

Migration Dynamics of Women, Children and the Elderly in South Africa

Report no: 03-51-04



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Statistics South Africa

Report No. 03-51-04

Risenga Maluleke
Statistician-General

Migration Dynamics of women, children and the elderly in South Africa / Statistics South Africa

Published by Statistics South Africa, Private Bag X44, Pretoria 0001

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Stats SA Library Cataloguing-in-Publication (CIP) Data

Migration Dynamics of women, children and the elderly in South Africa / Statistics South Africa.
Pretoria: Statistics South Africa, 2020

Report no. 03-51-04

77 pp

ISBN 978-0-621-48196-9

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For technical enquiries, please contact:

Mrs Princlle Dasappa-Venketsamy
Email: princelled@statssa.gov.za

Mr Diego Iturralde
Email: diegoi@statssa.gov.za

PREFACE

In today's globalised world, migration is a progressively important policy issue. Economic hardship and geopolitical crises are resulting in growing and diverse migratory movements. Migration is increasingly being recognised as a significant global challenge and opportunity, and is an important phenomenon shaping the demographic profile of countries. The number of people living outside their country of birth is now increasing faster than world population growth. Migration research and literature has largely been focused on men, as this was the predominant cohort migrating. As women, children and the elderly increasingly move, there is a need to comprehensively understand the dynamics of these groups. This report focuses on the migration dynamics of women, children and the elderly, and presents findings related to demographic, education, employment and housing variables. The purpose of the report is to improve awareness of the situation of women, children and the elderly in South Africa and to ensure gender-sensitive and age-sensitive migration, economic and development policymaking. The report serves to contribute to the narrative on migrant women, children and the elderly in South Africa, to advance evidence-based discourse, decision-making and policymaking.



Risenga Maluleke
Statistician-General

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Contributors

Mrs Princelle Dasappa-Venketsamy (main contributor)

Mr Diego Iturralde

Reviewer

Mr Tunde Omoyeni, International Organization for Migration (IOM)

Editor

Mrs Annelize Allner

Cover page

Ms Vuyokazi Sodo

Report layout and publication

Mrs Joey Baker

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In today's globalised world, migration is a progressively important policy issue. Economic hardship and geopolitical crises are resulting in growing and diverse migratory movements. Migration is increasingly being recognised as a significant global challenge and opportunity, and is an important phenomenon shaping the demographic profile of countries. The number of people living outside their country of birth is now increasing faster than world population growth. Migration research and literature has largely been focused on men, as this was the predominant cohort migrating. As women, children and the elderly increasingly move, there is a need to comprehensively understand the dynamics of these groups.

This report focuses on the migration dynamics of women, children and the elderly; and presents findings related to demographic, education, employment and housing variables, using data from Census 2011 and the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2012 and 2017). Analysis is based on international migration. The purpose of the report is to improve awareness of the situation of women, children and the elderly in South Africa and to ensure gender-sensitive and age-sensitive migration, economic and development policymaking. The National Development Plan 2030 states that South Africa will need to adopt a much more progressive migration policy. This can only be done if there is sufficient data on the movement of people within the country and on those entering the country. Hence, this report serves to expand the knowledge on movement and to provide an extensive analysis of trends on migrant women, children and the elderly. The report is informed by national and global development frameworks:

- The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs),
- The National Development Plan,
- The African Union Migration Policy Framework, and
- The Global Compact for Migration.

These frameworks and goals have direct and indirect consequences on migration, gender and age. SDG 17.18 highlights the need for the availability of timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and other characteristics of national relevance.

A contemporary issue relevant to migration is that of the feminisation of migration. A changing pattern has emerged worldwide, whereby many women are not only moving, but are also moving on their own rather than joining up with their family. The traditional pattern of migration within and from Africa, which has been male-dominated, is increasingly becoming feminised. African women move within and outside their countries, for economic reasons, education, professional development, marriage and protection. The increasing feminisation of migration is a result of the shifting demands for types of skills, such as in the service industries, domestic workers, nurses, teachers, care workers and other typically female dominated professions. Migration and labour is a topical and important issue, nationally and globally. Chapters 2 and 3 analyse data from the Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 3, 2012 and 2017 and focus on women of working age (ages 15–64).

Findings indicate that migrant women are increasingly moving in search of jobs. A higher proportion of non-migrant women than migrant women are not part of the labour force. Despite a higher proportion of

migrant women (as compared to non-migrant women) being employed, almost half of migrant women work in the informal sector. Research into a gendered perspective on migration speaks frequently on women's involvement in domestic work. Domestic work is largely an exploited sector. Domestic workers often work without a contract in place, and their employment can be terminated at any time. Despite being labour intensive, domestic work is a low-paid job. In addition to this, having a domestic worker may be seen as a luxury and not a necessity. If the household is experiencing financial stress, termination of the domestic worker's employment may be an initial financial coping mechanism. Hence, domestic workers find themselves in unstable and unreliable working conditions. About one in four migrant women work as domestic workers. About one in five migrant domestic workers reported to be underemployed in 2017. A higher proportion of migrant domestic workers wanted to work longer hours, or wanted to take on an additional job.

Many young migrants set out to find opportunities for work or education, or to escape challenges and difficulties in their country of origin. Some children migrate when their families break down or their parents die. Others move to join family members who made the journey ahead of them. In some cases, children migrate on their own because their chances of success are deemed greater than those of older family members. Consideration of migration in this cohort is integral, as development plans, such as the Sustainable Development Goals, put emphasis on children and migration. This cohort represents a specific category of migrants whose unique needs, rights and challenges are not being adequately addressed by the larger migration policy debate. Chapters 4 and 5 analyse data from Census 2011 and focus on children (ages 0–17). Findings indicate that less than one quarter of migrant children are South African citizens. This low proportion has an impact on the services that these children will be able to access in South Africa. Only 5% of non-migrant children were not attending school, whilst about 20% of migrant children were not attending school. Migrant children were more inclined than non-migrant children to work or run a business. About two times as many migrant girls (compared to non-migrant girls) have given birth, indicating that fertility rates in South Africa will be affected by immigration. Migrant child-headed households live in more favourable housing conditions. However non-migrant child-headed households have better access to household wealth.

It is integral to collect, process and report on data on older persons in the migration context, to improve policymaking and planning. These endeavours will support the achievement of ageing-related SDGs, such as protecting the human rights of all people of all ages by leaving no one behind. Older persons in the migration context are at risk of being overlooked, which might perpetuate vulnerabilities and inequalities. Chapters 6 and 7 analyse data from Census 2011 and focus on the elderly (ages 65 years and older). Findings indicate that the highest proportion of the migrant elderly moved to South Africa before 1990. About 27% were from the United Kingdom, and less than 10% were from Zimbabwe. This indicates that many migrants from neighbouring countries may return to their country of birth after retirement. This is congruent with literature, which states that South Africa is largely a recipient of economic migrants. The migrant elderly had better education outcomes than the non-migrant elderly

and were more inclined to work, run a business, or want to work. The migrant elderly lived in more favourable housing conditions and increased household wealth.

Migration research and literature has largely been focused on men (particularly men of working age), as this was the predominant group migrating. As women, children and the elderly increasingly move, there is a need for new data sources to comprehensively understand the dynamics of these groups. Whilst Census has a wealth of information, there is a need for quality migration data in the intercensal period. The purpose of the report is to improve awareness of the situation of women, children and the elderly in South Africa and to ensure gender-sensitive and age-sensitive migration, economic and development policymaking. The report has served to contribute to the narrative on migrant women, children and the elderly in South Africa, to advance evidence-based discourse, decision-making and policymaking.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
NEET	Not in employment, education or training
NDP	National Development Plan
QLFS	Quarterly Labour Force Survey
SA	South Africa
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

In today's globalised world, migration is a progressively important policy issue. Economic hardship and geopolitical crises are resulting in growing and diverse migratory movements. Migration is increasingly being recognised as a significant global challenge and opportunity,¹ and is an important phenomenon shaping the demographic profile of countries.² Development and expansion of transportation routes, methods and networks have made it easier, cheaper and faster for people to move in search of jobs, opportunity, education and better quality of life. At the same time, conflict, poverty, inequality and a lack of sustainable livelihoods compel people to leave their homes to seek a better future for themselves and their families abroad. The number of people living outside their country of birth is now increasing faster than world population growth.³ Women are joining migration flows in growing numbers as independent workers, which has important consequences for gender equality in countries of origin and destination alike. The traditional pattern of migration within and from Africa, which has been male-dominated, is increasingly becoming feminised. African women move independently within and outside their countries, for economic reasons, education, professional development, marriage and protection. The increasing feminisation of migration is a result of the shifting demands for types of skills, such as in the service industries, especially for domestic workers, nurses, teachers, care workers and other typically female dominated professions. The feminisation of migration serves to contribute to gender equality, as women become economically empowered, gain new skills and take on different roles in countries of origin, transit and destination. The migration of men may also positively affect gender roles, as women who stay behind take on greater responsibility in the household and have increased decision-making power.⁴ The feminisation of migration has been a phenomenon that has transpired over the last few decades, globally, as well as in South Africa. This can be attributed to the following reasons:⁵

- i. The demand for labour is increasingly becoming gender-selective and more in favour of jobs typically filled by women. Examples of this include the service industry, hospitality, and healthcare.
- ii. Transformation of gender relations means that women now have autonomy to advance in education status, which makes them more marketable to work, as well as to migrate.
- iii. There has been an increase in the migration of women for domestic work, structured migration for marriage and the trafficking and smuggling of women into the sex industry.

Child migration is a global reality. As of 2015, thirty-one million children were living outside their country of birth. While most of them moved in a regular fashion to relocate in a different country with their families, this number also includes ten million child refugees and one million asylum seekers who fled armed conflict, violence and persecution (UNICEF, 2018). There are some distinctive aspects to children's migration that contribute to the high and rising numbers of children moving on their own. Many

¹ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2017. *International Migration Report 2017*. New York: United Nations.

² De Brauw, A. & Carletto, C. 2012. *Improving the measurement and policy relevance of migration information in multi-topic household surveys*. Washington DC: World Bank.

³ Ibid.

⁴ African Union (2017). *The Revised Migration Policy Framework for Africa and Plan of Action (2018 – 2027)*

⁵ United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2017. *International Migration Report 2017*. New York: United Nations.

young migrants set out to find opportunities for work or education, or to escape unwanted child marriage or gender-based violence (UNICEF, 2017). Some children migrate when their families break down or their parents die. Others move to join family members who made the journey ahead of them. In some cases, children migrate on their own because their chances of success are deemed greater than those of older family members.

It is important to collect, process and report on data on older persons in the migration context to improve policymaking and planning. These endeavours will also support the achievement of ageing-related SDGs, such as protecting the human rights of all people of all ages by “leaving no one behind” (IOM, 2019). Older persons in migration contexts are at risk of being overlooked, which might perpetuate vulnerabilities and inequalities. Consideration of migration in this cohort is integral, as development plans, such as the Sustainable Development Goals, puts the emphasis on the elderly and migration. This cohort represents a specific category of migrants whose unique needs, rights and challenges are not being adequately addressed by the larger migration policy debate. The purpose of the analysis on the elderly is to improve awareness of the situation of the elderly in South Africa and to ensure age-sensitive migration, economic and development policymaking.

Lifetime migration, which is based on place of birth, is a useful measure of migration. Its merit lies in the definition as it ascribes a migrant as an individual who has moved from their place of birth at any time during his or her lifetime. This definition, however, treats all people originating from outside the country/province of usual residence as being a migrant without consideration of the timing of their move. Information on migrant stock is important for understanding the long-term effects of migration and the characteristics of migrant populations. All that is known is that the migrant moved sometime in their life. As a result, little is known about the number of moves or the timing of the last move, other than that lifetime migrants moved at least once.

1.2 Context of the report

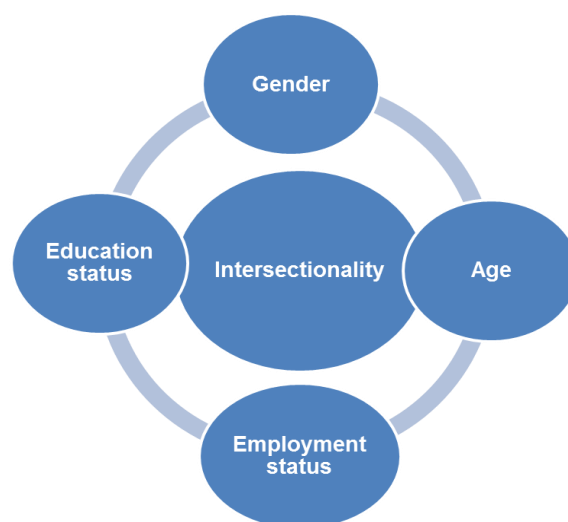
The report brings to the forefront the relationship between migration status, sex and age with education and employment, on the basis on intersectionality. Intersectionality can be described as a “complex system of multiple, simultaneous structure of oppression”.⁶ With regard to migration, intersectionality can be viewed as “the consequence of one burden interacting with [the] existing vulnerabilities – to create a new dimension of disempowerment”.⁷ Intersectionality would consider the ‘one burden’ in this report as the migration status and its interactions with other variables of discrimination and vulnerability. Individuals may be exposed to several variables that lead to vulnerability, such as sex, age, location, education and employment status. Combining these factors exacerbates the experience for the migrant. According to the intersectionality model, a woman who is a migrant would have a different experience than a male migrant, or a woman who is not a migrant. Similarly, a child or the elderly who are migrants

⁶ Crenshaw, K. 1995. Mapping the margins: Intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of colour. In: *Critical race theory*. New York: The New Press. 257-383.

⁷ Ibid.

have a different life experience than a non-migrant. In the South African context, the intersection of sex, age, education and employment status further disempowers the migrant individual (Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Thematic areas pertaining to the concept of intersectionality



1.3 Development framework positioning the report

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development and its Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), provides a roadmap for development that is sustainable and leaves no one behind.⁸ Migration is one of the defining features of the status quo and contributes significantly to all aspects of social and economic development, and as such is integral to the achievement of the global development agenda. Development is above all about increasing social and economic inclusion and ensuring all people have secure livelihoods, enabling them to live a life in dignity, out of poverty. Sustainable Development Goal 17.18 highlights the need for the availability of “timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts”. Hence, considering migration, gender and age is an integral developmental issue.

⁸ United Nations Women (2019). Women and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

Table 1.1: Development frameworks positioning the report

Plan	Objectives	Targets
National Development Plan	Recommendations of the National Development Plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public employment should be expanded to provide work for the unemployed, with a specific focus on youth and women. The transformation of the economy should involve the active participation and empowerment of women. The role of women as leaders in all sectors of society should be actively supported. Social, cultural, religious and educational barriers to women entering the job market should be addressed. Concrete measures should be put in place and the results should be evaluated over time. Access to safe drinking water, electricity and quality early childhood education, for example, could free women from doing unpaid work and help them seek jobs. By 2030, people living in South Africa should have no fear of crime. Women, children and those who are vulnerable should feel protected. Security of tenure should be created for communal farmers, especially women.
African Union Migration Policy Framework	Themes	a) Labour migration, b) Border management, c) Irregular migration, d) Forced displacement, e) Human rights of migrants, f) Internal migration, g) Migration data, h) Migration and development, and i) Inter-state cooperation and partnerships. 9.8 Migration and Gender
Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)⁹	SDG 5 (Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls)	5.1 End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere. 5.2 Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls in the public and private spheres, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation. 5.3 Eliminate all harmful practices, such as child, early and forced marriage and female genital mutilation. 5.4 Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate. 5.C Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels.
	SDG 8 (Decent work and economic growth)	8.8 Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment.
	SDG 10 (Reduce inequality within and among countries)	10.7 Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies.
	SDG 17 (Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development)	17.18 By 2020, enhance capacity-building support to developing countries, including for least developed countries and small island developing states, to increase significantly the availability of high-quality, timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics relevant in national contexts.

⁹ International Labour Organization. 2018. Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Plan	Objectives	Targets
Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration ¹⁰	Preamble Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls	The Global Compact ensures that the human rights of women, men, girls and boys are respected at all stages of migration, their specific needs are properly understood and addressed and they are empowered as agents of change. It mainstreams a gender perspective, promotes gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls, recognizing their independence, agency and leadership in order to move away from addressing migrant women primarily through a lens of victimhood.
	Objective 5	Enhance availability and flexibility of pathways for regular migration.
	Resolution 21	We commit to adapt options and pathways for regular migration in a manner that facilitates labour mobility and decent work reflecting demographic and labour market realities, optimises education opportunities, upholds the right to family life, and responds to the needs of migrants in a situation of vulnerability, with a view to expanding and diversifying availability of pathways for safe, orderly and regular migration.
	Objective 6	Facilitate fair and ethical recruitment and safeguard conditions that ensure decent work.
	Resolution 22	We commit to review existing recruitment mechanisms to guarantee that they are fair and ethical, and to protect all migrant workers against all forms of exploitation and abuse in order to guarantee decent work and maximize the socioeconomic contributions of migrants in both their countries of origin and destination.
	Objective 18	Invest in skills development and facilitate mutual recognition of skills, qualifications and competences.
	Resolution 34	We commit to invest in innovative solutions that facilitate mutual recognition of skills, qualifications and competences of migrant workers at all skills levels, and promote demand driven skills development to optimize the employability of migrants in formal labour markets in countries of destination and in countries of origin upon return, as well as to ensure decent work in labour migration.

1.4 Purpose and objectives of the report

The purpose of the report is to provide insight into the socio-economic and demographic characteristics related to migration and women, children and the elderly, using data collected from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). The report focuses on the interaction between gender, age and migration. The National Development Plan 2030 says that South Africa will need to adopt a much more progressive migration policy. This can only be done if there is sufficient data on the movement of people within the country and on those entering the country. Hence, this report serves to expand the knowledge on movement and to provide an extensive analysis of trends on migrant women, children and the elderly.

The report addresses the following objectives:

- To provide a demographic, employment and education profile of non-migrant and migrant women;
- To profile non-migrant and migrant women who work as domestic workers;
- To profile non-migrant and migrant child migrants;

¹⁰International Labour Organization. 2018. Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators. Geneva: International Labour Organization.

- To determine the household characteristics and living conditions of child-headed households;
- To profile non-migrant and migrant elderly; and
- To determine the household characteristics and living conditions of households headed by the elderly.

1.5 Typology of migration

The report is unique in its construction, as it relates to migration, women, children and the elderly. As such, Table 1.2 explores concepts and terms that are discussed in the report.

Table 1.2: Typology of migration

Typology	Main characteristics
Children	Population below the age of eighteen years.
Child-headed household	A household headed by a child.
Discouraged job-seeker	Discouraged job-seekers are persons who wanted to work but did not try to find work or start a business because they believed that no jobs were available in their area, or they were unable to find jobs requiring their skills, or they had lost hope of finding any kind of work. Discouraged job-seekers and other (not economically active) are counted as out of the labour force under international guidelines, as they were not looking for work and were not available for work.
Elderly	Population aged sixty-five years and older.
Employed	Those who were engaged in market production activities in the week prior to the survey interview (even if only for one hour) as well as those who were temporarily absent from their activities. Market production employment refers to those who: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Worked for a wage, salary, commission or payment in kind; • Ran any kind of business, big or small, on their own, or with one or more partners; or • Helped without being paid in a business run by another household member.
Migrant	An individual who was enumerated in a province in South Africa (SA), but who indicated that they were not born in SA.
Household headed by the elderly	A household headed by those aged sixty-five and older.
Informal employment	This indicator is intended to identify persons who are in precarious employment situations. It includes all persons in the informal sector.
Informal sector	The informal sector has two components: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees working in establishments that employ fewer than five employees, who do not deduct income tax from their salaries/wages; and • Employers, own-account workers and persons helping unpaid in their household businesses who are not registered for either income tax or value-added tax.
Internal-migrant	An individual who was born in a particular province, and was enumerated in a different province.
Intersectionality	A complex system of multiple, simultaneous structures of oppression.
Labour force	The number of people that are employed plus those who are unemployed constitute the labour force or economically active population.
Lifetime migration	An individual whose province of usual residence at the census/survey date differs from his/her province/ country of birth.
Long-term unemployment	Persons who have been unemployed, available for work, and looking for a job for one year or longer.

Typology	Main characteristics
Migrant	A person who was enumerated in a province in South Africa, but who indicated that they were born outside South Africa (in another country).
Migrant stock	The total number of migrants living in a country at a particular point in time.
Non-migrant	A person who was born in a particular province in South Africa.
Not economically active	A person who reaches working age may not necessarily enter the labour force. He/she may remain outside the labour force and would then be regarded as inactive. This inactivity can be voluntary – if the person prefers to stay at home or wishes to begin or continue education – or involuntary, where the person would prefer to work but is discouraged and has given up hope of finding work.
Occupation	The type of activities/work undertaken by persons working in a business/establishment/factory, etc.
Short-term unemployment	Persons who have been unemployed, available for work, and looking for a job for less than one year.
Underemployed	If total hours usually worked is less than 35 and the individual wants to work more hours and is available to start work within the next four weeks.
Unemployed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Official definition: persons who did not work, but who looked for work and were available to work in the reference period. • Expanded definition: persons who did not work, but were available to work in the reference period.
Unemployment rate	The proportion of the labour force that is trying to find work.
Usual resident	A person who had stayed in the households in selected dwelling units at least four nights a week in the four weeks prior to the interview.
Working-age population	Population aged 15–64 who fall into each of the three labour market components (employed, unemployed, not economically active).

1.6 Overview of data

The report uses data from three sources provided by Stats SA, namely the (i) Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 3, 2012; (ii) Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 3, 2017; and (iii) Census 2011.

Quarterly Labour Force Survey

The Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) is a household-based, sample survey conducted by Stats SA. It collects data on the labour market activities of individuals aged 15 years and older who live in South Africa. This report presents the key findings related to migration from the QLFS conducted from October to December 2012 (Quarter 3: 2012) and October to December 2017 (Quarter 3: 2017), and will focus on women in the age group 15–64. The report refers to these two periods. The QLFS questionnaire is answered by usual residents of the household only. A usual resident is defined as a person who had stayed in the households in selected dwelling units at least four nights a week in the four weeks prior to the interview. Those who were not household members (those who had not spent at least four nights per week during the last four weeks) were excluded from completing the survey.¹¹

¹¹ Statistics South Africa. 2018. Labour Market Dynamics in South Africa 2017. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

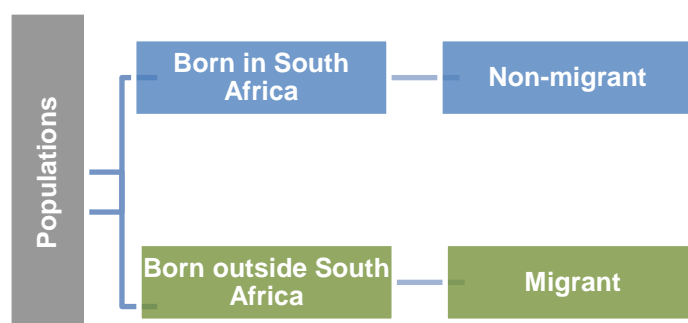
Census 2011

Three population censuses have been conducted in South Africa since the democratic dispensation (1996, 2001 and 2011). The purpose of the census is to enumerate all persons in South Africa at a particular point in time. The sections on Children and the Elderly will focus on results from Census 2011. Census 2011 provides information on the country of birth, which is used to identify those born in South Africa, as well as the migrant population. It is not the mandate of Stats SA to determine the documented status of persons in South Africa, and as such, this question is not included in the Census questionnaire. Data is available at person as well as household level.

In this report, two populations are analysed, as illustrated in Figure 1.2:

- i. Non-migrant: a person who was born in a particular province in South Africa;
- ii. Migrant: a person who was enumerated in a province in South Africa, but who indicated that they were born outside South Africa (in another country).

Figure 1.2: Categorisation of populations



WOMEN

CHAPTER 2: FEMINISATION OF MIGRATION

2.1 Introduction

There is a lack of information on migration and gender in South Africa. Comprehensible and reliable gender statistics are crucial for measuring and monitoring the realities of women's and men's lives across the region. A broad diversity of topics and issues is covered under the heading of gender statistics, reflecting the changing roles of women in society, in the economy and in families and households. Gender statistics help policymakers formulate and monitor policies and plans, monitor changes, and inform the public. The purpose of the section on women is to provide insight into the socio-economic and demographic characteristics related to women, migration and labour, and to profile migrant groups who are of working age, using data collected from Stats SA. The report focuses on women of working age who were born and not born in South Africa, with specific reference to the labour force. Focus on labour force participation is integral, as it is the main route through which migrants improve their socio-economic status.

The National Development Plan 2030 states that South Africa will need to adopt a much more progressive migration policy in relation to skilled as well as unskilled migrants. This can only be done if there is sufficient data on the movement of people within the country and on those entering the country. The African Union Migration Policy Framework for Africa states that, "Although some attempts have been made to understand the gender dimensions of migration in Africa, this area remains largely unexplored, and in general there is a lack of gendered research, analysis and understanding of women and men's diverse experiences as migrants. Gendered research would aid gender-responsive migration policy and programme development, which would be more effective in addressing the needs of migrant women and men and augmenting their contribution to development".¹² Hence, this report serves to expand the knowledge on movement and to provide an extensive analysis of trends on migrant involvement in the labour market in South Africa. This chapter addresses the following objectives:

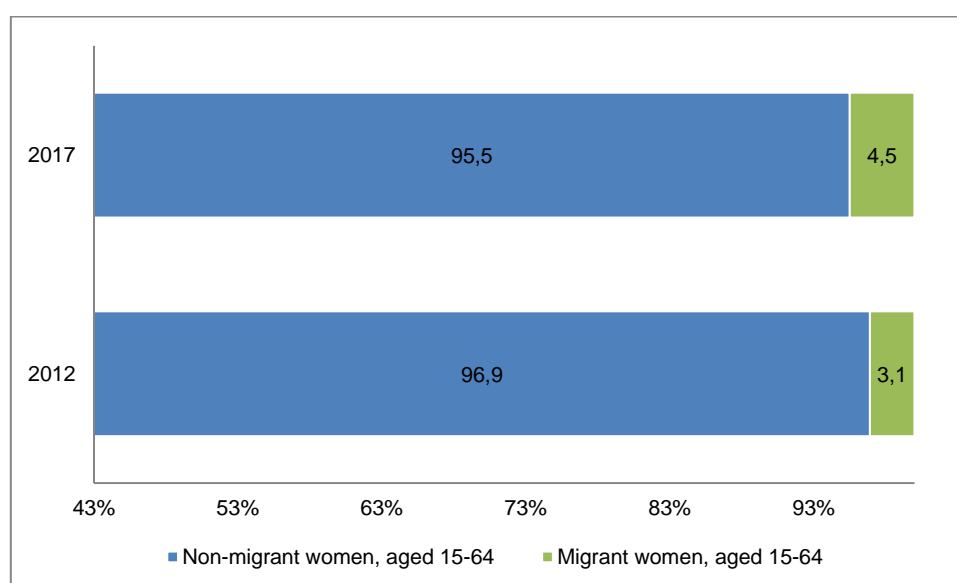
- i. To provide a demographic profile of non-migrant and migrant women; and
- ii. To provide an education and employment profile of non-migrant and migrant women.

¹² African Union (2017). The Revised Migration Policy Framework for Africa and Plan of Action (2018 – 2027)

2.2 Demographic profile

The demographic profile of non-migrant women and migrant women considers the distribution of the population by migrant status, sex ratio, marital status, provincial distribution and reason for moving. Figure 2.1 illustrates the distribution of non-migrant and migrant women aged 15–64 for 2012 and 2017. Results indicate that the number of women aged 15–64 increased from 16,9 million in 2012 to 18 million in 2017. The number of migrant women residing in South Africa increased from 3,1% in 2012 to 4,5% in 2017 (Figure 2.1.)

Figure 2.1: Distribution of women aged 15–64 by migration status, 2012 and 2017



Sex ratio

Table 2.1 indicates the sex ratio of non-migrant women and migrant women. The sex ratio shows the proportion of males relative to females in a population, and is interpreted as the ratio of males per 100 females in a population. The sex ratio varies between the two populations. The sex ratio is considerably higher amongst the migrant population, indicating that there are more male than female migrants in this group. The migrant population did see a decrease in the sex ratio from 2012 to 2017, indicating that an increasing number of females are migrating from 2012 to 2017. The sex ratio of the non-migrant population indicates more females than males in this population (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Distribution of women aged 15–64 by migration status, 2012 and 2017

Sex ratio	Q3: 012	Q3: 2017
Non-migrant population	94,6	96,0
Migrant population	145,1	133,6

Provincial distribution of migrant and non-migrant women

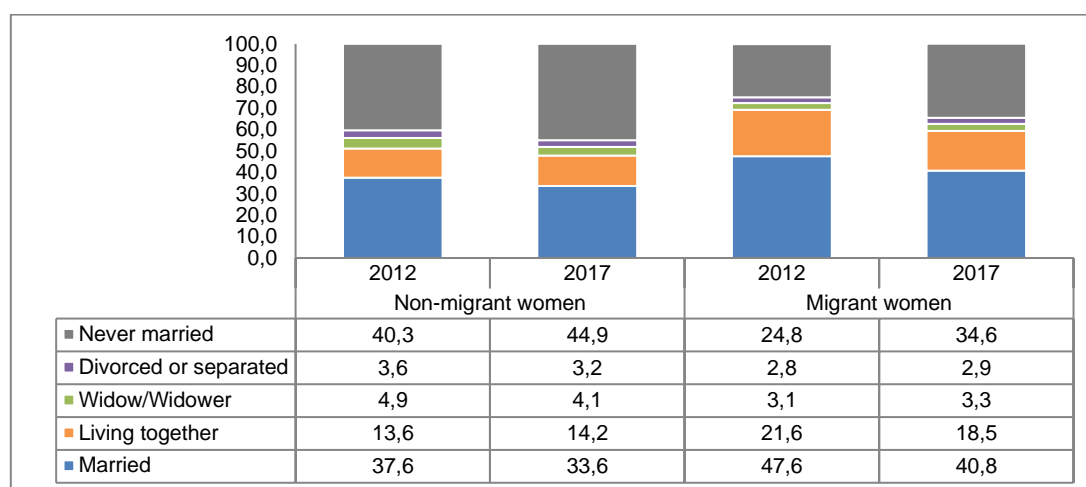
Table 2.2 indicates the provincial distribution of non-migrant and migrant women. The provincial distribution indicates that the highest proportion of migrant women resided in Gauteng in both 2012 and 2017 (Table 2.2). In 2017, a high proportion of migrant women also resided in North West, Mpumalanga and Limpopo. North West and Mpumalanga saw the largest percentage point increase from 2012 to 2017 in migrant women residing there.

Table 2.2: Provincial distribution of women aged 15–64 by migration status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-migrant		Migrant	
	2012	2017	2012	2017
Western Cape	97,3	96,1	2,7	3,9
Eastern Cape	99,3	98,6	0,7	1,4
Northern Cape	99,7	98,8	0,3	1,2
Free State	98,0	96,7	2,0	3,3
KwaZulu-Natal	99,2	98,8	0,8	1,2
North West	97,7	93,7	2,3	6,3
Gauteng	93,0	91,7	7,0	8,3
Mpumalanga	96,7	94,5	3,3	5,5
Limpopo	96,8	95,4	3,2	4,6

Marital status

Figure 2.2 illustrates the marital status for non-migrant and migrant women. The variables included in marital status are (i) Married, (ii) Living together like husband and wife, (iii) Widow/widower, (iv) Divorced or separated, and (v) Never married. Figure 2.2 indicates that amongst both groups of women, there has been an increase from 2012 to 2017 in the proportion of those who have reported to have never married, indicating that a higher proportion of women are not getting married. More than half of non-migrant women reported to have never married. There was an overall decrease in the proportion of those who reported to be married, across both non-migrant and migrant women. Marriage remains highest amongst migrant women (Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2: Distribution of women aged 15–64 by marital and migration status, 2012 and 2017

Reason for migration

In the migration module of questions, the QLFS questionnaire asks the respondent to provide a reason for migrating in the five years before the survey. Reasons ranged from those related to work, family and marriage, to those related to studies and adventure. Reason for migration is provided for non-migrant women who are internal-migrants and migrant women. Table 2.3 distinguishes between reasons for migrating for non-migrant women who are internal-migrants and migrant women for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017. Both groups of women saw a decline from 2012 to 2017 in the proportion who moved for work. The decline was more pronounced for migrant women (from 34,1% to 13,3%). There was an increase in the proportion of women who moved to look for paid work (meaning they did not already have a job at the place of destination). About one in three migrant women and one in five non-migrant women moved to look for paid work in 2017. This period (2017) also saw a significant rise in migrant women who moved for marriage (14,5%).

Table 2.3: Distribution of women, aged 15–64, by reason for moving and migration status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-migrant women		Migrant women	
	Q3: 2012	Q3: 2017	Q3: 2012	Q3: 2017
To work	23,8	21,7	34,1	13,3
Job transfer	3,4	1,8	0,9	0,7
Look for paid work	13,8	19,3	20,3	34,3
To start a business	1,2	0,0	1,7	3,9
Look for land for farming	0,0	0,2	0,0	0,0
Family moved	15,2	16,3	15,0	17,8
Marriage	7,6	5,5	8,0	14,5
School/training	10,5	15,6	9,5	1,0
To live with a relative	20,2	15,4	10,3	12,2
Divorce/separation	1,9	1,5	0,2	1,0
Adventure	2,5	2,7	0,0	1,4

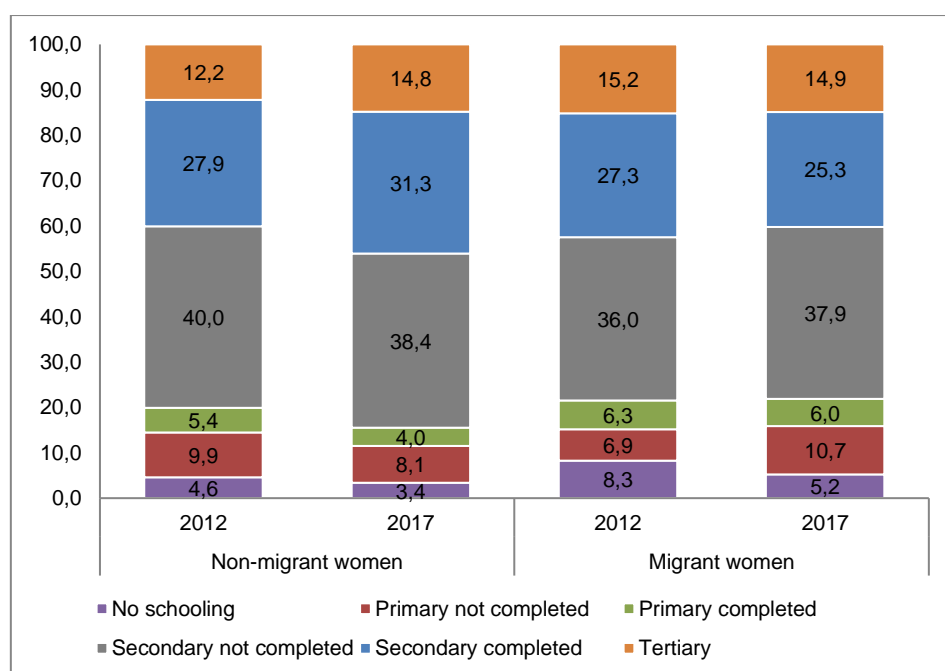
2.3 Education and employment profile

The education and employment profile focuses on the educational status and employment status of women. The section provides analysis on (a) Highest level of education of women, (b) Employment activity of women, (c) Employment and unemployment rate of women, (d) Employment and highest level of education, (e) Women who are not in education, employment or training, (f) Types of occupation women work in, (g) Women who are underemployed, (h) Duration of unemployment experienced by women, (i) Women's participation in sector of employment, (j) Women who work excessive hours, (k) Women who have an employment contract, (l) Work status of women, (m) Entitlement of women to maternity leave, and (n) Contribution of employer to medical aid.

Highest level of education of women

Figure 2.3 illustrates the distribution of the highest education level for women aged 20–64. Age 20–64 is used in the case of education status, as the population 15–19 could currently be attending school. The variables included in education status are (i) No schooling, (ii) Less than primary school education completed, (iii) Primary education completed, (iv) Secondary education not completed, (v) Secondary education completed (this includes completing matric), and (vi) Tertiary education completed. Despite decreasing from 2012 to 2017 (from 8,3% to 4,8%), migrant women accounted for the highest proportion of those who had no schooling. With regard to completing high school (grade 12 or matric), non-migrant women have the highest proportion of matriculants as compared to migrant women. The bulk of women in both populations have not completed matric. Migrant women make up the highest proportion of persons who have a tertiary qualification. Compared to non-migrant women, migrant women have the highest proportion of those who have no schooling, as well as the highest proportion of those who have a tertiary qualification (Figure 2.3). This indicates that migrant women are not a homogenous group and policies should be considerate of this.

Figure 2.3: Distribution of women aged 20–64 by highest level of education and migration status, 2012 and 2017

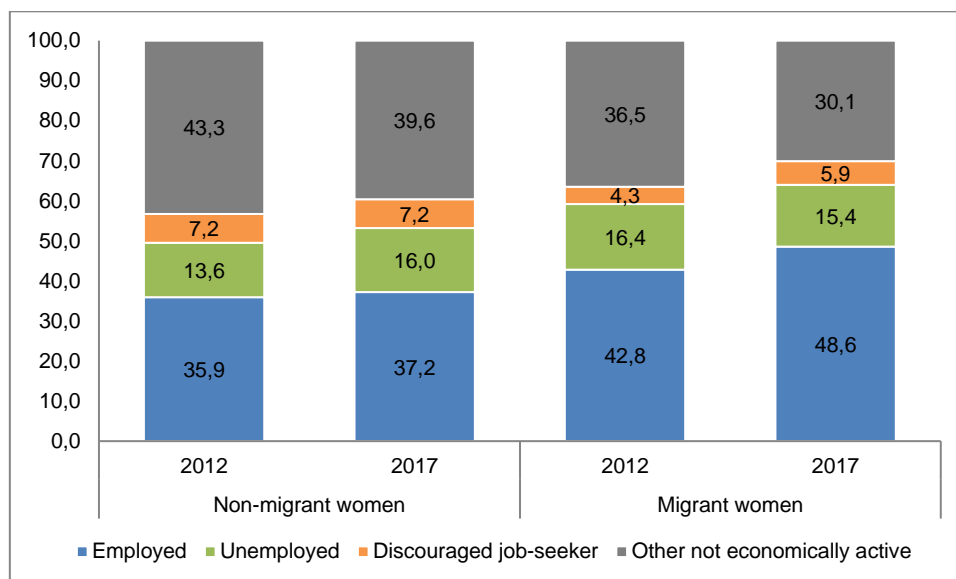


Employment status of women

Figure 2.4 provides a breakdown of the employment status for working-age non-migrant and migrant women. This breakdown considers the working-age population broadly in the categories of (i) Employed, (ii) Unemployed, (iii) Discouraged job-seeker and (iv) Not economically active populations. The proportion employed is higher for migrant women for both 2012 and 2017, as compared to non-migrant women. Non-migrant women accounted for the highest proportion in both the 'Not economically active'

and 'Discouraged job-seeker' categories. This indicates that non-migrant women are largely not economically active and are discouraged job-seekers, as compared to non-migrant women (Figure 2.4).

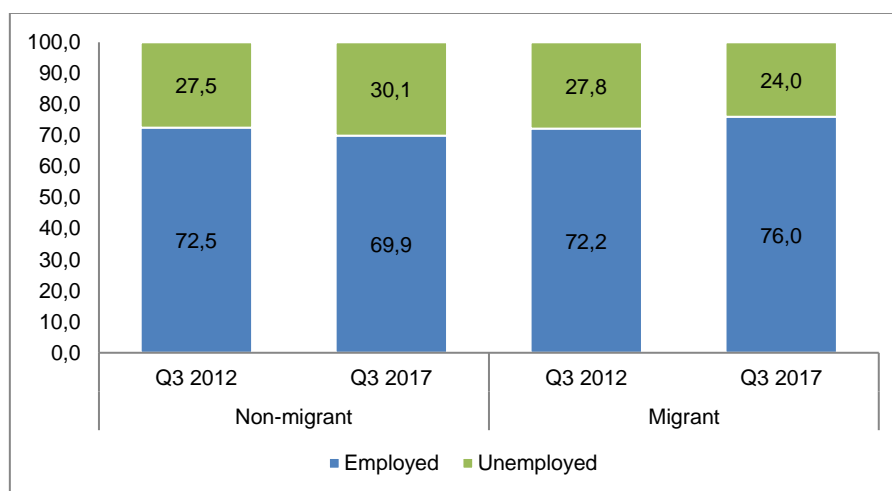
Figure 2.4: Distribution of women aged 15–64 by employment status and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Labour market status of women

Figure 2.5 illustrates the employment and unemployment rate for non-migrant and migrant women, using the official definition of employment. Non-migrant women experienced higher unemployment for both 2012 and 2017, as well as an increase in unemployment within the period (from 27,5% to 30,1%). Migrant women experienced an increase in employment from 2012 to 2017 (from 72,2% to 76,0%) (Figure 2.5).

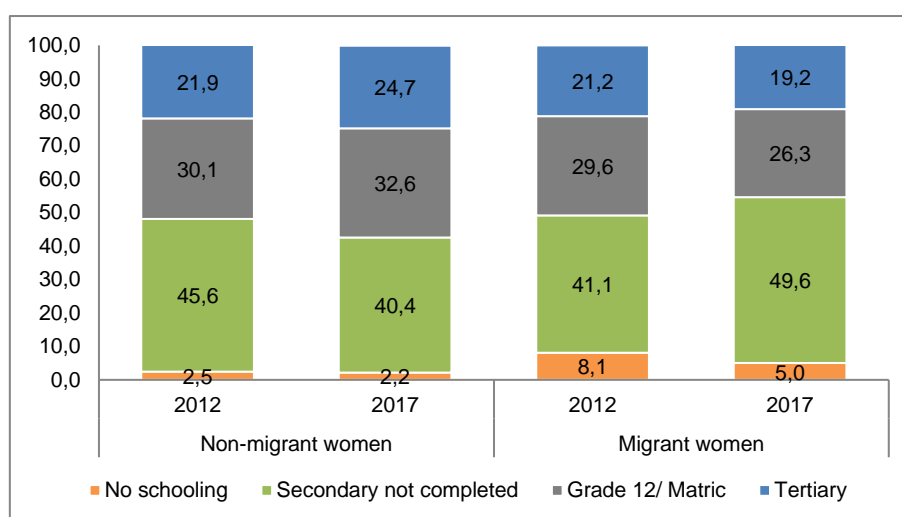
Figure 2.5: Distribution of women, aged 15–64, by labour market status and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Employment and highest level of education

In developing countries, the relationship between economic activity and education has policy relevance.¹³ Level of education may affect the propensity and the opportunity to engage in economic activity. Figure 2.6 illustrates the relationship between education status and employment, and specifically highlights the proportion employed. Amongst women who are employed, migrant women reported to have the highest proportion of those who have no schooling. However, from 2012 to 2017, there was a decrease in this number (from 8,1% to 5,0%). Amongst employed women, the highest proportions in both populations have not completed secondary school (matric or grade 12). Only about one in three women in both groups have completed grade 12. Levels of tertiary education increased for non-migrant women, whilst they decreased for migrant women (Figure 2.6).

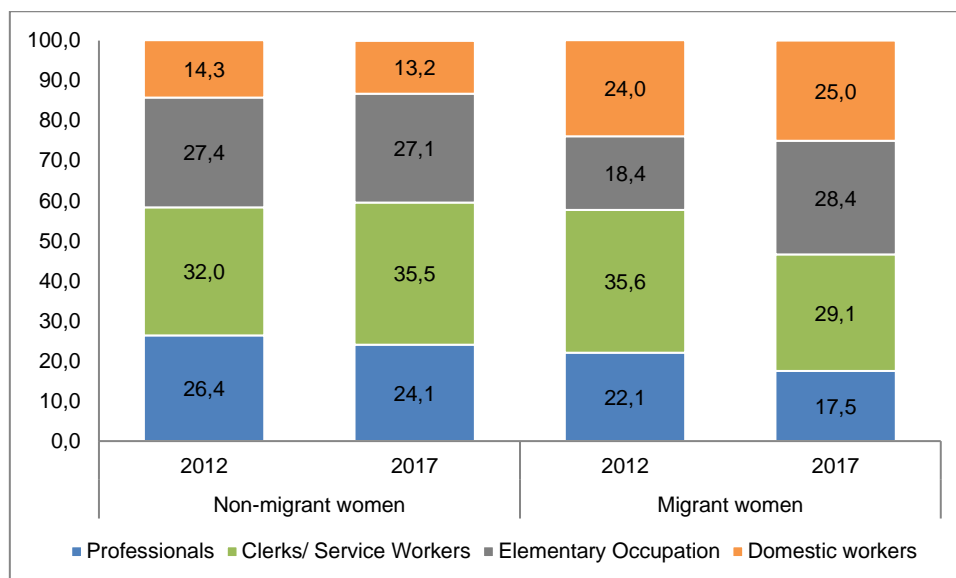
Figure 2.6: Distribution of women, aged 20-64, who are employed by highest level of education and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Types of occupation women work in

Figure 2.7 illustrates the proportion of women by occupation. The variables included in occupation are (i) Professionals (legislators, senior officials, managers, professional, technical and associate professionals); (ii) Clerks and service workers (clerks, service workers, shop and market sale workers); (iii) Elementary occupation (skilled agricultural, fishery workers, craft and related trade workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers, elementary occupation); and (iv) Domestic workers. The most popular occupation for both non-migrant and migrant women is clerks and service workers. Non-migrant women also favour elementary occupations and professional positions. A high proportion of migrant women, however, work as domestic workers. About one in four migrant women work as a domestic worker (Figure 2.7).

¹³ Odimegwu, C.O., Frade, S., De Wet, N. & Adedini, S. 2016. Demography of Labour Force in a Transitional Society. In: C. Odimegwu & J. Kekovole, eds. Social Demography of South Africa: Advances and Emerging Issues. New York: Routledge, pp. 206-225.

Figure 2.7: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by occupation and migration status, 2012 and 2017

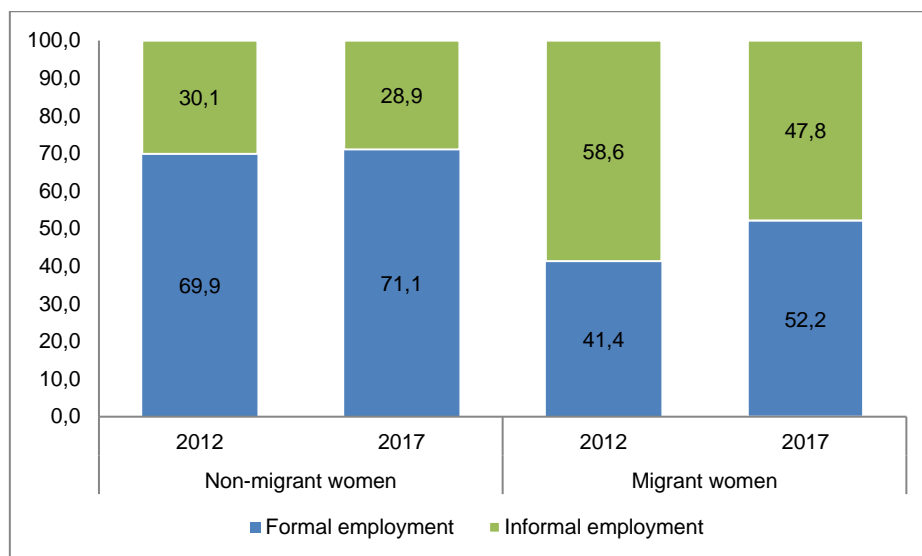
Women's participation in sector of employment

In many countries, informal employment represents a significant part of the economy and labour market, and thus plays a major role in production, employment creation and income generation.¹⁴ The informal employment sector is not a protected sector, in the sense that there are no adequate social safety nets (for example, unemployment insurance and other social protection benefits). Wages may also be low and hours not regulated.¹⁵ Figure 2.8 illustrates the sector of employment rate for both non-migrant and migrant women and indicates that the informal employment rate was substantially higher for migrant women. This indicates that almost one out of two migrant women are involved in the informal sector.

¹⁴ Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.

¹⁵ International Labour Organization. 2011. Decent Work Country Profile: South Africa, Geneva: International Labour Organization.

Figure 2.8: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by sector of employment and migration status, 2012 and 2017

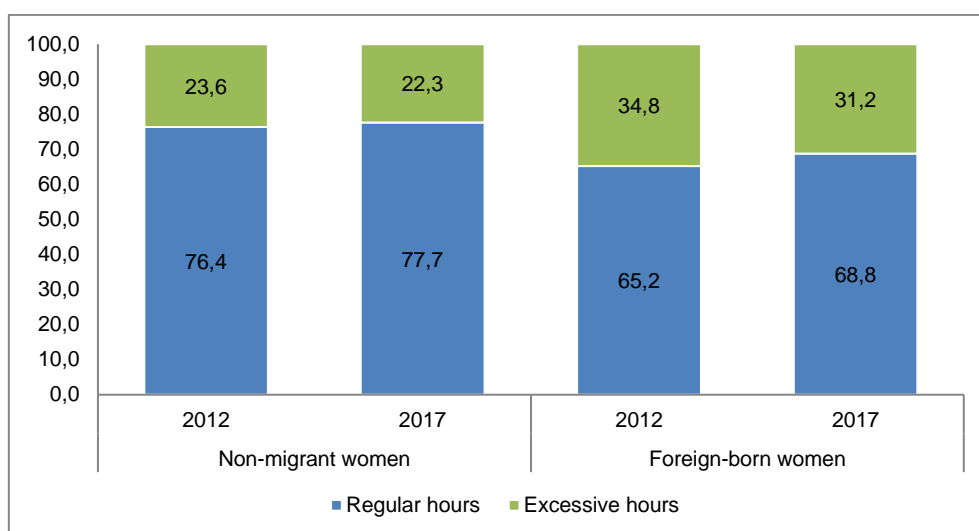


Women who work excessive hours

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act sets the maximum number of ordinary working hours at forty-five hours per week.¹⁶ The number of hours worked has an impact on the health and wellbeing of workers and their productivity. Measuring the level and trends of working hours for different groups of persons and for individuals is important for monitoring working and living conditions and for analysing economic and social developments. Figure 2.9 illustrates the proportion of women that worked excessive hours and indicates that there was an overall decrease in the proportion working excessive hours for all women, from 2012 to 2017. Despite this decline, one in three migrant women still worked excessive hours in both periods (Figure 2.9).

Figure 2.9: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by hours worked and migration status, 2012 and 2017

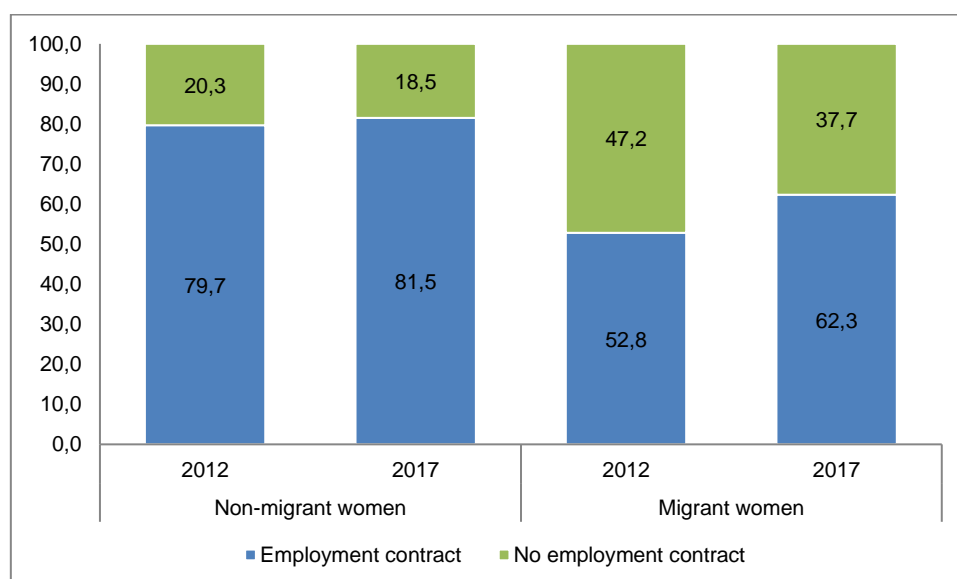
¹⁶ International Labour Organization. 2011. Decent Work Country Profile: South Africa, Geneva: International Labour Organization.



Women who have an employment contract

Having an employment contract, whether temporary or permanent, is a measure of job security. Figure 2.10 illustrates the proportion of women who did have an employment contract and indicates that more than eighty per cent of non-migrant women had an employment contract in place. However, only around sixty per cent of migrant women had an employment contract, signifying that migrant women had the lowest job security from this perspective.

Figure 2.10: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by employment contract and migration status, 2012 and 2017



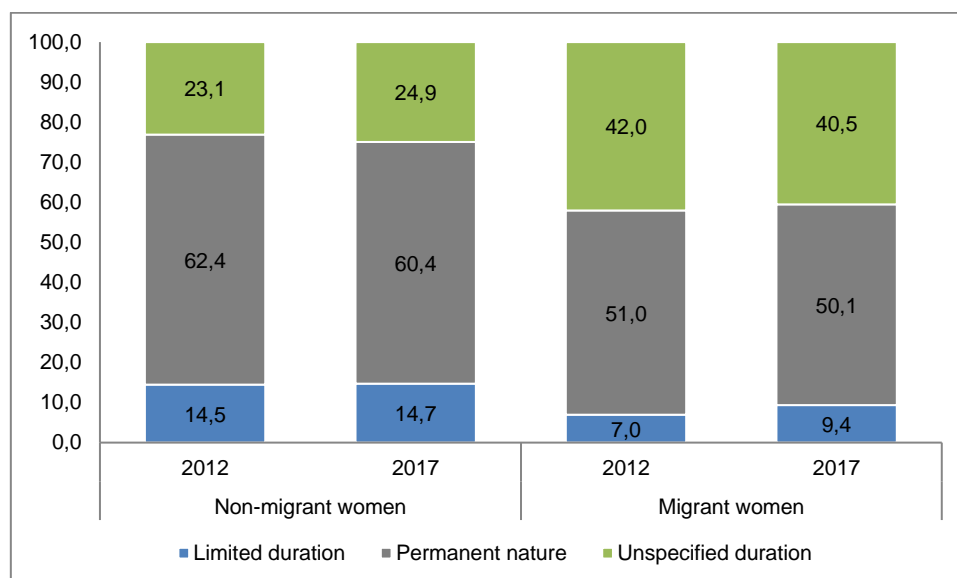
Work status of women

Job security is regarded as a fundamental component of decent work. Job loss involves not only the loss of income but has far-reaching consequences for the dignity of employees and their family. Stability and security of work are an important concern, as job security is essential for being able to plan one's financial situation. Research confirms that employees employed by limited (temporary) employment

services are generally paid considerably less and receive fewer benefits than permanent employees performing the same work.¹⁷ The question that deals with work status of women in the QLFS questionnaire is asked to establish the degree of job security, i.e. the duration of the contract. Figure 2.11 disaggregates the duration of employment of women by (i) Unspecified duration (person's employment could end at any time), (ii) Permanent duration (person's employment is permanent) and (iii) Limited (temporary) duration (person's employment is fixed for a specific period). Unspecified and limited (temporary) employment services contribute significantly towards insecure working conditions.

Having a position of unspecified duration leads to no job security or stability, which is the scenario that more than forty per cent of migrant women experienced in both 2012 and 2017. Half of migrant women and more than sixty per cent of non-migrant women reported to have permanent employment in both 2012 and 2017 (Figure 2.11).

Figure 2.11: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by work and migration status, 2012 and 2017



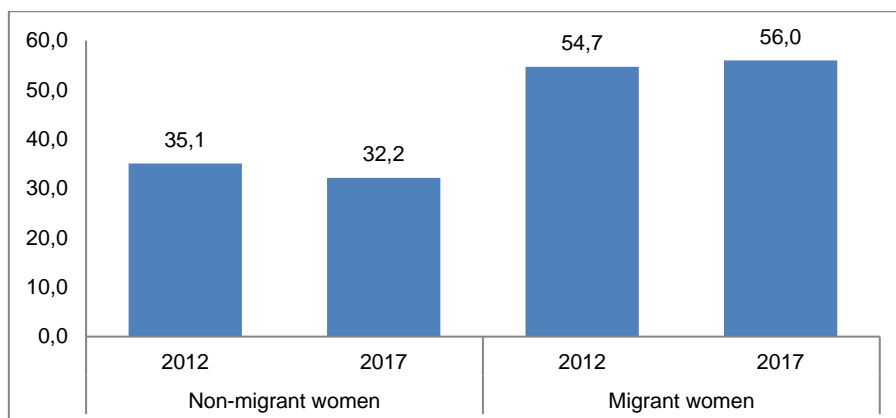
Women who are not in education, employment or training

The rate for persons not in education, employment or training (NEET) provides a measure of youth (15–24) who are outside the educational system, not in training and not in employment, and in so doing serves as a broader measure of potential youth labour market entrants than youth unemployment. The high number of young people who are not in employment, education or training is of concern, both nationally as well as internationally.¹⁸ Figure 2.12 illustrates that the NEET rate increased for both populations from 2012 to 2017, and indicates that there are more women than men who are not participating in education, employment or training.

¹⁷ Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.

¹⁸ Department of Higher Education and Training. 2017. Fact Sheet on "NEETs". Pretoria: Department of Higher Education and Training.

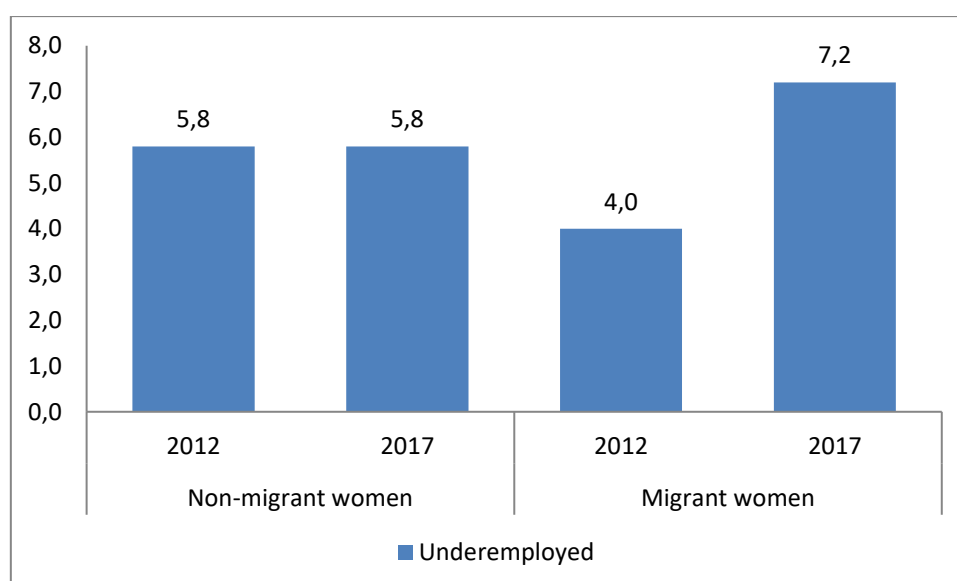
Figure 2.12: Distribution of women aged 15–24 who are not in education, employment or training (NEET) and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Women who are underemployed

While unemployment figures often attract the most media attention among labour market indicators, economic instability is often reflected in other labour market indicators as well, such as shorter working hours, reduced incomes, and rising vulnerable employment. Particularly in low-income economies, few people can afford to be unemployed for any lengthy period. As a result, statistics on time-related underemployment are crucial to complement figures on employment, unemployment, and economic inactivity. Overlooking the underemployment issue can lead to an incomplete picture of the extent of labour utilisation. Underemployment is based on the definition that an individual has worked less than thirty-five hours in a week and wants to work more hours, and is available to start work within the next four weeks. Figure 2.13 illustrates the underemployment rate for both migrant and non-migrant women. The underemployment rate remained the same for non-migrant women for both periods (5,8%), whilst it increased for migrant women from 2012 to 2017 (from 4,0% to 7,2%).

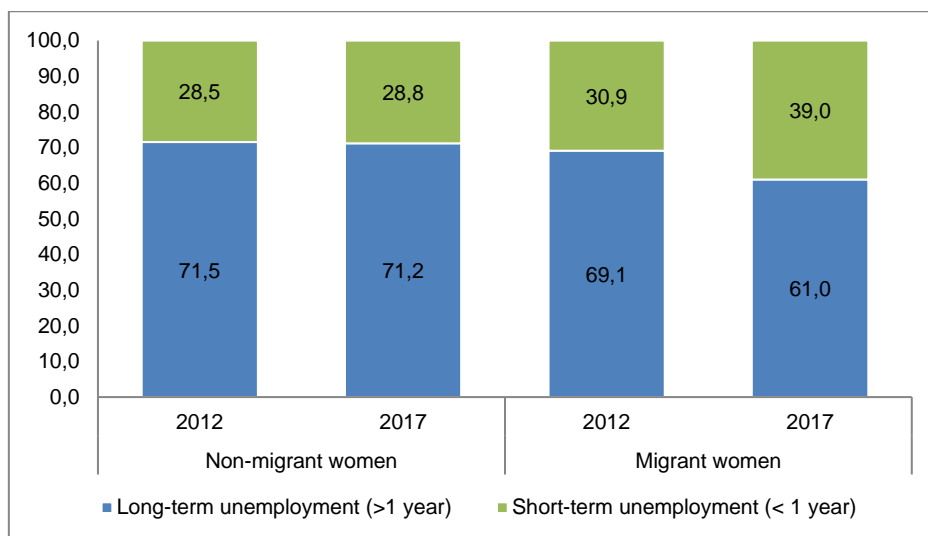
Figure 2.13: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by underemployment and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Duration of unemployment experienced by women

Duration of unemployment is divided into long-term and short-term unemployment. Short-term refers to unemployment that is less than twelve months, whilst long-term refers to unemployment lasting longer than twelve months. The long-term unemployment rate measures the proportion of the labour force that has been trying to find work for a period of one year or longer. Figure 2.14 illustrates that long-term unemployment remained relatively stable for non-migrant women but increased noticeably for migrant women (Figure 2.14).

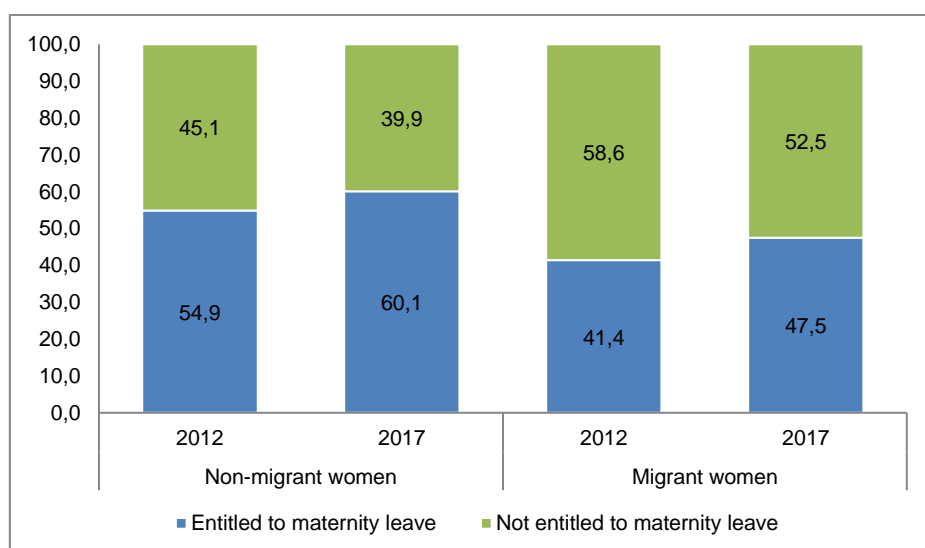
Figure 2.14: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by duration of unemployment and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Entitlement of women to maternity leave

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act provides the benefit for women employees in respect of their reproductive role by providing for a minimum of four months' maternity leave when they give birth. The Act does not provide for pay during this period, but the Unemployment Insurance Act provides for a proportion of the wage or salary to be paid to employees who have contributed to the Fund. Figure 2.15 illustrates the proportion of women who were entitled to maternity leave, and indicates that a higher proportion of women across both populations were entitled to this benefit, from 2012 to 2017. Despite the increase across the two periods, migrant women had the lowest proportions, indicating that less than half of migrant women qualify for maternity leave (Figure 2.15).

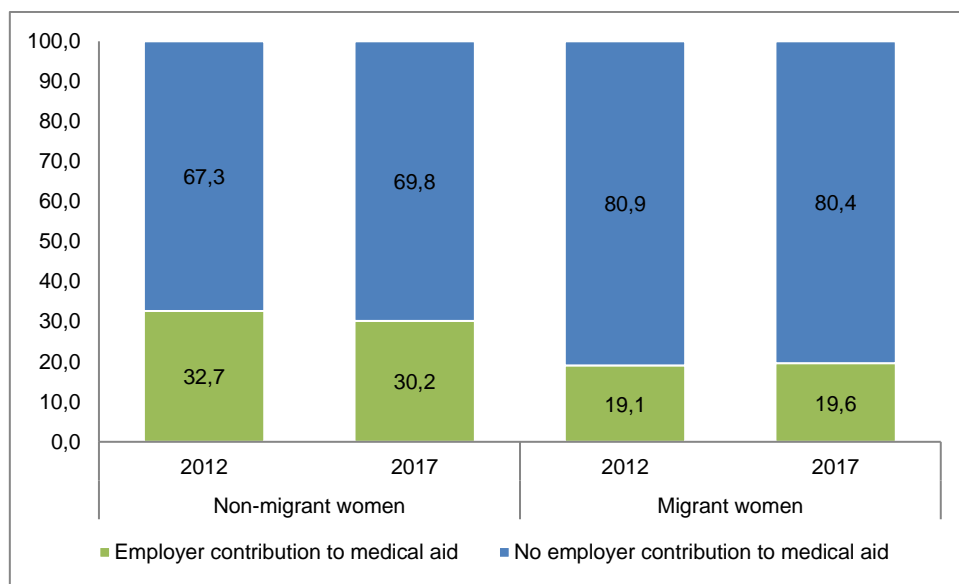
Figure 2.15: Distribution of women by entitlement to maternity leave and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Contribution of employer to medical aid

The aim of this question in the QLFS is to establish if the organisations that people were employed in provided their employees with basic benefits such as a contribution to medical aid. This has a specific impact for women due to their fertility burden, and their increased need for healthcare. Figure 2.16 illustrates the distribution of women whose employer provides a contribution towards medical aid, and indicates that one in three non-migrant women receive this benefit whilst nearly only one in five migrant women receive the contribution.

Figure 2.16: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by contribution of employer to medical aid and migration status, 2012 and 2017



CHAPTER 3: DOMESTIC WORK

3.1 Introduction

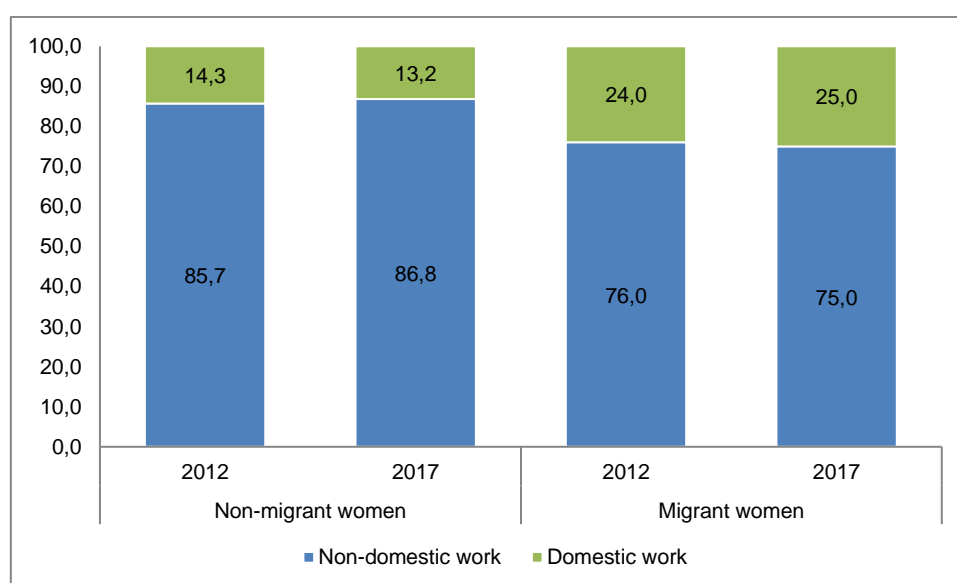
Research into a gendered perspective on migration speaks frequently on migrant women's involvement in domestic work (see Figure 2.7). Domestic work is largely an exploited sector.¹⁹ Domestic workers often work without a contract in place, and their employment can be terminated at any time. Despite being labour intensive, domestic work is a low-paid job. In addition to this, having a domestic worker may be seen as a luxury and not a necessity. If the household is experiencing financial problems, termination of the domestic worker's employment may be a coping mechanism. Hence, domestic workers find themselves in unstable and unreliable working conditions. This chapter addresses the following objective:

- i. To provide an analysis of non-migrant and migrant women who are domestic workers.

Distribution of women, by domestic work

Figure 3.1 illustrates the distribution of women who reported their occupation to be non-domestic work and domestic work. Non-domestic work comprises all other occupations, excluding domestic work. A higher proportion of migrant women participated in domestic work, than non-migrant women, in both 2012 and 2017. About one if four migrant women are domestic workers (25,0%). Non-migrant women experienced a slight decrease in participating in domestic work from 2012 to 2017 (from 14,3% to 13,2%). Migrant women however, experienced a slight increase in the same period (from 24,0% to 25,0%).

Figure 3.1: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, by domestic work and migration status, 2012 and 2017



¹⁹ UNDESA (2013). International migration and development: Measures to ensure respect for and protection of the human rights of all migrants. Background paper for High-Level Dialogue Series 2013.

3.2 Profile of women who are domestic workers

The profile considers non-migrant and migrant women whose main occupation is reported to be domestic work. The profile considers (a) The provincial distribution of women who are domestic workers; (b) Highest educational qualification; (c) Domestic workers who are underemployed; (d) Domestic workers who liked to work more hours; and (e) Domestic workers who work excessive hours.

The provincial distribution of women who are domestic workers

Table 3.1 provides the provincial distribution of non-migrant and migrant women who reported to work as domestic workers. The provincial distribution indicates that the highest proportion of migrant domestic workers resided in Gauteng in both 2012 and 2017 (Table 3.1). In 2017, a high proportion of migrant women also resided in North West, Mpumalanga and Limpopo. North West and Gauteng saw the largest percentage point increase from 2012 to 2017 in migrant domestic workers residing there.

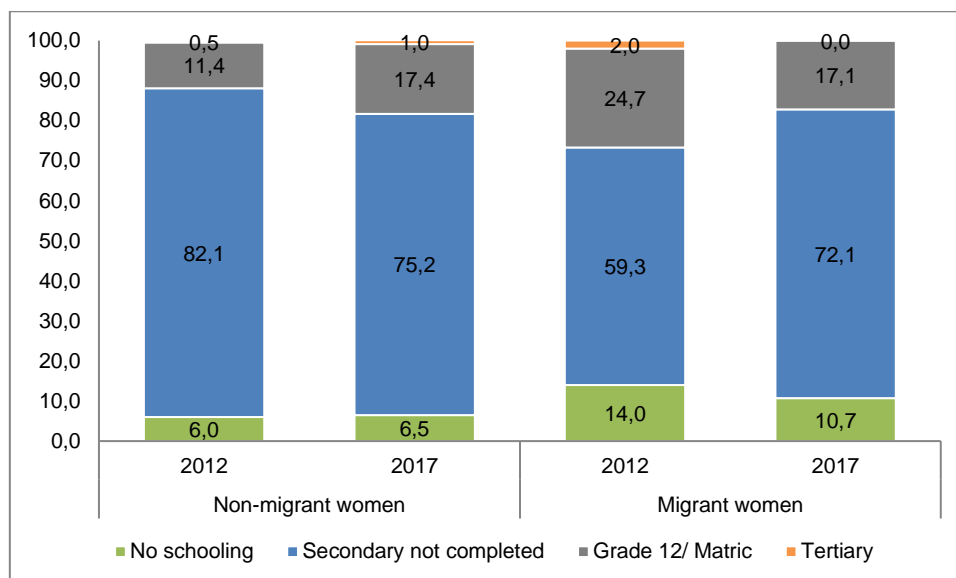
Table 3.1: Provincial distribution of women, aged 15-64, who are domestic workers by migration status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-migrant women		Migrant women	
	2012	2017	2012	2017
Western Cape	95,2	93,6	4,8	6,4
Eastern Cape	97,0	93,8	3,0	6,2
Northern Cape	100,0	100,0	0,0	0,0
Free State	96,8	96,8	3,2	3,2
KwaZulu-Natal	99,7	97,2	0,3	2,8
North West	96,5	86,5	3,5	13,5
Gauteng	87,7	80,3	12,3	19,7
Mpumalanga	92,5	89,2	7,5	10,8
Limpopo	91,9	90,8	8,1	9,2

Highest educational qualification of women who are domestic workers

Figure 3.2 illustrates the highest educational qualification of domestic workers. The variables included in education status are (i) No schooling, (ii) Secondary education not completed, (iii) Secondary education completed (this includes completing matric), and (iv) Tertiary education completed. A higher proportion of migrant domestic workers than non-migrant domestic workers reported levels of no schooling. The majority of domestic workers in both populations have not completed secondary school. However, a considerable proportion of domestic workers do have a matric qualification. Migrant domestic workers reported a higher proportion of no schooling as compared to non-migrant domestic workers in both 2012 and 2017. About seventeen per cent of domestic workers in both populations have a grade 12 qualification in 2017 (Figure 3.2).

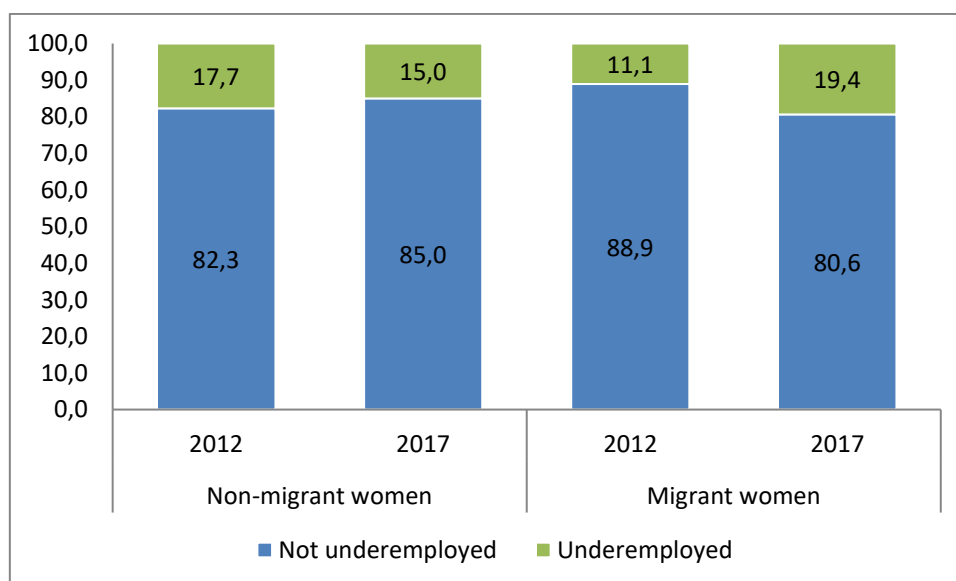
Figure 3.2: Distribution of women, aged 20-64, who are domestic workers by education and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Domestic workers who are underemployed

Domestic work is an unprotected sector with economic instability. Economic instability is often reflected in other labour market indicators, such as shorter working hours and reduced incomes. Figure 3.3 illustrates the underemployment rate of women who are domestic workers, by underemployment and migration status, 2012 and 2017. The underemployment rate decreased for non-migrant women (from 17,7% to 15,0%), whilst it increased for migrant women (from 11,1% to 19,4%) from 2012 to 2017. This can be interpreted as about one in five migrant domestic workers reported to be underemployed in 2017.

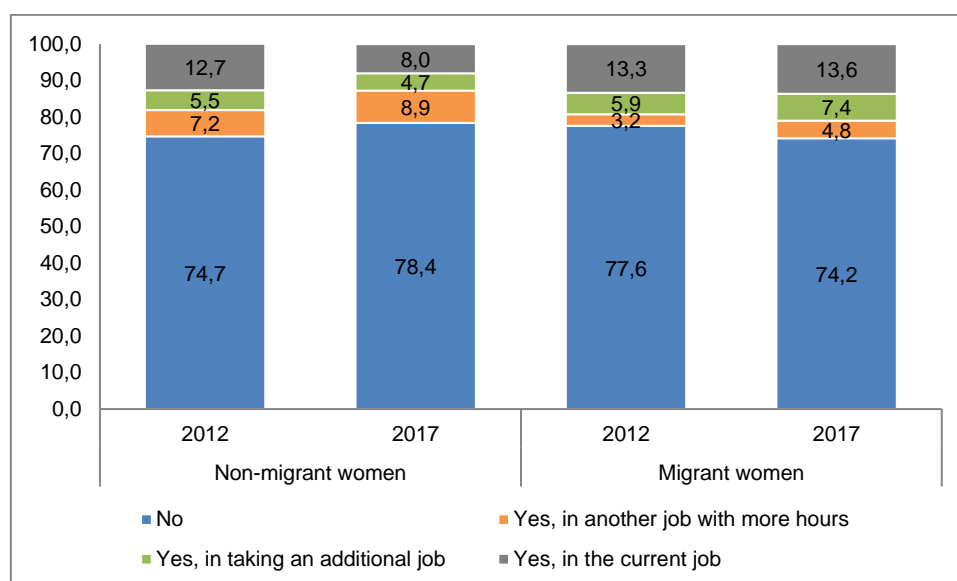
Figure 3.3: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, who are domestic workers by underemployment and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Domestic workers who wanted to work more hours

The QLFS includes a question in the schedule of questions which asks if the respondent wants to work more hours. Figure 3.4 illustrates the distribution of women who are domestic workers and who wanted to work more hours by their migration status for 2012 and 2017. About fourteen per cent of migrant domestic workers wanted to work longer hours in the job that they are currently working at. A higher proportion of migrant domestic workers than non-migrant domestic workers wanted to take on an additional job.

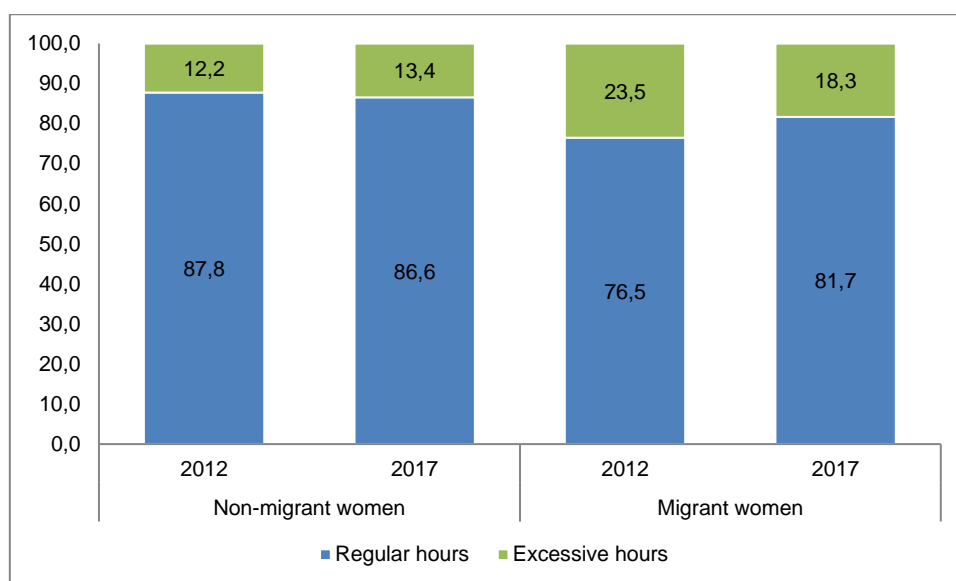
Figure 3.4: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, who are domestic workers by who liked to work more hours and migration status, 2012 and 2017



Domestic workers who work excessive hours

The number of hours worked has an impact on the health and wellbeing of workers and their productivity. Domestic workers engage in work that is labour intensive, and working excessive hours can lead to health issues. Measuring the level and trends of working hours for different groups of persons and for individuals is important for monitoring working and living conditions and for analysing economic and social developments. Figure 3.5 illustrates the proportion of domestic workers that worked excessive hours and indicates that there was an overall decrease in the proportion working excessive hours for all women, from 2012 to 2017. Despite this decline, almost one in five migrant domestic workers still worked excessive hours in both periods (Figure 3.5).

Figure 3.5: Distribution of women, aged 15-64, who are domestic workers by hours worked and migration status, 2012 and 2017



CHILDREN

CHAPTER 4: A MIGRATION PERSPECTIVE ON CHILDREN

4.1 Introduction

Child migration is a global reality. As of 2015, thirty-one million children were living outside their country of birth. While most of them moved in a regular fashion to relocate in a different country with their families, this number also includes ten million child refugees and one million asylum seekers who fled armed conflict, violence and persecution.²⁰ There are some distinctive aspects to children's migration that contribute to the high and rising numbers of children moving on their own. Many young migrants set out to find opportunities for work or education, or to escape unwanted child marriage or gender-based violence²¹. Some children migrate when their families break down or their parents die. Others move to join family members who made the journey ahead of them. In some cases, children migrate on their own because their chances of success are deemed greater than those of older family members. This chapter focuses on non-migrant and migrant children. The objective of the chapter is to profile non-migrant and migrant children.

In this chapter, children are defined as those who are aged 0–17 years, and results from Census 2011 are provided. Information on the labour force refers to children aged 15–17, and fertility refers to girls aged 12–17. The chapter focuses on the (a) Distribution of population by age and migration status; (b) Distribution of children by sex and migration status; (c) Distribution of migrant children by citizenship status; (d) Distribution of migrant children by region of birth; (e) Distribution of migrant children by country of birth; (f) Distribution of children by disability and migration status; (g) Distribution of children by survival status of mother and migration status; (h) Distribution of children by survival status of father and migration status; (i) Distribution of children by living with mother in household and migration status; (j) Distribution of children by living with father in household and migration status; (k) Distribution of children by orphanhood and migration status; (l) Distribution of children by current school attendance and migration status; (m) Distribution of children aged 15–17 who are working, by migration status; (n) Distribution of children aged 15–17 who are running a business by migration status; (o) Distribution of girls aged 12–17 who had ever given birth by migration status; and (p) Distribution of girls aged 12–17 by age of first birth and by migration status, 2011. Results are presented for two groups of children:

- Non-migrant children; and
- Migrant children.

²⁰ UNICEF 2018

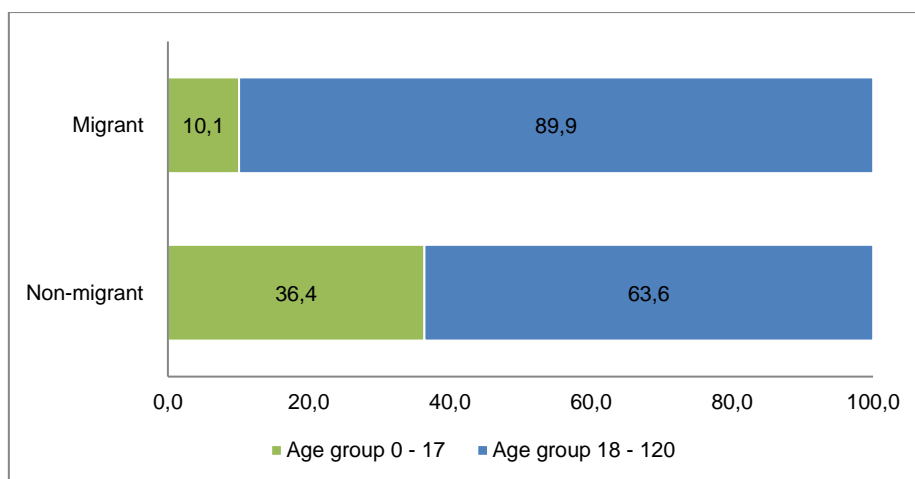
²¹ UNICEF 2017

4.2 Demographic profile

Migration status

Figure 4.1 illustrates the distribution of population by age and migration status from Census 2011, and indicates that non-migrant children accounted for about a third of the non-migrant population, whilst migrant children accounted for only ten per cent of the migrant population.

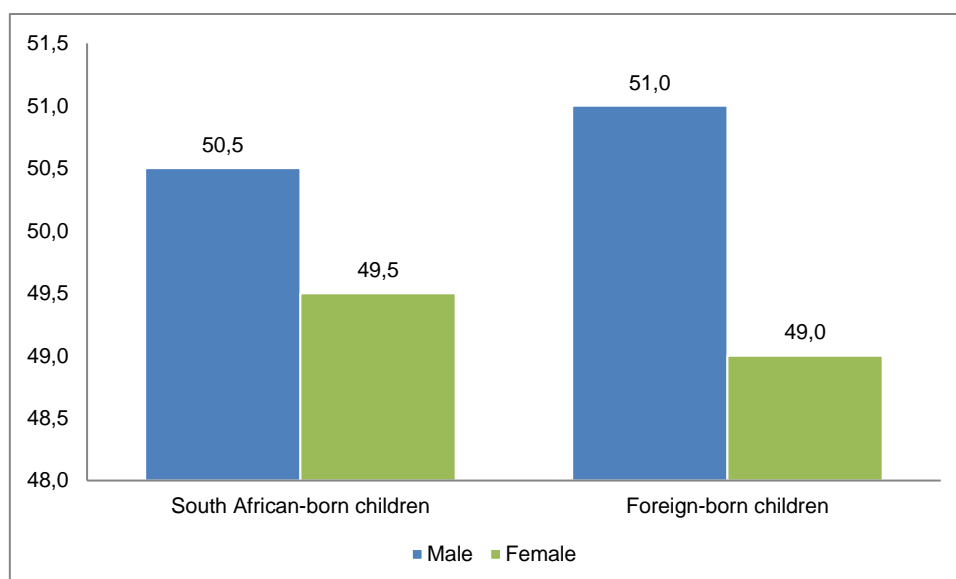
Figure 4.1: Distribution of population by age and migration status, 2011



Sex distribution

Figure 4.2 illustrates the distribution of children by sex and migration status from Census 2011, and indicates that there is an almost equal distribution between males and females for both non-migrant and migrant children.

Figure 4.2: Distribution of children by sex and migration status, 2011

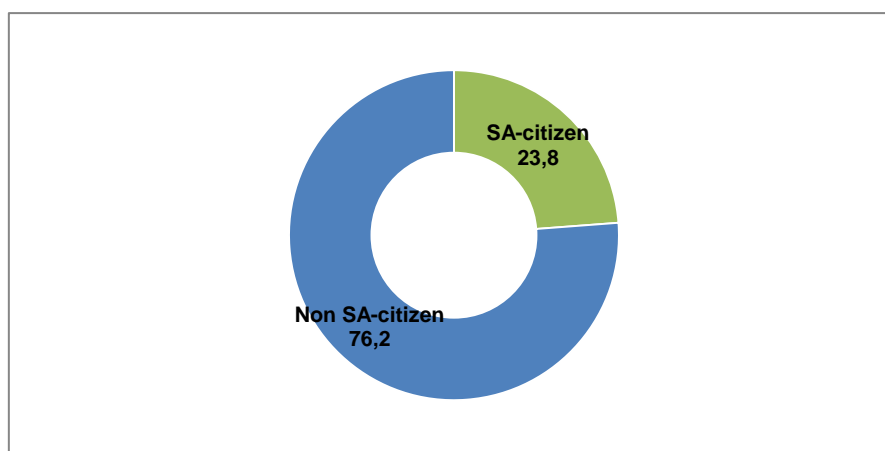


4.3 Migrant children

Citizenship

Figure 4.3 illustrates the citizenship status of migrant children, from Census 2011. The results indicate that less than one in four migrant children are a South African citizen (23,8%). The low proportion has an impact on the services that these children will be able to access in South Africa. For example, a birth certificate, identity document or valid visa is required to enter education institutions or be eligible for formal employment.

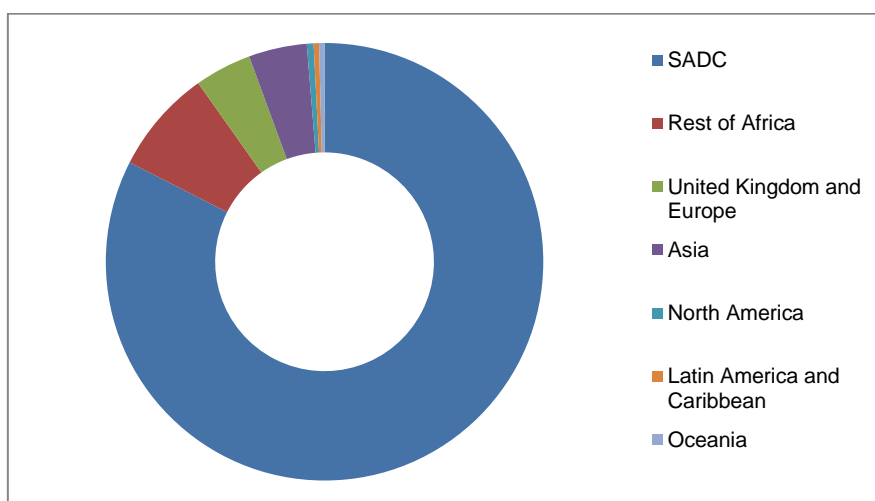
Figure 4.3: Distribution of migrant children by citizenship status, 2011



Region of birth

Figure 4.4 illustrates the distribution of migrant children by region of birth, from Census 2011, and indicates that the majority of migrant children were born in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region.

Figure 4.4: Distribution of migrant children by region of birth, 2011



Country of birth

Table 4.1 illustrates the distribution of migrant children by country of birth, from Census 2011, and indicates that the highest proportion of migrant children were born in the neighbouring countries of Zimbabwe (40,2%), Mozambique (21,2%) and Lesotho (9,2%). In addition to countries on the African continent, India and the United Kingdom also featured in the top ten countries of birth.

Table 4.1: Distribution of migrant children by country of birth (top ten), 2011

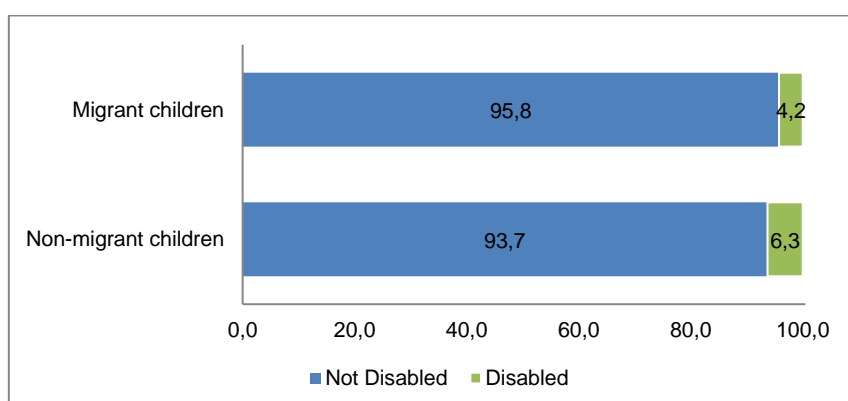
Rank	Country	Per cent
1	Zimbabwe	40,2
2	Mozambique	21,2
3	Lesotho	9,2
4	Swaziland	2,7
5	Malawi	2,6
6	Congo	2,5
7	Democratic Republic Of The Congo (Zaire)	2,4
8	India	1,6
9	Zambia	1,4
10	United Kingdom/Great Britain	1,3

4.4 Profile of migrant and non-migrant children

Disability index

Disability and migration lead to a more complex life experience for a child. Children who are living with a disability may not have a family network to provide them with care and support. It may also be difficult to attend healthcare facilities for a migrant child. Poorer living conditions may lead to a disability, as illness or injuries left untreated can worsen. Special education may also not be accessible to a migrant child due to their state of documentation, as well as affordability. Figure 4.5 illustrates the distribution of children by disability index from Census 2011, and indicates that non-migrant children reported a higher level of disability than migrant children. Migrant children who reported to be disabled accounted for 4,2%.

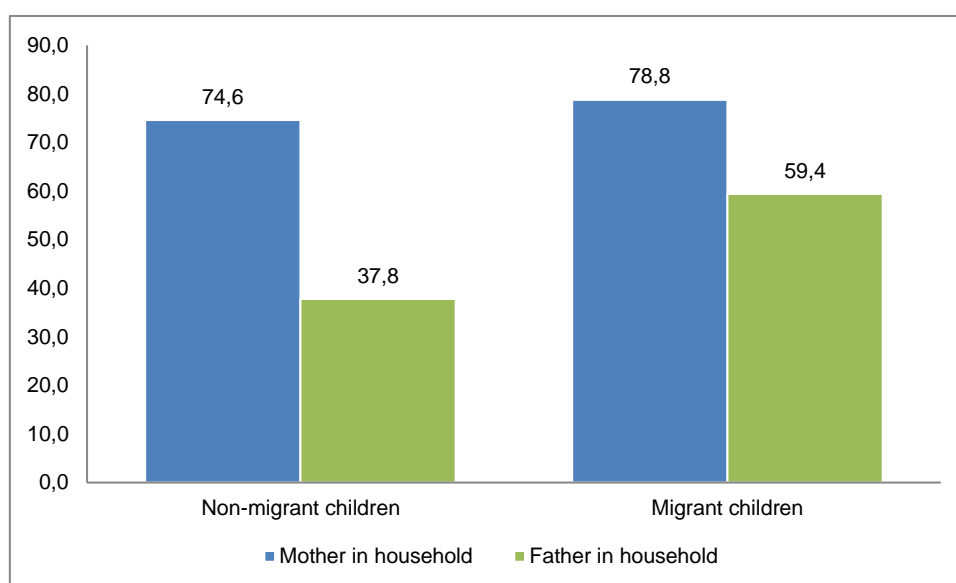
Figure 4.5: Distribution of children by disability index and migration status, 2011



Living arrangements

Figure 4.6 illustrates the distribution of children living with their biological parents in the household and migration status. The results indicate that a higher proportion of both non-migrant and migrant children live with their biological mother, rather than with their biological father. Almost eighty per cent of migrant children live in the same household as their biological mother, as compared to about seventy-five per cent of non-migrant children. Almost sixty per cent of migrant children live in the same household as their biological father, as compared to less than forty per cent of non-migrant children.

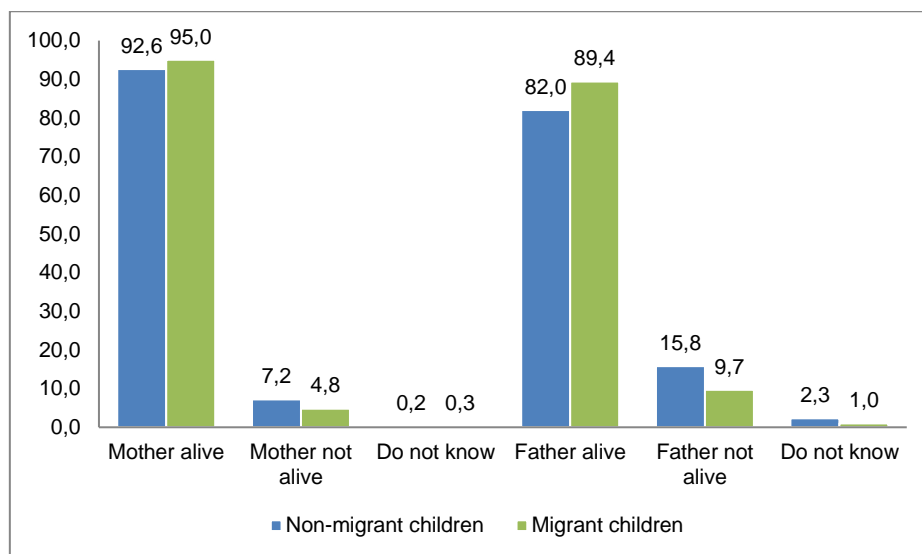
Figure 4.6: Distribution of children living with biological parents in household and migration status, 2011



Parental survival

Figure 4.7 indicates the extent to which non-migrant and migrant children bear knowledge of their parents' survival status. Knowledge of their parents' survival status can anecdotally be used to assess links to family, particularly in the case of migration, where people move and invariably may lose touch with their family. Figure 4.7 illustrates the survival status of parents from Census 2011, and indicates that a higher proportion of migrant children's parents are alive than non-migrant children. Slightly more non-migrant children do not know the survival status of their father as compared to migrant children.

Figure 4.7: Distribution of children by survival status of biological parents and migration status, 2011



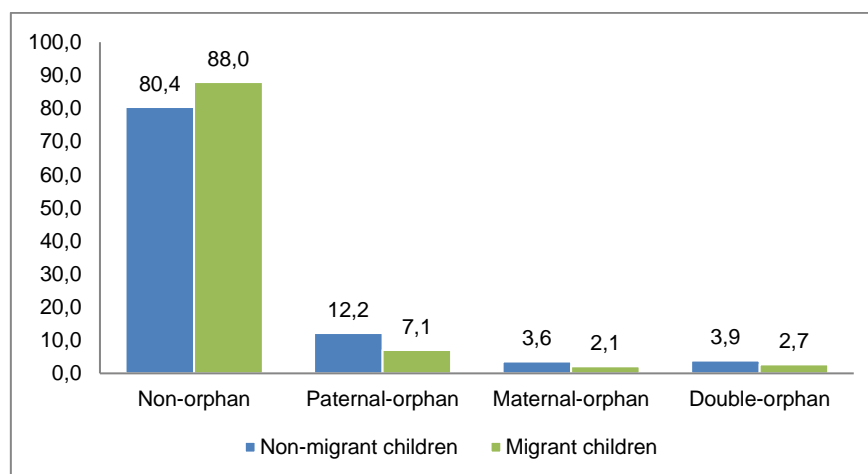
Orphanhood

Figure 4.8 illustrates the distribution of children by orphanhood and migration status from Census 2011. An orphan is defined as a child whose biological mother, biological father or both biological parents have died. Orphans may be defined in three categories:

- A maternal orphan: a child whose biological mother has died but whose biological father is alive.
- A paternal orphan: a child whose biological father has died but whose biological mother is alive.
- A double orphan: a child whose biological mother and father have both died.

The results indicate that a higher proportion of non-migrant children than migrant children are orphans, for all three orphan categories.

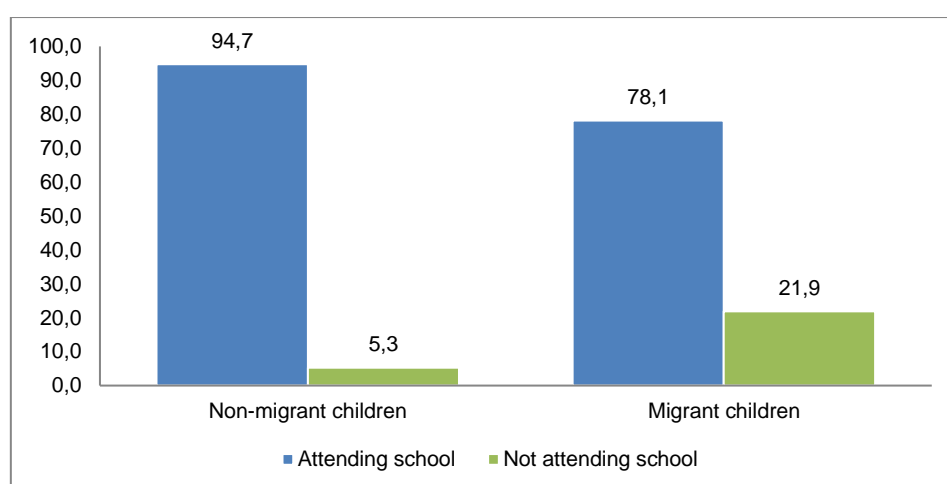
Figure 4.8: Distribution of children by orphanhood and migration status, 2011



Current school attendance

All South Africans have the right to basic education, and the Bill of Rights obliges the government to progressively make education available and accessible through reasonable measures.²² Attendance at school is compulsory from the age of seven. Human resources constitute the ultimate basis for the wealth of a nation, and it is therefore vital that a country develops the skills and knowledge of its residents to the greater benefit of all. This right is, however, not extended to migrants. By tracking education and education-related indicators, particular aspects of the circumstances of adolescents can be analysed. The decision to migrate may be to seek better socio-economic opportunities and to improve the migrant's standard of living.²³ Figure 4.9 illustrates the distribution of children by current school attendance and migration status from Census 2011. The results indicate that almost ninety-five per cent of non-migrant children were attending school, whilst more than twenty per cent of migrant children were not attending school.

Figure 4.9: Distribution of children aged 7–17 by current school attendance and migration status, 2011

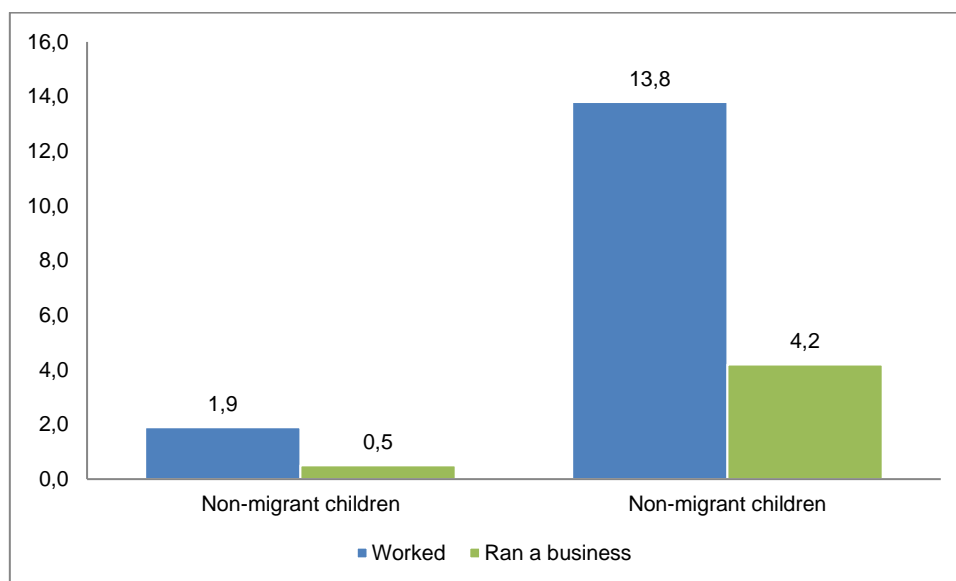


Children who are working

Figure 4.10 illustrates the distribution of children aged 15–17 who are working or running a business, by migration status from Census 2011. The results indicate that about thirteen per cent of migrant children reported to be working, as compared to almost two per cent of non-migrant children. About four per cent of migrant children were running a business, as compared to almost less than one per cent of non-migrant children.

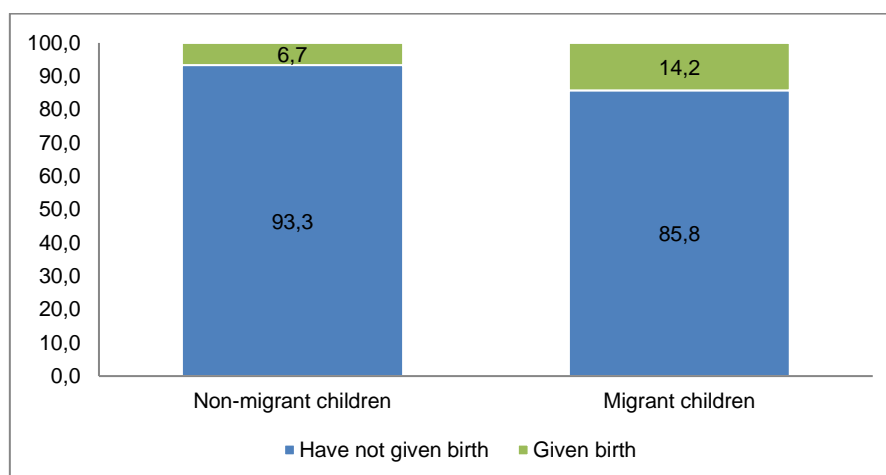
²² Statistics South Africa.(2016).Community Survey. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

²³ (Dudley, Poston et al. 2010)

Figure 4.10: Distribution of children aged 15–17 who are working by migration status, 2011

Fertility status: Ever given birth

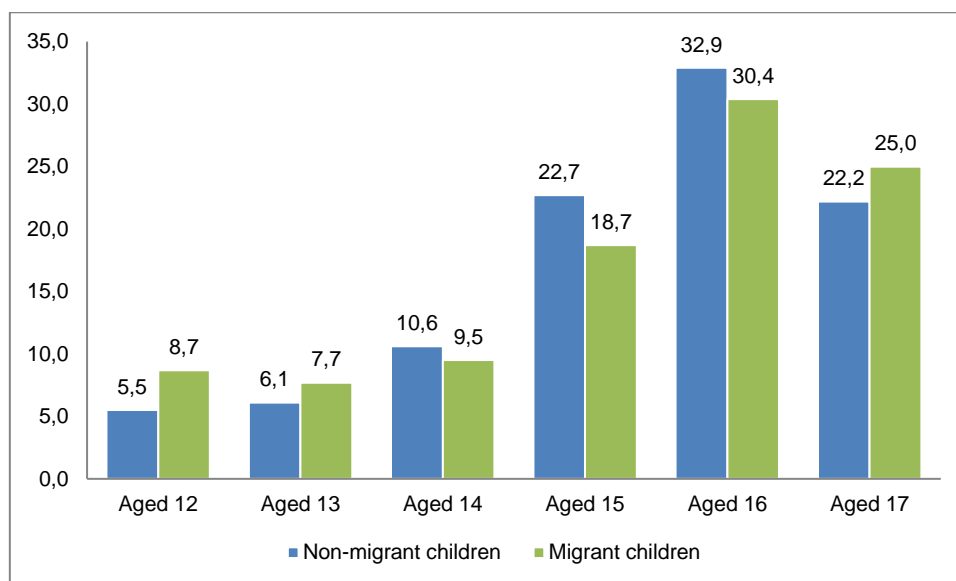
International migration affects the fertility rate of countries of destination. For instance, immigration of women, especially from countries with a higher fertility rate to a country with a low fertility rate, affects the age structure of the population in the host country. Figure 4.11 illustrates the distribution of non-migrant and migrant girls, by ever giving birth. For this analysis, only girls aged 12–17 were considered. This is due to the fertility schedule of questions only being asked to women aged 12–50 years. About two times as many migrant girls (14,2%) have given birth than non-migrant girls (6,7%), indicating that fertility rates will be affected by immigration.

Figure 4.11: Distribution of girls aged 12–17 who had ever given birth by migration status, 2011

Age at first birth

Figure 4.12 illustrates the distribution of girls aged 12–17 by age of first birth and migration status from Census 2011. The results indicate that a higher proportion of migrant girls than non-migrant girls gave birth at ages twelve and thirteen. A higher proportion of non-migrant than migrant girls gave birth at ages 14–16.

Figure 4.12: Distribution of girls aged 12–17 by age of first birth and migration status, 2011



CHAPTER 5: CHILD-HEADED HOUSEHOLDS

5.1 Introduction

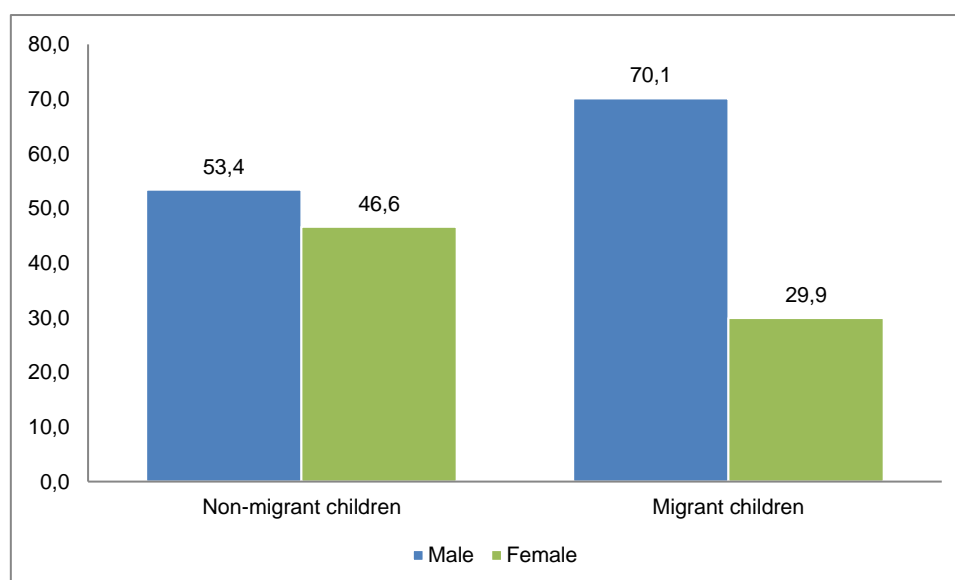
Child-headed households have become a reality in South Africa. Children have lost parents due to many reasons, including the HIV epidemic.²⁴ Of relevance to migrant children, these children may have been unaccompanied in their move. It is not uncommon to have these child household heads take care of younger siblings or other family members. This chapter focuses on non-migrant and migrant children who are household heads. The objective of the chapter is to determine the household characteristics and living conditions of child-headed households. In this chapter, child-headed households are defined as those households who have a household head aged 10–17 years. The chapter provides results from Census 2011 and focuses on the distribution of child-headed households by (a) Sex; (b) Province; (c) Household size; (d) Headship type; (e) Household family structure; (f) Access to tap water, sanitation facility and electricity used for lighting; and (g) Household assets and migration status.

5.2 Demographic profile

Sex distribution

Figure 5.1 illustrates the distribution of child-headed households by sex from Census 2011. The results indicate that just over seventy per cent of heads of migrant child-headed households were male, whilst the gender split for non-migrant child-headed households was almost equal.

Figure 5.1: Distribution of child-headed households by sex and migration status, 2011



²⁴ Le Roux-Kemp, Andra. (2013). Child-headed households in South Africa: The legal and ethical implications when children are the primary caregivers in a therapeutic relationship.

Province

Table 5.1 looks at all child-headed households in South Africa and identifies from a spatial position, in which province the child-headed households are located. This type of analysis is useful as it is able to provide information that targets child-headed households for interventions at this level. The results indicate that the highest proportion of migrant child-headed households are in Gauteng (40,5%) and Limpopo (15,6%). The highest proportion of non-migrant child-headed households are in KwaZulu-Natal (25,5%) and Limpopo (19,6%).

Table 5.1: Distribution of child-headed households by province and migration status, 2011

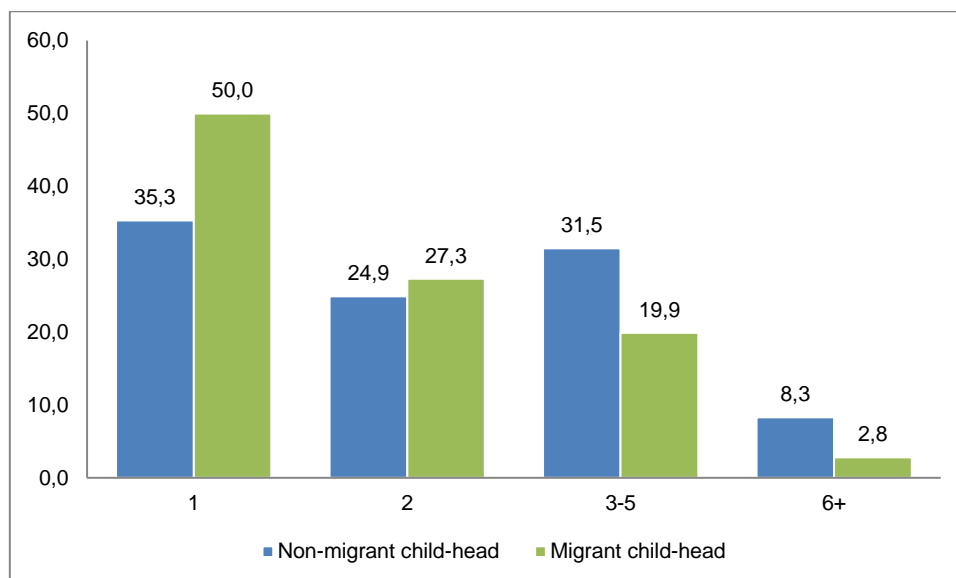
Province	Non-migrant children	Migrant children
Western Cape	4,0	7,2
Eastern Cape	19,1	4,6
Northern Cape	1,7	0,4
Free State	4,0	4,0
KwaZulu-Natal	25,5	7,5
North West	5,9	8,6
Gauteng	10,6	40,5
Mpumalanga	9,6	11,5
Limpopo	19,6	15,6
South Africa	100,0	100,0

5.3 Household characteristics

Household size

Measuring household size is an important phenomenon, as more households require more housing infrastructure. The increase in single-person households puts an increased strain on the demand for housing. When people choose to live in fewer-person households, more housing is required. Figure 5.2 indicates that about half of migrant children live alone. This could be due to the fact that foreign born adolescents may not have migrated with family members and hence live alone. About a quarter of all children live with one other person in the household. A higher proportion of non-migrant children are heads of households with more than three people. Hence, Figure 5.2 indicates that since migrant children prefer fewer-person households, more housing will be required to accommodate migrant households.

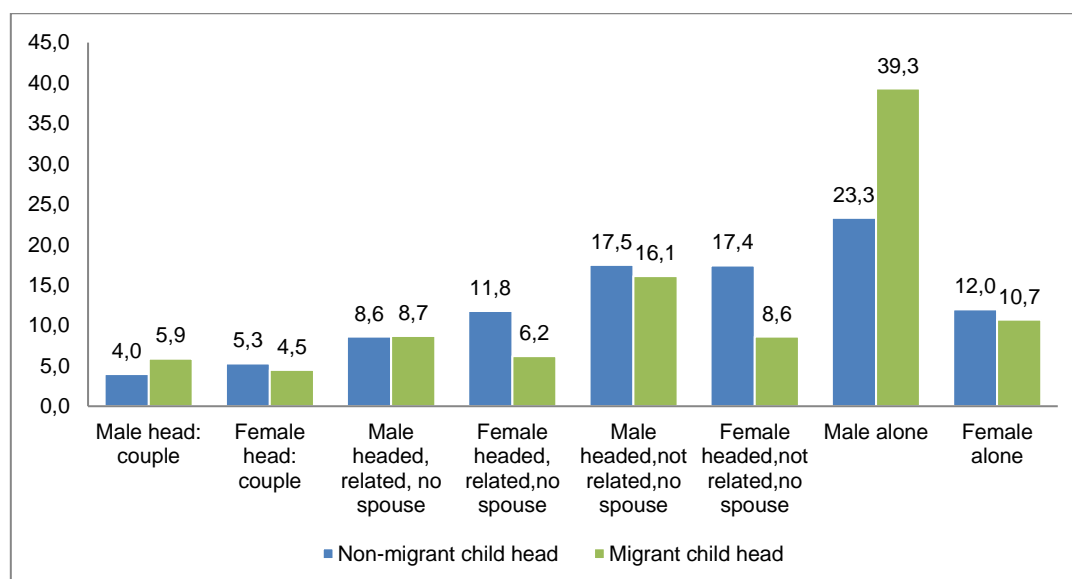
Figure 5.2: Distribution of child-headed households by household size and migration status, 2011



Headship type

Analysis of headship type was conducted to determine patterns of family structure (Figure 5.3). Essentially, who lives in a child-headed household? Almost forty per cent of migrant child-heads who are male, live alone (39,3%), while 16,1% of migrant child-headed households are headed by males who live with an unrelated person and no spouse. The highest proportion of non-migrant child-headed households is a male living alone (23,3%), while 17,5% of households headed by non-migrant males live with an unrelated person and no spouse and 17,4% of households headed by non-migrant females live with an unrelated person and no spouse (Figure 5.3).

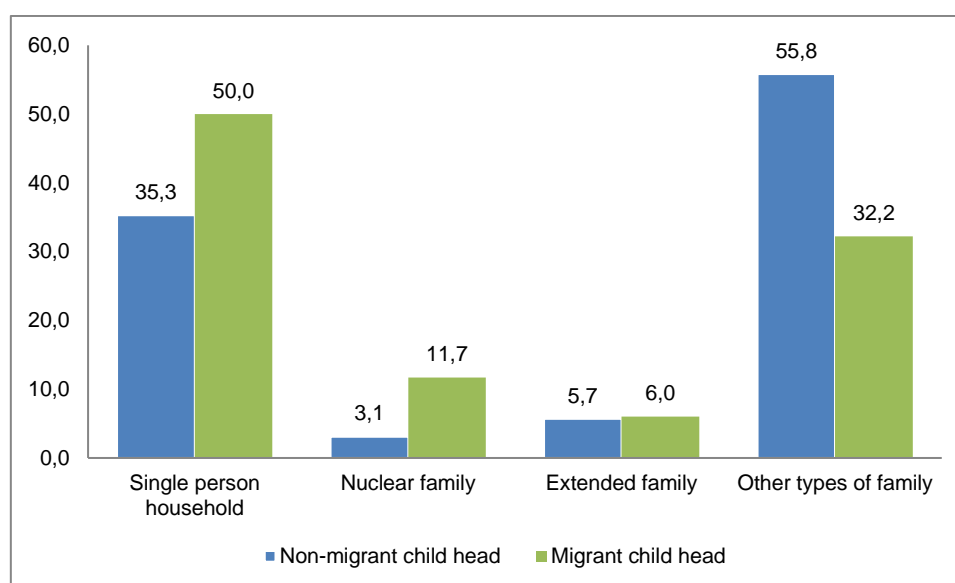
Figure 5.3: Distribution of child-headed households by headship type and migration status, 2011



Household family structure

Figure 5.4 illustrates the household family structure of child-headed households. The results indicate that one in two migrant child-heads and one in three non-migrant child-heads live alone. A higher proportion of migrant child-heads live in a nuclear family structure, as compared to non-migrant child-heads.

Figure 5.4: Distribution of child-headed households by household family structure and migration status, 2011



5.4 Living conditions of child-headed households

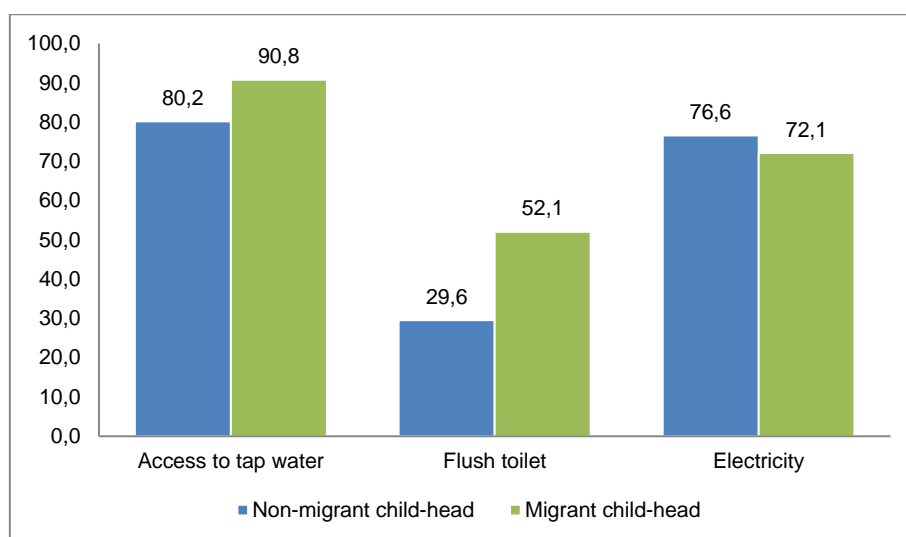
According to the findings of the Children's School Survey conducted in 2002, migrant children – particularly those who formerly lived in rural areas – are disadvantaged in comparison with long-term resident children in terms of housing type, access to electricity, refuse removal, water and sanitation.²⁵ The living conditions analysed from Census 2011 focused on access to tap water, sanitation facility and electricity used for lighting.

Living conditions

Household services are an indication of living conditions. Figure 5.5 illustrates the distribution of child-headed households by access to tap water, sanitation facility and electricity used for lighting, and migration status from Census 2011. The results illustrate that a higher proportion of migrant child-headed households have access to tap water and a flush toilet. A slightly higher proportion of non-migrant child-headed households have access to electricity.

²⁵ Richter, Norris et al. (2006)

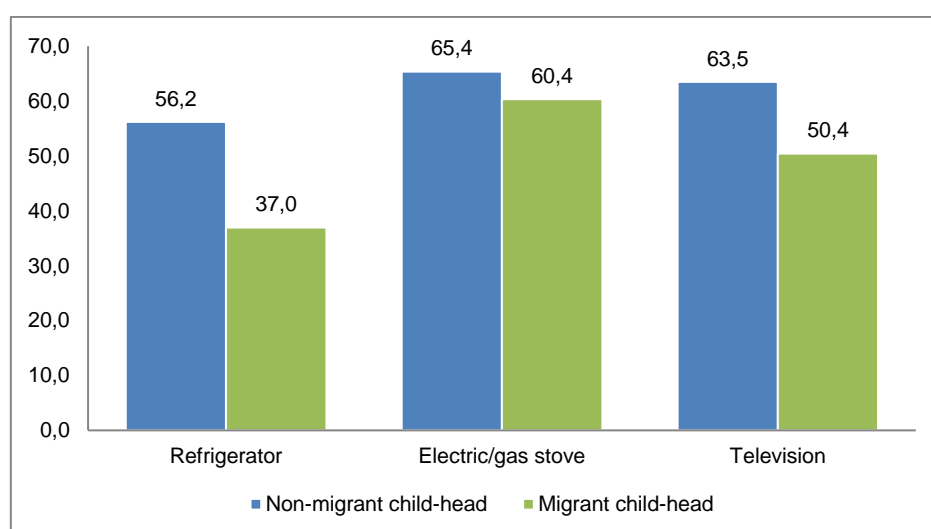
Figure 5.5: Distribution of child-headed households by access to household services, and migration status, 2011



Household assets

Household assets are viewed as a proxy measure for household wealth. Literature says that migrant children live in households that are less likely to have amenities such as a refrigerator, television, washing machine, telephone and motor vehicle.²⁶ The household assets included in the analysis are refrigerator, stove, and television. Figure 5.6 illustrates the distribution of child-headed households by household assets and migration status, from Census 2011. The results indicate that non-migrant child-headed households have a higher proportion of ownership of household assets.

Figure 5.6: Distribution of child-headed households by household assets and migration status, 2011



²⁶ (Richter, Norris et al., 2006).

THE ELDERLY

CHAPTER 6: A MIGRATION PERSPECTIVE OF THE ELDERLY

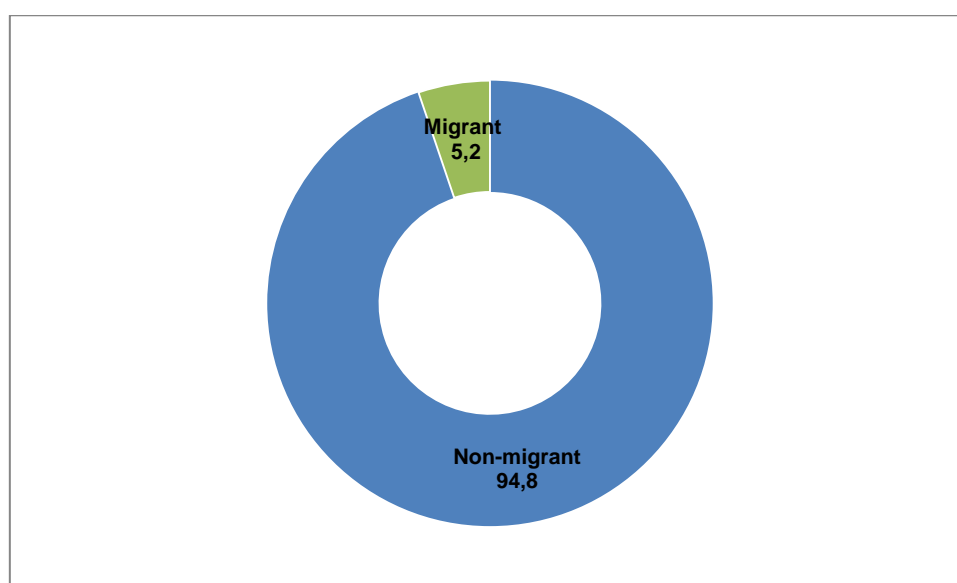
6.1 Introduction

It is important to collect, process and report on data on older persons in the migration context to improve policymaking and planning. These endeavours will also support the achievement of ageing-related SDGs, such as protecting the human rights of all people of all ages by “leaving no one behind” (IOM, 2019). Older persons in migration contexts are at risk of being overlooked, which might perpetuate vulnerabilities and inequalities. Consideration of migration in this cohort is integral, as development plans, such as the Sustainable Development Goals, put the emphasis on the elderly and migration. This cohort represents a specific category of migrants whose unique needs, rights and challenges are not being adequately addressed by the larger migration policy debate. This chapter focuses on elderly non-migrants and migrants. The purpose of the chapter is to improve awareness of the situation of the elderly in South Africa and to ensure age-sensitive migration, economic and development policymaking. The objective of the chapter is to profile the non-migrant and migrant elderly. The chapter focuses on the distribution of the elderly by (a) Migration status; (b) Sex; (c) Province; (d) Population group; (e) Marital status; (f) Region of birth; (g) Country of birth; (h) Citizenship; (i) Disability index; (j) Highest educational qualification; and (k) work, business, wanted to work. The elderly population is defined as the population aged 65 years and older, and results from Census 2011 are provided.

Distribution of the elderly

Figure 6.1 illustrates the distribution of the elderly by migration status, from Census 2011, and indicates that the migrant elderly account for about five per cent of the elderly population in South Africa, whilst the non-migrant elderly account for almost ninety-five per cent.

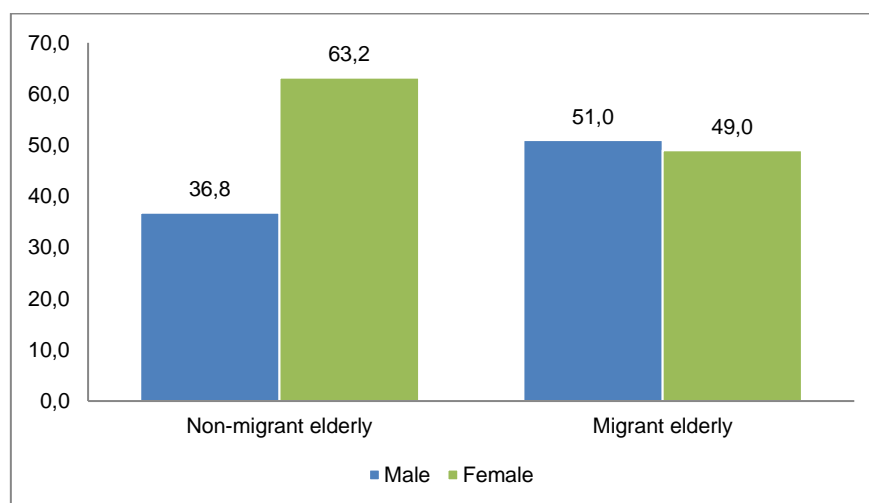
Figure 6.1: Distribution of the elderly by migration status, 2011



6.2 Demographic profile

Figure 6.2 illustrates the distribution of the elderly by sex and migration status from Census 2011, and indicates that there is an almost equal distribution between males and females for the migrant elderly population. However, about two-thirds of the non-migrant elderly population are women. This finding is in line with the life expectancy on South Africa, where females live longer than males do.²⁷

Figure 6.2: Distribution of the elderly by sex and migration status, 2011



Province

Table 6.1 analyses where the elderly in South Africa are located and identifies from a spatial position, in which province the elderly are located. This type of analysis is useful as it is able to provide data that targets the elderly for interventions at this level. Table 6.1 illustrates the provincial distribution of the elderly population, from Census 2011, and indicates that the highest proportion of the migrant elderly are in Gauteng (42,3%) and Western Cape (21,3%), whilst the highest proportion of the non-migrant elderly are in KwaZulu-Natal (18,6%) and Gauteng (17,7%).

Table 6.1: Distribution of the elderly by province and migration status, 2011

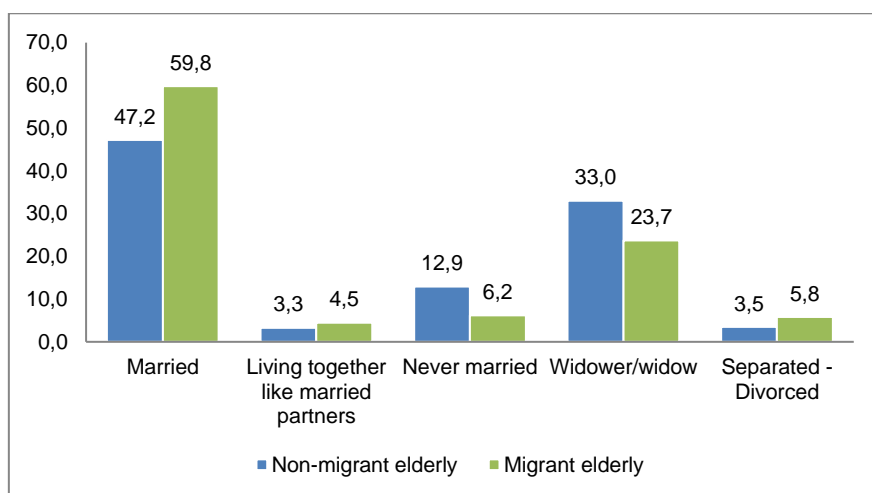
Province	Non-migrant elderly	Migrant elderly
Western Cape	11,5	21,3
Eastern Cape	16,7	4,9
Northern Cape	2,4	1,0
Free State	5,6	2,7
KwaZulu-Natal	18,6	14,5
North West	7,5	3,4
Gauteng	17,7	42,3
Mpumalanga	7,0	6,7
Limpopo	13,0	3,2
South Africa	100,0	100,0

²⁷ Statistics South Africa. 2019. Mid-year population estimates.

Marital status

Figure 6.3 illustrates the distribution of both the non-migrant and migrant elderly by marital status and migration status, from Census 2011. The results indicate that a higher proportion of migrant elderly (59,8%) than non-migrant elderly (47,2%) are married. About thirteen per cent of non-migrant elderly have never been married in comparison to only six per cent of migrant elderly. About one in three non-migrant elderly is widowed.

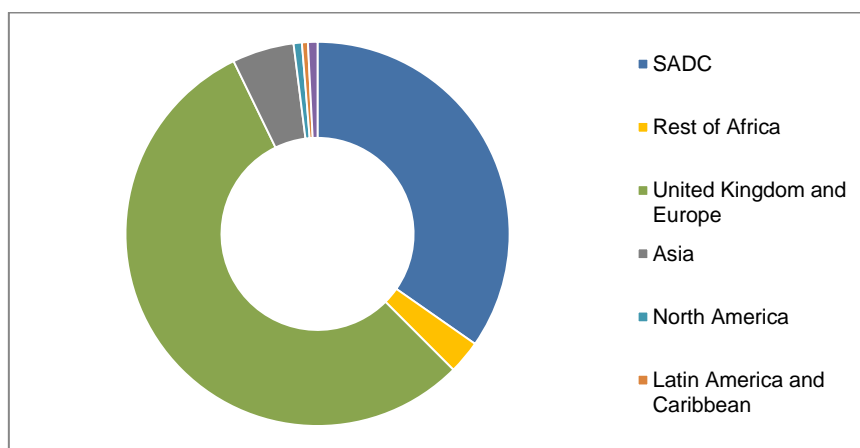
Figure 6.3: Distribution of the elderly by marital and migration status, 2011



Region of birth

Figure 6.4 illustrates the distribution of the migrant elderly by region of birth, from Census 2011. The results indicate that the highest proportion of migrant elderly was born in the United Kingdom, Europe and the SADC. These results could indicate that the migrant elderly from SADC or other countries in Africa could move back home at retirement. Migrants to South Africa are largely economic migrants, and after retirement those from Africa may move back to their country of birth.

Figure 6.4: Distribution of the migrant elderly by region of birth, 2011



Country of birth

Table 6.2 illustrates the distribution of the elderly by country of birth and migration status, from Census 2011, and indicates that from the top ten countries of birth, about a quarter of the migrant elderly were from the United Kingdom (27,0%). The top ten countries of birth include several countries from Europe and the SADC.

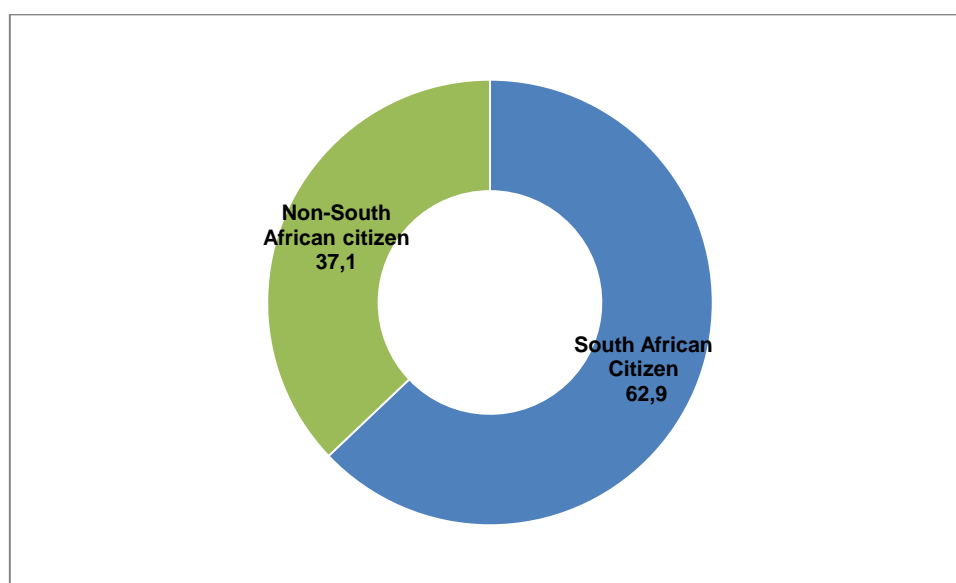
Table 6.2: Distribution of the elderly by country of birth, 2011

Rank	Country	Per cent
1	United Kingdom/Great Britain	27,0
2	Zimbabwe	9,7
3	Mozambique	8,9
4	Germany	7,1
5	Portugal	4,6
6	Netherlands	4,2
7	Lesotho	4,1
8	Namibia	3,8
9	Italy	3,2
10	India	3,0

Citizenship

Figure 6.5 illustrates the distribution of the migrant elderly by citizenship status, from Census 2011. The results indicate that about one third of migrant elderly are not South African citizens. This has an impact on the services that one in three of the migrant elderly will be able to access in South Africa (e.g. accessing an old-age grant).

Figure 6.5: Distribution of the migrant elderly by citizenship, 2011



Year of move to South Africa

Table 6.3 illustrates the distribution of the migrant elderly by the year that they moved to South Africa, from Census 2011. The results indicate that the highest proportion of the migrant elderly moved to South Africa before 1990. From 1990 to 2011, only about sixteen per cent of the migrant elderly moved to South Africa (6,8% from 1990 to 1999 and 9,8% from 2000 to 2011).

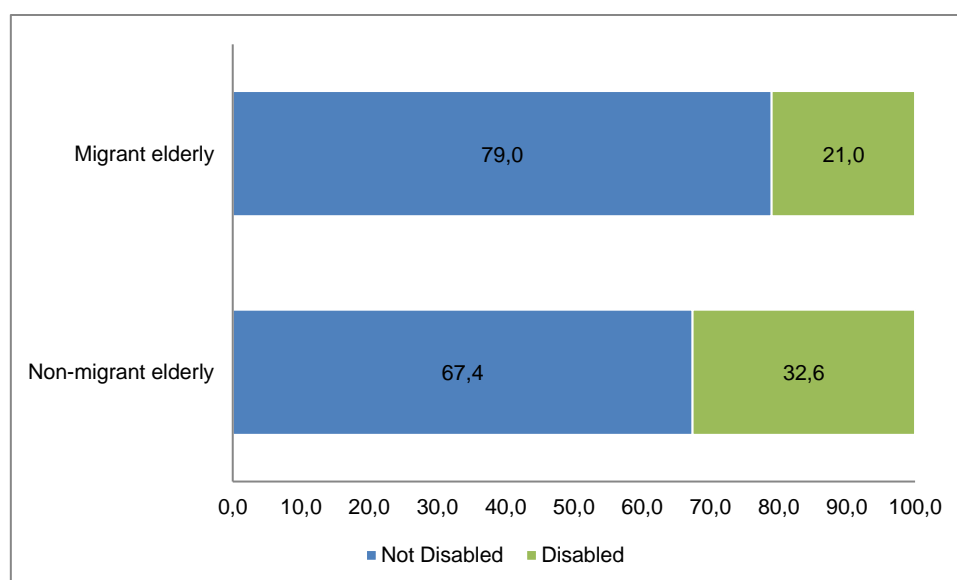
Table 6.3 Distribution of the elderly migrant, by year moved to South Africa, 2011

Year of move to South Africa	Percentage
1891–1989	83,4
1990–1999	6,8
2000–2011	9,8

Disability index

Disability and migration lead to a more complex life experience for the elderly. The elderly who are living with a disability may not have a family network to provide them with care and support. It may also be difficult to attend healthcare facilities. Poorer living conditions can actually lead to a disability, as illness or injuries left untreated can worsen. Figure 6.6 illustrates the distribution of the elderly who are living with a disability, from Census 2011. The results indicate that the non-migrant elderly reported a higher level of disability than the migrant elderly. The migrant elderly who reported to be living with a disability accounted for 21,0% as compared to the non-migrant elderly, who accounted for 32,6%. The migrant elderly who may be living with a disability, may move back to their country of birth, and not remain in South Africa.

Figure 6.6: Distribution of the elderly by disability index and migration status, 2011

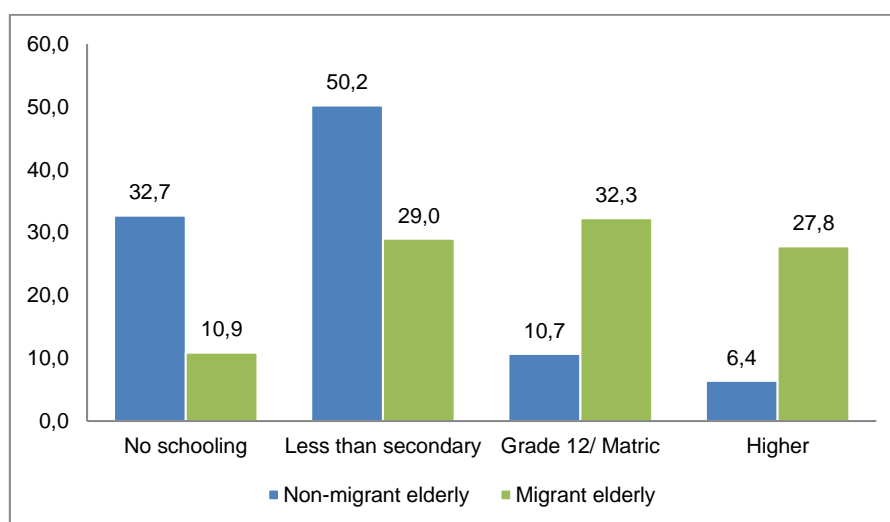


6.3 Education and employment profile

Highest educational qualification

Figure 6.7 illustrates the distribution of the elderly by highest educational qualification and migration status, from Census 2011. The results indicate that the migrant elderly had better education outcomes than the non-migrant elderly (higher proportion with grade 12 and tertiary qualifications). Levels of no schooling are higher for the non-migrant elderly than the migrant elderly.

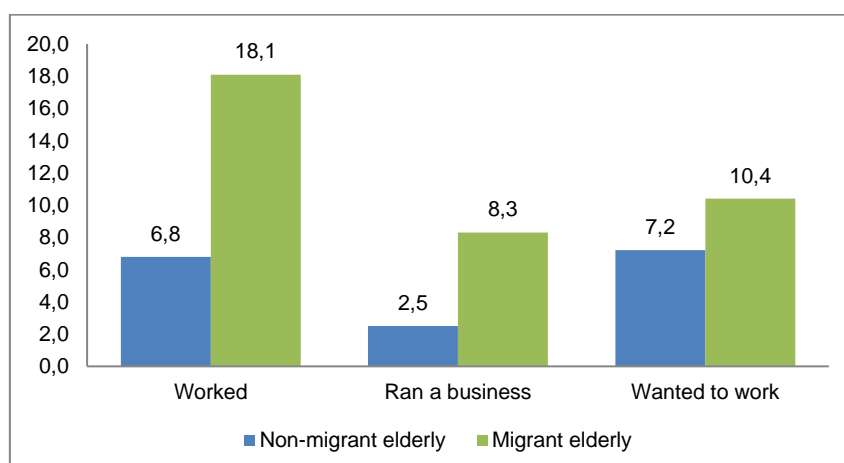
Figure 6.7: Distribution of the elderly by highest educational qualification and migration status, 2011



Work, business and wanted to work

Figure 6.8 illustrates the distribution of the non-migrant and migrant elderly by work, business, wanted to work and migration status, from Census 2011. The results indicate that a higher proportion of migrant elderly than non-migrant elderly worked, ran a business, or wanted to work.

Figure 6.8: Distribution of the elderly by work, business, wanted to work and migration status, 2011



CHAPTER 7: HOUSEHOLDS HEADED BY THE ELDERLY

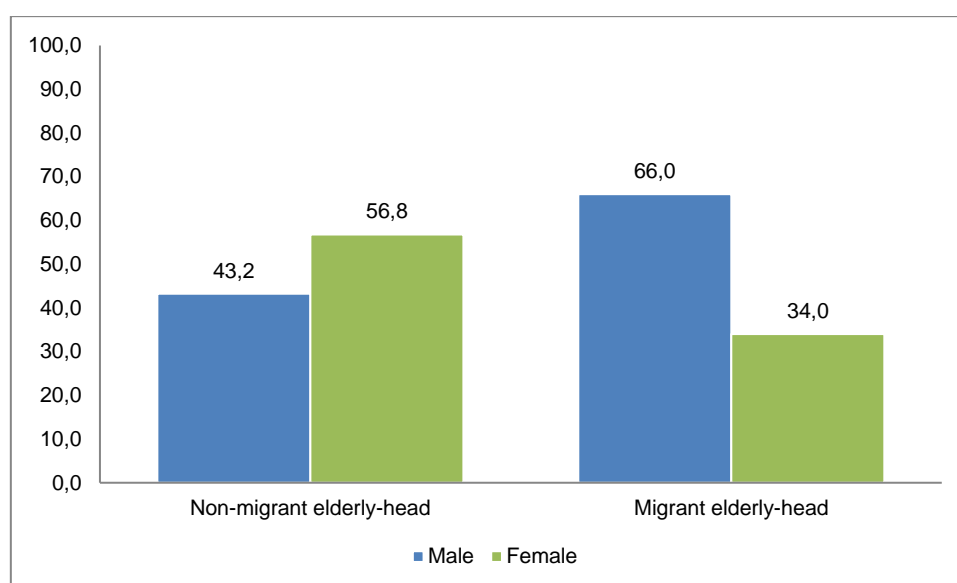
7.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on non-migrant and migrant households headed by the elderly. Households headed by the elderly are defined as those who have heads of households as reported in the Census, who are 65 years and older. The objective of the chapter is to determine the household characteristics and living conditions of households headed by the elderly. The chapter provides results from Census 2011 and focuses on the distribution of households headed by the elderly by (a) Sex; (b) Province; (c) Household size; (d) Headship type; (e) Household family structure; (f) Household living arrangements; (g) Access to tap water, sanitation facility and electricity used for lighting; and (h) Household assets.

Sex distribution

Figure 7.1 illustrates the distribution of households headed by the elderly by sex, from Census 2011. The results indicate that about two-thirds of migrant households headed by the elderly were male, whilst the proportion of households headed by elderly females was higher for non-migrant households.

Figure 7.1: Distribution of households headed by the elderly by sex and migration status, 2011



Province

Table 7.1 looks at all households headed by the elderly in South Africa and identifies from a spatial position, in which province the elderly-headed households are located. This type of analysis is useful as it is able to provide information that targets elderly-headed households for interventions at this level. Table 7.1 illustrates the provincial distribution of households headed by the elderly, from Census 2011. The results indicate that the highest proportion of migrant households headed by the elderly are in

Gauteng (41,7%), and Western Cape (21,6%). The highest proportion of non-migrant households headed by the elderly are in KwaZulu-Natal (19,0%) and Eastern Cape (18,0%).

Table 7.1: Distribution of households headed by the elderly by province and migration status, 2011

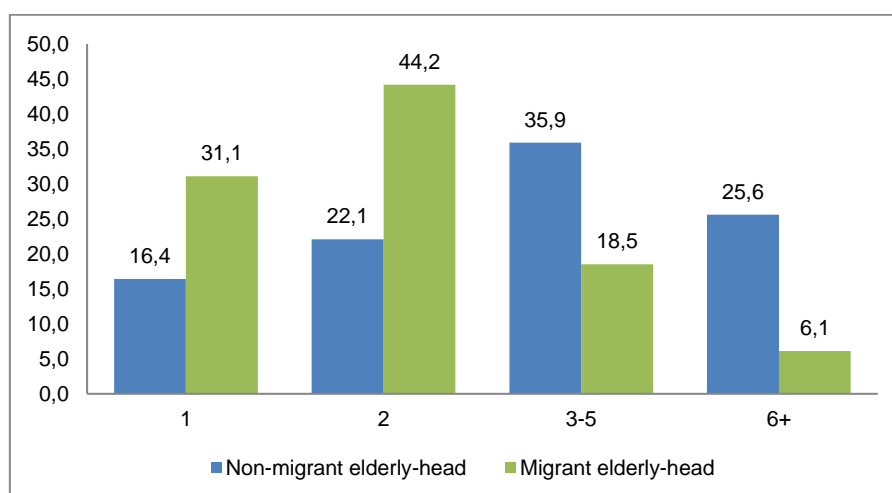
Province	Non-migrant elderly head	Migrant elderly-head
Western Cape	9,8	21,6
Eastern Cape	18,0	4,9
Northern Cape	2,3	1,0
Free State	5,8	2,9
KwaZulu-Natal	19,0	14,2
North West	7,7	3,7
Gauteng	16,5	41,7
Mpumalanga	7,2	7,0
Limpopo	13,7	3,1

7.2 Household characteristics

Household size

Measuring household size is an important phenomenon, as more households require more housing infrastructure. The increase in single-person households puts an increased strain on the demand for housing. When people choose to live in fewer-person households, more housing is required. However, over-crowding is also not a desirable or healthy living situation. Figure 7.2 illustrates the distribution of households headed by the elderly, by household size and migration status, from Census 2011. The results indicate that about a third of the migrant elderly live alone. A third of non-migrant elderly live in households with three to five people, whilst a quarter live in households with more than six people.

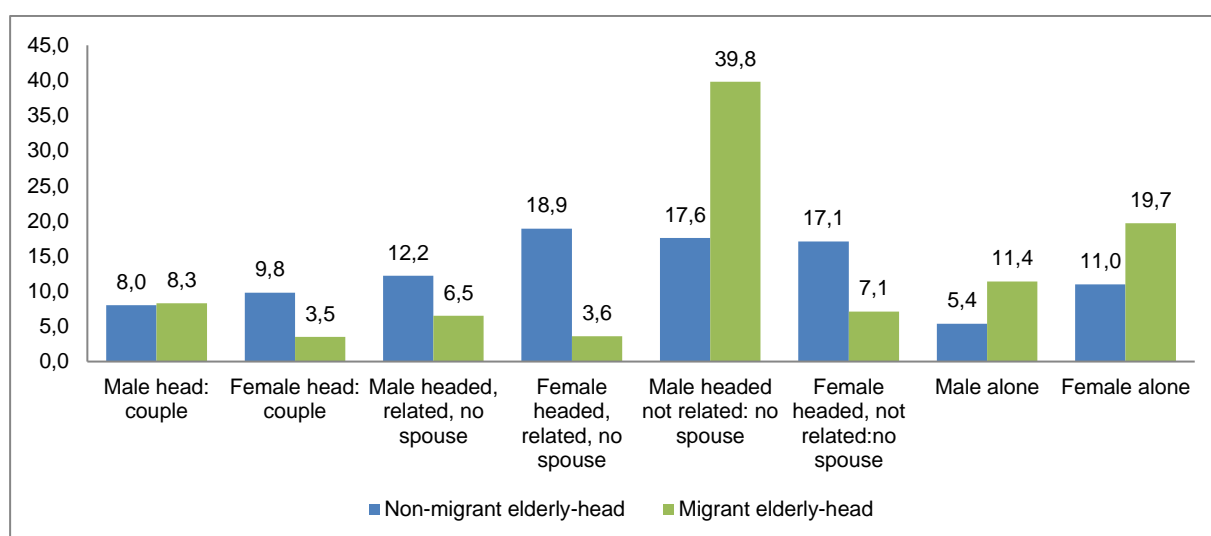
Figure 7.2: Distribution of households headed by the elderly by household size and migration status, 2011



Headship type

Analysis of headship type was conducted to determine patterns of family structure. Essentially, who do the elderly live with? Almost forty per cent of the migrant elderly live in a male-headed household with no relatives (39,8%). About twenty per cent of the migrant female elderly live alone, while almost nineteen per cent of the non-migrant elderly live in a female headed-household, with a relative.

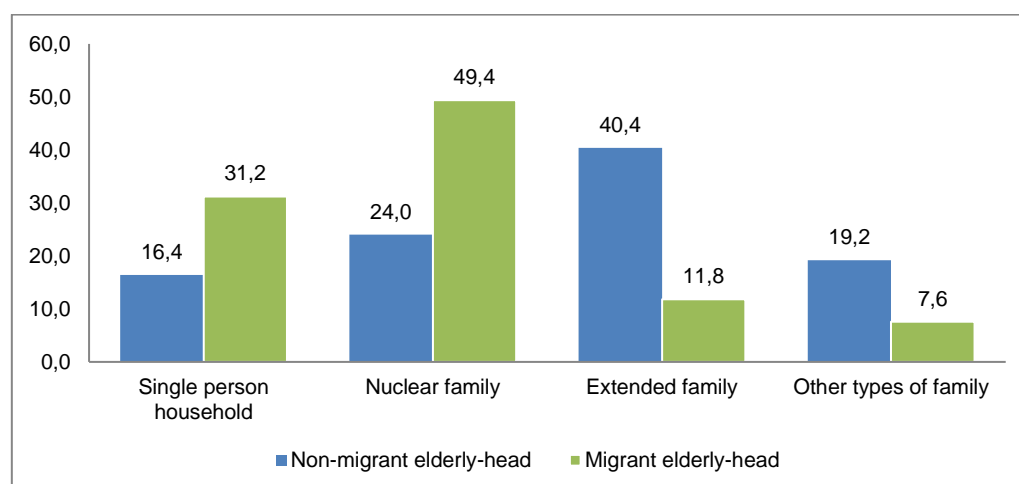
Figure 7.3: Distribution of households headed by the elderly by headship type and migration status, 2011



Household family structure

Figure 7.4 illustrates the household family structure of households headed by the elderly. The results indicate that a third of the migrant elderly live alone, as compared to about sixteen per cent of the non-migrant elderly. About half of the migrant elderly live with their nuclear family. The majority of the non-migrant elderly live with extended family and other types of family.

Figure 7.4: Distribution of households headed by the elderly by household living arrangement and migration status, 2011

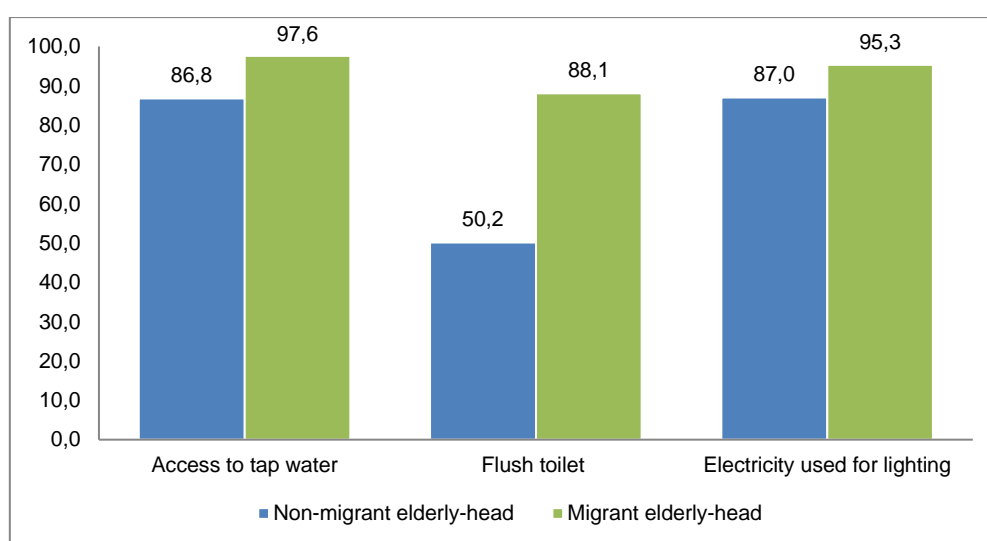


7.3 Living conditions of households headed by the elderly

Living conditions

Household services are an indication of household living conditions. Figure 7.5 illustrates the distribution of the households headed by the elderly for access to tap water, sanitation facility and electricity used for lighting, and migration status, from Census 2011. The results illustrate a higher proportion of households headed by the migrant elderly had access to tap water, a flush toilet and electricity used as energy for lighting, which means that the migrant elderly enjoyed better living conditions.

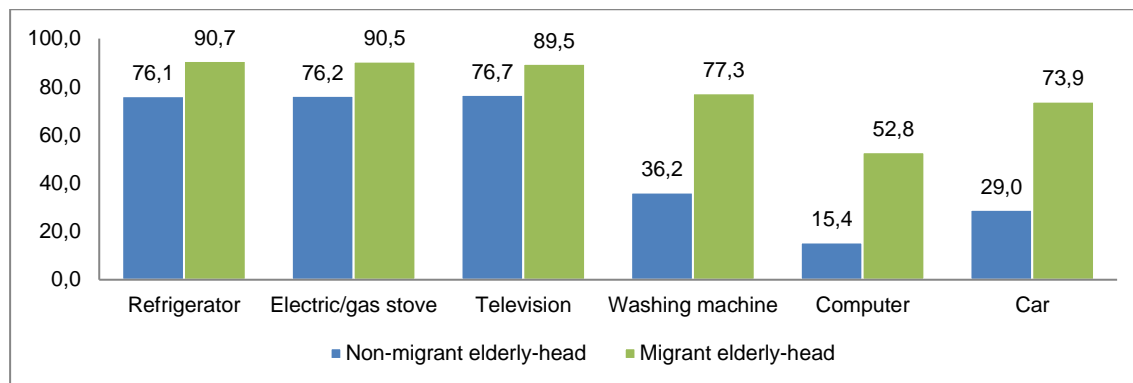
Figure 7.5: Distribution of households headed by the elderly by access to household services and migration status, 2011



Household assets

Household assets are viewed as a proxy measure for household wealth. The household assets included in the analysis are refrigerator, stove, television, washing machine, computer and car. Figure 7.6 illustrates the distribution of the households headed by the elderly by household assets and migration status, from Census 2011. The results indicate that ownership of household assets was higher for households headed by the migrant elderly, meaning that the households headed by the migrant elderly could be considered to have more household wealth.

Figure 7.6: Distribution of households headed by the elderly by household assets and migration status, 2011



CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

The report focused on the migration dynamics of women, children and the elderly, and presented findings related to demographic, education, employment and housing variables. The purpose of the report is to improve awareness of the situation of women, children and the elderly in South Africa and to ensure gender-sensitive and age-sensitive migration, economic and development policymaking. The National Development Plan 2030 states that South Africa will need to adopt a much more progressive migration policy. This can only be done if there is sufficient data on the movement of people within the country and on those entering the country. Hence, this report serves to expand the knowledge on movement and provide an extensive analysis of trends on migrant women, children and the elderly. The report was informed by national and global development frameworks:

- Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs),
- National Development Plan,
- The African Union Migration Policy Framework, and
- The Global Compact for Migration.

These frameworks and goals have direct and indirect consequences on migration, gender and age. SDG 17.18 highlights the need for the availability of timely and reliable data disaggregated by income, gender, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and other characteristics of national relevance.

Chapter 2 focused on women, migration and labour and presented findings related to demographic, education and employment variables. A contemporary issue relevant to migration is that of the feminisation of migration. A changing pattern has emerged worldwide, whereby many women are not only moving, but also moving on their own rather than moving with their family.²⁸ The traditional pattern of migration within and from Africa, which has been male-dominated, is increasingly becoming feminised. African women move within and outside their countries for economic reasons, education, professional development, marriage and protection. The increasing feminisation of migration is a result of the shifting demands for types of skills, such as in the service industries, domestic workers, nurses, teachers, care workers and other typically female dominated professions. Migration and labour is a topical and important issue, nationally and globally. Chapters 2 and 3 analysed data from the Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 3, 2012 and 2017 and focused on women of working age (ages 15–64). The analysis was based on international migration and there were two populations of study, namely (i) Non-migrant women (women born in South Africa) and (ii) Migrant women (women born outside South Africa). The purpose of this chapter was to improve awareness of the situation of women and to encourage gender-sensitive economic policymaking.

Results indicate that women aged 15–64 increased from 16,9 million in 2012 to 18 million in 2017. The migrant women residing in South Africa increased from 2012 to 2017 (from 3,1% to 4,5%). The migrant population did see a decrease in the sex ratio from 2012 to 2017, indicating that an increasing number of females are migrating in each period. Amongst both of the populations, there has been an increase

²⁸ (Landau et al. 2011).

from 2012 to 2017 in the proportion of those who have reported to have never married, indicating that a higher proportion of women are not getting married. The non-migrant women accounted for the highest proportion of those who reported to have never married. Marriage remains highest amongst migrant women.

In the migration module of questions, the QLFS questionnaire asks the respondent to provide a reason for migrating in the five years before the survey. Reasons ranged from those related to work, family and marriage, to those related to studies and adventure. Migrant women are increasingly moving in search of jobs. Literature indicates that the decision to migrate may be to seek better socio-economic opportunities and to improve the migrant's standard of living. Regarding reason for migration, both groups of women saw a decline from 2012 to 2017 in the proportion that moved for work that they had already secured. There was an increase in the proportion of women who moved to look for paid work (meaning they did not already have a job at the place of destination). About one in three migrant women moved to look for paid work in 2017. The same period (2017) also saw a significant rise in migrant women who moved for marriage (14,5%). With regards to highest level of education, despite decreasing from 2012 to 2017, migrant women accounted for the highest proportion of those who had no schooling. With regard to completing high school (grade 12 or matric), non-migrant women have the highest proportion of matriculants. Compared to non-migrant women, migrant women have the highest proportion of those who have no schooling, as well as the highest proportion of those who have a tertiary qualification. This indicates that migrant women are not a homogenous group and policies should be considerate of this.

Regarding the labour market status of women, non-migrant women accounted for the highest proportion in both the 'Not economically active' and 'Discouraged job-seeker' categories. This indicates that non-migrant women are largely not economically active and are discouraged job-seekers and hence not part of the labour force. Non-migrant women experienced higher unemployment for both 2012 and 2017, as well as an increase in unemployment within the period (from 27,5% to 30,1%). Migrant women experienced an increase in employment from 2012 to 2017 (from 72,2% to 76,0%). Amongst the employed, migrant women reported to have the highest proportion of those who have no schooling. Amongst employed women, the highest proportions in both populations have not completed secondary school (matric or grade 12). Levels of tertiary education increased for non-migrant women whilst they decreased for migrant women. The most popular occupation for both non-migrant and migrant women is clerks and service workers. Non-migrant women also favour elementary occupations and professional positions. However, a high proportion of migrant women work as domestic workers. About one in four migrant women work as a domestic worker.

In many countries, informal employment represents a significant part of the economy and labour market, and thus plays a major role in production, employment creation and income generation.²⁹ The informal employment sector is not a protected sector, in the sense that there are no adequate social safety nets

²⁹ Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.

(for example, unemployment insurance and other social protection benefits). Wages may also be low and working hours not regulated.³⁰ Almost one out of two migrant women are involved in the informal sector. The report analysed selected indicators relevant to the Decent Work Framework as posited by the International Labour Organization. These were working excessive hours, no employment contract, no permanent or temporary work contract, not entitled to maternity leave, and no employee contribution to their medical aid. Regarding hours worked, from 2012 to 2017, there was an overall decrease in the proportion of women working excessive hours. Despite this decline, one in three migrant women still worked excessive hours in both periods. Having an employment contract, whether temporary or permanent, is a measure of job security. More than eighty per cent of non-migrant women had an employment contract in place. However, only around sixty per cent of migrant women had an employment contract, signifying that foreign-born women had the lowest job security from this perspective. The underemployment rate remained the same for non-migrant women for both periods (5,8%), whilst it increased for migrant women from 2012 to 2017 (from 4,0% to 7,2%). Regarding maternity leave, a higher proportion of women across both populations were entitled to this benefit from 2012 to 2017. Despite the increase across the two periods, migrant women had the lowest proportions, indicating that less than half of migrant women qualify for maternity leave. Despite the higher proportion, there has been a decrease from 2012 to 2017, indicating an improvement in the working situation of migrant women.

The purpose of Chapter 3 was to improve awareness of the situation of non-migrant and migrant domestic workers in South Africa, using data from the QLFS 2012 and 2017. Research into a gendered perspective on migration speaks frequently on women's involvement in domestic work. Domestic work is largely an exploited sector. Domestic workers often work without a contract in place, and their employment can be terminated at any time. Despite being labour intensive, domestic work is a low-paid job. In addition to this, having a domestic worker may be seen as a luxury and not a necessity. If the household is experiencing financial stress, termination of the domestic worker's employment may be an initial financial coping mechanism. Hence, domestic workers often find themselves in unstable and unreliable working conditions.

In both 2012 and 2017, a higher proportion of migrant women than non-migrant women participated in domestic work. About one if four migrant women are domestic workers. Non-migrant women experienced a slight decrease in participating in domestic work from 2012 to 2017 (from 14,3% to 13,2%). Migrant women, however, experienced a slight increase in the same period (from 24,0% to 25,0%). The majority of non-migrant and migrant domestic workers have not completed secondary school. However, a considerable proportion of domestic workers do have a matric qualification. Economic instability is often reflected in other labour market indicators, such as shorter working hours and reduced incomes. From 2012 to 2017, the underemployment rate decreased for non-migrant domestic workers (from 17,7% to 15,0%), whilst it increased for migrant domestic workers (from 11,1% to 19,4%). This can be interpreted as about one in five migrant domestic workers having reported to be

³⁰ International Labour Organization. 2011. Decent Work Country Profile: South Africa, Geneva: International Labour Organization.

underemployed in 2017. About fourteen per cent of migrant domestic workers wanted to work longer hours in the job that they are currently working at. A higher proportion of migrant domestic workers than non-migrant domestic workers wanted to take on an additional job. Almost one in five migrant domestic workers still worked excessive hours in both periods.

Chapter 4 and 5 focused on non-migrant children and migrant children (ages 0-17). Many young migrants set out to find opportunities for work or education, or to escape issues in their country of origin.³¹ Some children migrate when their families break down or their parents die. Others move to join family members who made the journey ahead of them. In some cases, children migrate on their own because their chances of success are deemed greater than those of older family members. Consideration of migration in this cohort is integral as development plans, such as the Sustainable Development Goals, put the emphasis on children and migration. This cohort represents a specific category of migrants whose unique needs, rights and challenges are not being adequately addressed by the larger migration policy debate. Chapters 4 and 5 analysed data from Census 2011. The analysis was based on international migration and there were two populations of study, namely (i) Non-migrant children (children born in South Africa) and (ii) Migrant children (children born outside South Africa).

The results focused on a profile of non-migrant and migrant children which included age and sex analysis, citizenship, region and country of birth, disability index, parental survival, living arrangements, orphanhood as well as education attendance and fertility outcomes. Non-migrant children accounted for about a third of the non-migrant population, whilst migrant children accounted for only ten per cent of the migrant population. With regard to the sex distribution, there is an almost equal distribution between males and females for both groups of children. Less than one in four migrant children are a South African citizen (23,8%). This low proportion has impacts on the services that these children will be able to access in South Africa. The majority of migrant children were born in the SADC region. The highest proportion of migrant children were born in the neighbouring countries of Zimbabwe (40,2%), Mozambique (21,2%) and Lesotho (9,2%). In addition to countries on the African continent, India and the United Kingdom also featured in the top ten countries of birth. With regard to the disability index, non-migrant children reported a higher level of disability than migrant children. Migrant children who reported to be disabled accounted for about four per cent. Almost eighty per cent of migrant children live in the same household as their biological mother, as compared to about seventy-five per cent of non-migrant children. Almost sixty per cent of migrant children live in the same household as their biological father, as compared to less than forty per cent of non-migrant children. Knowledge of their parent's survival status can anecdotally be used to assess links to family, particularly in the case of migration, where people move and invariably lose touch with their family. A higher proportion of migrant children's parents are alive than non-migrant children. Slightly more non-migrant children do not know the survival status of their father as compared to migrant children. A higher proportion of non-migrant children than migrant children are orphans for all three orphan categories (maternal orphan, paternal orphan and double orphan). More than ninety per cent of non-migrant children were attending school,

³¹ (UNICEF, 2017).

whilst almost a quarter of migrant children were not attending school. About four per cent of migrant children were running a business, as compared to almost less than one per cent of non-migrant children. About two times as many migrant girls (14,2%) have given birth than non-migrant girls (6,7%), indicating that fertility rates will be affected by immigration. Migrant child-headed households live in more favourable housing conditions. However, non-migrant child-headed households have better access to household assets.

Chapter 5 focused on non-migrant and migrant children (ages 0-17) who are heads of households and results from Census 2011 were provided. Results focused on the profile of non-migrant and migrant child-headed households and provided results on the household characteristics and living conditions. Consideration of migration in this cohort is integral, as development plans, such as the Sustainable Development Goals, put the emphasis on children and migration. This cohort represents a specific category of migrants whose unique needs, rights and challenges are not being adequately addressed by the larger migration policy debate.³² Almost seventy per cent of heads of migrant child-headed households were male, whilst the gender split for non-migrant child-headed households was almost equal. Measuring household size is an important phenomenon as more households require more housing infrastructure. The increase in single-person households puts an increased strain on the demand of houses. However, over-crowding is also not a desirable or healthy living situation. When people choose to live in fewer-person households, more housing is required. With regard to household size, about half of migrant child-heads live alone, whilst about a quarter of both non-migrant and migrant child-heads live with one other person in the household. A higher proportion of non-migrant children are heads of households with more than three people living in it. Almost forty per cent of migrant child-heads are males who live alone (39,3%). About sixteen per cent of migrant child-headed households are headed by males who live with an unrelated person and no spouse. The highest proportion of non-migrant child-headed households is a male living alone (23,3%). About seventeen per cent of households headed by non-migrant males live with an unrelated person and no spouse, and about seventeen per cent of households headed by non-migrant females live with an unrelated person and no spouse. A higher proportion of migrant child-heads live in a nuclear family structure, as compared to non-migrant child-heads. Household services are an indication of household living conditions. With regard to living conditions, a higher proportion of migrant child-headed households have access to tap water and a flush toilet. A slightly higher proportion of non-migrant child-headed households have access to electricity. With regard to household assets, non-migrant child-headed households have a higher proportion of ownership of household assets such as a fridge, stove, and television.

Chapter 6 and 7 focused on migration dynamics of the elderly; and presented findings related to demographic, education, employment and housing variables. It is important to collect, process and report on data on older persons in the migration context, to improve policymaking and planning. These endeavours will support the achievement of ageing-related SDGs, such as protecting the human rights

³² (Global Migration Group, 2014).

of all people of all ages by “leaving no one behind”.³³ Older persons in the migration context are at risk of being overlooked, which might perpetuate vulnerabilities and inequalities. Chapters 6 and 7 analysed data from Census 2011 and focused on the elderly (ages 65 and older). The analysis was based on international migration and there were two populations of study, namely the (i) Non-migrant elderly (elderly born in South Africa) and the (ii) Migrant elderly (elderly born outside South Africa).

The results focused on a profile of the non-migrant and migrant elderly. With regard to the distribution of the elderly population, the migrant elderly account for about five per cent of the elderly population in South Africa, whilst the non-migrant elderly account for almost ninety-five per cent. There is an almost equal distribution between males and females in the migrant elderly population. However, about two-thirds of the non-migrant elderly are women. With regard to marriage, a higher proportion of the migrant elderly are married (59,8%) than the non-migrant elderly (47,2%). About thirteen per cent of the non-migrant elderly have never been married (in comparison to only six per cent of migrant elderly). About one in three non-migrant elderly are widowed.

Regarding migration of the elderly, the highest proportion of the migrant elderly moved to South Africa moved to South Africa before the new constitutional reforms which led to a new democratic dispensation. From 1990 to 2011, only about seventeen per cent of the migrant elderly moved to South Africa. The top ten countries of birth include several countries from Europe and SADC. About 27% were from the United Kingdom, and less than 10% were from Zimbabwe. This indicates that many migrants from neighbouring countries may return to their country of birth after retirement. This is congruent with literature which states that South Africa is largely a recipient of economic migrants. One-third of the migrant elderly are not South African citizens.

Disability and migration lead to a more complex life experience for the elderly. The elderly who are disabled may not have a family network to provide them with care and support. It may also be difficult to attend healthcare facilities. Poorer living conditions can actually lead to a disability, as illness or injuries left untreated can worsen. The non-migrant elderly reported a higher level of disability than the migrant elderly. The migrant elderly who reported to be living with a disability accounted for about twenty per cent as compared to the non-migrant elderly who accounted for about thirty per cent. The migrant elderly, who may be living with a disability, may move back to their country of birth, and not remain in South Africa. Regarding highest level of education, the migrant elderly had better education outcomes than the non-migrant elderly (higher proportion with grade 12 and tertiary qualifications). Levels of no schooling are higher for the non-migrant elderly than the migrant elderly. A higher proportion of the migrant elderly than the non-migrant elderly worked, ran a business, or wanted to work.

Chapter 7 focused on the migration dynamics of households headed by the elderly; and presented findings related to demographic, education, employment and housing variables. Two-thirds of migrant households headed by the elderly were male, whilst the proportion of households headed by elderly

³³ IOM, 2019

females was higher for non-migrant households. A third of non-migrant elderly live in households with three to five people, whilst a quarter live in households with more than six people. Almost forty per cent of the migrant elderly live in a male-headed household with no relatives (39,8%). About nineteen per cent of the migrant female elderly live alone. About nineteen per cent of the non-migrant elderly live in a female headed-household, with a relative. A third of the migrant elderly live alone, as compared to about sixteen per cent of the non-migrant elderly. About half of the migrant elderly live with their nuclear family. The majority of the non-migrant elderly live with extended family and other types of family. A higher proportion of households headed by the migrant elderly had access to tap water, flush toilet and electricity used as energy for lighting, which indicates that the migrant elderly had better living conditions. Ownership of household assets was higher for households headed by the migrant elderly, indicating that the households headed by the migrant elderly could be considered to have more household wealth.

Migration research and literature has largely been focused on men (particularly men of working age), as this was the predominant group migrating. As women, children and the elderly increasingly move, there is a need for new data sources to comprehensively understand the dynamics of these groups. Whilst Census has a wealth of information, there is a need for quality migration data in the intercensal period. The purpose of the report was to improve awareness of the situation of women, children and the elderly in South Africa and to ensure gender-sensitive and age-sensitive migration, economic and development policymaking. The report has served to contribute to the narrative on migrant women, children and the elderly in South Africa, to advance evidence-based discourse, decision-making and policymaking.

