Taylor, 1991). Households are able to diversify risk by allocating resources such as labour amongst household members. Some members may be assigned to local labour markets, while others are sent to work outside of the region where employment conditions and earnings are dissimilar to conditions in the sending area. In this way the family diversifies risk by continuing with local activities while casting its proverbial net in other areas in a bid to supplement income with migrant remittances (Kok et al, 2006: 14).

The theory differs from the neoclassical version in that it takes imperfectly functioning capital, insurance and futures markets into account, a highly pertinent extension in the developing country context (Massey et al, 1993: 437 - 8). Households may wish to increase productivity of their assets, but need capital to do so. Lack of collateral, unreliable or underdeveloped banking systems and exploitative informal money-lenders all act as incentives to rely on migrant income. In this case remittances provide a steady consumption base, freeing up local income for capital accumulation. Alternatively remittances could also be the source of capital to finance productivity-enhancing capital investments. In developed countries, farmers are able to insure against crop damage and income loss, while in many developing countries, crop insurance is relatively inaccessible or non-existent. Migrant remittances therefore serve as insurance against crop failure by mitigating loss of economic well-being to some extent. The incentive to self-insure is given more impetus in developing countries where unemployment insurance is either non-existent or does not enjoy full coverage. In the case of ill-health or unemployment, the

family is still privy to a regular income stream in the form of remittances. It is also possible that the insurance arrangement between the household and the migrant is structured so as to pay out only in the event of losses actually being incurred. The lack of futures markets in some developing countries also provide an incentive to depend on migrant remittances in the event of unexpected crop price decreases. In developed countries with futures markets, farmers can sell crops at predetermined prices, thus insulating themselves against market price uncertainty.

One of the primary assumptions of the 'new household economics of migration' theory is that even in the absence of wage differentials, migration could still occur in the household's bid to diversify risk (Kok et al, 2006: 15). The uniformity of effects on utility across households is also questioned. The theory questions whether the same amount of money would have the same impact on well-being for different households in the same community. Proponents of the theory suggest that people migrate not only to improve their absolute income, but also their income relative to other households[1]. The aim therefore is to ameriolate their deprivation relative to a reference household or group of households. Not only is absolute income considered, but also relative income or relative deprivation compared to other households as well. In this regard regressions based on the 'new economics' theory should not only have individual and household level variables, but community level variables which reflect income inequality as well.

The theory has been criticised for its rather simplistic treatment of the household as a unitary decision-making entity (Spiegel, 1987). The dynamics of intra-household allocation are made even more complex by possible balance of power shifts due to the migrants' remittances. Fluidity in household composition and the more realistic assumption of varying tastes within the household also cast doubt on the theory's assumption of decision-making at the household level.

2.2.2.3 Dual labour market theory

Segmented labour markets are a salient feature of industrial economies. Native workers are typically more inclined to seek employment in the primary sector, where employment conditions, security and income are higher and more stable than in the secondary sector. Weeks (1996: 225 – 226) asserts:

" ... there are essentially two kinds of jobs – the primary sector, which employs well-educated people, pays them well and offers them security and benefits; and the secondary labour market, characterised by low wages, unstable working conditions, and lack of reasonable prospects of advancement[2]. It is easy enough to recruit people into the primary sector, but the secondary sector is not so attractive." Immigrants therefore provide the employer with an alternative supply of labour to fill positions in the secondary sector.

Dual labour market theory assumes that migration is induced by the intrinsic demand for labour from industrial economies (Massey et al, 1993: 440). The inevitability of the existence of a

[1] A detailed discussion of the concept of relative deprivation as it relates to migration is provided by Stark and Taylor (1991).

[2] In their study of North American migration Massey et al (1994: 720) find that in addition to a primary and secondary sector, a more vulnerable 'migrant enclave' sector exists as well. Thus the term 'segmented labour markets is perhaps more appropriate.

bottom-end of the labour market gives rise to motivational problems (Massey et al, 1993: 442 - 3). This assumption is based on the premise that people not only work for wages, but for status or prestige as well. The bottom-end of the labour market is viewed with disdain and perceived as detrimental to upward mobility, leading to motivational problems. Employers can address this problem by importing or acquiring workers who view employment only as an income source rather than a source of prestige as well. In accordance with the 'new household economics' theory, migrant workers are initially more concerned with improving their conditions relative to their reference group in the sending community than their status in the receiving community[3].

Historically, motivational problems, structural inflation and economic dualism were remedied by employing women and teenagers who were more willing to work for less security, less advancement opportunity and lower wages (Massey et al, 1994: 443). In addition, their indifferent feelings regarding social status made them ideal candidates for positions in the secondary sector. Women were not usually primary breadwinners, while teenagers were after dead-end jobs as they used them to gain experience or earn pocket money. However, changes in female labour participation rates have changed dramatically in recent years. Women have become more independent and higher divorce rates have forced many women to become primary breadwinners. The decrease in fertility rates and the increased access to higher education have also contributed to fewer teenagers being available for secondary sector jobs. As a result, employers turn to migrant labour to address the shortage of native labour for less attractive jobs.

The dual/segmented labour market theory contends that wage differentials are neither sufficient nor necessary conditions for migration. Instead, labour migration is driven by the structural demands of the industrial economy. Segmented labour markets are a reflection of the relationship between migration and occupational specialisation (Skeldon, 1990: 142) which is often ignored when analysing the causes of migration. The theory is distinctly different from the neoclassical and 'new household economics' theory in that it argues that migration is driven by demand rather than decision-making at the individual and household level.

2.2.2.4 The push-pull model

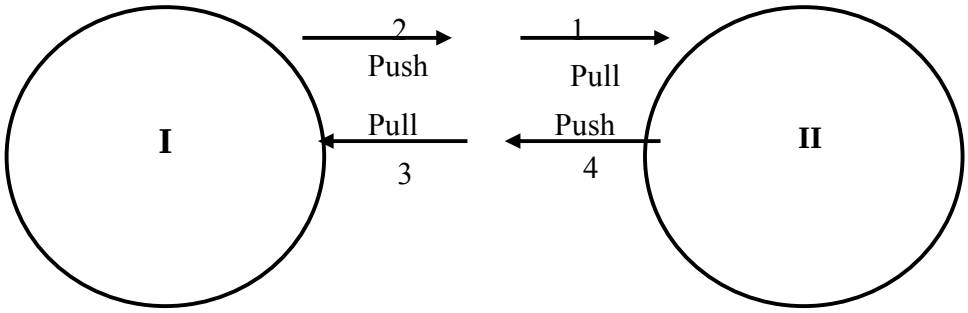
According to the push-pull theory of migration, there are certain factors that push and pull migrants from their areas of origin and destination areas. Generally, the push factors are in the sending area and the pull factors in the destination area, but as we will show in this section this is not strictly true for all situations. Our treatment of the model will be simple, but it can be extended to include many more modern-day push factors such as local crime rates or pull factors such as better health care.

Wilson (1972: 144 – 151) uses the push-pull model in its simplest form to illustrate how the push-pull forces cause oscillating labour migration between two areas. In Figure 1 below, Force 1 is the seasonal demand for labour in Area II. Force 4 depicts the push by employers from area II at the end of the harvesting season, while Force 3 is the pull towards Area I and Force 2 the push of labour away from Area I. The model therefore explains the dove-tailing of demand for

[3] Massey et al (1994) criticise the 'new economics' theorists for this very assumption. They question whether a migrant would retain the same reference group and suggest that the migrant would replace the old reference group with an urban one over time.

labour due to seasonal upswings in agricultural production. The pull forces are the more attractive wages in the destination area while the push forces represent the farmer's unwillingness to permanently settle workers on his farm in a bid to reduce costs. The force of the push is largely dependent on the political power and disposition of the farmer, who maximises profit by not having to provide housing, education and social security (Wilson, 1972: 145). The migrant can therefore maximise income by oscillating between areas I and II if the farms have different harvesting times and are sufficiently close to each other to induce oscillation of labour between the two areas.

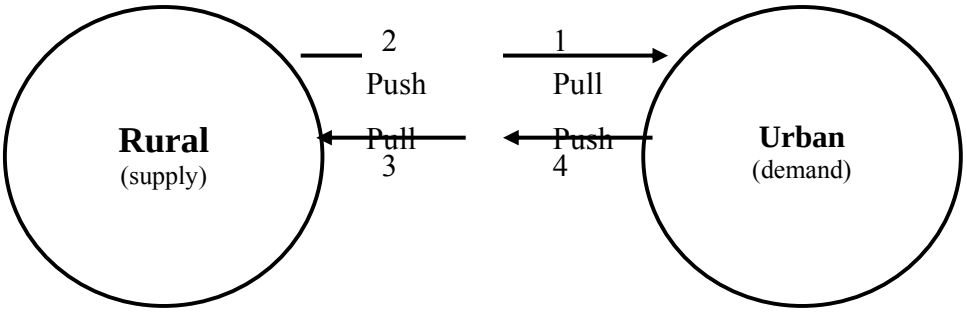
Figure 1 The simple push-pull model for seasonal labour



Source: Wilson (1972: 144).

The model can be used to explain the oscillation of migration even in the absence of political pressure and where demand for labour is not seasonal (Wilson, 1972: 145). The two areas in question are the rural area which supplies most of the labour and the urban area which demands the labour. The model is shown in Figure 2. Force 1 in this case could be the discovery of a mineral or the establishment or expansion of factories in the urban area. In addition to economic factors, many other sociological pull factors could induce migration, including lower crime rates, better standards of living or more acceptable societal norms.

Figure 2 The push-pull model explaining oscillating migration between rural and urban areas



Source: Wilson (1972: 147).

The push factor (Force 2) from the rural area could be the pressure on men to find work in remote urban areas to subsidise a subsistence income. It is also possible that moves are

deliberately non-permanent so that subsistence farmers can earn just enough to invest in farming equipment (Wilson, 1972: 147). Land reforms also displaced many people from agricultural land, leaving them with no alternative but to seek employment in urban areas. Commercialisation and mechanisation of agriculture have also reduced the demand for labour on farms.

The pull (Force 3) back to the rural area could be indicative of the informal social security provided by rural areas for men who have migrated to earn money for their rural households. In the event of illness, unemployment or disability the rural household provides refuge for the labour migrant. Force 4 is the push from the urban area by employers and government. Seasonal fluctuations in demand for labour and profit mean that employers are unwilling to house employees during slow production periods. The South African government also strictly applied influx control, which effectively barred Black people from living in urban areas where they were not employed.

As long as the push and pull factors exist and counterbalance each other in urban and rural areas, oscillating migration will continue. The pressures are not static in their relative strengths, and as economies and people develop, the strength of the forces change as well. In the last century, forces pushing and pulling towards urban centres seemed to have dominated, resulting in or caused by the decline in agriculture's importance in economies.

2.2.2.5 World systems theory

The world systems theory assumes the existence of two international market forms which drive migration. The theory states that capitalist economies penetrate peripheral, non-capitalist economies, creating more mobile, migration-prone populations. It differs from the dual labour market theory in that it considers world market structures rather than specific national economies. In the search for new markets, land, raw materials and labour the capitalist enters peripheral regions with the aforementioned resources eventually being influenced and controlled by markets (Massey, 1988). According to the theory, migration is a natural process that stems from the dislocations and disruptions resulting from capitalist expansion and development.

Capitalist markets necessitate the commercialisation and mechanisation of agriculture (Massey et al, 1993: 445). In order to maximise profit, the capitalist farmers in the periphery seek to consolidate their landholding. The resultant loss of traditional land tenure (such as inheritance or usufructuary rights) leads to the displacement of small-scale farmers and households who were dependent on agriculture for survival. Mechanisation also reduces the need for manual labour, which together with commercialisation, creates a more mobile population.

Firms from capitalist countries enter peripheral, developing areas to take advantage of low wage rates (Kok et al, 2006: 17). Developing countries also tend to welcome the establishment of assembly plants, which do not require highly skilled labour and can thus alleviate unemployment and poverty to some extent. The labour demanded most initially is female, distorting traditional productive relationships as more women participate in the labour market and more men are unemployed. The peasant economy is also affected negatively by foreign-owned factories producing goods which compete directly with local goods. The feminisation of the workforce, the decline in opportunities for men and the socialisation of women for industrial work and

modern consumption contribute to the creation of a mobile, migration-prone population (Massey et al, 1993: 446).

Material and cultural links between the core country and the peripheral one allow for relatively easy migration from the periphery to the core (Massey et al, 2006: 443). Transportation and communication links are developed or improved so that capitalists can easily transport goods and equipment and extract and export raw materials. Colonial relations have resulted in inhabitants of the periphery learning the core country's language, adopting related currencies and becoming more 'Westernised' through mass communication from the core. The penetration of the core, capitalist country is glaringly evident in countries like India and Pakistan (British Commonwealth countries), where English is taught, British-type degrees are offered and even national sports are similar to those of Great Britain, their former coloniser.

Much of the world's economic activity is concentrated in a few urban centres which provide financial, banking, administration and professional services and produce technologically advanced products. These global cities have highly educated workforces, creating a demand for labour at the lower end of the job market (gardeners, cleaners, domestic workers). The modernisation of economic production therefore creates a segmented labour market with strong demand at the top and bottom end and weaker demand in the middle (Massey et al, 1993: 447). Native inhabitants with low levels of education resist employment in the bottom end and seek employment in the middle or rely on social security programmes, while better-educated natives and foreigners occupy the upper ends of the labour market. Migrant labourers therefore fulfil an important role by occupying the lower end due to the demand created by those employed in the upper levels.

World systems theory therefore assumes the following:

- The penetration of the capitalist into the non-capitalist, peripheral regions causes migration.
- Migration is induced by the fostering of material and cultural links, the commercialisation of agriculture and the displacement of people from agricultural land.
- Governments can control migration by the regulation of capital investments, company activities and international flows of goods and capital.
- Wage and employment rate differentials do not influence migration much; rather migration is caused by the creation of markets and the global economy structure.

2.2.3 ECONOMIC FACTORS WHICH PERPETUATE MIGRATION

2.2.3.1 Institutional theory

Once migration has begun, institutions arise specifically to facilitate or profit from the continued movement of people (Britz, 2002: 43). Private and voluntary institutions attempt to correct the imbalance created by the demand for and the amount of visas typically available for entry into capital-rich areas. In South Africa influx control and urban segregation legislation was formally passed in the form of the Native (Urban Areas) Act of 1923. The pass system was designed to control the movement of domestic migrant labour and supply farms, mines and towns with

labour and also to channel migrants to areas which experienced labour shortages. Recommendations from the Holloway Commission in 1932 and the Fagan Commission in 1948 to abolish the pass system were met with resistance from government quarters. In spite of its title, the Abolition of Passes and Co-ordination Act No. 67 of 1952 did not mean the abolition of pass laws, but rather that pass documents were consolidated into one passbook. It extended the scope of pass laws to women and called for more rigidity in the application of pass laws.

The barriers created by countries to stem the tide of immigration and the imbalance between visas and demand for entry are ideal conditions to create a lucrative migration black market. Private firms provide services in the form of smuggling across borders, fake documents, credit and arranged marriages to mention a few (Massey et al, 1993: 450). Non-profit organisations provide shelter, legal advice, counselling and social services. With time, certain organisations develop reputations for assistance to migrants providing another form of social capital to potential and actual migrants.

An example of South African institutions existing to facilitate migration was the various private recruiting organisations and groups which sprang up in the face of labour shortages on farms in the 1960s (Wilson, 1972: 18 - 19). The coloured labourers, who had previously worked on farms in the Western Cape and were not subject to influx control, had left for better wages in the towns which the farmers were unable to compete with. The government had responded in earlier years by establishing labour bureaux and planning to house prisoners near farms so that they could be used for cheap labour. However, the lag between actual demand and supply encouraged farmers to start their own labour bureaux, the first of them being the Durbanville-Philadelphia Boere Group in 1966. They organised and channelled their own labour from the Transkei and were able to supply farmers with labour in 7 days rather than the 6 weeks it took for official labour bureaux to do the same. This paved the way for other Boere groups to facilitate labour migration from the homelands. Many religious groups also offered shelter and support for migrant families during the apartheid era. There were also activist groups who helped facilitate the immigration of persecuted South African families to countries like the United States and the United Kingdom.

The gradual development of institutions and firms dedicated specifically to facilitating entry of immigrants or providing social capital differs from micro-level decision models in that:

- As organisations develop and become more entrenched in providing migration services, legal or illegal, the migration flow becomes more institutionalised and more independent of the factors which originally induced it.
- The difficulty of regulating institutionalisation makes it impossible for governments to control with much success. Efforts on the ground by policing institutions to control immigration not only force the creation of a black market, but make it more lucrative as well. Kok et al (2006: 18) assert that although this is more relevant in the international context, it can apply to internal migration as well as illustrated by influx control in apartheid-era South Africa.

2.2.3.2 Network theory

Migrant networks are defined by Massey et al (1994: 728) as ‘sets of interpersonal ties that

connect migrants, former migrants and non-migrants in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship and shared community origin.' This social network allows the migrant to maintain contact with members of his/ her previous residence, assists the potential migrant in making the decision to move and to adapt to the area of destination.

According to network theory, migrants forge interpersonal relationships with former, present and potential migrants and non-migrants in sending and receiving areas through friendship, kinship and shared community origins (Weeks, 1996: 226). Over time the development of strong networks makes it possible for those who wish to migrate to do so relatively comfortably. Britz (2002: 43) notes that in developing countries like South Africa, migration becomes a rite of passage for community members, with the flow bearing little relation to demand and supply.

Historically social networks developed in order for families to adapt to pre-industrial era conditions. Economic activity was largely household-centred in addition to social, mutual exchange relationships with other members of the community (Zinn and Eitzen, 1990: 28). Industrialisation caused the absorption of communal economies into the larger, more formal economy and market-based relationships dominated the economic landscape. The exclusion of the poor from this new economy led to their stronger preferences for social networks for assistance in the face of irregular earnings prospects.

Stark and Taylor (1991) assert that successful previous migrants can induce previously non-migratory individuals to migrate when they visit their household of origin and their conspicuous consumption and wealth are noted by community members. As more and more community members leave, social bonds become less of a constraint and more of a pull factor. Network members can also assist with the costs of migration in the form of loans or gifts for transport or initial accommodation costs (Gelderblom and Adams in Kok et al, 2006: 232). Accommodation and food can also be offered at a network member's home while the new migrant is searching for gainful employment. More often than not network members also assist with job searches and often recommend the new migrant to management at their own places of employment.

Migrant networks are an important source of information for potential migrants. The 2001-02 HRSC Migration Survey reveals that family and friends in the destination area are the most important sources of information (Gelderblom and Adams in 2006: 242). This is true for all income categories, except the most affluent, who possibly rely on other sources of information such as mass media or their own experience of the area. The new migrant can also benefit tremendously from information offered about the culture and norms of the destination area. Migrant networks also serve an invaluable cost-reducing function. In this way they can reduce the income selectivity of migration by making it easier for poor people to migrate (Massey et al, 1994). One can reasonably expect that the importance of social networks for poor migrants could mean that networks are less important for more affluent migrants.

The importance of migrant networks lies in their ability to create and maintain social capital. The presence of migrant networks can stimulate migration, but could also inhibit migration probabilities if used to convey information about decreasing employment opportunities in the destination area. The support offered by migration networks provides extended safety nets for migrants in both the sending area and area of destination.

2.2.3.3 Cumulative causation theory

The cumulative causation theory assumes that each migration-related act affects the probability of subsequent decisions about migration due to the fact that migration impacts on social environments in the sending and receiving regions (Weeks, 1996: 227). The utility-increasing effects of remittances received by families in the sending region may increase the probability of migration for other community members. The success of migrants' first moves could encourage them to move again, contributing to increases in the volume of migration. The receiving area may have institutional or other incentives for migrants to work in certain occupational sectors, creating concentrations of migrants in certain 'migrant' jobs. Britz (2002: 44) refers to the establishment of a tradition of migration, where migrants prefer migrating to certain locations and "migrating becomes a way of life".

2.2.3.4 Migration systems theory

According to the migration systems theory "migration flows acquire a measure of stability and structure over space and time, allowing for the identification of stable international migration systems. These systems are characterised by relatively intense exchanges of goods, capital and people between certain countries and less intense exchanges between others" (Massey et al, 1993: 454). The theory suggests that a migration system has a core receiving region and a number of specific sending regions and can also be applied to internal migration. Although more of an extension of the previously mentioned migration perpetuation theories rather than a theory in its own, it does highlight some interesting points:

- Migration flows between countries are driven more by international political and economic links, so the countries need not be physically close.
- Countries can belong to more than one migration system, but this is more common among sending than receiving countries.
- Although stability may exist in migration systems, it is possible for systems to evolve in cognisance of international economic and political trends.

2.3 NON-ECONOMIC THEORIES AND MODELS OF MIGRATION

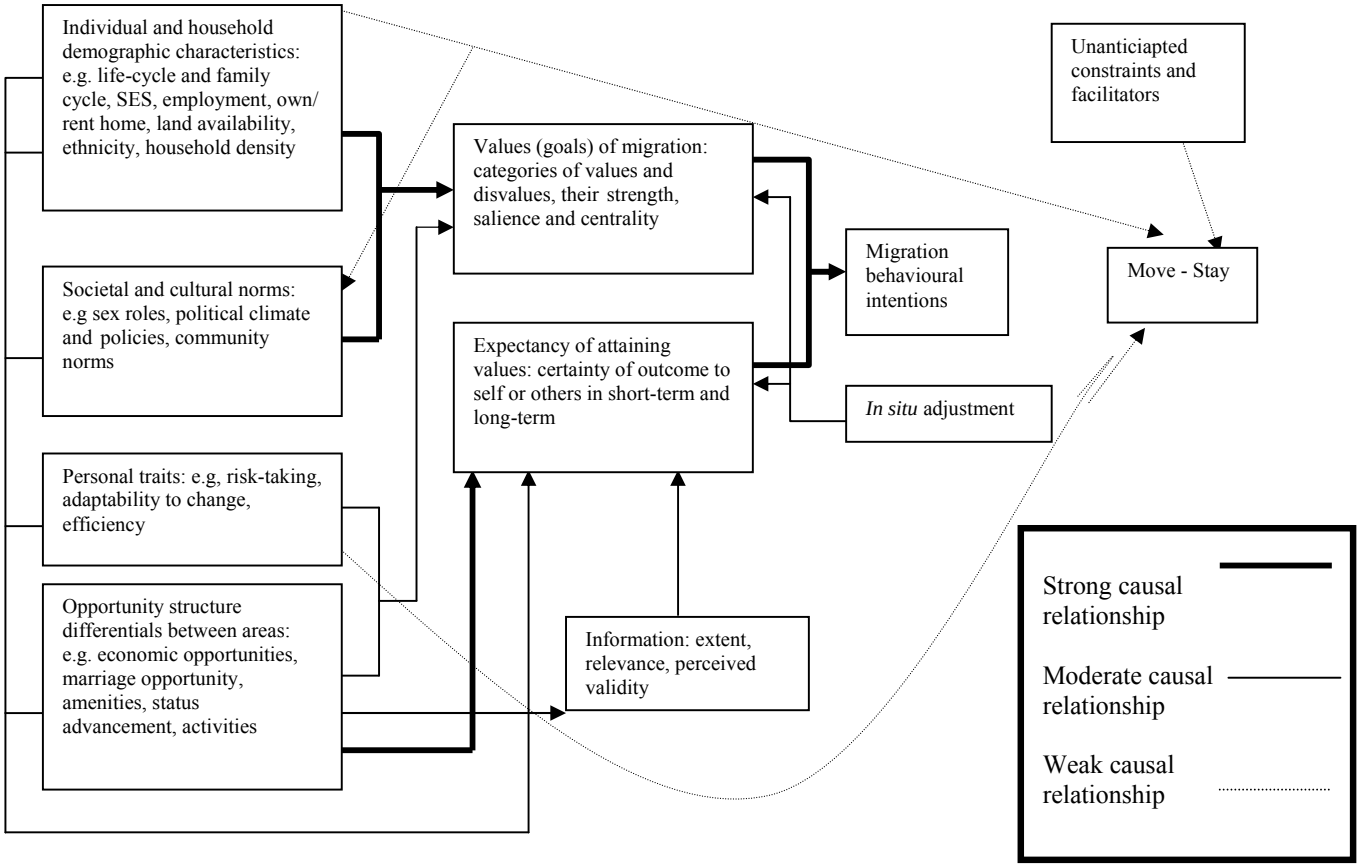
Although the literature in explaining migration decisions is largely dominated by economic theory, economic motives are unable to fully explain migration decision-making (Kok et al, 2006: 20). The data currently available for migration decision-analysis makes the determination of the relevance of non-economic factors difficult. The role of non-economic factors in explaining the migration decision therefore warrants further investigation and future empirical research. In this section we will briefly discuss the non-economic factors causing and perpetuating migration. The value-expectancy model (as empirically applied by De Jong and Fawcett (1981) explains how non-economic factors cause migration while De Jong's (2000) 'general decision-making model' and the modified gravity model will be covered to explain factors which perpetuate migration.

2.3.1 NON-ECONOMIC FACTORS WHICH CAUSE MIGRATION

2.3.1.1 The value-expectancy model of migration

There is little evidence to support a direct link between macro, meso and micro-levels factors and the decision to migrate. De Jong and Fawcett (1981) apply the value expectancy model empirically in South Africa, the Phillipines, Thailand and Romania and find that that the most important micro, meso and macro-level explanatory variables are indirectly influenced by people's values and expectations. Their model is based on the assumption that the household is considered to be a unitary decision-making entity with separate analyses for moves of individual members and family units from the original household. Their micro-level causal model is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3 The value-expectancy based migration decision-making model.



Source: De Jong and Fawcett (1981: 54).

The core components of the value-expectancy model are goals and expectancies. Goals represent values or objectives which can be determined empirically by asking respondents to rate different values in order of importance (Kok et al, 2006: 20), while expectations or subjective probabilities can be obtained by getting respondents to estimate the chances of attaining goals in their residential area or alternative destinations. Figure 3 shows that a large number of variables

(economic and non-economic) contribute to the migration decision. The variables shown are the ones typically included in the model which are individual and household characteristics, personal traits, societal and cultural norms, opportunity differentials between areas, information about areas, in situ adjustments and unanticipated constraints and facilitators. The expected strength of the explanatory path is indicated by the thickness of the lines connecting variables. The thick, solid lines indicate strong causal relationships while thinner, solid lines show slightly weaker relationships and dotted lines show weak causal relationships.

2.3.2 NON-ECONOMIC FACTORS WHICH PERPETUATE MIGRATION

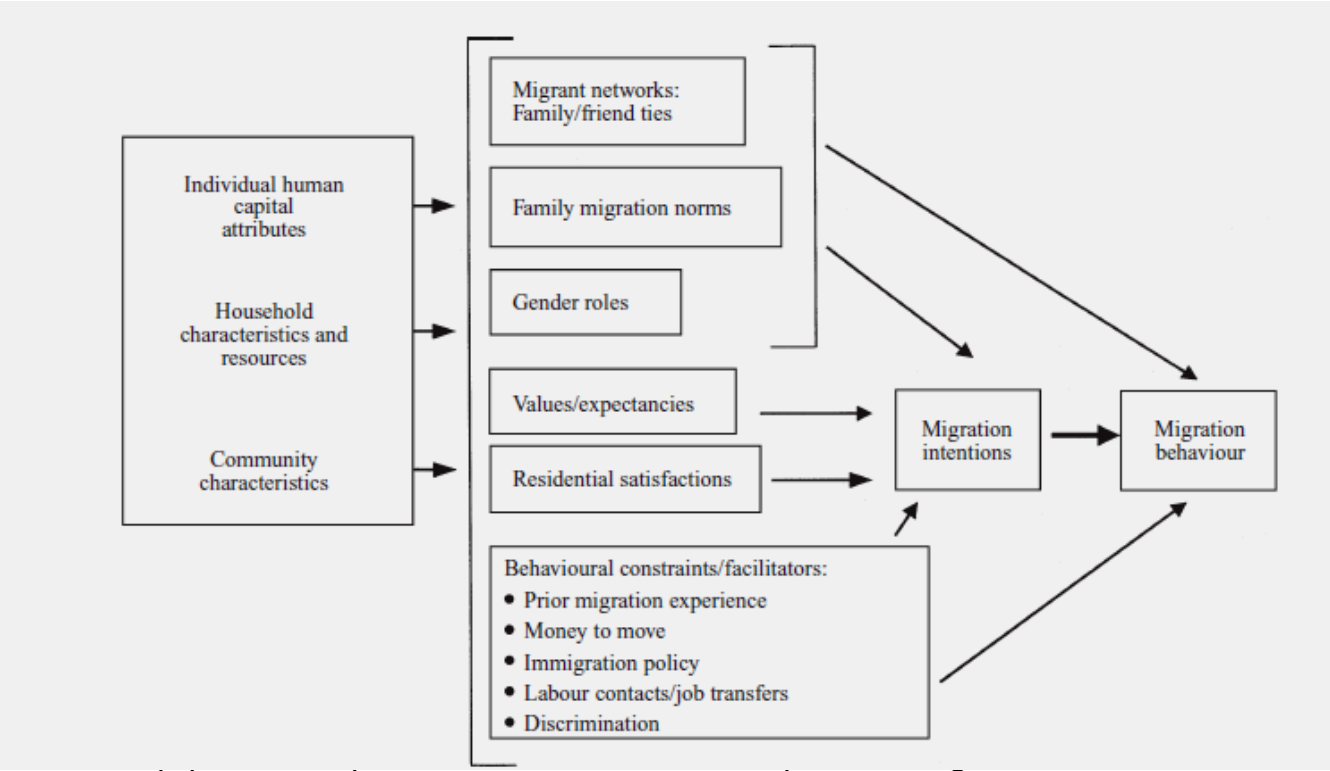
2.3.2.1 The general model of decision-making

De Jong (2000) proposes a 'general model of migration decision-making'. The model is based on the assumption that expectations and family norms are the major predictors of migration intentions, which serve as proxies for migration behaviour. The model, depicted in Figure 4, produced consistent results when applied to Thailand (De Jong, 2000) and clearly highlights the need to view migration as a multi-faceted function. Abad (1981: 301), cited by Kok et al (2006: 27), states:

"In the value-expectancy micro-level perspective, economic goals are viewed as only one of several sets of goals that migration may fulfil. When seen against other goals, economic considerations may exert a minimal effect on some migration decisions. Alternatively, if economic goals are deemed important, they may be intimately linked to family, household or community expectations. In these respects, policies that seek to influence migration decisions via some form of economic assistance ... will meet with little success unless they are consistent with kinship obligations and community norms."

De Jong (2000: 310) identifies seven concepts as 'uniquely relevant' in explaining the migration decision: values/expectancies, family migration norms, gender roles, migrant networks, residential satisfaction and direct behavioural constraints and/or facilitators. The model also highlights the role of subjective evaluations of human capital, household characteristics and resources and community characteristics.

Figure 4 The general model of migration decision-making.



The model is 'modified' to include behavioural content as well as other variables which are expected to significantly influence the migration decision. The model has generally been expressed in double-logarithmic form as this provides a reasonably good fit as well as showing elasticities of migrant responses to changes in the various independent variables, although this practice has not escaped criticism.

Distance was included in the model in recognition of the observation that place-to-place migration probabilities and volumes decrease as distance between the areas of destination and origin increase. Several factors make distance an important factor to consider in explaining the migration decision. Kok et al (2006: 29) emphasise the following reasons for the inclusion of distance in gravity models:

- Distance serves as a proxy for the out-of-pocket costs of moving, such as bus-fares or 'moving truck' costs.
- Opportunity costs increase with distance because time used to travel could have been used to work and earn money. In addition, the greater the distance from the origin the more alternatives (employment and otherwise) are forgone.
- Information costs also increase with distance as the migrant attempts to offset greater uncertainty about more distant locations.

Reduced transportation and communication costs have diminished the relative strength of distance as a deterrent to migration. The absolute values of distance elasticities decline over time

(Denslow and Eaton (1984) in Kok et al (2006: 29)), prompting some researchers to omit the distance variable completely. The model is applied with some success by Kok et al (2006: 97 – 102) who employ Census 1996 data and other data from Statistics South Africa. Their findings are roughly in line with a priori expectations: racial dominance (where a province is dominated percentage-wise by a particular race) and relative number of reported crimes are statistically significant for five provinces, relative unemployment in seven provinces and relative gross geographical product (GGP) in four provinces.

2.4 MIGRATION THEORIES AND MODELS: CONCLUSION

Economics has arguably elucidated much of migration theory and research. Although admittedly incomplete in its analysis of migration, the discipline has offered many interesting insights into causes of migration. On the one hand economic variables are relatively easy to measure and seem to explain much of the migration decision, while on the other hand data on non-economic variables are relatively more difficult to obtain, but provide unparalleled depth to the understanding of migration decisions.

As illustrated by the widely divergent causal mechanisms posited, migration research is undoubtedly a multifaceted discipline. The economic and non-economic theories presented above are not directly contradictory in their perspectives, but have very different implications for policy formulation and research directions. The various ideas expounded do not lend themselves to seamless synthesis, but are similar in that they recognise the role of individual, household and community characteristics in making the migration decision at the micro-level. At the macro-level migration occurs because of economic and political development. Segmentation of the labour market invariably occurs in core receiving regions or areas, with a demand for cheap labour in the secondary labour market and skills in the primary labour market inducing migration. Individuals and families from peripheral areas move in attempts to raise income, accumulate capital and reduce risk.

Once initiated, migration is perpetuated by migrant networks which facilitate more migration. Migration is self-perpetuating in that each act of migration is likely to add at least one more network member. According to non-economic theory, the migration decision is made after making a subjective evaluation of individual, household and community characteristics in both the sending and receiving areas. Societal and cultural norms, family migration norms, values and expectations, residential satisfaction, migrant networks and behavioural constraints and facilitators all serve to support or constrain the decision to migrate.

2.5 SOUTH AFRICAN EVIDENCE

2.5.1 INTRODUCTION

Southern African migration patterns have been identified as one of the most well-researched and documented phenomena in the latter three decades of the twentieth century (Crush, 2000: 13). The 1970s and 1980s saw research across many disciplines focused on labour migration, while the 1990s witnessed a shift to concerns with immigration and human capital flight. The reason for this shift in focus was the removal of institutional barriers to permanent settlement in urban

areas for people of colour (in particular Black South Africans) and the possible "brain drain" as a result of higher local crime rates and better employment and earnings prospects abroad.

After the abolition of influx control in 1986, two more significant factors emerged that could possibly affect the movement of people and their relationship with their household of origin negatively: the proliferation of HIV amongst young adults and high and increasing levels of unemployment (Posel and Casale, 2003: 1). The fundamental shifts in the intensity of these and other variables traditionally used to describe the migration decision make the re-evaluation of migration processes imperative and highly pertinent in the developing country context. This section of the literature review will briefly discuss the history of migration in South Africa, broad trends in recent years and a tentative profile of the modern South African migrant.

2.5.2 A BRIEF HISTORY OF MIGRANT LABOUR IN SOUTH AFRICA

Migration, and in particular oscillating migration, became firmly entrenched in South African society since the 1870s. The abolition of slavery in the 1830s led to perennial shortages of cheap labour, which in previous years had been alleviated through slaves being imported from distant locations (Wilson, 1972: 1). At the end of the 19th Century, agents were sent to Mozambique, Ciskei, Transkei and South West Africa to bring labour back to the Cape Colony to work in the vineyards and wheat-fields. Most men were brought to the Cape on a contract basis, but many of them decided to stay in the Cape after the expiry of their contracts.

In Natal, White settlers were also faced with labour shortages on expanding sugar plantations. To solve the problem, labourers from India were hired as contract labour in the 1860s. Eventually these migrant labourers were allowed to bring their families with them, with many of them settling outside of the farms where they initially worked (Wilson, 1972: 2).

The discovery of diamonds near Hopetown in 1866 signalled the beginning of large-scale labour migration to what is today known as the Northern Cape. Kimberley employed 10 000 Blacks (Wilson, 1972: 2) by 1874 and closed compounds had evolved to house workers and to effectively bar them from contact with the outside world. The discovery of gold in the Witwatersrand in 1886 also set the stage for rapid economic development and imminent shortages of labour in gold mines. By 1899, gold mines employed more than 100 000 Blacks, many of them migrant labourers. The system where men would leave their families for several months at a time to work on the mines prevails to this day, although under less coercive circumstances.

In 1923 the South African government introduced the Native (Urban Areas) Act of 1923 to recognise property rights of Blacks in urban areas. Black people were relegated to locations, which were separate areas set aside for their occupation. The Act was instrumental in influx control in that it allowed local authorities to deport those Black people who were 'habitually unemployed' (Wentzel and Tlabela, 2006: 85). In 1937 the Native Law Amendment Act set the machinery in place for systematic influx control. Urban authorities were required to keep records of Black people living in their respective areas and if population numbers exceeded labour requirements, the Minister of Native Affairs could deport the excess numbers.

African mobility was restricted through pass laws since the 1920s, which initially required Black men to carry passes to work in certain areas. The Holloway Commission of 1932 recommended that pass laws be abolished, but by the 1950s influx control had intensified and the pass laws had been extended to include Black women as well (Wentzel and Tlabela, 2006: 87). In 1950 the Group Areas Act was passed, which prevented people of different races living in the same areas. This meant the relocation of people of colour to townships and locations and the footprint of forced removal is still evident in South African society today.

The success of the influx control system measures instituted by the apartheid government was illustrated by the relatively low urbanization levels of Black people in South Africa. According to the 1980 Census 81% of Whites, 91% of Coloured, 77% Indian and only 33% of Blacks resided in urban and metropolitan areas (Simkins, 1983: 119). However, by the 1970s imminent skills and labour shortages meant a need for Black urbanisation. African townships sprang up near urban centres to accommodate demand for labour. By the 1980s demand for labour had slowed down considerably as a result of mechanisation and sanctions against South Africa. Those Black work-seekers who lived near urban areas were favoured for employment, with rural work-seekers effectively being excluded from urban labour markets. Their need to have access to urban areas therefore forced illegal squatting outside urban areas and many people living in township backyards and shacks erected on vacant land. This trend still continues today, testament to the lingering effects of segregationist policies.

2.5.3 MIGRATION TRENDS IN RECENT YEARS

Economic and political transitions have generally been catalysts for increased internal migration in developing countries in Latin America, Asia and Africa (Gurmu et al, 2000). In this respect, South Africa is no different, with the abolition of influx control and in a broader sense apartheid, allowing more freedom of movement and settlement for South African people of colour. Although patterns of migration are largely unchanged when one looks at ordinality by race, there are slight differences in other variables such as the numbers of children who migrate.

The demise of apartheid not only eliminated the legal/formal restrictions on mobility and settlement, but also ushered in a new era of globalisation and a more competitive labour market with diminished absorption capacity. Van der Berg et al (2002: 33) assert that the rural labour market participant is likely to be the most vulnerable in urban labour market settings. The fact that rural individuals still migrate, even though their employment (or rather unemployment) probabilities are similar in urban and rural environments, points to the extreme desperation among rural job-seekers.

There are also marked decreases in return migration, as revealed by Census data (Van der Berg et al, 2002), which is explained to some degree by the increased feminisation of migration as women joined their partners in their destination areas/provinces. However, the explanation for the decrease in return migration is perhaps not as simple as Census data would suggest. It is also possible that migrants have not yet reached the return migration point in their labour market "lifecycle", and some researchers suggest that too little time has passed since democratisation for any conclusions to be made.

The improvement of road networks and access to public transport in recent years would lead one to expect that physical distance would gradually lose its importance as an explanatory variable in migration probabilities. Wentzel, Viljoen and Kok (2006: 184) analyse the characteristics of internal migrants in South Africa and find that the Free State and the Northern Cape generated the smallest proportions of migrants who move to other provinces. A separate analysis of these provinces reveals that these provinces also have the highest rates of intra-provincial migration, which is almost certainly evident of the importance of distance in explaining these provinces' migrant characteristics.

Interestingly, the pattern of high intra-migration rates is similar in more affluent South African provinces. Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2004) employ the Census 2001 and LFS 2002 datasets generated by Statistics South Africa to describe and quantify migration to the Gauteng province. They find that of all recent migrants residing in Gauteng, almost 60% (slightly more than 1 million people) moved from elsewhere within the same province. More than four-fifths of these recent migrants are concentrated in metropolitan areas, with Johannesburg receiving approximately 39.5% of all intra-Gauteng migrants (Oosthuizen and Naidoo, 2004: 6). On the other hand, Tshwane receives more non-Gauteng residents (27.1%), a figure which becomes more noteworthy when one considers its relatively small share of the entire population (17.3%). Oosthuizen and Naidoo attribute the differences to local residents perceiving Johannesburg as having greater job opportunities and Tshwane receiving civil servants from outside of the province.

Physical distance is also a proxy for the psychological costs of moving, and therefore some caution should be exercised when interpreting the results. The unwillingness to migrate far from the household of origin could indicate a preference for a natural resource base or insurance policy against labour market insecurity or ill health (Wilkinson et al, 1998). The household of origin provides refuge in times of ill-health and labour market insecurity. Although the inclusion of physical distance in migration regressions is a tempting proposition, the extreme difficulty of obtaining reliable, consistent estimates of distance between areas makes the inclusion of this variable in regressions a difficult exercise. Thus, one can only infer, rather than unequivocally state, that distance is related to the rate of internal migration.

The possibility of financial constraints negatively affecting migration probabilities is discussed in some detail by Andrienko and Guriev (2004). Using official migration datasets from 1992 to 1999 between 89 Russian regions, they test the Tiebout theory that people reveal their preferences by "voting with their feet". They find that Tiebout competition amongst regions does exist, but that financial constraints prevent the poor from moving (Andrienko and Guriev, 2004: 25). The persistence of poverty in poor, rural areas is explained by this, with the poor effectively being excluded from better wage prospects or external options. They also find that higher income earners are more likely to migrate, due to the fact that they are more able to afford the initial costs of moving.

The role of imperfect housing markets in the restrictive costs of rent in urban, extra-regional areas could also explain the low mobility of rural migrants. Andrienko and Guriev (2004: 9) assert that the lack of access to mortgages invariably pushes up rent in urban markets, making it one of the prime considerations when making the migration decision. In an earlier paper Friebel

and Guriev (2002) question the ability of potential migrants to afford rent in urban areas as their rural wages barely exceed subsistence levels. The existence of a veritable poverty trap in rural areas makes the study of migration patterns and possibilities integral to poverty alleviation policy formulation. In the South African context, employed and potentially employed migrants perversely respond by erecting shacks in settlements on the urban fringe. The settlement here and the subsequent initial inclusion of these settlements in more affluent demarcation zones make the targeting of areas for poverty alleviation or access to services difficult.

Van der Berg et al (2002: 33) stress the impact of HIV/AIDS on migration and spatial planning. They note that HIV/AIDS has thrown the demographics of provinces such as the Eastern Cape into disarray with huge consequences for the planning of service provision. To quantify the impact of HIV/AIDS on migration probabilities will always be an imperfect exercise as one has to rely on self-reporting for infection rates (Roux and van Tonder, 2006). De Villiers and Niewoudt (2003: 11) assert that the more pronounced HIV infection rates are amongst the most productive (and more migratory) segment of the labour market (25 to 39 years old). This is bound to affect migration probabilities profoundly in years to come and will hopefully inspire more research into the relationship between health status and migration.

The environment shaping the migration decision has changed dramatically since the transition to democracy in South Africa. The rising unemployment levels, financial constraints, the removal of institutional barriers and the impact of HIV have all had significant effects on the probabilities of migration and the outcomes thereof. Although the former two factors have generally received attention from migration analysts, the latter two - in particular HIV/ AIDS – should prompt better data generation and management at national level in future.

2.5.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF SOUTH AFRICAN MIGRANTS

Certain groups of people are more inclined to migrate than others (Britz, 2002: 35). It is tempting to infer from higher migration rates of economically active individuals from the former homelands that migration is a predominantly rural-urban movement of Black males. However, this sort of inference is superficial and does not do justice to the variety of migrants in contemporary South Africa. The typical variables included in migration analysis are race, age, gender, marital status, household composition, educational attainment and employment status. These demographic variables are admittedly narrow in their focus, but suffice to form a robust framework which can be bolstered by "softer" factors such as attitudinal data. Although work by Kok et al (2006) has included "soft" analysis as well, this review will not attempt to do the same. However, the relationship of the migrant to the sending household and the social network in the area of destination will be discussed in deference to the importance of sociological variables in explaining migration patterns in South Africa.

2.5.4.1 Race

Traditionally South African migration, in particular labour migration, has been a largely Black and White phenomenon. The importance of race as a descriptive variable for migrant characteristics has its root in legal measures adopted during Apartheid to prevent Black people from settling permanently in towns where they worked. Influx control significantly skewed

migration probabilities in that by and large Black dependents were immobile and had to depend on remittances and self-sufficiency for survival. The abolition of influx control in 1986 and the advent of democracy in 1994 led to *a priori* expectations that oscillating labour migration would eventually give way to more permanent migration and that settlement patterns by race would change. Thus, while research in the 1970s and 1980s was focused on oscillating labour migration patterns, the latter half of the 1990s attempted to determine whether settlement of migrants in urban areas had occurred and what conditions they faced at their destination.

Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2004) investigate the role of race in migration patterns to Gauteng. They find that just more than three-quarters of in-migrants to Gauteng are Black, just less than one-fifth White and the remaining 5% of in-migrants consist of Coloureds and Asians. In general, Johannesburg attracts the largest proportion of in-migrants, but a desegregation of destinations by race is slightly more revealing (Oosthuizen and Naidoo, 2004: 9). Migrant settlement by race varies radically among districts, with the racial composition of migrants in the West Rand and Metsweding being 80 percent Black, 18 percent White and 2 percent Coloured and Asian. The majority of White in-migrants are attracted to Sedibeng and Tshwane (45%), while Johannesburg is the prime destination for Blacks, Coloureds and Asians (Oosthuizen and Naidoo, 2004: 10).

2.5.4.2 Age

Age is a significant predictor of the ability and/ or proclivity to migrate. Typically one would compare age structures of residents born in a certain area to those residents born in other areas/ districts/ provinces. White and Woods (1980: 14) explain the significance of age as a predictor of migration probabilities: "Age is of particular importance in explaining the likelihood of migration occurring. Customarily the propensity to migrate is greatest in the young-adult age groups, particularly between school-leaving age and the age of 30 in economically advanced societies. Such migration is generally associated with the search for a job, and with job-changes occurring at the lower rungs of the ladder. After the age of 30, migration is generally reduced and residential stability becomes the norm. At the ages of 60 to 65 a further peak of migration may occur involving a change of residence at retirement."

This statement is borne out by Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2004: 11). They compare the age structure of residents born in Gauteng to those born in the other South African provinces. They find that the proportion of working age Gauteng-born residents (as a proportion of the entire Gauteng-born population) is significantly lower at 65.5% than the 81.8 % of those individuals born outside of Gauteng who are of working age. Children under 15 years old account for 31.3 % of individuals born in Gauteng, while 13.7% of the same age category are not born in Gauteng[4]. One can thus infer that in-migrants are typically single, career-oriented individuals relative to their local-born counterparts or are less likely to bring their children with them to the area of destination.

Besides physical age-related factors such as health and employment selectivity, young people are

[4] Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2004: 10) explain the differing proportions with the possibility that either migrants have relatively few children or bring relatively few children with them. Alternatively, Gauteng-born residents could also have relatively fewer children.

also socialised so that greater mobility is possible for them. They are not as intimately bound with their environments as older people are, and are generally more prepared mentally for migration (Britz, 2002: 36). Their relative lack of assets and social capital makes the decisions to uproot much easier.

Van der Berg et al (2002) investigate the changing rural-urban interface as a result of migration, using data from Census 1996 and the 1995 October Household Survey. Their methodology involves only regarding the moves in the first nine months of 1996 to get more accurate estimates of in-and-out-migration. In their analysis of migration from Transkei to the Western Cape, they find that "migration is highly age-selective" (Van der Berg et al, 2002:7). Young adults (26 to 35 years old) and youths (16 to 25 years old) are more likely to migrate than younger and older people. They also find that younger children (younger than six years old) are more likely to migrate than the above-mentioned youths, suggesting that parents are more likely to migrate with younger children, or because younger couples with younger children are more likely to migrate.

The impact of children and assets seem to indicate that age is a proxy, rather than a directly associated variable, for stages in the individual's life. White and Woods (1980: 14) suggest that life-cycle stages, rather than age, are more directly correlated with migration selectivity. It is possible that age is just a proxy for variables associated with a life-cycle stage, and that relative uniformity within or across population groups may account for the strong association with age.

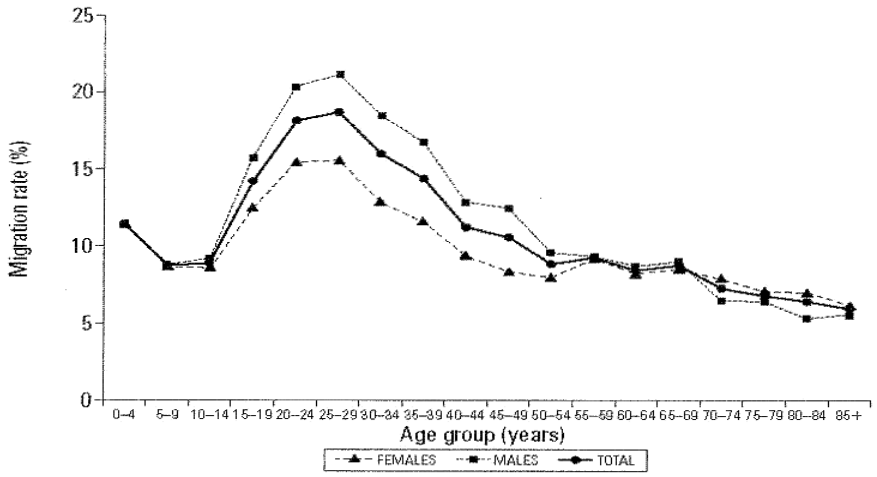
2.5.4.3 Gender

South Africa's migration patterns have been largely gender-biased since the 19th Century. Males have typically migrated to fill labour-intensive positions in the mining regions in the northern parts of South Africa. The gender divide in waged work was exacerbated by the "internal structures of control" (Posel, 2003: 2) which upheld the traditional division of labour into household production functions for females and waged, often migrant, work for males. Male migration was symptomatic of the real or perceived comparative wage advantages that males had over females in waged work.

Using Census data, Kok et al (2003: 55) investigate South African[5] migration patterns for the periods 1975 – 80 and 1992 – 96 and find that gender as well as age is significant explanatory variables. Their results, presented graphically in figures 5 and 6 below, show clear patterns of male-dominated migration with both groups peaking at 25 to 29 years old.

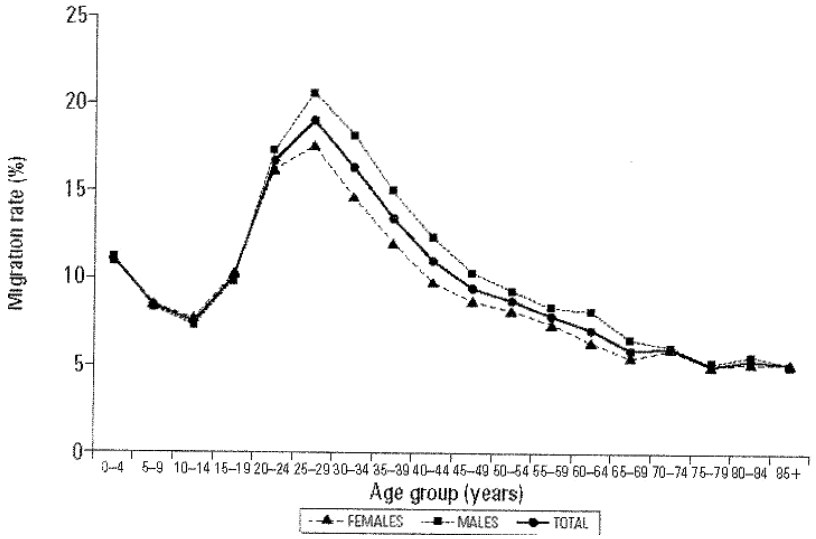
[5] The Census data for 1980 excludes the migration of residents from the former homelands of Transkei, Bophuthatswana and Venda.

Figure 5 Migration rates by age group for the period 1975 – 80 based on Census 1980 data



Source: Kok et al (2003: 56).
Note: people in the former homelands were not included in Census 1980.

Figure 6 Migration rates by age group for the period 1992 – 96 based on Census 1996



Source: Kok et al (2003: 56).

Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2004) investigate the male-female ratio of Gauteng residents born in Gauteng and those born outside. The former is 94:100, while the latter has a 107:100 ratio, a strong indication of the gender bias in South African migration (Oosthuizen and Naidoo, 2004: 11). The dominance of male migration over female migration rates leads one to question whether there are not more complex considerations than just division of household and external labour according to gender.

The treatment of rural households as a unitary decision-making unit was challenged by feminist historians such as Bozzoli (1983). The implicit assumption of previous research papers was that

the rural household was a "harmonious unit" in which all its members maximised household resources in a united fashion. However, the unitary household model could simply have been indicative of a controlling male-headed household supported by patriarchal community structures. It is possible that, to maximise their own income, men choose themselves as migrants rather than remaining behind to receive a share of remittance (Posel, 2003: 3). Thus, selfish economic motivation[6] could possibly be the driver of male rather than female migration.

The employment vulnerability of women, notably in African rural communities, is evidenced by the rise in unemployment of women relative to men. Posel and Casale (2003: 7) investigate changes in the migration patterns of women in South Africa using OHS data and find that broad unemployment amongst women had risen from 38 percent to 47 percent from 1995 to 1999 compared to 23 percent and 32 percent for males. Thus, relatively lower employment probabilities for female rural migrants in urban areas and the social cost of being a newcomer could act as deterrents for female migration (Van der Berg et al, 2002).

Van der Berg et al (2002: 14) find that although female migration rates from Transkei and Limpopo to metropolitan areas in the Western Cape and Gauteng are lower than that for males, this difference is not as large as under apartheid. This finding supports the argument that the abolition of influx control and the changing gender status quo as a result of fragmented households (perpetuated by previous gender-biased migration patterns) has significantly altered migration patterns in South Africa.

Posel and Casale (2003: 9) suggest that a possible reason for increased female labour migration rates is that females could be joining their male partners. They illustrate this by estimating a female migrant regression equation using 1993 PSLSD data, and find that the probability of women being migrant workers is positively and significantly related to the presence of a male labour migrant. The higher rates of divorce, death of the male head and the need to be less dependent on agriculture could also be precursors to migration for women. These added pressures force women to migrate to ensure the survival of their families (Adepoju, 2006: 37).

Raubenheimer (1987: 22) asserts that the gender composition of migrants is affected by economic, social and cultural factors which give one gender a comparative advantage over another in the destination area. White and Woods (1980: 15) note that gender may be an important factor to consider in migration selectivity, but it is not always biased in the same way and may also not affect probabilities of migration at all. However, as this section has shown, South African cultural and institutional barriers significantly affected migration possibilities by gender in the past. The low education levels of labour migrants in previous years could also have skewed migration selectivity in that more labour-intensive employment opportunities were concentrated in distant mining towns or heavy industry areas. Thus one would expect higher female migration rates after the abolition of influx control. The removal of institutional barriers in the latter half of the 1980s and the early 1990s and the relative relaxation of cultural barriers have altered post-apartheid gender-based migration patterns somewhat, but not to the extent expected by many social scientists. The lower employment probabilities of female migrants could be explained by the perception that females are less able or inclined to do hard labour as

[6] For the dynamics of intra-household consumption in the selfish male-headed household, the reader is referred to "Sin taxes and poor households" (Black and Mohamed, 2006).

well as low education levels preventing them from pursuing more skilled employment opportunities.

2.5.4.4 Educational attainment, occupational status and employment levels

The level of educational attainment generally enjoys a positive relationship with mobility, marketability and as a result better employment prospects in urban areas. In most countries, migrants with the most education migrate more readily from rural to urban areas. People with secondary and tertiary education levels are more migratory than those with primary education levels, but this can partly be explained by the fact that rural sending areas often do not have the capacity to provide higher education, forcing the individual to migrate in pursuit thereof (White and Woods, 1980). Therefore, education acts as a dual incentive for migration: migration could occur because the migrant has higher education levels or simply wants to attain higher education levels.

With few exceptions in South Africa, low education rates are synonymous with high unemployment rates and rural areas. South Africa's more competitive stance in the global arena in the 1990s led to fundamental changes in the demand and supply of labour. Demand for unskilled and semi-skilled labour had waned considerably by the end of the 1990s (Kok et al, 2003: 53) which profoundly affected labour migration patterns and employment probabilities for labour migrants. The changing patterns affected those who are typically most vulnerable and ill-equipped to deal with change – the young, unemployed and poorly educated.

Van der Berg et al (2002: 21) find thresholds for educational attainment affecting probabilities of migration among black people from Transkei, a former TBVC area. Although secondary education increases the likelihood of migration for migrants from Transkei, migrants with tertiary education are less likely to migrate. Van der Berg et al (2002: 7) attribute this trend to the higher probabilities of migrants with tertiary education finding government jobs in the Eastern Cape. Their findings, although contradictory to *a priori* expectations of monotonicity, suggest that more in-depth analysis of education and its relationship with migration is needed in the South African context.

Some occupational groups are more likely to migrate than others. Migration selectivity according to occupational group is illustrated in table 1. Although nearly half of all respondents in the 2001-02 HRSC Migration Survey were unskilled, the dominant occupational status categories for migrant workers were white-collar occupational categories.

Table 1 Distribution of occupational status, by respondent group

Occupational status categories	Non-migrants (%)	Internal migrants (%)	All respondents (%)
Managerial, executive, high admin and independent professional	7	7	7
Middle and lower level professional and inspectional	6	11	8
White collar, sales and clerical	11	10	11
Skilled manual and supervisory	6	9	7
Semi-skilled, operator, driver	15	12	13
Unskilled manual, labourer	45	44	45
Not answered, other	10	7	9
Total	100	100	100
Weighted N	7 825 052	7 789 547	15 855 290

Source: Kok et al (2006: 186).

The 2001-02 HRSC survey revealed that South African internal migrants also seem to have a higher rate of employment at 40% compared to their non-migratory counterparts at 30 % (Kok et al, 2006: 184). Their analysis, depicted in table 2, shows that although the unemployment rates for migrants and non-migrants were similar at 27% and 31% respectively, the percentage of non-migrants who had never worked before was 48% compared to internal migrants at 29%.

Table 2 Reasons for not working, by migrant category

Reasons for not working	Proportion of internal migrants (%)	Proportion of non-migrants (%)
Never worked	48	29
Currently unemployed and looking for work	27	31
Currently unemployed and not looking for work	7	13
Housewife/ homemaker	3	5
Pupil/ full-time student	3	2
Retired person/ pensioner	6	9
Disabled (not able to work)	3	7

Source: Kok et al (2006: 185).

2.5.4.5 Marital status and household composition

Marital status and household composition are two important factors affecting both intra-household allocation and direct and indirect migration probabilities. Recent literature focuses on the effects of marital status and household composition on female migration probabilities. This is due to their enforced immobility in the past, either through cultural or institutional barriers. Posel and Casale (2003: 7) cite Todes (2001: 17-18) who stresses the importance of cultural barriers in explaining lower rates of migration for women:

"It was rare for women to experience the freedom of movement that men did... Women's mobility varied according to their position in the household. Women could not move at will – their

husband's power in this regard was clearly apparent. Unmarried women were freer to move, but this depended on their position and conditions within the household. They were frequently constrained by their roles as care-givers, responsibility for children, the sick and disabled, and for old parents."

If being subservient to men restricts the mobility of women, we can expect that being married would constrain female migration and being single would encourage female migration. For migrants to Gauteng, Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2003: 35) find that male and female migrant workers are significantly different in terms of marital status. More than half of male migrant workers are married or are living with a partner, in stark contrast to the one-fifth of female migrants who are married. The authors attribute this finding to the fact that most female migrants have never been married, or are divorced or widowed. Indeed, Oosthuizen and Naidoo (2003: 36) find that 66.4% of female migrant workers to Gauteng have never been married, compared to 44.2 % of their male counterparts.

Posel and Casale (2003: 8) estimate a female "migration decision" equation using 1993 PSLSD data and find that women's relationship with men profoundly affects their decision to migrate or not. Women who are married are less likely to migrate than their unmarried counterparts[7]. One expects that the traditional child-care role of women would impact negatively on the decision to migrate. The number of young children (6 years old and younger) in the household significantly reduces the probability of migration. As the number of older children (7 to 14 years old) increases in the household, the more likely it is that women would migrate. It is possible that the increasing costs of children as they start attending school compel the mother to migrate and leave children in the care of grandmothers or other family (Posel and Casale, 2006: 10). The presence of pension-aged women is also positively related to female migration probabilities, highlighting the importance of grandmothers in childcare and income supplementation through pension grants.

Marital status and household composition are undoubtedly important predictors of migration probabilities. The decline in marital rates since the early 1990s and shifts in cultural attitudes for some women have altered migration patterns significantly. Decision-making power has gradually shifted in favour of females, prompting the increase in female migration rates in recent years. The ages and number of children also affect migration probabilities, as well as the presence of pension-aged people in the household of origin[8].

2.5.4.6 Relationship with the sending household: Remittances as investment returns and investment options

The tradition of remittances is firmly rooted in the historical evolution of migration. Adepoju (1998) refers to the dual residential arrangement strategy that migrants adopt to maximise returns from migration and to maintain their extended family structure in the event of ill-health or

[7] Although the PSLSD survey does not ask direct questions about marriage, the authors infer from the absence or presence of the spousal member whether the respondent was unmarried. This could underestimate the proportion of married women. Also, it is not clear whether respondents would have reported having an unmarried partner as married or as having no spouse.

[8] A good discussion on the incidence of old-age pensions and the reluctance or inability of younger household members to set up new households is provided by Klasen and Woolard (2000).

unfavourable employment probabilities. The strategy entails one household member migrating alone, setting up cheap accommodation and working to pay off loans made to pay for migration. The selection and investment of the family in one or more household members' migration costs compels the migrant to make regular remittances to support those left behind. In South Africa, the institutional barriers to migrants settling with their families in destination areas forced the adoption of a remittance system for the family's survival (Crush et al, 2005).

Migrant's remittances, sometimes the only link between the sending household and the migrant, support poorer and less able household and family members. Generally remittances are used for consumption, but in many cases are used for investment or paying for education or improving agricultural productivity (Kok et al, 2006: 31). In South Africa, remittance transfers received by rural Black households increased from 1993 to 1999, but by 2002 this proportion had decreased substantially (Posel and Casale, 2003: 354). The real value of remittances received by these households had started decreasing since 1993, suggesting that economic ties with sending households had become weaker over time.

Sharp (2001: 156) also identifies decreases in real wages and labour market insecurity as reasons for falling values of remittances. The improved coverage and increased values of social pensions may also contribute to this phenomenon due to perceptions that remittances are no longer so desperately needed. In the Northern Province Baber (1996: 293) finds that new formal investment choices such as insurance policies and savings accounts crowd out direct investments in rural alternatives such as cultivation. The existence of other investment options may therefore compel the migrant to only send enough money to the household of origin for consumption. This has dire consequences for the household and as a result, for the planning of the social security system.

On the other hand, Todes (1998) and James (2001) assert that economic ties based on agriculture and livestock have been substituted by investment in housing, reflecting migrants' intentions to return to their rural sending area to retire. The desire to retire in the sending area is also illustrated by migrants over 50 years of age to remit significantly more than other age groups (Posel and Casale, 2003: 13), probably in anticipation of impending retirement. However, it is also possible that norms and values of remitting may be more entrenched in older migrants. The lower costs of living, real or perceived, in the rural sending area are cited by James (2001: 93) as quoted by Posel and Casale (2003: 12) as the reason for the preference. Her assessment of the preference is thus: "Land represents a sense of security, identity and history, rather than being just an asset to be used for farming alone."

2.5.5 SOUTH AFRICAN EVIDENCE: CONCLUSION

The study of migrant characteristics provides valuable insights into the perpetuation and creation of diversity by migration and settlement patterns. This section of the paper has briefly discussed the environment which shapes the migration decision as well as the characteristics of migrants. The profile of the South African migrant is important for spatial planning and policy formulation in anticipation of an influx or exodus of migrants, as well as measuring and understanding the economic impact thereof on sending and destination areas.

The following salient trends emerge from this literature review of South African migration:

- Migrants are generally younger and not as bound maritally or otherwise to their household of origin as their stationary counterparts.
- Blacks and Whites are more likely to migrate than Coloureds and Indians when one decomposes migration probabilities by race.
- Although men are more likely to migrate than women, there is a definite rise in the proportion of women who are migrants.
- Educational attainment and occupational status are positively related to migration probabilities, although economic opportunities in the area of origin or destination might not always translate into monotonic relationships.
- Remittances are falling over time, indicating either that families are joining the migrant in the area of destination or that social norms have changed over time.

The implications of male-dominated migration and the decline in the importance of agriculture in economic activity do not bode well for rural areas. The highly age-selective nature of migration means that rural areas send their most productive citizens to more urban areas, resulting in less advancement or educational opportunities for rural inhabitants. This is exacerbated by falling remittance values (possibly because of more extensive grant coverage) which only allow for basic consumption.

CHAPTER 3

A GENERAL PROFILE OF THE NORTHERN CAPE[9]

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a general profile of the Northern Cape, using the 10 percent samples drawn from the 1996 and 2001 census to compare the Northern Cape's demography, economy, labour market activities and household services with those of the other provinces. Appendix II complements this chapter by showing the general profile of each district council (DC) in the Northern Cape. Under the old demarcation method which was used in Census 1996, there are 6 DCs in the Northern Cape, namely Namaqualand, Hantam, Lower Orange, Kalahari, Diamandveld and Upper Karoo (Figure 7). However, the new demarcation which was used in Census 2001 divides the province into 5 DCs, namely Namakwa, Siyanda, Kgalagadi, Frances Baard and Karoo (Figure 8).

The new demarcation structure, effective mid-2000, is defined as follows for Census 2001: Category A municipalities (metropolitan areas), Category C municipalities (district councils) and Category B (District Management Areas and local municipalities.. All local municipalities and DMAs fall within a district council. It should be noted that these boundaries are not all perfectly aligned within provincial boundaries. Some municipalities are in effect therefore geographically located in two provinces, creating cross-boundary municipalities.

Figure 7 Northern Cape district councils according to old boundaries, 1996

[9] Everyone in the sample was included (i.e., including homeless as well as people staying in institutions like hotels and student hostels) in all the analyses of this chapter, unless stated otherwise. Tables A1.1 and A1.2 in Appendix I provide more detail on the number of people staying in each dwelling type in the two censuses.

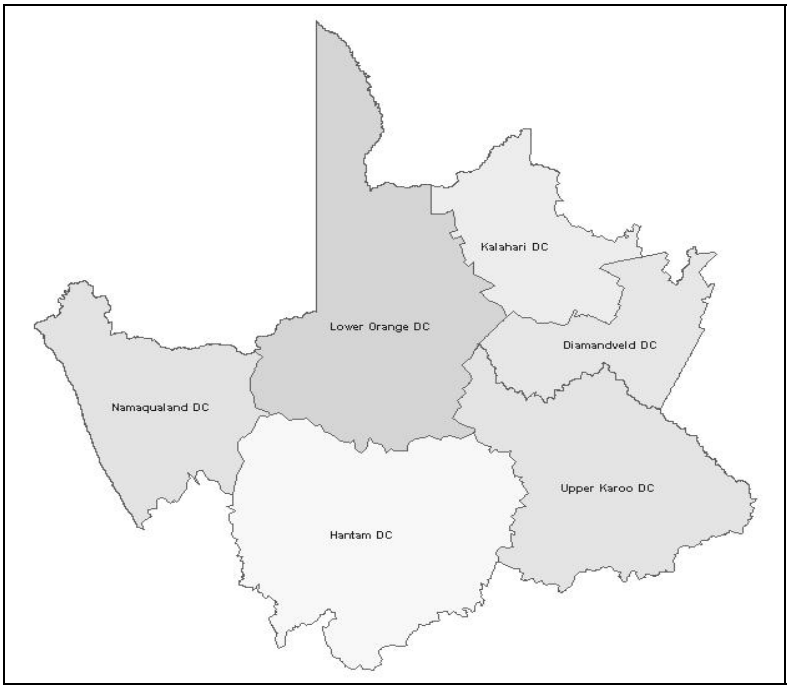
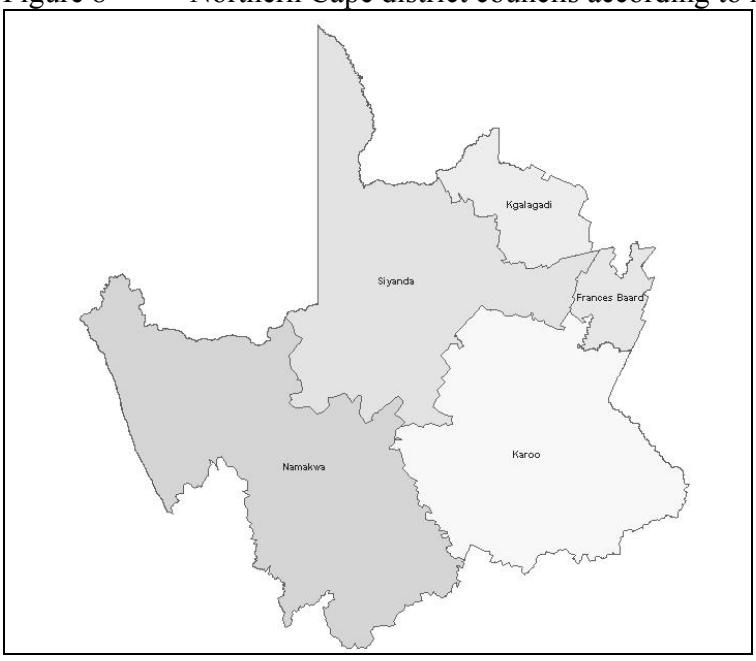


Figure 8 Northern Cape district councils according to new boundaries, 2001



3.2 DEMOGRAPHY

3.2.1 POPULATION PROFILE

The Northern Cape is the province with the biggest land area but it contains the smallest population. In fact, the province experiences a slight decrease in its population between the two censuses. Diamandveld and Frances Baard are the most populated DCs in 1996 and 2001 respectively, accounting for more than one-thirds of the population of the province in each census.

Table 3 Area, population size and population density by province

	Area (km^2)	Census 1996			Census 2001		
		Population		Density	Population		Density
Western Cape	129,370	3,728,289	9.7%	28.82	4,392,275	10.2%	33.95
Eastern Cape	169,580	6,016,684	15.6%	35.48	6,134,368	14.2%	36.17
Northern Cape	361,830	814,618	2.1%	2.25	795,949	1.8%	2.20
Free State	129,480	2,499,996	6.5%	19.31	2,619,393	6.1%	20.23
KwaZulu Natal	92,100	8,008,633	20.7%	86.96	9,094,310	21.1%	98.74
North West	116,320	3,182,403	8.2%	27.36	3,520,844	8.2%	30.27
Gauteng	17,010	6,975,889	18.1%	410.11	8,485,678	19.7%	498.86
Mpumalanga	79,490	2,719,316	7.0%	34.21	3,001,320	7.0%	37.76
Limpopo	123,910	4,655,693	12.1%	37.57	5,126,609	11.9%	41.37
South Africa	1,219,090	38,601,521	100.0%	31.66	43,170,746	100.0%	35.41

Note: density = population / area

3.2.2 NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS AND MEAN HOUSEHOLD SIZE

Despite the slight decrease of population in Northern Cape between the two censuses, there is an increase in the number of households. In fact, all provinces experience such an increase.

Table 4 Number of households by province

	Census 1996		Census 2001	
Western Cape	941,449	10.8%	1,134,812	10.5%
Eastern Cape	1,280,470	14.7%	1,462,305	13.5%
Northern Cape	178,461	2.0%	199,181	1.8%
Free State	608,613	7.0%	703,933	6.5%
KwaZulu Natal	1,604,111	18.4%	1,996,860	18.4%
North West	697,575	8.0%	910,677	8.4%
Gauteng	1,856,057	21.3%	2,561,626	23.7%
Mpumalanga	589,470	6.8%	709,062	6.5%
Limpopo	950,273	10.9%	1,150,033	10.6%
South Africa	8,706,479	100.0%	10,828,489	100.0%

Note: only households staying in normal dwellings are included.

In addition, it can be seen from Table 5 that all provinces experience a decrease in mean household size between the two censuses, regardless of the race of the household head[10]. In the case of Northern Cape, the mean household size decreases from 4.00 to 3.81.

[10] In Census 2001, each of all 10,828,489 households staying in normal dwellings has only 1 household head. However, looking at the 8,706,479 households staying in normal dwellings in Census 1996, there is no household head in 60,269 households, while 28,871 households are headed by more than 1 person. Thus, only the remaining

Table 5 Mean household size by the race of household head

	Black		Coloured		Indian		White		All	
	1996	**2001**	**1996**	**2001**	**1996**	**2001**	**1996**	**2001**	**1996**	**2001**
Western Cape	3.57	3.46	4.47	4.39	4.10	4.08	2.66	2.59	3.73	3.67
Eastern Cape	4.47	4.23	4.73	4.52	3.94	3.69	2.86	2.80	4.37	4.15
Northern Cape	4.04	3.74	4.45	4.24	4.07	3.28	2.81	2.74	4.00	3.81
Free State	3.97	3.71	3.96	3.99	3.44	3.56	2.91	2.85	3.79	3.63
KwaZulu Natal	4.86	4.44	4.17	3.89	4.23	4.01	2.78	2.64	4.53	4.25
North West	4.34	3.85	4.42	4.17	3.92	3.89	3.01	3.00	4.21	3.80
Gauteng	3.51	3.23	4.14	4.11	3.99	3.83	2.99	2.92	3.39	3.21
Mpumalanga	4.43	4.16	4.20	4.03	4.33	3.82	3.24	3.12	4.27	4.07
Limpopo	4.68	4.35	3.95	3.89	4.33	3.83	3.05	3.02	4.62	4.31
South Africa	4.30	3.95	4.44	4.33	4.18	3.96	2.89	2.81	4.08	3.84

Note: only households staying in normal dwellings are included.

3.2.3 RACE

From table 6, it can be seen that Northern Cape and Western Cape are the only two provinces that are not dominated by Blacks. In fact, slightly more than half of the population in Northern Cape consists of Coloured people in both censuses. As far as the racial composition of the DC is concerned, Hantam and Namaqualand in Census 1996 and Namakwa in Census 2001 are the DCs where more than 80% of the population are Coloureds.

Table 6 Racial composition in each province

	Census 1996					
	Black	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**	**Unspecified**	**Population**
Western Cape	21.1%	54.2%	1.0%	20.7%	3.1%	3,728,289
Eastern Cape	86.4%	7.5%	0.3%	5.2%	0.6%	6,016,684
Northern Cape	33.1%	52.1%	0.3%	13.1%	1.3%	814,618
Free State	84.5%	3.0%	0.1%	11.9%	0.4%	2,499,996
KwaZulu Natal	81.9%	1.4%	9.4%	6.4%	0.8%	8,008,633
North West	91.2%	1.4%	0.3%	6.6%	0.5%	3,182,403
Gauteng	70.4%	3.7%	2.2%	22.8%	0.8%	6,975,889
Mpumalanga	89.5%	0.7%	0.5%	8.8%	0.5%	2,719,316
Limpopo	96.5%	0.2%	0.1%	2.5%	0.7%	4,655,693
South Africa	76.9%	8.8%	2.6%	10.8%	0.9%	38,601,521
	Census 2001					
	Black	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**	**Unspecified**	**Population**
Western Cape	26.7%	53.6%	1.0%	18.6%	0.0%	4,392,275
Eastern Cape	87.3%	7.5%	0.3%	4.9%	0.0%	6,134,368
Northern Cape	35.2%	52.7%	0.3%	11.8%	0.0%	795,949
Free State	87.7%	3.1%	0.1%	9.0%	0.0%	2,619,393

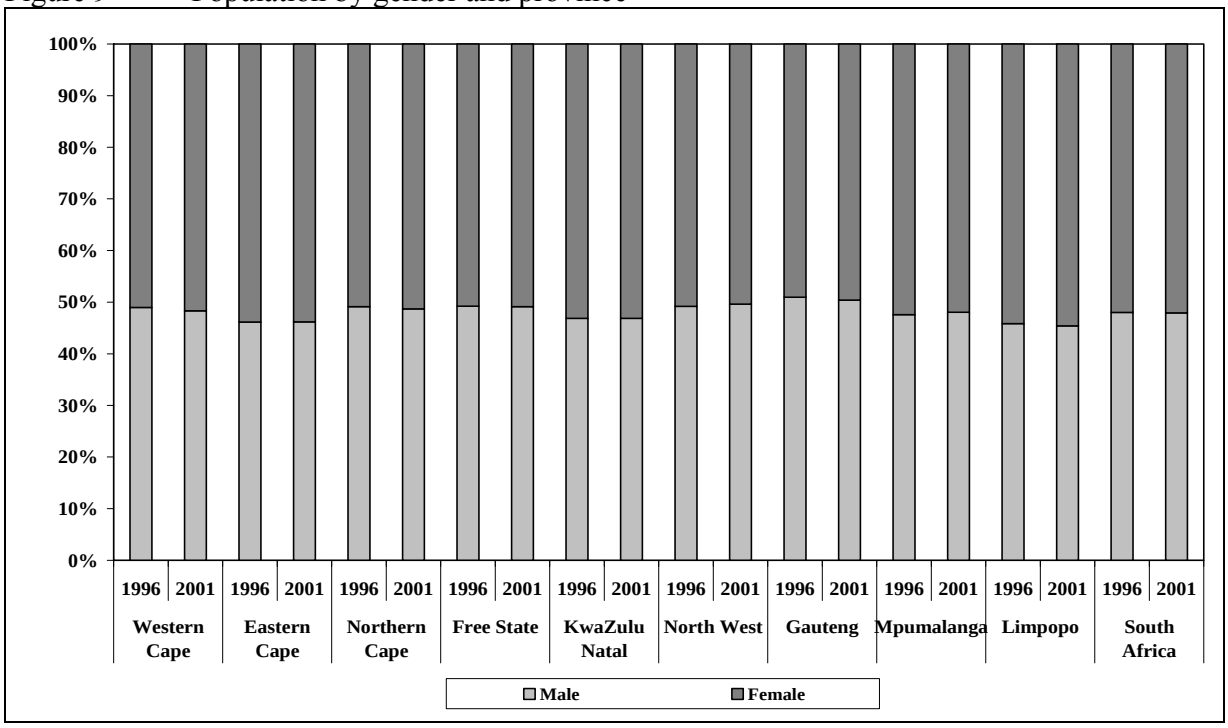
8,617,339 (8,706,479 – 60,269 – 28,871) households are each headed by 1 person. Thus, only these 8,617,339 households could be included when the households are analyzed by certain criteria (e.g., by race, gender, etc. of household head).

KwaZulu Natal	85.1%	1.5%	8.2%	5.2%	0.0%	9,094,310
North West	91.3%	1.6%	0.3%	6.8%	0.0%	3,520,844
Gauteng	73.5%	3.8%	2.5%	20.1%	0.0%	8,485,678
Mpumalanga	92.6%	0.7%	0.4%	6.3%	0.0%	3,001,320
Limpopo	97.2%	0.2%	0.1%	2.4%	0.0%	5,126,609
South Africa	78.9%	8.9%	2.4%	9.7%	0.0%	43,170,746

3.2.4 GENDER

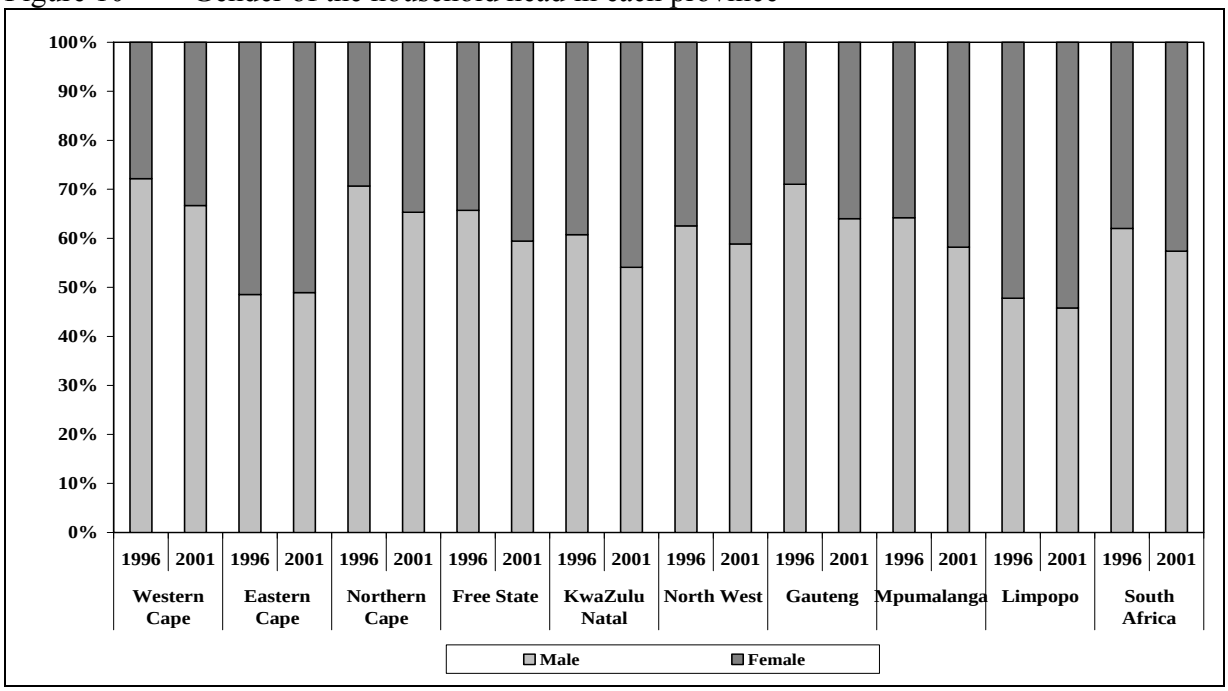
In both censuses, the female share in Northern Cape is slightly above 50%, and this share shows a very small increase in 2001 (figure 9).

Figure 9 Population by gender and province



On the other hand, about two-thirds of the households (only including households staying in normal dwellings) are male-headed, as shown in figure 10.

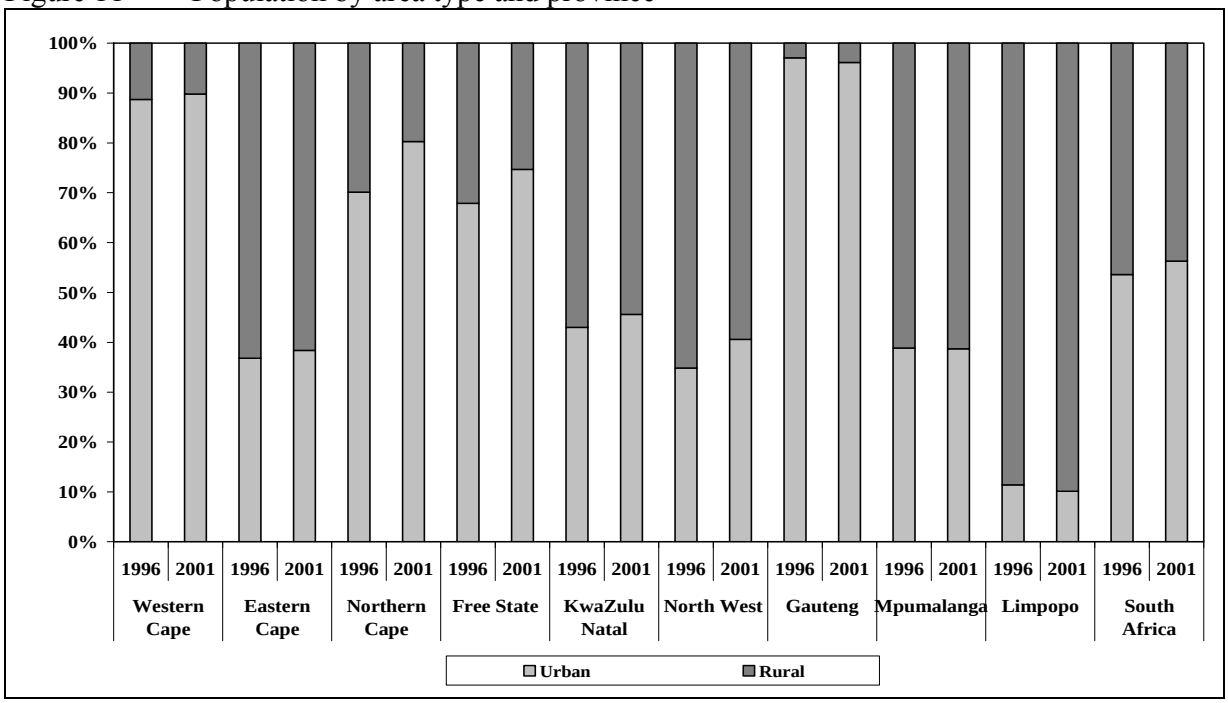
Figure 10 Gender of the household head in each province



3.2.5 AREA TYPE

Northern Cape is a highly urbanised province, and there is a rapid increase of about 10% points in the population staying in urban areas in 2001, as shown in figure 11. Looking at the district councils in Northern Cape, Diamandveld and Frances Baard are the most urbanised DCs in 1996 and 2001 respectively (note that they are also the most populated DCs, as mentioned in 3.2.1)

Figure 11 Population by area type and province



3.2.6 AGE DISTRIBUTION

In Northern Cape, more than 60% of the population are aged between 15 and 65 years (i.e., working-age population), as shown in table 7. Note that the Eastern Cape and Limpopo have relatively low shares of working-age population.

Table 7 Age distribution by province

	Census 1996			**Census 2001**		
	0-14yrs	**15-65yrs**	**66+yrs**	**0-14yrs**	**15-65yrs**	**66+yrs**
Western Cape	28.6%	65.7%	5.8%	27.2%	67.9%	4.9%
Eastern Cape	39.0%	55.0%	6.0%	36.6%	57.6%	5.8%
Northern Cape	33.2%	61.2%	5.6%	31.0%	64.1%	4.9%
Free State	31.2%	63.5%	5.3%	30.8%	64.8%	4.5%
KwaZulu Natal	35.6%	59.0%	5.4%	34.5%	61.3%	4.3%
North West	33.9%	61.0%	5.1%	31.0%	64.5%	4.5%
Gauteng	25.1%	69.7%	5.2%	23.1%	73.2%	3.7%
Mpumalanga	36.8%	57.9%	5.4%	35.3%	61.0%	3.7%
Limpopo	42.1%	51.8%	6.1%	39.5%	55.3%	5.2%

South Africa	34.0%	60.5%	5.5%	31.9%	63.6%	4.6%

3.2.7 LANGUAGE

The language most often spoken in the Northern Cape is Afrikaans (slightly more than two-thirds of the population speaks Afrikaans most often), followed by Setswana and Xhosa. In addition, more than 95% of the population in the Hantam, Namaqualand and Namakwa DCs (the three DCs that are heavily dominated by Coloured people) speak Afrikaans most often.

Table 8 Language most often spoken by province

Census 1996								
	Afrikaans	**English**	**Xhosa**	**Zulu**	**Sepedi**	**Sesotho**	**Setswana**	**Others**
Western Cape	58.3%	20.1%	19.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.4%	0.1%	1.9%
Eastern Cape	9.5%	3.7%	83.3%	0.4%	0.0%	2.2%	0.0%	0.8%
Northern Cape	68.9%	2.3%	6.4%	0.3%	0.0%	0.9%	19.6%	1.7%
Free State	14.2%	1.4%	9.3%	4.8%	0.2%	62.1%	6.3%	1.7%
KwaZulu Natal	1.6%	15.5%	1.6%	79.3%	0.0%	0.6%	0.0%	1.4%
North West	7.4%	1.0%	5.5%	2.6%	4.0%	5.0%	66.7%	7.9%
Gauteng	16.3%	12.7%	7.5%	21.4%	9.3%	13.0%	7.8%	12.0%
Mpumalanga	8.0%	2.0%	1.1%	25.4%	10.6%	3.1%	2.9%	46.9%
Limpopo	2.3%	0.5%	0.2%	0.7%	52.0%	1.2%	1.4%	41.7%
South Africa	14.2%	8.4%	17.8%	22.8%	9.1%	7.7%	8.1%	11.9%
Census 2001								
	Afrikaans	**English**	**Xhosa**	**Zulu**	**Sepedi**	**Sesotho**	**Setswana**	**Others**
Western Cape	55.2%	19.3%	23.8%	0.2%	0.1%	0.7%	0.1%	0.6%
Eastern Cape	9.5%	3.7%	83.2%	0.8%	0.0%	2.4%	0.0%	0.4%
Northern Cape	68.3%	2.4%	6.1%	0.3%	0.1%	1.0%	20.7%	0.9%
Free State	12.2%	1.2%	9.0%	5.1%	0.2%	64.4%	6.7%	1.2%
KwaZulu Natal	1.5%	13.3%	2.4%	81.0%	0.1%	0.7%	0.1%	0.8%
North West	7.7%	1.2%	5.9%	2.6%	4.2%	5.6%	65.4%	7.6%
Gauteng	14.5%	12.6%	7.6%	21.4%	10.7%	13.1%	8.4%	11.7%
Mpumalanga	6.0%	1.7%	1.5%	26.7%	10.7%	3.7%	2.7%	47.1%
Limpopo	2.4%	0.5%	0.3%	0.6%	52.2%	1.3%	1.5%	41.2%
South Africa	13.5%	8.2%	17.5%	23.9%	9.4%	7.9%	8.2%	11.5%

3.2.8 EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT AND LITERACY

The Northern Cape experiences a slight increase in the percentage of working-age population having at least Matric between the two censuses[11]. However, this proportion and the mean years of educational attainment remain the third lowest in both censuses. Looking at the DCs, Table A2.1 shows that Namaqualand and Namakwa enjoy the highest mean education year in 1996 and 2001 respectively.

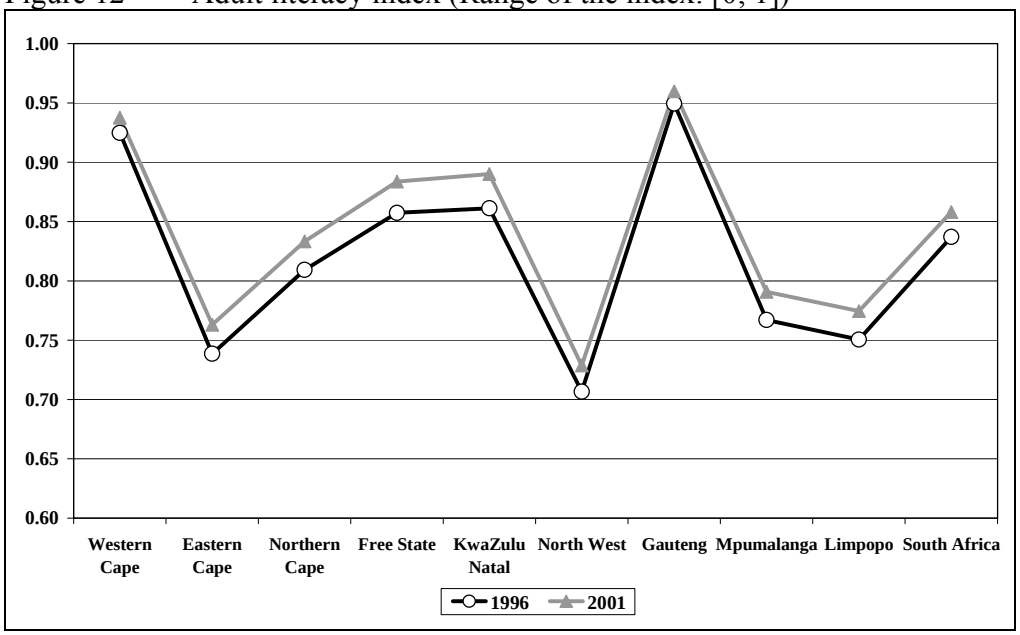
[11] On average, the Whites are more educated than other groups, but the educational attainment is very similar in each gender, in all Northern Cape DCs of both censuses.

Table 9 Educational attainment of working-age population by province

Census 1996							
	No schooling	**Incomplete Primary**	**Incomplete Secondary**	**Matric**	**Matric + Cert/Dip**	**Degree**	**Mean eduyear**
Western Cape	5.50%	15.20%	51.00%	18.40%	6.10%	3.80%	8.88
Eastern Cape	14.60%	23.00%	48.10%	10.20%	3.10%	1.10%	7.1
Northern Cape	17.50%	20.90%	44.30%	11.70%	4.20%	1.50%	7.02
Free State	12.30%	22.60%	47.70%	12.60%	3.50%	1.30%	7.44
KwaZulu Natal	17.60%	18.10%	44.60%	15.00%	3.50%	1.30%	7.31
North West	17.40%	20.30%	45.30%	12.90%	3.20%	1.00%	7.08
Gauteng	7.80%	11.30%	49.00%	22.80%	5.60%	3.40%	9.04
Mpumalanga	21.90%	16.00%	43.40%	14.00%	3.80%	1.00%	6.98
Limpopo	25.10%	13.30%	44.60%	13.10%	3.00%	0.90%	6.78
South Africa	14.60%	17.00%	46.80%	15.60%	4.10%	1.90%	7.7
Census 2001							
	No schooling	**Incomplete Primary**	**Incomplete Secondary**	**Matric**	**Matric + Cert/Dip**	**Degree**	**Mean eduyear**
Western Cape	4.60%	14.40%	49.20%	22.10%	5.70%	4.00%	9.12
Eastern Cape	16.00%	20.80%	44.60%	13.20%	3.90%	1.60%	7.22
Northern Cape	14.70%	20.50%	44.40%	15.30%	3.80%	1.40%	7.38
Free State	11.70%	20.70%	45.90%	16.20%	3.80%	1.60%	7.72
KwaZulu Natal	16.40%	16.40%	42.80%	18.40%	4.10%	1.80%	7.65
North West	15.20%	19.50%	42.80%	17.30%	3.80%	1.50%	7.5
Gauteng	6.90%	10.90%	43.80%	26.90%	6.80%	4.60%	9.4
Mpumalanga	20.00%	16.40%	42.00%	16.70%	3.80%	1.20%	7.2
Limpopo	22.30%	14.80%	44.20%	13.00%	4.10%	1.60%	7
South Africa	13.40%	15.90%	44.30%	19.10%	4.80%	2.50%	8.04

Figure 12 shows that all provinces experienced an increase of adult literacy index between 1996 and 2001, and Northern Cape is the province with the fifth highest index value.

Figure 12 Adult literacy index (Range of the index: [0; 1])

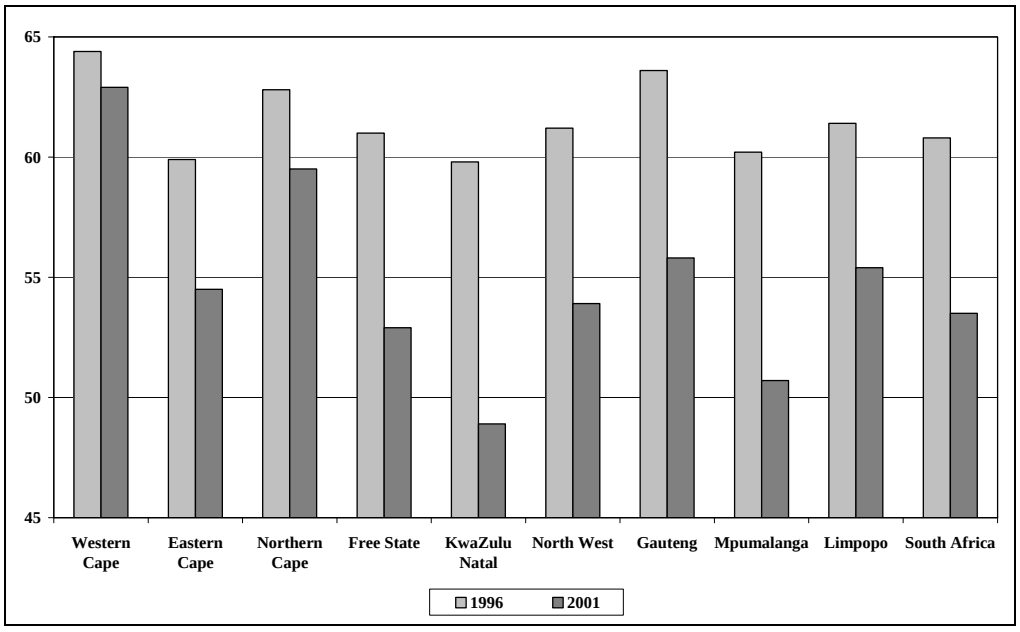


Data source: UNDP (2003).

3.2.9 LIFE EXPECTANCY AT BIRTH (YEARS)

The Northern Cape experienced a decrease in life expectancy of more than 3 years (from 62.8 to 59.5 years) between 1996 and 2001. In fact, life expectancy decreases in all provinces, and it seems HIV/AIDS is the main factor accounting for it.

Figure 13 Life expectancy at birth (years) by province, 1996 and 2001



Data source: UNDP (2003).

3.3 LABOUR MARKET ACTIVITIES

3.3.1 BROAD LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE (LFPR) AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

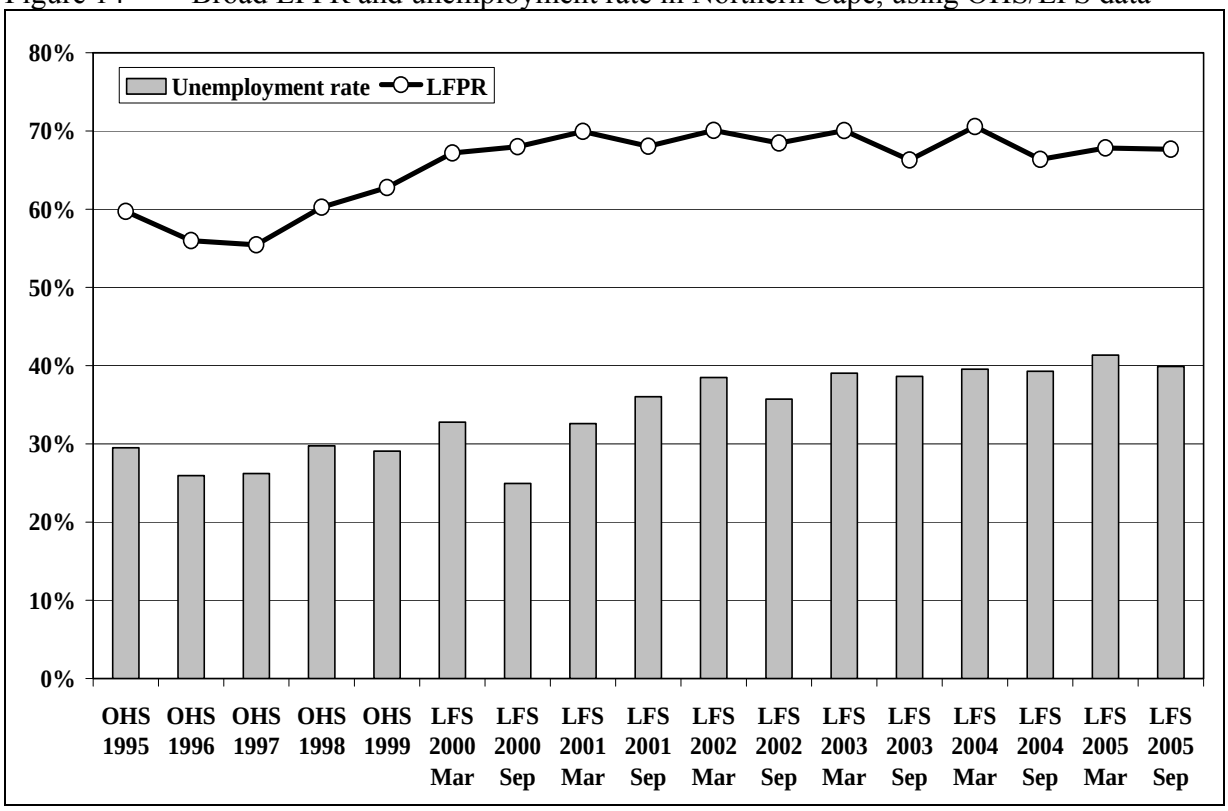
In the Northern Cape, there is an increase of both broad LFPR and unemployment rates between Census years, but the increase of the latter is more rapid from 27.8% to 37.3% (see Table 10). Furthermore, Figure 14 presents trends in the Northern Cape broad LFPR and unemployment rate between 1995 and 2005 by using the October Household Survey (OHS) and Labour Force Survey (LFS) data[12], and it is obvious that they have stabilized at approximately 70% and 40% respectively. Looking at unemployment by race and gender, it is found that those other than White and females are more likely to be unemployed in Northern Cape, and this happens in all DCs in both censuses.

Table 10 Broad LFPR and unemployment rate in Northern Cape

Census 1996			**Census 2001**		
By province					
Province	**LFPR**	**Unemployment rate**	**Province**	**LFPR**	**Unemployment rate**
Western Cape	66.6%	17.9%	Western Cape	68.4%	28.8%
Eastern Cape	45.3%	48.7%	Eastern Cape	52.2%	60.5%
Northern Cape	61.0%	27.8%	Northern Cape	62.8%	37.3%
Free State	61.0%	29.9%	Free State	64.2%	47.3%
KwaZulu Natal	52.9%	39.3%	KwaZulu Natal	60.0%	53.4%
North West	58.5%	38.5%	North West	63.3%	49.6%
Gauteng	71.4%	28.3%	Gauteng	74.8%	39.5%
Mpumalanga	54.9%	34.2%	Mpumalanga	61.6%	46.1%
Limpopo	42.6%	45.5%	Limpopo	52.8%	57.3%
South Africa	57.3%	34.1%	South Africa	63.2%	46.4%

[12] Since Census only asks very few questions on work activities the main aim being to capture demographic and household information, it is argued that OHS and LFS capture labour market status better.

Figure 14 Broad LFPR and unemployment rate in Northern Cape, using OHS/LFS data



3.3.2 OCCUPATION OF THE EMPLOYED (15-65 YEARS)

The Northern Cape is the province with the highest proportion of employed engaged in unskilled occupations. On the other hand, Diamandveld and Frances Baard (the most populated and urbanized DC in each census) are the DCs with the highest proportion of employed engaged in skilled occupations in 1996 and 2001 respectively, as shown in table A2.2.

Table 11 Percentage of the employed in each broad occupation category

		Census 1996		Census 2001	
		NC	SA	NC	SA
Skilled	Legislators, senior officials and managers	2.5%	4.0%	4.1%	5.3%
	Professionals	6.6%	9.6%	3.9%	7.0%
	Technicians & associate professionals	4.4%	6.0%	7.0%	9.6%
Semi-skilled	Clerks	7.0%	7.8%	9.2%	10.9%
	Service workers, shop and market sales workers	8.2%	9.0%	8.4%	10.2%
	Skilled agricultural and fishing workers	8.3%	4.0%	7.0%	2.8%
	Craft and other related trades workers	11.4%	14.2%	9.9%	12.1%
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	4.6%	8.5%	5.3%	8.8%
Unskilled	Elementary occupations	22.1%	12.3%	25.8%	14.2%
	Domestic workers	15.7%	13.8%	13.5%	12.4%
	Others/Unspecified	9.3%	10.9%	5.8%	6.7%

Table 12 Percentage of the employed in each skills category

	Census 1996			Census 2001		
	Skilled	**Semi-skilled**	**Unskilled**	**Skilled**	**Semi-skilled**	**Unskilled**
By province						
Western Cape	23.7%	44.0%	32.3%	23.7%	44.9%	31.4%
Eastern Cape	25.4%	43.3%	31.3%	25.9%	43.8%	30.3%
Northern Cape	14.8%	43.5%	41.7%	16.0%	42.2%	41.8%
Free State	14.6%	46.3%	39.1%	16.5%	47.1%	36.4%
KwaZulu Natal	22.5%	48.1%	29.4%	23.9%	49.1%	27.0%
North West	16.4%	53.3%	30.3%	18.0%	53.7%	28.3%
Gauteng	25.2%	52.9%	21.9%	28.3%	49.7%	22.1%
Mpumalanga	16.5%	51.9%	31.6%	15.9%	49.9%	34.1%
Limpopo	21.3%	47.2%	31.5%	20.7%	44.1%	35.2%
South Africa	21.9%	48.8%	29.3%	23.5%	48.0%	28.5%

Note: the employed whose occupation is "others/unspecified" are excluded.

3.3.3 INDUSTRY OF THE EMPLOYED (15-65 YEARS)

As far as the industry of the employed is concerned, about a quarter of the employed are engaged in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing, and nearly 20% are involved in community, social and personal services. The Northern Cape is the province with the highest proportion of employed in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing[13].

Table 13 Percentage of the employed in each broad industry category

	Census 1996		Census 2001	
	Northern Cape	**South Africa**	**Northern Cape**	**South Africa**
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	22.1%	9.0%	27.0%	9.0%
Mining and quarrying	8.4%	5.8%	7.4%	5.8%
Manufacturing	4.0%	12.3%	5.2%	12.3%
Electricity, gas and water supply	1.2%	1.2%	0.8%	1.2%
Construction	4.7%	6.1%	4.4%	6.1%
Wholesale and retail trade	10.8%	12.1%	11.3%	12.1%
Transport, storage and communication	4.8%	5.3%	2.9%	5.3%
Financial, insurance, real estate and business services	3.7%	7.5%	4.9%	7.5%
Community, social and personal services	18.6%	17.4%	18.2%	17.4%
Private households	12.4%	11.6%	10.4%	11.6%
Others/Unspecified	9.4%	11.9%	7.6%	11.9%
	100.0%	100.0	100.0%	100.0%

[13] The percentage of employed engaged in the agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing industry in each DC of Northern Cape are as follows: Census 1996: Namaqualand – 11.55%, Hantam – 37.71%, Lower Orange – 36.92%, Kalahari – 14.53%, Diamandveld – 14.44%, Upper Karoo – 30.34%. Census 2001: Namakwa – 23.72%, Siyanda – 41.89%, Kgalagadi – 14.30%, Frances Baard – 14.45%, Karoo – 32.12%.

3.4 HOUSEHOLD SERVICES[14]

3.4.1 TYPE OF DWELLING

The Northern Cape is the province with the highest proportion of households (two-thirds in 1996 and then more than three quarters in 2001) staying in houses or brick structures on a separate yard. More than 80% of the households reside in formal dwellings[15] in both censuses.

Table 14 Proportion of households staying in each type of dwelling by province

	Census 1996								
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**	**I**
Western Cape	54.7%	0.9%	9.4%	11.5%	3.3%	3.4%	13.1%	1.9%	1.9%
Eastern Cape	36.3%	41.5%	3.4%	2.2%	3.5%	2.3%	8.5%	1.3%	1.3%
Northern Cape	67.5%	4.0%	1.8%	5.5%	4.1%	2.7%	11.3%	1.4%	1.9%
Free State	52.6%	10.0%	2.3%	2.0%	4.2%	8.1%	18.1%	1.3%	1.6%
KwaZulu Natal	34.9%	32.2%	6.9%	6.3%	4.8%	2.6%	8.4%	1.9%	1.8%
North West	60.7%	6.9%	1.4%	0.9%	5.0%	6.3%	15.9%	1.3%	1.7%
Gauteng	48.5%	0.7%	8.0%	4.7%	10.0%	7.9%	16.0%	1.7%	2.5%
Mpumalanga	56.2%	17.8%	2.0%	1.1%	3.8%	4.0%	11.5%	1.7%	2.0%
Limpopo	56.2%	31.9%	0.7%	0.6%	3.2%	1.6%	3.2%	1.1%	1.5%
South Africa	47.9%	18.3%	5.0%	4.2%	5.3%	4.4%	11.5%	1.6%	1.8%
	Census 2001								
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**	**I**
Western Cape	65.0%	2.2%	7.6%	5.7%	2.1%	4.1%	12.3%	0.8%	0.3%
Eastern Cape	41.4%	38.0%	4.6%	1.4%	2.5%	2.1%	9.0%	0.8%	0.2%
Northern Cape	76.7%	3.3%	1.8%	1.7%	2.1%	2.8%	10.0%	0.8%	0.8%
Free State	59.3%	7.3%	1.7%	1.4%	2.8%	6.0%	20.4%	0.8%	0.3%
KwaZulu Natal	43.8%	27.6%	9.4%	3.4%	3.2%	2.3%	8.6%	1.2%	0.4%
North West	67.0%	5.3%	1.1%	0.6%	2.8%	5.6%	16.7%	0.7%	0.2%
Gauteng	53.6%	1.3%	7.1%	4.7%	7.3%	7.0%	17.1%	1.6%	0.3%
Mpumalanga	64.6%	13.1%	1.8%	0.9%	2.2%	3.3%	12.7%	1.2%	0.3%
Limpopo	69.3%	19.9%	0.7%	0.6%	1.8%	1.8%	4.8%	0.8%	0.2%
South Africa	55.7%	14.7%	5.3%	2.8%	3.7%	4.1%	12.4%	1.1%	0.3%

A: House or brick structure on a separate stand or yard
B: Traditional dwelling/hut
C: Flat in a block of flats
D: Town/cluster/semi-detached house
E: House/flat/room in backyard
F: Informal dwelling/shack in backyard
G: Informal dwelling/shack not in backyard
H: Room/Flatlet not in backyard but on a shared property
I: Others (e.g., unit in retirement village, private ship, boat, caravan)

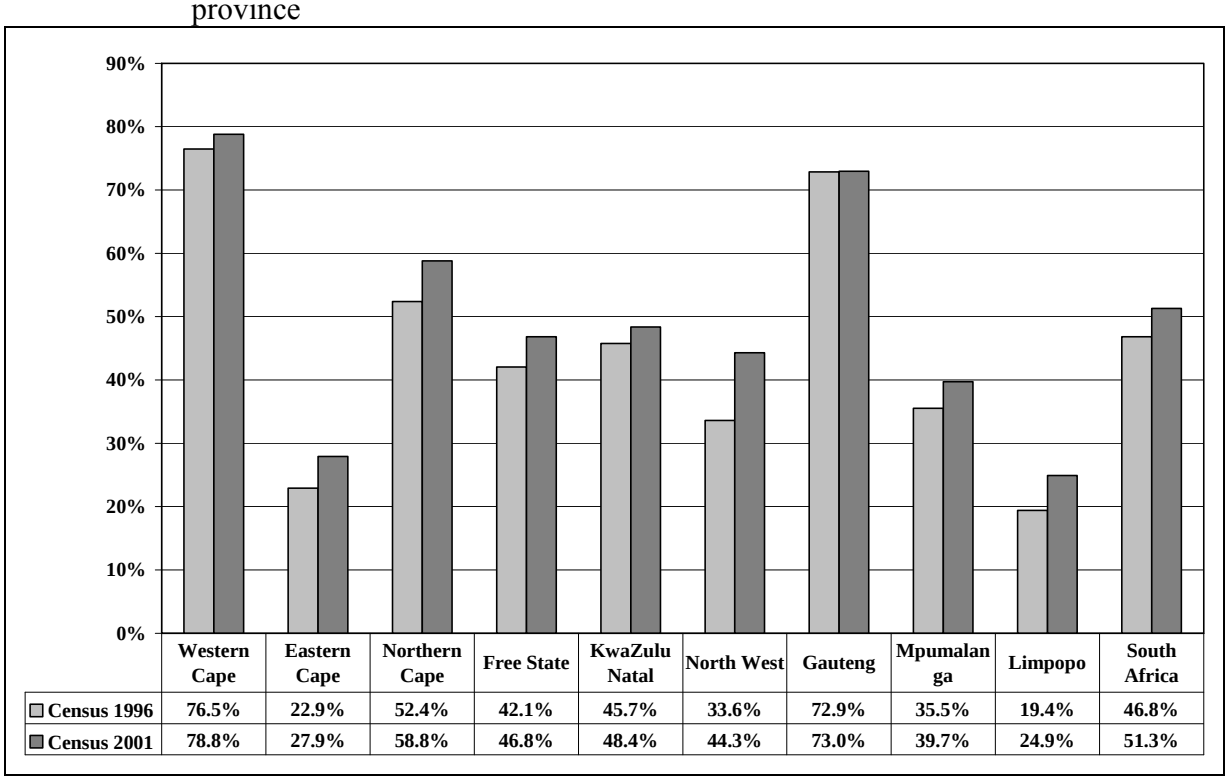
[14] Only the households staying in normal dwellings are included for the analysis in section 3.4.

[15] Formal dwellings include the following: house or brick structure on a separate stand or yard, flat in a block of flats, town/cluster/semi-detached house, house/flat/room in backyard, room/flatlet not in backyard but on a shared property, and unit in retirement village. The other dwellings are informal.

3.4.2 ENERGY SOURCE FOR COOKING

The Northern Cape is the province with the third highest proportion of households using electricity as the main source for cooking (after the Western Cape and Gauteng) and this proportion enjoys an increase of more than 6 percentage points (from 52.4% to 58.8%) between the two censuses.

Figure 15 Percentage of households using electricity as the main source for cooking by province



	Western Cape	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape	Free State	KwaZulu Natal	North West	Gauteng	Mpumalanga	Limpopo	South Africa
Census 1996	76.5%	22.9%	52.4%	42.1%	45.7%	33.6%	72.9%	35.5%	19.4%	46.8%
Census 2001	78.8%	27.9%	58.8%	46.8%	48.4%	44.3%	73.0%	39.7%	24.9%	51.3%

3.4.3 ACCESS TO WATER

It is difficult to make meaningful comparisons about water access because the categorisation has changed a lot between the two censuses, but it is still evident that the Northern Cape has the third highest proportion of households with access to piped water inside the dwelling (once again ranking behindWestern Cape and Gauteng).

Table 15 Households by main source of water

	Census 1996						
	(1)	**(2)**	**(3)**	**(4)**	**(5)**	**(6)**	**(7)**
Western Cape	75.4%	13.8%	7.7%	0.4%	0.8%	0.6%	1.4%
Eastern Cape	24.2%	10.3%	18.5%	0.9%	3.8%	41.0%	1.3%
Northern Cape	49.8%	33.1%	8.5%	0.9%	4.1%	3.0%	0.7%
Free State	40.2%	30.0%	23.9%	0.7%	3.2%	0.9%	1.1%
KwaZulu Natal	39.0%	8.8%	18.3%	1.2%	6.7%	24.4%	1.6%
North West	29.5%	20.3%	31.6%	2.5%	10.7%	1.7%	3.7%
Gauteng	66.7%	17.9%	11.4%	1.0%	1.6%	0.1%	1.3%
Mpumalanga	36.5%	25.7%	20.0%	3.5%	6.5%	5.6%	2.2%
Limpopo	17.1%	17.7%	40.5%	1.1%	9.6%	11.1%	2.8%
South Africa	43.7%	16.5%	19.5%	1.2%	4.9%	12.5%	1.8%

	Census 2001									
	(8)	**(9)**	**(10)**	**(11)**	**(12)**	**(13)**	**(14)**	**(15)**	**(16)**	**(17)**
Western Cape	67.3%	17.8%	6.3%	6.9%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	1.2%
Eastern Cape	17.9%	19.4%	12.0%	13.4%	1.7%	6.6%	2.3%	2.0%	22.9%	1.9%
Northern Cape	39.4%	42.1%	7.6%	7.5%	0.6%	0.0%	0.2%	0.3%	1.1%	1.2%
Free State	22.7%	47.4%	13.7%	11.7%	0.7%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.1%	3.1%
KwaZulu Natal	29.6%	19.9%	10.5%	13.4%	4.2%	3.4%	0.7%	2.1%	12.9%	3.4%
North West	18.1%	34.6%	16.7%	16.8%	6.1%	0.3%	0.4%	0.4%	0.5%	6.2%
Gauteng	47.1%	36.3%	6.9%	7.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	2.0%
Mpumalanga	21.2%	37.7%	12.9%	14.8%	3.3%	0.9%	0.5%	1.1%	3.0%	4.6%
Limpopo	9.4%	28.8%	15.9%	23.8%	5.4%	2.3%	0.3%	1.9%	6.3%	5.9%
South Africa	32.2%	29.0%	10.8%	12.5%	2.4%	1.9%	0.6%	1.0%	6.4%	3.2%

Census 1996:
(1): Piped water in dwelling
(2): Piped water on site
(3): Public tap
(4): Water carrier/tanker
(5): Borehole/rain-water tank/well
(6): Dam/river/stream/spring
(7): Others/Unspecified

Census 2001:
(8): Piped water (tap) inside dwelling
(9): Piped water (tap) inside yard
(10): Piped water on community stand: <200m
(11): Piped water on community stand: > 200m
(12): Borehole
(13): Spring
(14): Rainwater tank
(15): Dam/pool/stagnant water
(16): River/stream
(17): Water vendor/Others/Unspecified

3.4.4 ACCESS TO A TELEPHONE

The Northern Cape is the province with the third highest proportion of households with telephones in the dwelling or/and a cell phone (behind Western Cape and Gauteng), but despite the rapid increase of this proportion by 10 percentage points in 2001, it is still below 50% .

Table 16 Households by main source of telephone access

	Telephone in dwelling or cellphone	**At a neighbour nearby**	**At a public telephone nearby**	**At another location nearby**	**At another location not nearby**	**No access/ Unspecified**
Census 1996						
Western Cape	55.0%	8.5%	27.3%	4.8%	1.1%	3.4%
Eastern Cape	15.3%	4.7%	24.3%	3.1%	6.4%	46.1%
Northern Cape	30.5%	13.9%	31.3%	9.6%	2.2%	12.5%
Free State	23.0%	4.3%	46.4%	7.7%	6.9%	11.8%
KwaZulu Natal	26.9%	7.4%	32.8%	4.6%	7.8%	20.7%
North West	16.7%	4.6%	41.9%	9.2%	7.8%	19.8%
Gauteng	45.1%	3.4%	40.9%	4.2%	1.7%	4.7%
Mpumalanga	18.2%	4.0%	48.9%	7.3%	6.4%	15.2%
Limpopo	7.4%	5.3%	36.8%	6.1%	13.4%	31.1%
South Africa	28.4%	5.5%	35.9%	5.4%	5.9%	19.1%
Census 2001						
Western Cape	63.0%	7.1%	25.3%	1.9%	1.1%	1.7%
Eastern Cape	29.0%	10.2%	35.4%	5.2%	7.2%	13.1%
Northern Cape	41.3%	14.4%	33.0%	3.9%	2.4%	5.1%
Free State	35.1%	6.9%	43.4%	4.3%	2.8%	7.5%
KwaZulu Natal	38.8%	9.2%	35.6%	3.1%	5.0%	8.4%
North West	34.4%	5.2%	46.8%	3.7%	3.2%	6.7%
Gauteng	56.0%	3.8%	36.7%	1.2%	0.7%	1.6%
Mpumalanga	38.2%	4.6%	46.1%	3.4%	3.0%	4.8%
Limpopo	28.2%	4.0%	51.5%	5.1%	5.0%	6.1%
South Africa	42.4%	6.6%	38.5%	3.2%	3.4%	6.0%

3.4.5 SANITATION

The Northern Cape is the province with the third highest proportion of households with flush or chemical toilets (behind Western Cape and Gauteng again), and is the most rapidly improving province in this respect.

Table 17 Households by main source of sanitation facility

	Flush or chemical toilet	Pit latrine	Bucket latrine	Others/Unspecified
Census 1996				
Western Cape	85.7%	4.9%	3.8%	5.7%
Eastern Cape	30.2%	33.9%	6.2%	29.8%
Northern Cape	59.7%	11.6%	17.9%	10.9%
Free State	45.3%	25.0%	20.7%	9.0%
KwaZulu Natal	41.6%	41.7%	0.9%	15.8%
North West	31.9%	54.8%	6.5%	6.8%
Gauteng	82.9%	11.6%	2.5%	3.0%
Mpumalanga	37.8%	49.5%	3.6%	9.1%
Limpopo	13.0%	64.9%	0.5%	21.7%
South Africa	50.0%	32.5%	4.7%	12.9%
Census 2001				
Western Cape	86.4%	2.1%	3.7%	7.8%
Eastern Cape	35.0%	28.6%	5.7%	30.8%
Northern Cape	66.5%	10.1%	11.9%	11.4%
Free State	46.7%	22.9%	20.4%	10.0%
KwaZulu Natal	47.1%	35.7%	1.1%	16.1%
North West	35.8%	50.2%	4.5%	9.6%
Gauteng	82.7%	11.4%	2.3%	3.7%
Mpumalanga	39.5%	47.3%	2.8%	10.3%
Limpopo	17.4%	58.7%	0.6%	23.4%
South Africa	53.7%	28.6%	4.1%	13.6%

3.4.6 REFUSE REMOVAL

The Northern Cape is the province with the third highest percentage of households with refuse removed by local authority at least once a week (behind Western Cape and Gauteng again).

Table 18 Households by refuse removal

	Removed by local authority at least once a week	**Removed by local authority less than once a week**	**Communal refuse dump**	**Own refuse dump**	**No rubbish disposal / Others / Unspecified**
Census 1996					
Western Cape	82.1%	2.5%	3.8%	7.8%	3.8%
Eastern Cape	33.3%	1.7%	1.8%	39.9%	23.4%
Northern Cape	67.7%	2.1%	5.2%	19.3%	5.7%
Free State	60.7%	4.1%	4.3%	24.2%	6.7%
KwaZulu Natal	41.8%	1.2%	2.9%	40.6%	13.6%
North West	34.4%	1.5%	3.9%	51.5%	8.7%
Gauteng	81.3%	3.8%	3.3%	7.2%	4.4%
Mpumalanga	37.6%	1.9%	3.3%	46.9%	10.4%
Limpopo	11.0%	0.8%	3.0%	66.1%	19.1%
South Africa	50.9%	2.2%	3.2%	32.3%	11.4%
Census 2001					
Western Cape	87.9%	1.0%	2.2%	7.4%	1.5%
Eastern Cape	37.2%	1.4%	1.2%	43.5%	16.8%
Northern Cape	68.5%	3.1%	2.6%	22.1%	3.7%
Free State	58.0%	3.2%	3.6%	25.5%	9.7%
KwaZulu Natal	49.4%	1.1%	0.8%	38.4%	10.3%
North West	36.2%	1.0%	1.9%	52.4%	8.5%
Gauteng	84.1%	2.2%	2.3%	8.7%	2.6%
Mpumalanga	38.3%	1.7%	1.7%	48.1%	10.2%
Limpopo	14.1%	0.7%	1.0%	68.4%	15.8%
South Africa	55.3%	1.5%	1.8%	32.7%	8.7%

3.5 ECONOMY

3.5.1 REAL GROSS GEOGRAPHICAL PRODUCT (GGP)

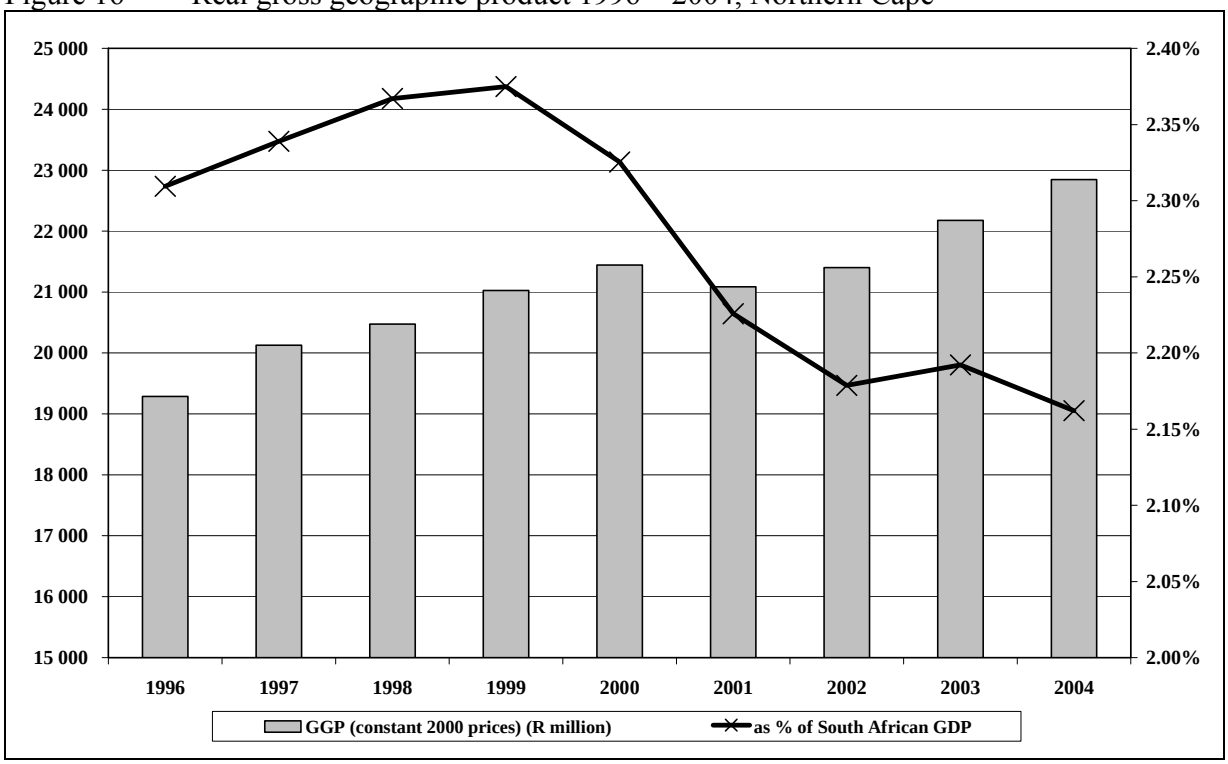
Due to the small population size, it is no surprise that Northern Cape contributes the least (around 2.2 – 2.4% of GDP from 1996 to 2004) to the economy of South Africa.

Table 19 Gross domestic product by province

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Western Cape	14.1%	14.1%	14.0%	14.2%	14.2%	14.3%	14.4%	14.5%	14.6%
Eastern Cape	8.3%	8.2%	8.2%	8.2%	8.2%	8.2%	8.0%	8.0%	8.0%
Northern Cape	2.3%	2.3%	2.4%	2.4%	2.3%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%
Free State	5.7%	5.6%	5.4%	5.5%	5.4%	5.2%	5.2%	5.1%	5.1%
KwaZulu Natal	16.5%	16.4%	16.5%	16.3%	16.4%	16.6%	16.5%	16.4%	16.5%
North West	7.0%	6.8%	6.7%	6.7%	6.5%	6.4%	6.2%	6.3%	6.4%
Gauteng	33.0%	33.1%	33.3%	33.3%	33.8%	33.7%	34.1%	34.1%	34.1%
Mpumalanga	6.8%	6.8%	6.9%	6.9%	6.8%	6.7%	6.6%	6.6%	6.6%
Limpopo	6.2%	6.5%	6.7%	6.6%	6.4%	6.6%	6.7%	6.7%	6.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
GDP (2000 prices) (R million)	838,326	860,516	864,968	885,365	922,151	947,373	982,327	1,011,556	1,056,771

Data source: Statistics South Africa, 2005.

Figure 16 Real gross geographic product 1996 – 2004, Northern Cape



Data source: Statistics South Africa, 2005.

3.5.2 REAL GROSS GEOGRAPHIC PRODUCT PER CAPITA

After taking population[16] into account, the real GGP per capita data show that Northern Cape is the province with the third highest GGP per capita, after Gauteng and Western Cape, and the Northern Cape GGP is always slightly above the South Africa GDP per capita, as shown in Table 20 below.

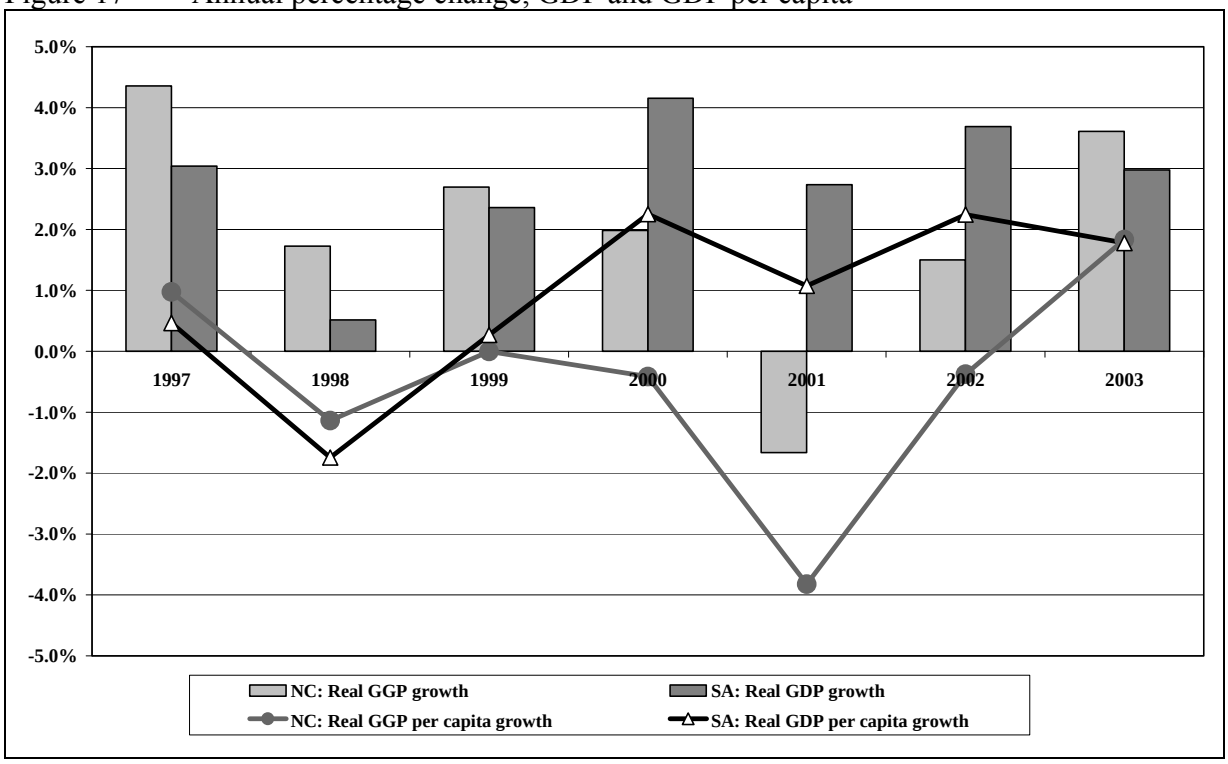
[16] Provincial population figures from UNDP (2003) are used to calculate GGP per capita.

Table 20 Real GGP per capita, constant 2000 prices (Rand)

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Western Cape	30,166	30,247	29,367	29,824	30,461	31,026	31,879	32,523
Eastern Cape	11,209	11,174	10,910	10,961	11,228	11,329	11,321	11,429
Northern Cape	23,071	23,295	23,030	23,030	22,934	22,056	21,973	22,376
Free State	18,037	18,135	17,214	17,685	17,853	17,486	18,013	18,256
KwaZulu Natal	16,618	16,688	16,496	16,351	16,828	17,314	17,549	17,860
North West	17,359	16,889	16,546	16,427	16,375	16,258	16,294	16,831
Gauteng	36,793	36,423	35,482	35,265	36,460	36,615	37,930	38,656
Mpumalanga	20,503	20,790	20,620	20,861	21,193	21,177	21,451	21,819
Limpopo	10,781	11,404	11,644	11,655	11,490	12,073	12,387	12,526
Total	20,701	20,797	20,434	20,489	20,951	21,176	21,651	22,036

Data source: UNDP (2003) & Statistics South Africa (2005).

Figure 17 Annual percentage change, GDP and GDP per capita



Data source: UNDP (2003) & Statistics South Africa (2005).

3.5.3 REAL GROSS GEOGRAPHIC PRODUCT BY INDUSTRY

Mining and quarrying is the main contributor to the Northern Cape economy, followed by wholesale and retail, finance/real estate/business services, and general government services. The tertiary sector accounts for slightly more than 50% of the GGP at market prices.

Table 21 GGP by industry in Northern Cape

	Constant 2000 prices, Rand million								
	1996	**1997**	**1998**	**1999**	**2000**	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
Primary industries	**5966**	**6543**	**6757**	**6925**	**7138**	**6758**	**6855**	**7127**	**7265**
Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing	1056	1213	1080	1262	1280	1277	1358	1391	1346
Mining/Quarrying	4910	5330	5677	5663	5858	5481	5497	5736	5919
Secondary industries	**1652**	**1630**	**1641**	**1571**	**1543**	**1607**	**1491**	**1421**	**1545**
Manufacturing	678	680	674	668	707	733	740	683	731
Electricity/Gas/Water	651	641	612	588	559	522	452	444	479
Construction	323	309	355	315	277	352	299	294	335
Tertiary industries	**9817**	**9988**	**10104**	**10568**	**10800**	**10816**	**11149**	**11649**	**11985**
Whole & retail	1895	1875	1897	2055	2270	2104	2113	2531	2478
Transport/Storage/Communication	1678	1684	1720	1759	1834	1760	1935	2039	2127
Finance/Real estate/Business services	2277	2331	2323	2526	2342	2567	2595	2501	2719
Personal services	1427	1423	1516	1574	1650	1687	1730	1797	1821
General government services	2540	2675	2648	2654	2704	2698	2776	2781	2840
All industries at basic prices	**17435**	**18161**	**18502**	**19064**	**19481**	**19181**	**19495**	**20197**	**20795**
Taxes less subsidies on products	1854	1966	1972	1963	1961	1906	1908	1977	2053
GGP at market prices	**19289**	**20127**	**20474**	**21027**	**21442**	**21087**	**21403**	**22174**	**22848**
	% contribution of each industry								
	1996	**1997**	**1998**	**1999**	**2000**	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
Primary industries	**30.9%**	**32.5%**	**33.0%**	**32.9%**	**33.3%**	**32.0%**	**32.0%**	**32.1%**	**31.8%**
Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing	5.5%	6.0%	5.3%	6.0%	6.0%	6.1%	6.3%	6.3%	5.9%
Mining/Quarrying	25.5%	26.5%	27.7%	26.9%	27.3%	26.0%	25.7%	25.9%	25.9%
Secondary industries	**8.6%**	**8.1%**	**8.0%**	**7.5%**	**7.2%**	**7.6%**	**7.0%**	**6.4%**	**6.8%**
Manufacturing	3.5%	3.4%	3.3%	3.2%	3.3%	3.5%	3.5%	3.1%	3.2%
Electricity/Gas/Water	3.4%	3.2%	3.0%	2.8%	2.6%	2.5%	2.1%	2.0%	2.1%
Construction	1.7%	1.5%	1.7%	1.5%	1.3%	1.7%	1.4%	1.3%	1.5%
Tertiary industries	**50.9%**	**49.6%**	**49.4%**	**50.3%**	**50.4%**	**51.3%**	**52.1%**	**52.5%**	**52.5%**
Whole & retail	9.8%	9.3%	9.3%	9.8%	10.6%	10.0%	9.9%	11.4%	10.8%
Transport/Storage/Communication	8.7%	8.4%	8.4%	8.4%	8.6%	8.3%	9.0%	9.2%	9.3%
Finance/Real estate/Business services	11.8%	11.6%	11.3%	12.0%	10.9%	12.2%	12.1%	11.3%	11.9%
Personal services	7.4%	7.1%	7.4%	7.5%	7.7%	8.0%	8.1%	8.1%	8.0%
General government services	13.2%	13.3%	12.9%	12.6%	12.6%	12.8%	13.0%	12.5%	12.4%
All industries at basic prices	90.4%	90.2%	90.4%	90.7%	90.9%	91.0%	91.1%	91.1%	91.0%
Taxes less subsidies on products	9.6%	9.8%	9.6%	9.3%	9.1%	9.0%	8.9%	8.9%	9.0%
GGP at market prices	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Northern Cape GGP as % of South African GDP								
	1996	**1997**	**1998**	**1999**	**2000**	**2001**	**2002**	**2003**	**2004**
Primary industries	**6.6%**	**7.2%**	**7.5%**	**7.7%**	**7.9%**	**7.5%**	**7.4%**	**7.6%**	**7.6%**
Agriculture/Forestry/Fishing	4.1%	4.7%	4.4%	4.8%	4.7%	4.8%	4.8%	5.0%	4.9%
Mining/Quarrying	7.7%	8.2%	8.7%	8.8%	9.2%	8.7%	8.6%	8.6%	8.7%
Secondary industries	**0.9%**	**0.8%**	**0.9%**	**0.8%**	**0.8%**	**0.8%**	**0.7%**	**0.7%**	**0.7%**
Manufacturing	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.5%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%	0.4%
Electricity/Gas/Water	2.9%	2.7%	2.8%	2.7%	2.5%	2.4%	2.0%	1.9%	2.0%
Construction	1.6%	1.4%	1.8%	1.6%	1.3%	1.6%	1.3%	1.2%	1.2%
Tertiary industries	**2.0%**	**2.0%**	**2.0%**	**2.0%**	**2.0%**	**1.9%**	**1.9%**	**1.9%**	**1.9%**
Whole & retail	1.8%	1.8%	1.8%	1.8%	1.8%	1.7%	1.7%	1.9%	1.7%
Transport/Storage/Communication	2.7%	2.5%	2.4%	2.4%	2.3%	2.1%	2.1%	2.1%	2.1%
Finance/Real estate/Business services	1.7%	1.7%	1.6%	1.7%	1.5%	1.5%	1.4%	1.3%	1.4%
Personal services	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%
General government services	1.9%	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	2.0%	2.1%	2.1%	2.1%
All industries at basic prices	**2.3%**	**2.3%**	**2.4%**	**2.4%**	**2.3%**	**2.2%**	**2.2%**	**2.2%**	**2.2%**
Taxes less subsidies on products	2.3%	2.3%	2.4%	2.4%	2.3%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%
GGP at market prices	**2.3%**	**2.3%**	**2.4%**	**2.4%**	**2.3%**	**2.2%**	**2.2%**	**2.2%**	**2.2%**

Data source: Statistics South Africa (2005)

3.5.4 POVERTY AND INEQUALITY[17]

Table 22 shows the poverty rate in each province at a poverty line of R3000 (constant 2000 prices) per annum using both census and Income and Expenditure Survey (IES) data. The census data show that the Northern Cape is one in only two provinces enjoying (slight) decreases in poverty rates between 1996 and 2001 if households with zero income are included. If households with zero income are excluded, the Northern Cape is the province with the greatest reduction in itspoverty rate (reduction of nearly five percentage points)[18]. However, it is argued that both IES and census are problematic and might give misleading results on poverty and inequality[19].

Table 22 Poverty rate using real per capita income[20]

	Census 1996		**Census 2001**		**IES 1995**	**IES2000**
	Including households with zero income	**Excluding households with zero income**	**Including households with zero income**	**Excluding households with zero income**	**Including all households**	**Including all households**
Western Cape	24.3%	20.1%	28.3%	21.0%	12.6%	20.0%
Eastern Cape	71.4%	64.8%	71.6%	61.1%	55.3%	66.5%
Northern Cape	52.0%	48.5%	50.6%	43.9%	34.3%	43.4%
Free State	59.9%	55.3%	63.2%	54.5%	49.0%	51.6%
KwaZulu Natal	60.3%	52.4%	64.4%	52.5%	33.6%	54.6%
North West	58.6%	52.3%	60.2%	50.9%	43.5%	50.6%
Gauteng	30.1%	22.8%	35.4%	23.3%	7.9%	26.4%
Mpumalanga	61.5%	55.2%	63.5%	53.4%	41.5%	49.1%
Limpopo	74.7%	68.9%	74.5%	65.2%	43.1%	67.0%
South Africa	55.0%	47.8%	56.6%	45.2%	34.4%	47.9%

Source: own calculations based on census and IES data.

[17] Only the households staying in normal dwellings will be included in the poverty and inequality analysis.

[18] Looking at poverty rate by race of household head in Northern Cape, it decreases from approximately 65% to 60% for Blacks, but hovers around 55% for Coloureds, 10% for Indians and 6% for Whites in both censuses, regardless of whether households with zero income are excluded or not.

[19] In Census 1996, more than 6.5% of households staying in normal dwellings do not specify household income and about 14% of households have zero income. In Census 2001, more than 23.5% of households staying in normal dwellings report zero income. Therefore, census data could result an extremely high poverty rate. Recent papers such as Leibbrandt et al. (2006) also mention the problem of a relatively high proportion of households reporting zero or unspecified household income. As far as the IES is concerned, there is huge decline of income and expenditure between 1995 and 2000 (while the national accounts figures show a fairly consistent growth during this period). Two years after publishing its report contrasting the results of the two IESs, Stats SA admitted that the two surveys were not directly comparable. Note that the October Household Survey (OHS) and Labour Force Survey (LFS) could also be used to estimate poverty and inequality, since there is a question on monthly total household expenditure. However, the question only provides 8 expenditure categories, and almost 70% of all households fall in the first three groups (i.e. R0 – R399, R400 – R799, R800 – R1199), suggesting that the expenditure categories are rather uninformative in their present state, and might not be suitable for measuring poverty accurately.

[20] The mid-point of each income category is taken as the total household income, and this figure is divided by the household size before the per capita income is derived. For the open income category, Pareto method is used to derive the mid-point income figure for each race. Finally, the nominal per capita income is converted into real value (expressed in 2000 prices) using the South African Reserve Bank's CPI series (KBP7032N).

As far as income inequality is concerned, it can be seen from Table 23 that the Northern Cape is one of the provinces with relatively low Gini coefficients in both censuses (regardless of whether households with zero income are included or not), but the opposite happens in the IESs.

Table 23 Gini coefficient, using real per capita income

	Census 1996		**Census 2001**		**IES 1995**	**IES2000**
	Including households with zero income	**Excluding households with zero income**	**Including households with zero income**	**Excluding households with zero income**	**Including all households**	**Including all households**
Western Cape	0.6336	0.6130	0.7637	0.7402	0.6008	0.6451
Eastern Cape	0.7717	0.7194	0.8703	0.8215	0.6505	0.7060
Northern Cape	0.6981	0.6762	0.8079	0.7804	0.6463	0.7475
Free State	0.7306	0.6992	0.8496	0.8107	0.6565	0.7295
KwaZulu Natal	0.7551	0.7067	0.8604	0.8155	0.6172	0.7121
North West	0.7095	0.6655	0.8187	0.7711	0.6600	0.6835
Gauteng	0.6733	0.6390	0.8217	0.7876	0.5713	0.6690
Mpumalanga	0.7398	0.6973	0.8545	0.8154	0.6063	0.6463
Limpopo	0.7587	0.7032	0.8629	0.8112	0.6335	0.6609
South Africa	0.7436	0.7026	0.8530	0.8140	0.6008	0.6451

Table A2.2 provides more detail on Northern Cape by showing the poverty rate and Gini coefficient in each DC, and the results show that Upper Karoo and Karoo are the poorest DCs in Northern Cape in 1996 and 2001 respectively, regardless of whether households with zero income are included or not. These two DCs also have two of the highest Gini coefficients in each census.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The Northern Cape is a highly urbanised province with the smallest population of all provinces in South Africa, but has the the largest land area. It is dominated by Coloureds, and a majority of the population speaks Afrikaans. Only about 20% of the working age population have a Matric certificate or higher. Despite being the province with contributing the least (about 2.2%) to the South African GDP, the GGP per capita of Northern Cape is ranked third amongst all provinces. The industry contributing most to the GGP is mining and quarrying (about 25% of GGP), but the tertiary sector remains the sector contributing most (about 50%) to the GGP. Moreover, the census data show that the Northern Cape is the province with the second lowest broad unemployment rate (after Western Cape), but is also the province with the highest proportion of employed (more than 40%) engaged in unskilled occupations. The Northern Cape has the third lowest poverty rate and Gini coefficient.

Looking at household services, the Northern Cape has the highest proportion of households (more than two-thirds) staying in a house or brick structure on a separate stand or yard. The province is ranked third in terms of the percentage of households having access to electricity for cooking (nearly 60%), piped water in the dwelling (more than 40%), telephone in the dwelling or/and a cell phone (from 30% in 1996 to 40% in 2001), flush or chemical toilets (about 60% in both years), and refuse removed by local authorities at least once a week (nearly 70% in both

years). Although the Northern Cape is clearly not as privileged a province as Gauteng and Western Cape, it is also not a deprived province like Eastern Cape and Limpopo.

CHAPTER 4
MIGRATION STATUS CLASSIFICATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter (as well as the next two chapters) is on migration from the province of the previous residence to the province where a person usually stays at the time of the survey, but not the province where the person was interviewed. It is because it is possible that the province of usual residence is not the same as the province where the respondent was interviewed, as shown in Tables A3.1 and A3.2 of Appendix III.

Sections 4.2 and 4.3 will explain how the migration status is derived in each census, and section 4.4 will look at the migration profile in each province. Migration from the Northern Cape will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

4.2 CENSUS 1996

Figure 18 explains the migration status classification in Census 1996. In Census 1996, there are two separate data files, namely the person file and the household file. In the person file, the sample size is 3,621,201. 3,508,338 of them stay in normal dwellings according to their answers to the dwelling type question (See Table A1.1 for the detailed classification of dwelling type), while the others either stay in institutions (e.g., hotels, student hostels) or are homeless.

However, of the 3,508,338 people who claim to be staying in the normal dwellings, 136 of them later contradict themselves by claiming they stay in institutions in question 11.1 "Is this dwelling the place where the person usually lives?", and therefore, the correct number of people staying in normal dwellings would be 3,508,202 (3,508,338 – 136). These 3,508,202 (37,339,857 if weighted) people will be the focus of the migration analysis.

After being asked to declare the usual place of residence[21] (i.e. questions 11.1 & 11.2), they are then asked to declare the year in which they moved to the usual place of residence (Question 12.1), as well as the suburb/village/settlement, city/town/farm/tribal authority, and magisterial district (MD) of origin (Question 12.2)[22]. In other words, the migrant is allowed to answer the year of migration and place of origin, regardless of when the migration took place.

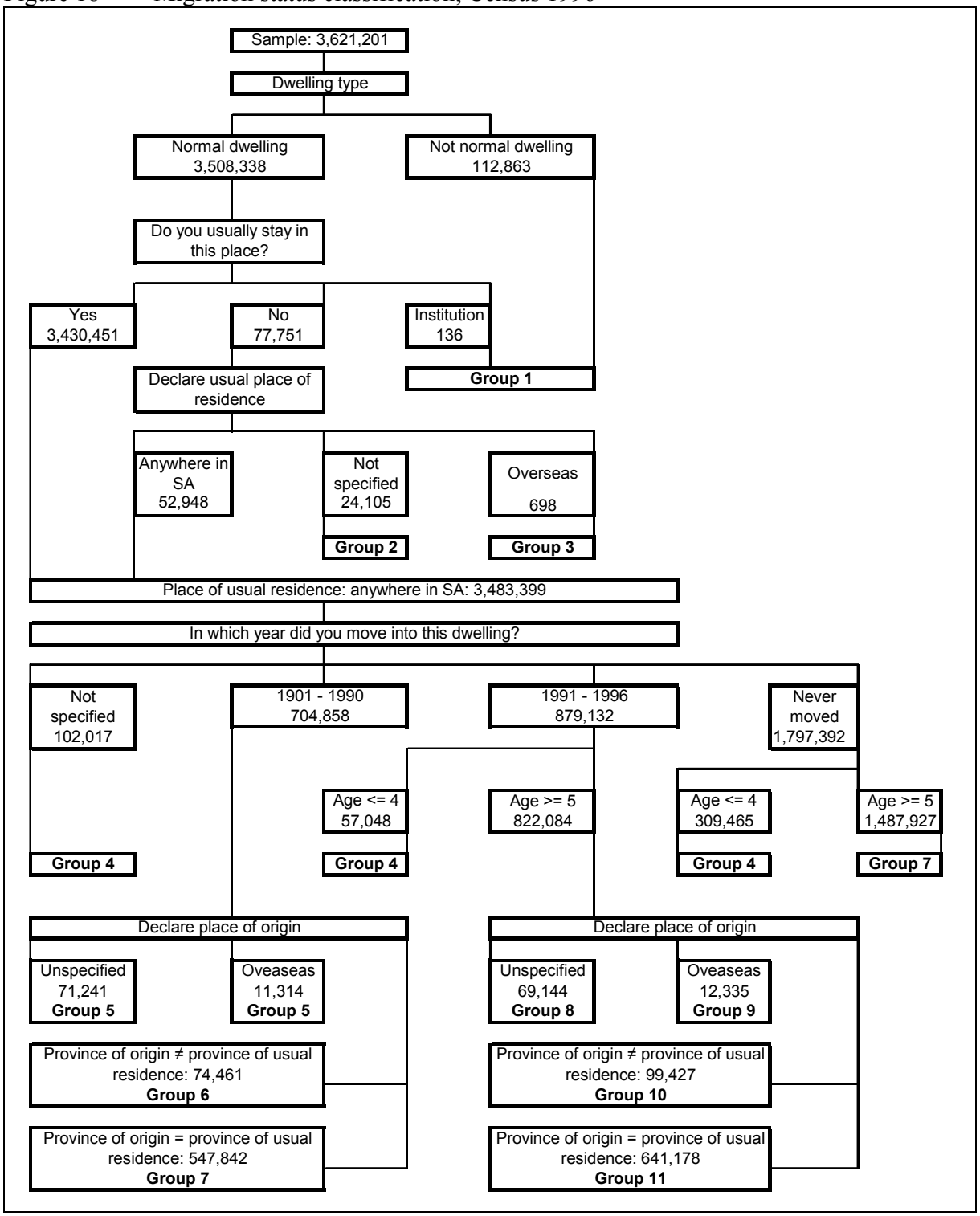
[21] Note that 3,430,451 out of the 3,508,202 people state that their province of usual residence is the same as the province they stayed in at the time of the survey.
[22] However, the person data file only provides information on the migrants' MD of origin.

It is assumed that if the respondent migrated from one province to another within the last 5 years of the survey (i.e. from 1991 to 1996), they are classified as recent migrants, and if they migrated from one province to another more than 5 years ago (i.e. in 1990 or before), they are classified as permanent migrants. Finally, if they claim that they never migrated or if they migrated from one place to another within the same province more than 5 years ago, they will be classified as permanent residents. In total, there are 11 migration status groups, as shown in Table 24.

Table 24 Number of people in each migration status group, Census 1996

Migration status group	**Unweighted**		**Weighted**	
(1) Not staying in normal dwelling	112,999	3.12%	1,261,664	3.27%
(2) Usual place of residence: unspecified	24,105	0.67%	259,305	0.67%
(3) Usual place of residence: overseas	698	0.02%	7,421	0.02%
(4) Usual place of residence: inside SA, but either born after 1991 or year of migration unspecified	468,530	12.94%	5,110,604	13.24%
(5) Permanent migrants (migrating in 1901-1990), place of origin either overseas or unspecified	82,555	2.28%	874,345	2.27%
(6) Permanent migrants (migrating in 1901-1990), province or origin ≠ province of usual residence	74,461	2.06%	784,387	2.03%
(7) Permanent residents (migrating in 1901-1990), province of origin = province of usual residence	2,035,769	56.22%	21,557,122	55.85%
(8) Recent migrants (migrating in 1991-1996): from an unspecified place	69,144	1.91%	742,936	1.92%
(9) Recent migrants (migrating in 1991-1996): from overseas	12,335	0.34%	131,756	0.34%
(10) Recent migrants (migrating in 1991-1996): province or origin ≠ province of usual residence	99,427	2.75%	1,059,606	2.74%
(11) Recent migrants: province of origin = province of usual residence	641,178	17.71%	6,812,375	17.65%
Total	3,621,201	100.00%	38,601,521	100.00%

Figure 18 Migration status classification, Census 1996



4.3 CENSUS 2001

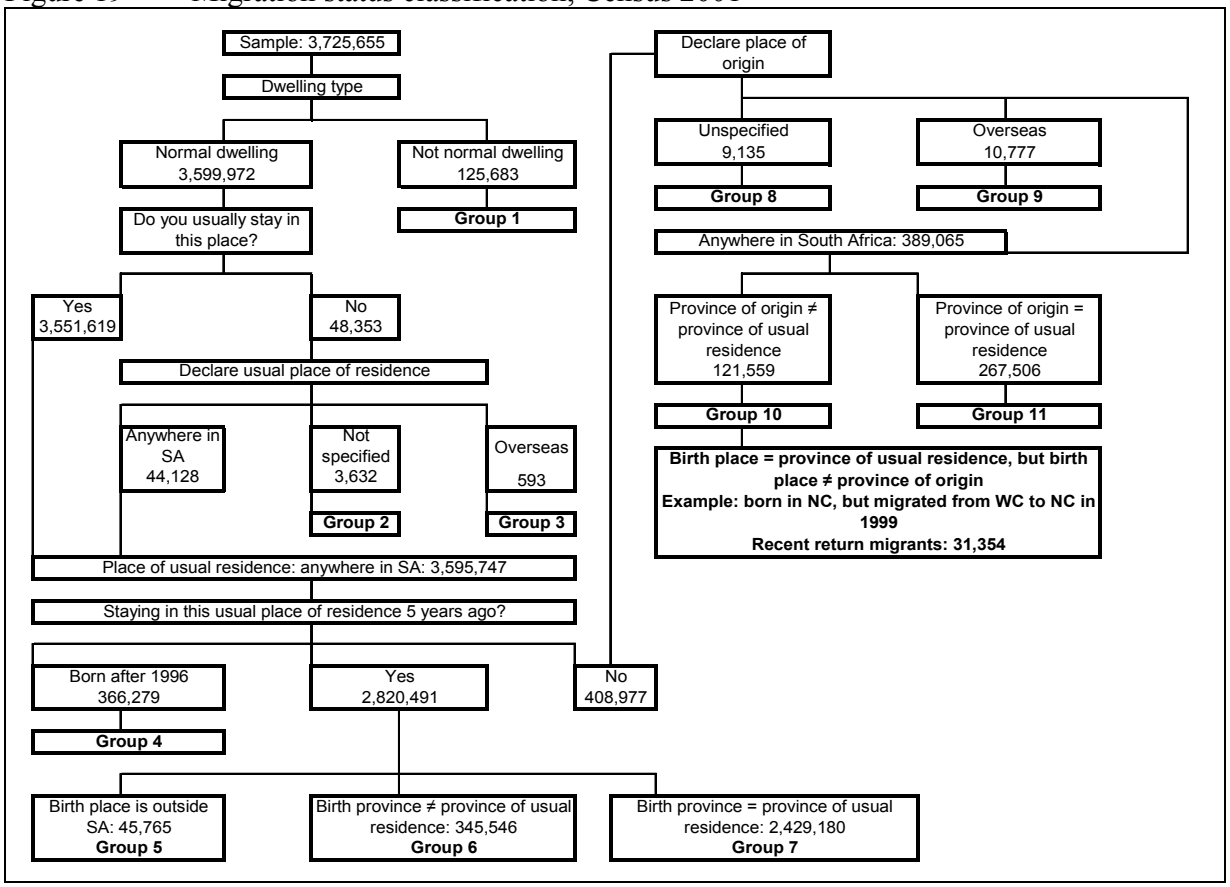
In Census 2001, there is only one data file containing both person and household questions, and the sample size is 3,725,655. 3,599,972 of them stay in the normal dwellings according to their answers in the dwelling type question (see Table A1.2 for the detailed classification of dwelling type), while the others either stay in institutions or are homeless. These 3,599,972 (41,747,214, if weighted) people will be the focus of the migration analysis.

After being asked to declare the usual place of residence (question P11[23]), they are then asked question P12 "Five years ago, was the person living in this place?", and only people whose answer is "No" are allowed to answer question P12a ("Where did the person move?") as well as P12b ("In which year did the person move to this place?"). In other words, if a person only migrated more than 5 years ago, he is not allowed to declare the year of migration as well as the province, main place and sub place of origin[24]. This makes identifying the permanent residents and permanent migrants difficult.

The only way to identify the permanent migrants is to use question P9a ("In which province was the person born[25]?". If a person declares he did not move in the last five years, but the province of birth is not the same as the province of usual residence (e.g., born in the Eastern Cape but the usual province of residence is Western Cape, and did not move in the last five years), he will be classified as a permanent migrant. This method of identifying permanent migrants might be imperfect (comparing Tables 24 and 25, the number of permanent migrants from one province to another province within South Africa is 784,387 in Census 1996, but it increases to 4,080,185 in Census 2001). Similarly, if a person declares he did not move in the last five years, but the province of birth is the same as the province of usual residence, he will be classified as a permanent resident.

[23] Note that 3,551,619 out of the 3,725,655 people state that their province of usual residence is the same as the province they stayed at the time of the survey.
[24] However, the person file only contains data on the migrants' main place of origin. It is a five-digit figure, with the first digit standing for the province of origin, the next two digits standing for the municipality of origin, and the last two digits representing the main place of origin.
[25] In Census 1996, the respondents are only asked to declare the country of birth.

Figure 19 Migration status classification, Census 2001



Finally, as shown in Figure 19, it is possible to use the province of birth question to identify the recent return migrants (e.g. someone born in Northern Cape, but claimed to have migrated from Western Cape to Northern Cape within the last five years).

Table 25 Number of people in each group, Census 2001

Migration status group	**Unweighted**		**Weighted**	
(1) Not staying in normal dwelling	125,683	3.37%	1,423,532	3.30%
(2) Usual place of residence: unspecified	3,632	0.10%	42,360	0.10%
(3) Usual place of residence: overseas	593	0.02%	7,118	0.02%
(4) Usual place of residence: inside SA, but born after 1996	366,279	9.83%	4,192,176	9.71%
(5) Permanent migrants: born overseas	45,765	1.23%	553,848	1.28%
(6) Permanent migrants: birth province ≠ province of usual residence	345,546	9.27%	4,080,185	9.45%
(7) Permanent residents: birth province = province of usual residence	2,429,180	65.20%	27,983,742	64.82%
(8) Recent migrants: from an unspecified place	9,135	0.25%	108,743	0.25%
(9) Recent migrants: from overseas	10,777	0.29%	132,722	0.31%
(10) Recent migrants: from province of origin to province of usual residence	121,559	3.26%	1,464,674	3.39%
(11) Recent migrants: province of origin = province of usual residence	267,506	7.18%	3,181,646	7.37%
Total	3,725,655	100.00%	43,170,746	100.00%

It seems as if Census 2001, using the province of birth to identify the permanent residents and migrants, overestimates the respective sizes of these two groups of people. The number of recent migrants within the same province more than halved between the two censuses. Since the questionnaire structure and the migration status classification methodology differ a lot between

the two surveys, strictly speaking, the statistics on Tables 24 and 25 might not be directly comparable. Instead, the main concern should be that the migration patterns, to be analysed in the forthcoming sections, should be similar.

4.4 MIGRATION PROFILE IN EACH PROVINCE

4.4.1 MIGRATION: CENSUS 1996

Western Cape and Gauteng are the two provinces with the lowest proportion of the population being permanent residents (table 26), possibly because they are the most attractive destinations for migrants from other less affluent provinces.

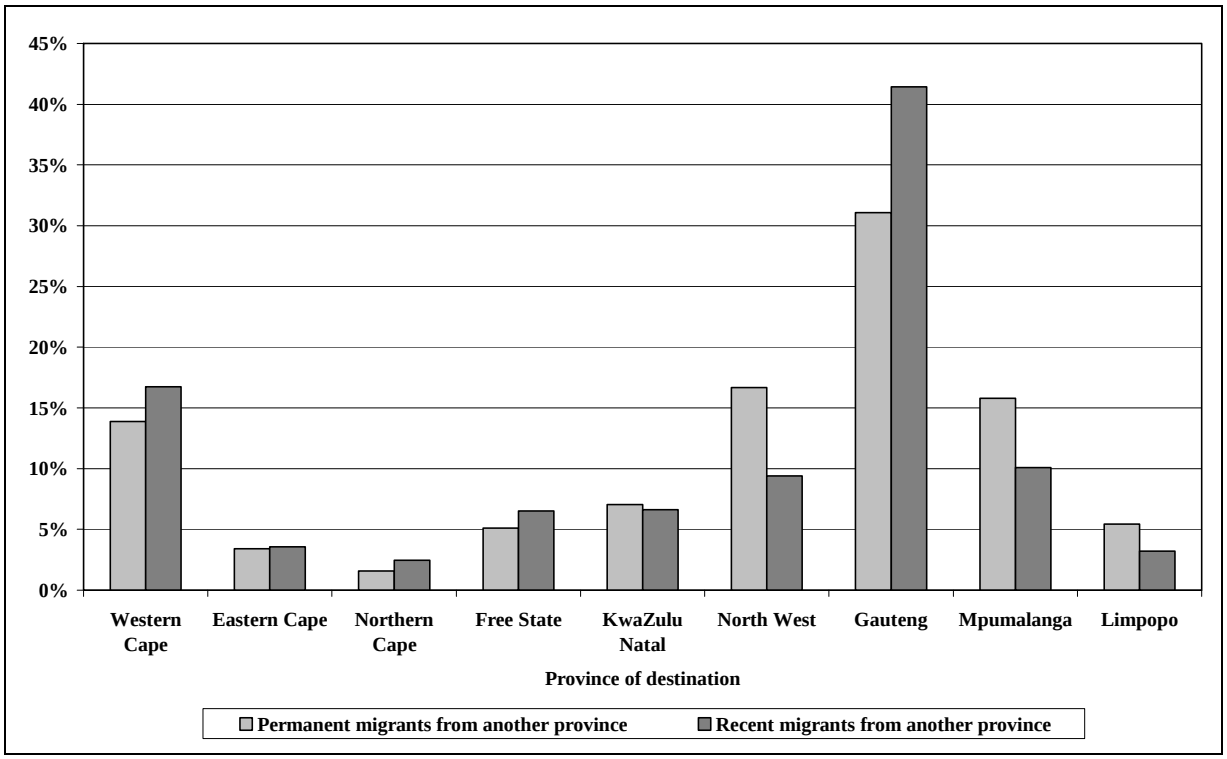
Table 26 Migration status by province of usual residence, Census 1996

	Province of usual residence											
	Unspecified	**WC**	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Overseas**	**Total**
(1)	EXCLUDED FROM MIGRATION ANALYSIS											
(2)	259,305	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	259,305
(3)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,421	7,421
(4)	0	421,316	1,025,135	105,552	247,335	1,046,292	369,238	792,490	363,158	740,088	0	5,110,604
(5)	0	63,479	57,079	14,975	38,153	259,765	75,087	233,815	60,741	71,251	0	874,345
(6)	0	108,797	26,685	12,350	40,037	55,127	130,880	243,866	123,881	42,764	0	784,387
(7)	0	1,735,024	3,878,801	420,627	1,241,473	4,977,387	1,795,687	2,750,706	1,531,840	3,225,577	0	21,557,122
(8)	0	50,555	56,177	17,053	34,990	243,608	53,972	206,361	39,895	40,325	0	742,936
(9)	0	13,208	1,890	1,198	15,368	6,321	12,885	58,451	16,420	6,015	0	131,756
(10)	0	177,168	37,694	26,023	68,903	70,249	99,555	439,095	106,843	34,076	0	1,059,606
(11)	0	1,011,078	784,556	180,742	660,878	1,003,425	506,313	1,873,672	452,366	339,345	0	6,812,375
	259,305	3,580,625	5,868,017	778,520	2,347,137	7,662,174	3,043,617	6,598,456	2,695,144	4,499,441	7421	37,339,857
	Unspecified	**WC**	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Overseas**	**Total**
(1)	EXCLUDED FROM MIGRATION ANALYSIS											
(2)	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.7%
(3)	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
(4)	0.0%	11.8%	17.5%	13.6%	10.5%	13.7%	12.1%	12.0%	13.5%	16.4%	0.0%	13.7%
(5)	0.0%	1.8%	1.0%	1.9%	1.6%	3.4%	2.5%	3.5%	2.3%	1.6%	0.0%	2.3%
(6)	0.0%	3.0%	0.5%	1.6%	1.7%	0.7%	4.3%	3.7%	4.6%	1.0%	0.0%	2.1%
(7)	0.0%	48.5%	66.1%	54.0%	52.9%	65.0%	59.0%	41.7%	56.8%	71.7%	0.0%	57.7%
(8)	0.0%	1.4%	1.0%	2.2%	1.5%	3.2%	1.8%	3.1%	1.5%	0.9%	0.0%	2.0%
(9)	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.2%	0.7%	0.1%	0.4%	0.9%	0.6%	0.1%	0.0%	0.4%
(10)	0.0%	4.9%	0.6%	3.3%	2.9%	0.9%	3.3%	6.7%	4.0%	0.8%	0.0%	2.8%
(11)	0.0%	28.2%	13.4%	23.2%	28.2%	13.1%	16.6%	28.4%	16.8%	7.5%	0.0%	18.2%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(1) Not staying in normal dwelling
(2) Usual place of residence: unspecified
(3) Usual place of residence: overseas
(4) Usual place of residence: inside SA, but age is <=4 years
(5) Permanent migrants: born overseas
(6) Permanent migrants: province of origin ≠ province of usual residence
(7) Permanent residents: province of origin = province of usual residence
(8) Recent migrants: from an unspecified place
(9) Recent migrants: from overseas
(10) Recent migrants: from province of origin to province of usual residence
(11) Recent migrants: province of origin = province of usual residence

Figure 20 shows that Gauteng is the most popular destination for both permanent and recent migrants from other provinces, followed by the Western Cape, North West and Mpumalanga. In In contrast, the Northern Cape is the least popular destination, followed by the Eastern Cape and Limpopo.

Figure 20 Destination of the permanent and recent migrants from other provinces, Census 1996



As far as migration relating to the Northern Cape is concerned, table 27 shows that there are 31,721 permanent migrants from the Northern Cape in Census 1996. One-third of them moved to the Western Cape, and another third moved to the North West province. Gauteng is the third most popular destination (14%). Slightly more than 50% of permanent migrants from Northern Cape left the province between 1981 and 1990, as shown in figure 21.

There are 12,350 permanent migrants to the Northern Cape, with more than half of them coming from the North West or Western Cape provinces.

Table 27 Permanent migrants from one province to another, Census 1996

		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		8,792	3,296	1,727	3,040	1,140	9,001	2,127	620	29,743
	EC	70,639		860	6,894	20,822	3,912	30,065	3,669	139	137,000
	NC	9,994	1,948		2,868	651	10,970	4,449	702	139	31,721
	FS	3,306	3,088	2,019		3,812	12,629	27,353	4,727	470	57,404
	KZN	5,720	3,907	390	3,820		1,971	35,693	8,355	591	60,447
	NW	,890	288	3,475	4,440	870		54,209	5,445	1754	71,371
	GAU	16,883	7,807	2,064	16,585	19,281	71,015		70,858	17,573	222,066
	MPU	871	521	129	2,306	5,552	9,389	34,838		21,478	75,084
	LIM	494	334	117	1,397	1,099	19,854	48,258	27,998		99,551
	Total	108,797	26,685	12,350	40,037	55,127	130,880	243,866	123,881	42764	784,387
		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		29.6%	11.1%	5.8%	10.2%	3.8%	30.3%	7.2%	2.1%	100.0%
	EC	51.6%		0.6%	5.0%	15.2%	2.9%	21.9%	2.7%	0.1%	100.0%
	NC	31.5%	6.1%		9.0%	2.1%	34.6%	14.0%	2.2%	0.4%	100.0%
	FS	5.8%	5.4%	3.5%		6.6%	22.0%	47.6%	8.2%	0.8%	100.0%
	KZN	9.5%	6.5%	0.6%	6.3%		3.3%	59.0%	13.8%	1.0%	100.0%
	NW	1.2%	0.4%	4.9%	6.2%	1.2%		76.0%	7.6%	2.5%	100.0%
	GAU	7.6%	3.5%	0.9%	7.5%	8.7%	32.0%		31.9%	7.9%	100.0%
	MPU	1.2%	0.7%	0.2%	3.1%	7.4%	12.5%	46.4%		28.6%	100.0%
	LIM	0.5%	0.3%	0.1%	1.4%	1.1%	19.9%	48.5%	28.1%		100.0%
		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		32.9%	26.7%	4.3%	5.5%	0.9%	3.7%	1.7%	1.4%	3.8%
	EC	64.9%		7.0%	17.2%	37.8%	3.0%	12.3%	3.0%	0.3%	17.5%
	NC	9.2%	7.3%		7.2%	1.2%	8.4%	1.8%	0.6%	0.3%	4.0%
	FS	3.0%	11.6%	16.3%		6.9%	9.6%	11.2%	3.8%	1.1%	7.3%
	KZN	5.3%	14.6%	3.2%	9.5%		1.5%	14.6%	6.7%	1.4%	7.7%
	NW	0.8%	1.1%	28.1%	11.1%	1.6%		22.2%	4.4%	4.1%	9.1%
	GAU	15.5%	29.3%	16.7%	41.4%	35.0%	54.3%		57.2%	41.1%	28.3%
	MPU	0.8%	2.0%	1.0%	5.8%	10.1%	7.2%	14.3%		50.2%	9.6%
	LIM	0.5%	1.3%	0.9%	3.5%	2.0%	15.2%	19.8%	22.6%		12.7%
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Figure 21 Permanent migrants by the year of migration, Census 1996

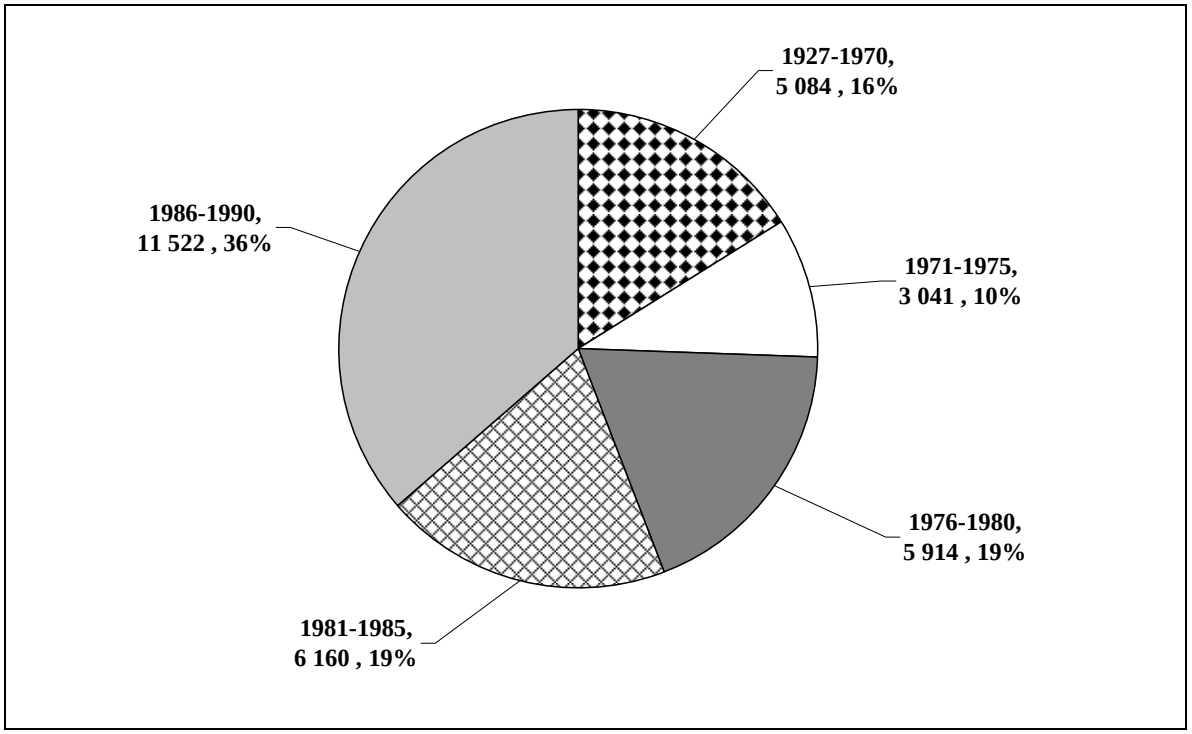


Table 28 presents information on recent migration from one province to another, and it can be seen that there are 34,901[26] recent migrants from Northern Cape, with more than 40% of them moving to the Western Cape. Gauteng (18.1%), the North West (14.7%) and Free State provinces (14.3%) are the next few popular destinations. On the other hand, there are 26,023 recent migrants to the Northern Cape, and more than half of them come from the North West and Western Cape provinces.

Table 28 Recent migrants from one province to another, Census 1996

		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		10,865	5,370	2,826	4,007	1,344	13,859	2,152	723	41,146
	EC	105,560		1,781	13,621	29,941	9,271	51,100	5,115	650	217,039
	NC	14,606	1,764		4,991	1,016	5,138	6,322	962	102	34,901
	FS	5,987	4,116	5,173		3,406	15,636	33,463	6,185	650	74,616
	KZN	10,654	6,634	682	7,264		2,951	66,488	11,831	800	107,304
	NW	2,121	770	8,070	8,934	1,321		105,474	4,894	3,546	135,130
	GAU	35,033	12,278	3,627	25,980	23,973	42,704		45,497	18,331	207,423
	MPU	1,796	796	895	3,418	4,883	5,394	57,745		9,274	84,201
	LIM	1,411	471	425	1,869	1,702	17,117	104,644	30,207		157,846
	Total	177,168	37,694	26,023	68,903	70,249	99,555	439,095	106,843	34,076	1,059,606
		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		26.4%	13.1%	6.9%	9.7%	3.3%	33.7%	5.2%	1.8%	100.0%
	EC	48.6%		0.8%	6.3%	13.8%	4.3%	23.5%	2.4%	0.3%	100.0%
	NC	41.8%	5.1%		14.3%	2.9%	14.7%	18.1%	2.8%	0.3%	100.0%
	FS	8.0%	5.5%	6.9%		4.6%	21.0%	44.8%	8.3%	0.9%	100.0%
	KZN	9.9%	6.2%	0.6%	6.8%		2.8%	62.0%	11.0%	0.7%	100.0%
	NW	1.6%	0.6%	6.0%	6.6%	1.0%		78.1%	3.6%	2.6%	100.0%
	GAU	16.9%	5.9%	1.7%	12.5%	11.6%	20.6%		21.9%	8.8%	100.0%

[26] Of these 34,901 recent migrants from Northern Cape, 9.38% migrated in 1991, 11.68% in 1992, 10.98% in 1993, 14.88 in 1994, 20.64% in 1995, and 32.45% in the first nine months of 1996 (since Census 1996 took place in October 1996).

	MPU	2.1%	0.9%	1.1%	4.1%	5.8%	6.4%	68.6%		11.0%	100.0%
	LIM	0.9%	0.3%	0.3%	1.2%	1.1%	10.8%	66.3%	19.1%		100.0%
		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		28.8%	20.6%	4.1%	5.7%	1.4%	3.2%	2.0%	2.1%	3.9%
	EC	59.6%		6.8%	19.8%	42.6%	9.3%	11.6%	4.8%	1.9%	20.5%
	NC	8.2%	4.7%		7.2%	1.4%	5.2%	1.4%	0.9%	0.3%	3.3%
	FS	3.4%	10.9%	19.9%		4.8%	15.7%	7.6%	5.8%	1.9%	7.0%
	KZN	6.0%	17.6%	2.6%	10.5%		3.0%	15.1%	11.1%	2.3%	10.1%
	NW	1.2%	2.0%	31.0%	13.0%	1.9%		24.0%	4.6%	10.4%	12.8%
	GAU	19.8%	32.6%	13.9%	37.7%	34.1%	42.9%		42.6%	53.8%	19.6%
	MPU	1.0%	2.1%	3.4%	5.0%	7.0%	5.4%	13.2%		27.2%	7.9%
	LIM	0.8%	1.2%	1.6%	2.7%	2.4%	17.2%	23.8%	28.3%		14.9%
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Finally, table 29 (Census 1996) illustrates that if one looks at the more recent migrants, there is an increasing proportion of them moving to the Western Cape and Gauteng, while the proportion of people moving to North West is declining rapidly[27].

[27] As mentioned in section 4.3, permanent migrants are not allowed to declare the year of migration in Census 2001, and therefore it is impossible to do a similar analysis on permanent migrants in 2001.

Table 29 Province of destination of migrants from Northern Cape, Census 1996

	Year of migration					
	Permanent migrants					Recent migrants
Province of destination	**1970 or before**	**1971-1975**	**1976-1980**	**1981-1985**	**1986-1990**	**1991-1996**
WC	23.8%	28.4%	24.6%	32.8%	38.6%	41.8%
EC	2.0%	10.2%	8.5%	5.4%	6.1%	5.1%
FS	5.3%	9.6%	5.6%	10.0%	11.8%	14.3%
KZN	0.6%	1.5%	2.7%	1.6%	2.7%	2.9%
NW	59.9%	38.3%	46.3%	27.0%	20.5%	14.7%
GAU	7.4%	9.5%	11.4%	16.0%	18.5%	18.1%
MPU	0.6%	2.6%	0.9%	6.9%	1.0%	2.8%
LIM	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	0.8%	0.3%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

4.4.2 MIGRATION: CENSUS 2001

In Census 2001, the Western Cape and Gauteng are the two provinces with the lowest proportion of the population being permanent residents (table 30), in all probability due to their relative attractiveness to migrants from other provinces.

Table 30 Migration status by province of usual residence, Census 2001

	Province of usual residence											
	Unspecified	**WC**	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Overseas**	**Total**
(1)	EXCLUDED FROM MIGRATION ANALYSIS											
(2)	42,360	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	42,360
(3)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7,118	7,118
(4)	0	380,774	618,113	78,267	241,527	954,448	338,119	672,116	330,740	578,072	0	4,192,176
(5)	0	55,800	19,016	7,965	19,806	59,185	39,212	260,466	44,679	47,719	0	553,848
(6)	0	625,816	137,610	62,471	144,517	309,999	431,996	1,869,825	311,520	186,431	0	4,080,185
(7)	0	2,416,531	4,773,181	508,577	1,803,328	6,800,674	2,232,560	3,700,054	1,914,714	3,834,123	0	27,983,742
(8)	0	15,475	14,266	1,183	7,439	17,350	4,168	38,149	6,359	4,354	0	108,743
(9)	0	18,298	4,534	1,249	6,860	11,505	8,895	63,313	9,704	8,364	0	132,722
(10)	0	252,418	84,844	39,192	70,546	124,145	120,953	595,922	100,096	76,558	0	1,464,674
(11)	0	458,784	360,515	60,386	237,787	535,707	220,062	925,607	164,046	218,752	0	3,181,646
	42,360	4,223,896	6,012,079	759,290	2,531,810	8,813,013	3,395,965	8,125,452	2,881,858	4,954,373	7,118	41,747,214
	Unspecified	**WC**	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Overseas**	**Total**
(1)	EXCLUDED FROM MIGRATION ANALYSIS											
(2)	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%
(3)	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%
(4)	0.0%	9.0%	10.3%	10.3%	9.5%	10.8%	10.0%	8.3%	11.5%	11.7%	0.0%	10.0%
(5)	0.0%	1.3%	0.3%	1.0%	0.8%	0.7%	1.2%	3.2%	1.6%	1.0%	0.0%	1.3%
(6)	0.0%	14.8%	2.3%	8.2%	5.7%	3.5%	12.7%	23.0%	10.8%	3.8%	0.0%	9.8%
(7)	0.0%	57.2%	79.4%	67.0%	71.2%	77.2%	65.7%	45.5%	66.4%	77.4%	0.0%	67.0%
(8)	0.0%	0.4%	0.2%	0.2%	0.3%	0.2%	0.1%	0.5%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.3%
(9)	0.0%	0.4%	0.1%	0.2%	0.3%	0.1%	0.3%	0.8%	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%	0.3%
(10)	0.0%	6.0%	1.4%	5.2%	2.8%	1.4%	3.6%	7.3%	3.5%	1.5%	0.0%	3.5%
(11)	0.0%	10.9%	6.0%	8.0%	9.4%	6.1%	6.5%	11.4%	5.7%	4.4%	0.0%	7.6%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

(1) Not staying in normal dwelling
(2) Usual place of residence: unspecified
(3) Usual place of residence: overseas
(4) Usual place of residence: inside SA, but age is <=4 years
(5) Permanent migrants: born overseas
(6) Permanent migrants: birth province ≠ province of usual residence
(7) Permanent residents: birth province = province of usual residence
(8) Recent migrants: from an unspecified place
(9) Recent migrants: from overseas
(10) Recent migrants: from province of origin to province of usual residence
(11) Recent migrants: province of origin = province of usual residence

Figure 22 shows that Gauteng is the most popular destination for both permanent and recent migrants from other provinces, followed by the Western Cape. In contrast, the Northern Cape (followed by Eastern Cape, Limpopo and Free State) is the least popular destination.

Figure 22 Destination of the permanent and recent migrants from other provinces, Census 2001

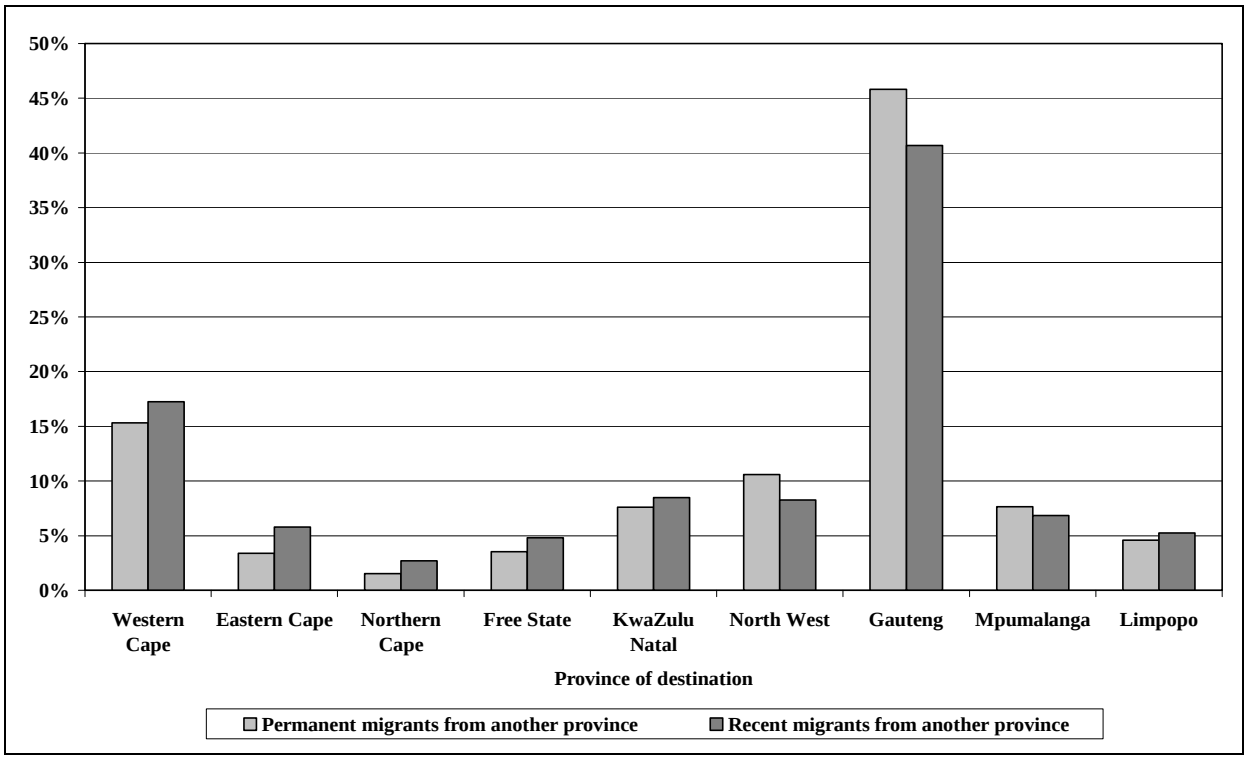


Table 31 shows that there are 174,013 permanent migrants from the Northern Cape. A quarter of them move to Western Cape, another quarter to North West, and another quarter to Gauteng. On the other hand, there are 62,471 permanent migrants to the Northern Cape, and nearly half of them come from either the North West province or the Western Cape.

Table 31 Permanent migrants from one province to another, Census 2001

		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		44,171	13,618	11,849	26,895	12,310	126,198	7,859	11,900	254,800
	EC	470,629		10,350	38,756	125,391	43,731	263,591	20,985	7,992	981,425
	NC	40,286	10,444		13,776	16,799	37,514	42,981	8,778	3,435	174,013
	FS	17,945	14,211	9,880		28,086	65,920	210,995	25,438	12,058	384,533
	KZN	20,557	20,347	5,509	14,977		16,276	312,910	34,554	5,147	430,277
	NW	5,378	7,372	13,096	10,901	12,332		197,427	21,076	13,844	281,426
	GAU	59,054	34,445	7,260	41,148	72,894	140,193		96,422	74,724	526,140
	MPU	6,347	3,165	1,046	6,243	19,018	36,389	220,990		57,331	350,529
	LIM	5,620	3,455	1,712	6,867	8,584	79,663	494,733	96,408		697,042
	Total	625,816	137,610	62,471	144,517	309,999	431,996	1,869,825	311,520	186,431	4,080,185
		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		17.3%	5.3%	4.7%	10.6%	4.8%	49.5%	3.1%	4.7%	100.0%
	EC	48.0%		1.1%	3.9%	12.8%	4.5%	26.9%	2.1%	0.8%	100.0%
	NC	23.2%	6.0%		7.9%	9.7%	21.6%	24.7%	5.0%	2.0%	100.0%
	FS	4.7%	3.7%	2.6%		7.3%	17.1%	54.9%	6.6%	3.1%	100.0%
	KZN	4.8%	4.7%	1.3%	3.5%		3.8%	72.7%	8.0%	1.2%	100.0%
	NW	1.9%	2.6%	4.7%	3.9%	4.4%		70.2%	7.5%	4.9%	100.0%
	GAU	11.2%	6.5%	1.4%	7.8%	13.9%	26.6%		18.3%	14.2%	100.0%
	MPU	1.8%	0.9%	0.3%	1.8%	5.4%	10.4%	63.0%		16.4%	100.0%
	LIM	0.8%	0.5%	0.2%	1.0%	1.2%	11.4%	71.0%	13.8%		100.0%
		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		32.1%	21.8%	8.2%	8.7%	2.8%	6.7%	2.5%	6.4%	6.2%
	EC	75.2%		16.6%	26.8%	40.4%	10.1%	14.1%	6.7%	4.3%	24.1%
	NC	6.4%	7.6%		9.5%	5.4%	8.7%	2.3%	2.8%	1.8%	4.3%
	FS	2.9%	10.3%	15.8%		9.1%	15.3%	11.3%	8.2%	6.5%	9.4%
	KZN	3.3%	14.8%	8.8%	10.4%		3.8%	16.7%	11.1%	2.8%	10.5%
	NW	0.9%	5.4%	21.0%	7.5%	4.0%		10.6%	6.8%	7.4%	6.9%
	GAU	9.4%	25.0%	11.6%	28.5%	23.5%	32.5%		31.0%	40.1%	12.9%
	MPU	1.0%	2.3%	1.7%	4.3%	6.1%	8.4%	11.8%		30.8%	8.6%
	LIM	0.9%	2.5%	2.7%	4.8%	2.8%	18.4%	26.5%	30.9%		17.1%
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

There are 46,962[28] recent migrants from Northern Cape (table 32), and nearly 40% of them move to the Western Cape. Gauteng (20.5%), North West (12.8%) and Free State (12.5%) are the next few popular destinations. In contrast, there are 39,192 recent migrants to the Northern Cape, with more than half of them coming from either the North West or Western Cape provinces.

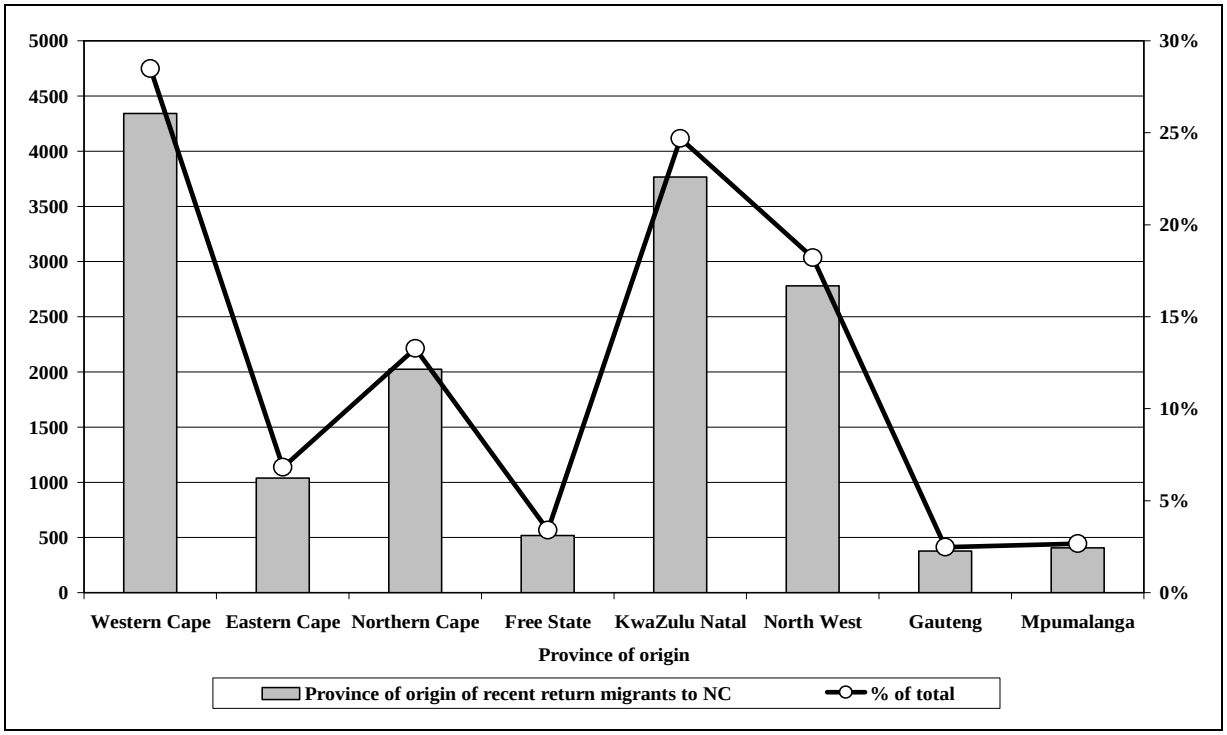
Of the 39,192 recent migrants to Northern Cape, 15,249 of them are return migrants (i.e., born in Northern Cape, but recently migrated from another province to Northern Cape). Most of them come from Western Cape, North West or KwaZulu Natal, as shown in figure 23.

[28] Of these 46,962 recent migrants from Northern Cape, 3.45% moved out of the province in 1996, 13.32% in 1997, 15.61% in 1998. 17.57% in 1999, 20.33% in 2000, and 29.72% in the first nine months of 2001 (since Census 2001 took place in October 2001).

Table 32 Recent migrants from one province to another

		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		24649	8279	4895	8532	2863	28400	2672	1672	81962
	EC	129454		3562	14127	50906	15985	75727	8955	4922	303638
	NC	18612	2800		5872	1677	6003	9640	1149	1209	46962
	FS	12124	7746	5252		7144	15997	52231	6093	3788	110375
	KZN	21569	15041	1607	7798		6473	111091	16880	4964	185423
	NW	5975	3583	12214	8250	3762		96859	5957	10221	146821
	GAU	54936	26434	6117	21225	38138	45365		28619	33701	254535
	MPU	4922	2769	1086	5173	10220	9660	77920		16081	127831
	LIM	4826	1822	1075	3206	3766	18607	144054	29771		207127
	Total	252418	84844	39192	70546	124145	120953	595922	100096	76558	1464674
		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		30.1%	10.1%	6.0%	10.4%	3.5%	34.7%	3.3%	2.0%	100.0%
	EC	42.6%		1.2%	4.7%	16.8%	5.3%	24.9%	2.9%	1.6%	100.0%
	NC	39.6%	6.0%		12.5%	3.6%	12.8%	20.5%	2.4%	2.6%	100.0%
	FS	11.0%	7.0%	4.8%		6.5%	14.5%	47.3%	5.5%	3.4%	100.0%
	KZN	11.6%	8.1%	0.9%	4.2%		3.5%	59.9%	9.1%	2.7%	100.0%
	NW	4.1%	2.4%	8.3%	5.6%	2.6%		66.0%	4.1%	7.0%	100.0%
	GAU	21.6%	10.4%	2.4%	8.3%	15.0%	17.8%		11.2%	13.2%	100.0%
	MPU	3.9%	2.2%	0.8%	4.0%	8.0%	7.6%	61.0%		12.6%	100.0%
	LIM	2.3%	0.9%	0.5%	1.5%	1.8%	9.0%	69.5%	14.4%		100.0%
		Province of destination (i.e., province of usual residence)									
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Total**
Province of origin	**WC**		29.1%	21.1%	6.9%	6.9%	2.4%	4.8%	2.7%	2.2%	5.6%
	EC	51.3%		9.1%	20.0%	41.0%	13.2%	12.7%	8.9%	6.4%	20.7%
	NC	7.4%	3.3%		8.3%	1.4%	5.0%	1.6%	1.1%	1.6%	3.2%
	FS	4.8%	9.1%	13.4%		5.8%	13.2%	8.8%	6.1%	4.9%	7.5%
	KZN	8.5%	17.7%	4.1%	11.1%		5.4%	18.6%	16.9%	6.5%	12.7%
	NW	2.4%	4.2%	31.2%	11.7%	3.0%		16.3%	6.0%	13.4%	10.0%
	GAU	21.8%	31.2%	15.6%	30.1%	30.7%	37.5%		28.6%	44.0%	17.4%
	MPU	1.9%	3.3%	2.8%	7.3%	8.2%	8.0%	13.1%		21.0%	8.7%
	LIM	1.9%	2.1%	2.7%	4.5%	3.0%	15.4%	24.2%	29.7%		14.1%
	Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Figure 23 Province of origin of recent return migrants to Northern Cape



4.5 CONCLUSION

Despite the differences in migration questions as well as the different methodologies used to derive the migrant status, the migration patterns relating to Northern Cape in the two censuses are very similar: most of the permanent migrants from Northern Cape migrate to Western Cape, North West or Gauteng, while the Western Cape is the most popular destination for recent migrants from Northern Cape. Finally, a majority of both the permanent and recent migrants to Northern Cape come from the North West or the Western Cape.

Finally, despite the fact that the September LFS in 2003, 2004 and 2005 also ask questions on recent migration (i.e., migration within the last five years – Table A4.1 of Appendix IV presents the results), it is argued that the LFS data might not be able to produce reliable information on migration because of its much smaller sample size[29]. Therefore, it is decided to focus entirely on the census data for the migration analysis.

[29] The sample size of the three September LFSs is as follows: LFS2003 – 98,748; LFS2004 – 109,888; LFS2005 – 109,079.

CHAPTER 5
MIGRATION FROM NORTHERN CAPE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this section is the descriptive analysis of the demographic, location, economic and household characteristics of the permanent residents in Northern Cape, permanent and recent migrants from the Northern Cape, and recent migrants within the Northern Cape[30].

Table 33 The four migration groups

Group	Migration status	Census 1996	Census 2001
A	Permanent residents in NC	420,627	508,577
B	Permanent migrants from NC to another province	31,721	174,013
C	Recent migrants from NC to another province	34,901	46,962
D	Recent migrants within NC	180,742	60,386

5.2 DISTRICT COUNCIL OF ORIGIN OF THE MIGRANTS AND THEIR DESTINATION PROVINCE

5.2.1 CENSUS 1996

As explained in Section 4.2, both permanent and recent migrants are asked to declare the magisterial district (MD) of origin in Census 1996, and it is possible to identify the MDs falling under each DC (see Table A5.1 in Appendix V for more detail). Table 34 below shows that more than 40% of are people in all four groups come from Diamandveld, which includes Kimberley, the province's capital.

Table 34 DC of origin of the four migration groups, Census 1996

	A	B	C	D
Hantam	5.5%	6.4%	7.3%	3.8%
Namaqualand	9.0%	6.1%	7.8%	7.6%
Diamandveld	41.2%	46.3%	41.2%	44.8%
Kalahari	8.4%	15.6%	11.2%	12.2%
Lower Orange	19.7%	9.2%	12.9%	18.0%
Upper Karoo	16.2%	16.4%	19.5%	13.5%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

[30] For the remainder of this chapter, groups A, B, C and D will stand for permanent residents in Northern Cape, permanent migrants from Northern Cape, recent migrants from Northern Cape, and recent migrants within Northern Cape respectively.

The Western Cape is clearly the favoured destination province for both permanent and recent migrants from Hantam and Namaqualand, with the proportion of migrants moving to Western Cape exceeding 90% and 80% respectively (see Table 35). On the other hand, Lower Orange and Upper Karoo migrants (both permanent and recent) also have a higher tendency to move to the Western Cape, with about 50% of migrants moving there. North West province is clearly the favoured destination for migrants from Kalahari. North West is also the dominant destination for permanent migrants from Diamandveld, but this does not happen for recent migrants from this DC. Finally, a majority of the recent migrants within Northern Cape move from one place to another within the same DC.

Table 35 Province of destination for migrants from and within Northern Cape, Census 1996

Group B: permanent migrants from Northern Cape						
	Hantam	**Namaqualand**	**Diamandveld**	**Kalahari**	**Lower Orange**	**Upper Karoo**
WC	92.3%	86.8%	12.7%	8.1%	56.3%	48.6%
EC	1.5%	2.8%	3.3%	2.6%	3.8%	21.8%
FS	2.0%	0.6%	13.1%	2.8%	9.3%	9.3%
KZN	2.1%	2.8%	1.9%	3.3%	1.1%	1.7%
NW	0.5%	0.5%	47.7%	70.8%	9.8%	3.2%
GAU	0.0%	3.8%	19.1%	10.5%	17.7%	10.3%
MPU	0.0%	1.1%	1.7%	1.8%	2.1%	5.3%
LIM	1.6%	1.7%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Group C: recent migrants from Northern Cape						
	Hantam	**Namaqualand**	**Diamandveld**	**Kalahari**	**Lower Orange**	**Upper Karoo**
WC	92.7%	83.4%	20.3%	18.4%	58.3%	54.1%
EC	1.6%	1.1%	4.1%	1.3%	0.4%	15.1%
FS	1.7%	1.6%	21.1%	12.0%	8.9%	14.5%
KZN	0.4%	2.8%	4.0%	5.1%	0.2%	2.0%
NW	0.0%	0.0%	22.1%	40.4%	7.0%	0.9%
GAU	2.1%	9.5%	23.9%	18.8%	22.1%	12.3%
MPU	0.0%	1.6%	4.0%	4.0%	2.7%	1.0%
LIM	1.4%	0.0%	0.4%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Group D: recent migrants within Northern Cape						
	Hantam	**Namaqualand**	**Diamandveld**	**Kalahari**	**Lower Orange**	**Upper Karoo**
Hantam	92.9%	1.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%	0.8%
Namaqualand	1.2%	93.1%	0.4%	0.1%	1.7%	0.4%
Diamandveld	0.2%	0.3%	96.8%	8.0%	2.1%	5.6%
Kalahari	0.2%	0.8%	1.3%	76.0%	1.7%	0.9%
Lower Orange	2.4%	4.4%	0.7%	15.3%	92.8%	1.8%
Upper Karoo	3.2%	0.3%	0.7%	0.6%	1.6%	90.6%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table A6.1 provides more detail by reporting the top five most popular MD of destination in groups B and C, and it is apparent that Phokwani and Kudumane (in North West) are the

favoured destinations for the permanent migrants, while Bloemfontein (in Free State) stands out as the most popular destination for recent migrants.

5.2.2 CENSUS 2001

As mentioned in section 4.3, the person file of Census 2001 records the province, municipality and main place of origin of the recent migrants. Table A5.2 reports the municipalities in each DC in Northern Cape. Unfortunately, it is impossible to know the DC of origin of the permanent migrants (i.e., Group B). As explained before, they are not allowed to declare the place of origin. Besides, they are not asked to declare the DC/MD/municipality of birth. Table 36 below shows that nearly 40% of the recent migrants from and within Northern Cape originated from Frances Baard. On the other hand, Siyanda is the DC accounting for the highest proportion of permanent residents in the province.

Table 36 DC of origin of the four migration groups, Census 2001

	A	**B**	**C**	**D**
Namakwa	13.7%	N/A	13.1%	11.2%
Frances Baard	21.2%	N/A	33.2%	35.2%
Kgalagadi	25.2%	N/A	8.0%	7.1%
Siyanda	36.9%	N/A	17.2%	25.7%
Karoo	3.0%	N/A	20.5%	17.2%
Unspecified	0.0%	N/A	8.0%	3.7%
	100.0%	N/A	100.0%	100.0%

Table 37 shows that Western Cape is clearly the favoured destination province for both recent migrants from Namakwa, with the proportion of migrants moving to Western Cape exceeding two-thirds. Siyanda and Karoo migrants are also more likely to move to Western Cape. North West and Gauteng are the dominant destinations for migrants from Kgalagadi and Frances Baard respectively. Finally, a majority of the recent migrants within Northern Cape tend to move from one place to another within the same DC. Table A6.2 provides more detail by reporting the top five most popular MD's of destination in group C. As in Census 1996, Phokwani continues to be the dominant destination for permanent migrants from Northern Cape in 2001.

Table 37 Province of destination for migrants from and within Northern Cape, Census 2001

Group C: recent migrants from Northern Cape					
	Namakwa	**Frances Baard**	**Kgalagadi**	**Siyanda**	**Karoo**
WC	69.2%	20.7%	24.3%	46.4%	49.8%
EC	3.7%	4.2%	3.1%	5.7%	11.7%
FS	3.9%	18.7%	7.7%	6.1%	9.8%
KZN	4.2%	3.5%	2.3%	2.1%	3.8%
NW	3.2%	17.7%	31.4%	16.2%	3.8%
GAU	11.8%	31.6%	19.1%	17.3%	16.0%
MPU	1.8%	1.7%	3.0%	4.0%	2.9%
LIM	2.3%	2.0%	9.1%	2.3%	2.2%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Group D: recent migrants within Northern Cape					
	Namakwa	**Frances Baard**	**Kgalagadi**	**Siyanda**	**Karoo**
Namakwa	84.1%	0.8%	2.9%	4.6%	2.8%
Frances Baard	5.9%	89.1%	9.6%	8.3%	9.2%
Kgalagadi	0.0%	1.5%	34.5%	4.9%	2.2%
Siyanda	5.8%	3.5%	49.2%	76.0%	7.4%
Karoo	2.7%	4.4%	3.6%	5.3%	77.7%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5.3 DEMOGRAPHIC AND LOCATION CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NORTHERN CAPE MIGRANTS

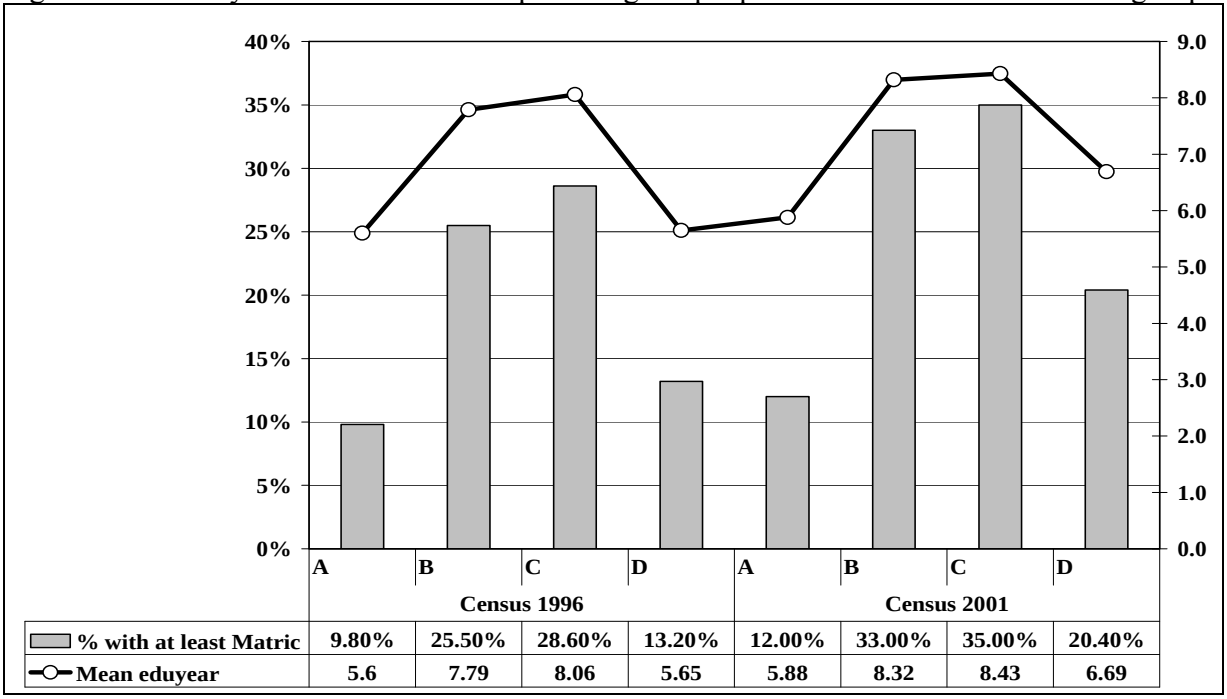
Table 38 shows the demographic and location characteristics of the Northern Cape migrants, and the results could be summarized as follows:

- The three migrant groups (B, C and D) contain a higher proportion of people at younger age, compared with the permanent residents, but group B has a relatively higher proportion of elderly aged at least 55 years (more than 20% in both censuses). Thus, this causes the mean age of the migrants in this group to be somewhat higher.
- As far as the race of the migrants is concerned, groups B and C clearly have a relatively higher proportion of Whites.
- The female share in group B is slightly higher in both Censuses.
- Group B has a relatively high proportion of people who are married or live together with a partner at the time of the survey, while groups C and D have a higher proportion of people who are single.
- A slightly higher proportion of people in group B are household heads.
- The migrants from group B and C are clearly more educated, as indicated by the higher proportion with a matriculation certificate and higher mean education years (figure 24).
- In the three migrant groups, most of the people migrate to urban areas. Appendix VII provides more detail by comparing the area type of the place of origin with the area type of the place of destination.

Table 38 Demographic characteristics of the four groups

	Census 1996				Census 2001			
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
AGE								
5-14yrs	27.5%	6.6%	16.0%	24.3%	25.6%	11.5%	14.4%	19.4%
15-24yrs	21.4%	15.5%	26.6%	20.7%	20.5%	14.8%	27.3%	21.4%
25-34yrs	14.4%	18.0%	25.6%	23.8%	15.9%	17.7%	26.9%	25.3%
35-44yrs	13.1%	19.2%	15.2%	15.5%	14.2%	20.0%	14.5%	16.7%
45-54yrs	9.4%	17.2%	7.8%	7.7%	10.7%	15.1%	8.6%	9.1%
55-64yrs	6.8%	11.5%	4.3%	4.1%	7.0%	10.4%	4.7%	5.1%
65+yrs	6.3%	11.2%	3.6%	3.2%	6.2%	10.5%	3.7%	3.0%
Unspecified	1.2%	0.8%	1.0%	0.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Mean age	29.67	40.45	29.50	28.04	30.47	38.40	29.96	29.61
RACE								
Black	32.4%	45.8%	29.1%	33.8%	33.8%	44.3%	35.6%	29.2%
Coloured	56.9%	23.5%	34.7%	50.0%	58.5%	22.7%	31.6%	53.7%
Indian	0.3%	0.8%	0.7%	0.3%	0.2%	1.2%	1.1%	0.3%
White	9.2%	29.2%	33.8%	14.7%	7.6%	31.9%	31.7%	16.8%
Unspecified	1.2%	0.8%	1.7%	1.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
GENDER								
Male	47.8%	45.1%	47.2%	48.6%	47.0%	46.1%	48.5%	48.5%
Female	52.2%	54.9%	52.8%	51.4%	53.0%	53.9%	51.5%	51.6%
MARITAL STATUS								
Single	63.4%	41.2%	53.7%	54.9%	60.3%	39.7%	52.3%	59.2%
Married/ Live together with a partner	29.8%	48.1%	40.5%	40.2%	32.8%	50.7%	42.4%	34.1%
Divorced/ Separated	1.4%	2.6%	2.8%	2.0%	1.8%	3.2%	2.5%	1.9%
Widowed	4.7%	7.6%	2.4%	2.6%	5.1%	6.4%	2.8%	4.9%
Unspecified	0.7%	0.6%	0.6%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
HOUSEHOLD HEAD STATUS								
Yes	23.8%	40.4%	33.7%	31.5%	26.7%	39.9%	35.6%	34.3%
No	76.2%	59.7%	66.3%	68.5%	73.3%	60.1%	64.4%	65.7%
EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT								
No schooling	22.6%	13.8%	12.2%	25.5%	17.8%	10.9%	9.7%	16.8%
Incomplete Primary	30.2%	19.7%	18.5%	28.0%	34.3%	19.4%	19.6%	27.8%
Incomplete Secondary	34.9%	39.3%	38.3%	31.9%	35.9%	36.7%	35.8%	35.0%
Matric	7.2%	16.1%	19.1%	8.4%	9.7%	21.2%	23.6%	14.2%
Matric + Cert/Dip	2.1%	6.3%	5.5%	3.7%	1.9%	6.6%	7.0%	4.3%
Degree	0.6%	3.2%	4.0%	1.1%	0.5%	5.3%	4.4%	1.9%
Unspecified	2.5%	1.7%	2.4%	1.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Figure 24 Mean years of education and percentage of people with at least Matric in each group



5.4 WORK CHARACTERISTICS OF THE NORTHERN CAPE MIGRANTS

Table 39 shows that a higher proportion from groups B, C and D are employed, compared with the permanent residents (group A). This proportion is highest in group C.

Table 39 Broad employment status of the four groups, aged 15-65 years

	Census 1996				**Census 2001**			
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
Employed	37.3%	46.2%	58.6%	53.2%	33.7%	47.8%	54.8%	54.1%
Unemployed	18.9%	14.7%	11.2%	14.9%	26.9%	19.7%	17.0%	18.3%
Inactive	43.8%	39.1%	30.3%	31.9%	39.4%	32.5%	28.2%	27.6%

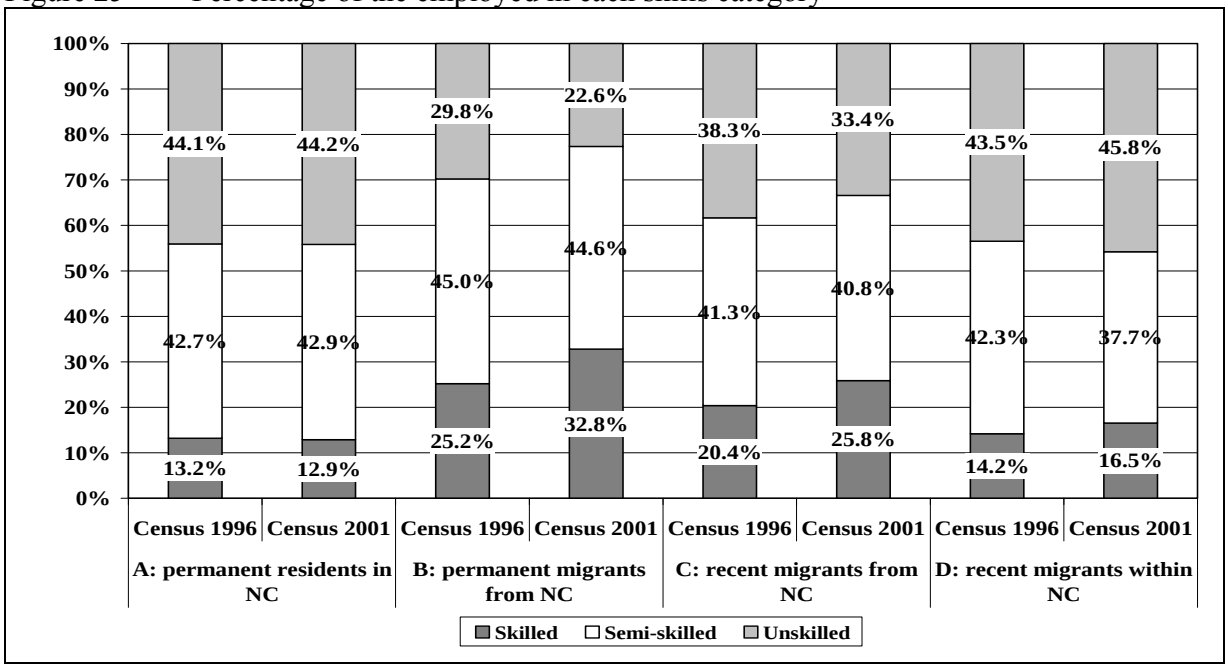
As far as the occupation and skills level of work of the employed are concerned, a relatively high proportion of employed in group B and C are engaged in skilled occupations, while there is a significant decline in the proportion of employed engaging in elementary occupations, as presented in table 40 and figure 25.

Table 40 Percentage of employed in each broad occupation category

		Census 1996			
		A	**B**	**C**	**D**
Skilled	Legislators, senior officials and managers	2.1%	4.8%	4.0%	2.2%
	Professionals	5.8%	11.6%	9.1%	6.3%
	Technicians & associate professionals	4.0%	6.6%	5.8%	4.5%
Semi-skilled	Clerks	6.6%	10.6%	7.7%	7.3%
	Service workers, shop and market sales workers	7.9%	9.1%	10.1%	8.1%
	Skilled agricultural and fishing workers	8.1%	3.0%	4.6%	8.3%
	Craft and other related trades workers	11.5%	12.8%	11.1%	11.0%
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	4.6%	5.5%	4.8%	4.1%
Unskilled	Elementary occupations	22.5%	13.6%	16.5%	23.6%
	Domestic workers	17.5%	13.6%	19.1%	16.3%
Unspecified	Others/Unspecified	9.3%	8.8%	7.4%	8.2%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		Census 2001			
		A	**B**	**C**	**D**
Skilled	Legislators, senior officials and managers	3.2%	8.8%	7.1%	4.3%
	Professionals	2.6%	9.7%	9.1%	4.6%
	Technicians & associate professionals	6.4%	12.1%	8.4%	7.1%
Semi-skilled	Clerks	9.8%	13.0%	12.1%	9.1%
	Service workers, shop and market sales workers	8.5%	9.8%	10.3%	8.2%
	Skilled agricultural and fishing workers	6.8%	2.2%	3.0%	6.1%
	Craft and other related trades workers	9.8%	11.2%	8.4%	9.3%
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	5.7%	5.4%	5.0%	3.8%
Unskilled	Elementary occupations	25.1%	10.8%	16.5%	30.6%
	Domestic workers	16.7%	10.4%	15.2%	13.7%
Unspecified	Others/Unspecified	5.6%	6.6%	4.9%	3.3%
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

A smaller proportion of the employed in group B and C are engaged in the agriculture/hunting/forestry/fishing industry in both censuses, which is complemented by the apparent increase of the proportion of employed involved in the financial/insurance/real estate/business services industry. Table 41 illustrates the results.

Figure 25 Percentage of the employed in each skills category



Note: the employed whose occupation is "others/unspecified" are excluded.

Table 41 Percentage of employed in each broad industry category

	Census 1996			
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	21.6%	12.0%	14.6%	25.1%
Mining and quarrying	6.2%	4.3%	4.4%	6.2%
Manufacturing	3.9%	8.9%	7.3%	4.2%
Electricity, gas and water supply	1.3%	1.4%	0.6%	1.1%
Construction	5.3%	6.0%	6.1%	4.4%
Wholesale and retail trade	11.3%	11.6%	11.3%	10.0%
Transport, storage and communication	5.0%	7.1%	5.0%	5.0%
Financial, insurance, real estate and business services	3.2%	7.6%	9.9%	4.0%
Community, social and personal services	18.5%	22.4%	15.6%	18.2%
Private households	13.3%	10.5%	17.9%	13.5%
Others/Unspecified	10.5%	8.4%	7.3%	8.3%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	Census 2001			
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	24.9%	8.5%	15.2%	32.3%
Mining and quarrying	6.4%	3.3%	2.6%	5.5%
Manufacturing	5.4%	11.4%	8.8%	3.6%
Electricity, gas and water supply	0.7%	0.9%	0.3%	0.9%
Construction	4.4%	5.3%	5.3%	4.3%
Wholesale and retail trade	12.2%	13.5%	15.6%	10.4%
Transport, storage and communication	3.1%	5.1%	4.0%	2.9%
Financial, insurance, real estate and business services	4.9%	11.2%	12.6%	5.1%
Community, social and personal services	18.3%	23.4%	15.3%	19.0%
Private households	12.6%	8.6%	13.9%	10.8%
Others/Unspecified	7.2%	8.9%	6.4%	5.4%
	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5.5 POVERTY RATE

Table 42 below shows that the permanent and recent migrants from Northern Cape enjoy a lower poverty rate. It is probably due to the higher proportion of the working-age population being employed as well as the lower percentage of the employed engaged in the lowly-paid unskilled occupations as explained before.

Table 42 Poverty rate by migration status of household head

	Census1996 (Including households with zero income)	**Census1996 (Excluding households with zero income)**	**Census2001 (Including households with zero income)**	**Census2001 (Excluding households with zero income)**
A: Permanent residents in NC	55.1%	52.1%	54.8%	48.0%
– Race: Black	66.7%	63.7%	62.5%	55.1%
– Race: Coloured	57.6%	55.1%	54.7%	48.7%
– Race: White	6.6%	4.0%	7.6%	2.9%
B: Permanent migrants from NC	37.0%	31.6%	33.9%	25.4%
– Race: Black	61.6%	55.4%	57.8%	47.1%
– Race: Coloured	27.3%	25.4%	21.6%	16.2%
– Race: White	4.2%	2.8%	4.4%	1.3%
C: Recent migrants from NC	22.8%	17.6%	29.9%	22.4%
– Race: Black	41.9%	35.6%	44.8%	34.4%
– Race: Coloured	24.2%	20.8%	21.8%	18.7%
– Race: White	7.0%	3.1%	7.4%	2.9%
D: Recent migrants within NC	47.1%	43.4%	42.3%	35.2%
– Race: Black	57.9%	53.2%	47.4%	38.4%
– Race: Coloured	52.5%	49.8%	46.9%	41.0%
– Race: White	6.9%	4.6%	4.6%	2.0%
Permanent residents in WC	24.3%	20.9%	24.7%	20.0%
Permanent residents in GAU	33.4%	26.5%	38.2%	26.6%
Permanent residents in NW	63.0%	56.8%	66.1%	56.8%
Recent migrants from NC to WC	15.1%	10.7%	19.2%	14.9%
Recent migrants from NC to GAU	12.6%	8.8%	17.3%	9.5%
Recent migrants from NC to NW	40.4%	34.5%	49.1%	36.2%

5.6 HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

Table 43 summarises the household characteristics of the four groups of people. The results could be summarised as follows:

- It is a bit surprising that a higher proportion of people from permanent residents in Northern Cape (group A) stays in a house or brick structure, since one might expect that the migrants have greater probability of being employed and being engaged in more

skilled occupations that pay better, and thus would be able to afford better housing. Is it possible that the migrants prefer to purchase or rent a smaller and cheaper informal dwelling or flat, and only when they settle down they would eventually purchase a house or brick structure? Is the smaller household size of migrants another factor?

- As far as the main energy source for cooking is concerned, the permanent and recent migrants from Northern Cape (groups B and C) clearly fare better, since a higher proportion of them have access to electricity for cooking. The similar trend is found regarding the proportion of people having access to piped water in the dwelling, telephone in dwelling or/and cell phone, and flush or chemical toilet.
- The percentage of people with refuse removed by local authority at least once a week in group B and D are lower than that of group A in Census 1996 (the proportion in group C being slightly higher), while in Census 2001, this proportion is highest in group A. The proportion of people with their own refuse dump seems to be relatively higher in the three migrant groups in both censuses.

Table 43 Household characteristics of the four groups

	Census 1996				Census 2001			
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**A**	**B**	**C**	**D**
HOUSEHOLD SIZE								
Mean household size	6.12	4.87	4.16	4.82	5.60	4.67	4.07	4.31
DWELLING TYPE								
House/Brick structure on a separate stand or yard	74.1%	68.7%	60.2%	60.9%	82.0%	69.9%	62.3%	71.2%
Traditional dwelling/hut	4.5%	8.5%	3.4%	3.9%	3.4%	8.7%	4.2%	3.2%
Flat in a block of flats	0.5%	3.3%	8.7%	1.8%	1.0%	4.9%	8.7%	2.0%
Town/cluster/semi-detached house	7.3%	5.6%	5.0%	3.6%	1.6%	3.4%	4.7%	1.3%
House/flat/room in backyard	1.9%	3.4%	6.2%	4.1%	1.2%	2.6%	4.5%	2.4%
Informal dwelling/shack in backyard	2.0%	2.7%	3.8%	3.3%	2.0%	2.4%	3.0%	2.2%
Informal dwelling/shack not in backyard	7.2%	5.5%	8.1%	20.4%	8.0%	7.2%	10.3%	15.4%
Room/Flatlet not in backyard but on a shared property	1.0%	1.2%	2.1%	1.1%	0.4%	0.7%	1.6%	1.2%
Others	1.5%	1.2%	2.7%	1.2%	0.3%	0.2%	0.7%	1.2%
ENERGY SOURCE FOR COOKING								
Electricity/Solar	52.7%	63.0%	74.4%	50.0%	61.6%	72.2%	74.9%	58.0%
Gas	10.9%	4.1%	4.4%	7.5%	6.9%	3.0%	2.9%	5.0%
Paraffin	16.3%	16.4%	12.8%	22.1%	17.1%	12.0%	12.4%	16.8%
Wood	17.6%	14.7%	6.2%	19.1%	13.5%	10.8%	8.8%	19.6%
Coal/Animal dung/Others/Unspecified	2.5%	1.8%	2.2%	1.4%	1.0%	2.1%	1.0%	0.7%
ACCESS TO TELEPHONE								
Telephone in the dwelling or cellphone	29.5%	44.8%	45.8%	22.4%	41.5%	62.9%	63.2%	41.6%
At a neighbour nearby	19.0%	6.4%	6.3%	11.7%	14.4%	4.9%	6.3%	14.5%
At a public telephone nearby	30.9%	30.6%	31.9%	38.5%	35.5%	24.9%	22.6%	27.8%
At another location nearby	5.9%	4.7%	7.9%	11.8%	2.8%	1.8%	3.1%	7.3%
At another location not nearby	1.9%	5.2%	2.2%	3.1%	1.8%	2.1%	1.7%	3.1%
No access to telephone/Unspecified	12.9%	8.3%	6.0%	12.7%	4.0%	3.4%	3.1%	5.8%
SANITATION								
Flush or chemical toilet	57.0%	67.6%	79.1%	61.0%	69.4%	72.1%	76.7%	62.4%
Pit latrine	11.6%	25.3%	11.2%	10.7%	8.4%	18.7%	9.1%	10.8%
Bucket latrine	22.8%	2.8%	3.5%	15.5%	13.7%	2.3%	4.9%	9.9%
None of the above/Unspecified	8.6%	4.4%	6.2%	12.8%	8.5%	6.9%	9.4%	16.9%
REFUSE REMOVAL								
Removed by local authority at least once a week	72.0%	66.2%	74.6%	68.4%	77.7%	69.9%	73.4%	59.7%
Removed by local authority less often	2.8%	1.2%	1.3%	1.5%	3.2%	2.2%	2.2%	1.9%
Communal refuse dump	4.2%	3.7%	4.7%	4.9%	1.5%	1.2%	1.9%	4.4%
Own refuse dump	15.5%	24.2%	15.0%	19.5%	15.0%	22.7%	20.0%	29.4%
No rubbish disposal/Others/Unspecified	5.5%	4.6%	4.4%	5.7%	2.8%	3.9%	2.5%	4.7%
ACCESS TO WATER								
Piped water in dwelling	47.4%	63.5%	71.5%	47.2%				
Piped water on site	36.4%	9.7%	14.8%	35.5%				
Public tap	8.3%	18.9%	8.4%	9.6%				
Piped water/tap inside dwelling					36.8%	52.5%	60.1%	44.0%
Piped water/tap inside yard					48.6%	22.8%	18.3%	30.8%
Piped water on community stand: < 200m					5.5%	8.1%	8.6%	11.9%
Piped water on community stand: > 200m					6.2%	9.7%	8.9%	9.0%
Others/Unspecified	7.9%	7.9%	5.3%	7.7%	2.9%	6.3%	4.1%	4.3%

5.7 CONCLUSION

To conclude, the permanent and recent migrants from Northern Cape to other provinces have a higher proportion of younger people (25 – 44 years) compared to permanent residents in the provinces. On the other hand, for these two migrant groups, a higher proportion of them are married or live together with a partner, have at least Matric, and are employed. The mean household size is also smaller in the two groups.

Looking at the employment activities of the employed of these two groups in more detail, a higher proportion of them are involved in skilled occupations, and a lower proportion are engaged in the agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing industry. The poverty rate is lowest in the recent migrants from Northern Cape in both censuses, followed by the permanent migrants. Finally, as far as the household services are concerned, the permanent and recent migrants from Northern Cape undoubtedly fare better in all services, with the exception of dwelling type and refuse removal.

Appendix VIII complements this chapter by providing more detail on the recent migrants from Northern Cape, presenting a similar descriptive analysis on the recent migrants to the top three destination provinces – Western Cape, Gauteng and North West.

CHAPTER 6
A MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF THE NORTHERN CAPE MIGRANTS

The preceding analysis is limited because it only takes one or two variables into account when describing the province and the migration groups. Thus, the purpose of this section is to investigate the role of various factors in influencing whether or not a person from Northern Cape would migrate, where he would move if he decides to migrate, and if the migration decision subsequently has an impact on his labour force participation and employment prospects.

6.1 MIGRATION DECISION AT THE CENSUS YEAR

The focus of this section is on whether the people who still resided in Northern Cape at the end of 1995 (2000) would migrate to another province in 1996 (2001), and where they would move if they decide to migrate. The focus of the econometric analysis is on migration of people aged 5 years or above in the census year, i.e., recent migration from Northern Cape to another province in 1996 and 2001 respectively[31].

The variables included in the analysis are the following:

- Age: the population is broken down into the following age categories: 5 –14 years, 15 – 24 years (the reference group), 35 – 44 years, 45 – 54 years, 55 – 65 years, and 66 years or above.
- Gender (reference group: male).
- Race (reference group: Black).
- Marital status: a dichotomous variable, reflecting an individual is married (or living together with a partner as husband and wife) or not.
- Number of children aged 0-15 years in the household.
- Number of elderly aged 60 years or older in the household.
- Education: five education categories are identified: no schooling (the reference group), incomplete primary education, incomplete secondary education, Matric, and post-Matric qualifications.

[31] It is difficult to conduct econometric analysis on migration decision during certain years (e.g., recent migration out of Northern Cape from 1991 to 1996), since it is difficult to work 'backwards' to find out certain characteristics of the migrants. For example, for someone migrating out of Northern Cape in 1991, it is quite easy to find out his age, gender, home language, etc. in 1991. However, it would be difficult to find out his marital status, educational attainment, number of children and elderly in the household, etc. at that time. For example, if someone declared in Census 1996 that his highest educational attainment was Grade 11, there is no way one could decide with certainty that his educational attainment in 1991 was Grade 6, since he might have stopped studying between 1991 and 1996 for certain reasons (e.g., study fee too expensive, repeating a grade, etc.). Also, it is possible that a migrant was still single when he migrated in 1991 but was married at the time of Census 1996.

- The unemployment rate in the magisterial district (MD) of origin at the time of the census (Table A9.1). This variable will be used in the Census 1996 regressions, since the 1996 data file only provides information on the migrants' MD of origin.
- The unemployment rate in the municipality of origin at the time of the census (Table A9.1). This variable will be used in the Census 2001 regressions, since the 2001 data file only provides information on the migrants' municipality (but not MD) of origin.
- Poverty rate in the MD and municipality of origin in 1996 and 2001 respectively. As mentioned in section 3.5.4, the poverty line used is R3000 per annum, 2000 prices. There will be two poverty rate variables, with the first one derived by including households earning zero income, and the second one derived by excluding households earning zero income. Table A10.1 of Appendix X provides the figures.
- Percentage of population in each MD (municipality) staying in rural area in 1996 (2001).
- The district council (DC) of origin. The reference group is Diamandveld in 1996 and Frances Baard in 2001.

Tables 44 and 45 present the results of the logit regressions showing the probability of migration from Northern Cape to another province in the census year. In interpreting the results, it is important to remember that the reference group in terms of the categorical variables is male, unmarried (or not living together with a partner), Black, aged 15 – 24 years, with no schooling, coming from the Diamandveld and Frances Baard DCs in 1996 and 2001 respectively.

The results of the regressions, which apply in both years unless stated otherwise, could be summarized as follows:

- Only people aged 15 – 24 years migrate more than the reference group (people aged 25 – 34 years). On the other hand, the youngest age group (5 – 14 years) is less likely to migrate. Additionally, in 1996, the likelihood of migration consistently declines as one moves to the older age groups.
- Females migrate more than males, especially in 1996.
- In 1996, Indians are less likely to migrate, but the opposite happens in the case of Whites. On the other hand, in 2001, Coloureds are less likely to migrate, but Indians and Whites are more likely to migrate.
- Marriage decreases the probability of migration.
- Household heads are more likely to migrate.
- The presence of children or/and elderly in the household reduces the likelihood of migration.
- The more educated the person is, the more likely he is to migrate.
- The higher the broad unemployment rate in the MD of origin, the more likely the person would migrate.
- In 1996, the higher the poverty rate in the MD of origin, the more likely it is the person would migrate. In contrast, in Census 2001, the same significant relationship only occurs in regression C of Table 45 (the poverty rate variable derived by including households with zero income). However, there is a significant but negative relationship between the poverty rate derived by excluding households with zero income and probability of migrating out of Northern Cape, as shown in regressions D, F and I.

- In 1996, people from the Hantam, Kalahari and Upper Karoo DCs are more likely to move out of the Northern Cape, but the opposite happens in the case of people from Namaqualand, compared with Diamandveld. In 2001, people from the Namakwa, Karoo, Siyanda and Kgalagadi DCs are more likely to migrate, compared with Frances Baard. Note that when both poverty rate, unemployment rate and the DC dummies are included in the regression in 1996 (i.e., columns H and I of Table 44), the coefficients of the poverty rate variables becomes negative but significant.
- A more urbanised MD of origin is associated with a higher probability of migration.

Table 44 Logit regression showing the probability of migration from Northern Cape to another province in the first nine months of 1996

Dependent variable: probability of migration from Northern Cape to another province										
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**	**I**	**J**
Age 5-14 years	-0.580 (13.56)***	-0.587 (13.72)***	-0.573 (13.39)***	-0.575 (13.42)***	-0.582 (13.58)***	-0.583 (13.62)***	-0.571 (13.32)***	-0.597 (13.90)***	-0.598 (13.93)***	-0.594 (13.87)***
Age 15-24 years	0.165 (6.04)***	0.163 (5.96)***	0.160 (5.84)***	0.162 (5.90)***	0.160 (5.83)***	0.161 (5.87)***	0.147 (5.36)***	0.155 (5.65)***	0.156 (5.69)***	0.164 (6.00)***
Age 35-44 years	-0.409 (12.81)***	-0.415 (12.98)***	-0.408 (12.78)***	-0.408 (12.79)***	-0.413 (12.94)***	-0.414 (12.96)***	-0.419 (13.10)***	-0.429 (13.39)***	-0.429 (13.40)***	-0.414 (12.98)***
Age 45-54 years	-1.165 (25.43)***	-1.173 (25.58)***	-1.164 (25.40)***	-1.165 (25.41)***	-1.171 (25.54)***	-1.172 (25.56)***	-1.158 (25.21)***	-1.166 (25.39)***	-1.167 (25.40)***	-1.169 (25.51)***
Age 55-65 years	-1.232 (20.22)***	-1.233 (20.25)***	-1.231 (20.22)***	-1.232 (20.22)***	-1.233 (20.24)***	-1.233 (20.24)***	-1.256 (20.59)***	-1.261 (20.69)***	-1.263 (20.71)***	-1.232 (20.24)***
Age 66+ years	-0.761 (10.88)***	-0.762 (10.89)***	-0.762 (10.89)***	-0.762 (10.89)***	-0.762 (10.90)***	-0.762 (10.90)***	-0.794 (11.31)***	-0.795 (11.33)***	-0.795 (11.34)***	-0.757 (10.82)***
Female	0.283 (13.48)***	0.284 (13.50)***	0.282 (13.44)***	0.283 (13.45)***	0.283 (13.48)***	0.283 (13.48)***	0.271 (12.86)***	0.270 (12.85)***	0.270 (12.84)***	0.283 (13.47)***
Coloured	-0.010 (0.44)	0.026 (1.08)	-0.003 (0.13)	-0.007 (-0.29)	0.026 (1.10)	0.026 (1.07)	-0.063 (2.50)*	-0.050 (1.97)*	-0.049 (1.95)***	0.045 (1.85)*
Indian	-1.211 (3.99)***	-1.224 (4.03)***	-1.191 (3.92)***	-1.196 (3.94)***	-1.210 (3.98)***	-1.215 (4.00)***	-1.079 (3.55)***	-1.145 (3.77)***	-1.149 (3.78)***	-1.244 (4.10)***
White	0.618 (20.73)***	0.650 (21.54)***	0.622 (20.83)***	0.620 (20.78)***	0.649 (21.49)***	0.649 (21.50)***	0.569 (18.67)***	0.585 (19.23)***	0.586 (19.25)***	0.653 (21.74)***
Married or live together with a partner	-0.230 (9.27)***	-0.227 (9.16)***	-0.233 (9.39)***	-0.232 (9.35)***	-0.229 (9.25)***	-0.228 (9.21)***	-0.253 (10.17)***	-0.244 (9.79)***	-0.243 (9.76)***	-0.229 (9.26)***
Household head	0.284 (11.10)***	0.288 (11.26)***	0.281 (11.00)***	0.282 (11.02)***	0.286 (11.17)***	0.287 (11.20)***	0.259 (10.11)***	0.267 (10.44)***	0.268 (10.46)***	0.288 (11.27)***
Number of children aged 0-15 years	-0.370 (44.07)***	-0.372 (44.26)***	-0.371 (44.21)***	-0.371 (44.17)***	-0.372 (44.33)***	-0.372 (44.30)***	-0.369 (44.15)***	-0.368 (43.94)***	-0.368 (43.91)***	-0.370 (44.07)***
Number of elderly aged 60 years or above	-0.490 (19.80)***	-0.494 (19.96)***	-0.493 (19.92)***	-0.492 (19.89)***	-0.496 (20.02)***	-0.495 (20.00)***	-0.493 (19.94)***	-0.490 (19.81)***	-0.490 (19.81)***	-0.491 (19.84)***
Incomplete primary	0.299 (8.29)***	0.297 (8.23)***	0.307 (8.50)***	0.305 (8.44)***	0.303 (8.38)***	0.300 (8.32)***	0.342 (9.45)***	0.321 (8.87)***	0.320 (8.83)***	0.296 (8.21)***
Incomplete secondary	0.419 (12.20)***	0.409 (11.88)***	0.443 (12.73)***	0.437 (12.55)***	0.426 (12.18)***	0.420 (12.03)***	0.516 (14.92)***	0.449 (12.84)***	0.444 (12.71)***	0.397 (11.51)***
Matric	0.749 (18.47)***	0.735 (18.10)***	0.775 (18.91)***	0.768 (18.74)***	0.753 (18.31)***	0.747 (18.16)***	0.859 (21.06)***	0.785 (19.08)***	0.780 (18.94)***	0.720 (17.69)***
Post-Matric qualifications	0.443 (8.85)***	0.431 (8.60)***	0.468 (9.28)***	0.461 (9.15)***	0.449 (8.88)***	0.442 (8.77)***	0.517 (10.27)***	0.445 (8.79)***	0.440 (8.70)***	0.416 (8.29)***
Broad unemployment rate in MD of origin		0.009 (6.70)***			0.008 (5.74)***	0.008 (6.12)***		0.011 (6.89)***	0.010 (6.39)***	
Poverty rate in MD of origin – including households with zero income			0.004 (4.41)***		0.003 (2.80)**			-0.015 (12.28)***		
Poverty rate in MD of origin – excluding households with zero income				0.003 (3.26)***		0.002 (1.87)			-0.015 (13.31)***	
DC of origin: Hantam							0.656 (15.78)***	0.801 (17.44)***	0.821 (17.79)***	
DC of origin: Kalahari							0.334 (10.31)***	0.373 (10.50)***	0.344 (9.60)***	
DC of origin: Lower Orange							-0.070 (2.21)*	0.005 (0.14)	0.016 (0.48)	
DC or origin: Namaqualand							-0.134 (3.13)**	-0.268 (5.66)***	-0.277 (5.87)***	
DC of origin: Upper Karoo							0.794 (30.28)***	0.932 (32.35)***	0.949 (32.78)***	
% of rural population in the MD of origin										-0.004 (8.15)***
Constant	-3.702 (86.58)***	-3.967 (67.80)***	-3.924 (59.34)***	-3.848 (62.07)***	-4.081 (57.30)***	-4.035 (58.63)***	-3.917 (88.55)***	-3.489 (40.36)***	-3.499 (41.83)***	-3.612 (81.84)***
Number of observations	656,307 (weighted)									
Chi-square	9,397	9,441	9,416	9,407	9,449	9,445	10,659	10,842	10,869	9,464
Probability > Chi-square	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Pseudo-R^2	0.0840	0.0844	0.0842	0.0841	0.0845	0.0841	0.0953	0.0970	0.0972	0.0846

Absolute values of Z-statistics in parentheses.

*** - significant at the 0.001 level
** - significant at the 0.01 level
* - significant at the 0.05 level

Table 45 Logit regression showing the probability of migration from Northern Cape to another province in the first nine months of 2001

Dependent variable: probability of migration from Northern Cape to another province										
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	**G**	**H**	**I**	**J**
Age 5-14 years	-0.317 (7.71)***	-0.328 (7.96)***	-0.317 (7.70)***	-0.319 (7.75)***	-0.328 (7.98)***	-0.332 (8.07)***	-0.302 (7.34)***	-0.328 (7.96)***	-0.329 (8.00)***	-0.331 (8.03)***
Age 15-24 years	0.239 (9.16)***	0.238 (9.13)***	0.237 (9.06)***	0.243 (9.30)***	0.240 (9.16)***	0.245 (9.35)***	0.236 (9.02)***	0.240 (9.14)***	0.242 (9.21)***	0.244 (9.32)***
Age 35-44 years	-0.583 (19.24)***	-0.589 (19.41)***	-0.583 (19.22)***	-0.585 (19.29)***	-0.589 (19.43)***	-0.592 (19.53)***	-0.578 (19.02)***	-0.591 (19.44)***	-0.593 (19.48)***	-0.591 (19.49)***
Age 45-54 years	-0.988 (26.89)***	-1.000 (27.17)***	-0.988 (26.90)***	-0.988 (26.89)***	-1.000 (27.18)***	-1.002 (27.24)***	-0.972 (26.40)***	-0.998 (27.07)***	-0.999 (27.10)***	-1.001 (27.21)***
Age 55-65 years	-1.179 (23.05)***	-1.193 (23.32)***	-1.180 (23.07)***	-1.180 (23.07)***	-1.194 (23.32)***	-1.197 (23.38)***	-1.168 (22.82)***	-1.199 (23.40)***	-1.201 (23.44)***	-1.192 (23.30)***
Age 66+ years	-1.076 (15.77)***	-1.089 (15.96)***	-1.077 (15.79)***	-1.076 (15.78)***	-1.090 (15.97)***	-1.092 (16.00)***	-1.060 (15.51)***	-1.087 (15.91)***	-1.089 (15.93)***	-1.090 (15.98)***
Female	0.108 (5.75)***	0.107 (5.67)***	0.108 (5.73)***	0.109 (5.79)***	0.107 (5.68)***	0.108 (5.71)***	0.112 (5.95)***	0.109 (5.78)***	0.109 (5.80)***	0.107 (5.70)***
Coloured	-0.252 (11.72)***	-0.228 (10.45)***	-0.246 (11.38)***	-0.257 (11.94)***	-0.229 (10.47)***	-0.232 (10.65)***	-0.349 (14.98)***	-0.316 (13.52)***	-0.322 (13.74)***	-0.240 (11.13)***
Indian	1.910 (23.45)***	1.912 (23.48)***	1.920 (23.53)***	1.897 (23.25)***	1.908 (23.40)***	1.892 (23.20)***	1.949 (23.83)***	1.973 (24.11)***	1.961 (23.98)***	1.898 (23.29)***
White	0.541 (20.85)***	0.569 (21.67)***	0.545 (20.94)***	0.538 (20.74)***	0.569 (21.67)***	0.569 (21.70)***	0.428 (16.03)***	0.471 (17.63)***	0.469 (17.56)***	0.560 (21.53)***
Married or live together with a partner	-0.090 (3.94)***	-0.084 (3.66)***	-0.091 (4.00)***	-0.086 (3.78)***	-0.083 (3.61)***	-0.077 (3.37)***	-0.093 (4.06)***	-0.070 (3.07)**	-0.068 (2.95)**	-0.078 (3.40)***
Household head	0.297 (12.84)***	0.302 (13.05)***	0.296 (12.81)***	0.299 (12.91)***	0.303 (13.07)***	0.306 (13.19)***	0.282 (12.18)***	0.292 (12.59)***	0.294 (12.65)***	0.304 (13.11)***
Number of children aged 0-15 years	-0.354 (43.59)***	-0.356 (43.78)***	-0.355 (43.65)***	-0.353 (43.43)***	-0.356 (43.73)***	-0.355 (43.59)***	-0.351 (43.37)***	-0.358 (43.98)***	-0.357 (43.91)***	-0.356 (43.74)***
Number of elderly aged 60 years or above	-0.454 (20.04)***	-0.454 (20.03)***	-0.454 (20.05)***	-0.454 (20.02)***	-0.454 (20.03)***	-0.453 (20.00)***	-0.450 (19.81)***	-0.448 (19.72)***	-0.448 (19.70)***	-0.453 (19.99)***
Incomplete primary	-0.167 (4.53)***	-0.176 (4.78)***	-0.165 (4.49)***	-0.171 (4.64)***	-0.177 (4.80)***	-0.183 (4.98)***	-0.155 (4.21)***	-0.185 (5.01)***	-0.188 (5.10)***	-0.184 (4.99)***
Incomplete secondary	0.228 (6.82)***	0.205 (6.10)***	0.233 (6.95)***	0.217 (6.46)***	0.202 (5.94)***	0.184 (5.42)***	0.274 (8.13)***	0.203 (5.96)***	0.195 (5.74)***	0.188 (5.54)***
Matric	0.552 (14.90)***	0.525 (14.08)***	0.558 (15.02)***	0.538 (14.43)***	0.521 (13.82)***	0.499 (13.25)***	0.597 (16.02)***	0.508 (13.44)***	0.498 (13.18)***	0.503 (13.39)***
Post-Matric qualifications	0.811 (18.87)***	0.783 (18.14)***	0.818 (18.97)***	0.796 (18.43)***	0.778 (17.88)***	0.756 (17.36)***	0.864 (19.99)***	0.791 (18.13)***	0.780 (17.89)***	0.762 (17.54)***
Broad unemployment rate in the municipality of origin		0.006 (6.58)***			0.006 (6.29)***	0.007 (7.45)***		0.021 (17.20)***	0.021 (18.47)***	
Poverty rate in the municipality of origin – including households with zero income			0.002 (2.07)*		-0.001 (0.79)			-0.002 (1.40)		
Poverty rate in the municipality of origin – excluding households with zero income				-0.004 (3.18)***		-0.005 (4.77)***			-0.005 (3.78)***	
DC of origin: Namakwa							0.416 (13.58)***	0.584 (17.70)***	0.568 (17.28)***	
DC of origin: Karoo							0.436 (17.11)***	0.473 (16.64)***	0.510 (17.35)***	
DC of origin: Siyanda							0.138 (5.41)***	0.333 (12.04)***	0.347 (12.45)***	
DC or origin: Kgalagadi							0.860 (26.44)***	1.219 (31.83)***	1.197 (30.78)***	
% of rural population in the MD of origin										-0.004 (7.37)***
Constant	-3.337 (80.84)***	-3.556 (66.77)***	-3.460 (48.00)***	-3.176 (48.63)***	-3.517 (48.32)***	-3.347 (48.36)***	-3.547 (82.86)***	-4.317 (50.24)***	-4.191 (49.83)***	-3.243 (75.25)***
Number of observations	676,993 (weighted)									
Chi-square	12,059	12,103	12,063	12,069	12,104	12,126	12,876	13,231	13,244	12,116
Probability > Chi-square	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Pseudo-R^2	0.0929	0.0932	0.0929	0.0930	0.0932	0.0934	0.0992	0.1019	0.1020	0.0933

Absolute values of Z-statistics in parentheses.
*** - significant at the 0.001 level
** - significant at the 0.01 level
* - significant at the 0.05 level

The logit regressions only make the investigation of the characteristics of Northern Cape migrants to other provinces possible, yet one might want to know if the characteristics of migrants to one province differ from those to other provinces, or to the non-migrants. To this end, Tables 46 and 47 present the multinomial logistic regressions[32], showing the probability of migrants moving to Western Cape, Gauteng, North West or other provinces rather than not migrating in the Census year. The results of the regressions, which apply in both years unless stated otherwise, could be summarised as follows:

- In 1996, the Northern Cape people aged 15 – 24 years are more likely to migrate to Gauteng and North West, while in 2001, they are more likely to migrate to the Western Cape (compared with the reference age group).
- Females are more likely to migrate to other provinces except North West.
- The Coloured population are more likely to migrate to the Western Cape, while the White population are more likely to migrate to other provinces but North West.
- In 1996, marriage decreases the probability of migrating to any other province, except Gauteng. In 2001, marriage decreases likelihood of migrating to the Western Cape and Gauteng, but increases the probability of moving to other provinces, except North West.
- Being the household head reduces the likelihood of staying in the Northern Cape.
- The presence of children in the household is associated with increasing likelihood of staying in Northern Cape, while the opposite happens in the presence of elderly.
- A higher educational attainment is associated with increasing probability of migrating to other provinces, except migration to the North West province.
- In 1996, the higher the broad unemployment in the MD of origin, the more likely a person would move to Gauteng but the less likely he would move to North West. The same thing happens in 2001, except that the person is also more likely to migrate to Western Cape.
- In 1996, compared with people from Diamandveld, those from Hantam, Lower Orange, Namaqualand and Upper Karoo are more likely to migrate to Western Cape, while the Kalahari people are more likely to migrate to North West. In 2001, in comparison with people from Frances Baard, the people from Namakwa, Karoo and Siyanda are less likely to move to Gauteng, but more likely to migrate to Western Cape.

[32] Multinomial logistic regression involves a nominal dependent variable with more than two categories. The dependent variable with k categories will generate (k – 1) equations. Each of these (k – 1) equations is a binary logistic regression comparing a group with the reference group.

Table 46 Multinomial logit regression showing the probability of migration from Northern Cape to Western Cape, Gauteng, North West and other provinces, compared to non-migration in the first nine months of 1996

	Migration to Western Cape	**Migration to Gauteng**	**Migration to North West**	**Migration to other provinces**
Age 5-14 years	-0.798*** (12.85)	-0.217* (2.00)	-0.502*** (4.51)	-0.303** (3.34)
Age 15-24 years	0.068 (1.73)	0.223*** (3.63)	0.268*** (3.48)	0.131* (2.22)
Age 35-44 years	-0.470*** (9.96)	-0.339*** (4.77)	0.038 (0.46)	-0.738*** (10.11)
Age 45-54 years	-1.246*** (17.86)	-1.295*** (12.21)	-0.625*** (5..39)	-1.252*** (13.07)
Age 55-65 years	-0.809*** (10.85)	-1.787*** (10.57)	-1.431*** (6.12)	-2.329*** (12.37)
Age 66+ years	-0.751*** (7.49)	-0.985*** (5.76)	-0.370 (1.43)	-0.965*** (7.17)
Female	0.345*** (11.33)	0.362*** (7.42)	-0.085 (1.49)	0.264*** (5.81)
Coloured	0.656*** (14.74)	-0.439*** (7.41)	-1.461*** (17.43)	-0.097 (1.75)
Indian	0.611* (2.00)	-42.742 (0.00)	-42.755 (0.00)	-42.452 (0.00)
White	1.007*** (18.60)	0.392*** (6.19)	-0.225** (2.90)	0.971*** (16.39)
Married or live together with a partner	-0.338*** (9.38)	-0.075 (1.34)	-0.315*** (4.61)	-0.212*** (3.88)
Household head	0.142*** (3.83)	0.396*** (6.92)	0.198** (2.84)	0.424*** (7.63)
Number of children aged 0-15 years	-0.380*** (31.68)	-0.542*** (24.46)	-0.158*** (8.14)	-0.370*** (19.89)
Number of elderly aged 60 years or above	-0.567*** (16.03)	-0.458 (7.71)	-0.931*** (10.03)	-0.206*** (4..39)
Incomplete primary	0.589*** (10.92)	0.304** (3.13)	-0.200* (2.40)	0.427*** (5.17)
Incomplete secondary	0.735*** (13.98)	0.795*** (9.00)	0.109 (1.41)	0.463*** (5.72)
Matric	0.797*** (12.40)	1.421*** (14.61)	0.379*** (3.79)	1.124*** (12.58)
Post-Matric qualifications	0.601*** (7.76)	0.649*** (5.27)	0.054 (0.40)	0.927*** (9.02)
Broad unemployment rate in the MD of origin	-0.004 (1.83)	0.012** (3.11)	-0.052*** (11.57)	0.058*** (21.05)
DC of origin: Hantam	1.878*** (31.98)	-2.036*** (6.62)	-42.279 (0.00)	-2.009*** (6.29)
DC of origin: Kalahari	-0.067 (0.83)	0.064 (0.81)	0.911*** (14.14)	0.229** (3.01)
DC of origin: Lower Orange	0.868*** (17.14)	0.079 (1.14)	-1.608*** (11.13)	-2.223*** (12.79)
DC of origin: Namaqualand	1.029*** (17.89)	-1.690*** (9.18)	-42.255 (0.00)	-1.927*** (8.85)
DC of origin: Upper Karoo	1.730*** (39.38)	-0.023 (0.34)	-2.195*** (9.66)	0.515*** (10.49)
Constant	-5.754*** (56.00)	-5.767*** (35.79)	-3.328*** (20.78)	-7.223*** (52.90)
Number of observations	656,307 (weighted)			
Chi-square	18,600.07			
Probability > Chi-square	0.0000			
Pseudo-R^2	0.1332			

Comparison group: non-migration (i.e., still staying in Northern Cape at the time of Census 1996)

Absolute values of Z-statistics in parentheses.
*** - significant at the 0.001 level
** - significant at the 0.01 level
* - significant at the 0.05 level

Table 47 Multinomial logit regression showing the probability of migration from Northern Cape to Western Cape, Gauteng, North West and other provinces, compared to non-migration in the first nine months of 2001

	Migration to Western Cape	**Migration to Gauteng**	**Migration to North West**	**Migration to other provinces**
Age 5-14 years	-0.473*** (7.37)	-0.155 (1.67)	-0.249* (2.24)	-0.132 (1.64)
Age 15-24 years	0.296*** (7.22)	0.056 (1.07)	0.054 (0.70)	0.378*** (7.24)
Age 35-44 years	-0.482*** (9.85)	-0.642*** (10.45)	-0.695*** (7.55)	-0.640*** (11.22)
Age 45-54 years	-0.975*** (16.25)	-1.887*** (18.25)	0.089 (1.10)	-1.199*** (16.45)
Age 55-65 years	-1.150*** (13.47)	-1.109*** (10.87)	-1.976*** (9.47)	-1.159*** (13.02)
Age 66+ years	-0.621*** (5.97)	-1.539*** (7.84)	-1.890*** (8.36)	-1.184*** (10.03)
Female	0.065* (2.22)	0.268*** (6.82)	0.021 (0.40)	0.094* (2.54)
Coloured	0.559*** (13.69)	-0.170*** (3.48)	-1.631*** (21.53)	-1.194*** (23.27)
Indian	1.584*** (7.53)	2.925*** (27.98)	-32.288 (0.00)	1.618*** (10.30)
White	0.976*** (20.16)	0.388*** (7.38)	-0.778*** (9.07)	0.637*** (13.40)
Married or live together with a partner	-0.267*** (7.30)	-0.201*** (4.25)	-0.013 (0.20)	0.308*** (6.89)
Household head	0.216*** (5.92)	0.357*** (7.59)	0.439*** (6.62)	0.267*** (5.91)
Number of children aged 0-15 years	-0.435*** (32.91)	-0.489*** (25.85)	-0.186*** (9.32)	-0.245*** (16.23)
Number of elderly aged 60 years or above	-0.710*** (17.96)	-0.800*** (13.85)	0.069 (1.30)	-0.163*** (4.21)
Incomplete primary	0.244*** (4.05)	0.023 (0.22)	-0.943*** (10.45)	-0.381*** (5.47)
Incomplete secondary	0.428*** (7.43)	0.896*** (9.82)	-0.189* (2.53)	-0.110 (1.72)
Matric	0.626*** (9.79)	1.388*** (14.53)	-0.026 (0.28)	0.254*** (3.61)
Post-Matric qualifications	0.668*** (8.68)	1.633*** (15.70)	0.041 (0.32)	0.828*** (10.85)
Broad unemployment rate in the municipality of origin	0.019*** (11.26)	0.032*** (12.20)	0.001 (0.20)	0.026*** (12.21)
DC of origin: Namakwa	1.339*** (27.08)	-0.624*** (7.32)	0.195 (1.67)	0.594*** (8.79)
DC of origin: Karoo	1.149*** (26.16)	-0.455*** (7.75)	-0.714*** (6.72)	0.712*** (15.68)
DC of origin: Siyanda	0.911*** (19.31)	-0.438*** (7.23)	0.345*** (4.76)	0.392*** (7.53)
DC of origin: Kgalagadi	1.444*** (20.89)	1.082*** (13.96)	1.419*** (16.10)	1.155*** (15.77)
Constant	-6.251*** (58.79)	-6.418*** (41.44)	-4.918*** (31.51)	-6.020*** (48.55)
Number of observations	676,993 (weighted)			
Chi-square	18,621.09			
Probability > Chi-square	0.0000			
Pseudo-R^2	0.1135			

Comparison group: non-migration (i.e., people still staying in Northern Cape at the time of Census 2001)

Absolute values of Z-statistics in parentheses.

*** - significant at the 0.001 level

** - significant at the 0.01 level

* - significant at the 0.05 level

6.2 BROAD LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND EMPLOYMENT

6.2.1 Introduction

Some theories, such as the neoclassical economic theory, under the literature review section in Chapter 2 explain that better employment prospects is one of the reasons for migration. On the other hand, section 3.3.1 clearly shows that provinces like Western Cape and Gauteng have better employment prospects compared with Northern Cape, as indicated by a relatively higher broad LFPR and lower unemployment rate. Section 5.4 also shows that, compared with the permanent residents, a higher proportion of both the permanent and recent migrants from the Northern Cape to other provinces are employed and enjoy lower income poverty (the higher probability of employment and lower poverty are more relatively noticeable in the case of recent migrants). Therefore, the modeling work in this section flows directly from these previous discussions, and focuses on the broad labour force participation and employment probability of the recent migrants.

6.2.2 Labour force participation and employment of recent migrants to the three favourite destination provinces

As discussed in section 4.4, the Western Cape, Gauteng and North West and the three most favoured provinces of destination for recent migrants from the Northern Cape. Thus, this section looks at the labour force participation and employment probabilities of these migrants in these three provinces.

The model is structured as follows: first, in each province, we begin with a full sample of potential labour market participants (i.e., people aged 15 – 65 years and who usually reside in the relevant province at the time of the Census) and estimate a participation probability model, using logit regressions. Then, a Heckman two-step approach is used to derive the employment probability estimates, conditional on the characteristics of all labour market participants as well as conditional on the fact that these are the actual participants taken from a full sample of potential labour market participants[33].

Most of the explanatory variables in section 6.1 are used in this section's econometric analysis, with the addition of the following variables:

- Number of children aged 0-6 years in the household.
- Number of children aged 7-14 years in the household.
- Number of males aged 15-59 years in the household.
- Number of females aged 15-59 years in the household.

[33] The Heckman two-step approach aims to cope with the sample selection issue: having estimated the participation probit, these estimates are used to derive the estimate for the invest Mills ratio (i.e., lambda) for inclusion in the employment probit. It is the inclusion of the lambda that allows one to make the employment probit conditional on positive participation. If the lambda is significant in the regression, it means that sampling bias does exist in the sample and needs to be corrected for through the inclusion of lambda.

- Area type of the place of destination.
- Number of other income earners in the household, regardless of age.
- A dummy variable indicating whether the person is a recent migrant from Northern Cape.

First, Table 48 presents the logit regression results on the probability of participating in the labour force in the three provinces, and it is obvious that the recent migrants from Northern Cape dummy variable is positive and significant in all regressions, except in North West in Census 1996.

Having considered the determinants of participation (Table 48), the sample of individuals who decide to participate are retained, and the probability that they will find work is estimated in turn. In other words, a Heckprobit model is estimated, and the results are presented in Table 49. It can be seen that the lambda is significant, which indicates the presence of sampling bias. On the other hand, the recent migrants from the Northern Cape dummy variable is positive and significant in all regressions, except in North West in Census 1996. Therefore, the results suggest that the recent migrants from Northern Cape, having decided to participate in the labour market, enjoy a high probability of finding work in the top three destination provinces in both censuses (except in North West in 1996).

Table 48 Logit regressions showing the probability of participating in the labour force (broad definition) in Western Cape, Gauteng and North West

	Western Cape		**Gauteng**		**North West**	
	Census 1996	**Census 2001**	**Census 1996**	**Census 2001**	**Census 1996**	**Census 2001**
Age 15-24 years	-1.408*** (295.45)	-1.537*** (337.62)	-1.799*** (522.64)	-1.971*** (601.10)	-1.991*** (396.73)	-1.975*** (402.74)
Age 35-44 years	-0.248*** (46.55)	-0.266*** (53.21)	0.068*** (15.98)	-0.024*** (5.81)	0.024*** (4.07)	-0.102*** (18.15)
Age 45-54 years	-0.997*** (169.70)	-0.982*** (184.09)	-0.594*** (127.42)	-0.667*** (157.57)	-0.629*** (94.60)	-0.732*** (120.24)
Age 55-65 years	-2.384*** (343.68)	-2.394*** (381.97)	-2.126*** (402.32)	-2.159*** (461.64)	-1.978*** (254.96)	-2.124*** (301.15)
Female	-0.754*** (193.79)	-0.758*** (221.00)	-0.464*** (155.58)	-0.534*** (205.90)	-0.716*** (171.29)	-0.711*** (186.92)
Coloured	0.051*** (12.86)	-0.317*** (86.95)	-0.209*** (32.05)	-0.144*** (25.19)	0.075*** (4.93)	-0.056*** (4.24)
Indian	-0.597*** (37.61)	-0.918*** (65.98)	-0.881*** (108.44)	-0.947*** (143.52)	-0.635*** (18.80)	-0.708*** (23.46)
White	-0.505*** (90.57)	-0.927*** (178.15)	-0.647*** (183.18)	-0.758*** (239.40)	-0.646*** (79.98)	-0.862*** (119.16)
Married or live together with a partner	0.149*** (37.92)	0.131*** (36.25)	0.408*** (134.42)	0.359*** (131.14)	0.278*** (61.26)	0.238*** (57.19)
Household head	1.117*** (233.84)	0.786*** (191.86)	1.198*** (325.46)	0.806*** (261.13)	0.827*** (166.05)	0.614*** (137.01)
Number of children aged 0-6 years	0.023*** (11.68)	0.044*** (23.08)	0.004* (2.40)	0.044*** (28.86)	0.014*** (7.38)	0.022*** (11.85)
Number of children aged 7-14 years	-0.138*** (80.25)	-0.097*** (59.09)	-0.155*** (110.80)	-0.166*** (128.68)	-0.120*** (73.83)	-0.108*** (67.81)
Number of male aged 15-59 years	-0.042*** (24.05)	-0.033*** (21.52)	-0.041*** (33.19)	-0.023*** (20.27)	-0.024*** (13.61)	0.002 (1.35)
Number of female aged 15-59 years	0.065*** (37.67)	0.072*** (46.27)	-0.019*** (15.56)	0.017*** (15.39)	0.031*** (18.27)	0.074*** (44.66)
Number of elderly aged 60 years or above	-0.148*** (46.40)	-0.158*** (53.91)	-0.170*** (72.82)	-0.206*** (92.73)	-0.167*** (50.34)	-0.170*** (53.79)
Incomplete primary	0.141*** (18.00)	0.029*** (3.76)	0.140*** (23.86)	0.014** (2.58)	0.154*** (26.32)	0.135*** (24.64)
Incomplete secondary	0.161*** (22.20)	0.107*** (15.01)	0.013*** (2.69)	-0.027*** (5.76)	-0.037*** (7.08)	0.104*** (20.71)
Matric	0.894*** (107.32)	0.977*** (123.50)	0.689*** (123.76)	0.734*** (145.17)	0.950*** (128.73)	1.236*** (187.38)
Post-Matric qualifications	1.282*** (131.27)	1.159*** (126.54)	1.187*** (163.82)	0.906*** (151.46)	1.534*** (115.30)	1.591*** (146.80)
Urban	-0.429*** (76.78)	-0.461*** (87.35)	-0.101*** (14.05)	-0.142*** (23.03)	0.206*** (52.65)	0.199*** (57.13)
Number of other income earners in the household, regardless of age	0.043*** (24.78)	0.016*** (10.41)	0.083*** (60.82)	-0.001 (-0.62)	0.104*** (52.12)	0.026*** (13.36)
Recent migrants from NC	0.304*** (13.08)	0.326*** (15.64)	0.341*** (9.03)	0.222*** (7.27)	0.037 (0.95)	0.095** (2.64)
Constant	1.751*** (167.77)	2.303*** (230.67)	1.647*** (176.87)	2.198*** (264.07)	1.152*** (143.56)	1.279*** (167.07)
Number of observations (weighted)	2,292,895	2,864,911	4,361,507	5,916,711	1,786,572	2,163,160
Chi-square	523,700	625,317	1,241,148	1,513,743	561,456	617,925
Probability > Chi-square	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Pseudo-R^2	0.1796	0.1762	0.2358	0.2271	0.2303	0.2163

Absolute values of Z-statistics in parentheses.
*** - significant at the 0.001 level
** - significant at the 0.01 level
* - significant at the 0.05 level

Table 49 Heckprobit regressions on the probability of being employed in Western Cape, Gauteng and North West, conditional on participation

	Western Cape		**Gauteng**		**North West**	
	Census 1996	**Census 2001**	**Census 1996**	**Census 2001**	**Census 1996**	**Census 2001**
Age 15-24 years	-0.129*** (12.02)	-0.140*** (13.38)	0.066*** (8.67)	0.045*** (6.33)	0.226*** (16.15)	0.115*** (7.69)
Age 35-44 years	0.197*** (18.81)	0.230*** (25.94)	0.251*** (39.34)	0.276*** (49.65)	0.241*** (23.84)	0.347*** (36.77)
Age 45-54 years	0.376*** (27.89)	0.386*** (35.46)	0.411*** (49.91)	0.425*** (62.41)	0.421*** (33.82)	0.540*** (47.82)
Age 55-65 years	0.695*** (34.78)	0.774*** (44.87)	0.793*** (63.26)	0.797*** (75.43)	0.788*** (44.37)	0.945*** (57.22)
Female	-0.052*** (6.70)	0.013* (2.02)	-0.251*** (50.16)	-0.180*** (41.94)	-0.245*** (28.23)	-0.231*** (28.16)
Coloured	0.452*** (54.30)	0.630*** (88.49)	0.405*** (30.12)	0.341*** (31.51)	0.176*** (5.62)	0.222*** (8.09)
Indian	0.740*** (16.01)	0.974*** (26.45)	0.884*** (40.69)	0.920*** (54.79)	0.981*** (9.58)	1.330*** (13.88)
White	0.968*** (63.95)	1.252*** (92.03)	1.139*** (123.47)	1.151*** (145.89)	1.207*** (47.61)	1.303*** (56.90)
Incomplete primary	-0.023 (1.27)	-0.034* (1.98)	-0.050*** (4.76)	0.001 (0.13)	-0.072*** (5.98)	-0.058*** (4.79)
Incomplete secondary	0.120*** (6.93)	0.095*** (5.95)	0.014 (1.62)	0.031*** (3.82)	0.050*** (4.62)	-0.017 (1.52)
Matric	0.262*** (13.10)	0.302*** (16.98)	0.125*** (12.04)	0.203*** (22.57)	-0.065*** (4.47)	-0.082*** (6.13)
Post-Matric qualifications	0.609*** (24.12)	0.639*** (28.96)	0.594*** (39.64)	0.644*** (56.82)	0.749*** (28.32)	0.486*** (25.36)
Urban	-0.727*** (41.60)	-0.788*** (51.01)	-0.566*** (35.22)	-0.290*** (21.17)	0.099*** (12.09)	0.052*** (7.02)
Recent migrants from NC	0.215*** (3.58)	0.248*** (5.02)	0.281*** (3.48)	0.283*** (4.72)	0.178* (2.21)	0.228** (2.80)
Lambda	1.251*** (55.26)	0.788*** (37.60)	1.040*** (59.46)	0.355*** (23.20)	0.414*** (36.06)	0.098*** (8.29)
Constant	-1.257*** (32.69)	-1.183*** (40.00)	-1.351*** (76.13)	-1.326*** (82.29)	-1.216*** (53.18)	-1.149*** (50.66)
Number of observations (weighted)	1,531,039	1,975,411	3,089,933	4,432,415	1,024,243	1,356,880
Chi-square	11,032	21,504	28.643	40,956	7,003	9,942
Probability > Chi-square	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

Note: the selection equation is the equation in Table 48.
Absolute values of Z-statistics in parentheses.
*** - significant at the 0.001 level
** - significant at the 0.01 level
* - significant at the 0.05 level

6.2.3 Labour force participation and employment: permanent residents in Northern Cape vs. recent migrants from Northern Cape to other provinces vs. recent migrants within Northern Cape

It is also possible to compare the Northern Cape recent migrants with those who stay in the Northern Cape permanently and see if the former enjoy higher probabilities of participating in labour force and become employed. In other words, a logit regression on participation and a heckprobit regression on employment (conditional on participation) will be run, and only the following people are included:

- Permanent residents in the Northern Cape and the permanent migrants from other provinces, overseas or unspecified places to Northern Cape (i.e., people who usually stay in Northern Cape at the time of the Census). This is the reference group.
- Recent migrants from Northern Cape.
- Recent migrants within Northern Cape.

The same independent variables as explained in section 6.2.2 are used in the two regressions in this section, with the addition of the dummy variable 'recent migrants within Northern Cape'.

The results are presented in Table 50. First, the logit regression on participation (i.e., the first two columns of Table 50) show that the recent migrants from Northern Cape as well as the recent migrants within Northern Cape enjoy higher probability of labour force participation in both censuses. On the other hand, looking at the Heckprobit regression on employment (i.e., the last two columns of Table 50), the significant lambda in both the 1996 and 2001 regressions suggests the presence of sampling bias. On the other hand, the two migration dummy variables are positive and significant, which indicates that the recent migrants from and within Northern Cape enjoy high probability of being employed. In addition, compared with the recent migrants within Northern Cape, the coefficient value is clearly greater in the recent migrants from Northern Cape dummy in both years.

Table 50 Logit regressions showing the probability of participating in the labour force (broad definition) and Heckprobit regressions on the probability of being employed, conditional on participation

	Logit regression on broad labour force participation		**Heckprobit regression on employment probability, conditional on participation**	
	Census 1996	**Census 2001**	**Census 1996**	**Census 2001**
Age 15-24 years	-1.430*** (138.64)	-1.392*** (134.44)	0.004 (0.14)	-0.072** (-3.01)
Age 35-44 years	-0.337*** (29.32)	-0.303*** (26.76)	0.316*** (13.48)	0.260*** (12.70)
Age 45-54 years	-1.074*** (83.85)	-1.024*** (85.37)	0.561*** (19.10)	0.531*** (21.54)
Age 55-65 years	-2.323*** (151.56)	-2.400*** (165.19)	0.889*** (21.24)	0.992*** (25.72)
Female	-0.781*** (92.65)	-0.770*** (97.42)	-0.089*** (5.02)	-0.033* (2.01)
Coloured	-0.035*** (4.56)	0.039*** (5.29)	0.158*** (9.11)	0.198*** (12.82)
Indian	-0.057 (0.96)	-0.298*** (4.54)	0.562*** (3.72)	0.736*** (4.73)
White	-0.441*** (32.41)	-0.510*** (39.12)	1.115*** (25.47)	1.140*** (29.99)
Married or live together with a partner	0.025** (2.89)	0.029*** (3.52)		
Household head	1.029*** (100.90)	0.764*** (81.96)		
Number of children aged 0-6 years	-0.019*** (4.64)	0.024*** (6.00)		
Number of children aged 7-14 years	-0.121*** (37.36)	-0.094*** (27.71)		
Number of male aged 15-59 years	-0.056*** (15.31)	-0.024*** (6.82)		
Number of female aged 15-59 years	0.083*** (22.43)	0.117*** (32.53)		
Number of elderly aged 60 years or above	-0.111*** (17.29)	-0.156*** (23.75)		
Incomplete primary	0.027* (2.33)	0.024* (2.08)	-0.071** (2.61)	-0.030 (1.17)
Incomplete secondary	-0.019 (1.83)	0.071*** (6.64)	-0.036 (1.43)	0.025 (1.05)
Matric	1.007*** (64.85)	1.159*** (80.83)	-0.111** (3.14)	0.033 (1.07)
Post-Matric qualifications	1.339*** (60.20)	1.464*** (67.79)	0.588*** (9.60)	0.520*** (10.77)
Urban	-0.214*** (26.14)	-0.381*** (41.30)	-0.484*** (-20.97)	-0.623*** (-24.88)
Number of other income earners in the household, regardless of age	0.085*** (21.87)	0.016*** (4.40)		
Recent migrants from NC	0.274*** (17.46)	0.219*** (16.21)	0.399*** (10.44)	0.297*** (9.49)
Recent migrants within NC	0.246*** (29.69)	0.268*** (21.90)	0.179*** (9.26)	0.221*** (8.38)
Constant	1.472*** (83.44)	1.622*** (93.54)	0.922*** (30.25)	0.729*** (24.93)
Lambda			-1.346*** (18.18)	-1.226*** (22.73)
Number of observations (weighted)	447,344	487,340	272,420	307,313
Chi-square	103,457	106,382	2,059	2,744
Probability > Chi-square	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Pseudo-R^2	0.1728	0.1657		

Absolute values of Z-statistics in parentheses.
*** - significant at the 0.001 level
** - significant at the 0.01 level
* - significant at the 0.05 level

CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSION

The Northern Cape is the largest province in terms of land area in South Africa, but is home to the smallest population. In fact, the number of residents in the province decreased between 1996 and 2001 although the number of households increased. This could be attributed to the fact that the Northern Cape is a net-sending province and because of increased public provision of housing since the mid-1990s. Increased public provision of housing could also explain the almost identical increases in urbanisation and households staying in houses or brick structures between 1996 and 2001.

The importance of agriculture in the Northern Cape is illustrated by the relatively high proportions of people employed in the agricultural industry and who are unskilled workers. When one regards employment by industry, agricultural activities absorb the highest proportion of the employed in the Northern Cape (21.6% and 24,9% respectively according to Census 1996 and 2001). It is also the province with the highest percentage of unskilled workers. Wages in the agricultural sector are typically lower than those earned in other sectors, thus it is not surprising that although the Northern Cape has the lowest unemployment rate in South Africa, it has a high poverty rate of approximately 50% for both censuses.

Our findings on migration probabilities in the Northern Cape are roughly in line with *a priori* expectations which we based on the literature review of theory and South African trends. People between the ages of 15 to 24 years old were more likely to migrate from the Northern Cape. Higher educational attainment, household head status and high broad unemployment rates are incentives to migrate while marriage and the presence of the elderly and children in the household act as disincentives to migrate. The relatively high proportion of migrants who migrate within the province could be attributed to the vast distances that would have to be traversed to migrate out of the province from the more populous urban centres. However, we were unable to test for the correlation between distance and migration probabilities due to the less than robust methodology one would have to employ to estimate distances between the sending and receiving areas.

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Appendix I: Dwelling type

Table A1.1 Number of people staying in each dwelling type, Census 1996

	Unweighted		Weighted	
Normal dwelling*	**3,508,338**	**96.9%**	**37,341,483**	**96.7%**
1 House or brick structure on a separate stand or yard	1,773,219	49.0%	18,770,837	48.6%
2 Traditional dwelling/hut	801,167	22.1%	8,579,100	22.2%
3 Flat in a block of flats	119,844	3.3%	1,264,465	3.3%
4 Town/cluster/semi-detached house	137,063	3.8%	1,439,784	3.7%
5 Unit in a retirement village	6,870	0.2%	71,644	0.2%
6 House/flat/room in backyard	123,380	3.4%	1,319,791	3.4%
7 Informal dwelling/shack in backyard	118,582	3.3%	1,269,298	3.3%
8 Informal dwelling/shack elsewhere	351,654	9.7%	3,803,053	9.9%
9 Room/flatlet not in backyard but on a shared property	36,005	1.0%	386,943	1.0%
10 Caravan/Tent	4,018	0.1%	44,379	0.1%
12 Other dwelling type	4,880	0.1%	52,312	0.1%
13 Unspecified dwelling type (took part in both household & person sections)	31,656	0.9%	339,877	0.9%
Institution	**62,732**	**1.7%**	**705,943**	**1.8%**
15 Tourist hotel/motel	2,916	0.1%	31,842	0.1%
16 Residential hotel/boarding house	2,013	0.1%	22,332	0.1%
17 Home for the aged	4,632	0.1%	48,781	0.1%
18 Home for the disabled	1,545	0.0%	17,115	0.0%
19 Hospital/medical facility/clinic	8,221	0.2%	91,245	0.2%
20 Hostel/compound for workers	6,843	0.2%	76,358	0.2%
22 School/Educational inst. hostel	17,765	0.5%	206,687	0.5%
23 Child care inst./orphanage	1,814	0.1%	20,845	0.1%
24 Children's correctional inst.	334	0.0%	3,798	0.0%
25 Initiation school	352	0.0%	3,935	0.0%
26 Prison/correctional services inst.	10,895	0.3%	121,888	0.3%
27 Police quarters	707	0.0%	7,888	0.0%
28 Nurses or doctors quarters	848	0.0%	9,444	0.0%
29 Church hall/community centre	240	0.0%	2,563	0.0%
30 Convent/monastery/religious retreat	334	0.0%	3,696	0.0%
31 Caravan park/camping site/marina	454	0.0%	5,119	0.0%
32 Defence force	1,620	0.0%	18,810	0.0%
33 Refugee settlements	3	0.0%	31	0.0%
34 Ships in harbours	259	0.0%	2,646	0.0%
35 South African islands	27	0.0%	287	0.0%
36 Border posts	37	0.0%	580	0.0%
37 Other institutions	873	0.0%	10,053	0.0%
Homeless	**1,127**	**0.0%**	**12,238**	**0.0%**
11 Homeless	710	0.0%	7,505	0.0%
21 Shelter for homeless/refuge	417	0.0%	4,733	0.0%
Unspecified	**49,004**	**1.4%**	**541,857**	**1.4%**
14 Unspecified dwelling type (did not take part in household section)	49,004	1.4%	541,857	1.4%
Total	3,621,201	100.0%	38,601,521	100.0%

* 136 people in the sample (1,626 people if weighted) contradict themselves by claiming they stay in institutions in the migration questions, and therefore the correct number of people staying in normal dwellings would be 3,508,338 – 136 = 3,508,202 (37,341,483 – 1,626 = 37,339,857 if weighted).

Table A1.2 Number of people staying in each dwelling type, Census 2001

	Unweighted		Weighted	
Normal dwelling	**3,599,972**	**96.6%**	**41,747,214**	**96.7%**
1 House or brick structure on a separate stand or yard	2,108,210	56.6%	24,280,658	56.2%
2 Traditional dwelling/hut	666,964	17.9%	7,767,189	18.0%
3 Flat in a block of flats	143,883	3.9%	1,678,046	3.9%
4 Town/cluster/semi-detached house	83,191	2.2%	971,110	2.2%
5 House/flat/room, in backyard	97,830	2.6%	1,125,875	2.6%
6 Informal dwelling/shack, in backyard	112,550	3.0%	1,294,203	3.0%
7 Informal dwelling/shack, not in backyard	353,648	9.5%	4,232,798	9.8%
8 Room/flatlet not in backyard but on a shared property	25,408	0.7%	299,530	0.7%
9 Caravan/Tent	7,205	0.2%	85,061	0.2%
10 Private ship/boat	1,083	0.0%	12,744	0.0%
Institution	**49,503**	**1.3%**	**495,030**	**1.1%**
20 Tourist hotel/motel	2,738	0.1%	27,380	0.1%
21 Hospital/medical facility/clinic/frail-care centre	9,731	0.3%	97,310	0.2%
22 Childcare institution/orphanage	2,064	0.1%	20,640	0.0%
23 Home for the disabled	2,102	0.1%	21,020	0.0%
24 Boarding school hostel	13,408	0.4%	134,080	0.3%
25 Initiation school	398	0.0%	3,980	0.0%
26 Convent/monastery/religious retreat	708	0.0%	7,080	0.0%
27 Defence force barracks/camp/ship in harbour	1,379	0.0%	13,790	0.0%
28 Prison/correctional institution/police cells	16,908	0.5%	169,080	0.4%
29 Community or church hall	67	0.0%	670	0.0%
Homeless	**1,522**	**0.0%**	**15,220**	**0.0%**
30 Refugee camp/shelter for the homeless	371	0.0%	3,710	0.0%
31 Homeless	1,151	0.0%	11,510	0.0%
"Weird" group	**74,658**	**2.0%**	**913,282**	**2.1%**
99 N/A (Households in non-institutional collective living quarters)	74,658	2.0%	913,282	2.1%
Total	3,725,655	100.0%	43,170,746	100.0%

Appendix II A general profile of each DC in Northern Cape

Table A2.1 The demography of each DC in Northern Cape, 1996 and 2001

	Census 1996							Census 2001					
	Hantam	**Nama-qualand**	**Diamand-veld**	**Kalahari**	**Lower Orange**	**Upper Karoo**	**Northern Cape**	**Namakwa**	**Frances Baard**	**Kgala-gadi**	**Siyanda**	**Karoo**	**Northern Cape**
POPULATION													
Population	39,821	69,369	338,045	82,759	158,716	125,908	814,618	104,970	290,698	36,919	203,852	159,510	795,949
%	4.9%	8.5%	41.5%	10.2%	19.5%	15.5%	100.0%	13.2%	36.5%	4.6%	25.6%	20.0%	100.0%
NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS (INCLUDING HOUSEHOLDS STAYING IN NORMAL DWELLINGS ONLY)													
Number	10,556	16,210	73,756	19,314	31,518	27,107	178,461	26,716	75,815	9,052	47,992	39,606	199,181
%	5.9%	9.1%	41.3%	10.8%	17.7%	15.2%	100.0%	13.4%	38.1%	4.5%	24.1%	19.9%	100.0%
MEAN HOUSEHOLD SIZE (INCLUDING HOUSEHOLDS STAYING IN NORMAL DWELLINGS ONLY)													
Mean	3.32	3.88	4.09	3.67	4.22	4.05	4.00	3.61	3.80	3.56	3.95	3.86	3.81
RACIAL COMPOSITION (EXCLUDING 'UNSPECIFIED')													
Black	2.3%	3.3%	52.6%	41.6%	14.5%	28.0%	33.6%	4.0%	56.5%	51.0%	24.2%	27.4%	35.2%
Coloured	82.0%	83.0%	34.2%	36.6%	74.3%	60.5%	52.8%	84.4%	31.1%	25.2%	64.3%	62.8%	52.7%
Indian	0.3%	0.2%	0.6%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.3%	0.1%	0.5%	0.2%	0.1%	0.1%	0.3%
White	15.5%	13.6%	12.6%	21.9%	11.1%	11.4%	13.3%	11.5%	11.9%	23.6%	11.4%	9.7%	11.8%
GENDER													
Male	47.8%	50.4%	48.7%	51.0%	49.1%	48.6%	49.1%	48.9%	48.6%	52.1%	48.7%	47.9%	48.7%
Female	52.2%	49.6%	51.3%	49.0%	50.9%	51.4%	50.9%	51.2%	51.4%	47.9%	51.3%	52.1%	51.3%
AREA TYPE													
Urban	67.3%	41.2%	81.0%	75.5%	57.7%	69.9%	70.1%	82.5%	85.6%	71.1%	75.0%	78.0%	80.3%
Rural	32.7%	58.8%	19.0%	24.5%	42.3%	30.1%	29.9%	17.5%	14.4%	28.9%	25.0%	22.0%	19.7%
AGE DISTRIBUTION													
0-14 years	32.5%	31.9%	33.7%	32.5%	33.2%	36.0%	33.2%	30.3%	30.3%	30.0%	31.0%	32.9%	31.0%
15-65 years	59.7%	63.6%	61.9%	59.7%	62.4%	59.3%	61.2%	63.6%	65.2%	66.3%	64.2%	61.9%	64.1%
66+ years	7.8%	4.5%	4.5%	7.8%	4.4%	4.8%	5.6%	6.2%	4.5%	3.7%	4.8%	5.2%	4.9%
LANGUAGE MOST OFTEN SPOKEN													
Afrikaans	98.8%	95.8%	50.5%	61.2%	88.5%	74.2%	68.9%	95.9%	45.8%	52.4%	82.0%	77.6%	68.3%
Setswana	0.0%	0.3%	35.8%	33.9%	6.2%	0.2%	19.6%	1.1%	40.3%	42.2%	13.8%	1.9%	20.7%
Xhosa	0.0%	1.6%	4.7%	1.1%	2.9%	23.7%	6.4%	1.4%	5.4%	1.5%	2.2%	16.9%	6.1%
English	0.3%	1.2%	4.4%	1.3%	0.4%	0.7%	2.3%	1.0%	5.3%	1.2%	0.6%	0.7%	2.4%
Others	0.9%	1.2%	4.6%	2.5%	2.0%	1.1%	2.9%	0.7%	3.3%	2.7%	1.4%	2.9%	2.4%
EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT (INCLUDING WORKING-AGE POPULATION ONLY)													
No schooling	27.6%	4.1%	17.7%	22.9%	13.7%	22.7%	17.5%	8.3%	14.2%	17.9%	13.5%	20.7%	14.7%
Incomplete prim.	23.5%	19.7%	18.6%	19.1%	25.0%	23.1%	20.9%	19.4%	17.2%	18.7%	23.1%	24.5%	20.5%
Incomplete sec.	32.4%	57.5%	45.1%	38.4%	46.3%	39.9%	44.3%	52.8%	45.8%	33.3%	44.5%	38.7%	44.4%
Matric	10.0%	12.8%	12.7%	12.8%	10.5%	9.3%	11.7%	14.3%	16.8%	22.8%	15.2%	11.5%	15.3%
Matric + Cert/Dip	4.4%	4.9%	4.3%	5.6%	3.5%	3.5%	4.2%	4.0%	4.2%	5.3%	3.1%	3.2%	3.8%
Degree	2.2%	1.1%	1.6%	1.2%	1.2%	1.6%	1.5%	1.3%	1.8%	2.1%	0.7%	1.3%	1.4%
Mean eduyear	5.93	8.30	7.19	6.75	7.04	6.29	7.02	7.92	7.73	7.57	7.28	6.41	7.38

Table A2.2 Labour market activities, poverty and inequality of each DC in Northern Cape, 1996 and 2001

	Census 1996							Census 2001					
	Hantam	**Nama-qualand**	**Diamand-veld**	**Kalahari**	**Lower Orange**	**Upper Karoo**	**Northern Cape**	**Namakwa**	**Frances Baard**	**Kgala-gadi**	**Siyanda**	**Karoo**	**Northern Cape**
BROAD LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE (15-65 YEARS)													
LFPR	61.1%	61.7%	60.3%	63.8%	61.6%	59.6%	61.0%	63.9%	60.5%	66.1%	65.8%	61.8%	62.8%
BROAD UNEMPLOYMENT RATE (15-65 YEARS)													
Unempl. rate	20.9%	22.9%	31.7%	22.3%	23.8%	31.2%	27.8%	33.9%	43.0%	24.5%	30.8%	41.4%	37.3%
SKILLS CATEGORY OF THE EMPLOYED (15-65 YEARS)													
Skilled	10.1%	15.7%	18.6%	13.4%	11.3%	12.1%	14.8%	14.9%	21.5%	17.2%	12.2%	12.6%	16.0%
Semi-skilled	35.1%	49.6%	44.7%	49.2%	40.4%	38.9%	43.5%	45.8%	46.2%	51.4%	38.0%	35.8%	42.2%
Unskilled	54.8%	34.7%	36.6%	37.3%	48.3%	49.0%	41.7%	39.4%	32.3%	31.5%	49.8%	51.6%	41.8%
POVERTY RATE (POVERTY LINE: R3000 PER ANNUM, 2000 PRICES)													
Incl. hholds with zero income	53.5%	34.7%	53.8%	46.9%	50.3%	61.9%	52.0%	42.4%	51.2%	43.5%	50.2%	58.1%	50.6%
Excl. hholds with zero income	51.2%	31.1%	50.0%	41.5%	47.6%	59.2%	48.5%	35.8%	43.1%	35.4%	44.5%	51.7%	43.9%
GINI COEFFICIENT													
Incl. hholds with zero income	0.7366	0.6204	0.7053	0.6999	0.6645	0.7188	0.6981	0.7845	0.7895	0.8406	0.7841	0.8329	0.8079
Excl. hholds with zero income	0.7228	0.6002	0.6805	0.6687	0.6488	0.6999	0.6762	0.7584	0.7555	0.8375	0.7587	0.8141	0.7804

Table A2.3 Household services of each DC in Northern Cape, 1996 and 2001

	Census 1996							Census 2001					
	Hantam	**Nama-qualand**	**Diamand-veld**	**Kalahari**	**Lower Orange**	**Upper Karoo**	**Northern Cape**	**Namakwa**	**Frances Baard**	**Kgala-gadi**	**Siyanda**	**Karoo**	**Northern Cape**
TYPE OF DWELLING													
Formal	94.6%	87.4%	72.7%	81.5%	83.3%	86.5%	80.2%	90.5%	79.8%	80.8%	83.3%	85.2%	83.2%
Informal	5.4%	12.6%	27.3%	18.6%	16.8%	13.6%	19.8%	9.5%	20.2%	19.2%	16.8%	14.8%	16.8%
ENEGRY SOURCE FOR COOKING													
Electricity	34.0%	52.3%	58.6%	57.9%	49.4%	42.3%	52.4%	61.9%	58.1%	67.2%	59.2%	55.7%	58.8%
Gas	14.8%	34.0%	2.7%	4.0%	16.2%	8.1%	9.6%	18.6%	2.9%	2.2%	8.0%	4.6%	6.5%
Paraffin	7.7%	1.8%	25.3%	12.7%	7.8%	24.1%	17.5%	2.7%	30.5%	7.8%	10.2%	15.7%	17.9%
Wood	34.6%	11.7%	12.6%	23.4%	26.1%	19.8%	18.5%	15.6%	7.5%	22.2%	21.9%	22.2%	15.6%
Coal	7.9%	0.0%	0.2%	0.3%	0.2%	4.9%	1.4%	0.7%	0.3%	0.2%	0.3%	1.1%	0.5%
Others	1.0%	0.3%	0.6%	1.6%	0.3%	0.8%	0.7%	0.6%	0.8%	0.4%	0.3%	0.7%	0.6%
SANITATION													
Flush or chemical toilet	39.3%	49.8%	65.6%	68.0%	61.6%	49.2%	59.7%	63.2%	72.6%	76.8%	68.2%	52.7%	66.5%
Pit latrine	17.7%	11.7%	11.5%	10.9%	15.5%	5.4%	11.6%	10.0%	9.9%	9.4%	11.4%	9.4%	10.1%
Bucket latrine	29.6%	29.0%	15.2%	7.1%	9.8%	30.8%	17.9%	17.0%	8.8%	1.5%	6.6%	23.2%	11.9%
Others	13.5%	9.5%	7.6%	14.0%	13.1%	14.6%	10.9%	9.8%	8.7%	12.3%	13.8%	14.6%	11.4%

Table A2.3 Continued

	Census 1996							Census 2001					
	Hantam	**Nama-qualand**	**Diamand-veld**	**Kalahari**	**Lower Orange**	**Upper Karoo**	**Northern Cape**	**Namakwa**	**Frances Baard**	**Kgala-gadi**	**Siyanda**	**Karoo**	**Northern Cape**
ACCESS TO TELEPHONE													
Telephone in dwelling or cellphone	30.2%	37.0%	30.2%	33.8%	28.1%	28.3%	30.5%	44.8%	44.2%	50.6%	37.8%	35.3%	41.3%
Neighbour nearby	19.9%	25.0%	9.5%	12.4%	16.3%	15.2%	13.9%	19.5%	9.4%	9.7%	14.2%	21.9%	14.4%
Public telephone nearby	17.4%	21.2%	38.4%	29.9%	29.6%	26.5%	31.3%	24.2%	35.7%	22.1%	37.7%	30.4%	33.0%
Another location nearby	19.5%	6.3%	6.7%	9.0%	13.1%	11.8%	9.6%	5.0%	3.6%	4.3%	3.6%	4.0%	3.9%
Another location not nearby	1.6%	1.4%	2.0%	1.1%	3.4%	2.8%	2.2%	2.1%	3.0%	4.3%	1.8%	1.9%	2.4%
No access	11.4%	9.2%	13.2%	13.8%	9.5%	15.5%	12.5%	4.5%	4.2%	9.0%	4.9%	6.7%	5.1%
REFUSE REMOVAL													
By local authority at least once a week	56.6%	70.5%	71.0%	70.1%	58.0%	70.6%	67.7%	73.8%	72.1%	66.3%	60.1%	68.4%	68.5%
By local authority less than once a week	1.1%	4.5%	2.5%	1.3%	1.6%	1.1%	2.1%	2.6%	2.7%	0.0%	5.4%	2.3%	3.1%
Communal refuse dump	6.6%	0.8%	5.2%	5.0%	7.2%	5.1%	5.2%	0.9%	3.3%	0.5%	3.2%	2.2%	2.6%
Own refuse dump	32.5%	18.4%	14.1%	19.7%	28.6%	17.8%	19.3%	20.7%	16.3%	29.1%	29.2%	24.1%	22.1%
No rubbish disposal / Others	3.2%	5.8%	7.2%	4.0%	4.6%	5.3%	5.7%	2.1%	5.6%	4.1%	2.1%	3.1%	3.7%
ACCESS TO WATER													
Piped water in dwelling	47.8%	48.5%	52.4%	57.6%	46.0%	42.8%	49.8%						
Piped water on site	37.0%	32.1%	30.3%	25.8%	37.6%	39.8%	33.1%						
Public tap	3.8%	8.3%	11.0%	7.6%	2.8%	10.6%	8.5%						
Piped water/tap inside dwelling								47.6%	40.9%	53.8%	35.7%	32.3%	39.4%
Piped water/tap inside yard								38.4%	40.6%	26.4%	43.9%	48.7%	42.1%
Piped water on community stand: < 200 m								5.2%	7.9%	5.7%	7.8%	8.6%	7.6%
Piped water on community stand: > 200 m								4.6%	7.9%	12.3%	7.4%	7.8%	7.5%
Others	11.3%	11.1%	6.3%	9.0%	13.6%	6.8%	8.7%	4.2%	2.7%	1.8%	5.3%	2.5%	3.5%

Appendix III Province at the time of survey vs. Province of usual residence

Table A3.1 Province at the time of survey vs. Province of usual residence, Census 1996

		Province of usual residence (at the time of the survey)											
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Overseas**	**Unspecified**	**Total**
Province at the time of the survey	**WC**	3,576,405	2,157	809	214	405	90	1,379	165	10	845	14,546	3,597,025
	EC	2,180	5,862,261	112	616	1057	583	3,074	52	86	281	38,683	5,908,985
	NC	609	116	776,293	239	34	367	232	11	77	10	2,176	780,164
	FS	245	384	355	2,344,107	390	610	2,971	193	72	889	5,126	2,355,342
	KZN	239	1,407	65	316	7,657,736	85	5,822	621	121	485	104,278	7,771,175
	NW	73	317	691	284	101	3,038,879	6,215	259	800	556	14,779	3,062,954
	GAU	752	1,142	147	1,034	1,803	2,093	6,561,054	2,094	2,996	2954	28,859	6,604,928
	MPU	90	233	48	186	519	287	10,376	2,689,340	1,400	720	15,066	2,718,265
	LIM	32	0	0	141	129	623	7,333	2,409	4,493,879	681	35,792	4,541,019
		3,580,625	5,868,017	778,520	2,347,137	7,662,174	3,043,617	6,598,456	2,695,144	4,499,441	7,421	259,305	37,339,857
		% of people with province at the time of the survey = province of usual residence:											99.09%

Table A3.2 Province at the time of survey vs. Province of usual residence, Census 2001

		Province of usual residence (at the time of the survey)											
		WC	**EC**	**NC**	**FS**	**KZN**	**NW**	**GAU**	**MPU**	**LIM**	**Overseas**	**Unspecified**	**Total**
Province at the time of the survey	**WC**	4,219,250	2,530	1,261	322	707	236	1,640	168	437	1,324	4,398	4,232,273
	EC	1,797	6,004,314	367	424	2,034	410	2,191	96	244	215	8,840	6,020,932
	NC	397	287	756,063	344	11	333	260	49	90	70	382	758,286
	FS	287	518	170	2,527,909	450	597	1,813	196	206	569	2,176	2,534,891
	KZN	536	1,759	177	333	8,806,019	209	4,725	960	292	935	11,864	8,827,809
	NW	331	507	751	605	188	3,390,531	3,548	335	542	462	1,249	3,399,049
	GAU	1,079	1,515	201	1,297	2,497	2,427	8,098,772	1,952	2,386	2,596	7,712	8,122,434
	MPU	110	330	136	377	629	369	6,155	2,875,436	1,152	485	1,758	2,886,937
	LIM	109	319	164	199	478	853	6,348	2,666	4,949,024	462	3,981	4,964,603
		4,223,896	6,012,079	759,290	2,531,810	8,813,013	3,395,965	8,125,452	2,881,858	4,954,373	7,118	42,360	41,747,214
		% of people with province at the time of the survey = province of usual residence:											99.71%

Appendix IV Recent migration from Northern Cape, Labour Force Survey (LFS)

Table A4.1 Recent migration from Northern Cape, Census vs. LFS

	Census 1996		Census 2001		LFS2003 Sept		LFS2004 Sept		LFS2005 Sept	
WC	14,606	41.8%	18,612	39.6%	13,057	31.3%	14,192	28.8%	6,154	24.4%
EC	1,764	5.1%	2,800	6.0%	619	1.5%	2,080	4.2%	0	0.0%
FS	4,991	14.3%	5,872	12.5%	4,424	10.6%	11,426	23.2%	4,280	17.0%
KZN	1,016	2.9%	1,677	3.6%	439	1.1%	574	1.2%	0	0.0%
NW	5,138	14.7%	6,003	12.8%	5,506	13.2%	10,288	20.9%	5,705	22.6%
GAU	6,322	18.1%	9,640	20.5%	14,946	35.8%	9,561	19.4%	7,430	29.5%
MPU	962	2.8%	1,149	2.4%	432	1.0%	716	1.5%	1,656	6.6%
LIM	102	0.3%	1,209	2.6%	2,345	5.6%	466	0.9%	0	0.0%
Recent migrants from NC	34,901	100%	46,962	100.0%	41,768	100.0%	49,303	100.0%	25,225	100.0%
Recent migrants within NC	180,742		60,386		73,925		88,985		48,914	

Note: In the three LFSs above, the migration question is asked as follows: 'Five years ago, was … living in this area (i.e., suburb, ward, village, farm, informal settlement)?' If the respondent's answer is 'no', he is then asked to declare the place of origin as well as they year of migration.

Appendix V Magisterial Districts and Municipalities in each District Council (DC)

Table A5.1 MDs in each DC in Northern Cape, Census 1996

DC: 3001		**DC: 3002**		**DC: 3003**		**DC: 3004**		**DC: 3005**		**DC: 3006**	
Diamandveld		**Hantam**		**Kalahari**		**Lower Orange**		**Namaqualand**		**Upper Karoo**	
Code	MD	Code	MD	Code	MD	Code	MD	Code	MD	Code	MD
317	Barkley-West	302	Calvinia	322	Kuruman	315	Gordonia	301	Namakwaland	306	Prieska
318	Hartswater	303	Sutherland	323	Postmasburg	316	Kenhardt			307	Britstown
319	Herbert	304	Williston							308	Colesberg
320	Warrenton	305	Carnarvon							309	De Aar
321	Kimberley	325	Fraserburg							310	Hanover
324	Hay									311	Hopetown
										312	Noupoort
										313	Philipstown
										314	Richmond
										326	Victoria-West

Table A5.2 Municipalities in each DC in Northern Cape, Census 2001

DC: DC6		**DC: DC7**		**DC: DC8**		**DC: DC9**		**DC: CBDC1**	
Namakwa		**Karoo**		**Siyanda**		**Frances Baard**		**Kgalagadi**	
Code	Municipality	Code	Municipality	Code	Municipality	Code	Municipality	Code	Municipality
01	Richtersveld	07	Ubuntu	15	Mier	21	Sol Plaatjie	24	Gamagara
02	Nama Khoi	08	Umsombomvu	16	Kai !Garib	22	Dikgatlong	81	Ga-Segonyana
03	Kamiesberg	09	Emthanjeni	17	Khara Hais	23	Magareng	95	Kalahari
04	Hantam	10	Kareeberg	18	!Kheis	87	Phokwane		
05	Karoo Hoogland	11	Renosterberg	19	Tsantsabane	94	Diamondfields		
06	Khâi-Ma	12	Thembelihle	20	Kgatelopele				
91	Namaqualand	13	Siyathemba	93	Benede Oranje				
		14	Siyancuma						
		92	Bo Karoo						

Appendix VI Top five Magisterial Districts of destination for permanent and recent migrants from Northern Cape

Table A6.1 The top five MDs of destination for permanent and recent migrants from Northern Cape, Census 1996

Permanent migrants					**Recent migrants**				
Prov.	**MD Code**	**MD name**	**No. of people**	**% of total**	**Prov.**	**MD Code**	**MD name**	**No. of people**	**% of total**
DC of origin: Hantam									
WC	138	Vredendal	290	14.2%	WC	138	Vredendal	508	20.0%
WC	107	Kuilsriver	208	10.2%	WC	107	Kuilsriver	320	12.6%
WC	130	Worcester	203	10.0%	WC	126	Ceres	193	7.6%
WC	126	Ceres	182	8.9%	WC	101	Bellville	177	7.0%
WC	134	Vredenburg	130	6.4%	WC	134	Vredenburg	165	6.5%
DC of origin: Namaqualand									
WC	132	Malmesbury	276	14.3%	WC	138	Vredendal	451	16.5%
WC	137	Van Rhynsdorp	170	8.8%	WC	107	Kuilsriver	356	13.0%
WC	107	Kuilsriver	164	8.5%	WC	101	Bellville	346	12.7%
WC	101	Bellville	164	8.5%	WC	134	Vredenburg	172	6.3%
WC	106	Mitchell's Plain	112	5.8%	WC	137	Van Rhynsdorp	141	5.2%
DC of origin: Diamandveld									
NW	604	Phokwani	4,563	31.1%	FS	445	Bloemfontein	1,597	11.1%
NW	602	Kudumane	768	5.2%	NW	604	Phokwani	925	6.4%
GAU	701	Pretoria	756	5.1%	GAU	704	Johannesburg	700	4.9%
FS	445	Bloemfontein	460	3.1%	GAU	701	Pretoria	664	4.6%
GAU	704	Johannesburg	446	3.0%	NW	612	Klerksdorp	617	4.3%
DC of origin: Kalahari									
NW	602	Kudumane	2,240	45.3%	NW	616	Rustenburg	464	11.9%
NW	604	Phokwani	480	9.7%	NW	604	Phokwani	306	7.8%
GAU	701	Pretoria	267	5.4%	NW	602	Kudumane	231	5.9%
NW	603	Vryburg	190	3.8%	GAU	701	Pretoria	227	5.8%
NW	612	Klerksdorp	151	3.1%	NW	603	Vryburg	214	5.5%
DC of origin: Lower Orange									
WC	107	Kuilsriver	285	9.8%	GAU	701	Pretoria	544	12.1%
WC	132	Malmesbury	254	8.7%	WC	105	Wynberg	447	9.9%
GAU	701	Pretoria	192	6.6%	WC	107	Kuilsriver	233	5.2%
WC	101	Bellville	174	6.0%	WC	132	Malmesbury	228	5.1%
WC	106	Mitchell's Plain	154	5.3%	WC	102	Goodwood	205	4.6%
DC of origin: Upper Karoo									
WC	119	Knysna	301	5.8%	WC	118	George	396	5.8%
WC	139	Beaufort West	214	4.1%	WC	105	Wynberg	390	5.7%
WC	107	Kuilsriver	194	3.7%	WC	130	Worcester	381	5.6%
EC	242	Mdantsane	186	3.6%	FS	445	Bloemfontein	380	5.6%
WC	130	Worcester	184	3.5%	GAU	701	Pretoria	278	4.1%
Province of origin: Northern Cape									
NW	604	Phokwani	5,166	16.3%	FS	445	Bloemfontein	2,428	7.0%
NW	602	Kudumane	3,099	9.8%	GAU	701	Pretoria	1,893	5.4%
GAU	701	Pretoria	1,287	4.1%	WC	105	Wynberg	1,633	4.7%
WC	107	Kuilsriver	1,092	3.4%	WC	107	Kuilsriver	1,583	4.5%
WC	101	Bellville	824	2.6%	WC	138	Vredendal	1,287	3.7%

Table A6.2 The top five MDs of destination for permanent and recent migrants from Northern Cape, Census 2001

Prov.	MD Code	MD name	No. of people	% of total	Prov.	MD Code	MD name	No. of people	% of total
Recent migrants from Namakwa					**Recent migrants from Frances Baard**				
WC	107	Kuilsriver	666	10.8%	FS	445	Bloemfontein	1468	9.4%
WC	138	Vredendal	633	10.3%	GAU	701	Pretoria	1364	8.8%
WC	137	Van Rhynsdorp	368	6.0%	GAU	704	Johannesburg	1034	6.6%
WC	134	Vredenburg	340	5.5%	WC	107	Kuilsriver	654	4.2%
WC	101	Bellville	313	5.1%	NW	611	Christiana	637	4.1%
Recent migrants from Kgalagadi					**Recent migrants from Siyanda**				
GAU	701	Pretoria	332	8.8%	WC	107	Kuilsriver	869	10.7%
NW	602	Kudumane	326	8.7%	GAU	701	Pretoria	533	6.6%
NW	601	Huhudi	198	5.3%	NW	602	Kudumane	385	4.8%
NW	612	Klerksdorp	152	4.0%	WC	101	Bellville	338	4.2%
NW	603	Vryburg	144	3.8%	WC	110	Somerset West	287	3.5%
Recent migrants from Karoo					**Recent migrants from Northern Cape**				
WC	107	Kuilsriver	819	8.5%	WC	107	Kuilsriver	3,258	6.9%
WC	106	Mitchell's Plain	697	7.3%	GAU	701	Pretoria	2,774	5.9%
WC	118	George	457	4.8%	FS	445	Bloemfontein	2,405	5.1%
EC	240	Port Elizabeth	450	4.7%	GAU	704	Johannesburg	1,603	3.4%
GAU	701	Pretoria	353	3.7%	WC	106	Mitchell's Plain	1,362	2.9%
					Permanent migrants from Northern Cape				
					NW	604	Phokwani	13969	8.0%
					WC	107	Kuilsriver	9598	5.5%
					GAU	701	Pretoria	8523	4.9%
					NW	602	Kudumane	7696	4.4%
					GAU	704	Johannesburg	5466	3.1%

Appendix VII Area type of the place of origin[34] vs. Area type of the place of destination

Table A7.1 Area type of the place of origin vs. Area type of the destination of permanent and recent migrants from Northern Cape to another province, Census 1996

Area type: % of population staying in urban area at the time of survey	MD/DC of origin of the migrants		% of migrants from NC moving to an urban area in another province	
	Code	Name	Permanent migrants	Recent migrants
67.3%	DC: Hantam		62.1%	55.8%
70.3%	302	Calvinia	70.3%	64.8%
52.1%	303	Sutherland	38.4%	24.5%
62.4%	304	Williston	100.0%	74.4%
71.9%	305	Carnarvon	49.9%	50.0%
61.0%	325	Fraserburg	100.0%	31.5%
41.2%	DC: Namaqualand		87.4%	82.9%
40.6%	301	Namakwaland	87.4%	82.9%
81.0%	DC: Diamandveld		74.9%	82.7%
67.0%	317	Barkley-West	48.2%	71.3%
50.9%	318	Hartswater	81.0%	45.2%
29.1%	319	Herbert	24.1%	67.5%
93.5%	320	Warrenton	72.8%	74.2%
96.8%	321	Kimberley	78.7%	88.0%
52.5%	324	Hay	100.0%	61.0%
75.5%	DC: Kalahari		38.3%	71.9%
54.4%	322	Kuruman	52.1%	67.6%
84.8%	323	Postmasburg	23.8%	82.3%
57.7%	DC: Lower Orange		89.2%	93.7%
57.5%	315	Gordonia	89.1%	94.4%
59.3%	316	Kenhardt	91.0%	79.7%
69.9%	DC: Upper Karoo		73.7%	75.8%
68.0%	306	Prieska	81.6%	85.2%
69.7%	307	Britstown	51.8%	66.9%
71.4%	308	Colesberg	76.4%	78.6%
96.0%	309	De Aar	87.3%	82.7%
77.1%	310	Hanover	95.9%	58.8%
78.6%	311	Hopetown	82.4%	86.8%
90.1%	312	Noupoort	61.2%	76.9%
73.3%	313	Philipstown	66.1%	80.8%
65.5%	314	Richmond	67.7%	75.8%
0.0%	326	Victoria-West	50.8%	47.2%
70.1%	Northern Cape		70.2%	79.6%

[34] Since the census only provides information on the area type of the place of destination, it is impossible to know the area type of the place of origin. Hence, it is decided to use the population share staying in the urban area at the time of the survey to get a better idea of the area type of the place of origin of the migrants. Besides, as mentioned in section 4.3, it is impossible to identify the place of origin of the permanent migrants, so Table A7.2 only shows the information on the recent migrants.

Table A7.2 Area type of the place of origin vs. Area type of the destination of the recent migrants from Northern Cape to another province, Census 2001

Area type: % of population staying in urban area at the time of survey	**DC/Municipality of the origin of the migrants**		**% of recent migrants from NC moving to an urban area in another province**
	Code	**Name**	
82.5%	DC: Namakwa		75.1%
96.5%	1	Richtersveld	82.6%
93.2%	2	Nama Khoi	79.5%
80.1%	3	Kamiesberg	59.6%
72.4%	4	Hantam	72.1%
68.4%	5	Karoo Hooglan	72.6%
66.0%	6	Khâi-Ma	83.1%
0.0%	91	Namaqualand	82.8%
85.6%	DC: Frances Baard		85.3%
96.6%	21	Sol Plaatje	87.0%
77.8%	22	Dikgatlong	84.7%
69.7%	23	Magareng	81.2%
54.9%	87	Phokwane	76.3%
4.8%	94	Diamondfields	100.0%
71.1%	DC: Kgalagadi		60.2%
82.3%	24	Gamagara	68.9%
67.5%	81	Ga-Segonyana	53.9%
52.9%	95	Kalahari	71.0%
75.0%	DC: Siyanda		78.0%
49.9%	15	Mier	67.8%
62.6%	16	Kai !Garib	75.8%
90.3%	17	Khara Hais	85.3%
62.4%	18	!Kheis	76.3%
89.4%	19	Tsantsabane	76.9%
90.3%	20	Kgatelopele	54.4%
0.0%	93	Benede Oranje	100.0%
78.0%	DC: Karoo		76.1%
61.4%	7	Ubuntu	56.9%
86.9%	8	Umsombomvu	78.6%
92.9%	9	Emthanjeni	87.8%
82.7%	10	Kareeberg	62.7%
81.9%	11	Renosterberg	60.8%
78.9%	12	Thembelihle	77.4%
89.3%	13	Siyathemba	61.6%
64.3%	14	Siyancuma	84.2%
0.0%	92	Bo Karoo	100.0%
80.3%	Northern Cape		78.7%

Appendix VIII Demographic, location, work and household characteristics of the recent migrants from Northern Cape to Western Cape, Gauteng or North West

Note: Group I – recent migrants from Northern Cape to Western Cape
Group II – recent migrants from Northern Cape to Gauteng
Group III – recent migrants from Northern Cape to North West
Group IV – recent migrants from NC to other provinces

Table A8.1 Demographic and location characteristics of the recent migrants

	Census 1996				Census 2001			
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV
AGE								
5-14yrs	15.4%	13.0%	16.9%	16.0%	13.8%	12.2%	16.3%	14.4%
15-24yrs	27.5%	27.6%	24.2%	26.6%	29.2%	28.7%	21.7%	27.3%
25-34yrs	24.1%	30.7%	29.9%	25.6%	25.6%	32.4%	24.5%	26.9%
35-44yrs	15.2%	15.9%	15.3%	15.2%	14.4%	14.3%	16.3%	14.5%
45-54yrs	7.6%	6.8%	8.4%	7.8%	8.4%	6.0%	12.6%	8.6%
55-64yrs	6.0%	2.7%	2.5%	4.3%	4.7%	3.7%	4.9%	4.7%
65+yrs	3.3%	2.7%	1.9%	3.6%	3.9%	2.7%	3.7%	3.7%
Unspecified	1.0%	0.5%	0.8%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
RACE								
Black	11.8%	33.4%	68.0%	29.1%	15.7%	39.1%	65.4%	35.6%
Coloured	54.1%	30.5%	11.9%	34.7%	53.6%	23.3%	8.7%	31.6%
Indian	0.8%	0.3%	0.0%	0.7%	0.8%	2.4%	0.2%	1.1%
White	30.3%	34.3%	19.9%	33.8%	30.0%	35.3%	25.8%	31.7%
Unspecified	3.0%	1.6%	0.2%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
GENDER								
Male	46.6%	45.6%	49.3%	47.2%	48.3%	45.6%	50.7%	48.5%
Female	53.4%	54.4%	50.7%	52.8%	51.7%	54.4%	49.3%	51.5%
MARITAL STATUS								
Single	55.4%	53.4%	55.2%	53.7%	55.5%	50.6%	52.1%	52.3%
Married/Live together with a partner	39.5%	39.6%	37.8%	40.5%	38.9%	43.4%	43.0%	42.4%
Divorced/Separated	2.4%	3.4%	3.6%	2.8%	2.4%	4.2%	1.8%	2.5%
Widowed	1.9%	3.2%	2.9%	2.4%	3.2%	1.9%	3.1%	2.8%
Unspecified	0.7%	0.4%	0.4%	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
PERCENTAGE OF MIGRANTS BEING HOUSEHOLD HEAD								
Percentage	31.3%	34.7%	36.1%	33.7%	33.3%	36.2%	40.3%	35.6%
EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT								
No schooling	10.8%	10.3%	20.0%	12.2%	6.9%	6.8%	18.6%	9.7%
Incomplete Primary	20.6%	15.2%	19.2%	18.5%	20.9%	14.0%	21.6%	19.6%
Incomplete Secondary	41.9%	38.1%	36.6%	38.3%	38.3%	35.0%	32.7%	35.8%
Matric	15.2%	24.3%	14.1%	19.1%	24.3%	28.4%	17.9%	23.6%
Matric + Cert/Dip	5.6%	4.4%	5.2%	5.5%	6.1%	8.6%	5.8%	7.0%
Degree	3.7%	4.8%	2.5%	4.0%	3.5%	7.3%	3.5%	4.4%
Unspecified	2.1%	3.0%	2.4%	2.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
PERCENTAGE OF MIGRANTS MOVING TO URBAN AREAS								
Percentage	79.9%	96.6%	52.4%	79.6%	82.3%	96.3%	52.7%	78.7%

Table A8.2 Work activities of the recent migrants

	Census 1996				Census 2001			
	I	**II**	**III**	**IV**	**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**
BROAD EMPLOYMENT STATUS (AGED 15-65 YEARS)								
Employed	64.2%	63.7%	47.3%	58.6%	62.9%	58.0%	45.1%	54.8%
Unemployed	8.4%	13.0%	18.8%	11.2%	12.4%	20.0%	23.1%	17.0%
Inactive	27.4%	23.3%	33.8%	30.3%	24.7%	22.0%	31.8%	28.2%
SKILLS LEVEL OF OCCUPATON (IF EMPLOYED AND AGED 15-65 YEARS)								
Skilled	15.1%	23.3%	24.0%	20.4%	17.7%	35.2%	30.6%	25.8%
Semi-skilled	32.4%	44.6%	51.7%	41.3%	38.1%	39.8%	45.6%	40.8%
Unskilled	52.5%	32.2%	24.4%	38.3%	44.2%	25.0%	23.8%	33.4%
POVERTY RATE								
Incl. households with zero income	15.1%	12.6%	40.4%	22.8%	19.2%	17.3%	49.1%	29.9%
Excl. households with zero income	10.7%	8.8%	34.5%	17.6%	14.9%	9.5%	36.2%	22.4%

Table A8.3 Household characteristics of the recent migrants

	Census 1996				Census 2001			
	I	**II**	**III**	**IV**	**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**
HOUSEHOLD SIZE								
Mean household size	4.30	4.15	4.14	4.16	4.17	3.74	4.13	4.07
DWELLING TYPE								
House/Brick structure on a separate stand or yard	62.7%	49.1%	57.1%	60.2%	71.3%	47.3%	62.0%	62.3%
Traditional dwelling/hut	2.0%	2.0%	8.9%	3.4%	3.1%	1.0%	8.8%	4.2%
Flat in a block of flats	6.5%	14.7%	2.2%	8.7%	6.4%	15.8%	2.3%	8.7%
Town/cluster/semi-detached house	7.3%	5.1%	2.2%	5.0%	5.6%	7.6%	1.5%	4.7%
House/flat/room in backyard	5.5%	9.9%	8.4%	6.2%	4.0%	10.2%	2.1%	4.5%
Informal dwelling/shack in backyard	2.9%	7.0%	4.5%	3.8%	2.8%	5.0%	2.0%	3.0%
Informal dwelling/shack not in backyard	8.0%	6.9%	14.4%	8.1%	5.1%	11.7%	18.7%	10.3%
Room/Flatlet not in backyard but on a shared property	3.2%	1.4%	0.8%	2.1%	1.1%	1.5%	1.7%	1.6%
Others	1.9%	4.0%	1.4%	2.7%	0.7%	0.0%	0.9%	0.7%
ENERGY SOURCE FOR COOKING								
Electricity/Solar	78.6%	86.0%	46.5%	74.4%	82.8%	84.1%	54.8%	74.9%
Gas	5.7%	1.5%	5.8%	4.4%	4.4%	1.2%	3.1%	2.9%
Paraffin	6.9%	11.6%	36.5%	12.8%	5.9%	13.2%	16.5%	12.4%
Wood	7.8%	0.0%	10.5%	6.2%	6.7%	0.7%	24.2%	8.8%
Coal/Animal dung/Others/Unspecified	0.9%	0.8%	0.8%	2.2%	0.1%	0.9%	1.5%	1.0%
ACCESS TO TELEPHONE								
Telephone in the dwelling or cellphone	48.8%	45.6%	25.8%	45.8%	66.2%	74.8%	45.8%	63.2%
At a neighbour nearby	8.5%	3.0%	6.8%	6.3%	7.1%	3.2%	4.6%	6.3%
At a public telephone nearby	27.8%	40.6%	41.5%	31.9%	20.1%	18.7%	35.7%	22.6%
At another location nearby	10.7%	4.4%	6.3%	7.9%	2.5%	0.7%	4.5%	3.1%
At another location not nearby	0.4%	1.6%	8.1%	2.2%	1.7%	2.0%	2.3%	1.7%
No access to telephone/Unspecified	3.9%	4.7%	11.5%	6.0%	2.5%	0.6%	7.1%	3.1%
SANITATION								
Flush or chemical toilet	83.1	93.8	48.6	79.1	85.5	89.3	52.7	76.7

	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Pit latrine	7.0%	2.6%	36.0 %	11.2 %	3.1%	6.1%	20.0 %	9.1%
Bucket latrine	3.8%	1.9%	6.5%	3.5%	1.5%	2.0%	8.8%	4.9%
None of the above/Unspecified	6.1%	1.7%	9.0%	6.2%	9.9%	2.6%	18.5 %	9.4%

Table A8.3 Continued

	Census 1996				**Census 2001**			
	I	**II**	**III**	**IV**	**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**
REFUSE REMOVAL								
Removed by local authority at least once a week	76.6 %	87.9 %	48.5 %	74.6 %	80.7 %	86.8 %	47.2 %	73.4 %
Removed by local authority less often	1.1%	2.2%	0.8%	1.3%	0.9%	1.7%	2.8%	2.2%
Communal refuse dump	7.5%	1.2%	2.7%	4.7%	1.9%	2.3%	1.8%	1.9%
Own refuse dump	11.2 %	4.3%	41.5 %	15.0 %	15.3 %	7.9%	43.4 %	20.0 %
No rubbish disposal/Others/Unspecified	3.6%	4.4%	6.6%	4.4%	1.2%	1.4%	4.8%	2.5%
ACCESS TO WATER								
Piped water in dwelling	76.3 %	78.4 %	45.8 %	71.5 %				
Piped water on site	13.9 %	14.2 %	21.5 %	14.8 %				
Public tap	6.7%	5.3%	20.4 %	8.4%				
Piped water/tap inside dwelling					72.4 %	65.5 %	32.5 %	60.1 %
Piped water/tap inside yard					14.8 %	20.5 %	23.2 %	18.3 %
Piped water on community stand: < 200m					4.9%	5.5%	18.7 %	8.6%
Piped water on community stand: > 200m					4.6%	7.0%	16.2 %	8.9%
Others/Unspecified	3.1%	2.1%	12.3 %	5.3%	3.3%	1.5%	9.4%	4.1%

Appendix IX Broad unemployment rate of each MD in Census 1996 and municipality in Census 2001

Table A9.1 Broad unemployment rate of each MD in Census 1996 and municipality in Census 2001

Census 1996			Census 2001		
MD Code	**MD Name**	**Unemployment rate**	**Municipality Code**	**Municipality Name**	**Unemployment rate**
301	Namakwaland	23.12%	1	Richtersveld	36.12%
302	Calvinia	14.87%	2	Nama Khoi	38.33%
303	Sutherland	13.43%	3	Kamiesberg	41.98%
304	Williston	16.96%	4	Hantam	26.23%
305	Carnarvon	36.64%	5	Karoo Hoogland	29.55%
306	Prieska	23.03%	6	Khâi-Ma	25.95%
307	Britstown	39.67%	7	Ubuntu	34.80%
308	Colesberg	32.78%	8	Umsombomvu	55.75%
309	De Aar	32.85%	9	Emthanjeni	44.04%
310	Hanover	41.01%	10	Kareeberg	41.34%
311	Hopetown	24.92%	11	Renosterberg	49.78%
312	Noupoort	57.41%	12	Thembelihle	29.19%
313	Philipstown	40.82%	13	Siyathemba	45.63%
314	Richmond	24.00%	14	Siyancuma	35.64%
315	Gordonia	24.47%	15	Mier	47.19%
316	Kenhardt	18.39%	16	Kai !Garib	19.53%
317	Barkley-West	42.16%	17	Khara Hais	40.67%
318	Hartswater	17.90%	18	!Kheis	25.83%
319	Herbert	25.52%	19	Tsantsabane	43.71%
320	Warrenton	38.46%	20	Kgatelopele	34.58%
321	Kimberley	32.80%	21	Sol Plaatjie	44.61%
322	Kuruman	16.63%	22	Dikgatlong	51.83%
323	Postmasburg	24.93%	23	Magareng	54.86%
324	Hay	23.14%	24	Gamagara	21.81%
325	Fraserburg	20.57%	81	Ga-Segonyana	32.43%
326	Victoria-West	19.54%	87	Phokwane	27.27%
			91	Namaqualand	0.00%
			92	Bo Karoo	17.25%
			93	Benede Oranje	3.17%
			94	Diamondfields	9.77%
			95	Kalahari	15.32%

Appendix X Poverty rate of each MD in Census 1996 and municipality in Census 2001

Table A10.1 Poverty rate of each MD in Census 1996 and municipality in Census 2001

Census 1996				**Census 2001**			
Magisterial district		**Poverty rate**		**Magisterial district**		**Poverty rate**	
Code	**Name**	**Including households with zero income**	**Excluding households with zero income**	**Code**	**Name**	**Including households with zero income**	**Excluding households with zero income**
301	Namakwaland	35.03%	31.41%	1	Richtersveld	41.06%	32.15%
302	Calvinia	49.13%	47.44%	2	Nama Khoi	39.51%	32.39%
303	Sutherland	46.93%	46.00%	3	Kamiesberg	42.74%	36.49%
304	Williston	40.81%	39.96%	4	Hantam	45.38%	38.48%
305	Carnarvon	65.85%	62.96%	5	Karoo Hoogland	43.91%	41.35%
306	Prieska	58.89%	56.42%	6	Khâi-Ma	49.64%	42.81%
307	Britstown	75.06%	72.36%	7	Ubuntu	50.92%	46.30%
308	Colesberg	67.00%	64.33%	8	Umsombomvu	68.37%	62.29%
309	De Aar	47.40%	42.9%	9	Emthanjeni	55.17%	47.65%
310	Hanover	72.24%	69.27%	10	Kareeberg	58.42%	53.67%
311	Hopetown	65.04%	63.58%	11	Renosterberg	61.58%	51.96%
312	Noupoort	74.61%	72.11%	12	Thembelihle	53.92%	49.51%
313	Philipstown	62.53%	58.30%	13	Siyathemba	63.40%	56.78%
314	Richmond	72.26%	71.09%	14	Siyancuma	55.95%	49.35%
315	Gordonia	50.76%	47.97%	15	Mier	61.66%	50.00%
316	Kenhardt	46.20%	44.47%	16	Kai !Garib	46.46%	41.75%
317	Barkley-West	69.57%	64.99%	17	Khara Hais	48.38%	41.78%
318	Hartswater	61.50%	59.36%	18	!Kheis	64.29%	61.24%
319	Herbert	76.11%	74.00%	19	Tsantsabane	56.27%	50.03%
320	Warrenton	70.71%	68.26%	20	Kgatelopele	48.22%	41.60%
321	Kimberley	43.47%	39.20%	21	Sol Plaatjie	45.77%	37.19%
322	Kuruman	50.81%	43.92%	22	Dikgatlong	64.11%	52.99%
323	Postmasburg	45.24%	40.59%	23	Magareng	69.61%	61.85%
324	Hay	65.41%	63.57%	24	Gamagara	35.11%	29.75%
325	Fraserburg	62.53%	59.03%	81	Ga-Segonyana	49.98%	36.88%
326	Victoria-West	61.50%	60.81%	87	Phokwane	56.32%	52.85%
				91	Namaqualand	36.63%	36.63%
				92	Bo Karoo	51.72%	50.52%
				93	Benede Oranje	35.58%	34.81%
				94	Diamondfields	47.67%	47.00%
				95	Kalahari	48.56%	45.42%

The Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit

The Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit (SALDRU) conducts research directed at improving the well-being of South Africa's poor. It was established in 1975. Over the next two decades the unit's research played a central role in documenting the human costs of apartheid. Key projects from this period included the Farm Labour Conference (1976), the Economics of Health Care Conference (1978), and the Second Carnegie Enquiry into Poverty and Development in South Africa (1983-86). At the urging of the African National Congress, from 1992-1994 SALDRU and the World Bank coordinated the Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development (PSLSD). This project provide baseline data for the implementation of post-apartheid socio-economic policies through South Africa's first non-racial national sample survey.

In the post-apartheid period, SALDRU has continued to gather data and conduct research directed at informing and assessing anti-poverty policy. In line with its historical contribution, SALDRU's researchers continue to conduct research detailing changing patterns of well-being in South Africa and assessing the impact of government policy on the poor. Current research work falls into the following research themes: post-apartheid poverty; employment and migration dynamics; family support structures in an era of rapid social change; public works and public infrastructure programmes, financial strategies of the poor; common property resources and the poor. Key survey projects include the Langeberg Integrated Family Survey (1999), the Khayelitsha/Mitchell's Plain Survey (2000), the ongoing Cape Area Panel Study (2001-) and the Financial Diaries Project.

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