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Labour market outcomes of migrant populations in South Africa, 2012 and 2017

Statistics South Africa

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PREFACE

Migration is an important phenomenon shaping the demographic profile of our country. During apartheid, migration in South Africa was associated with labour migration, which shaped the country's spatial and settlement patterns and primary livelihood strategies and had an impact on migration trends. Hence, migration and labour are intrinsically linked in South Africa. By its nature, the push-pull factors of migration entail that people move for economic stability. This report focuses on labour market outcomes of immigrant, internal-migrant and non-mover populations in South Africa. In addition, the report considers the types of work people are involved in and posits findings on the Decent Work Framework.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

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. Ensuring inclusive development, by increasing access to decent work and social protection coverage, especially for the most vulnerable, is the best route to reducing inequalities and combating poverty, leaving no one behind. The purpose of the report is to provide insight into the socioeconomic and demographic variables related to migration and labour, and to profile migrant groups who are of working age, using data collected from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). The report focuses on predictors of employment and the decent work agenda. The rationale for the report is based on the premise that one of the key motivations behind migration is moving for jobs, economic stability or in search of work. Focus on labour force participation is integral as it is the main route through which migrants improve their socioeconomic status. Ensuring access to decent work is one of the key channels to facilitate regular migration.

Why should we report on labour market outcomes of migrant populations?

- One of the key motivations behind migration is moving for a job, in search of a job or for economic stability.
- A focus on labour force participation is integral as it is the main route through which migrants improve their socio-economic status.
- Ensuring access to decent work is one of the key channels to facilitate regular migration.
- South Africa has an intricate history of labour migration.

Objectives

- To provide insight into the socio-economic and demographic status of migrants in the labour force,
- To determine the link between employment and migration, within the decent work framework.

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 (Q3: 2012) and October to December 2017 (Q3: 2017). The Migration module is not a permanent feature in the QLFS. Stats SA included questions on migration in QLFS for the first time in the third quarter of 2012. The data on the second module was collected in the third quarter of 2017.

> **The report is informed by national and global development frameworks and responds to the need to monitor progress in development. These frameworks and goals have direct and indirect consequences on migration and labour.**
>
> **National Development Plan:** To facilitate migration and ease the entry of skilled migrants.
>
> **African Union Migration Policy Framework:** A focus on labour migration, migration data and migration and development.
>
> **Sustainable Development Goals:** 11 out of 17 goals contain targets and indicators that are relevant to migration.
>
> **Global Compact for Migration:** A focus on regular migration, regular pathways, decent work and labour mobility.

Chapter 1 contains the introduction, background, objectives and development framework informing the report. It also provides the data sources utilised, as well as the migration module of questions. The chapter provides the distribution of the working-age population. Chapter 2 discusses lifetime migration and provides a profile of lifetime migrants. The remainder of the chapter explores inter-provincial movement and provides a profile of internal movers. Chapter 3 examines period migration. The chapter looks at migration streams and provides a profile of recent movers in the five main migration streams. It also explores immigrant provincial selectivity, as well as the reason for migration. Chapter 4 uses the binary logistic regression model to determine the predictors of employment, and Chapter 5 looks at movement in the context of the decent work agenda. Chapter 6 presents a discussion of findings based on the objectives of the research.

Data is analysed for three migrant groups, namely (i) Non-movers, (ii) Internal-migrants and (iii) Immigrants, for both lifetime and period migration, and results from 2012 and 2017 are compared. Results indicate that the proportion of the population who has not moved (non-movers), decreased from 2012 to 2017, indicating that a higher proportion of people are moving in South Africa.

Distribution of migrant groups, ages 15-64, 2012 and 2017

From constructing migration matrices, it is evident that South Africa has seventy-two possible internal-migrant streams. We identified the five most populous streams and profiled the migrants that moved in these streams, which were (1) Limpopo-to-Gauteng, (2) KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng, (3) Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng, (4) Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape, and (5) Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng. These streams account for the majority of all internal moves. Of the five main streams, internal-migrants from the KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng, and the Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng streams showed the best education and employment outcomes. Both the Eastern Cape streams were the highest supplier of domestic workers.


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With regard to education status for internal-migrants, completion of matric and tertiary qualifications were higher for period migrants than lifetime migrants. The proportion of immigrants with matric and tertiary qualifications, however, was higher for lifetime immigrants than period immigrants. Overall, levels of no schooling were higher for immigrants than for internal-migrants. Internal-migrants expressed higher proportions for those who had matric or tertiary qualifications, compared to immigrants. As regards the employment rate, employment has decreased for all migrant groups and is higher for immigrants than for internal-migrants. With regard to internal-migrants, lifetime migrants exhibit higher employment rates than period internal-migrants, whilst for immigrants; lifetime and period migrants exhibit similar employment rates. About 1 in 4 female immigrants are employed as domestic workers. Domestic work is lowest amongst non-movers (about 1 in 8).

Analysis considered immigrant provincial selectivity, and assessed the distinction between period and lifetime immigrants. There is often a lot of emphasis placed on Gauteng, which is the preferred province of residence for immigrants. However, the change in distribution must be noted between period and lifetime immigrant provincial preferences. About one in two lifetime immigrants reside in Gauteng. However, when looking at period migration, this decreases to about one in three. In addition to Gauteng, period migrants preferred Limpopo and Western Cape in the 2007–2012 period and North West and KwaZulu-Natal in the 2012–2017 period. In addition to Gauteng, lifetime immigrants also preferred to reside in Western Cape and Limpopo.

The QLFS questionnaire includes a question to period migrants on reason for moving. The main reason for moving was work-related. From 2012 to 2017, a higher proportion of migrants moved to find work or to start a business, as opposed to moving for a job that they had already secured. About 1 in 5 internal-migrants and about 1 in 3 immigrants moved to look for work or to start a business.

Reason for migration of internal-migrants and immigrants, 2012 and 2017
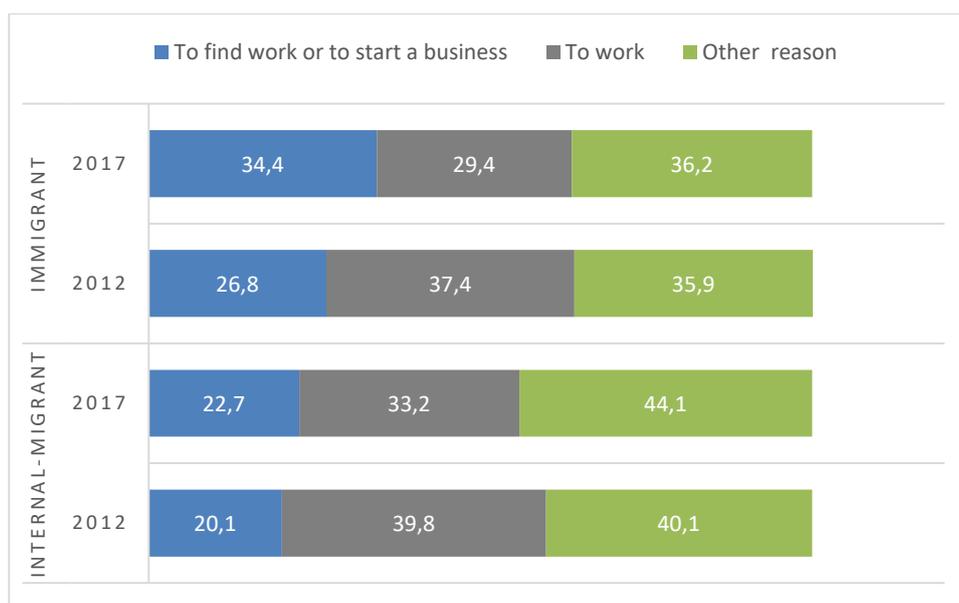
From the regression model on predictors of employment, immigrants are about two times more likely to be employed than internal-migrants and non-movers. Non-movers have the lowest odds of being employed. Despite immigrants being more likely to be employed than non-movers and internal-migrants, further research was undertaken to determine the types of work in which they participated and how their work fared within the Decent Work Framework.

Decent work is central in efforts to reduce poverty and is a means for achieving equitable, inclusive and sustainable development. Irregular migration can be mitigated by labour migration policies and the decent work agenda. The rates and proportions in the framework indicate undesirable types of work that express lack of job security and stability as well as social security. From the eleven decent work indicators, immigrants had the highest proportion in eight out of eleven categories. Non-movers ranked the highest in only three categories, whilst internal-migrants did not exhibit the highest in any category. This indicates that whilst immigrants are more likely to be employed, they largely participate in employment that cannot be classified as decent work.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

GAR	General Activity Rate
ILO	International Labor Organization
NEET	Not in employment, education or training
QLFS	Quarterly Labour Force Survey
SA	South Africa
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UIF	Unemployment Insurance Fund

CHAPTER 1 : INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and context

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, has 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] In South Africa, the media and society have perpetuated the notion of rising unemployment being blamed on the movement of immigrants into South Africa. There is the belief that immigrants "steal" jobs from South Africans, and that unskilled immigrants are willing to work for lower wage.[4] This has led to violence and xenophobic attacks over the years in the country.[5] Immigrants are sometimes viewed as competition for scarce resources, and the debate of immigrants stealing jobs from South Africans is popular. Zuberi and Sibanda[6] posit three positions on this debate:

i.   Opening South Africa to skilled migrants and investors will make a contribution to the country's economy;
ii.   Immigration should be opposed because immigrants take jobs away from South Africans; and
iii.   Immigration should be opposed because African immigrants bring disease and crime into South Africa.

However, some authors have suggested that promoting immigration from elsewhere in Africa could help alleviate South Africa's chronic shortage of skilled labour, and that immigrants actually create more jobs than they take.[7] [8] The National Planning Commission's Diagnostic Report showed that differential migration patterns largely reflect national patterns of job creation and job loss.[9] For the next decade, South Africa has a highly favourable age distribution profile. Fertility and mortality rates are decreasing[10] and are lower than elsewhere in the continent,[11] and life expectancy is increasing. Subsequently, there is a large youth and working-age population and proportionally fewer old and very young persons.[12] Migration patterns are complex and involve diverse social groups and a combination of permanent and temporary migrants. Trends indicate that there will be more youth and women migrants.[13]

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[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] Landau, L.B. 2011. Introducing the Demons. In: L.B. Landau, ed. *Exorcising the demons within: xenophobia, violence and statecraft in contemporary South Africa*. Johannesburg: Tokyo: Wits University Press, pp. 1-26.
[5] Crush, J. & Ramachandran, S. 2015. Doing Business with Xenophobia. In: J. Crush, A. Chikanda & C. Skinner, eds. *Mean Streets: Migration, Informality and Xenophobia in South Africa*. Cape Town: Southern African Migration Programme, pp. 25-59.
[6] Zuberi, T. & Sibanda, A. 2004. How Do Migrants Fare in a Post-Apartheid South African Labor Market? The International Migration Review, 38(4), pp. 1462-1491.
[7] Landau, L.B. & Gindrey, B. 2008. Migration and population trends in Gauteng province 1996-2055. University of Witwatersrand, Volume 42.
[8] Ellis, S. & Segatti, A. 2011. The Role of Skilled Labour. In: A. Segatti & L.B. Loren, eds. Contemporary migration to South Africa: a regional development issue. Washington DC: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank, pp. 67-79.
[9] National Planning Commission. 2012. National Development Plan 2030: Our future – make it work. Pretoria: National Planning Commission.
[10] Statistics South Africa. 2018. Mid-year population estimates. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
[11] National Planning Commission. 2012. National Development Plan 2030: Our future – make it work. Pretoria: National Planning Commission.
[12] Statistics South Africa. 2018. Mid-year population estimates. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
[13] National Planning Commission. 2012. National Development Plan 2030: Our future – make it work. Pretoria: National Planning Commission.

During apartheid, migration in South Africa was associated with labour migration, which helped shape the country's economy, urban settlement and spatial patterns and, primary livelihood strategies.[14] The policies of the apartheid government served to monitor and limit the movement of non-white population groups when they were in urban areas, and ensured a labour reserve in the homeland states. As a result, black African men in particular, moved to mines and other urban areas for employment while leaving their families at their place of origin.[15] Migration in South Africa has been rooted in racially discriminatory policies that resulted in internal migration in the country taking on a circular pattern whereby individuals migrate back and forth between their rural homes and urban places of employment.[16]

Looking at migration in perspective of the continent, South Africa has the largest and most diversified economy in the region. South Africa shares a continent with countries that are poor and prone to conflict.[17] As postulated by the neo-classical migration theory and push-and-pull factors, this has created flows of migrants from the continent and the global south. The neo-classical migration theory is premised on the principle of demand and supply of labour – mainly across international boundaries – due to differences of income in source and destination areas. Migration therefore takes place to equalise wages across countries with low labour supply and high wages with countries with high labour supply and low wages.[18] The collapse of Zimbabwe's economy has added a "crisis-driven quality" to the regional movement of people.[19] Given the major disparities in economic development and opportunity between South Africa and the rest of the region, it is inevitable that some people will move to South Africa by any means they can.[20] [21]

1.2 Purpose and objectives

The purpose of the report is to provide insight into the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics related to migration and labour, and to profile migrant groups who are of working age, using data collected from Stats SA. The report focuses on predictors of employment and the decent work agenda. Focus on labour force participation is integral, as it is the main route through which migrants improve their socioeconomic status.[22] The National Development Plan 2030 says 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. Hence, this report serves

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[14] Segatti, A. 2011. Migration to South Africa: Regional Challenges versus National Instruments and Interests. In: A. Segatti & L.B. Loren, eds. Contemporary Migration to South Africa: a Regional Development Issue. Washington DC: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank, pp. 9-29.
[15] Statistics South Africa. 2015. Census 2011: Migration Dynamics in South Africa. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
[16] Landau, L.B. & Gindrey, B. 2008. Migration and population trends in Gauteng province 1996-2055. University of Witwatersrand, Volume 42.
[17] Mapuva, J. & Muyengwa-Mapuva, L. 2014. The SADC regional bloc: What challenges and prospects for regional integration? Law, Democracy and Development, Volume 18, pp. 22-36.
National Planning Commission. 2012. National Development Plan 2030: Our future – make it work. Pretoria: National Planning Commission.
[18] Massey, D.S. & Espinosa, K.E. 1997. What's driving Mexico-US migration? A theoretical, empirical, and policy analysis. American Journal of Sociology, 102(4), pp. 939-999.
[19] Mapuva, J. & Muyengwa-Mapuva, L. 2014. The SADC regional bloc: What challenges and prospects for regional integration? Law, Democracy and Development, Volume 18, pp. 22-36.
National Planning Commission. 2012. National Development Plan 2030: Our future – make it work. Pretoria: National Planning Commission.
[20] Rodríguez-Pose, A. & Tijmstra, S. 2005. Local Economic Development as an alternative approach to economic development in Sub-Saharan Africa. Washington Dc: The World Bank.
[21] Mapuva, J. & Muyengwa-Mapuva, L. 2014. The SADC regional bloc: What challenges and prospects for regional integration? Law, Democracy and Development, Volume 18, pp. 22-36.
National Planning Commission. 2012. National Development Plan 2030: Our future – make it work. Pretoria: National Planning Commission.
[22] Zuberi, T. & Sibanda, A. 2004. How Do Migrants Fare in a Post-Apartheid South African Labor Market? The International Migration Review, 38(4), pp. 1462-1491.

to expand the knowledge on movement and provide an extensive analysis of trends on migrant involvement in the labour market in South Africa.

The report addresses the following objectives:

1. To determine the stock and flow of migrants;
2. To provide a profile of lifetime migrants, internal-migrants and period migrants;
3. To identify the main internal-migration streams and corridors in South Africa;
4. To investigate period migration;
5. To determine reasons for moving;
6. To determine the predictors of employment; and
7. To analyse migration in the context of the decent work agenda.

1.3 Development framework positioning the report

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. Ensuring inclusive development by increasing access to decent work and social protection coverage, especially for the most vulnerable, is the best route to reducing inequalities and combatting poverty, leaving no one behind.[23] Consequently, migration and labour are effected in several development plans and policies. Table 1.1 highlights some of these plans and policies.

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[23] European Commission: Directorate General for International Development and Cooperation. (2019, 01 21). Inclusive Development News- out now. Retrieved 02 10, 2019, from International Development and Cooperation: https://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/news-and-events/inclusive-development-news-out-now_en

Table 1.1: Development framework positioning the report

Plan	Objectives	Targets
National Development Plan	Population movement: Migration	Required steps to better facilitate migration include: • Improving data collection, coordination and analysis as a matter of urgency; • Easing the entry of skilled migrants; • Effectively addressing the rights and vulnerabilities of migrants; • Introducing support programmes to regularise migrant residence.
	Objectives for employment and growth	The high-level numeric targets for sustainable and inclusive growth include: • A fall in the strict unemployment rate from 25 per cent to 14 per cent in 2020 to 6 per cent by 2030; • A rise in the labour force participation rate from 54 per cent in 2010 to 65 per cent; • About 11 million additional jobs by 2030.
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.
Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)[24]	SDG 8 (Decent work and economic growth)	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 (8.8).
	SDG 10 (Reduce inequality within and among countries)	Facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies (10.7).
	SDG 17 (Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the Global Partnership for Sustainable Development)	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 (17.18).
Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration [25]	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.

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[24] International Labor Organization. 2018. Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators. Geneva: International Labor Organization.
[25] International Organization for Migration. 2018. Global Compact for Safe, Orderly and Regular Migration. Geneva: International Organization for Migration.

1.4 Report structure

The general analysis in the report covers trends for migrant groups for the periods 2012 and 2017. Table 1.2 provides the chapter layout of the report.

Table 1.2: Chapter layout of the report

Chapter	Contents
Chapter 1: Introduction	Chapter 1 contains the introduction, background, objectives and development framework informing the report. It also provides the data sources utilised, as well as the migration module of questions. The chapter provides the distribution of the working-age population.
Chapter 2: Lifetime migration	Chapter 2 discusses lifetime migration and provides a profile of lifetime migrants. The chapter also provides elderly dependency ratios and general-activity rates for this migrant category. The remainder of the chapter explores inter-provincial movement and provides a profile of internal movers.
Chapter 3: Period migration	Chapter 3 examines recent migration. The chapter looks at migration streams and provides a profile of recent movers in the main migration streams. It also explores immigrant provincial selectivity, as well as the reason for migration.
Chapter 4: Predictors of employment	Chapter 4 uses the binary logistic regression model to determine the predictors of employment of lifetime migrants.
Chapter 5: Decent work agenda	Chapter 5 looks at movement in the context of the decent work agenda.
Chapter 6: Discussion	Chapter 6 presents a discussion of findings based on the objectives of the research.

1.5 Typology of migration and labour

The report is unique is its construction, as it related labour and migration. As such, Table x explores concepts and terms related to both labour and migration that are discussed in the report.

Table 1.3: Typology of migration and labour

Typology	Main characteristics
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.
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: • 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.
Immigrant	An individual who was enumerated in a province in South Africa (SA), but who indicated that they were not born in SA.
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: • 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.
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 migrant	An individual who has moved more than five years before enumeration.
Long-term unemployment	Persons who have been unemployed, available for work, and looking for a job for one year or longer.
Migrant flow	The number of migrants entering or leaving during a specified period (for this report the period refers to five years).
Migrant stock	The total number of migrants living in a country at a particular point in time.
Migration corridor	A particular migration stream plus the stream in the opposite direction in combination covers a significant proportion of all migratory moves in the country.
Migration stream	A group of migrants with a common origin and destination.
Non-mover	An individual who was born in a particular province, and was enumerated in the same province.
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.

Typology	Main characteristics
Period migration	An individual who was born in another province/country, but who was enumerated within the borders of a different province/country for a specific period. For this report, the period refers to five years. Recent-migrant may be used interchangeably with period migrant.
Short-term unemployment	Persons who have been unemployed, available for work, and looking for a job for less than one year.
Under-employed	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	- 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).
Youth	Individuals between the ages 15–34 years. This age group is sometimes disaggregated further to distinguish between younger (15–24) and older (25-34) youth.

1.6 Data sources

The Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) is a household-based, sample survey conducted by Statistics South Africa (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 (Q3: 2012) and October to December 2017 (Q3: 2017), and will focus on 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.[26]

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."[27] Whilst data on migration is best received from a Census or a Migration Survey, there is large value in determining the patterns and trends presented in the QLFS. Despite Stats SA not applying migration-specific weights in its surveys to date, there is benefit in the analysis on timely migration data from the QLFS. Trends from QLFS are congruent with other results reported by Stats SA on migration.

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[26] Statistics South Africa. 2018. Labour Market Dynamics in South Africa 2017. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
[27] International Labor Organization. 2018. Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators. Geneva: International Labor Organization.

1.7 Migration module

The migration module is not a permanent feature in the QLFS. Stats SA included questions on migration in the QLFS for the first time in the third quarter of 2012. The data on the second module was collected in the third quarter of 2017.[28] The volume of migration is often estimated directly from two questions in censuses and surveys, namely:

i.   Where (province, country) were you born? This provides a measure of lifetime migration.

ii.   Were you living here five years ago? This provides a measure of recent (period) migration.

The QLFS Q3, 2012 and 2017 questionnaires included both questions. Table 1.4 provides the details of the migration module of questions included in QLFS, Q3: 2012 and Q3: 2017, as well as the corresponding variables.

Table 1.4: Migration module of questions included in QLFS, Q3: 2012 and Q3: 2017

Question	Variable
Place of birth **8.1 Where were you born?**	01 = In this province 02 = In another province 03 = In another country
Province of birth **8.2 In which province/country were you born?**	01 = Western Cape 02 = Eastern Cape 03 = Northern Cape 04 = Free State 05 = KwaZulu-Natal 06 = North West 07 = Gauteng 08 = Mpumalanga 09 = Limpopo 10 = Outside South Africa 11 = Don't know
Movement in the past 5 years **8.3 Have you moved from one province to the other in the past 5 years?**	01 = Yes 02 = No
Year moved **8.4 When did you move to this province (the most recent move)? Give year and month**	Valid range: 2007–2012 Valid range: 01–12
Previous place of residence **8.5 In which province were you living before you moved to the province you presently reside in?**	01 = Western Cape 02 = Eastern Cape 03 = Northern Cape 04 = Free State 05 = KwaZulu-Natal 06 = North West 07 = Gauteng 08 = Mpumalanga 09 = Limpopo 10 = Outside South Africa 11 = Don't know
Reason for migration **8.6 What was the main reason for moving to the province you presently reside in?**	01 = To work 02 = Job transfer 03 = Look for paid work 04 = To start a business 05 = Look for land for farming 06 = Family moved 07 = Marriage 08 = School/training 09 = To live with a relative 10 = Divorced/separation 11= Adventure 12 = Other

[28] Statistics South Africa. 2018. Labour Market Dynamics in South Africa 2017. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

1.8 Categorisation of migrant groups

In this report, migrants are categorised broadly into three groups, as illustrated in Figure 1.1:

i.   Non-mover: An individual who was born in a particular province, and is a usual resident of the same province;

ii.   Internal-migrant: An individual who was born in a particular province, and is a usual resident of a different province; and

iii. Immigrant: An individual who was enumerated in a province in South Africa, but who indicated that they were born outside South Africa (in another country).

Figure 1.1: Categorisation of migrant groups, QLFS 2012 and 2017
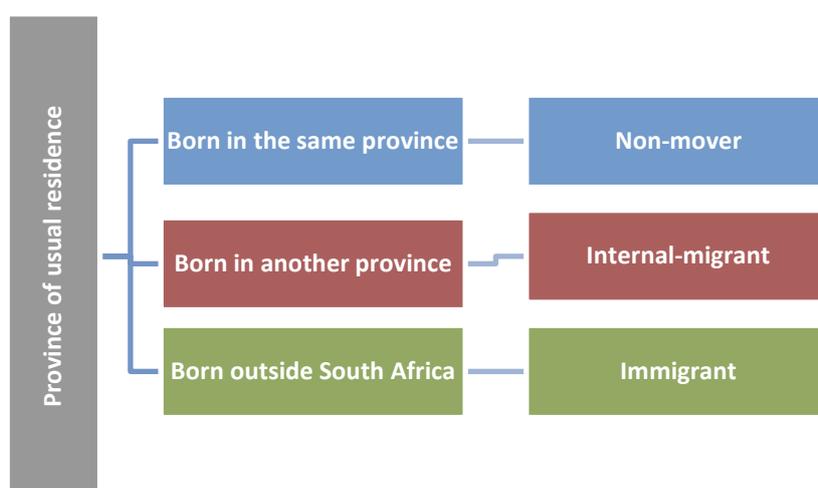
1.9 Labour force framework

The backbone of labour statistics and their analysis is the labour force framework, which divides the population into categories that thereafter can be examined in more detail.[29] The population can be divided into populations below and above the working age. The minimum age limit for defining the working age varies among countries and depends on national circumstances such as the compulsory schooling age, and the minimum age for admission to employment.[30] It is common to define the working-age population as the population aged 15 and older. In South Africa, 'working age' refers to the ages 15–64. The working-age population is broken down into those in the labour force and those not in the labour force. The labour force comprises the employed and the unemployed, while the remainder of the working-age population is comprised of discouraged job-seekers and the not-economically active population[31] (Figure 1.2).

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[29] Pietschmann, I. et al. 2016. Key Labor Market Data: Analysis with Household Survey Data. Geneva: International Labor Organization, World Bank Group.
[30] Ibid.
[31] Ibid.

Figure 1.2: Labour force framework[32]
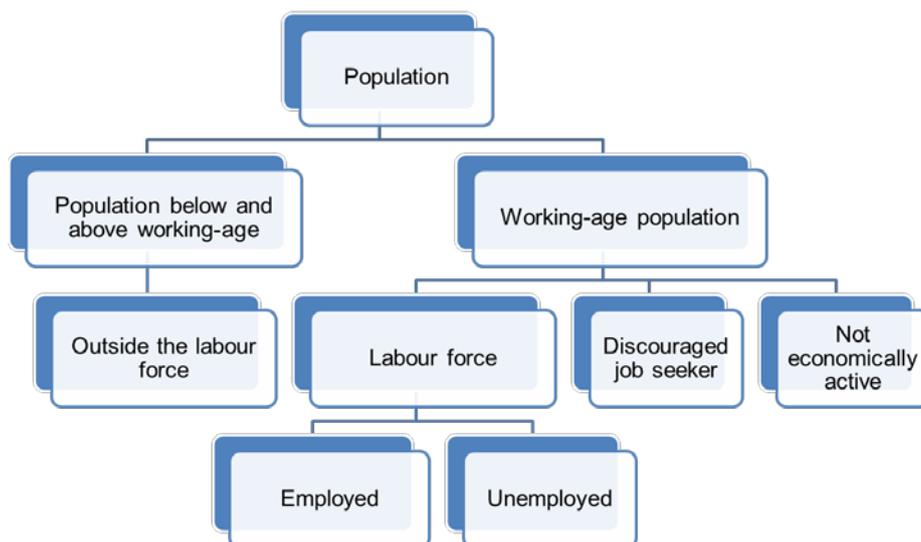
1.10 Sociodemographic characteristics of the working-age population

The working-age population increased from 34,3 million in 2012 to 37,4 million in 2017. The share of the working-age population in the total population increased from 65,4% in 2012 to 66,7% in 2017.[33] A higher proportion of people are moving into and within South Africa. The proportion of immigrant and internal-migrant increased from 2012 to 2017, which led to the decrease in the non-movers population (Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.3: Distribution of migrant groups, ages 15-64, 2012 and 2017

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[32] Pietschmann, I. et al. 2016. Key Labor Market Data: Analysis with Household Survey Data. Geneva: International Labor Organization, World Bank Group.
[33] Statistics South Africa. 2018. Labour Market Dynamics in South Africa 2017. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Non-mover
27 690 919
80,8%

Non-mover
29 350 080
78,5%

Internal-migrant
5 228 700
15,3%

Internal-migrant
6 036 959
16,2%

Immigrant
1 333 107
3,9%

Immigrant
1 984 392
5,3%
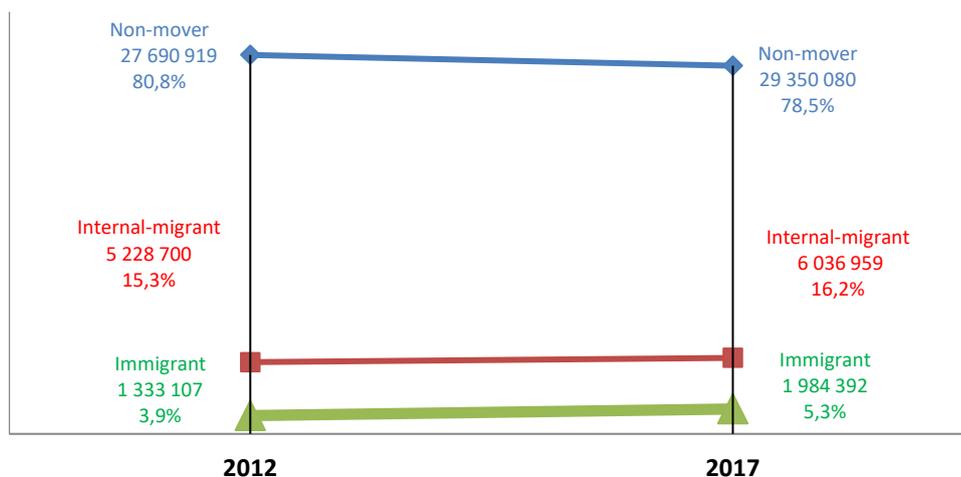
2012   **2017**

Table 1.5 indicates the distribution of the population by age group, sex, province of usual residence, educational, employment and migration status.

Table 1.5: Distribution of population aged 15–64, 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017
Age group		
15–34	56,0	53,9
35–44	20,6	21,4
45–64	23,4	24,8
Sex		
Male	49,0	49,4
Female	51,0	50,6
Province of usual residence		
Western Cape	11,7	12,0
Eastern Cape	11,7	11,2
Northern Cape	2,2	2,1
Free State	5,3	5,1
KwaZulu-Natal	18,8	18,5
North West	6,7	6,8
Gauteng	26,1	26,8
Mpumalanga	7,6	7,7
Limpopo	9,9	9,9
Educational status		
No schooling	4,1	2,8
Less than primary completed	10,1	8,0
Primary completed	5,2	4,9
Secondary not completed	39,9	43,9
Secondary completed	28,5	28,0

Tertiary	12,3	12,3
Labour force status		
Employed	42,5	43,3
Unemployed	14,3	16,6
Discouraged job-seeker	6,5	6,5
Not economically active	36,7	33,5
Migration status		
Non-mover	80,8	78,5
Internal-migrant	15,3	16,2
Immigrant	3,9	5,3

CHAPTER 2 : LIFETIME MIGRATION

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a profile of lifetime migrants as identified from the Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Quarter 3 of 2012 and Quarter 3 of 2017. 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.[34] [35] All that is known is that migrants moved sometime in their lives. 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.

There are many types of migration statistics to consider, with migrant population stocks and migration flows representing the two main categories used for analysis.[36] The stock of migrants is defined as the total number of migrants living in a country at a particular point in time. Place and country of birth are the main criteria used for categorising different types of population stocks and flows.[37] Migrant flows will be covered in detail in Chapter 3 of this report. The analysis in this chapter focuses on lifetime migration for the three migrant populations, which are:

i. Non-movers: the population who was born in a particular province, and was enumerated in the same province;

ii. Internal-migrants: the population who was enumerated outside their province of birth; and

iii. Immigrants: the population who was born outside South Africa.

As this report focuses on migration in relation to the labour force, the population aged 15–64 will be considered.

2.2 Demographic profile

The demographic profile of the three migrant groups considers the distribution of the population, growth rates, sex ratios and median age. The socioeconomic profile focuses on the distribution by province, educational status and employment status. Figure 2.1 illustrates the distribution of non-mover, internal-migrant and immigrant populations aged 15–64 for 2012 and 2017.

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[34] Raymer, J. 2017. Measuring flows of international migration. IZA World of Labor, Volume 354.
[35] Statistics South Africa. 2015. Census 2011: Migration Dynamics in South Africa. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
[36] Raymer, J. 2017. Measuring flows of international migration. IZA World of Labor, Volume 354.
[37] Global Migration Group. 2017. Handbook for Improving the Production and Use of Migration Data for Development. Washington, DC: Global Knowledge Partnership for Migration and Development (KNOMAD), World Bank.

Figure 2.1: Distribution of lifetime migrants by migrant status, 2012 and 2017
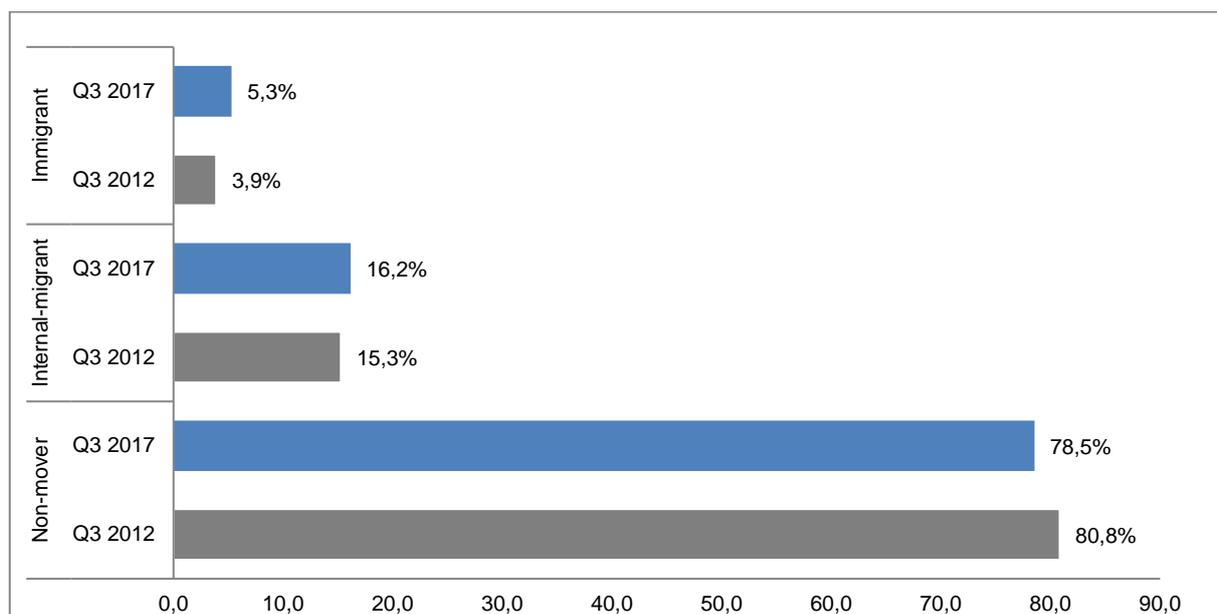
Results from Figure 2.1 indicate that the proportion of the population who has not moved has decreased from 2012 to 2017 (80,8% to 78,5%), indicating that a higher proportion of people is moving. This is reflected in the slight increase in internal movements (15,3% to 16,2%) and immigration (3,9% to 5,3%) from 2012 to 2017.

Table 2.1 indicates the sex ratio, median age and provincial distribution of the three migrant groups. 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.

Table 2.1: Population rates by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
	2012	**2017**	**2012**	**2017**	**2012**	**2017**
Population dynamics						
Sex ratio	92,1	94,2	109,0	105,1	145,1	133,6
Median age	30,6	31,9	35,8	36,9	32,4	33,6
Province						
Western Cape	68,9	68,8	27,5	26,4	3,5	4,8
Eastern Cape	96,8	95,7	2,1	2,5	1	1,9
Northern Cape	89,8	89,3	9,6	9,7	0,6	1,1
Free State	89,4	88,1	8,1	7,7	2,5	4,2
KwaZulu-Natal	95,5	94,4	3,2	4	1,3	1,5
North West	82,1	74,7	14,5	18,6	3,4	6,8
Gauteng	59,9	58,8	32,2	32,1	7,9	9,1
Mpumalanga	86,1	80,9	9,8	13	4,1	6,1
Limpopo	92,2	88,3	4,1	5,2	3,7	6,5

The sex ratios vary between the three migrant groups. The sex ratio is highest amongst the immigrant and internal-migrants populations, indicating that there are more male than female migrants in both these groups.

These two groups did see a slight decrease in the sex ratio from 2012 to 2017, indicating that an increasing number of females are migrating in each period. The sex ratio of the non-mover group indicates more females than males. The median age is youngest for non-movers (30,6 years and 31,9 years), and oldest for internal-migrants (35,8 and 36,9 years). The provincial distribution indicates that the highest proportion of immigrants resided in Gauteng in both 2012 and 2017 (7,9% and 9,1%). Gauteng is also home to the highest proportion of internal-migrants and hence, the lowest proportion of non-movers (Table 2.1). Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal are the provinces with the highest proportion of non-movers for both 2012 and 2017. Following Gauteng, internal-migrants are most prominent in Western Cape and North West.

2.3 Education and employment profile

Figure 2.2 shows the distribution of education status for the population aged 20–64. Age 20–64 is used is the case of education status, as the population 15–19 could still be in 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.

Figure 2.2: Distribution of education status, age 20–64 by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
Tertiary	10,9	13,4	18,2	17,5	14,7	15,4
Secondary completed	28,4	31,0	29,5	32,4	26,2	24,2
Secondary not completed	40,6	39,3	37,4	37,9	38,1	39,1
Primary completed	5,2	4,4	4,7	3,8	6,1	6,2
Less than primary completed	10,7	8,6	7,6	6,5	8,3	10,5
No schooling	4,2	3,3	2,7	2,0	6,6	4,5
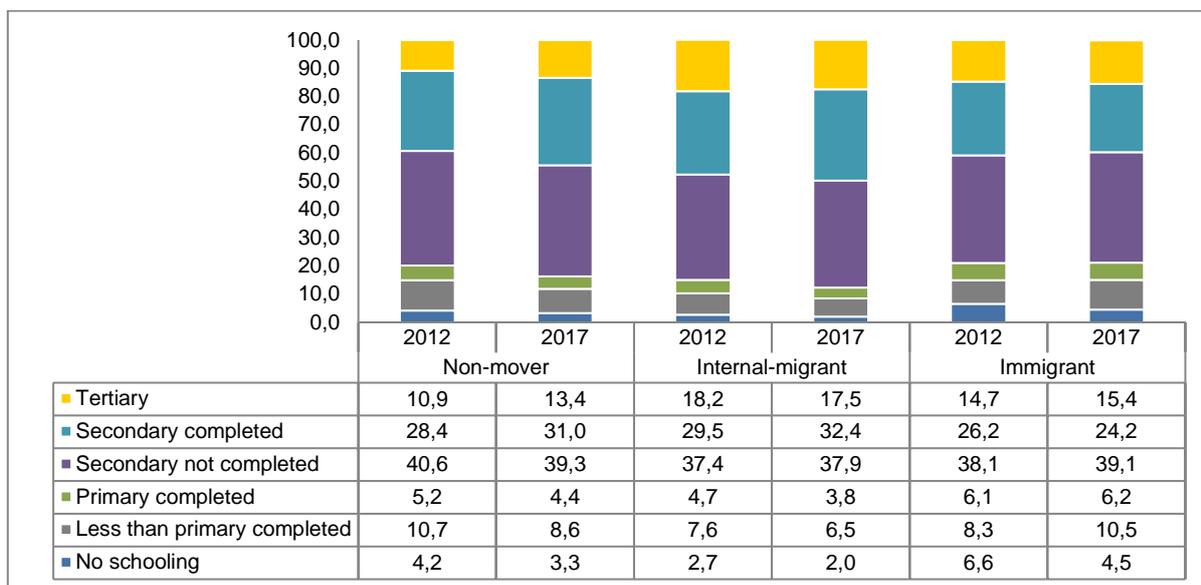
In both 2012 and 2017, immigrants accounted for the highest proportion of those who had no schooling. The non-movers accounted for the highest proportion of those with less than primary education in 2012; however, in 2017, the immigrant group accounted for the highest proportion of those who did not complete primary education. The internal-migrants accounted for the highest proportion of those who have completed matric in both the 2012 and 2017 period. The internal-migrant population recorded the highest proportion of persons who had obtained a tertiary qualification, followed by the immigrant population.

Figure 2.3 provides a breakdown of employment activity for the working-age population. This breakdown considers the working-age population broadly in the categories of (i) Employed, (ii) Unemployed, (iii) Discouraged job-seekers and (iv) Not economically active populations.

Figure 2.3: Distribution of employment activity by migrant status, 2012 and 2017
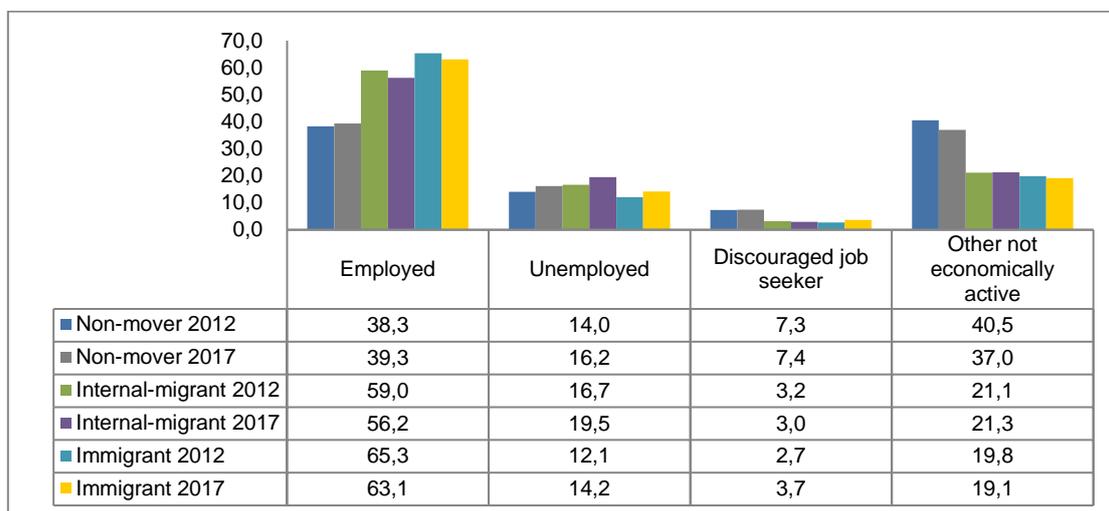
	Employed	Unemployed	Discouraged job seeker	Other not economically active
Non-mover 2012	38,3	14,0	7,3	40,5
Non-mover 2017	39,3	16,2	7,4	37,0
Internal-migrant 2012	59,0	16,7	3,2	21,1
Internal-migrant 2017	56,2	19,5	3,0	21,3
Immigrant 2012	65,3	12,1	2,7	19,8
Immigrant 2017	63,1	14,2	3,7	19,1

Discouraged job-seekers and the not economically active population ranked the highest in the non-mover group for 2012 and 2017 (Figure 2.3). Immigrants ranked lowest in the not economically active population for both periods.

Figure 2.4 provides the employment and unemployment rate, using the official definition of employment for the three migrant groups.

Figure 2.4: Distribution of employment status by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
Unemployed	26,7	29,1	22,0	25,8	15,6	18,4
Employed	73,3	70,9	78,0	74,2	84,4	81,6
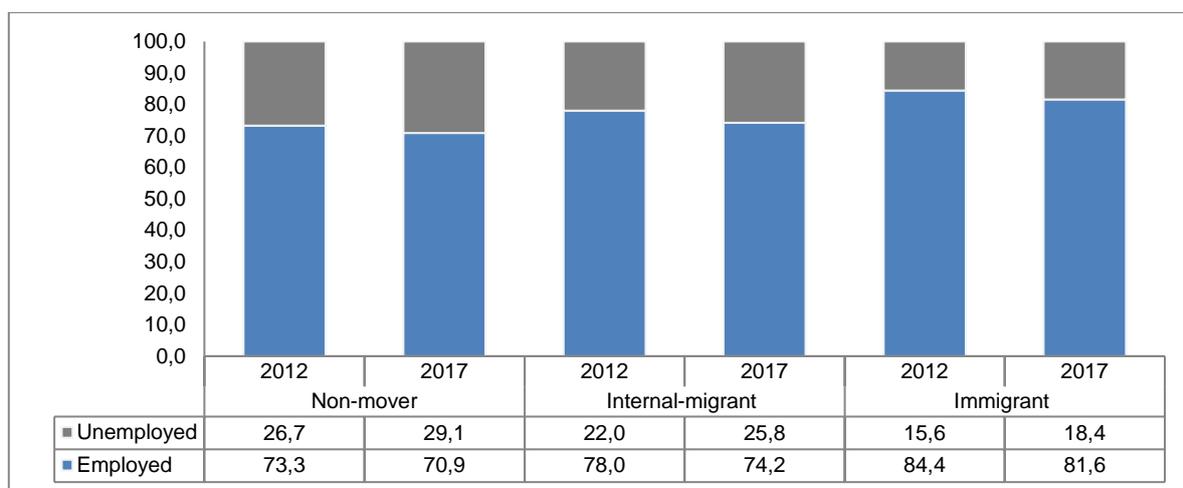
Despite employment decreasing slightly for immigrants from 2012 to 2017, this migrant group recorded the highest proportion of employment for both years (84,4% to 81,6%). Non-movers exhibited the lowest employment rates for both periods.

In developing countries, the relationship between economic activity and education has policy relevance.[38] Level of education may affect the propensity and the opportunity to engage in economic activity. Figure 2.5 illustrates the relationship between education status and employment, and specifically highlights the proportion employed.

Figure 2.5: Distribution of proportion employed by education and migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
■ Primary or less	75,8	73,9	77,1	75,4	86,5	78,5
■ Secondary, inc matric	69,2	66,3	73,2	70,5	81,4	79,6
■ Tertiary	89,6	86,8	93,5	86,3	91,8	93,0
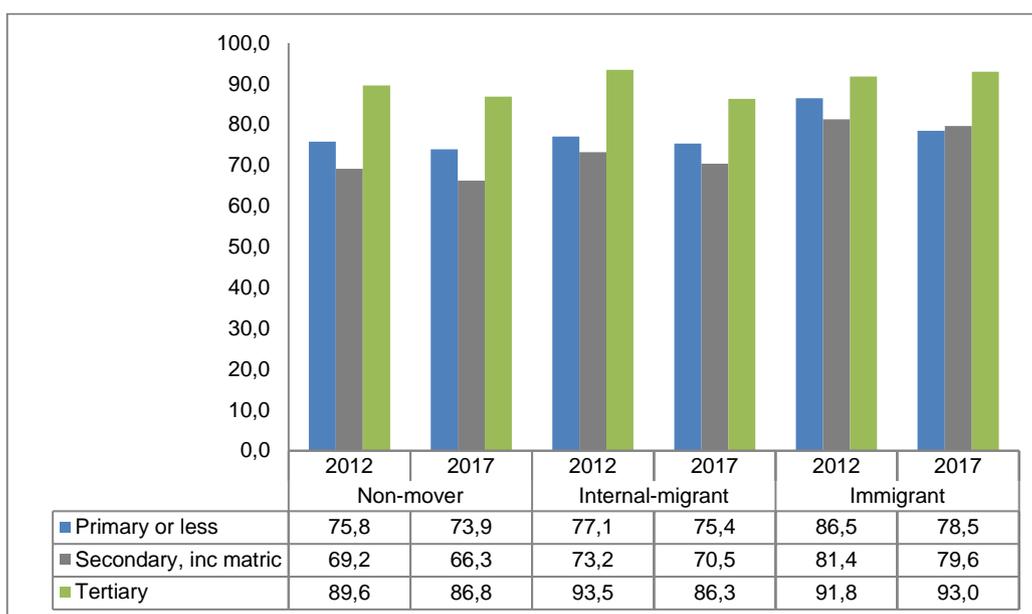
Results from Figure 2.5 clearly indicate that employment increases with tertiary qualification. However, employment figures are slightly higher for those with primary or less, than for those with secondary, including matric. This phenomenon is explored further in Figure 2.6, which illustrates the link between education status and occupation.

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[38] 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 2.6: Distribution of education status and occupation by migrant group status, 2012 and 2017
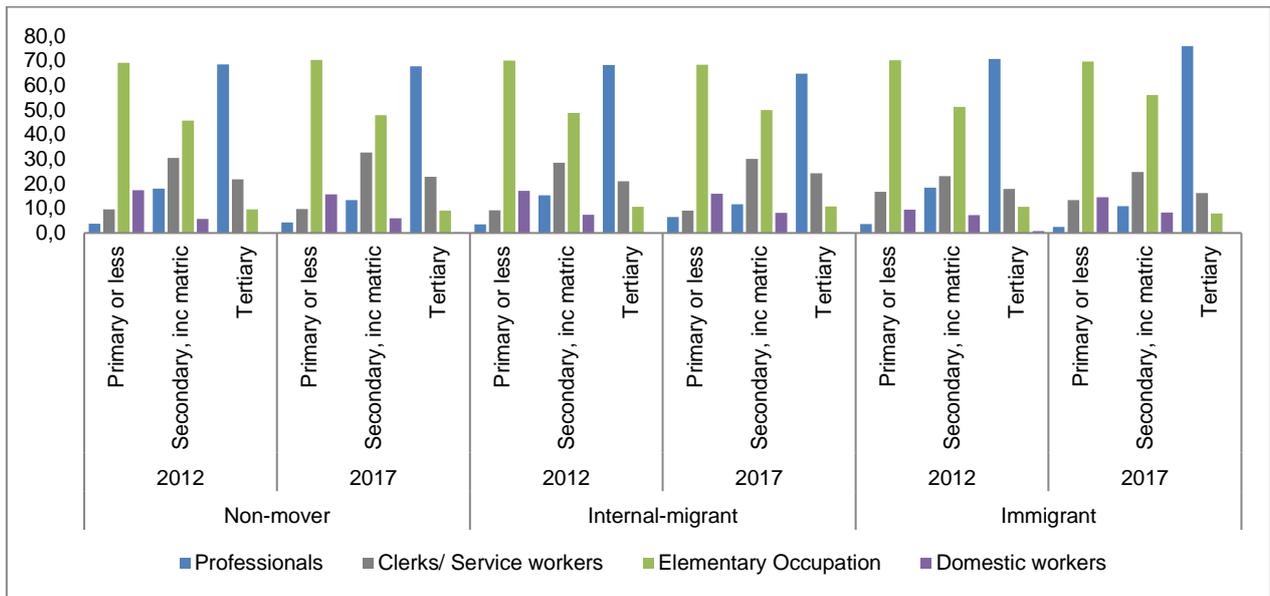
Figure 2.6 indicates that those with education status of primary or less may be more involved in elementary occupations and domestic work, which increases their level of being employed. These positions may be more readily available, than professional and semi-professional (clerks/service workers) positions.

Figure 2.7 indicates results for the category domestic work for the three migrant groups. When considering the entire population for all migrant groups, there was little difference in the proportion involved in domestic work. However, when filtering for sex and only including females, this dynamic changed.

Figure 2.7: Distribution of female domestic workers by migrant group status, 2012 and 2017
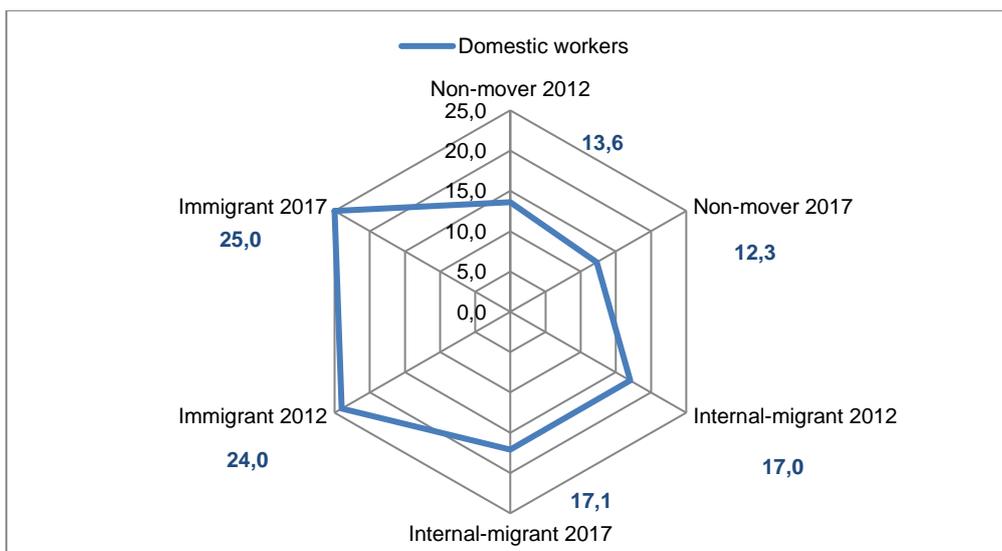
Figure 2.7 indicates that for both 2012 and 2017, almost one in four female immigrants were domestic workers. This is compared to non-movers, where about one in eight female immigrants are domestic workers, and one in six female internal-migrants are domestic workers.

2.4 Provincial selectivity of immigrant population

In the context of this report, immigration was estimated from migration matrices by (a) tabulating country of birth by (b) province of usual residence. For persons not born in South Africa, this approach provides a measure of lifetime international migration.

Figure 2.8: Provincial selectivity of immigrant population, 2012 and 2017
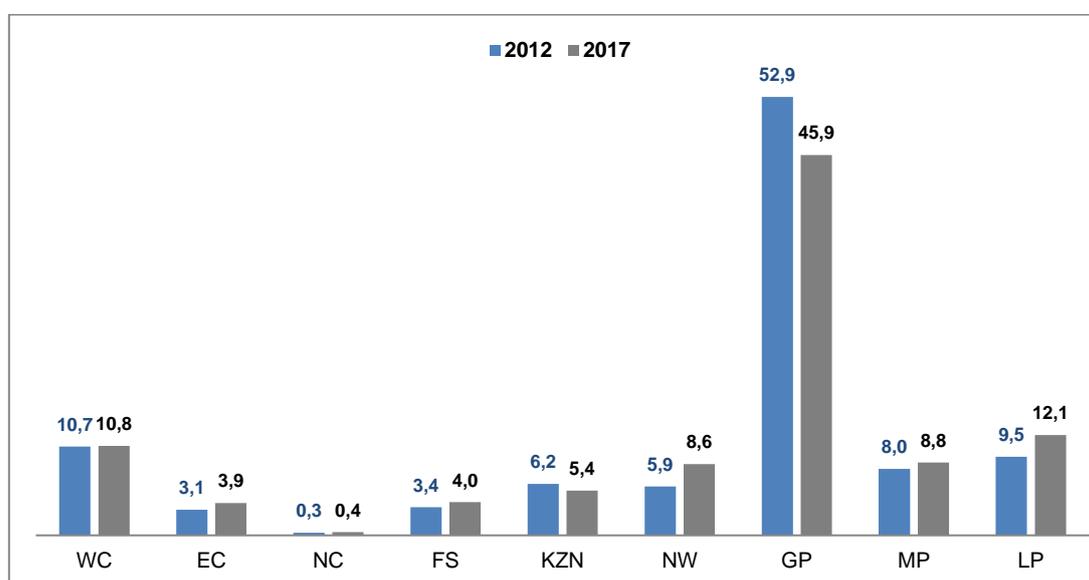
When all the immigrants residing in South Africa in 2012 and 2017 are considered, Figure 2.8 provides the provincial distribution of where these immigrants were enumerated. Although Gauteng saw a slight decline in the proportion of immigrants from 2012, almost half (45,9%) resided in Gauteng in 2017. Immigrants also favour Western Cape and Limpopo (Figure 2.8).

2.5 Age-sex distribution

Information on the age-sex distribution in a population is valuable for both planning and decision-making, as it is linked intrinsically to all aspects of the life cycle, including childhood, education, marriage, childbearing, entry into the labour market, retirement, ageing, and morbidity and mortality.[39] Figure 2.9 shows the observed age-sex distribution by migrant status for 2012, and Figure 2.10 shows the observed age-sex distribution by migrant status for 2017.

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[39] Udjo, E.O., Van Aardt, C.J. & Moshoeu, A.N. 2010. Settlement and Migration Patterns in the North West Province. Pretoria: Bureau of Market Research: UNISA.

Figure 2.9: Age-sex distribution, by migrant status, 2012
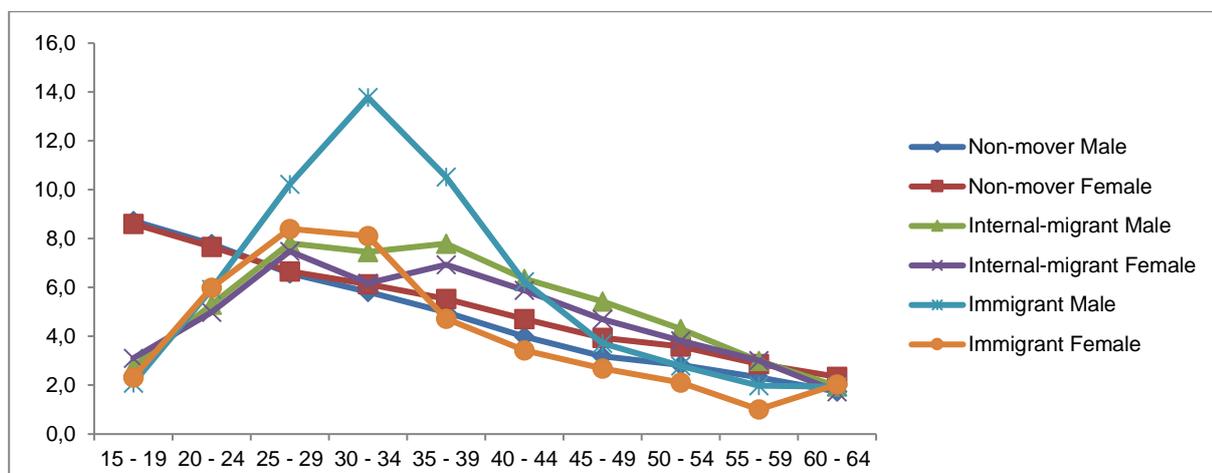
Figure 2.10: Age-sex distribution, by migrant status, 2017
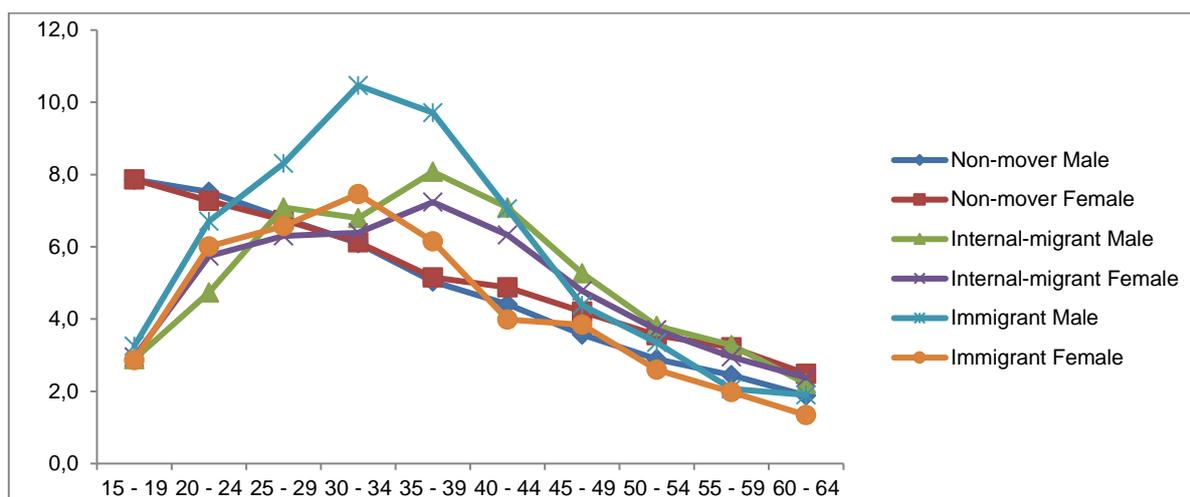
Figures 2.9 and 2.10 indicate that certain age groups are more likely to migrate than others. In 2012 and 2017, non-mover males and females accounted for the highest proportion of those aged 15–19, who entered the labour force. Immigrant males dominated the 25–39 age group with the highest proportions in this age group for both 2012 and 2017 (Figures 2.9 and 2.10).

2.6 General activity rate

The size of a country's labour force is measured by the activity rate. The crude activity rate is defined as the percentage of the total population classified as economically active. In labour force demography, the general activity rate (GAR) is calculated with the formula[40]

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[40] 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.

$$GAR = \frac{Pe}{Pt}$$

Pe is the number of the economically active population, for a specified category.

Pt is the total number of the population, for a specified category.

As the QLFS asks questions of migration to the population aged 15 and older only, the general activity rate (GAR) is a more suitable measure. The GAR is defined as the ratio between the number of active persons (employed and the unemployed in the working-age population) and the corresponding population. Odimegwu et al.[41] advise that participation rates should be calculated by education, to establish if the level of education affects the likelihood of being in the labour force. Table 2.3 expresses the GAR by migrant group status for both 2012 and 2017.

Table 2.2: General activity rate by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
South Africa	52,3	55,5	75,7	75,7	77,5	77,3
Youth (15–24)	23,7	24,2	43,0	42,6	52,7	47,5
Sex						
Male	58,4	61,0	84,1	83,3	90,0	87,2
Female	46,6	50,4	66,6	67,7	59,2	64,0
Province						
Western Cape	65,4	64,3	76,8	77,7	72,9	78,4
Eastern Cape	44,2	51,8	72,7	56,8	78,0	78,6
Northern Cape	55,6	54,0	74,2	68,5	68,5	64,4
Free State	57,0	63,1	68,1	64,8	74,1	75,0
KwaZulu-Natal	47,0	47,5	62,2	65,5	70,3	70,3
North West	44,6	47,5	64,6	67,5	73,9	70,9
Gauteng	64,1	67,0	79,4	80,1	81,3	81,2
Mpumalanga	54,5	58,7	71,0	70,3	78,1	66,2
Limpopo	40,7	46	57,3	57,3	68,5	77,7
Metro/Non-metro						
Non-metro	46,3	49,0	69,9	67,3	73,9	72,3
Metro	63,6	66,7	78,8	80,4	79,6	81,2
Education status						
No schooling	31,4	36,3	56,6	55,2	66,8	70,7
Less than primary completed	45,4	48,5	70,8	70,8	81,4	72,4
Primary completed	53,2	54,2	71,1	68,6	70,8	81,8
Secondary not completed	58,7	60,6	78,9	78,4	82,9	82,5
Secondary completed	69,7	69,9	80,3	80,5	77,7	81,1
Tertiary	87,1	86,7	90,1	90,0	86,1	85,6

Overall, the GAR is highest for immigrants in both 2012 and 2017. The same trend is true for youth immigrants (aged 15–24). Non-movers have the lowest percentage of GAR, with youth non-movers exhibiting the same trend. As regards sex distribution, the GAR is highest for male immigrants, and lowest for female non-movers. At a provincial level, immigrants in Gauteng exhibit the highest percentage of GAR, consistently for both years.

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[41] 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.

Non-movers in Western Cape exhibit the highest GAR. The internal-migrants in Gauteng have the highest percentage of GAR. At the metro level, the population residing in metro areas have the highest percentage of GAR. With regard to education status, the population with tertiary education status have a higher percentage of GAR (Table 2.3).

2.7 Internal-migration streams

Internal-migration is defined as the movement between provinces and refers to a process of crossing boundaries, but within the country.[42] A person who leaves his/her province of birth to live in another province within the same country, is regarded as an internal-migrant. Internal-migration is an important construct in South Africa, due to apartheid settlement and spatial patterns and apartheid legislation. During the apartheid, black Africans were only permitted to enter the country under strict conditions and generally to work in the mining and agricultural sectors. Black Africans were forced to participate in the migrant labour system as a result of the underdeveloped homelands. All non-white population groups were subjected to legislation such as the Group Areas Act and the Influx Control legislation, which served to control urbanisation and migratory patterns.[43] This created a disconnection between area of residence and area of work. This history has impacted post-apartheid urbanisation, spatial and settlement patterns. The purpose of this section is to discuss the internal-migration corridors, and to provide a profile of the migrants in the main migration streams, based on lifetime migration.

2.8 Internal-migration corridor

An internal "migration stream" refers to the route taken by migrants from a particular province to another province, within South Africa. An internal migration corridor can be described as when a particular migration stream plus the stream in the opposite direction in combination covers a significant proportion of all migratory moves in the country.[44] In consideration of lifetime migration, the five main interprovincial lifetime-migration corridors are indicated in Figure 2.11. These corridors were the same for both 2012 and 2017, indicating similar trends for both years.

In the context of this report, interprovincial migration was estimated from migration matrices by (a) tabulating province of birth by (b) province of usual residence. The five main interprovincial migration corridors are indicated in Figure 2.11. These are calculated from the two-way percentages in Table 2.4.

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[42] Mostert, W., Hofmeyer, B., Oosthuizen, J. and Van Zyl, J. 1998. Demography: Textbook for the South African Student. Cape Town: HSRC Press
[43] Zuberi, T. & Sibanda, A. 2004. How Do Migrants Fare in a Post-Apartheid South African Labor Market? The International Migration Review, 38(4), pp. 1462-1491.
[44] Statistics South Africa. 2015. Census 2011: Migration Dynamics in South Africa. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Figure 2.11: Five main inter-provincial lifetime migration corridors in South Africa, 2012 and 2017
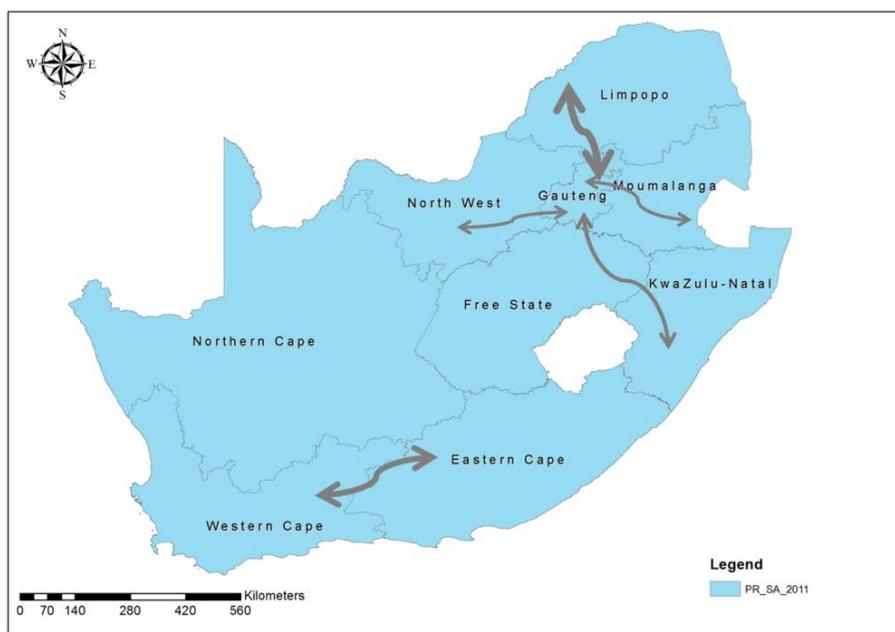
Whilst the distribution of the interprovincial moves changed, the five main corridors remain the same for both 2012 and 2017. The five main interprovincial lifetime migration corridors are Limpopo ↔ Gauteng, Eastern Cape ↔ Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal ↔ Gauteng, Mpumalanga ↔ Gauteng and North West ↔ Gauteng (Figure 2.11 and Table 2.4).

Table 2.3: Five main interprovincial lifetime migration corridors, 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017
Limpopo ↔ Gauteng	**19,7%** 18,7% + 1,0%	**20,6%** 19,4% + 1,2%
Eastern Cape ↔ Western Cape	**16,1%** 15,7% + 0,4%	**16,9%** 16,1% + 0,8%
KwaZulu-Natal ↔ Gauteng	**10,6%** 10,0% + 0,6%	**10,4%** 9,9% + 0,5%
Mpumalanga ↔ Gauteng	**8,9%** 7,5% + 1,4%	**7,4%** 6,0% + 1,4%
North West ↔ Gauteng	**6,7%** 5,2% + 1,5%	**7,3%** 5,1% + 2,2%

Gauteng featured in four of the five main migration corridors. The Limpopo ↔ Gauteng corridor accounted for a about a fifth of all migratory moves in South Africa in 2012 and 2017. The Eastern Cape ↔ Western Cape corridor was the second highest corridor in South Africa. Slight decreases were shown in the KwaZulu-Natal ↔ Gauteng and Mpumalanga ↔ Gauteng corridors, whilst an increase was seen in the North West ↔ Gauteng corridor (Table 2.4).

2.9 Profile of internal-migrants from the main migration streams

After identifying the five main interprovincial corridors, the profiles will reflect the individual streams (one-way flows) and not the corridors (two-way flows). Two-way flows may hide important, perhaps unique, characteristics of migrants moving in one direction that may be neutralised by the combined-direction profiles.[45] The migrant profiles of the five main streams will be described individually, for 2012 and 2017. For this analysis, the following sociodemographic variables were analysed: (i) Sex, (ii) Highest education level, (iii) Employment Status, (iv) Occupation, (v) Sector, (vi) Industry, and (vii) Owning a business.

Table 2.5 illustrates the five main internal-migration streams, which were identified as (1) Limpopo-to-Gauteng, (2) KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng, (3) Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng, (4) Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape, and (5) Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng (Table 2.5). Whilst the North West ↔ Gauteng corridor was part of the five main corridors, it did not feature in the five main streams.

Table 2.4: Five main interprovincial lifetime migration streams, 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017
Limpopo → Gauteng	18,7%	19,4%
Eastern Cape → Western Cape	15,7%	16,1%
KwaZulu-Natal → Gauteng	10,0%	9,9%
Mpumalanga → Gauteng	7,5%	6,0%
Eastern Cape → Gauteng	5,7%	6,4%

The distribution of internal-migrants by sex is illustrated in Figure 2.12 for the five main streams.

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[45] Statistics South Africa. 2015. Census 2011: Migration Dynamics in South Africa. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Figure 2.12: Distribution of interprovincial moves by sex, 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
	LP to GP		EC to WC		KZN to GP		MP to GP		EC to GP	
■ Female	41,6	46,6	53,1	49,3	41,9	42,3	44,4	51,8	53,2	53,1
■ Male	58,4	53,4	46,9	50,7	58,1	57,7	55,6	48,2	46,8	46,9
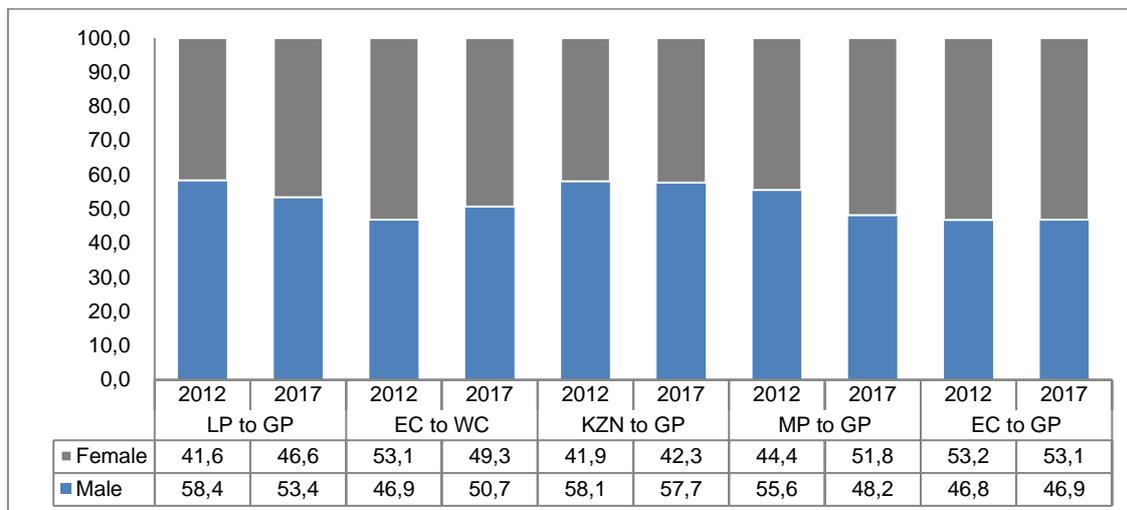
The Limpopo-to-Gauteng migration stream saw an increase in female migrants from 2012 to 2017. This pattern was also apparent in the KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng and Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng migration streams. The Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape migration stream saw a decrease in female migrants, whilst the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng migration stream remained relatively the same.

Analysis of education status is undertaken for those aged 20–64, as indicated in Figure 2.13. The highest level of education variable was recoded into six categories, namely (i) No schooling, (ii) Less than primary completed, (iii) Primary completed, (iv) Secondary not completed (v) Secondary completed (including matric), and (vi) Tertiary.

Figure 2.13: Distribution of the main migration streams by highest level of education (ages 20-64), 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
	LP to GP		EC to WC		KZN to GP		MP to GP		EC to GP	
■ Tertiary	18,4	20,0	7,1	6,1	20,6	14,9	15,6	20,9	13,8	17,3
■ Secondary completed	35,1	34,9	27,4	29,1	33,2	38,8	28,1	34,3	24,4	33,2
■ Secondary not completed	35,4	35,9	44,8	50,8	34,3	34,9	39,5	33,8	46,4	42,0
■ Primary completed	4,4	3,6	7,0	4,6	3,0	2,6	4,8	3,5	3,2	3,4
■ Less than primary completed	4,4	4,0	13,0	8,4	6,9	6,5	8,1	5,0	9,0	3,5
■ No schooling	2,3	1,6	0,8	1,0	2,0	2,2	4,0	2,7	3,2	0,5

Figure 2.13 indicates that internal-migrants from the Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng stream had the highest proportion of internal-migrants with no schooling for both 2012 and 2017, but also the highest proportion of internal-migrants with a tertiary qualification for the 2017 period. The lowest proportion of internal-migrants with a tertiary qualification was found in the Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape stream. Increases in tertiary qualifications were seen in the Limpopo-to-Gauteng, Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng and Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng streams, indicating that a higher proportion of individuals with tertiary qualifications are moving from these three provinces to Gauteng.

Results in Figure 2.14 provide a breakdown of employment activity for the internal-migrant working-age population. This considers the working-age population broadly in the categories of (i) Employed, (ii) Unemployed, (iii) Discouraged job-seeker and (iv) Not-economically active populations.

Figure 2.14: Distribution of the main migration streams by employment activity, 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
	LP to GP		EC to WC		KZN to GP		MP to GP		EC to GP	
Other not economically active	17,4	17,2	22,5	20,8	13,9	16,8	19,6	21,7	13,8	16,2
Discouraged job seeker	3,5	1,5	0,3	1,0	3,0	1,8	3,1	2,1	7,1	3,0
Unemployed	16,1	23,4	25,0	21,2	16,2	24,3	18,6	19,2	28,6	25,9
Employed	63,0	58,0	52,3	57,1	66,8	57,1	58,7	57,0	50,5	54,9
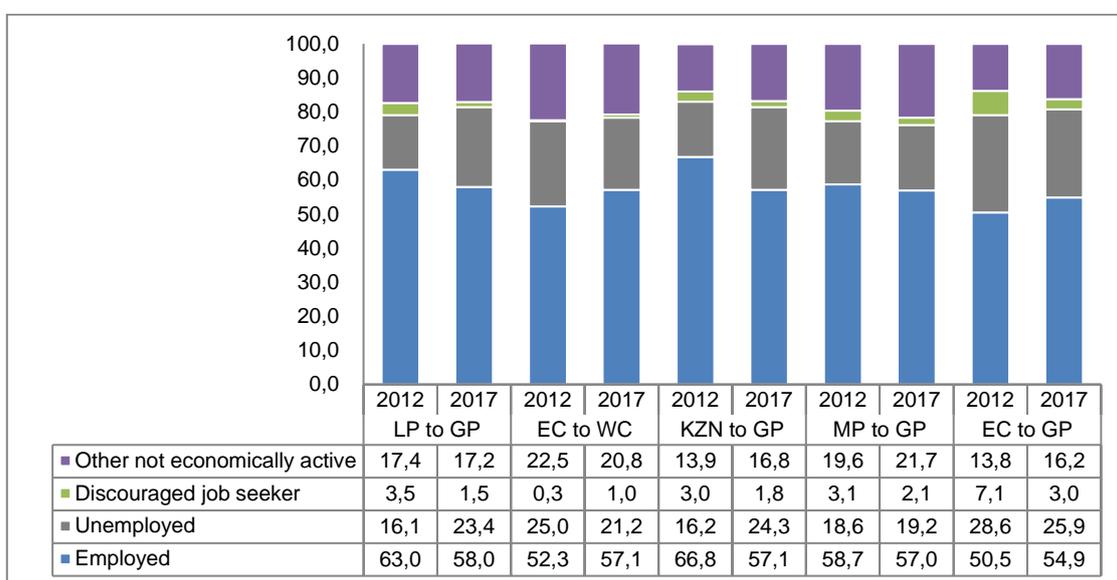
In 2012, the highest proportion of employed internal-migrants was recorded for the KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng stream (66,8%). In 2017, this stream saw a decrease in employment and an increase in both the not economically active and unemployed proportions. In 2017, the highest proportion of employed internal-migrants was found in the Limpopo-to-Gauteng migration stream (58,0%). In both 2012 and 2017, the highest proportion of unemployed internal-migrants was recorded for the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng stream (28,6% and 25,9%, respectively). This internal-migrant stream also had the highest proportions of discouraged job seekers for both 2012 and 2017 (Figure 2.14).

Figure 2.15 illustrates the proportion of those who are employed and unemployed for the main migration streams.

Figure 2.15: Distribution of the main migration streams by employment status, 2012 and 2017

	2012 LP to GP	2017 LP to GP	2012 EC to WC	2017 EC to WC	2012 KZN to GP	2017 KZN to GP	2012 MP to GP	2017 MP to GP	2012 EC to GP	2017 EC to GP
Unemployed	20,3	28,7	32,3	27,0	19,5	29,9	24,0	25,2	36,2	32,1
Employed	79,7	71,3	67,7	73,0	80,5	70,1	76,0	74,8	63,8	67,9
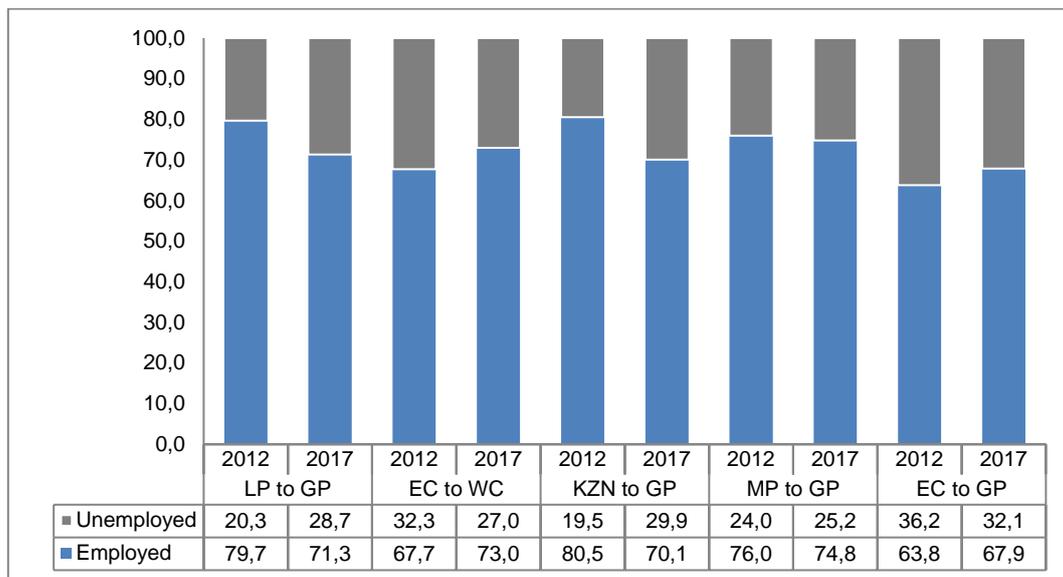
Figure 2.15 indicates that, from 2012 to 2017, the Limpopo-Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal-Gauteng and Mpumalanga-Gauteng migration streams saw a decrease in the proportion of employed internal-migrants. In 2012, the KwaZulu-Natal-Gauteng stream had the highest proportion of migrants who were employed (80,5%). In 2017, highest proportion if migrants who were employed were from the Mpumalanga-Gauteng stream (74,8%).

Figure 2.16 illustrates the involvement of persons in the main migration streams by employment sector for 2012 and 2017. The employment sector is divided into four subsectors (private households, agriculture, informal sector, and formal sector).

Figure 2.16: Distribution of the main migration streams, by employment sector, 2012 and 2017

	2012 LP to GP	2017 LP to GP	2012 EC to WC	2017 EC to WC	2012 KZN to GP	2017 KZN to GP	2012 MP to GP	2017 MP to GP	2012 EC to GP	2017 EC to GP
Private households	6,8	9,5	12,0	12,0	6,1	6,0	11,9	9,9	7,6	12,5
Agriculture	2,5	1,1	7,1	4,5	1,3	0,0	2,3	1,1	0,0	2,0
Informal sector	12,5	13,3	11,4	15,8	11,3	14,2	13,5	16,0	9,6	8,1
Formal sector	78,2	76,0	69,4	67,6	81,4	79,8	72,2	73,0	82,8	77,4
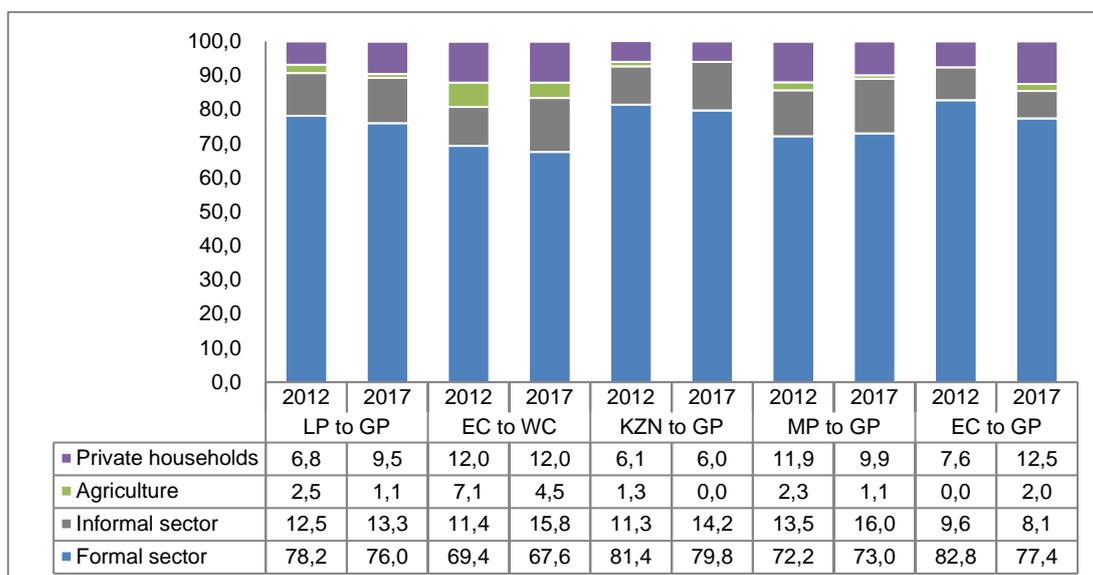
In 2012, the highest proportion of migrants employed in private households were from the Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape stream (12,0%). In 2017, the highest proportion was in the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng stream (12,5%). The highest proportion of migrants who were employed in the agricultural sector was recorded in the Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape stream (7,1% in 2012 and 4,5% in 2017). The highest proportion of migrants who participated in the informal sector for 2012 and 2017 was the Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng stream (13,5% and 16,0%, respectively). The Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng stream was the only migrant stream to show a decrease in the proportion of migrants participating in the informal sector. However, this is attributed to the increase in the participation rate in private households. Participation in the formal sector decreased throughout all migrant streams, except for a slight increase for the Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng stream. Despite experiencing a decrease in formal sector participation, the KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng stream had the highest proportion of participants in 2017 (79,8%).

Figure 2.17 illustrates the proportion of persons in the main migration streams, who own their own business in 2012 and 2017.

Figure 2.17: Distribution of the main migration streams by business ownership, 2012 and 2017
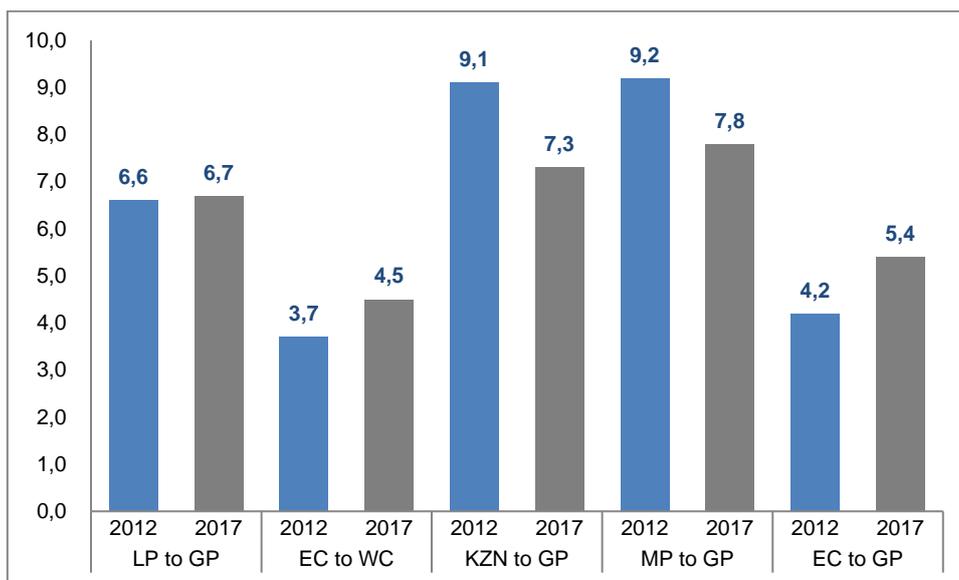
The proportion of migrants owning a business increased in the Limpopo-to-Gauteng, Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape and the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng migration streams from 2012 to 2017. In 2012, the KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng and Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng migration streams had the highest proportion of those who owned their businesses. Despite both these streams experiencing a decrease in proportions, they still remain the streams with the highest proportion of migrants who own businesses in 2017.

Table 2.6 summarises results for by industry and occupation for the main migration streams for 2012 and 2017.

Table 2.5: Distribution of the main migration streams, by industry and occupation, 2012 and 2017

	LP to GP		EC to WC		KZN to GP		MP to GP		EC to GP	
	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
Industry										
Agriculture; hunting; forestry and fishing	2,5	1,1	7,1	4,5	1,3	0,0	2,3	1,1	0,0	2,0
Mining and quarrying	0,2	1,1	0,0	0,0	0,4	1,2	0,4	2,8	2,1	7,4
Manufacturing	13,5	13,5	12,8	11,7	17,2	15,0	13,0	14,5	12,9	8,3
Electricity; gas and water supply	0,2	0,9	0,3	0,6	0,5	0,2	1,2	0,0	0,0	1,0
Construction	5,0	7,5	11,7	13,7	7,4	7,1	8,1	6,6	6,7	6,4
Wholesale and retail trade	19,5	18,1	21,9	22,0	22,9	21,0	25,2	17,2	24,3	14,7
Transport; storage and communication	11,4	9,5	6,1	7,1	6,9	10,6	3,5	7,4	6,6	5,9
Financial intermediation; insurance; real estate and business	17,1	19,6	11,4	15,6	19,4	20,2	8,1	15,2	23,7	21,3
Community; social and personal services	23,8	19,1	16,7	12,8	17,8	18,7	26,2	25,1	16,2	20,4
Private households	6,8	9,6	12,0	12,0	6,1	6,0	11,9	9,9	7,6	12,5
Occupation										
Legislators; senior officials and managers	4,2	6,1	5,7	3,7	12,2	9,9	7,0	11,5	8,6	7,9
Professionals	5,9	7,3	2,9	1,9	6,7	5,7	6,3	7,1	4,9	4,7
Technical and associate professionals	8,8	9,8	8,6	3,6	7,7	8,1	12,5	7,8	8,8	8,1
Clerks	13,4	11,6	8,0	6,0	9,2	11,3	7,0	12,2	11,3	12,3
Service workers and shop and market sales workers	15,4	16,8	17,6	20,4	11,5	21,0	15,1	17,1	17,1	16,5
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	0,5	0,0	0,7	0,4	0,0	0,3	0,3	0,0	0,6	1,0
Craft and related trades workers	11,6	13,1	13,5	14,8	11,0	13,9	15,2	9,8	13,6	14,2
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	10,4	10,2	6,5	8,9	15,7	10,9	9,2	11,8	5,0	10,5
Elementary occupations	24,8	17,2	25,7	31,2	20,1	13,8	19,0	13,5	22,5	13,7
Domestic workers	5,1	7,7	10,7	9,1	6,1	5,2	8,5	9,1	7,6	11,1

With regard to involvement in agriculture, the results are congruent with Figure 2.16, which indicated that the Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape migration stream had the highest proportion of migrants involved in this activity. Mining and quarrying is consistently highest for those in the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng stream. Whilst manufacturing saw a decrease from 2012 to 2017 in three streams (Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng, and Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng), it is consistently highest for those in the KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng stream. Involvement in the construction industry is highest in the Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape stream for both 2012 and 2017. Wholesale and retail trade saw a decrease amongst most streams. In 2012, almost a quarter of those in the Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng and Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng streams were involved in the wholesale and retail trade industry. Both these streams experienced a decrease to 17,2% and 14,7%, respectively. Those involved in the financial intermediation; insurance; real estate and business industry experienced an increase in all streams (except the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng stream). With regard to

participation in private households, the highest proportion is found in the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng stream. This is congruent with results in Figure 2.16.

As regards occupation, the KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng stream saw a decline among those employed as Professionals, whilst the Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng stream saw an increase in this group from 2012 to 2017. Eastern Cape had the lowest proportion who reported to work as professionals. For all streams, those employed in Elementary occupations saw a decrease from 2012 to 2017, with the exception of the Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape migration stream (where it remained the highest for both years). In 2012, the highest proportion of those working as Domestic workers was recorded in the Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape migration stream. However, in 2017, the highest proportion of Domestic workers was recorded in the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng stream (Table 2.6).

2.10 Summary of findings

One of the purposes of this chapter was to provide a profile of lifetime migrants as identified from the QLFS, Quarter 3, of 2012 and 2017. Lifetime migration is based on place of birth (province or country). This chapter provided a demographic and socioeconomic profile of the three migrant groups in consideration. With regard to immigration, the chapter focused on the provincial selectivity of the immigrant population. Results also focused on the age-sex structures of migrant groups, the elderly dependency ratios and the general activity rates.

This chapter also focused on internal migration, streams and corridors. This seeks to assist policymakers on decisions regarding movement between provinces. The five main internal-migration corridors were identified, namely Limpopo ↔ Gauteng, Eastern Cape ↔ Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal ↔ Gauteng, Mpumalanga ↔ Gauteng and North West ↔ Gauteng.

From this analysis, the five main internal-migration streams were identified, and a profile of the internal-migrants was produced. The five main internal-migration streams identified were (1) Limpopo-to-Gauteng, (2) KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng, (3) Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng, (4) Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape, and (5) Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng. This profile focused on (a) Sex, (b) Education status, (c) Employment status, (d) Occupation, (e) Sector, (f) Industry, and (g) Owning a business, for internal-migrants in the five main internal-migration streams. Of the five main streams, internal-migrants from the KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng, and the Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng streams showed the best education and employment outcomes. Both the Eastern Cape streams were the highest supplier of domestic workers.

CHAPTER 3 : PERIOD MIGRATION

3.1 Introduction

The migration module in the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) includes a question on movement in the last five years. This question on duration of migration (did the person migrate in the last five years) enables the study of migration during a specified period, referred to as period migration. The flow of migrants is the number of migrants entering or leaving a province/country over the course of a specific period; in this case, five years before the survey. Analysis of this nature allows distinction between recent and long-term migrants. Recent migrants are considered to have moved within a five-year period before enumeration, and long-term migrants are considered to have moved more than five years before enumeration. Consistent and reliable data on migration flows is needed so that governments know where their populations are moving. Relevant to this report on labour, this knowledge would enable governments and policymakers to recruit the appropriate types of workers needed in increasingly specialised markets, or to develop policies for providing effective services for migrants.[46] Data on period migration is needed to study the push and pull factors of migration between origins and destinations and the deterrence effects of distance, costs, and cultural differences.[47] They are also essential for understanding policies designed to regulate migration. This chapter discusses migratory moves for two periods. Data pertaining to moves from 2007 to 2012 was obtained from QLFS 2012, and the data pertaining to moves from 2012 to 2017 was obtained from QLFS 2017. These two periods consider two different migrant populations: (i) The population who moved during 2007–2012 and (ii) The population who moved during 2012–2017.

3.2 Distribution of recent moves

Period migration is inclusive of both internal and international moves. Figure 3.1 illustrates all recent moves, regardless of the move being internal or international. This was calculated from the question, "Have you moved in the last five years?"

Figure 3.1: Distribution of period-migrants in the population, 2007–2012 and 2012–2017

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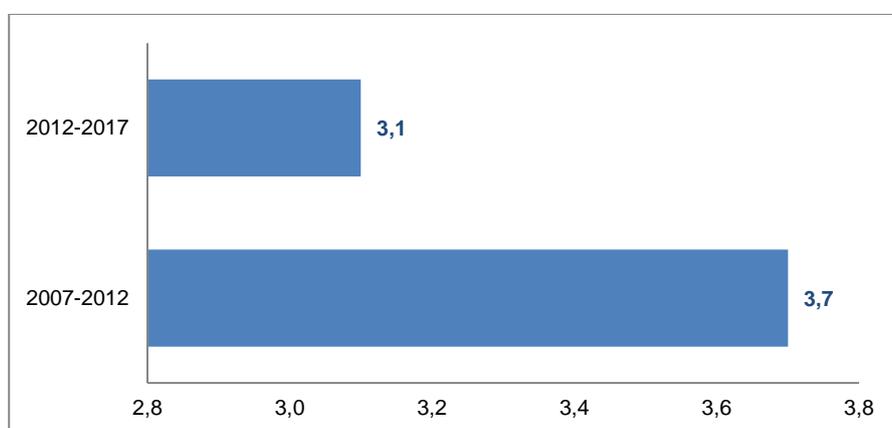
[46] Raymer, J. 2017. Measuring flows of international migration. IZA World of Labor, Volume 354.

[47] Ibid.

Of all movers (internal-migrants and immigrants), 3,7% were recent migrants in 2012 and in 2017, 3,1% were recent migrants. There was a slight decline in moves from the period 2007–2012 (3,7%) to the period 2012–2017 (3,1%), indicating that a lower proportion of people moved in the 2012–2017 period. Figure 3.2 disaggregates all recent moves into international movement and internal movement.

Figure 3.2: Distribution of internal and immigrant recent moves, 2007–2012 and 2012–2017
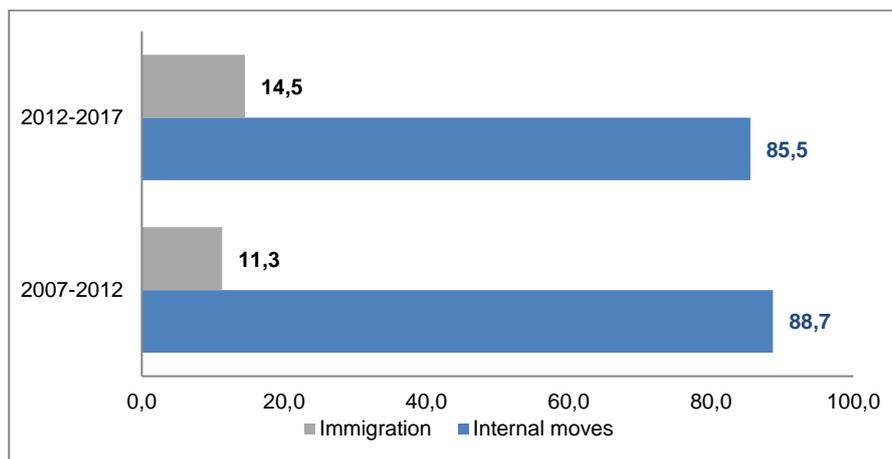
Of all period migrations, the majority of moves were due to internal-migration, which is in line with expected patterns. Period internal-migration (moves between provinces) decreased slightly between the period 2007 to 2012 (88,7%) and the period 2012 to 2017 (85,5%). In turn, immigration increased between the period 2007 to 2012 (11,3%) and the period 2012 to 2017 (14,5%).

In consideration of all immigration (movement into South Africa), Figure 3.3 indicates the comparison between long-term and recent migration. Long-term refers to a period longer than five years before the survey, and recent refers to a period less than five years.

Figure 3.3: Distribution of recent and long-term immigration, 2007–2012 and 2012-2017
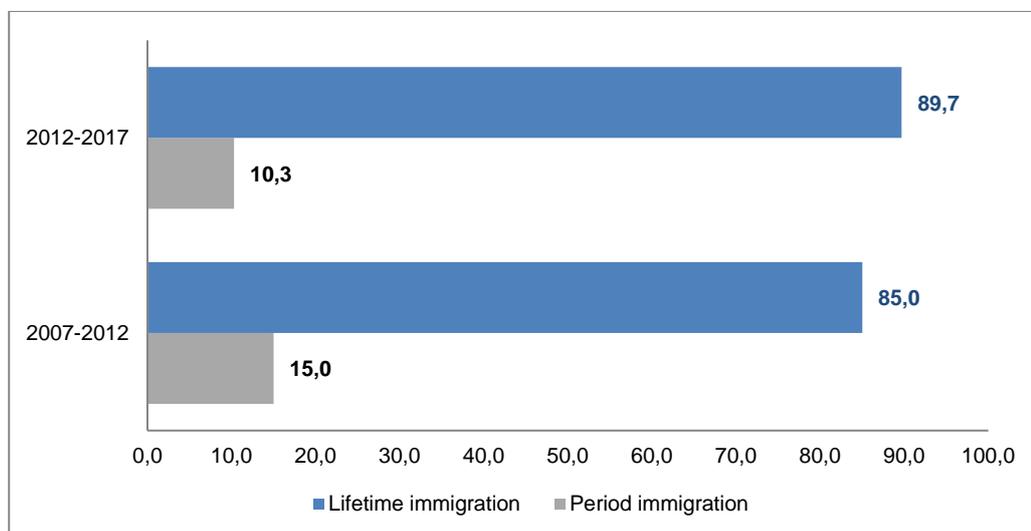
Recent immigration accounted for 15,0% of all immigration in 2012 and decreased to 10,3% in 2017. Long-term immigration increased from 85,0% in 2012 to 89,7% in 2017, indicating that period-immigrants moved to South Africa and converted to long-term immigrant status (Figure 3.3).

3.3 Internal-migration streams for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017

In the context of this report, interprovincial period migration was estimated from migration matrices by (a) tabulating province of usual residence by (b) province moved from: province of previous residence. This was calculated only if the person was not living in the particular province five years ago, i.e. (a) before 2012 and before (b) 2017.[48] Table 3.1 describes the internal-migration streams for the period 2007–2012, while Table 3.2 describes the internal-migration streams for the period 2012–2017.

Table 3.1: Internal-migration stream for the period 2007–2012

		Province of usual residence								
		WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP
Province of previous residence	WC	97,5	1,3	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,6	0,0	0,0
	EC	2,4	95,6	0,0	0,4	0,2	0,2	0,8	0,2	0,1
	NC	0,9	0,3	94,2	1,1	0,1	2,9	0,5	0,2	0,0
	FS	0,4	0,1	0,2	97,3	0,0	0,5	1,3	0,1	0,1
	KZN	0,3	0,2	0,0	0,0	98,1	0,1	1,1	0,0	0,1
	NW	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,3	0,0	96,5	2,1	0,3	0,5
	GP	0,3	0,5	0,0	0,2	0,3	0,4	96,2	0,4	1,7
	MP	0,2	0,1	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,3	1,7	96,5	1,1
	LP	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,2	1,9	0,5	97,0

Table 3.2: Internal-migration stream for the period 2012–2017

		Province of usual residence								
		WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GP	MP	LP
Province of previous residence	WC	98,1	1,2	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,1
	EC	2,2	96,2	0,0	0,1	0,6	0,4	0,5	0,0	0,1
	NC	0,5	0,0	96,8	0,4	0,0	1,6	0,4	0,2	0,0
	FS	0,0	0,3	0,1	98,1	0,4	0,4	0,6	0,0	0,1
	KZN	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	98,5	0,1	0,8	0,3	0,1
	NW	0,0	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,1	98,4	0,6	0,1	0,3
	GP	0,2	0,3	0,1	0,2	0,3	0,5	97,0	0,5	0,9
	MP	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,2	0,3	0,1	1,4	97,3	0,5
	LP	0,0	0,1	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,4	3,0	0,7	95,7

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[48] Udjo, E.O., Van Aardt, C.J. & Moshoeu, A.N. 2010. Settlement and Migration Patterns in the North West Province. Pretoria: Bureau of Market Research: UNISA.

Results from the migration matrices indicate that the trends were similar for both periods. For the periods 2007-2012 and 2012-2017, out-migration decreased across all provinces, except for Limpopo. During the period 2007–2012, Limpopo experienced out-migration of 3,0%. This increased to 4,3%, meaning that slightly less people were remaining as non-movers in Limpopo (97,0%% in 2012 to 95,7% in 2017).

3.4 Immigrant provincial selectivity

It is often topical to know where immigrants reside when they move to South Africa. Figure 3.4 illustrates the provincial selectivity of immigrants who moved during the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017.

Figure 3.4: Immigrant provincial selectivity for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017
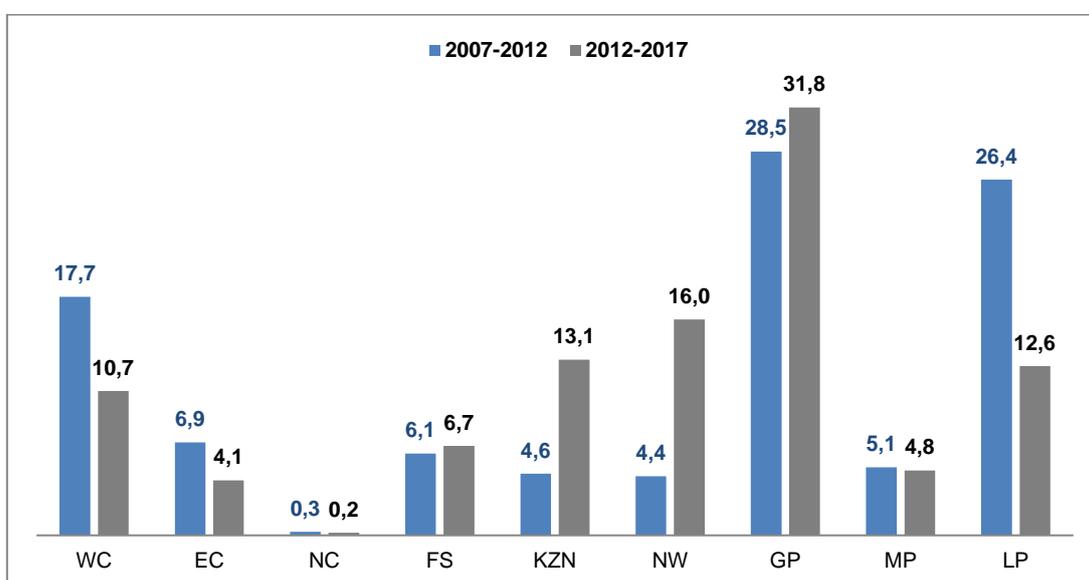
Considering all immigrants in South Africa, Gauteng was the preferred province of destination for both the 2007–2012 and 2012–2017 periods. Free State and Gauteng experienced a slight increase in immigration from 2007–2012 to 2012–2017. The increase was more pronounced in KwaZulu-Natal (from 4,6% to 13,1%) and North West from 4,4% to 16,0%). A slight decrease in period immigration was experienced by Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Mpumalanga. A more pronounced decrease was experienced by Western Cape (from 17,7% to 10,7%) and Limpopo (from 26,4% to 12,6%).

3.5 Reason for migrating

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, and these were recoded to represent work-related and non-work related reasons. Figure 3.5 distinguishes between non-work-related and work-related reasons for migrating for internal-migrants and immigrants for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017.

Figure 3.5: Migration due to non-work-related/work related reasons, for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017
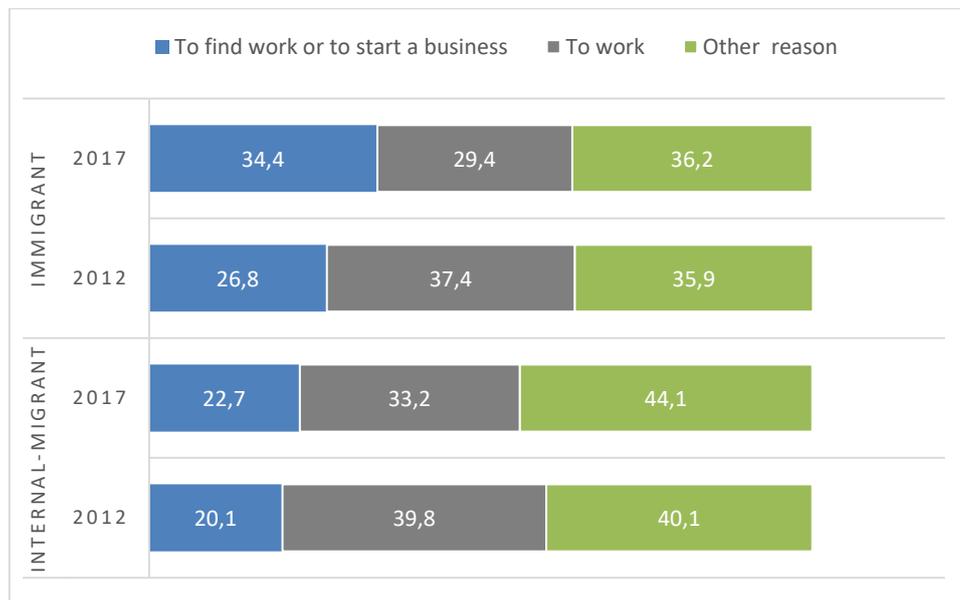
As expected, a higher proportion of migrants (internal and immigrants) moved for work-related reasons. A higher proportion of immigrants moved for work-related reasons as compared to internal-migrants. This is explored further in Table 3.3, where the reasons are disaggregated.

Table 3.3: Reasons for migration for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017

	2007–2012		2012–2017	
	Period internal-migrant	Period-immigrant	Period internal-migrant	Period-immigrant
To work	34,2	35,1	28,6	26,5
Job transfer	5,6	2,3	4,6	2,9
Look for paid work	17,9	22,9	21,2	30,5
To start a business	2,2	3,9	1,5	3,9
Look for land for farming	0,4	0,0	0,3	0,0
Family moved	9,8	14,0	12,2	7,8
Marriage	4,1	3,9	2,5	8,1
School/training	10,3	6,1	11,6	3,5
To live with a relative	12,8	11,3	14,6	12,4
Divorce/separation	0,9	0,0	1,0	0,5
Adventure	1,8	0,6	1,9	3,9

The proportion of both internal-migrants and immigrants who reported to have moved for work decreased between the period 2007–2012 and the period 2012–2017. The proportion of both groups who reported to have moved to "look for paid work" increased in this period. The proportion of internal-migrants who moved to start a business, declined during the period 2007–2012 and the period 2012-2017. The main non-work related reasons were to move with family and for purposes of studying (Table 3.3).

3.6 Education and employment profile of period migrants

Figure 3.6 presents the education and employment profile of period-migrants for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017. Education and employment are important variables to consider in a study of this nature.

Figure 3.6: Distribution of period-migrants by education status (ages 20–64), 2007–2012 and 2012–2017

	2007-2012	2012-2017	2007-2012	2012-2017
	Period Internal-migrant		Period Immigrant	
Tertiary	21,6	18,6	13,2	10,3
Secondary completed	30,4	35,7	26,6	16,8
Secondary not completed	38,7	37,9	44,0	52,3
Primary completed	2,7	2,0	4,8	5,9
Less than primary completed	5,2	4,5	7,1	12,0
No schooling	1,4	1,3	4,3	2,8
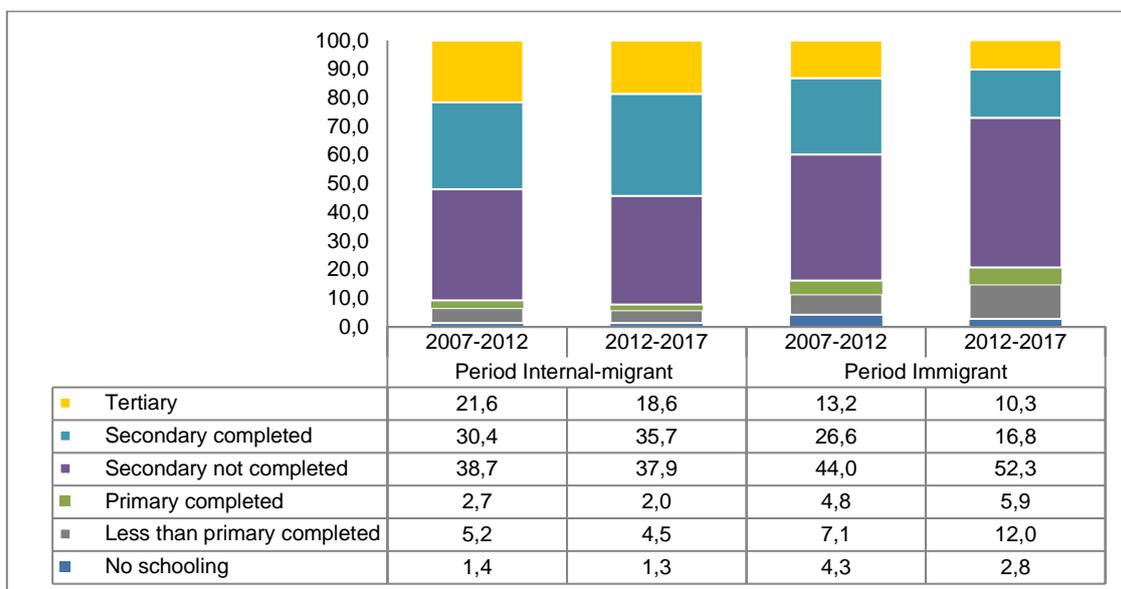
The levels of no schooling decreased for both internal-migrant and immigrant groups for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017. The proportion of those with less than matric (secondary not completed) decreased for the internal-migrant population, but increased for the immigrant population, meaning that a higher proportion of immigrants without matric moved into South Africa during the 2012–2017 period. This trend is also reflected in the category of Secondary completed (including matric), where there was an increase in the proportion of those with a matric qualification for the internal-migrant population, but a decrease among the immigrant population. Both groups saw a decrease in the proportion of those with tertiary qualifications (Figure 3.6).

Figure 3.7 presents the results for employment activity and term of unemployment for the working-age population. Employment activity includes (i) Employed, (ii) Unemployed, (iii) Discouraged job-seeker and the (iv) Not economically active populations. 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 3.7: Distribution of period migrants by employment activity and duration, 2007–2012 and 2012–2017

	Period internal migrant 2007-2012	Period internal migrant 2012-2017	Period-immigrant 2007-2012	Period-immigrant 2012-2017
Employed	49,2	47,3	60,8	61,7
Unemployed	18,3	23,8	11,6	13,3
Discouraged job seeker	5,9	6,4	6,2	5,7
Other not economically active	26,6	22,5	21,4	19,3
Long-term unemployment	61,6	55,6	32,2	50,1
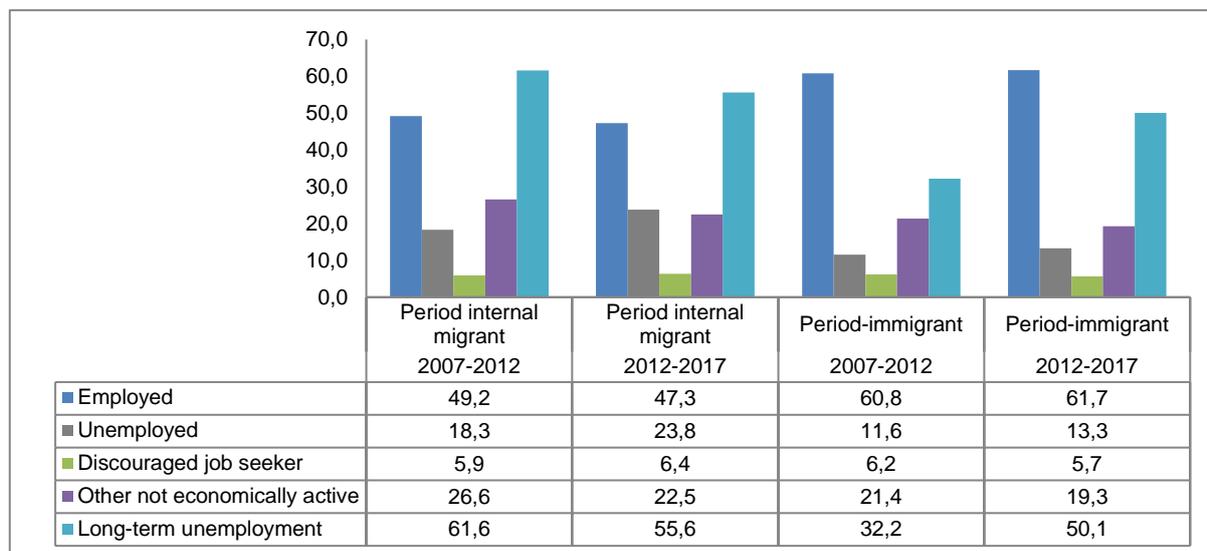
The proportion reporting to be discouraged job-seekers increased for internal-migrants, whilst the not-economically active population decreased for both migrant groups. Long-term unemployment decreased for the internal-migrant population but increased noticeably for the immigrant population (Figure 3.7).

Figure 3.8 provides the employment and unemployment rate, using the official definition of employment for the three migrant groups.

Figure 3.8: Distribution of period migrants by employment status, 2007–2012 and 2012–2017

	Internal-migrant 2007-2012	Internal-migrant 2012-2017	Immigrant 2007-2012	Immigrant 2012-2017
Unemployed	27,1	33,5	16,0	17,7
Employed	72,9	66,5	84,0	82,3
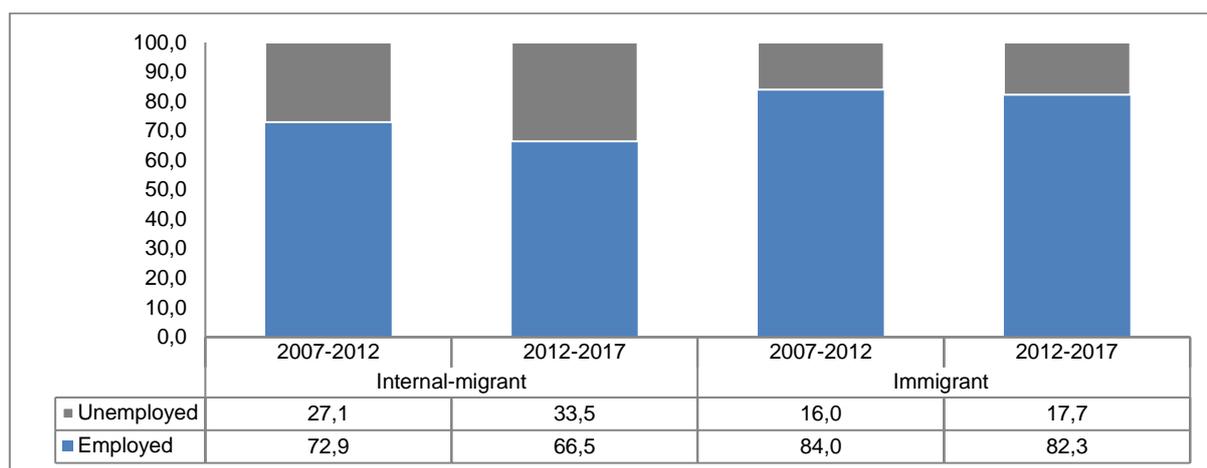
Employment decreased from the period 2007–2012 to 2012–2017 for both the internal-migrant and immigrant populations. Despite the decrease, period immigrants exhibited a higher employment rate than period internal-migrants for both periods.

Figure 3.9 illustrates the employment sector and business ownership status for the two period-migrant populations for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017.

Figure 3.9: Distribution of period migrants by employment sector and business ownership, 2007–2012 and 2012–2017

	Period internal-migrant 2007-2012	Period internal-migrant 2012-2017	Period-immigrant 2007-2012	Period-immigrant 2012-2017
■ Formal sector	70,5	67,7	47,5	36,2
■ Informal sector	16,5	19,8	29,8	38,6
■ Agriculture	5,7	6,3	9,2	7,1
■ Private households	7,2	6,1	13,4	18,0
■ Own business (Yes)	18,0	6,5	20,4	10,7
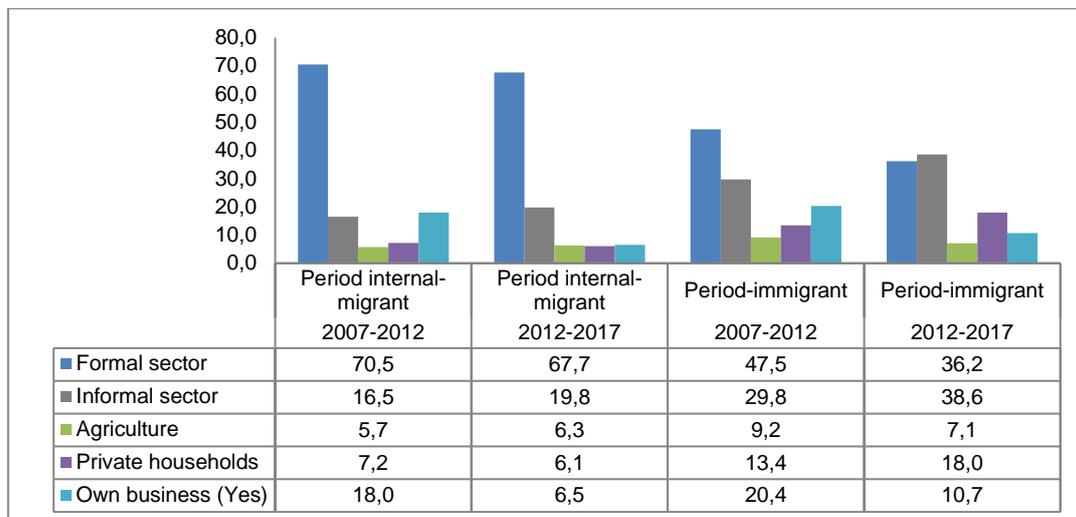
Both period-migrant groups experienced a decrease in the proportion employed in the formal sector for the periods 2007–2012 and 2012–2017. Almost one in two immigrants were employed in the formal sector in 2007–2012. This declined to about one in three in the 2012–2017 period. Whilst there was an increase in the proportion employed in the informal sector, there was a more noticeable increase with the immigrant population in this regard (29,8% to 38,6%). Involvement in the agriculture sector increased for the internal-migrant population and decreased for the immigrant population. Work in private households decreased for the internal-migrant population (7,2% to 6,1%) but increased for the immigrant population (13,4% to 18,0%). Business ownership decreased dramatically for the two populations who migrated during these periods, meaning that a lower proportion of migrants who intended to start a business moved in the period 2012–2017 (Figure 3.9).

3.7 Summary of findings

This chapter considered period migration, which looked at recent movements for internal-migrants and immigrants who moved during 2007–2012 and 2012–2017. Of all period migration, the majority of moves were due to internal-migration. Regarding internal-migration, provincial trends were similar for both periods. Gauteng was the preferred province of destination for immigrants who moved during both the 2007–2012 and 2012–2017 periods. For both groups and both periods, a higher proportion of moves were due to work-related reasons than non-work related reasons. The proportion of those with less than matric decreased for the internal-migrant population, but increased for the immigrant population, meaning that a higher proportion of immigrants without matric moved into South Africa during the 2012–2017 period than the 2007-2012 period. Whilst there was an increase in the proportion employed in the informal sector, there was a more noticeable increase among the immigrant population in this regard (29,8% to 38,6%). Work in private households decreased for the internal-migrant population (7,2% to 6,1%) but increased for the immigrant population (13,4% to 18,0%). Business ownership decreased dramatically for the two populations who migrated during these periods.

CHAPTER 4 : PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYMENT

4.1 Introduction

Xenophobic violence has been attributed to the perception that immigrants take jobs from South Africans and that immigrants are sometimes viewed as competitors for resources.[49] [50] Literature indicates the notion of perceived labour market success of immigrants in South Africa.[51] [52] [53] [54] This chapter of the report uses the binary logistic regression model with complex sampling design to determine the predictors of employment among the labour force, aged 15–64 in South Africa, using the 2012 and 2017 Quarterly Employment Survey (Quarter 3). Despite this report being based on migration, employment was the study variable and 'employed' was coded 1 and 'unemployed' was coded 0. The purpose of this was to consider migrant status as one of the independent variables, to determine if there was an association between this variable and the likelihood of being employed. The model calculates an odds ratio, which is the ratio of the odds of an event occurring or not occurring. This model determines the probability that a person will be employed or not employed.

4.2 Method of analysis

Ordinarily, the binary logistic regression model considers that the data is collected using simple random sampling where each sampling unit has the same probability of being chosen from the population.[55] However, if the data is collected using complex survey sampling designs, binary logistic regression may lead to biased estimates of parameters and incorrect variance estimates.[56] Many population-based surveys, such as the QLFS, are constructed using a complex sampling design. The samples are often obtained through complex designs, involving stratification, clustering, multistage sampling, unequal probability of selection of participants and responding rates. Using clustering, observations from the same cluster are correlated and, in order to have unbiased estimators, sample weighting needs to be adjusted for this cluster effect. Therefore, complex design must be taken into account in the regression model in order to have reliable results.[57] Ignoring the sampling method in data analysis can lead to inaccurate results.[58] The model included only the population in the labour force (employed and unemployed). The discouraged job-seekers and the not economically active populations were excluded. The control variables included were variables discussed in the report (sex, age, province of usual residence and education status).

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[49] Zuberi, T. & Sibanda, A. 2004. How Do Migrants Fare in a Post-Apartheid South African Labor Market? The International Migration Review, 38(4), pp. 1462-1491.
[50] Arimi, F. 2015. What's behind Xenophobic Attacks in South Africa? Available from: http://edition.cnn.com/2015/04/18/africa/south-africa-xenophobia-explainer/index.html.
[51] Landau, L.B. 2011. Introducing the Demons. In: L.B. Landau, ed. Exorcising the demons within: xenophobia, violence and statecraft in contemporary South Africa. Johannesburg: Tokyo: Wits University Press, pp. 1-26.
[52] Crush, J. & Ramachandran, S. 2015. Doing Business with Xenophobia. In: J. Crush, A. Chikanda & C. Skinner, eds. Mean Streets: Migration, Informality and Xenophobia in South Africa. Cape Town: Southern African Migration Programme, pp. 25-59.
[53] Landau, L.B. & Gindrey, B. 2008. Migration and population trends in Gauteng province 1996-2055. University of Witwatersrand, Volume 42.
[54] Ellis, S. & Segatti, A. 2011. The Role of Skilled Labour. In: A. Segatti & L.B. Loren, eds. Contemporary migration to South Africa: a regional development issue. Washington DC: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development / The World Bank, pp. 67-79.
[55] Liu, X. & Koirala, H. 2013. Fitting proportional odds models to educational data with complex sampling designs in ordinal logistic regression. Journal of Modern Applied Statistical Methods. 2013;12(1):26, http://digitalcommons.wayne. edu/jmasm/vol12/iss1/26.
[56] Habyarimana, F., Zewotir, T. & Ramroop, S. 2014. A proportional odds model with complex sampling design to identify key determinants of malnutrition of children under five years in Rwanda. Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences. 2014;5(23):1642, doi: 10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n23p1642.
[57] Cassy, S.R., Natário, I. & Martins, M.R. 2016. Logistic Regression Modelling for Complex Survey Data with an Application for Bed Net Use in Mozambique. Open Journal of Statistics, 6, 898-907. http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ojs.2016.65074
[58] Ibid.

4.3 Results

Figure 4.1 indicates the employment rates of the population aged 15–64 for the period 2012 and 2017. The purpose of this was to provide insight into the selection of the reference groups that were used in the logistic regression.

Figure 4.1: Employment rates of the population (ages 15–64), 2012 and 2017
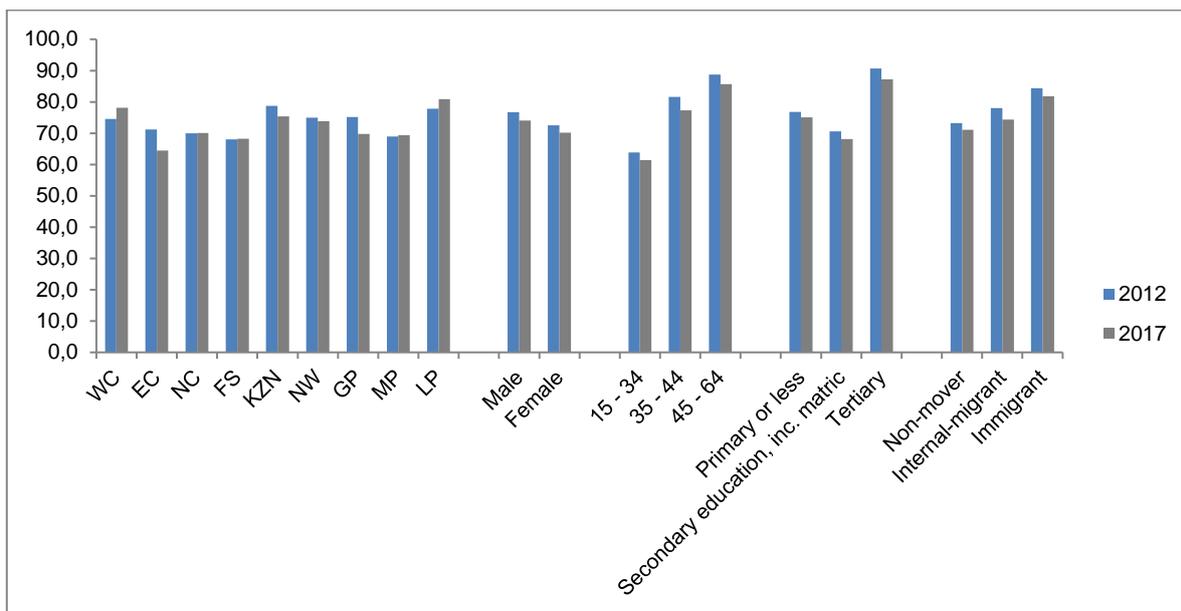
The reference groups are based on the variables that accounted for the highest employment rates (dependent variable was employed). This was utilised for sex, age, education, and employment and migration status. However, for province of usual residence, Gauteng was used as the reference group, as Gauteng is the economic hub of South Africa, and attention is often drawn to this province in employment and migration debates. The variables and reference groups are outlined in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Variables in the multivariate analysis

Variable	Reference group	Coding
Dependent variable		
Employed		0 = Not employed 1 = Employed
Independent variables		
Sex	1 = Male	2 = Female
Age group	3 = 45–64	1 = 15–34 2 = 35–44
Province of usual residence	7 = Gauteng	1 = Western Cape 2 = Eastern Cape 3 = Northern Cape 4 = Free State 5 = KwaZulu-Natal 6 = North West 8 = Mpumalanga 9 = Limpopo
Education status	3 = Tertiary	1 = Primary or less 2 = Secondary education, including matric
Migrant status	3 = Immigrant	1 = Non-mover 2 = Internal-migrant

In order to obtain valid inferences using binary logistic regression, it is necessary to utilise the Pearson's test statistic. Suitable to the complex survey design, the Rao-Scott adjustments was used. The Rao-Scott chi-square test is a design-adjusted version of the Pearson chi-square test, which involves differences between observed and expected frequencies, and is more suitable to the model design.[59] Table 4.2 shows the bi-variable and multi-variable factors associated with employment amongst the working-age population. After controlling for the possible confounders using forward stepwise likelihood ratio method, and the Rao-Scott independence test, it was verified that there was a statistically significant association (at the 1% level) between the outcome variable (employed) and the covariates (grouped age, sex, province of usual residence, grouped educational status and migration status). Table 4.2 summarises the odds ratios that result from performing logistic regression on employment, using QLFS 2012 and 2017 data. An odds ratio of 1,000 implies no difference between categories in the odds of being employed, whilst an odds ratio greater than 1,000 indicates a higher likelihood of being employed than the reference category. Conversely, an odds ratio below 1,000 indicates lowers odds relative to the reference category.

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[59]Cassy, S.R., Natário, I. & Martins, M.R. 2016. Logistic Regression Modelling for Complex Survey Data with an Application for Bed Net Use in Mozambique. Open Journal of Statistics, 6, 898-907. http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ojs.2016.65074

Table 4.2: Predictors of employment of the labour-force using logistics regression, 2012 and 2017

Odds ratio (OR)	Employed, 2012	Employed, 2017
Sex		
1 = Male (reference category)		
2 = Female	0,776	0,872
Age		
3 = 45–64 (reference category)		
1 = 15–34	0,231	0,257
2 = 35–44	0,580	0,549
Province of usual residence		
7 = Gauteng (reference category)		
1 = Western Cape	1,085	1,815
2 = Eastern Cape	1,106	1,004
3 = Northern Cape	1,126	1,335
4 = Free State	0,812	1,143
5 = KwaZulu-Natal	2,710	1,730
6 = North West	1,608	1,445
8 = Mpumalanga	0,952	1,209
9 = Limpopo	1,953	2,193
Education status		
3 = Tertiary (reference category)		
1 = Primary or less	0,188	0,291
2 = Some and completed secondary education	0,253	0,315
Migrant status		
3 = Immigrant (reference category)		
1 = Non-mover	0,467	0,475
2 = Internal-migrant	0,574	0,560

*: Values not significant at the 95% level of significance

Sex: Despite the odds ratio decreasing between both periods, sex remains a predictor of employment. Males are 1,29 times (1/0,776) in 2012 and 1,15 times (1/0,872) in 2017, more likely to be employed than females.

Age: There is a relationship between age and the level of employment. The likelihood of being employed increases with age and is lowest for the youth age group (OR: 0,231 in 2012 and OR: 0,257 in 2017). The reference category (ages 45-64) are about 3,89 times (1/0,257) more likely to be employed than the youth ages and about 1,82 times (1/0,549) than those in the middle age group in 2017.

Province of usual residence: The model indicated that at a provincial level in 2017, the working-age population in Limpopo (OR: 2,193), Western Cape (OR: 1,815), KwaZulu-Natal (OR: 1,730) and North West (OR: 1,445) were more likely to be employed than the same population in Gauteng. In 2012, the working-age population in Free State (OR: 0,812) and Mpumalanga (OR: 0,952) were less likely to be employed than the working-age population in Gauteng. However, this changed in 2017, where the working-age population in Free

State (OR: 1,143) and Mpumalanga (OR: 1,209) were more likely to be employed than the working-age population in Gauteng. These results follow the unemployment trends at provincial level.

Education status: The model indicated that there is a clear relationship between education status and employment. A higher educational qualification will probably lead to a better chance of gaining employment. The population with a tertiary qualification (reference category) was about 5,32 times (1/0,188) in 2012 and 3,44 times (1/0,291) in 2017, more likely to be employed than the population with primary or less than primary education. The population with a tertiary qualification was about 3,95 times (1/0,253) in 2012 and 3,17 times (1/0,315) in 2017, more likely to be employed than the population with some secondary and completed secondary education.

Migrant status: Migrant status among the working-age population is positively associated with employment, where the likelihood of being employed is lowest for non-movers (OR: 0,467 in 2012 and OR: 0,475 in 2017) as compared to immigrants. The likelihood of being employed is also higher for immigrants than internal-migrants (OR: 0,574 in 2012 and OR: 0,560 in 2017). This indicates that immigrants are about 2 times more likely to be employed than non-movers and internal-migrants.

4.4 Summary of findings

This chapter has provided insight into the politically and emotionally charged subject of immigration and labour force participation in South Africa. The objective was to determine whether immigrants fare better or worse than internal-migrants and non-movers in gaining employment, and to account for any observed differences in labour force outcomes after controlling for covariates that are believed to influence employment. The results indicate that immigrants are about two times more likely to be employed than internal-migrants and non-movers. Non-movers have the lowest odds of being employed.

CHAPTER 5 : DECENT WORK AGENDA

5.1 Introduction

Secure and decent work remains out of reach for many, with an estimated 1,4 billion people working in vulnerable employment.[60] Major efforts need be made to foster job creation that takes into account demographic trends and promotes increased productivity, improvements in earnings and working conditions, and the respect of labour rights, especially for the poor and marginalised. During apartheid (a system based on racial segregation and discrimination), it was almost impossible for persons of colour to acquire decent employment, as most Africans were confined to unskilled labour.[61] South Africa has made a commitment to the attainment of decent work, mainly through labour legislation. The government has adopted two economic strategies, namely the National Growth Plan and the National Development Plan, which specifically refer to decent work.[62] The effects of apartheid persist in the democratic dispensation where vulnerable employees are often denied their rights in terms of labour legislation. Informalisation of employment has impacted the South African labour market and exacerbated non-compliance with labour law.[63] It is for such reasons that the International Labor Organization (ILO) has adopted the concept of decent work, applicable to both women and men in order to achieve freedom, equity, security and human dignity, as one of its fundamental goals.[64]

The ILO defines decent work as employment that is not only a source of income, but of "personal dignity, family stability, peace in the community, democracies that deliver for people, and economic growth that expands opportunities for productive jobs and enterprise development".[65] The ILO sets out four strategic objectives of decent work. These are: (i) The creation of jobs, employment and income opportunities; (ii) Guaranteeing of fundamental rights at work and achievement of international labour standards; (iii) Extending social protection and social security; and (iv) The promotion of social dialogue and tripartism.[66] Furthermore, Goal 8 of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda calls for the promotion of inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work. The SDGs aim to encourage sustained economic growth by achieving higher levels of productivity through technological innovation. Promoting policies that encourage entrepreneurship and job creation is key to this, as are effective measures to eradicate forced labour, slavery and human trafficking. With these targets in mind, the goal is to achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all women and men by 2030.[67] Irregular migration can be mitigated by a labour migration policy that benefits the migrant and local community, and linking such a migration policy to decent work is key. Decent work can be attained by improving migrants' labour protection.[68] This chapter is based on expanding the knowledge on the three groups of migrants as related to the concept of decent wok.

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[60] European Commission: Directorate General for International Development and Cooperation. 2019. Employment and Decent Work. Retrieved 03 01, 2019, from International Development and Cooperation: https://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/sectors/human-development/employment-and-decent-work_en
[61] Arbuckle, M.L. 2013. Decent work in South Africa: An analysis of legal protection offered by the state in respect of domestic and farm workers. Durban: University of KwaZulu-Natal.
[62] Ibid.
[63] Benjamin, P. 2010 'Decent Work and Non-Standard Employees: Options for Legislative Reform in South Africa: A Discussion Document' 2010 31 *ILJ* 845.
[64] International Labor Organization. 2018. Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators. Geneva: International Labor Organization.
[65] Ibid.
[66] Ibid.
[67] Statistics South Africa. 2018. Labour Market Dynamics in South Africa 2017. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
[68] International Organization for Migration. 2018. Global Compact for safe, orderly and regular migration. Geneva: International Organization for Migration.

5.2 The decent work framework

Decent work is central in efforts to reduce poverty, and is a means for achieving equitable, inclusive and sustainable development. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, provides security in the workplace and social protection for workers and their families, and gives people the freedom to express their concerns, to organise and to participate in decisions that affect their lives. The Decent Work Framework is based on six indicators and eleven sub-indicators, which is expanded on in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Framework for measuring decent work

Indicator	Sub-indicator
Employment opportunities	- Unemployment - Not in employment, education or training (NEET) - Informal employment
Adequate earnings and productive work	- Paid employment - Excessive hours - Time related under employment
Combining work, family and personal life	Employees entitled to maternity/paternity leave
Stability and security of work indicators	- Permanent nature - Contract
Social security	Employer's contribution to a pension fund and UIF
Social dialogue and workplace relations	Trade union membership

5.3 Employment opportunities

In order to overcome the decent work deficit in South Africa, job creation is imperative. The concept of decent work entails the existence of employment opportunities for all who are willing and able to work.[69] The indicator focusing on employment opportunities considers three sub-indicators, namely (i) Unemployment, (ii) Not in employment, education or training (NEET), and (iii) Informal employment. Results on these three indicators are presented in Figure 5.1.

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

Figure 5.1: Employment opportunity indicators by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
■ Unemployment rate	26,7	29,1	22,0	25,8	15,6	18,4
■ NEET rrate (15-24)	31,0	29,6	33,7	34,2	38,3	37,7
■ Informal employment rate	16,8	17,4	12,0	13,7	33,9	29,3
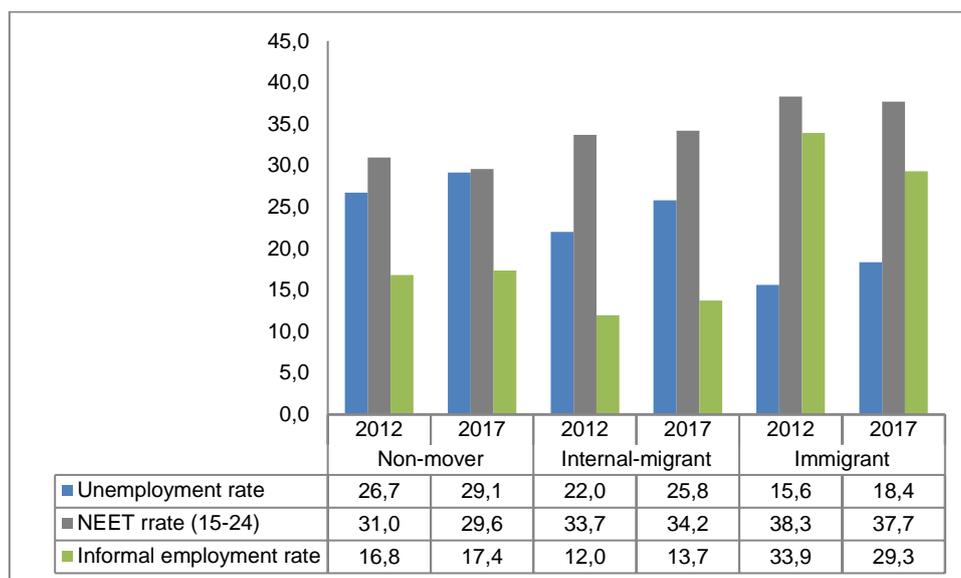
Unemployment

The unemployment rate is a major headline labour market indicator, widely used and recognised as one of the main labour market measures. It conveys information on the proportion of the labour force that is unemployed and provides an insight into the underutilisation of supply.[70] The unemployment rate reflects the inability of an economy to generate employment for those who are looking for a job but cannot find one despite being available to take up work. It is thus an indicator of the efficiency and effectiveness of an economy to absorb its labour force and of the performance of the labour market.[71] Figure 5.1 illustrates the unemployment rate for the three migrant groups and indicates that this was lowest for immigrants and highest for non-movers for both 2012 and 2017. Despite being lowest for immigrants, the unemployment rate did increase from 2012 (15,6%) to 2017 (18,4%). In 2017, the unemployment rate indicated that almost one in three non-movers (29,1%) and one in four internal-migrants (25,8%) were unemployed (Figure 5.1).

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[70] Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.
[71] International Labor Organization. 2018. Decent Work and the Sustainable Development Goals: A Guidebook on SDG Labour Market Indicators. Geneva: International Labor Organization.

Not in education, employment or training

The not in education, employment or training (NEET) rate provides a measure of youth 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.[72] Figure 5.1 illustrates the NEET rate for the three migrant groups and indicates that for the population aged 15–24, the NEET rate was highest for immigrants (2012 and 2017). From 2012 to 2017, the NEET rate decreased amongst those aged 15–24 for the non-mover and immigrant populations (Figure 5.1).

Informal 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.[73] 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.[74] Figure 5.1 illustrates the informal employment rate for the three migrant groups and indicates that the rate was substantially higher for immigrants and lowest for the internal-migrants for both 2012 and 2017. This indicates that almost one out of three immigrants are involved in employment in the informal sector.

5.4 Adequate earnings and productive work

An adequate living wage is imperative for the attainment of decent work. In South Africa, wages and income remain highly unequal between the informal and the formal economy, with poverty and inequality assuming racial, gender and age dimensions.[75] The indicator focusing on adequate earnings and productive work considers three sub-indicators, namely (i) Paid employment, (ii) Excessive hours, and (iii) Underemployment. Results on these three indicators are presented in Figure 5.2.

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[72] Department of Higher Education and Training. 2017. Fact Sheet on "NEETs". Pretoria: Department of Higher Education and Training.
[73] Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.
[74] International Labor Organization. 2011. Decent Work Country Profile: South Africa, Geneva: International Labor Organization.
[75] Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.

Figure 5.2: Adequate earnings and productive work indicators by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
■ Paid work	32,0	33,3	51,1	48,7	43,5	48,5
■ Excessive hours	28,2	27,1	28,8	27,5	44,9	39,1
■ Underemployment	4,4	4,8	3,1	3,1	3,3	4,8
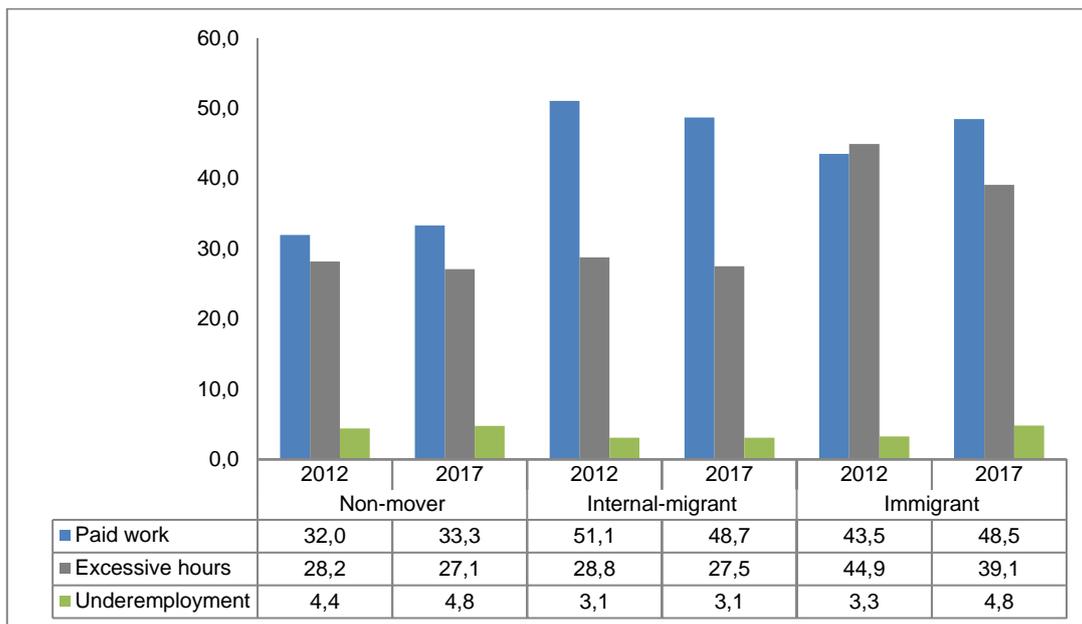
Paid employment

Nearly all individuals who work or seek work do so in order to earn an income and ensure the economic well-being of themselves and their households.[76] In terms of indicators, adequate pay can be measured directly by an indicator on paid employment. It can also be measured indirectly through indicators on hours of work.[77] Figure 5.2 indicates the rate of paid employment for the three migrant groups and illustrates that both non-movers and immigrants experienced an increase, from 2012 to 2017, in the proportion participating in paid employment. Despite experiencing a decline, the proportion participating in paid employment was highest for internal-migrants for both 2012 and 2017 (Figure 5.2).

Excessive hours

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act sets the maximum number of ordinary working hours at forty-five hours per week. 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.[78] Figure 5.2 illustrates the proportion that worked excessive hours for the three migrant groups and indicates that there was an overall decrease in the proportion working excessive hours across the three groups, from 2012 to 2017. Despite this decline, around forty per cent of immigrants still worked excessive hours in both periods (Figure 5.2).

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[76] Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.
[77] International Labor Organization. 2011. Decent Work Country Profile: South Africa. Geneva: International Labor Organization.
[78] Pietschmann, I. et al. 2016. Key Labor Market Data: Analysis with Household Survey Data. Geneva: International Labor Organization, World Bank Group.

Underemployment

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.[79] 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 5.2 illustrates the underemployment rate for the three migrant groups and indicates that both non-movers and immigrants experienced an increase in the proportions that are underemployed across both periods, with the increase being more pronounced with immigrants.

5.5 Combining work, family and personal life

The indicator focusing on combining work, family and personal life considers one sub-indicator, namely (i) Employees entitled to maternity/paternity leave. Results on this indicator are presented in Figure 5.3.

Figure 5.3: Employees entitled to maternity or paternity leave by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

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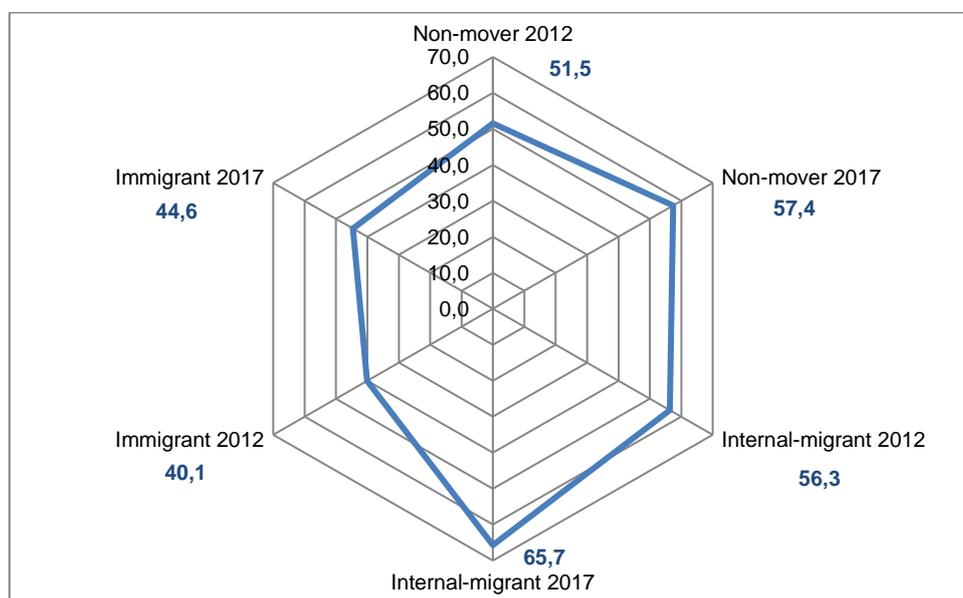
[79] International Labor Organization. 2011. Decent Work Country Profile: South Africa. Geneva: International Labor Organization.

Employees entitled to maternity/paternity 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 of 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.[80] Provision is also made for fathers to benefit from paternity leave. Figure 5.3 illustrates the proportion of those who were entitled to maternity/paternity leave for the three migrant groups, and indicates that a higher proportion of people across the three migrant groups were entitled to this benefit, from 2012 to 2017. Despite the increase across the two periods, immigrants had the lowest proportions, indicating that less than half of immigrants qualify for maternity/paternity leave (Figure 5.3).

5.6 Stability and security of work

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.[81] The indicator focusing on stability and security of work considers two sub-indicators, namely (i) Duration of employment, and (ii) Established employment contract. Results on these two indicators are presented in Figure 5.4 and Figure 5.5.

Figure 5.4: Duration of employment by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
■ Unspecified	22,0	24,5	19,2	22,6	37,4	41,3
■ Permanent	63,3	60,9	69,9	67,2	51,7	49,9
■ Limited (temporary)	14,7	14,7	10,9	10,2	10,9	8,9

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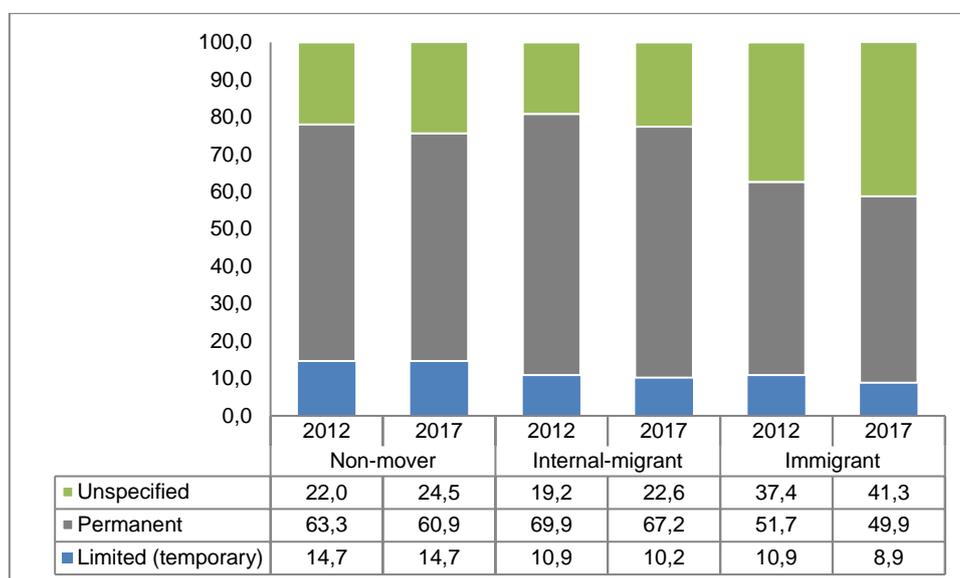
[80] International Labor Organization. 2011. Decent Work Country Profile: South Africa. Geneva: International Labor Organization.
[81] Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.

Duration of employment

Stability and security of work are an important concern, as job security is essential in 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.[82] The question that deals with duration of employment in the QLFS questionnaire is asked to establish the degree of job security, i.e. the duration of the contract. Figure 5.4 disaggregates the duration of employment 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.[83] Having a position of unspecified duration leads to no job security or stability, which is the scenario that more than forty per cent of immigrants reported in 2017. Internal-migrants reported the lowest proportions in this area. Only about half of immigrants reported to have permanent employment in both 2012 and 2017 (Figure 5.4).

Employment contract

Having an employment contract is another measure of job security, irrespective of the position being temporary or permanent.

Figure 5.5: Employment contract by migrant status, 2012 and 2017
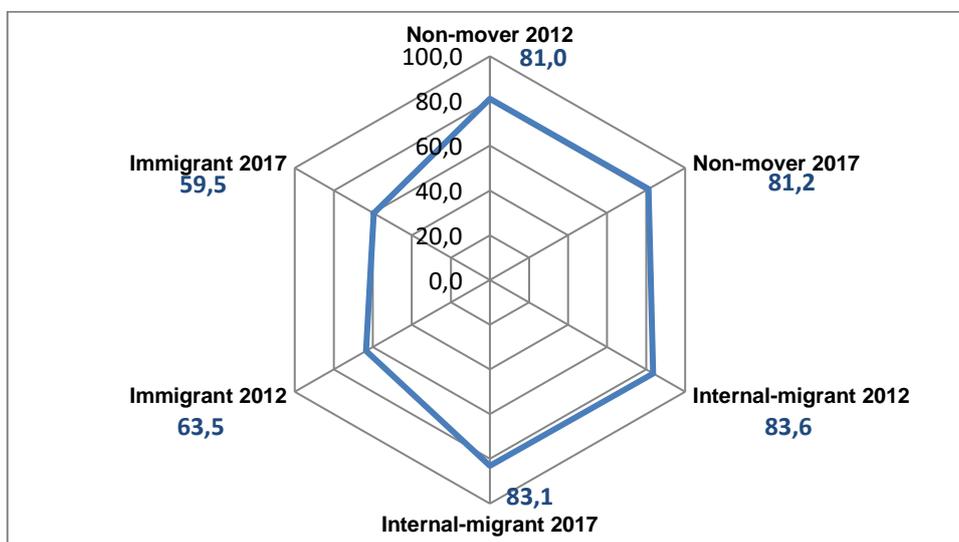
Figure 5.5 illustrates the proportion of persons who did have an employment contract for the three migrant groups, and indicates that more than eighty per cent of non-movers and internal-migrants had employment contracts in place. However, only around sixty per cent of immigrants had an employment contract, which signifies that immigrants had the lowest job security from this perspective. This suggests a declining rate of permanent and secure work for those fortunate enough to be employed (decrease from 2012 to 2017).

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

5.7 Social security

Adequate social protection, fundamental to the attainment of decent work and poverty reduction, is necessary to provide security against a variety of contingencies and vulnerabilities.[84] The indicator focusing on social security considers two sub-indicators, namely (i) Employer's contribution to a pension fund, and (ii) Employer's contribution to Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF). Results on these two indicators are presented in Figure 5.6.

Figure 5.6: Social security indicators by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
	Non-mover		Internal-migrant		Immigrant	
■ Employer's contribution to pension fund	49,2	47,9	55,9	56,5	32,4	32,5
■ Employer's contribution to UIF fund	62,5	59,7	68,6	67,9	51,9	44,4
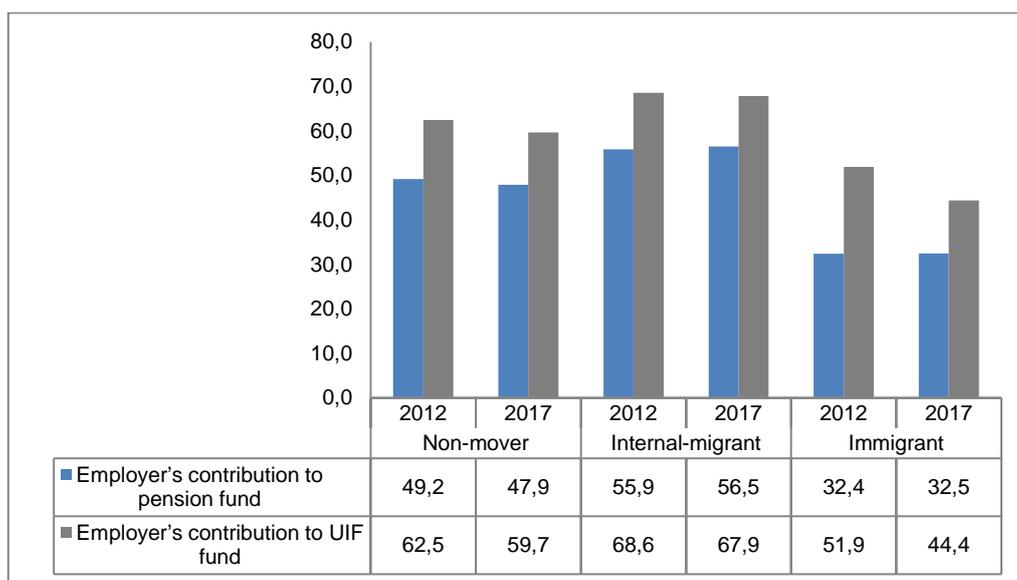
Employer's contribution to a pension fund

For decades, South Africa has had a non-contributory old-age grant that is currently payable to women and men aged 60 years and above who pass a means test. This grant is one of a set of grants that provide social protection to old people, disabled people, children and war veterans. South Africa does not have a national law that provides for work-related pension benefits. However, such benefits are available to many employees. In some cases, the employer contributes to a pension fund and in other cases, the employer may deduct contributions from the wage or salary for a pension fund but may not make an employer contribution.[85] Figure 5.6 illustrates the proportion receiving a pension contribution from their employer for the three migrant groups and indicates that this proportion increased for the internal-migrant and immigrant groups from 2012 to 2017. Despite this increase, only one in three immigrants was receiving a contribution from their employer towards their pension for both periods. This is in comparison to around half of non-movers and internal-migrants who were receiving contributions from their employers (Figure 5.6).

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[84] Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.
[85] International Labor Organization. 2011. Decent Work Country Profile: South Africa. Geneva: International Labor Organization.

Employer's contribution to UIF

The Unemployment Insurance Act, 2001, offers some protection to employees who lose their jobs.[86] Respondents were asked if their employers pay a UIF contribution for them. Figure 5.6 illustrates the proportion receiving a UIF contribution from their employer for the three migrant groups and indicates that across all migrant groups, there was a decrease from 2012 to 2017 for the proportion receiving a UIF contribution from their employers. The immigrant group was the group who had the lowest proportions for both 2012 and 2017 (Figure 5.6).

5.8 Social dialogue and workplace relations

The indicator focusing on social dialogue and workplace relations considers one sub-indicator, namely (i) Trade union membership.

Trade union membership

Trade union membership aims to reflect freedom of association, and is at the core of the fundamental principles and rights at work.[87] Effective social dialogue between government, employers and trade unions is required to secure the equitable participation of all employees (formal and informal) in decent and productive work. The ability of workers to organise freely in order to collectively defend their interests, as guaranteed by the Constitution and labour legislation, is vital to equitable workplace relations and effective social dialogue.[88]

**Figure 5.7: Trade union membership by migrant status, 2012 and 2017**
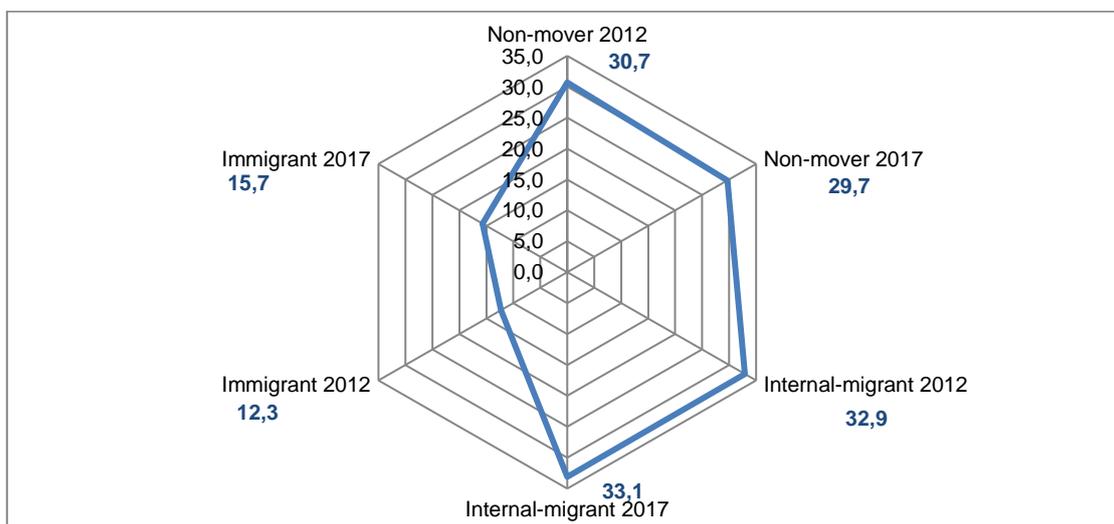
Figure 5.7 illustrates the proportions that have trade union membership for the three migrant groups and indicates that membership decreased slightly for the non-movers from 2012 to 2017. Whilst trade union membership increased for immigrants, only about one in seven immigrants reported trade union membership,

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[86] Arbuckle, M.L. 2013. Decent work in South Africa: An analysis of legal protection offered by the state in respect of domestic and farm workers. Durban: University of KwaZulu-Natal.
[87] Pietschmann, I. et al. 2016. Key Labour Market Data: Analysis with Household Survey Data. Geneva: International Labour Organization, World Bank Group.
[88] Cohen, T. & Moodley, L. 2012. Achieving "decent work" in South Africa. Potchefstroom Electronic Law Journal, 15(2), pp. 320-344.

which is in contrast to non-movers and internal-migrants where about one in three reported trade union membership. This is indicative that many immigrants are not represented and protected by trade unions.

5.9 Summary of findings

This chapter focused on linking migration to the decent work agenda. Decent work is central in efforts to reduce poverty and is a means for achieving equitable, inclusive and sustainable development. The Decent Work Framework is based on seven indicators and twelve sub-indicators on which analysis in this chapter was based.

Figure 5.8: Summary of Decent Work indicators by migrant status, 2012 and 2017

Sub-Indicator	Non-movers		Internal-migrants		Immigrants	
	2012	2017	2012	2017	2012	2017
1. Unemployment rate	Red	Red	Yellow	Yellow	Green	Green
2. NEET Rate (15-24)	Yellow	Yellow	Green	Green	Red	Red
3. Informal employment rate	Yellow	Yellow	Green	Green	Red	Red
4. Proportion in unpaid employment	Red	Red	Green	Green	Yellow	Yellow
5. Proportion working excessive hours	Green	Green	Yellow	Yellow	Red	Red
6. Underemployment rate	Red	Red	Green	Green	Yellow	Yellow
7. Proportion not entitled to maternity/ paternity leave	Yellow	Yellow	Green	Green	Red	Red
8. Proportion with no employment contract	Yellow	Yellow	Green	Green	Red	Red
9. Proportion not in permanent employment	Yellow	Yellow	Green	Green	Red	Red
10. Proportion with employer not contributing to pension/ UIF	Yellow	Yellow	Green	Green	Red	Red
11. Proportion with no trade union membership	Yellow	Yellow	Green	Green	Red	Red

The unemployment rate was lowest for immigrants and highest for non-movers for both 2012 and 2017. For the population aged 15–24, the NEET rate was highest for immigrants (2012 and 2017). There was an overall decrease in the proportion of persons working excessive hours across the three migrant groups, from 2012 to 2017. Despite this decline, around forty per cent of immigrants still worked excessive hours in both periods. Despite the increase across the two periods for those who qualified for maternity/paternity leave, less than half of immigrants qualified for maternity/paternity leave. Only about half of immigrants reported to have permanent employment in both 2012 and 2017, whilst only around sixty per cent of immigrants had employment contracts, signifying that immigrants had the lowest job security from this perspective. Only one in three immigrants were receiving a contribution from their employer towards their pension for both periods. This is in comparison to around half of non-movers and internal-migrants who were receiving contributions from their employers. There

was an overall decrease from 2012 to 2017 for the proportion receiving a UIF contribution from their employers. Whilst trade union membership increased for immigrant from 2012 to 2017, only about one in seven immigrants reported trade union membership, which is in contrast to non-movers and internal-migrants, where about one in three reported trade union membership. This is indicative that many immigrants are not represented and protected by trade unions. From the eleven indicators, immigrants had the highest proportion in eight out of eleven categories. Non-movers ranked the highest in only 3 categories, whilst Internal-migrants did not exhibit the highest in any category. This indicates that whilst immigrants are more likely to be employed, they largely participate in employment that cannot be classified as decent work.

CHAPTER 6 : DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of the report was to provide insight into the socioeconomic and demographic variables related to migration and labour, and to profile migrant groups who are of working age, using data collected from Stats SA in Quarter 3 of the QLFS, 2012 and 2017. The rationale for the report is based on the premise that one of the key motivations behind migration is moving for jobs, economic stability or in search of work. Focus on labour force participation is integral, as it is the main route through which migrants improve their socioeconomic status. Ensuring access to decent work is one of the key channels to facilitate regular migration. Data was analysed for three migrant groups, namely (i) Non-movers, (ii) Internal-migrants and (iii) Immigrants, for both lifetime and period migration, and results from 2012 and 2017 were compared. Chapter 1 contained the introduction, background, objectives and development framework informing the report. It also provided the data sources utilised, as well as the migration module of questions.

6.2 Lifetime and period migration

Chapter 2 discussed lifetime migration and provided a profile of lifetime migrants. The chapter also provided measures of economic dependence for this migrant category. The remainder of the chapter explored inter-provincial movement and provided a profile of internal movers. Chapter 3 examined period migration. The chapter looked at migration streams and provided a profile of recent movers in the main migration streams. It also explored immigrant provincial selectivity, as well as the reason for migration. Results indicate that the proportion of the population who has not moved decreased from 2012 to 2017, indicating that a higher proportion of people are moving in South Africa. From constructing migration matrices, it is evident that South Africa has seventy-two possible internal-migrant streams. We identified the five most populous streams and profiled the migrants that moved in these streams, which were (1) Limpopo-to-Gauteng, (2) KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng, (3) Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng, (4) Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape, and (5) Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng. These streams account for the majority of all internal moves. Of the five main streams, internal-migrants from the Mpumalanga-to-Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal-to-Gauteng streams exhibited the highest proportion of migrants with: (1) Tertiary qualification, (2) Employment rate, (3) Formal sector employment, and (4) Owning a business. With regard to domestic workers, both the Eastern Cape-to-Western Cape, and the Eastern Cape-to-Gauteng streams were the highest supplier of domestic workers.

In developing countries, the relationship between economic activity and education has policy relevance.[89] The level of education may affect the propensity and the opportunity to engage in economic activity. Regarding education status, the population with tertiary education status reported a higher general activity rate. With regard to education status for internal-migrants, levels of no schooling were higher for lifetime migrants than for period-migrants. However, completion of matric was higher for period-migrants than for lifetime migrants. More period migrants also recorded having a higher tertiary qualification than lifetime migrants did. With regard

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[89] 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.

to immigrants, overall, levels of no schooling were higher for immigrants than for internal-migrants. Lifetime immigrants expressed higher levels of no schooling than did period-migrants. The proportions of immigrants with matric and tertiary qualifications were higher for lifetime immigrants than for period immigrants. Overall, internal-migrants expressed higher proportions of those who had a matric or tertiary qualification, compared to immigrants. Immigrants had the highest proportion of those with no schooling, but had a higher proportion than non-movers for those with a tertiary qualification. The disparity in education status for immigrants is indicative that this is not a homogenous group, exhibiting a specific characteristic.

As far as the employment rate is concerned, employment decreased for all migrant groups and is higher for immigrants than for internal-migrants. With regard to internal-migrants, lifetime migrants exhibit higher employment rates than do period internal-migrants, whilst for immigrants, lifetime and period-migrants exhibit similar employment rates. Discouraged job-seekers and the not economically active population ranked the highest in the non-mover group for 2012 and 2017. This indicates that the discouraged job-seeker population remain in their province of birth, and are not mobile. Further research into this is required to determine if they have returned to their province of birth after not finding employment, or if they have never left their province of birth. Research is required to determine if they would find employment if they moved to a different province. Domestic work showed a clear link with migration. Almost one in four immigrant females are domestic workers for both 2012 and 2017. This is compared to non-movers, where about one in eight females are domestic workers, and one in six internal-migrant females are domestic workers.

Analysis considered immigrant provincial selectivity, and assessed the distinction between period and lifetime immigrants. There is often a lot of attention on Gauteng, which is the preferred province of residence for immigrants. However, the change in distribution must be noted between period and lifetime immigrant provincial preferences. About one in two lifetime immigrants reside in Gauteng. Yet, when looking at period migration, this decreases to about one in three. In addition to Gauteng, period migrants preferred Limpopo and Western Cape in the 2007–2012 period, and North West and KwaZulu-Natal in the 2012–2017 period. In addition to Gauteng, lifetime immigrants also preferred to reside in Western Cape and Limpopo. The QLFS questionnaire includes a question to period migrants on their reason for moving. The majority of respondents reported to have moved for work-related reasons for both periods and for both migrant groups. From the 2012–2017 period as compared to the 2007–2012 period, a higher proportion of both migrant groups moved to find work/start a business, as opposed to moving for a job that they had already secured.

6.3 Predictors of employment and the decent work agenda

Chapter 4 used the binary logistic regression model to determine the predictors of employment, and Chapter 5 looked at movement in the context of the decent work agenda. From the regression model on predictors of employment, results indicated that gender is still a predictor of employment. Males are more likely to be employed than females. The likelihood of being employed increases with age, and the youth are less likely to be employed. In many countries, youth unemployment rates are usually higher than adult unemployment rates. Youth are more vulnerable than adults, and they are likely to have less work experience. Employers may prefer to hire employees with past experience, and youth entering the labour force for the first time will be at a

disadvantage and will have a harder time finding employment as compared to an adult with a longer history of work experience.[90] From a provincial perspective, the working-age population in Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal and North West were more likely to be employed in both 2012 and 2017, as compared to the same population in Gauteng. The model also indicated a clear relationship between education status and employment, where the population with a tertiary qualification was more likely to be employed. This links with results related to age, where the youth-age group may not yet have completed their educational qualification to the tertiary level.

With regard to migrant status, immigrants are about two times more likely to be employed than internal-migrants and non-movers. Non-movers have the lowest odds of being employed. One reason that could explain these results is that of selection bias. Immigrants may be, on average "more able, ambitious, aggressive, entrepreneurial, or otherwise more favourably selected than similar individuals who choose to remain in their place of origin", although the strength of this bias is likely linked to the motives for immigration.[91] Despite immigrants being more likely to be employed than non-movers and internal-migrants, further research was undertaken to determine the types of work in which they participated, and how their work fared within the Decent Work Framework.

Decent work is central in efforts to reduce poverty and is a means for achieving equitable, inclusive and sustainable development. Irregular migration can be mitigated by labour migration policies and the decent work agenda. The rates and proportions in the framework indicate undesirable types of work that express lack of job security and stability as well as social security. From the eleven decent work indicators, immigrants had the highest proportion in eight out of eleven categories. Internal-migrants did not exhibit the highest in any category, whilst non-movers ranked the highest in only three categories. This indicates that whilst immigrants are more likely to be employed, they participate in employment that cannot be classified as decent work.

[90] 2006. Global Employment Trends for Youth. 2006. Geneva: ILO. http://www.ilo.org/empelm/pubs/WCM_041929/lang--en/index.htm.
[91] Chiswick, B.R. 1999. Are Immigrants Favourably Self-Selected? The American Economic Review, 89(2), 181-185.