



# Female Migration and Housing in South Africa: Evidence from the 2007 Community Survey

Philomene NSENGIYUMVA



A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy in Population Studies, Department of Statistics  
and Population Studies, Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of the  
Western Cape.

Supervisor: Professor Gabriel TATI

November 2013

## Contents

Acronyms.....	i
Abstract.....	ii
Declaration.....	iii
Acknowledgments.....	iv
Dedication.....	v
List of appendices.....	ix
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Justification of the study of female migration and housing.....	5
1.2 Background of the study.....	7
1.3. The purpose and objectives of the study.....	11
1.3.1 Overall objective.....	12
1.3.2 Specific objectives of this study.....	12
1.4 Problem statement.....	12
1.5 Specific research questions.....	14
1.6 Conceptual framework.....	14
1.7 Significance of the study.....	17
1.8 Delimitation to the study.....	17
1.9 Definition of key terms.....	19
1.10 Thesis outline.....	20
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	22
2.1 Introduction.....	22
2.2 Theoretical consideration on migration.....	22
2.2.1 Migration selectivity theory.....	23
2.2.2 Push-pull theory of migration.....	26
2.2.3 Social capital and chain migration network theory.....	28
2.2.4 Theories of gender and migration development.....	29
2.2.5 Theory of adaptation in spatial setting.....	30
2.2.6 Female migration and housing provision.....	38
2.2.7 Housing constraints among female migrants.....	44
2.3 Empirical consideration on migration.....	45
2.3.1 Definition of migration.....	45
2.3.2 Migration typology.....	48
2.3.3 Causes of migration.....	49
2.3.4. Review of the relationship between migration and housing provision.....	51
2.3.5. Historical and political context of migration in apartheid.....	51
2.3.6 Female migration in post-apartheid South Africa.....	53

2.3.7 Direction of female migration in South Africa .....	55
2.3.8 Migration patterns in South Africa .....	57
2.3.9 Female migration and household headship patterns .....	59
2.4 Legislated human settlement and housing policy in South Africa.....	61
2.4.1 Administrative divisions of South Africa.....	61
2.4.1.1 Provinces.....	61
2.4.1.2 Metropolitan areas .....	62
2.4.1.3 Non-metropolitan areas.....	63
2.5 South African housing policy.....	64
2.6 Impact of urbanization and migration on housing provision in South Africa.....	65
2.7 Differences in housing supply across municipality areas .....	66
2.8 Factors of under-supply of housing provision .....	67
2.9 Overview of existing South African housing policies and legislations .....	68
2.10 Housing delivery initiatives to women in South Africa.....	70
2.11 Vulnerability of female migrants in the housing market.....	71
2.12 Scale of housing needs in South Africa .....	72
2.13 Policy of subsidizing housing provision in South Africa .....	73
2.14 Types of housing subsidies in South Africa .....	74
2.15 Current housing tenure situation in South Africa .....	74
2.16 Housing accessibility from a gender perspective.....	75
2.17 Demographic and socio-economic determinants of housing acquisition for women. ....	76
2.17.1 Age .....	77
2.17.2 Educational level.....	78
2.17.3 Population group.....	79
2.17.4 Marital status.....	79
2.17.5 Sector of activity .....	80
2.17.6 Employment status for women .....	82
2.17.7 Income.....	82
2.18 Household and migratory determinants .....	83
2.18.1 Household headship.....	83
2.18.2 Dwelling unit types and location .....	84
2.18.3 Methods of housing tenure.....	85
2.18.4 Duration of residence.....	86
2.19 Conceptual framework of the study.....	86
2.20 Hypotheses to be tested.....	88
<b>CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>90</b>
3.1 Introduction.....	90

3.2 Research perspective.....	90
3.3 Data used.....	92
3.4 Instrument design.....	93
3.5 Sample design .....	94
3.6 Data collection .....	94
3.7 Description of variables used in this study .....	95
3.7.1 Socio-demographic variables.....	96
3.7.1.1 Age of respondent .....	96
3.7.1.2 Sex/Gender.....	97
3.7.1.3 Marital status.....	97
3.7.1.4 Population group.....	98
3.7.1.5 Level of education.....	98
3.7.2. Migratory variables.....	99
3.7.2.1 Province of birth .....	99
3.7.2.2 Province of previous residence .....	99
3.7.2.3 Residence lived past five years .....	100
3.7.2.4 Period of movement.....	100
3.7.3 Socio-economic variables .....	100
3.7.3.1 Employment status.....	100
3.7.3.3 Occupation .....	101
3.7.3.4 Income category.....	101
3.7.4 Housing and household variables .....	102
3.7.4.1 Household size .....	102
3.7.4.2 Household headship .....	102
3.7.4.3 Main type of dwelling.....	102
3.7.4.4 Housing structure type .....	103
3.7.4.5 Housing tenure status.....	103
3.8 Data preparation.....	103
3.8.1 Levels of analysis.....	104
3.8.2 Creation of rectangular files.....	104
3.8.3 Merging files .....	104
3.9 Migration interval .....	105
3.9.1 Fixed-term net migration .....	105
3.9.2 Life-time net migration .....	106
3.10 Duration of residence.....	106
3.11 Area of residence.....	106
3.12 Data analysis and statistical methods.....	107

3.12.1 Univariate analysis.....	108
3.12.2 Bivariate analysis.....	108
3.12.2.1 Cross-tabulation analysis.....	108
3.12.2.2 Chi-Square test statistics.....	109
3.12.3 Multivariate analysis.....	109
3.12.3.1 Logistic regression analysis.....	110
3.12.3.2 Interpretation of logistic regression output.....	111
3.13 Conclusion.....	112
CHAPTER 4: UNIVARIATE AND BIVARIATE ANALYSIS.....	113
4.1 Introduction.....	113
4.2 Sample composition.....	113
4.3 Fixed-term migration.....	116
4.3.1 Fixed-term net migration of FM.....	118
4.4 Life-time migration.....	120
4.4.1 Life-time net of female migrants.....	121
4.5 Housing tenure status across areas of residence.....	122
4.5.1 Housing tenure status of female migrants in metropolitan areas.....	122
4.5.2 Housing tenure status of female migrants in non-metropolitan areas.....	123
4.6 Bivariate analysis by testing hypotheses.....	124
4.6.1 Female migration and housing acquisition in municipalities.....	126
4.6.1.1 Housing access among female migrants not head of household in different metropolitan areas.....	127
4.6.1.2 Housing access of migrants not HOH in metropolitan areas.....	128
4.6.2 Differentials in housing tenure status.....	129
4.6.2.1 <i>Population group and housing tenure by household headship in metropolitan areas</i> .....	129
4.6.2.2 <i>Population group and tenure status by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	132
4.6.3 Housing tenure status and marital status in municipalities.....	134
4.6.3.1 <i>Tenure status and marital status by household headship in metropolitan</i> .....	135
4.6.3.2 <i>Housing tenure and marital status by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	136
4.6.4 Housing tenure and employment in municipalities.....	138
4.6.4.1 <i>Housing tenure and employment by household headship in metropolitan areas</i> .....	138
4.6.4.2 <i>Housing tenure and employment by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	140
4.6.5.1 <i>Housing tenure and level of education by household headship in metropolitan areas</i> .....	141

4.6.5.2 <i>Housing tenure and level of education by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	143
4.6.6 Housing tenure and age group in municipalities.....	144
4.6.6.1 <i>Housing tenure and age group by household headship in metropolitan areas</i> .....	145
4.6.6.2 <i>Housing tenure and age by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	146
4.6.7 Housing tenure and income earnings in municipalities .....	148
4.6.7.1 <i>Housing tenure and income by household headship in metropolitans</i> .....	148
4.6.7.2 <i>Housing tenure and income by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	149
4.6.8 Housing tenure and duration of residence in municipalities.....	150
4.6.8.1 <i>Housing tenure and duration of residence by household headship in metropolitan..</i>	151
4.6.8.2 <i>Housing tenure and duration of residence by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	152
4.6.9 Housing tenure and household size in municipalities.....	154
4.6.9.1 <i>Housing tenure and household size by household headship in metropolitan areas</i> ..	154
4.6.9.2 <i>Housing tenure and household size by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	155
4.6.10 Housing tenure and housing structure type in municipalities.....	156
4.6.10.1 <i>Housing tenure and housing structure type by household headship in metropolitan areas</i> .....	156
4.6.10.2 <i>Housing tenure and housing structure type by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	158
4.6.11 Housing tenure and province of birth in municipalities.....	159
4.6.11.1 <i>Housing tenure and province of birth by households headship in metropolitan areas</i> .....	159
4.6.11.2 <i>Housing tenure and province of birth by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	160
4.6.12.1 <i>Housing tenure and province of previous residence by household headship in metropolitan areas</i> .....	163
4.6.12.2 <i>Housing tenure and province of previous residence by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	165
4.6.13 Occupation and housing tenure status in municipalities.....	166
4.6.13.1 <i>Housing tenure and occupation by household headship in metropolitan areas</i> .....	167
4.6.13.2 <i>Housing tenure and occupation by household headship in non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	168
4.7 Comparison of housing tenure and areas of residence.....	170
4.7.1 Introduction.....	170
4.7.2. Housing tenure and population group by household headship and areas of residence	171
4.7.3 Housing tenure and marital status by household headship and area of residence .....	173
4.7.4 Housing tenure and level of education by household headship and areas of residence. ....	174

4.7.5 Housing tenure and employment status by households headship and area of residence .....	176
4.7.6 Housing tenure and age group by household headship and area of residence.....	177
4.7.7 Housing tenure and income by household headship and areas of residence .....	178
4.7.8. Housing tenure and duration of residence by household headship and area of residence .....	180
4.8.9. Housing tenure and housing type by household headship and area of residence .....	181
4.7.10. Housing tenure and province of birth by household headship and areas of residence .....	182
4.7.11. Housing tenure and province of previous residence by household headship and areas of residence .....	184
4.7.12. Housing tenure and occupation by household headship and areas of residence.....	186
4.7.13. Housing tenure and household size by household headship and area of residence ...	188
4.9 Conclusion .....	189
<b>CHAPTER 5: LOGISTIC REGRESSION ANALYSIS .....</b>	<b>192</b>
5.1 Determinants of housing tenure among female migrants .....	192
5.1.1 Female migrants head of household living in owned and fully paid up housing accommodation .....	193
5.1.1.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas .....	193
5.1.1.2 Level II: non-metropolitan areas.....	194
5.1.2 Female migrants not head of household living in owned and fully paid up housing accommodation .....	197
5.1.2.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas .....	197
5.1.2.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas.....	198
5.1.3 Female migrants head of household living in owned but not fully paid up housing units .....	202
5.1.3.1 <i>Level I: Metropolitan areas</i> .....	202
5.1.3.2 <i>Level II: Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	203
5.1.4 Female migrants not head of household living in owned but not fully paid up houses	206
5.1.4.1 <i>Level I: Metropolitan areas</i> .....	206
5.1.4.2 <i>Level II: Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	209
5.1.5 Female migrants head of household living in rented housing accommodation.....	212
<i>Level I: Metropolitan areas</i> .....	212
5.1.5.2 <i>Level II: Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	213
5.1.6 Female migrants not head of household living in rented housing .....	217
5.1.6.1 <i>Level I: Metropolitan areas</i> .....	217
5.1.6.2 <i>Level II: Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	219
5.1.7 Female migrants head of household living in occupied rent-free accommodation .....	222
5.1.7.1 <i>Level I: Metropolitan areas</i> .....	222

5.1.7.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas.....	223
5.1.8 Female migrants not heading household living in occupied rent-free housing accommodation .....	226
5.1.8.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas .....	226
5.1.8.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas.....	227
5.4 Comparison of logistic regression results among areas of residences.....	229
5.5 Conclusion .....	232
CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS .....	233
6.1 Summary of the methodology used .....	233
6.2 Overview of the conceptual framework utilized.....	234
6.3 Spatial distribution of net migration flow .....	236
6.4 Characteristics of female migrants.....	237
6.5 Confirmation of hypotheses.....	239
6.5.1 Housing tenure across municipalities and population groups.....	240
6.5.2 Insight on marital status and housing tenure in municipalities.....	242
6.5.3 Housing tenure and its relation to employment status .....	244
6.5.4 The relationship between level of education and housing tenure .....	246
6.5.5 The impact of age on housing acquisition .....	248
6.5.6 The impact of income on housing tenure.....	249
6.5.7 The implications of duration of residence on housing tenure.....	251
6.5.8 Housing tenure and household size: Evidence from metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas .....	252
6.5.11 Housing tenure and province of previous residence in municipalities .....	256
6.5.12 Housing tenure and occupation in municipalities.....	256
6.6 The differentials of housing tenure among municipalities.....	258
6.7 The predictors of housing tenure status .....	264
6.7.1 Sub group 1.1: FM HOH living in owned and fully paid up houses .....	264
6.7.1.1 Metropolitan areas.....	264
6.7.1.2 Non-metropolitan areas .....	265
6.7.2 Sub group 1.2: FM NOT HOH living in owned and fully paid housing .....	266
6.7.2.1 Metropolitan areas.....	267
6.7.2.2 Non-metropolitan areas .....	267
6.7.3 Sub-group 2.1: FM HOH living in owned but not yet fully paid up houses.....	268
6.7.3.1 Metropolitan areas.....	268
6.7.3.2 Non-metropolitan areas .....	269
6.7.4 Sub group 2.2: FM NOT HOH living in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units..	270
6.7.4.1 Metropolitan areas.....	270



6.7.4.2 <i>Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	272
6.7.5 Sub group 3.1: FM HOH living in renting.....	273
6.7.5.1 <i>Metropolitan areas</i> .....	273
6.7.5.2 <i>Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	274
6.7.6 Sub group 3.2: FM not HOH living in rented dwellings .....	275
6.7.6.1 <i>Metropolitan areas</i> .....	275
6.7.6.2 <i>Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	277
6.7.7 Sub group 4.1: FM HOH living in occupied rent-free.....	278
6.7.7.1 <i>Metropolitan areas</i> .....	278
6.7.7.2 <i>Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	279
6.7.8 Sub group 4.2: FM NOT HOH living in occupied rent-free.....	280
6.7.8.1 <i>Metropolitan areas</i> .....	280
6.7.8.2 <i>Non-metropolitan areas</i> .....	281
6.8 Comparison of housing tenure status among municipal areas.....	281
6.8.1 FM HOH living in owned and fully paid up houses by area of residence.....	282
6.8.2 FM NOT HOH living in owned fully paid up house by area of residence .....	282
6.8.4 FM not HOH living in owned not fully paid up houses by areas of residence.....	285
6.8.5 FM HOH living in rented dwellings by areas .....	286
6.8.6 FM NOT HOH living in rented dwellings by areas.....	287
6.8.9 FM HOH living in occupied rent-free by areas.....	289
6.8.10 FM NOT HOH living in occupied rent-free houses by areas of residence.....	290
6.9 Conclusion .....	291
CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION .....	293
7.1 Conceptualised implications of patterns in female migration and housing tenancy.....	294
7.2 Data issues to be addressed in future study .....	297
7.3 Some recommendations .....	298
7.3.1 <i>Some policy directions</i> .....	298
7.3.2 <i>Some research directions</i> .....	301
References.....	303
Appendices.....	323

## Acronyms

AE:	Enumeration Area
AIDs:	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC:	African National Congress
ASGI-SA:	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative-South Africa
BNG:	Breaking New Ground
CODESRIA:	Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa.
COHRE:	Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions
CS:	Community Survey
DFID:	Department for International Development
DMA:	District Management Area
ESCAP:	Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
FM:	Female Migrants
FHISER:	Fort Hare Institute of Social and Economic Research
GAD:	Gender and Development
GEAR:	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
HIV:	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HOH:	Head of House Hold
IIED:	International Institute for Environment and Development
ILO:	International Labor Organization
INSTRAW:	International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women
IZA:	Institute for the Study of Labor
MDB:	Municipal Demarcation Board
NICS:	New Industrialized Countries
NSDS:	National Skills Development Strategy
NSSO:	National Sample Survey Office
NTC:	National Technical Certificate
NURCHA:	Nation Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency
PHP:	People's Housing Process
RDP:	Reconstruction and Development Program
SA:	South Africa
SACN:	South African City Network
SADC:	Southern African Development Community
SASA:	South African Social Attitude
SPSS:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SSA:	Statistics South Africa
UF:	Urban Foundation
UK:	United Kingdom
UNCRD:	United Nations Centre for Regional Development
UNDP:	United Nations of Development Program
UNFPA:	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF:	United Nations Children's Fund
UNISA:	University of South Africa
UNRISD:	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
UNRSD:	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
US:	United States
WID:	Women in Development

## Abstract

Throughout the world, growing evidence suggests an increase of female migrants in migration streams. In the context of South Africa, women are not exempted from migration mechanisms. This new migration phenomenon is observed to influence housing accessibility among female migrants in the areas of destinations specifically in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of South Africa. Yet, little is known about the forms of housing tenure female migrants use to acquire a place to live in. The methods of housing acquisition of female migrants are still imperfectly documented. Moreover, it is not clear of how housing tenure differs among female migrants between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. Factors determining housing tenure and at what extent those factors are selective towards women in the places of destination are not properly elaborated in the existing body of knowledge. The aim of this research is to highlight the relationship between female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa by specifically looking at household headship in a gender perspective, and how housing acquisition differ between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of South Africa. It is assumed that inasmuch as migration is selective, so is a really differentiated selectivity of such places as metropolises and non-metropolises.

This research makes use of the 2007 Community Survey secondary data derived from Statistics South Africa. The data analysis was carried out, first, by means of univariate analysis, cross-tabulation, and Chi-square statistical test for association. Logistic regression analysis was used in order to identify the determining factors of housing tenure among female migrants. The two groups of female migrants were considered namely: female migrants heading households and those who were not heading households. The units of analysis were metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. This research focuses on internal female migration and housing in South Africa by examining different socio-demographic, socioeconomic, migratory, households, and housing attributes, by taking into account variables such as age, population group, marital status, level of education, just to name the few.

By bringing together female migrants characteristics, migratory characteristics; and housing characteristics, the study found that female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas are more likely to stay in rented dwellings, while those who were living in areas outside metropolitan (non-metropolitan areas) were highly represented in owned and fully paid dwellings. This study found further that, besides duration of residence, housing structure type, especially the availability of standalone housing type increases the likelihood of staying in owned and fully paid housing. This study concludes that, this new female migration stream creates more tension and pressure on housing provision in metropolitan areas in relation to non-metropolitan areas. Thus, policy makers should be aware of female migration and its impact in the housing sector in order to plan accordingly.

**Key words:** Migration; housing; South Africa; household; internal migration; International migration; Community Survey; Areas of residence; housing tenancy.

## **Declaration**

I hereby declare that “Female Migration and Housing in South Africa” is my own work, that it has never been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Signed: Philomene NSENGIYUMVA

Date:



## Acknowledgments

First of all, I would like to thank my Heavenly Father who gave me strength, wisdom, guidance to carry out this work. Thank you for being so close to me in time of weakness and despair. Dear Father, whenever I cried to you, you have never let me down. Thank you for your unfailing love. May your name be praised forever and ever.

I would like to convey my sincere and deepest gratitude to my supervisor Professor Gabriel TATI, whom I owe special thanks for doing more than his best by being always there for me as a source of good advice, and proper guidance. Without your supervision, this thesis wouldn't be at this very good end. My sincere thanks also extend to Professor Marion Keim who has been close to me and monitoring my progress. She has been always available for me and ensured that the bursary gets to me on time. I do not have proper words to express my gratitude. I am so humbled by the overwhelming amount of support and encouragement you have showed throughout my PhD program.

My indebted thanks go to the CEO of the South African Wine Industries Trust (SAWIT) for funding my studies. From the bottom of my heart, thank you for lifting me up as a woman. Lizette Vegoes, I owe you special thanks for your assistance in my data analysis. Without your assistance, this thesis wouldn't be complete. Thank you for your time, kindness, and encouragement.

I owe special thanks to the University of the Western Cape at large where I grew intellectually. It is indeed a "*Place of quality, a Place to Grow, from Hope to Action, through Knowledge*". To the staff of my home department of Statistics and Population Studies, I do not know how I can I express my sincere thanks to you all. This department has been more than a home to me, where I felt the warmth and love from the staff members. My sincere gratitude and appreciation go to the Head of the Department for supporting me financially by allowing me to work in the department. It was a very good experience; it gave me more confidence and strength and I have learned how to be multi tasks.

To my beloved husband Dr Schadrack NSENGIYUMVA, I give you the Best Husband Award for allowing me to stay far away from you as your wife and a mother of children. All these years you became everything in the family for me to achieve this key of success. Not all men who can stand this. You became a father and at the same time a mother on my absence in the home. To my children: Blaise; Robert; Lambert; and especially you Celine who had to take some responsibilities at your young age. Though you all missed my attention and care, I am so happy that you remained obedient to your father and to all who surround you. Keep it up and let God continue to guide you as you grow. Thank you for your incredible patience.

I owe special thanks to the Seventh - Day Adventist Wynberg church members especially Aunt Valery and Oliva Wesso you have been more than mothers to me during my studies. To Jotham Shyamba's family, thank you for being such wonderful family, you really adopted me when my family was far away. To my colleagues in the PhD lab, Clement, Siaka, Innocent, Brian, Jonas, you have been more than my brothers. We shared the pain and happiness. Thank you for being such very nice people to me.

## **Dedication**

I dedicate my dissertation work to my God who gave me the breath of life and wisdom to reach this level. A special thanks to my loving husband Dr Schadrack NSENGIYUMVA whose words of encouragement always comforted me. This dissertation is also dedicated to my children whom I deprived their tender motherly care in order to accomplish this dissertation. I will always appreciate your incredible patience you displayed while I was away from you.



## List of figures

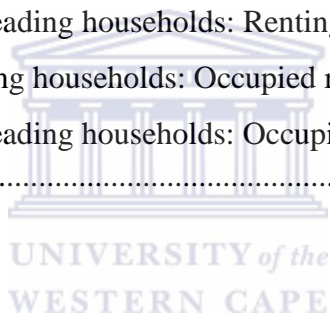
Figure 2.1: The map of the South African provinces .....	62
Fig. 2.2: The map of metropolitan municipalities in South Africa .....	63
Fig. 2.3: Map of district municipalities in South Africa .....	64
Fig. 2.4: A typical model of housing subsidy plan.....	71
Figure 4.1: The distributions of housing tenure in metropolitan areas .....	123
Figure 4.2: The distribution of housing tenure status in non-metropolitan area.....	124
Fig 4.3.1: Distribution of female migrants not head of households (HOH) between metropolitan and housing tenure status.....	128
Fig 4.3.2: Distribution of female migrants' head of households (HOH) between metropolitan and tenure status.....	129
Fig 4.4.1: Distribution between employment status and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas .....	139
Fig 4.4.2: Distribution between employment status and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas .....	141
Fig. 4.5.1: Distribution between level of education and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas .....	143
Fig.4.5.2: Distribution between level of education and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas .....	144

## List of tables

Table 2.1: Kok’s suggested typology of spatial mobility. ....	47
Table 3.1: Classification of variables .....	96
Table 4.1: Frequency distributions.....	115
Table 4.2.1: Matrix balance between province of previous residence and province of current residence .....	119
Table 5.2.2: Fixed-term net migration .....	119
Table 4.3: Province of birth and province of current residence .....	120
Table 4.3.1: Matrix balance between province of birth and province of current residence... ..	121
Table 4.3.2: Life-time net migration .....	122
Table 4.4.1: Distribution of population group and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas .....	132
Table 4.4.2: Distribution between population group and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas .....	134
Table 4.5.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and marital status in metropolitan areas .	136
Table 4.5.2: Distribution between marital status and tenure status in non-metropolitan areas .....	137
Table 4.6.1: Distribution of age group and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas.....	146
Table 4.6.2: Distribution of age group and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas	147
Table 4.7.1: Distribution of income and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas.....	149
Table 4.7.2: Distribution of income and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas ...	150
Table 4.8.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and duration of residence in metropolitan areas .....	152
Table 4.8.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and duration of residence in non-metropolitan areas .....	153
Table 4.9.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and household size in metropolitan areas .....	155
Table 4.9.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and household size in non-metropolitan areas .....	156
Table 4.10.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and housing structure type in metropolitan areas .....	157
Table 4.10.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and housing structure type in non-metropolitan areas .....	158
Table 4.11.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and province of birth in metropolitan areas .....	160



Table 4.11.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and province of birth in non-metropolitan areas .....	162
Table 4.12.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and province of previous residence in metropolitan areas .....	164
Table 4.12.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and province of previous residence in non-metropolitan areas .....	166
Table 4.13.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and occupation in metropolitan areas ...	168
Table 4.13.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and occupation in non-metropolitan areas .....	170
Table 5.1: Female migrants heading households: Owned and fully paid up houses .....	196
Table 5.2: Female migrants not heading households: Owned and fully paid up houses .....	201
Table 5.3: Female migrants heading households: Owned but not fully paid up yet houses ..	205
Table 5.4: Female migrants not heading households: Owned but not fully paid.....	211
Table 5.5: Female migrants heading households living in rented housing .....	216
Table 5.6: Female migrants not heading households: Renting accommodation.....	221
Table 5.7: Female migrants heading households: Occupied rent-free accommodation .....	225
Table 5.8: Female migrants not heading households: Occupied rent-free housing accommodation .....	228



## List of appendices

Appendix 1: A copy of migratory and housing tenancy variables from the 2007 Community Survey metadata.....	323
Appendix 2: Table 4.14: Comparison among areas of residence.....	329
Appendix 3: List of categories of municipalities of South Africa .....	335



## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This study aims at examining the relationship between female migration and housing in South Africa by comparing metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of South Africa, bearing in mind that those areas of jurisdiction are areas closer to the population. The study uses data from the 2007 Community Survey requested from Statistics South Africa. In line with female migrant's characteristics, the present study tries to identify the dominant methods of housing tenure and the factors contributing towards different forms of housing tenure among female migrants whether heading or not heading households, by looking at the differences and the similarities between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of South Africa.

Knowing that metropolitan areas attract many migrants (Farmer and Moon, 2009), not many are, however, able to move directly to metro cities. Migration streams however ought not to be thought of in terms of single moves (Bekker, 2002). As this author simply put, migration involves more than one move and is then known as step-wise migration. Migration from rural areas to neighbouring towns and subsequently to cities may therefore be called step-wise gravity flow migration (Cross et al, 1997 and 1999; Bekker, 2002; Atkinson, 2007; Landau et al, 2013). Generally, this type of migration may be compared to water flowing downhill where the metropolis is considered as the bottom of the hill (Bekker, 2002).

Female migrants in general often move from areas to another as individuals or as households in search of economic infrastructure or social infrastructure (Bekker, 2002). In fact, female migration to non-metropolitan areas may differ from metropolitan areas in a sense that it provides the mix opportunities that may require lower levels of education, provide accessibility of employment in low-skills occupation, and offer low-income subsistence opportunities, and more flexible access to scarce resources including low-cost housing. Tucker (1976) saw that the areas outside metropolitan municipality is where land and state-subsidized housing scheme are more easily accessed which may facilitate housing ownership among female migrants (Local Government Information). In fact, small cities play a crucial economic role in rural areas as it is the sphere which is closer to the population.

The idea above is controversial to metropolitan areas with densely populated, where access to resources, including housing, is highly competitive among female migrants. Land in those areas is highly costly, housing prices are not really affordable for female migrants and

lifestyle is very expensive in general. This means that migration creates problem in terms service delivery in places of destinations

Therefore, in line with female migration and housing tenancy, this study compares the areas of residence in order to assess the differences and similarities of housing tenure between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. The study emphasizes on both internal and international migration, defined as a movement from the place or country of birth (lifetime migration) and within the last five years prior to 2006 (fixed date migration). In respect of household headship and areas of residence, the most prevalent form of housing tenure among female migrants heading or not heading households may be identified. The rationale behind this will be detailed later.

The theoretical line of inquiry followed in this study is deterministic, emphasizing selectivity and differentials in migration and house tenancy. Along this line, research on migration uses explanatory or predictor variables such as age, sex, marital status, education career and life cycle, to name a few (see Shaw, 1976,p,15) to predict housing accessibility by making a comparison between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. Indeed, the selective nature of migration by a considerable body of demographic and sociological research which has focused primary on variables listed above. However, a question remains is a theoretical point of view way in which migration selectivity operates under specific conditions. Bogue (1961) cited in Shaw (1976) referred to this as specified contribution of environmental conditions at places of origin and destinations. The argument developed in this study concerning the latter, stipulated that the selectivity and differentials operate in conjunction with the counter-selectivity of destinations to which migrants move to. In other words, inasmuch as migration select individuals at areas of origin according to certain characteristics, the areas of destination exert in counterpart, a selectivity in inserting migrants in their opportunity structure. This may be particularly the case for housing tenancy. Opportunity structure differs according to the layer onto which the area is located within the national settlement system. The stock of housing depends on the population size and function of the areas within the national settlement system. The decision to be made by the individual female migrant with respect to housing tenancy status (owned and fully paid, owned but not fully paid, renting, and occupied rent-free) may vary not only because of those variables listed above, and others related to the individual, but also because of the housing situation prevailing in the areas of destination. In the context of this study, those areas are metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities of South Africa.

As Roseman (1983) put it, the actual selection of destination is based on place utilities derived from a combination of factors including; economic and noneconomic, micro (those attributes unique to one place) and macro (those applicable to larger geographic areas). More

recently, attention has been placed on the role of sets of place attributes in the migration decision (Gustavus and Brown, 1977). The analysis of the role of economic versus social factors in destination is selective and there is a difference between reason for moving and reasons for destinations selection. The framework here emphasizes the variety of ways in which several factors, including economic (e.g. job seeking) and noneconomic (e.g. housing accessibility) may be combined to influence destination selection, and ties to places in the destination selection decision. The choice of destination is a function of economic opportunities and local or regional amenities. Lowry (1966) hypothesis suggests that, migration to a place is a function of economic conditions at that place, whereas outmigration from a place tends to be related to the age composition of the population. As an example, retirement in many cases obliges people to move from metropolitan to non-metropolitan areas. Thus, it is worthy to say that the socio-demographic effects of migration selectivity could interact with the housing market effects in the destination areas. It is a well-established fact that the housing situation in the major cities (say metropolitan areas) is very different from that in non-metropolitan areas. Thus, competition over house ownership could be tougher in major cities or metropolitan areas than what it could be in the areas falling outside metropolitan areas or non-metropolitan (Grootaert and Dubois, 1986, p.5). The conceptual framework here in introduction is given in a broad term. More details will be provided later in the literature review.

The feminization of migration is a topic that has been prominently visible in literature. The participation of women in migration worldwide is not something recent, nor is equally common in all parts of the world (Fawcett et al, 1984; International Organization for Migration, 2003; Tati, 2010). A considerable number of studies have extensively documented the predominance of internal female migration and not necessary being of the associational type (Tati, 2010; Lututala, 2010). From studies conducted in different developing countries especially in Asia, what emerges is that women are also moving as their male counterparts (Tati, 2010). Since the early 1980s, an increasing number of women, both single and married, with some often better educated than men have been moving for different reasons including new and improved opportunities (Obaid, 2006).

Yet, women are sometimes said to be newer entrants in the global migration trend (International Organisation for Migration, 2003). Today, about half of international and national migrants globally are women (Christose, 1998). Previous studies (Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008) revealed that most women accompany or join their family members, most often their husbands in the city (Lututala, 2010); this trend appears to be increasing. New

trends show an increasing number of female migrants that are migrating on their own, as women are now the principal wage earners for themselves and their families. Women move to urban areas for a number of different reasons, ranging from seeking income opportunities, fleeing conflict, environmental degradation, family problems, coping with health-related problems like HIV/AIDS and other factors such as better living conditions including housing (Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008). The present era, viewed as “The Age of Migration” (Caritas Internationalis, 2012) is characterized by five current migration phenomena: its *globalization* (there is a greater number of countries affected by migratory movements); its *acceleration* (reflected in an increased volume of migrants); its *differentiation* (migrants moving to a single country belong to a variety of ethnicities and groups); its *politicization* (domestic policies, bilateral and regional relations and national security policies of States are being increasingly affected by concerns about risks of international migration and vice-versa; and its *feminization*; (Caritas Internationalis, 2012).

Over the past several decades, migration has been characterized by a series of complex movements together with several dominant patterns of mobility (Rogan et al, 2009). In the context of South Africa, it has been observed that internal migration has become more feminized (Posel, 2004). Studies suggest that ordinary women have become significantly more mobile in South Africa and in the whole of Southern Africa over the past decade (Roux, 2009). The migration of women, overall, has risen steadily between 1960 and 2000. Although this development is often linked to a movement to join spouses in urban areas, low (and even declining) marital rates amongst women in South Africa suggest an increase in independent movements (Roux, 2009).

Recent research (Roux, 2009) specifically in South Africa, migration has been one of the most important components contributing to population growth in cities across all nine provinces of the country during the twelve years of democracy (Roux, 2009). Internal migration has also been, indeed, the most difficult demographic feature to predict in order to plan for service delivery in the cities. Thus, since migration tends to impact on service delivery in cities especially provision of housing, the extent of migration patterns in general and female migration in particular, needs to be given special attention. In order to achieve this, government needs to be informed by scholars and researchers about the magnitude of feminization of migration in South Africa and how this can easily influence the accessibility

of housing in cities. This can be better done by looking at areas of residence and household headship among female migrants.

In developing countries, a high propensity of female migration has been observed in the cities of Asia (Fawcett et al, 1984; Hugo, 2008). In other developing countries, women are migrating due to economic, social, political, and cultural reasons. Looking at Africa in particular, researches show that the participation of women in migration streams is directly linked to economic opportunities characterised by wage differentials between areas of origin and areas of destination (Thadani and Todaro, 1984).

In the context of South Africa, women are not exempted from migration behaviour. They are migrating as much as their male counterpart (Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008). Apartheid spatial planning has marginalised a large proportion of the country's population including women, by locating them in the homeland areas, far away from the social and economic opportunities (Roux, 2009). Migration during apartheid was mostly constituted by males who moved from rural to urban areas to work in the mines, farms and other jobs. The Black population in general, was neither allowed to stay permanently, nor to own homes in cities, resulting in the mushrooming of informal settlements in the peripheries of large cities.

After the dawn of democracy in 1994, women who had been left behind by their husbands to keep the fire at home burning now started moving freely around the country just like their male counterparts (Cross et al, 2006, Obaid, 2006). It is worthy to say that female migrants carry with them all kinds of social, economic, educational and ethnic backgrounds. They move to certain areas of South Africa for different reasons, including new and improved opportunities, such as work, better education, marriage, and family reunification (Obaid, 2006). As an example, higher skilled and better-informed female migrants are more likely to move to major cities where they expect more sustainable employment and other economic opportunities.

## **1.1 Justification of the study of female migration and housing**

This section attempts to explain the reason why of this study of female migration and housing tenancy in South African context. Migration to metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas may be related to areas with specific opportunity structure available to female migrants including housing. Farmer and Moon (2009) hypothesize that the opportunity structure of housing

tenure differs among female migrants and this depends on whether they live in metropolitan or non-metropolitan areas (Farmer and Moon, 2009).

In the context of South Africa, a new feature of local government outside metropolitan areas was the establishment of 47 district municipalities in December 2000 (Steytler, 2009). During South Africa's interim phase of local government transformation between 1995 and 2000, a two tier metropolitan system was established where both the metropolitan councils and a number of metropolitan sub-councils enjoyed jurisdiction in the same metropolitan area. Hence, two-tier local government is also a feature in some countries such as the United States, India, Germany and Spain (Steytler, 2009). In South African context, metropolitan area is a centre of economic activity, area for which integrated development planning is desirable, and areas economically dominant with interdependent social and economic linkages (South African Local Government Association).

Fuguit and Beale (1995) suggest that non-metropolitan is not necessary a synonymous of rural area. In the context of South Africa for example, some non-metropolitan areas contain large towns like Kimberly, East Landon and some others. Though these areas fall under non-metropolitan areas, it does not mean they lack infrastructures and other amenities which attract female migrants. These areas also have some economic opportunities and deliver services to the local population including housing. However, there has been much less work done considering different methods of housing tenure of female migrants and how this housing tenure differ in areas falling outside metropolitan. This also means that, little has been elaborated on the determinants of housing acquisition and to what extent they influence housing accessibility in metropolitan area in relation to the rest of areas falling outside metropolitan municipalities of South Africa

The issue of housing acquisition among female migrants can be explained internationally and nationally. Although the growth of most cities in the industrialized world has slowed almost to a stop, urban areas in developing countries continue to grow both through population growth and through in-migration. 60% of urban growth is generally estimated to be due to natural increase (Brenman, 1999). About 40% of urban population growth can be attributed to migration both internal and international as well as reclassification of formerly rural areas on the periphery of cities (United Nations, 2001). Furthermore, reflecting on international trends, the number of female-headed households in South Africa is growing. Female-headed



households increased from 37, 8% in 1996 to 41, 9% in 2001 (Stats South Africa, 1998; 2003). Many female migrants in Africa in general and South Africa in particular are head of households (Kabajuni, 2009), and breadwinners of their households (Nyirasafari, 2009). Despite those responsibilities they carry with them, the reality is that many female migrants are poor, who earn low income. Moreover, female migrants occupy jobs that are not only rejected by local population, but also they take inferior jobs to their educational qualifications (Tacoli, 2012). They are generally poorly paid; they experience unsatisfactory work leading to poor living conditions including accessibility to inadequate housing in many areas of destinations (Obaid, 2006; Tacoli, 2012). The main concern is that, in the feminization of migration, little has been documented in relation with female migrants' insertion in the housing market, and the distinction was not properly highlighted between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of South Africa. An analysis of women's housing rights reveals that women generally spend an average of 1101 minutes per day in their own dwellings, compared to 960 minutes for men (Pillay and co-authors, 2002). This is so because, in addition to household and child care responsibilities, some women often engage in income generating activities while at home (Farha, 1999). Though the right to adequate housing is now widely recognized as fundamental international human right with a solid legal foundation comprised of United Nations covenant, conventions, resolutions, declarations, recommendations, comments and reports (Farha, 1999), still there is a gap in the study of housing and the vulnerable group including female migrants. Therefore, housing tenure status of women migrants has been rarely documented, by specifically looking at household headship and areas of residence in order to inform the policy makers on how to improve policies linking migration and housing in South Africa.

## **1.2 Background of the study**

According to amended text adopted on 11 October 1996, this contained three categories of municipalities A, B, and C. It confirmed that category A was a self-standing metropolitan municipality (City of Cape Town, City of Johannesburg, City of Tshwane, Ekurhuleni, eThekweni, and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan), while shared local authority was created for the areas falling outside category A municipal areas termed as non-metropolitan areas. Hence, section 155(I)(b) states that a category B local municipality is a municipality that shares municipal executive and legislative authority in its area with a category C district municipality within whose areas it fall (Steytler, 2009).

Metropolitan areas of South Africa are characterized by high population density with predominant socioeconomic opportunities, with a very efficient service delivery compared to non-metropolitan areas. Despite these high economic opportunities observed in those areas, it has been researched that metropolitan areas loose migrants including women whose main reason for moving is not necessary directly employment related, but a variety of family consideration, housing and neighborhood aspirations.

Small town are in no way a homogenous group on which one easily generalises (Ebenezer, 1990). They differ not only by size, but also on level of development which tend to attract migrants (Hardoy and Satterhwaite 1986). Their development depends on their hinterland, the organisation of both local and intermediate functions and the structure and strength of outside national and international forces (Hardoy and Satterhwaite 1986). Small town in many African countries on the average have grown rapidly during the last 10 years due to natural increase and of migration (Baker, 1990). The employment in agricultural sector is declining due to land degradation and mechanisation. Farm workers are moving from rural farming areas to nearest town looking for other alternatives. In spite of this however, the interest for small towns among researchers, planners, politicians, and donors in Africa has been slow to develop. One reason for this is that statistics and other information on small towns are scarce because the small towns often are not recognised as independent statistical units. Another and probably more important reason is that its theoretical has been very unclear now the role of small towns should be understood.

Unfortunately, the increasing awareness of the small towns among urban planners has focused on the role of the small towns as a centre for public and private service to the rural areas without looking at the impact of migration on service delivery. The empirical studies of small towns have mostly focused on the link between the small town and its rural hinterland rather than on the link between migration and housing and how this differs in the small towns and the large urban centres.

Most previous studies on female migrants have tended to focus on their conditions in the labour market (Fawcett et al, 1984). At destination, those migrants need as well to shelter themselves especially those who are unaccompanied. The capacity to find accommodation may be constrained or facilitated by the prevailing mechanisms in housing insertion at places

of destination. Urban centres or metropolitan areas, especially the major, are known as places where the competition for housing is force. The competition could be lesser in urban centre at the lower ranks of the urban hierarchy. Put aside the definition clearly of the issue of urbanisation. There is however, a great deal of statistical uncertainty around urbanization of South Africa, with the coverage of available data limited when comes to smaller urban centres (Statistics South Africa, 2003). The lack of the data on detailed migration affects South African municipalities in several ways. One of them is the absence of verifiable data and projections which affect planning activities. More so, the contribution of female migration to urban growth is something that is not yet well-known. Metropolitan populations are set to go on increasing fast, with rising in-migration to metro zones also is predicted. Some 12% of the South African population migrates in every five years span across an official boundary (Landau et al, 2011). The most critical migration stream is the one entering the metro cities. As a result, proliferation of informal housing is seen in major metropolitan areas. Migration streams are made of different types of participants such as families, single individuals of which women are represented in large numbers. In the major cities across South Africa, land prices are very high making it difficult for the government to develop housing for the poor in good locations. Informal housing development then becomes the main mechanism that accommodates in-migration especially in metropolitan areas.

Land which is more accessible in rural districts, makes housing more accessible as well. Supply of housing in these non-metropolitan areas is relatively good, easily accessible and cheap. However, formal land scarcity and metro competition for space do not exclude good quality owner, commissioned housing for households (Landau et al, 2011). Therefore, housing planning for the needy population, including in-migrants by municipalities will have to consider important factors such as dwelling type, tenure status, and location, especially for those women migrants heading households. Feminization of migration is a topic that has attracted attention of many scholars and researchers (Connel et al, 1976; Carling, 2005; Williams et al, 2011). It has been shown in various studies that the participation of women in migration streams has indeed increased in recent times. Women who are moving in now-days are not only of associational type (Hugo, 2008) but are also detached female migrants moving on their own, without necessarily following their male kins such as their husbands, brothers, or parents (Fawcett et al, 1984; Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996; International Organisation for Migration, 2003; Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008; Tati, 2010).

Contrary to the movement of female migrants observed in large cities, significant movements are noticeable in many smaller towns of South Africa, and are dense in peri-urban or even rural settlements. Some of these areas are usually believed to have declining and poor or non-existent economic activities (Cross et al, 2006). However, female migrants are drawn there by the promises of access to housing and services (Roux, 2009). Without doubt, this new female mobility creates tension in the housing sector, by putting more pressure on the existing housing backlog in the areas of female migration destination. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to ascertain the different forms of housing tenure used by female migrants in order for them to obtain a place to stay in their areas of destination.

Although, the aspect of feminisation of migration is well documented in South African scholarship, there is a special need to understand better internal flow of female migrants and their complex interrelationship with housing issues. An influence of internal female migration in the housing sector of South Africa has not been well elaborated in migration researches. Female migrant's insertion into the housing market lacks clarity in migration studies. For female migrants, a house is a very important place, where many roles and functions are exercised such as productive and reproductive works (Miraftab, 2001). This gap observed between female migration and housing sector stems from the general gender discrimination with regards to women and it is relatively still persisting in society today. Female migrants encounter problems of shelter of different forms, like lack of rights to housing, accessibility to housing, security of tenure, and women empowerment (Lekoa, 2011).

As said earlier, this study aims to investigate the relationship between female migration and housing in the context of post-apartheid South Africa. Knowing that female migrants carry with them different characteristics in nature, it is also assumed that the forms of housing tenure which help them acquire housing are quite different. The forms of tenure central to this study are: owned and fully paid, owned but not fully paid, rental accommodation, and occupied rent-free accommodation. These forms of housing tenure in relation to female migrants are still under researched in migration and housing scholarship.

Moreover, there is need to be cautious against the tendency to restrict discussions of female migration and housing to just overlook the problems facing single mothers living alone, as this may easily render a great majority of the other women 'invisible' (Varley, 1993; Bradshaw, 1995). Given that the proportion of women heading households is increasing, very

little is known; however, about how housing is being accessed by female migrants heading household. Those who are not heading households as well as those female migrants heading households might both experience the heavy burden of housing acquisition differently in their areas of destination.

It is a fact that areas of origins and areas of destinations may have an impact on housing access in the place of destination. In this study, metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas were used in the proxy of urban and rural areas of South Africa, not only to examine the variations of housing access among areas of residence, but also to identify where female migrants are indeed struggling to acquire shelter in order to better inform government in this regard. Therefore, it is predicted in this study that housing tenure of female migrants differs by areas of residence. This means that the differences and similarities of housing tenure in different migration destination areas, in line with the demographic, socioeconomic, migratory, and household characteristics of female migrants, has received little in-depth analysis in the general study of migration in South Africa. Variations in female migrant characteristics are expected to assist in informing the important relationship between female migration patterns and housing choices by looking specifically at household headship and areas of residence.

### **1.3. The purpose and objectives of the study**

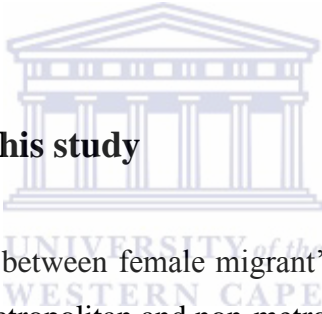
This section highlights a general objective of this study and also some specific objectives. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to provide a national overview of internal female migration and housing tenure patterns; by identifying the factors and the extent to which those factors facilitate or constrain housing acquisition of female migrants between metropolitan and the rest of areas falling outside metropolitan (non-metropolitan areas. More so, this study specifically contributes to the growing body of knowledge on women migration by measuring the relationship between migratory variables (province of birth, province of previous residence); demographic variables (age, gender, education, marital status, ethnic groups), socio-economic variables (occupation, employment status, work status, and income category); household variables (household size, household headship); and housing variables (housing structure type, housing tenure status). Knowing that the spatial settlement system has entrenched a regional inequality that has not changed much since 1994 (Roux, 2009), variable area was used in this study to explore the differentials of housing tenure among female migrants across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. To achieve this, the

empirical considerations of female migration and of the housing tenure were utilised. The study made use of the 2007 Community Survey data requested from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). The data was analyzed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). By bringing together the demographic characteristics, socioeconomic characteristics, household characteristics, and housing variables; the study provided the true situation of how housing is accessed and which method of tenure is commonly used by female migrants across areas in South Africa.

### **1.3.1 Overall objective**

Given that housing demand is one of the major challenges posed by urbanisation, the overall objective of this study is to identify the dominant forms of housing tenancy among female migrants from a socio-demographic perspective. In line with the above, the specific objectives are outlined below.

### **1.3.2 Specific objectives of this study**

- 
- To assess the relationship between female migrant's demographic characteristics and housing tenure between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.
  - To predict whether socio-economic characteristics of female migrants influence housing tenure among metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.
  - To assess whether migratory characteristics determine accessibility to housing in the areas of destinations.
  - To examine relationship between household characteristics and housing tenure status of female migrants between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.
  - To identify the differences and similarities of housing tenure of female migrants in among metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.

### **1.4 Problem statement**

The subject of female migration has attracted the attention of many scholars and researchers. However, housing accessibility among female migrants in developing countries, specifically in South Africa, has not been extensively studied (Hugo, 2003; Fawcett, 1984). Rural to

urban female migration is increasing in search of livelihood. It involves processes of change, adaptation and adjustment (Huq-hussain, 1996; Pamuk, 1999; Freire et al, 2001; Venter and Marrais, 2005; Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008; Lekoa, 2011).

The research problem in terms of gap is derived from the stock of knowledge. Low-income female migrant's experiences on housing were dealt with in different countries in Asia. Yet, not much has been documented in African countries, particularly in South Africa. More specifically, the claim is that the demand for housing among female migrants may differ according to areas of residence, namely: metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. The patterns of migration and housing accessibility are not the same, depending on the areas where they go. More problematic is the major cities where the cost of land, labour, and materials for construction are unaffordable to female migrants.

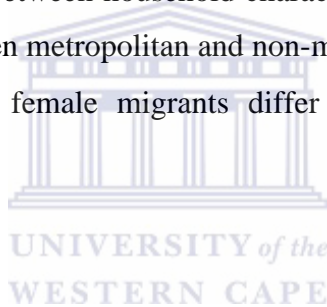
Although the information on female migration and housing is important for policy formulation, the available theoretical and empirical work is very limited in this regard. As already noted, the intensive research linking female migration characteristics and housing acquisition is very limited. Even where it seldom appears in books or in journals, it is not well elaborated. From a practical viewpoint, there are special problems for women migrant heading households and housing accessibility across different areas of residence as compared to those who are not household heads.

As it turns out, unattached female migrants find it hard to get a place to live in. Even though they may eventually find it, it is usually inappropriate due to some policies which still discriminate against women. This is a challenging issue given the fact that women should have a proper place to stay, for them to accomplish their productive and reproductive work in a decent house. Without the analysis of the patterns of female migrants and the housing situation in different areas of residence, migration research remains incomplete. Therefore, the aim of this study is, specifically, to explore the relationship between migration and housing tenure status of female migrants whether heading or not heading households in a gender perspective, by comparing metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. In order to generate this information, the 2007 Community Survey Data requested from Statistics South Africa was analyzed and interpreted. Areas of residence (metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities) served as unit of analysis.

## 1.5 Specific research questions

The specific research question emerging from the theoretical literature is as follows: What are the determinants of female migrant's insertion into the housing market across areas of residence? This study focuses on female migration and housing demand across two areas namely: metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities. Hence, it attempts to answer the following general research questions:

- Is there a relationship between female migrant's demographic characteristics and housing tenure status?
- Do socio-economic characteristics of female migrants influence housing tenure across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas?
- Do migratory characteristics determine accessibility to housing in the areas of destinations?
- Is there any relationship between household characteristics and housing tenure status of female migrants between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas?
- Does housing tenure of female migrants differ between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas?



## 1.6 Conceptual framework

Though extensive literature on theories that speculate on female migration on one hand, and housing on the other hand exist, none of them elaborated on the relationship between both migration and housing in a convincing manner. For example, the push-pull theory looked at what make people to migrate and what attract them to move to certain areas (Lee, 1996). In general, this study argues that migration is selective with respect to the individual and household characteristics of migrants since people respond differently to “plus” and “minus” factors at the place of origin and place of destination.

With regard to migration selectivity theory, a positive selectivity of migrants in the developed countries with regard to age, sex, and educational level have been identified. Chiswick (2000) argues that when migration is feasible, it means that the adjustment of migrants to the areas of destination is easy and this can have an impact on the sending society, even though it is reverse. Borjas (1987) points out that the direction of selectivity is determined by the



covariance between the quality and the gains from migration. It means the relationship may be either positive or negative (Cobb-Clark, 2006).

Social capital, chain migration and network theories looked at how migration facilitates the flow of information back from the place of destination to the origin, which facilitates the passage for later migration. In addition, there is evidence that the already settled migrants function as a 'bridge-header' (Murdie and Bongegard, 1997; de Haas 2003), minimizing the risks as well as material and psychological cost of subsequent migrants. With the assistance of friends and relatives, new migrants may be able to obtain information and receive active assistance in finding employment and a place to live.

The theory of migration and urban adaptation put forward by Fawcett and co-authors (1984), looked at female migrant's experiences in developing countries, particularly in some cities in Asia. This theory provides a framework of analysis by analyzing the special characteristics and circumstances of female migration in developing countries. Fawcett and co-authors (1984) argues that, the migration of women both unattached and associational types, and whatever their level of education, is assumed to be determined jointly by economic and social forces while being constrained by cultural sex-role prescriptions. Though this theory attempts to explain female migration by including some aspects on housing while using some case studies that were applied to Asian countries, there are still some shortcomings.

The weakness in Fawcett and co-authors (1984) theory, however, is that though this theory is applied to developing countries, it does not apply to African countries especially South Africa. In addition, its link between migration and housing is still imperfectly elaborated as it limits on large cities without specifying clearly the forms of housing tenure female migrants are more likely to use in acquiring housing. It does not incorporate areas of residence which have profound impact on the forms of housing tenure by showing the diversity between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of South Africa.

Moreover, there is no unified theory of female migration and its relationship with housing tenure. This also applies to the field of migration per se. From the theories mentioned above, a number of hypotheses can be derived. A conceptual framework is built around the hypotheses to serve as a pillar of this study of female migration and housing. It is actually assumed that, female migrant's demographic characteristics determine housing tenure by household headship and areas of residence. It is specifically hypothesized that age, gender,

population group and, marital status all impact on housing ownership of female migrants across areas of destination. Furthermore, it can be predicted that socio-economic characteristics play an important role in housing acquisition of female migrants. For example, educational qualifications, employment status, work status, and income earning may influence housing tenure status of female migrants across areas of residence. Moreover, it can be assumed that migratory features can impact on acquisition. By looking at the duration of residence, this can influence housing tenure status of female migrants, depending also on household headship and areas of destination. Hence, it can be predicted that the longer the stay, the more the chances of staying in an owned house. In this vein, housing tenure of female migrants may depend on the province of birth and or province of previous residence. It is predicted that the province from where one was born, and the province where one was living previously can both influence housing tenure choice in the areas of destination. In addition, housing tenure of female migrants differs according to areas of residence. It is predicted that in metropolitan areas, female migrants tend to stay in rented dwellings than in non-metropolitan municipality areas. This means that possibly, migration to major cities creates some kind of tension and pressure in the housing sector.

Furthermore, household size can also influence housing tenure of female migrants. It is specifically summed that the larger the household, the more the chances of staying in an owned house. Depending on the work status, probably household members who are working can put together their income to purchase a house to live in. In addition, one can also say that housing structure type is related to the housing tenure of female migrants. Therefore, it can be hypothesised that the availability of standalone housing can increase the chances of owning a house. The above conceptual framework suggests the summary of hypotheses below. The hypotheses formulated here in introduction are just the assumptions guiding hypotheses to be tested. The specific and more detailed hypotheses to be tested are generated later in analysis and discussion chapters.

- Housing tenure of female migrants differ in relation to metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. It is assumed that in metropolitan areas, rental made of accommodation will be more accessible to migrants than ownership. This later is likely to be more prominent in non-metropolitan areas.
- There is a relationship between female migrant's demographic characteristics and housing tenure across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.

- Socio-economic characteristics of female migrants influence housing tenure across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.
- Migratory characteristics determine accessibility to housing in the areas of destinations. The duration of residence is likely to increase access to housing ownership in area where migrants reside.
- There is a relationship between household characteristics and housing tenure status of female migrants across areas of destination.

These assumptions are translated into testable hypotheses in chapter four, five, and six.

## **1.7 Significance of the study**

This section of the dissertation explains the meaningful of the study. With increasing urbanization in developing countries, there is a clear need to examine the current internal migration patterns of women and problems they encounter regarding their insertion in the housing market in the areas of destination. This study on female migration and housing is needed to test existing theories in relation to migration and housing acquisition. It is used to develop a new theory linking migration and housing for future research. The instruments and methods used by previous scholars and researchers are extended to this research, and they generate greater depth of knowledge about a previously studied phenomenon in this regard. This study, therefore, contributes and extends the existing stock of knowledge in the field of migration and housing research. It bridges the gap between female migration and housing acquisition of housing across areas left out by previous research. This study is relevant to women migrants given that this category of the population constitutes the most vulnerable group in the migratory streams.

## **1.8 Delimitation to the study**

It is very important, however, to highlight in this study that this dissertation was initiated in 2010, there was no recently carried out census which could be used for analysis. The 2011 census data was only released around the end of 2012 and data were not readily available. It is in this circumstance that this study used only the 2007 Community Survey data. At that time the Community Survey appeared to be the most recent and detailed data source to address the research questions under investigation. Nevertheless, the investigation has strived

to include some of the migration details derived from the 2011 census as they became available in 2013. This study therefore provides a methodological baseline which may serve for comparison in future research with patterns observable from the 2011 census. This point will be taken again in the recommendations. In line with this study, migration excludes all other types of mobility referred to as migration. Those other types of mobility include movement of people with no known place of residence, and the duration of residence is less than six months, the same as seasonal mobility, commuting, and circulation. For the purpose of this study, any highly localized moves of women from one apartment to another in the same building, from one house to another in the same neighborhood location or town are clearly forms of mobility that should not be considered as migrations.

Apart from the information provided on lifetime and fixed-term migration, this study is limited to the two geographical areas of residence such as metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities. This study does not compare female migrants and non-migrants. In addition to this, it does not compare both males and females. It rather compares areas of residence in line with female migrant characteristics, and housing tenure status by looking at the differences and similarities which arise in the context of South Africa. This study focuses specifically on the relationship between female migration and accessibility to housing because of its lack of scholarship in existing literature. This is the first type of study that looks at female migration and insertion into the housing market. The previous studies on migration tend to focus only on migration in major cities. Besides this type of migration, this study looks at migration in small cities as well.

The unit of analysis in this study is metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. The interest of this study is on internal female migrants although could also include female migrants who were born or who were previously living outside South Africa prior to the 2007 Community Survey. The study makes use of the 2007 Community Survey secondary data. It paints a true picture and a real situation of female migrants and the problems they face in accessing housing in South Africa.

## 1.9 Definition of key terms

**Migration:** Migration is defined as the change of residence i.e. movement of person(s) who change their usual place of residence from one country to another (international migration), or from one magisterial district to another (internal migration) (Swart, 2004). In this study, a person is regarded as a migrant if he/she changes a place of residence since the census of October 2001 until the time of enumeration of the 2007 Community Survey.

**Internal migration:** When both the place of origin and destination as a specific migratory move are in the same country (e.g. South Africa), this constitutes internal migration. If the place origin and destination are in the same country, the person who migrates from a particular district is called an 'out-migrant' from that area, and simultaneously he or she is an 'in-migrant' moving into the area of destination. When reference is made to international migration, the respective terms used are immigration (immigrant and emigrant).

**International migration:** This consists of migration, which involves a move from one country to another country, and migration that indicates migratory moves out of one country to another (Kpedekpo, 1989 cited in Swart, 2004).

**Metropolitan municipalities (category A):** Single autonomous local authorities (Jordan 2006) existing in the six biggest cities in South Africa, such as City of Cape Town, City of Johannesburg; City of Tshwane; Ekurhuleni; eThekweni; and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan. More details on metropolitan areas is in the literature review.

**Non-metropolitan areas:** In the context of South Africa, a non-metropolitan area is made of districts which are subdivided in several local municipalities. Administratively, local municipalities are categorized as **B**. Local municipalities share responsibilities with category C district municipalities (Jordan, 2006) or areas that falls outside of the six metropolitan municipalities. There are a total of 231 of local municipalities in South Africa. District municipalities are, however, categorized as **C**). District municipalities share responsibilities with several local municipalities within their area of jurisdiction (Jordan, 2006). District municipalities are made up of a number of local municipalities that fall into one district. There are usually between 3-6 local municipalities that come together to form a district council and there are 47 district municipalities in South Africa.

**Housing:** A building or structure that individuals and family may live in that meets certain federal housing regulations. Different housing situations vary for individuals and may depend on age, family and geographic location.

**Migration ‘origin’ and ‘destination’:** Every residential move has an origin or source which is the place from where the person moves and a destination which is the place where the specific move ends. For a move to be classified as a migration, the place of origin and destination of a residential move can only be in different migration-defining areas within the same country or between different countries.

**Dwelling unit:** A unit of accommodation of a house, which may consist of one or more structures, or any such part of a structure. Examples of each are a house, a group of rondavels and a flat. It may be vacant, or occupied by one or more than one households. A dwelling unit usually has a separate entrance from outside or from a common space, as in a block of flats (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

**South Africa:** South Africa is divided into nine provinces: Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng, Kwazulu-Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Northern Cape, North West, and the Western Cape. Each of these provinces has its own legislature, premier and executive council (South Africa Government Information, 2009). The country has a population of approximately 52 million, with more than a third of the population (34%) aged less than 15 years, implying that South Africa has a predominantly young population.

**Household:** Is defined as one person or a group of people who live in an accommodation as their only or main residence, either sharing at least one meal a day, or sharing the living accommodation, such as a living room or sitting room or a bedroom.

## **1.10 Thesis outline**

This study on female migration and housing consists of eight chapters. These chapters are outlined as follows: Chapter 1 of this thesis provides the introduction to the study, starting with the background to the study, and statement of the problem underlying female migration and housing demand in South Africa. It further outlines the research questions, hypotheses formulated, general and specific objectives that guides the research. Significance of the study, the limitations and the working definitions are also provided.

Chapter 2 presents a body of literature which is sub-divided into two main sub-sections. The first section looks at the theoretical consideration on migration, whereby a number of theories on migration or on housing are reviewed. On the basis of those existing theories, a theoretical framework underlying this study has been built around the hypotheses formulated. In the second section of the literature, some empirical considerations on migration are reviewed and some existing features on female migration and housing are explored. Some discussions on policy framework underlying migration and housing in the context of South Africa are explored. Chapter 3 presents the methodology followed in this study. It outlines the research design of this study, sampling method and data collection procedures. The methods used to analyse the data are provided and the delimitation and description of variables are provided at the end of this chapter.

The data analysis and result section was sub-divided into two chapters. Chapter 4 presents the preliminary data analysis, which consists of the results generated by univariate and bivariate analyses together with some statistical test for hypotheses. Chapter 5 is a continuation of data analysis using multivariate analysis. Logistic regression is used as a tool to identify which variable has the most notable impact and the extent of their impact on housing tenure. In line with independent and dependent variables, some comparisons among areas are provided.

Chapter 6 critically discusses the findings obtained from both chapter four and five. It basically discusses the results of univariate, bivariate, and of multivariate analysis (logistic regression). Chapter 7 concludes this work and provides some recommendations suggesting what can be done for female migrants, whether heading or not heading households in line with migration and housing patterns across area of residence.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This section of the thesis is sub-divided into two sections. The first section begins with the presentation of a review of theoretical literature, whereby different theories related to migration and housing are reviewed and discussed in order to critically ascertain their relevance to this study. The second section involves empirical reviews of different debates on migration and housing by different scholars and researchers. It begins with the definition of migration and is followed by migration typologies; the possible causes and the historical background of migration during apartheid and post-apartheid South Africa are all reviewed. At the same time, this section assesses the direction of female migration and its patterns as well as identifying the factors which determine or constrain access to housing accommodation by female migrants. Housing types and methods of housing acquisition are also assessed. This is closely followed by a conceptual framework of the study which serves as the pillar of the whole research. The conceptual framework of the study is built around hypotheses by means of explaining the variables of interest.

### **2.2 Theoretical consideration on migration.**

There is very little theory on migration that precisely focuses on female migration and housing in the South African context. A number of general theories of migration exist namely: network theory, human capital theory, new economic theory, women and development theory, women in development theory, just to name a few. Among these theories, very few have attempted to conceptualize female migration and housing acquisition in general and many do not distinguish between female and male migrants or might not link female migration with housing acquisition. However, research has extensively focused on female migrants in developing countries and on housing provision in general, so much that one can still borrow from this theoretical literature to conceptualize the issue of female migration and housing acquisition in the South African context.



Migration generally is viewed by many experts as a change of people's place of residence which involves the crossing of some kind of migration-defining boundary such as an international or national boundary, while a migrant is defined as a person who changes his/her place of residence by crossing a migration-defining boundary (Swart, 2004; Roux, 2009). A variety of theoretical analyses in the early eighties, like theories of gender and migration in development and the co-ethnic approach have been used based on Fawcett and co-authors (1984) study of women migration in the cities of Asia.

### **2.2.1 Migration selectivity theory.**

Migration selectivity is one type of theory of migration that is reviewed in this study and which links female migration to housing acquisition. It has been observed in the human migration literature that not all migration follows a random process (Swart, 2004). This means that migrants do not always reflect a random sample of the population from which they came (Feliciano, 2005). On the basis of migrant characteristics such as age, gender, population group, education, marital status and so on, one can see that migration is often a very selective process (Schnaiberg, 1970; Kok, 1986; Morrison, 1990; Ntozi, 1997; Guilмото, 1998; Curran and Riverо-Fuentes, 2003). This is also reflected in terms of the cost and benefits from migration (Bustamante et al, 1998). It is possible that migration can be positively or negatively selective (Protero (1975). In such a case, it is said to be positively selective only when migrants are of better quality. However, migration is said to be negatively selective, when migrants are responding negatively to push factors at the place of origin or when they choose to move to a place of better opportunities in relation to their place of origin (Protero, 1975).

Migration selectivity refers to the socio-demographic characteristics which differentiate migrants from those who choose to stay in their place of origin (Jialong, 2005). Thus, the question of whether migrants differ from the stayers has been a subject of debate in migration research (Feliciano, 2005). Current migration research has tried to address the question of how selectivity affects migrants' access to housing resources. Lee (1966) argues that migration is selective with respect to the individual migrant's characteristics since people respond differently to 'plus' and 'minus' factors at the place of origin and place of destination and have different coping abilities with the intervening variables (Reniers, 1999 cited in de Haas, 2008).

Selectivity is an important feature in migration patterns because it shows how migrants differ from one another on the basis of their places of origin and destination. In fact, migration is then seen as spatially selective. It is generally known that migrants are drawn from, and disproportionately attracted to, particular geographical regions (Hugo, 2005). It has been proven that most migrants target the largest metropolitan areas which are highly linked to the national economy (Hugo, 2005). These major and large cities are the areas where highly mobile, highly skilled professionals like managers and entrepreneurs become concentrated in migration patterns (Sassen, 2001). Another reason why selectivity is crucial in migration studies is its effect on individuals or households on places of origin or destination, without taking into account its direct or indirect effect. Looking at both sides of this issue, it seems that out-migration creates a gap in the place of origin, especially among people left behind like relatives, while it brings skilled human resources, competition, stress and even disorder in the place of the destination (Jialong, 2005).

According to international migration theory as applied to internal migration, Portes and Rumbaut (1996) and Bray (1984) argue that all migrants represent a positively selected group from their home country. In Jialong (2005) view, the better off migrants are the ones who can adjust much more easily in the place of migration destination and they benefit the receiving areas, though the impact on the sending society is the reverse of this. In addition to this, the direction of selectivity by migrants is determined by the co-variance between the quality and the gain from migration. Therefore, it can be concluded that the relationship may either be positive or negative depending on the characteristics of the migrants (Jialong, 2005).

Research has further proven that positive selectivity of migrants is possible. From a macro-economic perspective point of view, the more educated are more likely to migrate to other places of destination (Jialong, 2005). Much more educated migrators have a higher proxy of human capital. Therefore, given the wage differentials across many regions, people can achieve economic success in low wage areas and high wage areas (Sjaastad, 1962).

On the negative side of the selectivity theory, the most relevant negative selections are distribution of income, the migration fashion in the place of migration origin and occupational hierarchy in the place of destination (Lee, 1996, and Jialong, 2005). The selection also varies according to different stages of economic development in the country over a period of time. However, the social capital theory argues that repeat migrants can build up a network between the place of origin and the place of destination after the initiation of the

migration movement. This personal network includes kinship ties, friendship ties, ties based on shared community of origin and ties based on collegueship. The strength of each tie is characterized by the frequency of contact, emotional intensity, intimacy and reciprocal services (Granovetter, 1973). These network connections constitute some form of social capital that people at the place of origin can draw upon to gain access to employment at the place of destination as these networks reduce the cost and risks that are involved in the process of migration adaptation. As a result, additional migration movements follow the initial ones and the flow becomes less selective in socio-economic terms and more representative of the sending society (Massey et al, 1993; Van, 2006).

Selective migration has also been shown to have an impact on income earnings of migrants (; Chiswick, 1978; Carline, 1980; Borjas, 1987). However, the impact of selection on the adaptation process in the housing market across areas of residence is under-studied. In addition, the role of selectivity in terms of female migrants' characteristics is not adequately specified in these studies. Studies have shown that female migrants do not constitute a homogenous group due to the phenomenon of selectivity that is practiced in society. As Feliciano (2005) put it, in most cases migrants are better educated than the population remaining in their areas of origin (positively selected), and vary tremendously in their degree of positive educational selectivity in relation to their areas of destinations. The issue to be addressed here is whether female migrants vary considerably in their degree of positivity as individuals in different socio-economic, household and migratory characteristics in terms of their influence on housing acquisition outcomes in the areas where they settle.

On the basis of this theory, the present study brings together ideas from different sources of literature about migrants' characteristics on selectivity as a way of trying to understand what accounts for age, gender, level of education, population group, marital status, province of birth and province of previous residence, duration of residence, household headship, household size, housing type and housing tenure status across the different areas of residence all does to female migration in the context of South Africa. However, it seems that using the migrants characteristics selectivity, one can still borrow from this theory to establish a relationship between female migrants' characteristics and housing tenure status by assessing whether migration selectivity has something to do with the forms of housing tenure status that female migrants ultimately have as their housing forms across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas.

## 2.2.2 Push-pull theory of migration

Some theorists have been interested in explaining the reasons why people migrate and what attracts them to move into a particular area of settlement. Lee (1966) revised Ravenstein's 19<sup>th</sup> century laws of migration (Ravenstein, 1885 and 1889) and proposed a new analytical framework for migration, by looking at some of the spatial models that have been developed mainly by geographers and demographers in order for them to explain the pull and push theory of human migrations. Lee (1966), cited in de Haas (2008), views the decision to migrate as one that is often determined by factors associated with the area of origin and also factors associated with the areas of destination, the so-called intervening obstacles like distance, physical barriers, nature of immigration laws and personal factors.

Actually, Lee's (1966) migration framework is referred to as the push-pull model (Passaris, 1989; Tsimbos, 2006). The push-pull model has become a dominant migration model in academic research. In fact, studies which utilized the push-pull theoretical framework have been able to predict that various environmental, demographic and economic factors play some role in determining migration decisions. Lee (1966), cited in de Haas (2008), therefore considers two forces which create the push and pull factors namely: rural population growth causing Malthusian pressure on natural and agricultural resources, and pushing people out of marginal rural areas. Another force is related to economic conditions (higher wages) luring people into cities. At the first run, the push-pull model seems to be attractive, as it is apparently able to incorporate all the factors that play a role in migration decision-making. Hence, due to its apparent ability to integrate other theoretical insights, it has been frequently suggested that a general view of labour migration could best be achieved using a push-pull theoretical framework (de Haas, 2008).

Despite the wage differentials, which are an important feature of the push-pull model, factors such as population pressure, demographic pressure and environmental degradation have commonly been postulated as "root causes" of migration (de Haas, 2008). As an example, Bekker (2006); and de Haas (2008) suggests that in addition to landlessness, emigration dynamics were clearly influenced by small farm size, marginal ecological conditions that render cash cropping unviable, depleted soil fertility caused by population pressure on limited land and low levels of farm income.

Actually, migration is perceived as a social process (de Haas, 2008). People, indeed, do not typically move from one place to another because they expect to be able to make a more satisfying living elsewhere. Many migrants rather tend to move away from areas with relatively low population densities and relatively little environmental degradation to environmentally degraded areas with higher population densities (de Haas, 2008). In addition, people are likely to settle down in crowded places such as cities and towns. This high population density, which is associated with crowdedness, will tend to influence the housing acquisition patterns among migrants living in these areas. Due to a high population density, housing acquisition will be very competitive and difficult to acquire among migrants. A high proportion of the migrants will opt for renting accommodation because owned housing accommodation in the crowded areas is unaffordable (Lee, 1996).

Prosperous agricultural areas generally offer better social and economic opportunities in terms of individual freedom, safety, education, health care, paid labour, entrepreneurial activities and entertainment (de Haas, 2003). This argument explains how the push-pull model works. The only issue with Malthusian theory's explanation is that it tends to single out environmental factors in relation to population pressure as the main 'cause' of human migration. Apart from the environmental factors, which might play an important role, there are other factors such as political, economic, social and cultural factors that determine the standards of living for the people and inequality to access to general national resources (Lee, 1966 cited in de Haas, 2008).

In addition, Lee's (1966) laws of migration emphasize the issue of migration distance by arguing that a great number of the migrants only proceed to a short distance. He adds that female migrants are dominant among short distance migrants as compared to their male counterparts. Lee (1966) further supported previous theories that those who proceed on long distance migrations (Ravenstein, 1885; and 1889) mostly go by preference to one of the great centers such as center of commerce or industry. This study is based on the belief that migration normally takes place in stages. It means that normally, migrants from the rural areas do not just start by going straight to the major cities. They rather move first to nearby towns, then to medium-sized cities before they eventually go to the major cities. He also emphasizes on urban-rural differences in the propensity to migrate, and contends that the native dwellers in towns are less likely to migrate than those living in countryside (Lee, 1966).

By linking this theory to this study of female migration and housing acquisition, we attempt to prove that female migrants generally migrate shorter distances than male migrants. While this study does not seek to compare migration patterns for male and females, it rather compares two areas of residences (metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities) in relation to housing accessibility.

### **2.2.3 Social capital and chain migration network theory.**

Among the different theories of migration available in literature, the labour migration theory is most often used to explain the reasons behind all kinds of migration. Though some theories hold that economic forces often play an important role as one of the root causes of human migration, with people moving from one place to some other places where the standards of living are better, however, this alone cannot explain the nature of human migration patterns (Salt, 1987; Skeldon, 1990; Schoorl, 1998;). This argument gives a false impression that national states, geographical proximity, institutions, social networks as well as cultural and historical factors create migration patterns (De Jong, 2000; de Haas, 2008;). This theory of social capital, chain migration and network patterns can explain that once migrants settle down in place of destination, other forces come into play (Nijkamp and Poot, 1998).

Lee (1966) argues that migration facilitates the flow of information back from the place of origin, which tends to facilitate the movement of later migrants. In addition, there is evidence that the already settled migrant functions as ‘bridge’ heads (Murdie, 2003; Brocker, 1994 cited in de Haas, 2003). This minimizes the risks as well as material and psychological costs for subsequent migrations (Curran and Rivero-Fuentes, 2003). With the assistance of friends and relatives, new migrants may much more easily be able to obtain information and receive active assistance in finding employment and a place to live. Hence, the formation of an established migrant community at one particular destination will increase the likelihood of subsequent migrations to that particular place (Cross, 2000; Appleyard, 1992 cited in de Haas, 2008).

Evidence from recent studies showed that the term network migration has been used to describe this process of what used to be described as “chain migration”. Network migration can be defined as sets of inter-personal ties that connect migrants, former migrants and non-migrants in the place of origin and place of destination areas through bonds of kinship and

shared community origins (Massey et al, 1993; Van, 2006). Therefore, it is possible to adopt this theory in order to build a conceptual framework which serves as a foundation of the present study of migration and housing since through network, migrants can get a place to stay upon their arrival.

#### **2.2.4 Theories of gender and migration development.**

Theories of migration policies tend to highlight specifically family reunification in developed countries (Groenmeyer, 2010). In the developed world, migration is seen as a male phenomenon, with no gender-differentiated data. The approach has been to simply ‘add’ women to existing theories of family migration, and to consider the concept of gender as a variable of male migration, since women were considered the wives and dependents of male migrants (Oishi, 2003; Browne and Braum, 2008). Boyd and Grieco (2003) make similar observations when they argue that existing literature in the 1960s and early 1970s, used the phrase “migrants and their families” as a code for “male migrants, their wives and children” (Boyd and Grieco, 2003). Based on the argument of Fawcett and co-authors (1984), and that of Miraftab (1999) that unattached and associational female migrants access housing accommodation differently, this means that women following their spouses and families, relatives, differ from those who migrate independently.

The deafening silence of female migrants’ participation in the economy in literature raises questions of the visibility of women as a key migrant group, their presumed passivity in the whole migration process as well as their assumed subordinate role in the different families (Groenmeyer, 2010). Colonial literary discourse describes women migrants in the Southern Hemisphere as “exotic specimen, oppressed victims, sex objects and as the most ignorant and backward members of backward societies” (Oishi, 2003; Boyd and Grieco, 2003). Women migrants from the South were, therefore, not considered independent contributors to national economies (Penson, 2007; Levitt, 2011). Research on national development models tends to suggest that migration, for women, is some kind of modernisation process, which is part of the whole emancipation from their assumed traditional values, roles and behaviours (Boyd and Grieco, 2003).

A landmark study by Boserup (1997), titled “Women’s Role in Economic Development” argues that development schemes, rather than improving the lives of women in the

developing world, have often ended up depriving them of the very economic opportunities and status they needed, largely because such development policies ignore the contribution of women to the national economies (Parpart, 1995; Penso, 2007; Levitt, 2011).

In fact, recent trends in research have shown that many of the theories used in the study of human migration (Penson, 2007; Levitt, 2011) in general and female migration in particular has this failing of acknowledging the role women play in national development. And yet, that lack of clarity in the linkage between migration and housing acquisition is still a serious omission in development theories. Based on that, it is indeed worthy to say that this theory of gender and migration development is linked to the third UN vision of Millennium Development Goals in order to conceptualize female migrant characteristics in relation to housing accessibility.

### **2.2.5 Theory of adaptation in spatial setting.**

Drawing from the theoretical perspective of general migration and adaptation provided by Fawcett and colleagues (1984), it is known that a substantial number of female migrations from rural to urban areas are not new. This provides some theoretical framework for analysing the special characteristics and circumstances of female migrations in developing countries such as South Africa. However, Fawcett and colleagues (1984) in their model did not incorporate the interaction between female migration and housing acquisition by conceptualising household headship and areas of residence. Moreover, their theory of migration adaptation only attempts to illustrate this interaction by means of some case studies that are applied to some Asian countries, showing the process of how newly arrived female migrants obtain housing accommodation.

Recent study by (Huq-hussain, 1996) indicated that usually the first place for any migrants to settle is generally with friends or relatives. If the whole family moves together, it is often preceded by someone, such as the husband, who comes to arrange a place to stay in. Single women may stay in places like dormitories or with relatives. Fawcett and colleagues (1984) consider it as normal for a nuclear family to receive a relative from their countryside, who pays a small amount of rent or helps with other household work like the family business in exchange for the accommodation. It is further suggested that if a good relationship is maintained with the host family, the female migrant may stay on until she finds her own peer



group of colleagues to stay with or until she takes a job in a distant location where she can now pay for her own rent for the place to live (Fawcett et al, 1984).

In line with this theory, economic and demographic development theories suggest a range of features that could influence the possibility of housing tenure for female migrants heading households and those not heading households. The extent to which female migrants can satisfy their housing needs and preferences is then determined by a range of socio-economic characteristics, such as employment, income earning, level of education and work status. All these features are assumed to influence accessibility to housing information and freedom of residence location. The role of education is seen as increasing the likelihood of home ownership in the long run for female migrants (Constant et al, 2007).

For most female migrants, the number of years in residence is assumed to be a crucial determinant of home ownership (Constant et al, 2007; Basolo and Nguyen, 2009). The familiarity by these women of the requirements of the financial institutions and the socio-economic conditions tend to improve with the duration of residence in an area of residence, which might result in the female migrants getting to know of the housing market demands. This is supported by another hypothesis which assumes that social integration can be measured by the number of years one stays in a residential area, since migration may have an impact on housing tenure outcome in the areas of destination (Constant et al, 2007).

The size of household members influences the form of housing tenure for migrants. As earlier mentioned by Constant and co-authors (2007), households with more than one earner and more may have their overall income increasing to a higher possibility that will enable the family to own their own house. Thus, there is some evidence suggests that every residential move by migrants has an original source, which is the place from where the person initially moves from to a new destination which is the place where the specific move eventually ends. For such a move to be classified as migration type, the places of origin and residential destination can only be in different migration-defining areas within the same country, in this case in South Africa, or in different countries (Roux, 2009).

In this vein, it can be predicted that housing tenure status is determined by both province of birth and or province of previous residence. In other words, the province where a female migrant was living previously or the province where she was born may become an influencing factor of the nature of housing tenure opted for. Therefore, it can be specifically

predicted that being born or coming from an urbanized or rural province can have an impact on female migrants' housing tenure status (Bank and Kamman, 2010).

With regards to the difference between the province of previous residence and the province of birth of the migrants, it is clear that the differentials of housing tenure outcome for female migrants cannot be totally explained within standard theoretical framework that only accounts for demographic, socio-economic and household characteristics. Existing evidences from available literature suggests that areas of residence may have a role in determining housing tenure outcomes (South et al, 2009). This suggests that, aside from examining the effect of demographic, socio-economic, migratory and household categories, there has generally been little attempt made on directly examining the effect of areas of residence and household headship among female migrants.

With reference to areas of residence, some empirical research suggests that migrants normally prefer to relocate to specific locations (Tati, 2010). The major destinations that are mostly preferred by migrants are generally observed to be large municipal cities. Among the main migration streams today are those female migrants who are observed to be part of migrants whose ultimate destination is the large cities within a country. The main driving force behind female migrations into the towns and cities is the considerations for existential opportunities (Lee, 1966; Thadani and Todaro, 1984, Fawcett et al, 1984; de Haas, 2008; Tati, 2010).

The areas of interest regarding female migrants' places of destination are especially the metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas local municipalities imbedded in districts). In this vein, the variable of area of residence with its categories of metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities is included in the study in order to account for the fact that housing acquisition is less affordable for most female migrants in large cities than it is in non-metropolitan areas. Specifically, this implies that home ownership becomes increasingly unaffordable to the poor and much more unfeasibly unattainable to women heading households. Hence, this inadvertently results in increased concentration of women who cannot be household owners in central cities and towns, and have to rely on rental housing tenure where affordable rental accommodations are the only option they can find (Miraftab, 2001).

A theory built around female migrants housing acquisition is the cornerstone of this study. Female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas are assumed to be a most vulnerable group on the housing market. They have to adapt to a difficult and competitive housing environment, in order for them to succeed in accessing housing resources in a highly competitive social, economic and political situation in South Africa. It is therefore, predicted in this study that the vulnerability of female migrants in accessing housing accommodation increases with the additional responsibility of household headship and within the area of residence.

Restrepo (1999) observes that home ownership is not the only form of housing tenure among female migrants. Studies have revealed that due to vulnerability observed among female migrants heading households residing in large cities, many of them rely on rented accommodation (Gilbert et al, 1997). The reason might be that it would not be easy for many female migrants heading households to buy some property of their own. Renting, therefore, might be a helpful form of housing tenure among this most vulnerable group of people living in metropolitan municipality areas. This argument is supported by existing literature which points out that renting as a form of tenure is a vital way of accommodating large numbers of families that are streaming endlessly into the major cities of most under-developed countries (Gilbert et al, 1997). It is also important to point out that in many towns and cities in the developing countries of Africa and Asia; more than half of the population are living as tenants. In Latin America, one-third of the urban population are tenants. Generally, large cities contain a higher proportion of tenants than smaller cities in the same country (Gilbert et al, 1997). From the above, it can be assumed that female migrant tenants tend to be younger than those who own the housing accommodation. Under normal circumstances, female migrant tenants heading households tend to have smaller households than families of the owners of household accommodation, who presumably tend to have lived longer in the towns and cities than most tenants.

In fact, an understanding of the underlying motivation behind the housing tenure choice for female migrants explains their physical concentration in a certain type of housing and in certain areas of residence (Miraftab, 1997). Therefore, it can be argued that tenure and location are inter-connected pre-conditions of housing alternatives for female migrants. In the view of Miraftab (1999), the analysis of housing decisions for female migrants heading

households is important since it indicates the complexity of the factors influencing the high concentration of female migrants in certain types of housing tenure group (Miraftab, 1998).

In line with individual household characteristics of female migrants, it is worthy to hypothesize that socio-demographic characteristics such as age, population group and marital status greatly impacts the housing tenure opted for by female migrants (Miraftab, 1999). From literature, age has been shown to be an important determinant of housing accessibility, since the purchaser takes time to accumulate enough resources to be able to buy his or her own house (Miraftab, 1999). Consequently, a general understanding is that female migrants heading households in the early phases of their life cycle face a greater challenge to shelter themselves and their households than older women. In fact, this is an indication of how female migrants heading households' housing tenure decisions are constructed not only by their economic resources, but also by their role and responsibilities which are defined by gender and age.

The above-mentioned three determinants of housing accessibility are interconnected. Age and composition of household members can make distinct economic resources available to female migrants and motivate their distinct aspirations and preferences realized in housing acquisition. However, income information alone does not offer a satisfactory explanation of these trends, as it is, however, important to predict that age and position in the family life cycle influence women migrants' aspirations and preferences for better housing tenure for themselves (Miraftab, 1999).

Chant (1996a) termed female household headers from different regions "a growing minority". The reasons for female headship are many and vary from individual to individual. One can say that in the colonial past of many developing countries, labour mobility and rapid socio-economic change could be cited as key contributing factors to female household headship (Chant, 1996b). It can therefore be observed that female migrants' headed-households emerged as a result of fragmentation of families due to job-related migrations. In addition to this, the social change in relations of power between men and women has further contributed to the contemporary rise in female household headship (Chant, 1997, Miraftab, 2001). Studies further indicates that female household headship has also been caused by men's abandonment or negligent of their household responsibilities for various reasons, including change in women's consciousness and their greater social possibilities to challenge traditional value systems. Thus, female headed households might be a result of women's choice to exit

abusive conjugal relations (Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996; Miraftab, 2001). By bringing together such contemporary as well as historical conditions, it is easy to recognize and predict that this has increased the number of female headed households.

In the context of this study of female migration and housing acquisition, the social network approach might help explain how female migrants heading households obtain a place to stay in a host community. Actually, the social network approach is expected to be a tool which helps to identify female migrants not heading households and how they can be accommodated by other people in the mean time when they are looking for their own places to stay in. This social network links with friends, parents or other migrant counterparts who have migrated before them could be used to provide them with shelter as newly arrival migrants who come with no means to immediately initiate their own households. This social network approach could be a tool which female migrants uses to acquire their own houses, a place to rent or a place to stay free of charge (Murdie and Bongegard, 1998; de Haas 2003 ). By referring to area of residence which is assumed to have an impact on the form of housing tenure for female migrants, one can assume that the social network approach might be stronger in non-metropolitan areas as compared to the metropolitan areas. This social network link is visible in informal settlements, where migrants of the same ethnic identity tend to live together because they share things in common. Generally, they may come from the same areas of origin and may share the same historical background. Therefore, migrating households consider social networks and their kins as important resources (Bekker, 2001). Simply put, this is linked to the idea of solidarity concept of 'Ubuntu', a practice that is strongly observed among Black South African population living in towns or villages in rural areas where it is quite flexible for them to accommodate somebody by allowing them to stay with them for a while.

Existing studies demonstrates that contemporary migration and mobility patterns in South Africa reflect the country's social, political and economic history (Richter et al, 2006) and it may result in housing accommodation crisis. It is a known fact that housing tenure status for migrants differs by area of residence (Gilbert and Crankshaw, 1999). In fact, saying that areas of residence differ, it is noteworthy to state features that characterize areas of destinations for female migrants and how it impacts on their housing acquisition chances. As already noted by Tati (2010), migrants choose to relocate to particular locations of migration destination. This study believes that the most preferred locations by migrants in general, and female

migrants in particular are the large cities as their places of destinations (Bekker, 2010). These large cities are often termed metropolitan areas, while the rest of those areas which fall outside metropolitan areas are termed non-metropolitan municipalities (African National Congress, 1994; White Paper, 1998).

According to the nature of metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas, as described in the White Paper (2001), migrants moving to metropolitan areas will face difficulties in acquiring housing accommodation to live in than migrants moving into non-metropolitan municipality areas. This vulnerability of female migrants on the housing market in metropolitan areas stems from the fact that large cities are the destinations of many migrants. Metropolitan industrial areas are associated with a high density population, with intensive movements of people, goods and services. These are areas with multiple businesses, centres of economic activity with complex and diverse economic benefits (White Paper, 1998). All these features make housing tenancy highly competitive among different types of migrants, especially female migrants heading households who become vulnerable on the housing market (Gilbert and Crankshaw, 1999).

Conversely, non-metropolitan areas are considered as areas which are not highly urbanized. Yet, they also attract female migrants. Housing affordability is reasonably cheap there due to low population density, low price of land and cheap material of construction characterizing those areas (Ingram, 1997 and 1998). For example, it is less costly to build a house on vacant land in non-metropolitan municipalities areas than to redevelop encountered sites which requires an expenditure of huge financial resources to build a house (Ingram, 1997 and Ingram, 1998). Therefore, this area differentiation requires an understanding of how this affects the residential populations distributed in these areas and how it can impact on long term housing tenure system among female migrants. This study believes that housing tenure status for female migrants differs according to these two areas of residence.

The results from housing studies in developing countries indicated that the parameters of housing demand are different for owners and renters (Gilbert and Crankshaw, 1999) and may also differ by areas of residence. Some studies further suggest, for an example, that female migrants heading households are more likely to be tenants or sharers of housing accommodation than housing owners (Habitat Agenda, 2001). Access to housing ownership is often determined by the social status occupied by women in society (Kabajuni, 2009). For

an example, being a single female heading a household and living in large cities means that this category of female migrants is generally considered as poor and vulnerable (IIED: International Institute for Environment and Development) and are more commonly found as tenants than owners of the housing facilities they occupy (Kabajuni, 2009; Freeman and Xiaoqing, 2009).

Home ownership in metropolitan areas is becoming generally and increasingly unaffordable to the poor and unfeasible to women migrants heading households especially those who are living in non-metropolitan municipality areas (White Paper, 2001). This skewed housing tenure system can possibly be attributed to the old South African legacy of racial, spatial and geographical separation that has created vast distortions in settlements patterns, leading to an uneven distribution of municipal capacity, particularly between urban and rural municipalities (White Paper, 2001). More so, highly educated female migrants, with a good and well-paying employment, and a decent monthly income earning is all that is required to boost the potential of female migrants to own a house in metropolitan areas. This argument is supported by Huang and Clark (2002) who showed that demographic factors are considered significant to affect housing tenure choices through changing socio-economic status. The study on social housing and migration in England emphasized the factors affecting the ability of migrants to access different types of housing accommodation (Migration Watch UK, 2001). Those factors include household income, wealth, ability to borrow financial credit markets, length of stay in the UK, rents, housing prices and legal entitlement to social housing (Migration Watch UK, 2006).

A study by Huang and Clark (2002) on housing behaviours in urban China, found important and similar findings after examining tenure decisions for new housing approaches in Guangzhou & Beijing. The authors found that the housing market is segregated against the poor and vulnerable and that there are different forces governing housing tenure decisions in different areas of residence (Huang and Clark, 2002). An inference that can be drawn from this study is that, despite some household characteristics such as the number of children and the number of working members who may play a role in housing acquisition, occupation is a much more critical factor in achieving the housing ownership decision processes (Huang and Clark, 2002).

## **2.2.6 Female migration and housing provision.**

In the search for housing, female migrants are often required, in the case of real estate agent or some private rental, home loan application, to provide the details of their workplace, work status (whether full-time or part-time), employment history and to submit their most recent pay slip showing their monthly and gross income. This is done in order for the financiers to ascertain whether the applicant, in this case will be able to pay the monthly rent requirements together with monthly instalments in case they were given a home loan. When the comparison is made between the economic and socio-demographic approaches, the later approach sets housing tenure choice in the wider context of life-course and demographic changes. In summary, the combined economic and socio-demographic literature on housing tenure choices and accessibility has not provided a good model to explain the housing tenure choices that migrants can make in Western cities as well as in developing countries as such South Africa (Huang and Clark, 2002).

Literary evidence suggests that income earnings, assets and relative housing prices are important factors affecting housing tenure changes. In addition, there is also an assumption that changes in migrants' economic circumstances such as prices, inflation and increased mortgage rates can also affect female migrants' housing tenure choices (Huang and Clark, 2002). Thus, it can again be hypothesized that home ownership may increase with individual's household income earnings. While recognising the importance of income earnings, Huang and Clark (2002) further argued that demographic characteristics of households like age, family size and composition of members all trigger events which occur during the life-course such as a birth of children and marriage, which are significant factors affecting housing tenure choices (Huang and Clark, 2002).

Housing tenure of female migrants is of different types and it is somehow related to household headship. Existing literature suggests three basic types of housing tenure for female migrants namely: ownership, rent-free or sharers and renters. These are all related in one way or another to household headship. Restrepo (1999) attempts to provide an explanation for this relationship by pointing out that rent-free and shared accommodation are related to female headship as secondary families within extended families where they shared accommodation on account of lack of adequate means to assume an independent life is



common. A clear example of this scenario is the case of unmarried teenagers who have children and are forced by circumstances to stay with parents under the same roof. Obviously, such female migrants, who become heads of household at younger age, opt to share accommodation with their parents in the same dwelling unit. In these circumstances, very often the parents end up deciding to adopt their grandchildren to allow the mothers more freedom to seek their own accommodation. This situation is the one Restrepo (1999) termed “*the hidden household category*”.

With reference to recent studies conducted in developing countries, it was generally observed that renting accommodation is assumed to be an important form of housing tenure which facilitates female migrants to access a place to stay in (Gilbert et al, 1997; Miraftab, 2001). It was also observed, for an example, that the demand for rental accommodation in city centre residential locations has risen, and that it is becoming more important because it is viewed as one of the most affordable and feasible housing options for poor and vulnerable female migrants heading households. Unfortunately, it seems as if housing policies continue to neglect this form of housing tenure for the poor and vulnerable groups who are living especially in large cities like metropolitan areas (Miraftab, 2001).

One of the factors which affect housing acquisition for female migrants is the discrimination approach (Gilbert et al, 1997). The discrimination approach explains the issues surrounding housing discrimination as faced by most women). Discrimination against women outside the home often disadvantages them from obtaining access to housing provision. This discrimination against women to easily access more employment and to receive fair wage levels both means that female migrants eventually end up earning less income and, thus, have lesser choices on the housing market (Restrepo, 1999; Deshingkar, 2006; Piper, 2013).

In addition to the relationship concept between the size of the household and housing tenure choice, another factor to consider is housing prices (Ingram, 1997). Since housing prices are lower at the periphery of large cities than in inner cities, large households are often more decentralised, living in medium or smaller towns and cities where large households may be accommodated more easily in owned accommodation, different from what would be possible when living in rented dwellings in metropolitan areas. It is in these circumstances that,

generally, large households are often found in smaller towns generally found in non-metropolitan municipalities areas.

Besides household size which effects on housing tenure options, it is worthy to consider housing affordability among households which possibly depends on household income under the given national housing policy framework. Rust (2006) argues that the South African housing policy is very crucial since some households fall under the housing group of South Africans considered being in the general low income level group that cannot easily afford a house of their own. This author who elaborated on housing subsidies saw that, since 1994 South Africa has adopted some favourable policies which are helping the poor and the most vulnerable, including female migrants, in order for them to acquire housing accommodation based on their low income. In Rust (2006) view, this was meant to fill the gap created in the housing sector by the apartheid regime's discriminatory housing policies. In this regard, Rust (2006) and Essink (2011) discovered that some households have fallen under very low income category (R1500-R3500), meaning that individuals in these households are fully subsidised to obtain accommodation via the RDP housing scheme with a full housing ownership. There is also another household income group that falls under the social housing category (R3500-R7500), which depends on renting social housing unit at a low cost, while yet another household income group which falls under the category of housing bondage group that can own a house but has not fully paid it off (Rust, 2006).

Drawing on the relationship between household headship and housing tenure status, it is worthy to ascertain how being female migrants heading households or not heading households might encounter problems in terms of accessibility to different forms of housing accommodation. In reality, given the heavy burden of household responsibility played by female migrants of reproductive work, as well as financial constraints, it might not be easy for female migrants heading households to have access to housing finances in order to own housing property.

Firstly, Miraftab (2001) saw that female migrants are generally insecure, are lowly paid and generally discriminated against. Secondly, recent studies by Heron (2005) and Tati (2010) noticed that women are sometimes discriminated against when it comes to education, skills acquisition and capital requirements in establishing a successful business. Indeed, the same

scenario may be happening at the job market which does not favour female migrants. All these factors put together, definitely affect female migrants in their housing acquisition efforts. It is in this vein that Pamuk (1999) strongly argues that household income is a strong predictor for housing consumption, since housing demand is inelastic with respect to income (Pamuk, 1999).

In the study of migration and housing provision, it can be predicted that the form of housing tenure and the type of housing form are inter-related variables. This prediction involves relating tenancy and type of housing form as explained in the Urban Land Matter study of 2010. The study concluded that buildings, offices and any other form of housing such commercial buildings in the cities should be converted into residential accommodation in order to integrate the desire of the cities to adequately provide accommodation for all the citizens as a human right basic need (Urban Land Matter, 2010). In South Africa, flats or block of flats, as housing dwelling types, tend to be the most commonly used rented type of accommodation because it accommodates many low-income and vulnerable migrants compared to free-standing dwelling unit types. Free-standing housing forms, however, are preferred mostly by those who can afford home ownership and this is mainly common in smaller towns, areas where land and construction materials are reasonably affordable.

Age is an importance factor that can help in explaining the likelihood of housing accessibility among female migrants (Yu and Moses, 2009). Customarily, the propensity to migrate is greatest in the young-adult age groups, particularly between school-leaving age and the age of thirty in economically-advanced societies. Such migrations are generally associated with searches for better jobs and marriage. Chances of getting own housing units are less due to insufficient income earnings to be eligible for housing mortgage loans. At this young age, it may be seen as too early for these female migrants to qualify for housing provision loans or housing subsidises provided by the government, due to a long waiting list. It is mostly those at the age of 60 and above who are considered hence, can own housing units in metropolitan to medium and small cities (Yu and Moses, 2009). Those female migrants with a life cycle that is stable might have accumulated some wealth to buy or build a housing unit during the later stage of their life cycle (Yu and Moses, 2009).

Migration typology and its direction may affect housing tenure option for female migrants. Landau and colleagues (2011) argues that small towns have emerged as the key industrial development nodes. They acknowledge that women are particularly on the move, taking with them their families out of the rural villages into small nearby towns. The patterns of movement by villagers into small towns differ from the patterns of migration from the rural villages into metropolitan areas (Landau et al, 2001). Migration into small towns appears to be more permanent, whereas migration into metropolitan areas is temporary, with most people moving from rural into urban areas, and then back again to rural areas (Landau et al, 2011).

In the context of this conceptual framework, a scenario of human mobility and migration dynamics between different areas is shown to have a serious impact on the housing tenure status of female migrants. If migration in metropolitan areas is more temporary, then it means that housing ownership will tend to be temporary and lower. If migration in small towns tends to be permanent, it means migrants will tend to settle more permanently in these areas, where housing ownership will be more likely to be higher. Housing subsidies and social housing programmes of government differs according to areas of residence due to different population sizes, availability of land and level of urbanisation (Ingram, 1997 and 1998; Jolly and Reeves, 2005). Rust (2006) observed there are gaps in the housing ladder that are spatially defined. This is particularly evident in the provinces and within the cities. Above all, housing delivery may be more favourable in areas falling outside metropolitan areas because of the low cost of land and less pressure of urbanization in relation to metropolitan areas. Though the land variable was not included, the effect of land demand for housing purposes can still be inferred (Ingram (1997). In developing countries and elsewhere, housing consumption can be said to be affected by the availability of land at reasonably affordable prices (1997 and 1998). This means that national development moves towards the periphery of non-metropolitan areas which are normally driven by lower land prices and lower development costs.

Studies have explored the relationship between land availability and housing provision in South Africa (Ingram, 1997). The observations made in the late nineties came to the conclusion that high land prices are strongly associated with a high housing demand, particularly in metropolitan areas (Ingram, 1998). Most often, metropolitan areas have some

of the highest land prices because of high population density which creates a bigger demand for land. Landau et al (2011) in their study and Essink (2011) in his research on Benchmarking Municipal Social Housing discovered a lack of enough knowledge in municipal about migration patterns as indicators of their own housing development planning in the areas of their jurisdiction as they battle with the demand for housing units which often results in serious housing backlog.

South African post-apartheid housing policy emphasizes ownership of housing acquisitions and has targeted doing this through provision of housing subsidies both at government and private sector levels. In this regard, South Africa has developed a comprehensive constitution which contains housing provision as one of the bill of rights for all South Africans (Lekoa, 2001). The Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP) was one of the initial housing policies to be formulated by government to address housing inequalities of the apartheid era. It is aimed at addressing prevailing socio-economic problems within the South African context of a young and growing country and economy, aiming to produce a non-racial society while trying to deal with the eradication of apartheid era housing problems (ANC: African National Congress, 1994).

Despite the RDP housing scheme being the brain-child of the government in its attempt to meet the housing target for South Africa from 1994 (Rust, 2006; Lekoa, 2011.), a parallel set of considerations arose in 2004 having the approval by Cabinet and is termed “*Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlements*”. This new housing strategy is known as Breaking New Ground (BNG), and introduces an expanded role for all municipalities by determining the location and nature of housing developments as part of a huge plan to link the demand and supply of housing accommodation to the generality of the people of South Africa (Rust, 2006). However, these housing subsidies by government differ from province to province, metropolitan to metropolitan and non-metropolitan to non-metropolitan. Given that the budgetary allocations to housing development, the contribution of all these different arms of the state may impact positively on the general provision of housing units in the different areas of municipalities. This is the reason why different municipalities have different housing stock, and this has been confirmed by some researchers (Bekker, 2001) who saw that though a housing policy for South Africa exists, there are some notable differences between provinces and municipalities that have emerged.

### **2.2.7 Housing constraints among female migrants.**

Female migrant's housing constraints have been identified in the literature. Laws and policies that controlled the mobility of women in South Africa started to be enacted way back in the 1930s, rendering them dependent on their male partners or fathers for as long as they remained in the urban areas. These laws and policies, combined with the policies of allocation of housing accommodation to families only through the male household heads, have naturally resulted in a significant number of women residing today in informal settlements, unable and incapacitated to access formal housing accommodation (Pillay et al, 2002; Combrinck and Chemwi, 2007).

With respect to African female migrants in Australia, there are a number of barriers inhibiting them from accessing housing accommodation. These housing barriers include larger family sizes, racial discrimination, limitations of language skills and lack of knowledge to deal with the public and private sectors when in need of housing acquisition. The same constraints may be applied also in the South African context. In South Africa for an example, the traditional family structure does not allow female migrants to own their housing units without the blessings of their male counterparts (Atem, 2009). Harte and co-workers (2009) found that most women migrants who applied for private rental of houses are often denied due to their family size and lack of employment.

Atem (2009) reported racial discrimination by some of the landlords and real estate agents against African migrants. These observations are critical; especially in understanding how women fare in getting themselves accommodated (Massey et al, 1994; Vostroknutov, 2013). On the other hand, employment plays a critical role in individual's access to private rental of a property on the housing market where there is high demand and competition. It is generally understood that African migrants represent high levels of unemployment. This situation is even worse for female migrants. In the same vein, Atem (2009) shows how ethnicity and employment are closely related to housing accessibility in the cities (Massey and Denton 1993; Massey and Mullan 1984, cited in Atem, 2009).

The study on housing barriers in Australia further shows that many migrants suffer from a low level of social capital because they have limited social linkages and network links within the wider community (Atem, 2009). Access to social network links is fundamentally important as it enables individuals and groups of people to be connected to the right people in

terms of access to housing accommodation. It also allows female migrants to access the required financial resources needed to acquire their own housing units. Atem (2009) shows how Portes (1998) explained the concept of social capital as virtually important because it highlights the individual's relationship with other people who can help to provide solutions to housing problems. The completion of the necessary documentation required by both public and private housing sectors adds to migrant's housing problems, especially where the female migrant has no capacity to do this on her own. These barriers are known to have forced many African migrants from other countries to live on the outskirts of the major Australian society.

Nevertheless, it can be argued that access to appropriate and affordable housing schemes is fundamentally important for permanent housing settlement solutions and for female migrants to be successfully integrated into the rest of the host society. A study by Tuohey (2001), cited in Atem (2009) describes how secure and affordable housing meets an individual's need for privacy, space, safety, interaction, supports and access to employment. Similarly, a study conducted in the United Kingdom (UK) recognized the important role and the connection between housing acquisition and successful settlement. According to Atem (2009) security, shelter and personal space are of great importance in processing migrants' settlement and integration into a new society. More importantly, it is vital to have a suitable house in an equally supportive social environment with supportive neighborhood and other services that are aimed towards the successful integration of new immigrants (Atem, 2009).

## **2.3 Empirical consideration on migration**

This section deals with available empirical literature and begins with the definition of migration in order to underscore the best understanding of the concept of migration as defined by different scholars, depending on the type of migration as well as emphasizing its effect.

### **2.3.1 Definition of migration**

According to the study of Roux (2009) on migration and urbanization in South Africa, migration can be defined as the change of place of birth to a place of current residence, or any change of place of residence at a fixed date to a place of usual residence (Roux, 2009). In

these circumstances, the move must involve the crossing of administrative boundaries and the migrant must stay for at least a period of six months (Lehohla, 2006). Under this concept, migration must be seen to refer to any movement internally within countries, or internationally between countries (from sending to receiving country). It may be a move for a short or long term based on economic, political or social reasons. It must also be regular or irregular and should conform to legal requirements of the country affected by it. The migrant may have varying degrees of choices over whether or not to move and the decision may be somewhere between 'forced' and 'voluntary' (Jolly and Reeves, 2005).

Migration is not a concept that is totally foreign to the South African population (Swart, 1999; Lekoa, 2011). It has been happening in South Africa for a very long time, even before the arrival of the first white people. However, the analysis of migration trends and patterns has been hampered by the absence of a comprehensive and detailed collection of data on human movement. It is not until recently that analysts started to rely on results of surveys to elicit more information (Kok et al, 2003). Before then, it was mainly censuses that potentially tried to offer information without the required breadth of detail. However, before 1996, South African censuses generally failed to record migration data, such as the place and timing of migratory movements within and into South Africa. "Census 96" was therefore a welcome exception. Previously, South African censuses had focused on routinely providing data on the time of migration and country of birth of migrants, only two other censuses other than the 1996 census provided data on migration information within the country's borders and without. In 1980, respondents were asked where they had lived five years prior to the census, while in 1999; a question on the duration of residence at the current address was included (Kok et al, 2003). The table below encompasses both circulation and more permanent moves, and incorporates the more flexible approaches to definition of migration.



**Table 2.1: Kok’s suggested typology of spatial mobility.**

Broad category	Example	Temporal dimension		Spatial dimension		Classification
		Description	Change in place of residence ?	Description	Migration defining boundary crossing	
Circulation	Nomads, gatherers and wanderers	People with no fixed place of residence	No	Short or long distance moves	Yes/No	Transient mobility
	Shopping trip and tourist trips	Short-term circular moves involving no change of residence	No	Short or long distance moves	Yes/No	Short-term mobility
						Daily commuting
	Trip home to visit, or to return to place of employment after a period of stay at the origin of the move	Short-term circular moves that do not necessarily involve a change in usual place or residence but do involve a change in residence	Yes	Short or long distance moves	No	Local weekly commuting
					Yes	Short-term labour migration
	Long-term migrant labour absence (usually longer than a week at a time) from home	A move taking place at the beginning or end of an extended migrant labour period	Yes	Short or long distance moves	No	Local long-term labour mobility
					Yes	Long-term labour migration
More “permanent” moves	Change of permanent residence (“moving home”)	Short or long-term residence at place of destination	Yes	Short or long distance moves	Yes	Permanent migration
					No	Residential mobility

*Source: Kok et al, (2003)*

### 2.3.2 Migration typology

By birth or through rural to urban migration of the poor, including women (Deshingkar, 2005), the world has begun to see increasingly concentrated movements of migrants into the cities in both large and small numbers. It is expected that very soon majority of the people will be living in cities and not in the rural areas as before. By definition, cities are spatial concentrations of people, together with their economic and social forms of activities, other than primarily agricultural. They are, therefore, both a concentration of poverty and wealth, and problems as well as solutions to existing challenges (Akrofi, 2006).

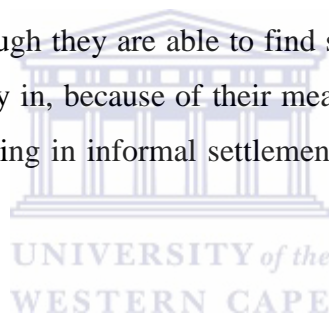
Kok and co-authors (2006) summarizes a typology of South African migration as encompassing short-term as well as more permanent migration. The model includes the “oscillating migration” previously described by Spiegel and co-authors (1996) cited in Hall (2010), as the mobility between urban and rural nodes. While there has been, historically, a two-way flow of migration between rural and metropolitan areas within South African provinces, this in-migration is at a sub-provincial level to the smaller towns, which are destinations for those moving from the rural areas as well as those returning from large cities (Collinson et al, 2006). This suggests the need for greater attention to be paid on the living arrangement of female migrants in cities.

An analysis of the 1996 Population Census suggests that around three-quarters of all internal or national migrations are from the rural areas into the metropolitan areas (Kok et al, 2003). Moreover, migration from a surveillance site in the North-East of South Africa over the period 1993-2003 found that migration movement from village to village was the predominant form of permanent migration (Hall, 2010).

Temporary migration, in which the migrants resides in the place of destination for only as small part of the year, but retains strong links with the original place as their home, is an important category of migration typology. The result from an analysis of some studies shows that about two-thirds of migratory movements are ‘temporary’ (Collinson, et al, 2006; Hall, 2010). Despite the observed results, oscillating migration may actually be increasing, with more migrants settling at the place where they have found work. This could be associated with a range of ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors, including the lifting of any restrictions on permanent urban migration for Black South Africans; the changing of the labor policy; introduction of government housing subsidy schemes; the informal settlement upgrading in cities and the

absence of meaningful economic opportunities in the rural areas. The question that arises then is whether there has been a shift towards more permanent types of housing accommodation as was greatly anticipated in the post-apartheid era. National Household Surveys conducted in South Africa between 1993 and 1999 show a rise in internal migration (36% in 1999) of rural households who reported the addition of at least one labour migrant, up from 33% in 1993. However, this does not necessarily translate itself into an increase in permanent migration (Hall, 2010).

Some of the reasons why female migration is prominent from rural areas to urban areas, according to Fawcett and co-workers (1984); Mbonile and Lihawa (1996); Akrofi (2006), pointed to the few alternatives open to migrant women living in the rural areas where agriculture is not yet commercialized and mechanized. The authorities stress the fact that women cannot find employment as itinerant labourers or plantation workers as compared to men. This is why the city is the surest and most available source of getting employment for female migrants. However, although they are able to find small jobs, it is still a problem for them to get a decent place to stay in, because of their meager income. This means that they end up by finding themselves living in informal settlements, squatter houses and other such places.



### **2.3.3 Causes of migration.**

The causes of human migration can generally be traced to economic, socio-cultural and environmental determinants. Economic explanations centre on the search for better opportunities of income and employment. Studies have shown that the underlying causes of rural to urban migration for female migrants are the economic imbalance between rural and urban areas. Indeed, female migrants tend to move out of their areas of origin to seek better economic opportunities and better employment opportunities (Thadani and Todaro, 1984). Thus, the economic motive remains the principal force in female migrations (Becker, 2006; Fawcett et al, 1984; Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996). There is another long debate, especially in West African migration studies that men migrate to look for work and for other economically beneficial reasons, while women migrate to follow their husbands or to get married (Backer, 1990). In India, the same reason for migration has been identified confirming that women migrate mainly for family reasons.

Another factor which encourages female migration is linked to environmental determinants such as land ownership. In most traditional societies, land ownership inheritance goes to sons rather than to daughters thus, making most women landless (Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996). These differentials in land ownership, if left unattended, tend to stimulate more female migrations. Besides this, the introduction of modern methods of agriculture and mechanized farming may have contributed to more migrations of women than is normally admitted (Bekker, 2006). Therefore, new and advantageous agricultural technology might have driven more women out of their agricultural labour practices (Boserup, 1970). Moreover, the development programs for agricultural training and credit market improvement have tended to neglect women, while ending up actually undermining some of their basic economic activities. Hence, most female migrants see the declining importance of their traditional roles and activities in agriculture, rural craft and bazaar trade as enough stimuli to migrate to towns and cities.

Socio-cultural explanations center on the desire for female migrants to break away from traditional constraints and inequalities. It has even been suggested that in Africa, migration from the village to the city offers women an escape route from their traditionally ascribed status of unquestionable obedience to the male kinsmen and from the seemingly unending hard work (Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996). It is therefore hardly surprising that there should be a widespread desire among African women to exchange village life of toiling to provide for the family to the fairly reasonable urban life with the attendant provision of some leisure as well (Boserup, 1970).

Increasing access to education means that many educated women are having greater opportunities for employment today in the urban and formal sector than was possible before, as they are able to participate perhaps more effectively in non-domestic and formal sector activities (Obaid, 2006). The increasing proportion of educated migrant women in formal employment reflects the accelerated migration patterns of female migrants in South Africa, especially the young ones into urban areas to seek further education and more satisfying jobs (Adepoju, 2008). In spite of all these studies, very little is still known about housing tenure of female migrants in their areas of destination.

#### **2.3.4. Review of the relationship between migration and housing provision**

Housing provision is an important aspect of improving the general living conditions of people, which must be seen as an expression of the material well-being of the state and its people. Housing accessibility is traditionally seen as a sector where a lot of women face severe constraints due to the existing structures of gender relations disadvantages for women (Mapetla, 1996 cited in Schlyter, 1996).

A study on women, slums and urbanization in examining the causes and consequences of migration showed that in many slums or shacks, the majority of occupants living in these densely packed shacks do not own them, but rather rent them from landlords (Gomez et al, 2008). Owners often rent out their shacks at high cost relative to the income of the majority of the occupants, and this is especially problematic for indigenous women who tend to be the lowest income earners. In Lesotho for example, women migrants are among two-thirds of all the urban households and are mostly renting, according to the 1986 Lesotho population census. Most women undertake some activities that generate some income, including beer brewing (Mapetla, 1996 cited in Schlyter, 1996). This illustrates that housing accommodation does not only provide physical shelter to women migrants, but that it also provides some livelihood options and shapes the way they feel when at home in the city. In Kenya, housing ownership among female migrants seems unaffordable and unfeasible. Studies has shown that a vast majority of female migrants do not own houses, but mostly consider themselves tenants of the house owners (Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008). However, it becomes difficult for most of these female migrants, who survive mostly on petty trade or are employed as labourers to raise a lot of money to pay rent on time and on regular basis. Consequently, it is a common feature to find landlords seizing their property in case of failure to pay rent (Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008).

#### **2.3.5. Historical and political context of migration in apartheid**

The migration movements of the people in South Africa can be linked to the political history of the country (Wentzel and Tlabela, 2006). These movements have their source in the whole of Southern Africa, which encouraged circular migration instead of the more permanent urban settlement (Ginsburg et al, 2009). With the introduction of the apartheid political

philosophy, many pieces of legislations were passed as a way to stop Black people from moving into urban areas, by means of the Group Areas Act of 1950 which regulated places where different racial groups had to stay, especially Black workers. At the same time, it also ensured the presence of abundant Black labour for the different industries (Wentzel and Tlabela, 2006; Ginsburg et al, 2009; Roux, 2009; Todes et al, 2010; Huges et al, 2012; Van der, 2012).

Apartheid policies denied most Black people the right to own property in South Africa and classified all Africans as suitable to live in the rural areas which were called 'homelands'. The majority of these Black people in the rural areas had limited economic and political opportunities (Todes et al, 2010). The main idea of the apartheid policies was to keep most of the Black population far away from the city, except of course for those who were wanted as cheap labour (Tomlison, 1990 cited in Akrofi, 2006). However, from about 1980, many Black people started moving in large numbers into the towns and cities, though some informal settlements persisted due to the fact that urbanization was much slower than was expected (Todes et al, 2010).

The apartheid political and economic policies began to negatively affect migration processes by creating a sense of forced impermanence kind of urbanization among the Black South African population and this ultimately had an effect on housing acquisition by Black people (William et al, 2011). Nevertheless, the apartheid policies delayed the inevitable human mobility into urban areas. Most women had to remain at home in the rural areas to look after children (Wilson, 1972 cited in Ginsburg et al, 2009). After more than ten years of a democratic South Africa, there still exist surprising increases in temporal migration into urban areas, including women (Posel, 2006 cited in Williams et al, 2011). Thus, by the time the first post-apartheid census took place in 1996, just over half of the South African population (55.1%) was now living in urban areas. That number grew again to 57.5% by the time of the next South African census in 2001 (William et al, 2008 and 2011).

Migration movements began to show women migrants as the most constrained group because village chiefs believed that they were the guardians of all village women (Groenmeyer, 2010). Thus, the apartheid era fundamentally damaged the spatial, social and economic environments in which most people lived, worked, raised families and fulfilled their aspirations (White Paper, 1998). During the apartheid era, women were particularly affected by the influx control Native Law Amendment Act (1952) and the Abolition Act of Pass Act,

No 67 of 1952 (Yawitch, 1984; De Vletter, 1985; Groenmeyer, 2010). This made it really difficult for most women to work in towns and cities, given the fact that they needed to register first. With the onset of the labour bureau system of 1952, women were exempted from employment registration. Yet, if a woman really wanted a job, she had to register officially (Groenmeyer, 2010).

For a woman to enter into an urban area, she had first of all to qualify for special permission under Section 10 (1) (a) (b) (c) of the Urban Areas Act of 1923 (Yawitch, 1984). Even then, it was still difficult for a woman to move into town or city officially if she had no one she knew. The only way she could do it was her kinship network links. Otherwise, apartheid era legislations complicated things for migrant women. Housing was partially accessible to specially selected men with some residential rights (Groenmeyer, 2010). It can therefore be concluded that the Influx Control Act of the apartheid era created gender imbalance between men and women. It seemed to mostly facilitate migration of males from rural areas to urban areas to form the critical mass of Black labour force. In addition to all this, the apartheid era also greatly restricted women from accessing scarce financial resources with which one could buy own accommodation in the cities (Williams et al, 2011).

It is only much later on that the relaxation of influx control allowed women to move much more freely into the cities (Ndengwa et al, 2007). This permitted only those people with entitlement to welfare benefit. Even at that, people had to move from areas of poor service delivery to areas where that service was better. Female migrants were then allowed to seek for jobs in areas where access to work was much easier (Tadani and Todaro, 1984; Bekker, 2006; Ndengwa et al, 2007). Given the legacy of apartheid's racial determination of space, what this means was that in the city of Cape Town, for an example, people from poor areas in the Eastern Cape were allowed to migrate to less poor areas in the Western Cape, but their end destination is already the poorest district with high unemployment rates (Ndengwa et al, 2007).

### **2.3.6 Female migration in post-apartheid South Africa.**

Besides the abolition of the Influx Control Act of the apartheid era which eventually allowed women to migrate into cities, there was a decline of patriarchal control of women, which enabled women to increase their mobility into these areas. From 1995, almost 38% of women

aged between 15 and 65 were actively looking for jobs in towns and cities throughout South Africa. By 1999, this number of women has increased to 47% (Posel and Casale, 2003, Williams et al, 2011). This phenomenon of migration streams is called “feminization of migration” and has indeed made gender a visible mark of female migration streams. Nevertheless, reports from national surveys shows that the increasing number of female migrations in 1990 has indeed increased the number of women on the labour market, while at the same time, decreasing marital status rates because of too much freedom among female migrants (Williams et al, 2011, Posel and Rogan, 2012, Rong, 2012).

At the end of the apartheid period, the years following South Africa’s transition to democracy have been seen as the period of relative rise in rental rates in most urbanized areas that affected the Black people (Ginsburg et al, 2009). It is only in 1991 that the Group Areas Act became difficult to enforce as the law and a decision was taken to make it much more flexible (Hoggett, 2002). Since then, more and more Africans, including women have started moving into different urban areas and this has led to estimations that the Black population will grow by 60,000 a year in the 1990s reaching 17.7 million by 2000 and 23.6 million by 2010 (Hoggett, 2002).

Current residential segregation on housing opportunities stems from the apartheid era laws, where citizens were resettled in certain areas for different reasons, which includes discrimination and violence (Gilbert and Crankshaw, 1999; Lekoa, 2011). This differentiation of housing tenure system for different areas of residence was rooted in racial segregation. In the same vein, more areas were created in favour of some races, in what Lekoa (2011) called “residential segregation”. This resulted for an example, in relocation of more than 125 000 families, mainly Coloureds and Indians. Black people were moved to make a way for other racial groups and their families.

Everywhere in South Africa, Black people were forced to stay in what became known as African townships which were always located on the outskirts of the major and smaller cities, in the areas without much economic opportunities (Bekker, 1999; Lekoa, 2011). This residential segregation, which stemmed from the sad history of South Africa, still persist even today and still holds a very strong impact on housing acquisition among the Black race. This situation can still be observed today in some areas of South Africa. This means that during the apartheid period, White and Black citizens were governed by different housing provision



laws which resulted in different spatial planning for the different racial groups, with most Blacks living in marginalized residential locations (Lekoa, 2011). As consequence, the Group Areas Act of 1952 reinforced the housing segregation for the people of South Africa according to their race. As a result of this kind of policy, most non-White South Africans could not have access to decent housing accommodation and service provision. It was difficult especially for most Black South Africans because had no access to houses, and those available were too expensive for many of them to afford.

This historical legacy left the current South African government with a huge backlog of people that require government's assistance to acquire houses. Even today, many people cannot afford housing loans to finance their housing acquisition due to high unemployment and low salaries among Black people, forcing them to be confined to the townships or the impoverished rural areas (Lekoa, 2011).

### **2.3.7 Direction of female migration in South Africa**

The migration debate has recently been stimulated by the release of the 2001 census results, which have been compared with the results in the first full census in 1996, which generated a new sense of changed directions in the migration flow of internal and international migration processes. In migration studies any movement has its origin and destination (Wentzel and colleagues, 2006).

Studies have shown that some provinces are generating more migrants while others loose them. A study conducted by Wentzel and colleagues (2006), Yu and Moses (2009), analyzed the major characteristics of the internal migrations in South Africa and found that, the provinces of Free State and the Northern Cape have the smallest proportions of migrants who move to other provinces. At the same time, analysis of this migration picture shows that the same provinces have the highest rates of intra-provincial migration (Yu and Moses, 2009).

According to the 2001 South African Census and Labour Force Survey (LFS) of 2002 data sets generated by Statistics South Africa, it was shown that of all recent migrants residing in Gauteng, almost 60% moved from elsewhere within the same province (Yu and Moses, 2009). More than four-fifths of these recent migrants are concentrated in metropolitan areas, with Johannesburg receiving approximately 39.5% of all intra-Gauteng migrants (Yu and

Moses, 2009). However, Tshwane receives more non-Gauteng residents (27.1%); a figure which becomes more noteworthy when one considers its relatively small share of the entire population (17.3%). These differences could be attributed to local residents perceiving Johannesburg as a site of greater job opportunities and Tshwane receiving civil servants from outside the province (Yu and Moses, 2009).

However, not all these movements were induced by economic opportunities (Swart, 2004; Bekker, 2006; Todes et al, 2010). The availability of housing in small towns has also encouraged migration movements to these places in the absence of economic growth. For an example, large-scale migration movements to more accessible small towns in the Eastern Cape are occurring even in the absence of employment (Todes et al, 2010). A study on the migration pattern of displaced farm workers found that they often relocate to small towns, some of which have weak or declining economic bases. In addition, Todes and colleagues (2010) suggest that not many are able to move directly to metropolitan cities. Instead, most of the migrants are likely to move to the nearest small town, with many remaining there indefinitely. In some provinces, a disproportionate supply of housing in small towns has also encouraged re-location to these places by migrants. Better housing situation than is found in the cities, lower service costs, the existence of transport subsidies, social links and networks explained some of these patterns (Todes et al, 2010).

The National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS) observes that while many people are still moving into metropolitan centres due to their perceived superior levels of income and employability, significant migration movements into areas with weak, declining or non-existent economic activity is also happening, as people move into the smaller towns, the dense peri-urban areas and rural area settlements (Roux, 2009). It then follows that migrants are not only attracted to the area of migration destination by the opportunity to make a living, but due to their ability to available access housing facilities as well as other available social services. Therefore, a very serious issue as regards migration patterns is the assessment of areas where female migrants are eventually going to live and how they will access shelter in the host communities.

It has been observed that for areas like Mfuleni in Cape Town, they serve mainly as transit areas for migrant labourers from the Eastern Cape Province where the people can be housed in hostels. The first houses were built in 1976 as permanent occupation dwellings for the

families (Combrinck, 2007). Thus, the Mfuleni hostels have since been converted into permanent family units. In the same vein, the small town of Langa later became home to many migrant labourers from the Eastern Cape Province who left their families behind in the rural areas as they search for whatever types of jobs are available in Cape Town. Although these migrant labourers were housed in single-sex hostels initially, these hostels have today become home to many families who live in dismal conditions in the one room flats with shared bathroom facilities. Some of the hostel buildings have been upgraded to make them a little bit decent (Combrinck, 2007). All this show how housing accessibility is very difficult to find in major cities of South Africa.

### **2.3.8 Migration patterns in South Africa**

This section focuses on migration patterns and trends in some first in African countries and then in South Africa specifically. The patterns of female migrations and the mechanisms underlying this phenomenon have mostly been analyzed in the context of Asian and Latin American migrations to Europe or the United States (Massey et al, 2006). Much less research, especially of a quantitative nature, focuses on African women's international mobility patterns, as data are lacking. Focusing on internal migration, recent work has emphasized an unprecedented development of autonomous female moves from rural to urban areas within several African countries (Findley 1997; Antoine et Sow 2000; Bocquier et Traoré 2000; Lesclingand 2011). Other studies have, however, underlined the continuing importance of the family dimension in this mobility (Mondain 2009).

Current migration flows in Africa also include an increasing presence of women as independent migrants. For example, Moroccan research is starting to consider women as migrants and there are also studies of the impact of migration on women as migrants (Berriane and Aderghal 2009). The feminisation of migration is also being documented by current research in Ghana within and outside the country for economic as well as other reasons such as education and career development (Awumbila, et al. 2009).

A long debate around female Congolese migrants has been elaborated (Kagne and Martiniello 2001). Extensive literature elaborate that Congolese migrations in comparison with the Senegalese are more recent and less documented than the Senegalese flows and are to a large extent directed to neighbouring countries (Nelson, 1992). Congolese migration to Europe has

been documented and the literature shows that it started in the early 1960s. It consisted primarily of elite students or professionals sent by companies for training in Belgium, the former colonial power (Kagne and Martiniello 2001). The deteriorating economic situation and the political turmoil that resurfaced in the 1990s have intensified the migration flows in Congo. In Tanzania, female migration started to increase slowly after independence. Robertson (1984) notes that in Kenya and Tanzania women's migration to town has increased during the post war years. Women migrate more independently for education and economic reasons than as dependants of men (Adepoju, 2004; Robertson, 1984; Thadani and Todaro, 1979).

The relatively new phenomenon of female migration constitutes an important change in gender roles for Africa, creating new challenges for public policy. For instance, before the outbreak of civil war, an on-going economic crisis in Cote d'Ivoire did not prevent female migration from Burkina Faso. This was possible because women gradually clustered in the informal commercial sector, which is less affected by economic crises than the wage sector. This emergence of migrant females as breadwinners puts pressure on traditional gender roles within the African families (Adepoju, 2004).

Few international and national studies have investigated the impact of female on housing provision on the open market within the South African context in the areas of migration residence. Richter and colleagues (2006) have attempted to investigate current patterns of migration by emphasizing its effect on the Gauteng Province. Gauteng is the country's smallest province geographically, but is the second most populous province in South Africa. Gauteng includes three cities that have the fastest growing populations in South Africa namely: Ekurhuleni (4.12% growth per annum), Johannesburg (4.10%) and Tshwane (3.37%) (Richter et al, 2006). These metropolitan municipalities form the bulk of the urban core for the province and are home to over 80% of all Gauteng residences (Richter et al, 2006).

With regard to the changes in trends described by Posel and Casale (2003) and the high levels of female migration (30% of the adult female population) described by Hosegood et al (2005) and Hugo (2005), the magnitude of female migration is not surprising, considering the historical context of the South African Black population. Factors such as the subordinated role of women in rural societies, a history of gender imbalance in terms of access to urban

areas opportunities, an increase in the proportion of female headed households, scarcity of land and employment opportunities in the rural areas, better economic opportunities in the urban areas and the rise in the political freedom for all South Africans in the 1990s have had a profound effect on mobility trend witnessed lately (Lehohla, 2006).

This mobility pattern can be observed in the former homeland areas, farms, informal urban settlements and formal urban settlements. The migration movement still selects mostly men, even though the proportion of rural African women undertaking temporary migration has been increasing (Lehohla, 2006). There is an increase in the number of women who reported themselves as divorced, separated or never married. It seems this eventually creates a strong migration impetus for women in that it means losing the traditional livelihood support to women by their male counterparts, forcing the female migrants to search for their own livelihood and greater freedom to do things on their own. It is interesting to note that the destinations of female migrants seem to be typically movements much closer to their original homes in local towns and farms in contrast to males who can go very far away (Roux, 2009).

In terms of international migrants moving into South Africa, it has been noted that, although men still account for 85% of all migrants, single women, often young and independent, have also grown dramatically in numbers over the past decade or two. An interesting picture emerges when the proportion of female migrants per country of citizenship is compared in the data from the census of 2001. According to this census, 32% of SADC citizens are residing in South Africa, of which 30% of this are women (Lehohla, 2006). By contrast, about half of the group numbers consist of citizens of European countries, America, Australia, New Zealand as well as South American women (Roux, 2009). South Africa can then be said to be a very popular international destination for women migrants.

### **2.3.9 Female migration and household headship patterns**

A study conducted in Mexico found that gender has different consequences for a teenage mother and for female heads of households in the forties or much older (Miraftab, 1996; Sarioglu, 2012). Older women rarely face the kind of social vulnerability that younger women face, especially as single mothers, who are often traditionally questioned about the value of their moral codes. Miraftab (1996) shows that older women who are single mothers

in a more advanced stage of domestic life cycle can rely on their adult children for practical, emotional or economic support, something that is non-existent in the younger women who are single mothers with smaller children. In general, single women who are also mothers in the early phase of their domestic life cycle face greater challenges to shelter themselves and their households than older women.

In fact, single and young mothers face the most difficult situation with regards to housing needs because they experience the disadvantages of both their age and their gender. Children place a bigger demand on a young single mother's time and resources. Given this situation, housing acquisition becomes more than a matter of physical shelter. It becomes a means of maneuvering the positions of social and economic values (Miraftab, 1996). A central challenge to most female heads of households is that they must perform the dual function of being the family care-giver and wage earner (Miraftab, 1996). This means that in determining their choice of residence, issues like proximity to workplace, social support network, the possibility of sharing child-care responsibilities with other adults and the need for a safe and supportive environment for herself and her children needs to be considered. These concerns explain the greater concentration that is needed for female migrants heading households when it comes to the selection of a certain type of housing accommodation and location. Miraftab (1996) assumes that these concerns influence the housing decisions of a single female parent.

## **2.4 Legislated human settlement and housing policy in South Africa**

This chapter reviews the policies which guides migration whether internal or international in the South African context. It further reviews the impact of urbanization on housing provision, housing policy implemented as regards the housing problem in South Africa. Housing supply initiatives and housing delivery were also assessed. Before reviewing existing policies on migration and housing provision in South Africa, a summary of the administrative divisions of South Africa with details on the areas of residence under which the study is envisaged, and which is also one of the key variables of the issue under investigation needs to be presented.

### **2.4.1 Administrative divisions of South Africa**

The primary administrative divisions of South Africa consist of nine provinces. These provinces are sub-divided into municipalities. As directed by the Constitution, the Local Government which is represented by municipal structure Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998) provide three categories of municipalities. The Act determines that category A municipalities are established in metropolitan areas. Non-metropolitan areas consist of district councils and local councils. District councils are primarily responsible for capacity-building and district-wide planning (South African Government Information, 2009).

#### **2.4.1.1 Provinces**

Since 1994, South Africa has been divided into nine provinces: the Eastern Cape, the Free State, Gauteng, Kwazulu-Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, North West, the Northern Cape and the Western Cape. The boundaries of each of these provinces are specified in the national constitution, although they have been changed twice by constitutional amendment (South African Government Information, 2009).

**Figure 2.1: The map of the South African provinces**



*Source:* <http://www.southafrica.info/about/government/govlocal.htm#.UmFLHVombcc>

### **2.4.1.2 Metropolitan areas**

Municipalities in South Africa are spatial settlements divisions of local government that lie one level down from provincial government, thereby forming the lowest level of democratically elected government structures in the country (Administrative division of South Africa, 2013). In fact, municipalities can belong to one of two categories: metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas (referred to in the constitution as categories **A** (metropolitan), **B** (local municipalities), and **C** (district). South Africa has eight metropolitan municipalities whereby the two of them are new (City of Cape Town, City of Johannesburg; City of Tshwane; Ekurhuleni; eThekweni; and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan). Metropolitan or Category A municipalities represent large densely urbanized regions that encompass a multiple number of cities in order to constitute a metropolis. For an example, the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality encompasses the city of Durban and the surrounding towns. In South Africa, there are two metropolitan municipalities most recently-created concurrently with the 2011 municipal election, with others such as the Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality in the surrounding areas of the metropolitan area of Bloemfontein, and Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality formed around East London (South African Government Information, 2009).



**Fig. 2.2: The map of metropolitan municipalities in South Africa**



**Source:** <http://www.southafrica.info/about/government/govlocal.htm#.UmFLHVombcc>

### **2.4.1.3 Non-metropolitan areas**

In areas which are primarily rural, the local government is divided into district municipalities and then local municipalities which make together non-metropolitan municipality areas. District or Category C municipalities are the main division of South African provinces. They are sub-divided into local or Category B municipalities. In addition for non-metropolitan areas, local municipalities share authority with the district municipality under which they fall. For example, the Musunduzi, Mpofana, Richmond, and Mkhambatini local Municipalities, just to name the few, are contained within the District Municipality of uMgungundlovu in the province of KwaZulu-Natal (South African Government Information, 2009). A list of districts municipalities subdivided into local municipalities is presented in appendix three.

**Fig. 2.3: Map of district municipalities in South Africa**



*Source:* <http://www.southafrica.info/about/government/govlocal.htm#UmFLHVombcc>

## **2.5 South African housing policy**

The purpose of this study is to describe the housing tenure status for female migrants in relation to their characteristics. This is tackled from an angle of household headship and areas of residence in the South African context. This section highlights policy issues relating to housing service delivery by looking at the background to various housing policies, problems associated with housing delivery, an overview of the existing housing policy and legislation and the housing tenure system in South Africa. Since 1994, housing policy in South Africa started changing its face with more emphasis on the housing crisis which had disempowered majority of the people of South Africa. This housing crisis can be defined in terms of areas differentials. In 1994, it was estimated that the country had a backlog of three million housing units (White Paper, 1994; May and Govender, 1998).

In order to remedy this problem, a new policy was introduced which was built around the presumed need for a mass delivery of houses for the benefit of the ordinary people. The policy approach to housing delivery system in South Africa has been the centre of all housing activities since 1994. It was the starting point for government's promise to alleviate the problem of non-availability of adequate houses by trying to build one million houses within the first five years of the new government. This initiative of a massive housing delivery programme is the first of its kind in South Africa and any other country in the world (Zack and Charlton, 2003). Though there are some short-comings in the housing delivery

programme, Smit (1999) and Chalton (2004) note that it is indeed an impressive attempt to see what South Africa could do in the housing sector, compared to the rates of housing delivery elsewhere in the world (Smit, 1999; Charlton, 2004).

The deficiency in the housing supply is also an issue that is talked about in this discourse. It is explained by the lack of improvement in the quality of most female migrants' housing accommodation. The combination of influx controls and the prohibition of land invasion are the most likely explanation for the lack of housing provision delivery in South Africa today (Gilbert and Crankshaw, 1999). Pass restrictions prevented migrants from moving out of hostels into family accommodations and this resulted in low housing ownership among majority of the South African population, especially the black and coloured female migrants (Gilbert and Crankshaw, 1999).

Relatively small formal housing stock, low and progressively decreasing rates of formal and informal housing delivery system, coupled with the rapid urbanization of South Africa have resulted in the creation of a massive increase in the number of households forced to seek accommodation in informal settlements, backyard shacks and in over-crowded conditions in existing formal housing forms (White Paper, 1994 and 1998; Gilbert and Crankshaw, 1999). The purpose of this study is to ascertain the relationship between female migrants' characteristics and housing tenure status in the South African context. The housing tenure status for female migrants is examined by looking at household headship and areas of residence such by comparing metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of South Africa.

## **2.6 Impact of urbanization and migration on housing provision in South Africa**

Urbanization is becoming something of a concern in most less developed countries (Cross et al, 2006). This is the case for contemporary South Africa where many issues related to urbanization such as housing provision are only beginning to come to the fore now. Hence, rapid urbanization on its own poses major challenges to service delivery, especially dealing with the issue of very high housing demand (Cross et al, 2006). On the account of evidence given by some recent housing statistics, the intensity of the problem of rapid urbanization is escalating at an alarming rate. In the early 1980s, there was one formal house for every 3.5 white people in South Africa, and only one formal house for every 43 Black people. In 1989,

what is now Gauteng had 412,000 formal houses in Black townships, with 422,000 shacks shelter in the township backyard and further 635,000 on vacant land. Outside the rural areas, the housing shortage is now at an approximate 85,000 (Coetzer, 2012).

In order to address the problem associated with rapid urbanization, municipal planners should learn from other countries. In Mexico for an example, studies has shown that if security of tenancy on land occupied is given to people living in informal settlements, they will use their own means to upgrade their areas (Coetzer, 2012). The best solution to this matter as suggested is to make land and infrastructure available and let people make their informal structures. People knowing that it is their own property and there are some basic incentives will strive harder to upgrade them on their own account over time (Coetzer, 2012).

## **2.7 Differences in housing supply across municipality areas**

The State of Cities Report (State of the city report, 2006, Borraine et al, 2006) show that rapid economic growth occurred in all major cities of South Africa and particularly, the Gauteng metropolis over the 2001-2004 period. Although the nine cities on average grew at rates which were only slightly higher than the national figures, the Gauteng metros grew much faster at rates between 4.7% p.a. and 5.5% p.a. On top of this, very rapid growth is also occurring in some of the secondary cities (State of the city report, 2004). This implies that access to housing facilities and other infrastructural development in these areas is very competitive, as it becomes unfeasible to satisfy most of the housing needs of the houseless population, especially for female migrants who are part of the poor and vulnerable group.

Knowing that, at least half of employment is concentrated in the nine major cities, with about 25% in Gauteng metros, this rising rates of economic growth are being accompanied by a corresponding increase in employment in the cities, even though employment increases are still less than the national economic growth rates (State of the city report, 2006). Over the period 2001-2004 for example, employment growth rates were only slightly faster in the nine cities more than what it was nationally, but were much faster in the Gauteng metros and in eThekweni municipalities (State of the city report, 2006). Unemployment levels are slightly lower in most of the major cities than the national rate, and also lower in the main migrant sending regions (Kok and Aliber, 2005). This means that economic opportunities are much higher in metropolitan areas, while they are lower in non-metropolitan areas. Without any

doubt, this can be a contributing factor to the imbalance of housing accessibility for female migrants across all areas of residence in South Africa. Further study has shown that though migration provides vital income support, majority of African migrant households in rural areas are poor (Posel, 2003) and hence, labour migrants are more likely to come from poor provinces

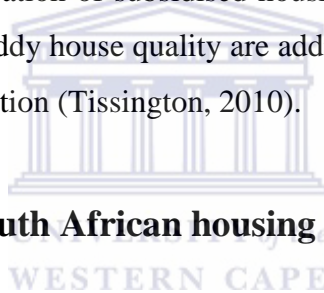
Furthermore, the situation regarding housing across municipalities was elaborated in the bench-marking Municipal Social Housing Report of 2010 (Essink, 2010). This indicates that the difference in housing delivery is linked to the economic situation of the different municipalities, but most of all, are related to the size of the municipality and its population (Smith, 2008; Thematic Committee, 2010). Patterns of migration, however, are not always straight forward (Roux, 2009; Todes et al, 2010). For an example, about 78% of out-migration from rural areas and small towns was towards other rural areas and small towns, while only 25% of migrants were towards metropolitan cities, originating directly from small towns and rural areas (Todes et al, 2010).

A recent study points to the role of informal settlements in cities as an entry point into the urban labour market and housing market for many rural migrants. These migrants find it increasingly difficult to move beyond insecure and poorly paying work in the informal sector. Hence, the average residence period in urban shacks has increased to about 10 years, from two to four years in the early 1990s (Cross, 2011). Given the poverty levels of many of those who form part of the migrant circle, migration represents a translocation of poverty into and between urban areas (contrary to the traditional view of rural areas as the primary location of the poor), with many trapped at the edge of the urban area with limited access to work and housing accommodation (Statistics South Africa, 2012). This in turn tends to trap female migrants in inadequate housing conditions with insecure housing tenure, with just renting and rent-free type of housing tenure. Therefore, in planning for housing provision, infrastructure and other social services, it is essential for municipalities and government to understand the meaning of the changing rates and patterns of migration (Landau et al, 2011).

## **2.8 Factors of under-supply of housing provision**

Knowing that the availability of housing finance became less of an issue, some other factors undermined the supply of housing. In South Africa, the property price has doubled and in

some cases has trebled between 1998 and 2005 (Mail and Guardian newspaper, 2005). This increase in the property prices put repayments for moderate housing units outside the affordability of many people. Moreover, building material prices have escalated. For example, the Mail and Guardian newspaper (2005) reported that “cement price has more than doubled in the past seven years and, the production capacity currently under pressure”, giving rise to even higher property prices, thereby placing the government’s infrastructure rollout plan in jeopardy. The Bureau for Economic Research showed that prices of housing property had increased by 143% between February 1998 and February 2005, during which time the housing subsidy had increased by just more than 50% (Rust, 2006). Limited construction capacity together with insufficient economic opportunity in the low income housing sector shifted focus away from the delivery of low income and affordable housing accommodation to the poor and vulnerable. Therefore, based on the above-mentioned factors, it becomes problematic for municipal authorities to perform their functions to optimal capacity. Moreover, corruption in the allocation of subsidised housing units and construction tenders, which leads to short cuts and shoddy house quality are additional difficulties female migrants encounter in their housing acquisition (Tissington, 2010).



## **2.9 Overview of existing South African housing policies and legislations**

In response to the housing problem in South Africa today, numerous policy developments and legislations have emerged in order to rectify the imbalances of the past, which affected housing supply among the South African population. According to a report on the experience and progress between 1996 and 2001 with reference to the commitment of the Habitat Agenda, the newly elected democratic government of South Africa established the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) in 1994. This was an attempt to address the imbalances and inequalities of previous government housing policies (Thematic Committee, 2001; Lekoa, 2011). This programme emphasized a new housing policy framework for South Africa, by focusing on the principle of addressing people’s basic needs in a sustainable manner.

In fact, households earning less than R3500 per month were classified as unable to meet their housing needs independently and they were considered as being in need of state support (Varley, 1987; Varley, 1993; Rust, 2006; Department of Human Settlements, 2009). In order to qualify for the RDP housing plan, a person had to have a number of dependants, had to be

a resident of South Africa earning less than R 3500 per month and had to be someone who had never owned a house before and had to be 21 years old or more to be eligible. Through large ground scale developments in terms of the project-linked subsidy scheme such as flats for rent in terms of the institutional subsidy scheme, households could self-build their units through the People's Housing Process (Department of Human Settlement, 2009; Esssink, 2010). Households earning between R1500 and R3500 were required to contribute R2479, and access approximately R3400 of subsidy value. The intention originally was that households earning above R 1500 should be able to afford an additional amount of credit (Rusk, 2006; Department of Human Settlement, 2009; Lekoa, 2011).

Knowing that female migrants' access to housing accommodation might be linked to employment and income, the South African government also introduced the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) macro-economic strategy with the aim to strengthening the national economic growth and to increase and redistribute employment opportunities in South Africa (Thematic Committee, 2001). Though majority of South Africans are held in subordinate positions, it somehow helps to pay for a place to live in whether through renting, sharing or owner-occupation.

The current Constitution of South Africa was adopted in 1996 and it has its roots in the 1994 Housing White Paper (White Paper, 2008). The constitution also engages with the principles of meeting peoples' basic needs. It actually goes further to accord recognition to the right to own a housing unit. South Africa is one of more than thirty countries that have included the right to housing ownership in its Constitution. Section 26 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 states that, "everyone has a right to have access to adequate housing". It is therefore government's task to make reasonable legislation and make available other measures within its resources, to achieve the progressive realisation of this right (Thematic Committee, 2001). The constitution allows that the right to adequate housing cannot be achieved overnight, but must be achieved over time. Nevertheless, it is the government's responsibility to make this right achievable.

Apart from the policies mentioned earlier, a new strategy emerged in the South African housing sector in 2004 called the Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlements (Cross, 2008). This was an outcome of the government's housing programmes in respect of housing policy and implementation (Rust, 2006; Department of Human Settlements, 2009; Bank and Kamman, 2010; Lekoa, 2011; le Roux, 2011). The main

vision of the Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlement was to establish viable, socially and economically integrated communities situated in areas allowing convenient access to economic opportunities, health, educational and social amenities.

## **2.10 Housing delivery initiatives to women in South Africa**

The National Department of Housing is focused on promoting and supporting women in the construction industry and in the housing provision sector as a whole to provide houses to women heading households as recipient of housing units. In this regard, the Women for Housing Initiative was established under of the one housing institutions such as National Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency (NURCHA). This initiative of Women for Housing provides information, networking opportunities and support to women in the field of housing construction (Charlton, 2004). The aim of this initiative is to empower women to play a leading role in the housing provision sector through advocacy, training and support programmes.

In this vein, the previous Minister of Human Settlement, Mrs Bridgitte Mabandla emphasized on the same issue by arguing that women's access to housing accommodation and on other scarce resources can ensure women empowerment (Charlton, 2004). In so doing, the government has committed itself to providing housing subsidies, bearing in mind that a certain percentage should mainly be allocated to women heading households as a vulnerable group (Charlton, 2004). As a result, the National Department of Housing realised some housing provision achievements specifically for female-headed households as beneficiaries of the government housing subsidy programme. This housing achievement reached up to a total of 50% of subsidies approved and allocated to female-headed households (Charlton, 2004). By November 2000, approximately 36% of all housing subsidies that had been allocated to government were delivered to female headed households (Thematic Committee, 2001).



**Fig. 2.4: A typical model of housing subsidy plan**



*Source: Housing subsidies in South Africa: [www.chaseverity.co.za](http://www.chaseverity.co.za)*

## **2.11 Vulnerability of female migrants in the housing market**

It should be acknowledged that though all female migrants are not the poorest of the poor, but studies has shown that female-headed households are disproportionately poor, with African women heading households representing the poorest group (Van Donk, 2004). Majority of them who are heads of households are poor. Therefore, despite the housing subsidies that the government has committed itself to in terms of allocation to women headed-households, discrimination against women, especially female migrants in the housing provision sector still persists and some laws are still needed to reinforce those already in place. It has been recognized that low income housing organizations acknowledge that inadequate housing policies tend to have a greater negative impact on women who spend more time in the home, and whose needs ought to be represented in government policies and planning (Van Donk, 2004).

This indeed impacts on the rights of women to inherited housing ownership (Chalton, 2004). For example, women may find themselves in a vulnerable situation after receiving the housing subsidy. Unfortunately, this happens when they identify themselves as the spouse of a primary beneficiary, whereby as married women they are not eligible for another subsidy ever again. In these circumstances, the house received through the subsidy gets recorded in ownership terms under the name of the male partner (Charlton, 2004). However, when the marital relationship breaks up, the female partner may have no legal right to the house while at the same time having no recourse to a further subsidy.

With the new system regarding to this matter, Mabandla (2003) cited in Charlton (2004) points out that the National Department wants to change the housing policy so that Provincial Departments will register the title deeds in the name of both the applicant and the spouse or partner. In this vein, the Minister of Human Settlements launched a consultative workshop on women and housing programmes with the engagement of stakeholders in the housing provision sector in order to address some of the issues and challenges that women in housing development sector are currently facing (Charlton, 2004; Municipal guidelines on social and rental housing , 2012; Mahraj, 2012).

## **2.12 Scale of housing needs in South Africa**

In South African context, various efforts have been made to quantify the demand for housing provision. In October 2006 for example, the South African press reported that the nation's housing backlog had widened tremendously due to growing urbanization which put pressure on housing delivery in major South African cities (South African Government Information, 1994). The number of dwelling units which were classified as inadequate were mostly shack settlements that had grown up to 20% from 1,5 million in 1996 to 1,8 million in 2001. The Banking Association of South Africa reported that in 2006 that, according to its estimate, there was a shortage of about 661 000 affordable houses in the R200 000 price range, with the greatest backlog being experienced in Gauteng and the Western Cape (Rust, 2006). It should be noted that a large proportion of South Africa's population falls into low income category. This implies that many people are unable to afford adequate housing acquisition on their own and does not have a secure tenure choice without government's intervention and support (South African Government Information, 1994).

The analysis by Gardener (2004) stratifies the country's population into eight sub-groups, which is basically defined by income. In South Africa, approximately 79% of the population is eligible for housing assistance in terms of the fact that their income being less than R3500 per month income of the National Scheme. Since 90% of the population earns less than R7500 per month (Rust, 2006), it means that South Africa has great housing-specific constraints that will need to be addressed. The geographic segmentation of the living areas according to race and class, urban sprawl and a desperate level of service provision and access to key social amenities in different areas make South Africa's housing development in

the major cities very inefficient and expensive (South African Government Information, 1994).

It should be noted therefore, that there are many issues that are associated with the huge housing demand in South Africa. The interplay between housing demand and the long waiting lists, the burgeoning informal settlements, over-crowding in inner city flats and the continued high prices of housing accommodation altogether constitute South Africa's housing time bomb. The capacity of the state to deliver decent accommodation for everyone is based on government's arms being able to deliver adequate housing supply through the Reconstruction Development Programme, the Social Housing Schemes and the Bonded Housing Scheme (Rust, 2006).

### **2.13 Policy of subsidizing housing provision in South Africa**

In response to the huge housing demand in South Africa, government has provided quick solutions to deliver subsidized housing accommodation for low income households. In the past 12 years, the government policy have delivered subsidized housing units for ownership purposes in the region of two million units since its launch in 1994, together with housing to rent in the form of social housing subsidy which has delivered under 35 000 units since its launch in 1996 (Rust, 2006; Cross, 2008). With the establishment of a new democratic government in 1994, South Africa developed a comprehensive constitution that contained the right to decent housing for all South Africans as one of the bill of rights. This triggered many more steps by government to formulate relevant housing policies and regulations that would ensure that every citizen get housed (Lekoa, 2011).

By bringing into an existing South African Constitution, Section 26 of 1996 which states that, "Everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing", government was emphasizing its commitment to achieving one of the Millennium Development Goals, which is the right to shelter (South African Government, 1996). Since municipalities are the closest spheres of government to the country's population, it becomes the concern of local governments to avail adequate housing resources and the relevant legislative capacity to these bodies so that they are able to play their full role in housing delivery. Knowing that local government shares the responsibility of the provision of adequate housing with other state and private bodies, this is one of the reasons why this study is important as it is aimed at

describing the relationship between female migration and housing tenure status by focusing on the two lower geographical areas of metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas in South Africa.

## **2.14 Types of housing subsidies in South Africa**

Nationally, housing ownership subsidies are generally aimed at assisting individuals to acquire and own residential property by either accessing government subsidies on approved projects or through individual efforts. Collective Ownership Subsidies are aimed at facilitating the application to access appropriate housing provisions for individual benefits. The Social Housing Subsidies are aimed at providing subsidies to housing institutions that were created to supply affordable social housing requirements to the ordinary people in order to lower cost of acquiring a housing facility on the housing market (Essink, 2010). Rental Housing Subsidies are anticipated to be aimed at institutions created to provide affordable and subsidized rented accommodation to the lower end of the market. All these different subsidies are directed at addressing the anomalies that were created by the previous pre-independence government housing policies (Thematic Committee, 2001). The Consolidation Subsidies are aimed at providing services schemes that were implemented under previous government subsidy regimes (South African Government Information, 1994). The Reconstruction and Development Programme was one of the initial housing policies that were formulated to address the imbalances and the inequalities of the apartheid era housing system (Lekoa, 2011).

## **2.15 Current housing tenure situation in South Africa**

As already stated in this study, security of tenure takes a variety of forms, including rented accommodation, cooperative housing schemes, leasing accommodation and owner occupying accommodation. By keeping in mind these types of housing tenure, everyone including female migrants should meet a certain degree of housing security of tenure which guarantees them some legal protection against forced eviction, harassment and other threats (Farha, 1998).

Based on the census of 1996 and 2001, it is known that about half of South African households live in some kind of accommodation that they own, including traditional housing dwelling units, private dwelling units, ex-council stock and subsidised housing units. Just over a third of South African households live in accommodation that they rent, including private rentals, social housing facilities, council rentals and the informal settlements rentals. The rest of the South African residents are known to be squatting in the informal settlements dwelling units (Gardner, 2004, Rust, 2006). For female migrants, however, depending on their profiles, they often try and locate themselves in these different kinds of shelter such as shack settlement areas, rented accommodation, formal owned housing type and government subsidy type of housing schemes (Cross, 2008).

Gardner (2004) provides a nuanced perspective of the housing tenure and housing conditions of different households in South Africa. The study shows that over 50% of South African households own their dwelling units. Another 35% of South African households rent their housing accommodation while 12% of the households squat in informal settlement housing tenure and live in informal housing conditions; this is the housing reality for the female migrants choose from (Gardner, 2004, Charlton, 2004; Rust, 2006; Municipal guidelines on social and rental housing , 2012; Maharaj, 2012). Having reviewed the policy framework facilitating and constraining constitutional mechanisms presiding tenureship, the methodology for answering the questions and addressing the working hypotheses raised in chapter one is presented in next chapter.

## **2.16 Housing accessibility from a gender perspective**

Housing is a highly politicized and contentious issue, particularly in developing countries like South Africa where there is a huge competition for housing accessibility. Although shelter is a basic human need, it is also more than that (Burgoyne, 2008). Housing accommodation is about everything that people do and need. It is about availability of land, access to credit lines, affordability based on income, general economic growth and even social and environmental development (Burgoyne, 2008). In addition to these values, housing acquisition also implies accessibility to social and economic services and infrastructure, and creation of a feeling of security and pride about self.

Indeed, with respect to housing acquisition, Varley (1987); Varley (1993); Venter and Marais (2006) noted a lot of discrimination suffered by women and that this varies according to whether the housing acquisition is through formal private sector, council or via the informal sector. In the formal private housing market, Nyirasafari (2009); Todes et al (2010); Okuma (2011) saw that the main obstacle is the mismatch between prices and the purchasing power for most families headed by women. For example, in a study on the suburbs of the city of Durban in South Africa, a total of 1,600 private dwellings were noted in the 1997 census. Of these housing units, only 15% were owned by women, most of whom are school-teachers and nurses who benefited from a government housing subsidy (Varley, 1987; Varley, 1993; Venter and Marais 2006). By similar comparison, the informal housing market was found to be in the same zone of 40% of the housing dwelling units which were in the name of women. In the case of public housing, the methods of access to public or subsidized housing schemes usually discriminated against women migrants. This because sometimes women are less informed about possibilities of getting a house because of their restricted mobility in time and space as mothers who are responsible for their children's well-being (Moser, 1987).

## **2.17 Demographic and socio-economic determinants of housing acquisition for women.**

The differences in housing acquisition strategies for female migrants are based on a number of variables that include income level, educational level, location, type of structure, age of the household head and adequacy of space. Therefore, the expectation is that female households with higher incomes and better level of education would have housing ownership as compared to low income and limited education group of women who can only rent a place in poor neighborhoods. This study can add that as the household progresses in life and the head of the household grows older in age, the possibility for housing ownership also rises significantly until retirement, after which it would begin to drop. Another expectation is that as the ratio of persons in the household increases, housing ownership proportionately increases (Yust et al, 1997).

It seems that low economic status of female migrants significantly reduces the chances for their families to acquire a place of residence of their own (Rosenbaum, 1996 cited in Wu, 2002). Throughout this work, it has been argued that housing acquisition is predictably related to the socio-economic status of female migrants, the community neighborhood or the

residential areas in which the house could be acquired (rural versus urban), the housing structure and space norms, and family-life-cycle stage. However, Wu (2002) pointed out that chief among all these individual factors is proximity to employment, duration of residence, employment status, income level and family status. In addition, gender, nature of household and the life cycle of the members are all important factors that determine female migrants' housing choices and conditions. Other studies pointed out the importance of kinship and friendship ties which act as the social institutions surrounding housing decisions (Banerjee, 1983; Conway, 1985 cited in Wu, 2002).

### **2.17.1 Age**

Demographic characteristics are important to explain how female migration is linked to factors such as age and gender. Age is a significant variable that influences accessibility to housing acquisition among female migrants (Sjaastad, 1962). According to the study conducted by the Department of Social Development on migration and urbanization, migration propensity varies inversely with age i.e. the greatest propensity to migrate occurs during the age of 20-29 (Hamilton, 1964; Cycle-methodology business, 1979; ). The evidence therefore suggests that internal migration is highest between ages of 25 and 29 years (Roux, 2009). Actually, young adults are the most migratory (Sjaastad, 1962). Caldwell (1969) pointed to the fact that it is predominantly the young people who move more to new areas like towns and cities (Brokkerhoff and Eu, 1993).

Age is an important factor which determines access to housing accommodation, since the purchaser of a housing unit takes time to accumulate enough money to buy a housing property over a long period of time through a life cycle (Brokkerhoff and Eu, 1993). This is explained by the idea that as the whole household advances in the domestic life cycle of its members, the pressure on the female household head to acquire a house is actually reduced and the material conditions of the household improves, including access to housing ownership (Sjaastad, 1962).

However, besides age, the position of female migrants within the domestic life cycle influences the probability of housing acquisition (Miraftab, 1999). Depending on the position within the domestic life cycle, the degree of appreciation for certain features of their actual housing situation varies. Women in the early stages of their domestic life with small children

and who are still within the reproductive age have greater chances of appreciating living together in shared arrangements in the company of other single mothers. Older female migrants who head households in the advanced stage of life cycle with adult children are likely to live in owned house when in the 40 years or more age group (Miraftab, 1999).

### **2.17.2 Educational level**

Level of education is an important feature for female migrants which influence housing accessibility. The level of education attained by female migrants has already been shown to have the highest effect on income, followed by occupation and location (Castillo, 1977 in Yust et al, 1997). In the South African context, it is expected that female migrants with high educational qualifications and having high earning occupations would have better chances of living in a high quality housing unit. For an example, since female migrants working as domestic workers are among the least educated and poorest people who cannot afford to live in a high quality housing accommodation, they mostly live in low quality housing units.

Women in migration streams are largely unskilled and poorly educated than men in the whole of sub-Saharan Africa (Akrofi, 2006). The same is true in South Africa (Akrofi, 2006). They rely on insecure jobs and poor types of accommodation. Most migrant women end up as domestic servants or similar types of informal jobs. In addition, the wages for such jobs are generally very low. Akrofi (2006) points out most migrant women are denied contracts, and sometimes subjected to abrupt firing. Therefore, low education, unemployment, lack of skills for female migrants may push them to live in inadequate housing facilities in cities.

Though the labour market for uneducated women in towns and cities is limited, women migrants have to find work in cities to supplement whatever other income that they might have. This is the reason why domestic work is a predominant job in many cities in South Africa. Besides domestic work, women tend also to be employed in textile and tobacco industries. Uneducated women have to compete with men (Yust et al, 1997, Ackrofi, 2006). Thus, self-employment is therefore a form of economic activity which women have to do in order to earn an income. Women then create incomes for themselves by acquiring new skills or applying skills that are part of their role as housewives (Yust et al, 1997). Thus, most female migrants become the sole providers for their families and this represent a growing trend of employment patterns among the poorer strata in all third world countries.



### **2.17.3 Population group**

In the study of migration and housing acquisition, population group has an impact on how migrants obtain housing accommodation in the South African context. Race has been shown to be an important predictor of the housing tenure among female migrants. The influx control laws which were established in order to prevent Black citizens of South Africa from moving and staying permanently in towns and cities created a housing ownership gap among most of the people (Moses, 2009; Ndinda et al, 2010).

The importance of race as a descriptive variable for female migrants' characteristics has its root in the legal measure adopted during apartheid to prevent Black people from settling down permanently in towns and cities where they worked. This impermanent settlement, particularly among the Black population affected their potential to access housing accommodation in the places of destination (Lekoa, 211). From a historical point of view, this might have been the reason why there is a common view of housing segmentation among different races in different areas of South Africa. Considering housing tenure among female migrants, it becomes predictable that the majority of housing units are actually owned by Blacks in the small towns and villages than in large cities, which is a result of the impermanent settlement of the majority of this population group in the cities of South Africa (Rust, 2006).

### **2.17.4 Marital status**

It is noteworthy to mention that married women migrants differ from single female migrants heading households in terms of housing access. A study on female migration in Dhaka, Bangladesh shows that marital status is a key factor which influences the ability of female migrants to get accommodation at their place of work (Huq-Hussain, 1996). Backer (1990) posited that for married women, the husband moves first, and as soon as the husband finds accommodation, the wife follows. The literature shows further that, while migrant men are often married or cohabiting, most migrant women are much more likely to be divorced, separated, unmarried or abandoned, constituting an independent group of women. More migrant women are also more likely to be widowed than men (Backer, 1990).

For those migrant women whose husbands earn a good salary, the expectation is that after a certain time they should be able to move to a house of good quality, or at least rent or buy a house of that nature. For a single migrant woman heading household on the other hand, it is difficult to find a room to stay. Backer (1990) guesses further that single women migrants with children are the worst affected. Moreover, low income single women migrants with children tend to live in no-service areas and often in over-crowded housing units with small per capita space. In fact, married women often have an advantage over unmarried women in that they can get credit from their husbands in order to invest in a large housing stock (Backer, 1990).

### **2.17.5 Sector of activity**

The economy of South Africa is the largest in Africa, accounts for 24% of its gross domestic product in terms of purchasing power parity, and is ranked as an upper-middle income economy by the World Bank. This makes the country one of only four countries in Africa in this category (The World Bank, 2012). According to official estimates, a quarter of the population is unemployed (Bloomberg, 2010). Research has shown that number increases to 35% when including people who have given up looking for work. A quarter of South Africans live on less than 1.25 US dollars a day (UNDP: Human Development Report, 2013). Country Brief the unemployment rate is very high, at more than 25%, and the poor have limited access to economic opportunities and basic services (World Bank, South Africa: Country Brief, 2012). Hence, poverty remains a major problem. In 2002, according to one estimate, 62% of Black Africans, 29% of Coloured, 11% of Asians, and 4% of Whites lived in poverty (Marnger, 2009). This economic imbalance among South African between races resulted in migration from area of low opportunities to areas of high job opportunities.

The high levels of unemployment and inequality are considered by the government and most South Africans to be the most salient economic problems facing the country (OECD: Economic Surveys in South Africa, 2010). South Africa, like other emerging markets, has struggled through the late 2000s recession, and the recovery has been largely led by private and public consumption growth, while export volumes and private investment have yet to fully recover (International Monetary Fund, 2011). The long-term potential growth rate of

South Africa under the current policy environment has been estimated at 3.5% (World Bank; South Africa, 2012).

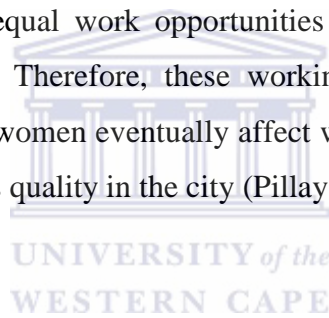
The socio-economic status of female migrants can be difficult to measure or identify in developing countries. In less-developed societies, various sub-groups including female migrants form the informal economic sector which is not fully integrated into the national economy, and therefore does not participate in its obligations and benefits (Poswa and Levy, 2006; Tati, 2010). It is indeed worthwhile to state that most female migrants' economic contribution influences the housing tenure that they acquire. In fact, women make significant contribution to the formal and informal sectors of all the cities' economy and to their overall functioning because of the contributions of nurses, teachers, traders and domestic workers. Though they make up just 43% of the working population, they are the ones who are found inadequately housed, despite the growth in economic sectors associated with their employment since 1996 (Connell, 1976; Hugo, 2003; Poswa and Levy, 2006).

Poswa and Levy (2006), explain that this low employment among female migrants is as a result of low monetary reward for female migrants' economic role in the national economy. In Africa, most women are concentrated in elementary occupations and survivalist economic activities. This is confirmed by a study conducted on women in city of Johannesburg who showed that a disproportionate number of working women earn between R0 and R1600 a month, which undoubtedly affects their housing tenure choice ( Poswa and Levy, 2006).

Indeed, female migrants' socio-economic status in South Africa is determined by their employment engagement (Yust, 1997). Women's economic realities have implications for their rights of access to housing acquisition (Pillay et al, 2002). The 1996 census revealed that 26% of male heads of households had incomes of less than R500 per month compared to 13% of female heads of households. In 2001, two-fifths (40%) of all employed women worked in unskilled jobs (Budlender, 2002 cited in Pillay et al, 2002). Close to one-fifth of the employed women earned R200 or less per month, compared to only 9% of employed men (Budlender, 2002 cited in Pillay et al, 2002). Indeed, the situation is particularly bad for African women, who have a higher unemployment rate and lesser income earnings when employed. In fact, most African women generally, and African female migrant headed households in particular, are concentrated in the lowest income group. Unemployment is high among African women (36%) who live in the cities, while the employment rate for African women is the lowest (34%) (Van Donk, 2004).

### **2.17.6 Employment status for women**

Empirical evidences have shown that some cultures barred women from accessing housing units of their own. What has made women migrants highly desirable as a group of labourers is their capacity to provide an equivalent service at lower wage rate than men, even when they work under much more insecure working conditions than their male counterparts. In some Asian countries like Japan, the maintenance of lifelong employment within the large companies related mainly to men, while females occupied a secondary employment role, which usually makes women insecure and to work on a part-time basis (Van Donkk, 2004). This situation provided a lot of companies with a strategy to cushion themselves in times of crisis. The International Labour Organization (ILO) documented research into fixed contract work and part-time work in the developed economies shows that this type of working relationship is predominantly female type of employment. Hence, in some companies, recruitment of women ensures equal work opportunities but for a lower wage and more insecure conditions for women. Therefore, these working conditions, occupations, work status and type of work done by women eventually affect women and their living conditions, especially housing choices and its quality in the city (Pillay *et al*, 2002).



### **2.17.7 Income**

With regards to low income female migrants or female migrants with no income at all, sharing accommodation becomes the only option available for women migrants to have access to shelter. A study undertaken by COHRE in Ghana indicates that female migrants with insufficient income prefer renting a room as a group in a shack in order to share the living expenses. It is not surprising to find anywhere between ten to thirty young women who collectively rent a single, tiny room in a shack on either a weekly or monthly basis (COHRE, 2008). It is theorized here that income information confirms the common knowledge that women earn less than men and that female heads of household are substantially poorer than men, which consequently affect the housing choice and housing condition. What is more, the criteria for eligibility to subsidized housing units are based on regular income one earns from formal employment (COHRE, 2008). Unfortunately, women's income often comes from casual work and unstable jobs which do not allow them to have any easy access to housing acquisition. It leaves many female migrants exposed when it comes to having their own

housing units. However, income information alone does not offer a satisfactory explanation of these trends. However, it is important to predict that age and position of members in the family life cycle influences women's aspirations, constraints and preference for housing accommodation (Miraftab, 1999).

## **2.18 Household and migratory determinants**

The key household and migratory determinant outlined in this study are household headship, dwelling types and locations, duration of residence, province of birth and province of previous residence.

### **2.18.1 Household headship**

People who occupy the same dwelling but do not share food or other essentials things were enumerated as separate households (Stats SA, 1996). For an example, people who shared a dwelling unit, but who bought food and ate separately, were counted as separate households (Stats SA, 1996). Existing literature on international development describes females heading households responsibilities as threefold: being a single earner, the earner being female and therefore facing labour market disadvantages and having time constraints due to commitments of managing the household and earning income (Buvinic and Gupta, 1997; Fuwa, 2000; Rogan, 2011). In other words, female migrants' headship role impacts negatively on the choice of housing they live in (May et al, 1998; Ray, 2000; Woolard, 2002; Rogan, 2011).

In rural areas of South Africa, women often constitute around half of all heads of households, reflecting the history of male migration that left a lot of women socially and economically exposed. In towns, the rate of women heads of households is between 15% and 20% and these normally live in low income suburbs (Backer, 1990). To form a household unit, women must find a place to stay in and have means of economic support and survival. Backer (1990) suggests that numerous migrant women remain as dependents of their relatives or colleagues, not because they like it, but because they cannot easily find a place for themselves and unable to raise rental fees on their own.

Contrary to what is believed to be the norm, the extended family structure is not disappearing, but is actually developing to be stronger in many societies as a response to the harsh economic realities.

### **2.18.2 Dwelling unit types and location**

In South Africa and elsewhere in Africa, there are many different types of housing. A study by South African Social Attitudes Survey (SASA, 2006) suggests that in 2006, the population that lived in brick structure dwelling units on separate stands was 66%, compared to 67% in 2007 and 70.2% in 2008. This suggests that over a period of three years the proportion of the population living in formal brick structure dwelling units on a separate stand has been steadily increasing (Ndinda et al, 2010). Another study conducted on women in the city of Johannesburg in 1996 found that more than one in four households in the city was housed in informal settlements or backyard shacks, totaling almost 225 000 houses. Although the number of households living in informal settlements had increased in 2001, the number of households living in backyard shacks was significantly reduced by 30 000. As a result, the proportion of households living in informal settlement conditions has come down to one in five (Van Donk, 2004).

The data on the racial breakdown of the population groups that live in different housing typologies suggests more Africans are moving in brick structures on separate stands and in flats and town houses or cluster houses. At the same time, Whites appear to be moving in greater numbers into brick structure dwelling units on separate stands, whereas Coloureds and Asians show a tendency to move into flats or apartments (Ndinda et al, 2010). This was recently confirmed recently by Segoa (2012) which indicates that the housing types in South Africa conform to the UN definition of a slum with respect to secure tenure range from sub-let inner city tenements to informal settlements. This includes poor neighborhoods, townships, and informal settlements which both exist within urban and rural settlements (Segoa, 2012).

### 2.18.3 Methods of housing tenure

It is a fact that for the greater part of the world's urban population, the informal housing market is the main way of getting a roof over one's head. In South Africa and elsewhere all over the globe, migrants have different housing tenure options (Van Donk, 2004). Many housing accommodation options are available to female migrants, with the commonest of the housing tenure arrangements previously reviewed being three fold: owning, renting and sharing accommodation (Van Donk, 2004).

With regard to shared accommodation, one always thinks of most women migrants living in flats or hostels as this was noted by Van Donk (2004). This author challenges the living conditions in shared accommodation housing of migrants. These are especially observed in the hostel similar to the ones found in the city of Johannesburg. A review of the housing sector undertaken by Sigodi et al (2001 cited in Urban Land Matter 2010) found that South Africa has a number of tenure options which differ by areas of residences.

It has been noted that the renting option is the most prominent and important housing tenure method, and that the number of households living in rented accommodation has increased approximately by 100 000 households from 1999-2005 (Urban Land Matter, 2010). The study on Urban Land Matter (2010) showed that renting type of housing acquisition is possibly the second most efficient housing form on the housing market for female migrants. This clearly shows that the demand for rented accommodation in metropolitan areas will continue to grow irrespective of whatever the government does. The reason might be that rented housing accommodation that is currently available does not meet the needs of the majority of the urban population and does not contribute sufficiently to the provision of accessible, affordable and adequate housing accommodation (Urban Land Matter, 2010). This is an indication that rented type of housing tenure plays a great role in accommodating the majority of female migrants, especially in major cities. A conceptual framework of this study is derived from the theoretical and empirical review. This framework serves as a pillar of this study and it discusses the scenario of migration and housing forms through hypotheses formulated by means of variables of interest.

#### **2.18.4 Duration of residence**

The migrant's duration of stay in the city is one of the determinant factors of housing access in that city, since female migrants who have stayed in an area of residence for a long time are better off than newly arrived female migrants with respect to choice and availability of structural type of dwelling units, floor space and utilities. This suggests that many female migrants tend to improve their dwelling place conditions according to the length of time they have stayed in the city. This gives them the ability to develop a better coping mechanism in getting accommodated (Taeuber, (1961). With respect to change of residence, female migrants who have stayed for a long time in an area of residence can change their forms of residence for better facilities while new female migrants might face many challenges doing this. The changing of residential location by female migrants indicates that the migrants are prepared to cope with any adverse circumstances they may face and are able to adapt to new environments.

#### **2.19 Conceptual framework of the study**

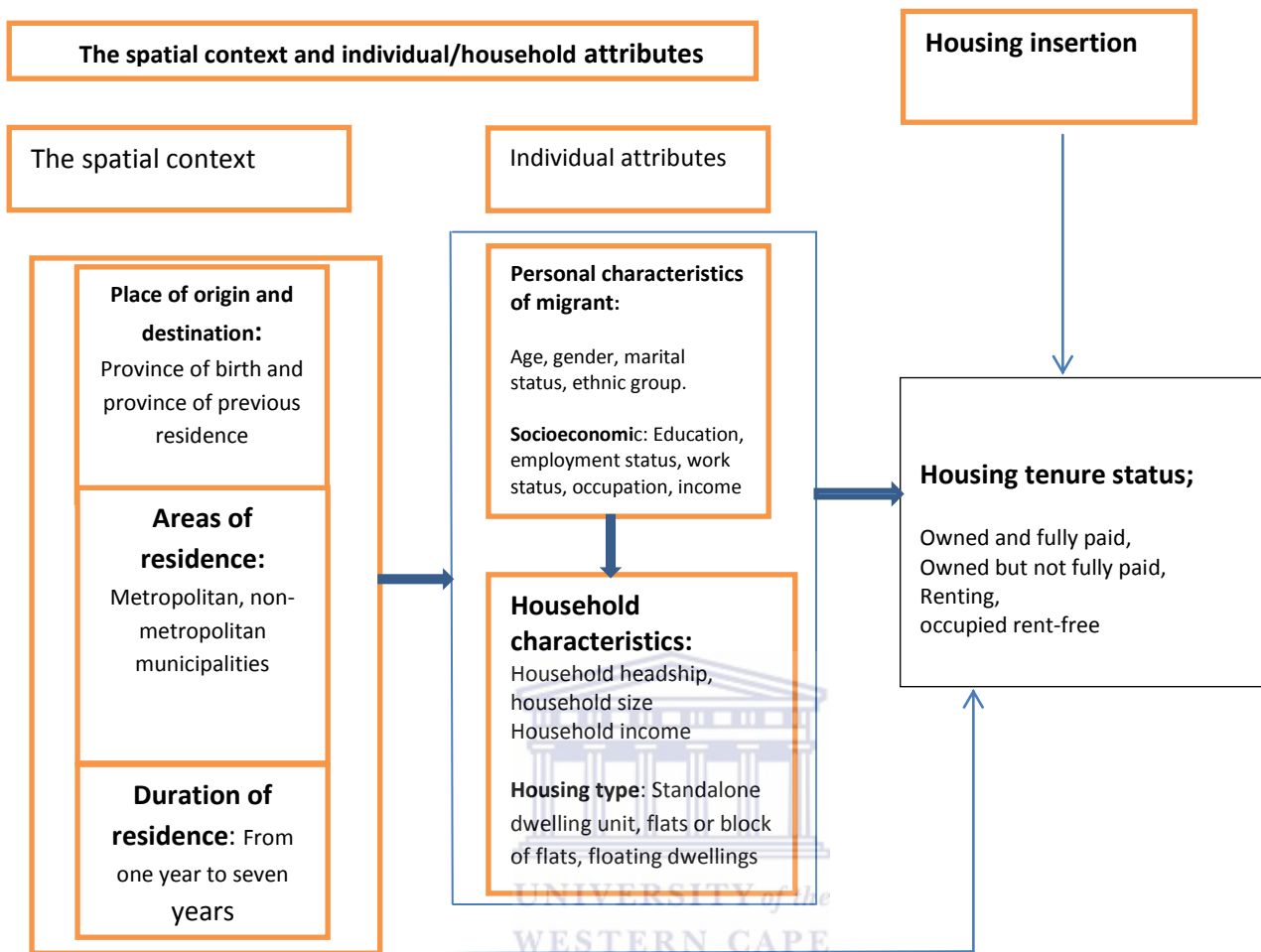
Using available theoretical literature as basis, a conceptual framework integrating migration experiences and housing accessibility is elaborated in this section. The framework integrates four analytical perspectives as illustrated on the diagram below: migratory factors, individual and socio-economic attributes, household characteristics and housing variable outcomes. More so, a number of hypotheses have emerged. It is generally assumed that the capital city, or the largest metropolitan area, dominate among destination preferences of migrants, especially those who migrates from the rural areas. Based on these assumptions, female migrants can go anywhere except if incentives-linked programmes are introduced to redirect their preferences. Numerous studies have also shown that generally, internal migrants go to places of destination as they are likely to choose from a range of big, small and medium-sized towns and cities (Bekker, 2001; Adepaju, 2008).

Housing tenure for female migrants depends on province of birth or province of previous residence. It is assumed that a province from where one was born and the province one was living previously before the current migration can influence housing tenure choice in the areas of destination. In addition to this, housing tenure for female migrants differs according



to area of residence. It is again assumed that in the metropolitan areas, female migrants are more likely to stay in rented dwellings compared to non-metropolitan municipality areas. Moreover, duration of residence in an area of residence can also influence housing tenure status for female migrants, depending on household headship and areas of destination. It can be predicted that the longer they stay, the more chances of eventually staying in own house. It is assumed further that female migrants' demographic characteristics determine housing tenure choice by household headship and area of residence. It is specifically hypothesised that age, gender, population group and marital status of female migrants all influence housing ownership. It is theorised for example, that the older one gets the higher chances of owning a house depending on the areas of residence. In addition, female migrants differ on the housing market according to whether they are married or not. There is an assumption that socio-economic characteristics play an important role in determining housing tenure choice for female migrants. For an example, educational level, employment status, work status, and income earning all can influence the type of housing tenure that female migrants could have. It is hypothesized that the better the job and the higher the income earning, the more chances of acquiring housing ownership. Furthermore, household size can also influence housing tenure choice for female migrants. It is specifically assumed that the larger the household, the more chances of eventually staying in an owned house. In the same vein, the housing structure type is related to the housing tenure choice for female migrants. Hence, it can specifically be hypothesized that housing ownership is prevalent among stand-alone dwelling units than in flats, block of flats or floating dwelling units.

**Fig 2.5: Summary of assumed relationships between migrants' attributes and modes of housing tenancy.**



Source: Author's design

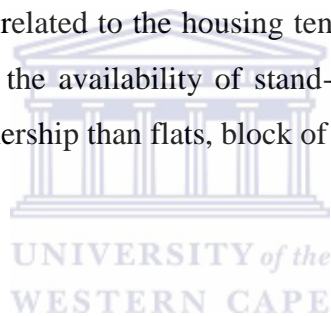
## 2.20 Hypotheses to be tested

The conceptual framework above generated a number of hypotheses which was obtained by linking variables of interest in this study. These hypotheses become necessary in order to ascertain the relationship between female migration and housing acquisition.

- Female migrants tend to move into highly urbanized provinces than the less urbanized provinces.
- Female migrants living in metropolitan areas are more likely to live in rented housing compared to those living in non-metropolitan municipality areas.
- Female migrants' demographic characteristics determine housing tenure by household headship and area of residence. It is specifically hypothesized that age,

gender, population group, marital status all have an impact on housing ownership for female migrants.

- Socio-economic characteristics play an important role in determining housing tenure choice for female migrants. For an example, educational level, employment status, work status and income earning may influence housing tenure choice for female migrants.
- Migratory characteristics such as duration of residence influences housing tenure status for female migrants depending on household headship and area of destination. It can be hypothesized that the longer the stay, the more chances of eventually staying in an owned house.
- Household characteristics such as household size can influence housing tenure choice for female migrants. It is specifically assumed that the larger the household, the more chances of eventually staying in an owned house.
- Housing structure type is related to the housing tenure choice for female migrants. It can be hypothesized that the availability of stand-alone dwelling units increase the likelihood of housing ownership than flats, block of flats or floating dwelling units.



## **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the data and the methodology which guided this study of female migration and housing demand in South Africa. It highlights the research perspective and the reason why it was used. The type and subtype of the research and the context of the study is also discussed. Specifically, it describes the participants in the study, methods of sampling and instruments used to collect data. It also provides an insight into how the data was conceptualized prior to the analysis. The data used in the study was analysed by utilizing appropriate statistical tests in SPSS. The objectives of the study was to examine the relationship between female migration and housing accessibility by specifically linking female migrant characteristics, household characteristics, migratory characteristics and housing tenure status, according to household headship and areas of residence. In line with female migrant characteristics and housing tenure status, this study assessed the similarities and differences among areas of residence in the context of South Africa. The instrument used is the 2007 Community Survey Secondary data derived from Statistics South Africa. The variables related to migration and housing in this study are both in appendix 1, on page 11, 12, and 13 for migratory variables; and on pages 26 and 32 for housing variables respectively of the 2007 Community Survey metadata.

### **3.2 Research perspective**

This study of female migration and housing is quantitative in nature because it uses variables and tests hypotheses formulated around those variables. This is a quantitative research, because it used random sample to collect the data; number-based statistical tests are used for data analysis. It emphasizes relatively large scale and representative set of data which can be generalized to the entire population. Creswell (2009) explains quantitative research as a means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. Hence, the variables in turn, can be measured typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures. This study of female migration and housing in South Africa has tested different theories derived from the literature studied.

Although the theoretical literature relating to female migration and housing is rare, a number of theories have been revised, leading to a theoretical framework which could serve as a starting point and a pillar of the study. Those theories among others are: theory of female migration and urban adaptation, selectivity theory, capital-channel-network theory. From these theories, some hypotheses were formulated by means of variables of interest.

The choice of using quantitative research methods was guided by two principles. Firstly, the way research questions were formulated lends the study to the use of quantitative analysis. Secondly, the study makes use of variables and hypothesis-testing to describe the relationship between female migration and housing tenure status. This relationship emphasizes on how female migrants differ by household headship and by areas of residence.

This study is a cross-sectional design because it collects data on one point of time. This type of design is normally identified with survey research. It consists of taking a random sample of individuals to respond to questions related to the participants' backgrounds, past experiences and attitudes. The data so collected in this regard is used to examine the relationship between characteristics or the quality of a person and the resultant attitudes, which is their inclination towards a specific outcome under investigation (Tati, 2008). This study used the 2007 Community Survey instrument to analyze data on female migration patterns. The survey data was obtained by means of interviews conducted among sampled households. The questions were asked specifically to the household head and also to each and every individual in the household. The Community Survey instrument is a reliable and trustworthy database because it provides reliable and valid information. It meets the sampling requirements for the study as it uses multi-stage stratified sampling techniques.

The interest of this study lies in highlighting and describing the determinants of housing tenure status of female migrants who were heading or not heading households across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. In line with female migrant characteristics, the study highlights the differentials and the similarities between different areas of migration settlement. By means of cross-tabulation between migratory variables, individual and household variables with housing-related variables, this study captured the real housing situation of female migrants across all areas of South Africa.

### 3.3 Data used

This study used the 2007 Community Survey data requested from Statistics South Africa. The reason of only using this data is that, this thesis was only initiated when there was no any other recently census data available. The 2011 census data was released only end of 2012 when this dissertation was almost complete. The 2007 Community Survey (CS) is a nationally representative and large-scale household survey which was conducted from February to March 2007 by Statistics South Africa. With regards to the data evaluation, Combined Index of United Nations (CIUN) obtained from the Community Survey data on national level is 18.32, suggesting good quality of data on sex and age declaration (Kamleu, 2012).

The community Survey results were released on 24<sup>th</sup> October 2007. After the evaluation of the data by the Statistics council, the Community Survey was found to be comparable in many aspects with other Stats South African surveys, censuses and other external sources. However, there are some areas of concern where Statistics South Africa is urging users to be more cautious when using the Community Survey data, for example Statistics South Africa caution that since the Community Survey is based on random sample and not a census, any interpretation should be understood to have some random fluctuation in data, particularly concerning the small population for some calls. The user should understand that the figures are within a certain interval of confidence (Community Survey, 2007). Despite this weakness, the 2007 Community Survey data is a reliable data because it is produced by an institution with a high quality surveys and censuses. The sampling method is very efficient with a sample size highly representative which can be easily generalized to the entire population (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

This survey was designed to provide information on the trends and levels of demographic and socio-economic data such as population size and distribution, the extent of poor households, access to facilities and services, and the levels of employment/unemployment at national, provincial and municipality level. The targeted population for the Community Survey was the entire country of South Africa. All the nine provinces in the country formed part of the sample. It included all the population groups as well as the four settlement types: urban-formal, urban-informal, rural-formal (commercial farms) and rural-informal (tribal areas). A total of 17098 enumeration areas (AEs) were sampled (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

The 2007 Community Survey secondary data is a very useful instrument for this study because it provides estimates at lower geographical levels than other existing household surveys. However, the survey did not take into account some elements considered as out of scope of the survey. Those cases out of scope include collective living quarters (institutions) and some households in EAs classified as recreational areas or institutions. The data was collected using household questionnaire and provided information on an individual and household levels respectively. Rural (formal and informal) and urban (formal and informal) areas of all nine provinces of South Africa were covered to make the sample very representative (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

The 1996, 2001 and 2011 censuses were the all-inclusive censuses that Statistics South Africa has thus far conducted under the new democratic dispensation. Despite the demographic and socio-economic data being collected, the data on migration has enabled government and other stakeholders to make informed decision. When cabinet took a decision to move away from the 5-year to 10-year censuses, this created a gap in information or data collection between censuses of 2001 and the very last census carried out in October 2011. This is the reason why this study relied on the 2007 Community Survey data. The data from the last census can be scanned for further analysis as it had not yet been released for public use, the time of analysis of this study. The main objectives of the 2007 Community Survey were:

- To provide data at lower geographical level than existing household survey
- To build human, management and logistical capacities for census 2011; and
- To provide inputs into the preparation of the mid-year population projections.

Knowing that the 2007 Community Survey data is a very useful data set which can assist in providing information on internal migration, it persuaded the researcher to obtain the information and analyze the magnitude of female migration at the lower geographical level in South Africa.

### **3.4 Instrument design**

With regards to data collection, the data used in the study was collected by Statistics South Africa. The Community Survey questionnaire was the main tool used to collect the data from the households of sampled dwelling units. The design of the Community Survey questionnaire was household-based and designed to collect information on ten people in each

household. In the case where there were more than 10 people in a household, an additional questionnaire was used. It was developed much in line with the existing organizational household-based survey questionnaire and added to the final estimates of the 2007 Community Survey results (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

### **3.5 Sample design**

The sampling procedure adopted by Statistics South Africa for the survey was a two-stage stratified random sampling process. Since the data was required for each local municipality, each municipality was considered as an explicit stratum. The first stage is the selection of EAs (Enumeration Areas) within each municipality. The EAs within each municipality were ordered by geographic type and EA type. The selection of EAs was done using a simple systematic random procedure. The only constraint measure considered all EAs in municipalities selected. In all those municipalities with 30 EAs or more, the sample selection used a fixed proportion of 19% (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

The second stage of the sample design involved the selection of dwelling units. The selection of dwelling units was based on a fixed proportion of 10% of the total listed dwellings in EAs. For the CS, enumerators allocated by Statistics South Africa visited the selected sampled dwelling units to interview households. The 2007 Community Survey contains three files namely: person, geographical and housing files. The person file contains demographic, migration, disability and social grants, education, employment and economic activities, and parental survival and income. Geographical file contains provinces, metropolitans and non-metropolitan. The house file contains housing and household services (Statistics South Africa, 2008). From these files, variables of interest to this study have been extracted and were used for data analysis.

### **3.6 Data collection**

With regards to the data collection procedure, enumerators visited the selected sampled dwelling units to interview households. Self-enumeration was not allowed at any point in time at all. A mop-up exercise was carried out as a follow up on non-contacts, vacant dwellings, and unoccupied dwellings. The adopted enumeration method for CS 2007 was by



canvassing, whereby the enumerator conducted a face-to-face interview with respondents while simultaneously completing the questionnaire (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

According to the CS data collection methodology, the respondent to the questionnaire was the head or the acting head of the household. However, if the head or acting head was not around the oldest responsible household member acted as the respondent. The respondent was not supposed to be younger than 15 years of age. In exceptional circumstances, however, a person younger than 15 years would be considered the respondent if it was found that there was no older household member alive or living with them (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

### **3.7 Description of variables used in this study**

The purpose of this study is to identify the determinants of housing tenure status of female migrants in the South African context. The description of variables is the measurement of social demographic as measured in the 2007 Community Survey. As a result of this, the variables used are classified into four categories in relation to the following characteristics: socio-demographic variables, migratory variables, socio-economic variables, household variables, and housing variables. In order to highlight the relationship between female migration and housing, variables of interest are categorized as follows:

**Table 3.1: Classification of variables**

<b>Independent variables</b>		<b>Dependent variable</b>	
Areas of residence, Province of birth, Province of previous residence, Duration of residence, age, gender; marital status, population group, Level of education, employment status; occupation; work status; and income category; household size; household headship; Housing structure type		<b>Housing tenure status:</b> Owned and fully paid, owned but not fully paid, renting, and occupied rent-free.	
<b>Contextual variables</b>	<b>Individual and Household variables</b>		<b>Housing unit variables</b>
<b>Areas of residence</b> -Metropolitan areas -Non-metropolitan areas (districts areas subdivided in local municipalities) <b>Migratory variables</b> -Province of birth -Province of previous residence -Duration of residence	<b>Individual characteristics:</b> -Age, gender, marital status, population group <b>Socioeconomic:</b> -Level of education, employment status, occupation, work status, and income category. <b>Household variables:</b> -Household size -Household headship		<b>Housing structure type:</b> -Standalone dwelling -Flat or block of flats -Floating dwelling <b>Tenure status</b> -Owned and fully paid -Owned but not fully paid -Renting -Occupied rent-free

*Source: Adapted from the meta-data used by Statistics South Africa, 2008*

### 3.7.1 Socio-demographic variables

The socio-demographic variables described female migrants characteristics are the following: age, gender, marital status, population group, level of education.

#### 3.7.1.1 Age of respondent

Age is an important variable used to ascertain how the age of female migrant influences housing tenure choices and housing quality. The question regarding age was asked to every person in the household, “What is the person’s age in completed years?” This was asked in order to find out the ages of the household members. The instruction was to write the age in completed years (i.e. age at last birthday). For babies younger than one year, the instruction

was to write 000 for age while for a person of 7 years and 10 months old it was to write 007 for age. If the age was not known at all, the instruction was to ask for an estimate.

### **3.7.1.2 Sex/Gender**

This variable helps to determine the sex or gender of individual, whether male or female and how gender of the migrant heading household influences positively or negatively the housing tenure choices and housing quality. The question was “Is the person male or female?” This question was asked for each person to find out whether the person in the household is male or female. The answer to this question was coded as **(1)** male and **(2)** as female.

### **3.7.1.3 Marital status**

Marital status is an important variable in migration studies. The question on marital status was asked to determine the marital status of members of the household and of the household head. With regards to the study of female migration and housing, this variable measures the variations among married, single, divorced, widowed and separated women in relation to housing tenure choices and housing quality. In this study, this variable help determines the influence of marital status of each individual member of the household or marital status of the head of the household and its relationship to housing tenure choices and the housing quality that female migrants live in.

The present marital status of the person was recorded but not the marital history. The responses were divided into eight categories: **(1)** Married civil/religious; **(2)** Married traditional/customary; **(3)** Polygamous marriage; **(4)** Living together as married partners; **(5)** Never married; **(6)** Widower/widow; **(7)** Separated; **(8)** Divorced. The variable on marital status explains the variations among female migrants in relation to housing tenure choices and housing conditions.

#### 3.7.1.4 Population group

The study assumes that housing tenure choices and housing conditions of female migrants differs according to the population group they belong to. Thus, in order to determine the population of the group of persons in the selected dwellings, the question asked was, “How would the person describe himself/herself in terms of population group?” This question was important because it enables one to find out the actual composition of the South African population. The responses for this question were: (1) Black; (2) Coloured; (3) Indian or Asian; (4) White. This variable therefore explores the differentials among female migrant ethnic groups in relation to housing choices and housing quality.

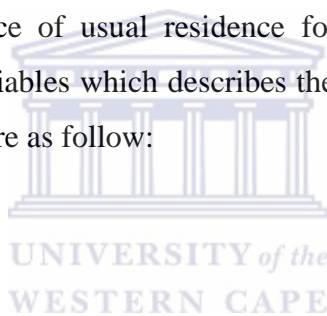
#### 3.7.1.5 Level of education

The question, “What is the level of education that each person has completed?” was asked everyone in the household to determine the highest level of education completed by these persons. The enumerators were cautioned here that the main focus of interest was the highest level of education that has been completed, and not the level of education the person was currently studying. Therefore, a learner who was currently in **Grade 9** had completed **Grade 8**. If **Grade 11** was mentioned by the respondent, enumerators were instructed to probe whether the person had attended **Grade 12** but not completed it. **NTC 1** stands for the National Technical Certificate on first year level. If the respondent mentioned **Grade 12**, the enumerator was instructed to probe further and ask whether the person had a university exemption or not and to record accordingly. If a certificate or diploma was reported to have been attained, the enumerator was also instructed to probe further whether the person had a **Grade 12** or not. If a person was 5 years or older and reported that they had no schooling, enumerators were instructed to write code 24 for that person. Therefore, the answer was recorded this way: (1) Grade 0; (2) Grade 1; (3) Grade 3/Std/ABET 1; (4) Grade 4/Std 2; (5) Grade 5/Std 3/ABET 2; (6) Grade 6/Std 4; (7) Grade 7/Std 5/ABET 3; (8) Grade 8/Std 6; (9) Grade 9/Std 7/ABET 4; (10) Grade 10/Std 8/NTC 1; (11) Grade 11/Std 9/NTC II; (12) Attended Grade 12, but not completed grade 12; (13) Grade 12/Std 10/NTC II (without university exemption); (14) Grade 12/Std 10 (with university exemption); (15) Certificate with < Std 10/Grade12; (16) Diploma with < Std 10/ Grade12; (17) Certificate with Std 10/Grade12; (18) Diploma with Std 10/Grade12; (19) Bachelor degree; (20) BTech; (21) Post

graduate diploma; (22) Honours degree; (23) Higher degree (Masters/PhD); (24) No schooling; (98) Out of scope (children under five years of age). This variable explains how educational attainment of female migrants influences housing tenure choices and housing quality.

### **3.7.2. Migratory variables**

Migration is defined as the movement from one migration defining area to another (or a movement of some specified minimum distance) that is made during a given migration interval and that involves change of residence (United Nations, 1970). Kpedekpo (1982) defines migration as the change of residence i.e. movement of person(s) who change(s) their usual place of residence from one country to another i.e. international migration or from one magisterial district to another i.e. internal migration. In this study, a person is regarded as a migrant if they stayed at a place of usual residence for at least six months. Migratory variables are the independent variables which describes the patterns of migration in terms of time and space. These variables are as follow:



#### **3.7.2.1 Province of birth**

The question “In which province in South Africa was the person born?” was asked to determine the province where the respondent was born. If the person was born outside South Africa, “Outside RSA” was recorded. Therefore, the answer to this variable was recorded as (1) Western Cape; (2) Eastern Cape; (3) Northern Cape; (4) Free State; (5) Kwazulu-Natal; (6) North West; (7) Gauteng; (8) Mpumalanga; (9) Limpopo; (10) Outside RSA; (11) Do not know. The variable “province of birth” helps to measure the differentials among female migrants from different provinces in relation to housing access.

#### **3.7.2.2 Province of previous residence**

The question “In which province did the person live before moving to this dwelling?” was asked to determine the province from which the person has moved from. The response was recorded as: (1) Eastern Cape; (2) Western Cape; (3) Northern Cape; (4) Free State; (5) Kwazulu-Natal; (6) Northern West; (7) Gauteng; (8) Mpumalanga; (9) Limpopo; (10)

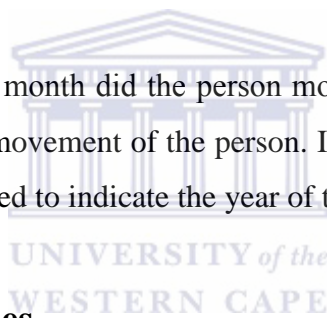
Outside RSA; **(11)** Do not know. This variable helps to know whether female migrants moved first from one place and then later on moved again into another place and how these movements affect housing tenure choices and housing conditions in the host environment.

### **3.7. 2.3 Residence lived past five years**

The question “Was the person living in this dwelling in October 2001?” was asked to find out whether the person was living in the same dwelling from October 2001. This question refers to any movements, no matter how close from the original place to the new one. This also includes movement from one dwelling unit to another, even on the same stand or in the same block of flats. The responses were recorded as: **(1)** Yes, **(2)** No, **(3)** Born after October.

### **3.7.2.4 Period of movement**

The question “in which year and month did the person move to this dwelling” was asked to know the month and the year of movement of the person. If the person had moved more than once, the enumerator was instructed to indicate the year of the most recent move.



## **3.3 Socio-economic variables**

The socio-economic variables of interest in this study are employment status, work status, occupation, and income category.

### **3.7.3.1 Employment status**

According to the official unemployment definition, a person must satisfy the following three conditions of unemployed status: The person did not work during the seven (7) days prior to the survey interview and does not have any job attachment or the person wants to work and is available to start work within two (2) weeks or the person has taken active steps to look for work or to start own business in the four (4) weeks prior to the survey interview. Therefore, the final code list was: **(1)** Employed; **(2)** Unemployed; **(3)** Not economically active; **(9)** Unspecified.

### 3.7.3.2 Work status

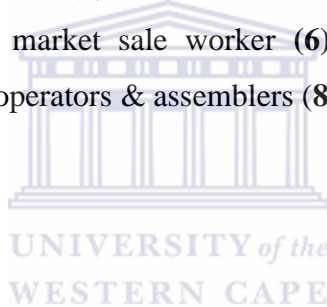
The question “How can one describe the person’s main activity or work status best?” was asked to respondents who were involved in any economic activities in the past seven days in order for them to describe their main work activity. The answer was recorded as follows: **(1)** Paid employee; **(2)** Paid family worker; **(3)** Self-employed; **(4)** Employer; **(5)** Unpaid family worker.

### 3.7.3.3 Occupation

The question “What is the main occupation of the person in this workplace”? This question was asked so as to be able to know what type of activity the person is doing. The answer was recorded as follows: Legislators; senior officials & managers **(1)**; Professionals **(2)**; Technicians & associate professionals **(3)**; Technicians & associate professionals **(4)**; Clerks **(5)**; Service workers; shop and market sale worker **(6)**; Plant & machine operators & assemblers **(7)**; Plant & machine operators & assemblers **(8)**, Elementary occupations **(9)**.

### 3.7.3.4 Income category

The question “What is the income category that best describes the gross monthly or annual income of the person before deductions and including all sources of income?” was asked to determine the income category that best describes the gross monthly or annual income before deductions. It includes all sources of income (including grants). The respondent was given categories to choose from (either monthly or annually). The answer was recorded as: **(01)** = No income; **(02)** = R1- R 400/R 1- R 4800; **(03)** = R401- R 800/ R4801- R9600; **(04)** = R 801- R 1600/ R 9 601- R 19 200; **(05)** = R 1 601- R 3 200/R 19 201- R38 400; **(06)** = R 3 201-R6 400/R 38 401- R 76 800; **(07)** = R6 401-R12 800/R 76801- R 153600; **(08)** = R12 801-R25600/R 153 601-R307 200; **(09)** = R25 601-R51 200/R 307 201- R614 400; **(10)** = R51 201- R102 400/R 614 401- R1228 800; **(11)** = R 102 401- R204 800/R 1228 801-R24 57 600; **(12)** = R204 801 or more/ R2457 601 or more.



### **3.7.4 Housing and household variables**

Housing related variables are those variables describing the household size, household headship, and housing structure type. They are as follows:

#### **3.7.4.1 Household size**

Household size is a new variable created, which describes the number of household members in each household. In the data collection, it was assumed that the members of a household should be ten. In the case where it was more than that, the enumerator had to use a second questionnaire because each questionnaire could only accommodate ten people.

#### **3.7.4.2 Household headship**

This is another new variable used in this study in order to describe the differentials between female migrants who head household and those who do not head households. Hence, this new variable was computed and recorded in this way: (1) Female migrant not heading household; (2) Female migrant heading household. Female migrants heading household could be described as all women who were living alone, women living with their children as heads or women who were considered as head but living with others in the same household. Female migrants not heading household could be those who were accommodated by other people who could also be migrants or are not migrants heading the households.

#### **3.7.4.3 Main type of dwelling**

This is a variable which describes the types of housing in South Africa. The question “Which of the following types best describes the main dwelling unit that this household occupies?” was asked to ascertain the type of dwelling that a household occupies. The answer was recorded as: (1) House/brick structure on a separate stand/yard; (2) Traditional dwelling/hut/structure made of traditional material; (3) Flat in block of flats; (4) Town/cluster/semi-detached house (simplex, duplex, triplex); (5) House/flat/room in backyard; (6) Informal dwelling/shack in backyard; (7) Informal dwelling/shack NOT in backyard, e.g. in an informal/squatter settlement; (8) Room/flatlet NOT in backyard but on a



shared property; **(9)** Caravan or tent; **(10)** Private ship/boat; **(11)** Workers' hostel (bed/room). **(12)** Other.

#### **3.7.4.4 Housing structure type**

This is a variable computed from another variable “main type of dwelling” which provides three categories of types of dwellings. Thus, category **(1)** = Stand-alone dwelling; **(2)** = Flats or block of flats; **(3)** = Floating dwellings.

#### **3.7.4.5 Housing tenure status**

The question regarding the types of housing tenure status was asked as follows: “What is the tenure status of this household?” The question was asked to determine the terms on which the household occupied the dwelling. If the household used several dwellings, the enumerator was asked to record the main dwelling. Consequently, the answer was recorded as follows: **(1)** Owned and fully paid off; **(2)** Owned but not yet paid off; **(3)** Rented; **(4)** Occupied rent-free; **(5)** Other. Moreover, the information on housing characteristics was provided by the head of the household and it refers to all individuals living in the dwelling unit.

### **3.8 Data preparation**

This present study of female migration and housing demand used the 2007 Community Survey data that was requested and obtained from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). This data was statistically analyzed in order to identify a relationship between migration and housing. The data assisted the study by highlighting the factors determining housing tenure status of female migrants. However, the 2007 Community Survey secondary data which was available for this study needed some conceptualization before embarking on analysis. In this vein, the data analysis skills which involve specifically the knowledge of converting the existing hierarchical data files into appropriate rectangular format were needed. Hierarchical data files were extracted from existing files and yielded the appropriate data to use for analysis. In order to fully exploit the dataset, knowledge of procedures of manipulating this data was also important (Rafferty and Wathan, 2010). The procedure was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. SPSS was used to merge the

three files (personal, geographical, and house files) within a single file. Thus, those different files with different levels of hierarchy were combined to make one file.

### **3.8.1 Levels of analysis**

The levels of analysis in this study are metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. In the data analysis, variables such as “household headship” was used in order to determine, between those who are heading and not heading households, which category of female migrants is mostly vulnerable to the housing market. Knowing that the dataset had three different files, those separate files were converted into a rectangular file, so that every individual in the household could have information on housing. This procedure was done before data analysis.

### **3.8.2 Creation of rectangular files**

The 2007 Community Survey dataset consisting of three different files is the only instrument that is used in this study. Given that the purpose of the study is to establish a relationship between migration and housing, it could not be possible to analyze the data in the state that it was recorded. The information of household was replicated to the individual level in order to describe the housing situation for each and every female migrant in the household. Otherwise, these three files could only reflect housing and personal information separately. In order to use the information in both files, these three files were linked together by using household ID. Since SPSS was used for data analysis, one command in the software was used to replicate housing information to personal and geographical files in order to create a rectangular file. The procedure regarding how it was done is explained in the following section.

### **3.8.3 Merging files**

At this stage, the information on the housing file was replicated into personal and geographical files. With regards to the 2007 Community Survey data, the household and personal files each contains a household ID. This ID enabled the study to relate the household level records in the household as well as to the cases in the personal files. In this way, the rectangular file that contains data from both files was created. This new file was generated by

replicating information from the household to the person files. Finally, the information about each household was repeated for each person. For example, the housing tenure variable contains the same information for each person in the household. The HH ID uniquely identifies the household. Every person in the household has the same HH ID. Using SPSS, these files were merged through the following path: Data – Aggregate – Break variables – Summarize variables (variables you want everybody to have).

### **3.9 Migration interval**

Two approaches were considered important in migration studies. In the study of internal migration, it has been observed that migration is a process which runs over time. Hence, migration phenomena can be studied only when the data is based on a given period of time. According to the United Nations definition of 1970, this period may be defined in terms of, for example, one year, five years, ten years, and the intercensal period. However, a period may not be specified. For example, life-time migration is measured from the place of birth in reference to the place of current residence at the time of survey. Given that the 2007 Community Survey data refers to a fixed interval of five years from October 2001 to October 2007, and also to life-time migration, it was possible to study migration in reference to fixed-date or period migration, and life-time migration of female migrants. In this regard, place of birth and place of usual residence were used to capture female migrants living in a particular and current place of residence. This is done by cross-tabulating province of previous residence or province of birth with province of current residence. From this table, a matrix balance was calculated by subtracting the out-migrants from the in-migrants of each province. In the end, the fixed-term or life-time net migration was calculated from a matrix balance table.

#### **3.9.1 Fixed-term net migration**

With regards to fixed-term migration, the reference dates used are the census of 2001 and the time of the Community Survey itself in 2007. Fixed-term migration covers a period of five years. This means that, all respondents who were not residing in the same dwelling between the October 2001 census and the time of enumeration were considered as migrants.

Otherwise, women who remained in the same dwelling and those who were born after October 2001 were not considered as migrants.

### **3.9.2 Life-time net migration**

Life-time migration refers to migration that happened between the place of birth and the place of current residence (United Nation, 1970; Zaba, 1985; Dorrington and Moultrie, 2002). This implies that all females who were staying in a place other than their place of birth during the time of the survey in October 2007 were considered as migrants. Therefore, this migration stream was called life-time migration. The question which was asked in this case was “In which province in South Africa was the person born?”

### **3.10 Duration of residence**

Duration of residence is the length of time that a person has lived in his/her current home. The duration of current residence is the number of years that have elapsed between the years a respondent moved into the current residence and the year the survey was administered. For those who have never moved (people who have always lived in their current residence), the duration of residence is the person’s years of staying in a place (Mateyka, and Marlay, 2010). Period of movement is a variable which provides information on the year and month the person has moved into the present dwelling. This is done in order to assess the actual time when the person has moved into the current dwelling. On the basis of the variable “period of movement” (see section on description of variables), a new variable “duration of residence” was computed in reference to the period between October 2001 and the time of the survey of October 2007, by counting years falling between this period. This new variable was used to see if the duration of residence impact on housing tenure status of female migrants.

### **3.11 Area of residence**

The problem with this variable, however, is that it did not exist in the 2007 Community Survey. It was rather newly created for the purpose of this study. The perspective was on two different level of analysis which are metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities. In

fact, the urban area is said to be comprised of places of different sizes and functions. This is the case for metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. This definition of the politico-economic space eliminated the distinction between rural and urban areas which were historically reported in other surveys conducted by Statistics South Africa. This is one of the reasons why this study was not driven by the concern of proving migration information in rural and urban areas. As a result, a new variable “area of residence” was rather computed in SPSS by means of “area count menu”. This was performed by compressing the data of all metropolitan municipalities to make “metropolitan area” as category (1); whereas all district data were combined to make “non-metropolitan area” as category (2). Metropolitan municipalities of South Africa stand on their own, which means they have their own data. Metropolitan areas however, are the areas falling outside metropolitan municipality with their own data as well, generally called non-metropolitan areas. Therefore the comparison of those two different areas of residence was possible.

### **3.12 Data analysis and statistical methods**

Studies have shown that careful data analysis always starts with an examination of the key features of each variable. Sometimes, the findings from individual variables yield critical insights into the features of analysis. In any case, it gives the study an essential picture of the data (Michael and Lewis-Beck, 1995). In this vein, net life-time and net fixed-term female migration was first computed to assess the magnitude of female migrants across all nine provinces of South Africa. Net migration refers to the balance of migrations that happened in the opposite directions (United Nations, 1970).

The calculation process of net female migration was as follows: First, province of birth or province of previous residence was cross-tabulated with province of current residence. From these figures, a matrix balance for both life-time and fixed-term migration tables were calculated. This was the balance between the total in-migrants of the bottom row minus the total migrants of the last right column on the right of the table. The calculation of lifetime net migration is computed by taking in-migrants for each province of birth minus out-migrants. With regards to the calculation of fixed-term net migration, it was the difference between in-migrants of each province of previous residence minus the out-migrants.

### **3.12.1 Univariate analysis**

An exploration of the individual variables in order to assess the magnitude of female migrants in South Africa was done. In addition to this, some descriptive analysis such as mean and median was performed. Having examined the distribution of values of particular variables through the use of frequency tables, the univariate analysis could not be sufficient to answer research questions with only the examination of single variables alone. An important step was carried out, to measure relationships between two variables by testing hypotheses formulated. This major strand in the analysis of a set of data is known as bivariate analysis (Creswell, 2009).

### **3.12.2 Bivariate analysis**

In this study, the hypotheses formulated were tested to measure the relationship between independent and dependent variables. In this regard, cross-tabulation and some statistical tests were used to test theories of investigation. Therefore, the relationship between migratory variables, individual and household variables, socio-economic variables and housing variables were measured. The use of hypothesis-testing around variables explains the reason for the use of bivariate analysis. Actually, a relationship between two variables exists when the distribution of values for one variable is associated with the distribution exhibited by another variable (Bryman and Cramer, 1999).

#### **3.12.2.1 Cross-tabulation analysis**

To analyze the data, cross-tabulation was one of the simplest ways of testing hypotheses by demonstrating the presence or absence of a relationship between independent and dependent variables. This task was performed by putting variables into a two-way table which yielded patterns of percentages. In this way, socio-demographic variables, socio-economic variables, migratory variables, and household variables were cross-tabulated with housing variables to assess the relationship between them. For example, using SPSS, the province of birth of female migrant was cross-tabulated with housing tenure status. This operation produced tables with percentages which allowed the researcher to assess differentials. This method

assisted the study in understanding which housing tenure choice is highly used by female migrants according to household headship and areas of residence.

### 3.12.2.2 Chi-Square test statistics

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$$

Chi-square is one of the non-parametric tests used in this study to analyze the data. Both variables of interest in the hypothesis were categorical in nature. In other possible cases, some variables were nominal, while others were ordinal. A level of significance of 0.05 was used as a cut-off value. In fact, at 0.05 level of significance, a  $p < 0.05$  means that the relationship is statistically significant, and the hypothesis is supported; while a  $p > 0.05$  means the relationship is not statistically significant hence, the hypothesis is refuted.

Given the fact that chi-square is not a strong statistical test because it does not convey information about the strength of a relationship, Phi and Cramer's V were recommended. If confronted with an interval of dependent and independent variables, which are either nominal or ordinal, the 'eta' coefficient should be used (Bryman and Cramer, 1999). Normally, the values which measure the strength of a relationship range between 0 and 1, meaning that any value closer to 0 indicates weak relationship, while a value closer to 1 indicates a strong relationship.

### 3.12.3 Multivariate analysis

After performing bivariate analysis with cross-tabulation and hypothesis testing by means of chi-square statistical test, a multivariate analysis followed. This was to create a model which combines more than two variables. By dealing with the chances of living in housing of a particular tenure, logistic regression analysis was used to determine those chances in terms of probability.

### 3.12.3.1 Logistic regression analysis

Actually, for a logistic regression to be used, the study must meet some assumptions. In this study, some of the independent variables were categorical, while others were continuous in nature. Given that this study meets all these assumptions, logistic regression was another appropriate method used. In addition to this, since one of the interesting features of this study was to determine the predictors of housing tenure of female migrants, each category of the dependent variable “housing tenure status” was dichotomized in SPSS. In fact, this dependent variable has four categories namely: **(1)** = Owned and fully paid; **(2)** = Owned but not fully paid; **(3)** = Renting; **(4)** = Occupied rent-free. Each category was dichotomized as follow: **(1)** = Owned and fully paid; **(0)** = other methods; **(1)** = Owned but not fully paid, **(0)** = Other methods; **(1)** = renting, **(0)** = Other methods; **(1)** = Occupied rent-free, **(0)** = Other methods.

In this way, each dichotomized category with the highest code was used as dependent variables for each model and it was analyzed according to household headship and areas of residence. In this instance, the interest was to determine the variables which predict the likelihood of staying in owned and fully paid, owned but not fully paid, rented or occupied rent free type of housing. This was in relation to whether female migrants were heading or not heading household and whether they are living in metropolitan or in areas. The numerical coding for these dichotomized variables was 1 & 0 respectively. SPSS used the higher coded category to be the predicted outcome.

With regard to independent variables, some new variables were computed, especially when variables were nominal or ordinal with many categories. For example, province of birth or province of previous residence had nine categories. When these variables were transformed, they were given only three categories computed as: **(1)** = Urbanized province; **(2)** = not urbanized province; **(3)** = Outside RSA. Income category became: **(1)** = Low income; **(2)** = Medium income; **(3)** = High income. Variable education became: **(1)** = Primary; **(2)** = Secondary; **(3)** = Degrees; **(4)** No schooling. Continuous variable with long list of categories such as age, duration of residence, household size were automatically categorized by SPSS when running logistic regression.

To perform the logistic regression, reference categories were automatically computed in SPSS. The default was the “highest coded” last category. For population group as an



example, (1) = Black, (2) = Coloured, (3) = Asian/Indian, (4) = White. Since this variable is categorical, SPSS indicated a reference group with the highest coded last category as 'White'.

With regard to the dependent variable, tenure status has originally four categories. Each of these categories had to be dichotomized and SPSS recorded 1 as reference category. For example, (1) = Owned and fully paid, (0) = Other methods; (1) = Owned but not yet paid, (0) = Other methods, (1) = Renting, (0) = Other methods; (1) = Occupied rent-free, (0) = Other methods. The idea was to prepare the output for easy interpretation, when comparing independent to dependent variables.

### 3.12.3.2 Interpretation of logistic regression output

Firstly, the independent variables were simultaneously included in the model. Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness of fit informed us how closely the observed and predicted probabilities match. In this case a  $p > 0.05$  indicated that the model fit the data. In addition, 5% was used as cut off point as a level of significance. If Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test statistics is greater than 0.05, as we want for well-fitting models, this implies that the model's estimates fit the data at an acceptable level. That is well-fitting model show non-significance on the H.L goodness-of-fit test. This desirable outcome of non-significance indicates that the model prediction does not significantly differ from the observed.

With regards to the variables in the equation table, any variable with a  $p < 0.05$  was considered as significant but even any variable with 0.07 value was considered as significant in the model. The emphasis here is to note that this is different from Hosmer Lemeshow which provides a  $p > 0.05$ . The Wald estimates provides the importance of the contribution of each variable in the model. The higher the value, the more important it is. The Exp (B) gives the Odds Ratios. In other words, it gives the likelihood of an event to occur. Actually, logistic regression model predicts binary dependent variable  $y$  from interval or binary independent variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

The equation of model is:

$$p(y = 1) = \frac{\exp(z)}{1 + \exp(z)} \quad \text{where } z = b_0 + b_1x_1 + \dots + b_nx_n$$

$$\text{Estimated model} \quad \hat{p}(y = 1) = \frac{\exp(\hat{z})}{1 + \exp(\hat{z})} \quad \hat{z} = \hat{b}_0 + \hat{b}_1x_1 + \dots + \hat{b}_nx_n$$

Where  $\hat{b}_i$  are derive  $b$  maximum likelihood estimation

$b_0, b_1, \dots, b_n$  are regression coefficients, where  $b_i$  is change in log-odds of  $y = 1$  (the events happening) for unit change in  $x_i$  with other independent variables held constant.

Equivalently,  $\exp(b_i)$  is change in odds of  $y = 1$  (the event happening) for change in  $x_i$ .

When  $x_i$  is a binary variable,  $\exp(b_i)$  is the change in odds of  $y = 1$  where  $x_i$  changes from 0 to 1, where  $x_i = 0$  is treated as reference category.



### 3.13 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the data and methods used for the analysis of the study. The source of the data was also elaborated. The main objective of the chapter is to highlight the methods which were used to analyze the data, in order to meet the objective of the study which is to establish the relationship between female migration and housing by comparing the two areas of residence namely: metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas

## **CHAPTER 4: UNIVARIATE AND BIVARIATE ANALYSIS**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This section of the thesis focuses on data analysis of female migration and housing patterns using the 2007 Community Survey secondary data. The aim is to describe the relationship between female migrant characteristics and housing tenure status in South Africa. In line with female migrant characteristics, the study highlighted the differentials and similarities of housing tenure across areas of residences namely: metropolitan and municipality areas by way of comparing them. Household headship was used to measure the housing tenure status of those who were heading households and those who were not heading households. In order to assess the magnitude of female migrants and their characteristics, the analysis begins with a univariate analysis. Thereafter, a bivariate analysis was used to describe the association between independent and dependent variables using chi-square statistical test. The independent variables are: age, population group, marital status, level of education, employment status, work status, occupation, income category, province of previous residence, province of birth, area of residence, duration of residence, housing structure type, household size, and household headship. The dependent variable is the housing tenure status.

### **4.2 Sample composition**

The focus of this study is on female migration and access to housing in South Africa. The study involves female migrants who move inside South Africa and those who also come in from outside South Africa moving around internally. The survey results are summarized in table 4.1. The results revealed that the total number of female migrants enumerated in October 2007 in South Africa is 54274 females. A high percentage of the female migrants were Black with 72.2%, which is closely followed by the Whites which makes up 15.1% and then followed by the Coloured with 9.8% (see Table.5.1). There are however, a small percentage of Indian/Asian females who was involved in migration with 2.6%.

Research has shown that female in younger age groups, that is 20-24 and 25-29 years, engage in migration compared to the rest of age groups (Brockerhoff and Eu, 1993). Meaning In this female migration stream, a high percentage was never married (44.6%), while those who

were married in civil/religious marriage totaled 24.2%. These results confirm the findings by Obaid (2006) that for young women in some parts of African continent such as West Africa move for a period of time just to earn money to prepare for marriage. In addition to this, the mean age of female migrants is 29 years; majority of them were not head of households (72.8%), while those who were heading households were only 27.2%. This result supports previous studies which noted that with the new phenomenon of feminization of migration, women are migrating independently without necessarily accompanying any male kin. It is no longer like it was before when females migrated to accompany their husbands, fathers and brothers for family reunification reasons (Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996; Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008).

With regards to the level of education, the study found out that the majority of female migrants in South Africa are educated up to secondary education (63.5%), and even there are some with higher education. Female migrants with primary education make up 15.4% of total population surveyed, while those with a certificate are 10.7% and those who had degrees were 5.9%. However, there are those who are not educated at all, but they constituted a small percentage of 4.6%.

Looking at the employment status, majority of female migrants were employed (42.7%), followed by those who were not economically active (35.3%). The data indicated those who were not employed as 22.0% of the population. Among the female migrants who were employed, majority of them were held in elementary occupation (29.2%), closely followed by those who were professionals (17.3%), then clerks (14.7%) and managers (10.3%). Indeed, this is an indication of the discrimination of women by society which leads them to inferior positions of employment on the job market. The findings further indicated that majority of female migrants have low income earnings (61.9%), followed by medium income (35.6%). The findings indicated a meager 2.5% of female migrants earn high income. This explains the extent to which the majority of female migrants are economically inactive. However, those who are economically active have just basic education with no specific career training, which generally holds them in elementary occupational positions with low wages. With regards to housing structure type, the study found that standalone dwelling types is prevalent (64.2%), followed by floating dwelling types (20.3%). Flats or block of flats dwelling types were the least with 15.5%. The forms of tenure that are mostly used by female migrants are the owned and fully paid, owned but not fully paid, renting and occupied rent-free.

**Table 4.1: Frequency distributions**

<b>Population group</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentages</b>
Black	39291	72.4
Coloured	5335	9.8
Indian or Asian	1436	2.6
White	8212	15.1
<b>Total</b>	54274	100.0
<b>Marital status</b>		
Married civil/religious	13159	24.2
Married traditional/customary	4996	9.2
Living together as married partners	8239	15.2
Never married	24227	44.6
Widower/widow	1664	3.1
Separated	661	1.2
Divorced	1328	2.4
<b>Total</b>	54274	100.0
<b>Household headship</b>		
Female migrants not HOH	39519	72.8
Female migrants HOH	14755	27.2
<b>Total</b>	54274	100.0
<b>Level of education</b>		
Primary	8361	15.4
Secondary	34454	63.5
With certificate	5806	10.7
Degrees	3176	5.9
No schooling	2477	4.6
<b>Total</b>	54274	100.0
<b>Employment status</b>		
Employed	23157	42.7
Unemployed	11951	22.0
Not economically active	19166	35.3
<b>Total</b>	54274	100.0
<b>Housing structure type</b>		
Standalone house	13979	64.2
Flat or block of flats	3377	15.5
Floating houses	4423	20.3
<b>Total</b>	21779	100.0
<b>Housing tenure status</b>		
Owned and fully paid off	5821	26.7
Owned but not yet paid off	4774	21.9
Rented	7543	34.6
Occupied rent-free	3641	16.7
<b>Total</b>	21779	100.0

The findings from this study (see table 4.1 above) is however, interesting due to the fact that majority of female migrants were staying in rented dwellings (34.7%), but closely followed by those living in their own and fully paid dwellings (26.6%), while those who were living in owned but not fully paid accounted for 21.9%. It is further interesting to know that female migrants who were staying in occupied rent-free were the least proportion (16.7%) of the population.

### **4.3 Fixed-term migration**

By cross-tabulating province of previous residence and province of current residence as depicted in Table 4.2, the data shows that a high percentage of females moved from Limpopo province to Gauteng province (25.8%), followed by women who moved from Eastern Cape to Western Cape (10.5%). These findings are obvious because those provinces are the heart of economy of South Africa and that is why they attract many migrants. The province which received the highest number of female migrants in 2005 is Gauteng with 28.8% (21544), followed by KwaZulu-Natal with 15.2% and closely followed by the Western Cape which received 12.3% of women migrants. More so, the findings indicated that Gauteng and Western Cape Provinces received a high proportion of female migrants from outside South Africa in relation to the rest of the provinces of 40.3% and 15.5% respectively. The reason might be that those two provinces are the main destinations of migrants whether internal or international. It was also shown that female migrants from the Eastern Cape migrated more to the Western Cape while those from Limpopo tend to migrate more to Gauteng. The explanation of these findings is linked to the distance which plays an important role in migration destination. Hence, those who live in those two provinces tend to stay there, probably moving intra-provincially.

**Table 4.2: Distribution of female migrants by province of previous residence and province of current residence**

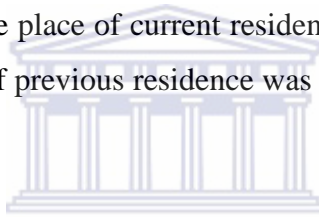
Province of Previous Residence	Province of Current Residence									Total
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GT	MPL	LMP	
Western Cape	5528	194	123	26	40	34	185	21	9	6160
	89.7%	3.1%	2.0%	0.4%	0.6%	0.6%	3.0%	0.3%	0.1%	100%
Eastern Cape	894	5922	48	73	461	150	489	53	32	8077
	10.5%	73.3	0.6%	0.9%	5.7%	1.9%	6.1%	0.7%	0.4%	100%
Northern Cape	81	35	1965	54	16	39	64	8	11	2273
	3.9%	1.5%	86.4%	2.4%	0.7%	1.7%	2.8%	0.4%	0.5%	100%
Free State	62	52	69	2693	31	135	286	46	24	3398
	1.8%	1.5%	2.0%	79.3%	0.9%	4.0%	8.4%	1.4%	0.7%	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	87	171	13	50	7309	40	629	116	23	8438
	1.0%	2.0%	0.2%	0.6%	86.6%	0.5%	7.5%	1.4%	0.3%	100%
Northern West	14	14	367	56	21	2787	668	46	55	4028
	.03%	0.3%	9.1%	1.4%	0.5%	69.2%	16.6%	1.1%	1.4%	100%
Gauteng	268	194	108	153	197	351	10863	225	214	12573
	2.1%	1.5%	0.9%	1.2%	1.6%	2.8%	86.4%	1.8%	1.7%	100%
Mpumalanga	14	11	12	20	75	36	672	2245	124	3209
	0.4%	0.3%	0.4%	0.6%	2.3%	1.1%	20.9%	70.0%	3.9%	100%
Limpopo	30	16	7	19	20	106	1226	370	2953	4747
	0.6%	0.3%	0.1%	0.4%	0.4%	2.2%	25.8%	7.8%	62.2%	100%
Outside RSA	213	61	36	87	94	105	552	99	124	1371
	15.5%	4.4%	2.6%	6.3%	6.9%	7.7%	40.3%	7.2%	9.0%	100%
Total	7146	6670	2748	3231	8264	3783	15634	3229	3569	54274
	13.2%	12.3	5.1%	6.0%	15.2%	7.0%	28.8%	5.9%	6.6%	100%

**Source:** Author's calculations from the 2007 Community Survey data (here and after). WC: Western Cape; EC; Eastern Cape; NC: Northern Cape; FS: Free State; KZN: KwazuluNatal; NW: Northern West; GT: Gauteng; MPL: Mpumalanga; LMP: Limpopo.

### 4.3.1 Fixed-term net migration of FM

According to the 2007 Community Survey, the distribution of female migrants according to the province of previous residence provided in Table 4.2.1 also shows that the **gross migration** of female migrants across the nine provinces of South Africa was 54274. This figure represents all moves of all female migrants within a specific definition of migration as applied to this study.

Net-migration was also calculated and shown in Table 4.2.1 According to the United Nations, net migration refers to the balance of migration that happened in opposite directions (United Nations, 1970). In order to calculate net female migration from the 2007 Community Survey data, life-time and fixed-term migration data were used. Knowing that female migrants can be sub-divided into two migration streams on the basis of place of birth and on a fixed period (five year period) according to the place of current residence, the number of female migrants enumerated from each province of previous residence was cross-tabulated with their province of usual residence in 2005.



As shown in Table 4.2,1 a matrix balance was calculated by means of the distribution patterns obtained by cross-tabulating province of previous residence and province of usual residence in 2005. Therefore, the table below displays a matrix balance between those two provinces. In order to obtain life-time and fixed-term net migrants, the in-migrants (the bottom row) were subtracted from the out-migrants which are the totals on the last and right column of the table.



**Table 4.2.1: Matrix balance between province of previous residence and province of current residence**

Province of Previous Residence	Province of Current Residence: 2005									
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GT	MPL	LMP	
Western Cape		194	123	26	40	34	185	21	9	<b>632</b>
Eastern Cape	849		48	73	461	150	489	53	32	<b>2155</b>
Northern Cape	81	35		54	16	39	64	8	11	<b>308</b>
Free State	62	52	69		31	135	286	46	24	<b>705</b>
Kwazulu-Natal	87	171	13	50		40	629	116	23	<b>1129</b>
Northern West	14	14	367	56	21		668	46	55	<b>1241</b>
Gauteng	268	194	108	153	197	351		225	214	<b>1710</b>
Mpumalanga	14	11	12	20	75	36	672		124	<b>964</b>
Limpopo	30	16	7	19	20	106	1226	370		<b>1794</b>
Total	<b>1405</b>	<b>493</b>	<b>747</b>	<b>1030</b>	<b>861</b>	<b>891</b>	<b>4219</b>	<b>885</b>	<b>492</b>	

The data depicted in Table 4.2.2 provides fixed-term net migration results from table 4.2.1. It indicates that the Western Cape, Northern Cape, Free State and Gauteng provinces gained more in-migrants than out-migrants hence; the reason for their positive net migrant output is high economic opportunities characterizing these provinces. This means that those provinces are highly attractive to people, and this can put pressure on some of the scarce resources in those provinces, including housing. Conversely, Eastern Cape, Kwazulu-Natal, North West, Mpumalanga and Limpopo had out-migrants outnumbering the in-migrants hence, the reason why their net migration had a negative output. The meaning of this is that people tend to move out of these provinces than move in.

**Table 5.2.2: Fixed-term net migration**

Province	Fixed-term In-migrants	Fixed-term Out-migrants	Fixed-term Net migrants
Western Cape	1405	639	766
Eastern Cape	493	2155	-1662
Northern Cape	747	308	439
Free States	1030	704	326
KZN	861	1129	-268
Northern West	891	1241	-2509
Gauteng	4219	1710	2509
Mpumalanga	885	964	-79
Limpopo	492	1794	-1302

## 4.4 Life-time migration

With reference to province of birth and province of current residence as shown in Table 4.3, the total percentage of female migrants born in the Eastern Cape but living in the Western Cape as migrants was 20.1%, which was closely followed by those living in Gauteng which makes up an 11.8%. More so, majority of female migrants who were born in KwaZulu-Natal (15.3%), North West (27.9%), Mpumalanga (33.9%) and Limpopo (42.6%) were then formally living in Gauteng in 2005. Furthermore, the data clearly showed that the main destination of female migrants who were born outside South Africa remains Gauteng with 43.6% and closely followed by the Western Cape with 15.2% as compared to the rest of the provinces in South Africa. Actually, Gauteng and Western Cape provinces are the very attractive provinces of destination, probably due to their nature of providing more economic opportunities to many people.

**Table 4.3: Province of birth and province of current residence**

Province of birth	Province of Current Residence									Total
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GT	MPL	LMP	
Western Cape	3556	165	112	33	51	37	230	23	12	4219
	84.3%	3.9%	2.7%	0.8%	1.2%	0.9%	5.5%	0.5%	0.3%	100%
Eastern Cape	2163	5903	83	169	747	309	1269	92	52	10787
	20.1%	54.7%	0.8%	1.6%	6.9%	2.9%	11.8%	0.9%	0.5%	100%
Northern Cape	206	31	1808	88	33	96	194	14	7	2477
	8.3%	1.3%	73.0%	3.6%	1.3%	3.9%	7.8%	0.6%	0.3%	100%
Free State	125	53	94	2457	61	216	742	91	36	3875
	3.2%	1.4%	2.4%	63.4%	1.6%	5.6%	19.1%	2.3%	0.9%	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	176	173	18	75	6855	54	1369	183	28	8931
	2.0%	1.9%	0.2%	0.8%	76.8%	0.6%	15.3%	2.0%	0.3%	100%
Northern West	34	19	407	65	30	2352	1178	62	78	4225
	0.8%	0.4%	9.6%	1.5%	0.7%	55.7%	27.9%	1.5%	1.8%	100%
Gauteng	391	164	85	172	233	288	5707	272	222	7534
	5.2%	2.2%	1.1%	2.3%	3.1%	3.8%	75.7%	3.6%	2.9%	100%
Mpumalanga	37	22	14	16	57	59	1141	1894	126	3366
	1.1%	0.7%	0.4%	0.5%	1.7%	1.8%	33.9%	56.3%	3.7%	100%
Limpopo	40	17	8	19	17	163	2603	421	2820	6108
	0.7%	0.3%	0.1%	0.3%	0.3%	2.7%	42.6%	6.9%	46.2%	100%
Outside RSA	418	123	119	137	180	209	1201	177	188	2752
	15.2%	4.5%	4.3%	5.0%	6.5%	7.6%	43.6%	6.4%	6.8%	100%
	7146	6670	2748	3231	8264	3783	15634	3229	3569	54274
	13.2%	12.3%	5.1%	6.0%	15.2%	7.0%	28.8%	5.9%	6.6%	100%

On the basis of table 4.3, the table 4.3.1 was produced and presents the figures of matrix balance between province of birth and province of current residence of female migrants.

**Table 4.3.1: Matrix balance between province of birth and province of current residence**

Province of Birth	Province of current residence: 2005									
	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	GT	MPL	LMP	
Western Cape		165	112	33	51	37	230	23	12	<b>663</b>
Eastern Cape	2163		83	169	747	309	1269	92	52	<b>4884</b>
Northern Cape	206	31		88	33	96	194	14	7	<b>669</b>
Free State	125	53	94		61	216	742	91	36	<b>1418</b>
Kwazulu-Natal	176	173	18	75		54	1369	183	28	<b>2076</b>
Northern West	34	19	407	65	30		1178	62	78	<b>1873</b>
Gauteng	391	164	85	172	233	288		272	222	<b>1827</b>
Mpumalanga	37	22	14	16	57	59	1141		126	<b>1472</b>
Limpopo	40	17	8	19	17	163	2603	421		<b>3288</b>
Total	<b>3172</b>	<b>644</b>	<b>821</b>	<b>637</b>	<b>1229</b>	<b>1222</b>	<b>8726</b>	<b>1158</b>	<b>561</b>	

#### 4.4.1 Life-time net of female migrants

With regard to life-time net migration, the calculation procedures are the same as that for fixed-term net migration. Table 4.3.2 is calculated based on table 4.3.1. It shows that Western Cape, Northern Cape, and Gauteng provinces are the major destinations for female migrants in South Africa. In these provinces, the in-migrants out-numbered the out-migrants and this is the reason why the net migration balances give a positive outlook. Actually, these provinces received more female migrants than what they sent out, and this might eventually create tension in these provinces as places of destination that need resources to cater for the influx of new migrants. Looking at Western Cape, Northern Cape, and Gauteng Provinces, the number of in-migrants is higher than that of out-migrants. However, for Eastern Cape, Free State, Kwazulu-Natal, Northern West, Mpumalanga and Limpopo Provinces, the out-migrants out-number the in-migrants. One reason that can be alluded to might be that those provinces in the latter category tend to lose people more than what they receive because of fewer economic opportunities, especially wage differentials between these provinces. This ultimately results in female migration to places where economic opportunities are higher.

**Table 4.3.2: Life-time net migration**

<b>Province of Previous Residence</b>	<b>Life-time In-migrants</b>	<b>Life-time Out-migrants</b>	<b>Life-time Net migrants</b>
Western Cape	3172	663	2509
Eastern Cape	644	4884	-4240
Northern Cape	821	669	152
Free States	637	1418	-781
KZN	1229	2076	-847
Northern West	1222	1873	-651
Gauteng	8726	127	8599
Mpumalanga	1158	1472	-314
Limpopo	561	3288	-2727

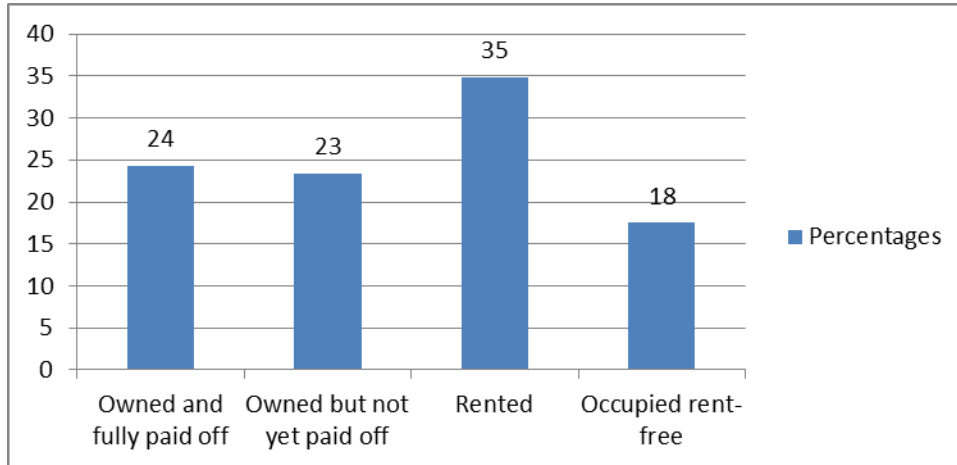
## **4.5 Housing tenure status across areas of residence**

In South Africa and elsewhere, affordability is one of the determining factors of whether people buy or rent houses. In many societies, people often use rental tenure as a deliberate choice because it offers flexible arrangements which help them to acquire a place to stay (Dawendeler, 2006). This section looks at how housing tenure is distributed among female migrants across metropolitan and areas.

### **4.5.1 Housing tenure status of female migrants in metropolitan areas**

As depicted in Fig. 4.1, this study shows that majority of female migrants living in metropolitan are more likely to stay in rented dwellings (35.0%). Those who live in owned but not fully paid dwellings and those who live in owned and fully paid homes accounted for almost similar proportions of 23.0% and 24.0% respectively. Therefore, it can be concluded that rental housing today constitutes a large proportion of the housing stock in many countries, including South Africa (Dewandeler, 2006). This supports previous findings that half of the urban population in developing countries, hundreds of millions of people, is made up of tenants (UNCHS, 2003).

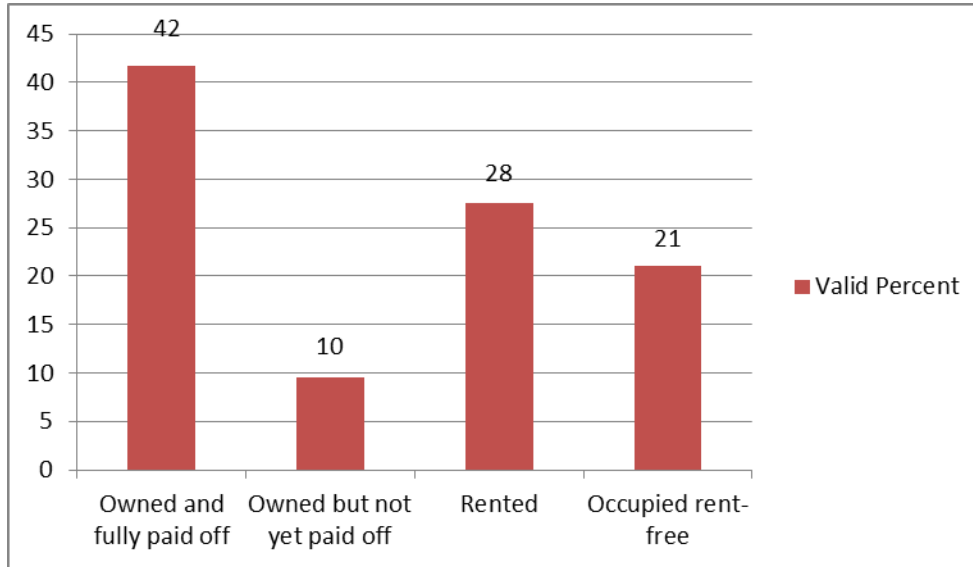
**Figure 4.1: The distributions of housing tenure in metropolitan areas**



#### **4.5.2 Housing tenure status of female migrants in non-metropolitan areas**

As shown in Fig. 4.2, the study discovered that majority of female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas were staying in owned and fully paid off dwellings (42.0%). As most of them live in owned and fully paid housing, it might be a case of them using the self-help procedure to build their own housing. More so, for those who are eligible for RDP housing, they mostly get subsidized housing from the government. This is conclusive evidence that most governments in developing countries attempted, at one time or another, to house a portion of their population in one way or another. This is followed by those who were renting (28.0%). However, the proportion of female migrants living in free accommodation was higher (21.0%) than those staying in owned but not yet fully paid dwellings (10.0%). This is controversial to metropolitan areas where the majority is living in rented dwelling due to a high density population and high life standard. Density means number of persons per square kilometre (Ingram, 1998). Hence, it can be concluded that residential density declines with distance from metropolitan to areas, and this influences housing tenure status.

**Figure 4.2: The distribution of housing tenure status in non-metropolitan area.**



#### **4.6 Bivariate analysis by testing hypotheses**

For female migrants living in cities, the housing market is one of the biggest challenges they face (Le Roux, 2011). According to the United Nations Habitat Survey, an estimated 1.1 billion people in the world live in inadequate housing conditions in urban areas alone. In many cities of the developing countries, more than half of the population lives in informal settlements, without security of tenure and in conditions that can be described as life and health threatening (Le Roux, 2011). This is also evident in South Africa.

The study of female migration in South Africa has, however, attracted many researchers (Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996; Kok et al, 2003; Swart, 2004; Bekker, 2006; Tati 2010). The researchers termed it “feminisation of migration”. Some of their studies elaborated on the cause of migration as economic or non-economic, while other studies drew a comparison between female migrants and non-migrants.

It has generally been noted that across board, South Africa officials continue to pay very little attention to the presence of migrants in their development plans, especially women migrants. This little attention to migration issues is even observed among domestic female migrants from communities in South Africa. It seems as if government does not consider the plight of women when delivering scarce resources (Landau et al, 2011).

Though some studies, such as the one on South African Local Government Association have been conducted to understand the nature, magnitude and implications of migration for municipal governance and planning purposes. This study was however, too broad to capture the experiences of female migrants in the housing sector. On top of this, little is known on how female migrants differ on the housing market across South African municipalities. The fact remains that South Africa is a country where a lot of women are always on the move. This mobility, in relation to housing access, should not be ignored by local authorities (Landau et al, 2011).

Given the lack of adequate information regarding female migration in the housing sector, which is observed in official statistics of municipalities of South Africa, the focus of this study is not just to compare female migrants and non-migrants at the national level but to even beyond the provincial level. The interest of this study is to assess female migration by correlating it with the differences and similarities of housing accessibility across areas of residence.

One of the aims of this study is to build a new female migration theory reflecting on situational aspects of female migrants as heads of households or not heading households. Thus, this section of data analysis highlights mostly the housing accessibility of female migrants in different municipalities by assessing the housing tenure patterns. In addition, statistical analysis was used to test the hypotheses by measuring the association between different variables. Furthermore, the association between independent variables (individual variables, migratory variables and household variables) and housing tenure status is described.

This study analyses the 2007 Community Survey data in order to determine the patterns of female migration and housing that is provided to women. At the same time, all hypotheses formulated were highlighted and tested with cross-tabulation and supported by appropriate statistical tests methods like Chi-square. Moreover, the research questions underlying this study were partially answered before embarking on advanced statistical tests such as multivariate analysis.

With regards to the main independent variables used in this study, some of them were related to individual characteristics like population group, marital status, age group, level of education, employment status and income category. Other variables that are related to female

migration are province of previous residence, province of birth, province of current residence, duration of residence and areas of residence. With regards to household related variables, the key characteristics are household size and household headship. The main dependent variable used in this study is housing tenure status. By bringing together these independent and dependent variables, this study was able to capture the situation of female migrants and housing acquisition across areas of South Africa.

More so, this study assumed that female migrants differ in housing accessibility, since they are of different population groups, marital status, educational level, employment status, income categories while areas of residence include metropolitan, and areas (districts including their local municipalities). In other words, it is hypothesized, for example that housing tenure status of female migrants in metropolitan municipalities differ from the one of female migrants in municipality areas. It is also hypothesized that housing tenure status of female migrants differs in terms of household size and household headship. To test the formulated hypotheses, bivariate analysis was performed by displaying variables into two-way tables. By dealing with almost all nominal variables, Pearson Chi-square and Fisher Exact statistical tests were used to test the significance, while Phi and Cramer's V was used to remedy the weakness found with Pearson Chi-square and Fisher Exact test in order to assess the strength of relationship between variables, due to the sensitivity of Chi-square to large dataset.

#### **4.6.1 Female migration and housing acquisition in municipalities**

According to Statistics South Africa's results derived from the 2007 Community Survey, the dawn of South Africa's new political dispensation in 1994 witnessed the establishment of the Municipal Demarcation Board (MDB) (Statistics South Africa, 2008). In executing its mandate, the board created a spatial design that would leave no part of the country outside the jurisdiction of a municipality. This definition, according to Statistics South Africa, of the politico-economic space in South Africa eliminates the distinction between urban and rural areas which historically was reported. By means of the 2007 Community Survey, Statistics South Africa therefore, is not in a position to provide population results in terms of urban and rural data (Statistics South Africa, 2008).



In establishing the municipalities, the Board established three categories of jurisdiction namely: Category A, comprising of stand-alone metropolitan areas (CITY OF Cape Town; City of Johannesburg; City of Tshwane; Ekurhuleni; eThekweni; and Nelson Mandela Metropolitan); Category B, comprising of 231 local municipalities and 25 District Management Areas (DMAs) and Category C, comprising of 47 district municipalities to make areas. Each district municipality is made up of a group of local municipalities and DMAs (South African Government Information, 2009). In this study of female migration and housing acquisition, these two geographical areas (metropolitan and non-metropolitan) were used to explain how female migrants differ in terms of housing accessibility in South Africa. This is to identify the differences and the similarities in these areas so that policy-makers could be informed of the results of this study as to improve their services delivery to female migrants.

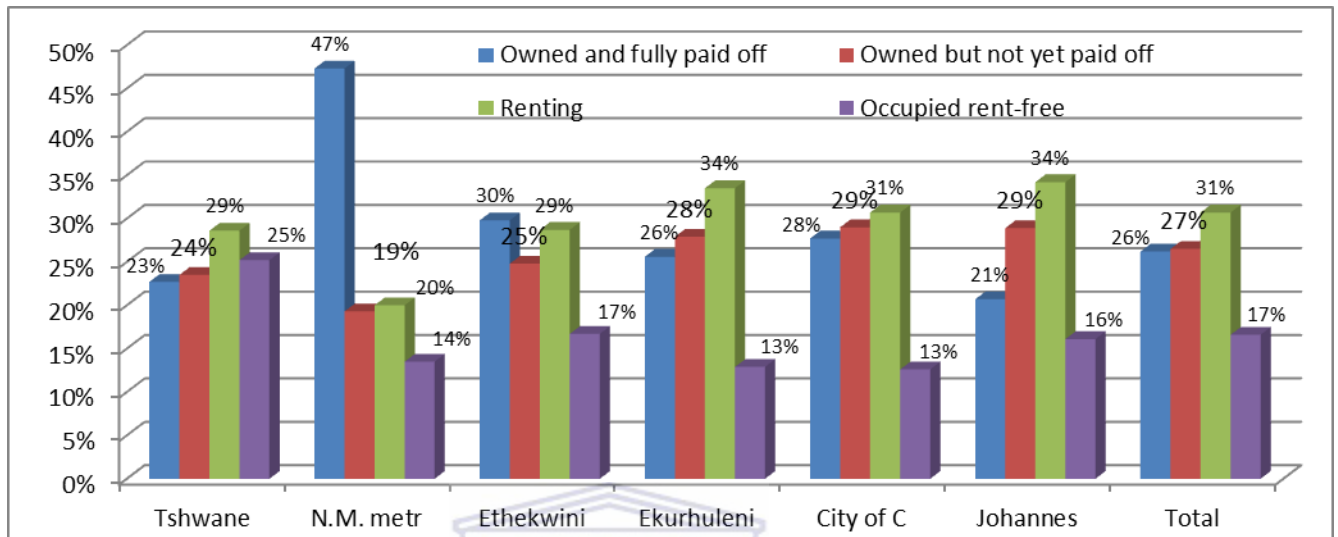
#### **4.6.1.1 Housing access among female migrants not head of household in different metropolitan areas**

Analyzing results from this study by cross-tabulating metropolitan variable and housing tenure status, the focus was to identify the type of housing tenure which accommodates female migrants not heading households living in those areas. As shown in Fig 4.4.1, the study revealed that in the City of Tshwane, a high proportion of female migrants not heading households were accommodated in rented housing (28.6%). In Nelson Mandela metropolitan, 47.3% of female migrants not head of households live in owned and fully paid off dwellings, while 13.5% of them occupied rent-free dwellings which was the least form of tenure acquired. This situation of housing tenure in Nelson Mandela metropolitan shows that the Eastern Cape Province, which houses this metropolitan, is predominantly rural hence, housing might not be highly competitive as it is observed in the highly urbanized metropolitans like Johannesburg and Cape Town.

In EThekweni metropolitan, the study shows that female migrants not heading households live mainly in owned and fully paid off dwellings (29.8%), which is closely followed by those living in rented dwellings (28.7%). Similar trend of living in rented dwellings was observed in majority of female migrants not heading households living in Ekurhuleni, City of Cape Town, and City of Johannesburg (33.5%, 30.7% and 34.2% respectively). The housing

situation in these metropolitan areas reflects the reality of pressure of female migration to access housing services in the major cities of South Africa.

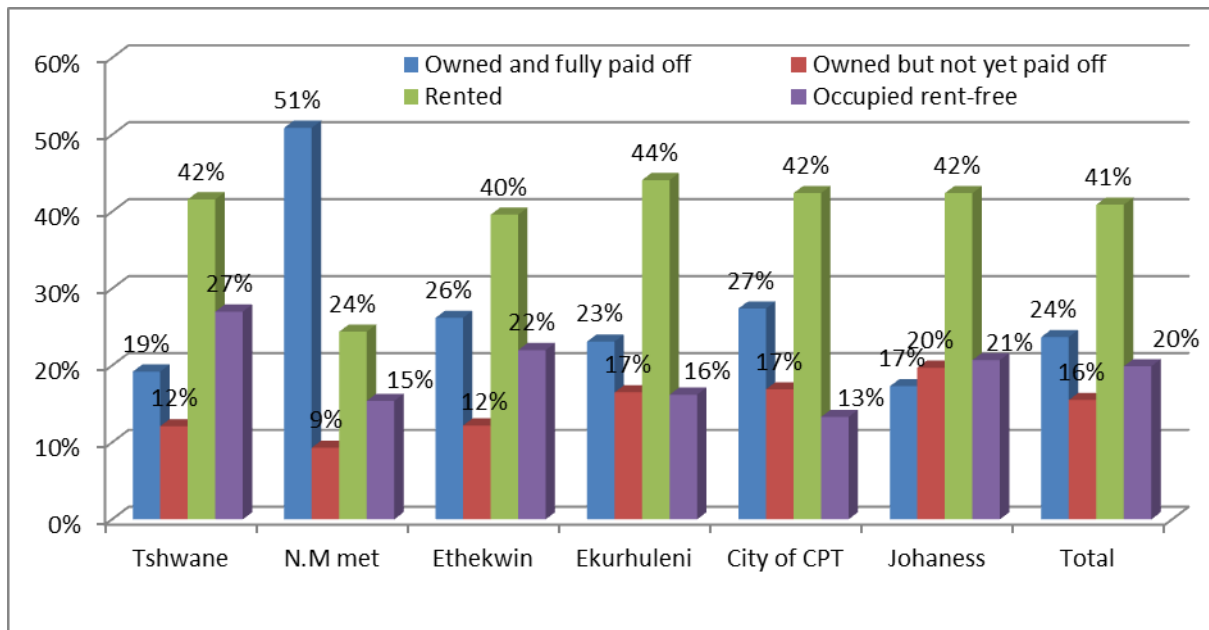
**Fig 4.3.1: Distribution of female migrants not head of households (HOH) between metropolitan and housing tenure status**



#### 4.6.1.2 Housing access of migrants not HOH in metropolitan areas

Unlike female migrants not heading households, Fig.4.4.2 shows that majority of female migrants heading households living in city of Tshwane live in rented dwellings (41.6%). In Nelson Mandela Metropolitan, a high proportion of female migrants heading household was highly represented in owned and fully paid dwellings (50.9%). However, this proportion is higher compared to those female migrants not heading households in the same metropolitan municipalities. Like their counterparts not heading households, female migrants heading households living in EThekweni, Ekurhuleni, City of Cape Town, and City of Johannesburg were mainly living in rented dwellings (39.6%, 44.1%, 42.4% and 42.4% respectively). These major cities are growing very rapidly and have a sustained influx of new in-migrants, for an example 4.8% per annum for Gauteng. The reason for this observation might be the high economic opportunities in these metropolitan municipalities which continue to attract many migrants (Cross, 2008). Therefore, it is obvious that this high migration flow into these metropolitan areas has a serious implication on services delivery especially on housing which affects seriously the poor including female migrants.

**Fig 4.3.2: Distribution of female migrants' head of households (HOH) between metropolitan and tenure status.**



#### 4.6.2 Differentials in housing tenure status.

This study has noted the existence of a number of problems concerning the housing of female migrants in metropolitan areas of South Africa and acknowledges that there is little attention currently being paid to female migrants by local governments in South Africa (Landau *et al*, 2011). The study therefore seeks to assess the mechanisms that are in place to enhance housing acquisition by female migrants across the two areas of residence in South Africa: metropolitan and municipalities. Hence, the following hypothesis was formulated, “*Housing tenure of female migrants differs according to population group and by household headship*”. In order to assess if this hypothesis is true or false, cross-tabulation and chi-square statistical test were performed.

##### 4.6.2.1 Population group and housing tenure by household headship in metropolitan areas

On metropolitan level, Table 4.4.1 depicts the distribution between housing tenure and population grouping. Starting from housing tenure of female migrants, UNCHS (2003) informs this study through its definition that housing sharers are very similar to housing renters, who are able to provide shelter to friends, fellow employees or relatives in the city.

The data from the study as depicted in Table 4.4.1 indicates that Black female migrants not heading households are mostly accommodated in rented dwellings (32.1%), followed by those living in owned and fully paid dwellings (27.2%), while those living in owned but not yet paid off dwellings are of the least proportion with 16.7%. When compared with Black female migrants heading households, renting (40.1%) was the prevalent form of tenure, which is followed by occupied rent-free tenure (25.7%). Like Black female migrants not heading households' dwellings, owned and not yet paid off dwellings was the least form of tenure among female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas.

The data show that Black female migrants (heading and not heading households) were mostly renting dwellings when compared to other forms of housing tenures. This implies that renting is an important form of housing tenure among Black female migrants to access housing in metropolitan areas. This is also an indication of pressure and housing competition for housing dwellings for female migrants in large cities such City of Cape Town and Johannesburg.

With regards to Coloured female migrants, the results indicate that majority of female migrants not heading households are more likely to be accommodated in owned but not yet fully paid dwellings (40.0%). This category of women is accommodated by other people, probably those people who have housing ownership. This figure is followed by those accommodated in rented dwellings (34.3%), with another 21.5% sheltered in owned and fully paid off dwellings. Looking at Coloured population of female migrants heading households, the data reveals that, unlike female migrants not heading households, majority were living in rented dwellings (52.0%). There was a slight difference between those who are living in owned and fully paid off and those who are living in owned but not yet paid off dwellings with 18.9% and 21.5% respectively. The results indicate further, that occupied rent free dwellings were the least form of tenure among Coloured female migrants who were heading and those not heading households.

Table 4.4.1 further shows that among the Asian population, both the majority of female migrants heading and not heading households were living in rented dwellings with 40.0 % and 51.1% respectively, while for the white female migrants, the findings indicate that those who are not heading households are mostly accommodated by people who owned but not yet paid off their dwelling units (48.0%). Those who were heading households are mostly staying in rented dwellings with 46.2%. This is, however, an unexpected result because generally, one would expect to see majority of white female migrants living in owned and fully paid

dwellings in metropolitan areas based on historical reasons that many whites seem to have enjoyed more economic and political advantages than the other population groups. It is common knowledge that during apartheid era, only the white population was allowed to live permanently in towns and cities and to own housing properties in South Africa. One would therefore expect to see more white female migrants living in fully paid up housing ownership in cities. However, this is an indication that not only black female migrants are discriminated against in today's society, but whites and other female population groups are similarly discriminated against.

Having the above results in mind, it can be generally concluded that, renting tenure is predominant among female migrants across all the population groups in metropolitan municipalities. Furthermore, occupied rent-free dwellings were the least form of tenure across all population groups in metropolitan areas except among Black female migrants who indicated a higher proportion. More so, the data further indicates a slightly higher proportion of housing ownership among black female migrants in small cities. There is no doubt that women in South Africa are on the move and their main destination is largely the cities or metropolitan areas. This is actually what has been termed by some scholars "feminization of migration" and that women are trying to access scarce resources such as housing especially in the major cities.

Nevertheless, when Pearson Chi-square was used to test the hypothesis in this regard, the findings indicated that an association indeed exists between tenure status and population group for both female migrants not heading households and those who were heading households with  $p=.000 < 0.005$ . Results show that on a metropolitan level, housing tenure for female migrants (both heading and not heading households) differs according to whether the person is black, Coloured, Indian/Asian or white. Moreover, when the strength of this relationship was measured using Cramer's V test results, it indicated a moderate relationship (Cramer's V= 0.201) among female migrants not heading households, and a weak relationship among female migrants heading households.

**Table 4.4.1: Distribution of population group and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas**

<b>Population group: FM Not HOH</b>	<b>Tenure status</b>					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	
Black	27.2	16.7	32.1	24.1	11180	100%
Coloured	21.5	40.0	34.3	4.3	1454	100%
Indian/Asian	20.2	37.0	40.0	2.8	962	100%
White	20.9	48.0	30.2	0.8	3293	100%
<b>FM HOH</b>						
Black	22.7	11.4	40.1	25.7	4164	100%
Coloured	18.9	21.5	52.0	7.6	354	100%
Indian/Asian	22.3	25.5	51.1	1.1	184	100%
White	19.5	32.4	46.2	2.0	884	100%

**4.6.2.2 Population group and tenure status by household headship in non-metropolitan areas**

In this study of female migration and housing, population groups are an important variable because it is assumed it has an impact on migration patterns and tenure status of female migrants in the areas of destination. Due to the sad history of South Africa during the apartheid area where one racial group was disadvantaged at the expense of the other, especially in terms of accessibility to urban property using scarce resources, it is assumed that the housing tenure status for female migrants in cities depends on the population groups.

Accordingly, Table 4.4.2 illustrated results from the cross-tabulation of population groups and tenure status by household headships in non-metropolitan areas. It was observed that Black female migrants not heading households are mostly accommodated in owned and fully paid off dwellings (47.0%), followed by those living in occupied rent-free dwellings (23.3%). Owned but not yet paid off dwellings was the least form of tenure among female migrants not heading households (7.7%). Similar trend was observed for Black female migrants heading households just like their other counterparts, in which owned and fully paid form of tenure was the mostly used (39.6%), but followed by renting tenure (31.2%). Owned but not yet paid off housing tenure was the least form of tenure for both female migrants not heading households and those heading households with 7.7% and 5.2% respectively.

With regards to the Coloured population, female migrants not heading households are mostly sheltered in owned and fully paid off dwellings (36.6%), followed by renting (29.2%), while owned but not yet fully paid off dwellings is their least form of tenure (9.1%). Looking at the Coloured female migrants heading households, it is clear that renting tenure (38.6%) is predominant among them, closely followed by owned and fully paid off tenure form (34.2%), while owned but not yet fully paid off is the least form of tenure among Coloured female migrants heading households (7.9%).

With regards to the Indian/Asian population, majority of female migrants not heading households are renting (44.1%), while those who choose the occupied rent-free accounted for the least tenure (1.3%). More so, it was observed that in female migrants heading households, majority were renting (58.1%). However, it was observed that the proportion of female heading households that were renting was much higher than those of female migrants not heading households. This means that female migrants heading households tend to live in rented dwellings than those who were not heading households.

Looking at the white population, more white female migrants not heading households choose to live in rented dwellings (38.1%), followed by owned and fully paid off group (29.5%), while the least tenure for this group remains the occupied rent-free dwellings at 5.1%. More so, as regards white female migrants heading households, a high proportion of them live in rented dwellings (52.6%). The proportion of white female migrants living in owned but not yet paid off dwellings (17.2%) in areas was higher among female migrants not head of household (27.3%) than those for those who were head of households (17.2%). It can be suggested that, both white female migrants heading households and not heading households rarely choose rent-free dwellings as a means of their housing tenure, meaning they are able to afford their own accommodations.

Beyond cross-tabulation, Pearson Chi-square was used to test the association between housing tenure and population group in areas. First, the following hypothesis was formulated that *“There is a relationship between housing tenure of female migrants and population group by household headship in municipalities”*. Hence, the results from Pearson Chi-square test show a significant relationship between housing tenure and population group for both female migrants heading households and those not heading households given that  $p=.000 < 0.005$ . Moreover, when Crammer’s V was used to measure the strength of the association, the findings showed a weak relationship (Cramer’s V= 0.173) between housing

tenure and population group by household headship at municipality level. The findings of Chi-square test supports the argument that population group is an important variable which differentiates female migrants on housing market in cities. This means that population group is a facilitating variable for housing tenure for female migrants across different areas of residences.

**Table 4.4.2: Distribution between population group and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas**

Population group: Not HOH	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Black	47.0	7.7	22.0	23.3	15416	100%
Coloured	36.6	9.1	29.2	25.1	2232	100%
Indian/Asian	21.8	32.8	44.1	1.3	238	100%
White	29.5	27.3	38.1	5.1	2884	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Black	39.6	5.2	31.2	24.0	7240	100%
Coloured	34.2	7.9	38.4	19.5	584	100%
Indian/Asian	16.1	9.7	58.1	16.1	31	100%
White	27.1	17.2	52.6	3.1	641	100%

#### 4.6.3 Housing tenure status and marital status in municipalities

Across South African municipalities, very little is known about the variations of housing access among migrants, especially female migrants. It is indeed worthy to elaborate on it using the marital status variable, in order to inform policy makers about relevant matters that may arise from it.

It is actually assumed that marital status is one of the most important demographic variables which facilitate the nature of housing tenure in municipalities. From this perspective, the relevant research question asked was: *“Does housing tenure of female migrants differ according to marital status by household headship across areas?”* From this research question, a hypothesis was formulated and tested to assess the association between these two variables.



#### ***4.6.3.1 Tenure status and marital status by household headship in metropolitan***

Table 4.5.1 illustrates the result of cross-tabulating marital status with tenure form in order to observe housing patterns among female migrants heading households and those not heading households at the metropolitan level. It was shown that civil or religiously married female migrants not heading households are mostly accommodated in owned but not yet fully paid off dwellings (42.3%), while the occupied rent-free tenure was their least option (7.3%) of tenure. For those in civil or religious marriages, renting (36.4%) was their preferred method of assessing housing, while owned but not fully paid method remained their least preferred tenure (16.8%). Those female migrants who are head of households but are living together with their partners preferred renting (41.6%) as their preferred form to assess housing, while their least method of housing tenure is the owned but not fully paid tenure (see Table 4.13).

As depicted in Table 4.5.1, the study further established that female migrants who were not head of households living in metropolitan areas adopted the occupied rent-free tenure as the least method of tenure amongst those of them who were never married, widowed, separated and divorced. Those who were never married (31.6%) and those separated from their partners (31.3%) mostly preferred to rent, while the predominant method among those migrants who were widows (40.6%) and those divorced (38.9%) remain the owned but not fully paid housing tenure. With regards to female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas, the study found that the renting is the most commonly adopted housing tenure system across board, no matter the type of marital status except among widows (30.1%) who lives in owned and fully paid dwellings. More so, the least housing tenure used by these female migrants who were head of households in these metropolitan areas is the owned but not fully paid. However, exceptions were observed among those in civil or religious marriage (13.6%) and those who were widows (19.2%) who choose to use the occupied rent-free and the owned but not fully paid tenure system respectively as the least tenure pattern adopted (see Table 5.13).

Using the results shown in Table 4.5.1, which compares housing tenure and marital status according to household headship, it can be concluded that renting is the most commonly used method of tenure across metropolitan municipalities of South Africa by female migrants to access housing. Pearson Chi-square statistical test was used to test this relationship, the findings indicated an association between these two variables with  $p=.000 < 0.05$  for both female migrants heading households and those not heading households. This means that the

hypothesis was supported because Pearson Chi-square test statistics was significant. Further analysis was carried out to assess the strength of relationship. Cramer's V analysis indicated a weak relationship (Cramer's V= 0.178) between housing tenure and marital status for those heading and not heading households in metropolitan areas.

**Table 4.5.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and marital status in metropolitan areas**

<b>Marital status: FM Not HOH</b>	<b>Tenure status</b>					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Married civil/religion	22.8	42.3	27.6	7.3	5303	100%
Married trad/customary	23.0	16.8	36.4	23.9	1680	100%
Living together	19.4	11.9	41.6	27.1	2787	100%
Never married	29.5	20.4	31.6	18.4	6718	100%
Widower/widow	30.3	40.6	21.8	7.3	165	100%
Separated	29.2	25.0	31.3	14.6	48	100%
Divorced	26.3	38.9	31.1	3.7	190	100%
<b>FM HOH</b>						
Married civil/religious	28.6	25.1	32.7	13.6	618	100%
Married trad/customary	24.8	10.6	41.7	22.9	218	100%
Living together	25.9	11.2	40.0	22.9	437	100%
Never married	18.9	12.8	46.1	22.2	3290	100%
Widower/widow	30.1	19.2	29.9	20.8	385	100%
Separated	30.0	16.0	30.7	23.3	150	100%
Divorced	22.0	15.8	42.2	20.0	5586	100%

#### ***4.6.3.2 Housing tenure and marital status by household headship in non-metropolitan areas***

In non-metropolitan areas, the patterns of housing tenure of female migrants in relation to marital status by household headship were also assessed. The study adopted and used the same research question and hypothesis formulated for assessing differentials at the metropolitan level. Table 4.5.2 indicates that irrespective of the household headship status, owned and fully paid up form of tenure is mostly used by female migrants in non-metropolitan areas.

However, prominent exceptions to this are seen amongst female migrants who were never married (39.4%) and those divorced (39.9%) but are head of households, who mostly preferred living in renting apartments (Table 4.5.2). The explanation of this housing tenure pattern in non-metropolitan municipalities might be due to the fact that there is less pressure to get housing in these areas for female migrants than at metropolitan municipalities. This might be due to the availability of land and materials for construction of houses being cheaper in medium sized cities when compared to the major cities.

Despite cross-tabulation between housing tenure and marital status, Pearson Chi-square was used to measure the association in non-metropolitan municipalities. This confirms that the association was statistically significant with  $p=.000 < 0.005$  i.e. marital status is closely associated with housing tenure status of female migrants irrespective of whether they heading or not heading households. However, the strength of that association using Cramer's V indicates weak relationship (Cramer's  $V = 0.159$ ) between the two variables for female migrants living in non-metropolitan municipalities.

**Table 4.5.2: Distribution between marital status and tenure status in non-metropolitan areas**

<b>Marital status:</b> <b>Not HOH</b>	<b>Tenure status</b>					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Married civil/religious	35.8	20.5	30.5	13.2	5425	100%
Married trad/customary	49.3	5.3	20.9	24.5	2321	100%
Living together	36.0	4.4	29.6	30.0	4.49	100%
Never married	49.1	9.0	21.6	20.3	8474	100%
Widower/widow	47.5	20.6	13.1	15.6	223	100%
Separated	65.6	5.7	13.1	15.6	122	100%
Divorced	53.2	14.1	23.1	9.6	156	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Married civil/religious	42.3	10.5	29.9	17.3	1069	100%
Married trad/customary	54.0	5.1	15.3	25.6	587	100%
Living together	46.5	4.8	26.2	22.5	581	100%
Never married	32.2	5.3	39.4	23.1	4699	100%
Widower/widow	50.0	6.7	20.7	22.6	806	100%
Separated	43.4	4.1	26.7	25.8	318	100%
Divorced	33.9	11.9	39.9	14.2	436	100%

#### **4.6.4 Housing tenure and employment in municipalities**

In this study, socio-economic attributes such as employment status, occupation, and income are used to assess housing tenure status of female migrants across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. In this section, the following research question was used, “*Does housing tenure status of female migrant in municipality areas differ according to the employment status by household headship?*” It is actually assumed that employment status is one of the crucial socio-economic characteristics facilitating accessibility to housing in cities. It is in this regard that the hypothesis “*Housing tenure status for female migrants are determined by employment according to household headship in municipalities*” was formulated and tested.

##### ***4.6.4.1 Housing tenure and employment by household headship in metropolitan areas***

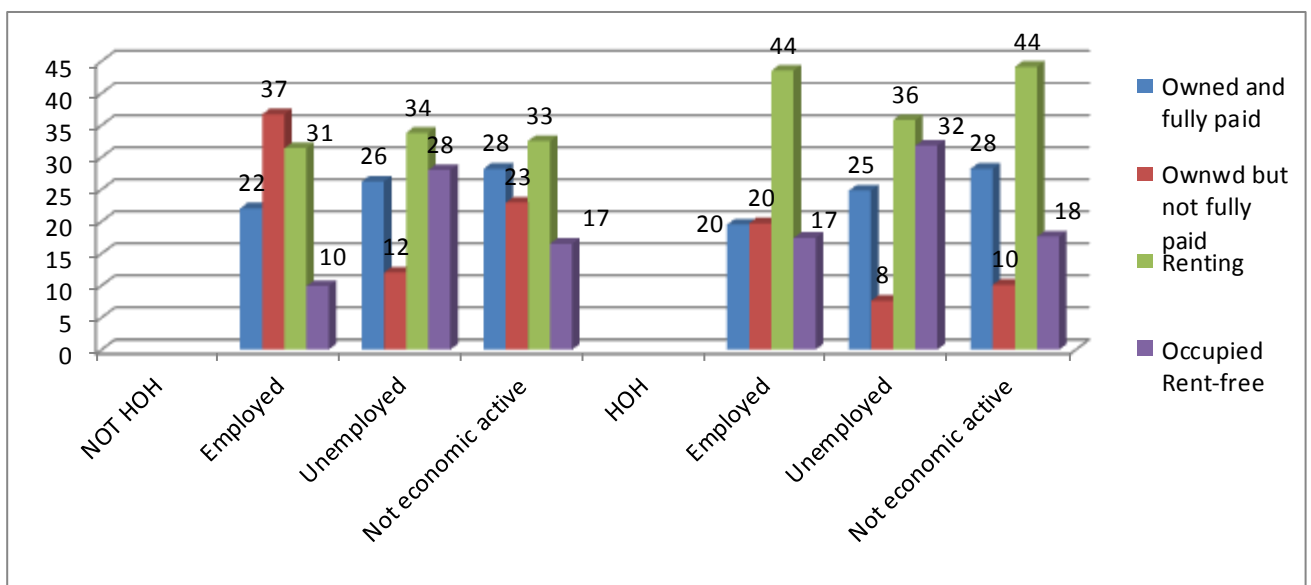
By means of cross-tabulation, Fig.4.5.1 shows that employed female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas were mainly accommodated by people living in owned but not yet paid off dwellings (36.7%), closely followed by those living in rented dwellings (31.4%) and then those living in owned and fully paid up dwellings (22.0%). Occupied rent-free was the least form of tenure among employed female migrants not heading households in metropolitan areas with 9.9%. For employed female migrants heading households, majority of them are living in rented dwellings (43.5%). The proportion of employed female migrants living in owned and fully paid up dwellings and those living in owned but not yet paid off dwellings is almost similar with 19.5% and 19.7% respectively. As seen with employed female migrants’ not heading households, those heading households are also the least category living in occupied rent-free accommodation, but with a much higher proportion of 17.4%.

Figure 4.5.1 also shows that with both unemployed and not economically active female migrants heading households and not heading households, renting of dwellings is the predominant method of assessing housing. For those female migrants who are not heading households, a proportion of 33.8% and 35.8% were observed for those who were unemployed and for those who are not economically active respectively. Owned and not fully paid (12.0%), and occupied rent-free (16.5%) remains the least tenure method used by those unemployed and those economically active female migrants who are not heads of households.

Further observation from Fig. 4.5.1 shows that for those female migrants who were heading households, majority of them regardless of their employment status live in rented dwellings. It is actually obvious to see that majority of unemployed and not economically active female migrants are mostly living in rented dwellings. This indeed explains the fact that employment generating income is highly associated with housing ownership. Those female migrants who are not economically active are assumed to be unable to purchase their own housing units in metropolitan areas.

In order to test the relationship between housing tenure and employment, Pearson Chi-square statistical test was used. The results indicate  $p=.000 < 0.005$ , meaning that the test was statistically significant for both female migrants heading households and those not heading households. However, the strength of that relationship tested using Cramer's V shows little if any relationship (Cramer's V= 0.018). Accordingly, it can be concluded that employment plays an important role in housing accessibility by female migrants living in metropolitan municipalities. Generally, the reality is that whenever people are looking for a place to rent, landlords mostly want to know if the tenant is employed in order to make sure that they will be assured of their rental money to pay for the accommodation. If the tenant is unemployed, the chances of being offered a place to stay at a dwelling is very low. All these show how employment is linked to housing availability.

**Fig 4.4.1: Distribution between employment status and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas**



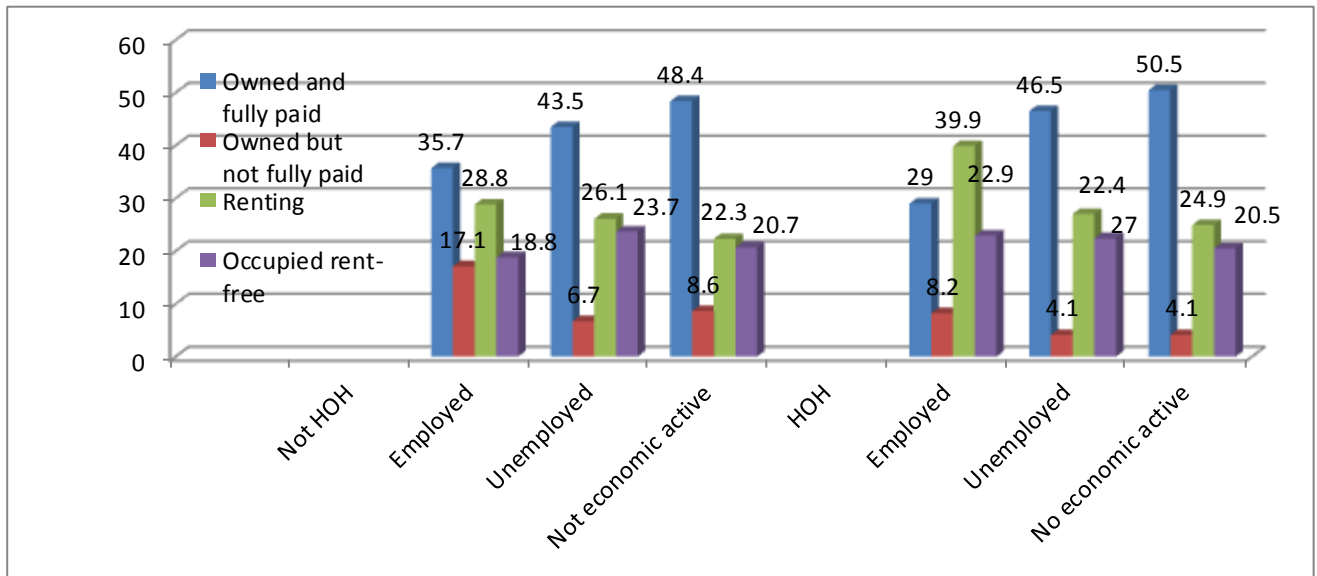
#### ***4.6.4.2 Housing tenure and employment by household headship in non-metropolitan areas***

In non-metropolitan areas, results displayed in Fig4.5.2 indicated that in non-metropolitan areas; employed, unemployed or not economically active female migrants not heading households were mostly lodged in owned and fully paid up dwellings with 35.7%; 43.5%, and 50.5% respectively followed by those accommodated in rented dwellings with 28.8%; 26.1%; and 22.3% respectively. The least method of housing accessibility for these female migrants is the owned but not fully paid up form of housing tenure.

Concerning female migrants heading households, Fig. 4.5.2 shows that those who are employed are predominantly staying in rented dwellings (39.9%), while those who are unemployed and those not economically active were dominant in owned and fully paid off dwellings with 46.5% and 50.5% respectively. It is clear that majority of female migrants in non-metropolitan areas are living in owned and fully paid up dwellings. This might be due to the fact that housing access is not so difficult among migrants living in non-metropolitan areas as it is observed in metropolitan areas where housing access is very challenging due to high demand.

Pearson Chi-square was used to test the hypothesis that "*Housing tenure for female migrants differs according to employment by household headship in non-metropolitan areas*". The results indicated the association between these two variables with  $p=.000 < 0.005$ , meaning there is a significant relationship between housing tenure and employment of female migrants living in those areas. However, Cramer's V statistical analysis found a little if any relationship between the variables (Cramer's  $V=0.031$ ).

**Fig 4.4.2: Distribution between employment status and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas**



#### 4.6.5 Housing tenure and level of education in municipalities

Educational level is a very important human capital that is assumed to play an important role in housing access among female migrants in their places of destination. In the study of migration in general and of female migration in particular, educational level is one of the demographic variables that is used to determine the form of housing tenure that female migrants use to access housing across residential areas. It is hypothesized for example, that *“The forms of housing tenure of female migrants differ according to their educational level”*. This means that the higher the educational attainment, the more accessible it is to own housing across areas of residence of female migrants.

##### 4.6.5.1 Housing tenure and level of education by household headship in metropolitan areas

In order to assess housing tenure patterns between tenure status and level of education in metropolitan areas, cross-tabulation between these two variables was used. The results displayed in Fig. 4.6.1 indicate the variations of housing tenure according to level of education in metropolitan areas. This study found that female migrants not heading households with primary education are more likely to lodge with people who live in their own fully paid dwellings (30.2%), while those with secondary education or other similar certificates and those with no schooling were more likely to be housed by people with rented

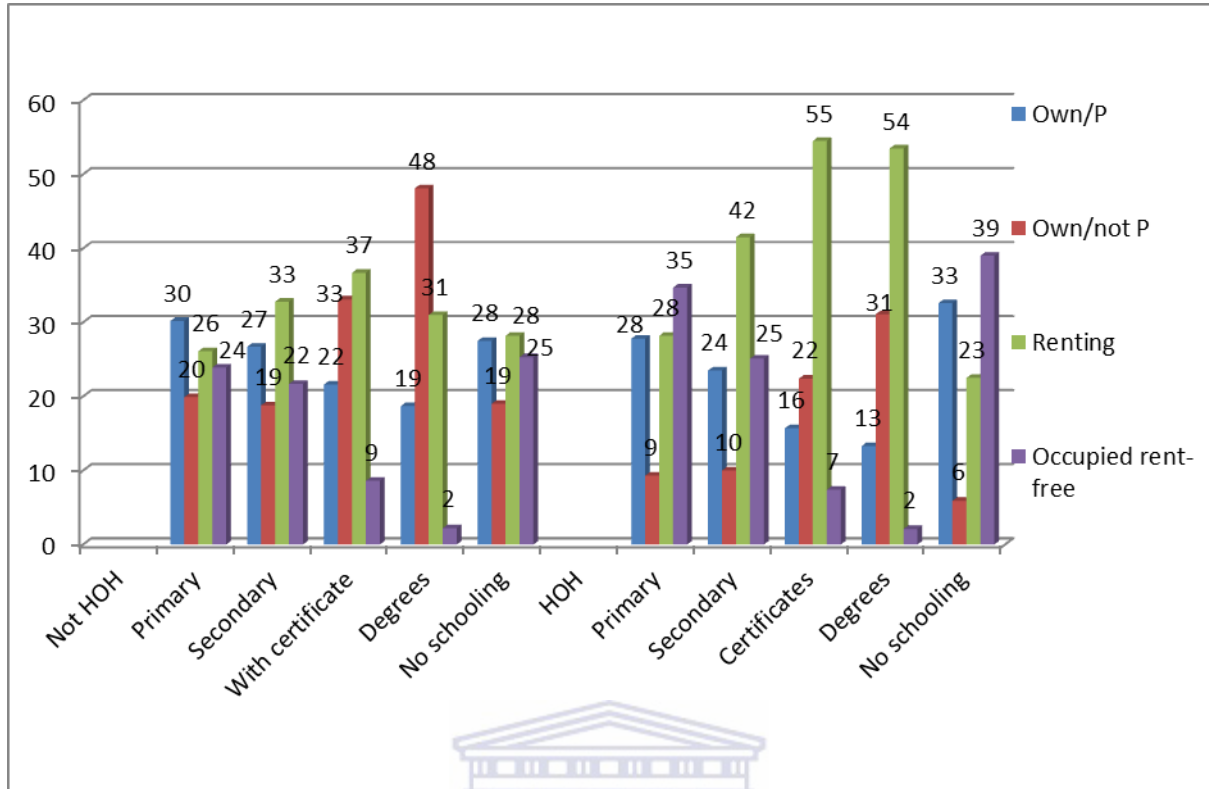
dwellings (32.8%, 36.7% and 28.2% respectively). However, those who have degrees are mostly lodged in owned but not yet paid off dwellings (48.1%).

Further observation from fig.4.6.1 concerning female migrants heading households revealed that those with no schooling and those who only have primary education are more vulnerable to the housing market as they end up struggling to get accommodation. Due to limitations of income earnings, they normally take the accommodation provided by their employer and that is why they are prevalent in occupied rent-free dwellings (39.0% and 34.2% respectively). The idea behind this might be that the income constrains forces them to take the accommodation that is offered by the employers. However, this study further reveal that those female migrants heading households with secondary, other certificates and degrees are predominant in rented dwellings (41.5%; 54.5%; 53.5% respectively). Due to these findings, it can be concluded that being highly educated female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas does not necessarily mean they can easily have access to housing ownership. In fact, education can only facilitate female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas to afford renting. This is an indication that being educated is not sufficient to access owned home. Conversely, major cities are associated with other factors which make it difficult for migrants to acquire owned dwellings.

To ascertain of the relationship between educational level and housing tenure in metropolitan areas, Pearson Chi-square statistical test was used to measure the association. A significant relationship ( $p=.000<0.005$ ) between the two variables tested was observed. However, when the strength of this relationship was also measured, Cramer's V indicated a weak relationship between educational level and housing tenure for female migrants (Cramer's V= 0.198). Therefore, it can be concluded that housing access for female migrants in metropolitan areas can be determined by level of education. This means that the differentials for the female migrants' forms of housing tenure can be attributed to the level of education.



**Fig. 4.5.1: Distribution between level of education and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas**



#### **4.6.5.2 Housing tenure and level of education by household headship in non-metropolitan areas**



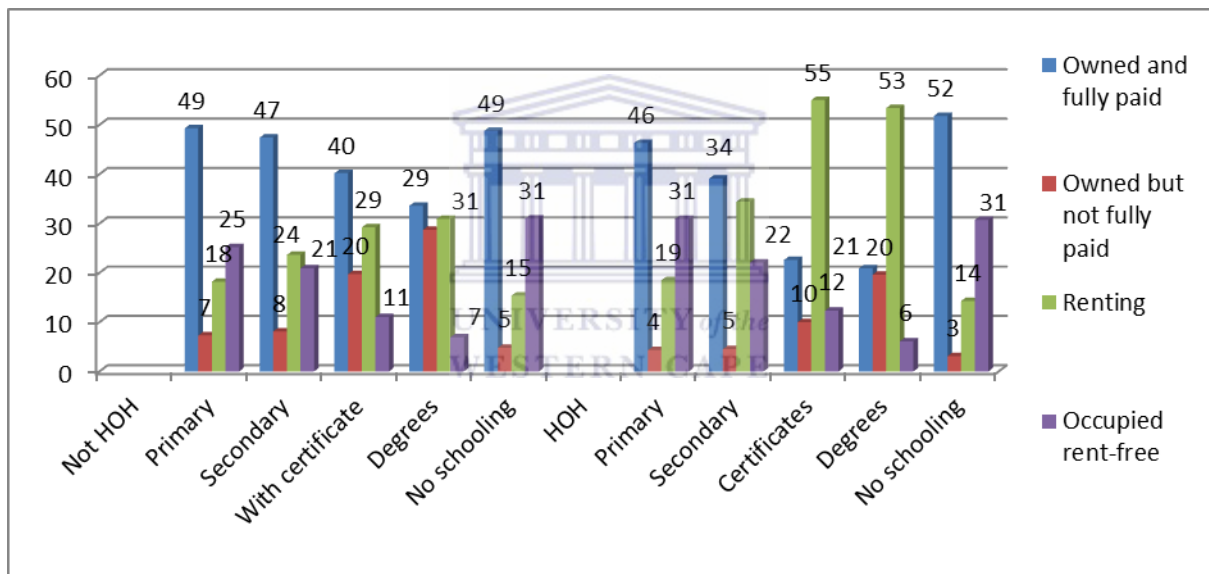
After assessing the relationship between educational levels and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas, the same procedure was done at non-metropolitan level in order to highlight the differentials. Fig.4.6.2 illustrates the distribution between housing tenure status and level of education in non-metropolitan areas by household headship. The results indicate that regardless of the level of education, most of the female migrants not heading households are living with people who stay in owned and fully paid off dwellings. This is an indication of how it becomes easier for female migrants to access housing in non-metropolitan municipalities.

Figure 4.6.2 further reveals female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas, those with lower education (primary and secondary) and even those with no schooling were mostly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings (46.3%, 39.1% and 51.8% respectively). It should be born in mind that those women do not really have sufficient means to purchase their own houses. It means that, as a vulnerable group, they are eligible for

housing subsidies from government. In contrast to this, female migrants heading households with a form of educational certificate and those with degrees are living in rented dwellings (55.0% and 53.4% respectively). In fact, as earlier mentioned in this chapter, having higher education does not necessarily entitle female migrants to access housing ownership.

Pearson Chi-square was used to test the hypothesis formulated. As result, the study shows a significant relationship with  $p=.000 < 0.005$ . This means that an association exists between housing tenure status and level of education for female migrants not heading households and for those heading households. Cramer’s V was used to test the strength of the relationship, and the findings show a weak relationship (Cramer’s V= 0.183).

**Fig.4.5.2: Distribution between level of education and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas**



#### 4.6.6 Housing tenure and age group in municipalities

In migration studies, age is another important variable among the demographic variables. The age of female migrants may be one of the contributing factors which influence housing tenure status across areas of residence. It is hypothesized that housing tenure for female migrants differs according to age by household headship. In order to assess the reality underlying this assumption, cross-tabulation between age group and tenure status variables was performed. Thereafter, Pearson Chi-square was used to test the relationship between those variables, while Phi and Cramer’s V was used to test the strength of the relationship.

#### ***4.6.6.1 Housing tenure and age group by household headship in metropolitan areas***

Table 4.6.1 indicates the distribution of age of female migrants and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas. The study discovered that female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas who are younger (5-14 years old) are more likely to be lodged in owned and fully paid off dwellings. In fact, these are young females whose parents and relatives may have housing ownership. More so, younger female migrants between ages 15-34 years old, tend to live with people who are renting dwellings. This is expected because some of them are still in school and have not yet found employment to give them their own income. This accounts for why they cannot yet access ownership of dwellings. Table 5.6.1 further shows that as age increases (35 years and above), the likelihood of living in owned and fully paid home increases. This is because people of these ages are normally in employment which makes it possible and easier to find their own housing units.

Looking at female migrants heading households, the data shows that female migrants who are young adults (15-44 years old) predominantly live in rented dwellings. This might be true because these young adults will just be starting their employment careers and they cannot, under normal circumstances, afford to purchase a place of their own to stay in. In addition, they are mobile, looking for better opportunities which make them rather renting. As they get older (45 years old and above), they get a lot more possibilities of buying and owning a home. Dewandeler (2006) found similar results and points out that renting and sharing is a feature of the earliest stages of the human life cycle. Normally, tenants tend to be younger than owners of dwellings and are often single. Students, recent arrivals, simple wage-workers, factory workers or single professionals are all categories of female migrants affected negatively by accessibility of housing ownership. Female migrants who are married and who rent their accommodation tend to have fewer children than the housing owners (Dewandeler, 2006).

Pearson Chi-square test statistics was used to test the hypothesis “*Accessibility to forms of housing tenure differs according to age of female migrant*”. The findings indicate that there is a significant relationship between age and housing tenure status where  $p=.000 < 0.005$ . This implies that age is a very important variable for female migrants who want to access housing. However, when Cramer’s V was used to measure the strength of the association, little if

any relationship between age of female migrants and housing tenure status was identified (Cramer's V= 0.094)

**Table 4.6.1: Distribution of age group and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas**

Age group: Not HOH	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
5-14	29.6	23.7	25.4	21.2	3455	100%
15-24	27.2	15.7	35.3	21.8	5629	100%
25-34	24.1	20.4	34.8	20.6	5014	100%
35-44	25.7	28.8	26.6	18.9	2140	100%
45-54	28.9	30.2	24.7	16.2	795	100%
55-64	35.8	32.5	16.6	15.1	271	100%
65-74	28.3	35.8	25.8	10.0	120	100%
75-84	42.2	20.0	26.7	11.1	45	100%
85-94	37.5	37.5	18.8	6.3	16	100%
95+	40.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	5	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
5-14	-	-	-	-	-	-
15-24	13.4	5.2	64.1	17.4	696	100%
25-34	20.2	10.1	47.3	22.3	1732	100%
35-44	24.3	16.6	33.2	25.9	1306	100%
45-54	28.5	16.4	28.2	26.9	731	100%
55-64	34.7	18.6	20.0	26.7	285	100%
65-74	40.4	11.0	25.7	22.9	109	100%
75-84	42.2	20.0	26.7	11.1	45	100%
85-94	37.5	37.5	18.8	6.3	16	100%
95+	40.0	60.0	0.0	0.0	5	100%

#### **4.6.6.2 Housing tenure and age by household headship in non-metropolitan areas**

Table 4.6.2 displays the distribution between housing tenure and age by household headship at non-metropolitan level. Female migrants not heading households regardless of their age are seen to be accommodated by people living in owned and fully paid up homes, followed by those living in rented dwellings. Conversely, young (ages 15-34 years) female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan municipalities tend to live in rented dwellings. This may be the case because most of them are just starting their career life after leaving

school. As their life cycle changes and they grow older, they can also become house owners, as potential to own a house increases (Miraftab, 1999; Miraftab, 2001). This is evident in female migrants who are heads of households and are between the ages of 25-64 years.

As they grow older, however, they live in occupied ownership dwellings. In fact, this support Sjaastad (1962) who saw that younger adults and more educated are more likely to migrate. And end up by living in rented dwellings. When testing the formulated hypothesis by means of Pearson Chi-square, a significant association between housing tenure and age of female migrants with  $p=.000 < 0.005$  was seen. However, the strength of this association as provided by Cramer's V was very little (Cramer's V= 0.083).

**Table 4.6.2: Distribution of age group and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas**

Age group: Not HOH	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
5-14	-	-	-	-	-	-
15-24	46.3	8.0	23.8	21.9	8345	100%
25-34	39.9	11.0	28.8	20.3	6555	100%
35-44	39.6	15.1	25.0	20.2	3335	100%
45-54	42.3	14.6	22.9	20.2	1591	100%
55-64	52.2	14.3	18.2	15.3	890	100%
65-74	55.6	13.0	22.2	9.3	54	100%
75-84	-	-	-	-	-	-
85-94	-	-	-	-	-	-
95+	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>HOH</b>						
5-14	-	-	-	-	-	-
15-24	31.6	2.1	44.4	21.8	1305	100%
25-34	34.6	5.7	38.7	21.0	2831	100%
35-44	39.8	8.0	30.4	21.8	2301	100%
45-54	43.7	7.9	23.9	24.5	1314	100%
55-64	48.3	8.1	19.9	23.7	700	100%
65-74	53.3	6.7	20.0	20.0	45	100%
75-84	-	-	-	-	-	-
85-94	-	-	-	-	-	-
95+	-	-	-	-	-	-

#### **4.6.7 Housing tenure and income earnings in municipalities**

In the study of migration, whether internal or international, income is one of the pulling factors from the place of origin to the place of destination (Fawcett et al, 1984; Thadani and Todaro, 1984; Bekker, 2006). Income plays a crucial role in accessing scarce housing resources. Therefore, it can be assumed that income earning is an important and contributing factor which facilitates female migrants in accessing housing across two different municipal areas. From this perspective, the research question “*Does accessibility to forms of housing tenure in cities differ according to income of female migrants*”? An attempt to answer this research question was provided by the hypothesis “*The accessibility to forms of housing tenure in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas differs according to the income earning of female migrant*”. Therefore, in order to test this hypothesis, cross-tabulation was done, followed by a statistical test to ascertain this proposition.

##### **4.6.7.1 Housing tenure and income by household headship in metropolitans**

Table 4.7.1 presents the results of the link between housing tenure and income by comparing housing tenure and household headship of female migrants living in metropolitan areas. For female migrants not heading households, it is clear that those of them with low or no income are mostly accommodated in rented dwellings (33.4%), while those with medium to high incomes are living with people in owned but not yet fully paid off dwellings (48.4% and 59.6% respectively). The reality, therefore, seems to be that those female migrants who are possibly lodged with their husbands or relatives could be using their income to contribute towards the payment of the houses.

On the other hand, Table 4.7.1 showed that female migrants heading households, especially those who have low and medium incomes rely on renting a place to stay (39.1% and 51.0% respectively), but with those earning a high income, a high proportion of them are living in owned but not fully paid dwellings (47.8%). Therefore, income is a very important variable which influence directly and indirectly on housing acquisition among female migrants living in metropolitan areas. It is clear that having low income forces female migrants to stay in rented home because it is the only way to find a place to stay in. Therefore, housing tenure of female migrants living in metropolitan areas differs according to income earning.

Further statistical tests were carried out to assess the relationship between housing tenure and income. Pearson Chi-square test revealed a significant relationship between housing tenure and income, where  $p=.000 < 0.005$ . In addition, the strength of that relationship as measured by Cramer's V statistical test revealed that the relationship between housing tenure and income was moderately strong (Cramer's  $V=0.276$ ). This means that, though income contributes to housing acquisition, it is not a feature that is sufficient enough for female migrant to access housing in metropolitan areas.

**Table 4.7.1: Distribution of income and housing tenure status in metropolitan areas**

Income category: <b>Not HOH</b>	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Low income	26.5	19.2	33.4	21.0	12237	100%
Medium income	19.0	48.4	31.0	1.7	2879	100%
High income	21.7	59.6	16.6	2.1	235	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Low income	24.3	8.6	39.1	28.0	3652	100%
Medium income	16.4	29.8	51.0	2.9	1362	100%
High income	18.2	47.8	32.1	1.9	159	100%

#### **4.6.7.2 Housing tenure and income by household headship in non-metropolitan areas**

After exploring the relationship between housing tenure and income among female migrants living in metropolitan areas, the situation in non-metropolitan areas was also assessed. Table 4.7.2 shows that a high proportion of female migrants not heading households (including the ones without any income) are mainly living with people who own fully paid up dwellings (44.9%). Those who earn medium incomes are mostly sheltered in owned but not fully paid up homes (32.5%), while those with high incomes are different because they are accommodated with people who have housing ownership (42.4%).

Looking at the influence of income on housing accessibility among female migrants heading households, Table 4.7.2 further shows that those who have low income were mainly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings (41.4%). The reason behind this might be that, since the dawn of independence in the post-apartheid era after 1994, the South African government has strived to remedy the housing imbalance created historically by the apartheid era through provision of housing to the low-income groups of South African citizens (Lekoa, 2011).

More so, female migrants heading households in the medium income to the high income group are mostly living in rented dwellings (55.9% and 43.4% respectively). In fact, earning high income does not necessarily entitle somebody to housing ownership. Very often, income earning is associated with other household needs such as paying school fees for children, food, accommodation, and some other domestic bills. This is why many people with high income are trapped in renting dwellings category for almost the rest of their lives.

The argument that female migrants with no income at all, or with low income can own their own dwellings should also be cautiously examined. The point might be that these women migrants are accessing housing ownership through government subsidies and from the support of housing initiatives in South Africa such as the enhanced People’s Housing Process (EPHP) and the National Urban Reconstruction and Housing Agency (NURCHA) (Rust, 2006).

When Pearson Chi-square was performed, the test statistics indicated a statistical significant association  $p=.000 < 0.005$  between housing tenure and income earnings, which confirms that there is a relationship between housing tenure status and income. When this relationship was tested, Cramer’s V showed a moderate relationship for both female migrants heading and not heading households (Cramer’s V= 0.245).

**Table 4.7.2: Distribution of income and housing tenure status in non-metropolitan areas**

<b>Income category:</b> <b>FM Not HOH</b>	<b>Tenure status</b>					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Low income	44.9	8.3	24.6	22.2	17874	100%
Medium income	31.1	32.5	31.0	5.4	1795	100%
High income	42.4	35.4	16.2	6.1	99	100%
<b>FM HOH</b>						
Low income	41.4	4.2	29.5	24.9	6916	100%
Medium income	22.0	15.2	55.9	6.9	1220	100%
High income	24.5	26.4	43.4	5.7	53	100%

#### **4.6.8 Housing tenure and duration of residence in municipalities**

In migration studies, duration of residence is a very crucial component that needs to be taken into account (Taeuber, 1961), when looking at housing accessibility in different



municipalities. From the view point of duration of residence and housing tenure status, it can be assumed that *“The more time one spent in a place, the better the chances of getting one’s housing ownership”*. This hypothesis was formulated to verify that the more time female migrants stayed in a place of residence, the more familiar they become with the housing environment in that neighborhood. They end up making good connections with people that can assist them, coupled with their life cycle in education and employment, and a descent income will always result in better housing tenure status, whether owned or rented. In order to test this assumption, the duration of residence variable was first cross-tabulated with housing tenure status to assess the impact of duration of residence on housing tenure. This was an attempt to answer the research question, *“Does housing tenure of female migrants heading households differ according to the duration of residence by household headship in municipalities?”*

#### ***4.6.8.1 Housing tenure and duration of residence by household headship in metropolitan***

Looking at metropolitan areas, Table 4.8.1 presents the relationship between housing tenure and duration of residence by household headship. The results shows that during the first, second and the third year of residence, female migrants not heading households are more likely to be lodged in rented dwellings (43.5%, 42.4% and 32.2% respectively). This pattern changed in the fourth, fifth, and sixth year onwards, where the female migrants were more likely to be accommodated in owned but not yet fully paid up dwellings (27.3%, 29.6% and 31.4% respectively). In the seventh year, female migrants are more likely to be lodged in owned but not fully paid dwellings. This means that even female migrants who do not head households get accommodated in owned houses as time passes by.

With regards to female migrants heading households, Table 4.8.1 further show that their first five years of residence in metropolitan areas is spent staying in rented dwellings. In the sixth year, a high proportion of them live in occupied rent-free dwellings (28.9%), while in the seventh year of stay, majority of female migrants heading households live in owned but not fully paid off houses in metropolitan areas. These results confirm the challenges of housing acquisition by female migrants in metropolitan areas since it takes long to access housing ownership.

Further analysis by means of Pearson Chi-square test showed a statistically significant association between housing tenure and duration of residence in metropolitan areas with  $p=.000<0.005$ . Additionally, Cramer's V test of strength of relationship between the variables was weak (Cramer's V= 0.140).

**Table 4.8.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and duration of residence in metropolitan areas**

Duration of residence: Not HOH	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
1	24.9	17.3	43.5	14.3	1642	100%
2	21.5	24.2	42.4	11.9	5107	100%
3	26.3	26.2	32.2	15.3	3115	100%
4	26.2	27.3	25.4	21.1	2788	100%
5	27.1	29.6	21.0	22.3	2500	100%
6	27.1	31.4	20.8	20.3	1509	100%
7	36.5	32.2	16.5	14.8	230	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
1	14.8	6.8	66.4	12.0	485	100%
2	16.6	14.0	55.5	13.9	1682	100%
3	24.7	17.3	38.9	19.1	1080	100%
4	25.3	16.8	31.8	26.1	961	100%
5	27.3	17.8	28.9	26.0	835	100%
6	25.4	20.6	25.2	28.9	461	100%
7	24.4	29.3	22.0	24.4	82	100%

#### **4.6.8.2 Housing tenure and duration of residence by household headship in non-metropolitan areas**

Table 4.8.2 displays the distribution between housing tenure and duration of residence in non-metropolitan municipal areas. The data reports that from the first year to the seventh year of residence, female migrants not heading households are accommodated by other people living in owned and fully paid off dwellings, and the proportion gradually increased from the first to the seventh year. This method of tenure was followed by renting, and then occupied rent-free housing tenure.

However, when looking at female migrants heading households, the findings depicted in Table 4.8.2 further show that they mainly live in rented dwellings during their first and second year (46.1% and 40.8% respectively) at residences located in non-metropolitan municipalities. In contrast to the first two years, the findings show that these female migrants live in owned and fully paid off dwellings from the third year up to the seventh. Contrary to metropolitan areas, housing accessibility in non-metropolitan areas becomes easier for female migrants heading households. Owned but not yet fully paid is the least method of tenure in non-metropolitan municipalities among female migrants heading households. The result from hypothesis testing indicates that the test association was statistically significant with  $p=.000<0.005$ . When the strength of this association was measured using Cramer's V, the results showed little if any relationship (Cramer's V= 0.093).

**Table 4.8.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and duration of residence in non-metropolitan areas**

Duration of residence: Not HOH	Tenure status					Total	%
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free			
1	39.0	7.6	32.5	20.8	2581	100%	
2	38.5	10.0	30.2	21.3	6446	100%	
3	43.2	11.4	24.7	20.7	3734	100%	
4	48.2	12.2	20.6	19.0	3151	100%	
5	46.9	12.5	19.8	20.9	2899	100%	
6	50.5	12.6	15.8	21.0	1783	100%	
7	52.8	10.2	18.8	18.2	176	100%	
<b>HOH</b>							
1	23.7	4.5	46.1	25.7	830	100%	
2	32.8	5.5	40.8	21.0	2731	100%	
3	37.9	6.3	33.8	22.1	1537	100%	
4	42.0	6.5	29.2	22.3	1324	100%	
5	47.2	7.5	23.0	22.3	1256	100%	
6	51.5	9.0	18.2	21.4	748	100%	
7	50.0	8.6	15.7	25.7	70	100%	

#### **4.6.9 Housing tenure and household size in municipalities**

The size of the household is another important variable in the study of migration and housing tenure. Household size is used as an indicator of housing crowding by comparing the number of people using particular space with the space provided by the dwelling unit. In addition to this, migrants who apply for private rental are often discriminated due to their family size (Jiang, 2006). On the basis of this argument, a hypothesis was formulated to highlight the association between housing tenure and size of household. *It is assumed, therefore, that the increase in the number of household members influences the type of housing tenure that female migrants are more likely to live in.* The study attempted to answer the research question, “Do household sizes influence the housing tenure of female migrants across areas of residence”? In order to assess the link between these two variables, household size was cross-tabulated with housing tenure status to assess the patterns of relationship between these two variables.

##### **4.6.9.1 Housing tenure and household size by household headship in metropolitan areas**

Cross-tabulation of housing tenure and household size is depicted by the results provided in Table 4.9.1. It shows that female migrants not heading households and living with fewer people (1-4 members in a household) are more likely to use the renting tenure (36.5%) as a means of assessing housing, while female migrants living with many people (more than five members in a household) were more likely to be accommodated in own housing units regardless of whether these houses have been fully paid for or not. The same pattern was observed for female migrants heading households in these metropolitan areas. Nevertheless, when the hypothesis to measure association was tested by Fisher Exact test, the findings reveal the test was statistically significant, which duly supports the assumption that household size determines housing tenure patterns for female migrants in metropolitan municipalities. However, this relationship was not strong enough to support the hypothesis.

**Table 4.9.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and household size in metropolitan areas**

Household size: Not HOH	Tenure status					Total	%
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free			
1-4	21.9	25.3	36.5	16.3		11076	100%
5-9	30.5	27.5	24.8	17.2		5485	100%
10-14	41.9	20.1	20.8	17.2		5485	100%
15-19	31.6	36.8	15.8	15.8		19	100%
20-24	0.0	66.7	0.0	33.3		3	100%
<b>HOH</b>							
1-4	20.5	15.3	45.2	19.0		4798	100%
5-9	30.7	18.9	24.3	26.1		758	100%
10-14	41.4	24.1	13.8	20.7		29	100%
15-19	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0		1	100%

**4.6.9.2 Housing tenure and household size by household headship in non-metropolitan areas**

The distribution between housing tenure and household size by household headship in non-metropolitan municipalities was illustrated in Table 4.9.2. The distribution shows that in those sub-areas, all household sizes for female migrants not heading households are mostly accommodated in owned and fully paid off dwellings. With regards to female migrants heading household, the findings show that small households with fewer household members (1-4 people) live in rented dwellings (37.4%). Conversely, female migrants who are heads of households with five or more household members are mainly living in owned and fully paid accommodation in non-metropolitan areas. This shows that housing in those areas is more of owned dwellings and is more likely to accommodate more people in relation to what happens in the metropolitan areas. The findings further reveal that an association between housing tenure and household size exists irrespective of whether the female migrants are heads of households. This association was confirmed by Fisher Exact statistical test results that  $p=.000 < 0.005$ . This confirms an association between household size and housing tenure of female migrants.

**Table 4.9.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and household size in non-metropolitan areas**

Duration of residence: FM Not HOH	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
1-4	34.9	11.5	32.2	21.4	11703	100%
5-9	52.4	11.0	17.2	19.4	8025	100%
10-14	64.7	4.1	9.4	21.8	904	100%
15-19	74.8	0.0	1.0	24.3	103	100%
20-24	48.3	3.4	10.3	37.9	29	100%
30+	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	6	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
1-4	34.4	6.1	37.4	22.0	6910	100%
5-9	54.1	7.2	16.2	22.5	1505	100%
10-14	64.5	5.3	7.9	22.4	76	100%
15-19	66.7	0.0	0.0	33.3	3	100%
20-24	50.0	0.0	50.0	0.0	2	100%

#### 4.6.10 Housing tenure and housing structure type in municipalities

In the housing sector, accommodation may generally range from a house, one floor or room within a house, any part of a room or even simply a bed (Dewendeler, 2006). In this study, the variable “housing structure type” was a very crucial indicator of housing tenure status among female migrants across areas of residence. Thus, housing tenure status was cross-tabulated with housing structure type in order to identify the housing tenure patterns according to housing type across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. This was done in order to answer the research question, “*Does housing tenure of female migrants in cities depend on housing structure type?*” From this research question, a hypothesis was formulated, “*Housing tenure status differ according to housing structure type of female migrants across areas of residence*”.

##### 4.6.10.1 Housing tenure and housing structure type by household headship in metropolitan areas.

At the metropolitan level, the findings indicated in Table 4.10.1 show that female migrants not heading household are mainly lodged in standalone dwellings which are owned but not

yet paid up (37.8%), which is followed by those living in owned and fully paid off dwellings 31.4%. Occupied rent-free dwellings are the least method for female migrants not heading households living in standalone dwellings (10.4%). For female migrants heading households living in standalone dwellings, those types of housing are mainly owned and fully paid (31.8%) followed by owned but not yet paid up dwellings (25.3%). Occupied rent-free (18.0%) was also the least method for female migrants living in standalone dwellings. In reality, with the increased modernization, the proportion of the population living in formal brick structure dwellings on a separate stand has been steadily increasing (Ndinda et al, 2010).

Female migrants not heading households who are accommodated in a flat or block of flats are mainly renting (64.4%), while their counterparts heading households living in flats or block of flats, were also majorly renting their dwellings (69.7%). Female migrants not heading households living with people in floating dwellings are mainly accommodated in occupied rent-free dwellings (38.9%); those heading households living in floating dwellings are mainly renting (44.6%). Hypothesis testing show a very strong association between housing tenure status and housing structure type with  $p=,000<0.005$ . This means that housing tenure is related to housing structure types according to household headship in metropolitan areas. Cramer's V= 0.397 shows strong relationship with

**Table 4.10.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and housing structure type in metropolitan areas**

<b>Housing structure type:</b>	<b>Tenure status</b>					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
<b>Not HOH</b>						
Standalone	31.4	37.8	20.4	10.4	9595	100%
Flat or block of flats	12.5	20.5	64.4	2.7	2855	100%
Floating dwellings	19.5	4.0	37.7	38.9	4441	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Standalone	31.8	25.3	24.9	18.0	2459	100%
Flat or block of flats	12.8	15.5	69.7	2.1	1395	100%
Floating	15.4	2.7	44.6	37.4	1732	100%

#### 4.6.10.2 Housing tenure and housing structure type by household headship in non-metropolitan areas

The result from cross-tabulation between housing tenure and housing structure types in metropolitan areas is shown in Table 4.10.2. This study show that majority of female migrants not heading households who are lodged in standalone dwellings are mainly owned and fully paid off (47.0%); those accommodated in flats or block of flats are mostly living in rented dwellings (66.9%), while those who are accommodated in floating dwellings are mainly living in owned and fully paid dwellings (34.9%).

Conversely, as shown in Table 4.10.2, female migrants heading households, living in standalone dwellings mostly own their houses (45.3%), while those living in flats or block of flats are mostly renting (70.8%). The idea behind these findings is that the availability of free standing housing contributes to the chances of purchasing a home, while flats tend often to be rented. Female migrants heading households living in floating dwellings mainly uses the renting tenure (40.9%). These results confirm that housing accessibility in non-metropolitan is more flexible compared to metropolitan municipalities where land for building is very scarce. Result from Pearson Chi-square support the hypothesis that there is a relationship between housing tenure and housing structure types of female migrants in non-metropolitan municipalities with  $p=.000 < 0.005$ . However, Cramer's V statistical test of strength indicates that this relationship was moderately strong to fully support the hypothesis (Cramer's  $V=0.240$ ).

**Table 4.10.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and housing structure type in non-metropolitan areas**

Housing structure type:	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
<b>FM Not HOH</b>						
Standalone	47.0	13.3	21.5	18.2	15588	100%
Flat or block of flats	16.9	7.3	66.9	8.9	947	100%
Floating dwellings	34.9	2.9	29.9	32.3	4235	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Standalone	45.3	8.1	26.1	20.6	5641	100%
Flat or block of flats	13.4	5.7	70.8	10.1	665	100%
Floating	27.4	1.9	40.9	29.8	2190	100%



#### **4.6.11 Housing tenure and province of birth in municipalities**

Every residential move has an origin or source which is the place from where the person moves from and destination, which is the place where the specific move ends. For any move to be classified as migration, the origin and destination of a residential move can only be in different migration defining areas within the same country or in different country (Le Roux, 2011). In this context, a hypothesis in this regard was formulated, “*Housing tenure status for female migrants differs according to province of birth by household headship and areas of residence*”. By testing this hypothesis, a research question that was meant to be answered was, “*Does housing tenure of female migrants differ according to their provinces of birth?*”

##### ***4.6.11.1 Housing tenure and province of birth by households headship in metropolitan areas***

Table 4.11.1 displays the distribution between housing tenure and province of birth in metropolitan areas. The data show that among female migrants not head of households who were born in the Western Cape (41.6%), Free State (30.1%) and Gauteng (35.8%) but currently living in metropolitan areas, are majorly accommodated with people living in owned but not fully paid off dwellings. Female migrants from the Eastern Cape (34.0%) are accommodated by people who own their own house. The rest of the female migrants from the remaining provinces make use of the renting method of tenure to access housing in these metropolitan areas, even though with slight variations according to the provinces of birth.

With regards to female migrants heading households, the findings indicate clearly that across the provinces of birth, majority are living in rented dwellings. However, female migrants born in the Northern Cape (60.3%), Free State (50.0%) and outside RSA (57.2%) have a higher percentage of migrants living in rented accommodation. This confirms that housing acquisition is highly competitive in metropolitan areas where land and materials for building houses are very costly. The relationship between housing tenure status and province of birth, cross-tabulation was not sufficient to support the hypothesis formulated. Further analysis was carried out by means of Chi-square test statistics. The results indicate an association between both variables at  $p=.000 < 0.005$ , meaning that there is a relationship between housing tenure and province of birth, but Cramer’s V statistical test for strength indicated a weak relationship (Cramer’s V= 0.166).

**Table 4.11.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and province of birth in metropolitan areas**

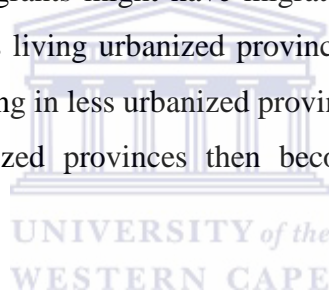
Province of birth: <b>FM Not HOH</b>	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Western Cape	21.5	41.6	32.3	4.6	1640	100%
Eastern Cape	34.0	15.8	29.5	20.7	3066	100%
Northern Cape	23.1	27.9	38.0	11.1	208	100%
Free State	21.6	30.1	32.1	16.2	458	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	26.8	26.2	32.2	14.9	3023	100%
North West	24.0	22.2	30.0	23.8	726	100%
Gauteng	24.3	35.8	27.0	12.9	3950	100%
Mpumalanga	20.0	18.5	36.4	25.1	729	100%
Limpopo	20.0	14.4	34.6	30.9	19.5	100%
Out of RSA	18.7	20.7	52.8	7.8	1186	100%
<b>FM HOH</b>						
Western Cape	21.5	26.4	45.0	7.1	424	100%
Eastern Cape	32.7	8.1	38.0	21.2	1169	100%
Northern Cape	15.4	10.3	60.3	14.1	78	100%
Free State	14.9	14.9	50.0	20.2	188	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	22.1	14.7	43.8	19.4	1014	100%
North West	20.1	14.9	44.6	20.4	289	100%
Gauteng	19.9	27.5	35.4	17.2	1191	100%
Mpumalanga	15.8	8.4	43.4	32.3	297	100%
Limpopo	15.2	6.5	43.9	34.3	597	100%
Out of RSA	16.8	17.4	57.2	8.6	339	100%

**4.6.11.2 Housing tenure and province of birth by household headship in non-metropolitan areas**

In non-metropolitan areas, the data shown in Table 4.11.2 reveals that the majority of female migrants born in all the provinces of South Africa and outside South Africa but living in non-metropolitan areas as female migrants who are not head of households are mostly accommodated by people who own their houses, except for those born in Gauteng (32.7%) and outside RSA (35.8%) who are mainly lodged in rented dwellings. The reason might be that many people born in Gauteng but living in non-metropolitan areas as migrants are mainly tenants. In addition, female migrants who were born outside South Africa but living in non-

metropolitan areas were not represented in owned housing because they do not have relatives or friends who own housing with whom they could be accommodated.

With regards to female migrants heading households, those born in the Western Cape (44.0%), Eastern Cape (34.5%), Northern Cape (39.0%), Free States (34.6%), and Gauteng (46.1%) and outside South Africa (42.2%) are mostly living in rented dwellings in non-metropolitan areas. However, majority of female migrants heading households born in Kwazulu-Natal (36.8%), North West (44.8%), Mpumalanga (46.3%) and Limpopo (53.1%) are owner-occupiers of their dwellings. A general observation of the results may lead to the conclusion that most female migrants from mostly urbanized provinces are mainly living in rented dwellings. This is mostly the case with Gauteng and Western Cape. For those female migrants who were born in less urbanised provinces such as Limpopo and Mpumalanga, the highest proportion of them are living in owned and fully paid dwellings. A general idea emerges is that those female migrants might have migrated inter-provincially because it is well-known that female migrants living urbanized provinces are more likely to be living in rented dwellings, while those living in less urbanized provinces are more likely to be living in owned houses. The less urbanized provinces then becomes attractive in securing own accommodation.



The hypothesis formulated as regards the above was tested by means of Pearson Chi-Square test statistics. The findings reveal the existence of an association between housing tenure and province of birth for both female migrants heading and not heading households with  $p=.000 < 0.005$ , but this relationship was weak according to Cramer's  $V = 0.108$ .

**Table 4.11.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and province of birth in non-metropolitan areas**

Province of birth: <b>Not HOH</b>	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Western Cape	38.9	15.6	29.6	15.9	1031	100%
Eastern Cape	41.2	8.1	26.1	24.4	4126	100%
Northern Cape	37.5	9.5	26.1	26.9	1660	100%
Free State	35.3	12.4	28.1	24.2	2393	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	48.8	11.0	22.5	17.7	3184	100%
North West	42.0	9.4	24.2	24.4	2214	100%
Gauteng	30.6	21.4	32.7	15.3	1564	100%
Mpumalanga	48.9	10.5	21.3	19.3	1669	100%
Limpopo	64.7	6.2	15.7	13.5	2074	100%
Out of RSA	33.3	12.6	35.8	18.2	855	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Western Cape	32.6	8.9	44.0	14.4	291	100%
Eastern Cape	33.7	6.8	34.5	25.0	2072	100%
Northern Cape	33.2	7.0	39.0	20.9	446	100%
Free State	32.3	8.0	34.6	25.1	784	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	36.8	5.6	35.1	22.5	1667	100%
North West	44.8	3.7	28.4	23.1	828	100%
Gauteng	28.7	11.1	46.1	14.1	460	100%
Mpumalanga	46.3	6.2	23.1	24.4	594	100%
Limpopo	53.1	4.1	24.8	18.0	1086	100%
Out of RSA	29.9	6.7	42.2	21.3	268	100%

#### 4.6.12 Housing tenure and province of previous residence in municipalities

Province of previous residence is an important indicator in this study as it highlights the situation of housing patterns for female migrants more clearly and the province of current residence according to province in a fixed period. In the context of this study, the period of residence was fixed at five (5) years from census 2001 and the time of the next survey in the form of the 2007 survey. This section assesses the relationship between housing tenure and the province of previous residence, by identifying the housing tenure that female migrants are more likely to opt for in metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. In order to attain this objective, the following research question was used, “*Does housing tenure status of female migrants depend on the province of previous residence?*” Hence, the following hypothesis was formulated as an attempt to answer the research question, “*Housing tenure*

*status of female migrants differs according to province of previous residence by household headship and areas of residence”.*

#### ***4.6.12.1 Housing tenure and province of previous residence by household headship in metropolitan areas***

The findings in Table 4.12.1 indicate the distribution between housing tenure of female migrants and province of previous residence. A general picture of housing tenure among female migrants not heading households is that, regardless of the province where they were living before the time of the survey, a high proportion of female migrants living in metropolitan areas are lodged with people who are also tenants. This highlights the true situation of female migrants' housing access in metropolitan areas (Pahl et al, 1983; Daniels and Warnes, 1985; Sullivan et, 1987). However, some of these female migrants were also lodged with people who own their own houses as seen with those who previously lived in the Western Cape (33.1%), Eastern Cape (37.0%), North West (30.8%) and Gauteng (30.1%).

Regarding housing access among female migrants heading households, Table 4.12.1 further shows that most of the female migrants regardless of the province of previous residence living in metropolitan areas are renting the houses they stay in. However, female migrants who were living in Eastern Cape prior to the survey are mostly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings (37.2%). Pearson Chi-Square test show a significant association with  $p=.000<0.005$ , Cramer's V value was however, not sufficient to support the hypothesis (Cramer's V= 0.101).

**Table 4.12.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and province of previous residence in metropolitan areas**

<b>Province of Previous Residence:</b> <b>Not HOH</b>	<b>Tenure status</b>					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Western Cape	25.8	33.1	30.9	10.2	2659	100%
Eastern Cape	37.0	15.4	27.6	20.0	1817	100%
Northern Cape	24.1	22.9	36.1	16.9	83	100%
Free State	25.1	23.0	32.8	19.1	183	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	28.1	24.7	31.5	15.7	2654	100%
North West	30.8	15.6	29.2	24.4	435	100%
Gauteng	21.0	30.1	32.0	16.9	7165	100%
Mpumalanga	23.7	16.9	37.9	21.5	414	100%
Limpopo	22.8	13.0	37.4	26.9	934	100%
Out of RSA	21.0	16.5	54.3	8.2	547	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Western Cape	26.4	19.6	41.4	12.6	859	100%
Eastern Cape	37.2	7.2	36.5	19.0	567	100%
Northern Cape	9.5	9.5	66.7	14.3	21	100%
Free State	11.1	13.0	55.6	20.4	54	100%
KwaZulu-Natal	23.3	12.5	42.7	21.6	881	100%
North West	25.0	9.2	43.4	22.4	152	100%
Gauteng	17.9	19.9	40.2	22.0	2529	100%
Mpumalanga	14.9	7.5	50.7	26.9	134	100%
Limpopo	17.4	5.5	51.5	25.5	235	100%
Out of RSA	16.2	10.4	65.6	7.8	154	100%

#### ***4.6.12.2 Housing tenure and province of previous residence by household headship in non-metropolitan areas.***

A non-metropolitan area is the second lower geographical area in the ranking of municipalities. Hence, it is indeed worthy to assess the housing tenure patterns according to province of previous residence by household headship in non-metropolitan municipalities (White Paper on local government, 1994). Table 4.12.2 depicts the distribution between the two variables. The data shows that regardless of the province of previous residence prior to the survey, majority of female migrants not heading households are mostly accommodated with other people who are staying in owned and fully paid off dwellings such as husbands; parents; other relatives; and friends. Contrastingly, female migrants who were previously living outside South Africa prior to the survey are mostly living in rented dwellings (40.9%). Table 5.12.2 further shows that female migrants heading households, who were previously living in Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Free States, Gauteng (41.4%, 34.8%, 40.4%, 37.3% and 38.8% respectively) uses the renting tenure as their main choice of assessing housing in non-metropolitan areas. Those female migrants previously living outside South Africa (49.6%) are also mostly accommodated in rented dwellings. Contrary to this housing situation, female migrants who previously lived in Kwazulu-Natal (37.1%), North West (45.3%), Mpumalanga (44.2%) and Limpopo (54.2%) are mainly lodged with husbands, friends, relatives or other people who are owner-occupiers of fully paid off dwellings. On the basis to these housing patterns, it can be concluded that housing tenure of female migrants differs according to the province of previous residence and household headship. When Pearson Chi-square for association was tested, the results showed an association between the two variables with  $p=0.00 < 0.005$ . Hence, the test of the strength of the relationship indicates little if any association with Cramer's  $V=0.099$ .

**Table 4.12.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and province of previous residence in non-metropolitan areas**

Province of previous residence: <b>Not HOH</b>	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Western Cape	39.4	13.1	30.3	17.1	1227	100%
Eastern Cape	42.3	8.1	25.3	24.3	3673	100%
Northern Cape	36.6	8.2	27.3	27.9	1668	100%
Free State	34.6	12.8	28.3	24.3	2342	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	48.2	11.2	22.7	17.8	3184	100%
North West	42.1	9.2	26.0	22.7	2445	100%
Gauteng	33.5	18.5	28.0	20.0	1774	100%
Mpumalanga	45.5	13.3	23.8	17.4	1922	100%
Limpopo	64.1	7.6	15.7	12.5	2080	100%
Out of RSA	31.6	8.4	40.9	19.1	455	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Western Cape	31.5	10.2	41.4	16.9	372	100%
Eastern Cape	33.5	7.1	34.8	24.6	1826	100%
Northern Cape	30.8	7.3	40.4	21.6	468	100%
Free State	30.3	8.0	37.3	24.4	791	100%
Kwazulu-Natal	37.1	5.5	34.5	22.9	1697	100%
Northern West	45.3	3.4	29.3	22.0	905	100%
Gauteng	31.9	7.8	38.8	21.5	554	100%
Mpumalanga	44.2	8.4	25.1	22.3	658	100%
Limpopo	54.2	3.7	24.4	17.7	1084	100%
Out of RSA	25.5	5.7	49.6	19.1	141	100%

#### 4.6.13 Occupation and housing tenure status in municipalities

Among the socio-economic factors which majorly impacts on housing tenure status is occupational status. Hence, this variable was used to answer the research question, “Does accessibility to forms of housing tenure depend on occupation of female migrants”? The hypothesis was born out of the research question which states that “The accessibility to forms of housing tenure differs according to occupation of female migrants by household headship and areas of residence”.



#### ***4.6.13.1 Housing tenure and occupation by household headship in metropolitan areas***

When occupation was cross-tabulated with housing tenure status, the results shown in Table 4.13.1 indicates that housing tenure for female migrants differs according to their occupation. The findings show that female migrants who are heads of households, living in metropolitan areas and in employment as legislators, senior officials and managers; professionals; technicians and associate professionals; and clerks are mostly accommodated with people who have housing ownership but not fully paid off dwellings (51.2%, 50.0%, 43.8%, and 39.8% respectively). More so, those female migrants who are service workers, shop and market sales workers; craft and related trade workers; plant and machine operators and assemblers; and those in elementary occupations are prevalently using rented dwellings (37.6%, 34.2%, 40.5%, and 30.3% respectively). Also, female migrants who are heads of households but are engaged as skilled agricultural and fishery workers are shown to be mostly represented in occupied an rent-free dwelling (36.8%) which is common for many people who work in farms.

On the other hand, all female migrants heading households and living in metropolitan areas were depicted in Table 4.13.1, regardless of their occupations, as mostly living in rented dwellings, except those who are held in elementary work who live in occupied rent-free dwellings with 38.8%. Concerning the hypothesis formulated in this regard, Pearson Chi-square test statistics was used to test the relationship between housing tenure and occupation. The findings revealed that the test was statistically significant with  $p=.000<0.005$ , and Cramer's V indicated moderately relationship with Cramer's V= 0.0231.

**Table 4.13.1: Distribution of housing tenure status and occupation in metropolitan areas**

Occupation status: Not HOH	Tenure status					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Legislators; senior officials & managers	19.4	5.2	27.0	2.5	852	100%
Professionals	20.6	50.0	26.2	3.1	1143	100%
Technicians & associate professionals	18.9	43.8	34.2	3.1	609	100%
Clerks	19.0	39.8	36.3	4.9	1068	100%
Service workers; shop and market sale workers	24.7	26.5	37.6	11.3	612	100%
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	21.1	18.4	23.7	36.8	38	100%
Craft & related trade workers	24.6	24.2	34.2	17.1	240	100%
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	22.3	25.6	40.5	11.6	121	100%
Elementary occupations	25.8	20.9	30.3	23.0	1229	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Legislators; senior officials & managers	16.2	32.7	46.6	4.4	388	100%
Professionals	16.0	36.1	46.0	2.0	557	100%
Technicians & associate professionals	17.9	26.0	49.8	6.3	285	100%
Clerks	19.3	20.3	49.4	11.0	399	100%
Service workers; shop and market sale workers	15.3	10.3	58.6	15.9	321	100%
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	27.3	18.2	36.4	18.2	22	100%
Craft & related trade workers	23.4	14.5	50.8	11.3	124	100%
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	29.5	11.5	45.9	13.1	61	100%
Elementary occupations	23.4	7.6	30.2	38.8	970	100%

**4.6.13.2 Housing tenure and occupation by household headship in non-metropolitan areas**

With regards to non-metropolitan areas, the same research question and the hypothesis earlier formulated was used and tested. On the basis of cross-tabulation, Table 4.13.2 indicates the variations of housing tenure and occupation among female migrants who are heads of their households. The findings reveal that female migrants who head households in non-metropolitan areas and are working as legislators, senior administrative officials and managers; technicians and associate professionals; and clerks are mainly lodged in rented

dwellings (36.0%, 34.1% and 39.3% respectively). However, female migrants heading households who work as professionals; service workers, shop and market sale workers; skilled agricultural and fishery workers; craft and related trade workers; plant and machine operators and assemblers; and those involved in elementary jobs are majorly lodged in owned and fully paid off dwellings (33.4%, 35.8%, 40.4%, 36.5%, 38.9% and 37.0% respectively). Even though majority of these female migrants are living in own and fully paid dwellings, the reality might be that all these women may be living with people who are in subsidized RDP housing (Rusk, 2006). This was enhanced by the new policy after 1994, when the South African government tried to put into action its millennium development goal (MDG) of providing basic and subsidised housing for all the citizens (South African White Paper, 1994).

However, Table 4.13.2 further show that female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas working as skilled agricultural and fishery industry (40.8%); and those engaged in elementary jobs (38.5%) uses the occupied rent-free tenure system as a means to access housing. Female migrants with other forms of occupations and who are heads of their households are mainly lodged in rented dwellings.

The formulated hypothesis was tested by means of Pearson Chi-square, and the results show that there is a significant relationship between housing tenure and occupation of female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas with  $p=.000 < 0.005$ . However, regarding the strength of that association, Cramer's  $V= 0.228$  indicated low relationship between the two variables.

**Table 4.13.2: Distribution of housing tenure status and occupation in non-metropolitan areas**

<b>Occupation status: Not HOH</b>	<b>Tenure status</b>					
	Own: fully paid	Own: not fully paid	Renting	Occupied rent-free	Total	%
Legislators; senior officials & managers	30.2	25.1	36.0	8.7	483	-
Professionals	33.4	30.2	29.2	7.2	860	100%
Technicians & associate professionals	28.4	31.7	34.1	5.7	331	100%
Clerks	33.8	20.4	39.3	6.4	839	100%
Service workers; shop and market sale workers	35.8	15.8	33.9	14.5	525	100%
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	40.4	4.2	16.7	38.8	312	100%
Craft & related trade workers	36.5	14.7	31.7	17.1	252	100%
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	38.9	10.5	29.5	21.1	95	100%
Elementary occupations	37.0	6.7	23.3	33.0	1698	100%
<b>HOH</b>						
Legislators; senior officials & managers	24.7	16.8	50.3	8.2	304	100%
Professionals	21.1	15.5	53.5	9.9	677	100%
Technicians & associate professionals	26.3	13.2	49.6	11.0	228	100%
Clerks	25.0	7.8	55.2	12.0	424	100%
Service workers; shop and market sale workers	24.9	6.4	52.2	16.5	393	100%
Skilled agricultural & fishery workers	30.9	2.6	25.7	40.8	191	100%
Craft & related trade workers	26.0	4.1	48.0	21.9	196	100%
Plant & machine operators & assemblers	32.1	6.4	45.9	15.6	109	100%
Elementary occupations	32.6	4.7	24.2	38.5	1450	100%

## 4.7 Comparison of housing tenure and areas of residence

### 4.7.1 Introduction

Understanding housing tenure of female migrants in the context of South Africa sometimes requires comparison with areas of residence as one of the key components because cost-effective infrastructure development requires that firstly, services provision is not delivered in places where they are not needed. Secondly, it also requires that services are not delivered in

isolation of other services and that lastly, the state is able to accurately predict where citizens are likely to relocate to in the future so that government can plan and prepare for their arrivals (Landau et al, 2011). Hence, policy makers and planners need to understand key migration trends and major direction in order to engage in effective and integrated development planning of basic service delivery.

In line with female migrants' characteristics, this sub-section of analysis focuses on the comparison between housing tenure and areas of residence in order to understand better the differences and the similarities that may exist. The 2007 Community Survey instrument was used to capture information. The objective was to highlight possible answers to research questions and hypotheses which have guided this study. Some research questions set out in the study were answered by looking at the major distributive patterns that are displayed in the form of tables. This was carried out first, by cross-tabulating population group, marital status, educational level, employment status, and other independent variables with housing tenure status as shown in table 4.14 in appendix 2.

#### **4.7.2. Housing tenure and population group by household headship and areas of residence**

As earlier mentioned, housing tenure of female migrants differs according to population group and the areas of residence. Some female migrants actually migrate mainly to places where they know some people who are already living there or at least know that they will accommodate them. The idea is that people from the same place often migrate to the same areas to be accommodated by almost the same people whilst looking for jobs.

Starting from female migrants not heading households, the findings in table 4.14 in appendix 2 suggest that, Black female migrants living in metropolitan areas are mainly lodged in rented dwellings (32.1%), while in non-metropolitan areas, Black female migrants are mostly accommodated in owned and fully paid off dwellings with 47%. It is observed that owned but not yet paid off method of tenure was the least method used among Black female migrants across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. Possibly, Black female migrants are not likely to take home loans due to limited income.

When looking at Coloured female migrants across areas, the findings shows that in the metropolitan areas, the majority of them lodge in owned but not fully paid up (40%). In non-

metropolitan municipality areas, however, the data indicates that, unlike in the metropolitan areas, coloured female migrants are living in owned and fully paid off dwellings with 36.6%. However, occupied rent-free was the least used method of tenure in metropolitan (4.3%), while in non-metropolitan areas, the least used method was owned but not yet paid off (9.1%).

With regards to Indian or Asian female migrants, results indicate that renting is the most commonly used method of tenure for both metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas with 40.0%. However, in local municipalities, Indian or Asian female migrants are mainly concentrated in owned but not yet paid off housing tenures (40.6%). Hence, it is also observed that right across all two areas of residence, occupied rent-free housing tenure was not a commonly used method of tenure among Indian/Asian female migrants.

Looking at white female migrants, results indicated that in the metropolitan areas, a high proportion of female migrants lodge in owned but not yet paid off dwellings (48%), but in non-metropolitan municipality areas, it is clear that majority are accommodated in rented dwellings with 38.1%. The data further suggests that occupied rent-free is the least method of tenure among White female migrants not heading households across all the two areas of residence.

With regard to female migrants heading households across areas, the survey results show a high proportion of Black female migrants who live in rented dwellings in metropolitan areas (40.1%), while in non-metropolitan municipality areas, the majority lives in owned and fully paid off dwellings with 39.6%. The data further indicates that the proportion of Black female migrants living in owned but not yet paid off dwellings was low across all municipality areas. As stated earlier, it might be that in those areas, few female migrants use home loan to access housing ownership or they just take short-term home loans.

Regarding Coloured female migrants heading households, renting was prevalent with a high percentage in metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas (52%). With regards to Indian/Asian female migrants, results indicate that the majority of them are living in rented dwellings across both areas: metropolitan (51.1%) and non-metropolitan (58.1%). When looking at white female migrants heading households, the data shows that majority were mainly living in rented dwellings across both areas: metropolitan (46.2%) and non-metropolitan (52.6%). Occupied rent-free tenure is the least used method for white female

migrants heading households across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas since it shows low percentages with (2%) in metropolitan, while (3.1%) in non-metropolitan municipality areas.

In general, it can be concluded that Black female migrants are mainly living in rented dwellings in metropolitan areas; while in non-metropolitan municipality areas, they live in owned and fully paid off dwellings. Like coloured, Indians/Asians and White female migrants heading households are also found living in rented dwellings across the two different municipality areas. However, occupied rent-free housing tenure is the least used method of tenure among female migrants across all the two municipality areas.

#### **4.7.3 Housing tenure and marital status by household headship and area of residence**

The increase in female migration has occurred simultaneously with a decline in marital rates for Black females (Okuma, 2011; Divaris et al, 2012). Marital status can be grouped into categories that include never married, currently married and cohabiting, formerly married, divorced and separated (Okumu, 2011; Divaris et al, 2012). Looking at married civil/religious female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas, majority of them are lodged in owned but not fully paid off housing units (42.3%), while majority of those who were living in non-metropolitan municipality areas are accommodated in owned and fully paid off housing (35.8%).

Looking at female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas, the data shows that a high proportion is accommodated in owned but not yet fully paid up dwellings (40.6%), while in non-metropolitan municipalities areas majority of them are mostly lodging in owned and fully paid off dwellings with similar proportions of 47.5% and 46.2% respectively. Hence, the findings indicate that separated female migrants not heading households are dominant in the owned but not fully paid off dwellings in metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas with high percentages (31.3%), while those who are divorced live mainly in owned but not yet fully paid up housing dwellings (38.9%). For both the separated and divorced female migrants living in non-metropolitan municipality areas, the findings reveal that a high proportion lives in owned and fully paid off dwellings. Possibly, this is due to South African government's support for the vulnerable women.

Looking at the comparison of the municipal areas in line with marital status and housing tenure of female migrants heading households the data reveals that married and unmarried female migrants residing in metropolitan areas mostly live in rented dwellings, except widows who mostly live in owned and fully paid off dwellings (30.1%). These results do not mean that widow migrants heading households are really capable of purchasing housing. Given that the National Department of Housing has a good focus on promoting and supporting women in the construction industry, and in the housing sector as a whole and women-headed households as recipients of housing, it is therefore in this vein that widow female migrants living in municipalities may be having access to housing ownership (Charlton, 2004). In addition to this, there is a “Women for Housing” initiative that is run under the auspices of one of the housing institutions NURCHA which increases accessibility of housing to women in South Africa (Charlton, 2004).

The results further indicate that female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan municipality areas are generally living in owned and fully paid off dwellings, except those who are never married who are mainly tenants in those two areas. In fact, the never married female migrants are often those who are just leaving school and are starting their careers. Thus, renting becomes a good option which helps them to start their careers in life.

UNIVERSITY of the  
WESTERN CAPE

#### **4.7.4 Housing tenure and level of education by household headship and areas of residence.**

Level of education is one of the indicators which play a crucial role in determining housing tenure of female migrants according to areas of residence and household headship. In line with the evidence from the 2007 Community Survey data, results reveal that female migrants not heading households with primary level of education are mainly sheltered, possibly, by friends or relatives living in owned and fully paid off dwellings across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas, but a higher proportion of them is observed in non-metropolitan areas (49.3%).

The data in table 4.14 appendix 2 indicates further that female migrants not heading households with secondary education live in rented dwellings in metropolitan areas (32.8%), while in non-metropolitan municipality areas, they live in owned and fully paid off dwellings



(47.4%). The findings also show that majority of female migrants not heading households with certificates are mostly lodging in owned but not yet paid up dwellings (36.7%) in metropolitan areas, while in non-metropolitan municipality areas they are mainly accommodated in owned and fully paid off housing units by owner-occupiers who fully paid their dwellings (40.2%).

Looking at female migrants not heading households with degrees, the data indicates that in metropolitan municipality areas, a high proportion is living in owned but not fully paid houses (48.1%), while in non-metropolitan areas, majority are lodged in owned and fully paid houses (33.6%). Thesis findings support Payne (1997) and Gilbert, (1999) that it is often hard to get accommodation in major cities. The data reveal that female migrants with no schooling are prevalently living in owned and fully paid off dwellings in non-metropolitan municipality areas, but lodged in rented dwellings (28.2%) in metropolitan areas.

With regards to female migrants heading households, the outcome of the data analysis indicates that female migrants with primary education are prevalently living in owned and fully paid off dwellings in non-metropolitan municipality areas (46.3%), with a 17.6% higher rate in non-metropolitan compared to metropolitan areas. In metropolitan areas, however, the results reveal that a high proportion is accommodated for free (34.7%).

Looking at female migrants heading households with secondary education, majority are living in rented dwellings in metropolitan, while in non-metropolitan municipality areas, majority are owner-occupiers of fully paid up houses (39.1%). For those who have certificates or degrees, however, renting is the most prevalent method of tenure across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. The most possible explanation might be that it is often difficult for female migrants heading households to qualify for home ownership loans that are approved by banks. A lot of criteria are considered by banks in this regard. It seems many female migrants heading households do not meet these criteria, thus making renting the only choice available. Regardless of level of education, Van Donk (2004) argues that female-headed households are disproportionately poor, with African female-headed households representing the poorest of the whole women's group.

Surprisingly, the results indicate that female migrants who were not educated are owner-occupiers of fully paid off housing units. Indeed, there are several possible explanations of this surprising result. With South African government's goal for its citizens and permanent

residence for everyone to have the right to access adequate housing, there should be no doubt that those female migrants with no schooling are supported by numerous government policies on housing, including RDP (Lekoa, 2011)

#### **4.7.5 Housing tenure and employment status by households headship and area of residence**

In this section, the comparison between housing tenure and employment status was performed across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. The results indicate that the proportion of employed female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas are mostly lodged in owned but not yet paid up dwellings (36.7%). Conversely, when looking at non-metropolitan municipality areas, it is clear that a high proportion of female migrants are living in owned and fully paid off dwellings (35.7%).

By looking at unemployed female migrants living in metropolitan areas, the study found that majority are living in rented dwellings (33.8%), while in non-metropolitan municipality areas majority lives in owned and fully paid off dwellings (43.5%). With regards to those who are not economically active female migrants, it is obvious that a high proportion is living in rented dwellings (32.5%), while in non-metropolitan municipalities areas majority are accommodated by people with full housing ownership (48.4%). These results indicate the fact that, indeed, housing acquisition is very competitive in large cities than it is in smaller towns or cities of South Africa.

With regards to employed female migrants heading households, there is a tendency to equate the growth in female headed households with the growth in poor or disadvantaged groups. As Masika et al (1997) notes, female household headship may have other positive aspects. Mbonile and Lihawa (1996); Masika et al, (1997) stressed the fact that female headed households are likely to be less constrained by patriarchal authority at the domestic level as a female head may experience greater self-esteem, more personal freedom, and more flexibility to take paid work, enhanced control over finance (Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996; Masika et al, 1997). However, while female headed households may be better off in some ways, they may still face other challenges, such as discrimination from men. They may even face greater difficulties in having access to housing and other basic services as additional layers of discrimination against a female head of a household. For example, single parent households,

most of which are female headed households may face the difficulties of one adult having to combine income earning with household management and child rearing. All this generally means that the parent can only take jobs which are more or less like a part-time job, or informal job with low earnings (Masika et al, 1997), which in turn can have an impact on the housing tenure they may have.

Since female migrants heading households are more likely to take on part-time jobs and informal jobs with low earnings, it is assumed that this will affect the nature of housing tenure they live in. According to the analysis carried out between housing tenure and employment status of female migrant heading households, results reveal that there are some similarities of type of housing tenure across municipalities. The data shows that in metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas, the renting method is predominant among female migrants heading households (43.5% and 39.9% respectively).

Furthermore, unemployed female migrants heading households differed in terms of housing access in municipality areas. The findings reveal that renting is predominant in metropolitan areas (35.8%), while housing ownership is predominant in non-metropolitan areas (46.5%). Hence, for those who are not economically active female migrants heading households, renting is the most commonly used method to access housing in metropolitan areas (44.1%) compared to non-metropolitan municipality areas (48.6%) where fully paid housing ownership is predominantly used.

The explanation of the reason why female migrants tend to live in rented dwellings in metropolitan areas than in non-metropolitan areas might be the high housing cost due to high demand. Jobs for the poor are insecure and unpredictable in metropolitan areas. Contrary to this, the analysis further indicates that majority of female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas are mainly owner-occupiers. A suggestion might be that low cost subsidy housing is a major element of human settlements which was established by the government as a solution to the problem of housing backlogs affecting mostly Black South Africans (Stats South Africa, 2008).

#### **4.7.6 Housing tenure and age group by household headship and area of residence**

Researchers and scholars observe that age is an important demographic factor which determines living conditions (Okuma, 2011). In order to understand how age group

determines housing tenure for female migrants heading households across areas, a comparison between metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas was performed. According to the results derived from the 2007 Community Survey data, this study found that housing tenure of female migrants also differs according to age. This means that housing tenure changes gradually over time and as one gets older. The study reveals that young adult female migrants (15-44 years old) are more likely to be tenants, regardless of the areas of residence they live. This seems to be the case because they are not expected to have housing ownership especially in large cities as it is too costly and very competitive, especially for graduates just starting their careers.

The study further found that female migrants are more likely to live in owned houses as they gradually get older (from 45 years old and above). Young female migrants normally live at first in rented dwellings, but as they grow older and their life-cycle changes, they find themselves in obligation to own a house. This supports the argument by scholars that an increase in age of female migrants also increases their potential to own a house somewhere across areas of residence (Yu and Moses, 2009).

#### **4.7.7 Housing tenure and income by household headship and areas of residence**

According to the New Housing Policy and Strategy (1994), there is a high unemployment especially in the formal sector of economy of South Africa. The high level of unemployment, together with a decreasing level of per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP), has negatively impacted on the demand for investment in housing as government resource ability to assist the poor and the unemployed continues to diminish because of fiscal pressure. Thus, this has constrained the poor and female migrants in South Africa to afford their own houses (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

The main objective of South Africa's housing policy is to deliver housing finance for low-income earners as much as is possible. In 1997, it was estimated that 2.2 million families in South Africa failed to access adequate housing (Pillay et al, 2002). It was further predicted that this figure would increase by 204 000 every year because of population growth rate, limiting any effective intervention by government and non-governmental organisations (National Housing Code, 2009). Research by the National Housing Department also concluded that due to observed high levels of unemployment and relatively insufficient wage

levels for majority of the people in South Africa, it is therefore unfeasible for most people to provide for their own housing needs. The 1996 census revealed that monthly incomes of almost of 80% of all families in South Africa had an income of R3500 or less. Also, more than 50.0% had monthly incomes of R1500 or less (National Housing Code, 2009). These do not seem to be figures that can help ordinary people to buy or build their own houses easily.

Therefore, in order for the study to understand how the South African economic conditions, particularly income earning, influences the housing tenure of female migrants, and a comparison between areas of residence and income was highlighted in the lens of household headship. In this vein, the data shows that in metropolitan areas, a high proportion of female migrants not heading households in the low income bracket are mostly accommodated in rented dwellings (33.4%). In general, it seems that female migrants not heading households with medium income are mainly accommodated with people who live in owned but not fully paid up dwellings right across areas of residence (48.4% for metropolitan, while 32.5% for non-metropolitan). Results suggest that female migrants not heading households with high income who are living in metropolitan areas are mostly living in owned but not yet paid off dwellings (59.6%), while in non-metropolitan areas, majority are found in owned and fully paid off dwellings (42.4%). These results suggest that, indeed, there is a lot of housing competition for female migrants, particularly in major cities when compared to non-metropolitan (medium and small-sized cities), where housing accessibility of female migrants is a bit flexible.

With regards to female migrants heading households, the data suggests that those with low incomes, including the ones with no income at all who were found in metropolitan areas, are mostly living in rented dwellings (39.1%), while those who are living in non-metropolitan areas are mainly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings (41.4%). These results are surprising but, this is the case because these women migrants are accommodated with other people (parents, friends and other relatives) who can afford to own their own houses. However, the data further reveals that female migrants with medium income are tenants across both areas of residence (51% and 55.9% respectively), suggesting that their income cannot secure them houses of their own.

As for female migrants heading households with high income living in metropolitan areas, majority live in owned but not fully paid off dwellings (47.8%), those living in non-metropolitan areas are mainly tenants (43.4%). It can be suggested that female migrants

living in metropolitan areas take long to own their own houses due to the high cost of living for them and the high demand for own accommodation makes housing inaccessible.

#### **4.7.8. Housing tenure and duration of residence by household headship and area of residence**

Another approach to the assessment of migration is made possible by including in the census and survey, a question regarding the duration of residence (United Nations, 1970). In line with housing tenure and duration of residence, the quality of accommodation tends to improve with the length of time that one stays in the same area of residence. Newly arrived migrants often find it problematic with regard to living conditions. They mainly opt for sharing accommodation before they find their own (Pillinger and Kennedy, 2009; Wilkins, 2010; McMullen, 2011). Hence, as far as this study is concerned, duration of residence is assumed to be one of the determinants of housing tenure according to household headship and area of residence.

With respect to the results provided by the study, which compares housing tenure status and duration of residence, results suggest that female migrants not heading household living in metropolitan areas, have a high proportion of them living in rented dwellings from first year to third year of residence (43.5%, 42.4%, 32.2%), while those living in non-metropolitan areas are mainly accommodated in owned but not fully paid up yet dwellings during this period, except that during the seventh year of residence, female migrants are likely to be sheltered in owned and fully paid houses (36.5%). Moreover, the results reveal that during the period of 4<sup>th</sup> year and 6<sup>th</sup> year of stay in metropolitan areas, the majority of female migrants not heading households lives in owned but not yet paid off dwellings (4<sup>th</sup> year: 27.3%; 5<sup>th</sup> year: 29.6%, and 6<sup>th</sup> year: 31.4%). Looking at female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas, the findings show that housing ownership is dominant compared to the rest of the methods of tenure.

With regards to female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas, it was observed that from the first year to the fifth year of residence, renting is prevalent (1<sup>st</sup> year: 66.4%; 2<sup>nd</sup>: 55.5%; 3<sup>rd</sup>: 38.9%; 4<sup>th</sup>: 31.8%; 5<sup>th</sup>: 28.9%). Thereafter, during the 6<sup>th</sup> year, a high proportion of female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas lives in occupied rent-free dwellings, while in the 7<sup>th</sup> year, majority lives in owned but not yet fully

paid up houses (29.3%). Similarly, in non-metropolitan areas, it is clear that from 1<sup>st</sup> to the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of residence, majority of female migrants are tenants, but from the 4<sup>th</sup> year to the 7<sup>th</sup> year of residence, majority are concentrated in the owned and fully paid up houses group.

#### **4.8.9. Housing tenure and housing type by household headship and area of residence**

One debate that has raged on is whether it should be better for a city to look uniform by firstly eradicating all informal settlements in the metropolitan areas by 2014. However, officials from the Ministry of Housing and Human Settlement advocates for the settlements to remain as the formalization of urban areas can increase the cost of migration to cities which would negatively affect particularly the poor, in that they would not be able to move away from the poverty trappings of the apartheid era policies that created for them reserve homelands (Bank and Kamman, 2010).

It is suggested by this study, however, that informal settlements are very crucial for the poor, including female migrants who continue to struggle to establish their own houses in the cities. Prevailing conditions does not make it any easier for the ordinary person to acquire his or her own house in the bigger cities. Moreover, informal settlements play a crucial role in overall process of urbanization in a society. This is why the Minister of Housing and Human Settlement suggested that there be tolerance of those informal settlements by the city planners (Bank and Kamman, 2010).

With respect to the above argument, the analysis in this section highlights the housing tenure patterns for female migrants according to housing structure types controlled by household headship and areas of residence. The main emphasis is to highlight the differences and the similarities between metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas in this regard.

Looking at female migrants not heading household living in standalone dwellings, findings suggest that majority live with people who own their own dwellings but not yet fully paid up in metropolitan areas (37.8%), while in non-metropolitan municipalities areas, female migrants live in standalone dwellings which were mostly owned and fully paid off (47%).

Concerning flats or block of flats as dwellings, results suggest that a high proportion of the people accommodating female migrants not heading households live in flats or block of flats that they are renting in both areas of residence with 64.4% in metropolitan areas, 66.9% in

non-metropolitan areas. Regarding floating dwellings, it was observed that majority are lodged with people living for free of charge in metropolitan municipality areas (38.9%), while in non-metropolitan areas majority of them are lodged in owned and fully paid off dwellings (34.9%).

Looking at the findings of this study where housing structure types for female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas, results show that among those who are living in standalone dwelling types are people who have their housing ownership fully paid off (31.8%), while 45.3% in non-metropolitan areas. However, occupied rent-free housing tenure is the least option in metropolitan areas (18%), while owned but not yet fully paid off method of tenure is the least option in non-metropolitan areas (8.1%).

The housing tenure patterns of female migrants heading households living in flats or block of flats suggest a very high proportion of people lives in rented dwellings across areas; 69.7% in metropolitan areas, 70.8% in non-metropolitan areas. Further research is required to ascertain the possibility of flats or block of flats being the most rented forms of accommodation in non-metropolitan areas. It would have been expected to see a high proportion of female migrants renting flats in major cities, but not in non-metropolitan municipality areas. Possibly, this has something to do with increased sense of personal security in these areas than normal houses.

Concerning floating dwellings, results indicate that female migrants heading household are mostly renting these accommodation in metropolitan areas (41.2%) and in non-metropolitan areas (38.6%). The results also show that very few female migrants heading households owned houses through mortgages, indicating that this important tool for housing accessibility is not yet made available to this group of people.

#### **4.7.10. Housing tenure and province of birth by household headship and areas of residence**

In the study of migration in general, and of female migration in particular, life-time migration variable is a very good indicator to identify a person's area of residence at the time of census or survey, which differs from his/her area of birth (United Nations, 1970). As elaborated in chapter four, the methodology section of this study, a place of birth can be a village, town, major cities or probably a larger unit like a state, province or governorate. Moreover, the birth



place definition of migrants assumes a single movement directly from the area of birth to the area of enumeration (United Nations, 1970).

In the context of this study, emphasis has been on the province of birth. Therefore, this section looks at the province where female migrants were born in relation to the area of enumeration, whether metropolitan or non-metropolitan municipality areas. Hence, the areas of destination selected in terms of metropolitan, and non-metropolitan areas were compared together according to the methods of housing tenure.

Thus, with respect to female migrants not heading households who were born in the Western Cape and whose current residence was metropolitan, results reveal majority are living with other people who might be friends or relatives who own houses not fully paid off (41.6%). More so, for female migrants whose current destination of residence is non-metropolitan municipality area, a high proportion was accommodated in owned and fully paid off dwellings (38.9% and 30.9% respectively).

For those reportedly born in the Eastern Cape but are currently living in metropolitan or non-metropolitan areas, the findings indicate that majority lives in owned and fully paid off dwellings (34% and 41.2% respectively). For female migrants who reported they were born in the Northern Cape, Free State, Kwazulu-Natal and North West but currently living in metropolitan areas, majority of them are mostly lodged in rented dwellings, while those in non-metropolitan areas are mostly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings. For those who were born in Gauteng residing in metropolitan areas, majority of them lives in owned but not yet paid up dwellings (35.8%), while in non-metropolitan areas they lived mainly as tenants (32.7%). Nevertheless, for female migrants born in Mpumalanga, Limpopo and outside South Africa and residing in metropolitan areas, the findings reveal majority of them lives in rented dwellings (34.6%, 34.6%, and 52.8% respectively), while those residing in non-metropolitan areas are mostly found in owned and fully paid off dwellings. Also, those who reported that they were born outside the Republic of South Africa live in rented dwellings.

With respect to female migrants heading households who were born in the Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Free State, Kwazulu-Natal, North West, Gauteng, Mpumalanga and Limpopo who reside in metropolitan areas, results show a high proportion of them live in rented dwellings due to high urbanisation in those areas (Kok and Collinson,

2006). Concerning female migrants heading households born in Western Cape but residing in non-metropolitan municipality areas, the findings show majority live in rented dwellings (44.2% and 45.5% respectively). For those born in the Eastern Cape but are residing in non-metropolitan areas, results show they are prevalently living in rented dwellings (34.5% and 39% respectively). Those born in the Northern Cape and are residing in non-metropolitan areas are mainly living in rented dwellings (39%).

Moreover, female migrants heading households who reported they were born in Gauteng but are now residing in non-metropolitan municipal areas at the time of the survey, majorly live as tenants (46.1%). By considering female migrants born in Mpumalanga and Limpopo Provinces who are residing in non-metropolitan areas at the time of enumeration, the study found that majority of them are living in owned and fully paid off dwellings. However, for those who were born outside RSA, majority of them live in rented dwellings (52.8%, 42.2% respectively) across the two areas of residence.

#### **4.7.11. Housing tenure and province of previous residence by household headship and areas of residence**

Fixed period migration information was obtained by the following research question, *'Where were you living before October 2001?'* According to the United Nation's method of measuring internal migration, this remains the best single item on population mobility because it counts the migrants over a definite period of time (United Nation, 1970). Hence, housing tenure status, coupled with the province of previous residence, provided the patterns of the migration, indicating whether it is for female migrants heading or not heading households across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas.

Therefore, female migrants not heading households who reported that they were living in the Western Cape before October 2001 and were residing in metropolitan areas during the time of enumeration, are mostly accommodated in owned but not yet paid off dwellings (33.1%), while in non-metropolitan areas majority mostly lodge in owned and fully paid dwellings (39.4%). Those who were reported to have previously lived in the Eastern Cape before October 2001 and are residing in metropolitan or non-metropolitan areas during the time of enumeration, showed a high proportion of them lives in owned and fully paid off dwellings (38% and 42.3% respectively).

Female migrants not heading households who came from the Northern Cape but residing in metropolitan areas are mostly living in rented dwellings (36.1%), while in non-metropolitan municipality areas, majority are lodging in owned and fully paid off dwellings (36.6% and 34.2% respectively). More so, the study revealed female migrants not heading households who were previously living in the Free State and Kwazulu-Natal, but were living in metropolitan areas during the time of enumeration had a high percentage living in rented dwellings (32.% and 31.5% respectively). The reason is a high density in the areas resulting to high urbanisation (Kok, and Collinson, 2006). Looking at non-metropolitan areas, however, the data shows majority are mainly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings (34.6% for Free State and 48.2% for Kwazulu-Natal).

More so, results indicate that for female migrants who were previously living in the North West but are currently living in metropolitan or non-metropolitan areas, majority are now living in owned and fully paid off dwellings (30.8%, 42.1% respectively). Furthermore, among those who reported they were previously living in Gauteng, but were residing in metropolitan areas during the enumeration period, they now prevalently live in owned but not yet fully paid dwellings (30.8%), while those of them residing in non-metropolitan areas, are now prevalently living in owned and fully paid off dwellings (33.5%).

Among female migrants who came from Mpumalanga and Limpopo, but are currently living in metropolitan areas, majority are lodged as tenants (37.9% and 37.4% respectively), while in non-metropolitan areas, majority are lodging with owner-occupiers whose houses are fully paid up. It was also observed that female migrants who are not heading households who came from outside RSA but are now residing in metropolitan or non-metropolitan municipal areas, a high proportion being accommodated as tenants (54.3%; 40.9% respectively).

With respect to female migrants heading households, it is very clear that among female migrants heading households now living in metropolitan areas, besides those who were previously living in the Eastern Cape Province, majority of those previously living in other provinces are living as tenants in rented accommodation. Those who were previously living in the Eastern Cape but currently living in metropolitan areas are mainly staying in owned and fully paid off dwellings (37.2%). Looking at non-metropolitan areas, it can be observed that except those who came from the Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Free States, Gauteng and those from outside RSA, majority live in rented dwellings, female

migrants heading households from the rest of the provinces but are currently living in non-metropolitan areas are owners of their houses.

#### **4.7.12. Housing tenure and occupation by household headship and areas of residence**

Poverty in South Africa is stratified along gender lines (Combrinck and Chenui, 2007) and this has resulted in a higher unemployment rate for women. It is further argued that the generality of women, particularly Black, typically have lower levels of income and less job security than men. For an example, in 2005, most women were engaged in poorly paid domestic work and micro-enterprises that do not provide them with job security and benefits (Combrinck and Chenui, 2007). A similar argument by Mbonile and Lihawa (1996) is that many females who move from the rural areas to the cities in developing countries are often at the bottom of the socio-economic scale because they are landless and without any marketable skills, so that in one way or another, they form some kind of internal refugees who are seeking a way to escape from rural poverty. Thus, being unskilled or having little skills constrains them from accessing scarce resources, including housing. Understandably, this is the same for South African female migrants.

With respect to the purpose of the analysis in this section, it is worthy to explore housing tenure patterns and occupational status of female migrants by controlling household headship and drawing a comparison between metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. According to results provided comparing the two areas, it can be noted that female migrants not heading households in high occupational positions in metropolitan areas are mostly living in owned but not yet paid off dwellings, while those with low occupational positions, including those with merely elementary work are mainly living as tenants. This is an interesting finding because normally people see high occupational positions as synonymous with earning a good salary, which in turn allows them to have good access to housing ownership, something that is very difficult for those in low positions. This is the reason why, female migrants with low skills are found living in rented dwellings or in accommodation that is provided by the employers, such as government hostels or houses. In addition, this situation also indicates how, indeed, housing accessibility has become a very scarce resource in major cities.

In non-metropolitan areas, however, there are slight variations in relation to non-metropolitan areas. The data indicates, for example that female migrants who are living in non-metropolitan areas are mainly accommodated in rented dwellings (36.0%). More so, professional female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas mainly lodge in owned but not fully paid up dwellings (33.4%). With regards to technicians and associate professional female migrants not heading households and living in non-metropolitan areas, the findings reveal that the proportion of those living in owned but not yet paid up houses was slightly higher (34.1%).

Similarly, looking at female migrants working as clerks living in non-metropolitan areas, majority of them live in rented dwellings (39.3%),

For those female migrants engaged as service workers and those in elementary work living in non-metropolitan areas, most of them are predominantly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings. Actually, it was surprising to see female migrants in low positions owning their dwellings. However, since female migrants mostly residing in non-metropolitan areas have a high possibility of having housing ownership stemmed from cheap land price, self-help housing, RDP housing, female migrants living in metropolitan areas it is another case. The housing competition is very high in metropolitan areas in relation to non-metropolitan

These results support what the South African Government White Paper intended to do in its published document in December 1994, which contains the fundamental principles of government housing policy in achieving the housing vision. It stated that “*everyone has the right to have access to adequate housing*”. In addition, it also suggested that the state should take reasonable legislative and other measures within its powers to achieve the progressive idea of realization of this housing right (Department of Housing and Human Settlements, 2009). As earlier mentioned in this chapter on government policy since 1994, there has been numerous policies and statutory developments in South Africa, all meant to give effect to the new approach to housing. These include the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994, the Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Strategy of 1996, and the Housing Act No.107 of 1999). Furthermore, there are the two fundamental documents which give credence to the National Department’s mandate: the New Housing Policy and Strategy for South Africa White Paper, 1994 and the Comprehensive Plan for the Development of Sustainable Human Settlements of 2004, which is also called “*Breaking New Ground*”.

When the comparison is made of female migrants heading households throughout all occupations, female migrants in metropolitan areas regardless of whatever occupational positions are mostly living in rented dwellings, except those in elementary work where the majority of them were found to be living in occupied but rent-free dwellings (38.8%). Also, looking at female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas, most of them are also living in rented dwellings, except for those with skills in agriculture and fishery and those in elementary occupations who are mostly living in occupied but rent-free dwellings (40.8% and 38.5% respectively).

#### **4.7.13. Housing tenure and household size by household headship and area of residence**

There is extensive debate in the literature on whether new households can be formed either when children move out of their parents' home, when couples separate or when unrelated individuals choose to live singly after previously sharing a residence. This household dynamics do not only impact on the housing tenure of those who choose to form a new household, but also those who loose household members. In order to understand how household size is related to housing tenure status according to areas of residence, a comparison between areas of residence among female migrants was performed. The survey results show that female migrants not heading households with one to four members living in metropolitan areas are mostly lodged in rented dwellings (36.5%), while in non-metropolitan areas majority live in owned and fully paid up dwellings (34.9%). Looking at female migrants not heading households whose household members range from five members or more, the findings indicated that majority of them are mostly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.

With regards to female migrants heading households, the study found that female migrants whose household members range between one and four members are prevalently living in rented dwellings. More so, female migrants heading households whose household members ranges from five members or more are mainly living in owned and fully paid off dwellings throughout all the areas of residence. Hence, it can be concluded that female migrants with small households tend to be tenants while those who have large households tend to live in owned and fully paid up houses. This is an indication of an existence of relationship between housing tenure status and household size.

## 4.9 Conclusion

The objective of this chapter was to highlight major patterns of housing tenure status in line with female migrants' characteristics by taking into account household headship and areas of residence. The study has drawn comparisons between housing tenure status and female migrants' attributes by way of considering whether female migrants are heading households or they are accommodated by other people. This was performed by comparing metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. With reference to the results from cross-tabulation, the overall picture is that emerges supports the literature. For example, there is a clear evidence of an increasing one-way migration flow by female migrants into the major cities of South Africa. There is also an indication that urban transition, particularly metropolitan, is gaining momentum due to this increasing migration stream. This argument is supported by recent studies reflecting on Gauteng Provincial Housing Survey, which indicated that cities in Gauteng are growing very rapidly because of the sustained influx of new immigrants (4.8% per annum). Those migrants include women of various ages, educational background and different marital status.

According to the survey results, the overall picture is that housing competition is very high in metropolitan areas where female migrants are more likely to live in rented dwellings, while in non-metropolitan areas they tend to live in owned and fully paid off dwellings. This indicates that metropolitan areas are at the receiving ends of female migration, which in turn affects housing provision. In general, the survey results indicate that housing acquisition is very competitive in metropolitan areas. In this chapter, all research questions were answered and all hypotheses formulated in this regard were tested and have been supported by the findings. For example, findings revealed that with reference to household size, female migrants with small household size are more likely to live in rented dwellings in metropolitan areas, while in non-metropolitan municipality areas they tend to live in owned and fully paid off dwellings. These results confirm that housing tenure of female migrants differs according to household size, by household headship and areas of residence.

Furthermore, the results also indicated that housing tenure of female migrants differs according to population group across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. The study found that Black female migrants are more likely to stay in rented dwellings in metropolitan areas, while those who live in in non-metropolitan municipality areas tend to

stay in owned and fully paid off housing units. With regards to life-time and fixed-term migration, housing tenure status varies among different categories of female migrants right across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. Therefore, the challenge of migration and urbanization should remain on the developmental agenda, and female migration policy framework should be seen as a tool for strategic development rather than being viewed as a negative issue that needs to be reversed. People generally, and female migrants in particular, need essential services like housing to enable them to lead a normal life (United Nations, 2011).







UNIVERSITY *of the*  
WESTERN CAPE

## **CHAPTER 5: LOGISTIC REGRESSION ANALYSIS**

After describing the association between female migrants' attributes and housing tenure status and thereafter, highlighting the differences and similarities of housing tenure status among areas of residence in line with female migrants' characteristics, it was necessary to identify factors determining housing tenure status of female migrants across areas of residence.

### **5.1 Determinants of housing tenure among female migrants**

In order to attain the study objective, logistic regression was used to assess factors determining female migrants' ability to access housing and the extent to which these factors contribute to the housing tenure in metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas by considering whether female migrants were heading households or not. Finally, this section investigates the category and the area of residence in which female migrants are really struggling to access housing. In this study, female migrants heading households, here-after called FM HOH and female migrants not heading households, here-after called FM NOT HOH, are closely analysed.

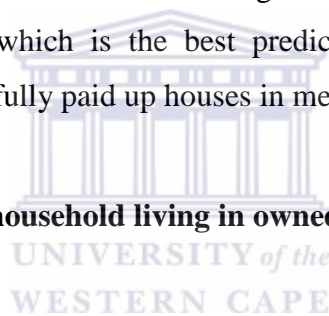
In considering the two areas of residence, the independent variables examined were population group, age and household size, housing structure type, level of education, marital status, occupation, province of previous residence, and province of birth, income category, work status and duration of residence. Thereafter, for each independent variable which was statistically significant, the odds ratios were considered since it gives the probability of living in owned and fully paid up, owned but not yet fully paid up, rented and occupied rent-free dwelling types of accommodation. This was controlled by household headship and area of residence factors.

Logistic regression analysis was performed firstly; by dichotomising dependent variables such as "owned and fully paid", for an example, and selecting female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas as level I, and in non-metropolitan areas as level II. For female migrants not heading households, the same was performed within metropolitan areas as level I and non-metropolitan areas as level II. For the rest of the dependent variables such as "owned but not yet paid", "renting" and "occupied rent-free", the same procedure was

used for female migrants heading households and those not heading households across both areas of residence. Chapter 4 of this thesis shows results from data analysis such as univariate, cross-tabulation, Pearson chi-square and Fisher's exact test, which all indicated the association between housing tenure patterns and female migrants' characteristics according to household headship and areas of residence. With logistic regression analysis, however, the importance of the independent variables in terms of their effect on the dependent variables' odds was studied.

In metropolitan areas, factors contributing towards full housing ownership for female migrants heading households were assessed. On level I, which is for the metropolitan areas, the objective was to understand how the independent variables increase the chances for female migrants heading households to live in a fully owned and paid up housing accommodation. For an example, population group was used in order to try and understand the extent to which it facilitates or constraints housing tenure. By looking at each variable in the equation, the sub-category which is the best predictor for female migrants heading households to stay in owned and fully paid up houses in metropolitan areas is identified.

### **5.1.1 Female migrants head of household living in owned and fully paid up housing accommodation**



#### **5.1.1.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas**

Table 5.1 reveal that an omnibus test of model coefficients was significant with  $p=0.00<0.05$  and,  $-2 \log$  likelihood showed that the data fits the model. The data further shows that an increment in age by one year results in an increase of the potential to own a fully paid up house by a factor of 1.015. Hence, these results indicate that in metropolitan areas, the likelihood of owning a fully paid up house is influenced by the age of the female migrants. Therefore, it is worth noting that the older the female migrant, the more chances she has of having fully paid housing unit.

Looking at housing structure type variable, the findings indicate that standalone housing type increases the chances of one having a fully owned housing unit in metropolitan areas, while a floating dwelling unit was a reference category. Results reveal that standalone housing units increase the chances of having full housing ownership among female migrants heading households by 2.943 times higher than of floating dwelling units in metropolitan areas. The

reason for this according to the 2008 report from the 2007 Community Survey is that the proportion of standalone housing had increased, such that buying a standalone housing unit was cheaper and more convenient than buying flats. Actually, many people prefer to buy free standing housing units than flats or floating dwelling units, especially when they have big families.

This study also shows that being low-income female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas can increase the chances of living in owned and fully paid up dwelling units by 1.751 times than having high income. The reason is that, for female migrants heading households living in major cities, there are many housing initiatives which encourage them to have access to housing ownership as the South African government strives to empower poor women through provision of housing ownership (Charlton, 2004). The findings from this study also shows that being employer female migrants does not necessarily entitle them to full housing ownership rather, it contributes to fewer chances due to vulnerability among female migrants heading households living in major cities.

Another variable which was significant on level I is the duration of residence. The study hypothesized that “the longer one stayed in a place, the higher the chances of eventually having full housing ownership”. Results from this study shows that female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas that have stayed long in those areas, have higher chances of living in fully owned housing units. This is an indication that staying longer in the area of residence gives female migrants an opportunity to establish good relationships with people in the neighbourhood, which could also result in the establishment of a possibility of influencing events that leads to fully owning a housing unit.

#### **5.1.1.2 Level II: non-metropolitan areas**

Looking at level II in Table 5.1, the output shows that omnibus test of model coefficients was significant at  $p=0.000<0.05$  and, model summary indicated -2 log likelihood, while Hosmer and Lemeshow test reveals that  $p=0.395>0.05$ . The results reveal that in non-metropolitan areas, many factors contribute towards full housing ownership among female migrants heading households as compared to metropolitan areas. Age is one of the factors which play a crucial role in owning a fully paid up house. It is indicated by the results that an increase of one year in age increases the chances of owning a fully paid up dwelling unit by

1.016 times. Therefore, age of female migrants is an important feature which influences full housing ownership.

Another variable which has a positive impact on full housing ownership among female migrants heading household living in non-metropolitan areas is household size. The results reveal that household size of female migrants heading household increases the chance of having owned and fully paid up dwelling unit by 1.276 times. This means that as the household size increases, the probability for female migrants heading households to access on full housing ownership also increases. This finding is relevant because large household sizes are often found in medium and small-sized towns where many people are found in owned and fully paid up dwelling units (Groenmeyer, 2010).

From the study results, housing structure type is another factor which influences the likelihood of having full housing ownership in non-metropolitan areas. It clearly indicates that standalone housing units increase the chances of having full housing ownership by 2.019 times than staying in floating dwelling units. The reason might be that standalone housing units are much more accessible, affordable, preferable and convenient than floating dwelling units for female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas. However, work status decreases the chances of owning a house in non-metropolitan areas. Results from this study show that, using an unpaid family worker as a reference point, being paid employee, self-employed or employer female migrant heading household is less likely to make someone own a fully paid up dwelling unit by 3.7, 2.36 and 8.26 times respectively.

However, duration of residence was observed to be a contributing factor towards achieving full housing ownership in non-metropolitan areas. The findings show that an increase of one year of residence in an area increases the chances of having a fully owned house by 1.113 times. This implies that the longer the duration of stay in an area, the more the links with the people in the neighbourhood and local authorities, which increases the chances of having full housing ownership.

**Table 5.1: Female migrants heading households: Owned and fully paid up houses**

Variables	Metropolitan areas				Non-metropolitan			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Population group		2.289	0.515			2.019	0.568	
Black	-0.186	1.312	0.252	0.83	-0.11	0.335	0.563	0.896
Coloured	-0.307	1.752	0.186	0.735	-0.24	0.938	0.333	0.788
Indian/Asian	0.013	0.002	0.967	1.013	-1.3	1.248	0.264	0.273
White@								
Age	0.015	8.204	0.004	1.015	0.016	9.856	0.002	1.016
Household size	0.052	3.145	0.076	1.054	0.244	86.986	0	1.276
Marital status								
Married	0.17	1.986	0.159	1.185	-0.02	0.028	0.868	0.982
Not married@								
Housing type		84.534	0			51.065	0	
Standalone	1.079	65.543	0	2.943	0.703	35.185	0	2.019
Flat or block of flats	0.295	2.939	0.086	1.343	-0.24	1.155	0.283	0.785
Floating houses@								
Income		5.575	0.062			12.622	0.002	
Low income	0.56	3.273	0.07	1.751	0.643	1.448	0.229	1.901
Medium income	0.232	0.686	0.408	1.261	0.119	0.052	0.82	1.127
High income@								
Level of education		1.510	0.47			2.364	0.307	
Primary	0.142	0.532	0.466	1.152	0.143	0.856	0.355	1.154
Secondary	0.158	1.509	0.219	1.171	0.193	2.364	0.124	1.213
Degrees@								
Province of previous residence		3.825	0.148			0.124	0.94	
Urbanized	0.419	0.716	0.397	1.521	0.169	0.116	0.733	1.184
Not urbanized	0.654	1.642	0.2	1.924	0.174	0.123	0.726	1.19
Outside RSA@								
Province of birth		1.543	0.462			0.647	0.723	
Urbanized	0.317	1.488	0.223	1.374	0.299	0.647	0.421	1.349
Not urbanized	0.323	1.441	0.23	1.381	0.267	0.525	0.469	1.306
Outside RSA@								
Occupation		3.056	0.217			0.882	0.643	
Highly skilled	-0.233	2.123	0.145	0.792	-0.06	0.194	0.659	0.938
Moderately skilled	-0.23	2.560	0.11	0.795	-0.12	0.881	0.348	0.891
Low skilled@								
Work status		6.598	0.159			32.398	0	
Paid employee	-0.755	1.744	0.187	0.47	-1.31	16.745	0	0.27
Paid family worker	-0.448	0.492	0.483	0.639	-0.6	2.418	0.12	0.548
Self-employed	-0.493	0.702	0.402	0.611	-0.87	6.375	0.012	0.42
Employer	-1.52	3.171	0.075	0.219	-2.11	6.420	0.011	0.121
Unpaid family worker								
Duration of residence	0.117	12.098	0.001	1.124	0.107	11.705	0.001	1.113
Constant	-3.463	16.433	0	0.031	-2.76	11.778	0.001	0.063

## **5.1.2 Female migrants not head of household living in owned and fully paid up housing accommodation**

### **5.1.2.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas**

The results provided by logistic regression concerning tenure status among female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas indicate a statistical significance with  $p=0.000<0.05$ , while model summary indicate -2 log likelihood, meaning that the model fits the data. Considering the individual variable in Table 5.2 on Level I (metropolitan areas), it is interesting to see that population group is a significant factor. It influences positively full housing ownership among female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas. The results shows that in Level I, for an example, being Black female migrants increases the chances of lodging with people who have a full housing ownership by 1.417 times more than being White female migrants. Age is also another contributing factor which plays an important role in being accommodated with people who have full housing ownership of their dwelling units among female migrants living in metropolitan areas. The logistic regression results clearly show that an increase of one year in age results in an increase of the odds of lodging with people who live in owned and fully paid up house by 1.009 times. Therefore, age is a very good predictor of housing tenure status among female migrants (Brokkerhoff and Eu, 1993).

Looking at the household size variable in Level I, results show that household size contributes to the increase in odds of being accommodated with people who own a fully paid up dwelling unit in metropolitan areas. In fact, an increase of one household member also increases the chances of the family being accommodated in owned and fully paid up dwelling unit by 1.085 times higher. Therefore, as the household becomes larger, this has an impact on the housing tenure status of female migrants, eventually resulting in full housing ownership of the dwelling unit. Marital status is another variable which was seen to be statistically significant on Level I. Results show that married female migrants are less likely to be lodging in fully owned housing units. It actually decreases the odds ratios by 1.31 times less than for female migrants who are not married. This might be true, in a way, that traditionally in African culture; full housing ownership for married female migrants may belong to their husbands. Therefore, being married decreases the chances of living in own fully paid up housing accommodation.

Housing structure type was seen to be also significant on Level I. The variable is significant to the extent that standalone dwelling type increases the likelihood of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up dwelling units by 1.687 times, much more than living in floating dwelling units, while living in flats or block of flats decreases the odds ratios by 1.41 times less than living in floating dwelling units. Educational attainment was another variable which was statistically significant on Level I. Table 5.2 shows that the level of education is a contributing factor towards lodging in owned and fully paid up dwelling units in metropolitan areas. In fact, it was shown that having secondary education increases the chances of lodging with other people by 1.250 times higher, than having a degree as an educational qualification. This, in a way, makes sense that those female migrants who are degree-holders, are normally expected to be able to live in their own housing units because they can afford.

Finally, another variable which was seen to positively influence the likelihood of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up dwelling units in Level I (metropolitan) is duration of residence. In fact, the length of residence in an area results in one knowing the neighbourhood well enough to get more information on the housing sector, and all requirements needed to be fulfilled to access housing ownership loans. This argument was supported by also by Taeuber (1961) who saw that duration of residence represents the length of time which influences access to resources. The implication of this finding is that an increase of one year of residence in an area increases the odds ratio of being accommodated in a fully owned house by 1.050 times.

#### **5.1.2.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas**

The main factors influencing full housing ownership among female migrants not heading households in non-metropolitan areas were assessed by means of logistic regression analysis, which shows that the model fits the data. The omnibus tests of model coefficients show that  $p=0.000<0.05$  and, the model summary provides -2 Log likelihood, while Hosmer and Lemeshow test was significant with  $p=0.587>0.05$ .

Assessing the contribution of independent variables on housing ownership in non-metropolitan areas as shown in Table 5.2, revealed some variables to be significant. Findings reveal that being a Black female migrant increase the odds of living in fully owned and paid up house by 1.957 times higher than being a white female migrant, while being coloured



increases the odds by 1.557 times higher than being of the White population. However, results show that being Indian or Asian decreases the chances of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up houses in non-metropolitan areas. This might be true, in the sense that, possibly, Indian or Asian people do not have strong co-ethnic network links in non-metropolitan areas.

Age was observed to be another influencing factor for female migrants living in owned and fully paid up house in non-metropolitan areas. The findings from this study reveal that an increase of one year also increases the chances of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up house by 1.018 times higher. In addition to this, household size was also found to be one of the determinants of being housed in owned and fully paid up dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas. This implies that a large household tends to stay in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. It is clear from the findings that an increase of one household member similarly increases the chances of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up dwelling units by 1.161 times. Hence, this supports the hypothesis that the larger the household, the more likelihood of staying in owned and fully paid up dwelling unit.

Being married decreases the chances of lodging in owned and fully paid off dwelling unit. This is explained by the fact that, though being a married female migrant does not entitle a wife to a housing ownership, a married female migrant is not expected to be accommodated by other people other than the husband, unless there are unique circumstances about it. This study shows that being a married female migrant not heading household decreases the chances of being accommodated in owned and fully paid off dwelling unit in non-metropolitan areas by 1.52 times than that of unmarried female migrants.

Another contributing factor towards lodging in owned and fully paid up house is the housing structure type. As earlier noted, standalone dwelling type units increase chances of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up house by 1.654 times higher than floating dwelling units, while the availability of flats or block of flats decreases chances of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up dwelling unit by 1.62 times less than the floating dwelling unit. It has actually been found to be flexible to accommodate somebody in a standalone dwelling unit where there is a bigger space and more privacy than in a flat where privacy and space are very limited.

The level of education for female migrants not heading households decreases the chances of being accommodated in owned and fully paid off dwelling unit in non-metropolitan areas. In this vein, having only primary school level of education decreases the odds of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up house by 1.35 times less than having higher educational qualifications like degrees. This means that most female migrants who hold these low educational qualifications are expected to be assisted by the government to have access to housing ownership. Work status was observed to decrease the likelihood of being accommodated in owned and fully paid up house. The data from the results show that, for an example, being employee female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas decreases the possibility of lodging in owned and fully paid up house by 2.11 times less than being an unpaid family worker.

Duration of residence was identified to be a contributing factor towards living in owned and fully paid up house in non-metropolitan areas among female migrants not heading households. Results suggest that the likelihood of owning a fully paid up house increases significantly with the duration of stay in an area by 1.104 times higher. This finding therefore agree with that of Constant and colleagues (2007) who suggest that a crucial determinant of immigrant house ownership is the duration of residence in the area of residence which increases the knowledge of the housing market situation.

**Table 5.2: Female migrants not heading households: Owned and fully paid up houses**

Variables	Metropolitan area				Non-metropolitan areas			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Population group		18.577	.000			45.370	.000	
Black/African	.349	12.506	.000	1.417	.671	35.873	.000	1.957
Coloured	-.072	.275	.600	.931	.443	9.501	.002	1.557
Indian/Asian	.061	.145	.704	1.062	-1.068	4.574	.032	.344
White@								
Age	.009	4.806	.028	1.009	.018	19.626	.000	1.018
Household size	.082	17.069	.000	1.085	.149	63.945	.000	1.161
Marital status								
Married	-.272	10.615	.001	.762	-.420	21.382	.000	.657
Not married@								
Housing type		81.475	.000			41.196	.000	
Standalone	.523	24.481	.000	1.687	.503	20.060	.000	1.654
Flats	-.343	6.432	.011	.709	-.483	4.730	.030	.617
Floating houses@								
Income		3.123	.210			.695	.707	
Low income	.090	.181	.671	1.095	-.224	.508	.476	.799
Medium income	-.078	.153	.695	.925	-.253	.672	.412	.776
High income@								
Level of education		6.567	.037			5.284	.071	
Primary	.209	1.656	.198	1.232	-.298	4.981	.026	.742
Secondary	.223	6.560	.010	1.250	-.080	.677	.411	.923
Degrees@								
Province of prev Res		10.453	.005			.972	.615	
Urbanized	-.059	.046	.830	.943	.242	.548	.459	1.274
Not urbanized	.267	.864	.353	1.306	.304	.853	.356	1.356
Outside RSA@								
Province of birth		3.177	.204			2.885	.236	
Urbanized	.255	2.207	.137	1.290	.244	.889	.346	1.277
Not urbanized	.147	.672	.412	1.159	.050	.037	.847	1.051
Outside RSA@								
Occupation		2.157	.340			2.233	.327	
Highly skilled	.123	1.237	.266	1.130	.068	.330	.566	1.070
Moderately skilled	-.008	.006	.939	.992	.144	2.195	.138	1.155
Lowly skilled@								
Work status		.768	.943			45.957	.000	
Paid employee	-.110	.041	0.840	0.896	-0.745	14.714	0.00	0.475
Paid family worker	-.072	.016	0.901	0.931	0.082	0.086	0.77	1.085
Self-employed	-.068	.015	0.903	0.934	-0.191	0.750	.386	0.826
Employer	.134	.046	0.830	1.144	-0.085	0.044	0.833	0.918
Unpaid family workers								
Duration of residence	0.049	4.407	0.036	1.050	.099	15.984	0.00	1.104
Constant	-2.658	16.103	.000	0.070	-2.252	19.894	0.00	.105

### **5.1.3 Female migrants head of household living in owned but not fully paid up housing units**

#### ***5.1.3.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas***

Table 5.3 highlights the variables which influence the likelihood of living in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units among female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas. The logistic regression analysis show that the Omnibus test model coefficient was significant with  $p=0.000<0.05$ , with a -2 Log likelihood, while Hosmer and Lemeshow test was also significant with  $p=0.570>0.05$ , which is an indication that the model used perfectly fits the data.

Age was seen as one of the variables which influence the likelihood of owning a house which is not fully paid up among female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas. The extent to which this variable contributes towards owning a house which is not fully paid up was seen as significant, such that an increase of one year in age results in an increment of odds ratios by 1.019 times. Therefore, age increases the chances of having housing ownership which is not completely paid among female migrants. Household size was also observed to be statistically significant as regards the likelihood of having owned but not yet fully paid up house among female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas. Results from this study confirm that an increase in one household member results in a similar increase of the possibility of having owned but not fully paid up house by 1.106 times.

Moreover, housing structure type was noted to influence the likelihood of having owned but not yet paid up dwelling unit in metropolitan areas. For an example, the availability of a standalone dwelling increases the chances of having owned but not yet fully paid up unit by 10.287 times higher than that of floating dwelling units. In same vein, the availability of flats or block of flats dwelling type was seen as significant as well, as it increased the chances of having owned but not yet fully paid up house by 3.804 times higher than floating dwelling units. Thus, it can be concluded that standalone dwelling type of accommodation plays a crucial role in accessing housing ownership to be paid up on a longer term.

Income was observed to result in decreasing chances of accessing a house which is owned but not yet fully paid up in metropolitan areas by female migrants heading households. The findings from this study show that having low income earnings and medium income earning

decreases the chances of having owned but not fully paid up dwelling units by 3.73 and 1.62 times respectively. This suggests that it will always be difficult for poor female migrants to have access to housing ownership in metropolitan areas if the government and NGOs do not take a lead in empowering poor women in the housing sector. More so, it was also noted that primary and secondary level of education do not really guarantee female migrants to have access to housing ownership which is not fully paid up yet. It rather decreases their chances by 2.36 and 1.69 times less than that of female migrants heading households who are degree holders living in metropolitan areas.

Occupation was seen to be an important feature in determining housing ownership which is not fully paid off. Results from this study clearly reveal that being highly skilled female migrants heading households living in major towns and cities boost chances of having owned but not fully paid up dwelling units by 1.674 times than being lowly skilled seeking housing ownership. Another important factor which plays a great role among female migrants heading households is duration of residence in an area. Indeed, duration of stay in an area is an important determinant for female migrants living in housing units which are not fully paid up yet in metropolitan areas, increasing by 1.178 times. In reality, the more time people spend living in an area of residence, the more knowledge they acquire of the happenings on the housing market, thereby increasing their chances of getting their own accommodation.

### ***5.1.3.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas***

With regards to Level II in Table 5.3, the intention of the study was to identify and describe the variables which determine the possibilities of staying in owned houses that are not fully paid off by female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas. The findings reveal that the data fits the model, since the omnibus test of model coefficients is significant with  $p=0.000<0.05$ , with a -2 Log likelihood of staying in owned but not fully paid up house, while Hosmer and Lemeshow test was also significant with  $p=0.136>0.05$ , which is a confirmation that the model perfectly fits the data.

Looking at the variables in Table 5.3 at the non-metropolitan level, it was observed that population group decreases the chances of owning a house which is not fully paid up among female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas. For example, Black female migrants heading households are less likely to live in owned dwelling units by 2.12 times less

than White female migrants heading households. This is an indication of the impact of the apartheid system of South Africa which mostly discriminated the majority of Black people, especially when it comes to access to resources like housing ownership resources (Rusk, 2006; Roux, 2009; Lekoa, 2011).

Interestingly, household size positively influences housing ownership by increasing the potential for female migrants in having access to owned but not fully paid up house in non-metropolitan areas. The findings from this study shows that an increase of one household member equally increases the chances of female migrants having access to owned but not yet fully paid up dwelling units by 1.094 times higher. More so, housing structure type has a strong impact in influencing the likelihood of having housing ownership which is not fully paid up. For example, standalone dwelling type increases the potential by 7.971 times than floating dwelling type, while flat or block of flats increases the chances by 3.751 times higher than floating dwelling type. Indeed, housing structure type is a factor which really helps female migrants heading households in having access to housing ownership in non-metropolitan areas.

With regards to income earnings, the findings from this study show that having low income earnings does not enhance female migrants' possibilities of staying in owned but not yet fully paid up houses. Rather, it decreases their chances by 4.50 times less than having a higher income earning. The reason might be that it is not easy for low income female migrants heading household in non-metropolitan areas to access housing ownership facilities because it is difficult for them to pay monthly instalments.

Duration of residence was identified to be an influential factor on housing ownership among female migrants in non-metropolitan areas. As earlier mentioned, the duration of stay in a residential place gives female migrants more network connections and special relationships with people in the neighbourhood who can facilitate provision of key information on housing ownership in the area of residence. Hence, it is clear that an increase of one year of residence in an area results in proportionate increases in the possibilities of accessing owned but not yet paid up dwelling units by a factor of 1.150.

**Table 5.3: Female migrants heading households: Owned but not fully paid up yet houses**

Variables	Metropolitan areas				Non-metropolitan areas			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Population group		3.869	0.276			11.925	0.008	
Black	-0.196	1.843	0.175	0.822	-0.753	11.876	0.001	0.471
Coloured	-0.36	2.667	0.102	0.698	-0.544	3.144	0.076	0.58
Indian/Asian	0.065	.063	0.802	1.067	-19.09	.000	0.999	0
White@								
Age	0.019	10.543	0.001	1.019	0.009	1.233	0.267	1.009
Household size	0.101	8.663	0.003	1.106	0.09	4.909	0.027	1.094
Marital status								
Married	0.001		0.994	1.001	0.281		0.086	1.325
Not married@		.000				2.956		
Housing structure		126.099	0			37.935	0	
Standalone	2.331	77.734	0	10.287	2.076	31.698	0	7.971
Flat or block of flats	1.336	22.866	0	3.804	1.322	8.941	0.003	3.751
Floating houses@								
Income		32.618	0			20.411	0	
Low income	-1.316	25.914	0	0.268	-1.504	9.246	0.002	0.222
Medium income	-0.485	5.335	0.021	0.616	-0.611	1.773	0.183	0.543
High income@								
Level of education		20.430	0			.573	0.751	
Primary	-0.86	9.841	0.002	0.423	0.061	.049	0.825	1.063
Secondary	-0.524	17.535	0	0.592	-0.097	.272	0.602	0.907
Degrees@								
Prov of prev resid		9.531	0.009			1.282	0.527	
Urbanized	0.548	1.914	0.167	1.73	0.3	.180	0.672	1.35
Not urbanized	0.05	.013	0.908	1.051	0.047	.004	0.948	1.048
Outside RSA@								
Province of birth		5.394	0.067			5.251	0.072	
Urbanized	0.076	.105	0.746	1.079	-0.473	.932	0.334	0.623
Not urbanized	-0.229	.818	0.366	0.796	0.07	.020	0.888	1.072
Outside RSA@								
Occupation		11.653	0.003			2.805	0.246	
Highly skilled	0.515	7.398	0.007	1.674	0.11	.206	0.65	1.116
Moderately skilled	0.099	.269	0.604	1.104	-0.242	1.047	0.306	0.785
Lowly skilled@								
Work status		8.008	0.091			3.774	0.437	
Paid employee	1.184	1.177	0.278	3.268	0.941	1.601	0.206	2.562
Paid family worker	1.804	2.352	0.125	6.075	0.591	.429	0.512	1.805
Self-employed	0.795	.517	0.472	2.214	0.526	.454	0.5	1.693
Employer	0.542	.199	0.656	1.72	0.956	.759	0.384	2.601
Unpaid family worker								
Duration of residence	0.163	19.352	0	1.178	0.139	8.096	0.004	1.15
Constant	-5.24	17.346	0	0.005	-4.413	12.081	0.001	0.012

#### **5.1.4 Female migrants not head of household living in owned but not fully paid up houses**

Despite the findings reflecting the factors contributing towards female migrants heading households and owning but not fully paid up houses across areas of residences, the factors contributing towards female migrants not heading households across all areas of residence were also identified. In this section, it is indeed important to highlight those female migrants not heading households' means those female migrants who were accommodated by other people who could be husbands, relatives (brothers, sisters, parents) or friends who migrated before them. These female migrants are accommodated by other people because, may be, they are still looking for jobs, and consequently, they do not have the means to pay for their own lodging place.

##### ***5.1.4.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas***

Firstly, the omnibus test of model coefficients was performed and it was found to be significant with  $p=0.000<0.05$ , with a -2 Log likelihood, while Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated no significance with  $p=0.11<0.05$ . However, as long as the omnibus test and the -2 Log likelihood analyses were significant, they were sufficient enough to confirm that the data fits the model.

Looking at each variable depicted in Table 5.4, the findings from this study reveal that many factors were influential towards housing ownership which is not fully paid off among female migrants who are accommodated by other people living in metropolitan areas. For an example, population group was significant with little impact on being lodged with people who live in owned but not fully paid up houses in metropolitan areas. Thus, being Black female migrants in metropolitan areas decreases the possibility of lodging in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units by 1.63 times than for White female migrants. The reason is possibly due to the sad history of apartheid era in South Africa, which affected Blacks the most hence, housing ownership opportunities to date, remains problematic in major cities and towns. Historically, apartheid policies prohibited the Black population to have access to housing ownership in cities and towns. One consequence of such social engineering policy was the creation of “forced impermanence in the urbanization process of the South African population, especially among the black population” (Williams et al, 2011).



Age is another significant variable. An increase of one year in age equally increases the likelihood of lodging in owned but not fully paid up house by 1.009 times. In other words, the age variable contributes positively towards being accommodated with people who are still paying for their housing bonds. Furthermore, household size is also seen as significant. Logistic regression analysis reveals that an increment in household size by one household member equally increases chances of being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up house by 1.069 times.

Housing structure type was identified as another important factor in accessing housing ownership for female migrants. It is clear that the availability of standalone dwelling units play an important role in enhancing the chances of lodging with people who live in owned but not fully paid up houses in metropolitan areas. This argument was confirmed by findings which indicate that standalone dwelling units and flats or block of flats housing types have a tendency to increase the odds ratios by 8.107 and 2.950 times higher than floating dwelling units respectively. Knowing that a high proportion of dwelling units are of standalone type and also, given the fact that majority of standalone dwelling units are owned, this could enhance the potential of female migrants being accommodated with people living in owned but not fully paid up houses in metropolitan areas.

However, amount of income earnings decreases chances of being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units in metropolitan areas. In fact, being a low and medium income earner for female migrants not heading households reduces the possibility of lodging with people who own a house which is not fully paid up by a factor of 2.29 and 1.48 times respectively than having a high income. This explains the fact that poor female migrants with no means at all to afford paying for their places are often lodged with people who do not own the housing accommodation they are living in.

Furthermore, it was also observed that level of education decreases the chances of female migrants being accommodated with people who own housing accommodation in metropolitan areas. Actually, according to the results of this study, female migrants with primary or secondary education in metropolitan areas are less likely to be accommodated in owned but not fully paid off dwelling units by 1.81 and 1.56 times respectively, than female migrants who have degrees as their educational qualifications. This is an indication that having high degrees is very important for female migrants to be accommodated with people who own dwelling units.

Province of previous residence plays a crucial role in housing accessibility for female migrants. It is indeed worthy to note that being female migrants not heading households coming from highly urbanized provinces increase the odds of being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units in metropolitan areas by 2.187 times than female migrants not heading households from outside South Africa. In addition, results further reveal that the province of birth is an important factor that contributes positively towards female migrants lodging in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units in metropolitan areas. Thus, it is confirmed in this study that being born in a highly urbanized province boosts the chances of female migrants being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up dwelling by 1.406 times than for those who are born outside South Africa. This implies clearly that being female migrants on a foreign land has great limitations in accessing housing resources.

Occupation was seen as a significant variable in this study, which could influence the potential for female migrants not heading households being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units in metropolitan areas. The survey results show that female migrants who are highly skilled increased their chances of being accommodated in owned but not fully paid off dwelling units by 1.367 times than those who are lowly skilled female migrants. This means that having high skills is a very crucial factor for female migrants to lodge with other skilled people who own but have not fully paid up their houses.

Another important factor relevant to this study is the duration of stay in the area of residence. An increase of one year of stay in a place of residence increases the chances for female migrants being accommodated with people who own but have not fully paid up their dwelling units by 1.147 times. This implies that duration of stay in an area of residence increases network connections for female migrants in the neighbourhood, resulting in the establishment of good relationships with people who can facilitate the provision of better housing in major cities and towns.

#### **5.1.4.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas**

When logistic regression was used to highlight factors playing a role in female migrants being accommodated with other people who own but have not fully paid up for their housing units in non-metropolitan areas, the omnibus test of model coefficients was statistically significant with  $p=0.000<0.0$ . In addition, the model summary reveals that the data fits the model with  $-2 \text{ Log likelihood}$ , while Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicates that  $p=0.605>0.05$ , which means that the data fits the model.

Looking at the variables which are significant at non-metropolitan level in Table 5.4, the study found out that population group decreases the chances for female migrants being accommodated in owned dwelling units. The results indicated that being Black or Coloured female migrants not heading households reduces the likelihood of being accommodated with people who own housing units but have not fully paid up yet by 2.07 and 2.43 times respectively than white female migrants not heading households. Results further reveal that household size is a contributing factor towards female migrants being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas. It was shown that as the household increases by one member, the odds of being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units also increases by 1.088 times.

In fact, dwelling type was also identified as a contributing factor towards being sheltered in own but not fully paid up dwelling units for female migrants not heading households in non-metropolitan areas. The availability of standalone housing type increases the chances of female migrants living in owned but not fully paid up type of housing accommodation by 4.703 times than with floating dwelling units. This is an indication that standalone dwelling units are a type of dwelling which help female migrants to have access to housing, especially in major cities and towns. In addition, low income earnings for female migrants not heading households decreases the odds of being accommodated in owned but not fully paid off dwelling units by 3.67 times than having a higher income. This means that low income female migrants not heading households in non-metropolitan areas are less likely to be accommodated by friends, relatives and other people who own but are not fully paid up housing units. Consequently, being low income female migrants increases vulnerability on the housing market.

Female migrants' not heading households in non-metropolitan areas with primary school level of education have fewer chances of being accommodated with people who own a house which is not fully paid up as they are 1.60 times less likely to be accommodated than female migrants who hold degrees. In fact, having a low level of education constraints people in general and female migrants in particular; in terms of ability to network with people who owned houses in non-metropolitan areas. Furthermore, the province of previous residence plays a crucial role for female migrants to be accommodated with people who own but are not fully paid up housing owners. Results show that coming from urbanized or not so urbanized province equally increases the chances of female migrants being accommodated with people who own but not fully paid up dwelling units by 3.747 and 3.975 times respectively than those female migrants who come from outside South Africa. The reality is that foreign female migrants from outside South Africa have less chances of lodging with people who own but are not fully paid up dwelling unit.

Occupation was observed and results showed that female migrants not heading households are likely to be accommodated by people who own but have not fully paid up housing units in non-metropolitan areas. It is actually shown that being highly skilled increases the odds for female migrants to be lodged in owned but not fully paid off dwelling units by 1.435 times than those female migrants who are lowly skilled. Therefore, it is important for female migrants to have some occupational skills in order to get a job and an opportunity to own a house. The duration of residence is also a very important tool since tenure status for female migrants can change positively over time. According to the findings, it is indeed worth stating that an increase of one year of stay in an area of residence equally increases the odds of being sheltered in owned but not fully paid off dwelling unit by 1.104 times. Therefore, the results support the hypothesis that the longer female migrants stay in a residential area, the more chances they have of living in owned but not fully paid off dwelling units.

**Table 5.4: Female migrants not heading households: Owned but not fully paid**

Variables	Metropolitan areas				Non-metropolitan areas			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp (B)
Population group		43.282	0			41.185	0	
Black	-0.488	32.664	0	0.614	-0.73	33.000	0	0.484
Coloured	0.061	.283	0.595	1.063	-0.89	23.191	0	0.412
Indian/Asian	-0.227	3.030	0.082	0.797	0.165	.198	0.656	1.18
White@								
Age	0.009	5.544	0.019	1.009	0.002	.198	0.656	1.002
Household size	0.067	11.531	0.001	1.069	0.085	11.290	0.001	1.088
Marital status								
Married	0.142	3.026	0.082	1.152	0.166	1.483	0.223	1.18
Not married@								
Housing type		311.563	0			53.266	0	
Standalone	2.093	191.784	0	8.107	1.548	29.896	0	4.703
Flat or flats	1.082	43.208	0	2.95	0.097	.059	0.808	1.102
Floating houses@								
Income		33.291	0			54.473	0	
Low income	-0.827	19.987	0	0.437	-1.19	13.995	0	0.306
Medium income	-0.39	5.186	0.023	0.677	-0.2	.456	0.5	0.815
High income@								
Level of education		37.291	0			5.143	0.076	
Primary	-0.593	11.311	0.001	0.553	-0.47	4.036	0.045	0.626
Secondary	-0.448	35.649	0	0.639	0.019	.026	0.871	1.019
Degrees@								
Prov of prev residence		16.072	0			5.971	0.051	
Urbanized	0.783	8.539	0.003	2.187	1.321	5.527	0.019	3.747
Not urbanized	0.488	2.972	0.085	1.629	1.38	5.969	0.015	3.975
Outside RSA@								
Prov of birth		5.692	0.058			.475	0.789	
Urbanised	0.34	5.448	0.02	1.406	-0.2	.467	0.494	0.816
Not urbanized	0.268	2.943	0.086	1.308	-0.19	.413	0.52	0.825
Outside RSA@								
Occupation		9.156	0.01			5.045	0.08	
Highly skilled	0.313	8.298	0.004	1.367	0.361	4.791	0.029	1.435
Moderately skilled	0.145	1.920	0.166	1.156	0.172	1.222	0.269	1.187
Lowly skilled@								
Work status		4.390	0.356			7.930	0.094	
Paid employee	0.256	.176	0.675	1.292	0.733	3.696	0.055	2.082
Paid family worker	0.697	1.170	0.279	2.008	0.818	2.718	0.099	2.266
Self-employed	0.212	.118	0.731	1.236	0.41	.996	0.318	1.507
Employer	0.198	.085	0.77	1.219	1.117	3.707	0.054	3.056
Unpaid family work								
Duration of residence	0.137	38.873	0	1.147	0.099	8.677	0.003	1.104
Constant	-3.669	25.624	0	0.026	-4.64	30.860	0	0.01

### 5.1.5 Female migrants head of household living in rented housing accommodation

#### *Level I: Metropolitan areas*

In this study, renting was found to be a dependent variable used to identify factors that are associated with this method of housing tenure. The omnibus test of model coefficients showed that the test was statistically significant with  $p=0.000<0.05$ , indicating -2 Log likelihood. Furthermore, Hosmer and Lemeshow test shows  $p=0.169>0.05$ , which confirms that the model fits perfectly the data.

Table 5.5 show variables that were statistically significant at the metropolitan level. Findings reveal that population group influences the likelihood of female migrants heading households living in rented dwelling units in metropolitan areas. For example, being Coloured female migrants heading households in major cities increases the potential to stay in rented dwelling units by 1.904 times as compared to White female migrants heading households. However, age was observed to be a factor which decreases the chances of female migrants to rent housing units in metropolitan areas. For a female migrant heading household in metropolitan areas, an increase of one year in age decreases the likelihood of staying in rented dwelling by 1.03 times. With respect to housing structure type, the availability of standalone dwelling type of housing units reduces the likelihood of female migrants living in rented dwelling units by 2.40 times as compared to floating dwelling type of accommodation. Normally, standalone housing type increases the chances of female migrants heading households staying in owned dwelling units.

Furthermore, the availability of flats or block of flats as dwelling types increases the odds ratios of female migrants heading households staying in rented dwelling type of units by 1.865 times as compared to floating dwelling units. This suggests that female migrants heading households are more likely to stay in rented flats dwelling units more than they would stay in owned standalone dwelling units in metropolitan areas. This observation might be as a result of housing competition among migrants that is exerted on all major cities and towns.

Income plays an important role in enhancing the chances of renting a place to stay among female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas. This study shows that having medium income dramatically influences the potential of living in one's own housing place by

1.631 times than having a higher income. Also, occupation was shown to be an influential factor for female migrants to live in rented housing. The data suggests that being moderately or highly skilled female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas boosts the possibility of being able to rent a place to stay 1.798 and 1.402 times than lowly skilled female migrants heading households.

More so, being an employer enables female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas to access housing accommodation by renting a place to stay 4.584 times, compared to unpaid family worker female migrants. The findings support the existing literature that when a female migrants get a job and descent income move into more adequate housing (Semyonov et al, 2005; Parrenas, 2008). Duration of residence in an area of residence is a variable that does not necessarily lead to female migrants being able to rent dwellings. The time spent living in an area of residence does not necessarily results in an increase in the chances of female migrants staying in rented housing. Rather, it decreases the likelihood of female migrants living in rented housing by 1.38 times. In reality, the duration of residence in an area increases the potential to access housing ownership instead. This argument supports the hypothesis that the duration of residence in years increases the chances of having housing ownership among female migrants (Clark et al, 2001; Gilbert et al, 1997).



#### **5.1.5.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas**

Logistic regression analysis was used to examine housing accommodation situation among female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas. It was observed that the Omnibus test of model coefficients was statistically significant with  $p=0.000<0.05$ , with the model indicating -2 log likelihood. In addition, Hosmer and Lemeshow test indicated that the test was statistically significant with  $p=0.130>0.05$ , which showed that the model fitted the data.

Considering the results depicted in Table 5.5, population group positively contributes to renting accommodation for female migrants. It was further observed in this study that being Indian or Asian female migrants heading households increases the chances of renting housing accommodation by 9.902 times, compared to white female migrants heading households. Age of female migrants was shown not to be a very important variable for female migrants to access rented accommodation. In fact, age reduces the likelihood of female migrants staying

in rented housing units, since an increase of one year in age decreases the possibility of female migrants living in rented housing units by 1.00 times. More so, household size reduces the chances for female migrants staying in rented housing dwelling units. An increase of one household member decreases the potential to live in rented housing units among female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas by 1.22 times. In fact, the general idea is that an increase in household membership should result in increased chances to housing ownership because as the household grows larger, there is need to find a place to stay in as owned housing.

Housing structure type was found to be statistically significant in the logistic regression analysis. Hence, the availability of standalone dwelling type reduces the likelihood of female migrants staying in rented housing by 1.77 times as compared to floating dwelling type of housing. However, flats or a block of flats dwelling type increases the potential for female migrants heading households to stay in rented accommodation in non-metropolitan areas by 1.675 times, than floating dwelling type of housing tenure. The reason might be due to the fact that most standalone dwellings are owned by some other people, while most of flats or blocks of flats are merely rented by these people in South Africa.

Level of education, especially among female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas play a big role in their propensity to live in rented dwelling units. From this study, having primary education reduces the chances of female migrants living in rented housing by 1.56 times, than female migrants having degrees. This implies that primary level of education cannot help female migrants to access housing through renting because it would be difficult for them to pay the required monthly rent. It can therefore be concluded that these female migrants with only primary education should be strongly taken into account when planning for housing provision in non-metropolitan municipality areas. Occupation was also seen to have a great impact on female migrants heading households living in rented housing in non-metropolitan areas. This study clearly shows that being highly skilled increases the probability of female migrants living in rented housing by 1.960 times, than being lowly skilled female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas. Moreover, being moderately skilled female migrants heading household in non-metropolitan areas increases the chances by 1.754 times, than for those female migrants who are highly skilled.



Work status was noted to have a positive impact on female migrants living in rented housing. Hence, being a paid employee increases the odds of renting by a factor of 4.935 times than being an unpaid family worker, while being self-employed increases the chances of renting by a factor of 4.429 times than being an unpaid family worker. Conversely, duration of residence was shown not to be very important for female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas to access rented dwelling units. This study found that an increase in years of stay in an area of residence reduces the chances of female migrants living in rented housing by 1.18 times. This suggests that for female migrants heading households to be able to rent a housing unit, they do not need to have stayed in that place for a long time. The implications were that the probability of female migrants living in an owned place increases over time, while the probability of female migrants living in rented housing decreases.



**Table 5.5: Female migrants heading households living in rented housing**

Variables	Metropolitan areas				Non-metropolitan areas			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Population group		13.094	0.004			6.937	0.074	
Black	0.072	.285	0.593	1.074	0.096	.345	0.557	1.1
Coloured	0.644	10.899	0.001	1.904	0.357	2.720	0.099	1.429
Indian/Asian	-0.11	.183	0.669	0.898	2.293	4.128	0.042	9.902
White@								
Age	-0.03	39.961	0	0.97	-0.023	22.933	0	0.977
Household size	-0.03	1.194	0.274	0.969	-0.196	45.907	0	0.822
Marital status								
Married	-0.15	1.800	0.18	0.865	0.039	.139	0.709	1.04
Not married@								
Housing type		198.768	0			70.517	0	
Standalone	-0.87	58.130	0	0.417	-0.569	31.821	0	0.566
Flat or flats	0.623	22.111	0	1.865	0.516	9.482	0.002	1.675
Floating houses@								
Income		5.504	0.064			20.598	0	
Low income	0.372	2.234	0.135	1.45	-0.106	.065	0.799	0.9
Medium income	0.489	4.942	0.026	1.631	0.461	1.299	0.254	1.585
High income@								
Level of education		2.048	0.359			20.531	0	
Primary	0.224	1.572	0.21	1.251	-0.448	8.646	0.003	0.639
Secondary	0.135	1.555	0.212	1.144	0.139	1.562	0.211	1.149
Degrees@								
Prov of prev resid		2.405	0.3			.222	0.895	
Urbanized	-0.44	1.723	0.189	0.647	-0.119	.079	0.779	0.888
Not urbanized	-0.34	.917	0.338	0.715	-0.168	.156	0.693	0.845
Outside RSA@								
Prov of birth		4.112	0.128			1.365	0.505	
Urbanized	-0.39	3.758	0.053	0.677	0.022	.004	0.947	1.023
Not urbanized	-0.3	2.008	0.156	0.745	-0.152	.212	0.645	0.859
Outside RSA@								
Occupation		22.830	0			34.836	0	
Highly skilled	0.338	5.851	0.016	1.402	0.673	26.330	0	1.96
Moderately skilled	0.587	22.623	0	1.798	0.562	25.285	0	1.754
Lowly skilled@								
Work status		21.221	0			18.350	0.001	
Paid employee	0.775	1.173	0.279	2.171	1.596	8.657	0.003	4.935
Paid family worker	-0.79	.970	0.325	0.452	0.898	2.225	0.136	2.455
Self-employed	0.779	1.142	0.285	2.179	1.488	7.090	0.008	4.429
Employer	1.523	3.187	0.074	4.584	2.52	10.734	0.001	12.423
Unpaid family worker								
Duration of residence	-0.32	111.102	0	0.725	-0.162	29.564	0	0.851
Constant	1.277	2.264	0.132	3.588	-0.042	.003	0.958	0.959

## 5.1.6 Female migrants not head of household living in rented housing

### 5.1.6.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas

After identifying factors which influences living in rented housing among female migrants heading households, the factors which influences the renting tenure among female migrants who were not heading households and mostly accommodated by other people across the different areas of residence. At metropolitan level, the results analysed by logistic regression statistical test reveal that the model was consistent with the data. The Omnibus test of model coefficients suggested that  $p=0.000<0.05$ , with *-2 Log likelihood*, while the Hosmer and Lemeshow test showed  $p=0.303>0.05$ , which means that the model fits the data.

Regarding the variables which were shown to be significant in Table 5.6 on Level I (metropolitan areas), age was identified to decrease the chances of female migrants not heading households lodging in rented accommodation by friends or other relatives. This means that for female migrants to be accommodated by other people, they do not require to be of a specific age. An increase in age by one year results in a decrease in the likelihood of female migrants lodging in rented dwelling units by a factor of 51.02. Household size was also shown not to be a good indicator for female migrants not heading households to be accommodated by other people. Results from this study shows that an increase of one household member decreases the chances of female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units by other people by 1.13 times.

Marital status seems to be of less importance as well. The results show that married female migrants are less likely to be lodging in dwelling units with friends, relatives or other people by 1.07 times than female migrants who were not married. The reason is that female migrants who are unmarried are more likely to be housed in rented dwelling units offered by other people than those who are married. More so, housing structure type decreases the chances of lodging in rented dwelling units among female migrants not heading households. For example, the availability of standalone dwelling type reduces the potential of being accommodated in rented dwelling units offered by other people by 2.12 times than that of flats or block of flats dwelling type units. Conversely, the availability of flats or block of flats dwelling type increases the chances of female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units offered by other people by a factor of 2.487 times than floating dwelling type.

This suggests that flats or block of flats help female migrants to find accommodation through other people who are also renting their accommodation, such as husbands, parents and friends who had migrated before them.

More so, income was shown to play an important role in accessing where to stay among female migrants not heading households. Results from this study show that low income increases the odds ratios of female migrants not heading households to lodge in rented dwelling units by 2.145 times than having high income. In addition, having medium income helps female migrants to lodge in rented dwelling units by 2.059 times than having high income. Generally, having low and medium income is a determining factor for female migrants not heading households to be lodged in dwelling units rented by other people who had migrated before them. Otherwise, having high income was seen as helping female migrants to find their own place to stay in without depending on others.

Level of education was identified as one of the determining factors for female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units. Findings from this study show that having secondary level of education increases the chances of female migrants lodging with other people by 1.247 times than for those female migrants having degrees. This implies that having secondary education helps female migrants not heading households to be accommodated with people who are also renting because their level of education cannot help them to pay rent for their own places in the major cities, especially when they are new arrivals.

Province of previous residence and province of birth were seen as variables with less impact on female migrants not heading households living in major cities lodging with other people who were also in rented dwelling units. The findings from this study indicate that whether female migrants were born or were previously living in urbanized or in less urbanized provinces, they are less likely to be accommodated in rented housing. This means that female migrants can be accommodated in rented dwelling units, regardless of their place of birth or place of previous residence, whether urbanized or not urbanized.

However, occupation does not really help female migrants in lodging with other people who live in dwelling units that are also rented by other people in metropolitan areas. Results show that high skills reduce the likelihood for female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units by 1.24 times than being lowly skilled. In the same vein, the duration of stay of female migrants not heading households decreases the likelihood of being housed in a

dwelling unit that is rented by other people living in metropolitan areas. It decreases the chances of female migrants not heading households living in rented accommodation by 1.30 times.

#### **5.1.6.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas**

At non-metropolitan level, the omnibus test of model coefficient indicate  $p=0.000<0.05$ , with *-2 Log likelihood*, while Hosmer Lemeshow test is also statistically significant with  $p=0.338>0.05$ . At non-metropolitan level, a number of variables were seen as significant as shown in Table 5.6. The findings from this study revealed Black female migrants not heading households in non-metropolitan areas are less likely to be accommodated in rented dwelling units as compared to White female migrants. As earlier mentioned, the expectation is that Black female migrants living in medium-sized cities were expected to stay in owned dwelling units and not renting. Conversely, being of Indian/Asian descent increases the chances of female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units. More so, age decreases the likelihood of female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas. In fact, an increase of one year in age decreases the chances for female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units by 1.01 times. Household size also decreases the potential of female migrants to be lodge in rented dwelling units by 1.20 times.

With regards to housing structure type, standalone dwelling type decreases the likelihood of female migrants to be lodged in rented dwelling units by a factor of 1.44 times than floating dwelling type housing units. In contrast, flats or block of flats dwelling type housing tenure helps female migrants not heading households in being sheltered by other people living in rented dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas. This confirms what is seen in existing literature that flats or block of flats are the mostly rented dwelling type of accommodation. With income, this study observed that having low or medium income helps female migrants not heading households to be housed in rented dwelling units by factors of 3.078 and 2.537 times respectively, than having high income. This explains how low and medium income female migrants in non-metropolitan areas are in extreme need for accommodation, but do not have the resources to own houses.

Level of education of female migrants not heading households increases their chances of lodging with friends, relatives or by other people. Actually, secondary level of education

increases the chances female migrants not heading households of being accommodated in dwelling units rented by other people by 1.347 times compared to those who have high degrees. Province of previous residence was observed to play a little role towards female migrants lodging in a dwelling units rented by other people. In fact, female migrants who were previously living in highly urbanized provinces were less likely to be accommodated by other people.

Occupation was seen to have a positive influence on choice of accommodation. Highly and moderately skilled female migrants not heading households in non-metropolitan areas have the same chances (1.458 times) of lodging in a dwelling unit that is also rented by other people when compared to those with low skills. Work status equally showed that it had a positive impact on female migrants not heading households in non-metropolitan areas. Its high impact on female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units by other people was, especially, observed among the paid employee female migrants (2.263 times), followed by those who were self-employed (1.891 times) more than the unpaid family worker.

However, for female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas, duration of residence in an area was seen to have very little impact on them lodging with other people renting. It was discovered that increase in the duration of stay increases the chances of female migrants not heading households to be lodged in a dwelling unit that is also rented by other people by 1.16 times. This suggests that the chances of female migrants finding their own accommodation increases overtime.

**Table 5.6: Female migrants not heading households: Renting accommodation**

Variables	Metropolitan areas				Non-metropolitan areas			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Population group		3.308	0.347			20.820	0	
Black	-0.02	.029	0.864	0.984	-0.28	6.262	0.012	0.756
Coloured	0.153	1.489	0.222	1.166	0.087	.379	0.538	1.091
Indian/Asian	0.168	1.398	0.237	1.183	0.855	5.809	0.016	2.351
White@								
Age	-0.02	14.219	0	0.985	-0.013	9.367	0.002	0.987
Household size	-0.13	32.744	0	0.882	-0.181	59.313	0	0.834
Marital status								
Married	-0.07	.734	0.391	0.934	0.098	.990	0.32	1.103
Not married@								
Housing type		435.459	0			116.201	0	
Standalone	-0.75	58.941	0	0.472	-0.367	10.958	0.001	0.693
Flat or flats	0.911	70.258	0	2.487	1.357	53.047	0	3.884
floating houses@								
Income		10.829	0.004			9.474	0.009	
Low income	0.763	10.482	0.001	2.145	1.124	8.122	0.004	3.078
Medium income	0.722	10.336	0.001	2.059	0.931	5.711	0.017	2.537
High income@								
Level of education		7.363	0.025			14.522	0.001	
Primary	0.162	1.008	0.315	1.176	-0.055	.138	0.711	0.947
Secondary	0.22	7.312	0.007	1.247	0.298	8.436	0.004	1.347
Degrees@								
Prov of prev residence		6.377	0.041			4.925	0.085	
Urbanized	-0.59	6.305	0.012	0.554	-0.679	4.846	0.028	0.507
Not urbanized	-0.55	4.864	0.027	0.575	-0.593	3.684	0.055	0.552
Outside RSA@								
Prov of birth		14.850	0.001			2.435	0.296	
Urbanized	-0.55	14.494	0	0.574	-0.087	.116	0.733	0.917
Not urbanized	-0.54	12.431	0	0.582	-0.261	1.058	0.304	0.77
Outside RSA@								
Occupation		15.535	0			14.705	0.001	
Highly skilled	-0.22	4.046	0.044	0.806	0.377	9.164	0.002	1.458
Moderately skilled	0.126	1.752	0.186	1.135	0.374	13.098	0	1.453
Lowly skilled@								
Work status		7.876	0.096			15.327	0.004	
Paid employee	0.521	.758	0.384	1.683	0.817	8.965	0.003	2.263
Paid family worker	-0.04	.003	0.953	0.963	0.194	.258	0.611	1.214
Self-employed	0.456	.565	0.452	1.578	0.637	4.597	0.032	1.891
Employer	0.162	.054	0.816	1.176	0.4	.605	0.437	1.491
Unpaid family worker								
Duration of residence	-0.26	124.467	0	0.77	-0.149	30.016	0	0.862
Constant	1.023	2.142	0.143	2.781	-0.374	.410	0.522	0.688

## 5.1.7 Female migrants head of household living in occupied rent-free accommodation

### 5.1.7.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas

By means of logistic regression analysis, the variables contributing towards female migrants heading households to stay in occupied rent-free accommodation in metropolitan areas were identified. The goodness of fit of this model was individually checked, and the output revealed that the model fits the data, since the omnibus test of model coefficients indicates  $p=0.000<0.05$ , with *-2 Log likelihood*, and Hosmer Lemeshow test provided  $p=0.183>0.05$

Looking at the variables in Table 5.7 at Level 1, population group was found to be significant. This implies that being Black female migrants increases the chances of staying in dwelling units free of charge by 3.442 times than being White female migrants. Age was also seen to positively influence the likelihood of female migrants finding accommodation. An increment of one year in age increases the odds ratios of staying in occupied rent-free dwelling units by a factor of 1.016 times. More so, household size was seen to be significant, and yet, it plays little role among female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas to access a place to stay in free of charge by decreasing that likelihood by 1.04 times.

Housing structure type plays a very little role in helping female migrants to get accommodation they can live in free without paying rent. The availability of standalone dwelling type of housing reduces the potential of female migrants staying in occupied rent-free accommodation by 2.20 times, as compared to floating dwelling units; while flats or block of flats dwelling type of accommodation decreases the likelihood of female migrants staying in occupied rent-free dwelling units by 6.54 times than floating dwelling units. This suggests that most dwelling units occupied free of charge by female migrants were not provided for in the form of free standing dwelling units or flats. Possibly, it might be provided in form of shack settlements in a backyard and other similar types of accommodation.

Level of education increases the chances for female migrants staying in occupied rent-free type of accommodation by 1.438 times, especially when female migrants heading households have secondary education as compared to those with degrees. Occupation was another significant factor identified to decrease the chances of female migrants getting rent-free accommodation. For example, highly skilled female migrants heading households are seen as



less likely to stay in dwelling units that are provided for free by 2.07 times compared to lowly skilled female migrants. Moreover, moderately skilled female migrants heading households are also seen as less likely to stay in occupied rent-free type of accommodation in metropolitan areas by 1.41 times, as compared to female migrants who are lowly skilled. Duration of residence in an area was noted to be significant in the model as it increases the likelihood of female migrants staying in occupied rent-free dwelling units. In fact, an increase of one year of stay in a place results in an equal increase in the odds ratios of staying in occupied rent-free by a factor of 1.030 times.

#### **5.1.7.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas**

In Table 5.7 display the results of logistic regression analysis for Level II. This test statistics helped to predict the factors influencing female migrants heading households living in occupied rent-free dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas. As previously observed, the omnibus test and model coefficient was performed and it was seen to be statistically significant with  $p=0.000<0.05$ , with -2 log likelihood model summary, while Hosmer Lemeshow test indicated a  $p=0.556>0.05$ .

At non-metropolitan level, it is clear that population group was a significant factor as it increases the likelihood of staying in occupied rent-free dwelling units for female migrants. For example, being Black female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas increases the odds ratios of staying in occupied rent-free dwelling units by 3.663 times than being White female migrants heading households. More so, being Coloured female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas increases the chances of accessing occupied rent-free housing accommodation by 2.781 times than for White female migrants.

Conversely, household size was seen to be a significant factor that decreases the likelihood of accessing housing accommodation free of charge. For example, an increase of one household member reduces the chances of female migrants living in occupied rent-free dwelling units by 1.14 times. Housing structure type was seen to reduce the likelihood of female migrants heading households staying in occupied rent-free housing accommodation in non-metropolitan municipality areas. The availability of standalone dwelling type of accommodation decreases the chances of female migrants staying in occupied rent-free by 1.40 times, when compared to the floating dwelling type of accommodation. In addition, the

availability of flats or block of flats dwelling type of accommodation decreases the likelihood of female migrants staying in occupied rent-free dwellings by 1.96 times, as compared to the floating dwelling type of accommodation.

Level of education was also seen to play an important role among female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas. Female migrants heading households with primary education increase their chances of staying in occupied rent-free by a factor of 1.138 times than female migrants who have degrees. Conversely, female migrants with secondary education are less likely to stay in occupied rent-free dwelling units by 1.44 times as compared to those who have degrees. The idea is that it is difficult for female migrants heading households with primary education to afford to pay for their own place to stay in. In these circumstances, the employer, such as government institutions, farms or churches, make an effort to provide female migrants with a place to stay in for free.

Occupation was observed to decrease the potential of female migrants heading households to stay in occupied rent-free dwellings in non-metropolitan areas. Female migrants with high skills are less likely to occupy a place to stay in free of charge by 2.48 times, as compared to those who are lowly skilled. In the same vein, having moderate skills reduces the chances of female migrants staying in an accommodation free of charge by 1.56 times, as compared to those who are lowly skilled. Given that female migrants with high skills are expected to afford renting or purchase their own places to stay in, they are therefore less likely to access housing to stay free of charge.

**Table 5.7: Female migrants heading households: Occupied rent-free accommodation**

Variable	Metropolitan areas				Non-metropolitan areas			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Population group		18.090	0			13.227	0.004	
Black	1.236	8.364	0.004	3.442	1.298	11.888	0.001	3.662
Coloured	0.224	.176	0.675	1.251	1.023	5.922	0.015	2.781
Indian/Asian	-0.4	.131	0.717	0.67	-18.07	.000	0.999	0
White@								
Age	0.016	6.463	0.011	1.016	0.007	1.912	0.167	1.007
Household size	-0.117	10.913	0.001	0.89	-0.135	20.106	0	0.874
Marital status								
Married	-0.009	.004	0.952	0.991	-0.14	1.290	0.256	0.869
Not married@								
Housing structure type		73.169	0			15.101	0.001	
Standalone	-0.789	38.934	0	0.454	-0.34	10.300	0.001	0.712
Flat or block of flats	-1.878	49.603	0	0.153	-0.672	9.577	0.002	0.511
Floating houses@								
Income		28.329	0			28.286	0	
Low income	1.263	2.754	0.097	3.535	0.897	1.378	0.24	2.452
Medium income	-0.075	.010	0.921	0.928	-0.067	.008	0.93	0.935
High income@								
Level of education		3.941	0.139			18.592	0	
Primary	0.31	2.000	0.157	1.363	0.13	.737	0.391	1.138
Secondary	0.363	3.941	0.047	1.438	-0.365	7.320	0.007	0.694
Degrees@								
Prov of prev residence		.973	0.615			2.525	0.283	
Urbanized	-0.202	.090	0.765	0.818	-0.248	.176	0.675	0.781
Not urbanized	-0.338	.242	0.623	0.713	0.047	.007	0.935	1.048
Outside RSA@								
Prov of birth		3.801	0.15			.029	0.986	
Urbanised	0.403	1.158	0.282	1.497	-0.034	.005	0.944	0.967
Not urbanized	0.586	2.485	0.115	1.797	-0.058	.016	0.899	0.944
Outside RSA@								
Occupation		13.521	0.001			33.103	0	
Highly skilled	-0.727	11.430	0.001	0.483	-0.907	29.170	0	0.404
Moderately skilled	-0.347	5.400	0.02	0.707	-0.444	13.110	0	0.642
Lowly skilled@								
Work status		9.925	0.042			3.657	0.454	
Paid employee	-0.53	.632	0.427	0.589	0.339	.889	0.346	1.404
Paid family worker	0.287	.161	0.688	1.333	0.313	.546	0.46	1.367
Self-employed	-0.463	.454	0.5	0.629	0.102	.068	0.794	1.108
Employer	-0.225	.049	0.826	0.798	-0.539	.390	0.532	0.584
Unpaid family worker								
Duration of residence	0.217	31.994	0	1.243	0.03	.825	0.364	1.03
Constant	-3.838	9.835	0.002	0.022	-2.625	6.631	0.01	0.072

## **5.1.8 Female migrants not heading household living in occupied rent-free housing accommodation**

### ***5.1.8.1 Level I: Metropolitan areas***

Further analysis was carried out in order to determine the factors which influence the possibilities of female migrants not heading households staying in occupied rent-free dwelling units in metropolitan areas as seen in Table 5.8. The findings show that the omnibus test of model coefficient was statistically significant with  $p=0.000<0.05$  and with  $-2 \text{ Log likelihood}$ . Even though Hosmer Lemshow was a bit low at  $p= 0.027<0.05$ , the data was still found to be fit for the model since the model coefficient was statistically significant.

The result from this study shows that population group was a significant variable. At metropolitan level, it is clear that being black female migrant not heading households increases the potential to lodge in a housing unit free of charge by 5.713 times higher, compared to being White female migrant not heading households. Marital status is also another important variable, since being married female migrants increases the odds ratios of being accommodated with people who occupy a house for free by 1.390 times, compared to female migrants who are not married. This study further found that housing structure type decreases the chances of being accommodated with people who stay in housing accommodation for free. The availability of standalone and flats or block of flats reduces the chances for female migrants to be accommodated in occupied rent-free housing accommodation by 4.17 and 8.0 times less respectively.

The level of education plays a very important role in enhancing the possibility of female migrants lodging for free. Having primary education boosts the chances of female migrants not heading households being accommodated in occupied rent-free by a factor of 1.667 times higher, than for female migrants who have degrees as a reference category. Having secondary education also increases the chances by 1.447 times higher, than for female migrants with degrees. Duration of residence is also a very important variable which influences the potential for female migrants to be accommodated in occupied rent-free by other people. An increase in duration of stay at the area of residence equally increases the potential for female migrants to occupy rent-free housing by 1.174 times higher for female migrants living in metropolitan areas.

### 5.1.8.2 Level II: Non-metropolitan areas

At non-metropolitan level, the findings shown in Table 5.8 reveal the test was statistically significant. In this vein, the omnibus test of model coefficient revealed it was also statistically significant ( $p=0.000<0.05$ ), the model summary indicated *-2 Log likelihood*, while Hosmer Lemeshow indicated that  $p=0.671>0.05$ , which means the model fits the data sufficiently. Findings from this study show that population group was significant. In fact, being Black female migrant increases the odds ratios for free lodging by 1.586 times than being White female migrants, while being coloured increases the chances by 1.647 times than being White female migrants.

However, age and household size of female migrants not heading households in non-metropolitan areas reduces the likelihood of female migrants lodging for free. An increase of one year in age, or an increment of one household member, reduces the potential for female migrants to be accommodated in rent-free housing units by 1.01 and 1.10 times respectively. Conversely, marital status is a good indicator, since being married female migrant increases the odds ratios by 1.424 times, than being an unmarried female migrant not headed households in non-metropolitan areas.

With housing structure type, the availability of standalone dwelling units and flats or block of flats reduces the chances of female migrants being accommodated in occupied rent-free dwellings by 1.73 and 3.80 times less respectively, as compared to floating dwelling type of accommodation. Level of education has less impact, especially when female migrants have only secondary education. It decreases their chances of being accommodated in occupied rent-free housing by 1.49 times, as compared to female migrants not heading households with degrees. More so, being born in a province not highly urbanized increases the chances for female migrants lodging in occupied rent-free housing by 2.496 times, as compared to female migrants who were born outside RSA. This is true in sense that those from outside the country do not have people who are living in a free accommodation. Occupation decreases the chances of female migrants being sheltered by other people for free. Having high or moderately skills reduces the odds ratios of lodging in occupied rent-free dwelling units by 2.29 and 1.85 times respectively than being lowly skilled female migrants not heading households in non-metropolitan areas.

**Table 5.8: Female migrants not heading households: Occupied rent-free housing accommodation**

Variables	Metropolitan area				Non-metropolitan area			
	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Population group		49.107	.000			7.153	.067	
Black/African	1.743	27.724	.000	5.713	.461	6.732	.009	1.586
Coloured	.211	.221	.638	1.234	.499	5.897	.015	1.647
Asian/Indian	.839	2.585	.108	2.314	-18.35	.000	.998	.000
White@								
Age	.002	.117	.732	1.002	-.010	4.198	.040	.990
Household size	-.043	1.879	.170	.958	-.091	15.089	.000	.913
Marital status								
Married	.329	6.342	.012	1.390	.353	9.972	.002	1.424
Not married@								
Housing structure type		169.767	.000			35.430	.000	
Standalone housing	-1.427	132.256	.000	.240	-.549	23.949	.000	.577
Flats or block of flats	-2.080	76.230	.000	.125	-1.337	21.745	.000	.263
Floating housing@								
Income		46.070	.000			41.165	.000	
Low income	1.449	3.823	.051	4.257	.476	.757	.384	1.610
Medium income	-.111	.022	.882	.895	-.711	1.668	.197	.491
High income@								
Level of education		5.551	.062			35.602	.000	
Primary	.511	5.028	.025	1.667	.267	3.234	.072	1.307
Secondary	.368	4.282	.039	1.445	-.396	9.129	.003	.673
Degrees@								
Province of prev res		.738	.691			6.501	.039	
Urbanized	.269	.291	.589	1.309	-.338	.574	.449	.713
Not urbanized	.172	.110	.740	1.187	-.702	2.472	.116	.496
Outside RSA@								
Province of birth		8.021	.018			16.933	.000	
Urbanized	.108	.111	.739	1.114	.268	.418	.518	1.308
Not urbanized	.452	1.977	.160	1.572	.915	5.001	.025	2.496
Outside RSA@								
Occupation		3.860	.145			41.028	.000	
Highly skilled	-.210	1.378	.240	.810	-.831	25.885	.000	.436
Moderately skilled	-.255	3.479	.062	.775	-.615	28.582	.000	.540
Lowly skilled@								
Work status		4.766	.312			10.385	.034	
Paid employee	-1.063	2.794	.095	.346	-.088	.151	.698	.915
Paid family worker	-.861	1.626	.202	.423	-.635	3.220	.073	.530
Self employed	-.873	1.790	.181	.418	-.411	2.270	.132	.663
Employer	-.534	.340	.560	.586	-1.439	3.407	.065	.237
Unpaid family worker								
Duration of residence	.161	19.626	.000	1.174	-.031	1.019	.313	.969
Constant	-4.092	13.419	.000	.017	-.515	.529	.467	.598

## 5.4 Comparison of logistic regression results among areas of residences

Majority of the existing research on housing in developing countries fails to offer adequate explanations of housing needs among female migrants by looking at household headship and areas of residence where these female migrants eventually settle in. In fact, very little is known about housing tenancy among female migrants who happen to head their own households. Also, these existing studies have failed to elaborate on the nature of housing tenure status for female migrants who are unable to pay for their own housing and eventually end up lodging with other people. It is the objective of this study to problematize female migration, housing accommodation and household headship in order to break them down into two categories of female migrants. In fact, it is assumed that female migrants heading and those who are not heading households, have a clear difference in accessibility to housing needs. Moreover, there is an assumption that the methods of housing access may differ among female migrants by areas of residences. Therefore, in order to have a clear picture of the differentiation, a comparison was made among metropolitan and non-metropolitan to answer the following research questions:

- What are the differences and similarities among areas of residence?
- In which area of residence are female migrants struggling in to access housing accommodation?
- Which category of female migrants is more vulnerable on the housing market?

The main hypothesis of this study states that: *Female migrants differ in the way they face on the housing market by household headship and areas of residence.* In order to make this comparison possible, results from logistic regression analysis were used as a tool.

Looking at the logistic regression analysis results, it was shown that demographic, socio-economic, and migratory household variables can be used to determine housing tenure status for female migrants. In addition, it was also shown that housing tenure of female migrants differs by household headship and areas of residence. One of the specific objectives of this study was to identify the factors which influence or constrain housing tenure and to what extent those factors influence or constrain housing tenure. This was controlled for household headship and area of residence for female migrants. In this vein, demographic, socio-economic, migratory household variables and housing tenure variables were analysed in order

to identify factors which play a role and to what extent they contribute to the issue of owing fully or not fully paid up housing, renting or occupied rent-free housing ownership.

Many factors were identified as increasing the likelihood of staying in an owned house. Among the variables observed to increase the chances of owning a fully paid up dwelling unit among female migrants heading households, housing structure type, particularly standalone housing type was the most influential factor across both residential areas. The highest chances for female migrants to live in owned houses were observed to be in metropolitan areas (2.943 odds) as compared to non-metropolitan areas (2.019 odds).

This study also reported that the availability of standalone dwelling units is one of the most essential factors which increases the possibility of female migrants being housed in owned and fully paid up dwelling units with odds of 2.609, while in metropolitan areas, the availability of standalone dwelling type of housing accommodation was observed to be the most contributory factors as compared to the rest of the other factors (1.687 odds).

With regards to female migrants heading households living in owned but not yet fully paid up, the data shows that some variables were significant and contributed to the likelihood of staying in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. This study reported that the most influential factor among all others was housing structure type, particularly the standalone dwelling unit. This dwelling unit type was seen to have the highest influence in metropolitan areas with odds of 10.287, followed by non-metropolitan areas, the odds were 7.971. Flats or block of flats dwelling type was identified to be another major factor which determines the possibility of female migrants staying in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas.

Looking at female migrants not heading households who are accommodated in owned but not yet fully paid up accommodation across both areas of residence, many variables were seen to be significant. In metropolitan areas for example, many variables were found to be significant. The results indicated that housing structure type, particularly the availability of standalone housing type of accommodation with 8.107 odds, was the most influential factor among many others which facilitated the likelihood of female migrants lodging in owned but not yet fully paid up dwelling units in metropolitan areas. In non-metropolitan areas, however, standalone housing units was the most influential factor which boosts the chances



of female migrants being accommodated in owned but not yet fully paid up dwelling units with 4.703 odds.

Considering female migrants heading households living in rented dwelling units across areas of residence, the model built along the line of these two areas indicates that some factors contributed to the likelihood of female migrants staying in rented dwelling units. Work status, especially being paid employer female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas, increases the odds (12.423) of staying in rented dwelling units while population group, particularly being Indian/Asian female migrants heading households in non-metropolitan areas, increases the likelihood of female migrants staying in rented dwelling units (9.902 odds). In metropolitan areas, however, a number of factors were found to be significant with a slight similarity among them.

Looking at female migrants not heading households who reported that they are lodging with other people, the findings show that both in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas, some variables were found to be significant. However, there are no many variations among those variables which were seen as significant. This means that, the odds of female migrants being accommodated in rented dwelling units were almost the same across areas. Among the factors which were identified to increase the chances of female migrants heading households to live in occupied rent-free housing accommodation, population group was the greatest contributory factor. Being Black female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas helps them to have higher chances of getting housing accommodation free of charge (5.528 odds) as compared to metropolitan areas.

Generally, when the comparison among areas of residence was made, it was observed that female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas are mostly living in rented dwelling units. The renting housing tenure was observed to be an important method of housing acquisition among female migrants in South Africa in general and in metropolitan areas in particular. Female migrants heading households are generally struggling to obtain a place to stay in as compared to female migrants not heading households who are mostly accommodated with other people.

## 5.5 Conclusion

According to logistic regression analysis results, the research questions were answered by confirming that female migrants heading households are mostly vulnerable in accessing full housing ownership in metropolitan areas. Moreover, female migrants heading households are more vulnerable on the housing market in metropolitan areas when compared to female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas. Renting has been shown to play an important role in alleviating the hunger for housing among female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas. These findings supported views from existing literature on previous studies conducted in developing countries such as Latin America and West Africa which suggested that female migrants heading households are more likely to be tenants or sharers rather than owners of housing units (Moser and Peak 1987).

Housing ownership is much more prominent among female migrants in non-metropolitan municipality areas than in metropolitan areas. Indeed, South Africa is among more than thirty (30) countries that have included the right to housing in its constitution when it states that, “*Everyone has the right to adequate housing*” (Habitat Agenda, 2001). Furthermore, some organisations like “Women for Housing Initiative” were established under the idea of housing institutions such as NURCHA. This initiative provides information, networking opportunities and the necessary support to women in the field of housing provision (Charlton, 2004). Furthermore, the major factors which mostly help female migrants heading households to access housing accommodation across different areas of residences are: age, population group, level of education, household size, housing structure type, occupation and duration of residence.

## **CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS**

The aim of the study was to analyse female migration and its relation with housing tenancy across two area settlement levels (metropolitan and non-metropolitan) in South Africa by specifically identifying how female migrants acquire houses through different methods of tenure. Firstly, this study generally looked at the magnitude of female migrants in South Africa and thereafter, looked at whether female migrants were heading or not heading households. Life-time and fixed-term migrations were calculated in order to measure the magnitude and the spatial direction of female migration. Area of residence was used as a key component in the study, not only to assess housing patterns, but also to identify the differences and similarities of housing tenure between metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas in South African context. The factors affecting housing tenure of female migrants in line with household headship and areas of residence were also identified.

This chapter discusses the main findings from two previous chapters of result analyses of the study (chapters 4 and 5). These two chapters pertain to the main objective of this study, which is to assess the relationship between female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa. The study predicts that female migrants generally differ in the way they face the housing market according to their household headship and whether they live in metropolitan or in areas falling outside metropolitan (non-metropolitan). By means of the 2007 Community Survey instrument and with the variables of interest, the data was analysed using the SPSS software and the hypotheses tested were all supported by the findings.

### **6.1 Summary of the methodology used**

The methodology used in this study was mainly based on conceptualization of the data. The study was quantitative in nature hence, made use of the 2007 Community Survey data which was requested from Statistics South Africa. A scientific sampling method was later used for data collection and the data was recorded in three different files as personal file, geographical file, and housing file. The data was conceptualized using the SPSS approach in order to prepare it for analysis. A rectangular file was, first of all, created in order to merge the three files. Since questions on housing were only answered by the head of the household, a technique called “merge-to-many” was used to replicate the information on housing on each

of the respondent in the household. The independent variables were sub-divided into four categories which are demographic characteristics, socio-economic characteristics, migratory characteristics and household characteristics. Housing tenure status was thereafter used as a dependent variable in the analysis.

After conceptualization of the data, analysis was carried out using the univariate analysis, which helped in exploring the meaning of the data. Female migrants were separated from non-migrant respondents and female migrants heading households were selected from those who were not heading households. New variables of interest were also created, such as areas of residence with two categories (metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality), household headship, housing structure type and duration of residence. Life-time and fixed-term net migration by province was calculated to measure the patterns and spatial direction of migration. Bivariate analysis was performed by cross-tabulation, which was used to measure the patterns of migration and housing tenure status, while chi-square statistical test such as Pearson and Fisher Exact test were used to measure the association between variables. The strength of the relationship was also measured by means of Phi and Cramer's V statistical tests. Multivariate analysis was carried out by means of logistic regression analysis, which was to identify the variables that are most influential to housing tenure status of female migrants as controlled by household headship by also looking at metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. The objective was to measure the relationship between female migrants' characteristics and their housing tenure status, and also to identify in which area of residence and category of female migrants are mostly struggling to access housing.

## **6.2 Overview of the conceptual framework utilized**

There is no specific theory that could be used to explain female migration and housing accessibility in the South African context. Some theories elaborating on migration were revised and used as a starting point to conceptualize a framework which could serve as a background for this study. The push-pull theory by Lee (1996) emphasizes the spatial models developed by demographers and geographers to explain the factors associated with areas of origin and areas of destination. This theory argues that migration is selective with respect to individual characteristics of migrants. In fact, people respond differently to the different factors that contribute or constrain migration. Above all, the pull factors are the economic

conditions (such as higher wages) while the pull factors are population pressure and environmental factors.

Social capital, chain migration and social network theories were also used in this study to explain how previous migrants can facilitate the flow of subsequent migration and adaptation in a new environment. There is evidence that the already settled migrant function as a “*bridge head*” (Murdie, 1998; Brocker, 1994 in de Haas, 2013; Bekker, 2002), minimizes the risks as well as material and psychological costs of subsequent migrations. With the assistance of friends and relatives, new migrants may, much more easily, be able to obtain information and receive active assistance in finding employment and a place to live. However, this theory does not clarify how previous migrants facilitate subsequent migrants in acquiring housing.

The theory of female migration and adaptation in the cities of Asia put forward by Fawcett et al (1984) was also revised. This theory attempts to explain the patterns of female migration and how female migrants adapt in new environments, especially in the labour market. This theory looks at the determinants of female migration in the push-pull theory. It also elaborates the type of females that are involved in migration, such as associational and unattached female migrants and further looks at how those female migrants differ in terms of housing acquisition. This theory suggests that unattached female migrants encounter more difficulties in accessing a place to stay as compared to married females. It is also known that male and female migrants experience housing access differently in cities (Fawcett et al, 1984). Literature has shown that most women migrants face more problems of discrimination and inequality, abuse, cultural constraints and possible housing eviction as they migrate and adapt compared to their male counterparts. However, the weakness of this theory is that it is applied in an Asian context and not in Africa, particularly in the South Africa context. The theory talks about housing by means of case studies, but does not properly elaborate how female migrants’ characteristics may impact housing acquisition.

In order to bridge the gap observed in the push-pull theory, social capital theory, chain migration network theory and migration and adaptation theory, a conceptual framework was built around the hypotheses by means of the variables of interest in this study. This was done in order to provide theoretical guidance linking migration to housing in a gender perspective. In this vein, a relationship between demographic, socio-economic, migratory, household characteristic and housing tenure status were measured. Knowing that female migrants

heading households encounter much more difficulties in obtaining a place to stay, as well as keeping in mind the inequalities observed among different areas of residence in South Africa. The purpose of this study became that of assessing the differentials of housing tenure among female migrants by controlling for household headship and areas of residence. By bringing together all these variations, the study captured the true picture of housing tenure patterns of female migrants in relation to household headship among metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities.

### **6.3 Spatial distribution of net migration flow**

As is observable throughout literature, female migrants are increasing in migration streams (Fawcett et al, 1984; Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996; Miratab, 2001; Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008; Roux, 2009; Tati, 2009). According to the results of this study, female migrants are frequently moving from place to place across the country (Roux, 2009). The main migration stream was observed, especially, from the less urbanized provinces to the highly urbanized provinces for both fixed-term and life-time migration. These findings are in agreement with the findings of Cross (2001) who revealed that in Cape Town, the unemployment rate was 21% compared to Eastern Cape where unemployment rate was 45%. As result, this led to out-migration among Xhosa-speaking people to the Western Cape (Bekker, 2001). In fact, female migrants from the poorer provinces like the Eastern Cape and from outside RSA tend to move from their current provinces to provinces with higher economic opportunities like Gauteng and Western Cape. Since Gauteng is the industrial and commercial heartland of the country, which is the smallest but the most populous province with the highest proportion of female migrants (Roux, 2009; Lekoa, 2011), results from this study confirms strong migration streams continue into Gauteng and Western Cape Provinces as might have been expected and noted in various literature.

The reason why these two provinces are receiving comparably high number of female migrants might be due to economic opportunities characterizing the provinces, especially increased job opportunities, and improved life condition associated to these cities. Previous report from the Department of Social Development on migration and urbanization show that some people move from rural areas to major cities because of their superior level of income and employment. Low income female migrants move from the countryside into smaller towns and dense peri-urban or rural settlements. These migrants are not only attracted by

economic opportunities to make a living, but are also attracted by opportunities to access housing and other social services (Roux, 2009). Moreover, high migration streams into these provinces create high demand for housing due to high tension and pressure resulting from the high population density.

In this vein, it can be concluded that, this continued urbanization will eventually overwhelm the capacity of each city to accommodate all its residents (Roux, 2009). This increase in urban population density in Gauteng and Western Cape particularly, has a great impact on the economies of the sending provinces as well as the service delivery capacity of receiving provinces (Roux, 2009). This phenomenon is further explained and clarified in the next section where the relationship between migration and housing across areas of residence is discussed.

#### **6.4 Characteristics of female migrants**

Though the purpose of this study was not to highlight the intention of female migration, the magnitude of female migrants throughout South Africa was ascertained, using female migrants' individual characteristics. In migration selectivity, it is argued that the more favourable migrants adjust better in the areas of destination, and they have more beneficial impact on the receiving society (Jialong, 2006).

With regards to population group, the findings reflect the reality of poverty which is still persisting among the Black population. This is possibly as a result of the sad history of apartheid in South Africa which negatively affected most of the Black population of South Africa. With regards to employment status, the reality is that a high proportion of Black female migrants are held in elementary occupations. These findings are similar to the existing results related to discrimination and difference in pay for equal work that is encountered by women seeking employment in modern society, regardless of their skills and level of education as discussed by Tati (2010). Employment status is very crucial, especially when it comes to family's survival. The total household income put together can help the family to access scarce resources including housing ownership. Unfortunately, this study revealed that most of the female migrants are employed in the informal sector where they are prone to low pay and unskilled and insecure jobs.

Income is one of the most important factors contributing to the well-being of all migrants, including female migrants. Unfortunately, this study revealed that majority of female migrants earns low incomes, with most of them having no income at all. The possible explanation to this scenario is the high concentration of female migrants in elementary occupation which pays them meagre wages. The insecure and part-time job results in low-pay jobs trapping most female migrants in chronic poverty, which eventually affects their living conditions. This may, somehow in one way or another, affect the housing tenure of female migrants heading households explored in the next sections of this chapter.

Among the female migrants who migrate to other provinces in South Africa, only a few of them are well educated. However, majority of them have at least basic education. The findings are consistent with what was found in other migration studies, in which women who tend to migrate elsewhere are mainly the educated (Fawcett et al, 1984). In South Africa, the level of education for females is generally deemed to be low because most females still experience discrimination and domination by men educationally, while most of them are expected to stay at home and take care of domestic affairs rather than going to school (Ramaipato, 2009).

Previous research has revealed that the proportion of female migrants heading households is growing very fast (Miraftab, 1999; Nyirasafari, 2009). In the context of South Africa, findings from this study show that female migrants heading households are predominantly found among Black households as compared to the rest of the population groups. Moreover, Black female migrants heading households are the ones who are mostly facing difficulties in accessing scarce income resources which in turn affects residential ownership in the areas of destination.

The influence of female migration is far more than just an addition of new members into the receiving society. With regards to age, female migrants are known to be selectively younger adults (Lee, 1966). In South Africa, the mechanism is highly selective by age, with an average age of 29 years, which is indicative that the migration streams of female migrants are mainly by younger female adults.

Coming to marital status, the reality from the findings is that in most female migration streams, majority of the women are not married and are moving independently due to different reasons. This observation supports Fawcett and colleagues (1984) theory that



women are mostly moving independently to cities in search of livelihood (Nyirafari, 2009), contrary to associational migration patterns whereby women are moving to accompany spouses or to join family members. In the following section, the relationship between female migrants' characteristics and housing tenure status is highlighted by testing hypotheses derived from some of the known theories. In general, these findings are supported by studies (Shryock and Nam, 1965) who saw that migration tends to be selective of the better educated with age, sex, and population groups. Migrants across areas of residences tend to be better educated than no- migrants at their origin or destination.

## **6.5 Confirmation of hypotheses**

In this section, a general picture of housing tenure status of female migrants across metropolitan breakdown, metropolitan in general and non-metropolitan areas is painted. Starting with looking at the situation among the six individual metropolitan municipalities in South Africa, it has been found that a high proportion of female migrants heading households living in city of Tshwane, EThekweni, Ekurhuleni, City of Cape Town and City of Johannesburg are mainly living in rented dwellings, except only in Nelson Mandela metropolitan where female migrants heading households are highly represented in owned and fully paid off dwellings. In fact, this metropolitan municipality is located in a province which is predominantly rural with a background of disadvantaged areas, whereby the population have access to cheap land for building and use less costly materials for housing construction. Moreover, housing delivery for the poor might be less competitive in these areas as is the case in the rest of the metropolitan municipalities.

In fact, the reality of the findings of this study is that the majority of female migrants living in metropolitan areas are highly represented in rented dwellings, while majority of those who were living in non-metropolitan municipality areas are highly represented in owned and fully paid dwellings. The explanation of these differentials of housing tenure among the different residential areas might be linked to the history of migration in apartheid South Africa. In contemporary South Africa, majority of the population, especially Blacks, were not previously allowed to live in urban areas. The few Black people, who managed to settle there, were neither allowed to stay there permanently nor to own property in places said to be exclusively White areas. This apartheid legacy created and left the legacy of housing inequality between rural and urban areas of South Africa. With the abolition of the influx law

around 1994, the flow of migration became a serious issue for the South African population as many people began to look for better livelihood (Nyirasafari, 2009). This migration flow, including female migration, increased housing demand in urban areas (Roux, 2009; Lekoa, 2011).

By linking existing literature to current results, the findings from this study are consistent with the views from literature that metropolitan areas draw upon the most migrants, followed by secondary towns, while rural areas experience net loss migrants (Roux, 2009). Obviously, this increase in urban population densities, as in the case of Gauteng and Western Cape for example, stems from being places of high economic opportunities. In fact, all these factors have great impact on housing demand in those areas. Hence, rental accommodation becomes an important tenure option for many female migrants who cannot afford to own houses in large cities. Thus, there is a general concern that continued urbanization will eventually overwhelm the capacity to accommodate all migrants (Lekoa, 2011).

More so, results showed that, of the female migrants living in non-metropolitan municipality areas, majority of them are highly represented in owned and fully paid dwelling units compared to metropolitan areas. In fact, non-metropolitan municipality areas are not as urbanized as metropolitan areas, hence the easy housing accessibility. Moreover, housing prices and affordability are not as high as found in metropolitan areas where housing accessibility is very competitive which create housing tension in those areas. For example, land, materials, and labour for housing construction are affordable at reasonable prices in non-metropolitan municipality areas, while they are very expensive in metropolitan areas which in turn affect housing tenure. These findings, therefore, support the hypothesis that housing tenure for female migrants differs according to areas of residence. This means that metropolitan areas are critical as they receive people they might not be able to accommodate, which consequently creates a housing gap between metropolitan areas and rest of areas outside metropolitan. In line with female migrants' characteristics, housing tenure status was examined by controlling areas of residence and household headship in the following section.

### **6.5.1 Housing tenure across municipalities and population groups**

The South African society is highly characterized by huge inequalities in various areas of life (Leibbrandt et al, 2007). Housing is one of these, especially for the migrant population group.

In this section, the discussion is based on the relationship between housing tenure and the population group by looking at whether female migrants are heading or not heading households in metropolitan and other areas of residence. Hence, the hypothesis that, *“Housing tenure of female migrants differs according to population group in metropolitan areas,”* was tested and supported by the results of Chi-square statistical test which indicates a significant relationship between these variables. The results obtained answered the research question, *“Do housing tenure of female migrants differ according to population group by household headship and areas of residence?”*

The confirmation of this hypothesis stems from the differentials of the housing patterns and how they vary among Black, Coloured, Indian/Asian and White population groups. The general picture that emerges is that renting and housing ownership varies according to population groups in metropolitan areas. Generally, these findings reflect the aspect of housing segmentation among different ethnic groups which might be rooted in the legacy of apartheid as enhanced by the formerly retrogressive Area Act of South Africa (Landau et al, 2009; Lekoa, 2011).

With respect to non-metropolitan areas, the same hypothesis was tested in the same way, and results show that housing tenure for Black female migrants, whether heading or not heading households, differs from the rest of the population groups. This study specifically found out that Black female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas are more likely to stay in owned and fully paid dwellings, compared to metropolitan areas. These findings are therefore consistent with the literature on migration and housing in contemporary South Africa that during the apartheid era, White and Black citizens were governed by different laws resulting in spatial planning that marginalized majority of Black South Africans (Rosenberger, 2003; Department of Housing, 2004; Roux, 2009). Moreover, the apartheid government marginalised Black majority South Africans and made it difficult for them to access housing in its policy formulation. The idea behind the findings is that, Black South Africa constitute majority of the population and the majority are poor. Though we do not look at the quality of housing, but Black female migrants are more likely to live in owned shacks in townships or in informal settlements which they can afford. Those who are economically advantaged are more likely to live in rented housing probably because they cannot afford to purchase housing due to meagre incomes, more responsibility in the households and so on.

### **6.5.2 Insight on marital status and housing tenure in municipalities**

In studying female migration and housing tenure, marital status is a very important feature which is used to identify the variation in housing tenure according to the marital status of female migrants. This is supported by the work of Fawcett and co-workers (1984) on female migration and adaptation in the cities of Asia. This author asserts that married and unmarried female migrants face difficulties differently on housing acquisition. The findings of this study remain consistent with existing scholastic evidence that married and unmarried female migrants differ in how they acquire houses on the housing market, depending on whether they are heading or not heading households.

On the whole, unmarried female migrants who are head of households living in metropolitan areas face serious housing problem in accessing housing. The findings in this study also revealed that married female migrants heading households are more likely to live in rented dwellings. The possible explanation might be that women who are not living with their partners or husbands are inclined to rent a place to stay, which confirms the vulnerability of married female migrants heading households in metropolitan areas. With very limited resources and family responsibilities, it becomes almost impossible for these women to own a house. With regards to married female migrants not heading households, the situation might be flexible since they can be accommodated by other people who could be their partners, husbands, parents or friends with housing ownership. Surprisingly however, this study revealed that widowed female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas were more likely to stay in owned homes. This can be explained by the effect of the law of inheritance which is probably respected by the South African society, especially in major cities where people are open-minded, coupled with the fact that these women constitute a vulnerable group which makes them eligible for subsidized housing grants.

At non-metropolitan municipalities, the general picture emerge is that most female migrants not heading households are lodging with people who own their houses. This is obvious since it is easier to accommodate somebody when the dwelling unit is owned. Hence, when looking at female migrants heading households, the view is that, except for women who were still single and or those who are divorced, the rest were living in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. The reason might be that it is easier for female migrants to have owned houses in non-metropolitan areas because housing prices are not too high as is the case in

metropolitan areas. Land for housing construction can also be acquired at a reasonably cheaper price. Another reason might be that housing subsidies are being used to build houses for the people in non-metropolitan areas contrary to the situation in metropolitan areas where land is unavailable and expensive, and the demand for accommodation is actually higher than non-metropolitan municipality areas.

However, why do the majority of single and divorced female migrants heading households are mostly living in rented dwellings in non-metropolitan areas. The most probable explanation might be that of income constraints. For example, a single female migrant who is just leaving school and looking for employment or recently started working is not easily eligible for a housing mortgage or bond. The worse part of this is that, those women who are working are not eligible for any housing subsidies grants. Another reason might be that people stay a long time whilst on the waiting list before they can be granted a house (as explained in the chapter on policy). This could be due to eligibility criteria for RDP housing which means that it takes time to attend to the housing demands of needy people.

To be eligible for subsidized low-cost housing, one must be over the age of 21, have a total household income of less than R 3500 per month and must be married or living with a partner (Sadie and Loots, 1998; Rust, 2006). More so, many divorced women migrants dominate in rented dwellings because it is difficult for them to get housing subsidies, especially when they were granted a house during the time they were still married. However, when divorce takes place, it becomes difficult to be granted a housing grant the second time. This is in accordance with the rule on accessing housing subsidy, particularly the RDP housing scheme which stipulates that in order to be granted an RDP house, the individual needs to be married and should not have owned a house before. More so, housing subsidies might not be highly competitive as is the case in major cities. This also explains the fact that the waiting period for female migrants to be granted RDP houses in those areas is not as long as is found in metropolitan areas, coupled with the fact that access to housing bonds might be easier because not so many people are competing for this important resource in non-metropolitan areas.

The issue around the housing tenure decision in household is very important, but with regard to marital status of female migrants not heading households, it is clear that among those women some of them are married living with their husbands, others are single living with their parents, or with other relatives, and even with friends. Actually the decision of renting

or buying a house is mostly taken by the head of the households, but those female migrants can also participate to those decisions especially when they contribute with something in the household whether in terms of income or with some chores at home.

The above-stated findings answered the research question, *“Do housing tenure of female migrants differ by marital status?”* This research question generated the hypothesis, *“Housing tenure status for female migrants differs according to marital status controlled by household headship and areas of residence.”* By means of Chi-square statistical test, the findings revealed an association between these two variables, meaning that there is an established relationship between housing tenure and marital status. Though the strength of the relationship was moderate, the calculated P-value confirmed the relationship between marital status and housing tenure status across areas of residence. Hence, in the following section, employment status was used as another factor which has an impact on housing tenure.

### **6.5.3 Housing tenure and its relation to employment status**

As employment opportunities opened up in service sectors such as domestic work and nursing, an important opportunity to reduce the risks that subsistence agriculture poses for many poor families was offered (Martin, 2004 cited in Omelaniuk, 2005). A study conducted by Reeves and Baden (2000) found that women work 67% of the world's working hours. Furthermore, two out of three of the world's illiterate people are women. Earnings by women range from 50-85% of men's earnings. Globally, women make up just over 10% of representatives in national government economy (Sassen, 2001). In fact, this situation has drastically affected women's lives, including access to scarce resources.

The results of this study indicated the pattern between employment statuses and housing tenure in metropolitan areas supports the literature. In fact, being employed female migrant heading or not heading household and living in metropolitan areas does not guarantee housing ownership. The findings suggest that, contrary to what would have been expected, majority of employed female migrants living in metropolitan areas are found in rented dwellings. This is consistent with the findings of Gilbert and co-authors (1997) that a large number of South African families are renting shelters, particularly in urban areas (Gilbert et al, 1997). Despite being employed, it is still not easy for female migrants to have access to

housing ownership. Depending on the occupation and net income earning, the employment often facilitates female migrants have access to rented housing. This is confirmed by the findings which reported a high proportion of employed female migrants who are living in rented dwelling places in metropolitan areas. This is similar to what was observed in the theoretical literature for this study which explains that, in some instances, proof of formal and stable employment is required for a successful application for a home ownership loan at South African banks or in any other such home loan agencies. However, migrant women who head households are rarely able to find a formal job due to the discrimination they face on the job market (Restrepo, 1999). Even the formal jobs they may find will be paying too low (William et al, 2011) to fully cover the housing ownership bond. Thus, women migrants prefer renting a place to live which are affordable to them rather than buying their own houses. Fortunately, the South African government has established some social housing institutions which can be rented easily at a reasonably low cost (see chapter on policy). Yet, these social housing institutions still are unable to match the high demand for houses right across the country.

Regarding the unemployed and not economically active female migrants, this study reported majority of them lives in rented dwelling places. These female migrants who are living in rented dwelling places with no stable source of income probably live with their children who pay the rent on their behalf. For those who are old in age, probably their pension might be used in helping them pay their rent. For those who are still minor, the rent might be paid by their parents or their guardians.

In non-metropolitan municipality areas, this study found that majority of female migrants not heading households living in these areas are mostly accommodated in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. This is obvious since it is often manageable and flexible to accommodate somebody when the house is owned than when it is rented. Sometimes it is a condition from the landlord to the tenant not to accommodate extra people in the lodgings. As regards employed female migrants heading households, many of them are staying in rented dwellings. The reason might be that employed female migrants are normally closer to their home towns and may feel that they may not need to buy another house in their place of destinations which is closer to their homes.

According to the above argument, the research question raised was, *“Is employment status related to housing tenure status of female migrants?”* Similarly, a hypothesis formulated in

this regard was, “*Employment is related to housing tenure status of female migrants.* Therefore, although housing tenure may be associated with other socio-economic factors such as occupation and income, it can be concluded based on the findings from the tested hypothesis that housing tenure is related to employment status of female migrants. A further conclusion is that the renting option plays an important role among the employed female migrants heading households living in metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas (Habitat UN, 2003). Hence, government’s initiative of providing housing which can be rented at low-cost plays a great role among the employed female migrants mostly living in metropolitan areas and earning between R3500 and R7500 income (Essink, 2010). Therefore, government should probably increase its social housing provision scheme to help alleviate the serious housing provision gap. Keeping in mind the role of employment status in relation to housing tenure of female migrants, the following section looks at the impact of education on housing acquisition.

#### **6.5.4 The relationship between level of education and housing tenure**

Education can affect women’s migration potential, as it also does with migrant men. But, unlike men whose education may compel them to move, with female migrants, foreign companies preferred to hire them because they are cheap and docile rather than being more educated than men (Omelaniuk, 2005; Guzman et al, 2008). Women in migration stream are largely unskilled and mostly poorly educated than men in sub-Saharan Africa in general and in South Africa in particular, which generally results in female migrants getting insecure jobs (Akrofi, 2006). Most migrant women end up becoming domestic servants or other informal and menial jobs. Wages for such jobs are generally very low. Akrofi (2006) argues that most migrant women are denied contracts and are sometimes subjected to abrupt firing from their jobs. Therefore, low education, unemployment and lack of specific skills for female migrants may push them to live in inadequate houses. In the context of South Africa, it is expected that female migrants with high education and with good employment positions would have access to housing ownership.

From the above argument, a question was raised, “*Is housing tenure status for female migrants related to the level of education*”? In response to this research question, a hypothesis was proposed in this regard, “*Housing tenure status is related to level of education of female migrants across areas of residence*”. Generally, the level of education



plays a great role in housing acquisition for female migrants. This study reported there are variations of housing tenure in relation to the level of education and household headship. Regarding female migrants not heading households with degrees, majority of them are lodge with people with owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. This concentration of highly educated female migrants in this type of housing tenure suggests that these female migrants might be accommodated by people who are highly educated as well. Probably, these female migrants are newly arrived and are still looking for employment, which may mean that they are probably lodging with friends or relatives who are well-established.

With regards to female migrants heading households who are highly educated with degrees, renting accommodation was their first option, while owned but not fully paid up housing was the second option. Female migrants heading households with primary education, or those with no schooling at all were either in occupied rent-free or in owned and fully paid up dwellings. Given these categories of female migrants earn little money, probably those types of housing options are provided for them by their employers or by the government because they are considered as vulnerable and poor.

At non-metropolitan municipality levels, this study revealed that regardless of the level of education, female migrants not heading households are mainly accommodated by other people who owned houses. However, female migrants heading households and with no schooling, primary or secondary level of education are concentrated in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. Those with certificates or high qualifications like degrees are mainly living in rented dwellings units. The possible reason might be that they are relegated to insecure jobs and elementary occupations with low pay which cannot help them purchase a home (Tati, 2010). Thus, they mostly resort to renting a place to stay. Furthermore, this results strongly support the literature that the number of years that an individual female migrant or household members spend learning has the biggest effect on the income earned, followed by occupation, and location (Yust et al, 1997)

In summary, the hypothesis tested in this study revealed a significant relationship between level of education and housing tenure status among female migrants heading and not heading households across areas of residence. This means that although a high level of educational attainment does not directly help to stay in owned houses, especially in metropolitan areas, it at least helps to pay monthly rent and other living expenses. Moreover, the age of female

migrants was assumed to be a factor which contributes to housing acquisition among female migrants. This relationship was assessed in the next section.

### **6.5.5 The impact of age on housing acquisition**

The most frequently researched differential factor used to distinguish between migrants and non-migrants includes age. This differential is important since people from different backgrounds will probably have different characteristics and their potential to access housing is probably different (Roux, 2009). In fact, few demographic characteristics are as important to migration as age is in influencing housing acquisition. From this study, age is an important factor which influences housing tenure among female migrants.

This study also shows the presence of children in the migration streams. This means there are some female children who are migrating with their families. These female migrants are mainly accommodated by people living in owned but not yet paid up dwelling units. In fact, female migrants not heading households from young age through to adult age of up to 55-59 age groups are mostly accommodated in owned but not yet paid up houses, while those from 60-64 age groups are accommodated by people who have full housing ownership. The general observation, however, is that very few young female migrants less than 14 years old are heading households in this study. However, young adults and middle-aged female migrants between 15-54 years old are mainly staying in rented dwellings, while female migrants heading households from 55 years and above are mainly living in their own dwellings.

Looking at the impact of age on housing tenure status in non-metropolitan municipality areas, the general picture from this study is that female migrants not heading households from young age up to elderly age are lodging with people who live in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. Female migrants heading households younger than 14 years old were found in the data. From those who were 15 years up to 34 years old, majority of them are living in rented dwellings, while those who are older than that are living in their own fully paid up houses. These findings confirm results in the literature provided by Miraftab (1999) that female migrants heading households in the early phase of domestic life cycle face a greater challenge to shelter themselves and their households than older women. Miraftab (1999) concludes that age and position in the family life cycle influence women's aspirations,

constraints and preferences for housing accommodation (Miraftab, 1999). In addition, Millington (2000) supported the findings of this study as well. This author saw that a retired migrant is more likely to be owner occupier than is a young migrant. The retired tends not to live in the private rented sector compared to the young and middle aged migrants. The findings therefore answered the research question asked, “*Is the age of female migrants related to housing tenure*”? In support of this question is the hypothesis that, “*The older the female migrants get, the higher the chances of owning a house*” (Murdie et al, 1999; Yu and Moses, 2009; Lekoa, 2011). This actually means that housing tenure varies with age groups of female migrants. Therefore, age is an important feature which facilitates housing ownership. Besides age, income of female migrants was also explored to measure its impact on housing tenure across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas in the next section.

#### **6.5.6 The impact of income on housing tenure**

Extensive studies has shown the level of education of individual female migrants or that of household members has the biggest effect on income earnings, followed by occupation, and location (Yust et al, 1997). In South Africa, female migrants’ socio-economic status is determined by their nature of employment (Yust et al, 1997). Women’s economic realities have implications for their rights of access to scarce resources, including housing acquisition resources (Pillay et al, 2002). The 1996 census revealed that 26% of female heads of households had income earnings of less than R 500 per month as compared to 13% of male heads of households. In 2001, two-fifths (40%) of all employed women were seen to be working in unskilled jobs employment, and close to one-fifth of employed women earned R200 or less per month, compared to only 9% of employed men (Budlender, 2002; cited in Pillay et al, 2002). In fact, the situation is particularly bad for Black women, who have a higher unemployment rate, and earn far less when employed.

Generally, women’s reality of income has implications for their rights of access to housing ownership (Pillay et al, 2002). This study shows that female migrants not heading households with low income who are living in metropolitan areas are lodging with people who are tenants. Those who had medium or high income are lodging with people who own but have not fully paid up yet for their houses. Actually, it is common that somebody with no income

may extremely need to be accommodated by others while still looking for employment. They are mainly accommodated by friends or relatives.

More so, this study shows that female migrants heading households with low or medium income are mostly living in rented dwellings, followed by those who were accommodated for free, possibly by their employers or relatives. In contrast, female migrants with high incomes are predominantly living in owned but not yet paid up dwellings. This is a result of the South African housing policy which is trying to enhance housing ownership among its citizens and permanent residents in order to meet Section 26 of Chapter 2 of the Constitution that, ‘*Everyone has a right to have access to adequate housing,*’ including security of tenure (Department of Human Settlement, 2009; Essink, 2010; Lekoa, 2011; Affordable Housing in South Africa, 2012).

In non-metropolitan areas, female migrants, whether heading or not heading households and with low income or with no income at all, are likely to stay in owned and fully paid up dwellings. As have been previously mentioned, this housing ownership tenure among female migrants with low or with no income at all might be a result of the South African policy to encourage everyone to have access to housing ownership. The government, in its effort to realize this right for all South Africans, has built over 3 million subsidized housing units since 1994 to meet this challenge (Affordable Housing in South Africa, 2012).

In addition, this study shows that female migrants with low income living in non-metropolitan areas are predominantly living in owned and fully paid up dwelling units, but those with medium and high income are living in rented dwellings. The reality is that high income does not necessarily entitle someone to housing ownership, due to the numerous other responsibilities that are associated with household headship. The hypothesis formulated in this regard was that, ‘*Housing tenure status of female migrants depends on the income earned*’. To ascertain this relationship, Chi-square test was utilized and the test was found to be statistically significant, confirming the existence of an association between those two variables. Hence, the research question was that, ‘*Is income of female migrants related to housing tenure status across areas of residence*’? This question was answered by the outcome of the hypothesis above. Duration of residence is one of the important migratory features which increase the chances of accessing housing units in the place of destination. Therefore, it was utilized in this study to verify its impact on the housing tenure status for female migrants across areas of residence.

### 6.5.7 The implications of duration of residence on housing tenure

Existing theoretical literature indicated the number of years in a residential place is assumed to be a crucial determinant of home ownership. Familiarity with the requirements of financial institutions and the socio-economic conditions all improve with the duration of residence, as this may result in increased knowledge of the housing market. This is supported by hypothesis derived from studies in the US which suggested integration, measured by years since migration, may impact housing tenure outcome in areas of destination (Constant et al, 2007; Basolo and Nguyen, 2009).

In order to test if the theory above is true, a hypothesis was formulated in that regard that, *“The duration of residence is related to housing tenure status of female migrants”*. This hypothesis was derived from the research question, *“Is there a relationship between duration of residence and housing tenure status of female migrants”*? Findings from this study suggest housing tenure status of recently arrived migrants differs from that of those who had arrived earlier and have stayed in a place for quite a long time.

This study further indicates that, except in metropolitan areas where slight variations are observed, female migrants who have stayed for a short time in an area tend to live in rented dwelling units, while those who have stayed in an area for quite long time had a good chance to know about their environment and to familiarize themselves with their neighbourhood. This obviously results in them being able to easily access information regarding housing finance and housing institutions. This study reported female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas that have stayed in the area for 1-3 years, are more likely to be staying in rented houses. However, with the passage of time, these tenants have better chances to accumulate wealth, information on finance houses and housing institutions and other ways of acquiring housing ownership. This means that with time, housing tenure can be changed from renting form to housing ownership condition. Therefore, the hypothesis that, *“The longer the stay, the more chances of living in owned and fully paid home,”* is supported by the findings of this study. These findings were observed particularly among female migrants heading households across all areas of residence.

Generally speaking, when one looks at the mobility of housing tenure status of female migrants heading and not heading households according to areas, it is clear that the rates of female migrants not heading households who were accommodated by other people in rented

dwellings declined from the 4<sup>th</sup> year of residence and the percentage of those who were owning housing started to increase gradually over time. This means that the housing tenure status of female migrants changes with duration of stay from renting housing to housing ownership status. Drawing on female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas, the results show that it takes a long time (at least five years) to change housing tenure status, especially shifting from renting to housing ownership. This is obvious since female migrants have other responsibilities in the home, with meagre income, and high cost of living expenses. This is an indication that female migrants heading households are more vulnerable on the housing market in South Africa. In fact, it is a general concern for female migrants living in metropolitan areas to own housing fully paid.

With regard to female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas, the findings reveal that the percentage of female migrants whether heading or not heading households who are renting decrease while those who own housing increase over time. In metropolitan areas, it is not surprising to see the number of female migrants with housing ownership is increasing fast. This is because of the means they have which facilitate an easy access to housing ownership such as low density population coupled with low completion. Knowing that household size has an implication on housing acquisition for female migrants, this assumption was examined in further analysis.

#### **6.5.8 Housing tenure and household size: Evidence from metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas**

In the study of migration and housing accessibility, there is growing evidence that households with more than one income earner and earning higher incomes have a greater impact on accessing housing ownership. It is generally assumed that overall income for the household will have a higher possibility of achieving home ownership (Constant et al, 2007).

The findings of this study support the existing theoretical literature. Recent results from this study suggest female migrants heading small households tend to stay in rented dwellings, while those who head large households are likely to stay in owned houses. Normally, small households feel comfortable to live in rented dwelling units, but as the households grow larger, the income earning of the household members put together may contribute to housing acquisition. The results of this study further revealed it is very seldom to find female migrants

heading household with more than twenty household members living in the same dwelling unit. Knowing that the size of households varies with locations, it is not surprising to see that many female migrants with small households living in rented dwellings in major cities like metropolitan areas, while those with larger households stay in owned houses in medium and small-sized cities or towns (non-metropolitan areas). In addition, for female migrants with small household living in non-metropolitan areas, it is normal to live in owned housing because it is easy for them to access housing as this is facilitated by cheap land and labor in areas, easy self-help construction and solidarity observed in rural areas. For those who are living in large cities however, they have no choice because of high competition and high proximity observed in those areas. This might be the reason why one can find large household living in small size housing in metropolitan areas. This argument is consistent with the modernization theory which explains family sizes and their locations for nuclear family are found in cities, while that of extended family is mostly found in the rural areas or in towns (Coa, 2012).

The hypothesis which was tested in this regard was, *“Household size has an impact on housing tenure status of female migrants”*. The research question derived from the literature was that, *“Does housing tenure for female migrants depend on household size”*? As confirmed by Chi-square, the test was statistically significant across all municipalities. Hence, it was concluded that, *“The larger the household, the more chances of staying in owned house”*. This implies that, housing tenure status for female migrants varies with the size of the household across municipalities. In this study, there is an evidence of a relationship between housing structure type and housing tenure status across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas as will be evident in the next section.

#### **6.5.9 The relationship between housing structure type and tenure status**

According to the United Nations Habitat (2003), an estimated 1.1 billion people in the world live in inadequate housing conditions in urban areas alone. In many cities of developing countries, more than half of the population live in informal settlements, without security of tenure and in conditions that can be described as life- and/or health-threatening (Le Roux, 2011). This decrease of formal housing accommodation has resulted in a massive increase in the number of households which are forced to seek accommodation in informal settlements and backyard-shacks, living in over-crowded conditions when compared to existing formal housing conditions (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

With regards to this study, the results of housing tenure status and housing structure type revealed that housing type is always associated with housing tenure status of female migrants. Furthermore, the relationship was strong enough to confirm the association. This study found that across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas, it can be concluded that for most female migrants heading or not heading households, standalone dwellings are mostly owned, while flats or block of flats and floating dwelling units are mainly rented across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. Since floating dwellings are affordable and feasible for the poor households, they are mostly living in rented accommodation across all areas of residence. These findings confirm that, despite a massive roll out of new low cost housing programme and other municipal services targeting the poorest sector in the society, the reality in South Africa today is that a large number of people are still living in unsafe and unhealthy housing conditions in informal settlements and back-yard shacks (Statistics South Africa, 2008). Many of these dwelling units are ill-serviced, poorly maintained and already beginning to deteriorate. Some improvement is certainly needed in the nature of houses, water provision and accessibility to electricity at the aggregate level in South Africa. These issues are documented in the census data in 2001 (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

The findings derived from literature generated the hypothesis that, “*Housing tenure for female migrants depends on housing structure type*”. This helped to answer the research question that “*Is housing tenure for female migrants depend on housing structure type?*”

In fact, findings from this study show standalone housing type that is commonly used across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas are fully owned. It is a type of housing which helps many female migrants to access housing ownership. Further investigation, however, is the quality of those housing units in the South African context. Another general picture emerging from this study is that flats or block of flats type of dwelling units are mainly rented across areas by female migrants, while floating dwelling units types are mostly occupied free of charge. This implies that female migrants with medium income, who cannot afford to purchase their own houses, mostly stay in rented accommodation like flats. Meanwhile, since the information on place of birth and place of previous residence are crucial factors in migration studies, they are discussed in the next section to explore the relationship which may exist.



### 6.5.10 Housing tenure status and place of birth

Recent literature suggests that strong migration streams continue to grow into the Gauteng and Western Cape provinces (Roux, 2009). The Eastern Cape and Limpopo provinces, however, remain the provinces with the largest number of out migration (Roux, 2009). With the above in mind, an attempt was made to describe the relationship between housing tenure and province of birth as hypothesized, “*The province of birth influences housing tenure of female migrants*”. The main objective was, actually, to answer the research question, “*Does housing tenure depend on the province of birth?*” The results of this study are consistent with the views expressed in existing literature. It was shown that female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas who were born in urbanized provinces are mostly living in rented dwelling units. This is so, because these areas draw most migrants, followed by secondary towns, while rural areas experience a net loss of migration (Roux, 2009).

The findings further suggest that female migrants not heading households born in highly urbanized provinces are mostly accommodated with people who live in owned and fully paid off dwelling units. The probable reason might be that, many people who were born in these provinces had higher chances to own their own houses when compared to those who are not born from these areas. Thus, to accommodate other migrants in owned homes might be more comfortable to people with own accommodation than lodging with somebody in rented houses. In fact, the general picture that emerges from the study is that at metropolitan level, regardless of the status of the province of birth, female migrants mostly live in rented dwelling units in places of destinations.

Looking at non-metropolitan areas, the results suggest that generally female migrants not heading households born in urbanized provinces are mostly lodged with people who own their houses. Yet, female migrants heading households who were born in non-metropolitan of highly urbanized provinces are mostly living in rented dwelling units, while those who are born in non-metropolitan areas of less urbanized provinces are mostly living in owned and fully paid up houses. In addition to this, female migrants not heading and those who are heading households and are born outside SA were mostly lodged with people who are tenants. These results confirm the hypothesis that was tested, “*Housing tenure differs according to province of birth*” by controlling for household headship and areas of residence.

### **6.5.11 Housing tenure and province of previous residence in municipalities**

Place of previous residence was identified to be an important variable which determines housing tenure in migration streams. In this sub-section, empirical results show there are variations in housing tenure according to female migrant's province of previous residence. The data indicates some variations in housing tenure status according to the provinces which female migrants previously lived. These patterns of migration also vary according to whether female migrants are heading households or not. The major migration pattern show that the areas where female migrants were last residing in before the time of survey impacts on the tenure option that female migrant takes. For example, it was shown that most female migrants who were previously living in highly urbanized provinces such as Gauteng and Western Cape Provinces but currently living in metropolitan areas are generally found living in rented dwelling units. More so, most female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas, regardless of the province they lived in prior to the survey, are mostly found living in owned and fully paid dwellings. In this regard, it can be suggested that the areas of residence play a crucial role in determining housing tenure choices of female migrants. The hypothesis that, "*Housing tenure for female migrants is determined by province of previous residence,*" was well-supported by the empirical findings when the statistical test done and it was found to be significant across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.

### **6.5.12 Housing tenure and occupation in municipalities**

A study conducted by Oxfam about the labour market, found that unequal pay, occupational exclusion or segregation into low skill and lowly paid work, all limit women in general, and female migrants' earnings in particular when compared to men of similar education levels. In addition to this, women's lack of representation and voice in decision-making bodies in the community and state enterprises perpetuates their discrimination in terms of access to public services like housing opportunities (Oxfam, 1995; Oxfam International, 2000; Cloete et al, 2009). In fact, women work 67% of the world's working hours while two out of three of the world's illiterate people are men. However, women's earnings are generally low, ranging from 50-85% of men's earnings. Globally, women make up just over 10% of representatives in national governments (Oxfam, 1995). These are some of the discrepancies with regards to

women's general participation in important socio-economic activities like securing housing accommodation.

Despite all the issues female migrants face on the labour market, occupation is still a very important feature in assessing female migrants' participation in housing acquisition. It plays an important role in realising housing acquisition across areas of residence. An attempt was therefore made to test the relationship between housing tenure and occupation, by focusing on household headship and areas of residence. The hypothesis formulated was, "*Housing tenure for female migrants is influenced by occupation across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas*". This statement was a proposition to the research question, "*Does housing tenure for female migrants differ according to occupation status?*" The findings supported the hypothesis that housing tenure for female migrants differs according to occupation across areas of residence and household headship.

Looking at metropolitan areas, results show that most female migrants not heading households who have high occupations are likely to be accommodated by people who own houses, while those who have moderate occupations and low or elementary occupations lodge in rented dwelling units, paying monthly rent. Generally, it seems that female migrants not heading households are often accommodated with people with high levels of social positions such as friends or relatives. In the case of married female migrants, the possible explanation might be that their husbands have housing ownership.

In the same vein, female migrants heading households living in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas, regardless of their occupation are generally staying in rented dwelling units, except those who are in elementary work where the majority eventually stay in occupied rent-free dwelling units. These are, for an example, female migrants heading households who are doing domestic work, farm workers and other unskilled jobs. These findings clearly show occupation is not a sufficient determinant of access to housing ownership for female migrants heading households with high positions, but it can ensure the capability to rent a place to stay in. This further indicates the vulnerability of female migrants heading households on the housing market which tends to affect even those with high occupational positions.

By taking into account female migrants characteristics, household characteristics and housing characteristics in determining housing tenure among female migrants, the next section looks

at the differences and the similarities of housing tenure status across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas.

## **6.6 The differentials of housing tenure among municipalities**

South African Local Government authorities have typically been unable to address challenges relating to migration, including the ability to provide and access suitable services, including housing. While government authorities and the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) have begun to recognise the importance of the rights and welfare of all residents, it is not clear what the scale of migration in the different areas is and its impact on the delivery of resources (Landau et al, 2011).

Drawing from the argument above, a comparison among areas of residence in relation to female migrant characteristics becomes very crucial. On the basis of the findings of this study, it is clear that housing tenure of female migrants differs by household headship and areas of residence in line with their characteristics. The focus on metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality is of great importance because the evidence suggests that female migrants access housing ownership differently across different areas of residence. Depending on female migrant characteristics, some areas of residence are more favourable to women in terms of housing acquisition (non-metropolitan), while other areas are very competitive (metropolitan). Even the government's housing provision scheme is not uniformly productive across the country to yield the expected results due to the magnitude of the demand. Some areas are more facilitative while others are more restrictive.

A general comparison of the results shows some differences between areas of residence in terms of housing acquisition. The findings show that generally housing is mostly competitive in metropolitan areas compared to non-metropolitan areas. The possible explanation for this housing competition in major cities might be the result of the high concentration of female migrants in metropolitan areas. These areas are observed as a stock of economic opportunities; consequently, this high concentration of female migrants in metropolitan areas has great impact on housing demand among the residents. Despite the volume of migration streams observed into major cities, some female migration streams in small towns was reported as well. Yet, its impact on housing acquisition in small cities is not as critical as can be observed in large cities. However, this migration stream of females with their families

from villages and farms to small towns will soon create major problems for all local authorities.

Looking at the comparison between housing tenure and population groups across different municipal areas, this study reported a great difference in housing tenure of Black female migrants in the different areas of residence. Most black female migrants who live in metropolitan areas are predominantly living in rented dwelling units, while in non-metropolitan areas they are predominantly living in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. It can be suggested that this is based on the impact of apartheid housing laws of Group Areas Act of 1950 (Act No.41 of 1950) which prohibited Black people's residential mobility and permanent settlement in urban areas, something which in turn affected Black people's housing ownership in South African towns and cities.

A further and clear comparison was also made between housing tenure and marital status in the different municipalities. The evidence from this study shows that for married and unmarried female migrants not heading households, whatever type of housing tenure they use can be attributed to the people who accommodate them. By referring to married and unmarried female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas, it is clear that majority of them are living in rented dwelling units. However, looking at those who are married or unmarried living in non-metropolitan areas, a high proportion of them was found to be living in owned and not fully paid up dwelling units, except for widows and separated female migrants who were living in owned and fully paid off dwelling units. These women migrants probably may have had housing ownership support from the government's housing institutions such as RDP (Reconstruction Development Program), BNG (Breaking New Ground) and PHP (People's Housing Process), since these women are categorized as vulnerable with low income. The implications of these results is that metropolitan areas continue to be a critical areas for female migrants in terms of housing acquisition since majority of them are concentrated in rented accommodations.

Comparing housing tenure and level of education for female migrants in the different municipal areas, the differences are obvious as has already been shown in the previous section of this chapter. It is surprising to learn from the findings that female migrants heading households with no education and those with only primary education live in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. The possible reason behind these findings might be the support from the government's housing policies as a fulfilment of the UN Millennium Development Goal

(MDG) stating that, *“Everyone has the right to access adequate housing,”* which includes security of housing tenure (Groenewald, 2011). Thus, this category of female migrants with little or no education falls under the category of those who are eligible for government’s housing subsidies.

Further findings from this study compare areas of residences by looking at housing tenure and the levels of education for female migrants namely: secondary education, certificate education and degree education. This study found out that most female migrants residing in metropolitan areas and with those kinds of qualifications live in rented dwelling units. Further, there was an observation that, generally, the situation concerning housing tenure in non-metropolitan areas is different from the one in metropolitan areas as a result of the implications of the levels of education. In non-metropolitan areas, female migrants with those educational qualifications are highly concentrated in owned dwelling units, except for the ones with degrees who are mainly found living in rented dwelling units across all areas. It would appear that South African housing policies are skewed against the highly educated female migrants because it is thought that they can look after themselves, something that the more vulnerable groups are unable to do on their own.

It is not, however, surprising to find that female migrants who possess a degree mostly stay in rented dwelling units. Actually, it can be concluded that having high qualifications does not necessarily entitle a migrant to housing ownership. The possible explanation might be that one can have higher educational qualifications such as a degree but might not necessarily have such good job to give her a decent salary income that can enable her to quickly buy her own house. Moreover, one may have a decent income, but might still have a lot of responsibilities to take care of at home, especially when all household members rely on female migrant’s income. This ultimately delays her acquisition of her own house. Concerning the comparison between housing tenure and employment in the different municipality areas, the findings report that similar housing tenure for employed female migrants heading households exists across different areas of residence. In fact, a high proportion of employed female migrants were found to be living in rented dwelling units as observed across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. The explanation for this may be related to the fact that in South Africa, being a paid employee does not entitle female migrants to housing ownership. For example, there are a lot of financial terms and conditions used to screen loan applicants seeking a home loan. In the case of some female

migrants in informal, insecure and part-time jobs with low wage earnings, they can hardly afford financial housing loans. Only the intervention of government in terms of housing subsidies and social housing institutions can help them address this issue.

Looking at the comparison between housing tenure and the age groups of female migrants in two areas of residence, the findings show that in non-metropolitan municipality areas, female migrants heading households at a younger age are staying in owned and fully paid off dwelling units. This housing ownership among young female migrants can be attributed to parents who were probably lodging with their children. A general similarity in relation to age groups is that housing ownership is predominant among young adult female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan municipality areas, while in metropolitan areas they are mostly renting their accommodation. The same similarity was observed among middle-aged female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas who are mostly renting their accommodation, while female migrants whose age group ranges from middle age and above live in owned and fully paid off dwelling units. In fact, these findings support existing theoretical literature which says that an increase in age also increases the chances of owning a house since it takes time to accumulate enough resources for it.

In order to identify the impact of income earnings on housing tenure for female migrants according to areas of residence, the results in the metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas were compared in order to identify the differentials. This study discovered that housing tenure varies with income earnings across areas of residence. This study showed that housing tenure status for female migrants not heading households and those heading households depends on income earnings, but differs according to areas of residence. Results revealed that female migrants with low income or with no income at all living in metropolitan areas are mostly living in rented dwelling units. In order for them to be able to afford to pay the required rent, they probably rely on their pension and child support grants. Those living in non-metropolitan municipality areas earning the same range of income, however, are mainly staying in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. The reason might be that, in those areas land, materials, and labour for house construction are much cheaper.

Looking at female migrants heading households with high income earnings living in metropolitan areas, majority of them stay in owned but not yet fully paid up dwelling units. In contrast, those living in non-metropolitan municipality areas live in rented dwelling units. The possible explanation for these findings might be that, first, having high income when

living in metropolitan areas means that one becomes eligible for a home ownership loan from banks or from any other institutions. Secondly, female migrants might have high income, but because they are the only one source of income in their household, they may have a lot of dependent responsibilities to take care of. In these circumstances, it is indeed not feasible and affordable to stay in their own houses. In fact, it is not often that female migrants find employment in non-metropolitan municipality which pays high salaries. These findings are therefore consistent with existing views from literature that income differential between rural and urban areas push migrants to move from rural areas to urban areas where economic opportunities are available (Thadani and Todaro, 1984; Mbonile and Lihawa, 1996; Tati, 2010).

Comparing housing tenure and duration of residence in different areas of residence, this study reported interesting results that female migrants living in non-metropolitan municipality areas take a short period of time to adapt to their new environment and own a house than those who live in metropolitan areas. The evidence from this study shows that most female migrants living in metropolitan areas could spend 4 years renting accommodation before moving into their own house, while female migrants living in non-metropolitan municipalities can spend only two years renting accommodation before moving into their own houses. These findings agree with the views in existing literature which say that the quality of accommodation improves with the length of time that a person spends residing in the area of residence. The newly arrived female migrants seem to experience the worst living conditions than those who are established in the area of residence (Parpat, 1995).

The type of housing seems to be an important factor which eventually facilitates housing acquisition for female migrants, just as household headship and area of residence are also of great importance in the same regard. The results from the comparisons in this study report some variations among areas. Standalone dwelling units facilitate housing ownership across areas. This means that majority of standalone housing units are mostly owned by some people, whether it is in the metropolitan or non-metropolitan municipality areas of residence. Flats or block of flats are, however, mostly useful in providing rented accommodation across areas.

When areas of residence were compared with housing tenure by province of birth, there were variations of housing tenure that emerged in the different areas of residence. Actually, province of birth was seen to have an impact on housing tenure status of female migrants.



Yet, this could differ by areas of residence. The results from this study indicated female migrants heading households born in highly urbanized provinces are mostly living in rented dwelling units in their places of destination, whether in metropolitan or non-metropolitan municipalities. Specifically, female migrants born in Western Cape or Gauteng provinces, whatever areas of residence in the place of destination, stay in rented dwelling units. Female migrants born in less urbanized provinces such as Eastern Cape, for an example, stay in rented dwelling units in metropolitan areas, while those living in non-metropolitan areas stay in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. This asymmetric housing tenure pattern across areas of residence possibly stems from the way the whole population is distributed across the country, and also the way housing provision is delivered throughout the provinces and municipalities.

With regards to the comparison between housing tenure and province of previous residence, the differentials were assessed across areas of residence. The results from the comparison revealed that, irrespective of the province from which female migrants were living in prior to this study, except of course the Eastern Cape Province, a high proportion of those who were found living in metropolitan areas live in rented accommodation. Thus, female migrants who were living previously in provinces of high economic opportunities are more likely to stay in rented dwelling units especially in metropolitan areas. However, those who came from poor provinces were found in owned and fully paid up dwelling units in non-metropolitan municipality areas.

With regards to the differentials between areas of residence in relation to housing tenure and occupation, there were major differences that emerged between metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. This study reports that female migrants heading households living in metropolitan or non-metropolitan areas in whatever occupation, has a high proportion living in rented dwelling units, except those in elementary work with special skills in agriculture and fishery where the majority were staying in occupied rent-free houses.

The comparison between areas of residence and housing tenure and household size reported some interesting findings. The results revealed that household size is related to housing tenure and is dependent on the area of residence. Female migrants whose household is smaller (1-4 members) uses renting as their most preferred form of tenure in metropolitan areas, while in non-metropolitan municipality areas, those sizes of households were more likely to be found in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. Hence, medium sized

households (5-9 members) were found living mostly in owned and fully paid up dwelling units across areas of residence. Households with more than 10 members were predominantly living in owned and fully paid up dwelling units, with a higher percentage of them in metropolitan areas as compared to non-metropolitan municipality areas.

## **6.7 The predictors of housing tenure status**

In this study, logistic regression analysis was used to identify the determinants of housing tenure of female migrants and to what extent they influence housing tenure. Among the two areas of residence which are metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipalities, different models were developed to describe the influence of each independent variable towards dichotomized dependent variables. Interesting results highlighting the relationship between housing tenure and female migrant characteristics were assessed.

### **6.7.1 Sub group 1.1: FM HOH living in owned and fully paid up houses**

The evidence from literature has shown that there is a large demand for housing and there is a large part of the South African population that cannot afford to buy or rent houses at market prices (Roux, 2009). In addition to this, Cross (2008) discovered that migrant people choose the best combination of accessibility, affordability, earnings and social environment to locate area of migration. Depending on their profiles, they live in different kinds of areas, rental accommodation, formal housing types and government subsidized housing schemes, among other housing options (Cross, 2008). In the following section, the variables which have an impact on housing ownership are discussed at the two levels or metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.

#### ***6.7.1.1 Metropolitan areas***

In metropolitan areas, variables that influence accessibility to housing ownership among female migrants heading households were identify and tested. The data fits the model and the test was statistically significant. This study found that the model coefficient as well as Hosmer and Lemshow test was significant.

Age was identified to be one of the contributing factors towards owning and fully paid up a house for female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas. This study further found that, with an increase in age of female migrants, their chances of accessing owned and fully paid up houses also increases. This implies that young female migrants who head households are dominantly found living in rented dwelling units, but as they become older, the tendency is to move into owned houses. In fact, these findings was consistent with what is in existing literature since it is commonly known that it takes time to accumulate enough income and wealth to buy a place to stay. Bank repayments for the housing bond takes quite many years to complete. Furthermore, for those who have access to government housing schemes, they can stay for a long time on waiting list for them to benefit on the RDP housing scheme, People's Housing Process scheme or the Breaking New Ground Housing scheme.

Household size was also seen to be significant in the study and was observed to be an important feature that increases the likelihood of living in owned and fully paid up dwelling unit. In fact, small households are most likely to live in rented dwelling units and often move to new areas of residence than large households. Yet, large households often appear to stay in big houses which are often owned and fully paid up. This implies that as the household grows larger, there is always the need to purchase own housing unit to accommodate that large family.

Hence, the findings confirmed the hypothesis that an increase in household members results in higher chances of staying in owned and fully paid up dwelling unit. Duration of residence was also thought to be an important factor which contributes to the propensity to acquire an owned and fully paid up house for female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas. The longer the stay in area of residence, the more they become familiar to the neighbourhood and information on financial institutions' facilitation to purchase a housing property.

#### ***6.7.1.2 Non-metropolitan areas***

In non-metropolitan areas, the model coefficient, as well as the Hosmer and Lemeshow were significant as well. The result shows that age, household size, housing structure type, work status and duration of residence all facilitate or constrain the likelihood of acquiring full housing ownership for female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas. An increase in age

was observed to play a crucial role in increasing the chances of staying in owned and fully paid up dwelling unit. In reality, this might be true in the sense that as an individual grows older the person strives to own a place to stay permanently. Household size also plays a crucial role in increasing the propensity to access owned and fully paid up house in non-metropolitan areas. In these medium sized towns, extended families are prominent and it creates the need for owned and bigger space to stay. Therefore, household size increases the likelihood of housing ownership among female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas.

Household structure type, especially standalone dwelling type, fuels the propensity to access owned and fully paid up dwelling unit in non-metropolitan areas. This is not surprising because in non-metropolitan areas, people are likely to stay in standalone dwelling units than in flats or in floating dwelling units. Duration of residence was also observed to boost the possibility of acquiring owned and fully paid up dwelling unit among female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas. These findings are in general agreement with what exists in literature which states that the duration of residence is associated with better housing conditions, including security of housing tenure (Huq-Hussain, 1996).

Work status was identified to be a risk factor for housing ownership in non-metropolitan areas. Paid employee, self-employed and employer female migrants have fewer chances of staying in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. This means that work status does not necessarily entitle an employee, self-employed or employer female migrant heading household who lives in non-metropolitan areas to own a house. In South Africa, it takes about 30 years to repay a housing loan bond.

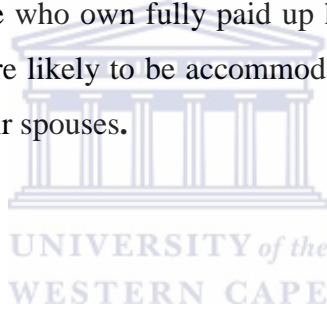
### **6.7.2 Sub group 1.2: FM NOT HOH living in owned and fully paid housing**

Despite the situation of female migrants heading households discussed earlier, the study also looked at the main determinants of housing tenure for female migrants not heading households in different areas of residence. In actual fact, female migrants not heading households migrate mainly to places where they know some other people or know that they will easily find work, perhaps through their own contacts. The fact is that people from the same place often migrate to the same areas of residence. Existing literature pointed out that female migrants not heading households, on their arrival to areas of destination, are often

lodged with people who have migrated earlier before them (Bank & Kaman, 2010). They could also be accommodated with other migrant counterparts or people who are not migrants.

#### ***6.7.2.1 Metropolitan areas***

In the context of this study, the main determinants of female migrants not heading households were measured in order to describe their level of relationship. In metropolitan areas, the model fitted the data and it was statistically significant. The inference drawn from the analysis was consistent with views from literature which say that population groups, age, household size, marital status, housing structure type, level of education and duration of residence all contribute towards the possibility of housing ownership (Lekoa, 2011) for female migrants lodging with other people in metropolitan areas. In fact, young Black female migrants who live for long time in a particular area of residence increase their chances of being accommodated with people who own fully paid up houses in metropolitan areas. Yet, married women migrants are more likely to be accommodated by other people because they are expected to be living with their spouses.



#### ***6.7.2.2 Non-metropolitan areas***

In the context of South Africa, non-metropolitan areas are often medium sized or small towns and cities which are moderately populated. The level of sociability is quite strong among all residents, where people generally care for each other. It is evident that female migrants who move into these kinds of areas of residence are normally accommodated by people whom they know before. The main determinants which help female migrants to be lodged by other people are namely: population group, age, household size, and marital status, housing structure type, level of education, work status and duration of residence.

It has been shown that young and elderly Black female migrants tends to be lodge with people who live in owned and fully paid up houses in non-metropolitan areas. Given that non-metropolitan areas are part of rural areas, the availability of large households is evident and this accommodates some women migrants who may struggle to find somewhere to stay. Moreover, the availability of standalone dwelling units facilitates the accommodation of female migrants who face problems to accommodate themselves.

Married female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas have less potential of lodging with people who have full housing ownership. Married women are expected to stay on their own with their partners, except in some special cases where they are separated due to some circumstances such as studying or working far away from their home. Otherwise, if they are married in community of property, it means they are entitled to housing ownership. These women who tend to be accommodated by other people do not need to be educated. Otherwise, they are able to own or rent a place on their own. In addition, female migrants not heading household do not necessarily need to be paid employees in order for them to be accommodated by others people. However, paid employee female migrants who earn a salary can be able to accommodate themselves, without having to depend on other people accommodating them.

### **6.7.3 Sub-group 2.1: FM HOH living in owned but not yet fully paid up houses**

It is not always easy for female migrants heading households to stay in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. The results of this study confirmed that some female migrants heading households, however, are still paying for their places. Paying for a housing bond takes a long time to finish. In South Africa, the maximum time for repaying a housing bond is about thirty years (Arden, 2012). This means that many people spend their entire life repaying the housing loan to the bank. In fact, it is hard for female migrants heading households to get a housing bond, knowing that they might have many other household family responsibilities to fulfil. Thus, it was noteworthy to assess the variables which facilitate or constrain female migrants heading households to live in dwelling units which are owned but not yet fully paid up.

#### ***6.7.3.1 Metropolitan areas***

In metropolitan areas, the findings from this study show that the model used to assess the variables which influence female migrants not heading households to stay in owned but not yet paid up dwelling units fits the data and the relationship was found to be significant. Some of the independent variables which were used and shown to be statistically significant includes: age, household size, housing structure type, income, level of education, occupation and duration of residence.

In fact, age of female migrants heading households increases the possibilities of owning a house not fully paid up. This is supported by Tacoli's (2012) argument that migration is selective. As earlier mentioned, repaying of a housing loan takes a long time. Nevertheless, as migrants grow older and the age passes by, this increases the potential of repaying the housing loan. Household size for female migrants is observed to be a channel that can be used to own but not fully paid up dwelling units. This study discovered that the increase in household members, especially those who are working, also increases the likelihood of acquiring an owned house even if they do not manage to repay it fully. Housing structure type, particularly standalone dwelling type, plays a crucial role in increasing the chances of accessing housing ownership which still needs to be paid off. According to the findings of a housing report, the percentage of the households living in formal dwelling units has increased from 62.9% in 2001 to 70.6% in 2007. Moreover, the percentage of households living in informal dwelling units decreased from 28.6% to 24.5% in 2007. These examples convincingly show how standalone housing has helped to contribute to the housing ownership (Statistics South Africa, 2008).

The time spent living in a particular area of residence increases the likelihood of acquiring a house which will still need to be paid off. Familiarity with the neighbourhood, good relationship with people in housing provision sector and the connections with critical information regarding housing financing institutions in the areas of residence all facilitate housing ownership not fully paid up in metropolitan areas. In addition, income level and level of education also increase chances of housing ownership not fully paid up, instead of being a barrier to it. With regards to income, high and medium income should increase the likelihood of staying in owned and fully paid up house, which is contrary to the results of this study. Concerning level of education, it is seldom that female migrants with primary and secondary education own a house and are able to repay the home loan to the bank.

#### ***6.7.3.2 Non-metropolitan areas***

The model built in this regard involving all dependent variables indicated that the test was statistically significant. The determinants of owned but not yet fully paid up housing tenure of female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas were examined. The study found that some of these significant variables include: population group, household size, housing structure type, income and duration of residence. Population group does not

play an important role because a high proportion of Black female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas tends to stay in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. Household size is a very important factor among female migrants. It boosts the potential of owning a house, even if it not fully paid up; after all, it is better than renting accommodation.

Hence, housing structure type, particularly the provision of standalone units and flats or block of flats type of dwelling units, all contribute to the likelihood of owning a house which is not fully paid up. The findings from this study further revealed that high income provides fewer possibilities of owning a house not fully paid up, among female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas, rather than owning a fully paid up house. This means that those who have high income are normally expected to stay in dwelling units which are fully paid up. More so, the duration of residence influences the potential of staying in a house which is not fully paid up. This argument is supported by MirafTAB (2001) that, female migrants who are used to the environment they live in are better off than newly-arrived persons in accessing housing units not fully paid up in non-metropolitan areas.

#### **6.7.4 Sub group 2.2: FM NOT HOH living in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units**

In this section, model one was used to analyse factors which facilitate female migrants not heading households in being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units in metropolitan areas. Due to prevailing circumstances, they often needed to be accommodated by other people in order to have a roof over their heads because they cannot accommodate themselves. This model highlighted the variables which facilitate or constrain female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas.

##### ***6.7.4.1 Metropolitan areas***

The model coefficient was significant. The variables which were significant in the tested equation were population group, age and household size, housing structure type, income, level of education, province of previous residence, occupation and duration of residence. Actually, being Black female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas constrains the likelihood of being accommodated in owned but not yet fully paid up dwelling units. The reality is that majority of these Black women migrants might be accommodated in



other types of dwelling units other than owned but not fully paid up. This might be related to the legacy of apartheid in South Africa which limited the movements and permanent stay of the Black population in large cities, resulting to low housing ownership among the Black population that is now living in metropolitan areas due to not being afforded the chance to invest in housing. An increase in the age of female migrants not heading households equally increases the likelihood of them lodging with people in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. The reality is that when a female migrant parent gets older, they are likely to be accommodated with their children who are well-established in their own houses.

More so, household size was shown to be a catalyst which contributes to female migrants lodging with people who live in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. Large household increases the chance of accommodating female migrants in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units because they cannot accommodate themselves in metropolitan areas. Housing structure type, particularly free-standing dwelling units, play a very important role in accommodating female migrants who cannot accommodate themselves on arrival in new migration destinations. Flats or block of flats housing structure types was also identified to play a significant role in housing ownership, but not to the same extent as free-standing dwelling units.

However, income does not play any special role in housing ownership where female migrants are accommodated with other people in metropolitan areas. The expectations are that those who earn a high income do not need to be accommodated by other people, since with a high income; female migrants should be able to accommodate themselves. The level of education was also shown less likely to influence housing ownership. Findings from this study showed having only primary education and secondary education constrains the potential of female migrants to be accommodated by people who live in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units in metropolitan areas. Further inference is that place of origin, especially province of birth or province of previous residence, also determines the housing tenure of female migrants in their place of final destination. The findings revealed that female migrants who were born or lived previously in highly urbanized provinces had bigger chances of being accommodated with people who are living in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. This supports the hypothesis that housing tenure for female migrants differs by province of birth or province of previous residence and by household headship and area of residence.

Occupation is a variable which contributes to the likelihood of female migrants lodging in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units because they cannot accommodate themselves. For example, being a highly skilled female migrant increase the potential to lodge with other people who live in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. This is possible because the presence of other migrants may result in everyone contributing towards the payment of monthly instalment of the house. Furthermore, duration of residence was identified to be a contributing factor to the possibility of female migrants being accommodated with people who live in owned but not fully paid up houses. Findings from this study suggests that the more time migrants stay in a community, the higher the possibility of knowing other residents in the neighbourhood who live in their own houses and can accommodate them since they cannot accommodate themselves.

#### ***6.7.4.2 Non-metropolitan areas***

Model coefficient used to measure the variables which contribute or constrain the likelihood of being accommodated with people who live in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas was significant. The study found that female migrants are moving into non-metropolitan areas from deep rural areas looking for better livelihood ((Nyirasafari, 2009). It has been suggested that internal migration is most common from rural to urban settings, and migration is from poorer to more prosperous rural areas (Jolly and Reeves, 2005).

In non-metropolitan areas, a number of variables became significant in the equation. For example, population group was significant, but it is less likely to influence the likelihood of being housed by other people in these areas. In fact, since the majority of Black population live in rural areas and knowing that non-metropolitan are a bit rural, the expectation would have been to see the majority of female migrants staying in their own dwelling units that are fully paid up. Also, large household sizes increases the likelihood of having female migrants being housed in their own houses but not fully paid up as female migrants who do not head households living in non-metropolitan areas.

Housing structure type was identified to be the most contributing factor to the likelihood of being housed in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units among female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas. Actually, the availability of this type of dwelling units, especially in

non-metropolitan areas, increases the chances of being accommodated by other people who own dwelling units that are not fully paid up. Level of education and income are identified as variables which do not play an important role in housing tenure for female migrants not heading households. For example, female migrants with high income living in medium sized areas of residence should not need to be accommodated by other people because they have the potential of sustaining themselves in terms of housing acquisition.

Province of previous residence, particularly highly urbanized provinces, increases the chances of being accommodated in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. Occupation is also shown as a contributing variable, especially when female migrants have high skills. This increases the chances of being accommodated with other people who own a house which is not fully paid up. Duration of residence also plays a crucial role in determining housing tenure. The results from this study report show that as the time goes on, migrants get information and connections which brings with it familiarity with the neighbourhood and the individual accumulation of wealth which in turn helps to access certain types of dwelling units (Coa, 2012). Hence, the results in this model support the hypotheses formulated in this regard.



#### **6.7.5 Sub group 3.1: FM HOH living in renting**

Renting accommodation is an integral part of a well-functioning housing market (Habitat UN, 2003). UNESCAP/Habitat UN argues that renting housing matches with the overall housing market and add up to a considerable proportion of the total housing stock. However, it has been shown that the rental market is sometimes invisible in research discussions (White Paper, 1998), while central city tenements are proving to be a much more attractive option for poor women (Miraftab, 2001).

##### ***6.7.5.1 Metropolitan areas***

When the dependent variable ‘renting’ was assessed, the outcome of the analysis indicated that the test coefficient was statistically significant. This study revealed that Black and Coloured female migrants heading households tend to stay in rented dwelling units in metropolitan areas. Miraftab (2001) study supports these findings by saying that women tend to be less concentrated among homeowners in the peripheral areas, and are more likely to rent

their accommodation in city centre areas (Miraftab, 2001). Furthermore, this study reported that age provides lower chances for female migrants heading households to acquire a rented accommodation in metropolitan areas. This might be that whether young or old, age is not a condition for women migrants to rent a place. Housing structure type, particularly standalone dwelling units, has less influence on the rental accommodation. The findings from this study indicated the availability and affordability of flats or block of flats in metropolitan areas, however, increases the possibility of renting a place to stay among female migrants heading households.

In addition, income and occupation are the prerequisites for female migrants to get a place to rent. Though studies (see Heron, 2005) indicate that discrimination is an enduring fact in the labour market, the data shows that being highly and moderately skilled female migrants heading households increase their chances of obtaining a place to rent in metropolitan areas. This is the same for income, because having medium income earning facilitates female migrants heading households to rent a place in metropolitan areas (Restrepo, 1999; Rust, 2006; Piper, 2013). However, regarding the duration of residence, female migrants do not need to stay for a long time in a place in order for them to find a place to rent. The availability of real estate agents and media advertisement has made accessibility easy.



#### ***6.7.5.2 Non-metropolitan areas***

Logistic regression analysis helped to identify variables which facilitate or constrain housing tenure of female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas, particularly those who are renting. The model was consistent with the data and the test was statistically significant.

At non-metropolitan level, variable such as population group, particularly being Indian or Asian female migrants heading households boosts the likelihood of staying in rented dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas. On the contrary, age of female migrants heading households, does not play an important role when looking for a place to rent in non-metropolitan areas. Small households tend to stay in rented dwellings, while large households are more likely to stay in owned homes. However, household type plays a role in obtaining a place to rent, but with a very low influence. The possible explanation might be that it is not always affordable to rent standalone housing units because they are often expensive. Rather, female migrants

opt for flats or block of flats because they are cheaper and safer to live in than standalone dwelling units. Due to other family responsibilities and commitments, the income earnings of female migrants heading households do not allow them to live in free standing dwelling units. On top of this, standalone dwelling units are more likely to be owned, while flats or block of flats often tend to be rented.

Level of education was observed to be significant. However, results suggested that female migrants heading households with only primary level of education hardly manage to rent a place to stay. With only primary education, female migrants heading households without any other financial support are very limited on the housing market due to the insecurity of their jobs and low income (Restrepo, 1999; Rust, 2006; Piper, 2013). Occupation, however, was observed to be an influencing factor towards living in rented dwelling among female migrants heading households. More so, having high or moderately skills increases the possibility of renting a place to stay in non-metropolitan areas. Work status was also identified to be an influencing variable as well. The findings suggest that female migrants heading households who are employees or self-employed tend to stay in rented dwelling units (Tacoli, 2012). This implies that, income is a key element for female migrants heading households to acquire a place to stay. However, this study reported that duration of residence has a very low influence on renting. This might be that acquiring a place to rent does not have much to do with time spent in a place.

### **6.7.6 Sub group 3.2: FM not HOH living in rented dwellings**

After examining the determinants of female migrants heading households, it is also necessary to measure the ones for female migrants not heading households at metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. The survey results found that some variables in the equation were statistically significant, and the model fits the data.

#### ***6.7.6.1 Metropolitan areas***

With regards to female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas, this study found that renting is one of the commonest form of tenure used to obtain a place to live in. Some variables are significant in the model such as: age, household size, marital status, housing structure type, income, level of education, province of previous residence and

occupation. Age actually have very little impact on finding a place to stay in for female migrants not heading households. Since those female migrants are normally accommodated with other people who might be relatives or friends, age is less important for one to be accommodated. More so, household size brings little contribution among female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas. As previously observed in this study, household size becomes only important when it comes to housing ownership. The results further reported that being married female migrants heading households contributes very little chances for one to find a renting dwelling unit. The normal expectation is that married female migrants live with their partners or husbands in owned dwelling units instead of living separately in rented dwelling units. Housing structure type, more particularly the availability of standalone dwelling units was seen to have very little impact in being housed in rented housing place in metropolitan areas.

Income is one of the better indicators of being accommodated in rented dwelling units among female migrants living in metropolitan areas. The results show that female migrants with high income living in metropolitan areas have to contribute to monthly rentals as part of their accommodation requirements. Level of education, particularly female migrants not heading households with secondary education, is unlikely to be considered to lodge in rented housing in metropolitan areas. The place of origin, such as province of birth or province of previous residence, was noted to play very little role in helping female migrants not heading households to find accommodation in rented houses. These variables suggest that being born or having been living previously in highly urbanized provinces contributes fewer chances towards female migrants not head of households' housing search.

Moreover, female migrants not heading households were seen as not needing to be highly skilled in order to be accommodated with relatives or friends for renting a place to stay in. It should not be a prerequisite for female migrants to have some skills in order for them to be lodging with other people. There is no specific duration of time that is required for female migrants not heading households to be accommodated in rented dwelling units in metropolitan areas, which means that duration of residence plays a very little role in finding accommodation to live in.

### **6.7.6.2 Non-metropolitan areas**

In non-metropolitan areas, most of the variables which were significant at metropolitan level are also significant at non-metropolitan level. The model coefficient was consistent with the data and the test was statistically significant. Among the factors indicating female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas who are lodging in rented dwelling units, population group was the most significant. Black female migrants not heading households are not likely to be housed in rented dwelling units. The overall expectation as indicated previously is to find Black female migrants not heading households lodging in owned and fully paid up dwelling units. On the other hand, being Indian or Asian female migrants not heading households increases the likelihood of being accommodated in rented dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas. As earlier mentioned in this study, this is likely to be true because Indians or Asians are more likely to stay in rented dwelling units.

Housing structure type, especially standalone dwelling units, do not play a big role. The availability of flats or block of flats was shown to have a big impact in increasing the chances of being accommodated with other people who are renting themselves. However, income, especially high income earnings or medium income earnings, is an important indicator which helps female migrants not heading household in non-metropolitan areas to be accommodated with other people also renting a place to stay in.

Level of education, particularly secondary education, was found to be a contributing factor towards one's likelihood of being accommodated in a house that is rented by other people such as friends or relatives who have migrated earlier before. Province of previous residence has less impact on getting accommodation to stay in among female migrants living previously in highly urbanized provinces of South Africa such as Western Cape and Gauteng provinces. Occupation and work status were shown to be good indicators. This study indicates for example that, being a highly skilled employee or self-employed increases the likelihood of one being accommodated with other people who live in rented dwelling units. It was further suggested that for female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas, duration of residence is not very important for them to be accommodated with other people who are also renting a place to stay in. These findings are supported by the network theory where Lee (1966) argues that migration facilitates the flow of information back from the place of destination to the place of origin, which in turn facilitates the

settlement of later migrants. In addition, the already settled migrants function as “bridge headers” who minimize the risks as well as material and psychological costs of subsequent migration (Murdie, 1998; de Haas, 2013).

#### **6.7.7 Sub group 4.1: FM HOH living in occupied rent-free**

After the discussion of the factors determining renting among female migrants across different areas of residence, factors which facilitate or constrain female migrants heading households from being accommodated in occupied rent-free dwelling units was considered. The test of the model for goodness of fit showed the model fits the data and the test statistics was statistically significant.

##### ***6.7.1 Metropolitan areas***

Some variables, such as population group, age and household size, housing structure type, level of education, occupation, and duration of residence used in the analysis are statistically significant and have been observed to contribute or constrain the likelihood of female migrants heading households in acquiring a place to stay free of charge.

This study reports that being Black female migrants heading household living in metropolitan areas boosts the likelihood of occupying a place to stay free of charge. This type of tenure is mainly observed among female migrant employees heading households who are often provided with a place to stay in by their employer in exchange for goods or services. This is commonly observed among domestic workers, mine workers and farm workers. The results from this study accentuate housing inequalities stemming from the apartheid era and which still persists even today. Age indicated a positive impact among female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas. This means that as female migrants grow older, there are higher chances of staying in residential places for free. For example, there is a policy in South Africa that female migrants, at retirement age, may apply for a retirement place to live in. Once it is approved, one can move into this retirement place permanently free of charge.

Household size, however, is less likely to influence the likelihood of staying in free accommodation because female migrant heading households living in metropolitan areas can be accommodated for free, regardless of the size of the household. This study reports the



availability of standalone dwelling units and flats or block of flats, as housing units, are less important when it comes to freely occupied accommodation. Possibly, these types of dwelling units are not often used to accommodate people free of charge. Level of education has been shown to be very important, especially secondary education. With regards to occupation, female migrants do not necessarily need to be highly or moderately skilled in order to acquire free accommodation in metropolitan areas. This might be true because most female migrants who are found in occupied rent-free accommodation are the ones held in elementary work or in agriculture and fishery-related occupations. Findings suggest that duration of residence is important for female migrants heading households in order to stay in a house for free. This is because it will take female migrants some time to get to know their environment, neighbourhood and the institutions related to financing housing ownership.

#### ***6.7.7.2 Non-metropolitan areas***

The factors which influence the likelihood of female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas were also examined. Population group was the most significant factor. It shows if being a Black or Coloured female migrant heading household living in non-metropolitan areas increases the possibility of staying in occupied rent-free dwelling units. The results imply that since most female migrants are often held in elementary work like domestic work, agriculture and fishery, they tend to get free accommodation from their employers.

Household size was also observed to be a very important variable which plays a great role among female migrants heading households in increasing the likelihood of staying in a dwelling unit free of charge. A possible explanation is that large households tend to accommodate people for free or just for a small contribution, which further explains how strong the solidarity in medium-sized and small-sized cities is compared to the situation in major cities or metropolitan areas. Housing structure type, however, is less likely to influence the likelihood of living in free accommodation. Standalone dwelling units and flats or block of flats are not often occupied by female migrants for free.

Further findings depict that, for female migrants heading households living in non-metropolitan areas, having only primary education is sufficient enough for them to be accommodated in a dwelling unit for free. This is ample evidence that South African housing policies are more inclined to serving the most vulnerable group among women. However,

those with secondary education are not expected to stay in occupied rent-free accommodation in non-metropolitan areas. Moreover, female migrants heading households do not need to be highly skilled or moderately skilled in order to get free accommodation in non-metropolitan areas. Accordingly, it can be concluded that female migrants heading households who tend to be accommodated for free are generally poor with very little means to look after their housing needs. These are the poorly educated and lowly skilled who tend to live in inadequate housing types.

#### **6.7.8 Sub group 4.2: FM NOT HOH living in occupied rent-free**

The variables which influence the likelihood of female migrants not heading households were verified. The model coefficient was seen to be consistent with the data and the statistical test in this regard was seen as significant.

##### **6.7.8.1 Metropolitan areas**

At metropolitan level, the outcome of regression analysis showed population group was significant. Hence, Black female migrants not heading households were more likely to be lodging in occupied rent-free dwelling units such as hostels which accommodates farm workers, mine workers, fishery workers and domestic workers. Furthermore, it was shown that people who accommodate female migrants not heading households in occupied rent-free dwelling units were often found in floating dwellings or in other dwelling types. Possibly, floating dwellings or such other informal dwelling units are the kinds of dwelling types which increase their chances of living free of charge. More so, female migrants with only primary education are more likely to be lodging with people who live in occupied rent-free dwellings. In fact, people who accommodate female migrants with only primary education are often assumed to be poor with a low level of education as well. In the same vein, time spent living in a place increases the likelihood of lodging with people who occupy the dwelling unit for free.

### **6.7.2 Non-metropolitan areas**

The factors that increase or limit the chances of acquiring occupied rent-free dwelling units among female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas were identified. The variables included in the equation were significant, the model coefficient fits the data and the test statistics was significant. Population group was significant since it shows that being Black or Coloured female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas increases their potential to be accommodated in occupied rent-free dwelling units. Age and household size, however, contributes fewer chances to living in rent free accommodation, while marital status, particularly being married, increases the likelihood of lodging in occupied rent-free dwelling units in non-metropolitan areas. This might be an example of female migrants lodging with their partners or husbands while working on farms or in mines where accommodation is provided by their employers.

Housing structure type and level of education are both less likely to influence the chances of staying in rent-free accommodation. However, province of birth, especially being born in not urbanized province increases the possibility of lodging in occupied rent-free dwelling units. For female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas, having high skills is not necessary for them to be lodging with other people. In contrast, female migrants with high skills are assumed to be capable of accommodating themselves.

## **6.8 Comparison of housing tenure status among municipal areas**

The objective of this comparison was to identify factors which facilitate or constrain housing tenure for female migrants and also, to highlight the differences and similarities in migration streams in the areas of residence. The idea was to identify which area of residence female migrants have difficulties in accessing a place to stay in. This study also seeks to determine which category of female migrants has difficulties in acquiring a place to stay in. The key hypothesis was to measure if, “*Housing tenure for female migrants differs by household headship and by areas of residence*”. This comparison was performed on the basis of the results derived from logistic regression analysis.

### **6.8.1 FM HOH living in owned and fully paid up houses by area of residence**

In this study, what can be learned from the comparison among areas in line with female migrants heading households living in owned and fully paid up dwelling units is that age is a good indicator of housing tenure status throughout the two areas of residence. Its impact is slightly similar across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. Household size was also identified as an important predictor which determines housing ownership across the two areas, but its contribution is higher in non-metropolitan areas; much lower in metropolitan areas. Housing structure type, particularly standalone housing units, was seen to be significant across the two areas, with the highest influence being felt in metropolitan areas and the lowest in non-metropolitan areas.

Income was shown to be a significant variable in metropolitan areas, meaning that housing acquisition is much harder to achieve for female migrants in major cities when compared to non-metropolitan areas (medium-sized and small-sized cities and towns). Work status of female migrants was also shown to be significant, although paid employees were seen to have less chance of staying in owned and fully paid dwelling units, in non-metropolitan areas. Self-employed female migrants heading households were reported to have lesser chance of staying in owned and fully paid up housing units in non-metropolitan areas, while employer female migrants were seen to also have lesser chance of staying in owned and fully paid up houses in non-metropolitan municipality areas. This seems to be as a result of insufficient incomes for female migrants which eventually hamper their housing affordability. Further inference from this study is that the duration of residence in an area increases the possibility of female migrants staying in owned and fully paid up dwelling units across the two areas of residence, even though the chances to live in an owned and fully paid up dwelling unit is higher in non-metropolitan areas. This is possibly due to the fact that these rural people care for each other more than what is seen in major cities where people prefer to live their own life on their own terms.

### **6.8.2 FM NOT HOH living in owned fully paid up house by area of residence**

After comparing the areas of residence in terms of housing tenure status and in line with the characteristics of female migrants heading households across the areas of residence, the characteristics of female migrants not heading households by area of residence was also

compared. This study found out that being Black female migrants not heading households increases the likelihood of staying in owned and fully paid up dwelling units across areas of residence but, the chances were much higher among those who are staying in non-metropolitan areas, as compared to metropolitan municipality areas. This clearly indicates that the proportion of Black female migrants owning houses is higher in non-metropolitan areas. For the Coloured and Indian or Asian groups, this variable was seen as significant only in non-metropolitan areas.

Age was seen as significant and increased the possibility of one lodging in owned and fully paid up dwelling units among women migrants not heading households. The odds are slightly similar across areas. Household size has almost similar influence across areas of residence, while being married female migrants not heading households contributes lesser chances, but the same in metropolitan and in non-metropolitan areas. The study also revealed that housing structure type, particularly standalone dwelling units boost the likelihood of female migrants being housed in owned and fully paid up dwelling units across the two areas of residence. The possible reason for this might be the availability of owned standalone dwelling units in rural areas as compared to the situation in large cities. The high level of solidarity and help among people in rural areas was another reason for it.

The availability of flats or block of flats, however, was seen to have less influence in accommodating female migrants not heading households in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas because this type of housing is seldom found in these areas. Many people are mostly accommodated in standalone housing types. Level of education, especially primary education, provides less chances of one lodging in owned and fully paid up dwelling units among female migrants not heading households living in non-metropolitan areas. The possible explanation for this is that very few people with that level of education can afford to own houses in those areas.

Having secondary education, however, was seen as boosting the possibility of female migrants lodging in owned and fully paid up houses in metropolitan municipality areas. Since, for an example, somebody who completed matric can find some kind of jobs and earn whatever little income from them; this can help to contribute to living expenses such as rental payments. Paid female migrant employees are less accommodated in owned and fully paid up dwelling units in non-metropolitan municipality areas because with very little income they earn, they can still accommodate themselves through government's housing schemes.

Duration of residence was found to be an important predictor across areas slight with similar chances.

### **6.8.3 FM HOH living in owned but not fully paid by areas**

With regards to female migrants heading households living in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units, this study found that population group, especially being Black, contribute less odds of staying in owned but not fully paid up houses in non-metropolitan areas. This might be the case because most Black female migrants heading households living in rural areas are expected to stay in owned and fully paid up houses. Age was seen to be significant only in metropolitan areas, meaning that as the time goes by, these migrants have a higher chance of one getting more means to help them purchase a place to live in. Household size was also discovered to be an important predictor of housing acquisition across all municipality levels, with almost the same impact.

Housing structure type, particularly standalone dwelling units, was discovered to be an important and influential factor for female migrants to stay in owned but not fully paid up houses across all the two areas. Its contribution is very remarkable in metropolitan areas. In fact, it seems people prefer to purchase free standing dwelling unit types in metropolitan areas than flats and block of flats. Unfortunately, very few are able to pay the full amount upfront; forcing many of them pay the amounts through instalments that take so many years to finish. This means that many female migrants stay in owned houses that are not fully paid up. Flats or block of flats were seen as a significant variable of accommodation throughout the two areas of residence, but with a very big influence in non-metropolitan areas. Income, especially high income, was seen to play a very little role across metropolitan, and non-metropolitan municipality areas. Medium income however, has little impact in metropolitan areas.

Level of education was seen to contribute lower chances of living in owned and fully paid up houses across all two areas of residence. Having primary or secondary education was noted as not really helping female migrants to acquire fully paid up houses to live in. Income earnings have little impact on housing acquisition, especially the high and medium income earning among female migrants across the two areas of residence. However, this does not necessarily mean that income earnings do not play any role at all in housing acquisition.

Rather, it shows that, a high or medium income or not, does not guarantee being able to pay acquired housing bonds. Moreover, being highly skilled female migrants heading households has less influence on the likelihood of staying in owned but not fully paid home in metropolitan. In fact, highly skilled female migrant is expected to live in owned and fully paid home. In addition, very few highly skilled female migrants are expected to live in a home which is not fully paid off. Duration of residence was seen to be significant at metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of residence; however, almost the same magnitude of likelihood was reported between those areas.

#### **6.8.4 FM not HOH living in owned not fully paid up houses by areas of residence**

A comparison of housing tenure results among metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas was done in line with female migrants not heading households' characteristic of lodging with people living in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. The findings reveal that population group was significant, and that being Black do not really help much in being accommodated with other people who have housing ownership throughout all the areas of residence, while being Coloured living in metropolitan or in non-metropolitan areas does not make any difference either.

Age was seen as significant in this study, but only in metropolitan municipality areas. This means that an increase in the age of female migrants boosts the possibility of lodging with people who own houses in metropolitan areas. Furthermore, household size is a very good indicator of living in owned houses. It increases the likelihood of female migrants lodging in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. The chances are almost the same for metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. Standalone housing structure type was seen to be a contributory factor towards female migrants living with people in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units across the two areas of residence. Its contribution was very high in metropolitan areas as compared to non-metropolitan municipality areas. Flats or block of flats, however, were seen as important in boosting the chances of living in owned but not fully paid up houses for female migrants not heading households living in metropolitan areas. A possible explanation of this could be the availability of flats or block of flats in metropolitan areas.

Income, particularly high income, was not so important across both areas of residence among female migrants who are not heading households to be living in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units. It could be that income would rather help female migrants to acquire their own place. Medium income, however, made a significant contribution but to a little extent to housing ownership. The findings also show that having primary education did little to help female migrants be accommodated in owned homes not fully paid up houses across the two areas of residence, while having secondary education only showed a very little impact in metropolitan the accessibility to owned houses.

Further findings from this study indicated place of birth and place of previous residence have an impact on housing acquisition for female migrants who do not head households. Female migrants who were previously living in highly urbanized provinces had higher chances of acquiring own house in non-metropolitan than in metropolitan areas, while those who were previously living in provinces which are not highly urbanized also have higher chances of acquiring own house in non-metropolitan areas. Considering the province of birth, female migrants who were born in highly urbanized provinces and are currently living in metropolitan areas have better chances of lodging in owned but not fully paid up dwelling units.

These results also indicated being highly skilled female migrants not heading household increases the possibility of lodging in owned but not fully paid up housing across both areas of residence. The study also reports that duration of residence was observed to promote lodging in owned but not fully paid up housing units across both areas of residence, but with slightly the same chances.

#### **6.8.5 FM HOH living in rented dwellings by areas**

Renting houses caters for a specific part of the housing demand and can supply housing to groups that are not be catered for by ownership subsidies (Rusk, 2006 and Lekoa, 2011). These can be people that fall outside the designated income brackets, already had subsidized housing opportunities in the past or foreigners who do not qualify for subsidies. Furthermore, people can be in transitional phases, such as temporary jobs or may have just started working and cannot afford to buy yet.



In this study of female migration and access to housing in South Africa, the comparison among areas of residence was performed to assess the renting patterns across municipalities. The findings revealed that population group was significant, and being Indian or Asian living in non-metropolitan areas was seen as increasing chances of staying in rented housing units. Age was shown to have little impact on staying in rented dwelling units across areas of residence, while household size was seen as having little influence on living in rented accommodation in non-metropolitan municipality areas. Housing structure type, particularly the availability of standalone dwelling units was not found to be a prerequisite to staying in rented housing units across areas of residence. This type of housing tenure seems to be expensive, and therefore, is unaffordable, especially for the poor. The availability of flats or block of flats was observed to increase the chances of living in rented dwelling units in metropolitan areas. It is argued in the literature that, generally, flats or block of flats are highly preferred renting accommodation while standalone dwelling units are mostly owned.

The results of this study further revealed that having medium income increases the chances of accessing a house to rent in metropolitan areas. In fact, it could be difficult for female migrants heading households to rent a place without a secure form of income. While education was seen as important, having primary education is seen as not a guarantee for accessing a rented dwelling unit in those areas. This means that primary education is not sufficient enough to afford to pay for monthly rent. This confirms the hypothesis that, *“Province of previous residence has an impact on housing tenure in the areas of destination”*. Being highly and moderately skilled was seen as increasing the potential of acquiring a place to rent across areas of residence. The reason is that skills may be used to earn good income which may in turn help to afford female migrants a place to rent. Work status such as paid employer or self-employed female migrants heading households boost the possibility to afford renting place in non-metropolitan areas, but duration of residence is not that important across areas of residence when looking for a place to rent.

#### **6.8.6 FM NOT HOH living in rented dwellings by areas**

In migration streams, some female migrants move with their whole families whom they are heading. There are others however, who migrate on their own and have to rely on other people to support them in terms of accommodation. This becomes a sign of solidarity among female migrants who support each other in providing a place to stay on arrival. This section

of the study looks at factors which help in acquiring rented dwellings by female migrants who are not head of households by comparing areas of residence. This study found out population group was significant, and being Black female migrants not heading households has little impact on being accommodated in rented dwelling by other people in non-metropolitan municipality areas. This is because Black population in those areas are actually expected to stay in their own housings. In actual fact, government housing institutions aim at developing corridors of municipality areas which lead to the major cities. More so, being Indian or Asian, however, increases the chances of lodging in rented dwelling units only in non-metropolitan areas because female migrants are more likely to stay in rented dwelling units than in other housing forms. Age and household size and housing structure type does not increase the likelihood of female migrants not heading households to lodge with people who are renting across both areas of residence. These features are not prerequisite for female migrants' affordability to renting a place to stay.

Income, especially high and medium income, is shown to be a very important indicator for female migrants not heading households who live in metropolitan and in non-metropolitan areas to be accommodated either by parents, relatives or friends in rented dwelling units; the chances are higher in non-metropolitan areas compared to metropolitan areas. More so, having secondary education increases the potential of female migrants being housed in rented dwellings in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. This is because with secondary education, female migrants are expected to contribute to the rent of the place they are staying in.

This study clearly shows that province of previous residence, particularly the highly urbanized provinces is not of much importance in being accommodated by people who are renting in metropolitan areas. Province of birth, whether highly urbanized or not, does not add much importance in female migrants being accommodated with other people, especially in metropolitan areas. More so, female migrants living in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas do not need high skills to be accommodated in rented dwellings, but being moderately skilled is a requirement in non-metropolitan municipality areas. This is what is observed in seasonal migrants who move in with special skills in agriculture, for example, and are often accommodated with other people who are also renting.

This study also found that being employer female migrants not heading households is important. It boosts the possibility of being accommodated with people who are renting in

non-metropolitan municipality areas. Possibly, solidarity among people in rural areas is higher and people care much for each other. Having paid family workers female migrants living in non-metropolitan areas also plays a crucial role as it increases the likelihood of being accommodated in rented dwelling units. This is reflected in the popular South Africa government slogan: “*working together, we can do more*” (Mail & Guardian, 2009). This means when household members work together for the same objective, they can achieve more than what one individual can achieve, even in putting together resources to access housing. More so, being self-employed is very important, as its efficacy is remarkable in non-metropolitan municipality areas, where even female migrants in small business, for example, can help contribute to the rent of people who provide them with shelter but who are also renting. However, there is no specific time required for female migrants not heading household to be accommodated with other people who are renting. Therefore, duration of residence is not very important.

#### **6.8.9 FM HOH living in occupied rent-free by areas**

Occupied rent-free dwelling unit is one of the types of accommodation which are often provided by the employer or government to labour migrants as housing allowance. A typical example of this is seen in hostels which are often used to accommodate mine workers, farm workers and other people who live in communal housing units free of charge. In relation to this study, being Black female migrants heading households increases the potential of staying in rent-free accommodation throughout metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas of residence. Age was noted as significant only in metropolitan areas, while household size was seen as having less impact in metropolitan areas.

Housing structure type has very little impact on occupied rent-free housing accommodation across both areas of residence. Educated female migrants heading households, especially with secondary education, have greater access to housing accommodation that is free of charge. However, it is indeed not necessary to be highly skilled or moderately skilled female migrant heading household to acquire a place to stay for free. Duration of residence is shown to be important only in metropolitan areas in order to obtain a place to stay. The reason is that it takes time for female migrants heading households to get information regarding where and how to acquire occupied rent-free accommodation.

#### **6.8.10 FM NOT HOH living in occupied rent-free houses by areas of residence**

It is interesting to see there are factors which predict the risks or the chances of living in occupied rent-free housing. Findings showed that population group was significant as being Black female migrants not heading households was seen to increase the potential of lodging with people who are occupying a place free of charge across all areas of residence. Being Coloured female migrants not heading households increases the potential to be accommodated in rented dwelling units that are rent free in non-metropolitan municipality areas. A possible explanation might be the propensity of Coloured female migrants working as farm workers who end up staying in accommodation that is provided by employers in rural areas.

More so, age and household size are not so important for women migrants to be lodged with people who stay in rent-free housing. Marital status, especially being married, was seen as increasing the likelihood of female migrants lodging with other people who stay for free in metropolitan and in non-metropolitan areas. Also, the availability of standalone dwelling units lessens the chances for female migrants lodging with people who occupy a place for free throughout areas of residence. Level of education, particularly having primary or secondary education, increases the potential for female migrants to lodge with other people who live in occupied rent-free dwelling units across all areas of residence.

Place of birth and place of previous residence was shown in this study to influence the likelihood of staying in occupied rent-free accommodation. Therefore, being born in a not highly urbanized province increases the likelihood of female migrants staying with people who are occupying a rent free place in non-metropolitan areas. Furthermore, being highly or moderately skilled female migrants not heading households does not really help in lodging with somebody who occupies a rent free accommodation whether in metropolitan or in non-metropolitan areas. Also, being self-employed or female migrants employer not heading households or having a paid family worker does not increase the chances of lodging with people who occupy a rent free place. The reason might be that, in this case, these women are assumed to have the means to accommodate themselves. Duration of residence, however, plays an important role because it is assumed that women migrants sometimes need to look for people who can provide them with free accommodation.

## 6.9 Conclusion

In this chapter, extensive discussion of the methodology and data analysis used in this study has been shown. The focus of this study was on female migration and housing acquisition across areas of residence in the context of South Africa. Specifically, forms of tenure used by female migrants in order to access a place to stay in the areas of destinations have been identified, verified and related to similar studies in the literature. More so, all hypotheses formulated in this regard were supported by the results and have been shown to be consistent with existing literature.

The major findings for this study indicated a substantial number of female migrants are moving into different places of South Africa in search of a better livelihood. Though the study reported the main direction of female migrants is the metropolitan areas, another substantial migration stream of women is observed in non-metropolitan municipality areas. Some of these women are household holders who move with their families, while others are moving individually, while some are dependent on other people in terms of accommodation.

The study found that due to high concentration of female migrants in the major cities, a high demand for housing was created, particularly in the places of destinations. As a result, renting becomes a major way of accessing a place to stay in metropolitan areas, especially for newly arrived female migrants with low means of economic support. Therefore, the study found that housing ownership among female migrants heading households is lower in metropolitan areas compared to non-metropolitan municipality areas. The possible explanation remains the high concentration of female migrants in major cities and the way housing provisions, including housing subsidies and social welfare housing are distributed across areas of residence in South Africa.

The study reports the availability of standalone dwelling types of accommodation have a strong influence on housing ownership across metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. Generally, female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas have more difficulties in accessing a place to stay in as compared to female migrants not heading households. Female migrants heading households have a heavy burden of carrying all the responsibilities of the larger family, especially when the other household members are not working. Female migrants not heading households, however, are just accommodated with other people and the pressure of housing is not as heavy as that of those who are household

heads. The findings of this study support the hypothesis that housing tenure of female migrants differs according to individual characteristics, socio-economic characteristics, migratory characteristics and household characteristics. The results suggest that the major determinants of housing tenure among female migrants are population group, age, size of the household, income, housing structure type, occupation and duration of residence. However, these vary across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas; and also depend on whether female migrant is heading or not heading household.

Comparison the results derived from logistic regression analysis, some differentials and similarities emerged. Depending on the form of housing tenure, some variables, such as population group, age and household size, housing structure type, income, occupation, work status and duration of residence were shown as the main predictors. The study found that the area where female migrants are mostly struggling to acquire housing ownership tenure is the metropolitan areas. Thus, renting play an important role in accommodating many female migrants who cannot afford to purchase a property of their own in the major cities and towns. Therefore, the Department of Housing and Human Settlement should fill this gap by building more social housing for renting at low cost, and also plan to give more housing subsidies for ownership in spite of RDP, Breaking New Ground Housing, People's Housing Process, and self-help housing.

## CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION

The main focus of this study was female migration and housing acquisition in South Africa. The aim was to examine the relationship between female migration and housing ownership in South Africa. The determinants of housing tenure among female migrants were identified by specifically looking at household headship and areas of residence. Female migrants' characteristics were explored through variables such as age, gender, population group, marital status, level of education, employment status, work status, occupation, income category, province of birth and province of previous residence, housing structure type, household size, and duration of residence. Housing tenure-related variables explored includes owned and fully paid dwelling; owned but not fully paid dwelling; renting; and occupied rent-free dwelling. The major forms of housing tenure in line with female migrant characteristics were identified. Area of residence was a key variable used to explore the differentials and the similarities of housing tenure across metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. Household headship variable was used to ascertain the category of female migrants which is the most vulnerable on the housing market.

This section of the thesis highlights prominent findings that emerge from this study. In this vein, some conceptualization of the 2007 Community Survey secondary data was done by creating a rectangular file from hierarchical files in order for the data to be readily analysed. Merging of the files was thereafter done using the "merge to many" technique. Some variables of interest, which were however, not in the data, were computed (see for example variables "area of residence" in chapter 4). Moreover, by means of univariate analysis, which employs individual variables one after the other, the magnitude of female migrants housing accessibility and their characteristics were identified. The aim of this study was to conceptualize the variables upon which the 2007 Community Survey secondary data was going to be used. The major patterns derived from cross-tabulation between female migrant demographic characteristics, socio-economic characteristics, migratory characteristics, household characteristics and housing tenure status was established. Also, by means of Chi-square and Fisher's exact tests, the hypotheses formulated in this regard were tested to measure the association between female migrant's characteristics and housing tenure status. Furthermore, the strength of the association was measured by means of Phi and Cramer's V in order to remedy the weakness of the Chi-square test as it is very sensitive with small

percentage. Further statistical tests were carried out to measure the main determinants of housing tenure, and the extent to which those determinants contribute to the housing acquisition for female migrants. The data analysis was performed by using the 2007 Community Survey instrument, while employing the SPSS approach was a tool.

Given that there is no theory which is applicable to female migration and housing in the context of South Africa, this study reviewed existing theories of migration from the literature, and some conceptualization was made around migration and housing. The theoretical framework reviewed was also derived from the literature on female migration and adaptation in the cities; the push-pull theory of migration; social capital, chain migration and network theory; and migration selectivity theory (see chapter two on theoretical literature section). These revised theories served as a starting point in building a conceptual framework which guided this study of female migration and housing access across areas of residence in South Africa.

## **7.1 Conceptualised implications of patterns in female migration and housing tenancy**

The aim of this study was to ascertain the relationship between female migrant characteristics and housing tenure status across areas of residence in South Africa. This study found that women are on the move across South Africa. At provincial level, the study found that women are generally migrating from less urbanized to highly urbanized provinces as a result of economic asymmetry which is observed between areas of origin and areas of destination. At sub-provincial level, the general observation was that a high percentage of female migrants moving to metropolitan areas are renting compared to non-metropolitan municipality areas. This is coupled with an imbalance of housing acquisition for these female migrants between metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality areas. As observed in previous studies (Roux, 2009; Lekoa, 2011; and Le Roux, 2011), females are also migrating into medium and small-sized towns which can be termed as non-metropolitan areas though these areas contain some large cities. Though non-metropolitan municipality areas are relatively economically weaker compared to metropolitan areas, those areas promise access to housing and social services as an incentive. More so, this study found that majority of female migrants living in these areas was living in owned and fully paid dwellings. This study concludes that this rapid urbanization of females has a serious implication regarding the high demand of housing



observed in the cities of South Africa. Consequently, it is this urbanization that is seriously putting pressure on land and housing supply in cities, which made housing backlog continued unaddressed.

With reference to the trends provided by the 1996 and 2001 censuses, as well as the 2007 Community Survey data, it was observed from the 2011 census results, an increase in the population of South Africa by about 4 million from 1996 to 2001. Hence, ten years since the last census, about 7 million people have been added to the population of the country (Statistics South Africa, 2012). The census results further shows that the female population has declined from (51.9%) in 1996 census to (51.7%) in the 2007 Community Survey; and (51.4%) in the 2011 census. The only exception was observed in the 2001 census where the female population grew to 52.2% (Statistics South Africa, 2012). Despite this decline in population, the housing backlog has been growing because of new household formation which tremendously affects housing delivery to the needy.

Looking at urbanization in general, urban population has increased to 62% of the total population, and the rate of urbanization was 1.2% of the annual rate. In 2001, the level of urbanization in South Africa was 56%, which was a 4.3% increase between 1996 and 2001 (Nevhutanda, 2007). Given that urbanization is not inherently problematic, its pace and scale have in many places far exceeded local government capacity or willingness to provide basic amenities to city residents. It has therefore become problematic for female migrants to have access on adequate housing and other scarce resources (Gomez et al, 2008; COHRE, 2008). This rapid urbanization in different areas of South Africa have resulted in the creation of numerous illegal urban slums, shanty towns, and squatter settlements, for the population to find a place to stay which is affordable to them. For female migrants who are heading households and living in major cities, the housing situation became much problematic. This view is supported by the findings of this study which revealed that many low-income female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas, renting became their first priority because they are unable to own homes. This is an indication that rapid urbanization brings with it many problems as it places huge demands on housing and other resources (Collins, 2001).

Also, this study revealed that housing tenure differs among female migrants across areas of residence. It was observed for example that, a high proportion of female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas are mostly renting housing. This means that housing

ownership is still problematic for many female migrants who are living in those areas. Gauteng Province which is South Africa's geographically smallest but busiest province has both the biggest and the fastest growing population. Surely, this situation in Gauteng is coupled with the problem of housing as it is confirmed by the results when looking at housing tenure status of female migrants in Johannesburg and in city of Tshwane metropolitan municipalities which is mainly renting (see chapter 4, Fig 4.4.1).

According to the population census of 2011, the 12.2 million people counted in the Gauteng province, show a 33.7% increase since 2001. During this period, 40% of all employed women work in unskilled jobs and earned R200 or less/month, while only 13% of women headed households were earning R500/month (Pillay et al, 2002) hence, 34% of the metropolitan Black populations, including female migrants earn income below the minimum living level of R700/month (Napier, 1993; Napier 2005). In relation to the findings of this study, this income level suggests that migrants will opt for renting inadequate housing in squatter areas where housing is affordable in relation to income earning.

The rate of growth of housing needs is a function of rapid urbanization. Gauteng for example, reached 80% urbanization in 2006. Without any doubt, this resulted in a large and rapidly growing shortage of affordable housing of metropolitan areas located in the Gauteng province of South Africa. Though the National Department of Housing has approved a total of 50% of housing subsidies to female headed households, there is still a huge shortcoming in the housing sector. In South Africa, approximately 79% of the population is eligible for housing assistance in terms of the R3500 per month income of the National Scheme, while 90% of the population earned less than R7500 per month in 2006 (Rust, 2006) meaning they need government's assistance on social housing for renting at low-cost. Despite that, the government at all levels has taken some measures to address the housing problems of the South African population in general, and in particular women headed households. These measures are seen not to be generally consistent with the findings of this study which shows that many female migrants are still living in rented housing particularly in metropolitan areas.

More so, despite emphasis on earlier policy approaches on the number of housing units provided (Cross, 2008), the delivery of affordable units (cost less than R200 000) decreased from 63% in 2000 to 30% of total delivery in 2004 (Rust, 2006). The property prices have more than doubled in 1999 (Rust, 2006). The Bureau of Economic Research showed that prices had increased by 143% between February 1998 and February 2005. Moreover, 63% of

the population is somehow dependent on the state subsidy for meeting their housing needs. In summary, the demand for housing is growing as the population grows, and as families migrate to urban areas with new households formation, and as the existing housing conditions deteriorate (Rust, 2006).

If government policy fails to take serious measures in planning for housing provision to its citizens, the situation is going to worsen in the years to come. Though since 1994, South Africa has become a unique country which tries to provide housing to its citizens. This housing provision which comes in the form of subsidy to low income population, low-cost social housing, and as bondage housing; is still not sufficient to address housing backlogs which still persists. The shortcomings in housing provision are observed in the country especially among African female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas, as compared to other areas. This is partly as a result of indiscriminate laws and cultural practices that have limited women's access to housing and other socio-economic rights which affected especially Black women (Pillay et al, 2002), and the rapid urbanization which is now beyond the capacity of municipalities, large increase in the number of households formation, and the ever-continuing high unemployment (Rust, 2006).

With regards to security of housing tenure, the 2011 census revealed that owned housing decreased from 49.7% to 41.3%, while rented housing increased from 18.8% to 25.0%. These trends express the reality of the findings in this study regarding housing tenure status among female migrants in general, with an implication on the policy of future housing provision in the country. Therefore, if urbanization continues to increase at this pace without legal measure of government housing planning, it can be estimated that housing ownership will be expected to decrease the more, while renting continues to increase.

## **7.2 Data issues to be addressed in future study**

From this study of female migration and access to housing point of view, the following issues need careful attention. Even though the government of South Africa is striving to provide housing to its citizens and permanent residents in the form of ownership, this study found that majority of female migrants heading households tend to be tenants and sharers than owners. Young single female migrants heading households are facing issues of housing ownership. A high proportion of highly educated female migrants heading households are still renting a

place to stay, while very few are owners-occupiers. Possibly, this is because women in general and female migrants in particular are often excluded from official housing programmes offering owner occupation. When the comparison among areas of residence was made, it was generally observed that majority of female migrants heading households living in metropolitan areas are living in rented dwellings.

However, employment status variable could not be used in the multivariate analysis. It could not appear when logistic regression analysis was utilized. Thus, its implication on housing tenure of female migrants across areas and on household headship could not be analysed. The variable 'sex' was not properly captured in the SPSS format. This variable together with its information had to be requested again from Statistics South Africa. Variables such as villages, farms, and towns were not included in the dataset, as they only appear in the metadata. These variables could provide useful information of migration in small towns and how they impact housing acquisition at sub-low geographical level.

### **7.3 Some recommendations**

In line with the issue of female migration and housing identified in this study, some recommendations were suggested. This is however, accomplished by highlighting some policy directions on housing in South Africa. Therefore, some research directions for the future are also suggested in this thesis.

#### ***7.3.1 Some policy directions***

Knowing that female migrants heading households are part of the vulnerable group, policies on housing and the Department of Human Settlement must enhance housing ownership among female migrants heading households by giving them a priority. The government together with the Department of Human Settlement should consider female migrants with large size households in granting housing subsidies. Informal settlements should be upgraded for low-income female migrants in order to access adequate housing. However, it should be noted that this cannot be done overnight but steadily, as this can increase a number of new housing developments.

Since RDP housing is only for people who are married, aged 21 years with dependents and who has never been granted housing before, this study suggests that existing housing policies should be amended to include whoever is in extreme need of housing but do not meet these prerequisite. More so, young Black female migrants who are not married should strongly be considered in the government and private housing provision plans. The government should also increase the supply of houses by considering areas with high housing demand like for example metropolitan areas. This is to say that a huge number of low-cost housing for renting should be built in metropolitan areas in order to increase housing delivery to fill the gap of housing backlogs.

Occupation and work status are acknowledged to be important features in housing acquisition among female migrants. Therefore, having a high-paying occupation will results in having a high income which will help female migrants to pay monthly rent or housing bondage. Moreover, the government in its housing planning should consider female migrants with low occupation especially those who are held in elementary work in order to meet their housing needs. Due to the corruption in the allocation of subsidised housing units and construction tenders often reported, which leads to short cuts and shoddy house quality, the local government should conduct efficient audit housing construction and its delivery process to the beneficiaries.

This study show that female migrants who cannot afford to purchase housing opt for renting. It therefore means that renting is a form of housing tenure which plays an important role in accommodating many female migrants heading households living especially, in metropolitan areas. Hence, government policy on social housing which should come with its aim of providing housing for renting at low cost should be encouraged. Knowing that female migrants heading households have a number of responsibilities in the homes including productive and reproductive work, the government and other housing initiatives should place new development housing closer to areas of job opportunities to facilitate reduction in travelling expenses, and time spent on travelling. Due to the scarcity of land for housing construction in metropolitan areas, resulting from high population density, land should be used to build flats or block of flats which can accommodate many people on a small space.

This study also recommends that local government should be aware of female mobility in their jurisdiction so that they can consider them in their budgetary planning for housing. Since metropolitan areas are the major migration destinations which boost housing demand,

those areas should be allocated bigger budget for housing purposes. In other words, housing stock in metropolitan areas should be increased to reduce housing backlogs. An increase of access to credit for housing among female migrants, or any access to housing finance would be a response to an increase in housing ownership. Gender blindness in housing and basic service programmes should be constrained, while the Department of Housing and Human Settlement should recognize and make provision for the needs and priorities of female migrants heading households.

More so, low cost housing or site and service programmes should consider the needs and priorities of female migrants in terms of site design and nature of infrastructure and service provision that meet their needs. Even though the National Department of Housing could count some success in the area of reaching female headed-households as beneficiaries of housing subsidy programmes, discrimination of female migrants in workplaces by putting them in subordinate positions with low wage, and with low access to government assets is still a barrier to housing acquisition. Therefore, exclusion of women through eligibility criteria should be discouraged, and methods of beneficiary recruitment should be revised in favour of female migrants. Gender dimensions to renting and gender related constraints to owner-occupation should also be amended.

Though migration impose budgetary burden and undermine performance target in areas of destinations, the negative perception of migration by some municipal officials should be looked into. Some municipal officials for example, fear that providing for new arrivals would only beget further migration hence, their thinking in the way of “the more houses built the more influx of migrants” should be changed (Rust, 2006). Knowing that female migrants heading households tend to be tenant or sharers than owners in South Africa, private, public, and social rental housing should be increased. Though the majority of female migrants living in non-metropolitan municipality areas dominate in housing ownership, the local government policy should monitor the trends of this mobility and plan for housing accordingly. Future research should focus on female migration and housing by paying attention to household and service delivery, and also to any other factors affecting the well-being of women.

### *7.3.2 Some research directions*

Further research should take into account female migration by looking at how urban land and housing prices can impact housing tenure as those variables were not included in the 2007 Community Survey dataset. Furthermore, surveys such as Household Survey conducted every year in South Africa should include questions on future migration, so that migration can be monitored regularly without waiting for census data which only takes place every ten years.

All smaller centres related geographical areas described in the 2007 Community Survey metadata such as for example, town, village and farm were not included in the dataset. Only variables such as metropolitan and non-metropolitan municipality levels (district and local municipalities) were included besides provincial level. The availability of data of these variables could provide useful information on intra-provincial migration, which the 2007 Community Survey could not capture. Therefore, the implications of female migration on housing acquisition at sub-geographical level in intra-provinces could not be examined in South Africa. Migration streams measured at the level of smaller area provide insightful indications on the internal dynamics of individual province. This can assist local governments in planning population.

In the same vein, this dissertation was initiated in 2010, there was no recently carried out census data which could be used for analysis. The 2011 census data was only released around the end of 2012 and data were not readily available. It is in this circumstance that this study used only the 2007 Community Survey data. At that time the Community Survey appeared to be the most recent and detailed data source to address the research questions under investigation. This study therefore provides a methodological baseline which may serve for comparison in future research with patterns observable from the 2011 census. The 2011 census data should be, comprehensively, used to replicate the same study from a comparative perspective.

There was a discrepancy concerning the way variable 'Sex' was recorded. Its categories were misleading with no clear meaning. A new dataset with the variable 'Sex' should be recorded correctly was requested. South African local municipalities are many, it is therefore difficult to analyse data as it generates large tables which are difficult to read. Future studies should elaborate on theories which link female migration and housing by looking at units such as household and areas of residence. Therefore, Statistics South Africa should make available a

household level data. Furthermore, municipalities should carry out studies on migration and service deliveries to plan its impact on available resources. Unfortunately, with the data at hand it was not feasible to investigate the decision taken around the question of the housing tenure unit of women migrants. This necessitates further research on this very important issue.





## References<sup>1</sup>

Adepoju, A., 2004. 'Changing Configurations of Migration in Africa', <http://www.migrationinformation.org/feature/display.cfm?ID=251>, Migration Policy Institute Feature Story (accessed on December 12, 2013).

Adepoju, A., 2008. Migration and social policy in sub-Saharan Africa. IOM–International Organization for Migration. Geneva: Switzerland.

Affordable Housing in South Africa, 2012. [online] Available at: <<http://www.property24.com/articles/affordable-housing-in-south-africa/16400>> [Accessed 10 May 2013].

African National Congress, 1994. *Reconstruction and Development Programme*. Johannesburg: *Umunyano publications*.

Akrofi, E.O., 2006. Urbanisation and the Urban Poor in Africa. A paper presented at the 5<sup>th</sup> FIG Regional Conference in Accra, Ghana.

Antoine, P., et Sow, P., 2000. Rappports de genre et dynamiques migratoires. Le cas de l'Afrique de l'Ouest. In Bozon M. and Locoh, T. (eds), Rappports de genre et questions de population. II. Genre, population et développement (p. 143–159). INED, Paris, Dossiers et Recherches n° 85.

Arden, A., 2012. Beware of hidden dangers of 30-year home loan. [online] Available at: <<http://www.iol.co.za/business/personal-finance/banking/beware-hidden-dangers-of-a-30-year-home-loan-1.1402156#.UlFROFOmbcc>> [Accessed 11 October 2013].

Atem, P., 2006. Housing barriers for African migrants in Australia. [online] Available at: <<http://soac.fbe.unsw.edu.au/2009/PDF/Atem%20Paul.pdf>> [Accessed: 24 October 2013].

Awumbila, M., Manuh, T., Quartey, P., Tagoe, C. A. and Bosiakoh, T. A. 2009. Ghana migration country paper: Trends, issues, and emerging research gaps', Legon, Ghana: Centre for Migration Studies, University of Ghana.

Bank, L. and Kamman, E., 2010. *Changing Migration Patterns and Basic Service Delivery in the Eastern Cape*. Fort Hare: Fort Hare Institute of Social and economic Research.

Bekker, S. B., 2002. Migration study in the Western Cape 2001. Provincial Government of the Western Cape, Cape Town.

Bekker, S., 1999. Migration and its implications for rural and urban development in South Africa: Union for African Population Studies, 1: African population in the 21st century. *Proceedings of the Third African Population Conference*, pp.213-224.

---

<sup>111</sup> Anglia Ruskin University., 2011. Guide to the Harvard Style of Referencing, September, 2011. [online] Available at :< <http://libweb.anglia.ac.uk/referencing/harvard.htm>> [Accessed 25<sup>th</sup> October 2013].

Bekker, S., 2001. Diminishing returns: Circulatory Linking Cape Town to the Eastern Cape. *Southern African Journal of Demography*, 8(1), pp.1-8.

Bekker, S., 2006. Migration from South Africa's rural sending areas: changing intentions and changing destinations. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.

Bekker, S., 2010. Reflections on migration in Sub-Saharan Africa. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch, (unpublished paper).

Berk, M.L., Schur, C.L., Dunbar, J.L., Bozzette, S and Shapiro, M., 2003. Short report: Migration among persons living with HIV. *Social Science and Medicine*, 57(6), pp.1091-1097.

Berriane, M. and Aderghal, M., 2009. Etat de la recherche sur les migrations internationales à partir, vers et à travers le Maroc', Rabat: Université Mohammed V.

Beyene, J., 2005. *Women, Migration and the household: The case study of three households of Ethiopian and Eritrean female migrant workers in Beirut and Naba'a*. Ph.D, American University of Beirut.

Bilsborrow, R.E and United Nations Secretariat., 1993. Internal Migration and development: An overview. *Internal migration of women in developing countries*: pp.1-17.

Bocquier P., et Traoré, S., 2000. Urbanisation et dynamique migratoire en Afrique de l'ouest : la croissance urbaine en panne. Paris, L'Harmattan.

Bojras, G.J., 1987. Self-selection and the earnings of Immigrants. *The American Economic Review*, 77, pp.351-553.

Boochamann, G., 199. Migration as a way of life: New and the post-war labour movement to Britain. In: R, King, and Connell, J. ed. *Small worlds, global lives: Island and migration*, pp.115-136.

Boraine, A., Crankshaw, O., Engelbrecht, C., Gotz, G., Mbanga, S., Narsoo, M. and Parnell, S., 2006. The state of South African cities a decade after democracy. *Urban Studies*. 43(2), pp.259-284.

Bourdieu, P., 1986. *Meeting refugee's needs in Britain: The role of refugee specific initiatives*. Home Office, London.

Boyd, M and Grieco, E., 2003. Women and Migration, incorporating gender into international migration theory. *Migration information source*, 1.

Bradshaw, S., 1995. Women's access to employment and the formation of Female-headed households in rural and urban Honduras. *Bulletin of Latin American Research*. 14(2), pp.143-158.

Bray, D., 1984. Economic development, The middle class and international migration in the Dominican Republic. *International Migration Review*.

Brenman, E., 1999. Population, urbanization, environment, and security: A summary of the issues. *Environmental change and security project report*, 5, pp.4-14.

- Brockerhoff, M. and Eu, H., 1993. Demographic and socioeconomic determinants of female rural to urban migration in Sub-Saharan Africa. *International migration review*, 27(3), pp. 557-577.
- Browne, C. V. and Braun, K. L., 2008. Globalization, women's migration, and the long-term-care workforce. *The Gerontologist*. 48(1), pp.16-24.
- Bryman, A and Cramer, D., 1999. *Quantitative data analysis with SPSS release 8 for windows: For social scientists*. London: Routledge.
- Burgoyne, Megan-Leigh., 2008. Factors affecting housing delivery in South Africa: A case study of the Fisantekraal Housing Development Project, Western Cape. Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosh: University of Stellenbosch.
- Bustamante, J.A, Jasso, G, Taylor, E. and Legarreta, P.T., 1998. Characteristics of migrants: Mexicans in the United States. *Migration between Mexico and the United States: Binational Study*, 1, pp.91-162.
- Buvinic, M. and Gupta, G.R., 1997. Female-headed households and female-maintained families: Are they worth targeting to reduce poverty in developing countries?' *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 45(2), pp. 259-280.
- Caldwell, J.C., 1969. *African rural-urban migration: The movement to Ghana's Towns*. Canberra: Australian University Press.
- Caritas Internationalis, 2012. The female face of migration. [online] Available at: <<http://www.caritas.org/FemaleFaceOfMigration/index.html>> [Accessed 25 May 2013].
- Carline, G., 1980. Wages, Earnings, and Hours of 1st, 2<sup>nd</sup>, and 3<sup>rd</sup> Generation American Males. *Economic Inquiry* 18, pp.87-102.
- Carling, J., 2005. *Global Commission on International Migration*. Geneva
- Centre on Housing Rights and Eviction (COHRE), 2008. *Women's slums and urbanisation: Examining the causes and consequences*. Geneva, Switzerland.
- Chalton, S., 2004. An Overview of the housing policy and debates, particularly in relation to women or vulnerable grouping. Johannesburg: University of Witwatersrand.
- Chan, Y.H., 2004. Biostatistics 202, Logistic regression analysis. *Singapore Medical journal*, 45(4), pp. 149-153.
- Chant, S., 1996a. Gender, urban development and housing. New York: United Nations Development Programme.
- Chant, S., 1997. Women headed-households: Diversity and dynamics in the developing world. London, Basingstoke: Macmillan.
- Charlton, S., 2004. An overview of the housing policy and debates, particularly in relation to women (or vulnerable groupings). Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand.
- Chiswick, B.R., 1978. The effect of Americanisation on the earnings of foreign-born men. *Journal of political economy*. 86 pp.889-921.

- Christose, Y., 1998. Female migration and the regional context in Peninsular Malasia. *Regional Development Studies*, 4 UNCRD.
- Clements, K. W., 1985. The demand for energy used in transport. Discussion paper 82(29), pp.42.
- Cloete, P., Kotze, F. and Groenewald, C., 2009. Concept paper on social cohesion/inclusion in local integrated development plans. *Final Draft*.
- Coa, T., 2012. The impacts of modernity on family structure and function. A study among Beijing, Hong Kong and Yunnan families. Ph.D. China: Lingnan University.
- Cobb-Clark, D. and Hildebrand, V., 2006. The wealth and asset holdings of US-born and foreign-born household: Evidence from SIPP data. *Review of income and wealth*, 52(1), pp.17-42.
- Coetzer, P., 2012. Rapid urban growth at root of social ill. Leadership. [online] Available at: <<http://www.leadershiponline.co.za/articles/urbanisation-3141.html/>> [Accessed 23 October 2012].
- Collins, J., 2001. Urbanisation. [online] Available at: <<http://www.botany.uwc.ac.za>> [Accessed 11 April, 2013].
- Collinson, M., Kok, P. and Ganenne, M., 2006. Migration and changing settlement patterns: Multilevel data for policy. Report 03-04-01, Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.
- Combrinck, H. and Chemwi, L., 2007. The role of informal community structures in ensuring women's right to have access to adequate housing in Langa, Manenberg and Mfuleni.
- Community Survey 2007. Methodology, process and highlight of key results. Pretoria, Statistics South Africa, 2007.
- Connell, J., Dasgupta, B., Laishley, R. and Lipton, M., 1976. Migration from Rural Areas: The evidence from village studies, Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Constant, A., Roberts, R. and Zimmerman, K.F., 2007. Ethnic identity and immigrant homeownership, IZA discussion paper 726, Institute for economic research.
- Cramer, D., 2003. *Advanced quantitative data analysis*. Philadelphia, USA.
- Cresswell, J.W., 2009. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach*. Sage Publications, Incorporated.
- Cross, C., 2000. Graduate Workshop on Internal Migration 2000. Occasional Paper No.11. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.
- Cross, C., 2001. Why does South Africa need a spatial policy? Population migration, infrastructure and development. *Journal of contemporary African Studies*, 19(1). pp. 111-127.
- Cross, C., 2001. Why does South Africa need a spatial policy? Population migration, infrastructure and development. *Journal of Contemporary African Studies*, 19(1), pp.111-127.

Cross, C., 2008. Housing delivery as anti-poverty: Is South Africa on the right track. *Southern African Housing Foundation International Conference*, pp 12-15.

Cross, C., Gelderblom, R., Roux, N and Mafukidze, J.eds., 2006. Views on migration in Sub-Saharan Africa: Proceedings of African migration alliance workshop. Pretoria: HSRC Press.

Curran, S.R. and Rivero-Fuentes, E., 2003. Engendering migrant networks: The case of Mexican migration. *Demography*, 40(2), pp. 289-307.

Cycle-Methodology Business., 1979. J. money, credit and banking. Production Functions-Theory Production Functions-Macro. *Adams Fg, Behrman Jr Eds.* 11, pp.326-339.

D'Angelo, A., Fumanti, M and Brown, R, 2009. Young homeless refugees in London: An exploratory research.

De Haas, H., 2003. *Migration and development in Southern Morocco. The disparate socio-economic impacts of out-migration on the Todgha Oasis Valley.* Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Nijmegen.

De Haas, H., 2008. The internal dynamics of migration processes. Paper presented at IMSCOE Conference on theories of migration and social change. St Anne's College, University of Oxford, 1-3 July 2008.

De Jong, G.F., 2000. Expectations, gender, and norms in migration decision-making. *Population Studies*,

De Vletter, F., 1985. *Recent trends and prospects of Black migration to South Africa* Cambridge University Press.

Department of Housing., 2004. Commission for sustainable development: twelfth session. Pretoria: Department of Housing.

Department of Human Settlements., 2009. The National Housing Code. Republic of South Africa.

Deshingkar, P. and Grimm, S., 2004. Voluntary internal migration. An update. London: Overseas Development Institute, 44.

Deshingkar, P., 2006. Internal migration, poverty and development in Asia: Including the excluded. *IDS Bulletin.* 37(3), pp.88-100.

Dewandeler, K., 2006. *A Quick guide on rental housing.* UNESCAP/UN-Habitat.

DFID Research Project., 2001. *Localising the Habitat Agenda for Urban Poverty Reduction.* September 2002'.

Divaris, K., Newman, J., Hemingway-Foday, J., Akam, W., Balimba, A., Dusengamungu, C., Kalenga, L., Mbaya, M., Molu, B. M. and Mugisha, V., 2012. Adult HIV care resources, management practices and patient characteristics in the phase 1 IeDEA Central Africa cohort. *Journal of the International AIDS Society.* 15(2).

Du Plessis, C. and Landman, K., 2002. Contextual typologies: Sustainability Analysis of Human Settlement in South Africa. Department of housing, Pretoria: CSIR.

ESCAP, U., 2003. *Economic and Social Survey of Asia and the Pacific 2003: Asia Pacific Economies-Resilience in Challenging Times*. United Nations Pubns.

Essink, M., 2011. Bench Marking Municipal Social Housing. Human settlements. Centre for Municipal Research and Advise (CMRA). In: *The Southern African Housing Foundation International Conference, Exhibition and Housing Awards*. Cape Town, South Africa.

Farha, L., 2002. Is There a Woman in the House-Reconceiving the Human Right to Housing. *Can. J. Women and L.*, 14, pp.118.

Fawcett, J.T., Khoo, S. E and Smith, P.C., 1984. *Women in the cities of Asia. Migration and urban adaptation*. Westview Press, Inc, United States.

Feliciano, C., 2005. Does selective migration matter? Explaining ethnic disparities in educational attainment among immigrants' children. *International Migration Review*, 39(4), pp.841-871.

Fong, E., Chiang, N. and Denton, N., 2013. Immigrant adaptation in multi-ethnic societies: Canada, Taiwan, and the United States,78, New York: Routledge.

Freeman, C and Lu, X., 2009. China's capacity to manage infectious diseases: Global implications; a report of the CSIS freeman chair in china studies CSIS.

Freire, M. E. and Stren, R. E., 2001. *The challenge of urban government: Policies and practices* World Bank Publications.

Fuwa, N., 2000. A note on the analysis of female headed households in developing countries. *Technical Bulletin of the Faculty of Horticulture of Chiba University*.

Gardner, D. A. V. I. D., 2004. Sharpening the Focus: A New Look at South Africa's Housing Strategy. *Housing Finance Resource Programme*.

Gilbert, A. and Crankshaw, O., 1999. Comparing South African and Latin American experience: Migration and housing mobility in Soweto. *Urban Studies*, 36(13), pp.2375-2400.

Gilbert, A., 1999. A home is forever? Residential mobility and homeownership in self-help settlements. *Environment and Planning A*. 31(6), pp.1073-1091.

Gilbert, A., Mabin, A., Mc Carthy, M., and Watson, V., 1997. Low-income rental housing: Are South African cities different?. *Environment and Urbanization*, 9(1), pp.133-148.

Ginsburg, C., Norris, S. A., Richter, L. M and Coplan, D. B., 2009, (November). Patterns of residential mobility amongst children in Greater Johannesburg–Soweto, South Africa: Observations from the birth to twenty cohorts. *Urban Forum* 20 (4), pp. 397-413).

Gomez, M., Gomez, S. and Kabajuni, A., 2008. Women, Slums and Urbanisation: Examining the causes and consequences. *The centre on housing rights and evictions (COHRE)*. Geneva, pp.1-129.

Granovetter, M. S., 1973. The strength of weak ties. *American journal of sociology*, 78(6) pp.1360-1380.

Groenewald, L., 2011. Progress towards Millennium Development Goals? Strategies for housing and informal settlement in Gauteng, South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 28(5), pp.641-651.

Groenmeyer, S., 2010. Living in the Shadow of the Moon: Approaches to Women and Migration in Contemporary Post-Apartheid South Africa.

Grootaert, C. and Dubois, J.L., 1986. *The demand for urban housing in the Ivory Coast*. LSMS working papers, 25, Washington, D.C: The World Bank.

Guilmoto, C. Z., 1998. Institutions and migrations. Short-term versus long-term moves in rural West Africa. *Population Studies*, 52(1), pp.85-103.

Guzman, J. C., Morrison, A. R and Sjöblom, M., 2008. The impact of remittances and gender on household expenditure patterns: Evidence from Ghana. *Morrison, AR, Schiff, M., Sjöblom, M., Eds.*

Habitat, U. N, 2003. *Rental housing: An essential option for the urban poor in developing countries*. UN Habitat, Nairobi.

Habitat, U. N, 2003. *The challenge of slums: global report on human settlements 2003*. London: Earthscan.

Hall, K., 2010. Migration Mothers and Mobile Children. New Possibilities for exploring child poverty dynamics in South Africa. Children's institute, University of Cape Town, (unpublished).

Hamilton, H.C., 1964. The Negro Leaves the South. *Demography*, 1, pp. 273-296.

Hebdomadaire du CRISP, 1721: 5–49.

Hedeker, D., 2003. A mixed-effects multinomial logistic regression model. *Statistics in Medicine*, 22(9), pp.1433-1446.  
Heinemann.

Heron, A., 2005. Migrant women and the labour market: *Diversity and challenges*. *OECD and European Commission seminar*, Brussels, 26-27 September 2005.

Hoggett, P., 2002. South African History. In: P. Hoggett. ed. *Encyclopaedia of world geography*, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed, 1, pp.2470-2475.

Hosegood, V., Benzler, J., and Solarsh, G. C., 2005. Population mobility and household dynamics in rural South Africa: implications for demographic and health research. *Southern African Journal of Demography*, pp. 43-68.

Huang, Y. and Clark, W.A., 2002. Housing tenure choice in transitional urban China: A multilevel analysis. *Urban Studies* 39 (1), pp. 7-32.

Hughes, T., Kajee, A and Peberdy, S., 2007. Gender remittances and development. Preliminary findings from selected SADC countries.

Hugo, G., 2003. Demographic change and implications. *Southeast Asia transformed: A geography of change*, pp.95-142.

Hugo, G., 2005. *Migrants in Society: Diversity and Cohesion*. A Paper prepared for the Policy Analysis and Research Programme of the Global Commission on International Migration. National Centre for Social Application of GIS, September, 2005.

Hugo, G., 2008. *Migration, development and environment*. Geneva: International Organization for Migration.

Hunter, M., 2006. Informal settlements as spaces of health inequality: the changing economic and spatial roots of the AIDS pandemic, from Apartheid to Neoliberalism. *Centre for Civil Society Research Report*, 1(44), pp.143-166.

Huq-Hussain, S., 1996. Female migrants in an urban setting: The dimensions of spatial/physical adaptation: The case of Dhaka. *Habitat international*, 20(1), pp. 93-107.

Ingram, G. K., 1997. Patterns of metropolitan development: what have we learned? (No. 1841). World Bank Publications.

Ingram, G. K., 1998. Patterns of metropolitan development: what have we learned? *Urban studies*, 35(7), pp.1019-1035.

International Monetary Fund, .2011. IMF Country report no. 11/258, Washington, D.C

International Organisation of Migration (IOM)., 2003. *World Migration 2003*. Managing migration challenges and responses for people on the move.

Jenkins, P., 1999. Difficulties encountered in community involvement in delivery under the new South African housing policy. *Habitat International*. 23(4), pp.431-446.

Jiang, L., 2006. Living conditions of the floating population in urban China. *Housing studies*, 21(5), pp.719-744.

Jolly, S. and Reeves, H., 2005. *Gender and migration*. Bridge.

Jordan, J., 2006. *Towards Co-operative Relations Between District and Local Municipalities*. Doctoral dissertation, Faculty of Law, University of the Western Cape.

Kabajuni, A., 2009. *Urbanisation and gender: Attention to gender equality in efforts to improve the lives of slum dwellers (COHRE)*. New York, United Nations.

Kagné, B. et Martiniello, M., 2001. *L'immigration subsaharienne en Belgique*. Courrier



Kamleu, G., 2012. Assessing the quality of demographic data on age and sex collected from census 2001; General Household Survey (2004-2007); Labour Force Surveys (2005-2007); and Community Survey 2007 in South Africa. University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

Katharine, H., 2010. Migrant mothers and mobile children: New possibility of exploring child poverty dynamics in South Africa. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Kok, P and Aliber, M., 2005. The causes and economic impact of human migration: case studies of migration from the Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Limpopo to the nine major cities in South Africa. *Unpublished report to the Department of Trade and Industry*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Kok, P and Collinson, M., 2006. Migration and urbanisation in South Africa. Statistics South Africa.

Kok, P and Collinson, M., 2006. Migration and urbanisation in South Africa. Report 03-04-02, Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Kok, P. C., 1986. Population redistribution: A summarized review and evaluation of theoretical contributions, strategies, and policy instruments, with specific reference to the South African situation. Human Sciences Research Council.

Kok, P. C., 2003. Post-apartheid patterns of internal migration in South Africa. HSRC Press.

Kouadio, A.M., 2010 *Strategies Residentielles d'une categorie de citoyens du bas de l'echelle de qualification: Les personnels domestiques feminins de la ville d'Abidjan*. Abidjan, Cote d'Ivoire:

Kpedekpo, G. M. K., 1982. *Essentials of demographic analysis for Africa* pp. 135.

Landau, L. B., Segatti, A. and Misago, J. P., 2011. Governing Migration and Urbanisation in South African Municipalities: Developing Approaches to Counter Poverty and Social Fragmentation. *South African Local Government Association: Pretoria*.

Landau, L. B., Segatti, A. and Misago, J. P., 2013. Planning and participation in cities that move: Identifying obstacles to municipal mobility management, University of Witwatersrand, South Africa.

Le Roux, F. E., 2011. *The provision of low-cost housing in South Africa: a wicked problem with a systems theory solution* Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.

Lee, E. S., 1966. A theory of migration. *Demography*, 3(1), pp.47-57.

Lee, S and Piper, N., 2013. Understanding multiple discrimination against labour migrants in Asia. *An intersectional analysis. International policy analysis*. FRIEDRICH-EBERTO-STIFTUNG.

Lehohla, P., 2006. Migration and changing settlement patterns. Statistics South Africa: Pretoria.

- Leibbrandt, M., Woolard, C. and Woolard, I., 2009. Poverty and inequality dynamics in South Africa: post-apartheid developments in the light of the long-run legacy. *South African economic policy under democracy*.
- Lekoa, M., 2011. *Migration into New Housing Developments: An Examination of RDP Housing in Northern KwaZulu-Natal*. Doctoral dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban.
- Lesclingand, M., 2011. Migrations des jeunes filles au Mali : Exploitation ou emancipation? Travail, genre et société, 25 (1).
- Levitt, P., 2011. Constructing gender across borders: A transnational approach. *Advances in Gender Research*. 15: pp. 163-183.
- Lewis-Beck, M. S. ed, 1995. *Data analysis: An introduction* (No. 103). Sage.
- Lin, L. Y. and Zhu, Y., 2008. Housing conditions of the floating population under the double residential status and the factors affecting them: a case study in Fujian Province.
- Local government South African Information. Brand South Africa. [online] Available at: <<http://www.southafrica.info/about/government/govlocal.htm#.Ujg4pn-mbcc>> [Accessed: 23 April 2012].
- Lututala, M.B. and Mobhe, M.J., 2010. Migration and health conditions of female partners of migrants in DR Congo. *Paper presented at the CODESRIA gender symposium on gender, female migration and socio-economic development*. Cairo, Egypt, 24-26 November 2010. [Online] Available at: <<http://www.codesria.org/spip.php?page=recherche&recherche=migration+and+health/>> [Accessed 2 October 2013].
- Mabin, A., 1990. Limits of urban transition models in understanding South African urbanisation. *Development Southern Africa*, 7(3), pp. 311-322.
- Maharaj, J. R., 2012. *The effect of good working capital policy on exploiting the fiscal capacity of municipalities in Kwazulu Natal* .Ph.D, University of South Africa.
- Mail and Guardian newspaper., 2009. Working together we must do more. April, 2009. Johannesburg, South Africa.
- Marnger, N.M.; 2009. *Race and Ethnic Relations: American and Global Perspectives*, Belmont, USA.
- Masika, R., de Haan, A. and Baden, S., 1997. Urbanisation and urban poverty: A gender analysis.
- Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A and Taylor, J. E., 1994. An evaluation of international migration theory: the North American case. *Population and Development Review*, pp. 699-751.

- Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A. and Taylor, J. E., 1993. Theories of international migration: a review and appraisal. *Population and Development Review*, pp. 431-466.
- Mateyka, P. and Marlay, M., 2010. *The duration and tenure of residence, 1996 to 2009*. Vancouver, British Columbia.
- May, J. and Govender, J., 1998. Poverty and inequality in South Africa. *Indicator South Africa*, 15, pp. 53-58.
- Mbonile, M. J. and Lihawa, H. A., 1996. Rural-urban female migration in Tanzania: a case of Dar es Salaam city. *UTAFITI (New Series)*, 3(2), pp.169-184.
- McMullen, J., 2011. *Redundancy: The law and practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Michael, S. and Lewis-Beck., 1995. *Quantitative Application in Social Sciences*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Migration Watch, U. K., 2006. *The impact of immigration on housing demand*. Briefing Paper 7.7.
- Millington, J., 2000. Migration and age: The effect of age on sensitivity to migration stimuli. *Regional Studies*, 34(6), pp. 521-533.
- Miraftab, F., 1996. Space, gender and work: Home-based workers in Mexico. *Homeworkers in Global Perspective: Invisible no More*, pp. 63-80.
- Miraftab, F., 1997. Revisiting Informal-Sector Home Ownership: The Relevance of Household Composition for Housing Options of the Poor. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 21(2), pp. 303-322.
- Miraftab, F., 1998. Complexities of the margin: housing decisions by female householders in Mexico. *Environment and Planning D*, 16, pp. 289-310.
- Miraftab, F., 2001. Risks and opportunities in gender gaps to access shelter: a platform for intervention. *International Journal of Politics, Culture, and Society*, 15(1), pp.143-160.
- Mondain, N., 2009. Assessing the effects of out-migration on those left behind in Senegal: local family dynamics between change and continuity. Paper presented at the XXVI International Population Conference.
- Morris, E. W. and Winter, M., 1978. *Housing, family, and society*. John Wiley and Sons.
- Morrison, P.A., 1990. Demographic factors reshaping ties to family and place. *Research on Aging* 12(4), pp. 399-408.
- Moser, C. and Peak, L. eds, 1987. *Women human settlements and housing*. London: Tavistock Publ, pp.222.

Moses, E. and Yu, D., 2009. Migration from the Northern Cape. A Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit. *Working Paper Number 32*. Cape Town: SALDRU, University of Cape Town.

Moustaka, C., 1964. The internal migrant. A comparative study in urbanization. Social Sciences Centre Athens.

Municipal guidelines on social and rental housing., 2010. What you need to know about rental housing. [online] Available at: <<http://www.salga.org.za/pages/Municipal-Focus/Municipal-Guidelines-on-Social-and-Rental-Housing/>> [Accessed 23 March 2011].

Municipal guidelines on social and rental housing., 2012. What you need to know about rental housing [online] Available at: <<http://www.salga.org.za>> [Accessed 22 February 2013].

Murdie, R. A. and Borgegard, L., 1998. Immigration, spatial segregation and housing segmentation of immigrants in metropolitan Stockholm, 1960-95. *Urban Studies*. 35(10), pp. 1869-1888.

Murdie, R. A., Chambon, A. S., Hulchanski, J. D. and Teixeira, C., 1999. Differential incorporation and housing trajectories of recent immigrant households: Towards a conceptual framework. *Papel De Discusión*. Housing New Canadians Research Working Group. Toronto: Canada.

Murdie, R.A., 2003. Housing affordability and Toronto's rental market: Perspectives from the housing careers of Jamaican, Polish and Somali newcomers. *Housing, Theory and Society*, 20, pp.183-196.

Nanthamongkolchai, S., 2009. Factors associated with choice of destination among out-migrants from Bangkok. *Journal of Population Studies and Social Studies*, 8(2), pp.91-114.

Napier, D. B., 2005. Implementing educational transformation policies: Investigating issues of ideal versus real in developing countries. *International Perspectives on Education and Society*, 6, pp.59-98.

Napier, M., 1993. Housing Problem in South Africa: Ideological Perspectives. *Forum*, 2

Nathan, L., 2005. Consistency and inconsistencies in South African foreign policy. *International Affairs*, 81(2), pp.361-372.

Ndegwa, D., Horner, D. and Esau, F., 2007. The link between migration, poverty and health: Evidence from Khayelitsha and Mitchell's Plain. *Social Indicators Research*, 81(2), pp. 223-234.

Ndinda, C., Uzodike, O.U. and Winnaar, L., 2010. The politic of housing. *HSRC Review*. 8(2).

Nelson, N., 1992. The women who have left and those who have stayed behind: Rural-urban migration in central and western Kenya, in *Gender and migration in developing countries*, edited by S. Chant. London: Belhaven Press, pp. 109-138.

Nevhutanda, A., 2007. Impact of rapid urbanisation of South African cities on their transport policies: *A theoretical Perspective*. SATC 2007.

Nijkamp, P. and Poot, J., 1998. Spatial perspectives on new theories of economic growth. *The Annals of Regional Science*. 32(1), pp.7-37.

Nikondo, A., 2010. *Migration to cities and Towns in Namibia: What their interests are?* Namibia.

Ntozi, J. P.M., 1997. Widowhood, remarriage and migration during the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Uganda. *Health transition review*, 7, pp.125-144.

Nygaard, C., 2011. International migration, housing demand and access to homeownership in the UK. *Urban Studies*. 48(11), pp.2211-2229.

Nyirasafari, N.P., 2009. *Some demographic aspects of women's access to land for farming in South Africa: A comparison from 2004 to 2007 General Household Survey*. Master's thesis, University of the Western Cape.

Obaid, T. A., 2006. *State of world population 2006*. UNFPA.

Oishi, N., 2003. *Women in motion: Globalisation, state policies, and labour migration in Asia*. Stanford : Stanford University Press.

Okuma, C.A., 2011. *Demographic and socio-economic determinants of female migration in rural KwaZulu-Natal*. University of KwaZuluNatal, Durban, South Africa.

Omelaniuk, I., 2005. Gender, poverty reduction and migration. *World Bank*. pp.1-18

Organisation internationale pour les migrations., 2003. *World Migration 2003: Managing Migration Challenges and Responses for People on the Move*. IOM.

Oxfam International, 2000. *Growth with equity briefing paper of Oxfam Community Aid Abroad*, Fitzroy Victoria, Australia, pp 10.

Oxfam. (1995). *Facts and figures' section*. Ubuntu Municipality Gender Equity Plan.

Pahl, R.E., Flynn, R and Buck, N.H., 1983. *Structure and Process of Urban Life*. Essex, England.

Pamuk, A., 1999. *Tools for a Land and Housing Market Diagnosis*. Land and Real Estate Markets Module. Technical Note for Urban and City Management Core Course. University of Virginia.

- Parpart, J. L., 1995. Gender, development and the vulnerable groups. *Feminism, Postmodernism, Development. Psychology Press.* pp.221.
- Parrenas, R., 2008. *The force of domesticity: Filipina migrants and globalization.* New York University Press.
- Passaris, C., 1989. Immigration and the evolution of economic theory. *International Migration.* 27(4), pp.525-542.
- Payne, K.G., 1997. *Urban Housing in the Third World.* Boston: London.
- Penson, N.C., 2007. Gender, Remittances and Development. Feminisation of Migration. Santo, Domingo, Dominican Republic. *Working paper, N°3.*
- Phillips, D., 2006. Moving Towards Integration: the Housing of Asylum-seekers and Refugees in Britain. *In Housing Studies.* 21(4): pp.539-553.
- Pillay, K., Manjou, R and Paulus, E., 2002. Rights, roles and resources: An analysis of Women's housing Rights–Implications of the Grootboom case. *Women's Budget Initiative, Cape Town.*
- Pillinger, J and Kennedy, S., 2009. Making home in Ireland. Housing experiences of Chinese, Indian, Lithuanian and Nigerian migrants in Blanchardstown. Ordnance survey Ireland.
- Piper, N., 2002. Gender and migration policies in South-East Asia. Preliminary observations from the Mekong region. *Paper prepared for presentation at the IUSSP conference in South-east Asia's population in a changing Asia context. Siam City Hotel, Bangkok, Thailand, 10-13 June.*
- Policy Studies Findings-5, 2005. *Policy measures to ensure access to descent housing for migrants and ethnic minorities.* European Communities, Belgium.
- Portes, A. and Rumbaut, R.G., 1996. *Immigrant America: A Portrait (Second Ed.* Berkely: University of California Press.
- Posel, D. and Casale, D., 2003. What was happening to internal labour migration in South Africa, 1993-1999? *South African journal of economics,* 70(3), pp.455-479 also published as *DPRU, working paper, No.03/74.*
- Posel, D. and Rogan, M. 2012. Gendered trends in poverty in the post-apartheid period, 1997–2006. *Development Southern Africa.* 29(1), pp.97-113.
- Posel, D., 2003. Have migration patterns in post-apartheid South Africa changed? Paper presented at the Conference on African Migration in Comparative perspective, Johannesburg, 4-7 June.
- Poswa, N. and Levy, R., 2006. Migration study in Monwabisi Park (Endlovini), Khayelitsha. *Strategic Development Information and GIS Department.*

Prothero, R. M. Ed. 1975. *People on the move: studies on internal migration*. Methuen. Provinces of South Africa [electronic print] Available at: <http://www.localgovernment.co.za/provinces/view/8> [Accessed 18 October 2013].

Rafferty, A. and Wathan, J., 2008. *Working with survey files: Using hierarchical data, matching files and pooling data* Manchester: Economic and Social Data Service.

Ramaipato, N.M.C., 2010. *Some Structural Changes in Educational Enrolment and Attainment Level within the Female Population of South Africa (2004-2007)*. Master's thesis. University of the Western Cape.

Ravenstein, E.G., 1885. The Law of Migration. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 48, pp.167-235.

Ravenstein, E.G., 1889. The laws of migration. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 52, pp.241-305.

Ray, R., 2000. Poverty and expenditure pattern of households in Pakistan and south Africa: A comparative study. *Journal of International Development*. 12(2), pp.241-256.

Reeves, H. and Baden, S., 2000. *Gender and Development; concepts and definitions*. BRIGE. Institute of Development Studies. University of Sussex.

Restrepo, J., 1999. *Female Headed Households and their Homes. The case of Medellin, Colombia*: Montreal University.

Richter, L. M., Norris, S. A., Swart, T. M. and Ginsburg, C., 2006. In-migration and living conditions of young adolescents in greater Johannesburg, South Africa. *Social Dynamics*. 32(1), pp. 195-216.

Rogan, M., 2011. Poverty and headship in post-apartheid South Africa, 1997-2006. *Social Indicators Research*, pp.1-21.

Rogan, M., 2013. Alternative definitions of headship and the Feminisation of income poverty in post-apartheid South Africa. *Journal of development studies*, (ahead-of-print), pp.1-14.

Rosenberg, I.K., 2003. Sustainable low cost housing. A review of three low cost housing development in Gauteng Province.

Roux, N., 2009. *Migration and Urbanisation-Towards a 10-year review of the population policy implementation in South Africa (1998-2008)*. Department of Social Development, March 2009.

Rust, K., 2006. *Analysis of South Africa's housing sector performance*. FinMark Trust, December 2006.

Sadie, Y and Loots, E., 1998. *RDP Project in South Africa: a Gender Perspective Analysis. Security, Development and Gender in Africa*. Monograph No 27. Johannesburg: ISS.

Salt, J., 1987. Contemporary Trends in International migration status. *International migration*. 25, pp.241-251.

- Sarioğlu, E., 2012. Gendering the organization of Home-based work in turkey: Classical versus familial patriarchy. *Gender, Work and Organization*.
- Sassen, S., 2001. *The Global City: New York, London, Tokio*. Princeton University Press.
- Schlyter, A., ed. 1996. *A Place to live: gender research on housing in Africa*. Nordic Africa Institute.
- Schnaiberg, A., 1970. Rural-Urban residence and modernism: A study of Ankara province, Turkey. *Demography*, 7(1), pp.71-85.
- Schoorl, J. J., 1998. A multi-country approach to study the determinants of migration. *United Nations Technical Symposium on International Migration and Development, The Hague*. 29, June 1998.
- Segoa, M., 2012. *Commission for Gender Equity*. Pretoria: UNISA Press.
- Semyonov, M. and Gorodzeisky, A., 2005. Labor migration, remittances and household income: A comparison between filipino and filipina overseas Workers<sup>1</sup>. *International Migration Review*. 39(1), pp.45-68.
- Shanthi, K., 2006. *Female labour migration in India: insights from NSSO data*, 4. Madras School of Economics.
- Shaw, R.P., 1976. *Migration theory and fact. Bibliography series*, 5, Philadelphia; Regional Science Research Institute.
- Shryock, H. S. and Nam, C. B., 1965. Educational selectivity of interregional migration. *Social Forces*, 43(3), pp. 299-310.
- Sjaastad, L. A., 1962. The costs and returns of human migration. *The journal of political economy*, 70(5), pp.80-93.
- Skeldon, R., 1990. *Population mobility in developing countries*. Belhaven Press.
- Smit, D., 1999. Housing in South Africa: Significant government achievement based on public-private partnership, CDE Focus, November 1999.
- Smit, W., 1998. The rural linkages of urban households in Durban South Africa. *Environment and Urbanization*. 10(1), pp.77-88.
- South Africa, 1994. *White Paper on Reconstruction and Development Programme. Government's Strategy for Fundamental Transformation*. Government Gazette November, 1994.
- South African Government Information, 1994. *A new housing policy and strategy for South Africa*. [online] Available at: <<http://www.info.gov.za/whitepapers/1994/housing.htm/>>. [Accessed 8 August 2011].



South African Government Information, 1994. A New Housing Policy and Strategy for South Africa. [online] Available at: <<http://www.info.gov.za/whitepapers/1994/housing.htm/>> [Accessed 02 May 2013].

South African Government Information, 2009. [Online] Available at: <<http://www.info.gov.za/documents/constitution/1996/96cons7.htm>> [Accessed 18 October 2013].

South African Government Information. Categories of Municipalities, [Online] Available at: <<http://www.info.gov.za>> [Accessed 18 October 2013].

South African Local Government Information, 2010. [online] Available at: <[http://www.info.gov.za/aboutgovt/contacts/bodies/salga.htm./](http://www.info.gov.za/aboutgovt/contacts/bodies/salga.htm/)> [Accessed 17 September 2013].

Stark, O. and Taylor, J. E., 1991. Migration incentives, migration types: The role of relative deprivation. *The economic journal*, 101(408), pp.1163-1178.

State of the cities report, 2004. *South African Cities Network*. [online] Available at: <<http://www.sacities.net/knowledge-centre/research/publications/25-what-we-do/socr/397-sacn-launches-hard-look-at-sa-cities/>> [Accessed 15 March 2013].

State of the cities report, 2006. *South African Cities Network, 2006*. [online] Available at: <<http://www.sacities.net/knowledge-centre/research/publications/25-what-we-do/socr/397-sacn-launches-hard-look-at-sa-cities/>> [Accessed 15 March 2013].

Statistics South Africa, 2003. *Investigating into appropriate definitions of urban and rural areas for South Africa. Discussion document*. Report No 03-02 (2001). Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Statistics South Africa, 2008. *Community Survey 2007. Unit Records Metadata*. [online] Available at: <<http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0301/P0301.pdf/>> [Accessed 12 January 2011].

Statistics South Africa, 2011. *Census 2001. Methodology and Highlights of Key results*. Pretoria: Statistics South Africa.

Statistics South Africa., 2001. *Key findings and analysis*, Pretoria: South Africa.

Sullivan, O. and Murphy, M., 1987. Young outright owner occupiers in Britain. *Housing Studies*. 2(3), pp.177-191.

Swart, E. C., 2004. *The Effects of Internal Migration and Related Factors on Nutrient Intake and Anthropometric Status of Children Aged 1-9 Years in South Africa, 1999*. Ph.D. University of the Western Cape.

Tacoli, C., 2012. *Urbanisation, gender and urban poverty: paid work and unpaid care work in the city. Urbanisation and emerging population issues*, working paper 7. International institute for environment and development. UNFPA.

Taeuber, K. E., 1961. Duration of residence analysis of internal migration in the United States. *The Milbank Memorial Fund Quarterly*, 39(1), pp.116-131.

Tang, J., 2005. *What drives migration and who migrates: migration selectivity in the late 1990s in China*. Hong Kong University of Science and Technology.

Tati, G., 2008. *Research Methodology. Principles and Steps in Research Process*. Bellville: University of the Western Cape.

Tati, G., 2010. *Entrepreneurial African female migrants at the informal-formal interface of the urban economy: Are gender asymmetries modified by entrepreneurship?. Paper presented at the CODESRIA gender symposium on Gender, Migration and socio-economic development*. Cairo, Egypt, pp.24-26.

Thadani, V. N. and Todaro, M. P., 1984. Female migration: A conceptual framework. *In Women in the cities of Asia: Migration and urban adaptation*. Westview Press, Boulder, Colorado. pp.36-59.

The National Housing Code, 2009. *The Policy Context*. Department of Human Settlements, Republic of South Africa,

Thematic Committee, 2000. *The South African Housing Policy: Operationalizing the right to adequate housing*. Report on experience and progress between 1996 and 2001 in reference to the commitments of the Habitat Agenda.

Thomas, D.S., 1958. Age and Economic Differentials in the Interstate Migration, Population Index, 24(4), pp.313-325.

Tienda, M. and Booth, K., 1991. Gender, migration and social change. *International Sociology*, 6(1), pp.51-72.

Tissington, K., 2010. *A Review of housing policy and development in South Africa since 1994. Towards an SER matrix: Monitoring the progressive realisation of socio-economic rights in South Africa*. Paper prepared for the studies in Poverty and Inequality Institute (SPII).

Todaro, P. M., 1969. A Model of Labour Migration and Urban Unemployment in Less Developed Countries, *The American Economic Review*, vol. 59, no. 1, pp. 138-148.

Todes, A., Kok, P., Wentzel, M., Van Zyl, J. and Cross, C., 2010. Contemporary South African urbanization dynamics. *Urban Forum*. 21(3) pp.331-348.

Tsimbos, C., 2006. The impact of migration on growth and ageing of the population in a new receiving country: The case of Greece. *International Migration*. 44(4), pp.231-254.

UNCHS, 2003. *Rental housing: An essential option for the urban poor in developing countries*, Nairobi.

United Nations, 1970. *Methods of Measuring Internal Migration*. *Population Studies*, pp. 47.

United Nations, 1993. *Internal Migration of Women in Developing Countries*. *Department for Economic and Social Information and Policy Analysis*. New York; United Nations.

Urban Land Matters, 2010. *A Development Action Group Publication*. Observatory, Cape Town.

Vaa, M., 1990. Path to the City: Migration Histories of Poor Women in Bamako. In: Baker, Jonathan. ed. *Small Town in Africa: Studies in Rural-Urban Interaction*. Uppsala: Nordiska African Institute, pp 172 – 181.

Van der Westhuizen. and Louis J., 2012. Challenges facing higher education in the Southern African development community. *Next steps in managing teacher migration*. pp.118.

Van Donk, M., 2004. *Women in the City of Johannesburg*. Johannesburg: South Africa.

Vann, B. A., 2006. Space of Time or distance of place: *Presbyterian Diffusion in South-Western Scotland and Ulster*, pp.1603-1690.

Varley, A., 1987. The relationship between tenure legislation and housing improvement. *Development and Change*, 18(3), pp.463-481.

Varley, A., 1993. Gender and housing: The provision of accommodation for young adults in three Mexican cities. *Habitat International*, 17(4), pp.13-30.

Venter, A. and Marais, L., 2006. Gender and housing policy in South Africa: Policy and practice in Bloemfontein. *Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences/Tydskrif Vir Gesinsekologie En Verbruikerswetenskappe*. 34(1).

Vostroknutov, A., 2013. Preferences over consumption and status. *Theory and Decision*. 74(4), pp.509-537.

Wentzel, M. and Tlabela, K., 2006. Historical background to South African migration. *Migration in South and Southern Africa: Dynamics and Determinants*, pp.71-96.

White Paper, 1994. A New Housing Policy and Strategy for South Africa. [online] Available at: <<http://www.info.gov.za/whitepapers/1994/housing.htm/>> [Accessed 23 October 2012].

White paper, 1998. White Paper on Local Government, 9 March 1998. [online] Available at: <<http://mfma.treasury.gov.za/MFMA/Guidelines/whitepaper.pdf/>> [Accessed 23 October 2012].

Wilkins, D., 2010. Untold problems. London: National Mental Health Development Unit/Men's Health Forum [online] Available at: <<http://www.menshealthforum.org.uk>> [Accessed 15 August 2013].

Williams, J., Singh, G., Clark, B. and Collinson, M., 2011. *Redefining migration: Gender and temporary labour migration in South Africa. Presentation made at the Annual Meetings of the Population Association of America*, New Orleans, pp.17-19 April 2008.

Woolard, I., 2002. An overview of poverty and inequality in South Africa. *Unpublished briefing paper*, HSRC, Pretoria.  
World Bank; South Africa Eco

conomic Update; .2012. Focus on savings, investments, and inclusive growth, Washington, DC, USA).

Wu, W, 2002. Migrant housing in urban china choices and constraints. *Urban Affairs Review*. 38(1), pp.90-119.

Yawitch, J., 1984. *Tightening the noose: African Women and influx control in South Africa 1950-1980*. Carnegie Conference Paper no 82. Second Carnegie Inquiry into Poverty and Development in Southern Africa. Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

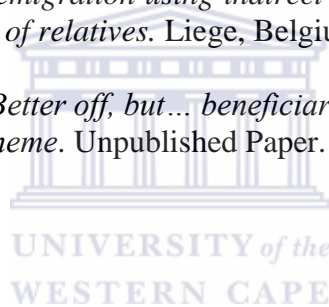
Yu, D. and Moses, E., 2009. Migration from the Northern Cape. SALDRU Working paper Number 32, Cape Town: University of Cape Town.

Yu, Z. and Liyue, L., 2008. *Housing conditions of the floating population under double residential status and the factors affecting them: A case study in Fujian Province*.

Yust, B. L., Hadjiyanni, T. and Ponce, L. B., 1997. Exploring housing quality measures in a rural area of the Philippines. *Housing and Society*, 24(1), pp.60-74.

Zaba, B., 1985. *Measurement of emigration using indirect techniques: Manual for collection and analysis of data on residence of relatives*. Liege, Belgium: Ordina Edition.

Zack, T. and Charlton, S., 2003. *Better off, but... beneficiaries' perceptions of the government's housing subsidy scheme*. Unpublished Paper. Pretoria: DoH.



## Appendices

### Appendix 1: A copy of migratory and housing tenancy variables from the 2007 Community Survey metadata



**Universe**

Every person who usually resided in the household for at least four nights a week and had done so for the past four weeks, and any other person who stayed over the previous night as a visitor.

**Final code list**

- 1 = Married civil/religious
- 2 = Married traditional/customary
- 3 = Polygamous marriage
- 4 = Living together as married partners
- 5 = Never married
- 6 = Widower/widow
- 7 = Separated
- 8 = Divorced
- = Institutions

**Population group (P10\_Pop\_Group)**

(@22 1.)

P-10 POPULATION GROUP

How would (the person) describe himself/herself in terms of population group?

1 Black
2 Coloured
3 Indian or Asian
4 White

Write code in the box.

**Note to users**

This question was asked to determine the population group of persons in the selected dwellings. The enumerator was instructed to ask everybody – even if the population group seemed obvious. This was because people from different population groups may form part of the same household. This question may have seemed sensitive to some respondents, but it was important to find out the composition of the South African population. The enumerator was instructed to accept the response given by the respondents, even if the enumerator did not agree, and under no circumstances should that response be queried.

**Universe**

Every person who usually resided in the household for at least four nights a week and had done so for the past four weeks, and any other person who stayed over the previous night as a visitor.

**Final code list**

- 1 = Black
- 2 = Coloured
- 3 = Indian or Asian
- 4 = White

**\* Province of birth (P11\_Born\_Prov)**

(@23 2.)

P-11 PROVINCE OF BIRTH

In which province in South Africa was (the person) born?

Write code in the box, if the person was not born in South Africa, the code is 10.

- |                  |
|------------------|
| 01 Western Cape  |
| 02 Eastern Cape  |
| 03 Northern Cape |
| 04 Free State    |
| 05 KwaZulu-Natal |
| 06 North West    |
| 07 Gauteng       |
| 08 Mpumalanga    |
| 09 Limpopo       |
| 10 Outside RSA   |
| 11 Do not know   |

**Note to users**

This question was asked to determine the province where the respondent was born. If the person was born outside of South Africa, the enumerator was asked to record code 10 ('Outside RSA').

**Universe**

Every person who usually resided in the household for at least four nights a week and had done so for the past four weeks, and any other person who stayed over the previous night as a visitor.

**Final code list**

- 01 = Western Cape
- 02 = Eastern Cape
- 03 = Northern Cape
- 04 = Free State
- 05 = KwaZulu-Natal
- 06 = North West
- 07 = Gauteng
- 08 = Mpumalanga
- 09 = Limpopo
- 10 = Outside RSA
- 11 = Do not know
- 99 = Unspecified
- = Institutions

**Five years ago (P16\_Fiveyears\_Ago)**

(@25 1.)

**P-16 FIVE YEARS AGO**

Was (the person) living in this dwelling in October 2001?	1 Yes	1
	2 No	2
Mark appropriate box with an X. If 1 "Yes" or 3 "Born after October 2001", Go to P-21.	3 Born after October 2001	3

**Note to users**

This question was asked to determine whether the person was living in the same dwelling in October 2001. This question refers to any movements, no matter how close to the original place is to the new one. This also includes a move from one dwelling unit to another – even on the same stand or in the same block of flats. The enumerator was instructed to record option 3 if the child was born after October 2001.

If the answer was 'No' (code 2), the enumerator was instructed to continue to P-17 (Period of movement). If the answer was either 'Yes', (code 1) or 'Born after October 2001' (code 3), the enumerator was instructed to proceed to P-21 (Disability).

**Universe**

Every person who usually resides in the household for at least four nights a week and has done so for the past four weeks and for persons who stayed over last night as visitors.

**Final code list**

- 1 = Yes
- 2 = No
- 3 = Born after October 2001
- = Institutions

**Period of movement (P17B\_Year\_Move)**

(@26 4.)

<b>P-17 PERIOD OF MOVEMENT</b>	<b>Month</b>
In which year and month did (the person) move to this dwelling?	<b>Year</b>
Example of year 1 9 or 2 0	
8 3 or 0 4	

**Note to users**

If the response to question P-16 (Was (the person) living in this dwelling in October 2001?) was 'No', the following question was asked: 'In which year did (the person) move to this dwelling?'

If the person had moved more than once, the enumerator was instructed to indicate the year of the most recent move.

**Universe**

Only persons who have moved since October 2001

**Final code list**

2001 to 2007

7777 = Not applicable

8888 = Born after October 2001

9999 = Unspecified

□□□□ = Institutions



**Province of previous residence (P18\_PrevProv\_Res)**

(@30 2.)

<p>P-18 PROVINCE OF PREVIOUS RESIDENCE</p> <p><b>In which province did (the person) live before moving to this dwelling?</b></p> <p><i>Write code in the box. If the person moved from outside South Africa, write code 10.</i></p>	<p>01 Western Cape 02 Eastern Cape 03 Northern Cape 04 Free State 05 KwaZulu-Natal 06 North West 07 Gauteng 08 Mpumalanga 09 Limpopo 10 Outside RSA 11 Do not know</p>
---	--

**Note to users**

This question was asked to determine from which province the person has moved in the case where the response to question P-16 was 'No' (Not living in the same dwelling in October 2001). If the person has moved within the same province, the enumerator was instructed to record the code of the same province. If the move was from another country, 'Outside RSA' (code 10) was recorded. Only one answer was allowed.

**Universe**

Only persons who have moved since October 2001

**Final code list**

- 01 = Western Cape
- 02 = Eastern Cape
- 03 = Northern Cape
- 04 = Free State
- 05 = KwaZulu-Natal
- 06 = North West
- 07 = Gauteng
- 08 = Mpumalanga
- 09 = Limpopo
- 10 = Outside RSA
- 11 = Do not know
- 77 = Not applicable
- 88 = Born after October 2001
- 99 = Unspecified
- = Institutions



**Disability type (DER03\_Disability)**

(@32 1.)

(Derived)

P-22 DISABILITY TYPE	READ OUT:	
<p><b>What type(s) of disability does (the person) have?</b></p> <p><i>Mark any that apply with an X.</i></p> <p><i>Multiple disability is indicated by marking more than one selection.</i></p>	1 Sight (blind/severe visual limitation)	1
	2 Hearing (deaf, profoundly hard of hearing)	2
	3 Communication (speech impairment)	3
	4 Physical (needs wheelchair, crutches, etc.)	4
	5 Intellectual (serious difficulties in learning)	5
	6 Emotional (behavioural, psychological)	6



**Derivation**

Serial number is determined as follows:

- If a household is a single questionnaire: serial number is the same as the bar code.
- If a household spans multiple questionnaires: serial number is the bar code from the first questionnaire of the household.

**Final code list**

500000201–500753885

**Scope status of survey (Scope\_Status)**

(@10 1.)

(Derived variable)

**Note to users**

Only private dwellings were considered as habitat or possible habitat for the sample. Those dwelling units not classified as private dwellings (e.g. shops, town halls, churches, etc.) were considered as being out of scope of the sample frame and were merely an approximation to 2001 numbers and it is not new data. Only the variables age, sex and population group on the three different geographical levels are available for the out-of-scope records.

**Final code list**

0 = Out of scope

1 = Information collected by sample

**\* Type of main dwelling (H01\_Hu)**

(@11 2.)

(H-01) TYPE OF MAIN DWELLING

Which of the following types best describes the main dwelling unit that this household occupies?

If this household lives in MORE THAN ONE DWELLING, write the code of the MAIN dwelling that the household occupies in the box.

READ OUT:

- 01 House or brick structure on a separate stand or yard
- 02 Traditional dwelling/ hut /structure made of traditional material
- 03 Flat in block of flats
- 04 Town/ cluster/ semi-detached house (simplex, duplex, triplex)
- 05 House/flat/room in backyard
- 06 Informal dwelling/ shack in backyard
- 07 Informal dwelling/ shack NOT in backyard e.g. in informal/ squatter settlement
- 08 Room/ flatlet NOT in backyard but on a shared property
- 09 Caravan or tent
- 10 Private ship/boat
- 11 Workers' hostel (bed/room)
- 12 Other (specify)

**Note to users**

This question was asked to ascertain the type of dwelling that the household occupied. Enumerators were instructed to record by their observation where possible, otherwise they should read out descriptions to the respondent. For any other material used that was not specified in the given categories, provision was made in code 12 to specify the type of dwelling. Only one category should be recorded.

**Universe**

All households

**Final code list**

- 01 = House or brick structure on a separate stand or yard
- 02 = Traditional dwelling/hut/structure made of traditional material
- 03 = Flat in block of flats
- 04 = Town/cluster/semi-detached house (simplex, duplex, triplex)
- 05 = House/flat/room in backyard
- 06 = Informal dwelling/shack in backyard
- 07 = Informal dwelling/shack NOT in backyard, e.g. in an informal/squatter settlement
- 08 = Room/flatlet NOT in backyard but on a shared property
- 09 = Caravan or tent
- 10 = Private ship/boat
- 11 = Workers' hostel (bed/room)
- 12 = Other

323

**Household goods: Post facilities (H10G\_Postfacil)**

(@29 1.)

**Final code list**

- 1 = Yes
- 2 = No
- 3 = Unspecified

**Household goods: Cell phone (H10H\_Cell)**

(@30 1.)

**Final code list**

- 1 = Yes
- 2 = No
- 3 = Unspecified

**Tenure status (H11\_Tenure)**

(@31 1.)

**(H-11) TENURE STATUS**

What is the tenure status of this household?

If the household uses several dwellings, write the code for the main dwelling in the box.

**READ OUT:**

- 1 Owned and fully paid off
- 2 Owned but not yet paid off
- 3 Rented
- 4 Occupied rent-free
- 5 Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

Write only one code in the box.

**Note to users**

This question was asked to determine on what terms the household occupied the dwelling. If the household used several dwellings, the enumerator was asked to record the main dwelling.

**Universe**

All households

**Final code list**

- 1 = Owned and fully paid off
- 2 = Owned but not yet paid off
- 3 = Rented
- 4 = Occupied rent-free
- 5 = Other

**Refuse disposal (H12\_Refuse)**

(@32 1.)

**(H-12) REFUSE DISPOSAL**

How is the refuse or rubbish from this household MAINLY disposed of?

**READ OUT:**

- 1 Removed by local authority/ private company at least once a week
- 2 Removed by local authority/ private company less often
- 3 Communal refuse dump
- 4 Own refuse dump
- 5 No rubbish disposed
- 6 Other (specify) \_\_\_\_\_

Write only one code in the box.

**Note to users**

This question was asked to determine the how the refuse/rubbish from the household was mainly disposed of.

**Universe**

All households

324

**Appendix 2: Table 4.14: Comparison among areas of residence**

Variables	Metropolitan municipalities areas					Non-metropolitan municipalities				
	Tenure status %					Tenure status %				
	Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre	Total figures	Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre	Total figures
Black	27.2	16.7	32.1	24.1	11180	47	7.7	22	23.3	15416
Coloured	21.5	40	34.3	4.3	1454	36.6	9.1	29.2	25.1	2232
Indian/Asian	20.2	37	40	2.8	962	21.8	32.8	44.1	1.3	238
White	20.9	48	30.2	0.8	3293	29.5	27.3	38.1	5.1	2884
Population group (HOH)										
Black	22.7	11.4	40.1	25.7	4164	39.6	5.2	31.2	24	7240
Coloured	18.9	21.5	52	7.6	354	34.2	7.9	38.4	19.5	584
Indian/Asian	22.3	25.5	51.1	1.1	184	16.1	9.7	58.1	16.1	31
White	19.5	32.4	46.2	2	884	27.1	17.2	52.6	3.1	641
Marital status NOT HOH										
Married civil/religion	22.8	42.3	27.6	7.3	5303	35.8	20.5	30.5	13.2	5425
Married traditional/custom	23	16.8	36.4	23.9	1680	49.3	5.3	20.9	24.5	2321
Living together	19.4	11.9	41.6	27.1	2787	36	4.4	29.6	30	449
Never married	29.5	20.4	31.6	18.4	6718	49.1	9	21.6	20.3	8474
Widow	30.3	40.6	21.8	7.3	165	47.5	20.6	13.1	15.6	223
Separated	29.2	25	31.3	14.6	48	65.6	5.7	13.1	15.6	122
Divorced	26.3	38.9	31.1	3.7	190	53.2	14.1	23.1	9.6	156
Marital status HOH										
Married civil/religious	28.6	25.1	32.7	13.6	618	42.3	10.5	29.9	17.3	1069
Married traditional/cu	24.8	10.6	41.7	22.9	218	54	5.1	15.3	25.6	587
Living together	25.9	11.2	40	22.9	437	46.5	4.8	26.2	22.5	581
Never married	29.9	12.8	46.1	22.2	3290	32.2	5.3	39.4	23.1	4699
Widow	30.1	19.2	29.9	20.8	385	50	6.7	20.7	22.6	806
Separated	30	16	30.7	23.3	150	43.4	4.1	26.7	25.8	318
Divorced	22	15.8	42.2	20	5586	33.9	11.9	39.9	14.2	436
Employment not HOH										
Employed	22	36.7	31.4	9.9	7102	35.7	17.1	28.8	18.8	6626
Unemployed	26.2	12	33.8	28	4259	43.5	6.7	26.1	23.7	4887
Not economically active	28.2	22.9	32.5	16.5	5530	48.4	8.6	22.3	20.7	9257
Employment HOH										
Employed	19.5	19.7	43.5	17.4	3617	29	8.2	39.9	22.9	4618
Unemployed	24.8	7.6	35.8	31.8	1011	46.5	4.1	27	22.4	1373
Not economically active	28.2	10.1	44.1	17.6	958	50.5	4.1	24.9	20.5	255
Age group (not HOH)										
5-14	?	23.7	25.4	21.2	3455	-	-	-	-	-

Variables	Metropolitan municipalities areas					Non-metropolitan municipalities				
	Tenure status %				Total figures	Tenure status %				Total figures
	Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre		Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre	
15-24	27.2	15.7	35.3	21.8	5629	46.3	8	23.8	21.9	8345
25-34	24.1	20.4	34.8	20.6	5014	39.9	11	28.8	20.3	6555
35-44	25.7	28.8	26.6	18.9	2140	39.6	15.1	25	20.2	3335
45-54	28.9	30.2	24.7	16.2	795	42.3	14.6	22.9	20.2	1591
55-64	35.8	32.5	16.6	15.1	271	52.2	14.3	18.2	15.3	890
65-74	28.3	35.8	25.8	10	120	55.6	13	22.2	9.3	54
75-84	42.2	20	26.7	11.1	45	-	-	-	-	-
85-94	37.5	37.5	18.8	6.3	16	-	-	-	-	-
95+	40	60	0	0	5	-	-	-	-	-
HOH										
5-14	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
15-24	13.4	5.2	64.1	17.4	696	31.6	2.1	44.4	21.8	1305
25-34	20.2	10.1	47.3	22.3	1732	34.6	5.7	38.7	21	2831
35-44	24.3	16.6	33.2	25.9	1306	39.8	8	30.4	21.8	2301
45-54	28.5	16.4	28.2	26.9	731	43.7	7.9	23.9	24.5	1314
55-64	34.7	18.6	20	26.7	285	48.3	8.1	19.9	23.7	700
65-74	40.4	11	25.7	22.9	109	53.3	6.7	20	20	45
75-84	42.2	20	26.7	11.1	45	-	-	-	-	-
85-94	37.5	37.5	18.8	6.3	16	-	-	-	-	-
95+	40	60	0	0	5	-	-	-	-	-
Income category (not HOH)										
low income	26.5	19.2	33.4	21	12237	44.4	4.2	29.5	24.9	6916
Medium income	19	48.4	31	1.7	2879	31.1	32.5	31	5.4	1795
High income	21.7	59.6	16.6	2.1	235	42.4	35.4	16.2	6.1	99
HOH										
Low income	24.3	8.6	39.1	28	3652	41.4	4.2	29.5	24.9	6916
Medium income	16.4	29.8	51	2.9	1362	22	15.2	55.9	6.9	1220
High income	18.2	47.8	32.1	1.9	159	24.5	26.4	43.4	5.7	53
Duration of Residence not HOH										
1	24.9	17.3	43.5	14.3	1642	39	7.6	32.5	20.8	2581
2	21.5	24.2	42.4	11.9	5107	38.5	10	30.2	21.3	6446
3	26.3	26.2	32.2	15.3	3115	43.2	11.4	24.7	20.7	3734
4	26.2	27.3	25.4	21.1	2788	48.2	12.2	20.6	19	3151
5	27.1	29.6	21.0	22.3	2500	46.9	12.5	19.8	20.9	2899
6	27.1	31.4	20.8	20.3	1509	50.5	12.6	15.8	21	1783
7	36.5	32.2	16.5	14.8	230	52.8	10.2	18.8	18.2	176
Duration of residence HOH										
1	14.8	6.8	66.4	12	485	23.7	4.5	46.1	15.7	830
2	16.6	14	55.5	13.9	1682	32.8	5.5	40.8	21	2731
3	24.7	17.3	38.9	19.1	1080	37.9	6.3	33.8	22.1	1537

Variables	Metropolitan municipalities areas					Non-metropolitan municipalities				
	Tenure status %				Total figures	Tenure status %				Total figures
	Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre		Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre	
4	25.3	16.8	31.8	26.1	961	42	6.5	29.2	22.3	1324
5	27.3	17.8	28.9	26	835	47.2	7.5	23	22.3	1256
6	25.4	20.6	25.2	28.9	461	51.5	9	18.2	21.4	748
7	24.4	29.3	22	24.4	82	50	8.6	15.7	25.7	70
<b>Housing structure type Not HOH</b>										
<b>Stand alone</b>	31.4	37.8	20.4	10.4	9595	47	13.3	21.5	18.2	15588
<b>Flat or block of flats</b>	12.5	20.5	64.4	2.7	2855	16.9	7.3	66.9	8.9	947
<b>Floating houses</b>	19.5	4	37.7	38.9	4441	34.9	2.9	29.9	32.3	4235
<b>Housing structure type HOH</b>										
<b>Stand alone</b>	31.8	25.3	24.9	18	2459	45.3	8.1	26.1	20.6	56441
<b>Flat or block of flats</b>	12.8	15.5	69.7	2.1	1395	13.4	5.7	70.8	10.1	665
<b>Floating houses</b>	15.4	2.7	44.6	37.4	1732	27.4	1.9	40.9	29.8	2190
<b>Province of birth Not HOH</b>										
<b>Western Cape</b>	21.5	41.6	32.3	4.6	1640	38.9	15.6	29.6	15.9	1031
<b>Eastern Cape</b>	34	15.8	29.5	20.7	3066	41.2	8.1	26.1	24.4	4126
<b>Northern Cape</b>	23.1	27.9	38	11.1	208	37.5	9.5	26.1	26.9	1660
<b>Free State</b>	21.6	30.1	32.1	16.2	458	35.3	12.4	28.1	24.2	2393
<b>Kwazulu-Natal</b>	26.8	26.2	32.2	14.9	3023	48.8	11	22.5	17.7	3184
<b>Northern West</b>	24	22.2	30	23.8	726	42	9.4	24.2	24.4	2214
<b>Gauteng</b>	24.3	35.8	27	12.9	3950	30.6	21.4	32.7	15.3	1564
<b>Mpumalanga</b>	20	14.4	34.6	30.9	19.5	48.9	10.5	21.3	19.3	1669
<b>Limpopo</b>	20	14.4	34.6	30.9	195	64.7	6.2	15.7	13.5	2074
<b>Outside RSA</b>	18.7	20.7	52.8	7.8	1186	33.3	12.6	35.8	18.2	855
<b>Province of birth HOH</b>										
<b>Western Cape</b>	21.5	26.4	45	7.1	424	32.6	8.9	44	14.4	291
<b>Eastern Cape</b>	32.7	8.1	38	21.2	1169	33.7	6.8	34.5	25	2072
<b>Northern Cape</b>	15.4	10.3	60.3	14.1	78	33.2	7	39	20.9	446
<b>Free State</b>	14.9	14.9	50	20.2	188	32.3	8	34.6	25.1	784
<b>Kwazulu-Natal</b>	22.1	14.7	43.8	19.4	1014	36.8	5.6	35.1	22.5	1667
<b>Northern West</b>	20.1	14.9	44.6	20.4	289	44.8	3.7	28.4	23.1	828
<b>Gauteng</b>	19.9	27.5	35.4	17.2	1191	28.7	11.1	46.1	14.1	460
<b>Mpumalanga</b>	15.8	8.4	43.4	32.3	297	46.3	6.2	23.1	24.4	594
<b>Limpopo</b>	15.2	6.5	43.9	34.3	597	53.1	4.1	24.8	18	1086
<b>Outside RSA</b>	18.7	20.7	52.8	7.8	1186	29.9	6.7	42.2	21.3	268

Variables	Metropolitan municipalities areas					Non-metropolitan municipalities				
	Tenure status %				Total figures	Tenure status %				Total figures
	Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre		Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre	
Province of previous residence Not HOH										
Western Cape	25.8	33.1	30.9	10.2	2659	39.4	13.1	30.3	17.1	1227
Eastern Cape	37	15.4	27.6	20	1817	42.3	8.1	25.3	24.3	3673
Northern Cape	24.1	22.9	36.1	16.9	83	36.6	8.2	27.3	27.9	1668
Free State	25.1	23	32.8	19.1	183	34.6	12.8	28.3	24.3	2342
Kwazulu-Natal	28.1	24.7	31.5	15.7	2654	48.2	11.2	22.7	17.8	3184
Northern West	30.8	15.6	29.2	24.4	435	42.1	9.2	26	22.7	2445
Gauteng	21	30.1	32	16.9	7165	33.5	18.5	28	20	1774
Mpumalanga	23.7	16.9	37.9	21.5	414	45.5	13.3	23.8	17.4	1922
Limpopo	22.8	13	37.4	26.9	934	64.1	7.6	15.7	12.5	2080
Outside RSA	21	16.5	54.3	8.2	547	31.6	8.4	40.9	19.1	455
Province of previous residence HOH										
Western Cape	26.4	19.6	41.4	12.6	859	31.5	10.2	41.4	16.9	372
Eastern Cape	37.2	7.2	36.5	19	567	33.5	7.1	34.8	24.6	1826
Northern Cape	9.5	9.5	66.7	14.3	21	30.8	7.3	40.4	21.6	1826
Free State	11.1	13	55.6	20.4	54	30.3	8	37.3	24.4	791
Kwazulu-Natal	23.3	12.5	42.7	21.6	881	37.1	5.5	34.5	22.9	1697
Northern West	255	9.2	43.4	22.4	2529	45.3	3.4	29.3	22	905
Gauteng	17.9	19.9	40.2	22	2529	31.9	7.8	38.8	21.5	554
Mpumalanga	14.9	7.5	50.7	26.9	134	44.2	8.4	25.1	22.3	658
Limpopo	17.4	5.5	51.5	25.5	235	54.2	3.7	24.4	17.7	1084
Outside RSA	16.2	10.4	65.6	7.8	154	25.5	5.7	49.6	19.1	141
Occupation Not HOH										
legislators Off, Manager	19.4	51.2	27	2.5	852	30.2	25.1	36	8.7	483
Professionals	20.6	50	26.2	3.1	1143	33.4	30.2	29.2	7.2	860
Technic, Associate professionals	18.9	43.8	34.2	3.1	609	28.4	31.7	34.1	5.7	331
Clerks	19	39.8	36.3	4.9	1068	33.8	20.4	39.3	6.4	839
Service workers, shop & market	24.7	26.5	37.6	11.3	612	35.8	15.8	33.9	14.5	525
Skilled agriculture & fishery workers	21.1	18.4	23.7	36.8	38	40.4	4.2	16.7	38.8	312
Craft & related trades workers	24.6	24.2	34.2	17.1	240	36.5	14.7	31.7	17.1	252
Plant & machine operator & assemble	22.3	25.6	40.5	11.6	121	38.9	10.5	29.5	21.1	95

Variables	Metropolitan municipalities areas					Non-metropolitan municipalities				
	Tenure status %				Total figures	Tenure status %				Total figures
	Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre		Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre	
Elementary occupations	25.8	20.9	30.3	23	1229	37	6.7	23.3	33	1698
Occupation HOH										
Legislator ,S Off, Manager	16.2	32.7	46.6	4.4	388	24.7	16.8	50.3	8.2	304
Professionals	16	36.1	46	2	557	21.1	15.5	53.5	9.9	677
Technic, Associate professionals	17.9	26	49.8	6.3	285	26.3	13.2	49.6	11	228
Clerks	19.3	20.3	49.4	11	399	25	7.8	55.2	12	424
Service workers, shop & market	15.3	10.3	58.6	15.9	321	24.9	6.4	52.2	16.5	393
Skilled agriculture & fishery workers	27.3	18.2	36.4	18.2	22	30.9	2.6	25.7	40.8	191
Craft & related trade workers	23.4	14.5	50.8	11.3	124	26	4.1	48	21.9	196
Plant & machine operator & assemble	29.5	11.5	45.9	13.1	61	32.1	6.4	45.9	15.6	109
Elementary occupations	23.4	7.6	30.2	38.8	970	32.6	4.7	24.2	38.5	1450
Household size (not HOH)										
1-4 members	21.9	25.3	36.5	16.3	11076	34.9	11.5	32.2	21.4	11703
5-9 members	30.5	27.5	24.8	17.2	5485	52.4	11	17.2	19.4	8025
10-14 members	41.9	20.1	20.8	17.2	5485	64.7	4.1	9.4	21.8	904
15-19 members	31.6	36.8	15.8	15.8	19	74.8	0	1	24.3	103
20-24 members	0	66.7	0	33.3	3	48.3	3.4	10.3	37.9	29
25-29										
30 +						0.0	0	0	100	1
Household size (HOH)										
1-4 members	20.5	15.3	45.2	19	4798	34.4	6.1	37.4	22	6910
5-9 members	30.7	18.9	24.3	26.1	758	54.1	7.2	16.2	22.5	1505
10-14 members	41.4	24.1	13.8	20.7	29	64.5	5.3	7.9	22.4	76
15-19 members	0	100	0	0	1	66.7	0	0	33.3	3
20-24 members						50	0	50	0	2
30 +										
Level of Education not HOH										
Primary	30.2	19.9	26.1	23.9	4349	49.3	7.3	18.2	25.2	9543
Secondary	26.7	18.8	32.8	21.7	10473	47.4	8.1	23.6	20.9	12343
With certificate	21.6	33.1	36.7	8.6	1490	40.2	19.7	29.2	11	1260
Degrees	18.7	48.1	36.7	8.6	1490	33.6	28.7	30.9	6.9	363
No schooling	27.5	19	28.2	25.3	542	48.8	4.8	15.4	31	1903
Level of Education HOH										
Primary	27.8	9.3	28.2	34.7	857	46.3	4.3	18.5	30.9	2076
Secondary	23.5	10	41.5	25.1	2933	39.1	4.5	34.4	22.1	1430

Variables	Metropolitan municipalities areas					Non-metropolitan municipalities				
	Tenure status %				Total figures	Tenure status %				Total figures
	Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre		Own/P	Not/P	Renting	Occ-R-Fre	
With certificate	15.7	22.4	54.5	7.4	585	22.6	10	55	12.3	826
Degrees	13.3	31.1	53.5	2.1	331	20.9	19.6	53.4	6.1	326
No schooling	32.6	5.9	22.5	39	187	51.8	3.1	14.3	30.7	986

*Housing tenure status: Owned and fully paid; owned but not fully paid; renting; occupied rent-free*





## Appendix 3: List of categories of municipalities of South Africa

[ Home ] [ About government ] [ Government structure ] [ Local government ]

### Categories of municipalities

The Constitution provides for three categories of municipalities.

As directed by the Constitution, the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act 117 of 1998) contains criteria for determining when an area must have a category-A municipality (metropolitan municipalities) and when municipalities fall into categories B (local municipalities) or C (district municipalities).

The Act also determines that category-A municipalities can only be established in metropolitan areas.

Metropolitan councils have single metropolitan budgets, common property ratings and service-tariff systems, and single employer bodies.

South Africa has eight metropolitan municipalities, namely:

- Buffalo City (East London)
- City of Cape Town
- Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality (East Rand)
- City of eThekweni (Durban)
- City of Johannesburg
- Mangaung Municipality (Bloemfontein)
- Nelson Mandela Metropolitan Municipality (Port Elizabeth)
- City of Tshwane (Pretoria).

Metropolitan councils may decentralise powers and functions. However, all original municipal, legislative and executive powers are vested in the metropolitan council.

In metropolitan areas, there is a choice of two types of executive system: the mayoral executive system where executive authority is vested in the mayor, and the collective executive committee system where these powers are vested in the executive committee.

Non-metropolitan areas consist of district councils and local councils.

District councils are primarily responsible for capacity-building and district-wide planning.

The Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998 provides for ward committees whose tasks, among other things, are to:

- prepare, implement and review integrated development plans
- establish, implement and review municipalities' performance-management systems
- monitor and review municipalities' performances
- prepare municipalities' budgets
- participate in decisions about the provision of municipal services

- communicate and disseminate information on governance matters.

By March 2009, there were ward committees in 98% of the country's municipal wards.

### **Municipal Demarcation Board**

The board is a constitutional institution established by the Local Government: Municipal Demarcation Act, 1998 (Act 27 of 1998) [PDF].

The main function of the board is to determine municipal boundaries in accordance with the Act and other related legislation, and to advise on demarcation matters.

In addition, the board is tasked with delimiting wards into metropolitan and local municipalities.

Source: South Africa Yearbook 2010/11  
Editor: D Burger. Government Communication and Information System

[ Top ]

Last modified: 03 June 2011 09:22:49.

[About the site](#) | [Terms & conditions](#) | [Contact your government](#)

Developed and maintained by GCIS

The website will resize according to your computer's screen resolution settings, with the smallest screen resolution of 800x600 pixels.

UNIVERSITY of the  
WESTERN CAPE

This is a list of [municipalities of South Africa](#). Refer to the main page for an explanation of how these are classified, and their inter-relationships.

## Contents

[hide]

- [1 Eastern Cape](#)
- [2 Free State](#)
- [3 Gauteng](#)
- [4 KwaZulu-Natal](#)
- [5 Limpopo](#)
- [6 Mpumalanga](#)
- [7 North West](#)
- [8 Northern Cape](#)
- [9 Western Cape](#)
- [10 Notes](#)
- [11 References](#)
- [12 External links](#)

### [edit] Eastern Cape

The [Eastern Cape](#) is divided into two [metropolitan municipalities](#) and six [district municipalities](#). The district municipalities are in turn divided into a total of thirty-seven [local municipalities](#).

Name	Code	Seat	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2007)
<b><u>Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality</u></b>	BUF	<b><u>East London</u></b>	2,536	724,312
<b><u>Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolitan Municipality</u></b>	NMA	<b><u>Port Elizabeth</u></b>	1,959	1,050,930
<b><u>Cacadu District Municipality</u></b>	DC10	<b><u>Port Elizabeth</u></b> <sup>[Note 1]</sup>	58,194	363,496
<u>Camdeboo Local Municipality</u>	EC101	<u>Graaff-Reinet</u>	12,422	41,758
<u>Blue Crane Route Local Municipality</u>	EC102	<u>Somerset East</u>	11,068	25,573
<u>Ikwezi Local Municipality</u>	EC103	<u>Jansenville</u>	4,563	11,523
<u>Makana Local Municipality</u>	EC104	<u>Grahamstown</u>	4,376	70,059
<u>Ndlambe Local Municipality</u>	EC105	<u>Port Alfred</u>	1,841	46,359
<u>Sundays River Valley Local Municipality</u>	EC106	<u>Kirkwood</u>	5,994	34,935
<u>Baviaans Local Municipality</u>	EC107	<u>Willowmore</u>	11,668	13,950
<u>Kouga Local Municipality</u>	EC108	<u>Jeffreys Bay</u>	2,670	73,274
<u>Kou-Kamma Local Municipality</u>	EC109	<u>Kareedouw</u>	3,593	40,780

<b><u>Amathole District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC12</b>	<b><u>East London</u></b> <sup>[Note 2]</sup>	<b>21,595</b>	<b>940,441</b>
<u>Mbhashe Local Municipality</u>	EC121	<u>Dutywa</u>	3,169	262,008
<u>Mnquma Local Municipality</u>	EC122	<u>Gcuwa</u>	3,270	297,663
<u>Great Kei Local Municipality</u>	EC123	<u>Komga</u>	1,736	33,382
<u>Amahlathi Local Municipality</u>	EC124	<u>Stutterheim</u>	4,820	112,735
<u>Ngqushwa Local Municipality</u>	EC126	<u>Peddie</u>	2,241	83,086
<u>Nkonkobe Local Municipality</u>	EC127	<u>Fort Beaufort</u>	3,626	130,100
<u>Nxuba Local Municipality</u>	EC128	<u>Adelaide</u>	2,732	21,467
<b><u>Chris Hani District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC13</b>	<b><u>Queenstown</u></b>	<b>36,144</b>	<b>798,597</b>
<u>Inxuba Yethemba Local Municipality</u>	EC131	<u>Cradock</u>	11,663	48,399
<u>Tsolwana Local Municipality</u>	EC132	<u>Tarkastad</u>	6,087	27,660
<u>Inkwanca Local Municipality</u>	EC133	<u>Molteno</u>	3,584	14,283
<u>Lukhanji Local Municipality</u>	EC134	<u>Queenstown</u>	3,813	208,081
<u>Intsika Yethu Local Municipality</u>	EC135	<u>Cofimvaba</u>	2,711	185,342
<u>Emalahleni Local Municipality</u>	EC136	<u>Lady Frere</u>	3,447	125,293
<u>Engcobo Local Municipality</u>	EC137	<u>Ngcobo</u>	2,484	135,979
<u>Sakhisizwe Local Municipality</u>	EC138	<u>Cala</u>	2,355	53,472
<b><u>Joe Gqabi District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC14</b>	<b><u>Barkly East</u></b>	<b>25,663</b>	<b>308,365</b>
<u>Elundini Local Municipality</u>	EC141	<u>Maclea</u>	5,065	123,636
<u>Senqu Local Municipality</u>	EC142	<u>Lady Grey</u>	7,329	118,177
<u>Maletswai Local Municipality</u>	EC143	<u>Aliwal North</u>	4,358	42,843
<u>Gariep Local Municipality</u>	EC144	<u>Burgersdorp</u>	8,911	23,708
<b><u>OR Tambo District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC15</b>	<b><u>Mthatha</u></b>	<b>12,096</b>	<b>1,441,121</b>
<u>Ngquza Hill Local Municipality</u>	EC153	<u>Flagstaff</u>	2,477	279,795
<u>Port St Johns Local Municipality</u>	EC154	<u>Port St Johns</u>	1,291	165,084
<u>Nyandeni Local Municipality</u>	EC155	<u>Libode</u>	2,474	314,273
<u>Mhlontlo Local Municipality</u>	EC156	<u>Qumbu</u>	2,826	237,138
<u>King Sabata Dalindyebo Local Municipality</u>	EC157	<u>Mthatha</u>	3,027	444,830
<b><u>Alfred Nzo District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC44</b>	<b><u>Mount Ayliff</u></b>	<b>10,731</b>	<b>900,487</b>
<u>Matatiele Local Municipality</u>	EC441	<u>Matatiele</u>	4,352	258,758
<u>Umzimvubu Local Municipality</u>	EC442	<u>Mount Frere</u>	2,577	220,631
<u>Mbizana Local Municipality</u>	EC443	<u>Bizana</u>	2,417	279,739
<u>Ntabankulu Local Municipality</u>	EC444	<u>Ntabankulu</u>	1,385	141,358

## **[edit] Free State**

The Free State is divided into one metropolitan municipality and four district municipalities. The district municipalities are in turn divided into a total of nineteen local municipalities.

Name	Code	Seat	Area	Population
------	------	------	------	------------

		(km <sup>2</sup> )	(2007)
<b><u>Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality</u></b>	MAN <b><u>Bloemfontein</u></b>	6,284	752,906
<b><u>Xhariep District Municipality</u></b>	DC16 <b><u>Trompsburg</u></b>	37,674	153,069
Letsemeng Local Municipality	FS161 <b><u>Koffiefontein</u></b>	9,829	36,337
Kopanong Local Municipality	FS162 <b><u>Trompsburg</u></b>	15,645	49,422
Mohokare Local Municipality	FS163 <b><u>Zastron</u></b>	8,776	41,867
Naledi Local Municipality	FS164 <b><u>Dewetsdorp</u></b>	3,424	25,442
<b><u>Lejweleputswa District Municipality</u></b>	DC18 <b><u>Welkom</u></b>	31,930	639,651
Masilonyana Local Municipality	FS181 <b><u>Theunissen</u></b>	6,796	80,094
Tokologo Local Municipality	FS182 <b><u>Boshof</u></b>	9,326	21,323
Tswelopele Local Municipality	FS183 <b><u>Bultfontein</u></b>	6,524	40,617
Matjhabeng Local Municipality	FS184 <b><u>Welkom</u></b>	5,155	405,031
Nala Local Municipality	FS185 <b><u>Bothaville</u></b>	4,129	92,586
<b><u>Thabo Mofutsanyana District Municipality</u></b>	DC19 <b><u>Phuthaditjhaba</u></b>	33,269	753,344
Setsoto Local Municipality	FS191 <b><u>Ficksburg</u></b>	5,966	102,826
Dihlabeng Local Municipality	FS192 <b><u>Bethlehem</u></b>	4,880	108,449
Nketoana Local Municipality	FS193 <b><u>Reitz</u></b>	5,611	62,367
Maluti-a-Phofung Local Municipality	FS194 <b><u>Phuthaditjhaba</u></b>	4,338	385,413
Phumelela Local Municipality	FS195 <b><u>Vrede</u></b>	8,183	35,090
Mantsopa Local Municipality	FS196 <b><u>Ladybrand</u></b>	4,291	59,028
<b><u>Fezile Dabi District Municipality</u></b>	DC20 <b><u>Sasolburg</u></b>	20,668	474,089
Moqhaka Local Municipality	FS201 <b><u>Kroonstad</u></b>	7,925	170,522
Ngwathe Local Municipality	FS203 <b><u>Parys</u></b>	7,055	95,187
Metsimaholo Local Municipality	FS204 <b><u>Sasolburg</u></b>	1,717	154,658
Mafube Local Municipality	FS205 <b><u>Frankfort</u></b>	3,971	53,722

## [edit] Gauteng

Gauteng is divided into three metropolitan municipalities and two district municipalities. The district municipalities are in turn divided into a total of seven local municipalities. The Metsweding District Municipality was absorbed into the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in 2011.

Name	Code	Seat	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2007)
<b><u>Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality</u></b>	EKU	<b><u>Germiston</u></b>	1,975	2,724,229
<b><u>City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality</u></b>	JHB	<b><u>Johannesburg</u></b>	1,645	3,888,180
<b><u>City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality</u></b>	TSH	<b><u>Pretoria</u></b>	6,298	2,499,447
<b><u>Sedibeng District Municipality</u></b>	DC42	<b><u>Vereeniging</u></b>	4,173	800,819

<u>Emfuleni Local Municipality</u>	GT421 <u>Vanderbijlpark</u>	966	650,867
<u>Midvaal Local Municipality</u>	GT422 <u>Meyerton</u>	1,722	83,445
<u>Lesedi Local Municipality</u>	GT423 <u>Heidelberg</u>	1,484	66,507
<b><u>West Rand District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC48 <u>Randfontein</u></b>	<b>4,087</b>	<b>754,903</b>
<u>Mogale City Local Municipality</u>	GT481 <u>Krugersdorp</u>	1,342	319,641
<u>Randfontein Local Municipality</u>	GT482 <u>Randfontein</u>	475	117,261
<u>Westonaria Local Municipality</u>	GT483 <u>Westonaria</u>	640	99,218
<u>Merafong City Local Municipality</u>	GT484 <u>Carletonville</u>	1,631	215,865

### **[edit] KwaZulu-Natal**

KwaZulu-Natal is divided into one metropolitan municipality and ten district municipalities. The district municipalities are in turn divided into a total of fifty local municipalities.

Name	Code	Seat	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2007)
<b><u>eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality</u></b>	<b>ETH</b>	<b><u>Durban</u></b>	<b>2,291</b>	<b>3,468,086</b>
<b><u>Ugu District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC21</b>	<b><u>Port Shepstone</u></b>	<b>5,047</b>	<b>709,918</b>
<u>Vulamehlo Local Municipality</u>	KZN211	<u>Scottburgh</u> <sup>[Note 3]</sup>	960	74,017
<u>Umdoni Local Municipality</u>	KZN212	<u>Scottburgh</u>	252	74,437
<u>Umzumbe Local Municipality</u>	KZN213	<u>Mtwalume</u>	1,259	176,287
<u>uMuziwabantu Local Municipality</u>	KZN214	<u>Harding</u>	1,089	104,527
<u>Ezingoleni Local Municipality</u>	KZN215	<u>Izingolweni</u>	648	56,369
<u>Hibiscus Coast Local Municipality</u>	KZN216	<u>Port Shepstone</u>	839	224,281
<b><u>uMgungundlovu District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC22</b>	<b><u>Pietermaritzburg</u></b>	<b>9,513</b>	<b>988,837</b>
<u>uMshwathi Local Municipality</u>	KZN221	<u>Wartburg</u>	1,818	113,054
<u>uMngeni Local Municipality</u>	KZN222	<u>Howick</u>	1,567	84,781
<u>Mpofana Local Municipality</u>	KZN223	<u>Mooi River</u>	1,820	31,518
<u>Impendle Local Municipality</u>	KZN224	<u>Impendle</u>	1,528	39,401
<u>Msunduzi Local Municipality</u>	KZN225	<u>Pietermaritzburg</u>	634	616,730
<u>Mkhambathini Local Municipality</u>	KZN226	<u>Camperdown</u>	891	46,570
<u>Richmond Local Municipality</u>	KZN227	<u>Richmond</u>	1,256	56,772
<b><u>uThukela District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC23</b>	<b><u>Ladysmith</u></b>	<b>11,326</b>	<b>714,908</b>
<u>Emnambithi/Ladysmith Local Municipality</u>	KZN232	<u>Ladysmith</u>	2,965	236,748
<u>Indaka Local Municipality</u>	KZN233	<u>Wasbank</u>	992	101,557
<u>Umtshezi Local Municipality</u>	KZN234	<u>Estcourt</u>	1,972	83,906
<u>Okhahlamba Local Municipality</u>	KZN235	<u>Bergville</u>	3,971	151,441
<u>Imbabazane Local Municipality</u>	KZN236	<u>Ntabamhlophe</u>	1,426	140,745
<b><u>uMzinyathi District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC24</b>	<b><u>Dundee</u></b>	<b>8,589</b>	<b>495,737</b>

<u>Endumeni Local Municipality</u>	KZN241 <u>Dundee</u>	1,610	54,447
<u>Nquthu Local Municipality</u>	KZN242 <u>Nquthu</u>	1,962	164,887
<u>Msinga Local Municipality</u>	KZN244 <u>Tugela Ferry</u>	2,501	161,894
<u>Umvoti Local Municipality</u>	KZN245 <u>Greytown</u>	2,516	114,509
<b><u>Amajuba District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC25 <u>Newcastle</u></b>	<b>6,911</b>	<b>442,266</b>
<u>Newcastle Local Municipality</u>	KZN252 <u>Newcastle</u>	1,855	327,637
<u>eMadlangeni Local Municipality</u>	KZN253 <u>Utrecht</u>	3,539	23,263
<u>Dannhauser Local Municipality</u>	KZN254 <u>Dannhauser</u>	1,516	91,366
<b><u>Zululand District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC26 <u>Ulundi</u></b>	<b>14,799</b>	<b>902,890</b>
<u>eDumbe Local Municipality</u>	KZN261 <u>Paulpietersburg</u>	1,943	75,096
<u>uPhongolo Local Municipality</u>	KZN262 <u>Pongola</u>	3,239	137,756
<u>Abaqulusi Local Municipality</u>	KZN263 <u>Vryheid</u>	4,185	247,628
<u>Nongoma Local Municipality</u>	KZN265 <u>Nongoma</u>	2,182	244,501
<u>Ulundi Local Municipality</u>	KZN266 <u>Ulundi</u>	3,250	197,908
<b><u>uMkhanyakude District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC27 <u>Mkuze</u></b>	<b>12,821</b>	<b>614,046</b>
<u>uMhlabuyalingana Local Municipality</u>	KZN271 <u>Kwangwanase</u>	3,964	163,694
<u>Jozini Local Municipality</u>	KZN272 <u>Jozini</u>	3,442	207,250
<u>The Big Five False Bay Local Municipality</u>	KZN273 <u>Hluhluwe</u>	2,121	34,991
<u>Hlabisa Local Municipality</u>	KZN274 <u>Hlabisa</u>	1,555	150,557
<u>Mtubatuba Local Municipality</u>	KZN275 <u>Mtubatuba</u>	1,738	46,596
<b><u>uThungulu District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC28 <u>Richards Bay</u></b>	<b>8,213</b>	<b>894,260</b>
<u>Mbonambi Local Municipality</u>	KZN281 <u>KwaMbonambi</u>	1,210	118,081
<u>uMhlathuze Local Municipality</u>	KZN282 <u>Richards Bay</u>	793	332,156
<u>Ntambanana Local Municipality</u>	KZN283 <u>Empangeni</u>	1,083	94,190
<u>uMlalazi Local Municipality</u>	KZN284 <u>Eshowe</u>	2,214	175,372
<u>Mthonjaneni Local Municipality</u>	KZN285 <u>Melmoth</u>	1,086	47,010
<u>Nkandla Local Municipality</u>	KZN286 <u>Nkandla</u>	1,828	127,451
<b><u>iLembe District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC29 <u>KwaDukuza</u></b>	<b>3,269</b>	<b>528,198</b>
<u>Mandeni Local Municipality</u>	KZN291 <u>Mandeni</u>	545	122,665
<u>KwaDukuza Local Municipality</u>	KZN292 <u>KwaDukuza</u>	735	162,055
<u>Ndwedwe Local Municipality</u>	KZN293 <u>Ndwedwe</u>	1,093	134,322
<u>Maphumulo Local Municipality</u>	KZN294 <u>Maphumulo</u>	896	109,157
<b><u>Sisonke District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC43 <u>Ixopo</u></b>	<b>10,547</b>	<b>500,082</b>
<u>Ingwe Local Municipality</u>	KZN431 <u>Creighton</u>	1,976	114,116
<u>KwaSani Local Municipality</u>	KZN432 <u>Himeville</u>	1,852	14,281
<u>Greater Kokstad Local Municipality</u>	KZN433 <u>Kokstad</u>	2,680	46,724
<u>Ubuhlebezwe Local Municipality</u>	KZN434 <u>Ixopo</u>	1,604	80,905
<u>Umzimkhulu Local Municipality</u>	KZN435 <u>Umzimkhulu</u>	2,435	243,242

## **[edit] Limpopo**

Limpopo is divided into five district municipalities, which are in turn divided into a total of twenty-five local municipalities.

Name	Code	Seat	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2007)
<b><u>Mopani District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC33</b>	<b><u>Giyani</u></b>	<b>20,011</b>	<b>1,068,568</b>
<u>Greater Giyani Local Municipality</u>	LIM331	<u>Giyani</u>	4,172	247,657
<u>Greater Letaba Local Municipality</u>	LIM332	<u>Modjadjiskloof</u>	1,891	247,739
<u>Greater Tzaneen Local Municipality</u>	LIM333	<u>Tzaneen</u>	3,243	349,087
<u>Ba-Phalaborwa Local Municipality</u>	LIM334	<u>Phalaborwa</u>	7,462	127,308
<u>Maruleng Local Municipality</u>	LIM335	<u>Hoedspruit</u>	3,244	95,779
<b><u>Vhembe District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC34</b>	<b><u>Thohoyandou</u></b>	<b>25,597</b>	<b>1,240,035</b>
<u>Musina Local Municipality</u>	LIM341	<u>Musina</u>	7,577	57,195
<u>Mutale Local Municipality</u>	LIM342	<u>Mutale</u>	3,886	108,215
<u>Thulamela Local Municipality</u>	LIM343	<u>Thohoyandou</u>	5,835	602,819
<u>Makhado Local Municipality</u>	LIM344	<u>Louis Trichardt</u>	8,300	471,805
<b><u>Capricorn District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC35</b>	<b><u>Polokwane</u></b>	<b>21,705</b>	<b>1,243,167</b>
<u>Blouberg Local Municipality</u>	LIM351	<u>Senwabarwana</u>	9,248	194,119
<u>Aganang Local Municipality</u>	LIM352	<u>Koloti</u>	1,881	145,454
<u>Molemole Local Municipality</u>	LIM353	<u>Mogwadi</u>	3,347	100,408
<u>Polokwane Local Municipality</u>	LIM354	<u>Polokwane</u>	3,766	561,772
<u>Lepelle-Nkumpi Local Municipality</u>	LIM355	<u>Chuniespoort</u>	3,463	241,414
<b><u>Waterberg District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC36</b>	<b><u>Modimolle</u></b>	<b>44,913</b>	<b>596,092</b>
<u>Thabazimbi Local Municipality</u>	LIM361	<u>Thabazimbi</u>	11,190	60,039
<u>Lephalale Local Municipality</u>	LIM362	<u>Lephalale</u>	13,784	80,141
<u>Mookgophong Local Municipality</u>	LIM364	<u>Mookgophong</u>	5,689	16,818
<u>Modimolle Local Municipality</u>	LIM365	<u>Modimolle</u>	4,678	52,602
<u>Bela-Bela Local Municipality</u>	LIM366	<u>Bela-Bela</u>	3,406	55,844
<u>Mogalakwena Local Municipality</u>	LIM367	<u>Mokopane</u>	6,166	330,649
<b><u>Sekhukhune District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC47</b>	<b><u>Groblersdal</u></b>	<b>13,528</b>	<b>1,090,424</b>
<u>Ephraim Mogale Local Municipality</u>	LIM471	<u>Marble Hall</u>	2,011	124,510
<u>Elias Motsoaledi Local Municipality</u>	LIM472	<u>Groblersdal</u>	3,713	247,488
<u>Makhuduthamaga Local Municipality</u>	LIM473	<u>Jane Furse</u>	2,097	262,726
<u>Fetakgomo Local Municipality</u>	LIM474	<u>Ga-Nkwana</u>	1,105	112,232
<u>Greater Tubatse Local Municipality</u>	LIM475	<u>Burgersfort</u>	4,602	343,468



## [edit] Mpumalanga

Mpumalanga is divided into three district municipalities, which are in turn divided into a total of eighteen local municipalities.

Name	Code	Seat	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2007)
<b><u>Gert Sibande District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC30</b>	<b><u>Secunda</u></b>	<b>31,841</b>	<b>890,699</b>
<u>Albert Luthuli Local Municipality</u>	MP301	<u>Carolina</u>	5,559	194,083
<u>Msukaligwa Local Municipality</u>	MP302	<u>Ermelo</u>	6,016	126,268
<u>Mkhondo Local Municipality</u>	MP303	<u>Piet Retief</u>	4,882	106,452
<u>Pixley Ka Seme Local Municipality</u>	MP304	<u>Volksrust</u>	5,227	65,932
<u>Lekwa Local Municipality</u>	MP305	<u>Standerton</u>	4,585	91,136
<u>Dipaleseng Local Municipality</u>	MP306	<u>Balfour</u>	2,617	37,873
<u>Govan Mbeki Local Municipality</u>	MP307	<u>Secunda</u>	2,955	268,954
<b><u>Nkangala District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC31</b>	<b><u>Middelburg</u></b>	<b>16,758</b>	<b>1,226,500</b>
<u>Victor Khanye Local Municipality</u>	MP311	<u>Delmas</u>	1,568	50,455
<u>Emalahleni Local Municipality</u>	MP312	<u>Witbank</u>	2,678	435,217
<u>Steve Tshwete Local Municipality</u>	MP313	<u>Middelburg</u>	3,976	182,503
<u>Emakhazeni Local Municipality</u>	MP314	<u>Belfast</u>	4,736	32,840
<u>Thembisile Hani Local Municipality</u>	MP315	<u>eMpumalanga</u>	2,384	278,517
<u>Dr JS Moroka Local Municipality</u>	MP316	<u>Siyabuswa</u>	1,416	246,969
<b><u>Ehlanzeni District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC32</b>	<b><u>Nelspruit</u></b>	<b>27,896</b>	<b>1,526,236</b>
<u>Thaba Chweu Local Municipality</u>	MP321	<u>Lydenburg</u>	5,719	87,545
<u>Mbombela Local Municipality</u>	MP322	<u>Nelspruit</u>	5,394	527,203
<u>Umjindi Local Municipality</u>	MP323	<u>Barberton</u>	1,745	60,475
<u>Nkomazi Local Municipality</u>	MP324	<u>Malalane</u>	4,787	338,095
<u>Bushbuckridge Local Municipality</u>	MP325	<u>Bushbuckridge</u>	10,250	509,970

## [edit] North West

The North West is divided into four district municipalities, which are in turn divided into a total of nineteen local municipalities.

Name	Code	Seat	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2007)
<b><u>Bojanala Platinum District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC37</b>	<b><u>Rustenburg</u></b>	<b>18,333</b>	<b>1,268,618</b>
<u>Moretele Local Municipality</u>	NW371	<u>Makapanstad</u>	1,379	182,414
<u>Madibeng Local Municipality</u>	NW372	<u>Brits</u>	3,839	371,197
<u>Rustenburg Local Municipality</u>	NW373	<u>Rustenburg</u>	3,423	449,776
<u>Kgetlengrivier Local Municipality</u>	NW374	<u>Koster</u>	3,973	37,806
<u>Moses Kotane Local Municipality</u>	NW375	<u>Mogwase</u>	5,719	227,426

<b><u>Ngaka Modiri Molema District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC38</b>	<b><u>Mafikeng</u></b>	<b>28,206</b>	<b>798,783</b>
<u>Ratlou Local Municipality</u>	NW381	<u>Stella</u>	4,884	98,104
<u>Tswaing Local Municipality</u>	NW382	<u>Delareyville</u>	5,966	81,005
<u>Mafikeng Local Municipality</u>	NW383	<u>Mafikeng</u>	3,698	290,229
<u>Ditsobotla Local Municipality</u>	NW384	<u>Lichtenburg</u>	6,465	200,141
<u>Ramotshere Moiloa Local Municipality</u>	NW385	<u>Zeerust</u>	7,193	129,304
<b><u>Dr Ruth Segomotsi Mompati District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC39</b>	<b><u>Vryburg</u></b>	<b>43,700</b>	<b>354,554</b>
<u>Naledi Local Municipality</u>	NW392	<u>Vryburg</u>	6,941	57,934
<u>Mamuşa Local Municipality</u>	NW393	<u>Schweizer-Reneke</u>	3,615	36,533
<u>Greater Taung Local Municipality</u>	NW394	<u>Taung</u>	5,635	144,817
<u>Lekwa-Teemane Local Municipality</u>	NW396	<u>Christiana</u>	3,681	32,809
<u>Kagisano-Molopo Local Municipality</u>	NW397	<i>undetermined</i>	23,827	82,462
<b><u>Dr Kenneth Kaunda District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC40</b>	<b><u>Klerksdorp</u></b>	<b>14,642</b>	<b>634,127</b>
<u>Ventersdorp Local Municipality</u>	NW401	<u>Ventersdorp</u>	3,764	36,528
<u>Tlokwe Local Municipality</u>	NW402	<u>Potchefstroom</u>	2,674	124,351
<u>City of Matlosana Local Municipality</u>	NW403	<u>Klerksdorp</u>	3,561	385,782
<u>Maquassi Hills Local Municipality</u>	NW404	<u>Wolmaransstad</u>	4,643	87,465

## **[edit] Northern Cape**

The Northern Cape is divided into five district municipalities, which are in turn divided into a total of twenty-seven local municipalities.

Name	Code	Seat	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2007)
<b><u>Namakwa District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC6</b>	<b><u>Springbok</u></b>	<b>126,836</b>	<b>126,494</b>
<u>Richtersveld Local Municipality</u>	NC061	<u>Port Nolloth</u>	9,608	14,613
<u>Nama Khoi Local Municipality</u>	NC062	<u>Springbok</u>	17,989	54,644
<u>Kamiesberg Local Municipality</u>	NC064	<u>Garies</u>	14,210	12,117
<u>Hantam Local Municipality</u>	NC065	<u>Calvinia</u>	36,128	21,234
<u>Karoo Hoogland Local Municipality</u>	NC066	<u>Williston</u>	32,274	10,420
<u>Khâi-Ma Local Municipality</u>	NC067	<u>Pofadder</u>	16,628	12,571
<b><u>Pixley ka Seme District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC7</b>	<b><u>De Aar</u></b>	<b>103,410</b>	<b>166,849</b>
<u>Ubuntu Local Municipality</u>	NC071	<u>Victoria West</u>	20,389	16,153
<u>Umsobomvu Local Municipality</u>	NC072	<u>Colesberg</u>	6,819	21,992
<u>Emthanjeni Local Municipality</u>	NC073	<u>De Aar</u>	13,472	38,228
<u>Kareeberg Local Municipality</u>	NC074	<u>Carnarvon</u>	17,702	9,866

<u>Renosterberg Local Municipality</u>	NC075 <u>Petrusville</u>	5,527	9,185
<u>Thembelihle Local Municipality</u>	NC076 <u>Hopetown</u>	8,023	13,218
<u>Siyathemba Local Municipality</u>	NC077 <u>Prieska</u>	14,725	20,120
<u>Siyancuma Local Municipality</u>	NC078 <u>Douglas</u>	16,753	35,970
<b><u>Siyanda District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC8 <u>Upington</u></b>	<b>102,524</b>	<b>238,063</b>
<u>Mier Local Municipality</u>	NC081 <u>Mier</u>	22,468	7,337
<u>Kai Garib Local Municipality</u>	NC082 <u>Kakamas</u>	26,358	56,501
<u>Khara Hais Local Municipality</u>	NC083 <u>Upington</u>	21,780	100,920
<u>Kheis Local Municipality</u>	NC084 <u>Groblershoop</u>	11,107	18,920
<u>Tsantsabane Local Municipality</u>	NC085 <u>Postmasburg</u>	18,333	28,005
<u>Kgatelopele Local Municipality</u>	NC086 <u>Daniëlskuil</u>	2,478	21,498
<b><u>Frances Baard District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC9 <u>Kimberley</u></b>	<b>12,836</b>	<b>353,200</b>
<u>Sol Plaatje Local Municipality</u>	NC091 <u>Kimberley</u>	3,145	243,018
<u>Dikgatlong Local Municipality</u>	NC092 <u>Barkly West</u>	7,315	40,752
<u>Magareng Local Municipality</u>	NC093 <u>Warrenton</u>	1,542	20,433
<u>Phokwane Local Municipality</u>	NC094 <u>Hartswater</u>	834	46,409
<b><u>John Taolo Gaetsewe District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC45 <u>Kuruman</u></b>	<b>27,283</b>	<b>173,454</b>
<u>Joe Morolong Local Municipality</u>	NC451 <u>Mothibistad</u>	20,172	70,012
<u>Ga-Segonyana Local Municipality</u>	NC452 <u>Kuruman</u>	4,492	69,791
<u>Gamagara Local Municipality</u>	NC453 <u>Kathu</u>	2,619	28,054

## [edit] Western Cape

The Western Cape is divided into one metropolitan municipality and five district municipalities. The district municipalities are in turn divided into a total of twenty-four local municipalities.

Name	Code	Seat	Area (km <sup>2</sup> )	Population (2007)
<b><u>City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality</u></b>	<b>CPT</b>	<b><u>Cape Town</u></b>	<b>2,445</b>	<b>3,497,097</b>
<b><u>West Coast District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC1</b>	<b><u>Moorreesburg</u></b>	<b>31,119</b>	<b>286,751</b>
<u>Matzikama Local Municipality</u>	WC011	<u>Vredendal</u>	12,981	46,362
<u>Cederberg Local Municipality</u>	WC012	<u>Clanwilliam</u>	8,007	31,942
<u>Bergrivier Local Municipality</u>	WC013	<u>Piketberg</u>	4,407	44,741
<u>Saldanha Bay Local Municipality</u>	WC014	<u>Vredenburg</u>	2,015	78,982
<u>Swartland Local Municipality</u>	WC015	<u>Malmesbury</u>	3,707	77,524
<b><u>Cape Winelands District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC2</b>	<b><u>Worcester</u></b>	<b>21,473</b>	<b>712,413</b>
<u>Witzenberg Local Municipality</u>	WC022	<u>Ceres</u>	10,753	75,148
<u>Drakenstein Local Municipality</u>	WC023	<u>Paarl</u>	1,538	217,089

<u>Stellenbosch Local Municipality</u>	WC024 <u>Stellenbosch</u>	831	200,524
<u>Breede Valley Local Municipality</u>	WC025 <u>Worcester</u>	3,833	134,271
<u>Langeberg Local Municipality</u>	WC026 <u>Ashton</u>	4,518	80,121
<b><u>Overberg District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC3 <u>Bredasdorp</u></b>	<b>12,241</b>	<b>212,787</b>
<u>Theewaterskloof Local Municipality</u>	WC031 <u>Caledon</u>	3,232	86,719
<u>Overstrand Local Municipality</u>	WC032 <u>Hermanus</u>	1,708	74,547
<u>Cape Agulhas Local Municipality</u>	WC033 <u>Bredasdorp</u>	3,467	28,444
<u>Swellendam Local Municipality</u>	WC034 <u>Swellendam</u>	3,835	22,833
<b><u>Eden District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC4 <u>George</u></b>	<b>23,331</b>	<b>513,307</b>
<u>Kannaland Local Municipality</u>	WC041 <u>Ladismith</u>	4,758	24,715
<u>Hessequa Local Municipality</u>	WC042 <u>Riversdale</u>	5,733	39,081
<u>Mossel Bay Local Municipality</u>	WC043 <u>Mossel Bay</u>	2,011	117,838
<u>George Local Municipality</u>	WC044 <u>George</u>	5,191	136,542
<u>Oudtshoorn Local Municipality</u>	WC045 <u>Oudtshoorn</u>	3,537	79,606
<u>Bitou Local Municipality</u>	WC047 <u>Plettenberg Bay</u>	992	39,002
<u>Knysna Local Municipality</u>	WC048 <u>Knysna</u>	1,109	65,045
<b><u>Central Karoo District Municipality</u></b>	<b>DC5 <u>Beaufort West</u></b>	<b>38,854</b>	<b>56,230</b>
<u>Laingsburg Local Municipality</u>	WC051 <u>Laingsburg</u>	8,784	5,156
<u>Prince Albert Local Municipality</u>	WC052 <u>Prince Albert</u>	8,153	8,374
<u>Beaufort West Local Municipality</u>	WC053 <u>Beaufort West</u>	21,917	37,090

### **[edit]** Notes

1. <sup>^</sup> The seat of Cacadu District Municipality is located outside of its territory, in the neighbouring Nelson Mandela Bay Metropolitan Municipality.
2. <sup>^</sup> The seat of Amathole District Municipality is located outside of its territory, in the neighbouring Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality.
3. <sup>^</sup> The seat of Vulamehlo Local Municipality is located outside of its territory, at Scottburgh in the neighbouring Umdoni Local Municipality.

### **[edit]** References

- "New Municipal Names". Municipal Demarcation Board.  
[http://www.demarcation.org.za/Contacts/new\\_munic\\_names.aspx](http://www.demarcation.org.za/Contacts/new_munic_names.aspx). Retrieved 2009-03-08.

### **[edit]** External links

- Municipal Demarcation Board

[show]

• **v**