An Assessment of Migrant/Non-migrant Differentials in Socio-Demographic Predictors of Employment Status, South Africa

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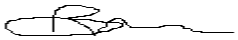
DECLARATION

I, Aphiwe Botiyana, hereby declare that this research report is my own work and has not been submitted before for any other degree or examination in any other university.

Signature: ...  .....Date: ...12/09/2021.....

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ABSTRACT

Background: Despite being one of the richest countries in Africa, South Africa has one of the highest unemployment rates in the world. Factors such as corruption, poor education system, and structural changes in the economy are attributable to high unemployment. As a result of high unemployment, the country has experienced xenophobic attacks. These attacks are based on the assertion that migrants take jobs from South Africans. Furthermore, not much has been done to understand the ways in which migrants and non-migrants differ in relation to employment status. Therefore, this study compared socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa.

Methods and Data: The study used the Statistics South Africa Census 2011 10% dataset. The study population included all economically-active individuals (15-64 years) in South Africa. The final sample size for the current study was 1 406 730 individuals of working age. The sample was disaggregated into 84319 migrants and 1 322 411 non-migrants. The predictor variables included sex, age, ethnicity, level of education, type of place of residence, and marital status. The outcome variable is employment status, which had three categories; formal employment, informal employment, and unemployment. Data analysis was performed using the statistical software Stata. Statistical analysis included univariate analysis, bivariate analysis, Pearson's chi-squared test and multinomial logistic regression models. Results were presented using graphs and tables.

Results: Overall, the association between socio-demographic factors and employment status was found to be statistically significant [$p \leq 0.05$]. Results indicated that levels of informal employment are very low among South Africans (9%) compared to migrants (24%). Tertiary education was found to offer more employment opportunities for South Africans than it does for migrants. Females were found to have fewer employment opportunities compared to males. However, South African females were found to have more employment opportunities compared to migrant females. Individuals who had been married were found to have more employment opportunities compared to those who had never been married. Migrants who were based in rural areas were found to have more employment opportunities compared to those based in urban areas.

Conclusion: The comparison between migrants and non-migrants revealed that there are important differences in the employment status of these two sub-populations groups.

Recommendations: The study recommended that the South African government should consider investing more resources on female education, and encourage entrepreneurship through effective channels in order to boost self-employment among South Africans.

Keywords: Employment Status, Unemployment, Migrants, Socio-demographic Factors

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

South Africa has one of the best performing economies in Africa, and as a result, it provides a lot of employment opportunities for those who possess the right skills. However, many South Africans, especially young blacks, have not yet sufficiently capitalised on this advantage; most young people remain unemployed and unemployable. This can be attributed to factors such as the poor education & training system, structural changes in the economy, corruption, and the HIV/AIDS epidemic, just to mention a few (Rasool & Botha, 2011). Moreover, the advent of the fourth industrial revolution (4IR) indicates that more skilled labour will be required since a significant portion of manual labour will be automated in industries such as mining, manufacturing, agriculture, and retail (Sutherland, 2020). Consequently, this will lead to more job losses and declining wages among individuals who do not possess the skills needed by the labour market, thus further exacerbating inequality in the country (Sutherland, 2020; Patel, Khan, & Englert, 2020).

Nevertheless, since South Africa is a migrant receiving destination, the country has been able to utilize skills coming outside of South Africa, albeit with many restrictions from the government (Rasool & Botha, 2011). Migrant labour has been playing an important role in the labour market for many years, especially in the mining industry. In the early 1990s, the inflow of immigrants grew quite significantly compared to the preceding years (Chamunorwa & Mlambo, 2014). This inflow of migrants came from different regions of the world, including Asia, West Africa, Southern Africa and East Africa (Chamunorwa & Mlambo, 2014). Therefore, over the past years, immigrants have been playing an important role of reducing the adverse effects of skills shortages on the economy of South Africa. Furthermore, it has been shown in studies that immigrants tend to be better educated, more entrepreneurial, and possess more innovative knowledge than their non-migrant counterparts. As a consequence, this places immigrants in a better position to get employment or to start their own enterprises (Nawrotzki, Hunter, & Dickson, 2012).

However, South Africa's unemployment rate has been on an uptrend since the 2008-2009 financial crises (Meyer, 2019). The current national unemployment rate is standing at 32.5

percent; one of the highest among middle income countries in the world (StatsSA, 2020; Meyer, 2019). The unemployment rate for those aged 15-24 is even worse at 63.2 percent (StatsSA, 2020). According to Statistics South Africa (2020), unemployment among the youth (15-24) is exceptionally high irrespective of level of education. In other words, educational attainment has not been adequately effective in reducing the growing unemployment among young people in South Africa. Conversely, those who are aged 55-64 were reported to have the lowest unemployment rate at 12.5 percent, albeit still high according to international standards (StatsSA, 2020).

Therefore, increasing levels of unemployment have led to frustrations among South Africans, these frustrations have led to resentment towards foreigners, especially undocumented African foreigners (Chamunorwa & Mlambo, 2014). The country has been consistently experiencing waves of xenophobic attacks since the first notable attacks in May 2008 to the recent ones in September 2019 (Sotonye & Tamunopubo, 2020). These attacks are motivated by, among other factors, the belief that immigrants take jobs from South Africans (Niyimbanira & Madzivhandila, 2016). More often than not, African immigrants tend be blamed for causing undesirable effects in the South African economy by flooding the labour market. African immigrants are also blamed for unduly competing with South Africans in an already crippling labour market, and that they are putting too much strain on the resources such as hospitals, land, and schools (Chamunorwa & Mlambo, 2014). Notwithstanding all of that, there is ample evidence showing that migrants create employment for South Africans, and that they have a net positive effect on the economy of the country (Nyimbanira & Madzivhandila, 2016; Ngota, Rajkaran, & Mang'unyi, 2019).

Therefore, in an attempt to understand the differences in employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa, the study compared the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. Comparing how socio-demographic factors differ in relation to employment status between migrants and non-migrants is crucial in revealing the socio-demographic factors that are responsible for the high unemployment among South Africans. These differences can also be useful in assisting policy makers and the government to effect targeted investments into aspects where South Africans lag

behind. As such, this will help to reduce the high unemployment rate that is currently facing South Africa.

Furthermore, since there is no universal definition of what constitutes an immigrant, this study used the definition by the International Organization for Migration (IOM). The International Organization for Migration defines an immigrant as any person who is outside the country/state they were born, or any person outside the country/state in which they are citizens. This definition includes individuals who intend to move permanently or temporarily (IOM, 2019). The Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights endorses this definition through its *Recommended Principles and Guidelines on Human Rights at International Borders* (2019). Lastly, due to challenges associated with collecting data on undocumented migrants, this study mainly focused on documented migrants in South Africa.

1.2 Problem Statement

High unemployment brings many problems such as increased levels of poverty, crime, political and socio-economic instability. Statistics South Africa (2020) reported that the unemployment rate was estimated to be around 32.5 percent in the fourth quarter of the year 2020. The youth (15-24) unemployment rate was estimated to be around 63.2 percent. In addition, black women were reported to be the most affected by unemployment (StatsSA, 2020). The problem of high unemployment in South Africa has led to political and social tensions within the country (Kalitanyi & Visser, 2010; Chamunorwa & Mlambo, 2014; Sotonye & Tamunopubo, 2020). The recurrence of violent attacks on African migrants and foreign shop owners is one of the manifestations arising out of frustrations from some South Africans (Kalitanyi & Visser, 2010). These South Africans see migration labour as one of the reasons behind high unemployment in the country.

Migrants, particularly undocumented migrants, are generally resistant to unionization, and this renders them more susceptible to exploitation by unethical employers (Solomon, 1994). The lack of unionization among migrants can also lead to migrants being alienated and vilified by the locals and politicians. Some migrants also have to contend with the risk of losing their work permits and jobs if their employers were to find out about their participation in any overt unionization (Solomon, 1994). South Africa has seen a rise in extreme right wing parties who

espouse anti-immigrant sentiments (Tamunopubo, 2020). One study showed that over 65% of South Africans held the view that undocumented migrants should never be granted police protection or rights to social security (Campbell, 2006). Additionally, over 90% of South Africans held the view that undocumented migrants should never be granted the voting right or freedom of speech (Campbell, 2006).

Some scholars argue that the inflow of migrant labour into South Africa should be embraced as it helps to reduce the challenges that the economy of the country is facing (Chamunorwa, 2014). As previously mentioned, skills shortage in South Africa is one of the reasons behind the sluggish economic growth that the country has been experiencing for the past couple of years. Also, skills shortage has a negative impact on the country's prospects of development and that will eventually lead to more people losing jobs and wages (Chamunorwa, 2014). A significant portion of migrants are highly entrepreneurial, which enables them to create new jobs for the country's unemployed population (Nyimbanira & Madzivhandila, 2016). Thus, hostility towards migrants could cause entrepreneurial migrants to be hesitant coming to South Africa, and that could lead into further economic crises and job losses.

According to Rasool and Botha (2011), South Africa has been having skills shortages for a very long time, and that the shortages are attributable to the poor education system that the government has implemented. Skills shortages have therefore led to high unemployment, especially among young people (Rasool & Botha, 2011). Many graduates leave universities without the necessary basic skills that are needed in the labour market, and thus, this makes it difficult for many graduates to be hired by employers (Rasool & Botha, 2011). On the other hand, studies have indicated that immigrants tend to possess better education and skills than their non-migrant counterparts, which increases their chances of getting employed or creating employment (Nawrotzki, Hunter, & Dickinson, 2012; Lopez, 2020).

As much as there is ample research focusing on the determinants of employment status in South Africa, but little is known about the differences in employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. This leads to misinformation and confusion about the role played by migrants, particularly African migrants, in the economy of the country. Therefore, in light of the aforementioned challenges, this study compares the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa.

1.3 Justification

This study contributes to literature by providing crucial differences in the employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. This is done through comparing socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants. Part of the reasons that are causing some South Africans to engage in xenophobic attacks could be the lack of evidence-based knowledge about the positive role played by immigrants in the economy. Evidence suggests that immigrants create employment and bring in skills that are needed by the country (Niyimbanira & Madzivhandila, 2016). Thus, they help in closing insidious gaps in the labour market and help to grow the economy. Subsequently, economic growth leads to more job creation, which in turn will be followed by a decline in the numbers of people who are unemployed. Therefore, highlighting employment status differences between migrants and non-migrants has the potential to help the government, policy makers, and the general public to understand the complementary role that immigrants can play in the labour market. Consequently, this might also assist in curbing the xenophobic attacks due to people starting to appreciate the positive contribution made by immigrants towards the economy of the country.

Furthermore, some studies (Niyimbanira & Madzivhandila, 2016; AboElsoud, AlQudah, & Elish, 2018; Lopez, 2020) have shown that immigrants tend to be better educated and more entrepreneurial than their non-migrant counterparts. This could be explained by the selectivity of migration; the idea that the decision to migrate often fits into a predictable pattern based on age, sex, income, education, and other demographic and socio-economic factors (Weeks, 2011). Moreover, studies conducted in South Africa (Ngota, Rajkaran, & Mang'unyi, 2019; Kalitanyi & Visser, 2010) have also shown that immigrants are more likely to create employment for South Africans compared to their non-migrant counterparts.

Attempts by the government to reduce unemployment have not yet come to fruition. In 2006, the South African government established the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA), which aimed to reduce unemployment by 50 percent by 2014 (Rasool & Botha, 2011). In addition to that, the Joint Initiative on Priority Skills Acquisition (Jipsa) was also established in the same year to address scarce and critical skills the country needed to meet AsgiSA's goals (Rasool & Botha, 2011). Moreover, the National Development Plan (NDP) was established in 2011. The NDP seeks to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by 2030 through

capacitating people, especially the youth (NDP, 2011). In spite of all these efforts by the South African government, the country continues to experience increasing unemployment rates and inequality.

Therefore, findings in this study will help to highlight critical socio-demographic factors that are responsible for differences in employment status of migrants and non-migrants, which in turn might help in the fight against unemployment. Also, findings of the study have the potential to guide the government to direct strategic resources, through NDP and NYP, to aspects where South Africans are lagging behind when compared to immigrants. Moreover, differences between immigrants and non-migrants may also assist the government to facilitate collaborative initiatives to encourage cross-fertilisation of ideas that can lead to solutions to solve problems faced by the country.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 Main research question

What are the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa?

1.4.2 Sub-questions

1. What are the levels of employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa?

2. What are the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa?

1.5 Research Objectives

1.5.1 Main objective

To compare the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa.

1.5.2 Specific objectives

1. To determine the levels of employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa.

2. To compare the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa.

1.6 Definition of Terms

1.6.1 Formal employment

Formal employment refers to individuals of working age who can be categorised as, 1) employers and own-account workers who are registered with SARS, and 2) employees who pay tax, including those who do not pay tax but working in firms with 5 or more employees in the payroll (StatsSA, 2020).

1.6.2 Informal employment

Informal employment refers to individuals of working age who in their main job are, 1) own-account workers, employers or members of producers' cooperatives employed in their own informal sector, 2) own-account workers participating in the production of goods exclusively for own final use by their household, and 3) employees who have informal jobs, i.e., paid domestic workers by households (ILO, 2019).

1.6.3 Unemployment

Unemployment refers to people of working age who are currently not employed, carried out activities to find employment during a specific period and who are currently available to take up employment given a job opportunity (ILO, 2019).

1.6.4 Migrants

A migrant is any person who is outside the country/state they were born, or any person outside the country/state in which they are citizens. This definition includes individuals who intend to move permanently or temporarily (IOM, 2019)

1.6.5 Non-migrants

Non-migrants are defined as individuals who have a legal bond with a country/state. A legal bond is “a genuine connection of existence, interest and sentiment, together with the existence of reciprocal rights and duties” (IOM, 2019, p.143).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW, THEORETICAL & CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is intended to present and discuss the literature review, theoretical framework, conceptual framework, and the study hypothesis. The first section is the discussion of the literature review which highlights local and international literature on the patterns of socio-demographic factors and employment status. Then, the following sections will provide discussions of the theoretical, conceptual frameworks. The last section will present the study hypothesis.

2.2 Employment Status in South Africa

South Africa's economy is rooted in farming, mining, and the formal sector (Sutherland, 2020). The economy is heavily burdened with high levels of unemployment, and the majority of its population lacks advanced and, even, basic skills. The government lacks the ability to implement complex policies that require engagements across governmental departments and engagements with the business community, particularly the private sector. Corruption plays a big role in the weakening of the economy and the rising unemployment rate. Moreover, the education system has been failing to produce fit graduates in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics to meet the demand from the private sector (Sutherland, 2020). The automation of jobs, through the rise of the fourth industrial revolution, comes as a big threat to the population as more jobs will be lost. The advent of the fourth industrial revolution will bring about a decline in the demand for workers with basic cognitive skills such as basic data input processing. The demand for physical and manual labour such as general equipment operation might drop by 14% by 2030 (Sutherland, 2020). Sutherland argues that the uncertainties brought by the advent of the fourth industrial revolution will require more investment to go towards research and development, improving the school system, and increasing the number of students studying STEM subjects.

Ngota et al. (2019) conducted a mixed-methods study to determine opportunities created by African migrant entrepreneurs in South Africa. The study utilized self-administered questionnaires and qualitative in-depth interviews to collect data. The study showed that 52.9%

of the participants offered services, 41.8% traded, and 5.2% manufactured. Also, the findings showed that migrant entrepreneurs filled economic gaps by contributing to innovation and technology developments, contributed to economic growth through rental payments and tax remissions, and that they created employment for South Africans.

Niyimbanira and Madzivhandila (2016) conducted a review of international literature to examine the impact of migration on the labour market. They concluded that immigrants generally have a positive effect on the labour market, and that migrants also contribute positively to the general wellbeing of the citizens' wages. The authors further elaborated that migrants do not only serve as complementary workers who are readily available to the labour supply, but also as additional consumers, and that has the effect of increasing the demand for unskilled and semi-skilled labour for the local labour (Niyimbanira & Madzivhandila, 2016). Since their study was qualitative, they recommended that there is a need for a quantitative approach to the same subject.

In contrast, Chamunorwa and Mlambo (2014) investigated the impact of immigration labour on unemployment in South Africa. Their study used immigration, gross domestic product (GDP), inflation, and education as the predictor variables. They used the ordinary least squares (OLS) to measure the relationship between the predictor variables and the outcome variable. Findings showed a positive relationship between immigration and unemployment. This Suggested that immigration had a negative impact on unemployment in South Africa. But, the relationship between the outcome variable and the GDP was statistically significant and negative. This implies that an increase in the GDP was associated with a decrease in unemployment.

2.2 Patterns of the Association of Socio-Demographic Factors and Employment Status

2.2.1 Education, age and employment status

A study by Nawrotzki et al. (2012) using the 2008/2009 Demographic and Health Survey from Madagascar, looked at differences in demographic and socio-economic factors between internal migrants and non-migrants. Findings showed that migrants were better educated than their non-migrant peers, and migrants scored significantly higher on the wealth index. Additionally, the study also showed that migrants read newspapers more frequently, listened to radio more frequently, and watched more television. The study postulated that these differences between

migrants and non-migrants might be due to that more educated migrants selectively move to places where their knowledge can be used productively. Another study by Lopez (2020) in the USA, reported that children of foreign-born parents mostly met or exceeded the schooling level of the general population of non-migrants. Furthermore, AboElsoud, AlQudah, and Elish (2018) found that in Australia, education among immigrants varies in many ways, and that young immigrants tend to be more educated compared to migrants nearing retirement.

Rasool and Botha (2011) conducted a literature study to examine the determinants and effects of skills shortages in South Africa. The study highlighted the fact that most of the unemployed population is disproportionately concentrated in the young and Black population. One of the main determinants of unemployment among young people in South Africa is the country's poor education system (Rasool & Botha, 2011). The study argued that the education system in South Africa is characterised, among other factors, by low education standards, inadequate provision for early childhood development, declining grade 12 pass rates, lack of resources, and subpar teachers. Furthermore, the study also highlighted the fact that South Africa came last in global studies in literacy & reading, mathematics, and science. Moreover, the number of South Africans completing school was reported to be below the norm compared to other developing countries in the world. By 2010, less than a third (30.9%) of South African adults had completed high school. In contrast, more than two-thirds (69.8%) of adults in developed countries had completed high school by 2010 (Rasool & Botha, 2011). One of the findings that were reported in the study was that young people were largely employed in wholesale and retail (30.5%). Community, personal, and social services accounted for 16% of employment among young people. Then, financial services, real estate, and business services accounted for 12.6% of employment among young people (Rasool & Botha, 2011).

Sheikh, Chaudhry, and Akhtarc (2020), in their study analysing factors that determine employment status in Pakistan, using the multinomial logistic regression model, showed that age and education were one of the strongest determinants of employment status. Regarding education, the study showed that a year increase in the level of education corresponded with a higher probability of being employed than unemployed. The study also found that individuals with more years of education are more likely to become self-employed v/s employees (Sheik et al., 2020). The authors argued that one possible reason for this is that as individuals become

more educated they get more enthusiastic to set up their own businesses rather than working for another person. However, a year increase in age was shown to correspond with a decrease in the probability of becoming self-employed v/s employee (Sheik et al., 2020). A possible explanation for this phenomenon is that as individuals grow older, the fear of not getting another job due to age restrictions increases, as such individuals tend to become more risk averse (Sheik et al., 2020).

Baldry (2015) examined the influence of demographic characteristics of South African graduates on their employment status. The study used an online survey completed by university graduates, and the study employed the binary logistic regression model to examine the influence of demographic characteristics on employment status. Eighty one percent (81.4%) of the sample reported that they had full-time employment, 7.5% had part-time employment, and then 2.7% reported that they were self-employed. Only four variables were found to have a significant relationship with the outcome variable; race, socio-economic status, receipt of financial support, and year of graduation (Baldry, 2015). Furthermore, 27% of all employed graduates reported that they were underemployed. The majority of these graduates indicated that they were underemployed by the utilisation of their skill as opposed to being underemployed by the utilisation of time (Baldry, 2015). Thus, the study went on to challenge the common assertion in South Africa that unemployment among graduates is mainly the result of skills shortage.

2.2.2 Ethnicity, sex and employment status

A study conducted by Patel et al. (2020) looked at the effects of the national minimum wages on the labour market outcomes in South Africa. The study reported that 1 in 5 South Africans aged 18-25 are in paid employment. Within this group, there were significant differences along racial, gender, and spatial divides. Twenty one percent (21%) and 12% of black men and women, respectively, were employed. On the other hand, 42% and 31% of white men and women, respectively, were employed. Furthermore, another cross-sectional study by Gradin (2019) investigated progress in reducing high level of racial stratification of occupations in post-apartheid South Africa. According to the study, there is no compelling evidence of sustained or significant desegregation; occupations still remain highly segmented by race. Black people predominantly hold low paying jobs (Gradin, 2019). Other population groups such as Indians,

Asians, and Coloureds are less affected by occupational segregation compared to Black people (Gradin, 2019).

Unemployment among Black communities in the USA has been high and continues to be high (Emeka, 2017). For the longest time, Black unemployment has been twice that of White Americans. Emeka found that the odds of unemployment for Blacks compared to Whites in Washington, D.C. were 7.8 times greater. In Nebraska, Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Illinois, and Kansas, the odds of unemployment for Blacks compared to Whites were more than three times greater. Furthermore, Black unemployment was found to be the highest in states with large Black populations such as Mississippi and Louisiana, and also in states with very small Black populations such as Nebraska, Iowa, and Minnesota (Emeka, 2017). This is an indication that racial stratification still continues post Civil Rights era. Some studies have suggested that Black unemployment in the USA is attributable to employer preferences for White workers. Moreover, one of the explanations given for the high Black unemployment in USA is that Black people are usually not as zealous in their search for work (Emeka, 2009). However, Fryer et al., (2013) showed that unemployed Black people fill out at least as many job applications as White people, and are at least as likely to accept jobs for which they are overqualified and/or underpaid.

Kalitanyi and Visser (2010) conducted a survey study wherein they looked at African immigrant entrepreneurs in South Africa. They reported that the majority of immigrants interviewed came from Somalia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Zimbabwe, Rwanda, Burundi, and Angola. Moreover, their study found that 82 percent of the African immigrant entrepreneurs that were interviewed indicated that they employed black South Africans in their businesses. However, Ngota, Rajkaran, and Mang'unyi (2019) showed in their study that entrepreneurial contributions tend to be higher among men than among women in South Africa. Women, especially in the African context, usually act as additional agents of economic contributions. It is a common phenomenon in the African context for men to be breadwinners while women look after the kids and the home (Ngota, Rajkaran, & Mang'unyi, 2019). To the contrary, a review study (Asis and Piper, 2008) looked at international labour migration in Asia. It reported that the Philippines is one of the few countries where men and women are equally likely to emigrate for jobs. In Philippines, among land-based employment, women made up 61-72 percent of the new hires deployed every year between 1992 and 1998. Another interesting finding was that Indonesia had

a highly feminized official labour migration, while most unofficial labour migration was heavily male (Asis and Piper, 2008).

A survey study (Graf, Brown, & Patten, 2018) focusing on gender pay gap in the USA, asserts that family care-giving responsibilities, mostly motherhood, can lead to interruptions in career paths for women and can have a serious impact on their long term career prospects. The study showed that in 2013, women, compared to men, were more likely to have taken breaks from their careers to care for their family. Forty percent of mothers surveyed indicated that at some point in their work life they had taken a significant amount of time-off, 42% reduced their work hours to care for an infant or other family member. Additionally, 27% indicated that they had to resign from work altogether to take care of familial responsibilities. Conversely, the survey also showed that men experienced less of these challenges. For instance, only 24% of fathers indicated that at some point in their work life they had taken a significant amount of time-off to care for a child or other family member. Furthermore, among individuals who took a leave from work following the birth or adoption of a child, 25% of women indicated that it had a negative impact at work, compared to 13 percent among men (Graf, Brown, & Patten, 2018).

A study looking at the gender pay gap in 11 European countries found that the gender pay gap does exist in these European countries (Arulampalam, Booth, & Bryan, 2005). The majority of the labour force was found be predominantly male in all 11 countries, except Finland where the numbers of males and females in the labour market were balanced. Spain was found to have the highest male proportion (62.2%) forming the labour force. Furthermore, the study found that gender pay gaps were typically larger at the top of the wage distribution; implying the existence of *glass-ceilings* for women. In some countries, however, the pay gap was found to be wider at the bottom of the wage distribution; implying the existence of *sticky-floors* for women. Nonetheless, gender pay gap was found to be typically higher at the top than at the bottom of the wage distribution. This suggested that *glass-ceilings* were more prevalent than *sticky-floors* in those 11 European countries studied (Arulampalam et al., 2005). Additionally, one of the findings was that the gender pay gap differed significantly across the public and private sector wages distribution (Arulampalam et al., 2005).

Furthermore, Adelekan and Bussin (2018) conducted a study to determine the status of the gender pay gap among employees in the same salary band in South Africa. Findings showed that

men consistently received higher pays compared to women in most salary bands. The gender pay gap ranged from 8% in the lower bands to 27.1% in the higher bands. However, the gender pay gap in the higher bands was converging towards similar pay for similar work. Nonetheless, women were found to be under represented in all salary bands, particularly in the higher bands, which are senior to top management levels (Adelekan & Bussin, 2018). The authors argued that, low human capacity development among women, stereotypes about women, discrimination against women, religion, and culture are some of the leading factors responsible for the gender pay gap.

2.2.3 Marital status, type of place of residence and employment status

A cross-sectional study by Faridi, Chaudhry, and Malik (2011) investigated factors that influence women's participation in self-employment in Pakistan. Findings revealed that the region of residence or location is one of the factors that reduce women's work participation as self-employed workers. According to the study, women residing in rural areas were more likely to be involved in their own business activities such as working on a farm or rearing live stock. Although the study expected a positive relationship between marital status and self-employment, but the findings showed no significant relationship between marital status and self-employment (Faridi, Chaudhry, & Malik, 2011). Furthermore, Xulu, Cheng, and Lili (2017) studied urban-rural differences in college-student employment in China. The study was cross-sectional, and it used a national college sample survey data. Findings revealed that a greater proportion of college students from urban areas entered the main labour market than college students from rural areas. College students from urban areas were more likely to choose management and technical professions, while those from rural areas were more likely to choose non-management and technical occupations (Xulu, Cheng, & Lili, 2017).

Luo and Chong (2018) found that there is a difference in the likelihood of being self-employed between rural and urban areas in China. The probability of being self-employed full-time in rural areas was found to be 8.19 percentage points lower than that in urban areas. Luo and Chong (2018) asserted that development in urban areas is dominated by industrialisation, while rural areas have been agricultural based. As such, different opportunity costs exist in these two places. It is more difficult for rural residents to seek and secure funds from formal financial institutions because of the perceived existence of unacceptable uncertainty in rural areas. Furthermore,

results also revealed that the likelihood of being self-employed increases if an individual is married. Marriage was found to have a positive impact on entrepreneurial choices in both rural and urban areas. According Luo and Chong, marriage increases social ties of an individual, which then goes on to increase his/her access to information and financial resources.

Hafeez and Ahmad (2002) looked at multiple socio-economic and demographic factors that influence the decision of married women to participate in the labour market in Mandi Bahaudin, Pakistan. Women's level of education was found to be a strong and positive predictor of the decision to participate in the labour market. This meant that women with higher levels of education were more likely to participate in the labour market than those with lower levels of education. Findings also showed that the probability of participating in the labour force increased with age. Younger females, compared to older females, generally have low levels of education, and they lack experience and training (Hafeez & Ahmad, 2002). Furthermore, married women based in rural areas were less likely to participate in formal sector compared to those based in urban areas. Reason being, women in rural areas have fewer educational and employment opportunities compared to women in urban areas. It is usually very difficult for women in rural areas to acquire education, and even if they do acquire education, they still find it very difficult to secure employment in the formal sector (Hafeez & Ahmad, 2002). In a different study by Paulo and Tabosa (2017), they also found that it is more difficult to find stable employment in rural areas for both males and females, because countries generally do not invest adequately in rural areas.

Furthermore, Dunga and Sekatane (2014) conducted a cross-sectional study wherein they analysed factors that determine employment status of households in Bophelong Township, South Africa. The study analysed factors such as level of education, age, gender, marital status, and labour force participation. Marital status was found to be one of the factors that had a significant relationship with employment status. This relationship indicated that those who were never married, compared to ever married, had a higher probability of being employed. For women, the reason behind this could be that having a job is the only option of being independent as there is no spouse to depend on (Dunga and Sekatane, 2014).

It is clear that scholars have given adequate attention to the relationship between socio-demographic factors and employment status. However, none of the studies reviewed in this study

attempted to quantitatively create a contrast between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. Moreover, those that used the quantitative approach mostly focused on economics variables such as the GDP, GNI, inflation, and government expenditure on education. Hence, the current study contributes to literature by focusing on the differences in the employment status of migrants and non-migrants.

2.3 Theoretical Framework

2.3.1 Push-Pull Theory

According to Lee (1966), migration is caused by positive factors in the place of destination and negative factors in the place of origin. The theory asserts that places of destination are characterized by sets of positive factors, or forces of attraction or retention which are referred to as pull factors. While places of origin are characterized by sets of negative factors, or forces of repulsion which are referred to as push factors (Lee, 1966). The greater the perceived difference between push factors in place of origin and pull factors in place of destination, the more likely people are to move to the places of destination. Individuals who are primarily responding to pull factors tend to be positively selected based on age, education, skills, or motivation. On the other side, those who are primarily responding to push factors tend to be negatively selected, whether by lack of employment opportunities, political instability, persecution, and underdevelopment. Thus, individuals who move based on pull factors are more likely to be doing so voluntarily, while those who move based on push factors are more likely to be doing so involuntarily (Lee, 1966).

Mirembe, Nzabona, and Mushomi (2019) argued that demographic factors such as age, sex, and place of residence have a significant influence on migration and employment status. For instance, in many parts of the world, females have fewer chances of migrating to look for work because they are expected to stay at home to look after family members. While, individuals above the age of 30 are more likely to migrate to look for work because they have family responsibilities that they must fulfill. Unmarried individuals, compared to married individuals, are more likely to migrate to look for work because they have fewer constraints coming from spouses and family members (Mirembe, Nzabona, & Mushomi, 2019). Furthermore, large cities tend to attract large proportions of investment, which encourages people to move to urban places

with the expectation of getting more employment opportunities and higher wages (Kainth, 2009). In other words, if the pulls in big cities outweigh the reasons of staying at the places of origin, then people are more likely to move to places of destination. The inverse of that is that big cities create very few incentives for people to leave to other places of destination. Meaning, the reasons for staying in big cities generally outweigh the pulls of other destinations (Krishnakumar & Indumathi, 2014).

2.4 Conceptual Framework

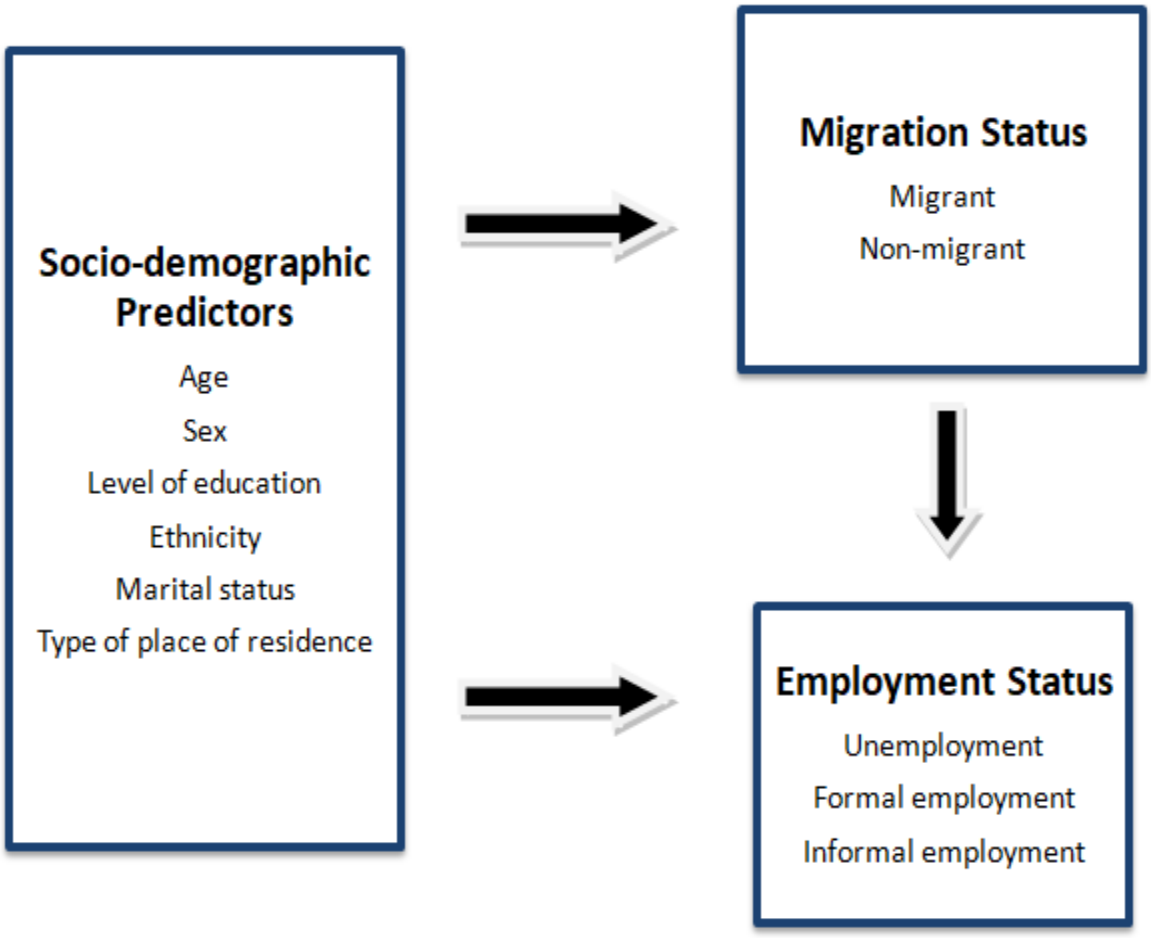

Figure 2.4.1: Conceptual framework illustrating the relationship between socio-demographic predictors and employment status mediated by migration status.
Source: Adapted from Mirembe, Nzabona, and Mushomi (2019)

The conceptual framework above, *figure 2.4.1,* shows the relationship between socio-demographic factors, migration status, and employment status. Socio-demographic factors are shown to have a direct influence on migration status and employment status. Migration status is shown to be a mediating factor between socio-demographic factors and employment status. Studies (Mirembe et al., 2019) indicate that the migration status of an individual plays a significant role in determining their employment outcomes. The socio-demographic factors used in the current study include sex, age, ethnicity, level of education, type of place of residence, and marital status. These factors were selected based on previous studies (Hafeez & Ahmad, 2002; Faridi, Chaudhry, & Malik, 2011; Dunga & Sekatne, 2014; Xulu, Cheng, & Lili, 2017; Matandare, 2018; Adelekan & Bussin, 2018; Graf, Brown, & Patten, 2018; Gradin, 2019; Patel, Khan, & Englert, 2020) indicating that they have a significant influence on employment outcomes of individuals. The outcome variable has three categories, unemployment, formal employment, and informal employment.

2.5 Hypothesis

H_o: There is no significant association between socio-demographic factors and employment status in South Africa.

H_a: There is a significant association between socio-demographic factors and employment status in South Africa.

Significance level: $\alpha=0.05$

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data Source

The study used the Census 2011 10% sample dataset. The objective of a population census is to count the country's population (StatsSA, 2012). In a census, a variety of demographic, social and economic information is collected from people who live in the country. This allows the government, private sector, and academic and research institutions to utilize the information and data for policy development, planning, monitoring, and evaluations of development projects (StatsSA, 2012). Census 2011 is a de facto population and housing census. This means all individuals were enumerated at the place where they spent the census night (StatsSA, 2012). A total of 120 000 trained enumerators were involved and each was assigned an enumeration area. Enumerators conducted interviews with the respondents face-to-face while simultaneously completing the questionnaires. Three sets of questionnaires were developed for Census 2011 and each was administered to a targeted group. Data was collected from 10-31 December 2011.

3.2 Study Design

This is a cross-sectional study, which denotes that the data used is a snapshot of a point in time. Secondary data was sourced from the StatsSA website. Census 2011 provides important information on demographic and socio-economic factors which were crucial for the purpose of this study.

3.3 Study Population

The study was interested in the economically-active population group. Therefore, the study population included all economically-active individuals in South Africa between the ages 15-64. Respondents with an age below 15 or above 64 were excluded from the study population. The sample was disaggregated into two sub-population groups, migrants and non-migrants.

3.4 Sample Size

The original sample size was 2 164 964 individuals of various demographic, social and economic factors from all nine provinces in South Africa. However, the current study excluded individuals who were not of working ages. Therefore, the final sample size of the current study remained as 1 406 730 individuals of working age. Additionally, the sample consisted of 84 319 migrants and 1 322 411 non-migrants.

3.5 Study Variables

3.5.1 Migration status

The study sample was divided into two sub-population groups, migrants and non-migrants. This was achieved by using the "country of birth" and "citizenship" variables. Respondents who were not born in South Africa and who were not citizens of the country were placed under the migrant group. Respondents who were born in South Africa were placed under the non-migrant group, irrespective of their citizenship. Respondents who did not specify their country of birth or citizenship were placed under missing values.

3.5.2 Outcome variable

The outcome variable was derived from the variable "official employment status." Respondents were asked to indicate if they had participated in any economic activity in the last seven days. Responses fell into four categories, namely employed (1), unemployed (2), discouraged work-seeker (3), and other not economically active (4). Therefore, in this study, "discouraged work-seekers" and "other not economically active" were replaced under the "unemployed" category. Furthermore, those under the "employed" category were further divided by "type of sector." Type of sector provides information on the distribution of the employed population between formal and informal sectors, as well as private households (domestic work) (StatsSA, 2012). In this study, the private households sector was replaced under the informal sector category. Therefore, the final dependent variable remains with three categories, namely unemployment (0), formal employment (1), and informal employment (2).

3.5.3 Predictor variables

The predictor variables consist of socio-demographic factors; sex, age, ethnicity, level of education, type of place of residence, and marital status. The age variable was recoded into 5 year age groups (15-64). The sex variable has two categories, male (1) and female (2). The "ethnicity" variable was derived from the original "population group" variable, which had five categories, namely Black African (1), Coloured (2), Indian/Asian (3), White (4), and Other (5). However, the final variable was recoded into two categories, Black African (1) and other-ethnicities (2). The "level of education" variable was derived from the original "Grouped level of education" variable. The original variable, "Grouped level of education", had seven categories, namely no schooling (1), some primary (2), completed primary (3), some secondary (4), grade 12/Std10, higher (6), and other (7). In this study, the "other" category was replaced under missing values because the level of education is not known. Therefore, the final derived variable remained with four categories, namely no education (0), primary education (1), secondary education (2), and higher education (3). The "type of place of residence" variable was derived from the original "Geography type" variable. The original variable had three categories, urban (1), traditional (2), and farms (3). In this study, the final variable was recoded into two categories, urban (1) and rural (2). Finally, the original "marital status" variable had six categories, namely married (1), living together like married partner (2), never married (3), widowed/widow (4), separated (5), and divorced (6). However, the final "marital status" variable was recoded into two categories, ever-married (1) and never-married (0).

3.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed using the Stata statistical software v.15.1, and the study objectives were addressed as follows:

First objective: the levels of employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa were presented with the use of a bar graph and a table showing the percentage and frequency distribution of employment status. Furthermore, the bivariate analysis was presented with the use of tables showing the percentage distribution of employment status by socio-demographic characteristics. The statistical significance in the relationship between each individual predictor variable and the outcome variable was tested using the Pearson's chi-squared test. The

measurements were conducted at a 95% level of confidence and 5% level of significance [*p*-value ≤ 0.05].

Second objective: the analysis of the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa was done using the multinomial logistic regression models. Multinomial logistic regression models do not assume linearity, normality, or homoscedasticity (Starkweather & Moske, 2011). Estimations are achieved through maximum marginal likelihood solution to numerically integrate over the distribution of random effects (Hedeker, 2003). Furthermore, the model is used to predict probability of categorical membership on a dependent variable based on independent variables (Starkweather & Moske, 2011). The model allows flexibility in the choice of contrasts used to represent comparisons between outcome categories (Hedeker, 2003). As such, this model is ideal for the purposes of further disaggregating the outcome variable in order to get more comprehensive statistics. Therefore, this model enabled this study to compare three outcome categories in order to determine differences in the probability of belonging in either formal employment, informal employment, or unemployment category. Results are statistically significant if $p \leq 0.05$ with a 95% confidence level, and the results were interpreted using relative risk ratios (RRR). The study fitted both unadjusted and adjusted models to the data. Lastly, the equation for the multinomial logistic regression model is shown below:

$$Logit[P(Y=1)] = \alpha + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \ldots + \beta_k x_k$$

Where:

K = the number of number of predictor variables

Y = the outcome predicted by the predictor variables

α= Intercept

β= Regression coefficient (El-Habil, 2012)

3.7 Ethics

This study was conducted using secondary data obtained from Statistics South Africa Census 2011. Furthermore, access to the dataset was granted after a registration process, whereby details of the current study were required. Census upholds the anonymity of the respondents, thus informed consent was not required for this study. The analysis of the data does not involve any communication with the respondents. Personal information such as names or addresses is not revealed in the dataset. Hence there were no challenges with regards to maintaining the privacy of the respondents. Importantly, the ethics waiver approval was sought and obtained from the University of Witwatersrand. The ethics protocol number is WDEMG2020/07/02.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Determining the levels of employment status of migrants and non-migrants.

4.1.1 Levels of employment status and socio-demographic factors

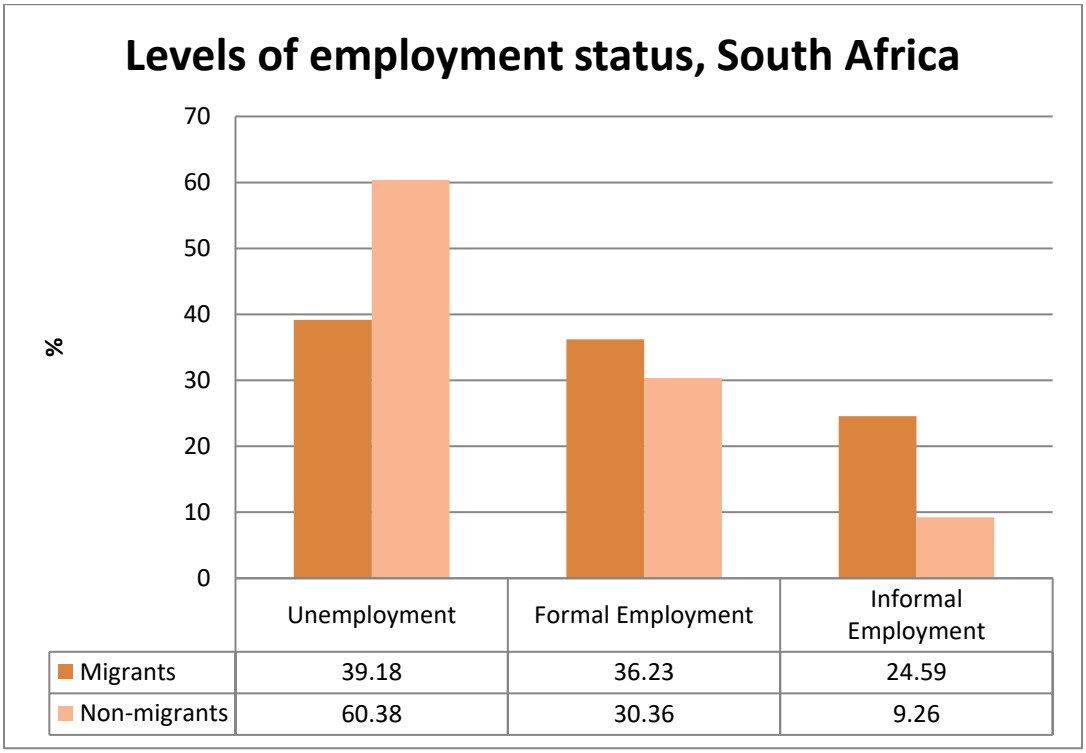

***Figure 4.1.1*:** Levels of employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa

The proportion of people who are unemployed among the migrant population is 39%, and then 36% and 24% are formally employed and informally employed, respectively. On the other hand, the proportion of people who are unemployed among South Africans (non-migrants) is 60%. The proportion of South Africans who are formally employed and informally employed is 30% and 9%, respectively.

***Table 4.1.1*:** Frequency and percentage distribution of the socio-demographic characteristics of migrants and non-migrants

	MIGRANTS		NON-MIGRANTS	
DEPENDENT VARIABLE	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Employment status				
Unemployment	33619	39,87	811654	61,38
Formal employment	30447	36,11	392530	29,68
Informal employment	20253	24,02	118227	8,94
Total	84319	100	1322411	100
SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS				
Age				
15-19	4662	5,52	198122	14,97
20-24	16125	19,12	205069	15,51
25-29	21652	25,68	192885	14,59
30-34	16021	19	156244	11,82
35-39	10528	12,49	139953	10,58
40-44	5992	7,11	117525	8,89
45-49	3809	4,52	105705	7,99
50-54	2653	3,15	86708	6,56
55-59	1690	2	69372	5,25
60-64	1187	1,41	50828	3,84
Total	84319	100	1322411	100
Sex				
Male	52731	62,54	638228	48,26
Female	31588	37,46	684183	51,74
Total	84319	100	1322411	100
Ethnicity				
Black African	74886	88,81	1140237	86,22
Other	9433	11,19	182174	13,78
Total	84319	100	1322411	100
Level of Education				
No education	6161	7,31	72444	5,48
Primary education	15497	18,37	166287	12,57
Secondary education	52623	62,41	897941	67,9
Higher education	9086	10,78	152173	11,51
Other	952	1,13	33566	2,54

Total	84319	100	1322411	100
Marital status				
Never married	48841	57,92	864953	65,41
Ever married	35478	42,08	457458	34,59
Total	84319	100	1322411	100
Place of residence				
Urban	69664	82,62	878796	66,45
Rural	14655	17,38	443615	33,55
Total	84319	100	1322411	100

Table 4.1.1 pertains to the frequency and percentage distribution of socio-demographic characteristics among working-age migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. With regards to age, *table 4.1.1* shows that the most dominant age group within the migrant population in South Africa are individuals aged 25-29 (25%). Individuals within the age group 20-24 have the second largest proportion (19%), followed by individuals aged 35-39 who make up 12% of the migrant population in South Africa. Individuals aged 55-59 (2%) and 60-64 (1%) make up the least proportion within the migrant population. Regarding South Africans (non-migrants), individuals making up the largest proportion are those aged 20-24 (15.51%), followed by those aged 15-19 and 25-29, making up 14.97% and 14.59%, respectively ,of the working-age population. Age groups 30-34, 35-39, and 40-44 make up 11.82%, 10.58%, and 8.89%, respectively, of the working-age population. Individuals in the age group 60-64 make up the least proportion (3.84%) of the working-age population.

Furthermore, the migrant population within the working-age group is composed of 62.54% male and 37.46% female. The non-migrant population within the working-age group is composed of 48.26% male and 51.74% female.

Close to 90% of the migrant population within the working-age group is made up of Black Africans, and then other-ethnicities only make up eleven percent (11.19%) of the migrant population. Within the non-migrant working-age population, Black Africans make up 86.22% of the population, and then other-ethnicities make up only 13.78% of the population.

Regarding level of education among migrants within the working-age population, 7.31% have no formal education, 18.37% only have primary education, 62.41% have secondary education, and 10.78% have higher education. On the other hand, only 5.48% of South Africans within the working-age population do not have any formal education, 12.57% have primary education only, 67.9% have secondary education, and 11.51% have higher education.

Within the migrant working-age population, 57.91% has never been married, and then 42% is currently/has been married before. Over sixty five percent (65.41%) of the non-migrant working-age population has never been married, while 34.59% of the population is currently/has been married before.

Over 80% of the migrant working-age population is based in urban areas, and then 17.38% is based in rural areas. Within the non-migrant working age population, 66.45% is based in urban areas, while 33.55% is based in rural areas.

4.1.2 Employment status of migrants and non-migrants

***Table 4.1.2*:** Percentage distribution of employment status by socio-demographic characteristics of migrants in South Africa

	MIGRANTS		
	Unemployment	**Formal Employment**	**Informal Employment**
Age	**Percentages (%)**	**Percentages (%)**	**Percentages (%)**
15-19	70,31	16,32	13,36
20-24	50,23	28,09	21,67
25-29	39,5	35,05	25,45
30-34	35,12	38,63	26,25
35-39	31,43	41,02	27,55
40-44	30,12	45,04	24,83
45-49	28,98	46,15	24,86
50-54	28,99	48,36	22,65
55-59	31,66	49,23	19,11
60-64	45,49	41,03	13,48
Pearson chi2 (9) = 3,9e+03 Pr = 0,000			

Sex			
Male	29,43	43,06	27,51
Female	57,30	24,51	18,19
			Pearson chi2 (1)= 6,4e+03 Pr = 0,000
Ethnicity			
Black African	40,84	34,89	24,27
Other	32,16	45,83	22,01
			Pearson chi2 (1) = 453,9974 Pr = 0,000
Educational level			
No education	48,51	27,14	24,35
Primary education	42,06	31,54	26,40
Secondary education	40,36	34,96	24,67
Higher education	27,88	56,38	15,74
Other	35,61	38,45	25,94
			Pearson chi2 (4) = 2,1e+03 Pr = 0,000
Marital status			
Never married	42,29	32,9	24,81
Ever married	36,54	40,53	22,93
			Pearson chi2 (1) = 531,9096 Pr = 0,000
Place of residence			
Urban	40,7	37,29	22,01
Rural	35,93	30,49	33,58
			Pearson chi2 (1) = 898,9375 Pr = 0,000

4.1.2.1 Migrants

Table 4.1.2 is showing the distribution of frequency and percentage for employment status by socio-demographic characteristics among migrants in South Africa. Additionally, the relationship between each socio-demographic characteristic and employment status is statistically significant [p-value≤0.05]. As shown on *table 4.1.2*, individuals within the ages 15-19 have the highest percentage (70.31%) of unemployment, followed by individuals aged 20-24 (50.23%). Individuals within the ages 45-49 and 50-54 have the lowest percentage of unemployment, both at 29%. Furthermore, individuals aged 55-59 have the highest percentage (49.23%) of formal employment, followed by individuals aged 50-54 and 45-49, each with

formal employment percentage of 48.36% and 46.15%, respectively. The two lowest percentages of formal employment is among individuals aged 15-19 and 20-24, each at 16.32% and 28%, respectively. Moreover, informal employment percentage (27.55%) is the highest among individuals aged 35-39, and then followed by individuals aged 30-34 with 26.25%. The percentage of informal employment is the lowest among individuals aged 15-19 and 60-64, both with 13% of informal employment.

Furthermore, 29.43% of males are unemployed compared to 57.30% of unemployed females. Forty three percent (43%) of males are formally employed compared to only 24.51% of females who are formally employed. Additionally, 27.51% of males are informally employed compared to 18.19% of females who are informally employed.

Regarding ethnicity, 40.84% of Black Africans are unemployed compared to 32.16% among other-ethnicities. Moreover, 34.89% of Black Africans are formally employed compared to 45.83% for other-ethnicities. Furthermore, informal employment is higher among Black Africans compared to other-ethnicities, each at 24.27% and 22%, respectively.

Unemployment is highest (48.51%) among individuals with no formal education, followed by individuals with primary education (42%). Individuals with higher education have the lowest percentage of unemployment at 27.88%. Furthermore, individuals with higher education have the highest percentage (56.38%) of formal employment, followed by individuals with secondary education with 35%. Individuals with no formal education have the lowest percentage (27.14%) of formal employment. The percentage of informal employment among individuals with primary education is the highest at 26.41%, followed by individuals with secondary education and no education, both at 24%. Informal employment is the lowest (15.74%) among individuals with higher education.

Regarding marital status, individuals who never got married have a higher percentage of unemployment at 42.29% compared to 36.54% for individuals who are currently/have been married before. The percentage (40.53%) of formal employment is higher among individuals who are currently/have been married before compared to that of individuals who have never been married which is at 32.9%. Informal employment is higher (24.81%) among individuals who

have never married compared to individuals who are currently/have been married before at 22.93%.

Regarding place of residence, the percentage (40.7%) of unemployment among individuals living in urban areas is higher compared to that in rural areas, which is 35.93%. Formal employment is higher (37.29%) among individuals living in urban areas compared to individuals living in rural areas, which is at 30.49%. Additionally, informal employment is higher (33.58%) among individuals living in rural areas compared to individuals living in urban areas, which is at 22%.

***Table 4.1.3*:** Percentage distribution of employment status by socio-demographic characteristics of non-migrants in South Africa

	NON-MIGRANTS		
	Unemployment	**Formal Employment**	**Informal Employment**
Age	**Percentages (%)**	**Percentages (%)**	**Percentages (%)**
15-19	95,63	3,69	0,68
20-24	76,29	18,83	4,88
25-29	56,12	34,56	9,32
30-34	48,56	40,07	11,36
35-39	45,36	41,91	12,73
40-44	43,87	42,61	13,52
45-49	45,63	40,5	13,87
50-54	48,91	38,09	13
55-59	55,51	32,69	11,8
60-64	73,69	19,82	6,49
			Pearson chi2 (9) = 1,8e+05 Pr = 0,000
Sex			
Male	55,90	34,4	9,7
Female	66,49	25,28	8,23
			Pearson chi2 (1) = 1,6e+04 Pr = 0,000
Ethnicity			
Black African	65,03	26,06	8,91
Other	38,52	52,35	9,13
			Pearson chi2 (1) = 5,5e+04 Pr = 0,000
Educational level			
No education	73,73	15,41	10,86

Primary education	68,42	19,67	11,91
Secondary education	63,76	27,73	8,51
Higher education	26,66	64,28	9,06
Other	93,58	5,38	1,04
			Pearson chi2 (4) = 1,2e+05 Pr = 0,000
Marital status			
Never married	69,4	22,95	7,65
Ever married	46,3	42,4	11,39
			Pearson chi2 (1) = 6,9e+04 Pr = 0,000
Place of residence			
Urban	53,96	36,77	9,27
Rural	76,07	15,64	8,29
			Pearson chi2 (1) = 6,8e+04 Pr = 0,000

4.1.2.2 Non-migrants

Table 4.1.3 is showing the distribution of frequency and percentage of employment status by socio-demographic characteristics among South Africans (non-migrants). The relationship between each socio-demographic characteristic and employment status is statistically significant [p-value≤0.05]. As can be seen on *table 4.1.3*, individuals within the age group 15-19 have the highest percentage (95.6%) of unemployment, followed by individuals aged 20-24 (76.3%). Individuals within the ages 35-39 and 40-44 have the lowest percentage of unemployment, each at 45.4% and 43.9%, respectively. Furthermore, individuals aged 40-44 have the highest percentage (42.6%) of formal employment, followed by individuals aged 35-39 and 45-49, each with formal employment percentage of 41.9% and 40.5%, respectively. The two lowest percentages of formal employment is among individuals aged 15-19 and 20-24, each at 3.7% and 18.8%, respectively. Informal employment percentage (13.9%) is the highest among individuals aged 45-49, and then followed by individuals aged 30-44 with 13.5%. The percentage of informal employment is the lowest among individuals aged 15-19 and 20-24, each with 0.7% and 4.9%, respectively.

Furthermore, 55.9% of males are unemployed compared to 66.5% of unemployed females. Thirty four percent (34%) of males are formally employed compared to 25.3% of females who

are formally employed. Additionally, 9.7% of males are informally employed compared to 8.2% of females who are informally employed.

Regarding ethnicity, 65% of Black Africans are unemployed compared to only 38.5% among other-ethnicities. Only 26.1% of Black Africans are formally employed compared to 52.4% for other-ethnicities. Informal employment is higher among other-ethnicities compared to Black Africans, each at 9.1% and 8.9%, respectively.

Unemployment is the highest (73.7%) among individuals with no formal education, followed by individuals with primary education (68.4%). Individuals with higher education have the lowest percentage of unemployment at 26.7%. Furthermore, individuals with higher education have the highest percentage (64.3%) of formal employment, followed by individuals with secondary education with 27.7%. Individuals with no formal education have the lowest percentage (15.4%) of formal employment. The percentage of informal employment among individuals with primary education is the highest at 11.9%, followed by individuals with no formal education with 10.9%. Informal employment is the lowest (8.5%) among individuals with secondary education.

Regarding marital status, individuals who never got married have a higher percentage of unemployment at 69.4% compared to 46.2% for individuals who are currently/have been married before. The percentage (42.4%) of formal employment is higher among individuals who are currently/have been married before compared to that of individuals who have never been married, which is at 23%. Informal employment is higher (11.4%) among individuals who are currently/have been married before compared to individuals who have never been married (7.6%).

Regarding the type of place of residence, the percentage (76.1%) of unemployment among individuals living in rural areas is higher compared to that in urban areas, which is 54%. Formal employment is higher (36.8%) among individuals living in urban areas compared to individuals living in rural areas, which is at 15.6%. Informal employment is the highest (9.3%) among individuals living in urban areas compared to rural areas, which is at 8.3%.

4.2 Comparing the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa.

***Table 4.2.1*:** Relative risk ratios of the association between socio-demographic characteristics and employment status (formal employment v/s unemployment) for migrants and non-migrants in South Africa

	MIGRANTS				NON-MIGRANTS			
	Formal employment				Formal employment			
	Unadjusted		Adjusted		Unadjusted		Adjusted	
Unemployment (base outcome)	RRR (p-value)	95% CI	RRR (p-value)	95% CI	RRR (p-value)	95% CI	RRR (p-value)	95% CI
Socio-demographic characteristics								
Age of the respondent	1,22 (0,000)	1,21-1,23	1,19 (0,000)	1,18-1,20	1,19 (0,000)	1,19-1,20	1,20 (0,000)	1,19-1,21
Sex								
Male	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Female	0,29 (0,000)	0,28-0,30	0,28 (0,000)	0,27-0,29	0,62 (0,000)	0,61-0,62	0,52 (0,000)	0,51-0,53
Ethnicity								
Black African	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Other	1,67 (0,000)	1,59-1,75	1,07 (0,014)	1,01-1,13	3,39 (0,000)	3,35-3,42	1,61 (0,000)	1,59-1,63
Level of education								
No education	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Primary education	1,34 (0,000)	1,25-1,44	1,50 (0,000)	1,39-1,62	1,38 (0,000)	1,34-1,41	1,48 (0,000)	1,44-1,52
Secondary education	1,55 (0,000)	1,45-1,65	2,05 (0,000)	1,92-2,20	2,08 (0,000)	2,04-2,13	2,95 (0,000)	2,88-3,02
Higher education	3,62 (0,000)	3,35-3,90	4,10 (0,000)	3,77-4,45	11,54 (0,000)	11,27-11,82	12,03 (0,000)	11,72-12,34
Marital status								
Never married	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Ever married	1,43 (0,000)	1,38-1,47	1,17 (0,000)	1,13-1,22	2,77 (0,000)	2,75-2,80	1,58 (0,000)	1,57-1,60
Place of residence								
Urban	RC		RC		RC		RC	

Rural	0,93 (0,001)	0,89-0,97	1,05 (0,042)	1,00-1,10	0,30 (0,000)	0,29-0,31	0,40 (0,000)	0,39-0,41

RC = Reference Category, p-value ≤ 0.05 signifies statistical significance at 95% level of confidence

4.2.1 Formal employment v/s Unemployment

Table 4.2.1 is showing the association between socio-demographic characteristics and employment status (formal employment v/s unemployment) for migrants and non-migrants. As can be seen on *table 4.2.1*, both adjusted and unadjusted models, the relationship between each socio-demographic variable and employment status is statistically significant [p-value≤0.05].

Within the migrant population, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed increases by 19% [RRR: 1.19, 95% CI: 1.18 – 1.20] with a year increase in age when controlling for other independent variables. For non-migrants, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed increases by 20% [RRR: 1.20, 95% CI: 1.19 – 1.21] with a year increase in age when controlling for other independent variables.

With regards to sex, among migrants, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed for females is 72% lower [RRR: 0.28, 95% CI: 0.27 – 0.29] compared to males when controlling for other independent variables. Among non-migrants, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed for females is 48% lower [RRR: 0.52, 95% CI: 0.51 – 0.53] compared to males when controlling for other independent variables.

Within the migrant population, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed is 7% higher [RRR: 1.07, 95% CI: 1.01 – 1.13] among other-ethnicities compared to Black Africans when controlling for other independent variables. Among non-migrants, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed is 61% higher [RRR: 1.61, 95% CI: 1.59 – 1.63] among other-ethnicities compared to Black Africans when controlling for other independent variables.

The relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed increases with a unit increase in the level of education. Thus, among the migrant population, individuals with primary education compared to those with no formal education have a higher [RRR: 1.50, 95% CI: 1.39 – 1.62] relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed when adjusting for other independent

variables. Moreover, individuals with higher education compared to those with no formal education have a significantly higher relative risk [RRR: 4.10, 95% CI: 3.77 – 4.45] of being formally employed v/s unemployed when adjusting for other independent variables. For non-migrants, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed for individuals with primary education compared to individuals with no formal education is 48% higher [RRR: 1.48, 95% CI: 1.44 – 1.52] when adjusting for other independent variables. The relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed among individuals with higher education is significantly higher [RRR: 12.03, 95% CI: 11.72 – 12.34] compared to individuals with no formal education when adjusting for other independent variables.

Regarding marital status, among migrants, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed among individuals who have been married is 17% higher [RRR: 1.17, 95% CI: 1.13 – 1.22] compared to individuals who have never married, when adjusting for other independent variables. Then among non-migrants, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed among individuals who have been married is 58% higher [RRR. 1.58, 95% CI: 1.57 – 1.60] compared to individuals who have never been married, when adjusting for other independent variables.

With regards to the type of place of residence, among migrants, when adjusting for other independent variables, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed among individuals in rural areas is 5% higher [RRR: 1.05, 95% CI: 0.29 – 0.31] compared to individuals in urban areas. For non-migrants, when adjusting for other independent variables, the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed among individuals in rural areas is 60% less [RRR: 0.40, 95% CI: 0.39 – 0.41] compared to individuals in urban areas.

***Table 4.2.2*:** Relative risk ratios of the association between socio-demographic characteristics and employment status (informal employment v/s unemployment) for migrants and non-migrants in South Africa

	MIGRANTS				NON-MIGRANTS			
	Informal employment				Informal employment			
	Unadjusted		Adjusted		Unadjusted		Adjusted	
Unemployment (base)	RRR (p-value)	95% CI	RRR (p-value)	95% CI	RRR (p-value)	95% CI	RRR (p-value)	95% CI
Socio-demographic characteristics								
Age of the respondent	1,13 (0,000)	1,12-1,14	1,14 (0,000)	1,13-1,15	1,23 (0,000)	1,23-1,24	1,23 (0,000)	1,22-1,24
Sex								
Male	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Female	0,34 (0,000)	0,33-0,35	0,35 (0,000)	0,33-0,36	0,71 (0,000)	0,70-0,72	0,62 (0,000)	0,61-0,63
Ethnicity								
Black African	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Other	1,15 (0,000)	1,09-1,22	1,02 (0,606)	0,95-1,05	1,73 (0,000)	1,70-1,76	1,20 (0,000)	1,18-1,23
Level of education								
No education	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Primary education	1,25 (0,000)	1,16-1,35	1,48 (0,000)	1,37-1,59	1,18 (0,000)	1,15-1,25	1,42 (0,000)	1,38-1,46
Secondary education	1,22 (0,000)	1,14-1,30	1,74 (0,000)	1,62-1,86	0,91 (0,000)	0,88-0,93	1,66 (0,000)	1,61-1,70
Higher education	1,12 (0,10)	1,03-1,23	1,57 (0,000)	1,43-1,73	2,31 (0,000)	2,24-2,38	3,47 (0,000)	3,36-3,58
Marital status								
Never married	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Ever married	1,07 (0,000)	1,03-1,11	1,01 (0,560)	0,97-1,05	2,24 (0,000)	2,21-2,27	1,27 (0,000)	1,25-1,29
Place of residence								
Urban	RC		RC		RC		RC	
Rural	1,73 (0,000)	1,65-1,81	1,76 (0,000)	1,68-1,84	0,63 (0,000)	0,63-0,64	0,68 (0,000)	0,67-0,69

RC = Reference Category, p-value ≤ 0.05 signifies statistical significance at 95% level of confidence

4.2.2 Informal employment v/s Unemployment

Table 4.2.2 above shows the association between socio-demographic characteristics and employment status (informal employment v/s unemployment) for migrants and non-migrants. As can be seen on *table 4.2.2* above, both adjusted and unadjusted models, the relationship between each socio-demographic variable and employment status is statistically significant, except for ethnicity [p>0.05] and marital status [p>0.05] among the migrant population in the adjusted model.

Within the migrant population, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed increases by 14% [RRR: 1.14, 95% CI: 1.13 – 1.15] with a year increase in age when adjusting for other independent variables. For non-migrants, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed increases by 23% [RRR: 1.23, 95% CI: 1.22 – 1.24] with a year increase in age when adjusting for other independent variables.

With regards to sex, among migrants, when controlling for other independent variables, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed for females is 65% lower [RRR:0.35, 95% CI: 0.33 – 0.36] compared to males. Among non-migrants, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed for females is 38% lower [RRR: 0.62, 95% CI: 0.61 – 0.63] compared to males when controlling for other independent variables.

Regarding ethnicity, among the migrant population, when adjusting for other independent variables, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed among other-ethnicities is 2% higher [RRR: 1.02, 95% CI: 0.95 – 1.05] compared to Black Africans. However, the relationship is not statistically significant. Among non-migrants, when adjusting for other independent variables, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed among other-ethnicities is 20% higher [RRR: 1.20, 95% CI: 1.18 – 1.23] compared to Black Africans.

As can be seen on *table 4.2.2,* all categories of level of education have a statistically significant relationship with employment status [p-value≤0.05]. Therefore, among migrants, when adjusting for other independent variables, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed among individuals with primary education is 48% higher [RRR: 1.48, 95% CI: 1.37 – 1.59] compared to those with no formal education. Moreover, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed for individuals with secondary education is 74% higher [RRR: 1.74,

95% CI: 1.62 – 1.86] compared to those with no formal education when controlling for other independent variables. Also, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed for individuals with higher education is 57% higher [RRR: 1.57, 95% CI: 1.43 – 1.73] compared to those with no formal education. Among non-migrants, when controlling for other independent variables, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed for individuals with primary education is 42% higher [RRR: 1.42, 95% CI: 1.38 – 1.46] compared to individuals with no formal education. The relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed for individuals with secondary education is 66% higher [RRR: 1.66, 95% CI: 1.61 – 1.70] compared to individuals with no formal education when controlling for other independent variables. The relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed for individuals with higher education is 247% higher [RRR: 3.47, 95% CI: 3.36 – 3.58] compared to individuals with no formal education when controlling for other independent variables.

Regarding marital status, among migrants, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed among individuals who have been married is 1% higher [RRR: 1.01, 95% CI: 0.97 – 1.05] compared to those who have never married, when adjusting for other independent variables. However, the relationship is not statistically significant. Among non-migrants, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed among individuals who have been married is 27% higher [RRR. 1.25, 95% CI: 1.25 – 1.29] compared to those who have never been married, when adjusting for other independent variables.

With regards to the type of place of residence, among migrants, when adjusting for other independent variables, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed among individuals in rural areas is 76% higher [RRR: 1.76, 95% CI: 1.68 – 1.84] compared to individuals in urban areas. For non-migrants, when adjusting for other independent variables, the relative risk of being informally employed v/s unemployed among individuals in rural areas is 32% less [RRR: 0.68, 95% CI: 0.67 – 0.69] compared to individuals in urban areas.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The study sought to compare the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. The aim was to highlight critical and indicative differences between migrants and non-migrants in relation to employment status. The study had two objectives; (1) to determine the levels of employment status of migrants and non-migrants in South Africa, and (2) to compare the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. The first objective was achieved by using univariate analysis, which entailed using the statistical software Stata to compute frequency and percentage distributions. A graph and tables were used for the presentation of the distribution of frequency and percentage of employment status and the socio-demographic characteristics. The Pearson's chi-squared test was used to measure the associations between independent variables and the outcome variable. The third objective was achieved by employing multinomial logistic regression models. The predictor variables included age, sex, type of place of residence, ethnicity, level of education, and marital status. The outcome variable is employment status, which had 3 categories namely formal employment, informal employment, and unemployment. Therefore, this chapter is intended to discuss the findings of the study.

5.2 Discussion

The study found that unemployment is significantly higher among South Africans (non-migrants) compared to migrants, 60% v/s 39%. Moreover, findings also showed that informal employment is noticeably very low among non-migrants (9%) compared to migrants (24%). High unemployment among non-migrants (South Africans) could be exacerbated by the endemic low levels of self-employment/entrepreneurship among South Africans, particularly among young black people. Metelerkamp et al., (2018) stated that South Africa's entrepreneurial track-record is poor, and that the country has one of the lowest levels of entrepreneurship in the entire African continent. Hence, a lot of African migrants looking for entrepreneurial opportunities in Africa are mostly attracted to South Africa. However, it should also be acknowledged that the

issue of high unemployment is quite complex as there is a multiplicity of factors involved, which makes it a difficult problem to study.

Findings on *table 4.2.1* show that the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed increases with a year increase in age for both sub-population groups (migrants and non-migrants). This suggests that it is much harder for younger people in South Africa to find employment, particularly formal employment. Patel et al. (2020) also found that only 20% of non-migrants between the ages 18 and 25 were in paid employment, and just over two thirds of the 20% was employed in the formal sector. Young people in South Africa are more vulnerable to unemployment due to a number of challenges that they face in gaining access to the labour market. In general, younger people tend to lack work experience and marketable skills compared to older people who have had a longer time to accumulate experience and skills. Moreover, since the worldwide financial crises in 2008-2009, youth unemployment in South Africa has worsened for the 15-19 and 20-24 year olds (Patel et al., 2020). In addition, StatsSA (2020) reported that unemployment among individuals aged 18-25 was around 42% when using the narrow definition of unemployment, and 60% when using the expanded definition.

Rasool and Botha (2011) asserted that South Africa has one of the highest unemployment rates among middle income countries. Also, that high unemployment is largely affecting the young and unskilled population. Moreover, the failure by the education and training system to meet the demands of local companies for skilled graduates has further aggravated the situation (Rasool & Botha, 2011). The aforementioned has had huge adverse effects on the economy and the stability of the country. For instance, as a result of high unemployment among young black people, South Africa faces high levels of poverty, and thus high levels of serious criminal acts perpetrated by young people (Rasool & Botha, 2011).

Similarly, results on *table 4.2.2* showed that the relative risk ratio of being informally employed v/s unemployed increases as individuals grow older, for both migrants (RRR =1.14) and non-migrants (RRR = 1.23). However, these results also reveal that non-migrants, compared to migrants, have greater chances of becoming informally employed at a later age; non-migrants (RRR = 1.23) have a higher relative risk ratio than migrants (RRR = 1.14). This difference between migrants and non-migrants, with regards to age, could be as a result of the negative attitude towards self-employment, entrepreneurship, and domestic work among the South

African youth. The only time South Africans consider self-employment, entrepreneurship, or domestic work could be at a later stage in their lives when employment opportunities are greatly reduced. On the other hand, most African immigrants from impoverished countries, who reside in South Africa, are more inclined to do the work that South Africans look down on. Furthermore, immigrants are more likely to be entrepreneurial from an early age, as they tend to perceive more economic opportunities than South Africans. Nonetheless, another study in the UK also found that self-employment rates increase with age (Moreland, 2006). The motivation to be self-employed comes through the desire to be one's own boss as people get older (Moreland, 2006).

Contrary to the current study, Sheikh et al. (2020) found that a year increase in age corresponded with a lower relative risk ratio of becoming an employer v/s employee. Indicating that, as individuals grow older, the chances of becoming an employee, as opposed to an employer, increase as well. As people get older, their physical and mental conditions also deteriorate, thus making it less likely for a person to start their own enterprises. As people get older, they accumulate more dependents and other social commitments, thus making it difficult to leave their current jobs for possibly risky entrepreneurial endeavours (Sheikh et al., 2020).

The current study also found that females have a lower relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed compared to males, for both migrants and non-migrants. However, non-migrant females appear to be less disadvantaged when compared to migrant females. The relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed for non-migrant females is 48% lower compared to non-migrant males, while that of migrant females is 72% lower compared to migrant males. In support of the current findings, a different study focusing on 11 European countries found that the labour force was predominantly male in most of the countries studied (Arulampalam, Booth, & Bryan, 2005). Among the countries that were studied, Spain, Netherlands, and Italy were found to have the highest male proportion in the labour market, 62.2%, 59.7%, and 59.3%, respectively (Arulampalam et al., 2005). Discrimination against females is one of the reasons behind the disparity in employment between males and females. However, in the European Union, discrimination is prohibited on the grounds of gender, race, and religion. Nonetheless, as much as discrimination may be prohibited in the European Union, the effectiveness of the law

depends on the willingness of individuals to report cases of discrimination (Arulampalam et al., 2005).

Moreover, Adelekan and Bussin (2018) also found that women in South Africa were under-represented in all salary bands, especially at the senior management level. According to Adelekan and Bussin (2018), gender inequality in employment is well documented, and that it is as old as ancient Rome, when women were not allowed to vote or hold public offices. It can also be argued that gender inequality stems from religion and that it has been propagated through cultures where women are deemed to be the weaker sex and men are expected to be providers and the head of the family (Adelekan & Bussin, 2018). Therefore, discrimination has played a big and dangerous role in creating and propagating gender inequality in the labour market. Furthermore, gender inequality in the labour market has a negative impact on the ability of women to become financially independent and provide for their families (Adelekan & Bussin, 2018). Nadler and Stockdale (2012) argued that it appears that female children are disadvantaged from birth, as they are perceived to be the weaker sex, and therefore not afforded the same level of education and resources as male children.

Contrary to the aforementioned studies, Asis and Piper (2008) showed in their study that women and men in Philippines were equally likely to emigrate for employment. Their study also reported that among land-based employment, women made up 61-72% of the new hires deployed every year between 1992 and 1998. According to Mandel and Semyonov (2014), in the past couple of years, many developed countries have experienced a significant decline in gender inequality. The decline is mainly attributed to the introduction of anti-discrimination legislations and increased access to education for females. As a result, the labour force participation of women with tertiary qualifications in developed countries has improved to a level comparable to that of men (Semyonov, 2014).

Furthermore, the current study also found, as shown on *table 4.2.2,* that females in South Africa have fewer chances of being informally employed v/s unemployed compared to males, for both migrants and non-migrants. Once again, as the relative risk ratios show, non-migrant females (RRR = 0.62) appear to be less disadvantaged than migrant females (RRR = 0.35). This can be understood as an indication that, as much as females have fewer opportunities to start their own

enterprises, but South African (non-migrant) females have more opportunities when compared to immigrant females.

In line with the current study, Sheikh et al (2020) also found that women, compared to men, had a lower relative risk ratio of becoming self-employed v/s employed in Pakistan. Furthermore, Ngota, Rajkaran, and Mang'unyi (2019), in their study, also found that entrepreneurship was higher among men than women in South Africa. The authors asserted that women, especially in the African context, usually act as additional agents of economic contributions. It is a common phenomenon in the African context for men to be breadwinners while women look after the kids and the home. However, education and awareness has been created in many African countries, which has been helping to create gender equality and more economic contribution by women (Ngota et al., 2019).

Furthermore, the current study found that the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed among Black Africans is lower compared to that of other-ethnicities, for both migrants (RRR = 0.93) and non-migrants (RRR = 0.49). However, non-migrant Black Africans have a much lower relative risk ratio (RRR = 0.49) when compared to migrant Black Africans (RRR = 0.93). This suggests that immigrants, compared to South Africans, have an advantage when it comes to getting formal employment in South Africa. The reason behind the advantage could be that immigrants who migrate to South Africa arrive in the country with exceptional skills and qualifications that allow them to easily get employed by companies looking for skilled labour. South Africa, especially among black communities, has been struggling with skills shortages for decades. Skills shortage in the country is the consequence of a variety of factors including socio-political and economic factors (Rasool & Botha, 2011). The apartheid government contributed to this problem by ensuring that black people received poor education. This led to tertiary institutions producing poor black graduates and thus creating a dearth in skills among black South Africans (Rasool & Botha, 2011).

Nonetheless, a study by Patel et al. (2020) in South Africa, reported similar findings as the current study. Patel et al., found significant differences in employment levels along racial, gender, and spatial lines. In the study sample, they found that only 21% and 12% of black men and women, respectively, reported to be employed. In contrast, 42% and 31% of white men and women, respectively, reported that they were employed. The majority of black South Africans

who are employed are doing low paying jobs. Moreover, other ethnicities such as Coloureds or Indians seem to have a better experience compared to Blacks, with regards to employment opportunities (Gradin, 2019).

A study in the USA by Emeka (2017) also found that unemployment among black communities has been twice that of white communities for the last half-century. For instance, one of the findings was that the odds of unemployment among black people were 7.8 times that of white people in Washington, D.C. Furthermore, Moss and Tilly (2001) argued that racial inequality in employment is partly attributable to employer preferences for white workers. Some employers hold the view that black workers are risky hires than workers of any other ethnicity. However, when employers are confronted about their hiring processes, most insist that ethnicity does not influence their hiring procedures (Moss & Tilly, 2001).

Results on *table 4.2.2* also showed that other-ethnicities have greater chances of being informally employed compared to Black Africans, for both migrants and non-migrants. However, the relationship was not statistically significant for migrants. Therefore, these results showed that among South Africans, the relative risk of becoming informally employed v/s unemployed is 20% higher for other-ethnicities compared to Black South Africans. The reason behind this could be partly explained by the available evidence suggesting that the majority of young black people tend to attach their ideas to the most remunerative career options, influenced by their peers (Metelerkamp et al., 2018). Often, this is done with little connection to the reality of what is required in order to achieve the career options they want. As a result, informal jobs such as selling on the streets (vendors), spaza-shop assistants, and farming are not considered as viable options by many young South Africans (Metelerkamp et al., 2018).

Furthermore, part of the reasons behind the lack of statistical significance between ethnicity and employment status among migrants in South Africa, could be that there was no noticeable difference in entrepreneurial skills between Black Africans and other-ethnicities that migrated to the country. This could be explained by the phenomenon of selectivity into migration status by occupation and education (Nawrotzki et al., 2012). Individuals who tend to have a higher inclination to emigrate are those who are educated and highly skilled. As such, those migrants selectively move to places where their knowledge and skills can be used productively and profitably (Nawrotzki et al., 2012).

The current study found that an increase in the level of education corresponds with a higher relative risk ratio of being formally employed v/s unemployed, for both migrants and non-migrants. Moreover, the study also revealed that non-migrants with higher education have a significantly higher relative risk ratio (RRR = 12.03) when compared to migrants with higher education (RRR = 4.10). This indicates that South Africans who have attained tertiary qualifications have greater chances of getting formal employment compared to immigrants who also have tertiary qualifications. This particular finding goes against the claim that "immigrants steal jobs from South Africans." However, the fact that unemployment among South African graduates is high still remains, particularly among blacks.

For the longest time, the education system in South Africa has been characterized by under-qualified teachers, lack of resources, weak management, declining enrolments at FET colleges, and inadequate provision for early childhood development (Rasool & Botha, 2011). A survey found that the literacy and numeracy rates among Grade 3 learners were at 36% and 35%, respectively (Pandor, 2008). A significant number of Grade 6 learners were found to be performing at Grade 3 levels (Pandor, 2008). According to Benjamin (2008), South Africa has been coming last in global studies in literacy & reading, mathematics, and science. Other African countries such as Botswana, Ghana, and Tunisia have been outperforming South Africa. Also, the percentage of South African adults who finish school (30.9%) has been very low compared to other developing countries in the world (69.8%) (Rasool & Botha, 2011). Therefore, it could be argued that the aforementioned could be some of the reasons behind the high unemployment rates among South African graduates, in spite of them having a greater likelihood of finding formal employment compared to immigrants.

One study (Baldry, 2015) found that the majority of graduate unemployment was among university of technology graduates, humanities graduates, and other-diploma graduates. Surprisingly, unemployment among South African graduates was found to have grown quicker than that among individuals with lower levels of education between 2008 and 2011 (Baldry, 2015). However, Baldry also argued that many graduates in South Africa are employed in positions that do not fully capitalise on their knowledge and skills. As such, the common claim that unemployment among South Africans is due to skills shortages must be challenged as well.

Furthermore, a study in Madagascar, looking at differentials between migrants and non-migrants, found that migrants were better educated than their non-migrant peers, and migrants scored significantly higher on the wealth index (Nawrotzki, Hunter, and Hunter, 2012). Lopez (2020), in the USA, reported that children of foreign-born parents mostly met or exceeded the schooling level of the general population of non-migrants. Therefore, another possible reason behind the South African graduate unemployment could be that immigrant graduates are generally better educated and more qualified than locals.

The current study also found, as seen on *table 4.2.2*, that individuals with no formal education have the lowest likelihood of becoming informal employees compared to individuals with some form of education, for both migrants and non-migrants. In other words, an increase in the level of education corresponds with a higher relative risk of becoming informally employed v/s unemployed. This finding is congruent to a finding made by Sheikh et al. (2020), who also found that a year increase in level of education corresponded with a higher probability of being self-employed v/s unemployed. Their study also found that individuals with more years of education were more likely to become self-employed v/s employees compared to individuals with lower levels of education. As individuals accumulate more years in education, they also tend to grow aspirations of starting their own enterprises. Hence, entrepreneurship is more likely to be initiated by people with more years of education (Sheikh et al., 2020).

However, Luo and Chong (2018) presented a much nuanced picture about the relationship between education and employment status in China. They found that high educational attainment comes with a higher opportunity cost of switching from wage work to self-employment. Individuals are more likely to become self-employed up to a certain level of education. Individuals who go on to achieve higher levels of educational attainment are more likely to stay in their current professions with a decent salary, and are less likely to become self-employed. Also, the type of qualification and content of one's educational attainment plays a big role in deciding whether to be self-employed or not. Additionally, Faridi, Chaudhry, and Malik (2011) reported that lack of access to higher levels of education is the main reason why women opt for self-employment in Pakistan. Suggesting that there are many other factors, apart from education, that determine participation in self-employment.

The current study also revealed that the relative risk of being formally employed v/s unemployed among individuals who have been married is higher compared to that of individuals who have never been married, for both migrants and non-migrants. According to Sheik et al. (2020), married individuals are more inclined to get employment in the labour market because that is what is expected from breadwinners who have dependents to provide for. However, this finding from the current study is in direct contradiction with another South African study (Dunga & Sekatane, 2014), which investigated determinants of employment status. Their study found that people who were never married had a higher probability of being employed compared to those who had been married. Dunga and Sekatane postulated that part of the reasons behind their finding could be that, for single women, having a job becomes a more pressing necessity, as they have no spouse to depend on financially.

Another study by Hafeez and Ahmad (2002) assessed the influence that socio-economic and demographic factors have on the decision of married women to participate in the labour market in Pakistan. The study found that education had the strongest influence on the decision of married women to participate in the labour market. Women with higher levels of education were more likely to participate in the labour market compared to those with lower levels of education (Hafeez & Ahmad, 2002).

Furthermore, the current study also found that people who have been married had higher chances of becoming informally employed v/s unemployed compared to those who have never been married. However, the relationship between marital status and employment status was not statistically significant for migrants. This finding is partially supported by a different study that was conducted by Faridi et al. (2011), who expected a positive relationship between marital status and self employment in Pakistan, but their findings showed that there was no significant relationship between marital status and self-employment. This could be that marital status alone without the consideration of other indispensable factors does not predict employment status well enough. For instance, Hafeez and Ahmad (2002) concluded that education was a strong and positive predictor of the participation of married women in the labour market. Perhaps, marital status plays the role of a modifying variable, but not that of an independent variable, with regards to employment status.

Nonetheless, Sheikh et al. (2020) found that unmarried people had a lower likelihood of becoming formally employed v/s self-employed. Stated differently, married people had a higher probability of becoming self-employed v/s formally employed when compared to unmarried people. A marriage union facilitates effective capitalisation of entrepreneurial opportunities by achieving economies of scale, providing collective goods, and enabling risk sharing under uncertainty. Moreover, marriage also increases the social ties of a person, which then increases their access to information through interactions with other people reached through the marriage (Luo & Chong, 2018). Furthermore, marriage is also seen as stability, which then creates a compatible environment for self-employment decisions. Moreover, marriage can be advantageous to couples in that it allows couples to start their own businesses using joint finances to maximize family profits (Faridi et al., 2011).

The current study found that migrants based in rural areas have more chances of getting formal employment compared to other migrants based in urban areas. Contrary to that, South Africans (non-migrants) based in rural areas were found to have fewer chances of getting formal employment compared to other South Africans based in urban areas. This difference could be partly attributed to the lack of unionization among immigrants based in rural areas, thus causing exploitation and employment levels to be higher among immigrants. Most employers do acknowledge that immigrant workers are cheaper than locals, and immigrants are more prepared to work longer hours without expecting higher wages. Immigrants are deemed to be willing workers who do work satisfactorily, thus leading to an increase in production (Maharaj & Moodley, 2000).

Moreover, a significant number of employers avoid registration and provision of benefits to immigrants. Hence, a large number of immigrants, especially undocumented immigrants, are employed on a casual or daily basis, and they are vulnerable to retrenchments whenever businesses want to cut costs (Maharaj & Moodley, 2000). Additionally, in-spite of high unemployment in rural South Africa, there is evidence showing that the majority of young people tend to turn their backs on certain jobs, such as agricultural based jobs (Losch, 2016). Maharaj and Moodley (2000) argue that agriculture is critical for Sustainable Development Goal 8, yet it still battles with negative stigmas among young people. The unemployment situation in South Africa is further exacerbated by the fact that since the 2008-2009 financial crises, the

country has had a very low absorption rate into the formal sector, which is the sector that most young people prefer. Additionally, competition for employment in urban areas is much tougher compared to rural areas, thus only a few highly qualified and skilled candidates will get employed.

Furthermore, Xulu, Cheng, and Lili (2017) reported that college graduates from urban areas made up the largest proportion of the main labour market in China. College graduates who came from urban areas had a higher inclination to choose management and technical occupations. While college graduates from rural areas were more inclined to opt for non-management and technical occupations (Xulu et al., 2017). College graduates from urban areas, compared to college graduates from rural areas, were found to use more effective information channels and spent less time job seeking. Xulu et al. argued that these differentials indicated that college graduates from urban areas have a disproportionate advantage in the competitive job market, and those from rural areas have a disadvantaged status in the dual marginalization of material and social capital (Xulu et al., 2017).

Lastly, the current study also showed on *table 4.2.2* that migrants who are based in rural areas have more chances of becoming informally employed v/s unemployed compared to other migrants based in urban areas. On the other side, South Africans (non-migrants) who are based in rural areas were found to have fewer chances of becoming informally employed v/s unemployed compared to other South Africans based in urban areas. It should be stated that a couple of studies seem to support the finding that informal employment opportunities are fewer in rural areas compared to urban areas. Therefore, the reason behind rural migrants having greater chances of becoming informally employed than urban migrants could be due to the selectivity of migration. Meaning, it could be that immigrants who migrate to rural areas in South Africa arrive there with exceptional entrepreneurial skills that allow them to easily start their own businesses. In some cases, immigrants from urban areas relocate to rural areas to capitalise on unexploited entrepreneurial opportunities. These immigrants may bring with them financial and physical capital to easily start their businesses in rural areas (Nawrotzki et al., 2012). When migrants arrive to a new place they may not be as well connected as non-migrants, however their social capital is expected to increase very fast over a short period of time due to formation of social ties (Jimenez, 2011).

Nevertheless, Luo and Chong (2018) looked at the differences in self-employment between rural and urban areas in China. Results showed that chances of self-employment in rural areas were lower compared to those in urban areas. According to Luo and Chong, development in urban areas is dominated by industrialisation, while rural areas have been agricultural based. As such, different opportunity costs exist in these two types of places. It is more difficult for rural residents to seek and secure funds from formal financial institutions because of the perceived existence of unacceptable business uncertainty in rural areas. Moreover, Faridi et al. (2011) expected a positive relationship between women based in rural areas and self-employment, but the findings of their study showed a different outcome. Their findings showed that there was a negative relationship between self-employment and rural areas. Women based in rural areas had lower chances of becoming self-employed compared to those based in urban areas.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

The main objective of the study was to compare the socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. Importantly, this comparison between migrants and non-migrants could be useful in the fight against high unemployment in South Africa. This comparison produced differentials between migrants and non-migrants which could help to specify aspects where South Africans lag, and then improve those aspects by effecting targeted investments. Based on the findings of the study, it was found that there is a significant association between socio-demographic factors and employment status in South Africa. As such, the study rejects the null hypothesis.

Therefore, based on the findings, the study posits that the profile of the population group that is affected the most by unemployment in South Africa is "young, black, rural-based, no-education, and never-married females." But, the study also revealed that South African females are less disadvantaged when compared to migrant females where employment opportunities are concerned. This suggests that conditions for migrant females in South Africa are more pressing and dire. As such, this finding reinforces the assertion that expedited access to education for females is necessary to bring about gender equality.

Furthermore, unemployment is notoriously known to be high among South African graduates, yet the current study indicates that they have more employment opportunities than migrants, particularly in the formal sector. One of the reasons behind high unemployment among graduates could be the fact that South Africa is a youthful country, which implies that the number of graduates looking for employment increases faster than the labour market can absorb these graduates. For the longest time, the country has been suffering from a low absorption rate in the labour market (Baldry, 2015). Over and above that, the poor education system in the country has led to poor university graduates, and thus skills shortages. As a result, it has been difficult for graduates, particularly black graduates, to find employment because they do not meet the minimum job requirements set by many employers.

The study also indicates that one of the factors that contribute to high unemployment among South Africans is the fact that entrepreneurship levels are very low among South Africans.

Studies have shown that South Africans, especially among young people, tend to hold negative attitudes towards certain jobs such as self-employment and farming. Immigrants, especially from impoverished countries, tend to embrace those jobs that South Africans reject. However, immigrants are also more susceptible to their rights being violated by unethical employers. Employers would rather pay low wages to immigrants than higher wages to locals. The current study also indicates that there are fewer employment opportunities in rural areas compared to urban areas. However, migrants based in rural areas seem to have more employment opportunities than those in urban areas. The reason behind this could be that immigrants are drawn to rural areas by entrepreneurial and employment opportunities that locals have not yet capitalised on. Studies have shown that immigrants, compared to locals, are generally better educated, more entrepreneurial, and readily willing to work in difficult conditions.

For many years, the South African government has been intermittently putting in place several projects and policies intended to fight unemployment, improve the education system, and eliminate gender inequality. For example, for the last couple of years, the government expenditure on education has continuously been the largest single investment in public services. On average, the government expenditure on education grew by 14% every year from 2009-2011 (Rasool & Botha, 2011). The government has invested in projects such as Umsobomvu Youth Fund, Further Education and Training (FET), National Student Financial Aid Scheme (NSFAS), and National Skills Fund. Yet, change and improvement have been sluggish with regards to unemployment, gender inequality, and educational outcomes.

Furthermore, the NDP is one of the projects the government decided to initiate, which seeks to eliminate unemployment and inequality by the year 2030 (NDP, 2011). One of the focuses of the NDP is the creation of over one million jobs in the agricultural sector. Yet, no significant change has been brought by the NDP thus far. Moreover, the advent of the Covid-19 pandemic made matters worse, as it led to millions of jobs being lost. This added to the already high unemployment rate in South Africa. Therefore, this is a clear indication that the government needs to rethink its strategies if the country is to see significant improvements in employment, education, and gender inequality.

Globally, the relationship between socio-demographic factors and employment status has received ample research attention. The knowledge generated from that research has enabled the

identification and better understanding of the factors that have great influence on employment outcomes in different contexts. However, there is a dearth of research focusing on the comparison between migrants and non-migrants in relation to their employment status, especially in the South African context. Hence, the current study focused on the comparison of socio-demographic factors associated with employment status between migrants and non-migrants in South Africa. Therefore, the knowledge contribution made by this study is through highlighting crucial differences between immigrants and non-migrants in South Africa. Differences between sub-population groups can be surprisingly telling, and thus useful in identifying shortcomings of each group.

6.2 Recommendations

6.2.1 Policy

The study convincingly indicates that the South African government has failed in many respects; women are still disadvantaged, education system is still poor, unemployment levels are higher than ever before, entrepreneurship levels are extremely low, and rural areas are still heavily disadvantaged. The government needs to focus on fulfilling its mandate, which is making sure that its citizens are safe and afforded the necessary opportunities to live the lives they wish to live. Based on the findings of the study, the government needs to invest resources in schools, infrastructure in rural areas, FET, Small Medium and Macro Enterprises (SMME). Investment in those areas will enable citizens to realize their goals. Moreover, the government needs to encourage more entrepreneurship through effective channels, i.e., introducing a school subject that focuses on entrepreneurship. This has the potential to reduce unemployment by many orders of magnitude. Citizens tend to thrive when they are presented with fair and equal opportunities. More importantly, the main focus of investments should be placed on females, as they are the group that is squandered the most, especially in rural areas.

Over and above, individuals need to take responsibility of their own lives without relying too much on the government. The most salient trait about immigrants in the country is that they take responsibility of their own lives, and they place little reliance on the government. The only expectations that people must have for their government is that it must protect the citizens and

provide a conducive environment for everyone to achieve any goals they may have. As such, ample resources must be directed to education, infrastructure, recreation, and research & development. Therefore, one of the ways people in South Africa can take the lead in their own lives can be through learning from immigrants and start their own enterprises, and change their attitudes towards farming. South Africa has a very low absorption rate into the labour market, thus people need to think differently about their employment prospects.

6.2.2 Future research

As far as employment opportunities are concerned, South African females are less disadvantaged compared to immigrant females. It was beyond the scope of this study to determine the factors responsible for this difference between migrant and non-migrant females. Therefore, based on this finding, further research could be conducted to ascertain the factors behind this advantage that South African females have. Such a study could be useful in empowering women, because the findings will help to identify and highlight struggles that are faced by immigrant women in South Africa. More importantly, findings will also help in fighting gender inequality.

The study also revealed that South Africans who have tertiary education have more employment opportunities than migrants, yet their unemployment rate is abnormally high. The study postulated that some of the reasons behind this could be the poor education system, which leads to poor university graduates. Another reason behind this could be that the number of people, especially young, looking for employment dwarfs the capacity that the labour market currently has. Therefore, future researchers should attempt to ascertain the factors responsible for high unemployment among graduates. Most studies that have focused on this subject are dated, thus there is a need for studies that will use recent data.

The relationship between marital status and employment status did not give a clear direction as to how much influence does marital status have on employment status. Studies are also giving contradicting findings with regards to the role that marital status plays on employment status. Therefore, it would be helpful for future researchers to find more effective ways of measuring the influence that marital status has on employment status, especially in the South African context.

6.2.3 Limitations

The dataset only covered documented migrants; undocumented migrants were not part of the dataset. Therefore, findings cannot be generalised to undocumented migrants in South Africa. Moreover, significant changes in socio-demographic factors could have occurred since 2011 when the data was collected. This could lead to a misrepresentation of the status quo. Furthermore, questionnaires were used to collect information about the respondents, thus some of the responses might be incorrect due to individuals deliberately giving false information or due to recall bias. Lastly, the study is cross-sectional, which only allows for studying prevalence and associations. Thus, no causality claims between socio-demographic factors and employment status can be made by this study.

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