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Socio-Demographic and Household factors associated with the type of employment among working age (15-49 years old) South African Women

By

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This Research paper is submitted in partial fulfilment of the Master of Arts in Demography and Population Studies at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

2020

Supervisor: Prof. Nicole De Wet-Billings

Declaration

I, Samantha Mhlanga, herewith declare that this report is my own work. I have acknowledge all the secondary sources that were used according to American Psychological Association (APA). I declare that this report has not been submitted anywhere else for examination.

Candidate: Samantha Mhlanga

_____.

Dedication

I dedicate this report to my guardian Ms N. Ndlovu and my supervisor Prof Nicole De Wet-Billings, may the lord bless you abundantly for your heartfelt support and guidance throughout the year. I would also like to dedicate this report to my late boyfriend, family members, and friends, I really appreciate your contributions.

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My gratitude goes to the almighty above for his blessings and strength throughout the year to complete my report successfully. “For He is good! For His mercy endures forever”.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AMR – Annual Ministerial Review

BBBEE- Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment

CEDAW-Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women

CFRN-Constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria

SADHS- South African Demographic and Health Survey

EPWP-Expanded Public Works Programme

ETI- Employment Tax Incentive

GDP-Gross Domestic Product

FLFP-Female Labour Force Participation

SDGs- Sustainable Development Goals

UN- United Nations

UNDFW-United Nations Development Fund for Women

Abstract

Post-apartheid, the South African government has made efforts to address gender inequalities. However, compared to males, females continue to face high rates of unemployment. The quarter labour force 2019 states that more than 4 in every 10 females in South Africa are unemployed. Between April and June 2019, the rate of females' unemployment was 31.3% compared to that of males which was 27.1%. Younger females aged between 15 and34 years old are still marginalised compared to females above 35 years. Some younger females continue to survive through low wage type of employment with limited working schedules such as seasonal and occasional employment. In addition, low wage type of employment with limited working schedules, and unemployment contribute to the cycle of poverty which mostly affect females in South Africa. Low wage employment violates the country's White paper and the Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) policy, which aims to promote social justice and equality among South African citizens. The majority of females are single parents and have children that require financial support. Some females depend on the government social grant which, alone, is not enough to uplift their standards of living. Such dependency also puts financial strain to the government by lowering the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) – negatively affecting South Africa's socio-economic development. It also leaves female population marginalised in all socioeconomic, household and demographic spheres. Therefore, this study aimed at analysing the relationship between the socio-demographic-household factors and type of employment among females. The factors educational status, marital status, type of place of residence, region, language, wealth index, household size number, relationship to the household head and number of children influence employment among females aged 15-49 years in South Africa. Hopefully, the study will contribute to the BBBEE and other policies in formulating strategic ways of addressing employment inequalities affecting females.

Methods: This study adopted a quantitative research approach and used a cross-sectional study design. The study analysed secondary data that was collected by the South African Demographic and Health Survey (SADHS). The data was collected from May to November 2016.This study selected, from the main data, a sample size of 8514 females aged 15 to 49 years old. STATA version 15 programme was used to analyse the data. The outcome variable of the study was employment status categorised into unemployed, full-time, seasonal and occasional employment. The predictor variables were age, marital status, educational level,

language, household size number, relationship to the household head, wealth index, and number of children, region and type of place of residence. Descriptive statistics was used to present the frequencies and percentages. Multinomial regression analysis was used to determine the relative risk ratio of females engaging in certain type of employment relative to being unemployed. This was presented in both the adjusted and unadjusted model.

Results: The multinomial regression analysis indicated that age is a significant factor of employment among females aged 15-49 years in South Africa. The relative risk ratio of being employed full-time, seasonal and occasional compared to being unemployed increased with additional year of age among females. The study indicated that the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment compared to being unemployed was highest among females aged 45-49 years compared to younger females aged 15-19 years. Females aged 45-49 years had 68.784 times higher relative risk of engaging full-time, 10.083 times higher relative risk of engaging seasonal and 11.603 times higher relative risk of engaging in occasional employment relative to being unemployed. The relative risk ratio of being employed full-time compared to being unemployed for younger females aged 20-24 years was 14.834 times higher, being employed seasonal relative to being unemployed was 4.537 times higher and being employed occasional compared to being unemployed was 7.245 times higher. Other factors that significantly influenced employment among females were the number of their children, region, language, marital status, wealth index, household size and relationship to the household head. Some of these results were significant in the unadjusted but insignificant in the adjusted model. A decrease in engaging in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment was found in all Provinces of the country, females who speak African languages, females from household above the mean of 5 as well as rural areas. The relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment was less likely across all the South African Provinces. Females residing in the Gauteng compared to Western Cape Province indicated a relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time employment which was 0.676 times lesser, while engaging in seasonal employment was 0.534 less likely. On the other hand, females residing in KwaZulu-Natal compared to Western Cape Province, also indicated that females working full-time relative to being unemployed was 0.391 times less likely while working seasonal compared to being unemployed was also 0.534 less likely and working occasionally relative to being unemployed was 0.317 less likely. Engaging in full-time employment compared to being unemployed also had 0.480 lower relative risk ratio among females from rural areas compared to females from urban areas. It was also evident that the

relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time employment compared to being unemployed was 0.523 lower among females who speak African languages compared to those who speak English language. The study further found that, the higher the level of education the greater the likelihood of securing full-time employment. This was evident from the findings exhibiting that the relative risk of engaging in full-time employment compared to being unemployed was 4.459 times higher among females with higher education compared to females with no education.

Conclusion: The findings of the study concluded that the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time, seasonal and occasional compared to being unemployed increased among females from all age groups. However, employment opportunities continue to decline among females from rural areas across all the South African Provinces. In particular South African females who speak African languages remain excluded from engaging in full-time employment. These results reveal the persisting inequalities that continue to affect females mostly in South Africa. This violates the country's goal of promoting gender equality and social justice through the White paper policy, BBBEE policy and the human rights enshrined in South Africa's constitution. Therefore, there is a need for the South African government to formulate strategic ways of addressing employment inequalities and promote more full-time employment among females of all age-groups in South Africa.

Keywords: Unemployment, Employment, Full-time, Seasonal, Occasional, female-working age, Age, Population, South Africa.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

Employment problems in South Africa can be traced back to the apartheid regime (Akala, 2018). This is when the black population of both males and females suffered from segregation and unfair treatment (Akala, 2018). However, black females were the most affected and suffered from marginalisation (Akala, 2018). They were highly excluded from attaining education and participating in the labour force (Ntuli & Wittenberg, 2013). This promoted gender inequality which still affects most females in South Africa. This has evolved until now, especially with labour force participation. Young females, in particular, are still excluded from doing the quality full-time employment due to stigma regarding many professions, experience and having young children (Graham & Mlatsheni, 2015; Kuipers, 2014;Wilkinson et al., 2017). This still persist post-apartheid, South African women still sustain livelihoods by informal economic activities such as street vending, hair dressing and domestic work (Wilkinson et al., 2017. The informal economic activities are mostly not renumerated fairly or captured in Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

Changes in family structure and globalisation have restructured how the population of the working-age address issues around alleviating poverty, promoting quality education and health (Oláh et al., 2018). Females of different ages from 15 to 49 years compared to men are now actively involved in financially providing and ensuring health care for their dependents, such as children and elderly people (Oláh et al., 2018).The United Nations implemented goals of ensuring sustainable development by 2030 across the globe (Rosa, 2017). One of the goals is to achieve gender equality and, empowering females and girls, by ensuring that they equal opportunities to fully participate in the economy (Rosa, 2017). The subject of female empowerment also called for universal conferences to be held to discuss ways of ensuring gender equality (Daniel, 2016; United Nations, 2010). This includes an Annual Ministerial Review (AMR) organised in 2010 and the Beijing Declaration, United Nation Development Fund for Women (UNDFW) and Platform for Action held in 2015 (Daniel, 2016;Mokta, 2014; United Nations, 2010). It also pushed African countries to strengthen their laws and policies against gender inequalities. For instance the Convention on Elimination of all forms

of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) chapter which focuses on empowering females in all spheres (Nwagbara, Etuk, & Baghebo, 2012).

In addition to ensuring female labour force participation, countries have introduced laws and policies to ensure equal economic participation. In Nigeria, the labour act of 2004, in the country's constitution, ensures equal economic opportunities for everyone regardless of their sex (Adejugbe & Adejugbe, 2018). Similarly, the Constitution of South Africa ensures equality among South African workers irrespective of their sex (National Labour Law Profile, 2011). The Constitution of South Africa contains employment acts such as the employment equity act, the basic conditions of employment act and the labour relations act(National Labour Law Profile, 2011).

South Africa also developed the BBBEE policy in 2003 which aims at economically empowering all the South African citizens (Akinsomi, Kola, Ndlovu, & Motloung, 2016). Furthermore, to cater for the youth, South Africa developed the Expanded Public Work Programmes (EPWP) in 2004and Employment Tax Incentive (ETI) in 2014. These programmers' general aim is to improve the recruitment of young people in the labour market (De Lannoy, Graham, Patel, & Leibbrandt, 2018).

However, despite the global and local efforts, implemented to uplift females in the labour market, South African females remain poor when compared to men due to gender inequalities particularly in the workforce (African monitor, 2017). The unemployment rate (31.3%)for females continue to be high compared to that of males which is 27.1% (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2019). The youth aged 15-34 years continue to be marginalised and most vulnerable in the labour market making up 63.4% of the total unemployed South Africans (Stats SA, 2019).

The individual's age, which is the number of years an individual has lived, is one of the demographic factors that influences the employment of females of working-age(Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). The working-age is divided into youth, 15- 24 years old, and adults 25- 64 years old (The World Population Prospects, 2015;Gould, 2015). Both the youth and adults are likely to be unemployed or engage in non-standard forms of employment to financially provide for themselves and their dependents (International Labour Organization, 2018).

Unemployment among females is associated with the employer's attitude towards hiring them (Ryde, 2014). Employers believe that females are likely to be less present at work due to the demands of their reproductive role (Ryde, 2014). Such societal and workplace beliefs

limit full-time employment for females in South Africa. In 2014, approximately 35% of females 15-19 years old, 26% aged 20-24 years were employed on contract with a limited working duration (Moleke, 2014; Stats SA, 2014). Contract type of employment limits the amount of time an individual engages in the labour force with no guarantee of the next employment. Adult females with young children tend to engage in reduced work schedules, also referred to as part-time work, because they also need time to undertake family duties (Internationale Arbeitsorganisation, 2016). This restricts females from full-time employment and reduces their monthly income which contributes to a cycle of poverty. With the youth unemployment rate of the individuals aged 15 to 35 years being the 3rd highest in South Africa among other countries in the world, females are the most affected and some have been discouraged to search for work (Mayer et al., 2011).

Some of the discouraged females end up engaging in the occasional and seasonal type of employment to financially sustain themselves (Fourie, 2008; International Labour Organization, 2016).Young females aged 15-24 years compared to adults are three times more, likely to be out of jobs (International Labour Organization, 2016). On the other hand, younger females with jobs are likely to be on part-time or temporary type of employment, with poor working conditions (International Labour Organisation, 2012).Occasional and seasonal are also part of the temporary types of employment (International Labour Organization, 2016). Both occasional and seasonal are mostly found in retail, domestic work and agricultural sectors, and they are dominated by females(Fourie, 2008; Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). Occasional work is determined by the specific number of hours, days and weekends when an individual occasionally reports for work (Hill, 2015). The individual employed occasional does not have regular schedule of work. He or she reports to work for not more than 3 consecutive weeks which makes it less than 30 days per month (Hill, 2015). The individual's wage from both occasional and seasonal is based on the number of hours worked or days and it is predominantly low wages (Hill, 2015). In South Africa, casual, occasional, contracts, temporary and fixed-term work are the types of jobs referred to as labour broking because they do not meet the standard definition of employment (Tshoose & Tsweledi, 2014). Lack of standard employment contributes to high levels of poverty mostly affecting females in South Africa. Both seasonal and occasional are different compared to full-time employment, mostly dominated by individuals with middle-skills. Middle-skills are jobs that require more education and training than high school certificate and comes with extra benefits other than salary (Team & Doss, 2011; Hegewisch & IWPR, 2016).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The South African population continues to face employment-related issues that contribute to a lack of social development, in particular, the youth aged 15-34 years. Research reports that females, compared to males are likely to financially contribute to the family (World Employment Social Outlook, 2018). However, youth unemployment rate continues to rise and females are the most affected population (Stats SA, 2019). In South Africa, more than 4 in every 10 females are unemployed (Stats SA, 2019).Young graduates below 35 years of age, are struggling to find employment in South Africa (Powell & Durant, 2015).Out of desperation, they end up settling for temporary employment (International Labour Office, 2012; Powell & Durant, 2015). Temporary employment prevents them from future employment due to lack of experience because most employers do not consider it as "real" work (Powell & Durant, 2015).While some employers still believe that young females lack experience and have reproductive roles that influence how often they will report for work (Ryde, 2014).

Additionally, a study conducted in South Africa concluded that unemployment is a threat to human dignity (Cloete, 2015). It contributes to the total number of South African population living under the poverty line (R547 per person per month using 2018 prices) and relying on the government social grants for survival (Cloete, 2015; Delany, Jehoma, & Lake, 2016). Approximately, 16 million people receive a social grant from the South African government each month (Sinyolo, Mudhara, & Wale, 2017). A high number of dependent individuals financially strain the government and lowers the GDP which negatively affects the economic and social progression of South Africa.

Youth unemployment in South Africa is associated with lack of experience, knowledge about ways of looking for employment as well as inappropriate career guidance (Cloete, 2015). Studies have further highlighted that unemployment among youth is connected to the type of university an individual is from, how well they are practically ready for work as well as socio-economic status (Cloete, 2015; Harry, Chinyamurindi, & Mjoli, 2018). There is significant discrepancy between South Africa's education curriculum and labour force requirements, this influences employers to be more reluctant when it comes to hiring the youth (De Lannoy et al., 2018).

Continentally, young females 15-24 years old, compared to adults, are at risk of being unemployed and engaging in temporary type of employment (International Labour

Organisation, 2012). This is because Africa is demographically characterised by a young population with most people aged 30 years and below(International Labour Organisation, 2012). In South Africa, young females are the most vulnerable to unemployment compared to males (Graham & Mlatsheni, 2015).

South African young females are mostly excluded from full-time employment due to a number of reasons. This includes teenage pregnancy, lack of quality education, culture such as having household responsibilities to take care of, which limits their duration of engaging in the full-time labour force (Graham & Mlatsheni, 2015).While some young females are discouraged from searching for jobs, some remain in non-standard forms of employment such as seasonal and occasional employment (Vettori, 2015). These types of employment are mostly found in the hospitality industry and highly characterised by low wages and exploitation (Kuipers, 2014; Vettori, 2015). It is also important to note that some non-standard forms of employment like occasional or seasonal work are normally not protected by the labour relations act because they have less than 3 months contracts of work (Vettori, 2015).

Other researchers, especially feminists, have focused mainly on how females can have a voice to defend themselves against work-related challenges (Horrell, Johnson, Johnson, & Mosley, 2009; Ibekwe, Udosen, & Okoro, 2014). This also includes qualitatively exploring how females remain underrepresented and exploited in the workplace (Sinden, 2017). Some studies focused on empowering females to have higher positions and overcome the issue of the glass ceiling (Ibekwe, Udosen, & Okoro, 2014; Mpemba, 2018). This is done for instance by exploring and sharing experiences of females in higher employment position and lower employment positions in the workplace (Mpemba, 2018). However, not a lot of studies have explored the relationship between age and type of employment among females in South Africa. In addition, only few studies have identified socio-economic, demographics and household factors associated with the type of employment among females in South Africa (Bhorat, Naidoo, Oosthuizen & Pillay, 2015).

Therefore, this study intended to analyse the demographic, household and socio-economic factors and employment among females and identified the socio-economic, households and demographic factors that influence the type of employment among females in South Africa.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

1. What are the socio-demographic and household factors associated with the type of employment among females aged 15-49 years in South Africa?

Sub-Questions

2. What are the levels and prominent types of employment among females of working-age (15-49 years) population in South Africa?
3. What is the association between the socio-demographic, household factors and employment type among females of working age (15-49 years) population in South Africa?

1.3.1 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Main objective

To identify the socio-demographic and household factors associated with the type of employment among female working-age (15-49 years old) population in South Africa.

Specific objectives

1. To investigate the levels and prominent types of employment among females aged 15-49 years in South Africa, 2016
2. To analyse the association between the socio-demographic, household and type of employment among females aged 15-49 years in South Africa, 2016

1.4 JUSTIFICATION

The United Nations predicted that by 2030, the demographics of Africa will be dominated by a youthful population 15-24 years of age (International Labour Organisation, 2012). South Africa is one of the youthful African countries; a third of the country's population is aged 18-34 years (Stats SA, 2019). Even though the future of the country is in the hands of the youth, more young females compared to males are still unemployed. The South African government puts effort in place to tackle development through the implementation of employment equity policies (Akinsomi, Kola, Ndlovu, & Motloung, 2016). This is done to alleviate the unemployment problem among the vulnerable group of people including females (Akinsomiet al., 2016). The BBBEE aims to encourage equal economic participation among the black population of South Africa (Akinsomi et al., 2016). The black population comprise of the African, Coloured and Indian populations (Shava, 2016). In particular, the policy

empowers females, workers, youth, and people with disabilities as well as people living in rural areas (Horwitz & Jain, 2011).

The persisting unemployment related problems influenced the government to implement age-specific employment programmes. This includes the Expanded Public Work Programme (EPWP)(De Lannoy et al., 2018; Mayer et al., 2011). This programme focuses on employment among unemployed young individuals with fewer skills (De Lannoy et al., 2018;Mayer et al., 2011). The South African government also implemented the National Youth Development Programme (NYDA) (De Lannoy et al., 2018). These programmes are aimed at responding to unemployment challenges faced by the South African Youth (De Lannoy et al., 2018).

Research provides evidence that there is a need to address employment-related challenges among females of different age groups, specifically those who are 15-34years old. However, little research has been done to understand how age influences females to engage in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment in South Africa. There is a need, in South Africa, to statistically understand factors that limit females from engaging in full-time employment using multinomial regression analysis. This includes exploring the relationship between women's age and employment status as well as identifying the demographic and socioeconomic factors such as fertility, marital status, region, and education. These factors were found to influential in determining the type of employment done by females in Nigeria (Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). The study identified that women employed full-time had fewer children, high education status and were not married (Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). Women with fewer children had enough time to fully participate in labour force. Women with higher education had required middle-skills to be employed full-time (Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). This need will expand on the existing literature using the multinomial regression analysis to understand different types of employment status, such as full-time, seasonal and occasional, among females.

South Africa has implemented several interventions to address the existing, problem of females (of all ages) unemployment. This includes the formulation and implementation of programmes and policies such as the BBBEE, Expanded Public Works Programme, National Youth Development Agency and Temporary Employment Services(De Lannoy et al., 2018). These interventions mostly focus on promoting quality full-time employment among young South Africans (De Lannoy et al., 2018).

Furthermore, a high number of researchers have engaged in a discussion around promoting female labour force in South Africa (Mackett, 2016; Msimanga, 2013; Ntuli & Wittenberg, 2013). This is also in line with one of the Sustainable Development Goal number 5 which also aims at promoting gender equality, with specific focus to empowering females and young girls (Assembly, 2015). Researchers focus mainly on formulating ways in which females can engage in labour force participation to promote both social and economic development of South Africa(Ogungbenle, Olawumi, & Obasuyi, 2013; Swartz, 2009). This includes monitoring the number of females engaging in labour force participation compared to men, to ensure gender equality (Mackett, 2016).

It is hoped that the study will contribute to developing ways in which the BBBEE and other policies can address demographic, socioeconomic and household factors influencing unemployment, full-time, seasonal and occasional forms of employment among females of all age-groups in South Africa. This includes formulating strategic ways in which the BBBEE policy can address structural factors contributing to unemployment among young females (Ashraf, Weil, & Wilde, 2013). Addressing this will help contribute to achieving South Africa's National Development plan by 2030. Thus, growing an inclusive economic strategy to address the inequalities and alleviate poverty(Cumming et al., 2017; Hendriks, 2013). The inclusive economy will mean more employment for the country's citizens, in particular, young women. Achieving this will also contribute to meeting one of the Sustainable development goals of empowering more females (Cumming et al., 2017; Hendriks, 2013). Meeting these goals will promote both social and economic development of South Africa. It will also help promote social justice and equality in South Africa. Finally, through publication, the study will also help other researchers and the public to identify and understand structural factors that influence female labour force participation.

1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.5.1 Seasonal employment

Seasonal employment can be defined as a non-standard form of informal employment occurring according to seasons, highly temporary with fixed-term contracts (LBMC Family of Companies, 2016). This definition was adopted for this study (LBMC Family of Companies, 2016).

1.5.2 Occasional employment

Refers to a casual or part-time non-standard form of informal employment where individuals work for less than 24 hours a month or not more than 3 days a week (Labourwise, 2010;Amended Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 2008). As such, the basic condition of employment act 3 of 1983's definition was adopted for this study.

1.5.3 Full-time employment

This refers to the type of work where an individual works for a minimum number of hours allocated by an employer (International Labour Organization, 2016). Frequently accompanies benefits that are not regularly offered to part-time or temporary workers such as yearly leave, sick leave, and medical coverage(International Labour Organization, 2016;South Africa Demographic and Health Survey, 2017).This full-time employment definition was adopted for this study.

1.5.4 Unemployment

State at which an individual within his working-age group is actively looking for a job but unable to find it (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2018).

1.5.5 Age

Refers to a demographic term which determines the number of years an individual has lived (Leshukov, Brel, Zaytseva, Kaizer, & Makarov, 2017). This definition was adopted for this study.

1.5.6. Female-working age

Female individuals aged between 15-64 years population that actively engages in labour market (Leshukovnet al., 2017). This definition was adopted for this study. However, age was only limited to 15-49 years available in SADHS

1.5.7. Employment

The state of having paid work governed by a contract signed by two parties, the employer and employee (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2018)

1.5.8. Population

A collection of individuals inhabiting same country sharing same characteristics
(Leshukovnet al., 2017). This definition was adopted for this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The role of females working remains a global significant measure of economic and social development. The inclusion of female working-age to full-time employment promotes the country's GDP (Ogungbenle, Olawumi, & Obasuyi, 2013; Swartz, 2009). Several studies found a significant positive relationship between the demographic measures and female labour force participation (Aísa, Pueyo, & Sanso, 2012; Bloom, Canning, Fink, & Finlay, 2009; Myrskylä, Leinonen, & Martikainen, 2013; Ogungbenle, Olawumi, & Obasuyi, 2013; Swartz, 2009). The following chapter will provide an overview of what other studies found on socio-economic, household and demographic factors influencing employment secured by females. Furthermore, the chapter will also discuss the theoretical and conceptual framework which was applied in the study.

2.1.1. *AGE AND FEMALE EMPLOYMENT*

Age as a demographic factor influencing employment among females is a global concern. Globally, the population of youth is expected to increase by 7% by 2030, making a total of 1.3 billion (United Nations, 2015). The United Nations suggests that there is a need to improve the widening gap of employment among the youth aged 15-24 yearscompared to those that are25 years and older (United Nations, 2015; World Employment Social Outlook, 2018). Most young people are likely to engage in temporary contracts which may influence their employment opportunities in the future (Baranowska & Gebel, 2010; Dadush, Demertzis, & Wolff, 2017).

For instance, in 2012, the European union labour force survey covering more than 23 countries indicated that 2.9% of the youth 15-24 years old were temporarily employed relative to 1.3% of those aged 25-54 years (International Labour Office, 2016). This type of employment was dominated by females which often becomes twice as higher than that for men (Dadush, Demertzis, & Wolff, 2017). Thus, being a female in all European countries increased the chances of getting temporary employment (Baranowska & Gebel, 2010; Dadush, Demertzis, & Wolff, 2017). Contributing factors to this problem include the economic background which deprives young people of attaining quality education and lack of proper policies (Tähtinen, 2019; Dadush, Demertzis, & Wolff, 2017). Contrary to this study, another study drawn from 23 European countries including Slovenia and United Kingdom found that there is low temporary employment among the youth relative to prime-age

workers (Baranowska & Gebel, 2010). One contributing factors is that the youth is dependent on their caregivers which reduced their rate of engaging in labour force participation.

In another context, India is projected to have 68.4% of the working-age population (Singh & Raj, 2018). However, this increase in working-age is associated with high rates of youth unemployment (Singh & Raj, 2018). One of the contributing factors to the problem is that the youth at school is not taught skills and the importance of owning a business, hence a reliance in employment(Singh & Raj, 2018).Another study confirmed that age also significantly contributed to informal employment(Abraham, 2016). In the urban areas of India, the probability of being formally employed increased with age until 60 years old (Abraham, 2016). This was also supported by another study from India using cluster analysis. The study found a noteworthy relationship between informal employment and age (Sahoo & Neog, 2017). The study indicated that young females are likely to take risks and secure part-time work in the informal sector while they are studying but move to the formal sector when they get older (Sahoo & Neog, 2017).

One of the studies in Nigeria, using spatial analysis, found a substantial relationship between age and employment status (Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). The study highlighted that female working age who are from North and South , were most likely to be employed all year compared to not working, while females from the Eastern and Western regions engaged mostly in seasonal/occasional employment (Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). The growing of young working-age between 15-24 years in Nigeria has increased the unemployment rate (Akande, 2014). Females account for more than 50% of the unemployed youth in Nigeria (Akande, 2014). Females between the ages of 20-40 years constitute a larger share of informal employment such as street trading (Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015; Mohammed, 2014). This contributes to higher rates of poverty mostly affecting young females in Nigeria.

In South Africa, by 2018, half of the individuals 15-34 years' old were unemployed and females are mostly affected (Stats SA, 2018). This continues to be the leading cause of social and economic challenges faced by the South African government (Cloete, 2015). The factors contributing to this problem include young people's inability to search for jobs, their lack of experience and career choices (Cloete, 2015). South Africa has implemented policies in place directed towards supporting unskilled and unemployed young people (De Lannoy et al., 2018).This includes the National Public Works Programme (De Lannoy et al., 2018). However, newly graduated, and low skilled young people continue to face unemployment

(De Lannoy et al., 2018; Stats SA, 2019). On the other hand, the informal sector remains the most employing sector and the youth is likely to constitute a larger share (Stats SA, 2018). In Johannesburg/Pretoria, approximately 21% of female 15-24 years old were in the informal work compared to 23% of females 25-64 years old (Rogan, 2019). On the other hand, according to Mabilo (2018) females aged 30 years and older are more likely to spend more years in the informal work compared to those who are younger. In most cases, females engage in street trading when they are between 40 and59 years old (Siqwana-Ndulo, 2014). Meanwhile, the youth will commonly be found in small corner shops and saloons (Rogan, 2018). Such kinds of employment are highly regulated by the demand for service to customers. Therefore, they do not contribute much income to improve standards of living.

2.1.2. *FEMALES AND EMPLOYMENT*

Improving female's access to quality employment is important in ensuring the socio-economic development of a country (Tsani, Paroussos, Fragiadakis, Charalambidis, & Capros, 2012). The inclusion of females in quality labour force participation contributes to the country's GDP and GDP per capita (Momsen, 2009; Tsani, Paroussos, Fragiadakis, Charalambidis, & Capros, 2012). When females are working; they bring additional income to meet their basic needs. The U shape hypothesis has been tested to analyse the relationship between female labour force participation and economic growth (Lechman & Kaur, 2015). The U shape explains that few females are found in the workplace during early stages of economic development but the participation rate improves with the progression of the country's economic growth (Lechman & Kaur, 2015).

Females from most developing countries are typically excluded from accessing quality jobs which affects their contributions to the development of the countries (Bradshaw, Castellino, & Diop, 2013). The Sub-Saharan countries, such as Namibia and South Africa, still have a high number of females working under private household as domestic workers and wholesale traders (Cohen & Moodley, 2012; Kanyenze & Lapeyre, 2012). Such informal employment types have a negative impact and are an obstacle to social development. This is due to the low income received by workers and results in high levels of poverty. Developed countries mostly manage to improve social and economic development by encouraging females to engage in full-time labour force participation (Bloom et al., 2009). The developed countries had a higher level of female labour force participation with an estimation of 80 females per 100 males compared to sub-Saharan countries which had 75 per 100 men (Anugwom, 2009). As

such, the promotion of quality employment in most developing countries including South Africa will help improve social and economic development.

Some females are still in seasonal or occasional informal type of employment. Informal employment does not contribute to the country's GDP and social improvement due to low wages (Statistics South Africa, 2012). India is one of the South Asian countries with a high number of females found in the informal sectors (Labour South Asia World, 2018). High rates of casual informal work done by females in India was influenced by different socio-religious groups (Ingrid, Mahy, & Richard, 2015). The scheduled tribes, scheduled castes, other backward classes were most likely to engage in casual work compared to the upper Hindus and others (Landau, Mahy, & Mitchell, 2015). The self-employed seasonal informal work was highly unpaid work with females working under family-owned businesses (Sharma, 2012; Bhattacharya & Kesar, 2018).

Informal employment in India has perpetuated the cycle of poverty mostly affecting females from rural areas (Bhattacharya & Kesar, 2018). On the other hand, patriarchal norms continue to suppress females from working. In India, females who work for long hours while neglecting their household responsibilities are reported as people violating family and societal rules (Fletcher, Pande, & Moore, 2017). The societal and family rules only allow females to engage in part-time jobs that do not require many hours at work, so that they can have time to conduct house-related chores. A study conducted in India reported that about 73% of females were always willing to take regular part-time, 22% preferred regular full-time and the remaining 5% preferred part-time and full-time occasional jobs (Fletcher et al., 2017). Having a high number of females that are informally employed as part-time workers affected the economic and social development of India due to low wages that do not contribute to the country's GDP.

To a certain extent, childbearing females have to contribute to the socio-economic development of China. Childbearing females from China were actively participating in full-time labour force captured in GDP (Kim, 2013; Xi, 2017). This in return increased the country's GDP and GDP per capita (Xi, 2017). This promoted the standards of living within different families in China. Globally, China was one of the highest countries with an estimation of 74% of female labour force participation (Kim, 2013). Females who are between the ages of 25 and 45 years constituted a huge proportion of full-time formal employment due to higher education (Xi, 2017). However, the two-child policy resulted in

most females giving up their original work as well as shifting from full-time to part-time employment (Xi, 2017). Family responsibilities influence the rate of female labour force participation in China (Yang, Fu, & Li, 2016). Females mostly had to change their type of employment from full-time to part-time to accommodate family responsibilities such as taking care of elders and children (Yang et al., 2016). China is also known to have high rate of casual employment among females, in 2013 about 46% of females were in casual employment (Liang, Appleton, & Song, 2016). The casual workers in China can be employed by formal and informal sectors but do not have formal contracts (Liang et al., 2016). As a result, the casual type of employment is highly dominated by the vulnerable groups of people for instance females who work for long hours while getting less income (Liang et al., 2016). This is one of the contributing factors hindering some parts of China from social development. Most vulnerable groups of people are still faced with poverty, lack of security and human development (Liang et al., 2016).

Statistics South Africa report points out that the informal sector is one of the largest employers as compared to the formal sector (Statistic SA, 2017). The informal sector is highly dominated by a full-time, seasonal and casual types of employment(Mncayi, 2016). Most females employed in the informal sector are mostly temporary and some are casual employees (Skinner, 2016). According to the quarter labour force survey 2018, approximately 1113 000 females were recorded to be under the informal sector. The informal sector includes trading, manufacturing, community and social services, private household and agriculture (Quarter labour force survey, 2018). Females, mostly from the rural areas in South Africa, work according to seasons, for instance during harvest time when they are mostly employed by the agricultural industry (Mncayi, 2016; Oya & Pontara, 2015). Seasonal jobs in South Africa are mostly due to lack of skills, age, region and education (Msimanga, 2013). The casual and seasonal type of employment is highly likely to exploit people. This is because, workers in South Africa can only be protected by the Basic Conditions of Employment Act of 1997 only if they work more than 24 hours per month (Stockden, 2016). Therefore, those that work for less than 24hours cannot be protected by the law. This makes it easier for workers' rights to be violated by the employers. Domestic work is one of the casual and seasonal type of informal employment done by females in South Africa (Statistic SA, 2017).Domestic workers have schedules, some only clean for a certain number of days a week while some are called in for special occasions (Wills, 2009). A high number of

domestic workers in South Africa are likely to be found in Gauteng, Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal (Statistic SA, 2017).

2.1.3. FERTILITY AND EMPLOYMENT

High fertility rate reduces the females 'rate of participation into the labour market. High fertility among females between 20 and 44 years old significantly reduce the number of females working full-time (Bloom et al., 2009). Most developing countries found a momentously negative relationship between GDP growth and total fertility rate (Li, 2016). This meant that a higher total fertility rate led to a decline in a country's GDP (Li, 2016). One of the contributing factors to this challenge is a decline in the number of females that are in the labour force owing their reproductive responsibilities. The role of fertility in promoting female labour force participation is evident in China. The one-child policy introduced in 1979 reduced abortion and pregnancies which improved females' health and education (Zeng & Hesketh, 2016). Improved health among females leads to a high number of them engaging in full-time employment (Zeng & Hesketh, 2016).

Moreover, the one-child policy in China reduced the number of children aged between 0-17 years (Zeng & Hesketh, 2016; Wang, Zhao, & Zhao, 2017). This increased family saving rates due to reduced needs of health care, education and consumption related to raising children (Zeng & Hesketh, 2016; Wang, Zhao, & Zhao, 2017). Thus, females were able to contribute to the country's socio-economic development. The 2 child policy increased the number of children at birth by 0.7%. This is expected to economically strain the government in terms of expenditure, ensuring female labour force participation, females health status and the pension funds (Zhang, 2017). As a result, the government will be expected to spend a lot financially to health care and educational services (Zhang, 2017). This has a negative impact on job creation, therefore, increases the unemployment rate among females.

A study conducted in Nigeria concluded that employment among females improves household status but does not reduce the level of fertility (Obiyan, Fagbamigbe, Adetutu, & Oyinlola, 2017). Females that are employed full-time, are likely to be paid higher income hence the desire to have more children (Obiyan et al., 2017). However, another study confirms that a high number of children reduced the level of females working away from home (Adeyem, Odusina, & Akintoye, 2016). This also influenced the type of employment they engaged in, as well as their income (Adeyem et al., 2016). The relationship between fertility and employment among females from Nigeria is highly influenced by their level of

education(Nagac & Nuhu, 2016). Highly educated females are likely to secure full-time employment, which also supports household activities such as taking care of children and cleaning(Nagac & Nuhu, 2016).

The South African context is characterised by high teenage pregnancy with a high probability of giving birth between 15 and20 years old (Rossouw, Burger, & Burger, 2012; Swartz, 2009). High teenage pregnancy contributes to school dropout resulting in young females securing temporary work such as domestic work (Ambaye-Teshale, 2016). This results from that most of them still lack skills and knowledge that qualifies them for quality employment (De Lannoy et al., 2018; Ambaye-Teshale, 2016). As a result, a negative significant relationship between income and fertility was found which explained why some families fail to save while trying to meet the needs of raising a child (Rossouw et al., 2012). The inverse gradient between fertility rates and household, socioeconomic status explained the existing high levels of fertility among populations with lower socioeconomic status (Houle, Pantazis, Kabudula, Tollman, & Clark, 2016).

2.1.4. *FEMALE MARITAL STATUS AND EMPLOYMENT*

It is crucial to explore the role of marital status in shaping females' labour force participation. It is evident, from research, that marital status has an impact on determining the type of employment commonly occupied by females (Bardasi & Taylor, 2008). Researchers concluded that the traditional understanding of marriage has influenced how society perceives female societal roles (Hoobler, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009). Employers hold perceptions that never-married females are appropriate for full-time employment compared to married females' counterparts (Hoobler et al., 2009).

The society strongly believes that a married man is the main provider of the family which has contributed to married female becoming more reluctant in labour force participation (Jordan & Zitek, 2012). Culturally, the role of a man as a provider is considered after marriage. As a result, never-married females are found suitable with full-time employment because they support themselves compared to married females who solely depend on their husband's support (Jordan & Zitek, 2012). The role of a married female is associated with social responsibilities such as taking care of children, cleaning and cooking while the husband goes to work(Jordan & Zitek, 2012). On the other hand, the never-married single females can choose suitable times to do house duties for themselves while they spend most of their time at work.

The role of marital status in determining female labour force participation was recognised in the United States of America (USA). Married females with children 0-5 years old are less likely to be in the workforce because they are expected to carry child-care duties (Black, Schanzenbach, & Breitwieser, 2017). According to the (Bureau Of Labor Statistics, 2017) married females, with children under aged 6 years old, that were employed full time were about 62.2% compared to the 73.6% of married females with children over 6 years old. The participation rate for never-married females with and without children is higher compared to married females with and without children (Black et al., 2017). In Latin America, married females stay husbands who are solely financially responsible for the family, are less likely to engage in full-time labour force participation (Gasparini, Marchionni, Badaracco, & Serrano, 2015). On the other hand, never-married females who are the sole providers of the family are more likely to engage in any form of employment to make a living for themselves (Gasparini et al., 2015).

The impact of marital status in female labour force participation is also evident in Turkey. One of the studies found that never-married females and those divorced are most likely to engage in any form of employment compared to married females (Karaalp-Orhan, 2017). However, females married to underemployed husbands in Turkey are also likely to engage in any form of labour force participation to financially contribute to the family (Karaoglan & Okten, 2012). Education and the number of children after marriage also play an important factor in Turkey. In most cases, uneducated married females with children are likely to be doing home-based work compared to educated married females (Karaalp-Orhan, 2017). In Turkey, early marriage and low divorce rate contributes to the low rates of full-time employment for females (Dayıoğlu & Kırdar, 2010). Increasing time in marriage and additional years of age for females, they tend to stop taking full-time employment compared to never-married females (Dayıoğlu & Kırdar, 2010).

Most African people still live according to their cultural expectations. Lesotho is one of the African countries where patriarch remains dominant. A study conducted in Lesotho found that females who are; monogamously married, polygamous married or widowed, have lower rates of labour force participation (Matsoso, 2015). This is due to the fact that the husband is expected to provide for the wife and the children while the wife focuses on her household activities (Matsoso, 2015). Therefore, married females' engagement in the labour force is determined by the demand for housework in comparison to the husband's earnings (Harrison, Short, & Tuoane-Nkhasi, 2014; Matsoso, 2015). In situations where the husband is earning

more and can afford to take care of his family, married female labour force participation turn to decline(Harrison et al., 2014; Matsoso, 2015). However, some females who are married to a husband with low-income status, in Lesotho, are informal traders, for instance hairdressers and nail technicians to support their husbands (Chingono, 2016).

In Zimbabwe, the economic crisis has shaped the type of employment females are securing for a living. Married females chose to engage in a flexible type of employment which allows them to multi-task (Matenga, 2018). The economic crisis has influenced both married and never-married females to be street vendors (Matenga, 2018). Some married and never-married mothers cannot afford to pay for childminders, therefore, they go to work with their children (Matenga, 2018). Married females with cultural values tend to prefer working fewer hours and dedicate other hours to family responsibilities (Mupunga, 2013). While some married females decide whether to work or not based on their husband's income (Mupunga, 2013). An increase in the husband's salary by 1% is said to have reduced married females' labour force participation by 3.9% (Mupunga, 2013). Patriarchy is still dominant in the Shona culture as well as polygamous marriage (Manyonganise, 2015). Married females are told by their husbands to stay at home and take care of children while the husband goes to work and provide for the family (Manyonganise, 2015). As a result, females chose to casually work for their own benefit without neglecting household responsibilities. Such factors reduce the rate of female labour force participation in Zimbabwe and negatively affect the country's GDP.

Marital status also plays a role in influencing the type of employment secured by females in South Africa. Married females in South Africa search for jobs with a limited number of hours so as to accommodate house responsibilities such as taking care of children (Van Rensburg, 2012). This is also supported by (Mackett, 2016) who pointed out that the never-married, divorced and the widowed are likely to be in full-time employment compared to married females. High rates of cohabitation in South Africa has also resulted in a high number of females working in agricultural sectors where they are seasonal rather than full-time workers (Van Rensburg, 2012). Approximately 74.21% of divorced females were employed compared to 48.04% employed married females (Mackett, 2016). Never-married females are likely to work for low paying domestic work where they are employed to work for a certain number of days (Mkhize & Msomi, 2016). As a result, a most female-headed household with children cannot afford the basic needs and are affected by poverty (Mkhize & Msomi, 2016). Such factors hinder South Africa from promoting sustainable social development.

2.1.5. *REGION, TYPE OF PLACE OF RESIDENCE AND EMPLOYMENT*

Forms of employment are also influenced by the location where people reside. Urban areas are highly likely to have all forms of employment compared to rural areas. In India, most females from rural areas are seasonal self-employed and casual workers (Sharma, 2012). The rural work is related to duties such as farming, attending to domestic animals and art-related handwork (Sharma, 2012). Females in rural areas prefer to work seasonally in agriculture, which explains why India has low female labour force participation especially in rural areas (Chatterjee, Murgai, & Rama, 2015). Urbanisation has resulted in job shortages in rural areas. Females do not have enough opportunity to choose the kind of employment they desire but they take any form of employment to make a living (Chatterjee, Murgai, & Rama, 2015). Young females from rural and urban areas preferred full time paying jobs compared to middle age females who preferred regular part-time jobs (Fletcher et al., 2017).

African countries have similar trends, most work done by females in the urban and rural side of Uganda is usually casual farm work (Horrell et al., 2009). Young females with primary education and low skills from the urban side of Uganda are most likely to be in casual work in the agricultural sector (Horrell et al., 2009; Dumas & Houdré, 2016). The standard full-time and part-time jobs are mostly found in urban compared to rural areas, and females normally prefer part-time due to flexibility (Dumas & Houdré, 2016). The rate of unemployment in Uganda is high in both rural and urban areas. This has resulted in young females taking up temporary work for the informal sectors in small businesses, to sustain a living (Williams & Pompa, 2017). The young females in Uganda who are breadwinners normally farm rice in the rural areas to sell in the urban areas as their form of sustaining livelihood (Williams & Pompa, 2017).

Through policies, the Nigerian government has tried to address issues around female underemployment, in rural areas (Ajani & Igbokwe, 2013). However, females in Nigeria are mostly in seasonal farm work and some engage in part-time which is not related to farming to sustain a living (Ajani & Igbokwe, 2013). Females employed in all year type of employment were mostly found in the north-south side of Nigeria, while those doing in seasonal and occasional type of employment were likely to be found in the east-west side of Nigeria (Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). This means that females from urban areas in Nigeria were less likely to engage in seasonal and occasional work compared to females from rural areas (Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). Aluko (2016) supports that females, daughters, wives and

sisters from traditional societies normally do seasonal farm work to fulfil their social and family duties.

South Africa has a high number of single mothers located in urban areas. Most female-headed household in South Africa reside in urban areas, for instance, Soweto(Button, 2016). Females residing in townships rely on the informal flexible type of employment such as domestic work and exchanging groceries with their neighbours for a living (Button, 2016). On the other hand, the Statistics of South Africa in 2012 reported that most females residing in rural areas of South Africa rely on their own informal business for survival. This refers to trading on streets selling vegetables and crops to people (Statistic South Africa, 2012). Traditionally, in South Africa, females located in rural areas mostly are expected to do home-related work rather than being economically active (Msimanga, 2013). However, the situation among widows forces them to secure paid work so that they can earn a living to support themselves(Msimanga, 2013). As a result, most widows relocate to the cities where they may engage in petty work to earn a living (Msimanga, 2013). In 2018, Gauteng was the highest South African Province with a high number of females in petty private households (387000), followed by KwaZulu-Natal (239000) and Western Cape (148000) being the third-highest (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2018).

In South Africa, females from Eastern Cape and Limpopo are still at the bottom of the labour force pyramid (Aphane, Dzivakwi & Jacobs, 2010). A study which aimed at understanding the livelihood of females from Limpopo and Eastern Cape concluded that female's headed household depend mostly on farming for survival (Aphane et al., 2010). Another study which aimed at understanding the livelihood strategies for females in KwaZulu-Natal supported that agricultural practice is the main source of income (Sharaunga, Mudhara, Bogale, 2015). Some communities in KwaZulu-Natal still believe that it is culturally wrong for females to be farmers (Sharaunga et al., 2015). However, in 2015, empowering females to engage in agricultural practices reduced the poverty rates in KwaZulu-Natal (Sharaunga et al., 2015). Gauteng and Western Cape are central Provinces mostly characterised by both formal and informal types of employment. Females in these Provinces are likely to engage in both casual and full-time employment depending on their level of education. Irrigation farming is a dominating livelihood strategy in the North West Province (Balarane & Oladele, 2014). Most of the farms belong to the chiefs and females are likely to be working for the chief to make an income (Balarane & Oladele, 2014).Females are encouraged to practice in farming as a means of poverty reduction in both North West and KwaZulu-Natal Provinces (Balarane

& Oladele, 2014). Free-state Province, on the other hand, has been suffering from drought which has resulted in lesser times of farming (Walsh & Van Rooyen, 2015). Therefore, females are most likely to work a limited number of hours to make a living(Walsh & Van Rooyen, 2015).

2.1.6. LANGUAGE AND EMPLOYMENT

Native language is important in determining the type of employed secured by females. One of the studies indicated that there is a significant relationship between host linguistic and employment (Janta, Lugosi, Brown & Ladkin, 2012). Females that speak native language are likely to have better employment opportunities compared to migrants who speak other languages. The migrants who do not speak native languages are mostly given non-standard contracts (International Labour Office, 2016). Migrants who speak any other languages, other than native, are likely to attract temporary agencies and be offered temporary types of employment compared to natives of the host country(International Labour Office, 2016). Poor linguistic skills influence non-natives to be employed in poor working conditions with limited duration of work (Janta et al., 2012).

English as a language of communication is also important in determining the type of employment secured by females. English is not an official language in most African countries. However, English language has been recognised as mostly the best language of communication globally (English & Symonds, 2016). English speakers are most likely to be the first preference for any type of employment to allow communication flow(English & Symonds, 2016). Some companies prefer multilingual speakers including English especially in the tourism industry (Janta et al., 2012). As such non-migrants are likely to be employed because they have a unique language that will cater to tourists (Janta et al., 2012).

In South Africa, English or Afrikaans first language speakers are likely to have better education compared to any other with African first language (Leibbrandt, Woolard, McEwen & Koep, 2010). This then influences the English speaker to have better jobs compared to their native counterparts (Leibbrandt et al., 2010). The most spoken language in South Africa is Zulu and Xhosa, Afrikaans (13.5%) and English with 9.6% (Census 2011 as cited in Mncayi, 2016). However, English remains the most influential language in determining employment in South Africa (Mncayi, 2016). Therefore, in South Africa, English language, compared to African native languages, remain highly influential in determining the types of employment secured by females.

2.1.7. EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

Education is important in the subject of understanding the informal type of employment done by females around the world. One of the development indicators is the human capacity which is measured by and not limited to education (Todaro & Smith, 2011). Human capacity will enable the population to think, engage in activities that will allow them to realise their abilities and achieve goals contributing to the development of a country (Todaro & Smith, 2011). The promotion of equal education for females is associated with a high-quality type of employment (Doğan & Akyüz, 2017). The quality of education encourages formal labour force participation which in return will improve the household income and standards of living (Sánchez & Sbrana, 2009).

Higher education results in a high number of different job skills and specialisation. With education, the population is highly likely to remain updated on foreign technology which will allow them to specialise in terms of employment (Hulten, 2017). Lack of education forces the population to engage in job types that do not require school training, such as domestic work (Didham & Paul, 2015). Parents without education are highly likely to be employed in the informal sector and earn low income, which does not allow them to save and invest for the future (Didham & Paul, 2015). As a result, some families rely on the government for financial support through the provision of social grants (Harber & Mncube, 2011). The provision of social grant puts financial strain and influences the government to neglect other areas of development such as supplying with school resources. Social development in African countries is strongly affected by the shortage of school resources. As such, influences the population of a country to obtain poor quality education and engage in an informal type of employment (Van Hiel et al., 2018).

Investing in education promotes mass production. The promotion of higher education contributed to Asian countries' economic and social development (Clarke, 2011). The Indian government chose to invest in education from early childhood to universities and mostly focused on skills specialization (Clarke, 2011; Mehdi & Chaudhry, 2015). In India, the educational level increased the rate of workers engaging in regular types of jobs compared to casual (Swati, 2016). Those with higher education were likely to be employed in full-time white-collar jobs (Swati, 2016). However, educated females married to educated men were less likely to engage in labour force participation (Chatterjee, Desai, & Vanneman, 2018). Females married to educated husbands were less likely to engage in full-time jobs due to

household-related duties (Chatterjee et al., 2018). The importance of education in India aimed at reducing the number of adolescent girls who normally leave school and engage in unpaid domestic work (Shah & Steinberg, 2015). This was one of the contributions to the cycle of poverty in India (Shah & Steinberg, 2015). In India, young females from rural areas are less educated compared to older females (Fletcher et al., 2017). The young uneducated females are likely to work in agriculture compared to less educated who are more likely to secure a full-time or casual employment (Fletcher et al., 2017).

Similar to India, China recognises the importance of education in determining the type of employment done by females. In 1986, the Chinese government introduced a compulsory law that all citizens should attain at least 9 years of education (Project, 2018). The Chinese government funded the 9 years of its citizens' education. This was mainly implemented to improve gender equality and encourage females to attain their education (Project, 2018). In addition, the one-child policy, in China, increased the levels of education among females (Lan & Kuang, 2016). Due to the fewer number of children, most females had more time to remain attaining their education (Lan & Kuang, 2016). As a result, females of reproductive ages had more time dedicated to full-time labour force participation rather than casual employment (Lan & Kuang, 2016). Even though the promotion of female education covered the gender gap and promoted full-time employment for females, they continued to be employed in jobs where they received lower income compared to males (Sinha Mukherjee, 2015). In 2010, females from urban areas earned 67.3% of what was earned by males and those in rural areas earned 56% of men's salary every year (Fincher, 2016; Tatlow, 2012).

The role of education in Africa is also closely related to the promotion of females' labour force participation. Nigeria is one of the African countries that has enforced the law of educating, promoting labour force participation and reducing fertility among females (Wusu, 2012). Even though Nigeria is promoting female education, patriarchal and societal norms remain an obstacle to most females from being actively involved in labour force participation (Anugwom, 2009). A study conducted found factors such as family background and pregnancy to strongly influence female's education and employment especially in the Emohua part of Nigeria (Ibekwe et al., 2014). Females without education and have children were only allowed to work for 6 weeks which was completed by working half an hour twice a week (Ibekwe et al., 2014).

In Namibia, some uneducated females are exploited, used in human trafficking and forced to drug addiction, which keeps them in debts (Ezeh, 2017). This forces females to engage in an unsafe work environment such as sex work for a limited duration of time to pay back the debts (Ezeh, 2017). Females and girls in such a work environment have no control over work hours and the working days (Ezeh, 2017).

South Africa recognises education as fundamental in its commitment to social development through improving females' inclusion in the countries' labour force. South Africa's recognition of education as fundamental can be traced back to the country's history. Education was used mainly for the eradication of the Apartheid system to promote equal opportunities for all (Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Harber & Mncube, 2011). However, South Africa now promotes education to provide citizens with different skills that will encourage their labour force participation (Harber & Mncube, 2011). The White paper was designed to ensure justice in the quality of education and uplifting the standards of living for all the citizens in South Africa(Wilson, 2009). To cater for the poor population, the South African government has implemented a free education policy(Donohue & Bornman, 2014). Free education policy is designed to uplift the human capacity and increase opportunities for the disadvantaged population of the country (Donohue & Bornman, 2014). Therefore, South Africa is one of the African countries that have made progress in ensuring that females of all ages attain education. This was done to cover the gender gap in both education and employment (Sinden, 2017).

Females with low education in South Africa are mostly employed in domestic work. Domestic work and informal trade in South Africa are the main forms of employment secured by females with lower education (Tolla, 2013). This is where females are exploited and paid low wages because they have limited knowledge about their rights (Tolla, 2013). The domestic workers are paid low to the extent that they cannot afford their necessities (Marais & van Wyk, 2015). On the other hand, females with quality education have higher chances of getting into the labour market and can attain higher positions (Moses, 2011). Females are likely to secure full-time jobs when they have an additional number of years in tertiary education. Such kind of employment is likely to come with a 6.5% wage increase (Moses, 2011). Increase in wage will improve their standards of living, higher wages make it easier for females to afford necessities, improve their place of stay and ensure that they further their education. Such improvement contributes to ensuring both social and economic development of the country.

2.1.8. WEALTHY INDEX AND EMPLOYMENT

The non-standard forms of informal employment are most likely to be dominated by females from poor families. Informal work and casual employment are likely to reduce the poverty rate by 54% (Econ3x3, 2017). Therefore, most females living under poverty line yet they are financial providers of the family, secure informal work to raise income and sustain a living (Cichello &Rogan, 2017; Mabilo, 2018; Williams, 2014). Such is mostly due to poor education and lack of skills (Williams, 2014). On the other hand, females from richer families with qualifications and skills occasionally engage in casual and part-time jobs to more time for spending with their families (Warren & Lyonette, 2018)

Developing Asia and the Pacific prior 2015 was estimated to have a high number of poor workers. In 2012, approximately 61% of informal workers from South Asia were poor while 30% were nearly poor (Huynh & Kapsos, 2013). The poor workers included females who are the main financial contributors of the family, who engage in non-standard forms of employment to raise income (Huynh, Kapsos, 2013). According to Singh & Gupta (2011), most females from India who are employees in the informal sector, with limited duration, are poor if not the poorest among poor with no education. In most cases, owing to the shortage of skills, females with no education and often from poor families do not have more options when choosing an employment type (Singh and Gupta, 2011). The middle and upper-class females from India are mostly self-employed or own a business, and mostly employers of the lower-class (Crane, 2010)

In China, the type of employment secured by females varies according to their economic status. Casual work is likely to be dominated by a vulnerable group of people as compared to their richer counterparts who own businesses (Liang et al., 2016). Poverty drives females from rural areas to engage in seasonal farm jobs where they are paid low wages (Shi, 2015). On the other hand, upper-class females with degrees formally work for higher wages (Shi, 2015). More than 50% of middle-class female nurses, employed by the hospitals, have contracts and receive low wages (Wang & Geraghty, 2017) Their employment is defined by working for a limited duration of time to fill in the staff shortage gaps (Wang & Geraghty, 2017).

In Ghana, informal sector is one of the largest labour forces. According to Boateng & Ganu (2012),females are the most underprivileged group of people in Ghana and they are employed under the informal sector. Poor females migrate from rural to urban areas for informal

employment to sustain their livelihoods (Kumi, Yeboah, Arhin, & Owusu, 2014). The informal kind of employment varies depending on the type of contract (Kumi et al., 2014). Most poor young girls earn a living through casual and seasonal low skilled jobs such as sewing, repairing shoes and selling food (Kumi et al., 2014). Approximately 28% of men work as paid employees compared to 9% of the working poor females (Budlender, 2011a). For about 29% of females from poor family backgrounds, are involved in part-time family work such as selling seasonal crops (Budlender, 2011a).

Similarly, in South Africa, females from poor economic background dominate in low paid non-standard form of employment (Mabilo, 2018). Vulnerable females residing in locations and rural areas are still in precarious unpaid or low paid jobs under the informal sector (Mabilo, 2018). This was also supported by Budlender (2011b) who states that most females fall under poor working-class doing informal work such as street trade, waste pickers and garbage collectors. South Africa has a high number of poor females with low education raising income through street trading (Budlender, 2011b; Sassen, Galvaan, & Duncan, 2018).

2.1.9. HOUSEHOLD SIZE NUMBER AND EMPLOYMENT

Household size influences females to engage in any form of employment to sustain a living. It has been found that household size number has a negative influence on the public sector employment (Dogrul, 2012). The bigger the household size the lesser the likelihood of females taking fulltime jobs due to household responsibilities (Dogrul, 2012). Poor household family members are likely to influence each other to engage in the informal sector to avoid being taxed and save more money to sustain a living (Sookram, Watson, & Schneider, 2009). Most female heads from larger household size earn wages from informal sector such as domestic work (Sookram et al., 2009).

India is one of the countries where the number of household members was evaluated relative to informal employment. Research found that having a high number of household members working under the informal sector is related to poverty (Canelas, 2015). The high number of household members headed by a female is likely to be poverty-stricken resulting from short term or seasonal type of employment (Canelas, 2015). Normally, in India larger household size is associated with a high number of dependents (Mazundar, 2012). Most dependents rely on their mothers for financial and social support influencing females to engage in informal work to financially provide (Mazundar, 2012). The need to provide for dependents contributing to the household size number influences females to take jobs that males would

reject (Ulrichs, 2016). This includes low paid casual domestic and street trading types of employment (Ulrichs, 2016).

In Pakistan, most females who are from poor nuclear-extended families are less empowered in making their employment decisions (Omom, 2017). These are females who multitask by concurrently having part-time and occasional work while they also harvesting, breeding, fetching firewood and water, to ensure family survival (Omom, 2017). The dual tasks engaged by females force them to engage in work with for hours (Begum-Sadaquat & Sheikh, 2011). This is highly influenced by cultural norms that perpetuate gender differences between males and females (Begum-Sadaquat & Sheikh, 2011). As such, females engage in jobs characterised by lack of security and low wages (Begum-Sadaquat & Sheikh, 2011). On the other hand, Brown, Mackie, and Dickenson (2017) also supports that larger household sizes are dominated by dependents compared to the working group. A high number of dependents especially children turn to limit the number of hours spent by females at work (Brown et al., 2017).

Nigeria with high fertility rates is likely to have larger household sizes. Research found that in Nigeria there is a significant relationship between high number of family dependents and female labour force participation (Yuni, 2015). Females from high household sizes are likely to be actively involved in work (Yuni, 2015). However, in some areas of Nigeria, patriarchal cultural norms still apply and a man decides whether a woman should go to work or look after family members (Yuni, 2015). The non-standard forms of employment done by females in Nigeria are highly influenced by family responsibilities (Fadayomi & Olurinola, 2014). For instance, farming which is mostly conducted by females while their husbands are gone to work (Fadayomi & Olurinola, 2014). Some families in Nigeria's Abia state still rely on agriculture for survival (Agwu, Nwankwo, & Anyanwu, 2014). As such, females from extended families are encouraged to do farming to produce food for selling to raise income (Agwu, Nwankwo & Anyanwu, 2014). Another study indicated that Nigeria is one of the countries with larger household sizes (11-15) and requires more income for survival (Anyanwu, 2010). This encourages family members to work longer hours to raise income for survival (Anyanwu, 2010).

In South Africa, the bigger the household size, the more likely that the head will be employed to support his or her family (Viljoen & Dunga, 2013). However, due to gender inequalities, female-headed household is likely to be doing informal work for a certain number of days to

support their families (Viljoen & Dunga, 2013). Females are still discriminated from work because of family responsibilities and maternity (Mabilo, 2018). A high number of family members are associated with poverty and low education. Therefore, females raised in such contexts do not have necessary job-related skills; they contribute to the family through part-time domestic and casual work (Mabilo, 2018). Females from family sizes with a high number of children as dependents are likely to depend more on social grants while they work for a certain number of day's e.g. domestic workers to balance the monthly income (Festus, Kasongo, Moses, & Yu, 2015).

2.1.10. RELATIONSHIP TO HOUSEHOLD HEAD AND EMPLOYMENT

The relationship to the household head significantly contributes to determining the type of employment done by females. Patriarchal norms are against females heading the house and financially providing for the family (Banks, 2013). As such, female-headed households are mostly affected by poverty owing to low paid wages from the informal sector (Gupta, Borkotoky, & Kumar, 2015; Mukherjee & Ray, 2014; Nwosu & Ndinda, 2018).

Children mostly learn behaviour through imitation which includes working (Bourdillon, 2017). Owing to poverty, some parents allow their children to work during school or public holidays so that they can contribute to the overall household income (Bourdillon, 2017; Naeem, Shaukat & Ahmed, 2011). In 2011 Pakistan had about 8 million children working with 2/3 of them engaging in a full-time job (Naeem et al., 2011).

On the other hand, grandparents engage in seasonal farming to meet the needs of their grandchildren. Grandparents become caregivers to most orphans and they have to financially and socially provide for the children (Schrijner & Smits, 2018). Most grandparents engaging in seasonal farming are helped by their children during school holidays (Schrijner & Smits, 2018). Therefore, this influences children to engage in seasonal farming as well (Schrijner & Smits, 2018).

Patriarchal norms remain dominant in most communities of Bangladesh, it is traditionally and culturally wrong to find females working (Banks, 2013). However, female-headed households who are sole providers of income in the house understand the needs for them to engage in employment for survival (Banks, 2013). As such informal employment for a female-headed household is more of priority rather than an option (Banks, 2013). Female-headed households in Bangladesh remain the most vulnerable groups of people who are seasonally hired in the agricultural sector, domestic work where they are taking care of the

sick and preparing their food (Kalam & Al Amin, 2016). This was also supported by another study, conducted in Bangladesh, which highlights that female-headed households are mostly found in domestic work where they clean, wash and cook for the rich people in exchange of low income (Heintz, Kabeer, & Mahmud, 2018)

In India female-headed household is associated with a lack of decent employment and low wages (Mukherjee & Ray, 2014). In most cases, houses headed by females turn to have lower education compared to houses headed by males (Mukherjee & Ray, 2014). In India, female-headed households lack male breadwinners which influences females to engage in low paying jobs (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, 2015) Another study conducted in India which aimed at evaluating female-headed houses and infant mortality found that females from households headed by females are economically poor due to lack of decent employment and education (Gupta, Borkotoky, & Kumar, 2015). The study highlighted that In comparison, females from female-headed households are likely to be found in informal employment where they are paid daily after working yet males rom male-headed households are mostly employed full-time (Kamath & Dattasharma, 2017)

One of the studies conducted in Nigeria found that females from the female-headed household were more likely to engage in low paying labour force participation compared to those from the male-headed household (Anyanwu, 2010; Gayawan & Adebayo, 2015). Such has to do with gender roles were female from male-headed household turn to believe that a male is supposed to be a sole financial provider of the house (Gayawan and Adebayo, 2015). In Nigeria, the female-headed households turn to have lesser gross income compared to male-headed households (Neethi, 2017). Female-headed households' gross income does not exceed 50% normally (Neethi, 2017). Most female-headed households in Nigeria depend on agriculture for family survival (Neethi, 2017).

Female-headed households are the poorest compared to male-headed households in South Africa (Nwosu & Ndinda, 2018). This is due to a high number of dependents they have to support while getting low wages (Goebel & Dodson, 2011; Nwosu & Ndinda, 2018). Females from both male and female-headed households are likely to be informally employed (Nwosu, 2019). However, some females from female-headed households are more economically vulnerable and they engage in domestic and street trading work for a limited number of days(Goebel & Dodson, 2011; Nwosu, 2019). Some female-headed households in South Africa are generally in their unemployable age group which is 65 plus. This makes it a

challenge for them to engage in full-time employment hence they depend on pension grant and street trading for family survival (Button, 2016).

The above literature is mostly focused on how the socio-demographic and household factors influence type of employment among females of working age. However, none of the studies used multinomial regression model to analyse the association between these factors and type of employment among South African females. Therefore there is a gap in literature about the relationship between the socio-demographic-household factors and how they influence type of employment among females of working age in South Africa.

2.2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The framework for determinants of female labour force participation developed by Anker and Knowles (1978) was used as the theoretical framework for this study. The theory provides a framework showing the determinants of females labour force participation categorised into cultural, demographic and socio-economic factors (Anker and Knowles, 1978 as cited Khoury & Moghadam, 1995). The theory emphasises that cultural, demographic and socio-economic factors play a vital role in determining female labour force participation (Anker and Knowles, 1978 as cited in Khoury and Moghadam, 1995). Culture refers to the social norms and gender roles that influence females to fully engage in female labour force participation. The social norms and gender roles influence females to choose between full labour force participation and household duties (Khoury & Moghadam, 1995).

Additionally, the theory also speaks about the demographic factors and how they influence female labour force participation (Anker and Knowles, 1978, as cited in Khoury and Moghadam, 1995). The demographic factors highlighted include age, number of children, marital status, migration and family size. The theory highlights that there is a need to take into consideration the demographic factors in understanding why females, as opposed to men, engage in labour force participation. This theory moves away from an understanding that females would not work if it was not for the radical feminists fighting against the patriarchal system (Glanville, 2013). The theory does not focus only on patriarchal laws that govern female labour force participation but it adopts a holistic understanding of other factors such as demography, socioeconomic status and culture (Anker &Knowles, 1978 as cited in Khoury &Moghadam, 1995).

Finally, the theory discusses how socio-economic factors influence females to engage in labour force participation. These include education, health and residence factors. High

education is likely to promote quality and high female labour force participation. Health factors are also associated with labour force participation, such as the absence of disease which is likely to promote high female labour force participation. Anker and Knowles (1978) also acknowledge the importance of employee wage and financial needs in determining female labour force participation. Depending on women's financial needs to sustain a living, females are likely to engage in labour force participation (Anker and Knowles, 1978 as cited in Khoury and Moghadam, 1995).

Anker and Knowles's framework for determinants of females labour force participation was used as a guide in explaining and understanding the findings of this study. The theory was used because it takes into account both the predictors and the outcome variables of the study. Therefore, the theory explains how socio-economic and demographic factors are associated with employment status for females.

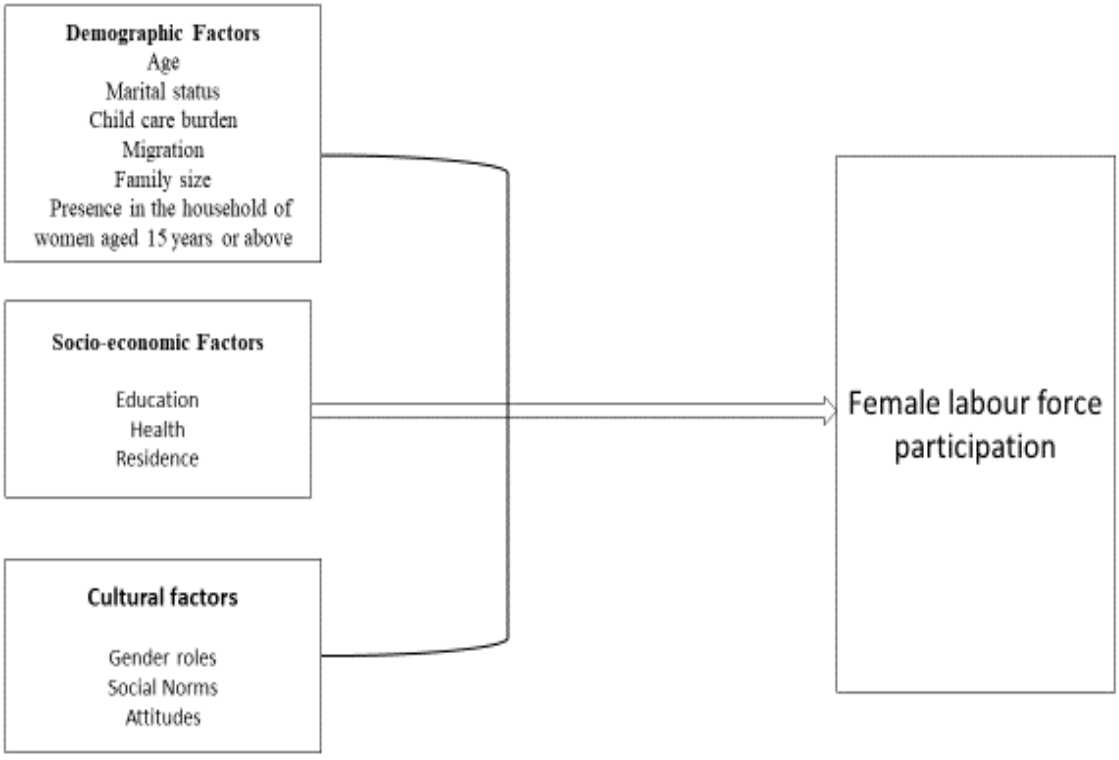


Figure 2.1.Conceptual framework by Anker and Knowles, 1978

The above figure 2.1 is a conceptual framework developed by Anker and Knowles in 1978. The conceptual framework explains how the demographic, socio-economic and cultural factors influence female labour force participation. The conceptual framework developed by Anker and Knowles was adapted for the study.

2.3.CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

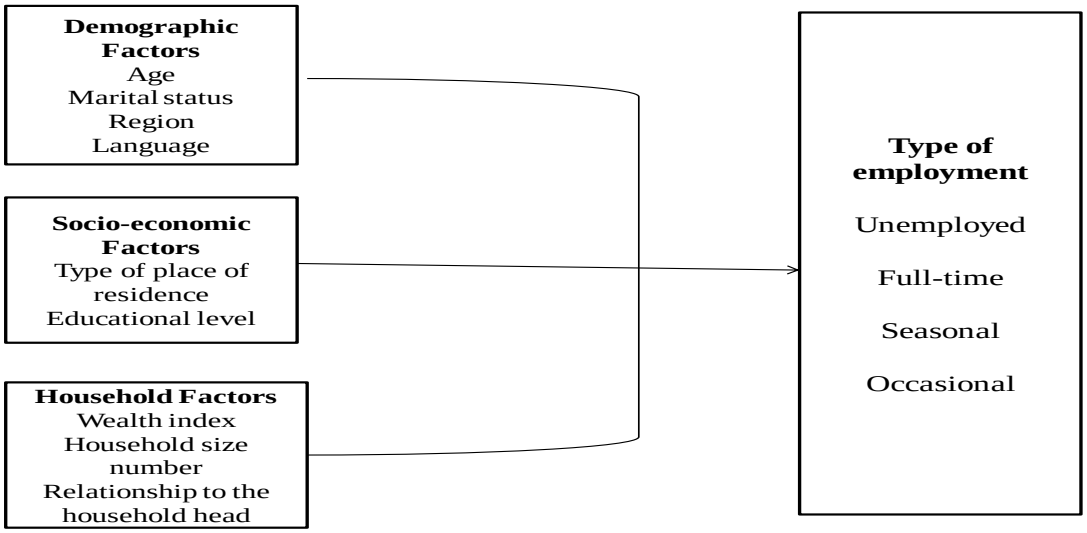


Figure 2.2. Modified conceptual framework showing demographic, socio-economic and household factors influencing type of employment among females (Adapted from Anker and Knowles, 1978).

The determinants of female labour force participation framework by Anker and Knowles, 1978 was also adapted as a conceptual framework of this study. In this study, the determinants of female labour force participation framework were modified by using the demographic, socio-economic and adding the household factors instead of cultural factors (see figure 2.2, in comparison to, figure 2.1). Literature refers to a number of cultural factors as household factors (Neethi, 2017). The current study adopted the term household factors than cultural factors to best suit literature reviewed. The presented conceptual framework took into account, how demographic factors such as age, number of children, marital status, language and region, directly determine female labour force participation. The conceptual framework also took into account the socio-economic factors such as type of residence and level of education which also directly influence type of employment among females . Instead of cultural factors identified by Anker and Knowles, 1978 in their theoretical framework (figure 2.1); the study modified the framework and used the household factors. These included the wealth index, household size number and relationship to the household head. These were also displayed to have a significant influence on type of employment among females.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study design

This study adopted a quantitative approach. Creswell and Creswell (2017) define quantitative approach as a statistical approach used to investigate the relationship between variables. Quantitative approach was beneficial for this study as it helped in understanding how age influence employment among females in South Africa. This approach also helped to identify how effective do the different levels of demographic, household and socio-economic factors influence employment status among females of the working age (Creswell & Poth, 2017). A quantitative approach allowed the study to quantify the factors that influence employment among females of working age (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). In addition, the use of quantitative approach made it easier to draw conclusions from a large sample which represented South Africa's entire population (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Using a quantitative approach, the study followed standardized steps of conducting research in order to eliminate biases and produce reliable results (Creswell & Poth, 2017).

This study used a cross-sectional study design. A cross-sectional study design is observational and descriptive in nature, it examines the characteristics of a particular group of people collected at the same time (Setia, 2016). The cross-sectional study design allowed the study to use more than one characteristics of the population collected at the same time (Setia, 2016). This type of study design adopted made it easier to provide an explanation regarding different levels of factors that influenced employment among the South African females in 2016 (Kumar, 2019).

3.2. Data Source

The study used South Africa Demographic Health Survey (SADHS) 2016 as a data source which was collected from May to November (SADHS, 2017). SADHS is a population and health related data source mainly collected by both the South African Statistics and the South African Medical Research Council (SADHS, 2017). SADHS data source collects information from females across all 9 Provinces of South Africa. The aims of SADHS data source is to provide information specific to the National Department of health and policymakers about the

country's demographics and health factors (SADHS, 2017). SADHS data source information comes in categories. This includes individual men recode, individual female recode, households recode, biomarker (SADHS, 2017).

This study only analysed information from the individual female category provided by the data source. The individual female category focused only on females aged 15 to 49 years old. The data source provided with information regarding females' background characteristics, fertility, females employment and health-related information (SADHS, 2017). Therefore the data source was used in the study because it consisted of the different levels of characteristics that influenced the type of employment among the South African females in 2016.

3.3. Study Area

South Africa (officially known as the Republic of South Africa (RSA))– country wide, was used as the study area of this study (Sahoboss, 2011).South Africa is located in the Southern part of the African continent. It has a population of approximately 57 million people (Statistics South Africa, 2018). South Africa has a multilingual population with eleven official languages spoken in the country's nine Provinces (National Language Policy Framework, 2003). South Africa has its unique history which, until present, affected the country's population (Oliver & Oliver, 2017). Since 1948, the country was under the apartheid regime (Oliver & Oliver, 2017). Apartheid was an ideology supported by the National Party in order to separate groups of people according to their race (Sahoboss, 2011). The Black racial group, which included Indians, Black Africans and Coloured,was the most affected (Sahoboss, 2011).

Economically, South Africa has been performing well in Africa despite the global economic recession which took place in 2018 (IDC, 2019; Southern Africa Economic Outlook, 2018). The Republic of South Africa is lacking in terms of social development, the country is still combating issues of poverty, unemployment and inequalities (Van der Westhuizen & Swart, 2015;Statistics SA, 2012). In South Africa, the unemployment rate remains high. In 2017 the unemployment rate was at approximately 27% and55.5% of the population is still affected by poverty (Statistics S.A, 2017). South Africa is highly affected by social issues such as gender inequalities (Baldry, 2016). Females are the most undervalued compared to males, especially in the labour market (Baldry, 2016; Cichello & Rogan, 2018; Meth, 2017).



Figure 3.1: South African map showing all 9 Provinces and neighbouring countries

(Adapted from SADHS, 2016)

The above figure 3.1 is a map of South Africa showing all 9 Provinces of the country and neighbouring countries. Gauteng consists of the highest population, with approximately 25.8% people followed by KwaZulu-Natal Province with 19.2% people while Northern Cape has the smallest population (Stats SA, 2019).

3.4 Study population and sample size.

The study focused on females of the working age (15 to 49 years old) as presented in the SADHS (SADHS, 2017). The population resided in South Africa across all 9 official Provinces both rural and urban areas. The respondents took part in the SADHS 2016 and provided with their background characteristics including age, education, marital status, place of stay and region (SADHS, 2017). Females that were eligible for individual interviews were identified through the household survey information. The respondents were employed either all year, seasonal or occasionally (SADHS, 2017).

Approximately 9878 females aged 15 to 49 years old were eligible and identified to be part of the individual interviews (SADHS, 2017). However, only 86% of the identified sample were interviewed, which resulted in 8514 females successfully taking part in the interviews (SADHS, 2017). The weighted sample size was 8513.99 females representing the entire

population of the country (SADHS, 2017). For females that were employed during the last 12 months unweighted sample size was 3 105 and the weighted sample size was 3281 (SADHS, 2017). Those that were unemployed in the last 12 months were 5233.44 weighted and 5409 unweighted.

3.5. Questionnaire Design

The SADHS consisted of 5 different questionnaires for individual men, individual women, households and biomarker (SADHS, 2017).The Questions were designed in a manner that provides information about the South African population, health-related problems, fertility and background characteristics (SADHS, 2017). The questions were translated into all South African 11 official languages in order to avoid language as a barrier (SADHS, 2017). For individual women, the questionnaire included all background characteristics such as age, education, marital status, region, place of stay and media exposure (SADHS, 2017). The questionnaire for individual women also covered fertility-related information, health and employment status (SADHS, 2017). Completed questionnaires were electronically sent to the supervisors immediately after the interview (SADHS, 2017). A pre-test was conducted from the 1st to the 5th of February. The pre-test was conducted in 5 out of 9 Provinces in order to identify any errors and they were fixed after the process (SADHS, 2017).

3.6. Study variables

3.6.1 Dependent variable

The dependent variable which was analysed in the study was type of employment among females aged 15 to 49 years in South Africa by year 2016. In the SADHS, female respondents in the individual questionnaire were asked if they were employed all year, seasonal or occasional. The remaining females that did not respond to any of the categories were unemployed in the last 12 months of the survey. For the purpose of the study, all respondents that responded by saying all year were coded as "1"which was categorised as "full-time" employment, those that responded as seasonal were coded as '2' and those that responded as occasional were coded as '3'and those that were unemployed were coded as '4'. In this study full-time employment is defined according to the International Labour Organization (2016) as type of work where an individual works for a minimum number of hours allocated by an employer and accompanied by benefits such as leave. On the other hand, seasonal type of employment refer to non-standard form of informal employment occurring according to seasons, highly temporary with fixed-term contracts (LBMC Family of Companies, 2016).

Lastly occasional type of employment refers to casual or part-time non-standard form of employment where individuals work for less than 24 hours a month or not more than 3 days a week (Labourwise, 2010;Amended Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 2008).

Table 3.1 Categorisation of the outcome variable

Name of outcome variable	**SADHS variable (code)**	**Study variable (code)**
Type of employment	All year '1'	Full-time '1'
	Seasonal '2'	Seasonal '2'
	Occasional '3'	Occasional '3'
	Unemployed '4'	Unemployed '4'

3.6.2 Independent variables

The main independent variable of this study was age which was categorised into 5 year intervals. Other independent variables that were used in this study wereregion, type of place of residence, children ever born, education, household size number, and relationship to the household, wealth index and marital status. The independent variables were divided according to different levels such as demographic, socio-economic and household factors. Table 3.2, below, indicates how the variables were coded both in the SADHS survey and in this study. Due to limited number of females that were employed all year, seasonally and occasionally in the last 12 months of the survey, some variables were re-categorised to avoid having frequency (N) less than 10.

Table 3.2: Definition and categorisation of independent variables for this study

Name of predictor variable	**SADHS variable and code**	**Study variable and code**
Demographic factors		
Age	15-19 (1)	15-19 (1)
	20-24 (2)	20-24 (2)
	25-29 (3)	25-29 (3)
	30-34 (4)	30-34 (4)
	35-39 (5)	35-39 (5)
	40-44 (6)	40-44 (6)
	45-49 (7)	45-49 (7)
Children ever born	0 (0)	0 (0)
	1 (1)	1 (1)

	2 (2)	2 (2)
	3 (3)	3 (3)
	4 (4)	4 (4)
	5 (5)	5 (5+)
	6 (6)	
	7 (7)	
	8 (8)	
	9+ (9)	
Marital Status	never in union (0)	not in union (1)
	married (1)	in union (2)
	living with partner (2)	Separated (3)
	Widowed (3)	
	Divorced (4)	
	no longer living together/separated(5)	
Region	Western Cape (1)	Western Cape (1)
	Eastern Cape (2)	Eastern Cape (2)
	Northern Cape (3)	Northern Cape (3)
	Free State (4)	Free State (4)
	KwaZulu-Natal (5)	KwaZulu-Natal (5)
	North West (6)	North West (6)
	Gauteng (7)	Gauteng (7)
	Mpumalanga (8)	Mpumalanga (8)
	Limpopo (9)	Limpopo (9)
Native Language	English (1)	English (1)
	Afrikaans (2)	African Languages (2)
	IsiXhosa (3)	Other (3)
	IsiZulu (4)	
	Sesotho (5)	
	Setswana (6)	
	Sepedi (7)	
	siSwati (8)	
	Tshivenda(9)	
	Xitsonga (10)	
	IsiNdebele (11)	
	Other (12)	
Socio-economic factors		
	Urban (1)	Urban (1)
	Rural (2)	Rural (2)
Highest level of education	No education (0)	No education (1)
	Primary (1)	Primary (2)
	Secondary (2)	Secondary (3)

	Higher (3)	Higher (4)
Household Factors		
Household size number	1 (1)	≤ mean 5 (1)
	2 (2)	>mean 5 (2)
	3 (3)	
	4 (4)	
	5 (5)	
	6 (6)	
	7 (7)	
	8 (8)	
	9 (9)	
	10 (10)	
Relationship to household head	head (1)	Head (1)
	wife or husband (2)	Spouse (2)
	son/daughter (3)	Child (3)
	son/daughter-in-law (4)	Other (4)
	grandchild (5)	
	parent (6)	
	parent-in-law (7)	
	brother/sister(8)	
	other relative (9)	
	adopted child (10)	
	not related (11)	
	foster (12)	
	stepchild (13)	
Wealth Index	poorest (1)	Poor (1)
	poorer (2)	Middle (2)
	middle (3)	Rich (3)
	richer (4)	
	richest (5)	

Above, Table 3.2 displays all the independent variables of the study. The variables were grouped into demographic, socio-economic and household factors. Some variables were categorised differently from the SADHS variable to increase the frequency value. For this study, marital status was categorised as; (1) never in union, (2) in union or (3) separated. In Africa, the in union category aims to cater for various marriage patterns influenced by both socio-economic and cultural factors. This includes in South Africa where cultural practices such as paying "lobola" influence females to stay with their partners because they are considered culturally married (Mubangizi, 2012). While the not in union category define those that have never been in a relationship. Lastly, all those that were once in a relationship

but no longer together are combined and categorised as “separated” notwithstanding the reason for separation.

As shown in the above table 3.2, language variable was also re-categorised. In South Africa most black people speak Bantu or Nguni also known as local Africa languages (Brenzinger, 2017). These were the first official languages of the independent South Africa After apartheid (Brenzinger, 2017). For this study, the local Bantu and Nguni branch of languages were combine and categorised as African language in order to group the Black population of South Africa together. Afrikaans was combined with other languages because it is mostly dominant in the business culture and strongly associated with apartheid compared to English which is more common in South Africa (Brenzinger, 2017). Other languages include all the unofficial languages in South Africa.

In the context of global change, South Africa is one of the African countries with changes in terms of family structure (Hall & Richter, 2018). After apartheid, the South African family structure became more nuclear compare to extended counter parts (Hall & Richter, 2018). Therefore this study re-categorised the relationship to the household head variable according to what defines a nuclear family. These were; (1) the head, (2) Spouse, (3) Children and (4) other.

Lastly, in South Africa the economic division mostly refers to poor, middle and rich class (Visagie, 2013). This form of division is determined by the poverty line (Visagie, 2013). The study adopted this form of economic division and re-categorized wealth index variable to poor, middle and rich class.

3.7 Hypothesis

H0- Socio-demographic and household factors are not associated with the type of employment among females of working age in South Africa.

H1-Socio-demographic and household factors are associated with the type of employment among females of working age in South Africa.

3.8. Ethical issues

The study used secondary data source, therefore no physical contact was made with the participants to cause any potential harm. For ethics clearance, the researcher applied for ethics waiver to the University of the Witwatersrand’s non-medical ethics committee and was

provided with a protocol number (WDEMG2019/07/17). Confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed in the survey because none of the information identified the respondents. The survey made use of codes rather than the names (SADHS, 2017). Lastly, participation in the SADHS was made voluntary to all the respondents (SADHS, 2017).

3.9. Data Analysis

This study used quantitative methods of data analysis. STATA v15 programme was used to analyse data according to the study's objectives. STATA is an integrated software programme used in statistics in order to analyse data (StataCorp, 2015).

3.9.1. Objective 1: To investigate the levels and prominent types of employment among females of the working age in South Africa.

Descriptive analysis was used to describe the sample statistics. This was composed of the cross tabulation and chi-square tests. Distribution among females of the working-age by study predictors was presented using graphs and tables.

A compounded population pyramid was constructed. The population pyramid indicates the different levels and prominent type employment among females of the working-age (15-49 years old). Different colours were used to show different meanings within the population pyramid (figure 4.2). Furthermore, a guiding key was provided with explanations linked to the population pyramid constructed.

3.9.2. Objective 2: To analyse the demographic, socio-economic and household factors associated with the type of employment among females of working-age in South Africa.

Objective number 2 was analysed using inferential statistics. Multinomial logistic regression (MLR) was used to analyse the relationship between each predictor and outcome variables. The multinomial regression is an extension of binary logistic regression and was designed to allow for outcome variables with more than 2 nominal categories (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016). Multinomial logistics was used because the outcome of the study was categorised into 4 unordered types of employment; full-time, seasonal occasional and unemployed. Type of employment was estimated at 95% confidence interval and the goodness of fit was determined using Chi-square value of less than 0.05. When running the multinomial regression model, it is important to test the overall effect of independent variable on the dependent variable (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016). To validate the assumption, the study made use of the Hausman test of IIA assumptions. This was done through running the adjusted

multinomial regression analysis first followed by test command for every independent variable of the study. The results were significant with a chi-square value of less than 0.05. Furthermore, the study tested for multicollinearity of the independent variable using the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF for each independent variable had a value of less than 2 and the overall mean VIF was 2.68. Any mean VIF with less than 4 indicated that there was no multicollinearity (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016). Both adjusted and unadjusted relative risk ratios were expressed using the probability value (p-value) of 0.05 to determine the significance of the results.

Different models for both adjusted and unadjusted were used when presenting the analyses. The demographic, socio-economic and household factors that were used were clearly indicated in the Conceptual Framework diagram. Models that were presented in the analysis were;

Model 1 was unadjusted analyses looking at the relationship between each demographic, socio-economic and household factor in relation to the type of employment among females 15-49 years old, in South Africa, 2016.

Model 2was adjusted analyses looking at all the variables from different levels including demographic, socio-economic and household in relation to the type of employment among females 15-49 years old, in South Africa, 2016.

Multinomial logistic regression was calculated using the following formula;

$$\ln\left(\frac{P\left(Y = k \,\middle|\, X\right)}{P\left(Y = K \,\middle|\, X\right)}\right) = \beta_0 + \beta_{k1}X_1 + \beta_{k2}X_2 + \cdots + \beta_k X_k$$

Where k = 1,2,3….., K represents K-1 and represents multinomial logit equations relative to the outcome variable, (P) is the event, (Y) represent the outcome, β_0 is the intercept, $\beta_1\beta_2\beta_k$ represents the regression coefficients and $X_1X_2X_k$ represents the independent variables and how they affect the relative odds of the outcome variable (Mertler & Reinhart, 2016).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of this study. The results were presented using descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics included cross tabulation and chi-square test while inferential statistics was analysed using multinomial regression analysis.

4.1. Descriptive statistics

Objective 1 of the study was to assess the levels and prominent types of employment among females of the working age in South Africa. This was achieved using both the univariate and bivariate analysis.

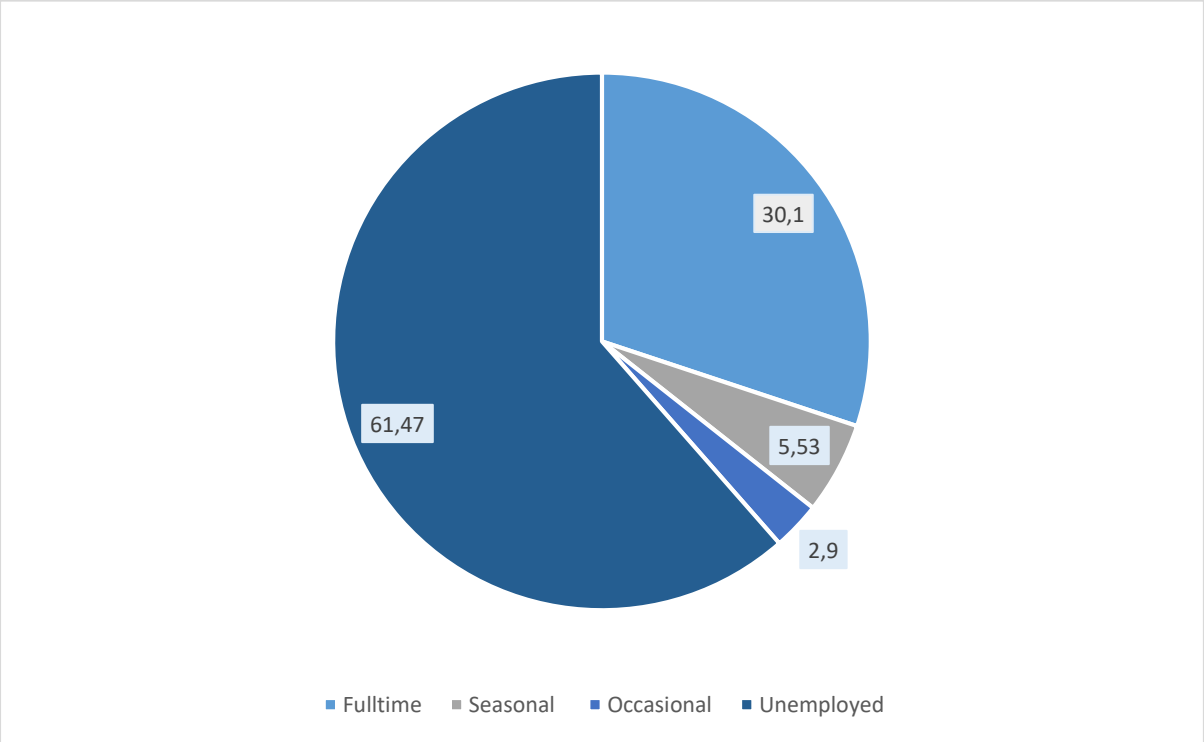


Figure 4.1: Percentage distribution showing employment status among females aged 15-49 years in South Africa, 2016.

Figure 4.1. Shows that they were 61.47% of females who were unemployed, 30.10% in full-time type of employment, 5.53% in seasonal type of employment, and 2.9% in occasional type of employment.

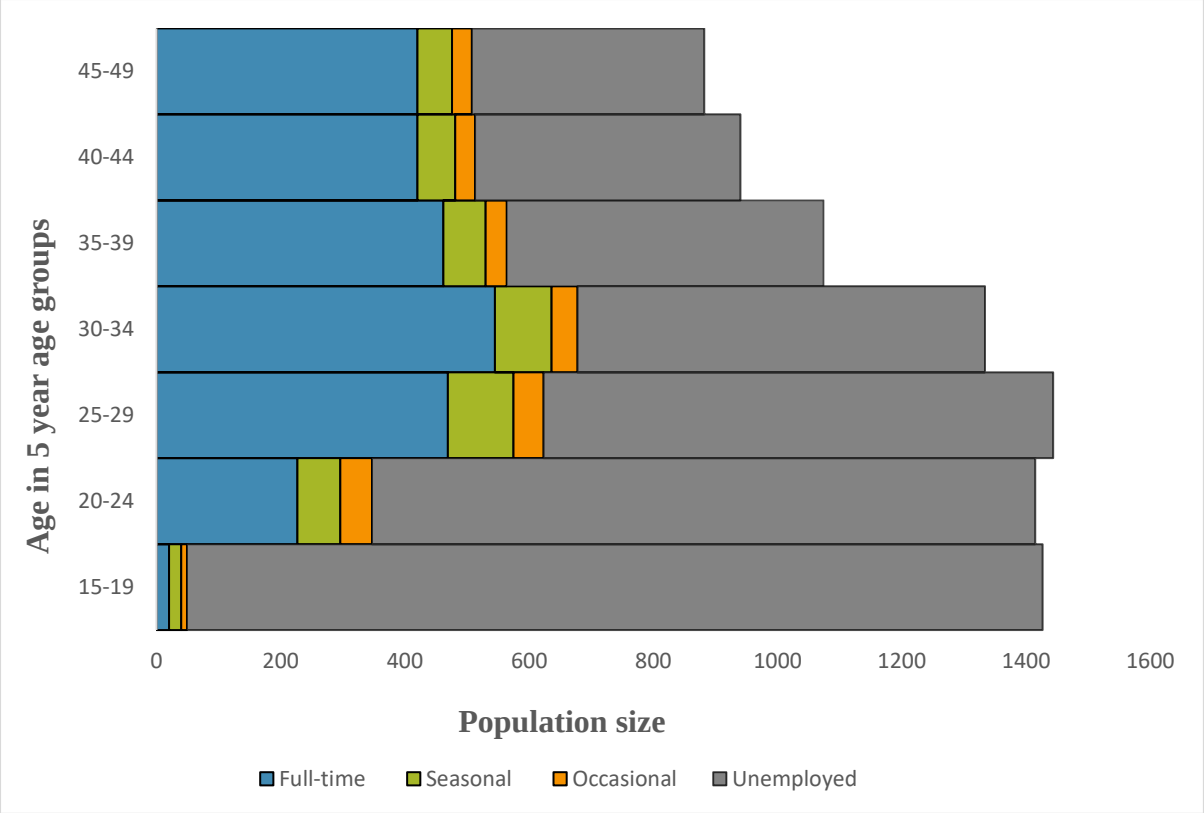


Figure 4.2. A population pyramid showing the prominent types of employment among females of working age (15-49 years) in South Africa, 2016.

Presented above is a population pyramid showing different types of employment among females of the working age (15-49 years). The different colours (blue, green, yellow and grey) indicate different types of employment secured by females of different age groups. A total of 8,514 (weighted) females were included in the 2016 SADHS survey. Out of 8,514, there were 3281 (weighted) females who reported that they were employed Full-time, seasonal or occasional during the last 12 months. The remaining 5,233 were unemployed during the last 12 months. Out of 2,563 females employed full-time, 20 of them were 15-19 years old, 227 females were aged 20-24 years, 469 females were aged 25-29 years. For those employed in full-time employment, there were 545 females aged 30-34 years, 462 females aged 35-39 years, 420 females aged 40-44 years and 420 females aged 45-49 years. About 470 females were employed seasonal, of which 20 were 15-19 years old, 69 females were aged 20-24 years, 106 females were aged 25-29 years and 91 females were aged 30-34 years. Additional to seasonal employment, there were 68 females who were aged 35-39 years, 61 females who were aged 40-44 years and 56 females who were aged 45-49 years. For those employed in Occasional type of employment, there were 9 females aged 15-19 years, 50

females aged 20-24 years, 48 females aged 25-29 years and 42 females aged 30-34 years. Occasional employment was also present among females aged 35-39 years (34), females aged 40-44 years (32) and females aged 45-49 years (32). Females that were unemployed during the last 12 month were 1378 aged 15-19 years, 1,068 females aged 20-24 years, 821 females aged 25-29 years and 656 females 30-34 years. Finally, they were 510 females aged 35-39 years, 427 females aged 40-44 years and 374 females aged 45-49 years that were unemployed.

Table 4.1.Frequency and percentage distribution of respondent's demographic, socio-economic and household characteristics and the type of employment done by females aged 15-49 years .

Characteristics	**Full-time**	**Seasonal**	**Occasional**	**Unemployed**	**Total**	**Chi2(P-Value)**
DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS						
	N %	**N %**	**N %**	**N %**	**N %**	
Number of Children						
0	350 (13.66)	83 (17.64)	44 (17.68)	1884 (36.00)	**2361 (27.73)**	
1	673 (26.27)	116(24.73)	69 (28.01)	1210 (23.13)	**2069 (24.30)**	
2	813 (31.74)	116(24.65)	65 (26.46)	976 (18.66)	**1971 (23.15)**	**540.62(0.000)**
3	451 (17.61)	85 (18.16)	34 (13.78)	627 (11.97)	**1197 (14.06)**	
4	175 (6.85)	43 (9.19)	22 (9.04)	288 (5.50)	**529 (6.21)**	
5+	100 (3.88)	27 (5.63)	12 (5.03)	248 (4.74)	**386 (4.54)**	
Total	**2,563 (100)**	**471 (100)**	**247 (100)**	**5233 (100)**	**8514 (100)**	
Region						
Western Cape	417 (16.27)	71 (14.98)	41 (16.44)	467 (8.93)	**995 (11.69)**	
Eastern Cape	268 (10.47)	51 (10.83)	23 (9.39)	596 (11.38)	**938 (11.02)**	
Northern Cape	44 (1.73)	9 (1.99)	7 (2.89)	112 (2.14)	**172 (2.03)**	
Free State	125 (4.87)	13 (2.75)	10 (4.00)	294 (5.63)	**442 (5.19)**	
KwaZulu Natal	391 (15.26)	74 (15.68)	31 (12.52)	1120 (21.41)	**1616 (18.98)**	**230.82(0.000)**
North West	148 (5.77)	65 (13.81)	11 (4.43)	346 (6.62)	**570 (6.70)**	

Gauteng	791 (30.86)	106(22.46)	76 (30.93)	1311 (25.06)	**2284 (26.83)**	
Mpumalanga	179 (6.99)	39 (8.33)	20 (8.16)	433 (8.27)	**671 (7.88)**	
Limpopo	200 (7.79)	43 (9.16)	28 (11.23)	553 (10.57)	**824 (9.68)**	
Total	**2,563 (100)**	**471 (100)**	**247 (100)**	**5233 (100)**	**8514 (100)**	
Language						
English	458 (17.86)	42 (8.84)	18 (7.11)	569 (10.86)	**1085 (12.75)**	
African Languages	1829 (71.39)	379(80.57)	195 (79.01)	4347 (83.06)	**67751(79.29)**	**172.01(0.000**
Others	276 (10.75)	50 (10.59)	34 (13.89)	318 (6.07)	**678 (7.96)**	
Total	**2,563 (100)**	**471 (100)**	**247 (100)**	**5233 (100)**	**8514 (100)**	
SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS						
Level of education						
No education	46 (1.78)	8 (1.78)	5 (1.92)	110 (2.09)	**168 (1.98)**	
Primary	162 (6.31)	47 (10)	35 (14.16)	530 (10.14)	**774 (9.09)**	
Secondary	1744 (68.04)	372(79.04)	184 (74.56)	4263 (81.46)	**6563 (77.09)**	**529.41(0.000)**
Higher	612 (23.87)	43 (9.19)	23 (9.36)	330 (6.31)	**1008 (11.84)**	
Total	**2,563 (100)**	**471 (100)**	**247 (100)**	**5233 (100)**	**8514 (100)**	
HOUSEHOLD FACTORS						
Relationship to head						
Head	911 (35.54)	149(31.60)	63 (25.59)	941 (17.98)	**2,064 (24.24)**	
Spouse	877 (34.24)	127(27.01)	74 (29.87)	1187 (22.69)	**2266 (26.61)**	**624.43(0.000)**
Child	457 (17.85)	113(24.10)	60 (24.13)	1727 (33.00)	**2,358 (27.69)**	
Other	317 (12.37)	81 (17.29)	50 (20.40)	1378 (26.33)	**1827 (21.46)**	
Total	**2,563 (100)**	**471 (100)**	**247 (100)**	**5233 (100)**	**8514 (100)**	
Household number						
≤ mean 5	1,966(76.72)	338(71.81)	165(66.69)	3216 (61.46)	**5685 (66.78)**	**186.26(0.000)**
> mean 5	597 (23.28)	133(28.19)	82 (33.31)	2017 (38.54)	**2829 (33.22)**	
Total	**2,563 (100)**	**471 (100)**	**247 (100)**	**5233 (100)**	**8514 (100)**	

Table 4.1 shows the chi-square relationship between the type of employment and each demographic factor. As shown in the table, the relationship between the type of employment and the number of children was significant with a p-value (0.000). For full-time type of employment, females with 2 children were mostly employed (31.74%), followed by those with only 1 child (26.27%) and then females with 3 children (17.61%). Full-time employment declined among females; with no children (13.66%), with 4 children (6.85%) and those with 5 plus children (3.88%). For females seasonally employed there were; 24.73% with only 1 child, 24.65% with 2 children and 18.16% with 3 children. Seasonal employment was also among females; with no children (17.64%), with 4 children (9.19%) and females with 5+ children (5.63%). With regards to occasional type of employment, they were; 28.01% females with only 1 child, 26.46% with 2 children and 17.68% with no children. Occasional employment was among females with 3 children (13.78%), females with 4 children (9.04%) and females with 5+ children (5.03%). Lastly, for unemployed females, females with no children were 36%, females with only 1 child were 23.13%, females with 2 children were 18.66% and females with 3 children were 11.97%. Additionally, unemployed females with 4 children were 5.50% and females with 5 and more children were 4.74%.

The second demographic factor presented in the above, table 4.1., is region. The chi-square relationship between the type of employment and region was statistically significant with a p value of (0.000). Per Province, full-time type of employment was highest among females from Gauteng (30.86%) followed by females from the Western Cape (16.27%) and least for females from KwaZulu-Natal (15.26%). Full-time type of employment for women per Province was; 10.47% in Eastern Cape, 7.79% in Limpopo and 6.99% in Mpumalanga. Provinces with lowest number of females employed full-time were North West (5.77%), Free State (4.87%) and Northern Cape (1.73%). For females employed in seasonal type of employment, there were 22.46% females from Gauteng followed by 15.68% females from KwaZulu-Natal and 14.98% females from Western Cape. Furthermore, per Province, for females employed under seasonal type of employment, there were; 13.81% females from North West, 10.83% females from Eastern Cape and 9.16% females from Limpopo. The Provinces with lowest in seasonal employment were Mpumalanga (8.33%), Free State (2.75%) and Northern Cape (1.99%).

The females employed in the occasional type of employment were; 30.93% in Gauteng, 16.44% in Western Cape and 12.52% in KwaZulu-Natal. Occasional employment for females was; 11.23% in Limpopo, 9.39%Eastern Cape and females from Mpumalanga (8.16%).

Occasional employment was low among females from North West (4.43%), Free State (4%) and Northern Cape (2.89%). Unemployed females (25.06%) were mostly residing in Gauteng Province, followed by 21.41% of females in KwaZulu-Natal and the least was from females (11.38%) from Eastern Cape Province. Unemployed females were also found in the following Provinces; Limpopo (10.57%), Western Cape (8.93%) and Mpumalanga (8.27%). Finally, there were lower percentages of unemployed females in the following Provinces; North West (6.62%), Free State (5.63%) and Northern Cape (2.14%).

Language as a demographic factor had a significant chi-square relationship to the type of employment with a p-value of (0.000). For Full-time type of employment, African language speaking females were mostly employed (71.39%), followed by females who were English language speakers (17.86%) and the least was females who spoke other languages (10.75%). For seasonal type of employment, females who spoke other African languages were mostly employed (80.57%) followed by females who spoke other languages (10.59%) and lastly females who spoke English language (8.84%). In occasional type of employment, there were; 79.01% African language speakers, followed by 13.89% for other language speakers and 7.11% for English language speakers. Lastly, females (83.06%) that were unemployed mostly spoke African languages followed by English speakers (10.86%) then females (6.09%) speaking other languages.

Table 4.1. Also demonstrates the relationships between chi-square, type of employment and socio-economic factors. The relationship between chi-square, type of employment and educational level was significant with a p-value of (0.000). For Full-time type of employment, females with secondary education were mostly employed (68.04%) followed by those with higher education (23.87%) at the least were females with primary education (6.31%) and no education (1.78%). Females that were seasonally employed mostly had secondary education (79.04%) followed by females with primary education (10.00%) then females with higher education (9.19%) and lastly those with no education were the lowest (1.78%). Females that were occasionally employed; mostly had secondary education (74.56%) followed by those with primary education (14.16%), higher education (9.36%) and lastly no education (1.92%). Finally, mostly unemployed females had secondary education (81.46%), followed by females with no education (10.14%) then females with higher education (6.31%), females with primary education had the lowest percentage of unemployed (2,09%).

As shown in the above, table 4.1., the chi-square relationship between the type of employment and the relationship to the household head was significant and had a p-value of (0.000). For full-time type of employment, the heads of the family were mostly employed (35.54%), followed by those that were spouse to the household head (34.24%) while house head's children had (17.85%) and those with other relationship to the household had (12.37%). Seasonal type of employment was dominated by the heads of households (31.60%). This was followed by those with spouse relationship to the household (27.01%) which was followed by those with children relationships to the household head (24.10%). Lastly were those with other relationships to the household head (17.29%). For occasional type of employment, those with spouse relationship to the household head were mostly employed (29.87%), next was the household heads (25.59%). Household's heads was followed by their children (24.13%) and the least was those with other relationships with the household head (20.40%). The percentages of unemployed number of females were also high among children (33%), followed by the spouse (22.69%) then others (26.33%) and lastly the heads (17.98%).

The chi-square test of the association between employment and household size number was significant with a p-value of (0.000). For Full-time type of employment, the household size smaller than or equal to the mean of 5 had the highest number of employment (76.72%) while those greater than the mean of 5 had 23.28%. For seasonal type of employment, the household size number that was smaller than or equal to the mean of 5 had 71.81% employed while the household size number greater than the mean of 5 had 28.19% employed. With regards to occasional type of employment, the household size number smaller than or equal to the mean of 5 had 66.69% employed while the household size number greater than the mean of 5 had 33.31% employed. Lastly, females that were unemployed were mostly found among households that the size of their members were smaller than or equal to mean of 5 (61.46%) and a few stayed in the household with size number that was greater than the mean of 5 (38.54%).

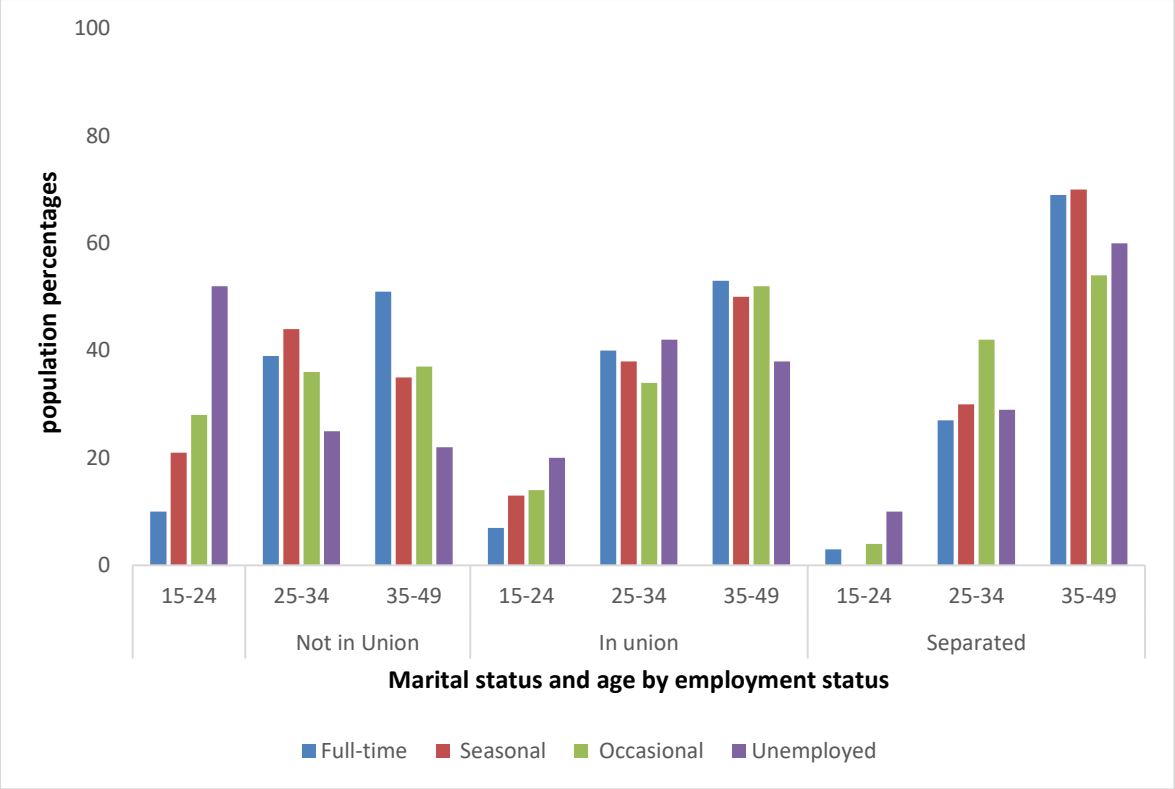


Figure 4.3: Percentage distribution of age and marital status by employment among females aged 15-49 years.

Figure 4.3, above, shows the percentage distribution of age and marital status by employment. Females 15-24 years old, who were not in union, had the lowest percentage (10.00%) in full-time employment. The second highest percentage in full-time employment was that of females 25-34 years old (39.00%) and the highest was that of females 35-49 years old (51.00%). For females employed full-time but in union, the highest employed (53.00%) were 35-49 years old. They were followed by females 25-34 years old (40.00%). Lastly, females 15-24 years old had the lowest number (7.00%) of the employed. With regards to full-time employment but separated from their partners, the highest (69.00%) employed females were 35-49 years old, followed by those 25-34 (27.00%). Lastly (3.00%) were females 15-24 years old.

For Seasonal employment, figure 4.3 above indicates that21% of 15-24 years old females, not in union, were employed. This was followed by 44% of females who were 25-34 years old. Lastly (35.00%) were females 35-49 years old. Females that were in union and employed seasonally were as follows; 15-24 years old (13.00%), 25-34 years old (38.00%) and 35-49 years (50.00%). Lastly, the seasonal employment for females who separated with their

partners was; 0% for those who were15-24 years old; 30.00% for those who were 25-34 years old and 70.00% for those who were 35-49 years old.

Additionally, females who were occasionally employed and not in union were as follows; 28.00% for those who were 15-24 years old, 36.00% for those who were 25-34 years old and 37% for those who were 35-49 years old. The females that were occasionally employed and in union were as follows; 14.00% for those who were 15-24 years old, 34.00% for those who were 25-34 years old and 52.00% for those who were 35-49 years old. The females that were occasionally employed but separated with their partners were as follows; 4.00% for those who were 15-24 years old, 42.00% for those who were 25-34 years old and 54.00% for those who were 35-49 years old.

Furthermore, the above figure 4.3 (page 53) indicates females that were unemployed and not in a union. Of these females; 52.00% were 15-24 years old, 25.00% were 25-34 years old and 22.00% were 35-49 years old. Females that were unemployed but in union were; 20.00% who were 15-24 years old, 42.00% who were 25-34 years old and 38.00% who were 35-49 years old. Lastly, females that were unemployed and separated with their partners were as follows; 10.00% for those who were 15-24 years old, 29.00% for those who were 25-34 years old and 60.00% for those who were 35-49 years old.

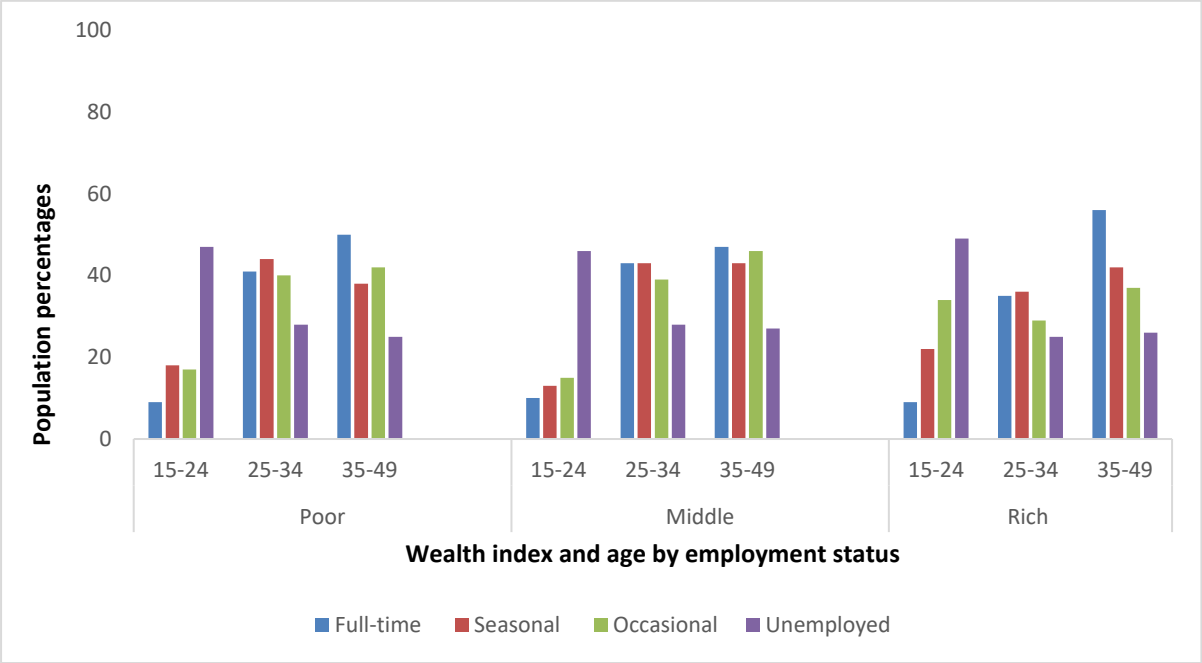


Figure 4.4: Percentage distribution of wealth index and age by employment among females aged 15-49 years.

Figure 4.4, above, shows percentages of wealth index and age by employment. The females that were employed full-time and coming from poor class background were as follows;50.00% for those who were 35-49 years old, followed by 41.00% of females 25-34 years old and lastly 9.00% of females who were 15-24 years old. The females who were employed full-time and coming from middle class background were as follows; 47.00%who were 35-49 years old, 43.00% females who were 25-34 years old and 10%who were 15-24 years old. Lastly, the females who were employed full-time and coming from rich class background were as follows; 56.00% who were 35-49 years old, 35.00%who were 25-34 years old and 9.00%who were 15-24 years old.

The females who were employed seasonally and coming from the poor class background were as follows; 18.00% of those who were 15-24 years old, 44%who were 25-34 years old and 38% who were 35-49 years old. The females who were coming from the middle class background were as follows; 13.00% of those who were 15-24 years old, 43.00% who were 25-34 years old and 43% who were 35-49 years old. Lastly, females coming from the rich class background were; 22.00% who were 15-24 years old, 36.00% who were 25-34 years old and 42.00% who were 35-49 years old.

Additionally, females that were employed occasionally and coming from poor background were; 17.00% of those who were 15-24 years old, 40.00% who were 25-34 years old and 42.00% who were 35-49 years old. The females that were coming from middle class background were; 15.00% who were 15-24 years old, 39.00% who were 25-34 years old and 46.00% who were 35-49 years old. Finally, females that were coming from the rich class background were; 34.00% who were 15-24 years old, 29.00% who were 25-34 years old and 37.00% who were 35-49 years old.

Furthermore, the females that were unemployed and coming from poor class background were; 47.00% of those who were 15-24 years old, 28.00% who were 25-34 years old and 25.00% who were35-49 years old. Unemployed females that were coming from the middle class background were; 46.00% of those who were 15-24 years old, 28.00% who were 25-34 years old and 27.00% who were 35-49 years old. Lastly, the unemployed females that were coming from the rich class background were; 49.00% of those who were 15-24 years old, 25.00% who were 25-34 years old and 26.00% who were35-49 years old.

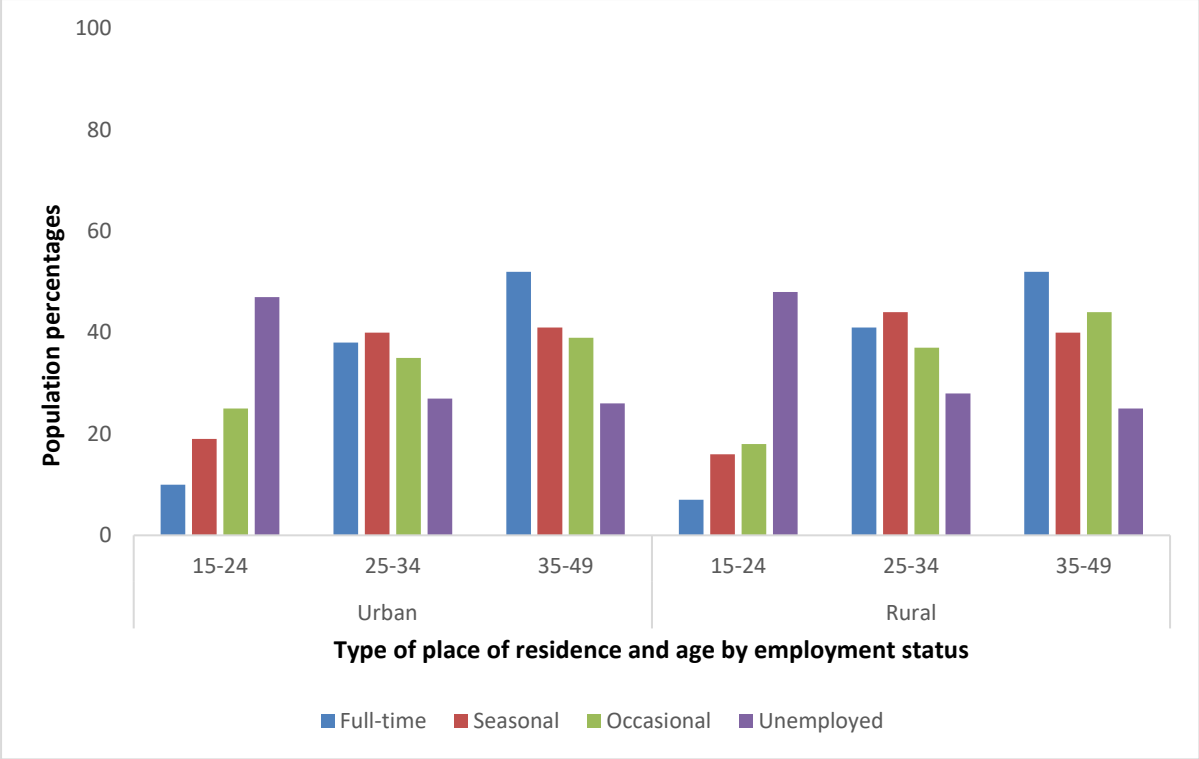


Figure 4.5: Percentage distribution of type of place of residence and age by employment among females aged 15-49 years.

Figure 4.5 (page 56), indicates the percentage distribution of the type of place of residence and age by employment. The distribution was as follows; the females residing in the urban areas and employed full-time were as follows; 10.00% of those who were 15-24 years old, 38.00% of those who were 25-34 years old and 52.00% who were 35-49 years old. On the other hand, females residing in the rural areas and employed full-time were as follows; 7.00% of those who were 15-24 years old, 41.00%who were 24-34 years old and 52.00% who were 35-49 years old.

The females that were employed seasonally and residing in urban areas were distributed as follows; 19.00% for those who were 15-24 years old, 40.00% who were 25-34 years old and 41.00% who were 35-49 years old. The females residing in the rural areas and employed seasonally were as follows; 16.00% for those who were 15-24 years old, 44.00% who were 25-49 years old and 40.00 % who were 35-49 years old.

Additionally, the distribution of the females that were employed occasionally and staying in the urban areas was; 25.00 % of those who were 15-24 years old, 35.00 % of those who were 25-34 years old and 39.00% who were 35-49 years old. The females residing in rural areas

and employed occasionally were as follows; 18.00% who were 15-24 years old, 37.00% who were 25-34 years old and 44.00% who were 35-49 years old.

Lastly, unemployed females residing in the urban areas were distributed as follows; about 47.00% who were15-24 years old, 27.00% who were25-34 years old and 26.00% who were 35-49 years old. The unemployed females residing in the rural areas were approximated as; 48.00% of those who were15-24 years old, 28.00% who were25-34 years old and 25.00% who were 35 to 49 years old.

4.2 Inferential Results

4.2.1. Multinomial bivariate and multivariate regression models

The second objective of this study was to analyse the relationship between the type of employment done by females and demographic, socio-economic and household factors using multinomial regression model. This is presented, below in two respective models; unadjusted and adjusted.

Table 4.2. Model 1: Unadjusted multinomial regression model between each demographic characteristics and type of employment among females aged 15-49 years in South Africa

	UNEMPLOYED R.C	FULL-TIME			SEASONAL			OCCASIONAL		
Demographic factors		**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**	**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf-interval**	**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf-Interval**
Age										
15-19		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
20-24		14.834	0.000	7.978-27.582	4.537	0.000	2.336-8.813	7.245	0.000	3.220-16.303
25-29		39.902	0.000	21.074-75.549	9.084	0.000	4.761-17.333	8.893	0.000	3.686-21.454
30-34		58.018	0.000	31.260- 107.681	9.759	0.000	5.058- 18.829	9.698	0.000	4.179-22.506
35-39		63.241	0.000	33.964-117.753	9.335	0.000	4.640-18.782	10.116	0.000	4.256-24.047
40-44		68.784	0.000	37.401-126.497	10.083	0.000	5.082-20.006	11.603	0.000	5.129-26.252
45-49		78.363	0.000	41.536-147.844	10.587	0.000	5.787-19.366	13.292	0.000	5.394-32.755
Number of Children										
0		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
1		2.994	0.000	2.438-3.677	2.182	0.000	1.502-3.169	2.467	0.000	1.533-3.968
2		4.484	0.000	3.664-5.489	2.696	0.000	1.957-3.714	2.890	0.000	1.792-4.657

3		3.877	0.000	3.045-4.936	3.096	0.000	2.087-4.592	2.344	0.004	1.311-4.191
4		3.278	0.000	2.436-4.413	3.405	0.000	2.087-5.555	3.345	0.000	1.807-6.190
5+		2.159	0.000	1.550-3.006	2.423	0.000	1.504-3.905	2.160	0.015	1.163-4.011
Marital status										
Not in union		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
In union		1.375	0.002	1.122-1.685	1.571	0.009	1.122-2.203	2.008	0.005	1.237-3.261
Separated		3.514	0.000	2.557-4.828	2.873	0.000	1.738- 4.750	4.338	0.000	2.491-7.554
Region										
Western Cape		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Eastern Cape		0.504	0.000	0.376-0.677	0.567	0.033	0.336-0.956	0.448	0.004	0.261-0.769
Northern Cape		0.442	0.000	0.317-0.616	0.554	0.037	0.318-0.966	0.732	0.301	0.405-1.322
Free State		0.474	0.000	0.356-0.632	0.292	0.000	0.166-0.513	0.386	0.007	0.193-0.769
KwaZulu Natal		0.391	0.000	0.289-0.529	0.436	0.000	0.279-0.682	0.317	0.000	0.169-0.596
North West		0.479	0.000	0.349-0.657	1.24	0.402	0.746-02.074	0.363	0.006	0.176-0.751
Gauteng		0.676	0.016	0.492-0.928	0.534	0.017	0.318-0.892	0.670	0.160	0 .383-1.171
Mpumalanga		0.464	0.000	0.342-0.630	0.600	0.025	0.383-0.939	0.536	0.030	0.306-0.940
Limpopo		0.404	0.000	0.297-0.549	0.516	0.006	0.323-0.824	0.576	0.074	0.3150-1.056
Native Language										

English		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
African language		0.523	0.000	0.425-0.644	1.192	0.464	0.744-1.909	1.454	0.198	0.822-2.573
Other		1.077	0.592	0.821-1.413	2.142	0.019	1.135-4.040	3.495	0.000	1.798-6.795

***R.C Refers to the reference category identified as category of comparison for the other categories**

Table 4.2.(page-58) is unadjusted multinomial regression analysis indicating the relationship between the type of employment and each demographic characteristic for females 15 to 49 years old, in South Africa, 2016. Unemployed was chosen as a reference category because a high number of females in South Africa are still unemployed. Therefore, the study compared the unemployed to other types of employment namely full-time, seasonal and occasional.

The results in Table 4.2 depict that all the demographic predictors have a significant influence on the type of employment secured by females except for North West category under region. This was presented using relative risk ratio comparing the unemployed females to different types of employment, given that the other variables were held constant.

The unadjusted model indicates that with each additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 14.834 times 'Relative Risk Ratio' (RRR 14.834; 95% CI: 7.978-27.582) higher for females 20-24 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 39.902 times (RRR 39.902; 95% CI: 21.074-75.549) higher for females aged 25-29 years compared to females aged 15-19 years. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 58.018 times (RRR 58.018; 95% CI: 31.260-107.681) higher for females 30-34 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Furthermore, for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 63.241 times (RRR 63.241; 95% CI: 33.964-117.753) higher for females 35-39 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. In addition, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 68.784 times (RRR 68.784; 95% CI: 37.401-126.497) higher for females 40-44 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to unemployed was 78.363 times (RRR 78.363; 95% CI: 41.536-147.844) higher for females 45-49 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old.

When holding other variables constant, the findings indicated that every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 4.537 times (RRR 4.537; 95% CI: 2.336-8.813) higher among females aged 20-24 years compared to younger females aged 15-19 years. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 9.084 times (RRR 9.084; 95% CI: 4.761-17.333) higher among females 25-29 years old compared to females 15-19

years old. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 9.759 times (RRR 9.759; 95% CI: 5.058-18.829) higher for females 30-34 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Furthermore, for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 9.335 times (RRR 9.335; 95% CI: 4.640-18.782) higher for females 35-39 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Additionally, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 10.083 times (RRR 10.083; 95% CI: 5.082-20.006) higher among females 40-44 years old compared to younger females aged 15-19 years. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 10.587 times (RRR 10.587; 95% CI: 5.787-19.366) higher for females 45-49 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old.

As shown in Table 4.2., the relationship between age and occasional employment was statistically significant with p-values less than 0.05. This means that for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 7.245 times (RRR 7.245; 95% CI: 3.220-16.303) higher for females 20-24 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. While the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 8.893 times (RRR 8.893; 95% CI: 3.686-21.454) higher for females 25-29 years old compared to females 15-19 years old. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 9.698times (RRR 9.698; 95% CI: 4.179-22.506) higher for females 30-34 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Furthermore, for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 10.116 times (RRR 10.116; 95% CI:4.256-24.047) higher for females aged 35-39 years compared to younger females 15-19 years old. In addition, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 11.603times (RRR 11.603; 95% CI: 5.129-26.252) higher for females 40-44 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 13.292 times (RRR; 13.292; 95% CI: 5.394-32.755) higher for females 45-49 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old, with all the other variables held constant.

The results obtained in table 4.2 indicates that the number of children significantly contribute to the type of employment for females in South Africa. When holding other variables constant, the unadjusted model revealed that the relative risk ratio of females to be employed

full-time compared to being unemployed was 2.994 times (RRR 2.994; 95% CI: 2.438-3.677) higher for females with only one child compared to females without a child. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 4.484 times (RRR 4.484; 95% CI: 3.664-5.489) higher for females with 2 children compared to females without children. Additionally, the study indicated that the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 3.887 times (RRR 3.887; 95% CI: 3.045-4.936) higher for females with 3 children compared to females without children. Furthermore, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 3.278 times (RRR 3.278; 95% CI: 2.436-4.413) higher for females with 4 children compared to females without children. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 2.159 times (RRR 2.159; 95% CI: 1.550-3.006) higher for females with 5+ children compared to females without children.

The unadjusted results also indicated that the relationship between the number of children and seasonal employment among females was statistically significant. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 2.182 times (RRR 2.182; 95% CI: 1.502-3.169) higher for females with only one child compared to females without children. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 2.696 times (RRR 2.696; 95% CI: 1.957-3.714) higher for females with 2 children relative to females without children. Additionally, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 3.096 times (RRR 3.096; 95% CI: 2.087-4.592) higher for females with 3 children compared to females without children, while, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 3.405 times (RRR 3.405; 95% CI: 2.087-5.555) higher for females with 4 children compared to females without children. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 2.423 times (RRR 2.423; 95% CI: 1.504-3.905) higher for females with 5+ children relative to females without children.

Furthermore, when holding other variables constant, occasional type of employment and the number of children was statistically significant with p-values less than 0.05. The results indicated that the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 2.467 times (RRR 2.467; 95% CI: 1.533-3.968) higher for females with only one child compared to females without children. On the other hand, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 2.890 times

(RRR 2.890; 95% CI: 1.792-4.657) higher for females with 2 children relative to females without children. Furthermore, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 2.344 times (RRR 2.344; 95% CI: 1.311-4.191) higher for females with 3 children compared to females without children. Moreover, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 3.345 times (RRR 3.345; 95% CI: 1.807-6.190) higher for females with 4 children compared to females without children. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 2.160 times (RRR 2.160; 95% CI: 1.163-4.011) higher for females with 5+ children relative to females without children.

With reference to marital status, the categories were significantly related to the type of employment secured by females. The unadjusted model in Table 4.2 (page 59) indicated that the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 1.375 times (RRR 1.375; 95% CI: 1.122-1.685) higher for females in union compared to females that were not in union, while the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 3.514 times (RRR 3.514; 95% CI: 2.557-4.828) higher for females that separated with their partners compared to females that are not in union when other variables are held constant.

Furthermore, the above unadjusted model shown in table 4.2 indicated that the relative risk ratio of females to be seasonally employed compared to being unemployed was 1.571 times (RRR 1.571; 95% CI: 1.122-2.203) higher for females that are in union compared to females who were not in union with other variables held constant. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 2.873 times (RRR 2,873; 95% CI: 1.738-4.750) higher among females that separated with their partners compared to females that are not in union with other variables held constant.

Additionally, the findings of this study also highlighted that when holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 2.008 times (RRR 2.008; 95% CI:1.237-3.261) higher for females in union compared to females who were not in union, while the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 4.338 times (RRR 4.338; 95% CI: 2.491-7.554) higher for females that separated with their partners relative to females that were not in union with other variables held constant.

Despite some of the region categories not being significant determinants of employment among females, most of them had a noteworthy p-value which was less than 0.05. Therefore, the unadjusted model indicated that the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.504 times (RRR 0.504; 95% CI 0.376-0.677) lower for females from the Eastern Cape Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province with other variables held constant. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.442 times (RRR 0.442; 95% CI: 0.317-0.616) lower for females from the Northern Cape Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. On the other hand, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.474 times (RRR 0.474; 95% CI: 0.356-0.632) lower for females from the Free State Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province.

Moreover, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.391 times (RRR 0.391; 95% CI: 0.289-0.529) lower for females from KwaZulu-Natal Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Furthermore, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.479 times (RRR 0.479; 95% CI: 0.349-0.657) lower for females from the North West Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. While, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.676 times (RRR 0.676; 95% CI 0.492-0.928) lower for females from the Gauteng Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Additionally, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.464 times (RRR 0.464; 95% CI: 0.342-0.630) lower for females from Mpumalanga Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.404 times (RRR 0.404; 95% CI: 0.297-0.549) lower for females from Limpopo Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province with other variables held constant.

Even though the unadjusted model indicates that the relationship between seasonal employment and North West Province was not significant, there were differences of the relative risk ratios among other region categories that were significant with a p-value less than 0.05. As such, the unadjusted model (page 58) indicates that when other variables are held constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.567 times (RRR 0.567; 95% CI0.336-0.956) lower for females from the

Eastern Cape Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.554 times (RRR 0.554; 95% CI: 0.318-0.966) lower for females from the Northern Cape Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province.

The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.292 times (RRR 0.292; 95% CI: 0.166-0.513) lower for females from the Free State Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Likewise, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.436 times (RRR 0.436; 95% CI: 0.279-0.682) lower for females from KwaZulu-Natal Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Furthermore, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.534 times (RRR 0.534; 95% CI 0.318-0.892) lower for females from the Gauteng Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. In addition, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.600 times (RRR 0.600; 95% CI: 0.383-0.939) lower for females from Mpumalanga Province relative to females from the Western Cape Province. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to not being employed was 0.516 times (RRR 0.516; 95% CI: 0.323-0.824) lower for females from Limpopo Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province

The relationship between occasional employment and region had three categories that were not significant, these provinces were; Northern Cape, Gauteng and Limpopo with a p-value greater than 0.05. However, other categories of region were significant. When other variables are held constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 0.448 times (RRR 0.448; 95% CI: 0.261-0.769) lower for females from the Eastern Cape compared to females from the Western Cape Province. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 0.386 times (RRR 0.386; 95% CI: 0.193-0.769) lower for females from the Free State Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 0.317 times (RRR 0.317; 95% CI 0.169-0.596) lower for females from the KwaZulu-Natal Province relative to females from the Western Cape Province. Additionally, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 0.363 times (RRR 0,363; 95% CI: 0.176-0.751) lower for females from the North West Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally

compared to being unemployed was 0.536 times (RRR 0.536; 95% CI: 0.306-0.940) lower for females from Mpumalanga Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province.

Furthermore, the relationship between native language and employment indicated that some categories in relation to employment were not significant. With reference to Full-time employment, other languages were not significant while African languages were significant. Therefore, when holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.523 times (RRR 0.523; 95% CI: 0.425-0.644) lower for females who spoke African languages compared to females who spoke English language. On the other hand, when holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 2.142 times (RRR 2.142; 95% CI: 1.135-4.040) higher for females who spoke other languages compared to females who spoke English language. With reference to seasonal employment, African languages were not statistically significant. Lastly, when holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 3.495 times (RRR 3.495; 95% CI: 1.798-6.795) higher for females who spoke other languages compared to females who spoke English language.

Table 4.3: Unadjusted multinomial regression between each socio-economic characteristics and type of employment done by females aged 15-49 years in South Africa.

	UNEMPLOYED R.C	FULL-TIME			SEASONAL			OCCASIONAL		
Socio-economic Factors		**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**	**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**	**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**
Type of Residence										
Urban		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Rural		0.480	0.000	0.404-0.571	0.967	0.815	0.726-1.286	0.594	0.003	0.420-0.840
Level of Education										
No education		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Primary education		0.734	0.142	0.486-1.109	1.162	0.801	0.361-3.736	1.519	0.427	0.541-4.270
Secondary education		0.984	0.935	0.673- 1.441	1.143	0.815	0.373-3.506	0.996	0.993	0.402-2.468
Higher		4.459	0.000	2.925- 6.798	1.716	0.373	0.523-5.633	1.614	0.359	0.580-4.494

Table 4.3displays the relationship between the type of employment and each socio-economic factor among females 15- 49 years old, in South Africa, 2016.Unemployed was used as a reference category because most females in South Africa were not employed in 2016. Therefore, other types of employment will be compared to unemployed females.

The above-unadjusted model under table 4.3showsthat there is a significant relationship between the type of place of residence against full-time and occasional employment. However, the relationship between the type of place of residence and seasonal employment was not significant. Therefore, when holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time employment compared to being unemployed was 0.480 times (RRR 0.480; 95% CI: 0.404-0.571) lower for females from rural areas compared to females from urban areas, while the relative risk ratio of being occasionally employed compared to being unemployed was 0.594 times (RRR 0.594; 95% CI: 0.420-0.840) lower for females from the rural areas compared to females from the urban areas.

Additionally, table 4.3, unadjusted model, indicates that there is no significant relationship between all other categories of education and type of employment except for higher education and full-time employment. Therefore, when holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of being full-time employed compared to being unemployed was 4.459 times (RRR 4.459; 95% CI: 2.925-6.798) higher among females with higher education compared to females with no education.

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Table 4.4: Unadjusted multinomial regression between each household characteristics and type of employment done by females aged 15-49 years in South Africa, 2016.

	UNEMPLOYED R.C	FULL-TIME			SEASONAL			OCCASIONAL		
Household Factors		**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**	**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**	**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**
Wealth Index										
Poor		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Middle		1.619	0.000	1.326- 1.978	0.900	0.516	0.655-1.237	1.207	0.464	0.729-1.996
Rich		2.849	0.000	2.345-3.463	0.880	0.392	0.657-1.179	1.499	0.037	1.026-2.190
Household size										
≤ mean		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
> mean		0.484	0.000	0.416 -0.563	0.626	0.000	0.491-0.798	0.796	0.218	0.554-1.144
Relationship to Head										
Head		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Spouse		0.763	0.002	0.644-0.905	0.677	0.028	0.478-0.958	0.925	0.753	0.568-1.506
Child		0.274	0.000	0.226-0.332	0.415	0.000	0.293-0.590	0.514	0.007	0.317-0.831
Other		0.238	0.000	0.196-0.288	0.373	0.000	0.253-0.550	0.544	0.024	0.321-0.922

Table 4.4 indicates the relationship between the type of employment and each household factor among females 15-49 years old in South Africa, 2016. The unadjusted model indicates that there is a significant relationship between wealth index and type of employment secured by females. With reference to wealth index and holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time employment compared to being unemployed was 1.619 times (RRR 1.619, 95% CI: 1.326-1.978) higher for females from middle class compared to females from poor class, while the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time employment compared to being unemployed was 2.849 times (RRR 2.849, 95% CI: 2.345-3.463) higher for females from the rich class compared to females from the poor class. However, the relationship between wealth index and seasonal employment was not significant. The case was similar to occasional employment and middle class category, the findings were not significant. Meanwhile, the relationship between rich class and occasional employment was significant. While, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 1.499 times (RRR 1.499, 95% CI: 1.026-2.190) higher for females from the rich class compared to females from the poor class when other variables are held constant.

Household size number and type of employment also had significant categories as presented in the unadjusted model under table 4.2.3. As such, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.484 times (RRR 0.484; 95% CI: 0.416-0.563) lower for females from household size number which was greater than the mean of 5 compared to females from household size number which was smaller than or equal to the mean of 5 when the other variables are held constant. On the other hand, the relative risk ratio of females to be seasonally employed compared to being unemployed was 0.626 times (RRR 0.626; 95% CI: 0.491-0.798) lower for females from household size number greater than the mean of 5 compared to females from household size number smaller than or equal to the mean of 5. The relationship between occasional employment and household size number was not statistically significant when other variables are held constant.

Lastly, table 4.4 indicates that when holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.763 times (RRR 0.763; 95% CI: 0.644-0.905) lower for the spouse of the household head compared to heads of the household, while the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.274 times (RRR 0.274; 95% CI: 0.226-0.332) lower for children of the household head compared to heads of the household. Additionally, the relative risk

ratio of females to be employed full-time employment compared to being unemployed was 0.238 times (RRR 0.238; 95% CI: 0.196-1.288) lower for females with other relationships to the household head compared to heads of the household when holding other variables constant.

When holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonal compared to being unemployed was 0.677 times (RRR 0.677; 95% CI: 0.478-0.958) lower for the spouse of the household head compared to heads of the household. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonal compared to being unemployed was 0.415 times (RRR 0.415; 95% CI: 0.293-0.590) lower for the children of the household head compared to heads of the household. Additionally, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonal compared to being unemployed was 0.373 times (RRR 0.373; 95% CI: 0.253-0.550) lower for those with other relationships to the household head compared to heads of the household. Even though the relationship between occasional employment and spouse category of household head relationship was not significant, other categories remained significant. Therefore, when holding other variables constant, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasional compared to being unemployed was 0.514 times (RRR 0.514; 95% CI: 0.317-0.831) lower for the children of the household head compared to females who are the heads of the household. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasional compared to being unemployed was 0.544 times (RRR 0.544; 95% CI: 0.321-0.922) lower among females with other relationships to the household compared to females who are the heads of the household when other variables held constant.

Table 4.5: Adjusted multinomial regression between demographic, socio-economic and household characteristics and type of employment done by females aged 15-49 years in South Africa, 2016.

	UNEMPLOYED R.C	FULL-TIME			SEASONAL			OCCASIONAL		
Characteristics		**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**	**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**	**RRR**	**P-Value**	**Conf.Interval**
Age										
15-19		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
20-24		11.378	0.000	5.990-21.612	4.677	0.000	2.299-9.515	7.122	0.000	3.064-16.554
25-29		29.527	0.000	15.048-57.935	9.588	0.000	4.450-20.659	8.827	0.000	3.460-22.517
30-34		43.588	0.000	22.766-83.457	10.362	0.000	4.546-23.617	10.415	0.000	3.968-27.339
35-39		48.025	0.000	24.697-93.385	9.903	0.000	4.146-23.656	10.902	0.000	4.038-29.430
40-44		52.318	0.000	27.070-101.114	10.930	0.000	4.479-26.673	12.550	0.000	4.590-34.312
45-49		64.662	0.000	32.438-128.900	12.078	0.000	5.334-27.348	14.174	0.000	4.759-42.213
Number of Children										
0		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
1		1.146	0.275	0.897-1.465	0.946	0.798	0.619-1.445	1.117	0.672	0.670-1.861
2		1.151	0.293	0.885-1.498	0.899	0.603	0.600-1.345	1.049	0.864	0.606-1.817
3		0.838	0.239	0.624-1.125	0.897	0.675	0.538-1.495	0.719	0.389	0.339-1.525

4		0.744	0.121	0.512-1.081	1.026	0.937	0.539-1.953	0.940	0.873	0.440-2.008
5+		0.496	0.002	0.319-0.771	0.775	0.416	0.419-1.432	0.585	0.205	0.255-1.342
Marital status										
Not in union		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
In union		1.130	0.317	0.889-1.437	1.201	0.310	0.843-1.712	1.502	0.084	0.947-2.382
Separated		2.083	0.000	1.463-2.965	1.647	0.055	0.990-2.738	2.612	0.001	1.453-4.697
Region										
Western Cape		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Eastern Cape		0.990	0.949	0.726-1.349	0.595	0.082	0.331-1.068	0.563	0.055	0.313-1.0117
Northern Cape		0.528	0.001	0.365-0.765	0.449	0.007	0.250-0.806	0.593	0.097	0.319-1.099
Free State		0.603	0.002	0.439-0.828	0.283	0.000	0.156-0.515	0.368	0.006	0.181-0.749
KwaZulu Natal		0.659	0.010	0.479-0.907	0.465	0.004	0.276-0.782	0.433	0.014	0.222-0.843
North West		0.814	0.235	0.579-1.144	1.212	0.496	0.696-2.11	0.415	0.021	0.196-0.877
Gauteng		0.870	0.403	0.629-1.205	0.516	0.018	0.298-0.894	0.659	0.133	0.383-1.136
Mpumalanga		0.906	0.572	0.642-1.277	0.615	0.068	0.365-1.037	0.667	0.203	0.357-1.245
Limpopo		0.829	0.304	0.580-1.185	0.496	0.012	0.287-0.858	0.836	0.591	0.435-1.607
Type of Residence										
Urban		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		

Rural		0.858	0.165	0.691-1.065	0.947	0.765	0.662-1.355	0.734	0.156	0.478-1.125
Native Language										
English		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
African language		0.741	0.008	0.593-0.925	1.203	0.477	0 .722-2.003	1.742	0.066	0.964-3.148
Other		1.183	0.303	0.859-1.628	1.981	0.041	1.029-3.815	2.900	0.002	1.492-5.638
Level of Education										
No education		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Primary education		1.032	0.893	0.656-1.623	1.505	0.502	0.456-4.964	1.914	0.247	0.636-5.760
Secondary education		1.536	0.050	0.100-2.360	2.021	0.235	0.632-6.455	1.386	0.516	0.517-3.716
Higher		4.319	0.000	2.715- 6.870	2.639	0.126	0.762-9.139	1.613	0.398	0.531-4.900
Wealth Index										
Poor		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Middle		1.342	0.012	1.067-1.687	0.798	0.194	0.567-1.122	1.122	0.670	0.659-1.911
Rich		1.919	0.000	1.488-2.475	0.770	0.200	0.515-1.149	1.309	0.277	0.805-2.129
Household size										
≤ mean		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
> mean		0.890	0.221	0.738-1.073	0.762	0.045	0.584-0.994	1.073	0.747	0.700-1.643
Relationship to head										

Head		**R.C**			**R.C**			**R.C**		
Spouse		0.612	0.000	0.509-0.736	0.609	0.009	0.420-0.883	0.803	0.374	0.495-1.302
Child		0.541	0.000	0.427-0.687	0.841	0.442	0.541-1.308	0.897	0.704	0.512-1.572
Other		0.560	0.000	0.442-0.710	0.840	0.405	0.557-1.267	1.011	0.971	0.573-1.782

Table 4.5, above, displays the adjusted model of multinomial regression analysis between the demographic, socio-economic and household factors and the type of employment secured by females 15-49 years old. When including all the variables, the relationship between age and type of employment remained significant in the adjusted model and the relative risk ratio for each category remained high. The model indicates that with each additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 11.378 times (RRR 11.378; 95% CI: 5.990-21.612) higher for females 20-24 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. While the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 29.527 times (RRR 29.527; 95% CI: 15.048-57.935) higher for females 25-29 years old compared to females 15-19 years old.

The relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 43.588 times (RRR 43.588; 95% CI: 22.766-83.457) higher for females 30-34 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Furthermore, for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 48.025 times (RRR 48.025; 95% CI: 24.697-93.385) higher for females 35-39 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Additionally, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 52.318 times (RRR 52.318; 95% CI: 27.070-101.114) higher for females 40-44 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to unemployed was 64.662 times (RRR 64.662; 95% CI: 32.438-128.900) higher for females 45-49 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old.

When including all the variables, the findings of the study indicates that for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 4.677 times (RRR 4.677; 95% CI: 2.299-9.515) higher for females 20-24 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. While the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 9.588 times (RRR 9.588; 95% CI: 4.450-20.659) higher for females 25-29 years old compared to females 15-19 years old. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 10.362 times (RRR 10.362; 95% CI: 4.546-23.617) higher for females 30-34 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Moreover, for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonal compared to being unemployed was 9.903 times (RRR 9.903; 95% CI: 4.146-23.656) higher for females 35-39 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Additionally, the relative risk ratio

of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 10.930 times (RRR 10.930; 95% CI: 4.479-26.673) higher for females 40-44 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 12.078 times (RRR 12.078; 95% CI: 5.334-27.348) higher for females 45-49 years old compared to younger females aged 15-19 years old.

Lastly, the adjusted model indicates that, for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasional compared to being unemployed was 7.122 times (RRR 7.122; 95% CI: 3.064-16.554) higher for females 20-24 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. While the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 8.827 times (RRR 8.827; 95% CI: 3.460-22.517) higher for females 25-29 years old compared to females 15-19 years old. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 10.415 times (RRR 10.415; 95% CI: 3.968-27.339) higher for females 30-34 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Moreover, for every additional year of age, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 10.902 times (RRR 10.902; 95% CI:4.038-29.430) higher for females 35-39 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old. Furthermore, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 12.550 times (RRR 12.550; 95% CI:4.590-34.312) higher for females 40-44 years old relative to younger females aged 15-19 years old. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 14.174 times (RRR; 14.174; 95% CI: 4.759-42.213) higher for females 45-49 years old compared to younger females 15-19 years old.

However, the adjusted model indicated that when including all the variables in the model there was no significant relationship between the number of children and employment except for 5+ category and full-time employment. This means that when including all the variables, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.496 times (RRR 0.496; 95% CI: 0.319-0.771) lower for females with 5+ number of children compared to females with no children.

Table 4.5 shows that marital status in the adjusted model also had some insignificant categories when all variables were included. Some categories remained significant, therefore, the adjusted model displayed that with all the variables included, the relative risk ratio of

females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 2.083 (RRR 2.083; 95% CI: 1.463-2.965) higher among females who separated with their partners compared to females who were not in union, while the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 2.612 times (RRR 2.612; 95% CI: 1.453-4.697) higher for females who separated with their partners compared to females who were not in union.

With reference to region in the adjusted model of analysis, only three Provinces were significant and the rest were not significant with a p-value above 0.05. The significant Provinces were Northern Cape, Free State and KwaZulu Natal. Therefore, when including all the variables, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.528 times (RRR 0.528; 95% CI: 0.365-0.765) lower for females from the Northern Cape Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.603 times (RRR 0.603; 95% CI 0.439-0.828) lower among females from the Free State Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.659 times (RRR 0.659; 95% CI 0.479-0.907) lower among females from the KwaZulu-Natal Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province.

Additionally when including all the variables under seasonal employment, Eastern Cape, North West and Mpumalanga were not significant. However, when including all the variables, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.449 times (RRR 0.449; 95% CI 0.250-0.806) lower among females from the Northern Cape compared to females from the Western Cape Province. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.283 times (RRR 0.283; 95% CI 0.156-0.515) lower for females from the Free State Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Additionally, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.465 times (RRR 0.465; 95% CI 0.276-0.782) lower for females from the KwaZulu-Natal Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Furthermore, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally compared to being unemployed was 0.516 times (RRR 0.516; 95% CI 0.298-0.894) lower for females from the Gauteng Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonally

compared to being unemployed was 0.496 times (RRR 0.496; 95% CI 0.287-0.858) lower for females from the Limpopo Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province.

Moreover, when including all the variables in the above table 4.5 adjusted model under occasional employment, only Free State, KwaZulu-Natal and North West categories were significant with a p-value less than 0.05. As such, when including all the variables, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 0.368 times (RRR 0.368; 95% CI 0.181-0.749) lower among females from the Free State Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 0.433 times (RRR 0.433; 95% CI 0.222-0.843) lower for females from the KwaZulu-Natal Province relative to females from the Western Cape Province. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasionally compared to being unemployed was 0.415 times (RRR 0.415; 95% CI 0.196-0.877) lower for females from the North West Province compared to females from the Western Cape Province.

When including all the variables in the adjusted model, the relationship between type of place of residence and type of employment was not significant with a p-value greater than 0.05. Despite other language categories that were not statistically significant, African languages and full-time employment as well as other languages with seasonal and occasional employment remained significant. As shown in the above adjusted model in table 4.2.4, when including all the variables the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.741 times (RRR 0.741; 95% CI 0.593-0.925) lower for females who spoke African languages compared to females who spoke the English language. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonal compared to being unemployed was 1.981 times (RRR 1.981; 95% CI 1.029-3.815) higher for females who spoke other languages compared to females who spoke the English language. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed occasional compared to being unemployed was 2.900 times (RRR 2.900; 95% CI 1.492-5.638) higher for females who spoke other languages compared to females who spoke the English language.

As shown in table 4.2.4 adjusted model, only one category under the level of education was significant and the rest were not statistically significant with a p-value above 0.05. As a result, when including all the variables in the model, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 4.319 times (RRR 4.319; 95% CI

2.715-6.870) higher for females with higher education compared to females with no education.

On the other hand, when all the variables are included, full-time employment and wealth index was significant while other types of employment were not significant. Therefore, when all the variables are included, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to unemployed was 1.342 times (RRR 1.342; 95% CI 1.067-1.687) higher among females from middle class compared to females from poor class, while the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to unemployed was 1.919 times (RRR 1.919; 95% CI 1.488-2.475) higher for females from rich class compared to females from poor class.

The findings of the study indicated that when all the variables are included in the adjusted model, there was no significant relationship between household size number and the type of employment. However, when all the variables are included there was a significant relationship between full-time employment and relationship with the household head. As such, when all the variables are included in the above adjusted model, this study found that the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.612 times (RRR 0.612; 95% CI 0.509-0.736) lower for females who were spouse to the household head compared to heads of the household. The relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.541 times (RRR 0.541; 95% CI 0.427-0.687) lower for the children of the household head compared to heads of the household. Lastly, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed full-time compared to being unemployed was 0.560 times (RRR 0.560; 95% CI 0.442-0.710) lower for females with other relationships to the household head compared to heads of the household. Furthermore, only spouse category was significant under seasonal employment. This signifies that when including all the variables, the relative risk ratio of females to be employed seasonal compared to unemployed was 0.609 times (RRR 0.609; 95% CI 0.420-0.883) lower among those who are spouse to the household head relative to female heads of the household.

To sum up this study's findings, age as a main variable of the study was significant in both the adjusted and unadjusted models. However, other variables such as number of children changed from being significant in the unadjusted model to insignificant in the adjusted model of analysis. The variables included; household size number and type of place of residence. Some variables had categories that were significant in the unadjusted and not significant in

the adjusted model. The variables included region, education, marital status, language, relationship to the household head and wealth index.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The South African unemployment rate continues to increase each year. Youth aged 15-34 years are mostly excluded from labour force participation (Stats SA, 2019). The South African quarterly labour force survey (2019) highlighted that there are more than 4 unemployed in every 10 young females in the country. However, some females are non-standard workers, seasonally and occasionally employed to sustain a living and improve their socio-economic status (Theron, 2014). Lack of employment for females contributes to the country's high rates of poverty and lack of social development (Ogungbenle et al., 2013; Swartz, 2009). As such, this study aimed at investigating South Africa's levels, prominent types of employment and to identifying how age is a main variable associated with employment among females 15-49 years old. Furthermore, the study identified some of the demographic, socioeconomic and household factors that are associated with employment in South Africa. This will help conscientize the South African employment policies such as the BBBEE and researchers about the structural factors such as age and other demographic, socio-economic and household factors associated with employment among females in the country. Identifying these structural factors will help the South African government to develop strategic ways of promoting full-time labour force participation for females with hope to improve the country's social and economic development.

The main question of the study provoked an exploration of the relationship between the socio-demographic-household factors and type of employment among females age 15-49 years in South Africa. Therefore, the relationship between the socio-demographic-household factorsand type of employment was important for the study. With regards to age, the bivariate analysis of the study was in support of the South African statistics 2019, stating that 15-34 years is the most vulnerable age group excluded from the labour force participation. This was evident in the bivariate analysis which indicated that they were 3923 females aged 15-34 years unemployed relative to 1311 females aged 35-49 years unemployed. One of the reasons contributing to unemployment among females from the age group 15-34 years is the youth transitioning (Fox, Senbet & Simbanegavi, 2016). The South African youth has developed a positive self and they want to acquire a tertiary level of education (Fox et al., 2016). This can be supported by studies that examined student's mobilisations for accessing higher education (Langa, Ndelu, Edwin, & Vilakazi, 2017; SAHO, 2013). Most of the young females within

the ages 15-34 years spend their time studying which keeps them away from full-time labour force participation (Fox et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the findings obtained in the study indicated that 1261 females aged 15-34 years were mostly full-time employed compared to 1302 females aged 35-49 years. However, more females aged 15-34 years were seasonal (286 females) and occasionally (149) employed relative to 185 (seasonal) and 98 (occasional) females aged 35-49 years. This was congruent with literature stating that young females are mostly full-time students studying, which influences them to engage in seasonal and occasional employment while females above the ages 35 are likely to be full-time employed due to family responsibility (De Lannoy et al., 2018; Ward, Makusha, & Bray, 2015).Therefore, older females engage in full-time employment because they have dependents to financially provide for (De Lannoy et al., 2018; Ward et al., 2015; Rossouw et al., 2012). Some females choose to engage in occasional due to further education or internship to gain work experience (De Lannoy et al., 2018). This means that some females work occasional or seasonally firstly to gain the required skills for a full-time type of employment.

However, education is not the only reason influencing South African young females 15-34 years old to be unemployed and, being employed in seasonal and occasional work more, compared to other age groups. It is also believed that the South African government does not have enough jobs contributing to high rates of youth unemployment (De Lannoy et al., 2018). A high number of young females obtain their degrees in their late 20s but fail to get employment until they become a discourage working age (De Lannoy et al., 2018, Stats SA, 2018). On the other hand, youth without higher education and necessary skills search for financial stability through securing employment in domestic work (Sekhampu, 2013). Domestic work can either be seasonal or occasional employment. For instance, females called to come and work during special seasons such as Christmas and birthdays or once a day in a week (Sekhampu, 2013). The potential effect of such seasonal or occasional type of employment is the cycle of poverty (Sekhampu, 2013). Remuneration for occasional and seasonal domestic work cannot sustain a living. Females doing this kind of work struggle to take their children to school or providing the basic needs (Sekhampu, 2013). This perpetuates the cycles of poverty within that same family; children are also likely to grow up poor without education or necessary skills required to do standard type of employment.

Significantly, the findings of this study indicate that, in South Africa, age has a major influence on employment among females 15-49 years old. Every age group category was significant with a p-value of (0.000). This was both in the adjusted and unadjusted model as shown in table 4.2 (page 57) and 4.4 (page 72). Every additional year of age revealed much higher risk ratios of engaging in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment compared to being unemployed among all age groups relative to younger females aged 15-19 years. This means that the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment increases with age. This finding was supported by one of the South African studies that stated that an increase in age is associated with a high number of skills, knowledge and experience (Berker, 2015). This increases the opportunities for fully engaging in labour force participation rather than being unemployed. In addition, these findings replicate what was reported by other studies that females within the ages 18-45 years spend most of their time engaging in productive work as compared to their older and younger counterparts (Budlender, 2010). The older females get the more they are financially independent and most likely to emotionally and financially cater for their families (Rost, Hunt, Samman & Samuels, 2018).Therefore, for financial freedom, as females grow older, they become actively involved in full-time labour force participation (Rost et al., 2018). The study also confirms that females of all ages also have higher relative risk of engaging in seasonal and occasional type of employment. Most of seasonal and occasional type of employment do not have or have limited trade unions leaving them vulnerable to exploitation (Fouri, 2008). In South Africa excluding females from labour legislation can be seen as discrimination and violation human rights (Fourie, 2008).

In South Africa, young people between the ages of 15 and 18 years are not allowed to working certain jobs that are considered inappropriate because they might lead to emotional, social or physical harm (International Labour Organization, 2018). As such, some companies chose to not employ young people to avoid being against the law. However, when females grow to their legal age, they have more freedom to choose to work full-time to sustain a living. Contrary, there are findings from a different study stating that the rate of engaging in full-time labour force among females decline as they grow older (Erb, 2011). One of the contributing factors leading to a decline is, when females grow older they turn to have domestic responsibilities such as cleaning, taking care of children and washing (Erb, 2011). These responsibilities influence females to cut down the number of hours they spend at work

(Erb, 2011). As a result, females tend to go for seasonal and occasional employment to cater for domestic work.

Additional to the major findings of this study, there was a significant relationship between the number of children and employment among females in South Africa. However, this was only present in the unadjusted model while the results became insignificant in the adjusted model. The unadjusted model results indicated that females with one or more children have a higher relative risk ratio of securing full-time, seasonal or occasional employment rather than being unemployed. One of the studies in support of this study findings reported that having more children can be financially demanding, which influences females to actively engage in full-time labour participation or any temporary opportunities available for them (Rossouw et al., 2012). Again, older women with more children are viewed as more experience and responsible. This increases chances of older females with more children to be full-time employed. On the other hand the International Labour Office (2015) supports that female with children seek for seasonal or occasional employment to supplement their income or in the hope that such employment will lead to a full-time employment. Actively engaging in the labour force helps females meet the financial demands of raising their children, especially female-headed households (Rossouw et al., 2012). However, another study highlighted that there is a challenge faced by females, that is; high fertility influences females to cut down the number of hours spent at work to have time dedicated for looking after their children (Zhang, 2017). Therefore, females with children are likely to engage in seasonal and occasional employment with a limited duration of time (Zhang, 2017). Additionally, there are studies that found that high fertility is associated with a decline of female labour force participation due to responsibilities such as taking care of children (Zeng & Hesketh, 2016; Wang, Zhao, & Zhao, 2017; Zhang, 2017). In most African countries like South Africa, the traditional understanding of gender roles does not allow females with children to fully engage in full-time employment (Mpondo et al., 2019). It is culturally believed that the sole role of females is to take care of children as well as their husbands (Mpondo et al., 2019). Such factors influence females, not to actively engage in employment.

With regards to region, the study found that the relative risk ratio of being employed full-time, seasonal and occasional compared to being unemployed decreased in all of the South African Provinces relative to the Western Cape Province. This means that all the South African Provinces have lesser opportunities for full-time, seasonal and occasional employment. One of the contributing factors is the nationwide high rate of unemployment

(Stats SA, 2016). Surprisingly, Gauteng and Western Cape also indicated a decline in all 3 forms of employment. These are Provinces mostly recognised for contributing to the country's gross domestic product (GDP) (Stats SA, 2016). Literature supports that Gauteng and Western Cape Provinces have higher full-time as well as occasional employment opportunities (Business Insider, 2019; Mncayi, 2016). However, the study results highlighted a decrease in all forms of employment among females. Lack of employment opportunities affects the country's economic welfare and social instability (Mncayi, 2016). Some females end up engaging in criminal activities such as shop lifting to sustain a living (Mncayi, 2016).

High employment opportunities can be supported by the number of people who migrate from other Provinces to find employment in Gauteng or Western Cape Provinces (Button, 2016). However, it is important to note findings from other studies stating that the 2 Provinces are highly populated which makes it a challenge to cater for the employment of everyone (Thoka& Geyer, 2019). Gauteng is one of the smallest Provinces in South Africa yet mostly populated with 27.5% of South Africa's unemployed population (Stats SA, 2019). It is also important to note that females in Gauteng and Western Cape Provinces remain excluded from engaging in full-time labour participation due to gender inequalities (Button, 2016; Van Rensburg, Claassen & Fourie, 2019).This explains the lower relative risk of securing employment in these Provinces. Another major finding identified is that there was a decline in seasonal employment among females in Limpopo and Eastern Cape Provinces. Aphane, Dzivakwi and Jacobs (2010) reported that in Limpopo and Eastern Cape farming is the main livelihood strategy. A study conducted in these two Provinces combined highlighted that farming livelihood is highly encouraged and females are empowered to participate in it to eradicate poverty (Aphane et al., 2010). Therefore, females are likely to secure seasonal employment such as planting and ploughing crops for farmers (Williams & Pompa, 2017).

Importantly related to the regions, the results of this study also confirmed that there is a lower relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time and occasional employment among females from rural areas compared to females from urban areas. Several studies support that most females from rural areas are unemployed due to lack of employment opportunities (Wilkinson et al., 2017; Tele, 2017). Despite the insignificant relationship between rural and seasonal employment, other studies highlighted that most rural areas are dominated by seasonal employment compared to full-time (Aphane et al., 2010; Stats SA, 2012). Agriculture is a leading means of food production and employing industry in most rural areas because the

vegetables produced by farmers are for commercial rather than subsistence (Aphane et al., 2010).

The lower relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time employment among females from rural areas exposes the existing inequalities in South Africa. Females from rural areas are still spatially separated from urban areas with higher rates of employment opportunities (Wilkinson et al., 2017). Females from rural areas in Mpumalanga are still faced with higher unemployment rates and some are seasonally exploited for low pay and remain low skilled (Altman, Hart, & Jacobs, 2015; Wilkinson et al., 2017a). Furthermore, there has been a shortage of agricultural resources, mostly affecting farmers to continue engaging in commercial farming which promotes employment among females from rural areas (Khapayi & Celliers, 2016). Factors such as poor infrastructure, transportation and marketing skills also hinder productive farming mostly in rural areas (Khapayi & Celliers, 2016). As such, farmers do not have enough job opportunities to provide for people, which is the reason why poverty remains the most in rural areas compared to their urban counterparts (Altman et al., 2015).

Other results of the study include the relationship between language and employment but only full-time employment was significant. This study's findings indicated that, in South Africa, there is a significant decline in full-time employment among females who speak African languages compared to English speakers. The findings of this study indicated that the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time employment compared to being unemployed decreases by 48% among females who speak African languages relative to English speakers. Contrary to this study, the international labour office indicated that natives are likely to have better employment opportunities compared to non-natives because they can speak Native and English languages (International Labour Office, 2016). Despite the insignificant results between other languages and employment in the current study, most migrants who speak other languages are likely to attract temporary agencies and do temporary work also classified as occasional (International Labour Office, 2016). English remains the most powerful language in most African countries, as a result, increases the chances of employment (Mncayi, 2016).

Additionally,results of the study include wealth index, which only revealed a significant relationship between full-time employment and females from a rich and middle-class background. The study results indicated that the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time compared to being unemployed increases among those in the middle and rich class compared

to those in poor class background. Scholars have offered evidence to confirm that the middle and poor class are most financially independent and most likely to fight against patriarchal norms of gender roles (McGinn & Oh, 2017). Such independence and courage influences females from middle and rich class to fully engage in labour force compared to poor females who remain submissive to cultural gender role (McGinn & Oh, 2017). This means that most females from poor backgrounds believe in cultural gender roles where the husbands (males) financially provide while females are expected to take care of the family by doing housework (McGinn & Oh, 2017). In addition, previous research has shown that higher social class improves the likelihood for people to be employed (Lahtinen, Sirniö, & Martikainen, 2018). Social class is associated with a higher likelihood of getting quality education which automatically qualifies one for full-time employment (Lahtinen et al., 2018). Despite the insignificant results of occasional and seasonal employment, there is a study which stated that some companies prefer employing poor people occasionally or part-time to avoid what is known as "hassle factor" mostly from permanent employees (Leibbrandt, Woolard, McEwen, & Koep, 2010). Hassle factor refers to obstacles hindering employees from effectively doing their work (Leibbrandt et al., 2010). Poor people normally do not have the necessary skills to perform the job. As a result, they are likely to be employed occasionally or seasonally to avoid the hassle factor (Leibbrandt et al., 2010).

Findings of the relationship between the level of education and employment were not expected. Both in the adjusted and unadjusted models, the results of the study were not significant except for the higher education category and full-time employment. The results indicated that the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time employment compared to being unemployed increased by 346% among females with higher education compared to females with no education. Most of the studies highlighted under literature of this study were in support of how education plays a role in increasing female labour force participation (Donohue & Bornman, 2014; Harber & Mncube, 2011). The studies mostly agreed that females with higher education have demanding careers that influence them to fully engage in the labour force (Donohue &Bornman, 2014; Harber & Mncube, 2011). The relationship between higher education and employment was also supported by one of the studies indicating that females with higher education are fully employed often in white-collar jobs (Swati, 2016) The study further highlighted that females with higher education turn to specialize and most of their careers require 8 hours full-year schedule with flexibility of applying for a leave (Swati, 2016).

However, a contrary study indicated that educated females are also likely to take formal jobs with a limited duration (Chatterjee, Desai, & Vanneman, 2018). Limited duration mostly includes occasionally reporting to the office while working from home (Chatterjee et al., 2018). This is because some educated females prefer spending quality time with their children (Chatterjee et al., 2018). Therefore jobs with limited duration will allow them to spend time with their family, conducting household duties while earning for a living. Even though the current study found no relationship between other categories of education and employment, another study highlighted that females with no primary and secondary education engage mostly in occasional and seasonal employment (Didham & Paul, 2015). Children from disadvantaged backgrounds continue to be excluded from quality education (Spaull, 2013). This influences children to, later in life, engage in unstable occasional and seasonal employment. Additionally, the study confirms what other previous studies have also shown that poor quality of education pushes people out of labour force participation as compared to those with higher quality education (Lahtinen et al., 2018).

In light of the above discussion, the results of this study confirmed the assumptions of the theoretical framework used in the study. Anker and Knowles, 1978 as cited Khoury & Moghadam (1995) suggested a need to holistically consider other factors that influence females labour force participation. These factors included demography, culture and socio-economic. The study findings were in accordance with the theoretical framework because they were demographic and socio-economic factors that prove to be influential in determining female labour force participation. The demographic factors that were taken into account were age, marital status, region and number of children. All the demographic factors included influenced female labour force participation. Additionally, socio-economic factors such as education, type f place of residence and language also significantly influenced female labour force participation. However, they were categories that were not statistically significant for instance in education and type of place of residence. Some of the categories were only significant in the unadjusted model while insignificant in the adjusted model. The theoretical model needs to consider the instability of these factors. Furthermore, the theoretical framework needs to take into account the household factors and how they determine female labour force participation. This was evident in the study as household factors such as wealth index, household size number and relationship to the head of the household indicated significant results.

This study identified the relationship between some of the socio-demographic-household factors and type of employment among females in South Africa.. Therefore, the study added knowledge in research by quantitatively analysing the relationship between age and employment among females using multinomial regression analysis. Through publication, the results of the study will educate the public and the government about the factors that influence females labour force participation. Additionally, the BBBEE policy can utilise the study results to formulate strategic ways that will promote female labour force participation. By so doing, full-time female labour force participation will contribute to the promotion of the country's socio-economic development.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

More knowledge about the structures that contribute to a decline in full-time employment rates among females will help promote gender equality in South Africa. The promotion of gender equality will be in line with one of the global sustainable development goals that aim at ending discrimination against females and girls (Assembly, 2015). The results of this study exposed the existing inequalities in South Africa. Females from different Provinces, mostly rural areas, speaking African languages are still excluded from sustaining a living through full-time, seasonal or occasional employment. In South Africa, the exclusion of females from engaging in full-time, seasonal or occasional employment promotes the cycle of poverty, mostly affecting females (Aphane et al., 2010).

This means that the South African policymakers, researchers and the constitution could make progress in holistically considering the demographic, socio-economic and household factors reducing full-time employment among females. Addressing these structural factors will help South Africa to improve both socially and economically (Aphane et al., 2010). It will also help the South African government and the BBBEE policy to achieve its goals of restoring inequalities and injustices affecting the country's citizens (Ashraf et al., 2013). This will be in line with the White paper and the constitution of South Africa that both aim at ensuring equality and justice(Akala, 2018).Additionally, addressing these structural factors affecting females to engage in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment will help South Africa achieve the Sustainable Development Goals against the discrimination of females and girls(Assembly, 2015).

Additionally, the study has provided quantitative results on the relationship between the socio-demographic-household factors and employment among females 15-49 years old, in South Africa. These results will contribute to knowledge in research on determinants that contribute to a decrease and increase in full-time, seasonal and occasional female labour force participation. These determinants are categorised into demographic, socio-economic and household factors. As such, these results aim to conscientize the public, researchers, employment policies such as BBBEE and the constitution on how the exclusion of females from full-time employment contributes to poverty among females in South Africa. The study

also contributes to knowledge by highlighting some of the factors that influence females to engage in seasonal and occasional employment relative to full-time. For instance, the traditional and patriarchal understanding of what define females which still stands within the South African context (McGinn & Oh, 2017). Some societies still believe that it is culturally wrong for females to engage in full-time employment because their sole duty is to take care of children and household duties (McGinn & Oh, 2017).

This knowledge will be beneficiary to the BBBEE policy specifically, which aims at economically uplifting the South African citizens including females (Ashraf et al., 2013). The policy will be aware of the prominent types of employment as well as the association between age and employment among females 15-49 years old, in South Africa. This will help the BBBEE policy find alternative ways of promoting more females in full-time employment while reducing the unemployment rate among females in South Africa. Moreover, the results of the study contribute knowledge to the field of demography on the role of fertility in promoting female labour force participation. Existing literature supports that a high number of children reduced females labour force participation (Ashraf et al., 2013, Bloom et al., 2009). However, this study results indicated that females with 5 plus children are more likely to engage in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment. Such information may be considered when educating the public or demography students about fertility-related topics, for instance, the demographic dividend.

This study consisted of several strengths. Firstly, the study used the latest 2016 SADHS data set containing the latest demographic information for females 15-49 years old. Using the SADHS data set, this study managed to choose the type of employment categorised into full-time, seasonal, occasional and unemployment as the outcome variable. Whereas other studies engage in individual interviews to explore challenges associated with general employment among females in South Africa (Sinden, 2017). The second strength of this study was using quantitative method, specifically multinomial regression analysis to analyse the relationship between age and employment in South Africa, and identify demographic, socio-economic and household factors influencing female labour force in South Africa. Other studies utilised qualitative methods of analysing employment among females in South Africa such as thematic analysis (Sinden, 2017). Using quantitative methods will contribute knowledge to literature for future references.

Secondly, using quantitative methods (multinomial regression model) the study managed to identify that the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment compared to unemployed increases with an additional year of age while it decreases across South African Provinces, rural areas and households with more than 5 members. The study further identifies that the relative risk ratio of engaging in full-time employment also decreases by 48% (unadjusted) and 26% (adjusted) among African language female speakers compared to English speakers. Such information will help the BBBEE policy and the constitution in formulating programmes that will promote full-time rather than seasonal and occasional employment among females that speak African languages in South Africa. This will help promote equality and social justice in the country.

In light of the above, the study was successfully conducted and several significant results were drawn. The results identified that there are socio-demographic and household factors associated with type of employment among females in South Africa. These results will help improve the types of employment among South African female working-age through identifying the existing research gaps and programme implementation. This will come inform of study recommendations as highlighted below.

6.2 Recommendations

6.2.1. Future Research

More knowledge about the demographic, household and socio-economic factors that influence females to engage in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment will educate the BBBEE policy and the public. The demographic factors such as age, number of children and marital status increase the relative risk ratio of females being employed full-time than seasonal and occasional. While demographic factors such region decreases the relative risk ratio of females engaging in full-time than occasional and seasonal employment. Other socio-economic and household factors such as residence, household size number, language and relationship to household head decreases the relative ratio of females working full-time compared to seasonal and occasional. The study results sparks interest for future research using different models of analysis. Since the current study was only limited to a crossectional , the study supports more research to be conducted longitudinal and from a multi-level perspective. The longitudinal study will allow researchers to observe same females over time and detect any changes of employment together with the factors associated with the changes. Both the multi-level and longitudinal analysis will contribute knowledge to the public and

policymakers about the exact age and duration at which females are likely to engage in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment. The multilevel and longitudinal study will holistically provide information about the demographic factors and employment drawing from different levels such as individuals, households, community and policy implementation. This can be done using a longitudinal set of data source such as National Income Dynamics Surveys (NIDS) produced in waves. The longitudinal research will also help determine causality, whether or not the demographic, socio-economic and household factors cause females to engage in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment. The multi-level and longitudinal results will later be used to compare with the current study results to draw conclusions about the factors that influence different types of employment in South Africa..

Lastly, researchers can also make use of event history analysis to understand the exact age at which females engage in fulltime, seasonal and occasional employment. Findings of the study will further help us understand how age is a significant factor in determining the type of employment occupied by females in South Africa. Through publication, the findings will raise awareness to the society and policymakers about the exact first age of full-time, seasonal and occasional employment among females in South Africa. This will further increase awareness about the negatives associated with the exclusion of females from full-time employment which perpetuates poverty among females. Such findings will help South Africa to move away from promoting distorted development but a more balanced social and economic development.

Qualitative research approach will also be appropriate for future research. This form of research will allow for the exploration of an in-depth meaning about factors that influence females to be unemployed or engage in full-time, seasonal and occasional employment. A qualitative approach will also help in classifying whether these prominent types of employment done by females fall under informal or formal employment. This also opens an opportunity to include females above 49 years because the current study was only limited to ages 15-49 years. Findings can be obtained through interviewing individuals that meet the study criterion. Face to face interviews will give participants space and opportunity to highlight the challenges and factors that influence them to engage in these prominent types of employment. This will make the findings of the study more reliable as participants will be sharing and expressing thoughts from their personal experiences. Furthermore, findings can be compared to quantitative analysis to confirm the factors influencing prominent types of employment among females in South Africa.

6.2.2. Policy Implications.

It is important to recognise the efforts done by the BBBEE policy in ensuring economic empowerment for the Black South African citizens. The BBBEE policy aims at economically uplifting black females including those residing in the rural areas. As such, the BBBEE policy should invest more in creating stable full-time employment among females. In particular, females from across all South African Provinces, rural areas speaking African languages as well as females from households with more than 5 members. This can be done by formulating programmes that will allow enrichment of necessary skills required for quality and stable jobs. The BBBEE policy should formulate strategies against economically empowering females through seasonally and occasionally employment. These types of employment make females vulnerable to exploitation while some end up being discourage workers due to low remuneration. Seasonal and Occasional employment can be used by BBBEE policy as platform for females to gain work experience during training while they preparing for full-time employment.

Concerning females residing in rural areas, the BBBEE policy can work hand in hand with the department of agriculture, forestry and fisheries to empower females with agricultural skills. Ensuring that in every season there are resources and necessary crops to plant will help turn seasonal employment into full-time throughout the year. Therefore, there is a need for the BBBEE to encourage the department of agriculture, forestry and fisheries to invest more in resources and land to females residing in rural areas. This will promote full-time rather than seasonal employment and improve the standards of living of females residing in rural areas.

Government Gazette (2017) highlighted that limited emphasis is placed on promoting black females to own land and practice farming. Although the BBBEE policy tries its best to promote this, implementation is still a problem. Cultural and societal values still limit females from owning farms. As such, employment among females, specifically from rural areas continues to decrease. Due to traditional and societal beliefs, some females remain seasonally and occasionally employed to cater for household duties. This perpetuates poverty among females mostly from rural areas. Therefore, there is a need for the government to intervene in addressing the patriarchal and societal norms affecting females in South Africa. This can be achieved through community engagement and enforcing more laws aiming at ensuring more females in farm ownership.

The BBBEE policy promotes more job opportunities in rural areas. However, we still have a high number of unemployed females while some are engaging in seasonal farming. There is a need for the policy to identify new implementation strategies. The implementation strategies should enforce expanding investments into young Black female businesses. These businesses should ensure and guarantee; quality stable full-time employment among females located in rural areas.

The BBBEE policy also needs to continue working hand in hand with the department of education and invest in ensuring that the South African syllabus particularly in tertiary is in line with the quality types of employment available in South Africa. This will make it easier for the BBBEE policy to link females with quality employment they are trained for in schools. This particular focus should be given to schools mostly in rural areas where they remain excluded from full labour force participation.

The South African legislation and policies such as labour relations act, basic conditions of employment act, employment equity act and the skills development act aim at protecting and ensuring quality employment among South African citizens. There is a need to strengthen these laws particularly among females of working age. These legislations and policies should introduce and strengthen laws against any form of informal employment less than 24 hours a month. These include occasional and seasonal employment. These are types of employment that normally come with exploitation and low income, thereby perpetuating the cycle of poverty among females in South Africa. Other employment policies such as Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR), New Growth Path (NGP) and Employment Equity policy need to focus on helping females from poor communities with scarce skills. The scarce skills in South Africa could be health professionals, business analysts; social science professionals etc. Such skills will help females qualify for full-time relative to seasonal and occasional employment. This will also help boost the South African economy. The training can also be offered by the Youth Employment Service (YES) and the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) projects.

Finally, the study recommends bridging a gap between research and implementation of employment programmes. A needs assessments can be conducted to identify problems about the implementation of employment programme. As much as we have research being conducted and policies being introduced, the country is still faced with implementation problems. A need assessment will help identify existing problems from the service users.

This study will also be made available online for the public and researchers to read about policy and research implications.

The study results managed to fill in a gap identified in quantitative research about the types of employment among South African females. Researchers have done qualitative research exploring the experiences of females doing non-standard employment. This current study managed to use quantitative methods to identify the association between the socio-demographic-household factors and type of employment among females in South Africa. Literature has been added about factors that increases or decreases the relative risk ratio of females engaging in full-time, seasonal or occasional employment.

6.2.3. Limitations of the study

Secondary data is collected by other people, therefore, the researcher was only limited to the information provided in the SADHS survey. As such, there was no in-depth exploration of the research problem from the participants which might affect the validity of the study. The outcome variable of the study was not clearly defined by the SADHS 2016. Seasonal, occasional and all year type of employment do not distinguish between formal and informal sector. Therefore it was hard to determine the sector whether informal or informal of which females working all year, seasonal and occasional belonged to. Thus, the independent variables are only temporal factors associated with employment in South Africa. Secondly, all year type of employment is highly variable, the survey does not explain whether all year means full-time or part-time throughout the year. The study used a cross-sectional study design; therefore, the researcher could not determine causality between the variables. This limited the study from identifying the direction of the association between age and employment as well as other demographic, socio-economic and household factors. Additionally, this study was only limited to the working-age (15 to 49 years old) presented in the survey which excludes working ages from 50 to 64 years old. This also limited the number of frequencies per variable category. Lastly, the latest SADHS data was conducted in 2016, therefore, does not take into account any changes that took place after the survey.

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