

**THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT OF LABOUR MIGRATION ON  
HOUSEHOLDS: MOGALAKWENA LOCAL MUNICIPALITY, LIMPOPO  
PROVINCE**

by

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## DECLARATION

I declare that the dissertation hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree of Master of Administration in Development Management, the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households of Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university; that it is my work in design and in execution, and that all material contained herein has been duly acknowledged.

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29<sup>th</sup> March 2010  
**Date**

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- ✓ Mr. M Lekgoro (Municipal Official)
- ✓ Department of Development Studies Staff

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this research dissertation to all the rural communities in South Africa and encourage them to work together with the three spheres of government, which are National, Provincial and Local government, in order to alleviate poverty and provide better life for all.

## **ABSTRACT**

This study focuses on the nature of migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households of Mogalakwena Local Municipality, Limpopo Province. The study investigates the relationship between labour or economic migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households. Mogalakwena Local Municipality was used as a case study and three villages were sampled for this study. A total of hundred twenty (120) households in the three villages were sampled for the survey, using structured questionnaire. The study used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis of data and derived frequencies, percentages, mean, graphs and charts from various households. The study found that there is a great difference in terms of the living standards, comparing households with and without migrants. It was also found that only 3, 3 % of the respondents are arguing labour migration is affecting the socio-economic conditions negatively in the households. Whereas, 64, 2 % are arguing that labour migration is found to be impacting positively on the socio-economic conditions in the households. Recommendations and conclusions were made on how to address the negative socio-economic impact of labour migration on households in the rural areas.

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## **CHAPTER 1: THE STUDY BACKGROUND AND PROBLEM STATEMENT**

### **1.1 Introduction and Background**

The study focused on the nature of migration and the socio-economic impact of labour migration, also known as economic migration on households in the rural areas. It had been demonstrated through different perspectives in the literature survey that migration is clearly a major issue across the African continent. Indeed, migration both within countries and across borders, is seen as an integral part of labour markets and livelihood strategy, across much of the continent for at least the last century (Ammassari, Black, Crush, Hilker, Mouillesseaux, Pajkotia and Peberdy, 2006). Migration theories have demonstrated that human beings are known to migrated extensively throughout history and prehistory in the whole world (Harbison, 1981; Lucas and Stark, 1985; Lichter, 1990; Stockdale, 2002).

Migration presents an important livelihood strategy for poor households seeking to diversify their sources of income, but it is also a characteristic of the better off, and indeed of many African elites (Ravenstein, 1885; Dejong, 1981). Many people have engaged into migration, and depending on the person, the trip may last as long as an entire lifetime or as short as a few months (Barham and Boucher, 1998).

This phenomenon is increasingly continuous in the present world with overlapping types and forms. Furthermore migration studies have constructed complex typologies using the time dimension, spatial dimension and motive criteria (Boyd, 1989; Dahlstrom, 1996; Heilmann, 2006). Different typologies of migration include: daily human commuting, seasonal human migration, permanent migration, local or regional migration, urban to rural migration, rural to urban migration, international migration and labour migration (Mayhew, 2004; Manning, 2005; Heilmann, 2006). This study focused on labour migration and investigated its impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households.

Labour (economic) migration is an example of motive criteria type, because migrants usually make decision to migrate after weighing economic conditions between two different places (Featherman and Hauser, 1978; Bond, 1993; Ballard, 2003). Two key determining factors that will continue to fuel this kind of movement are the “pull” of changing demographics and labour market needs in many industrialized cities; the “push” of population, unemployment and crisis in terms of job creation in the less-developed areas (Fuguitt, 1989; Gammeltoft, 2002). Studies of economic migration commonly focus on the factors that promote labour migration and tend to leave out the

impacts of this phenomenon on both the sender and receiver areas (Lipton, 1996; Conway, 2004; Manning, 2005; Mtika, 2007). Undoubtedly, analyses of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households are inconclusive. Thus, this study examined and clarified the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households of the sender areas, specifically the poor rural households of Mogalakwena (meaning 'fierce crocodile') Local Municipality in Limpopo Province, Republic of South Africa.

The Republic of South Africa had the characteristics of a dual economic country as it includes both first world; conditions of high income, production and services mainly in cities, towns and commercial farms, parallel to Third World conditions of high unemployment, low income and inadequate services, mainly in rural areas and informal settlements adjacent to cities and towns (Vaughan, 1997; Tsheola, 1998; Posel, 2002). Limpopo Province is itself characterised by the Third World conditions, because 89% of the province in 2001 was rural in nature (Marlene, 2001). The poverty rate of this rurally-based population in the Limpopo Province was reported to be over 72% in 2001 (Statistics South Africa, 2001). Such poverty, along with relatively high unemployment rate and the historical patterns of domestic migration could suggest that Limpopo Province is exposed to

strong push factors. Limpopo Province is the northernmost province of the nine provinces established after 1994 in the Republic of South Africa. Mogalakwena Local Municipality is one of the six local municipalities within the jurisdiction of the Waterberg District Municipality in the Limpopo Province (Marlene, 2001).

The purpose of the study was therefore to investigate the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households, with special reference to Mogalakwena Local Municipality in the Limpopo Province. The study analysed how the socio-economic conditions in the household have changed since some members of the household have engaged in labour migration. The study also investigated the potential of labour migration being managed for optimum positive impact on the socio-economic conditions of the household.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

Population migration is a complex phenomenon that covers a wide range of voluntary and forced movement of varying degrees, scales and durations; and it is currently on the increase globally (Beinart, 1980; Barham and Boucher, 1998). Labour migration, in particular, had epitomized the development landscape as a household livelihood, highlighting the significance of its impacts on both the sender and

receiver areas (Lipton, 1996; Ballard, 2003; Heilmann, 2006). Migration studies have instead tended to focus on the causes (pull and push factors) neglecting the complex impacts that are necessary for informing management thereof (Lipton, 1996; Conway, 2004; Manning, 2005; Mtika, 2007). The difficulty in generalizing the socio-economic impact of labour migration had made it virtually impossible to formulate theoretical positions for policy-making.

It is commonly accepted that labour migration had increasingly become an important socio-economic factor in almost all countries of the world (Beinart, 1980; Heilmann, 2006). For instance, South Africa's Industrialisation occurred on the back of regional and domestic circulatory labour migration (Tsheola, 1998; Posel and Casale, 2003). This phenomenon served as a household livelihood strategy for the majority of poor people, specifically those in the rural areas. Circulatory labour migration had not disappeared with the new democratic dispensation in the Republic of South Africa; instead, it had continued to be a key feature of the new provincial development landscape (Vaughan, 1997; Tsheola, 1998; Posel and Casale, 2003). However, studies of the socio-economic impact of labour migration have remained inconclusive (Taylor, 1996), rendering its management for development of the sender areas difficult.



Circulatory labour migration in South Africa had historically occurred under stringent institutional conditions, where a range of measures made permanent urban settlement impossible for most migrants (Vaughan, 1997). In the post-apartheid era this phenomenon increased despite the repeal of all the legislative instruments that prevented permanent migration and settlement near the place of employment (Lipton, 1996; Tsheola, 1998). In 1993, approximately 1.3 million South African households reported migrant workers as household members, this practice was witnessed and had increased to more than 1.7 million households in 1999 (Posel and Casale, 2003).

Statistics South Africa (2001) had estimated that 5 277 432 people lived in Limpopo Province, constituting 11.7% of South Africa's total population in 2001. About 52.2% of the province's population was female and this proportion had increased to over 54% in 2007 (Statistics South Africa, 2001 and 2007); and, this feature of the population structure is more marked in the female working age groups. These trends appear to be indicative of the continued male domination of the circulatory labour migration, while females remain at home looking after children, the ill and aged.

In this way, the relationship between labour migration and development had continued to demonstrate a clear pattern of a circulatory rural-to-urban movement that is based on household decisions, rather than individuals. The continuation of this circulatory labour migration under such conditions within the democratic dispensation raises, therefore, concerns about the impact on the sender areas, with specific reference to the socio-economic conditions in the households. The study investigated the socio-economic impact of labour migration on household, with the case of Mogalakwena Local Municipality in the Limpopo Province.

### **1.3 Research questions**

Based on the background information provided in the preceding sections, the study had been set out to address the two research questions as follows:

- ✓ What is the nature of migration in the Mogalakwena Local Municipality?
- ✓ How does labour migration impact on the socio-economic conditions of the households in Mogalakwena Local Municipality?

#### **1.4 Aim and objectives**

The primary aim of the study was to investigate the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households, with the case of Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province.

The study had drawn five closely related objectives from the primary aim as follows:

- ✓ To study the nature of migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality
- ✓ To compare the socio-economic conditions in the households of labour migrants before and after labour migration took place in Mogalakwena Local Municipality
- ✓ To assess the nature of change on the socio-economic conditions in the households of labour migrants before and after engaging in labour migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality
- ✓ To study the difference in the socio-economic conditions between households with and without labour migrants
- ✓ To make recommendations, where necessary on the basis of the households survey results of this study

## 1. 5 Definition of concepts

This section defined the concepts that are heavily used in this study.

These terms includes: Migration, Labour migration and Household.

- ✓ *Migration* is defined as the permanent or semi-permanent change of a person's place of residence (Mayhew, 2004). Elements of time and space are integral to the concept, and the definition of migration requires the specification of both time scale and a set of boundaries within which and across which movement takes place. A basic distinction is drawn between circulation, involving repetitive reciprocal movements which begin and end at a person's home, and migration, involving change of location of a person's home (Mayhew, 2004). In the case of migration, a common distinction is made between internal migration (within a country) and external or international migration (to and from another country) (Witherick, Ross and Small, 2001). At a regional and local level, a distinction is frequently made between in-migration and out-migration. Migration is usually interpreted as a response to two sets of reciprocal forces: push factors operating in the place of departure and pull factors at work in the place of destination (Witherick et al., 2001).

Migration denotes any movement by human beings from one district to another, sometimes over long distances or in large groups (Manning, 2005). This movement of populations in modern times had continued under the form of both voluntary migration within one's region, country, or beyond, and involuntary migration (which includes the slave trade, trafficking in human beings and ethnic cleansing). People who migrate are called migrants, or, more specifically, emigrants, immigrants or settlers, depending on historical setting, circumstances and perspective (Manning, 2005).

- ✓ *Labour migration* refers to a group of people leaving their rural homes in order to obtain employment in either urban areas, industries, mines or commercial farms (Lipton, 1996). Labour migration refers to a group of people leaving their homes, more especially from rural to urban areas, searching for employment opportunities (de Haas, 2003). The quantity of labour is the amount of work done in terms of production or time, whilst the quality indicates the degree of skill and intelligence (Mayhew, 2004).

- ✓ The term *household* refers to a group of people who live together and therefore share living quarters and their principal meals. The commonest form is the family household or private household. An institutional household comprises a larger number of people living together in an institution such as a boarding school, composite household and hidden household (Mayhew, 2004). Household refers to a group of people who live under the same roof and normally eat together. There are different responsibilities that are being shared among the household members for instance firewood collection, farming and water collection (de Haas, 2003).

## **1.6 Research design and methodology**

The study used a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods of research. Quantitative method analysed the question of how much percentage is labour migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality and also to demonstrate the rate at which labour migration is growing in the particular municipality. Qualitative method provides factual information on how people feel about the socio-economic impact of labour migration in their respective households. The two research approaches have been beneficial to the study as they demonstrated both quality and quantity information and analysis. Also, the study

relied on the pre- and post- labour migration impact of the household socio-economic conditions to determine if and what form of change had taken place. This study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households have used the case study design which is discussed in the next subsection.

### **1.6.1 A case study design**

For this study, Mogalakwena Local Municipality was used as a case study to assess the nature of migration and to investigate the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households. Mogalakwena Local Municipality was chosen as the area of study, based on the fact it would be convenient for the researcher to conduct a fieldwork. The study area is situated in the western quadrant of the Limpopo Province, within the Waterberg District Municipality, and is bordered by Aganang to the east, Mookgophong to the south, Lephalale to the west and Blouberg to the north. The Mogalakwena Local Municipality covers approximately 6 000 square kilometers (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006). Its municipal offices are situated in Mokopane (former Greater Potgietersrus), also called "The White Elephant," because of its former status as a white oppressive institute. The population density of Mogalakwena Local Municipality is estimated to be 316,169 and there are 48 villages in the municipality (Department

of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006). Sampling procedure at the scale of villages is explained later in an appropriate subsection.

### **1.6.2 Unit of Analysis**

Migration studies have demonstrated that the decision to be engaged in labour migration is not based on individuals, but rather it involves all household members. Household is the basic unit of analysis in many microeconomic and government models (Mayhew, 2004). Government and policy discussions often treat the terms household and family as synonymous, especially in western societies where the nuclear family had become the most common family structure (Mazzucato, Kabki and Smith, 2006).

In reality, there is not always a one-to-one relationship between households and families (Mayhew, 2004). Migrants were only considered as part of their households if they did not establish their own households (usually through marriage or family reunification) at the destination areas (de Haas, 2003). For this study a household served as the unit of analysis, as one member of the household was interviewed using the structured survey questionnaire. Three villages were selected from Mogalakwena Local Municipality and due to resource constraints a total of 120 households from these villages



have been sampled for the survey. Sampling procedures at the scale of household is explained in an appropriate subsection.

### **1.6.3 Kinds of data**

Data for the study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households was collected from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data about the nature of migration and the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households was collected in the form of a household survey questionnaire, whereas the secondary data in the form of literature was collected from books, archives and journals. The factual and observational information collected during the household survey covered educational status, brain drain/gain, safety and security, health and family cohesion social indicators.

Economic indicators covered by the study included the household income (remittances), employment status, skills accumulated and other income generating activities such as small business opportunities related to labour migration benefits. These socio-economic indicators have been analysed for the pre- and post- labour migration periods in the households, conclusion was then drawn in terms of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on the households. Also, secondary data sources were used to establish the general

municipality and province's scale trends in terms of labour migration and its socio-economic impact on households.

#### **1.6.4 Target population**

The target population for the study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households were the people of Mogalakwena Local Municipality. The surveys were conducted among the households of Mogalakwena Local Municipality, to collect the socio-economic primary data. However, some of the useful data was collected from the government officials, preferably the municipal official. Also, local branches of institutions that have interests in the socio-economic conditions of households were surveyed for their views on the socio-economic impact of labour migration.

#### **1.6.5 Sampling design**

Given the limitations in resources and time, the study used a simple random sampling design to select only three villages from the 48 in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. The three villages have been selected using a sampling frame of the 48 villages and the randomized device (random number table). The villages selected through this device are Taueatswala, Monte Christo and Rebone. In Taueatswala village the total number of households is estimated to be 360, whereas in Monte

Christo there is an estimate of 130 households and in Rebone an estimation of 650 households. In each of the three selected villages, systematic sampling method was used to select the surveyed households. As a result a total of 35 households were sampled and surveyed in Taueatswala, 20 in Monte Christo and 65 in Rebone. An overall total of 120 households were sampled and surveyed in Mogalakwena Local Municipality; from Taueatswala, Monte Christo and Rebone villages. The sampled households were surveyed to determine various types of migration and to establish the dominant type of migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality.

#### **1.6.6 Data collection and analysis procedures**

In addition to the secondary data in the form of literature and municipal documentary records, primary data was collected through household survey questionnaire and observation during field visits. After data collection from both households with and without migrants, then two sample subsets were constituted from each of the three villages to determine the migration patterns, commonalities or differences between these sets of households. The two subsets were also used to determine if there is any impact of labour migration on the socio-economic conditions of households, wherein the group of household without labour migration served as a control group.

Furthermore, the subsets of the households with labour migrants were further analysed to establish the nature of change, if any, on the socio-economic conditions before and after their household members engaged in labour migration. This form of analysis helped to improve the reliability and validity of the findings.

Household survey data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to derive frequencies, percentages, mean, graphs and charts from the various sample subsets constructed. The collected data did not constitute a verdict or conclusion (Taylor, 1996), rather it was analysed and evaluated. The purpose of analysing the data was to reveal the underlying patterns of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on the households of Mogalakwena Local Municipality. The SPSS had assisted in producing the statistics that could point to the underlying patterns and relationships between household socio-economic conditions and labour migration. The summary statistics drawn through the SPSS included frequencies, percentages mean, graphs and charts on household type of dwelling occupied, number of members staying fulltime at homestead and those staying elsewhere, number of labour migrants, motivations encouraging the practice of migration in the households, as well as the socio-economic impact of labour migration.

The frequencies, percentages, mean, graphs and charts have been drawn for the household survival/well-being contribution by labour migrants, conditions before and after labour migration took place and how labour migration impact on the socio-economic conditions. Also frequencies and percentages were drawn for the positive or negative change of social indicators covering; education, family unity, safety and security and health after labour migration took place in the households.

The economic indicators presented through SPSS using frequencies, percentages mean, graphs and charts on the positive or negative change covered; income (remittances), employment status, skills acquired and other income generating activities after labour migration took place. Also, qualitative assessment of the opinions of household members about how they experienced life before and after some household members engaged in labour migration was analysed. Conceptual categories have been created in order to allow for analysis of these qualities quantitatively; through frequencies, percentages, mean, graphs and charts.

## **1.7 Significance of the study**

The study could possibly contribute ideas to the debate on the nature of migration and the socio-economic impact of labour migration on the households, particularly for the poor rural areas. It could show the dominant form of migration and the socio-economic impact of labour migration on the lives of the people who are left behind in the households in the rural villages. Furthermore, the study could also raise questions for the future researchers.

At a practice scale the study could be beneficial to the South African municipalities in terms of policy making based on the reference made by survey results and the analysis. The study had made recommendations and strategies on how to address the negative socio-economic impact of labour migration on households in the rural areas. In the case of positive impact of labour migration on households, the study advised people living in the rural areas about the importance of migration as a livelihood strategy. However in case of negative impact of labour migration on households, the study would advise people living in rural areas about the consequences of emigrating from their places of origin. So the study has formulated practicable alternative and knowledge on how to deal with the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households, particularly in the

rural areas.

### **1.8 Ethical considerations**

The nature of the study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households was designed or planned in the manner that no one would be emotionally, psychologically and physically harmed. Ethical issues were considered, since there are different people living in Mogalakwena Local Municipality which practice and hold different beliefs. But the study was neither intended nor designed to disturb or interfere with the beliefs or the daily practices of the people of Mogalakwena Local Municipality.

The study was conducted with due respect of the cultural and religious beliefs of the people of Mogalakwena Local Municipality. The Royal protocols were respected and relevant procedures were followed in order to get permission before conducting any fieldwork and surveys in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. Also, the respondents were not forced to participate, and surveys were conducted in ways that guaranteed anonymity of the respondents. The results of the study would be presented to the municipality and those community based institutions that could help to ensure that the conditions in the villages are not misrepresented or unfairly manipulated to serve any hidden competing

interests.

### **1.9 Structure of the dissertation**

The dissertation is presented into five chapters as follows:

- ✓ Chapter one: The study background and problem statement defines the research questions, aim and objectives of the dissertation. This chapter covered the motivation, significance, research design and methodology of the study, the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households. The purpose of this chapter was to clarify the primary purpose of the study and to explain the plan, structure and strategies through which the study was conducted.
  
- ✓ Chapter two: Different perspectives about the nature of migration and the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households were discussed in this chapter. Chapter two involved a conceptual discussion of the nature of migration and the relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households. In this chapter, the discussion also revolved around and developed better system of ideas within which the rest of the dissertation will unfold.



- ✓ Chapter three: Background information and knowledge about Limpopo Province and Mogalakwena Local Municipality is discussed. This chapter provides relevant background information and knowledge about the study area to establish backward and forward linkages with literature review and survey results. Given the fact that labour migration in the Republic of South Africa is grounded in a particular history, this chapter had also made reference to the key determinants of labour migration and the socio-economic conditions of households in Mogalakwena Local Municipality.
  
- ✓ Chapter four: Analysis of survey data collected from Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province was analysed. Chapter four analysed survey data from Mogalakwena Local Municipality in the context of discussions in literature review and general introduction and background of the study.
  
- ✓ Chapter five: Conclusions and recommendations based on the material of the dissertation. Chapter five drew conclusions and made recommendations based on the analyses of literature and empirical data presented in the dissertation. The hope is that the chapter would draw conclusions and present lessons that could

be applicable and generalized to the rest of the municipal villages and Republic of South Africa.

### **1.10 Conclusion**

Migration studies have demonstrated that there is the socio-economic impact of labour migration on the households in the rural areas and that impact can either be positive or negative. So Mogalakwena Local Municipality is an intended case to investigate the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households in Limpopo Province. It had also been found that the Republic of South Africa have the characteristics of dualistic economic country (Vaughan, 1997; Tsheola, 1998; Posel, 2002).

All these characteristics that are found in South Africa are the other reason for the highly mobility of the population in the country, more particularly in the rural areas. This study investigated the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households, with special reference to Mogalakwena Local Municipality in the Limpopo Province. This chapter had outlined the general focus of the study and the next chapter discusses the general perspectives about the nature of migration and socio-economic impact of labour migration on households.

## **CHAPTER 2: PERSPECTIVES ON MIGRATION AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter has clarified the nature of migration together with the socio-economic impact of labour migration in the households from a theoretical perspective. The chapter also analysed the relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households. Migration and socio-economic conditions are interrelated in a complex manner in the sense that one had an influence on the other (Parnwell, 1993; Tsheola, 1998; Posel, 2002; Stockdale, 2002).

The nature of migration had been fully discussed below in an appropriate subsection. The discussion on the nature of migration revolves around the origin of migration, typologies of migration and how these types of migration are being established and formulated. The study only focused on the nature of migration and the socio-economic impact of labour migration on household, a case-study of Mogalakwena Local Municipality in the Limpopo Province. The chapter also developed the ideas within which the rest of the dissertation had unfolded.

Labour migration had an impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households, the impact can either be positive or negative. The impact of labour migration on households is being measured by studying the socio-economic conditions, looking at the social and economic indicators in the households. The social indicators that were measured and analysed in the households included educational status, health, safety and family unity of household members. While the economic indicators that were covered included employment status, income (remittance), skills attained and other income generating activities within the households. The study investigated and analysed how the socio-economic conditions in the household have changed since some members of the household were engaged in labour migration.

## **2.2 The nature of migration**

Migration is a very complex phenomenon with wide range of typologies and it is fully discussed below. This complexity results largely from the difficulty of constructing clear typologies of migration, through which various movements can be distilled for analysis of their socio-economic impacts (Taylor, 1996; Vaughan, 1997; McKinley, 2003). Also part of the complexity arises from the fact that migration is a matter studied by a number of different disciplines, which include demography,

economics, sociology and geography (Jackson, 1986). Migration can be defined as the movement, temporarily or permanently from one physical location to another of a population. Temporary migration implies that the place of permanent residence is maintained while the migrant is away for a period of work in another country or another part of the country. Such migration may occur on a regular or seasonal basis as with transhumance or harvest migration. Permanent migration implies a clear change of residence based on a decision to move. Clearly there may be some indeterminacy between these two categories and in many instances temporary migrants may end up as permanent (Jackson, 1986).

Migration had occurred throughout the human history, beginning with the movements of the first human groups from their origins in East Africa to their current location in the world (Parnwell, 1993; Manning, 2005; Heilmann, 2006). Migration studies have been built on the pioneering study of Ravenstein in the 1880s who derived laws of migration (Carr, 1997). Ravenstein established eleven laws of migration and the two that are relevant to this study are as follows: (1) most migrants move only a short distance; (2) there is a process of absorption, whereby people immediately surrounding a rapidly growing town move into it and the gaps they leave are filled by

migrants from more distant areas and so on until the attractive force is spent (Carr, 1997).

This phenomenon is usually measured over a specific period of time in order to assess its impacts. Often this may be governed by other population interests such as the dates of the decennial census. The extent of change in a population between two periods is a product of a combination of three factors, birth rate, death rate and migration. The migration so measured is always the net migration, since it constitutes the net impacts of migration only and does not record the number of moves that have taken place but have been cancelled out by counter-moves, nor temporary or seasonal moves that have taken place within the period in question (Jackson, 1986). Some of the laws of migration have been discussed below.

### **2.2.1 Theories of migration**

The Laws of Migration by Zelinsky have contributed to the theory of migration as they demonstrate that migrants are concerned about the developmental change of their lives (Zelinsky, 1971). Advanced societies will have almost exclusively urban migration although new technology will reduce the need for migration and there will be less need for some types of circulation such as long-distance journeys-to-

work. Mobility between and within countries may be affected by state legislation (Zelinsky, 1971). Zelinsky's Laws of Migration is relevant to the study, because these Laws demonstrates that migration is having a negative impact on the advanced societies, which are the people in the more advanced areas. Zelinsky's Laws of Migration also demonstrated that there are different reasons why people are emigrating, but the migrants are mostly concerned with their developmental change.

Migrants expect to receive some added advantage in moving from one place to another (Carr, 1997). Also, potential movements from an origin (such as a rural area) to a final destination (such as a city) are likely to be influenced by difficulties at either source or destination, or en route. Such difficulties might include family pressures, mis-information, national policy, travel costs, lack of capital, illiteracy, military service and language (Carr, 1997). Literature on the impacts of migration by Lee is relevant to the study, because it demonstrates that there is socio-economic impact of labour migration on households. Both the generating and the destination regions are affected by labour migration patterns.

Manning (2005) stated that people who migrate are called migrants, or, more specifically; emigrants, immigrants or settlers, depending on historical setting circumstance and perspective. A migrant is a person who moves to another city or town within a nation, a refugee who crosses an international border to escape religious or political persecution, a jobseeker who moves to another country for better economic opportunities, a slave who is forcibly moved, or a person displaced by war or natural disaster (Cromatie, 2000). Cromatie (2000) states that human movement had taken place at all times and in the greatest variety of circumstances as it had been tribal, national, class and individual.

Furthermore, it is being stated that migration occurs at a variety of scales, which are; intercontinental (between continents), intracontinental (between countries on a given continent), and interregional (within countries). One of the most significant migration patterns had been rural to urban migration—the movement of people from the countryside to cities in search of better opportunities (Beinart, 1980). Garasky (2002) states that neoclassical economic theory purports that people move as a consequence of weighing the economic alternatives between the sender and the receiver areas.



### **2.2.2 Typologies of migration**

Migration is a very complex process with different typologies, these types of migration are constructed using three criteria, which are the time dimension, spatial dimension and the motive criterion (Barham and Boucher, 1998). On a time scale, migration may be temporary or permanent. Temporary movement may take the form of seasonal migration, usually of agricultural workers, to meet a demand during labour-intensive seasons or periodic migration, of workers away from their permanent homes for several years during which they sent home remittances (Witherick et al., 2001).

Spatial dimension criterion migration is when people migrate across the borders. From geographical point of view, spatial scale is important as migration may be intra-urban, rural to urban, urban to urban, interregional and international (Parnwell, 1993; Carr, 1997). Migration that is established using the motive criterion is when people are weighing the pull and push factors between two places, which are the sender and receiver areas. Furthermore, it is being stated that people who migrate from the rural areas would be searching for employment opportunities, educational aspects and better environment than in the rural areas (Laorie, 2001).

Immigration is the term used to describe the process of entry into a country or within it to a different administrative district. The extent to which this process is formalised varies. In some countries, such as Norway and Sweden, every change of residence must be reported to the police and other authorities and forms part of the continuous registration process. Whereas in other countries such as Britain or the United States there are no formal registration mechanisms for internal migrants apart from electoral registers, but changes may be indicated by factors associated with residential change such as changes in contracts for domestic services such as telephone and electricity. International immigration tends to be formalised with border controls at entry and distinctions between categories of entrants made in terms of the willingness of the country in question to give permanent, temporary or visitor status to different types of migrant (Jackson, 1986).

Emigration covers movement away from a residential location either within the same country or to another country. For the reasons given under immigration above, there are often no official records of this process, as such, within the country. Certain categories of emigrant remain in contact with their country or origin through their embassy in the country of residence. These however tend to be a minority and

figures held by embassies tend to under-represent the emigrant population to a substantial degree (Jackson, 1986).

Voluntary migration covers any movement in which the decision to migrate is entered into as a free alternative available to the individual. Clearly that decision may be subject to many influences and factors in the individual's market situation, but it is not formally constrained. On the other hand, forced migration covers any movement of necessity for the protection of life and liberty of individuals. They may be political refugees such as the Vietnamese, boat people or Hungarians after the 1956 up-rising. In all cases there are people who are imperiled by remaining where they are, in their own judgment or that of others. The extent to which their exile is regarded as legitimate by potential receiving countries varies and conditions their admission as immigrants and may vary between those who are specifically considered to be political or religious exiles and those who are avoiding penalties in their home country (Jackson, 1986).

There is internal migration which involves the movement within the country or prescribed area; normally it does not involve formal controls at border points but does imply movement across administrative boundaries. International migration involves individuals

or families moving across national boundaries to establish themselves in a different country. Migration always implies change of residence and such migrations normally involve changing place of employment but this does not follow in the case of some of those living near boundaries that may be able to commute daily to their place of work in the original country of residence (Jackson, 1986). Jackson (1986) continues saying that internal migration may be influenced by decisions nationally or locally regarding housing or location of industrial or tertiary sector development. This type of migration includes the movements which are as follows: rural to urban, rural to rural, urban to urban as well as the urban to rural movements. Links between rural and urban areas developed by migration are significant in promoting remittances, encouraging community level initiatives for the construction of public facilities and infrastructure and linking rural producers to urban markets (Jackson, 1986).

Human movements may be classified on the basis of the reasons behind the movement, for example voluntary or forced, sponsored or free, for conquest or colonisation, whether impelled by idealistic or economic factors (Parnwell, 1993; Witherick et al., 2001). Thus in innovative migration, people migrate as a means of achieving something new, whereas in conservative migration they move in

response to a change in conditions in order to retain what they had. Betterment migration is similar to innovative migration in that a person moves to improve his/her position, but suggest that push factors at the place of origin are less important than the pull factors of the destination place. Betterment migration contrasts with subsistence migration, in which a person moves away from poor economic conditions, that means push factors are more important than pull factors (Parnwell, 1993; Witherick et al., 2001). The study focused on the type of migration classified using the motive criterion, which is labour or economic migration.

Labour migration is the movement that takes place wherein the migrants leave their homes voluntarily, because of economic reasons or to secure or enhance a livelihood. Hamilton (1994) states that as employment opportunities in rural communities tend to be restricted, searching for better jobs is the major cause of labour migration from the households in the rural areas. Due to less employment opportunities in the rural areas, these tend to become a push factor for many people in rural communities. Labour migration in the Republic of South Africa is by no means a new phenomenon, because during the latter half of the nineteenth century the discovery of diamonds and gold, coupled with the accompanying industrialisation,

lured thousands of labour migrants from the Southern Africa region to the mining and industries centres of South Africa. However the discovery of diamonds and gold was not the beginning of labour migration in the region (Wentzel, 1993).

By the time of the discovery and mining of diamonds in the Kimberley area in the late 1860s, a system of labour migration had already been established in the Republic of South Africa. Bapedi men, from Sekhukhuneland (which covers parts of Limpopo and Mpumalanga Provinces) had worked on farms and public works in the Cape Colony as early as the 1840s, and this had increased in the subsequent three decades. In the same period many Basotho were working on farms in the Orange Free State. Since the 1850s the Tsonga (also known as the Shangaan) had been travelling from Delagoa Bay area to Natal to work for wages. The opening of the Kimberley diamond fields in 1870 created a huge demand for unskilled labour, as a result large numbers of workers streamed to the diamond mines. By 1874 there were approximately 10 000 African mineworkers on these mines (Van der Horst, 1971).

The change in mining methods from opencast to underground extraction in the early 1880s created a need for a stable, skilled labour

force. To achieve that, the Kimberley mine owners provided housing for mineworkers in closed compounds (Turrell, 1987). Although migrant workers came from all over Southern Africa, the Bapedi, Tsonga and Basotho were by far the majority on the diamond fields. Apparently the reason for this dominance was that all three groups had already been involved in labour migration prior to 1870, as indicated above (Turrell, 1987).

In 1886 gold was discovered on the Witwatersrand. This led to the establishment of the labour migration system on a much larger scale than in Kimberley (Van der Horst, 1971). According to Katzennellenbogen (1982), men migrated for long distances because they needed to earn money, and on the mines they could secure the highest wages. Cash was needed because of the changes in the economic structures of communities. Furthermore, colonial taxation practices and forced labour laws contributed to the movement of people around the country.

It was also important to earn cash to pay lobola. African men were also frequently encouraged to migrate by their chiefs who, in many instances co-operated with recruiting agents who paid them fee for each recruit (Wentzel, 1993). However, some destinations

predominate, with large populations from all corners of the country to Gauteng, Durban and Cape Town in search of better life chances. Internal migration in Gauteng is witnessed to be so high that its population is considered to be one that is characteristically on the move. The study investigated how labour migration impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households.

### **2.3 The socio-economic impact of labour migration**

The analysis of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on the household is inconclusive. Various theories make different, sometimes opposed, propositions about the impact of labour migration on the sender area and the migrants' households. These theories include the adverse development impact of labour migration like brain drain and positive development impact of labour migration like the potential for poverty reduction, skills accumulation, implementation of household livelihood strategies, and the accumulation of human and financial capital on the household level (McKinley, 2003; Heilmann, 2006).

Several scholars have shown that not only do migrant households tend to have a higher propensity to invest than do non-migrant households, but also that consumption and the often trivialized non-productive investments in housing, small businesses and education can have



positive income multiplier impact, through which the benefits of remittances might also indirectly accrue to non-migrant households (Taylor, 1996). Furthermore, the transnational practices of labour migrants provide possibilities for achieving sustainable development by skill and knowledge transfer (Conway, 2004).

The various connections between migration and development have recently been widely discussed as migration–development nexus (Nyberg-Sørensen, 2002). Development had an influence on migration, because people will always move to more developed areas, in order to be more economically stable. It is a known fact that people with the most social and economic resources will be the most likely to emigrate in order to improve their current situation (Featherman and Hauser 1978; Dahlstrom, 1996). It is also being argued that those people who stay behind in declining rural areas often suffer economic problems and social isolation as peers leave in huge numbers to pursue various social and economic opportunities (Packard, 1989; Laorie, 2001).

The most famous migration theory within the neo-classical economic tradition is probably the classical Harris-Todaro model. It is a migration decision making model, with Todaro postulating that an

individual makes a rational choice to increase his/her welfare or utility by moving to another place where he/she expects to earn a higher income. Todaro defines expected income as the average income in the destination area multiplied by the probability of finding employment (Todaro, 1976). According to neo-classical models, individuals search for places of higher potential advantage and if known place offers such advantage compared to the present locality, and then the individual takes a decision to migrate (Skeldon, 1990).

According to different theoretical perspective, migration had impacted positively upon all stakeholders, evidenced by the fact that sending areas and the migrants themselves are likely to benefit if they get job opportunities, develop their skills, earn some money and remit part of it to their places of origin while destination areas benefit from the skills and labour they get from migrants. On one hand, migration removes extra labour from one society while providing it to another with insufficiency (Skeldon, 1990). On the other hand, sending areas benefit from remittances, which sometimes help in supplementing incomes, and in so doing ensure some kind of resource redistribution. As such, migration had the potential to contribute towards the development of receiving areas and of assuaging economic suffering at the places of origin (Jones, 1992). An increasingly number of more

recent migration studies suggest that the developmental impact of labour migration can be far more positive than was commonly assumed (Conway, 2004). There are both positive and negative impacts of labour migration on the socio-economic conditions in the households. The positive socio-economic impact of labour migration on households is discussed in an appropriate subsection below.

### **2.3.1 The positive socio-economic impact of labour migration**

A new theory of labour migration, which assumes the incompleteness of markets and the family as the decision unit of migration in developing countries, views migration as a familial strategy to spread the risks between the urban and rural sectors and focuses on the functions of remittances in smoothing family consumption and financing household investments (Stark, 1990; Taylor et al., 1996). Labour migration is perceived as a household response to income risks, since remittances serve as income insurance for the households in the country of origin (Lucas and Stark, 1985). The migrant's membership in the household of origin would be sustained by remittances sent back home (Conway, 2004). The positive impacts varies based on the views of the migrants, but issues like remittances, improved health, access to education and local economic development is discussed below.

One of the intentions of labour migrants is not only to earn money for themselves but also to send some remittances back home to support and develop their families (Heilmann, 2006). Remittances sent back to homestead are often said to play a vital role in alleviating poverty and improving livelihoods (Heilmann, 2006). These remittances seem to be a safety net for relatively poor areas, as they are freer from political barriers and controls than either product or other capital flows (Jones, 1998).

Heilmann (2006) states that remittances are an incentive to migrate in the first place and given their sheer scale can be seen as a possible source of sustainable development. The most striking feature of remittances is their directness; remittances are personalised financial transfers, adding up to the income of the receiving households, altering the income distribution (Barham and Boucher, 1998) and having substantial but not always positive socio-economic consequences (Ballard, 2003). Barker (1996) stated that in the Republic of South Africa it is being estimated that labour migration in gold mines and industries remit 57% of their wages home in cash or kind. He further outlined that those remittances constituted 88, 4% of the rural household total incomes per annum. In general, it is not the

poorest that migrate as there are costs involved (Featherman and Hauser 1978; Dahlstrom, 1996). Migration is not necessarily informed by the need to maximise expected income, but also by the needs to minimize risks and to loosen constraints threatening individuals, families and communities. Migrants are not mere labour units and entrepreneurs and when migration is undertaken, be it individuals or otherwise, it is usually practiced as a household strategy and not as isolated individual behaviour (Crush, 2001).

The theory of the migration hump suggests that a certain level of development stimulates migration because there are more efficient investment opportunities available for the remittances. Migration hump further, stipulates that reliable banking structures and stable economic conditions reduce the risks and uncertainties of migration and enhance its effectiveness. Thus, development is not necessarily reducing migration (Nyberg-Sørensen, 2002; McKinley, 2003). The negative socio-economic impact of labour migration on households is discussed in the next subsection.

### **2.3.2 The negative socio-economic impact of labour migration**

Labour migration can also have negative impacts socio-economic conditions in the households. These negative socio-economic impacts

on households can in turn affect the whole area, because most skilled labourers choose to migrate, thus yielding to an overall loss for the societies when they do not return home (brain drain) (Gammeltoft, 2002). Since the end of apartheid, young South Africans can look beyond the country's borders to find employment. Yet while greater opportunities and a wider range of choice may be good news for the country as a whole in the form of a momentous loss of skills. Skilled emigration had the potential to rob the country of considerable investment in training and education, and also deprive the economy of needed skills and upper end consumers (Brown, Kaplan and Meyer, 2002).

The brain drain is likely to be particularly damaging to the economy when students leave relatively soon after graduating and the country fails to receive any appreciable return on direct investments in training and education. Statistics South Africa (2001) estimated that an emigration from 1989 to 1997 is approximately 82 000, including 11 000 professionals. Yet a study of South Africans living in just five countries abroad put the total number at 232 000, of whom 42 000 were professionals (Brown et al., 2002). Looking ahead, a 1998 nationally representative survey of skilled adults estimated that approximately 2%, (30 000 adults) had a very high probability of

leaving within the next five years and another 160 000 had a high probability (Mattes and Richmond, 2002).

Ndulu (2004) stated that the Republic of South Africa had lost 25% of its graduates to the United States alone. Moreover, South Africans account for 9.7% of all international medical graduates practicing in Canada. Out of all the medical graduates produced by the University of Witwatersrand in the last 35 years, more than 45% (or 2,000 physicians), have left the country. South Africa's Bureau of Statistics estimates that between 1 million and 1.6 million people in skilled, professional, and managerial occupations have emigrated since 1994 and that, for every emigrant, 10 unskilled people lose their jobs (Ndulu, 2004).

Skilled South Africans who emigrated in 1997 alone cost the government about 68 billion Rands of investment in human capital (Brown et al., 2002). Labour migration can have negative impact on the service delivery of the sender area, as the emigration of skilled professionals and others who deliver services affects investment in education, particularly at tertiary level, staffing levels and training needs. It also affects the demand for services, there is great demand

for services and the kinds of services that might be required for effective delivery of services (Ammassari et al., 2006).

Jacobsen (2000) argued that labour migration has a negative impact on married women's income mainly because of a drop in hours worked. Lichter (1990) also found, contrary to his expectation, that labour migration had a larger negative impact on well-educated women. Lichter (1990) looked at single as well as married women, using a weighted average of wage and other job characteristics, they formed a single measure of job quality and found that married women who move during the sample period end up with jobs that are on average thirty percent worse by their measure than those held by women who do not move. Meanwhile, single women who move experience deterioration in job quality of around thirteen percent.

Jacobsen (2000) compared the impact of migration on both men and women by marital status, he also found that migration has the negative impact on women and that this negative impact was larger for the married women. Finally, Lichter (1990) considered married couples, finding that the absolute wage gap between husband and wife increased following a move (although the percentage gap narrowed) and found evidence consistent with the notion that couples choose



destinations that are relatively more conducive to the husband's human capital investments over time. There can be negative impact on the macroeconomic level caused by labour migration, for example remittances causing inflation (Nyberg-Sørensen, 2002).

Heilmann (2006) argues that labour migration causes environmental problems by concentrating more people in urban areas in developed countries and exporting a more environment-harming lifestyle through remittances and returning migrants. At the first glance, the migration-development nexus seems to offer few prospects for improving the environment. However, forcing people to stay where they do not want to stay may cause even more environmental problems (e.g. uncontrolled resource depletion) (Heilmann, 2006). Labour migrants constitute a significant proportion of the workforce in the commercial agricultural sector. Migration may affect the small holder of agricultural production at a household level, as labour migration plays an important role in the distribution of agricultural goods in the region and the livelihoods of producers. Since migration can have impact of direct and indirect barriers to trade, impact of changing employment opportunities and agricultural production at a household level, therefore this can lead to poverty (Ammassari et al., 2006).

It had also been found that labour migration is a key feature of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Southern Africa. Labour migration had played a role in the spread of HIV/AIDS, and now the epidemic had a hold on the region (Ammassari et al., 2006). The Republic of South Africa is one of the countries most affected by HIV with 5-6 million HIV infected individuals. Nearly 20% of the 15-49 year old population is infected and in parts of the country up to 40% of women of child-bearing age are infected. About 2,300 new infections occur each day or over 850,000 annually. Approximately 40% of adult deaths and 29.8% of all deaths in 2000 were due to AIDS (Wikipedia, 2008). This can be attributed to the high mobility rate of people leaving their living areas in searching for better opportunities elsewhere.

Republic of South Africa had been found to be the major foreign migrant receiving country in the African continent. The overall number of visitors to South Africa from other countries in the region rose significantly with the collapse of apartheid, from 500 000 in 1990 to 5 million per annum in 2001 (Crush, 2001). Former President Mbeki in 2004 claimed that there were 7 million illegal immigrants and 3 million Zimbabweans in South Africa, figures without any basis in fact (Ammassari et al., 2006).

One study claims that there are 500 000 Mozambican migrant workers, mostly in South Africa (De Vletter, 1998). Johannesburg accounts for nearly 25 per cent of migrant destinations, followed by Pretoria (10 per cent), Durban (6 per cent) and Cape Town (4 per cent). All these are leading to the negative impact on the migrants receiving areas, more specifically high population rate, pressure on service delivery, resource allocation, skills development and training and employment creation. In 2007 there were xenophobic attacks as South Africans developed hatred towards foreign migrants, because they felt there was lack of job opportunities resulting from most jobs being occupied by foreigners.

## **2.4 Conclusion**

Migration studies have established different perspectives on the nature of migration and the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households. Theories of migration have demonstrated that, this phenomenon is a challenging issue faced by the whole world. More specifically labour migration is found to be having either negative or positive socio-economic impact on the household. Furthermore both the generating and the destination regions are found to be affected by labour migration, with regard to the socio-economic conditions in the households. Migration studies also demonstrated that this

phenomenon is a livelihood strategy which many people around the world practice.

Highly skilled people are found to be emigrating from the rural areas or less developed areas, searching for better opportunities elsewhere. High mobility of skilled people from the rural areas can result into brain drain and underdevelopment in the respective places of origin of the migrants. This situation had been witnessed by the fact that sending or generating areas and the migrants benefit because migrants get jobs, develop their skills, earn some money and remit part of it to their places of origin, whilst destination or receiving areas benefit from the skills and intensive labour they receive from the migrants. Furthermore it had been found that labour migration played a role in the spread of HIV/AIDS epidemic around the world.

It had been found that internal migration is particularly strong in the Republic of South Africa. The South Africans are highly mobile, and movement as economic or labour migrants from rural to urban, from urban to rural and both from urban to urban areas, many or perhaps most of these migrants are from rural areas. Migration can not be stopped, however there are precautionary measures that need to be

undertaken in order to reduce internal movement in the Republic of South Africa, more specifically in Limpopo Province.

Poverty alleviation and development in the rural areas is the key solutions for reducing the high mobility rate of human beings from these areas. There must be employment opportunities in the rural areas and the people must also be empowered with skills in order to start their businesses in the rural areas. Most of the people are emigrating after completing their matriculation from the secondary schools in order to pursue their dreams in the World. Institutions of higher learning need to be easily and affordably accessible by all people in the rural areas, more particularly in Limpopo Province. Learnership and Internship programmes for qualified people without working experience can be the other solution to the highly internal migration in the province. The next chapter provides background information of Mogalakwena Local Municipality and Limpopo Province with backward and forward linkages to literature (chapter 2) and survey data analysis (chapter 4), respectively.

## **CHAPTER 3: BACKGROUND OF MOGALAKWENA MUNICIPALITY IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE**

### **3. 1. Introduction**

This chapter provides background description of South Africa, Mogalakwena Local Municipality in the Waterberg District Municipality and Limpopo Province. The Republic of South Africa is a country located at the southern tip of Africa. South Africa's coast stretches 2,798 kilometres (1,739 mi) and borders both the Atlantic and Indian oceans (World Fact Book, 2008). To the north of South Africa lie Namibia, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Swaziland, while the Kingdom of Lesotho is an independent enclave surrounded by South African territory (Statistics South Africa, 2007). South Africa is known for its diversity, and eleven official languages are recognised in its constitution (South Africa. Info, 2008). English is the most commonly spoken language in official and commercial public life; however it is only the fifth most spoken home language (South Africa. Info, 2008).

South Africa is ethnically diverse, with the largest Caucasian, Indian, and racially mixed communities in Africa. Although 79.6% of South Africa's population is Black (Statistics South Africa, 2007), this category is neither culturally nor linguistically homogenous, as these populations speak number of different Bantu languages, of which nine

have official status (South Africa. Info, 2008). By midyear 2007, South Africa's population was estimated at 47.9 million (Statistics South Africa, 2007). After the end of the apartheid era in 1994, the South African government abolished the four former provinces of South Africa (Cape Province, Natal, Orange Free State, and Transvaal) and replaced them with nine fully integrated provinces as shown in Table 3.1.

Known as the Great North, Limpopo Province the place where the study was undertaken, is the home to ancient lands and pre-historic secrets. Named after the great Limpopo River that flows along its northern border, this province is rich in wildlife, spectacular scenery and a wealth of historical and cultural treasures. Limpopo, under whom Mapungubwe falls, is the northern part of South Africa's nine provinces covering 124 000sq km – about 12% of South Africa's surface area and in 2006 its population was estimated at 5,809,656 (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006). The newly established provinces of the Republic of South Africa and former homelands are as presented in Table 3.1

**Table 3.1: Former homelands and the newly established provinces**

<b>Provinces (New)</b>	<b>Former homelands</b>	<b>Capital Cities</b>	<b>Area (km<sup>2</sup>)</b>	<b>Area (sq mi)</b>	<b>Population (2001)</b>
Eastern Cape	Cape Province, Transkei and Ciskei	Bhisho	169,580	65,475	6,436,761
Free State	Orange Free State, QwaQwa	Bloemfontein	129,480	49,992	2,706,776
Gauteng	Transvaal	Johannesburg	17,010	6,568	8,837,172
KwaZulu-Natal	Natal, KwaZulu	Pietermaritzburg	92,100	35,560	9,426,018
Limpopo	Transvaal, Venda, Lebowa, Gazankulu	Polokwane	123,900	47,838	5,273,637
Mpumalanga	Transvaal, KwaNdebele, KaNgwane, Bophuthatswana, Lebowa	Nelspruit	79,490	30,691	3,122,994
Northern Cape	Cape Province	Kimberley	361,830	139,703	822,726
North West	Transvaal, Cape Province, Bophuthatswana	Mafikeng	116,320	44,911	3,669,349
Western Cape	Cape Province	Cape Town	129,370	49,950	4,524,335
<b>Total</b>			<b>1,219,080</b>	<b>470,688</b>	<b>44,819,768</b>

(Source: Statistics South Africa, 2001)

Limpopo Province is divided into five district municipalities, subdivided into 24 local municipalities. The five district municipalities are as follows: Capricorn, Sekhukhune, Waterberg, Mopani and Vhembe. Mogalakwena is one of the six local municipalities in the Waterberg District Municipality (previously known as Bushveld District), which was established after the local elections in December 2000 (Marlene, 2001). Also, this chapter provides the history of domestic labour migration and Bantustans in South Africa. Circulatory labour migration



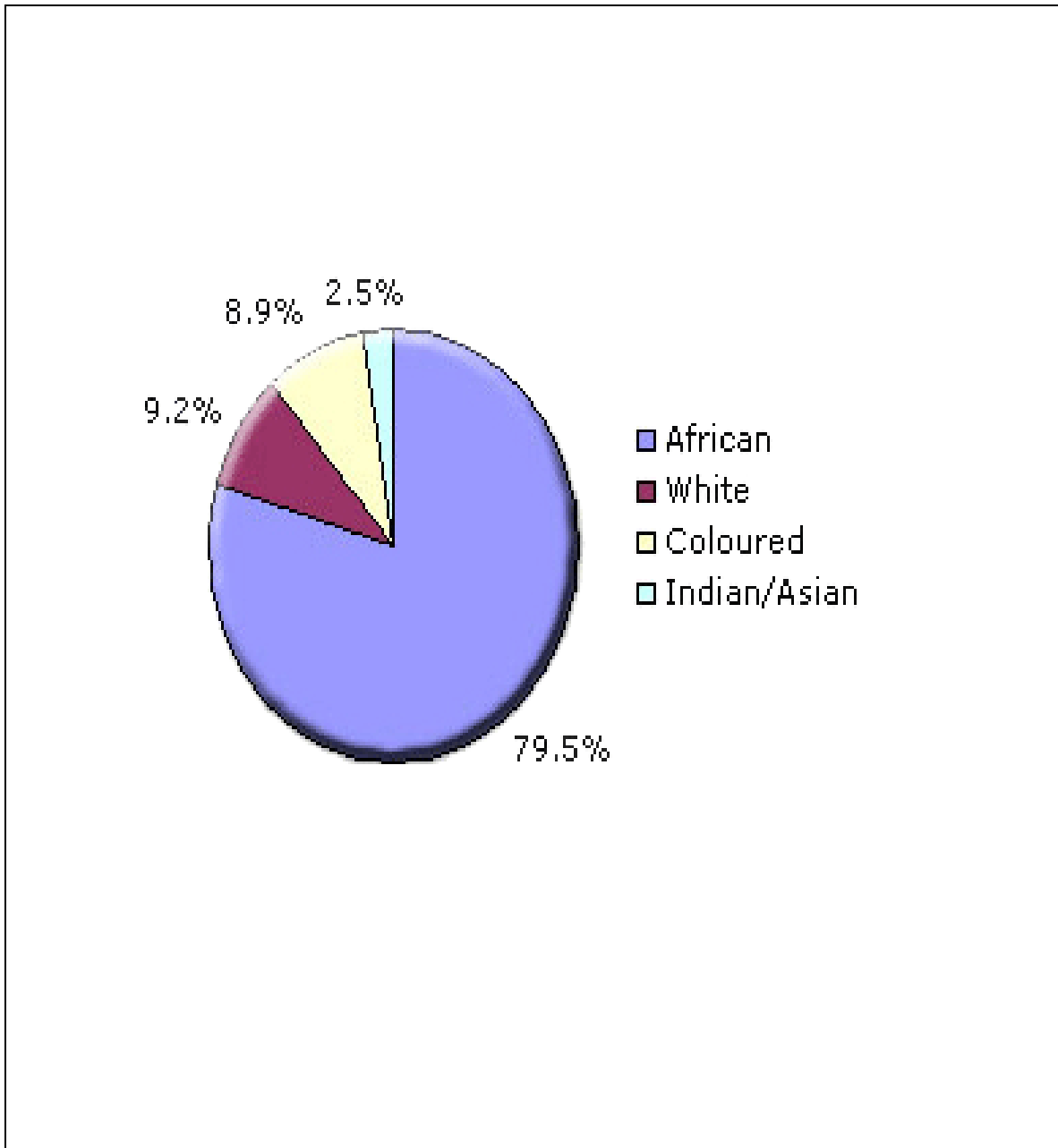
and the socio-economic conditions in the households is also discussed in this chapter.

### **3.2 History of Domestic Labour Migration in South Africa**

South Africa is a nation of more than 48 million people of diverse origins, cultures, languages, and religions (Statistics South Africa, 2007). The 2006 midyear estimated figures for the other categories were Black African at 79.5%, White at 9.2%, Coloured at 8.9%, and Indian or Asian at 2.5% (Statistics South Africa, 2007). Even though South Africa's population had increased in the past decade (Statistics South Africa, 2001) (primarily due to immigration), the country had an annual population growth rate of  $-0.501\%$  in 2008 (Global Statistics, 2008).

South Africa is home to an estimated 5 million illegal immigrants, including some 3 million Zimbabweans (South Africa. info, 2008). A series of anti-immigrant riots occurred in South Africa beginning on May 11, 2008 (Barry, 2008). By far the major part of the population classified itself as African or Black, but it is not culturally or linguistically homogeneous. Major ethnic groups include the Zulu, Xhosa, Basotho (South Sotho), Bapedi (North Sotho), Venda, Tswana, Tsonga, Swazi and Ndebele, all of which speak Bantu languages.

**Figure 3.1: South Africa's population by race in 2007**

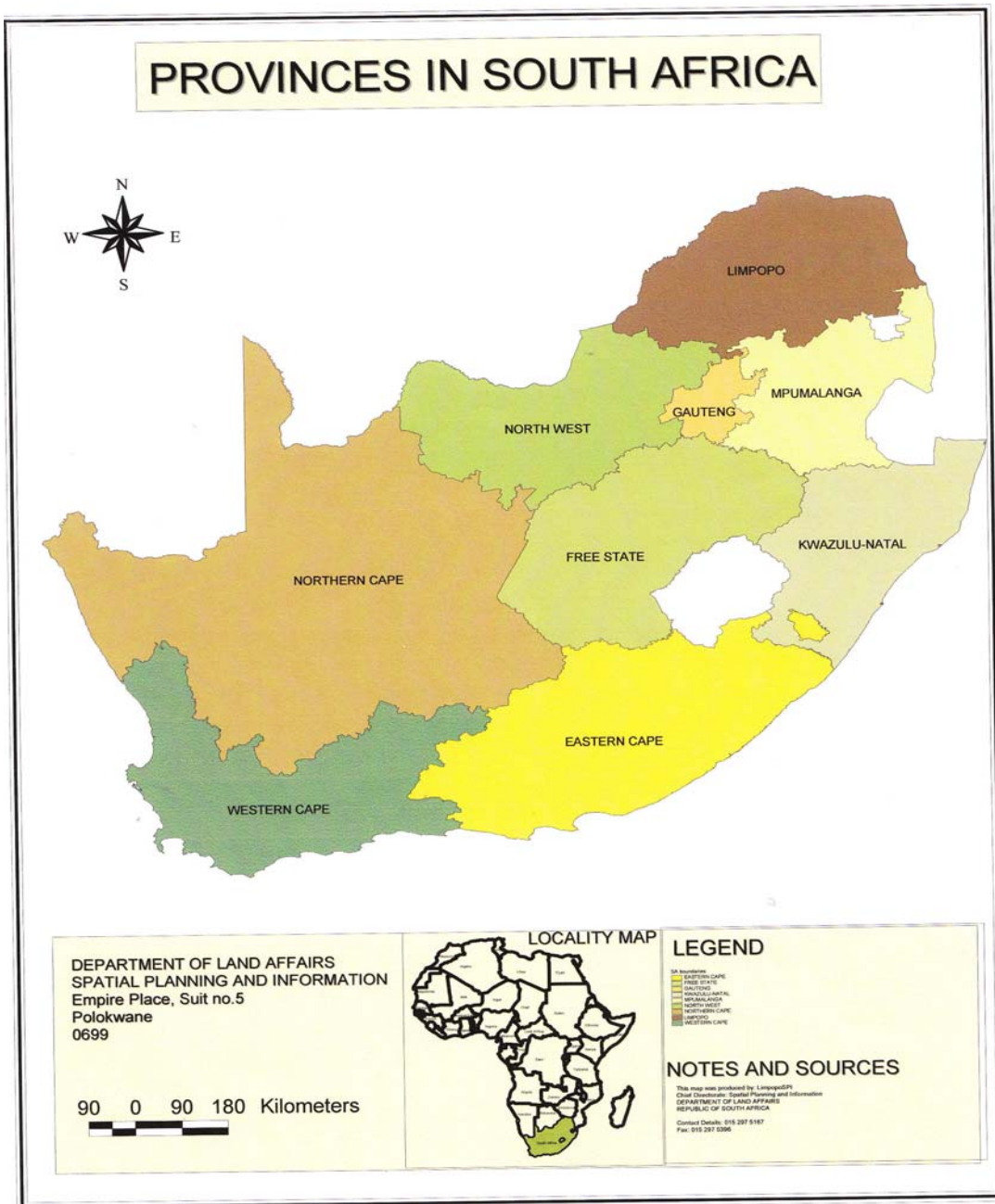


(Source: Statistics South Africa, 2007)

The Republic of South Africa (Figure 3.2) contains some of the oldest archaeological sites in Africa. Extensive fossil remains at the Sterkfontein, Kromdraai and Makapansgat caves suggest that various

australopithecines existed in South Africa from about three million years ago (Stephen, 2008).

**Figure 3.2: South Africa and its new democratic provinces**



These were succeeded by various species of Homo, including Homo habilis, Homo erectus and modern humans. Settlements of Bantu-speaking peoples, who were iron-using, agriculturists and herdsmen, were already present south of the Limpopo River by the fourth or fifth century displacing and absorbing the original KhoiSan speakers. They slowly moved south and the earliest ironworks in modern-day KwaZulu-Natal Province are believed to date from around 1050 (South Africa. Info, 2008). The southernmost group was the Xhosa people, whose language incorporates certain linguistic traits from the earlier KhoiSan people, reaching the Fish River, in today's Eastern Cape Province. South Africa is the world's 25th-largest country (after Mali). It is comparable in size to Colombia Njesuthi in the Drakensberg at 3,408 m (11,424 ft) is the highest peak in South Africa (Stephen, 2008).

South Africa is the only country in the world with three capital cities; Cape Town, the largest of the three, is the legislative capital; Pretoria is the administrative capital; and Bloemfontein is the judicial capital. South Africa had a bicameral parliament: the National Council of Provinces (the upper house) had 90 members, while the National Assembly (the lower house) had 400 members. By UN classification

South Africa is a middle-income country with an abundant supply of resources, well-developed financial, legal, communications, energy, and transport sectors, a stock exchange (the JSE Limited), that ranks among the top twenty in the world, and a modern infrastructure supporting an efficient distribution of goods to major urban centres throughout the entire region. South Africa had being ranked the 20th in the world in terms of GDP (PPP) as of 2007 (South Africa. Info, 2008).

Advanced development is significantly localised around four areas: Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Durban, and Pretoria/Johannesburg. Beyond these four economic centres, development is marginal and poverty is still prevalent despite government efforts. The vast majority of South Africans are poor and this had led to high mobility rate of the population to more developed or better areas. However, key marginal areas have experienced rapid growth recently. Such areas include: Mossel Bay to Plettenberg Bay; Rustenburg area; Nelspruit area; Bloemfontein; Cape West Coast; and KwaZulu-Natal's North Coast amongst others. The history of Bantustans and the socio-economic impact of labour migration on the sender areas will be discussed the next subsection.

### **3.2.1 History of Bantustans in the Republic of South Africa**

The term was first used in the late 1940s, and was coined from 'Bantu' (meaning 'people' in the Bantu languages) and '-stan' meaning 'land of' in the Persian, Urdu, and Armenian languages. It was regarded as a disparaging term by some critics of the apartheid-era government's 'homelands' (from Afrikaans tuisland). The word 'Bantustan', today, is often used in a pejorative sense when describing a country or region that lacks any real legitimacy or power, consists of several unconnected enclaves, and/or emerges from national or international gerrymandering (Atwell and Mathieson, 1998). Bantustan, black African homeland or simply homeland, was territory set aside for black inhabitants of South Africa and South-West Africa (now Namibia), as part of the policy of apartheid. Ten Bantustans were established in South Africa, (then under South African administration), for the purpose of concentrating their members of designated ethnic groups, thus making each of those territories ethnically homogeneous as the basis for creating autonomous nation states for South Africa's different black ethnic groups (Atwell and Mathieson, 1998).

In South Africa, Transkei, Venda, Bophuthatswana, and Ciskei (the so-called TBVC states) were declared independent, while others (like KwaZulu, Lebowa, and QwaQwa), received partial autonomy, but were

never granted independence. The Bantustans were generally poor, with few local employment opportunities being available. Their single most important home-grown source of revenue was the provision of casinos and topless revue shows, which the National Party government had prohibited in South Africa proper as being "immoral". This provided a lucrative source of income for the South African elite, who constructed megaresorts such as Sun City in the homeland of Bophuthatswana. In this, and other respects, the South African Bantustans somewhat resembled the Native American reservations in the United States and Canada, although the parallel is not exact (Atwell and Mathieson, 1998).

However, the homelands were only kept afloat by massive subsidies from the South African government; for instance, by 1985 in Transkei, 85% of the homeland's income came from direct transfer payments from Pretoria. The Bantustans' governments were invariably corrupt and little wealth trickled down to the local populations, who were forced to seek employment as guest workers in South Africa. Millions of people had to work in often appalling conditions, away from their homes for months at a time. For example, 65% of Bophuthatswana's population worked outside the 'homeland'.

Not surprisingly, the homelands were extremely unpopular among the urban Black population, many of whom lived in squalor in slum housing. Their working conditions were often equally poor, as they were denied any significant rights or protections in South Africa proper. The allocation of individuals to specific homelands was often quite arbitrary. Many individuals assigned to homelands did not live in or originate from the homelands to which they were assigned, and the division into designated ethnic groups often took place on an arbitrary basis, particularly in the case of people of mixed ethnic ancestry. With the demise of the apartheid regime in South Africa, the Bantustans were dismantled and their territory reincorporated into the Republic of South Africa. The drive to achieve this was spearheaded by the African National Congress as a central element of its programme of reform. Reincorporation was mostly achieved peacefully, although there was some resistance from the local elites, who stood to lose out on the opportunities for corruption provided by the homelands. The dismantling of the homelands of Bophuthatswana and Ciskei was particularly difficult. In Ciskei, South African security forces had to intervene in March 1994 to defuse a political crisis (Atwell and Mathieson, 1998).

The nine provinces established in 1994 in the Republic of South Africa are much smaller than the former provinces, which theoretically allows



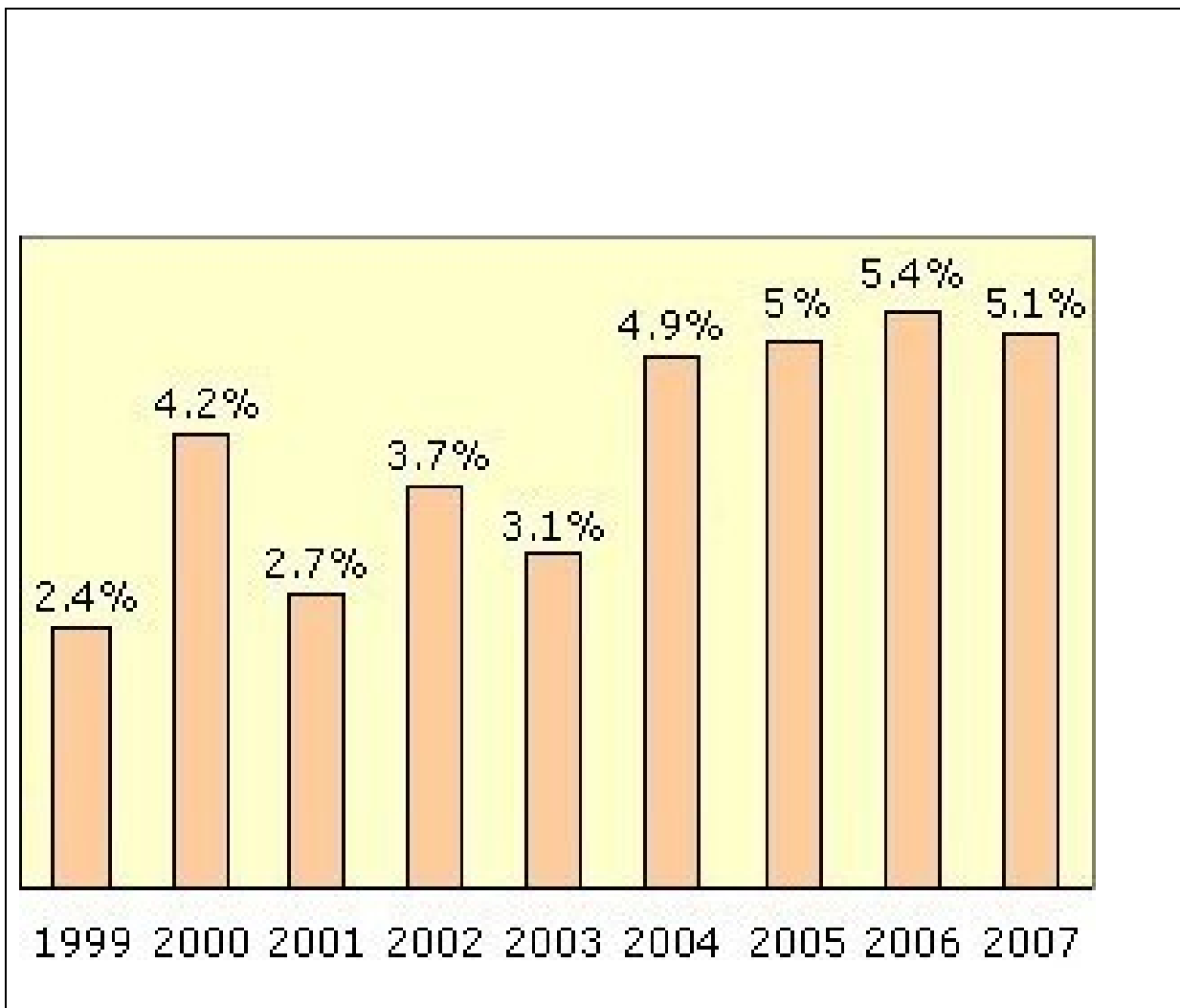
local governments more resources to distribute over smaller areas (South Africa. Info, 2008). The nine provinces are further subdivided into 52 districts: 6 metropolitan and 46 district municipalities. The 46 district municipalities are further subdivided into 231 local municipalities. The district municipalities also contain 20 district management areas (mostly game parks) that are directly governed by the district municipalities. The six metropolitan municipalities perform the functions of both district and local municipalities. This study investigated the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households, using the case of Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province.

### **3.2.2 The socio-economic impact of labour migration on sender areas in general**

The Republic of South Africa is a middle-income emerging market with abundant natural resources, well-developed financial, legal, communications, energy and transport sectors, a stock exchange ranked among the top 20 in the world, and a modern infrastructure supporting efficient distribution of goods throughout the southern African region. Economic growth had been steady and unprecedented. Real Gross Domestic Product (GDP) rose by 3.7% in 2002, 3.1% in 2003, 4.9% in 2004, 5% in 2005, 5.4% in 2006 - the highest since

1981 - and 5.1% in 2007. In the fourth quarter of 2007, South Africa recorded its 33rd quarter of uninterrupted expansion in real GDP since September 1999 - the longest economic upswing in the country's history (Statistics South Africa, 2007). Below is the Gross Domestic Product growth rate of South Africa from 1999 to 2007.

**Figure 3.3: South African Gross Domestic Product growth rate from 1999 to 2007**



(Source: Statistics South Africa, 2007)

South Africa has a larger agricultural sector and is a net exporter of farming products. There are almost a thousand agricultural cooperatives and agribusinesses throughout the country, and agricultural exports have constituted 8% of South Africa's total exports. The agricultural industry contributes around 10% of formal employment, relatively low compared to other parts of Africa, as well as providing work for casual labourers and contributing around 2.6% of GDP for the nation (Human Rights Watch, 2001). However, due to the aridity of the land, only 13.5% can be used for crop production, and only 3% is considered high potential land (Mohamed, 2000).

Although the commercial farming sector is relatively well developed, people in some rural areas still survive on subsistence agriculture. It is the eighth largest wine producer in the world, and the eleventh largest producer of sunflower seed. South Africa is a net exporter of agricultural products and foodstuffs, the largest number of exported items being sugar, grapes, citrus, nectarines, wine and deciduous fruit. The largest locally produced crop is maize (corn), and it had been estimated that 9 million tons are produced every year, with 7.4 million tons being consumed. Livestock are also popular on South African farms, with the country producing 85% of all meat consumed. The dairy industry consists of around 4,300 milk producers providing

employment for 60,000 farm workers and contributing to the livelihoods of around 40,000 others (South Africa. Info, 2008).

Even though South Africa had the seventh highest per capita income in Africa, only behind Libya, Mauritius it suffers from large income gaps and a dual economy marking it as a developing country. South Africa had one of the highest rates of income inequality in the world. A decade of continual economic growth had helped to lower unemployment, but daunting economic and social problems remain. The average South African household income decreased considerably between 1995 and 2000. As for racial inequality, Statistics South Africa reported that in 1995 the average White household earned four times as much as the average Black household. In 2000 the average White household was earning 6 times the average Black household (Mohamed, 2000).

The implementation of affirmative action policies in South Africa had seen a rise in black economic wealth and an emerging Black middle class, which on the other hand encouraged migration among Blacks (Mohamed, 2000). South Africa is faced with problems such as crime, corruption, and HIV/AIDS. The spread of AIDS (acquired immune-deficiency syndrome) is an alarming problem in South Africa with up to

31% of pregnant women found to be HIV infected in 2005 and the infection rate among adults estimated at 20% (Avert, 2006). The link between HIV, a virus spread primarily by sexual contact, and AIDS had long been denied by the former President (Thabo Mbeki) and the former Health Minister (Manto Tshabalala-Msimang), who have insisted that many deaths in the country are due to malnutrition, and hence poverty, and not HIV (Avert, 2006).

Along with many African nations, South Africa had been experiencing a "brain drain" in the past 20 years. This is believed to be potentially damaging for the regional economy, (World Bank, 2004) and is almost certainly detrimental for the well-being of the majority of people reliant on the healthcare infrastructure, given the HIV/AIDS epidemic (Avert, 2006). The skills drain in South Africa tends to demonstrate racial contours (naturally given the skills distribution legacy of South Africa) and had thus resulted in large White South Africans going abroad (Statistics South Africa, 2007). The socio-economic impact of labour migration on the sender area in general is linked with the facts encountered in Mogalakwena Local Municipality, by the fact that they seem common. The study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households is conducted in the Mogalakwena municipality

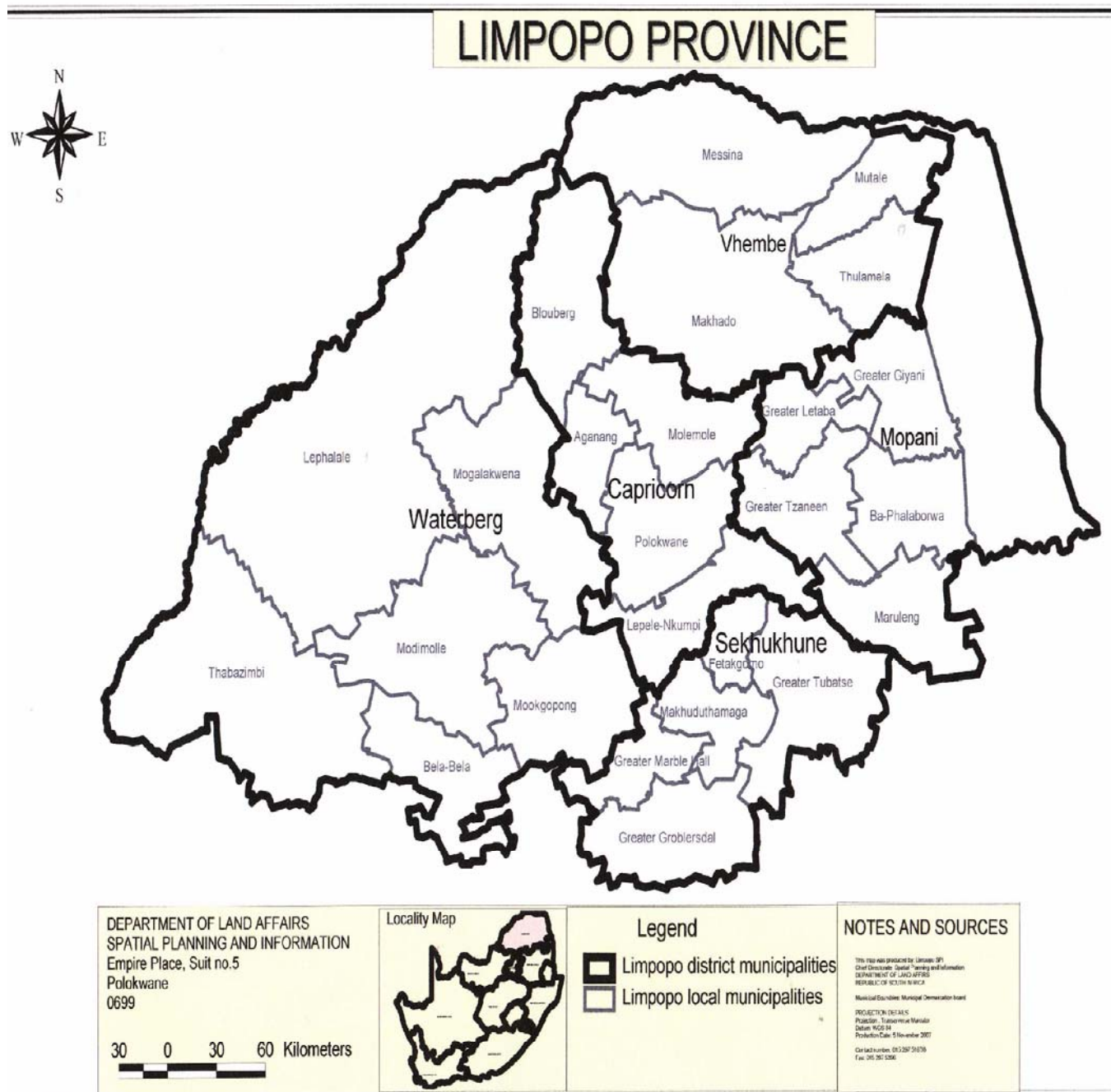
in Limpopo Province. The Province and its circulatory labour migration is fully been discussed in the next subsection.

### **3.3 Circulatory Labour Migration in Limpopo Province**

The Limpopo Province (Figure 3.4) was formed from the northern region of the Transvaal province in 1994, and initially was named Northern Transvaal. It was renamed Northern Province, which remained the name until the 11<sup>th</sup> June 2003, when the name of the province was formally changed to the name of its most important river, on the border with Zimbabwe and Botswana, after deliberation by the provincial government.

Another notable consideration for the name was Mapungubwe, the area where the most ancient gold-using civilization of the province was discovered a few years earlier. A total of 97.3% of the population in the province is Black, 2.4% is White, 0.2% is Coloured, and 0.1% is Indian/Asian. The most common spoken languages are Tsonga, Northern Sotho (Sepedi), Venda and Afrikaans (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006). South Africa's Northern Province, Limpopo, borders onto Mozambique, Zimbabwe and Botswana thus making it the ideal entrance to Africa (Marlene, 2001).

Figure 3.4: Limpopo Province with its municipalities



Limpopo Province is the home to Modjadji, the fabled Rain Queen; The Stone Age and Iron Age relics of Makapans Valley and the treasures of Mapungubwe that date back to time immemorial. Straddling the northern Kruger Park, Limpopo Province boasts wildlife safaris, nature trails –untamed Africa at its finest. This is the land of wide-open bushveld, big-sky country, the ever-present thorn tree and the mystical baobab tree (Marlene, 2001). Limpopo Province also offers Africa’s wild Eden – from highveld grassland savannahs to subtropical forests to formidable mountain ranges.

### **3.3.1 Geography of Limpopo Province**

Limpopo Province is bordered at the south by Gauteng Province and to the west, north and east by Botswana, Zimbabwe and Mozambique respectively. The provincial capital city, Polokwane, lies 300 km north of South Africa’s main markets in the Johannesburg-Pretoria industrial complex, and 200 km south of the province’s border with Zimbabwe. The province had excellent road, rail, and air links. The N1 route from Johannesburg, which extends the length of the province, is the busiest overland route in Africa in terms of cross-border trade in raw materials and beneficiated goods. The port of Durban, Africa’s busiest, is served directly by the province, as are the ports of Richards Bay and Maputo.



The Gateway International Airport is situated in Polokwane, the capital of the province.

The province also shares international borders with districts and provinces of three countries: Botswana's Central and Kgatleng districts to the west and north-west respectively, Zimbabwe's Matabeleland South and Masvingo provinces to the north and northeast respectively, and Mozambique's Gaza Province to the east. The province is the link between South Africa and countries further a field in sub-Saharan Africa. On its southern flank from east to west, the province shares borders with Mpumalanga, Gauteng, and North West. Its border with Gauteng includes that province's Johannesburg-Pretoria axis, the most industrious metropole on the continent. Thus the province is placed at the centre of regional, national, and international developing markets (Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs, 2000).

### **3.3.2 Socio-economic conditions in Limpopo Province**

The population of Limpopo Province consists of several ethnic groups distinguished by culture, language and race. The Northern Sotho (Sepedi) make up the largest number, being nearly 57%. The Tsonga (Shangaan) speakers comprise 23% while the Venda makes up 12%. Afrikaans speakers make up 2.6% while English-speaking whites are

less than half a per cent. Within the borders of the province are the four previous administrations which were created during the apartheid era: Lebowa, Gazankulu, Venda and Transvaal Administration (Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs, 2000). It had been stated that Limpopo Province is rural in nature (Marlene, 2001), which is a relatively high proportion of the population is younger than fifteen years. From 1996-2002 the economy had been growing at an annual average rate of 4%, which is the highest among all of the provinces of South Africa and it even, surpasses the national average rate.

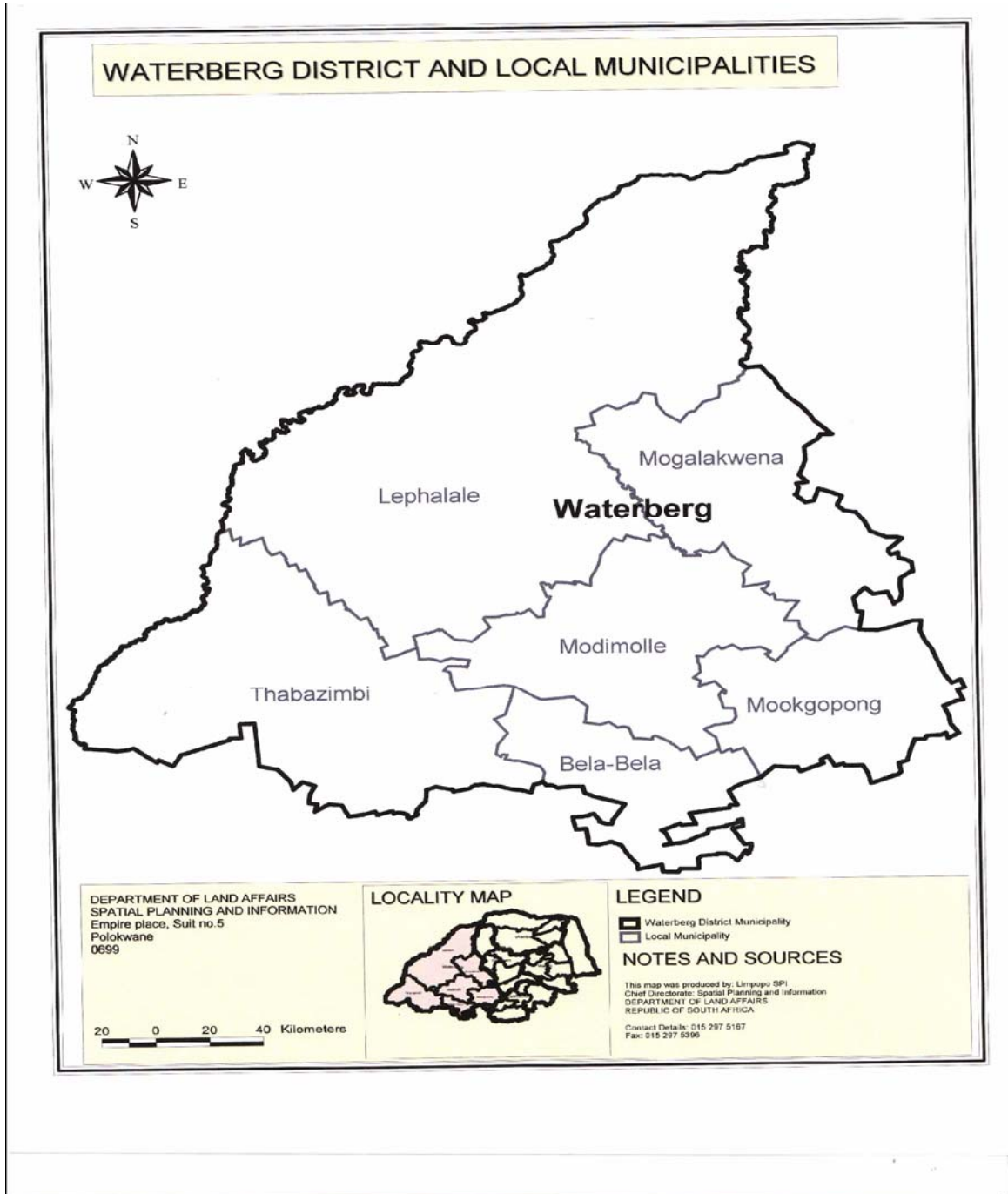
There is a high growth potential in mining, tourism and agriculture. Mining and quarrying had contributed the highest growth rate of 24% between 1996 and 2002. The Gini co-efficient is recorded at 0, 63 – which is highly skewed among the population of Limpopo (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006). The province is divided into five municipal districts subdivided into 24 local municipalities; however the study had focused on Mogalakwena Local Municipality in the Waterberg district (Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs, 2000). The socio-economic condition of Mogalakwena Local Municipality would be discussed in an appropriate section.

### **3.4 Geography of Mogalakwena Local Municipality**

The Waterberg District Municipality (Figure 3.5) is the largest district in the Limpopo Province and is located in the western side of the Province. During the rainy season there is an abundance of running streams and rivulates in the veld, particularly in the mountainous areas, fed by water seeping freely from many sources and fountains. The sandstone rocks dominating the geology coupled with the mountains terrain and the high rainfall cause this characteristics feature of the Waterberg. As such it is an important water catchments' area that had unique biodiversity features.

The Waterberg area is unique due to its geological formations (predominantly sandstone). Furthermore the Waterberg District Municipality had a fairly complex geology with a relative high degree of minerals (Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs, 2000). The socio-economic status of Mogalakwena Local Municipality is outlined in the next subsection.

Figure 3.5: Waterberg District and its Local Municipalities



### **3.4.1 Socio-economic status of Mogalakwena Local Municipality**

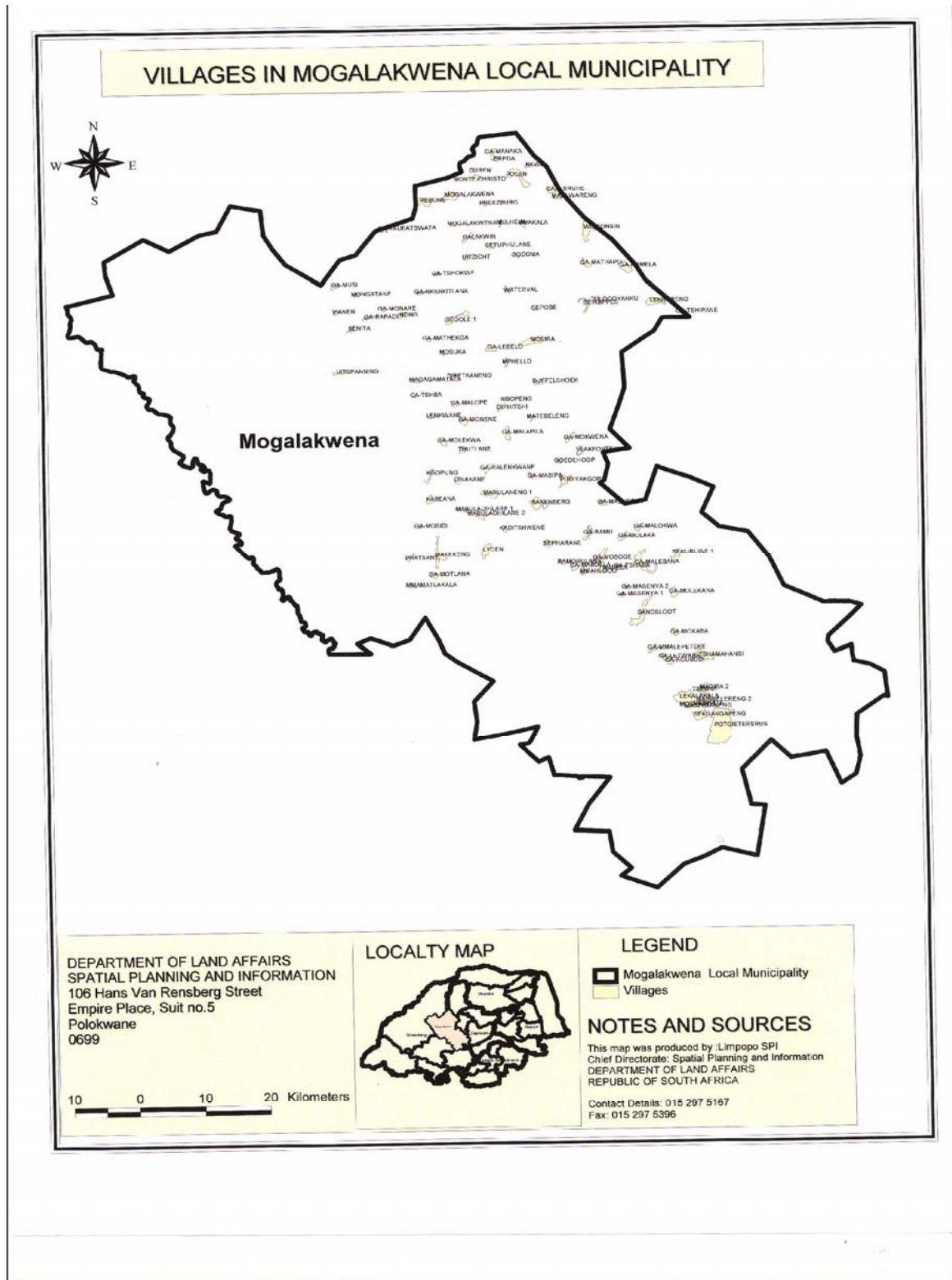
The district is rural in nature with the urban areas mostly described as dispersed and fragmented (Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs, 2000). In addition, the district had the lowest population figures in the Province in comparison to the other districts. The total population of the districts is 623 354 with an estimated 117 659 households (Department of Finance, Economic Affairs and Tourism, 2001).

Furthermore the unemployment rate is 36, 4% while the district had a youthful population of 42, 1% (14 year and younger). Taking the percentage of the youth in the district, job opportunities are of vital importance for all future developments in the district. However the district as rural as it is, there are limited opportunities and this can fuel high migration rate. The Waterberg District Municipality consists of the following six local municipalities: Mogalakwena, Bela-Bela, Modimolle, Mookgopong, Lephalale and Thabazimbi as showed in Figure 3.5. Mogalakwena Local Municipality (Figure 3.6) is situated in the western quadrant of the Limpopo Province, within the Waterberg District Municipality, and is bordered by Aganang to the east, Mookgophong to the south, Lephalale to the west and Blouberg to the north. The local municipality covers approximately 6 000 square

kilometers (Mogalakwena Management Support Document, 2001). Its municipal offices are seated in the former Greater Potgietersrus (Mokopane) municipal offices, also called "The White Elephant," because of its former status as a white oppressive institute. Mogalakwena Local Municipality is having an estimated population density of 316,169 (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006).

The Municipality faces an enormous problem to alleviate poverty in the rural communities, because from a total population of 316,169 there are 188,037 people who are poor (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006). The Ndebele and Sotho communities, which lived around the Mogalakwena River for about four centuries, have been suppressed in their development for the past 150 years (Marlene, 2001). The Mogalakwena River runs like an artery through the young Mogalakwena Municipality. Together with the national (N11) road – linking Botswana to South Africa – the river slips through the northern boundary of the municipal area between two villages Duren and Breda, which names remind one of the Dutch settlers in the area. Until recently, Duren and Breda used to belong to the Koedoesrand-Rebone rural Transitional Local Council before the demarcation of municipal boundaries in 2000 (Marlene, 2001).

Figure 3.6: Mogalakwena Local Municipality and its villages



The Mogalakwena River softly cuts a diagonal trough the middle of the newly demarcated municipality between its northwest and southeast borders. Small villages lay scattered on its embankments. Most of these used to belong to the former Bakenberg Rural Transitional Local Council. A couple of villages carry the name of the river, which means "the area of the river." Further south-east just south of the former Greater Potgietersrus Transitional Local Council the river's changes into Nyl River. The pyramid shape of the Kranskop mountains south of Potgietersrus from the where the river originates, led settlers to name the river after the Egyptian Nyl. From the Kransberg the Nyl/Mogalakwena River slowly streams to the far north where it amalgamates with the Limpopo River, the natural border between South Africa and Zimbabwe (Marlene, 2001).

The Mogalakwena Local Municipality had the largest population with 316,169 people and 53 860 households in the whole district of Waterberg in 2006 (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006). The majority of households in this municipality survive on an income below the poverty line of R800-00 per month (Steyn, 2002). While a portion of the Mogalakwena Municipality forms part of the western



transition zone of the Waterberg Biosphere Reserve and presents a challenge to the biosphere to improve economic conditions in these more densely populated areas. According to the Gross Geographic Product (GGP) of 1994, the five sectors within the Waterberg District that contribute to the economy are mining, electricity/water, services, trade/catering and agriculture. Mining is currently the largest contributor to the GGP (Department of Finance, Economic Affairs and Tourism, 2001).

The area is characterised by privately owned commercial farmland, as well as communally owned land encompassing a large number of rural settlements, which fall under the jurisdiction of three tribal authorities. Prior to 1830, the supreme chief of the area was known as Chief Bakebela. The arrival of the whites in 1830 led to changes due to pronunciation difficulties. As years went by, the area became known as Bakenberg. Currently five traditional authorities are present in the Mogalakwena municipal area, namely in Bakenberg, Bakoni Ba Matlala, Lekalakala, Matlala, Nkidikitlane, Taueatswala, and Vaaltyn. The council of the Mogalakwena local municipality consists of 31 proportionally elected councilors and 31 ward councilors as determined in Provincial Notice 15, dated 11 May 2000. Mogalakwena local municipality had 31 wards with boundaries as determined by Provincial

Notice 180 of 2000, dated 10 June 2000. However, ward committees have not been formed yet. The municipality is having an estimated population of 316,169 and there are 48 villages in the Municipality as shown in figure 6 (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, 2006). In many villages so-called village committees have been in existence for a long time (Marlene, 2001).

The Mogalakwena municipal area is predominantly rural with no signs of formalised urbanisation associated with facilities and municipal services such as tarred roads, water borne sewerage, well defined shopping nodes and street lights. Mokopane (Potgietersrus) is the economic centre of the Mogalakwena Local Municipality. A high degree of development and affluence in the Central Business District of Mokopane, the industrial areas near town and residential areas in Mokopane, which were reserved for white people, stand in stark contrast to the underdeveloped areas. Black people used to be separated from the whites. Black residents of Mogalakwena mainly reside in the townships around Mokopane (Mahwelereng and the settlements Madiba, Moshati, Masethlaneng Maruleng, Masodi, Mountain View and Sekgakgapeng) and in the surrounding vast rural area that used to belong to the former Bakenberg RLC and the Koedoesrand-Rebone RLC (Marlene, 2001).

Generally, the rural settlements are poorly serviced in terms of water provision, sewerage, electricity and waste management. Some services are provided by other service providers outside the sphere of local government, e.g. Department of Water Affairs and Forestry and Eskom. The only areas that are relatively well serviced in terms of infrastructure are Mokopane and Mahwelereng. Mokopane is situated on a relatively flat area and is surrounded by mountains, which are utilized for water reservoirs from where the rest of the area is supplied. Inadequate primary health care facilities, particularly clinics, are a major concern in the area. However according to the Bakenberg LDO (1998), the concern is not so much the number of clinics, but rather the quality of the facilities, availability of medicines and medical equipment and the quality staffing at the clinics. A system of Local Health Committees is being implemented in the area. However this system is not working well and needs to be re-examined and restructured to ensure proper communication around health issues.

### **3.5 Conclusion**

The major challenges facing the Mogalakwena Local Municipality are not distinctively different from ones the other municipalities face in the province. First of all there is a strong need for basic service delivery as

it was highlighted that 89% of Limpopo Province is rural in nature. Specifically, clean and sufficient water and the delivery of electricity have priority. Secondly, the municipality comprises vast rural traditional areas, which are underdeveloped and situated as far as about 100 kilometres from its administrative centre in Mokopane. It had also been found that the municipality had serious financial problems; it experiences uncertainty over its powers and functions and struggle divisions among its residents. All these factors seem to have an impact on the migration rate of the residents of Mogalakwena Local Municipality.

Serious intervention from the three spheres of government is needed to alleviate poverty and develop the rural areas, so that rural to urban migration can be reduced. Mogalakwena Local Municipality is not the only municipality in Limpopo Province facing the high rate of migration, however it was chosen as the study area by the researcher. The people of Mogalakwena should therefore be empowered in community projects and other developmental projects undertaken in their municipality. Also the national government and local government need to sit down and address poverty issues in the rural areas, especially in disadvantaged provinces dominated by Black people. This chapter had provided background descriptions about the Republic of

South Africa, Limpopo Province and Mogalakwena Local Municipality.  
The next chapter would provide analyses of survey data in the context  
of the discussions in chapters one to three.

## **CHAPTER 4: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF SURVEY DATA**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter seeks to provide an analysis of the survey data on the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households collected from Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province. Data analysis is the stage in the research process, wherein the researcher looks and summarises both primary and secondary data with the intent to extract useful information and develop conclusions in relation to the core issue or research problem (John, 2000). Michael (1995) states that in statistical applications, some people divide data analysis into descriptive statistics, Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA) and Confirmatory Data Analysis (CDA), where the EDA focuses on discovering new features in the data, and CDA on confirming or falsifying existing hypotheses. It is further stated that data analysis assumes different aspects, and possibly different names, in different fields (John, 2000).

Statistical data analysis divides the methods of analysing data into two categories: exploratory methods and confirmatory methods. Exploratory methods are used to discover what the data seems to be saying by using simple arithmetic and easy-to-draw pictures to

summarise data. Confirmatory methods use ideas from probability theory in an attempt to answer specific questions. Probability is important in decision making because it provides a mechanism for measuring, expressing, and analysing the uncertainties associated with future events. The majority of the topics addressed in this course fall under this heading (Arsham and Kuiper, 1988).

In the study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households the collected data was captured and analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) with descriptive statistics by frequencies. Statistical data analysis arose from the need to place knowledge on a systematic evidence base. This required a study of the laws of probability, the development of measures of data properties and relationships, and so on. Statistical inference aims at determining whether any statistical significance can be attached that result after due allowance is made for any random variation as a source of error (Arsham and Kuiper, 1988).

This chapter analysed survey data collected from the households of Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province. The argument would be based on the context of discussions of conceptual frameworks and the information provided in preceding chapters. The

primary data was collected through the administering of questionnaires in the households of the Mogalakwena Local Municipality. The main purpose of this chapter is to systematically apply statistical and logical techniques to describe, compare and summarises the collected data on the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households in Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province.

#### **4.2 The rate of labour migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality**

Based on the findings of the survey conducted on the three sampled villages, it had been found that migration is being practiced as a livelihood strategy in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. The findings of the study also show that migration in the municipality is mostly encouraged by economic reasons. These findings conclude that there is labour migration, taking place in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. It had also been found that labour migration had an influence on the socio-economic conditions in the households of the latter municipality. This is supported by the presentation in Table 4.2, wherein 77 of the people out of 120 sampled population during the survey argued that the labour migration is contributing positively to the survival or wellbeing of the household. Therefore it can be concluded that the rate



of labour migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality is high at 64,2%. This rate of labour migration is fueled by the fact that there are limited opportunities in the municipality.

**Table 4.2:** Contribution to the household survival/well being by labour migrants

Contribution by labour migrants	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Positive	77	64.2	64.2
Neither/Nor	4	3.3	67.5
Negative	5	4.2	71.7
No migrants	34	28.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	

This demonstrates that labour migration is being practiced as a household livelihood strategy in Mogalakwena Local Municipality and most of the migrants are assisting or contributing positively to the survival or well being of their respective households. Therefore, it is concluded that labour migration plays a vital role in the development of socio-economic conditions in the households of the rural areas. Migration studies have demonstrated that there are always factors that encourage or contribute to the mobility of people in the rural areas, which are “pull” and “push” factors. These factors are fully discussed in the next subsection.

### **4.3 Factors that fuel the practice of labour migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality**

It had been presented in Table 4.2, that there is labour migration process taking place in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. There are always different circumstances that encourage the mobility of people from different areas. The major decision for people to migrate is being made after weighing economic conditions between two different places, which are the sender and the receiver areas (Featherman and Hauser, 1978; Bond, 1993; Ballard, 2003). The two key determining factors that increase the mobility of people are: (a) the pull factors of changing demographics and labour market needs in many industrialized cities; and (b) the push factors of population, unemployment in less developed areas (Fuguitt, 1989; Gammeltoft, 2002).

Furthermore, it is being stated that people who migrate from the rural areas would be searching for employment opportunities, educational aspects and better environment than in the rural areas (Laorie, 2001). In the case of Mogalakwena Local Municipality, most of the migrants were fueled to emigrate due to poverty, inadequate services, less income and lack of employment opportunities in the area.

The findings of the survey shows that both pull and push factors were measured between the sender and the receiver areas, before the migrants decide to emigrate. Table 4.3 illustrates that 39.2 % of the sampled people are literate and have completed their secondary educations. While, on the other hand 33.3 % of the sampled group possesses their Diploma/Degree certificates as shown in Table 4.3. Based on the findings as illustrated in Table 4.3, it can be argued that the level of education can be one of the other factors that promote labour migration in the rural areas. Most of the people emigrate from their respective areas after completing their secondary education, in order to pursue or further their studies. This is because there are few or no higher learning institutions in the rural areas, at the end people would be pulled to more developed or better areas.

**Table 4.3:** Highest educational qualification of head of the household/respondent

Educational status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
No formal Education	13	10.8	10.8
Primary Education	20	16.7	27.5
Secondary Education	47	39.2	66.7
Diploma/Degree	40	33.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	

It is a known fact that people with the most social and economic resources would be the most likely to migrate in order to improve their current situation (Featherman and Hauser 1978; Dahlstrom, 1996). Table 4.4 illustrates that over 50 respondents out of 120 sampled populations are earning more than R2000 per month. The total income for the households can be viewed as one of the other factors that promote labour migration in the rural areas.

**Table 4.4:** Total monthly income of head of the household/respondent

Total monthly income	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
No income	30	25.0	25.0
R1 to R500	5	4.2	29.2
R501 to R1000	21	17.5	46.7
R1001 to R1500	5	4.2	50.8
R1501 to R2000	7	5.8	56.7
Above R2000	52	43.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	

It is also, illustrated in Table 4.4 that about 30 of the respondents are not entitled to any income and this shows how employment opportunities are limited in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. There is a relationship between the household income and labour migration, because migration itself involves money. So it can be concluded that most people in the Mogalakwena Local Municipality are migrating to

more developed areas, in order to stabilize their current economic status. Also, that some are migrating in order to run away from poverty in their homes to better or developed areas.

It has been found that employment opportunities in rural communities tend to be restricted, searching for better jobs is the major cause of labour migration from the households in the rural areas (Hamilton, 1994). Due to less employment opportunities in the rural areas, these tend to become a push factor for many people in rural areas. South Africa can be described as a dualistic economic country as it includes both first world conditions of high income levels, production and services mainly in cities, towns and commercial farms, parallel to Third World conditions of high unemployment, low incomes and inadequate services, mainly in rural areas and informal settlements adjacent to cities and towns (Vaughan, 1997; Tsheola, 1998; Posel, 2002).

Limpopo Province is itself characterised by the Third World conditions, wherein 89% of the province in 2001 was rural in nature (Marlene, 2001). The poverty rate of this rurally-based population in the Limpopo Province was reported to be over 72% in 2001 (Statistics South Africa, 2001). Such poverty, along with relatively high unemployment rate and the historical patterns of domestic migration

could suggest that Limpopo Province is exposed to strong push factors. The presentation of the findings below in Table 4.5 shows that 37 of the respondents are unemployed and this is a clear indication of employment crisis in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. Students and pensioners that were sampled are 15 and 13 respectively from all the respondents and only 45 were found to be working. It is commonly accepted that labour migration had increasingly become an important socio-economic factor in almost all countries of the world (Beinart, 1980; Heilmann, 2006). It is therefore concluded that, unemployment rate in the rural areas can be the driving factor in promoting labour migration. This can be attributed to the fact that people would be migrating in order to secure employment opportunities in other developed areas.

**Table 4.5:** Occupational status of head of the household/respondent

Occupational status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Unemployed	37	30.8	30.8
Employed	45	37.5	68.3
Student	15	12.5	80.8
Pensioner	13	10.8	91.7
Self-employed	10	8.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	

The level of living and poverty rate in Mogalakwena Local Municipality can be regarded as one of the other factors that fuel or contribute to high mobility rate of people to better or developed areas. It is clearly been presented in Table 4.6, that 22 of the respondents are doing very well in terms of the level of living. On the other hand, 56 of the respondents are saying that they are doing well in terms of the level of living. This brings again an argument that was raised before, which said people with the most social and economic resources are more likely to migrate (Featherman and Hauser 1978; Dahlstrom, 1996).

The conclusion drawn from the findings of the survey conducted in Mogalakwena Local Municipality is that labour migration is serving as a household livelihood strategy for majority of the people across the world, especially those living in the rural areas. However, people would always have different reasons to migrate and also depending on the person the trip might last for as long as the entire life or as short as a few months or even days (Barham and Boucher, 1998). The findings on the socio-economic conditions in the households would be fully discussed in the next subsection.

**Table 4.6:** Living conditions in the sampled households

Living conditions in the households	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Doing very well	22	18.3	18.3
Doing well	56	46.7	65.0
Neither/Nor	28	23.3	88.3
Poor	11	9.2	97.5
Very Poor	3	2.5	100.0
Total	120	100.0	

#### **4.4 The socio-economic conditions in the households**

This section analysed how labour migration impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households, with the support of the findings of the survey conducted in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. Theories have made different propositions about the impact of labour migration on the sender and receiver areas. These theories sometimes oppose or agree with the latter of labour migration as having impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households. Based on the findings of the survey conducted in Mogalakwena Local Municipality, a conclusion would be drawn in terms of how labour migration impacts on the socio-economic conditions in the households.



The study has demonstrated that there is a relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households. This is because, as presented in Table 4.7, the level of living is found to be changing in a positive way, after labour migration took place in those particular households. Most of the respondents are arguing that the labour migrants are contributing positively in the development of the socio-economic conditions in their respective households. It is found that only 3, 3 % of the respondents are saying labour migration is affecting the socio-economic conditions negatively in the households. However, 64, 2 % are arguing that labour migration is found to be impacting positively on the socio-economic conditions in the households. It is therefore, concluded that most of the migrants are pulled to more or better developed areas in order to improve their economic stability.

**Table 4.7:** How the living conditions in the households changed since some members have engaged in labour migration

How conditions have changed in households after labour migration	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Positive	77	64.2	64.2
Neither/Nor	5	4.2	68.3
Negative	4	3.3	71.7
No migrants	34	28.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	

Labour migration is found to be more influential on the socio-economic conditions in the households of the Mogalakwena Local Municipality. The level of living was poor, before some members of the households engaged in labour migration. Table 4.8, illustrates that only two of the respondents' level of living were doing very well before engaging in labour migration. However, after engaging in labour migration, at least 16 of the respondents' have argued that their level of living has improved. This can be attributed to the fact that there are remittances sent by labour migrants to their respective households.

**Table 4.8:** Living conditions in the households before some members have engaged in labour migration

Conditions before some engaged in migration	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Doing very well	2	1.7	1.7
Doing well	6	5.0	6.7
Neither/Nor	31	25.8	32.5
Poor	33	27.5	60.0
Very poor	14	11.7	71.7
No migrants	34	28.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	

The comparison between Tables 4.8 and 4.9 shows that labour migration is a very important and considerable livelihood strategy for

many of the households, more especially in the rural areas. There is a great difference in terms of the change for the level of living conditions in the households, before and after labour migration took place. For example the comparison between Tables 4.8 and 4.9, shows that 33 of the respondents' household standard of living was poor before labour migration, then the number reduced to six after engaging in labour migration. In this sense, the conclusion can be drawn that labour migration had impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households of Mogalakwena Local Municipality. At the same time rural areas are more exposed to labour migration, since the level of poverty is higher as compared to developed or urban areas.

**Table 4.9:** Living conditions in the households after some members have engaged in labour migration

Conditions after labour migration	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Doing very well	16	13.3	13.3
Doing well	48	40.0	53.3
Neither/Nor	16	13.3	66.7
Poor	6	5.0	71.7
No migrants	34	28.3	100.0
Total	120	100.0	

There is a link between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households of the rural areas. The relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households is fully discussed in the next subsection.

#### **4.5 The relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households**

There is a relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households. This is in the sense that labour migration is influential to either positive or negative change of the socio-economic conditions in the household. It had been proven, based on the preceding data tables, that once one of the household members engage in labour migration, there is a drastic change in the level of living within that particular household.

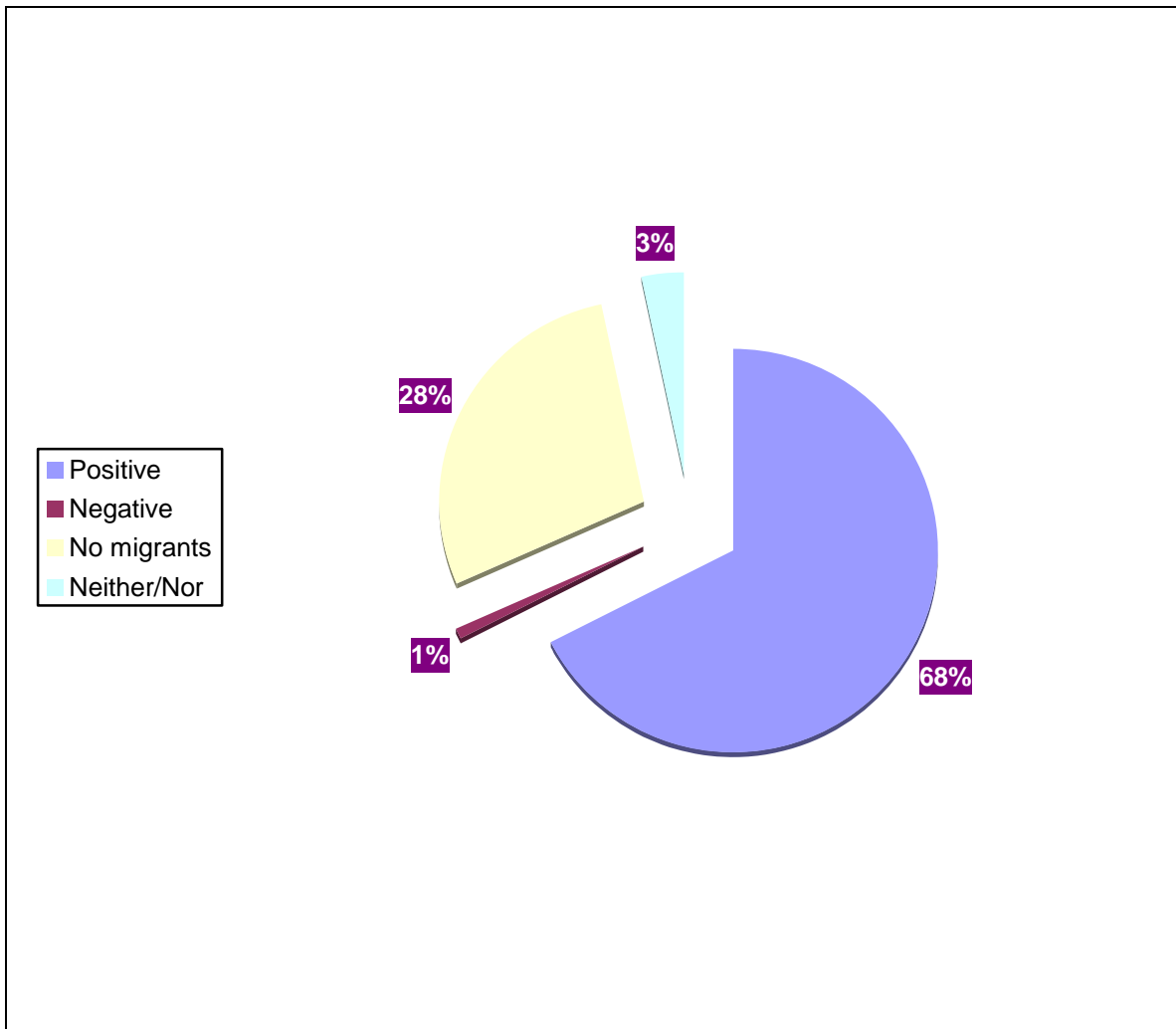
This section would dwell much on the discussion about the socio-economic conditions after some members of the households engaged in labour migration. The social characteristics that were measured during the household survey covered; education, family cohesion, crime, safety and health. The economic issues, which were measured during the survey covered; income (remittances), employment status,

skills and other income generating activities. All these socio-economic issues are fully discussed below.

There is a relationship between migration and the socio-economic conditions, because there is a change on the educational condition in the households. Different respondents have argued that labour migration is having an impact on the educational conditions in the households. It had been presented in Figure 4.7 that 68% of the respondents are arguing that the educational conditions have changed positively, since some of the household members engaged in labour migration. On the other hand only one respondent had argued that labour migration is having a negative impact on the educational conditions in the households.

The conclusion drawn is that, labour migration has an impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households. Also, that most of the labour migrants are contributing positively to the improvement of educational status in the households.

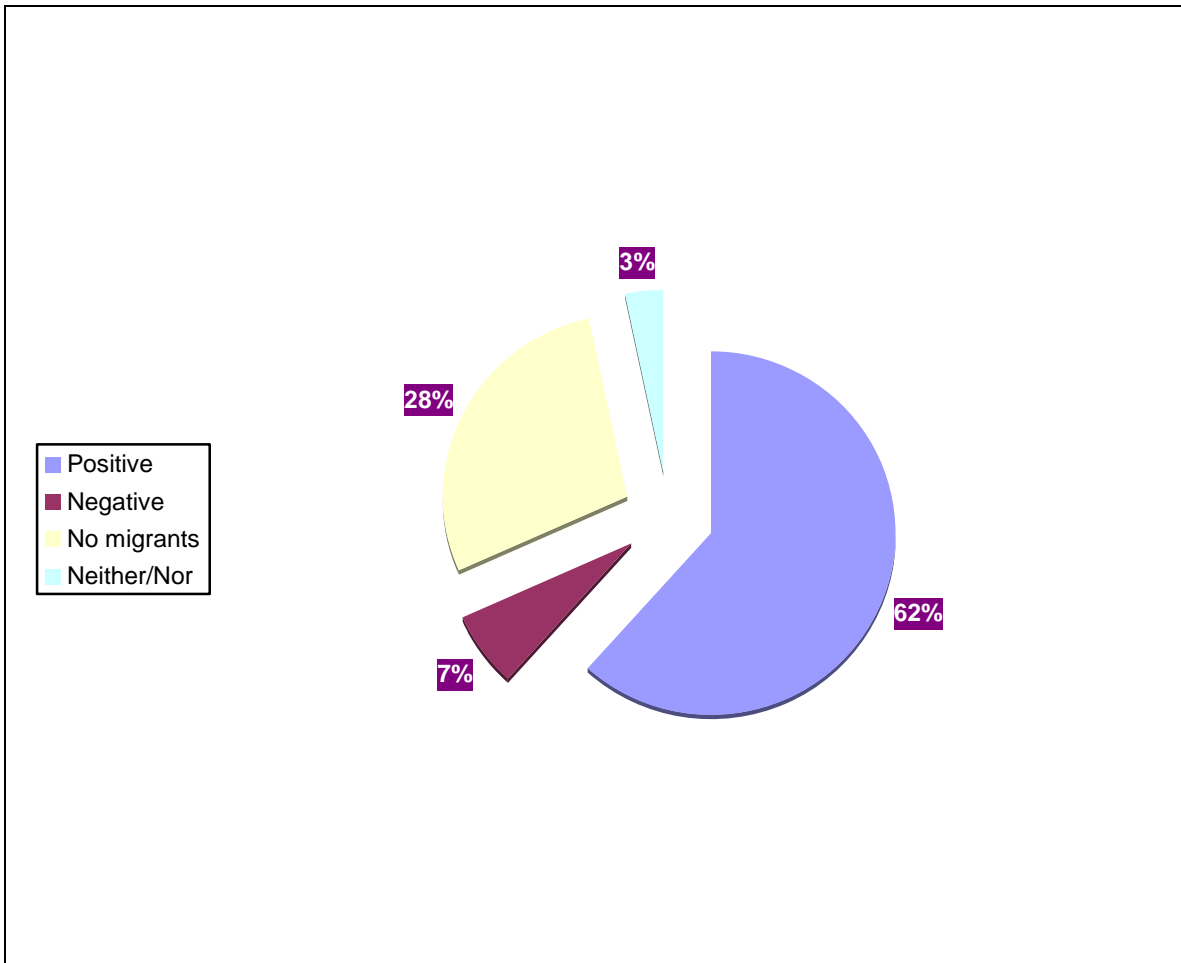
**Figure 4.7:** How the educational conditions in the households changed after some members have engaged in labour migration



The various connections between migration and development have recently been widely discussed as migration–development nexus (Nyberg-Sørensen, 2002). So people would always move to more developed areas, in order to improve their current situation. There is a presentation in Figure 4.8 on how labour migration had changed family cohesion in the households. Based on the household survey conducted

on Mogalakwena Local Municipality, 62% of the respondents argued that there is a positive change in terms of the family cohesion. Whereas, only 7% of the respondents are saying that labour migration had changed the family cohesion situation negatively. The conclusion drawn is that labour migration is having a positive impact on the family cohesion in the households.

**Figure 4.8:** How the family cohesion in the households changed after some members have engaged in labour migration

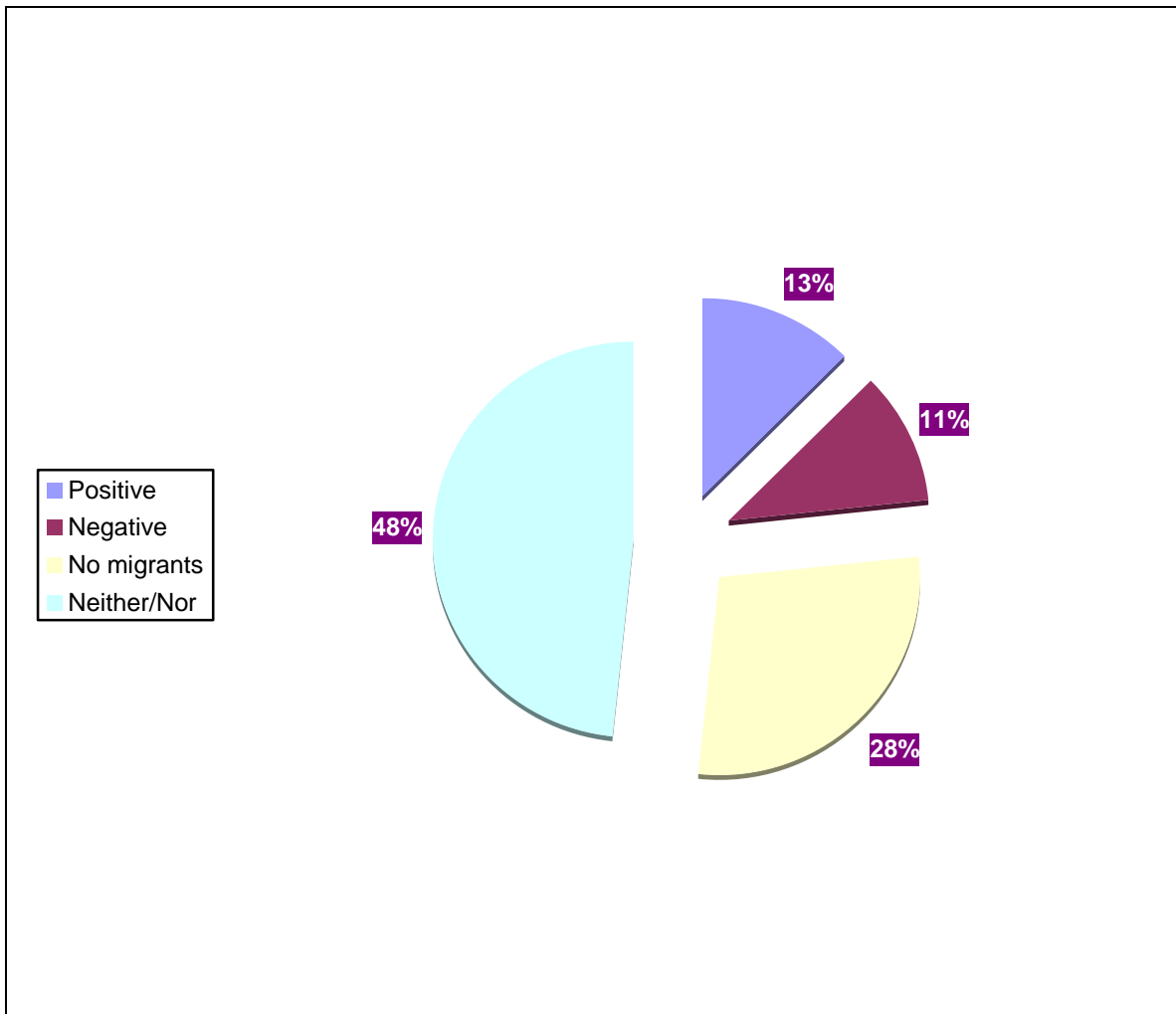


In an overall sampling, it had been found that 28% respondents of the sampled households were found to be having no migrants. Based of the data from household surveys in Figure 4.9, it illustrates that fifteen of the respondents were found to be saying that crime is a problem in the households where there are labour migrants. This, is because some of the labour migrants are parents and mostly men, so criminals take advantage of that kind of situation in the households. So it is found that the level of crime in the households were there are labour migrants is high.

On the other side only thirteen of the respondents have argued that labour migration has negative impact on the criminal situation in the households. Whereas on the other hand, 48% of the respondents are arguing that the acceleration of criminal activities in the households can neither/nor be influenced by labour migration. However, there is a less difference between the households with and without labour migrants in terms of the level of crime rate. This draws a conclusion that whether you have labour migrants in your household or not, you can always fall a victim of criminal attack in South Africa.



**Figure 4.9:** How the crime rate in the households changed after some members have engaged in labour migration



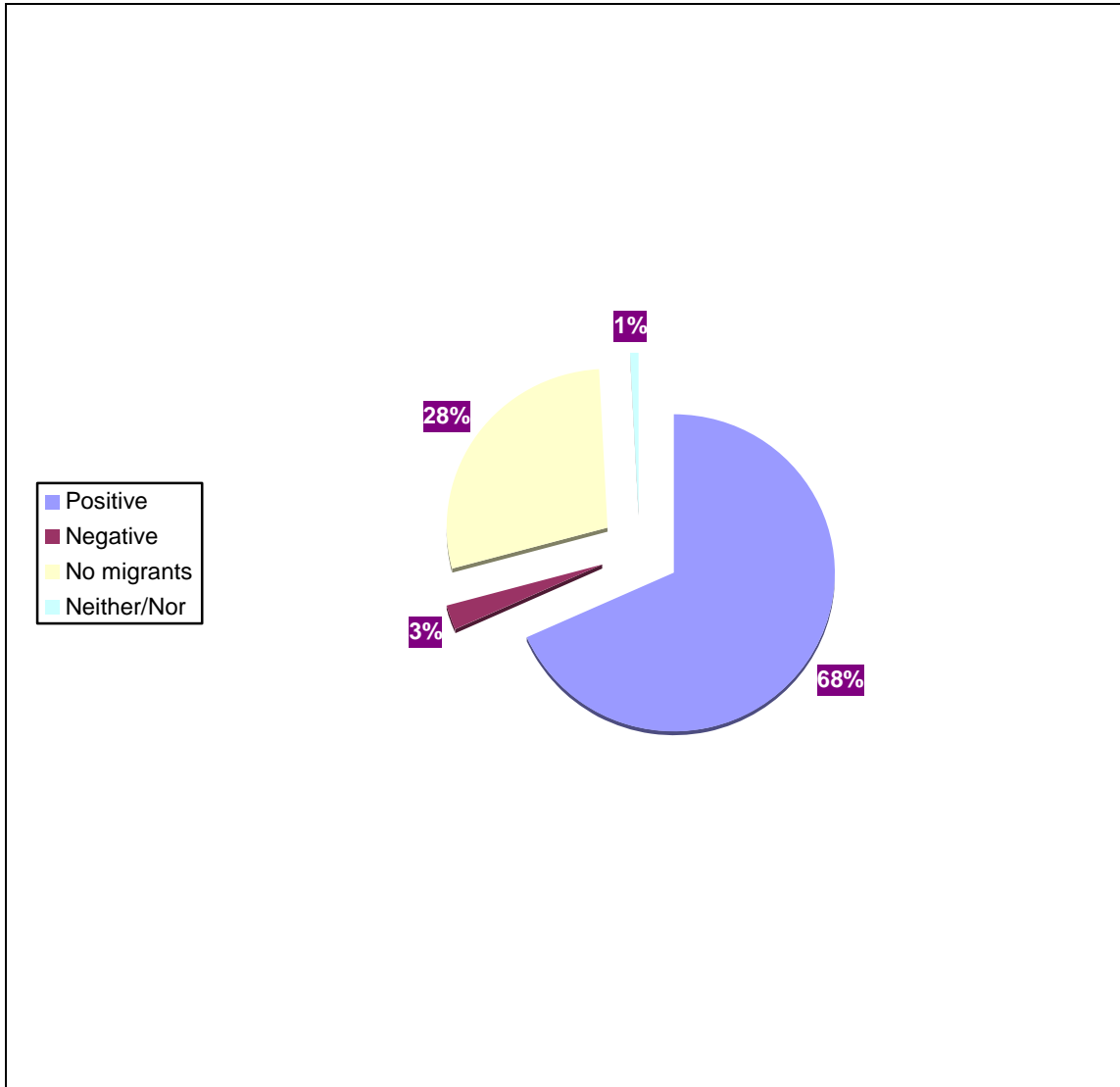
Since there was a practice of labour migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality, the standard of living has changed drastically and people can now afford the payment of health services. Based on the survey data, it had been presented in Figure 4.10, that 68% of the respondents are arguing that labour migration is having a positive impact on the health conditions in the households. Migrants are

sending the remittances back home to help in their respective homestead and that income helps with the improvement of accessing the health services for those left behind at the homestead.

Only three of the respondents are arguing that labour migration had a negative impact on the health services in their respective households. It had also been found that labour migration is a key feature of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Southern Africa. Labour migration had played a role in the spread of HIV/AIDS, and now the epidemic had a hold on the region (Ammassari et al., 2006).

This can be the other reason, why some of the respondents are arguing that labour migration had a negative impact on the health services in the households. However, the conclusion can be drawn that there is positive impact by labour on health services in the households. This is because most of the respondents have outlined that, since labour migration was practiced in their different households there is positive change in terms of improvement and accessing of health services. Households are now able to afford better health services, since they receive remittances from the migrants.

**Figure 4.10:** How the health conditions in the households changed after some members have engaged in labour migration



Labour migration presents an important livelihood strategy for poor households seeking to diversify their sources of income, but is also characteristic of the better off, and indeed of many African elites (Ravenstein, 1885; Dejong, 1981). It had been found that one of the

intentions of labour migrants is not only to earn money for themselves but also to send some remittances back home to support and develop their families and improve the level of living (Heilmann, 2006). Remittances sent back to homestead are often said to play a vital role in alleviating poverty and improving livelihoods (Heilmann, 2006). These remittances seem to be a safety net for relatively poor areas, as they are freer from political barriers and controls than either product or other capital flows (Jones, 1998). Labour migration is perceived as a household response to income risks, since remittances serve as income insurance for the households in the country of origin (Lucas and Stark, 1985).

This discussion is supported by the presentation of household survey data that was collected from Mogalakwena Local Municipality, in the Limpopo Province. Based on the survey data, a total of 67% respondents have argued that labour migration had a positive impact on the income of the household. In other words most of the people in Mogalakwena Local Municipality are surviving on the remittances sent back home by the migrants. However, only three of the respondents have argued that labour migration had a negative impact on the in of the household. This can be caused by, for instance if the migrants are

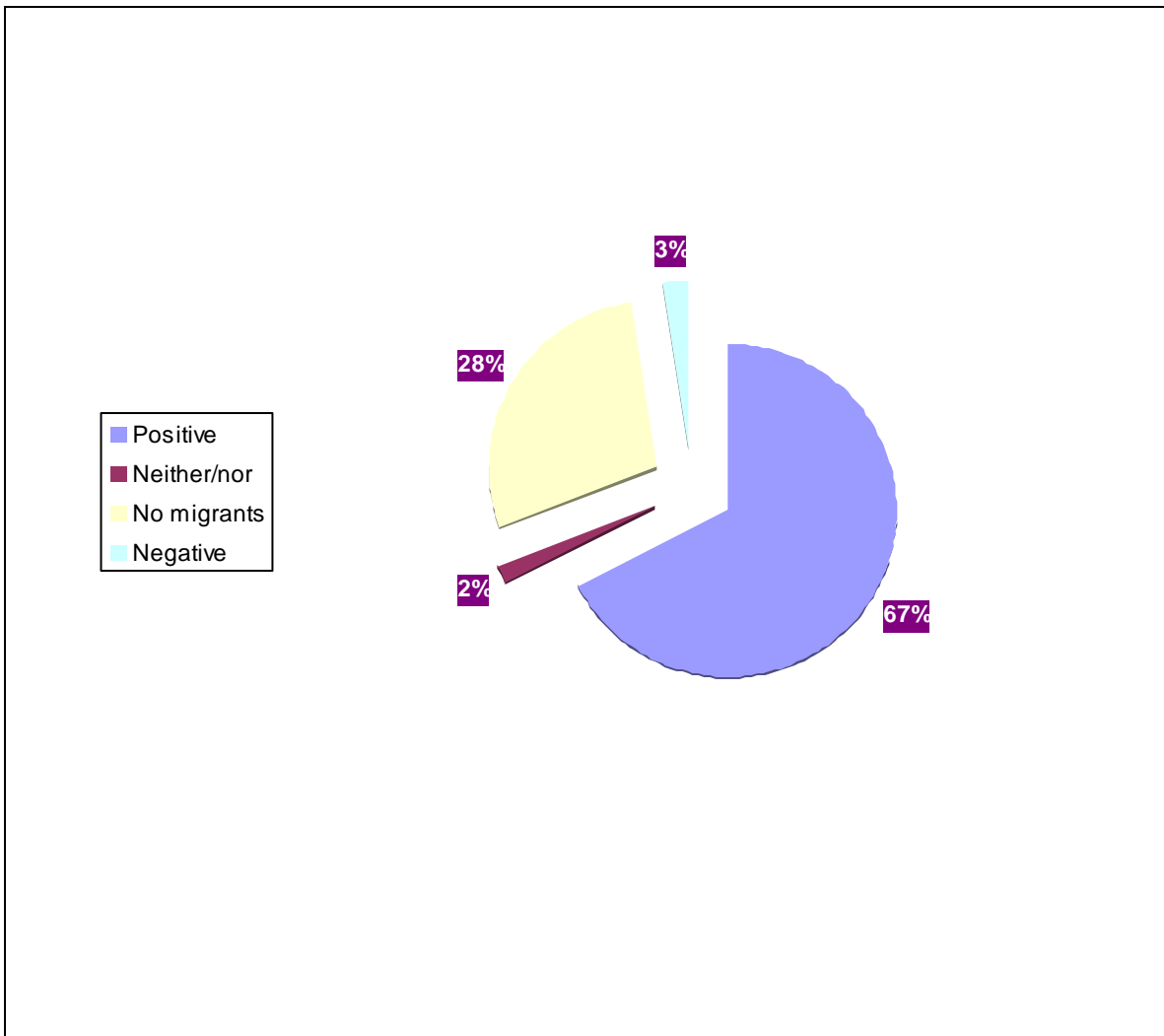
always in demand of money to sustain themselves in their new destined areas.

Therefore, it can be concluded that migration is practiced as a livelihood strategy, especially for people living in the rural areas. Based on the survey data from Mogalakwena Local Municipality, it can also be concluded that most of the migrants are supporting their families by either sending some money in terms of remittances or even by buying groceries and valuable needs to their respective households. Thereafter, it can be commonly known that once one member of the household engages in labour migration the standard of living is likely to change for the better. Also, this shows that there is a relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households.

It has been argued that as employment opportunities in rural communities tend to be restricted and limited, searching for better jobs is the major cause of labour migration from the households in the rural areas (Hamilton, 1994). Then, due to less employment opportunities in the rural areas, these tend to become a push factor for many people in rural communities. However, labour migration in South Africa is by no means a new phenomenon, because during the

latter half of the nineteenth century the discovery of diamonds and gold, coupled with the accompanying industrialisation, lured thousands of labour migrants from the Southern Africa region to the mining and industrial centres of South Africa.

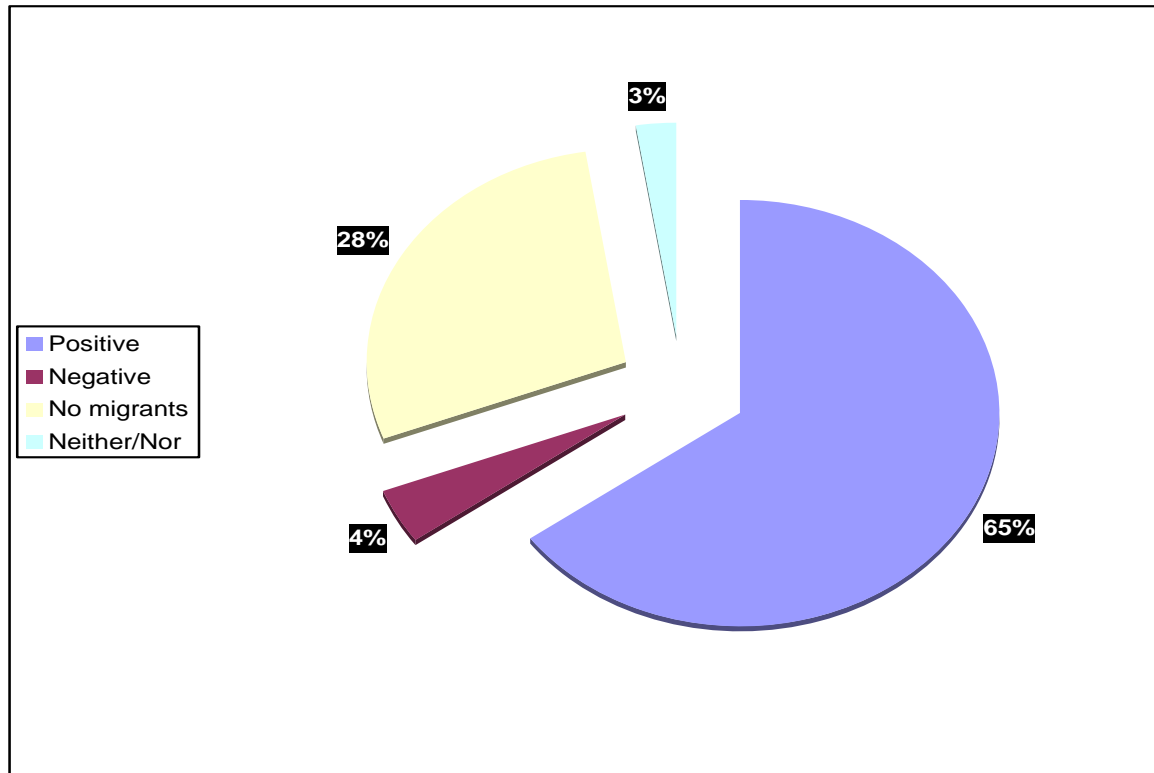
**Figure 4.11:** How the income (remittance) conditions in the households changed after some members have engaged in labour migration



Limpopo Province was also found to be having limited employment opportunities for its people, wherein 89% was rural in nature by 2001 (Marlene, 2001). In the very same period of 2001, the poverty rate of the province was found to be at 72% (Statistics South Africa, 2001).

At such poverty and unemployment rates in the province, most of the people have migrated in order to secure better opportunities elsewhere. Since labour migration was practiced there are either positive or negative impacts on the socio-economic conditions in the households. Based on the findings of the survey that was conducted in Mogalakwena Local Municipality, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households. The findings of the survey outlined that, at least 67% of the respondents have argued that labour migration had a positive impact on the employment status, in the households. This, is because most of the migrants were found to be working. On the other hand, five of the respondents have argued negatively, by saying that labour migration had a negative impact on the employment status. However, a conclusion can be drawn that labour migration had an impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households, more particularly on employment status.

**Figure 4.12:** How the employment status in the households changed after some members have engaged in labour migration



According to different scholars' theoretical perspectives, migration has had positive impact upon all stakeholders, evidenced by the fact that sending areas and the migrants themselves benefit because migrants get jobs, develop their skills, earn some money and remit part of it to their places of origin while destination areas benefit from the skills and labour they get from migrants (Skeldon, 1990). However, the respondents in the Mogalakwena Local Municipality are arguing differently as some are saying labour migration had positive impact



and others say it had negative impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households.

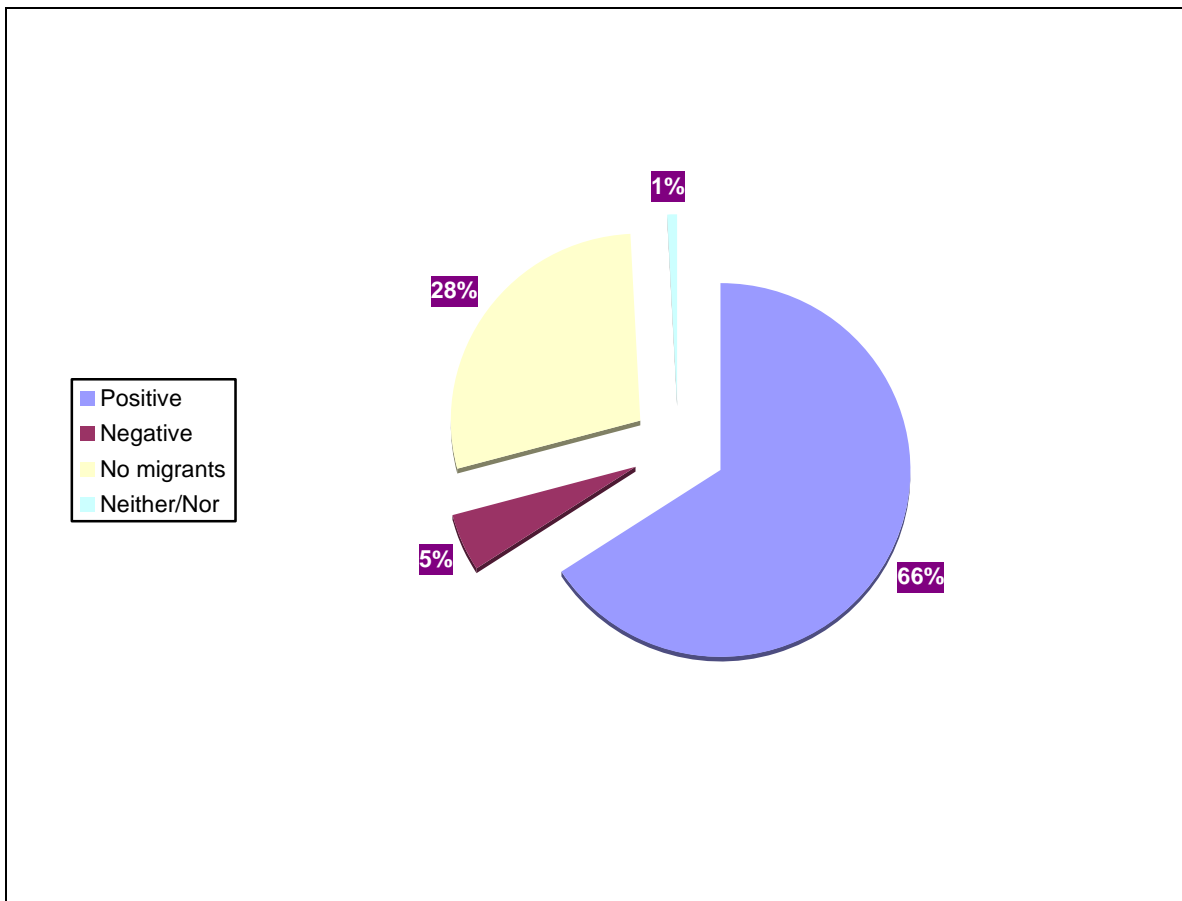
Figure 4.13 underneath indicates that most of the respondents have argued that labour migration had a positive impact on the skills development in the households. This is in the sense that most of the migrants have attained or developed their skills. Since people are working in different sectors, they would always develop those skills, in their particular position. It is very important for every person to develop their skills, because it is very good for the country in the provision of services. However, some of the respondents have argued that labour migration had a negative impact on the skills development in the households Mogalakwena Local Municipality.

Most of the skilled people are emigrating from the rural areas, resulting into brain drain. The brain drain is likely to be particularly damaging to the economy when students leave relatively soon after graduating and the country fails to receive any appreciable return on direct investments in training. Therefore, labour migration can have a negative impact on the delivery of services by the sender area. This could be attributed by the fact that the emigration of skilled professionals and others who deliver services affects investment in

education (particularly at tertiary level), staffing levels and training needs (Ammassari et al., 2006).

So it can be concluded that there is a relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households. Also, that there would always be either positive or negative impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households.

**Figure 4.13:** How the skills and training conditions in the households changed after some members have engaged in labour migration

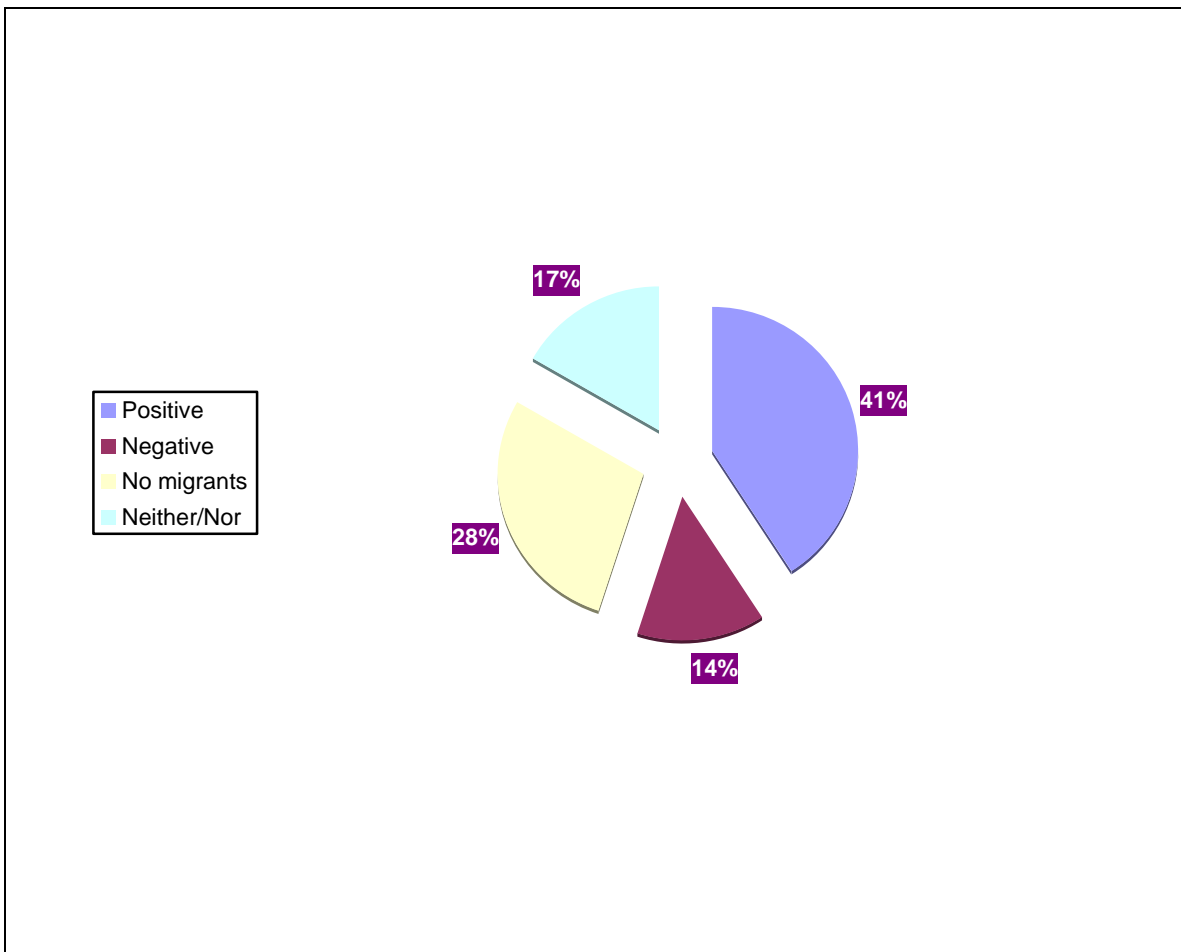


It is commonly accepted that labour migration had increasingly become an important socio-economic factor in almost all countries of the world (Beinart, 1980; Heilmann, 2006). In this way, the relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the household had been supported by the survey conducted in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. Based on the survey data in Figure 4.14, it is indicated that majority of the respondents have argued that labour migration had a positive impact on the other income generating activities in the households. It can be assumed that most of the rural areas are experiencing the same changes, in terms of the level of living caused by labour migration.

After the migrants have sent some remittances back home, some of the families decide to form small businesses or shops from those remittances, in order to sustain the level of living in their households. At least 14% respondents have argued that labour migration had negative impact on improving other income generating activities in the households. Whereas 17% of the respondents have argued that they do not regard labour migration as having either positive or negative impact on the other income generating activities in the households. However, based on survey data, it can be concluded that labour

migration had either positive or negative impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households.

**Figure 4.14:** How the other income generating activities in the households changed after some members have engaged in labour migration



#### 4.6 Conclusion

It has been demonstrated that labour migration has an impact on the socio-economic conditions in households, with the case of

Mogalakwena Local Municipality and based on the survey data, conclusions have been drawn. The majority of the respondents have argued that labour migration had a positive impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households of Mogalakwena Local Municipality. So it can be assumed that most of the rural areas are faced with the same challenge of high migration rate, since these areas share the same characteristics of poverty, under-development and unemployment rates. Also, there was a comparison in terms of the standard of living in the households, before and after members of the household engaged in labour migration. It has been found that there is a positive change in those households with labour migrants in terms of the living conditions.

Most of the respondents are happy with the decisions made by their family members (migrants) to emigrate from the municipality. However it was a matter of weighing economic stability between two different areas, which are the sender and the receiver areas. There are pull and push factors that were measured before making final decisions to emigrate from the municipality. Like it had been stated in the preceding sections, Mogalakwena Local Municipality is described as less developed, high unemployment and poverty rates area. Based on the survey data, it can be concluded that the municipality is losing its

skilled people, more especially youth to more developed areas in searching for better opportunities.

Therefore the municipalities in South Africa need to do something in order to reduce the high rate of migration and losing of skilled people to more developed areas and hopefully to other countries. This can be accomplished by improving service delivery, infrastructure development, youth development, skills development and training centres and employment creation in a sustainable manner, more particularly in the rural areas. The next chapter made recommendations and drew conclusion based on the material of the dissertation, in accordance with the objectives of the study.

## **CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter made recommendations and drew conclusions, based on the survey data and the material of the dissertation, in line with the objectives of the study. Conclusion is defined as a judgment or opinion reached after consideration of the arguments. Recommendations can be possible strategies or plan that the researcher thinks would help to address a specific problem in a research area. The household survey data analyses of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households in the Mogalakwena Local Municipality is done, so conclusions and recommendations are drawn in this chapter. Conclusions have also been drawn based on the arguments from the material of the dissertation, in accordance with all the five objectives of the study. The study made recommendations on how to address the negative socio-economic impact of labour migration in Mogalakwena Local Municipality and other municipalities in the Republic of South Africa.

This study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households of Mogalakwena Local Municipality had five closely related objectives. It would further be clarified, in order to confirm if all these

five objectives of the study are being achieved or not. This chapter had also presented lessons that could be applicable and generalised to the municipal villages and the other municipalities in the whole of South Africa, more especially those in the rural areas.

## **5.2 The findings of the study**

The study focused on the nature of migration and the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households, with the case of Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province. So it had been found that there is a practice of labour migration in the municipality. However, based on the survey data and the literature survey, there have been different reasons that encouraged people to emigrate from Mogalakwena Local Municipality. Most of the migrants are found to be weighing economic conditions between two different areas, which are the sender and the receiver areas. Two key determining factors that would continue to encourage this kind of movement are the “pull” of changing demographics and labour market needs in many industrialized cities; the “push” of population, unemployment and crisis in jobs creation in less-developed areas (Fuguitt, 1989; Gammeltoft, 2002).



Limpopo Province, as being discussed in the preceding relevant chapter, had been found to be a rural in nature. It can be concluded that most of the people are migrating from Mogalakwena Local Municipality in order to escape the high rates of poverty, inadequate services, less income, underdevelopment and unemployment conditions. So it can be concluded that Limpopo Province is a push factor to its population, since most of the people are emigrating in order to search for better socio-economic conditions elsewhere. It is good in a short term that the migrants are helping with remittances and developing their households. But in the long term labour migration can have negative impact on both the sender and receiver areas. It can be very difficult for receiver areas to render services to over populated areas, due to high migrants in that particular area. At the same time, the sending areas can find it difficult to deliver better services, since most skilled people have emigrated and their municipalities are faced with the challenge of human capital.

This study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households had five closely related objectives. Based on the survey data of Mogalakwena Local Municipality, all the five objectives have been achieved. It had been found that labour migration had more positive impacts as compared to the negative ones on the socio-

economic conditions in the households. Most of the respondents in Mogalakwena Local Municipality were positive and encouraged the practice of labour migration. Labour migration was encouraged, because the respondents feel it is a livelihood strategy and also that there are limited opportunities in Mogalakwena Local Municipality.

However, the researcher finds it not good for rural areas to loose its people, more especially skilled people to other areas. Thus, the practice of labour migration can have long term negative impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households, this in turn can affect the whole area. South Africa is faced with a serious challenge on how to control and reduce movement of its people. Particularly this is because people are attracted to more developed areas in order to search for better opportunities, such as employment, high incomes, better education, better services and better social and physical infrastructure. Therefore, it was most important for the researcher to make recommendations on how to reduce the high rate of migration and its negative socio-economic impact on households in the rural areas. The recommendations are based on the findings of the study and literature survey.

### **5.3 Recommendations based on the findings of the study**

Based on the survey data from Mogalakwena Local Municipality and conclusions drawn about the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households, the study made recommendations. The study recommends that the three spheres of government of the Republic of South Africa must take a lead in the initiative of developing rural areas in an integrated and sustainable manner. The recommendations emerging from this research study include the following:

- ✓ There must be an awareness campaign about the relationship of labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households
  
- ✓ Both households with and without migrants should be aware of the negative impact of labour migration on the socio-economic conditions in the households, so that they can make informed decisions in the future
  
- ✓ The living conditions in the households of the rural areas must be improved so that there can be less mobility, since most migrants are engaged in labour migration in order to search for better opportunities elsewhere

- ✓ Government should help in the provision of better services, safety, skills development, salaries, employment opportunities and social and physical infrastructure to the households in the rural areas, in order to reduce high rate of migration

#### **5.4 Conclusion**

The study of the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households in Mogalakwena Local Municipality had demonstrated that rural areas are faced with the challenge of migration. Rural areas usually share the same characteristics of inadequate services, unemployment and low incomes. Therefore many households in the rural areas find labour migration as an important livelihood strategy and this was witnessed in Mogalakwena Local Municipality. Survey data collected from the three sampled villages in Mogalakwena Local Municipality have demonstrated that rural areas are affected by brain drain. This can in the long run result in the rural areas finding difficulty in delivering better services to their people. It was also found that most migrants do not invest in their places of origin.

Furthermore the study had demonstrated that there is a relationship between labour migration and the socio-economic conditions in the households. Labour migration had an impact on the socio-economic

conditions in the households. The impact of labour migration on households can either be positive or negative to the sender areas. In case of the negative impact on the socio-economic conditions in the households, the study had made recommendations on how to address that problem. The South African Government needs to strengthen, the working together with ordinary community members and other non-governmental organisations in order to improve the living conditions in the rural areas.

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## APPENDIX A: Household survey questionnaire



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The purpose of this household questionnaire is to collect data on the socio-economic impact of labour migration on households: Mogalakwena Local Municipality in Limpopo Province. The data to be collected would be utilised for academic purposes only; also, anonymity of the respondents is guaranteed. Please assist and answer all the questions in the questionnaire.

## HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

### (Demographic profile)

#### Respondent/Head of the Household

1. Gender (Tick one appropriate answer)

<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>

2. Age category (Years)

<b>Below 16</b>	<b>16-35</b>	<b>36-59</b>	<b>60 and above</b>

3. Marital status

<b>Single</b>	<b>Married</b>	<b>Divorced</b>	<b>Separated</b>	<b>Widowed</b>	<b>Living together</b>

4. Highest Educational Qualification

<b>No Formal Education</b>	<b>Primary Education</b>	<b>Secondary Education</b>	<b>Diploma/Degree</b>

5. Occupational status

<b>Unemployed</b>	<b>Employed</b>	<b>Student</b>	<b>Pensioner</b>	<b>Self-Employed</b>

6. Total monthly income for the household

<b>No Income</b>	<b>R1-R500</b>	<b>R501-R1000</b>	<b>R1001-R1500</b>	<b>R1501-R2000</b>	<b>Above R2000</b>

7. How would you classify your household in terms of the level of living?

<b>Doing very well</b>	<b>Doing well</b>	<b>Neither/Nor</b>	<b>Poor</b>	<b>Very poor</b>

### (Household structure)

8. What type of dwelling does your household occupy?

<b>Modern House</b>	<b>Traditional Hut</b>	<b>Shack</b>	<b>Flat</b>	<b>Other (Specify)</b>

9. State the number of household members per age and gender categories

<b>Ages (Years)</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
Below 16			
16 to 35			
36 to 59			
60 & above			
Total			

10. How many members of the household stay here in the homestead on fulltime basis?

<b>Ages (Years)</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
Below 16			
16 to 35			
36 to 59			
60 & above			
Total			

11. How many members of the household are staying somewhere else?

<b>Ages (Years)</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
Below 16			
16 to 35			
36 to 59			
60 & above			
Total			

12. State the reason(s) why some members of the household live away from the homestead.

<b>Age</b>	<b>Gender</b>	<b>Reason(s)</b>
Below 16	Male	
	Female	
16 to 35	Male	
	Female	
36 to 59	Male	
	Female	
60 & above	Male	
	Female	

13. How many of the members of the household who live away from the homestead do you consider as labour migrants? -----  
-----

14. For those household members who remain at the homestead, what motivated their decisions?-----  
-----  
-----

15. How do those members who live away from the homestead contribute to the survival/well being of the household?

Positive	Neither/Nor	Negative

Explain -----  
-----  
-----

16. How had the household level of living changed, since some members have engaged in labour migration?

Positive	Neither/Nor	Negative

Explain the nature of change in the conditions of living -----  
-----  
-----

17. Before some of the members of the household left the homestead, how was the level of living in the household?

Doing very well	Doing well	Neither/Nor	Poor	Very poor

Explain the conditions of living then-----  
-----  
-----

18. Now that some of the members of the household left the homestead, how would you classify the household in terms of the level of living conditions?

Doing very well	Doing well	Neither/Nor	Poor	Very poor

Explain the conditions of living now-----  
-----  
-----

**(Socio-economic impact of labour migration)**

19. How would you describe the socio-economic impact of labour migration on the household?

Positive	Neither/Nor	Negative

Explain -----  
-----  
-----

20. Since some members of the household have been away from the homestead, how have the following social conditions changed?

Social factors	Positive	Neither/Nor	Negative
Education			
Family cohesion			
Crime			
Safety			
Health			

21. Since some members of the household have been away from the homestead, how have the following economic conditions changed?

Economic factors	Positive	Neither/Nor	Negative
Income (Remittance)			
Employment status			
Skills			
Income generating activities (Small business opportunities)			

22. How do you compare the nature of change of the living conditions in the household before and after labour migration took place? -----  
-----  
-----

23. What would you recommend as measures for improving the impact of labour migration on socio-economic conditions of households?-----  
-----  
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**Thank you!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!**