# Participation of African immigrants in the labour force of South Africa: Insights from the 2001 population census

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# **ABSTRACT**

The study examines the participation of African immigrants in the South African labour force with the central question revolving around whether the immigrants create jobs through the establishment of their own businesses or take jobs from the locals. Analytical frame work used in this study includes descriptive statistics, chi-square test for association and standardized residuals, two-way analysis of variance and logistic regression. Demographic, locational and socio-economic characteristics were studied using descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. Two-factor analysis of variance was used to examine the differences on average in the African immigrants' participation in the labour force, while logistic regression was used to investigate the effect of some demographic characteristics on employment and work status. Chi-square analysis was used to investigate the association between the different characteristics of African immigrants in the labour force. Finally, a cross-province analysis was used to examine different spatial patterns. The data for the study were obtained from the South African National Census held in 2001. Results from the study showed that most African immigrants are not highly educated leading to a high rate of unemployment among them. It was also observed that most are paid employees meaning few are self-employed/employer. More so, more females work as self-employed/employer compared to males. Provincial participation of African immigrants in the labour force recorded high rate of participation by the African immigrants. The activity rate by provinces showed that the highest activity rates provided by African immigrants were found in the North West. These results showed that, there was a significant differential in immigrant's participation in the labour force.

#### **Key words:**

Activity rate, African immigrant, Citizenship, Demographic characteristics, Labour force, Locational characteristics, Participation, SADC, Socio-economic characteristics, South Africa

# **DECLARATION**

I declare that **Participation of African immigrants in the labour force of South Africa: Insights from the 2001 population census and housing** is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Isam Mohammed		November 2008
Signature:		
	UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE	

Date: .....

# **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to Molana, ALsid Ibrahim Almargani and to my parents.



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#### **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

#### 1.1 Introduction

This study will examine the differentials in participation of African immigrants in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa, including the urban and rural areas. The main objectives of this study are to establish the differentials across the nine provinces with regards to their participation in the labour force, with a view to investigate the effect of some demographic characteristics of African immigrants on their employment status, and to examine the region of origin, and destination of African immigrants. Immigrants refer to individuals of non-South African citizenship as referred to in the 2001 South African National Census. This study used the concept of immigrants in the same way as migrant, irrespective of the migrant's legal status. Moreover, the study measures the international migration by citizenship, without taking into account the country of birth. Citizenship was used to avoid the inclusion of South Africans born outside South Africa.

#### 1.1 Background

South Africa is the most developed country in the Sub-Saharan region, and contributes about three quarters of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of Sub-Saharan Africa, which include fourteen countries. The average per capita income in South Africa is much higher than the average per capita income in Sub-Saharan African countries (thirty-six times higher than the average per capita income in Mozambique) (Solomon, 2003). This has made South Africa a destination for immigrants from neighboring countries as well as other African countries, and elsewhere. This study will focus on African immigrants in South Africa. The country has experienced multiple forms of immigration from different types of people, for different

purposes at different periods. Immigrants move to South Africa for different purposes, which include the tendency of joining the labour force as seen in labour migration from Southern Africans. Moreover, due to conflicts in some African countries, the flow of refugees and asylum seekers in South Africa becomes heavy thereby increasing the number of illegal immigrants in the country without the necessary documentations.

Crush *et al.*, (2004) and Rogerson (1997) have both shown that immigrants to South Africa make positive contributions to the labour force. On the other hand, there are also some negative effects resulting from this immigration, such as competition over meager resources (housing, social services, jobs and other benefits). The full nature of these negative and positive contributions is still under debate. Therefore, the topic still needs empirical investigations to determine if immigrants do really create more jobs within the country consequent upon the establishment of immigrants businesses. Negative contribution can result if these immigrants get involved in the country labour market and displace the citizens' chances of employment.

There is a dearth of data regarding the participation of African immigrants in the labor force in South Africa, which should establish whether the immigrants take away the jobs which are occupied by locals, or they create jobs through establishment of their own businesses. According to Crush *et al* (2004), African immigrants in South Africa help in creating many economical goods and services. In addition, they consume few public services without displacing many South African workers.

The location of immigrant's economic activities is also a matter of empirical uncertainty. Rogerson (1997) examined in his study conducted in Johannesburg, the effect of immigrants with small businesses on the labor market and found that new immigrants working in the small and medium business sectors create job opportunities for South African workers.

Previous studies concentrated on immigration to urban areas in South Africa and their effect on the labour market within those areas (Rogerson 1997, Polzer 2008). During the apartheid era, labour immigration was well-controlled and documented due to the fact that immigration was restricted. However, recent data on labour migration in places other than cities is scanty. Polzer (2008) also observed that there is no enough data on labour migration and asylum seekers are very limited in South Africa. From literature survey, it emerges that the studies on the phenomenon of African immigrants to South Africa and their contribution to the labour force has been discussed, though limited to large cities and urban areas but comprehensive information is lacking about their participation in the labour force across the rural areas of the nine provinces of the country.

Hence, this study will examine the differentials in participation of African immigrants in the labour force living in both urban and rural areas across the provinces of South Africa. Differentials will be established along the lines of demographic characteristics such as age, gender, income, marital status, country of birth and educational levels. More so, the participation in the labour force of these immigrants will be investigated by looking at the socio-economic variables such as the type of activity, occupation, work status, economic sector, employment status, and activity rate.

#### 1.2 Problem Statement

The central questions of this study are:

- Do African immigrants create jobs through the establishment of their own businesses or displace indigenes by taking up available jobs as employees?
- Are there differentials in participation of African immigrants in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa?
- How do African immigrants distribute across urban and rural destinations in South Africa?
- From where do African immigrants come to South Africa?
- What are the economic sectors that are mostly attractive to African immigrants?
- What are the economic sectors preferred by African female immigrant workers?
- What are the age groups most common among African immigrants?
- To what extents are these African immigrants educated?

#### 1.3 Purpose of the study

Various studies that have addressed the issue of participation of African immigrants in South African labour market and the question arising always revolves around whether the immigrants create jobs or displace locals in the South Africa labour market. In a slightly different context, this study investigates the extent to which immigrants take up jobs as employees, and therefore compete with the locals or conversely, create jobs through the establishment of businesses to work on their own as self-employed/employer.

The study will examine the differentials in participation of African immigrants in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa including the rural and urban areas. Differentials will be established along the lines of some demographic characteristics such as age, gender, income, marital status, region of origin, and educational levels.

As for the participation in the labour force, this will be investigated by looking at the socioeconomic variables. A cross-province analysis will be used to examine the differing spatial patterns.

#### 1.4 Objectives of the study

Seven objectives are pursued and the listing is as follows:

- To establish the differentials across the nine provinces with regards to their participation in the labour force.
- To identify the demographic characteristics of the immigrants.
- To profile the immigrant's destination in South Africa.
- To identify the immigrant's socio-economic status.
- To examine the region of origin of the immigrants.
- To investigate the effect of some demographic characteristics of African immigrants on their employment status.
- To investigate the effect of some demographic characteristics of African immigrants on work status.

#### 1.5 Hypothesis

- African immigrants tend to create jobs rather than take jobs from South Africans.
- There are differentials in participation of African immigrants in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa.
- African immigrants in South Africa are more likely to reside in the urban areas than rural areas.
- African immigrants are more likely to participate in informal sectors than formal sectors.
- African female immigrants are more likely to participate in informal sector.
- Most African immigrants are in the middle age groups.
- African immigrants in South Africa have some form of education.

### 1.6 Significance of the study

After attaining the objectives, the study will be able to provide information that will help to clarify and enhance knowledge in the participation of African immigrants in the labour force across both urban and rural areas of all provinces in South Africa.

#### 1.7 Scope and limitations of the study

The African immigrant's data will be drawn from the South African National Census of 2001. The study used a sample of 10 % from the census data. One of the census objectives is to collect information about the migration in the country. The study was limited by lack of data on the country of origin of immigrants as this variable was not available in the census data used in this study.

#### 1.8 Definitions of key terms

#### • African immigrant

An African immigrant refers to an African living in South Africa, but without South African citizenship, though decides to settle there.

#### Labour force

This refers to the total number of people aged 15-65 years, and categorized as employed or unemployed seeking for work. (UN 2001)

#### • Participation

A participant in the labour force may be either employed or unemployed, but actively looking for employment. (UN 2001)

# • 2001 Population Census

South African 2001 National Census was conducted on the 9<sup>th</sup>-10<sup>th</sup> of October 2001. Information was collected from all persons and households throughout the country (Statistics South Africa, 2003).

#### • Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries

These countries include Angola, Botswana, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

# Activity rate

This the number of people in the labour force expressed as a percentage of the working age

population (15-65), and obtained by  $\frac{Employed + Unemployed}{Total..Population(15-65)}X100$ 



# **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter includes information about global immigration patterns, with emphasis on South Africa. The chapter will include the meaning of immigration, theory of migration, reasons of immigration, profile of immigrants, and summary.

#### 2.2 Definition of immigration

An international immigrant can be defined as a person who relocates to a country, different from his/her country of birth in order to settle there (UN 1998). The United Nations (1998) defined country of usual residence, as the country where a person lives i.e. the country in which he/she has a place to live and/or where he/she normally spends the day. Traveling abroad temporarily for the purpose of recreation, holiday, visit to friends/relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage does not change a person's country of usual residence, taking into account the time spent by the immigrant in the country of destination (UN 1998).

Two categories of international migration are identified by the United Nations: short-term and long-term migration. The long-term migrant is defined as a person who moves to a country other than that of his/her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months), so that the country of destination effectively becomes his/her new country of residence. From the perspective of the country of departure, the person will be a long term emigrant and at that the country of arrival, the person will be long-term immigrant (UN 1998).

The short-term migrant, however, refers to "a person who moves to a country other than that of his/her usual residence for a period of at least 3 months but less than a year (12 months), except in cases where the movement to that country is for purposes of recreation, holiday, visit to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage". For purposes of international migration statistics, the country of usual residence of short-term migrants is considered to be the country of destination during the period they spend in it (UN 1998). Today, people reside outside their home countries more than ever before and this situation will likely persist because of continued migration causes. Hence, a drop in the rate of migration is not foreseeable in the near future.

#### 2.3 Immigration in the world

It is a known fact that international migration is the third of the demographic components used in the determination of the size and structure of a population. It has become an important issue because of its impact on economy and policy. International migration is one of the important issues of worldwide globalization trends, since it occurs as people cross borders from a country of origin to a country of destination.

According to the United Nations Population Division, the number of long-term international migrants increased from 75 million persons in 1965 to 84 million by 1975. In 1985, the estimated number was 105 million, while an estimate of 120 million was recorded in 1990, and the rate continued to grow until it reached 150 million by 2000 (Martin, 2001). The phenomenon of migration from African countries to search for a better quality of life is not new: there is a proliferation of African migrants as a result of deteriorating economic conditions, violent conflicts, and political problems. Most African migrants move to Europe and the United States, hence African regions suffered from migration. There is migration from

North and West Africa to Europe, and from West and Central Africa to the developed countries in the gulf states; and immigration from the countries of Eastern and Southern Africa to South Africa (Russell *et al.*, 1990).

African regions are characterized by different types of migration. West Africa suffers from labour and irregular migration, East Africa is characterized by refugee movements, especially in the areas of the Horn of Africa and Great Lakes, while labour migration is commonplace in the Southern African region (Russell *et al.*, 1990).

There is a dearth of information on international migrants in the sub-Saharan region. Despite the lack of information in this area, Ricca (1989), however, estimated the number to be about 35 million migrants in the sub-Saharan Africa. By this estimate, the number of migrants in sub-Saharan Africa approached half the number of migrants in the world, which is 80 million as estimated by Widgren (1987).

It can be said that labour migration is one of the characteristics of sub-regions of sub-Saharan Africa where there is migration of labour particularly in West Africa and Southern Africa to South Africa. On the other hand, it is observed that the exodus of refugees scattered in the Horn of Africa and West Africa suffer from the spread of clandestine migration (Russell, 1990).

A study conducted in Lesotho (Akokpari, 2005) revealed that immigration was not a serious issue, consequent upon the weak industrial base. This inability to provide formal and informal employment makes Lesotho unattractive for migrants, while it serves as a source of employment for the mining industry in South Africa. In recent years, Lesotho has become one of the largest receiving countries of skilled immigrants from outside the SADC. The

immigrants come to Lesotho looking for better economic conditions and also to find a point of entry into South Africa (note that Lesotho is located within the borders of South Africa). The study further showed that contrary to perceptions, immigrants create more job opportunities rather than taking over jobs. In addition, migration brings skills to economic sectors that suffer from a shortage of skilled labour in Lesotho (Akokpari, 2005).

#### 2.4 Selected migration theories relevant to the present study

There are many theories that discuss issues of migration. The importance of these theories is to help us understand the way that migrants used their skills to insert the labor market in the destination regions. This study will highlight some of these theories namely: the migration network theory, global migration theory, and migration selectivity theory. However the analytical framework is structured around the line of migration selectivity theory.

#### 2.4.1 Migration network theory

The theories on migration networks have stressed that increase in migration is as a direct result of decrease in social, economic and emotional costs that form the core principle of migration networks worldwide (Light *et al.*, 1989). Massey *et al* (1987, 1988 and 1989) opined that migration networks have been taking care of the migrants they have produced, therefore migration has become progressively independent, besides the political, economic and social conditions that initially caused the process.

For the past decades, continents have seen the increase in migration as a direct result of social networks that connects individuals which is heavily influenced by the push and pull factors. Although, most of the migrants have been associated with the aforesaid network, there are

some who do not get any assistance from the migration networks and hence, can be referred to as unassisted migrants (Light *et al.*, 1989).

According to Light *et al.* (1989), once the networks have been established, it is likely that more people start to migrate. These networks play a vital role in arranging their departure, travel, and places to settle abroad. These networks have been acting as a middle man for the process of migration. On the other hand, there are some individuals who work for their immigration process individually without the services of the migration networks and hence, they are named 'unassisted migrants'.

According to Massey (1988), migration networks were defined as "sets of interpersonal ties that link migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in origin and destination areas through the bonds of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin". Immigration networks create the independence of migratory flows for some reasons. One of the notable reasons is when the network connections find a base ground; they create favorable social structures that become a basis of support for immigrations (Bozorgmehr and Sabagh, 1990). This support varies from economic and emotional, to social welfare. The networks play a vital role in finding them shelter, jobs and support them to adjust in the new cultural environment where they settle. All these sorts of support on the other hand tend to encourage other people to follow as a result of the satisfactory benefits other migrants have experienced (Light *et al.*, 1989)

Another significant reason according to Massey's assumptions of risk diversification model is that families divide work among their members depending on their needs and aspiration in an attempt at cost efficiency, and risk minimizing strategy. Network theories have changed with time due to the changes happening in the economic system, which affects the migrant's

situation. Likewise, a large number of immigrants may affect an economy thus; the migrant's situation will definitely be affected. This will lead to shortages within the networks according to individual and economic perspectives (Light *et al.*, 1989).

A high numbers of immigrants might exacerbate the healthy relationship between immigrants and indigenous people, if the inhabitants feel any constraints for their social situation and possible political unrest. Sometimes, migrants may divert their movements to other destinations where the number of foreigners (migrants) is lower. When the migrant waves are maximized, anti- cyclic migrants' actions could appear. If there are no vacancies for job or housing, there is no way that migrants could move to the next country unless jobs or other supporting incentives are available there. On the other hand, migration theories underestimate the liquidity and multiplier effect of foreign incomes to the local economy. This occurs when the migrant labour takes up the jobs which the indigenes would not want to do. Company owners sometimes recruit the immigrants to do the most physically demanding jobs whether in farming, or in the factories. At the same time, migration entrepreneurs may establish their own companies and employ their own co-ethnic employees (the immigrant economy) thus, will be complementary to the labour market (Light et al., 1989).

#### 2.4.2 New global migration dynamics

Global migration dynamics is a new concept in the study of migration process. It became an important item in today's research and is placed in a context of massive historical transition (Meissner *et al.*, 1993). Since the beginning of the1990s, most researches have used the term transition for this type of migration and this has been used to emphasize the emergence of the transitional space whereby migrants find and establish social fields that cross political, geographical and cultural borders (Pellerin, 1997).

The significant impact of migration on local and global structures and processes involve the complexity ties between social relationship of migrants and societies of origins, and that of the destinations. Therefore, the new concept carries the old discourser of migration into new global realities. Migration can not be viewed as a single event or act which has to do only with crossing borders. It is more worthwhile to recognize it as a long process which involves various stages of development from the initial capital penetration, the change of place of birth, to the unification of family members. It evolves also in labour migration, social, cultural and political settlements (Pellerin, 1997)

The new concept of global migration has emerged in new categories of migrants. According to the United Nations (1992), the secretariat refers to it as a form of humanitarian in nature which is composed of refugees and asylum seekers, illegal immigrants, and unregistered migrants who are reunited with their family members. One of the notable shifts in the migration flow is the increase in numbers of women since the 1970s. This process of transitional migration defines a wider process of changes covering multi-local configuration that reaches beyond the national borders (Pellerin, 1997)

#### 2.4.3 Migration selectivity theory

Migration is a crucial or double edged knife according to how it is expressed or defined in terms of the new comers. If they are welcomed, the others behind might join the "incentive injection" (Shaw, 1975). On the other hand, on some occasions, they could be discriminated against by the indigenous people under justification that the migration waves later or sooner would replace them (Shaw, 1975).

Selecting migrants act upon the place of origin. Certain attributes my facilitate migrants to participate in the labor market in the destination regions, such attributes include among other age, gender, marital status, education, qualifications and occupation.

More so, migrants are usually active to find jobs in the receiving countries and they are more likely to occupy the jobs that refused by the locals in the lower segments. Further more, migrants participate the labor force in the lower segments may be due to their lack of education, relevant skills, and/or due to the national employment policy which concentrate on citizens only, with no policies established to improve or alleviate the work conditions of African immigrants. Individually, some migrants my join the labor market in the high or middle segments.

#### 2.4.3.1 Age selectivity

Age is one of the critical factors that stimulate migration. When the young educated or new manpower have just joined the labour market, a similar constraint they have met e.g. no enough spaces for them. Market phenomenon could not absorb extra number of employees or the tribal beach racy policies that is common in most developing countries. The host countries have shared common issues, such as the risk of massive shortages of labour because of ageing population, or their growing economic needs and availability of extra custodian jobs that only migration forces could occupy. This kind of human movements could be applied to intermigration movement inside one country "from subsistence rural sector to the urban area" (Shaw, 1975).

#### 2.4.3.2 Sex selectivity

Although sex is less influential than age selectivity, researches in different geographical areas have shown that male migration is higher than that of females. Females' migration has significantly increased over the last fifty years in developing countries. Domestic work force in the rural-urban area in Chile serves as an example, and interstate in India and Brazil have revealed a rise in migration numbers in favour of the females (Shaw, 1975).

#### 2.4.3.3 Educational levels

Recently, education has become the main player in human migration. Areas with a highly educated population tend to have more migrant influx than other areas with a lower educated population regardless of gender, race, colour and the other related factors. In Ghana, research has shown that 59 % of the males with low levels of education never plan to migrate, while only 17 % of the highly educated preferred to remain in their homes (Galdwell, 1970). The worsening socio-economic conditions in the out-migrated countries and also charming polices from the in-migration countries are motivations to accelerate migration (Shaw, 1975).

#### 2.4.3.4 Marital status

Obviously, most of the migrated people are family holders (married) in both genders. The observed higher level of migration associated with married people compared to singles may be attributed to parental responsibilities e.g. feeding their children or sending remittances to their relatives as part of the solidarity. Sometimes the rest of the family members reunite with their mothers/fathers in the migrated countries. This new life is phenomenon cycle appearance in migrated geographical areas and it takes place in multiplicity of societies. Conjugal responsibilities do not delay human movement even if the migration is within the rural and urban areas (Shaw, 1975).

# 2.4.3.5 Occupation selectivity

There is ongoing debate on migration theories nowadays, on if there is an occupational differential in migrants' labor markets. Based on an economic point of view, there is strong evidence that one can agree that there is an occupational differential in migration process. The whole argument is based on the supply and demand of the labour market. It is highly noted that the local labour market can be sustained by unskilled labour within the locals, but not so when it comes to the highly skilled jobs (Shaw, 1975). According to Richard (1969), he stressed that the more highly skilled the occupation, the more the chance of supply and demand is likely to be extended from local supply to regional, and furthermore to national arena.

It is emphasized that migration may have a little margin of specialization, when economies are at the initial stages of development and industrialization. When the economy is growing, it is evident that migration becomes more selective of specific occupations. Complementing the theory above, Rose (1958) observed the occupational characteristics and distance traveled by inmigrants to the US city of Minneapolis. On her hypotheses, she stresses that high status persons seeking better jobs and opportunities have to travel long distances to find it. Stub (1962) corroborates this; "found that the in-migrants to Duluth, Minnesota in 1958 had higher status occupations, and tended to migrate further distances".

#### 2.5 Immigration in South Africa

South Africa has experienced immigration for several decades, and it has been a destination for migrants from neighboring countries, other African countries, and elsewhere (Crush and Williams 2005). Immigrants from neighboring countries make up the majority of the total migrants and tend to work mainly in the mining industry sector, and the agricultural sector. Also,

there were migrations of white Europeans to South Africa until the year 1994. After the end of apartheid, there have been changes in the migration pattern to South Africa. It has become at the same time destination and departure country for immigrants, where the country experienced the emigration of large numbers of skilled citizens, and also, there was an increase in numbers of migrants from neighboring countries to South Africa (Crush and Williams, 2005).

Although the numbers of immigrants in South Africa is on the increase, there is still no accurate data on them. Estimated figures of 8-10 million was announced, and then withdrawn by the South African Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) in the year 2001(Crush and Williams, 2005).

The well organized South African census of 2001 confirmed that there is an increase in interregional migration to South Africa, while also the foreign-born population in South Africa also increased significantly up to 2.3 % of the total population, with 22 % of them being European immigrants that were influenced by the apartheid era, 4 % from either African or Asian countries, while 67 % are from neighboring SADC countries (Crush and Williams, 2005).

According to SADC, migrant movements from the rest of the African continent to South Africa are based on different reasons; such as a booming economy, which persuades target labour force from both neighboring countries and the rest of the Africa. Other factors include imbalances in trade, structural adjustment programs, and domestic economy policies e.g. Mozambique. Other major common factors responsible for migration are influenced by poverty, inflations (pushpull), and South Africa's dominance in trade, compared to the rest of the SADC countries (Crush and Williams, 2005).

#### 2.6 Reasons of migration

There are many reasons which make citizens migrate from their homelands. These include but not limited to:

- a. search for better economic opportunities,
- b. drought and famine, or escape from political and military conflicts, (refugees), and
- c. those who migrate for reasons such as education, temporary visitors, and salaried workers posted outside their country of origin (Russell *et al.*, 1990).

#### 2.7 Profile of immigrants

#### **2.7.1** Gender

It is an established fact that during the apartheid regime, the proportion of male immigrants to South Africa was higher compared to females. The male immigrant tends to join the mine industry and agriculture sector, while the female immigrants were seen as non-production workers in the mining industry. According to Crush and McDonald (2000), there was an increase in the proportion of women migrants to South Africa, in particular from neighboring countries, and such immigrant women even compete with men in certain low wage economic sectors. In addition, Ulicki and Crush (2000) stated that migrant women often tend to work in the area of trade, shopping, and sex-work.

According to Everet (2007), the proportion of female migrants in Africa increased from 42 % to nearly 50 %. This increase occurred as a result of the marginalization and impoverishment of women in developing countries, coupled with the increase in demand for women labour from industrial sectors. In addition, the female immigrants are older, more educated, and more

likely to be married compared to their male counterparts. They tend to join the informal sector. On the other hand, Polzer (2008) noted that female immigrants are as hard working as men, and should therefore be considered as being economically independent.

#### 2.7.2 Age

Several studies have shown that young people are more likely to migrate, and it is established that most immigrants are within the middle age group. Rogerson (1997), in his study on immigrant entrepreneurs in Johannesburg noted that 55 % of immigrants are aged between 26-35 years, and 15 % of them are aged between 21-25 years. McDonald *et al*, (1999) also observed that most African immigrants in South Africa are young, with half of them being under 30 years old, while a quarter out of their sample were over 35 years old. The average age of the immigrants was 32 years.

#### 2.7.3 Level of education

In most cases, highly educated people are more likely to find jobs but the situation may be different in the case of immigrants. According to Polzer (2008), immigrants with higher degrees get no advantage when job seeking compared to the lesser educated ones. She further noted that 28.7 % of the immigrants have some form of educational degree compared to 3.2 % of the South African population. Rogerson (1997) noted that most immigrants in the survey sample were educated with the proportion of immigrants with STD6-STD9 being 31.4 %, Matric 21.4 %, university graduates and Post-Graduates 22.9 %, while the proportion of immigrants with no educational degree was 5.7 %.

#### 2.7.4 Occupation type

South Africa has for decades experienced migration of workers from neighboring countries and various other African countries who come to work in the mining industry and the agricultural sector. Prior to the abolishment of apartheid, immigration flow was well-controlled and documented, but after apartheid era, the immigration regime has become unregulated. According to Polzer (2008), post apartheid data on labour migration into South Africa is not as accurate and complete in comparison to the apartheid times, with the consequent limitations/inaccuracy regarding data on labour migration and asylum seekers.

McDonald *et al* (1999) reported that 78 % of the immigrants in their survey were working part/full time. Of this, 38 % of them joined the informal sector, while 62 % work in the formal sector. 22 % of the migrant population was unemployed, while 8 % of the unemployed were students. This represents a high level of employment and productivity by immigrants, considering that the study found that of the employed, 78 % of them were skilled and employed in their home countries before their migration to South Africa.

Polzer (2008) reported that 35 % of the surveyed immigrants were unemployed, while the proportion of employed immigrants was 53 %; inclusive of casual, part-time, full-time and self employment.

#### 2.7.5 Country of origin

South Africa has been a migrants' haven for several decades and it has been a receiving country for many immigrants from other African countries and elsewhere. Majority of the immigrants are from the Southern Africa countries who immigrated to South Africa to work in the mining industry and agriculture sector, while there are also white immigrants who come from Europe.

During the last twenty years, South Africa has faced a significant increase in the numbers of migrants from neighboring countries, including the rest of Africa and Asia (Crush and Williams, 2005).

#### 2.8 Summary

The definition of immigration is based on the case of someone residing in a country which is not his/her place of birth. The numbers of immigrants have been increasing in the last 20 years due to the increase of economic difficulties especially in the developing countries. Other reasons include civil conflicts and political restrictions. Additionally, immigration can be in form of refugees or asylum seekers. There is lack of information regarding immigration patterns in Sub-Saharan countries (Russell *et al.*, 1990).

South Africa is the choice country of migrants on the African continent. Up to 1994 the majority of the African immigrants ending up in the mining industry. The immigration to South Africa occurs due to the short distance, better economy, and policy encouraging people from the South African countries. Migration to South Africa has effects on the labor market as it may result in creating more job opportunities in the labor market. This may not necessarily improve/limit the chances of South Africans.

There are several demographic characteristics affecting immigrants profile in South Africa, and globally. These include, but not limited to age, gender, educational level, occupation, and occupation type. Some studies have showed that immigration data were more documented in the post-apartheid era (Crush and Williams, 2005).

Migration theories can help us to understand the reasons that lead people to migrate from their original areas. The theories on migration networks have stressed the increase in migration as a

direct result of decrease in social, economic and emotional costs forms the core principle of migration networks worldwide (Light *et al.*, 1989). Global migration dynamics is a new concept in the study of migration process. It became an important item in today's research and is placed in a context of massive historical transition (Meissner *et al.*, 1993). Migration as a selective process concentrates more on skilled migration.



# **CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF MIGRATION POLICIES**

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the immigration policy during the apartheid era, and also discusses the post-apartheid immigration policy. Mores so, the chapter describes difficulties faced by immigrants while participating in the labour market, and the attitudes of South Africans towards foreigners.

#### 3.2 Immigration policy during apartheid era

Immigration policies during the apartheid era in South Africa were based on four pillars which had racism incorporated into them, and legislation devoted to the apartheid system. Inclusive in the policies were components such as the exploitation of migrant workers from neighboring countries, repudiation of international conventions governing the rights of refugees, and also tough/harsh enforcement of legislation to preserve the apartheid system (Crush and McDonald, 2001).

#### 3.2.1 First pillar

The government during the apartheid era used racial and religious criteria to determine those who were allowed to enter the country in accordance with certain conditions. Accordingly, immigrants with white skin are allowed to enter the country, while non-white immigrants were unwelcome, particularly immigrants from other African countries (Crush and McDonald 2001). By the twilight years of apartheid, government abandoned the policy of selecting immigrants based on race, when it allowed a selected group of black immigrants, and some skilled immigrants from Asia to support the apartheid government (Crush and McDonald 2001).

#### 3.2.2 Second pillar

The second pillar of the apartheid immigration policy involved recruiting immigrant workers from neighboring countries to the mining and agricultural sectors. In accordance with bilateral treaties, this system was heavily skewed towards the interests of employers and government, and did not take into account the interests of the immigrants and their families. These policies also discriminated between white and black immigrants, where none of the black immigrants who spent their lives working on South Africa's mines or farms had the right to obtain permanent residence in the country. Additionally, working contracts were drafted with a clause such that the black immigrant had to return to his country at the expiration of the contract (Crush and McDonald, 2001).

# 3.2.3 Third pillar

The third pillar of apartheid immigration policy was the tough enforcement of legislation, in which the state used draconian laws to control the flow of immigrants from neighboring countries. In 1991, the Aliens Control Act passed harsh new penalties against unauthorized immigration to South Africa. Here, the law grants immigration officials and police wide powers to enter and search, and arrest defaulting immigrants. The maximum penalty in the case of harboring illegal immigrants was up to five years imprisonment (Crush and McDonald, 2001).

# 3.2.4 Fourth pillar

The fourth pillar of the apartheid immigration policy was the government refusal to improve their selective policy on refugees. The government of the National Party refused the refugee's policy agreed upon by the United Nations and the Organization of African Unity (Crush and McDonald, 2001).

## 3.3 Post apartheid immigration policy

There is a need for a new immigration policy to activate the commitment of South Africa in the continent's development as expressed in the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). Hence, the international immigrants with their skills can fill shortfalls in various economic sectors, thereby helping to meet the needs of development in South Africa. To achieve this, the state developed programs and mechanisms to benefit from the positive impact of international immigration, and at the same time reduce the negative effects associated with immigration (Crush and Williams, 2005).

The immigration policy during the apartheid era was aimed at the resettlement of white immigrants to the exclusion of blacks. Such practices became unacceptable after 1994. The new government did not make a new immigration policy immediately, as they continued to work with the Aliens Control Act of 1991 until 2002, when it was replaced by a new Immigration Act. The latter was amended in 2004 though with no substantive changes, it was designed to control and prevent immigration, as it frustrated immigrants and employers for their inability to obtain legitimate legal access to South Africa and get a job (Crush and Williams, 2005).

There are several reasons that made it difficult for African immigrants to obtain permanent or even temporary residency in South Africa. This includes, but not limited to the following: impact of the policy on nation-building, protection of employment opportunities for South African citizens, and the rampant problem of intolerance against strangers. It can also be construed to mean that the South Africa policy minimized the effect of brain drain on the other countries from where the immigrants came from (Crush and Williams, 2005).

# 3.4 Difficulties associated with immigrant's participation in the South African labour market

There are many factors and difficulties that affect the participation of the various types of immigrants in the South African labour market, particularly in the formal sectors. The following international conventions and declarations dealt with the right to work and fair working conditions e.g. the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Art.23), 1966 International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (Art.7), 1985 United Nations Declaration on the Human Rights of Individuals who are not nationals of the Country in which they live (Art.8), and the 1951 United Nations Convention relating to the Status of Refugees.

South Africa is a signatory to these international conventions and declarations, but for the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Immigrants Workers and Members of their Families, South Africa it is yet to sign (Polzer, 2008). Note that this instrument supports the rights of immigrant workers and their families, and is quite different from citizenship and legal status (Polzer, 2008). This convention preserves the rights of immigrants and their families from abuse, and gives them the opportunity to work, and right to equal pay and decent treatment.

Some of the factors that influence the participation of immigrants in the labour market, according to Polzer (2008) include the following: employment policies concentrate on citizens only, with no policies established to improve work conditions for foreigners; employment policies concentrate more on employing foreigners from abroad, without due consideration from those already in South Africa. In most of the countries, employment policies are so

sensitive that involvement of the foreigners becomes very difficult. In addition, certifying the foreigner's qualifications involves time, money and efforts, and as such, the processes in the Department of Home Affairs pose challenges for foreigners in South Africa. One of the difficulties faced by the immigrants in joining the labour market in South Africa is the constraint as regards short time validity of permit given by the Department of Home affairs (1-3 months for asylum seekers) which discourages potential employers to employ foreigners in South Africa (Polzer, 2008).

According to Rogerson (1999), immigrants from neighboring African countries had access to work legally under certain criteria in two economic sectors in South Africa i.e. the mining and the agricultural sectors. However, there was restricted access to legal work in other economic sectors, thus making African immigrants to seek jobs illegally, and exposing themselves to many violations in the workplace, such as low pay and working under improper conditions. Consequently, some proportion of these African immigrants tends to join the informal sector.

One of the problems facing African immigrants from participating in the labour market in South Africa is the negative attitudes towards foreigners. According to Mattes *et al* (1999), most South Africans have negative attitudes towards any immigration policy that could welcome new arrivals to the country. However, only 17 % of the sample surveyed supported the policy that allows immigrants to work in the country. Another challenge facing these immigrants is a distinction in treatment by South Africans between non-white and white immigrants. According to the Crush (2001), foreigners are not equally treated by South Africans. African immigrants and refugees are more vulnerable to the citizen's negative attitudes, in comparison to the white immigrants.

According to Polzer (2008), there are differentials in the immigrant's participation in the labour market consequent upon their documented status. Foreigners with documented status such as work permit, permanent residence or citizenship are more likely to be self-employed, compared to those with asylum-related documents. Also, this group of foreigners prefers self-employment than working with/for someone else. This might be due to levels of xenophobia and discrimination in the labour market which makes immigrants to engage in self-employment and entrepreneurship.

## 3.5 South African attitudes to African immigrants

Former President, Thabo Mbeki in May 2001 pointed out that the people of South Africa must defy all forms of hatred against foreigners. "South Africans must be vigilant against any evidence of xenophobia against African immigrants". Also, he said that the people of South Africa must treat African immigrants as friends, noting that many of these immigrants bring with them the much needed skills by our country (Danso and McDonald, 2000).

South Africa had experienced the phenomena of immigration for a long time since it has been a destination for immigrants from neighboring countries, the rest of Africa, and elsewhere. After the end of the apartheid era, the country experienced an increase in the numbers of immigrants, especially from neighboring SADC countries (Crush and Williams, 2005). This increase in the numbers of immigrants led to the negative attitude shown by South Africans towards the African immigrants. Xenophobia is defined as a person unduly fearful or contemptuous of that which is foreign, especially of strangers or foreign peoples (Oxford Dictionary 2001).

Survey of the Southern African Migration Project conducted in mid-1997 and late 1998 on the attitudes of South Africans towards immigrants and immigration indicated that most South Africans have strong feelings against immigrants in the country, with 25 % of the population calling for a complete ban on immigration into the country, while 45 % (1997), and 53 % (1998) of the population called for vigorous action to reduce the growing numbers of immigrants into the country. However, 6 % of the population of the 1997 survey said that the government should allow passage to anyone who wants to enter the country but this proportion reduced to 2 % in 1998. Another deduction from the survey was the belief that African immigrants are responsible for reducing job opportunities for citizens, and that they cause the rise in crime rate, and bring in diseases such as HIV/AIDS (Danso and McDonald, 2000).

Another survey carried out in five SADC countries (South Africa, Namibia, Swaziland, Mozambique and Zimbabwe) in 2001-2002 was designed to measure the knowledge of the citizens towards immigration, attitudes toward non-citizens and refugee policy. The strongest negative comments towards immigrants were expressed by South Africans, followed by Namibians, while Zimbabweans, Swazis and Mozambicans were the most receptive to the presence of foreigners in their countries (Crush and Pendleton 2004). Previous studies conducted on the attitudes of South African towards African immigrants, observed that quite a few South Africans do not seem to think of the positive impact of African immigrants in their country. They believe that African immigrants are responsible for reducing job opportunities for citizens, and also cause the increase in crime rate and bring in diseases such as HIV/ AIDS. Contrastingly, studies by Rogerson (1997) and Crush *et al.*, (2004) have proved that there are positive effects of African immigrants in the country.

## **CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter explores the methods utilized in the study. The description of the study design, research setting, participants, measurement tools, and procedures were all included in this chapter. More so, a discussion on how data acquired in the study were analyzed was carried out. Thereafter, chapter will end with the statistical analysis methods used in the study.

## 4.2 Study design

The study design is cross-sectional i.e. designed to carry out a cross-sectional analysis of differentials in the participation of African immigrants in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa. The observation of the subset of a population of items in all aspects related to the immigration into South Africa from the Southern African countries can be compared together with respect to independent variables. Using a cross sectional design, data can be collected at a single point in time, coupled with the fact that it is a fast method and a large number of participants can be included in the study. Olsen and George (2004) explained that studies done in the fields of statistics, mathematics and biology more frequently use cross-sectional design.

## 4.3 Research setting

The study used census data gotten from the South Africa National Census conducted in October 2001. In this census, more than 83000 enumerators were employed, while more than 17000 were employed as supervisors and coordinators for the field work. Information was uniformly collected on persons and households throughout the country. The headcount was carried out on the 9-10 October 2001 (Stat SA. 2001).

## 4.4 Study population

The study population includes African immigrants living in South Africa according to Census 2001. The study will focus on non-South African participants who are economically active and aged between 15-65 years. This study will used the concept of immigrants in the same way as migrant, irrespective of the migrant's status. Immigration will be measured through the non-South African citizenship a person holds, regardless of the time he/she has lived in South Africa. The African immigrants were selected by looking at their original citizenship before coming to South Africa. As for their participation in the labour force, this will be investigated looking through the eyes of socio-economic variables such as the type of activity, occupation, economic sector, income category, employment status, activity rate, age specific activity rate, main economic activities and work status instruments. The instruments used in this study were based on the household questionnaire of designed for the aforementioned South Africa census of 9-10 October 2001.

## 4.5 Study variables

The variables used in this study were divided into three categories based on the following characteristics: demographic, socio-economic and locational.

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## 4.5.1 Demographic Characteristics

## 4.5.1.1 Age

The question used in the household questionnaire to determine the participants age was "what is (the person's) date of birth and age in complete years". If the date of birth is unknown, the participants will be asked about his age in complete years. If age is still not known, an estimate of age will be used. Then, the age was transferred and re-coded into groups using

SPSS as follows: (1) 15-19, (2) 20-24, (3) 25-29, (4) 30-34, (5) 35-39, (6) 40-44, (7) 45-49, (8) 50-54, (9) 55-59, (11) 60-64 and (12) 65+.

## 4.5.1.2 Sex (Gender)

The question used was "is (person) male or female" If the person was absent at the moment of interview, the enumerator must ask other family members whether the person is male or female, and not to decide on the person's gender based on name. The variable was recoded as follows: (1) Male and (2) Female.

#### 4.5.1.3 Marital Status

The participant's marital status was determined with the question: "what is the (person's) present marital status?" This question has been divided into four categories as follows: (1) Married, (2) Living together as unmarried partners, (3) Never married and (4) Widower/widow, Separated and divorced.

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#### 4.5.1.4 Present School Attendance

This question was asked for all persons aged five years and above. It was used to enquire whether the person was attending school at the time of the census. This question was grouped into seven categories as follows: (1) Not attending, (2) Pre-school, (3) College, (4) Technician, (5) University, (6) Adult education center and (7) Other.

#### 4.5.1.5 Educational levels

This question was asked for all persons aged five years and older, and it referred to the highest level of education the person had completed. This variable grouped into six categories as follows: (1) No schooling: (No schooling); (2) Some primary: (Grade 1/Sub A to Grade 6/Standard 4); (3) Complete primary: (Grade 7/Standard 5); (4) Some secondary: (Grade 8-11)

and certificate with less than Grade 12 and Diploma with less than Grade 12); (5) Grade 12/Standard 10: (Grade 12/standard 10 from 5/Matric/NTC); and (6) Higher: (Certificate with Grade 12 and higher).

#### 4.5.1.6 Place of birth

The question used to determine the countries of origin for non-South Africans living in South Africa was: "In which country was the person born". The countries were grouped into five categories as follows: (1) South Africa, (2) SADC countries, (3) Rest of Africa, (4) Europe and (5) Rest of the world.

## 4.5.1.7 Citizenship

"Is the person a South African citizen?" This question was used to determine whether a person is a citizen of South Africa or not. If the answer is negative, the second part of the question then identifies the citizenship carried by the person. The countries were grouped into four regions as follows: (1) SADC countries, (2) Rest of Africa, (3) Europe and (4) Rest of the world.

#### 4.5.2 Socio-economic characteristics

#### 4.5.2.1 Economic sectors

The question used for this variable was: "in the seven days leading to 10 October, did the person do any work for pay (in cash or in kind), profit or family gain for one hour or more". The question was grouped into four categories namely: (1) Yes: Formal registered (non farming), (2) Yes: Informal unregistered (non farming), (3) Yes: Farming, and (4) Yes: Has work but temporarily absent.

#### 4.5.2.2 Work Status

The question used was "how can one best describe the person's main activity or work status?" The question was grouped into six categories thus: (1) Paid employee, (2) Paid family work, (3) Self-employed, (4) Employer (5) Unpaid family work, and (6) Other (specify).

## 4.5.2.3 Reasons for not working

Those who were not working and aged 10 and older were asked "what is the main reason why they (the person) did not have work in the seven days before the census time". The question was grouped into seven categories as follows: (1) Scholar or student, (2) Home-maker or housewife, (3) Pensioner or retired person/too old to work, (4) Unable to work due to illness or disability, (5) Seasonal worker not working presently, (6) Does not choose to work, and (7) Could not find work.

# 4.5.2.4 Income category

The question used to describe the income (in Rand) category for each respondent was: "What is the income category that best describes the gross income of this person before tax?" This question was grouped and re-coded using SPSS into four categories thus: (1) No income, (2) 1-3200, (3) 3201-25600 and (4) 25601 or more.

## 4.5.2.5 Employment Status

This variable indicates the employment status of all persons in the household aged between 15-65 years old. An unemployed person is defined as "a person within the economically active population who: did not work during the seven days prior to census night, and wanted to work, and was available to start work within a week of census night, and had taken active steps to look for work or to start some form of self-employment in the four weeks prior to

census night" (United Nations 2001). The variable was grouped into three categories as follows: (1) Employed, (2) Unemployed, and (3) Not economically active.

## 4.5.2.6 Type of activities

This variable includes the active and not active population and was grouped into the following nine categories thus: (1) Employed, (2) Unemployed, (3) Scholar or student, (4) Home-maker or housewife, (5) Pensioner or retired person/too old to work, (6) Unable to work due to illness or disability, (7) Seasonal worker not working presently, (8) Does not choose to work, and (9) Could not find work.

## 4.5.2.7 Age specific economic active rate

This derived variable was obtained by summing of employed and unemployed divided by total population for each age groups starting from 15-19 years.

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#### 4.5.2.8 Occupation

Occupation refers to the person's type of work, and only people who were employed aged 10 and above were asked their occupation. Re-coding was done using SPSS into nine categories as follows: (1) Legislators, senior officials and managers, (2) Professionals, (3) Technicians and associate professionals, (4) Clerks, (5) Service workers, shop and market sales workers, (6) Skilled agricultural and fishery workers, (7) Craft and related trades workers, (8) Plant and machine operators and assemblers, and (9) Elementary occupations.

## 4.5.2.9 Payment segments

This variable was derived from occupation variable and re-coded into three categories as follows: (1) High payment segments (legislators, senior officials and managers professionals, Professionals and technicians and associate professionals); (2) Middle payment segments

(clerks, service workers, shop and market sales workers and skilled agricultural and fishery workers), and (3) Low payment segments (craft and related trades workers, plant and machine Operators and assemblers and elementary occupations)

#### 4.5.2.10 Main economic activities

This variable indicates the economic sector in which the person works. The variable has been grouped into twelve categories thus: (1) Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing, (2) Mining and quarrying, (3) Manufacturing, (4) Electricity, gas, steam and water supply, (5) Construction, (6) Wholesale and Retail trade, (7) Transport, storage and communication, (8) Financial, insurance, real estate and business services, (9) Community, social and personal services, (10) Private households with employed persons, (11) Exterritorial organization, and (12) Representatives of foreign governments.

## 4.5.3 Locational characteristics

## 4.5.3.1 Province of usual residence TERN CAPE

The respondent's usual place of residence i.e. "where does the person usually live?" This was re-coded according to the provinces in the country as follows: (1) WC: Western Cape; (2) EC: Eastern Cape; (3) NC: Northern Cape, (4) FS: Free State; (5) KN: KwaZulu-Natal; (6) NW: North West; (7) GP: Gauteng; (8) MP: Mpumalanga; and (9) NP: Northern Province (now Limpopo.

#### 4.5.3.2 Place of work

The question asked was whether the respondent works in the same sub-place as he/she lives. The variable was coded into two categories as follows: (1) Yes, and (2) No.

## 4.5.3.3 Place of enumeration and place of usual residence

This question was asked of all persons in a household. The variable indicates the combinations between place of enumeration and place of usual residence. This combination was categorized into four as follows: (1) Same place; (2) Different places, same province; (3) Different provinces; and (4) Foreign usual residence.

## 4.5.3.4 Place of enumeration and place of birth

This variable indicates the combination between place of enumeration and place of birth. This information was also required from all persons in households, and was grouped into three categories as follows: (1) Same province, (2) Different provinces, and (3) Foreign birth place.

# 4.5.3.5 Destination (Rural & Urban)

This derived variable indicates the destination of persons with respect to urban and rural areas, and was grouped into two categories thus: (1) Urban, and (2) Rural.

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#### 4.6 Data collection

## 4.6.2 The methodology of data collocation

The source of data is secondary and it is from household questionnaire relating to the South African National Census of October 2001. The methodology used by the 2001 South African Census to define the international migration by formulating a question on place of birth and country of birth, citizenship and the country of citizenship. These questions don't distinguish between documented and undocumented migrants. The census of the 2001 tries to avoid this sensitive issue of being undocumented migrants to increase the response rate of undocumented migrants to the census. Of the foregoing, it can be said that immigrants were well represented in the 2001 South African Census.

## 4.6.3 Sample size

The study used a data sample approximating 10 % of the total data of African immigrants according to the Census 2001. The sample contained data on African immigrants aged 15-65

years old across the nine provinces who were living in South Africa. The sample of 10% used in this study consisting of all persons in the households. This sample was drawn using stratified sample technique, which is described as a most effective sampling method in obtaining a great degree of representativeness. The freshhold of 10% is in the line of UN recommendation to make a part of the census data available to public soon after the census has been completed while waiting for the full data analysis.

## 4.7 Data analysis

Data obtained from household questionnaires relating to 2001 South Africa National Census was coded, organized and analyzed, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS®) software. Frequency tables were used to describe categorical data. Chi-square test for association was used to check for association between participation and various immigrants' characteristics, while standardized residual was used to investigate the source of association. The association was taken to be significant, if P-value is less than 0.05. The standardized residual was used to identify the main contributors to each significant relationship. Hence, the larger the absolute value of the residual, the larger the contribution to make the association significant. If the absolute value of the residuals is less than 1.96, then the cell has no significant contribution at 0.05 significant levels.

Furthermore, two-factor analysis of variance was used to investigate the differences in immigrants' participation on average across the nine provinces of South Africa. This model was required for the analysis of two factor studies containing only one replication per treatment combination i.e. only one observation per treatment combination e.g. the activity rate in the province for each age group (Kutner *et al.*, 2005). This model is based on the assumption of no interaction between the two factors levels (i.e. between province and age group). The validity of

this assumption was tested using Tukey test (Kutner, *et al.*, 2005), and was found to be satisfied. Moreover, multiple comparison was used (Scheffe test) to identify the significant differentials among the provinces.

Logistic regression was also used in the study. The use of logistic regression is useful to understand the relationship between the predictors and the response variable. Firstly, the study used the logistic regression to investigate the effect of some demographic variables on the immigrant's employment status. The predictor's variables are gender, age groups, educational levels, marital status and destination. And the dependent variable is employment status. The response variable takes the value of 1 for the unemployed and 0 for employed. The odds ratio of each category in each variable in the model compared with the reference category in the same variable is calculated, and the p-value attached.

Secondly the study run the logistic regression as to investigate the relationship between the age groups, gender, marital status, educational levels, destination and economic sector as a predictor variable, while the dependent variable is the work status of these immigrants. The response variable takes the value of 1 for self-employee/employer and 0 for paid employee. Immigrants categorized as self-employed as those who works on their own account and hence, do not compete with the locals for job opportunities, while those categorized as employers works by creating jobs through establishment of businesses.

In order to establish immigrant's profile in the labour force, the study used work status method, which includes paid employee, paid family worker, self-employed, employer, and unpaid family worker. This method was used in line with the United Nations recommendations. Moreover, the study used the activity rate to measure immigrant's participation in the labour force.

Statistical methods used in the study include descriptive and inferential analysis. These methods were used because they relate to the study design and by using these methods, the study can explore the participation differentials in the labour force. In addition, the study used random sample (10%) of the census data, so the results can be generalized to the entire population.



## **CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS OF THE STUDY**

## 5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the findings of the study. The sub-population of analytical interest is that of African immigrants aged between 15-65 years old, living in South Africa. The statistical analyses used include frequency distributions, together with percentages in cross-tabulation, chi-square test for association, standardized residuals, analysis of variance, and logistic regression as well.

## 5.2 Demographic characteristics

#### **5.2.1 Gender**

During the apartheid era, the proportion of African male immigrants in South Africa was higher compared to that of females. However, after the apartheid era, the female migration movement to South Africa indicated a significant increase (Dodson, 1998). Using data from 2001 census, male immigrants accounts for 70.5 %, while the females make up 29.5 % of the total African immigrants living in South Africa as shown in Table 5.2.1. From this study, it can be noted that male migration to South Africa is still higher compared to the female migration.

Table 5.2.1: Gender

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	17006	70.5
Female	7133	29.5
Total	24139	100.0

## 5.2.2 Age Group

Table 5.2.2 shows that most of the African immigrants in the study were young, with 48 % within the age range of 15-29 years, while 37 % and 15 % are aged between 30-44 years and 45-64 years respectively. These figures confirm that African immigrants in South Africa are more likely to be young, and with the highest population being within the middle-age group. Studies have established that young people are more likely to migrate, with most of them being in the middle-age group (Mc Donald *et al.*, 1999; Rogerson 1997). It was also noted that half of the African immigrants in South Africa were less than 30 years.

Table 5.2.2: Age group

	Frequency	Percent (%)
15-19	1925	8
20-24	4595	19
25-29	5007	20.7
30-34	3706	15.4
35-39	2967	12.3
40-44	2285	9.5
45-49	1742	7.2
50-54	1105	4.6
55-59	480	2
60-64	327	1.4
Total	24139	100

Figure 5.2.1 shows the distribution of African immigrants' age group by gender. It shows that 63.1 % of male immigrants were aged less than or equal 35 years old, while the proportion for female immigrants is 70.5 %. These percentages show clearly that most African immigrants in

South Africa are young, and when broken down into respective gender, it is clear that migrant women are younger than men.

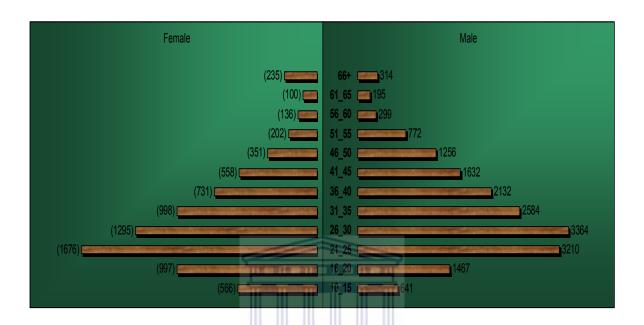


Fig. 5.2.1: Age group by Gender

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#### 5.2.3 Marital Status

Table 5.2.3 represents the marital status of African immigrants according to a 10 % sample from the 2001 South African national census. It shows that 40 % are single, while 3 % are widowed/separated/divorced, 43 % are married, and 15 % are living together as unmarried partners. From these findings, it can be noted that African immigrants in South Africa are more likely to be married or living together as unmarried partners compared to being single or separated. The marital profile differs from what was found in the studies conducted by Rogerson (1999), McDonald *et al.*, (1999) and Rogerson (1997) which indicated that African immigrant's marital status is most likely to be single rather than the married status group.

**Table 5.2.3: Marital Status** 

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Married	10358	42.9
Living together as unmarried partners	3525	14.6
Never married	9539	39.5
Widow/Separated/Divorced	717	3
Total	24139	100

## **5.2.4** Place of Birth

Table 5.2.4 shows the place of birth of African immigrants. The percentages show that 3 % of African immigrants were born in South Africa, 91 % in SADC countries, 6 % in other parts of Africa, 0.1 % in Europe, and 0.04 % in other parts of the world. From these findings, it can be noted that the place of birth of most African immigrants is from the SADC countries. This is because South Africa is a historical destination for immigrants from the SADC region as they come to work in the mining and agricultural sectors of the economy.

Table 5.2.4: Place of Birth

	Frequency	Percent (%)
South Africa	674	2.8
SADC countries	21907	90.8
Rest of Africa	1527	6.3
Europe	22	0.1
Rest of World	9	0
Total	24139	100.0

## 5.2.5 Region of Origin

Crush and Williams (2005) observed that South Africa faces a significant increase in the numbers of immigrants from neighboring countries, the rest of Africa and Asia. Table 5.2.5 shows African immigrants' region of origin in which 93 % of these African immigrants originated from SADC countries, while the rest of Africa contributes 7 % to this population. The proportion of immigrants originating from outside SADC region suggests an attractiveness that goes beyond the traditional area of migratory influence. This lends support to the importance of South Africa in the generation of migration within and across the African continent in the context of new global migration economy.

Table 5.2.5: Region of origin

	Frequency	Percent (%)
SADC countries	JNIV 22503	of the 93.2
Rest of Africa	VEST1636\\ C	APE 6.8
Total	24139	100.0

#### **5.2.6** Present School Attendance

Table 5.2.6 shows that 89 % of the immigrants were not attending school at the time of the census, while 11 % attended. This suggests that a large proportion of African immigrants were not in educational institutions at the time of the census. For this, one can infer that most immigrants were presumably in the labour force.

**Table 5.2.6 Present School Attendances** 

	Frequency	Percent (%)
No	21382	88.6
School	1220	5.1
College	322	1.3
Technician	349	1.4
University	670	2.8
Adult education centre	155	0.6
Other	41	0.2
Total	24139	100.0

## 5.2.7 Educational Levels

Table 5.2.7 shows that 40 % of African immigrants were uneducated/did not complete UNIVERSITY of the primary education. The percentage of those who completed primary school was 9 %, secondary 31 % and Grade 12/Std10 together with high degree 20 %. Data also revealed a high proportion of immigrants with no education, and partial primary education. Lack of education is a serious handicap to join the labour market, resulting high unemployment rates within the immigrants. These results from 2001 differ from those derived from other sources. For example, in Polzer's study, it was found that over 28.7 % of the immigrants had some form of educational degree (Polzer, 2008). Rogerson (1997) expressed a similar view from his study conducted in Johannesburg about immigrant's entrepreneurs and South Africa's small enterprise.

**Table 5.2.7: Educational levels** 

	Frequency	Percent (%)
No schooling	4602	19.1
Some primary	4997	20.7
Complete primary	2191	9.1
Some secondary	7607	31.5
Grade 12 / Std 10	3110	12.9
Higher	1632	6.8
Total	24139	100.0

#### **5.3** Socio-economic characteristics

## **5.3.1** Economic sector

Table 5.3.1 below shows the immigrants' sector of work. The results show that about 69 % of immigrants work in formal registered (non farming) outfits, 19 % in informal unregistered (non farming) outfits, 10 % work in farming sector, and the remaining 2 % have work, but temporarily absent. From this finding, it can be noted that African immigrants are more likely to work in formal sector compared to other sectors. More so, the study also found a high proportion of immigrants without work (42 %).

**Table 5.3.1: Economic sector** 

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Formal registered (non-farming)	9660	68.9
Informal unregistered (non-farming)	2687	19.2
Farming	1438	10.3
Has work but was temporarily absent	229	1.6
Total	14014	100
Without work	10125	42%

# **5.3.2** Reasons for not working

Table 5.3.2 describes the main reasons for not working with respect to immigrants. 19 % of the non working African immigrants are students, 8 % home-maker or housewife, 1.5 % Pensioner or retired person/too old to work, 1.5 % unable to work due to illness or disability, 1.2 % Seasonal worker not working presently, 9 % choose not to work, and 60 % could not find work. This result shows that the inability of a high proportion (60 %) of the African immigrants from getting work may be due to the aforementioned difficulties in joining the labour market in South Africa which also includes their being uneducated or lacking in essential skills relevant to the society.

Table 5.3.2: Reasons for not working

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Scholar or student	1879	18.6
Home-maker or housewife	804	7.9
Pensioner or retired person/too old to work	148	1.5
Unable to work due to illness or disability	147	1.5
Seasonal worker not working presently	126	1.2
Does not choose to work	915	9
Could not find work	6106	60.3
Total	10125	100

## 5.3.3 Distributions of reasons for not working by specific age group

Table 5.3.3 displays the distributions of reasons for not working by specific age groups. Within the students' population, the highest percentages are 42 % and 41 % for immigrant's aged between 15-19 years and 20-24 years respectively. This is to be expected, as these are the main schooling ages. Within the home-maker population, the highest percentages are 23 % and 19 % for immigrants aged between 25-29 years and 20-24 years respectively. The reason for this might be accrued from the fact that most women within these two age groups may be involved in raising up children. Within the pensioner or retired population, age group 60-64 recorded a high rate of 48 % since this is the retirement age from work. From the population of those could not find work, the highest percentage of 26 % was seen among immigrants aged between 20-24 years old.

Table 5.3.3: Reasons of not working by age group

	Scholar or student	Home- maker or housewife	Pensioner or retired person/too old to work	Unable to work due to illness or disability	Seasonal worker not working presently	Does not choose to work	Could not find work	Total
15-19	791	31	0	9	6	137	511	1485
	42.1%	3.9%		6.1%	4.8%	15.0%	8.4%	
20-24	774	155	4	14	29	206	1606	2788
	41.2%	19.3%	2.7%	9.5%	23.0%	22.5%	26.3%	
25-29	178	182	3	21	30	210	1465	2089
	9.5%	22.6%	2.0%	14.3%	23.8%	23.0%	24.0%	
30-34	64	133	3	19	15	138	971	1343
	3.4%	16.5%	2.0%	12.9%	11.9%	15.1%	15.9%	
35-39	44	96	4	11	21	78	617	871
	2.3%	11.9%	2.7%	7.5%	16.7%	8.5%	10.1%	
40-44	17	77	5	15	6	45	423	588
	0.9%	9.6%	3.4%	10.2%	4.8%	4.9%	6.9%	
45-49	6	59	8	21	6	42	251	393
	0.3%	7.3%	5.4%	14.3%	4.8%	4.6%	4.1%	
50-54	3	44	19	19	10	19	140	254
	0.2%	5.5%	12.8%	12.9%	7.9%	2.1%	2.3%	
55-59	1	14	31	TERN CA	DE 1	15	76	147
	0.1%	1.7%	20.9%	6.1%	0.8%	1.6%	1.2%	
60-64	1	13	71	9	2	25	46	167
	0.1%	1.6%	48.0%	6.1%	1.6%	2.7%	0.8%	
Total	1879	804	148	147	126	915	6106	10125
	100%	100%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100%	100%	

## **5.3.4** Employment status

Table 5.3.4 puts the employed proportion within the African immigrants as 58 %, while 19 % are unemployed. The employment rate of the African immigrants is 76 %, while the unemployment rate is 24 %. This rate represents a high level of employment of African immigrants. This reflects a high contribution by African immigrants to the South African labour market. Polzer (2008) noted in her study on migrant employment in South Africa, that

35 % of the surveyed immigrants were not working, while 53 % were employed. This was confirmed by McDonald, *et al* (1999) who reported 78 % of the immigrants in their study were working part time or full time.

The employment rate = 
$$\frac{Employed}{Employed + Unemployed} X100$$

**Table 5.3.4: Employment Status** 

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Employed	14014	58.1
Unemployed	4529	18.8
Not economically active	5596	23.2
Total	24139	100

## 5.3.5 Age-specific employment rate

Table 5.3.5 shows the age specific employment rates of African immigrants. The employment rate started rising from 60 % at the 25-29 age group until peaking at 89 % for the 50-54 age group, before it dropped to 85 % at the 60-64 age group. From this result, it can be noted that the employment rates of African immigrants aged between 35 to 64 years are higher than those aged less than 35 years. This result also shows that the immigrants aged between 15-29 years have the highest rate of unemployment, compared to other age categories. This means that African immigrants in their early age groups face high rates of unemployment.

Table 5.3.5: Age-specific employment and unemployment rates

Age group	Employed	Unemployed	Employment Rate (%)	Unemployment Rate (%)
15-19	440	372	54.2	45.8
20-24	1807	1206	60.0	40.0
25-29	2918	1094	72.7	27.3
30-34	2363	721	76.6	23.4
35-39	2096	454	82.2	17.8
40-44	1697	325	83.9	16.1
45-49	1349	181	88.2	11.8
50-54	851	103	89.2	10.8
55-59	333	44	88.3	11.7
60-64	160	29	84.7	15.3
Total	14014	4529	75.6	24.4

## **5.3.6** Economically active and non-active population

The economically active population includes all persons of either sex and above a certain age, who are engaged in productive activities during a specified time-reference period. It includes all persons who fulfill the requirements for inclusion among the employed (employees or self employed), or the unemployed (UN 2001). Table 5.3.6 shows that 58 % of the African immigrants are employed, while 19 % are unemployed. The other categories explain the reasons for non-working immigrants. The activity rate is 77 %, while the non activity rate is 23 %. This represents a high rate of participation of the African immigrants in the labour force of South Africa.

The activity rate = 
$$\frac{Employed + Unemployed}{Total.Population(15-65)}X100$$

Table 5.3.6: Economically and not-economically active population

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Employed	14014	58.1
Unemployed	4529	18.8
Scholar or student	1879	7.8
Home-maker or housewife	804	3.3
Pensioner or retired person/too old to work	148	0.6
Unable to work due to illness or disability	147	0.6
Seasonal worker not working presently	126	0.5
Does not choose to work	915	3.8
Could not find work	1577	6.5
Total	24139	100

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# **5.3.7** Age specific economic active rate

Data in Table 5.3.7 and Fig. 5.3.1 show the economically active population by age group. The highest rates of economic activity (83 % and 88.5 %) which are observed among immigrants aged between 30 to 54 years old as these are the main working ages. However, the lowest activity rates were observed for immigrants under the age of 25 years, and above 59 years of age. These significantly lower rates were possible as these age groups include students, housewives/home-makers and people who has just retired from active service.

Table 5.3.7: Age specific activity rate

Age group	Rate of activity (%)
15-19	42.2
20-24	65.6
25-29	80.1
30-34	83.2
35-39	85.9
40-44	88.5
45-49	87.8
50-54	86.3
55-59	78.5
60-64	57.8
Total	76.8

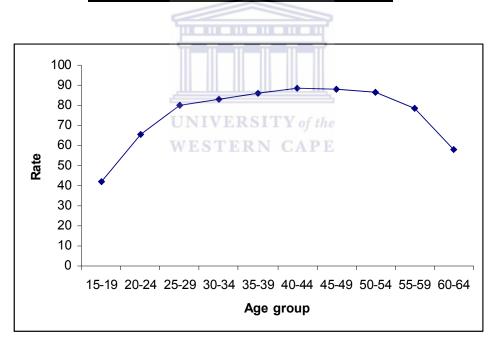


Fig. 5.3.1: Age specific rate of activity

## 5.3.8 Age-specific activity rate by gender

Table 5.3.8 and Fig. 5.3.2 show the distribution of age-specific activity rates by gender of African immigrants in South Africa. Overall, the activity rate of male immigrants is 85 %, while it is 56.5 % for females. This reflects a high rate of the participation of male immigrants in the labour force compared to female immigrants. In addition, the highest economic activity rates are for male immigrants aged between 30-54 years, with the rates between 91 % up to 95 %. More so, it can be noted that age-specific activity rate of males are higher than what is observed for their female counterparts. This might be due to the fact that the migration of women to South Africa is relatively recent, compared with the historical migrations of males to work in mining and agriculture sectors.

Table 5.3.8: Age specific activity rate by gender

	Male activity rate	Female activity rate (%)
Age group	(%)	TY of the
15-19	W 51.4 ERA	<b>CAPE</b> 30.2
20-24	73.6	50.6
25-29	87.1	63.1
30-34	90.8	63.9
35-39	93.0	65.6
40-44	94.9	69.0
45-49	94.9	63.7
50-54	93.9	57.4
55-59	88.0	53.1
60-64	70.0	35.9
Total	85.3	56.5

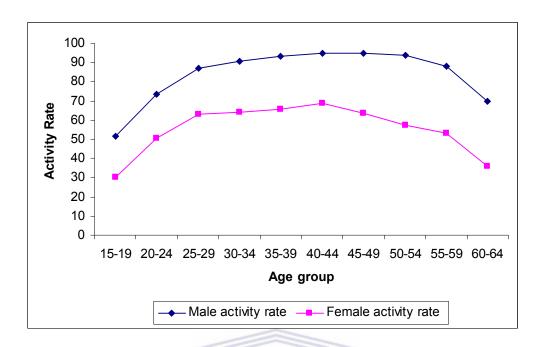


Fig. 5.3.2: Age specific activity rate by gender

# 5.3.9 Activity rate by provinces

The distribution of the specific rates of activity by provinces in the country, displays further insight regarding immigrants' participation in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa. Table 5.3.9 and Fig. 5.3.3 show that highest activity rate was observed 85 % in North West, followed by 80 %, 79 %, 77 % and 73 % in Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Free State and Northern Province respectively, while the lowest rate of 46 % was observed in the Eastern Cape, followed by 53 %, 59 % and 62 % in Northern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape respectively. The highest rates in North West, Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Free State and Northern Province, could be due to a high possibility of the African immigrants being employed in these provinces (see Table 5.3.10). The lowest activity rates in Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape, could be due to the presence of high

percentages of students seen in these provinces (see Table 5.3.10), and maybe due to lack of employment opportunities provided for foreigners in these provinces.

**Table 5.3.9 Activity rate by province** 

Province	Activity rate (%)
Western Cape	61.5
Eastern Cape	46.2
Northern Cape	53.1
Free State	76.5
KwaZulu-Natal	58.7
North West	84.7
Gauteng	79.2
Mpumalanga	79.6
Northern Province (now	
Limpopo)	72.6

84.7 90.0 79.6 79.2 76.5 0.08 72.6 70.0 58.7 61.5 Participation rate 60.0 53.1 T 46.2 50.0 40.0 30.0 20.0 10.0 0.0 E.C F. S W.C N.C K.N G.P N. W M.P N. P **Province** 

Fig. 5.3.3: Activity rate by province

Table 5.3.10: Economically and not-economically active population of African immigrants by provinces

Economically active population	WC (%)	EC (%)	NC (%)	FS (%)	KN (%)	NW (%)	Ga (%)	Mp (%)	NP (%)
Employed	48.1	32.7	44.8	60.2	41.8	68.9	57.2	67	52.3
Unemployed	13.4	13.5	8.3	6.3	16.9	15.7	22	12.5	20.3
Scholar or student	23	37.2	15.6	10.9	17.9	2.8	6.4	4.3	4.6
Home-maker or housewife	5.4	3.5	7.3	2.1	4.6	3.2	2.8	4.1	5.1
Pensioner or retired person/too old to work	1.7	0.2	1.0	0.6	1.6	0.4	0.4	0.7	1.2
Unable to work due to illness or disability	0.1	1.5	-	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.7	1.3
Seasonal worker not working presently	1.0	ı	2.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	1
Does not choose to work	3.2	3.9	7.3	4.0	7.4	3.1	3.3	4.6	4.8
Could not find work	4.2	7.6	13.5	5.0	8.5	5.2	6.8	5.6	9.4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

## 5.3.10 Work Status

Table 5.3.11 represents the work status of African immigrants. It can be observed that majority of the African immigrants according to the study are paid employees, while a small population of these immigrants employed other people to work for them. The highest proportion of immigrants work as paid employees, reflecting that most of them work outside the immigrant economy.

Table 5.3.11: Work Status

	Frequency	Percent (%)	
Paid employee	12088	86.3	
Paid family worker	144	1.0	
Self-employed	1602	11.4	
Employer	139	1.0	
Unpaid family worker	41	0.3	
Total	14014	100	

## 5.3.11 Income groups

Table 5.3.12 indicates that most African immigrants belong to the low income group, or do not receive any income. This means that they more likely to join small and marginal occupations. Among those without income, 45 % are unemployed, 17 % are students, and 16 % could not find work (see Table 5.3.13). The high proportion of unemployed immigrants may be due to the difficulties they face in joining the labour market.

Table 5.3.12: Income groups

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Income (R)	Frequency	Percent (%)
No income	9299	38.5
1-3200	13306	55.1
3201-25600	1384	5.7
25601 or more	150	0.6
Total	24139	100

Table 5.3.13: Income groups by economically and not-economically active population

	Income groups				
	no income	1-3200	3201-25600	25601 or more	Total
Employed	247	12352	1285	130	14014
	2.7 %	92.8 %	92.8 %	86.7 %	
Unemployed	4226	281	17	5	4529
	45.4 %	2.1 %	1.2 %	3.3 %	
Scholar or student	1565	274	36	4	1879
	16.8 %	2.1 %	2.6 %	2.7 %	
Home-maker or housewife	739	55	9	1	804
	7.9 %	0.4 %	0.7 %	0.7 %	
Pensioner or retired person/too old	69	67	11	1	148
to work	0.7 %	0.5 %	0.8 %	0.7 %	.6%
Unable to work due to illness or	119	25	3	0	147
disability	1.3 %	0.2 %	0.2 %		
Seasonal worker not working	102	19	5	0	126
presently	1.1%	V E 0.1 %	Y of 1/0.4 %		
Does not choose to work	788	T E R N	CAPE 10	3	915
	8.5%	0.9 %	0.7 %	2.0 %	
Could not find work	1444	119	8	6	1577
	15.5 %	0.9 %	0.6 %	4.0 %	
Total					
	9299	13306	1384	150	24139
	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	100.0 %	

# 5.3.12 Immigrant's occupation

Table 5.3.14 displays the African immigrant's occupation. The results show most African immigrants are engaged in elementary occupations; craft and related trades work; and plant and machine operation and assembling. More so, it could be inferred that most African immigrants are engaged in low-income occupations. Table 5.3.15 was generated from Table 5.3.14 and it shows the segmentation of immigrants' payment. Legislators, senior officials and managers; professionals, technicians and associate professionals were re-coded as high payment segment workers. Clerks, service workers, shop and market sales workers; and skilled agricultural and fishery workers were re-coded as middle payment segment workers. Craft and related trades workers; plant and machine operators and assemblers; and those involved in elementary occupations were re-coded as low payment segment workers. Table 5.3.15 shows that 74 % of African immigrants work in small occupations, hence receive low payments. This is indicative of the fact that vast majority of these immigrants participate in the labour market in lower level occupations, which might be due to lack of education and skills among them. Consequently, this drives them into being engaged in small and marginal occupations in the labour market.

**Table 5.3.14: Occupation** 

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Legislators, senior officials and managers	298	2.3
Professionals	596	4.5
Technicians and associate professionals	374	2.8
Clerks	408	3.1
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	1230	9.4
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	526	4.0
Craft and related trades workers	3714	28.2
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	2010	15.3
Elementary occupations	3999	30.4
Total UNIV	ERS 13155 of til	100.0

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**Table 5.3.15: Payment segments** 

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Higher paid segments	1268	9.6
Middle paid segments	2164	16.5
Lower paid segments	9723	73.9
Total	13155	100

# 5.3.13 Immigrant's payment segments

Table 5.3.16 shows the distributions segmentation of immigrant's payment by gender. The overall deduction is that the proportions of female immigrants in high and middle payment

segments are higher compared to that of males in these categories. This means that female immigrants are more engaged in the labour market in the high and middle levels, compared to their male counterparts.

Table 5.3.16: Payment segments by gender

		Gende	Gender	
		Male	Female	Total
Payment segments	Higher paid segments	997 8.8%	271 14.8%	1268
	Middle paid segments	1685 14.9%	479 26.1%	2164
	Lower paid segments	8640 76.3%	1083 59.1%	9723
	Total	11322 100%	1833 100%	13155

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# 5.3.14 Educational levels by gender

The proportions of male and female immigrants without education are almost equal. The proportion of male immigrants with some form of primary education is higher than for females. In secondary, Grade12/Std10 and higher educational levels, the proportions of females were found to be higher than for males, (see Table 5.3.17). This indicate that female immigrants tend to have more educational skills compared to their male counterparts resulting in their being able to join middle and high payment segments of the labour market.

Table 5.3.17: Educational levels by gender

		Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Educational level	No schooling	3253 19.1 %	1349 18.9 %	4602
	Some primary	3885 22.8 %	1112 15.6 %	4997
	Complete primary	1601 9.4 %	590 8.3 %	2191
	Some secondary	5167 30.4 %	2440 34.2 %	7607
	Grade 12/Std 10	2038 12 %	1072 15 %	3110
	Higher	1062 6.2 %	570 8 %	1632
	Total	17006 100 %	7133 100 %	24139

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### 5.3.15 Work distribution by gender

The chi-square test of association was used to test the significance of association between gender and work status. The null hypothesis: there is no association between gender and work status. Alternative hypothesis: there is association between gender and work status. The p-value was found to be less than 0.0005. This indicates that the association is highly significant. Thereafter, the standardized residuals were calculated for each cell (that is for all combinations of gender and work status) to identify the main contributors to this significant relationship. The larger the absolute value of the residual, the larger the contribution to make the association significant. If the absolute value of the residual is less than 1.96, then the cell has no significant contribution at 0.05 significant levels. By taking into account the

distribution of work status by gender, female immigrants have high proportions of paid family workers, self-employed, employer and unpaid family workers, compared to the males. While male immigrants have high proportion of paid employee compared to females (see Table 5.3.18). This confirmed the involvement of female immigrants within high and middle payment segments in the labour market. Moreover, there is a high proportion of self-employee and employer by female, compared to male. In addition, the proportion of females who work as employers is thrice same proportion in males, reflecting that female immigrants create more jobs than males in the labour market.

From Table 5.3.19 it can be noted that the main contributors to this significant association are females described as self-employed and paid family worker.

Table 5.3.18: Work status by gender

	V	Gender		
		Male	Female	Total
Work Status	Paid employee	10453 87.1 %	1635 81.1 %	12088
	Paid family worker	108 0.9 %	36 1.8 %	144
	Self- employed	1297 10.8 %	305 15.1 %	1602
	Employer	110 0.9 %	29 1.4 %	139
	Unpaid family worker	29 0.2 %	12 0.6 %	41
	Total	11997 100 %	2017 100 %	14014

Table 5.3.19: Standardized residuals

		G	ender
		Male	Female
Work	Paid employee	1.0	-2.5
Status	Paid family worker	-1.4	3.4
	Self-employed	-2.0	4.9
	Employer	8	2.0
	Unpaid family worker	-1.0	2.5

# 5.3.16 The distribution of work status by gender and destination

Tables 5.3.20 and 5.3.21 below show the distributions of work status by gender and destination (urban and rural). With respect to immigrant's destination by gender, Table 5.3.20 showed that the proportion within female immigrants settled in urban areas is more compared to the males. Table 5.3.21 showed that within urban and rural areas, the proportion of male immigrants who work as paid employee is higher compared to the proportion of females in the same category of work. While the number of female immigrants who work as paid family worker, self-employed, employer and unpaid family worker are higher than males who work in same categories. With respect to the female population, they are less likely to work as paid employee in urban areas than in rural areas, and are more likely to work as paid family worker, self-employee, employer and unpaid family worker in urban areas than in rural areas, while the reverse is the case with the male population.

**Table 5.3.20: Destination by gender** 

	Male	Female
Urban	7040 (59 %)	1288 (64 %)
Rural	4957 (41 %)	729 (36 %)
Total	11997(100 %)	2017(100 %)

Table 5.3.21: Work status by gender and destination

			Ger	nder	
			Male	Female	Total
Urban	Work Status	Paid employee	5829 82.8 %	998 77.5 %	6827
		Paid family worker	58 0.8 %	26 2.0 %	84
		Self-employed	1080 15.3 %	238 18.5 %	1318
		Employer	58 0.8 %	17 1.3 %	75
		Unpaid family worker	15 0.2 %	9 0.7 %	24
		Total	7040 100 %	1288 100 %	8328
Rural	Work Status	Paid employee	4624 93.3 %	637 87.4 %	5261
		Paid family worker	50 1.0 %	10 1.4 %	60
		Self-employed	217 4.4 %	67 9.2 %	284
		Employer	52 1 %	12 1.6 %	64
		Unpaid family worker	14 0.3 %	3 0.4 %	17
		Total	4957 100 %	729 100 %	5686

## 5.3.17 Main economic activity

Table 5.3.22 shows the distribution of African immigrants across different economic activities. The highest proportion of 35 % accounts for immigrants who are described as mining workers, followed by those engaged in agricultural activities. This may be due to historical migration of workers from neighboring countries to South Africa to work in mines and the agricultural sectors. Hence, it can be deduced that the mining sector still accounts for the highest proportion of employment of African immigrants.

Table 5.3.22: Main economic activity

	Frequency	Percent
Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing	1946	13.9 %
Mining and Quarrying	4912	35.1 %
Manufacturing	815	5.8 %
Electricity, gas, steam and water supply	RI30 CAPE	0.2 %
Construction	1045	7.5 %
Wholesale and Retail trade	1728	12.3 %
Transport, storage and communication	246	1.8 %
Financial, Insurance, Real Estate and Business services	538	3.8 %
Community, Social and Personal Services	1901	13.6 %
Private households with employed persons	837	6.0 %
Exterritorial organizations	2	0.01%
Representatives of foreign governments	14	0.1 %
Total	14014	100 %

#### 5.3.18 Main economic activity by origin

To investigate the relationship between immigrant's origin and main economic activities, cross tabulation and chi-square tests are used. Table 5.3.23 shows that 37 % of immigrants from SADC countries work in mines and 15 % of them are engaged in agricultural activities. 40 % of immigrants from the rest of Africa work in community, social and personal services, followed by 34 % of them, who work in wholesale and retail trade. Chi-square tests for association was used, standardized residuals as well. Significant association was found (P-value less than 0.0005). From standardized residuals results (see Table 5.3.24), it can be noted that immigrants from the rest of Africa were more likely to work in community, social and personal services, followed by wholesale and Retail trade; and less likely to be work in mines and agricultural activities, while immigrants from SADC region were more likely to work in mines and agricultural activities; and less likely to be work in community, social and personal services; and wholesale and retail trade. VERSITY of the

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Table 5.3.23: Main economic activity by Origin

		Region	of origin	
		SADC countries	Rest of Africa	Total
Main Economic	Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and fishing	1937 14.7 %	9 1.0 %	1946
Activity	Mining and quarrying	4909 37.3 %	3 0.3 %	4912
	Manufacturing	755 5.7 %	60 7.0 %	815
	Electricity, gas, steam and water supply	28 0.2 %	2 0.2 %	30
	Construction	1035 7.9 %	10 1.2 %	1045
	Wholesale and Retail trade	1438 10.9 %	290 33.7 %	1728
	Transport, storage and communication	209 1.6 %	37 4.3 %	246
	Financial, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	460 3.5 %	78 9.1 %	538
	Community, Social and Personal Services	1558 11.8 %	343 39.9 %	1901
	Private households with employed persons	819 6.2 %	18 2.1 %	837
	Exterritorial organizations	1 0.0001 %	1 0.1 %	2
	Representatives of foreign governments	5 0.0004 %	9 1.0 %	14
	Total	13154 100.0 %	860 100.0 %	14014

Table 5.3.24: Standardized residuals

	Region	n of origin
Main Economic Activity	SADC	Rest of Africa
Agriculture ,hunting,	2.6	-10.1
forestry and		
fishing		
Mining and Quarrying	4.4	-17.2
Manufacturing	-0.4	1.4
Electricity, gas, steam	-0.03	0.12
and water		
supply		
Construction	1.7	-6.8
Wholesale and Retail	-4.6	17.9
trade		
Transport, Storage and	-1.4	5.6
Communication		
Financial, insurance,	-2.0	7.8
Real Estate		THE STATE OF THE S
and Business Services	II II II	
Community, Social and	-5.4	21.0
Personal Services		Щ.,_
Private households with	1.2	-4.7
employed persons	EKSITY	f the
Exterritorial WEST	ER-0.6CA	2.5
organizations		
Representatives of	-2.2	8.8
foreign governments		

# 5.3.19 Main economic activity by gender

To investigate the distribution of gender by main economic activity, cross tabulation as well as chi-square test were used. With respect to the female population, the highest proportion, i.e. 25 % work in community, social and personal services, followed by agriculture (24 %). For the male immigrants, the highest proportion of 41 % accounts for those working in mines, followed by those in agriculture (see Table 5.3.25). The chi-square test of association was used to test the significance of the association between gender and the main economic activity. P-value was found to be less than 0.0005 which means there is a significant association between gender and main economic activity. The standardized residuals were used to investigate the source of association as shown in Table 5.3.26. The largest residuals, i.e. -26 and 22 belong to the females who were engaged in mining and private household with employed persons respectively. This indicates that females are negatively associated with mining activity and positively associated with private household with employed persons.

Table 5.3.25 Main economic activity by gender

		G	ender	
		Male	Female	Total
Main Economic	Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing	1461 12.2 %	485 24.0 %	1946
Activity	Mining and Quarrying	4889 40.8 %	23 1.1 %	4912
	Manufacturing	716 6 %	99 4.9 %	815
	Electricity, gas, steam and water supply	29 0.2 %	1 0. 05 %	30
	Construction	1022 8.5 %	23 1. 1 %	1045
	Wholesale and Retail trade	1367 11.4 %	361 17.9 %	1728
	Transport, storage and communication	221 1.8 %	25 1.2 %	246
	Financial, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	419 P.K 3.5 %	119 5.9 %	538
	Community, Social and Personal services	1391 11.6 %	510 25.3 %	1901
	Private households with employed persons	471 3.9 %	366 18.1 %	837
	Exterritorial organizations	2 0.02 %	0	2
	Representatives of foreign governments	9 0. 1 %	5 0. 2 %	14
	Total	11997 100.0 %	2017 100.0 %	14014

Table 5.2.26: Standardized residuals

	Gen	der
Main Economic Activity	Male	Female
Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing	-5	12.2
Mining and Quarrying	10.5	-25.7
Manufacturing	0.7	-1.7
Electricity, gas, steam and water supply	0.7	-1.6
Construction	4.3	-10.4
Wholesale and Retail trade	-2.9	7.1
Transport, Storage and Communication	0.7	-1.7
Financial, insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	-1.9	4.7
Community, Social and Personal Services	-5.9	14.3
Private households with employed persons	-9.2	22.4
Exterritorial organizations	RS 10.27 of to	··· -0.5
Representatives of foreign governments	R N-0.9 A P	€ 2.1

# 5.3.20 Distribution of gender by main economic activity and destination

To investigate the association between gender and main economic activity across the urban and rural areas, cross-tabulation by layer was used. As shown in Table 5.3.27, female immigrants resident in urban areas, the highest proportion of 33 % accounts for females who are engaged in community, social and personal services, followed by 22 % for those engaged in private household with employed persons; and wholesale and retail trade. Male immigrants' resident in urban areas has the highest proportion of 34 % representing those involved in mining activities, followed by those involved in wholesale and retail trade (17 %), and closely followed by those engaged in community, social and personal services (15 %).

Chi-square was used to test the association between gender and economic activity in urban areas. The P-value was found to be less than 0.0005 indicative of a significant association between gender and economic activity in urban areas. Furthermore, standardized residuals were used to investigate the source of association. The highest residuals were found to be 21 and -19 which belongs to females categorized as private household with employed persons; and mining and quarrying respectively. This means that the highest contribution to the association refer to females who are described in these categories. As regards to female immigrants living in the rural areas, the highest proportion of 63 % was found for females working in agriculture activities, while the highest proportion of 50 % was found for males in mining activities. The test for association was found to be significant as P-value was less than 0.0005. The highest residuals were -18 and 16 for females who were categorized in mining and agriculture set-up respectively. In other words, female immigrants were less likely to work in mines but more likely to engage in agricultural activities (see Table 5.3.28).

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Table 5.3.27: Distribution of gender by main economic activity and destination

			G	ender	Total
			Male	Female	
Urban	Main Economic	Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing	188 2.7 %	29 2.3 %	217
	Activity	Mining and Quarrying	2398 34.1 %	15 1.2 %	2413
		Manufacturing	534 7.6 %	77 6.0 %	611
		Electricity, gas, steam and water supply	26 0.4 %	1 0.1 %	27
		Construction	800 11.4 %	20 1.6 %	820
		Wholesale and Retail trade	1166 16.6 %	284 22 %	1450
		Transport, Storage and Communication	186 2.65 %	24 1.9 %	210
		Financial, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	359 5.1 %	114 8.9 %	473
		Community, Social and Personal Services	1061 15.1 %	427 33.2 %	1488
		Private households with employed persons	311 4.4 %	292 27.7 %	603
		Exterritorial organizations	2 0.03 %	0	2
		Representatives of foreign governments	9 0.1 %	5 0.4 %	14
		Total	7040	1288	8328
Rural	Main Economic	Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing	1273 25.7 %	456 62.6 %	1729
	Activity	Mining and Quarrying	2491 50.3 %	8 1.1 %	2499
		Manufacturing	182 3.7 %	22 3 %	204
		Electricity, gas, steam and water supply	3 0.1 %	0	3
		Construction	222 4.5 %	3 0.4 %	225
		Wholesale and Retail trade	201 4.1 %	77 10.6 %	278
		Transport , Storage and Communication	35 0.7 %	1 0.1 %	36
		Financial, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	60 1.2 %	5 0.7 %	65
		Community, Social and Personal Services	330 6.7 %	83 11.4 %	413
		Private households with employed persons	160	74	234
			3.2 %	10.2 %	

Table 5.3.28: Standardized residuals

Destination	Main Economic Activity	G	ender
		Male	Female
Urban	Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing	0.3	8
	Mining and Quarrying	7.9	-18.5
	Manufacturing	.08	-1.8
	Electricity, gas, steam and water supply	0.7	-1.6
	Construction	4.1	-9.5
	Wholesale and Retail trade	-1.7	4
	Transport, storage and communication	0.6	-1.5
	Financial, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	-2	4.8
	Community, Social and Personal Services	-5.6	13
	Private households with employed persons	-8.8	20.6
	Exterritorial organizations	0.2	-0.6
	Representatives of foreign governments	-0.8	1.9
Rural	Agriculture, Hunting, Forestry and Fishing	-6	15.7
	Mining and Quarrying	6.7	-17.5
	Manufacturing	0.3	-0.8
	Electricity, gas, steam and water supply	0.2	-0.6
	Construction	1.8	-4.8
	Wholesale and Retail trade	-2.7	6.9
	Transport, Storage and Communication	0.6	-1.7
	Financial, Insurance, Real Estate and Business Services	0.4	-1.2
	Community, Social and Personal Services	-1.6	4.1
	Private households with employed persons	-3.1	8
	Exterritorial organizations	- 1	-
	Representatives of foreign governments	-	-

#### 5.3.21 Distribution of gender by economic sector

The proportions in Table 5.3.29 and the standardized residuals in Table 5.3.30 showed that male immigrants are more likely to work in formal sectors compared to their female counterparts, who were more likely to work in informal sector than males. In order to investigate the association between gender and economic sector, the calculated chi-square was 392.9 with a P-value less than 0.0005 which is indicative of a significant association between the two variables. The high residuals of 13, -10 and 9 accounted for females who are engaged in farming, formal, and informal sectors respectively. In other words, the main contribution to this association is from females working in these categories (farming, formal, and informal).

Table 5.3.29: Distribution of gender by economic sector

		G	ender	
	, i	Male	Female	Total
Economic sector	Formal registered (non-farming)	8630 71.9 %	1030 51.1 %	9660
	Informal unregistered (non- farming)	2121 17.7 %	566 28.1 %	2687
	Farming	1052 8.8 %	386 19.1 %	1438
	Has work but was temporarily absent	194 1.6 %	35 1.7 %	229
	Total	11997 100 %	2017 100 %	14014

Table 5.3.30: Standardized residuals

Economic sector	Gender	
	Male	Female
Yes: formal registered (non-farming)	4	-9.7
Yes: informal unregistered (non- farming)	-3.7	9.1
Yes: farming	-5.1	12.4
Yes: has work but was temporarily absent	-0.1	0.4

#### 5.3.22 Economic sectors by work status

Table 5.3.31 shows that 74 % of immigrants are described as paid employees working in the formal sector, i.e. mining and quarrying, community, social and personal services. However, 61 % of self-employed immigrants work in the informal sector and are involved in occupations such as wholesale and retail trade, community, social and personal services and manufacturing. Among the employer column, 62 % work in the formal sector, and are distributed in mining and quarrying, wholesale and retail trade and community, social and personal services. Chi-square was used to test the association between economic sector and work status. The test statistic was 2458.8, and P-value was found to be less than 0.0005 showing a significant association between economic sector and work status. Standardized residuals were used to investigate the source of association. Immigrants who were described as self-employed working in informal sector have the highest contribution to the association hence, immigrants who were self-employed are more likely to be found in the informal sector (see table 5.3.32).

Table 5.3.31: Economic sectors by work status

				Work Sta	atus		
		Paid employee	Paid family worker	Self- employed	Employer	Unpaid family worker	Total
Economic sector	Formal registered (non-farming)	8993 74.4 %	41 28.5 %	528 33.0 %	85 61.2 %	13 31.7 %	9660
	Informal unregistered (non- farming)	1578 13.1 %	86 59.7 %	976 60.9 %	30 21.6 %	17 41.5 %	2687
	Farming	1363 11.3 %	7 4.9 %	44 2.7 %	19 13.7 %	5 12.2 %	1438
	Has work but was temporarily absent	154 1.3 %	10 6.9 %	54 3.4 %	5 3.6 %	6 14.6 %	229
	Total	12088 100.0 %	144 100.0 %	1602 100.0 %	139 100.0 %	41 100.0 %	14014

Table 5.3.32: Standardized residuals

			Work status		
Economic sector	Paid employee	Paid family worker	Self-employed	Employer	Unpaid family worker
Formal registered (non-farming)	7.2	-5.8	-17.3	-1.1	-2.9
Informal unregistered (non-farming)	-15.4	11.1	38.2	0.6	3.3
Farming	3.5	-2	-9.4	1.3	0.4
Has work but was temporarily absent	-3.1	5	5.4	1.8	6.5

## 5.3.23 The differences in activity rates by age across the provinces

The study hypothesizes the existence of differences on average in immigrants' participation in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa. Hence, a two-factor analysis of variance was used to investigate the differentials in participation. Immigrant's activity rate was used as a dependent variable, while the nine provinces of South Africa and age groups were used as variable factors. When the two-factor analysis of variance was applied, immigrant's activity rate observed was significantly different across the nine provinces (P-value < 0.0005), as well as age group (P-value < 0.0005) (see Table 5.3.33). This means that, on average, the participation rate is differ across the nine provinces when the population is distributed by age.

With reference to Table 5.3.9, the highest participation by African immigrants was found in the North West province, followed by Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Free State and Northern Province. This reflects a high contribution by African immigrants to the labour force in these provinces. The lowest rates were found to be in Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape. Hence, multiple comparisons analyses were used to investigate the participation's differential by calculating the differences of each province versus the other provinces. The results showed that there is a significant difference between the different provinces except Mpumalanga and Gauteng which showed an almost similar pattern (see Appendix 1).

Table 5.3.33: Two-way analysis of variance

Source	Type III Sum of	df	Mean	F	Sig.
	Squares		Square		
Corrected Model	28315.792	17	1665.635	12.369	0.000
Intercept	437632.453	1	437632.453	3249.738	0.000
Province	6341.540	8	792.692	5.886	0.000
Age group	21974.252	9	2441.584	18.131	0.000
Error	9696.025	72	134.667		
Total	475644.270	90			
Corrected Total	38011.817	89			

### 5.3.24 Logistic regression analysis

Logistic regression is used to determine the relationship between the predictor's gender, age groups, educational levels, marital status and destination, while employment status serves as the dependent variable. The response variable takes value 1 for unemployed, and 0 for the employed. The use of logistic regression is useful to understand the relationship between the predictors and the response variable. The results of the logistic regression analysis are presented in terms of the odds ratio in Tables 5.3.34 and 5.3.35. The odds ratio of each category of each variable in the model, compared to the reference category in the same variable is calculated, and the p-value attached.

Table 5.3.34 showed female immigrants are almost five times more likely to be unemployed than males. With respect to marital status, immigrants within the category other marital status are twice more likely to be unemployed than married immigrants. More so, immigrants with some level of educational (primary, completed primary, Grade12/Std 10 and higher education) were less likely to be unemployed than immigrants without educational skills. Secondary level education has no significant effect on employment status. With respect to age

groups, immigrants in old age groups are less likely to be unemployed compared to young immigrants, while immigrants in rural areas are less likely to be unemployed than immigrants in urban areas (see table 5.3.34).

Table 5.3.34: Employment and unemployment logistic regression analysis

Variable	Reference category	Compared category	Odds Ratio	P-value
Gender	Male	Female	4.76	Less than 0.0005
Marital status	Married	Living together as unmarried partners.	2.04	Less than 0.0005
		Never married	2.58	Less than 0.0005
		Widow/ separated/ divorce	2.04	Less than 0.0005
Educational levels	No schooling	Some primary	0.77	Less than 0.0005
		Complete primary	0.87	Less than 0.0005
		Some secondary of the	1.05	0.297
		Grade 12 / Std 10	0.75	Less than 0.0005
		Higher	0.47	Less than 0.0005
Age group	15-24	25-39	0.44	0.017
		40-49	0.24	Less than 0.0005
		50-64	0.19	Less than 0.0005
Destination	Urban	Rural	0.42	Less than 0.0005

The dependent variable employment status: Unemployment (1) versus employment (0)

Table 5.3.35 shows the logistic regression analysis to investigate the relationship between the age, gender, marital status, educational levels, destination and economic sector as predictor variables. The dependent variable is work status. The response variable is designated 1 for self-employee/employer, and 0 for paid employee. Observed result from the table showed that female immigrants are more likely to be self-employed/employer than males. More so, immigrants with other marital status are more likely to be self-employed/employer than married immigrants. Immigrants with some levels of primary education are less likely to be self-employed/employer than immigrants without educational levels, while completing primary school has no significant effect on work status. Immigrants with some level of secondary education are more likely to be self-employed/employer than immigrants with no schooling, while a three times possibility exists for immigrants with Grad12/Std10 and higher educational levels to be self-employed/employer than those without educational skills.

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The odds ratio for immigrants resident in rural areas is 0.33, suggesting that they are less likely to be self-employed/employer compared with immigrants in the urban areas. However, immigrants who work in the informal sector are nine times more likely to be self-employed/employer than those who work in the formal sector. The odds ratio for immigrants who work in the farming sector is 0.668, suggesting that they are less likely to be self-employed/employers compared to immigrants in formal sector.

Table 5.3.35: Work status logistic regression analysis

Variable	Reference category	Compared category	Odds Ratio	P-value
Gender	Male	Female	1.52	Less than 0.0005
Marital status	Married	Living together as unmarried partners.	1.26	0.005
		Never married	2.07	Less than 0.0005
		Widow/ separated/ divorce	1.95	Less than 0.0005
Educational	No	Some primary	0.76	0.003
levels	schooling	Complete primary	0.94	0.556
		Some secondary	1.33	Less than 0.0005
	5	Grade 12/Std 10	2.99	Less than 0.0005
	-	Higher	2.77	Less than 0.0005
Destination	Urban	Rural	0.33	Less than 0.0005
Economic sector	Yes: formal registered	Yes: informal unregistered (non-farming)	9.35	Less than 0.0005
	(non- farming)	Yes: farming	0.68	0.004

The dependent variable work status: self-employed/employer (1) versus paid employee (0)

#### **5.4** Locational characteristics

#### 5.4.1 Place of work

Fig. 5.4.1 shows that 79 % of the working immigrants work in same area in which he/she usually lives. This means that their place of work is within the proximity of their living area. However, 21 % of the immigrant population has the need to go out of their area of residence before they get to their places of work.

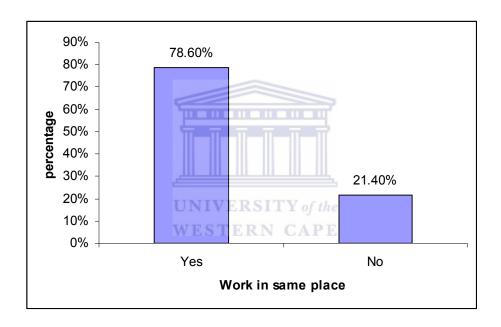


Fig. 5.4.1: Place of work

#### 5.4.2 Place of enumeration and place of usual residence

Table 5.4.1 displays the combinations of place of enumeration and place of usual residence. Majority of the immigrants were enumerated in the same place of their usual residence, meaning that most African immigrants were enumerated where they live.

Table 5.4.1 Place of enumeration and place usual residence

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Same place	23276	97.2
Different places, same province	291	1.2
Different provinces	123	0.5
Foreign usual residence	261	1.1
Total	23951	100

# 5.4.2 Place of enumeration and place of birth

Table 5.4.2 shows that majority of African immigrants in South Africa were born in foreign lands, and a small proportion were born in same province where they were enumerated, and an equally smaller proportion of them were born in a different province. It is clear that most African immigrants were born in foreign places, and they crossed the border to get into South Africa.

Table 5.4.2 Place of enumeration and place of birth

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Same province	441	1.8
Different provinces	233	1.0
Foreign birth place	23465	97.2
Total	24139	100

## 5.4.3 Immigrant's destination in South Africa

Fig. 5.4.2 depicts the destinations of African immigrants in South Africa. The larger proportion of African immigrants resides in urban areas, compared to a smaller proportion resident in the rural areas. It can be deduced that urban areas are more attractive for African immigrants due to availability of employment and various essential services. This finding was corroborated by other studies, where it was stated that African immigrants tend to reside in large cities and urban areas (Crush and Williams, 2001; Rogerson, 1999; Dodson, 1998). In addition, rural destinations are quite insufficient on their own and generally, they do not meet the aspirations of immigrants. Table 5.4.3 shows the distribution of immigrant's work status by destination in which across all categories of work, the highest proportion of the immigrants can be found to live in the urban areas as compared to those who lived in the rural areas.

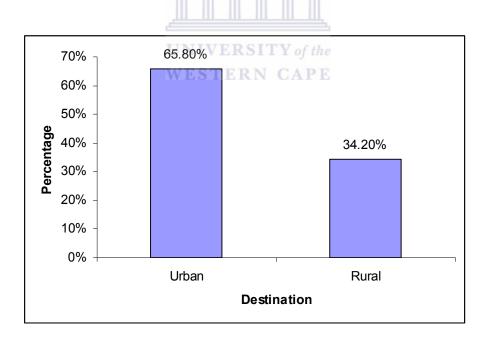


Fig. 5.4.2: Immigrant's destination

Table 5.4.3: Immigrant's destination by work status

	WORK STATUS					
	Paid employee	Paid family worker	Self-employed	Employer	Unpaid family worker	Total
Urban	6827 56.5 %	84 58.3 %	1318 82.3 %	75 54.0 %	24 58.5 %	8328
Rural	5261 43.5 %	60 41.7 %	284 17.7 %	64 46.0 %	17 41.5 %	5686
Total	12088 100 %	144 100 %	1602 100 %	139 100 %	41 100 %	14014

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#### 5.4.4 The destination by region origin

Table 5.4.4 shows the African immigrant's destination within South Africa. 63% of Immigrants from SADC countries favoured living in urban areas compared to the rural areas, and same pattern was observed among immigrants from other parts of Africa. Furthermore, our analysis showed that most African immigrants living in urban areas tend to settle in Gauteng. However, immigrants from SADC regions have a higher proportion of those living in rural areas in the North West province, but immigrants coming from other parts of Africa who tends to live in rural areas have a high proportion of them living in KwaZulu-Natal.

Immigration to South Africa during the apartheid era was focused on bringing in workers from neighboring countries to work in mines and on farms. Hence, this confirms the higher percentage of migrants from neighboring countries in the rural areas. Also, the result showed that most African immigrants living within urban areas settled in Gauteng province, especially Johannesburg since it is a modern city, and by far, the most famous city outside South Africa. Support for the deduction from the study of Rogerson (1999), which found 60 % of the

African immigrants living in Johannesburg, while the rest joined the farms in Mpumalanga. Furthermore, Dodson (1998), noted that African immigrants tend to move to Gauteng, Cape Town, Durban, Welkom and Bloemfontein, followed by Free State, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal, Northern and North West provinces.



Table 5.4.5: Destination by country of citizen and provinces

		Region	Region of origin		
		SADC Countries	Rest of Africa		
Urban	Western Cape	634	272		
		4.4 %	17.8 %		
	Eastern Cape	245	102		
		1.7 %	6.7 %		
	Northern Cape	60	9		
		0.4 %	0.6 %		
	Free State	1201	27		
		8.4 %	1.8 %		
	KwaZulu-Natal	574	170		
		4 %	11.1 %		
	North West	1169	28		
		8.1 %	1.8 %		
	Gauteng	9537	884		
		66.5 %	57.7 %		
	Mpumalanga	569	19		
		4 %	1.2 %		
	Northern Province (no		21		
	Limpopo	2.5 %	1.4 %		
	110 010 010	THE REPORT OF			
	Total	14352 (64 %)	1532 (94 %)		
Rural	Western Cape	23	5		
	اللوالل اللل	0.3 %	4.8 %		
	Eastern Cape	175	19		
	UNIVER	2.1 %	18.3 %		
	Northern Cape	27	0		
		0.5 70			
	Free State	799	0		
		9.8 %			
	KwaZulu-Natal	331	37		
	27 1 777	4.1 %	35.6 %		
	North West	2525	9		
		31 %	8.7 %		
	Gauteng	1021	1		
	2.5	12.5 %	1 %		
	Mpumalanga	1524	9		
		18.7 %	8.7 %		
	Northern Province	1726	24		
	(now Limpopo	21.2 %	23.1 %		
	Total	0151(2(-0/-)	104 (6.9/)		
	Total	8151(36 %)	104 (6 %)		

### **CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### 6.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to examine the differentials in the participation of African immigrants in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa. In particular, the following were studied: effect of immigrant's participation on the labour force in South Africa, demographic characteristics of the immigrants, immigrant's destination in South Africa, immigrant's socio-economic status, region of origin of the immigrants, and also to establish the differentials across the provinces with regards to their participation in the labour force, the economic sector preferred by the immigrants, female immigrants employment status, the effect of educational skills, marital status, age group and destination on employment status. The analysis to be discussed was a 10% sample obtained from the 2001 national census.

#### 6.2 Summary of the main results

The sample consisted of 27793 African immigrants, with the proportion of male to female being 68 % and 32 % respectively. Despite the increasing rate of female immigrants to South Africa, the proportion of male immigrants is still higher compared to that of the female. The study showed that African immigrants are more likely to be young, with a high percentage crowding at the middle age groups. These findings are consistent with those obtained by McDonald *et al.*, (1999) and Rogerson (1997).

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On the immigrant's marital status, the study found that African immigrants in South Africa were more likely to be married/living together as unmarried partners rather than being single.

Among the African immigrants in the study, 20 % were without educational skills, and 24 % with some primary education. This result represents a high rate of immigrants with minimal or no educational skills leading to difficulty for them in joining the labor force.

The preference of the economic sector by African immigrants was also looked into revealing 69 % of the working immigrants are involved in the formal sector, while 19 % are engaged in the informal sector, and 10 % are involved in the farming sector. These results showed that African immigrants are more likely to be employed in the formal sector rather than other sectors. This may be due to a large proportion of African immigrants working in the mining industries. However, 45 % of African immigrants in South Africa did not have work i.e. not working. This high proportion of non-working immigrants may be due to their lack of education, relevant skills, and/or due to the national employment policy as aforementioned, which concentrate on citizens only, with no policies established to improve or alleviate the work conditions of African immigrants. However, the reverse is the case as the national employment policy gives concessions to South African who is more intent to recruit professionals from abroad at the expense of fellow Africans.

The study also found that 58 % of African immigrants were gainfully employed, while 19 % remain unemployed. The employment rate of African immigrants was 76 %, which represents a high level of employment for African immigrants leading to a high participation and contribution by African immigrants to South Africa's labour market. These findings are consistent with those obtained by McDonald *et al.* (1999).

In order to establish the differentials in participation of African immigrants in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa, the following were calculated; the immigrant's

economical activity rate, age specific economic active rate, specific rate of activity by gender and specific rate of activity by provinces. The results show that the African immigrant's activity rate was 77%; these results reflect a high rate of participation by African immigrants in the South African labour force. The age specific economic active rate showed that immigrants aged between 31-55 years, have higher activity rates compared to immigrants aged less than 21 years old. This is to be expected, as 31-55 are the main working ages. With respect to age specific activity rate by gender, the results showed a high contribution by male immigrants in the labour market compared to females. The specific activity rate by provinces represented that the highest activity rates provided by African immigrants were found in the North West, followed by Mpumalanga, Gauteng, Free State and Northern Province. This may be because African immigrants in these provinces were more likely to be employed, which reflects the high rate of labour force participation by the African immigrants in these provinces.

To examine the differences on average in African immigrant's participation in the labour force across the nine provinces of South Africa Two-factor analysis of variance was used. The results showed that, there was a significant differential in immigrant's participation in the labour force across the nine provinces in South Africa.

The study hypothesized that, African immigrants tend to create jobs rather than displacing jobs from South Africans. The results showed that, the majority of African immigrants in the sample work as paid employee. These results reflect that, most of these immigrants described as paid employee, work outside the migrant economy.

The results show that, female immigrants were more likely to work in the informal sector. This may be because female immigrants are mostly involved in street trading, personal services, and private household with employed person.

To investigate the effect of some demographic characteristics and destination of African immigrants on their employment status, the study used logistic regression analysis. The results show that, the female immigrants are almost five times more likely to be unemployed than males. With respect to marital status, immigrants with others marital status are two times more likely to be unemployed than married immigrants. For educational levels, immigrants with some primary, complete primary, Grade 12/Std 10 and higher educational levels are less likely to be unemployed than immigrants without educational skills. Immigrants in old age groups are less likely to be unemployed compared to young immigrants. With respect to destination, immigrants in rural areas are less likely to be unemployed than immigrants in urban areas.

Since apartheid era, South Africa had experienced immigration from neighboring countries to work in mining and farm sectors. To investigate the origin of African immigrants, the results show that 93 % originated from SADC, while 7 % are from the rest of Africa. The majority of immigrants originate from the SADC region. These findings are consistent with the findings of Crush and Williams (2005). The immigrants originating from outside these areas suggest an attractiveness that goes beyond the traditional area of migratory influence. This shows the importance of South Africa in the new generation of migration across the African continent.

South Africa has always been a destination for migrants from neighboring countries, other African countries and elsewhere. In order to investigate the immigrant's destination in South

Africa, the results displayed that, African immigrants were more likely to reside in the urban areas rather than rural areas. With respect to immigrant's destination by gender, the study showed that, African female immigrants were more likely to reside in the urban areas compared to males. These findings are in agreement with the study conducted by Dodson 1998 which noted that women tend to migrate to places where there are opportunities to buy and sell, ether in the big cities such as Gauteng, or small towns which are located near the borders with their country of origin.

To investigate the distribution of African immigrants across main economic activities, the results show that, the highest proportion of immigrants are mining workers, followed by those in the agriculture activities. This refers to the historical migration of workers from neighboring countries to South Africa to work in mine and agricultural sectors. From this study, it can be noted that the mine sector still absorbs a high proportion of African immigrants working in South Africa.

By looking at the cross table of main economic activities by origin of immigrants, the results show that the highest proportion of immigrants from SADC countries work in mining industries, followed by agriculture. For immigrants from the rest of Africa, the highest proportions are those who work in community, social and personal services, followed by wholesale and retail trade. From the standardized residuals results, it can be noted that, immigrants from SADC region were more likely to work in mining and agriculture sectors, and less likely to be work in community, social and personal services, and wholesale and retail trade. Immigrants from the rest of Africa are more likely to work in community, social and personal services, and wholesale and retail trade, and less likely to work in mining and agriculture activities.

To investigate the relationship between gender and main economic activities, the results obtained from standardized residuals showed that female immigrants are more likely to be occupied in private households with employed person, community, social and personal services, agriculture and wholesale and retail trade, and less likely to work in mining and construction, while male immigrants are more likely to work in mining, and less likely to work in agriculture activities compared to female immigrants.

The distribution of gender by main economic activities and destination, the results showed that the main economic activities of female immigrants resident in urban areas were community, social and personal services, private household with employed person and wholesale and retail trade. The main economic activities of male immigrants resident in urban areas was found to be mining activities, followed by wholesale and retail trade, and community, social and personal services.

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With respect to rural areas and within female immigrants, the highest proportion was for females working in agriculture activities, while the highest proportion for males belong to those working in mining activities.

To explore the economic sectors by work status, some results from this study show that the formal sector absorbs the majority of African immigrants. With respect to economic sectors by work status, the study found that, most of the African immigrants who are described as paid employee work in the formal sector, and are engaged in mining and quarrying, community, social and personal services. For the self-employed immigrants, the results show that the highest proportion accounts for immigrants who work in informal sector, i.e. those immigrants involved in occupations such as wholesale and retail trade, community, social and

personal services and manufacturing. For paid employee category, African immigrants were less likely to be paid employee in informal sector, and more likely to paid employee in formal sector. For the self-employed category, they are more likely to be self-employed in the informal sector, and less likely to be self-employed in formal sector.

#### 6.3 Conclusion

African immigrants do have high rate of participation in the labour force. Their participation differs significantly across the provinces. The majority of them work as paid employee which means that they do take jobs rather than creating jobs. The female immigrants were found to have high rate of self-employed and employer compared to male immigrants.

#### 6.4 Recommendations for further studies

This study has shown that female immigrants are more educated than males, and they do create more jobs than males. We recommend that this finding should be assessed, explained by conducting a large scale study that focus on this issue. Also, there is limited literature and data on the immigrants' contribution in labour force across rural areas at the level of municipalities; hence it is therefore recommended that further studies be done to investigate this aspect.

Due to the limitation associated with the immigrant's country of origin, the study recommends that this variable must be broken down to allow in-depth investigation on international migration in South Africa

The study has shown that African immigrants compete with the locals for job opportunities. Most of the African immigrants were found to be from SADC countries. The issue of the immigrants' inflow into South Africa, and the consequent competition with South Africans for jobs might not

be resolvable, unless the government of South Africa plays major roles in resolving issues that pushed those immigrants to leave their countries of origin. A vivid case in hand is illustrated by the political impasse taken place in Zimbabwe. Although the study focused on African migrants in South African labor force, regardless the migrant's legal status, but this does not negate the existence of undocumented migrants in South Africa, however considerable number of undocumented migrants came from neighboring countries e.g. Zimbabwe. According to Makina (2007), the lack of migrant's legal status affect the migrant's participation in the labor force and also impacts on wage, crime control, repatriation and skills retention. We recommend that this issue of undocumented migrants and their impacts on South African labor force and society should be investigated by conducting more researches.

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#### APPENDIX 1

**Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe test)** 

	Multiple Compa				050/ G . C.1		
		Mean Difference			95% Confidence Interval		
(I) province	(J) province	(I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Western Cape	Eastern Cape	15.0479*	.30180	.000	13.8593	16.2364	
	Northern Cape	8.1075*	.59869	.000	5.7497	10.4653	
	Free State	-14.9130*	.22091	.000	-15.7830	-14.0430	
	KwaZulu-Natal	1.9403*	.24529	.000	.9743	2.9064	
	North West	-23.4244*	.20438	.000	-24.2293	-22.6195	
	Gauteng	-17.9979*	.19009	.000	-18.7465	-17.2493	
	Mpumalanga	-18.3423*	.21936	.000	-19.2062	-17.4784	
	Northern Province (now Limpopo	-11.3594 <sup>*</sup>	.21915	.000	-12.2225	-10.4963	
Eastern Cape	Western Cape	-15.0479*	.30180	.000	-16.2364	-13.8593	
	Northern Cape	-6.9404*	.61862	.000	-9.3767	-4.5040	
	Free State	-29.9608*	.27031	.000	-31.0254	-28.8963	
	KwaZulu-Natal	-13.1075 <sup>*</sup>	.29058	.000	-14.2519	-11.9631	
	North West	-38.4723*	.25698	.000	-39.4843	-37.4602	
	Gauteng	-33.0458*	.24577	.000	-34.0137	-32.0779	
	Mpumalanga	-33.3901*	.26905	.000	-34.4497	-32.3305	
	Northern Province (now Limpopo	-26.4073 <sup>*</sup>	.26888	.000	-27.4662	-25.3483	
Northern Cape	Western Cape	-8.1075*	.59869	.000	-10.4653	-5.7497	
	Eastern Cape	6.9404*	.61862	.000	4.5040	9.3767	
	Free State	-23.0205*	.58345	.000	-25.3183	-20.7226	
	KwaZulu-Natal	-6.1671 <sup>*</sup>	.59311	.000	-8.5030	-3.8313	
	North West	-31.5319*	.57739	.000	-33.8059	-29.2579	
	Gauteng	-26.1054*	.57249	.000	-28.3600	-23.8507	
	Mpumalanga	-26.4498*	.58286	.000	-28.7453	-24.1542	

	Northern Province (now Limpopo	-19.4669*	.58279	.000	-21.7621	-17.1717
Free State	Western Cape	14.9130*	.22091	.000	14.0430	15.7830
	Eastern Cape	29.9608*	.27031	.000	28.8963	31.0254
	Northern Cape	23.0205*	.58345	.000	20.7226	25.3183
	KwaZulu-Natal	16.8533*	.20531	.000	16.0447	17.6619
	North West	-8.5114*	.15413	.000	-9.1184	-7.9044
	Gauteng	-3.0849*	.13461	.000	-3.6151	-2.5548
	Mpumalanga	-3.4293*	.17351	.000	-4.1126	-2.7460
	Northern Province (now Limpopo	3.5536 <sup>*</sup>	.17325	.000	2.8713	4.2359
KwaZulu-Natal	Western Cape	-1.9403*	.24529	.000	-2.9064	9743
	Eastern Cape	13.1075*	.29058	.000	11.9631	14.2519
	Northern Cape	6.1671*	.59311	.000	3.8313	8.5030
	Free State	-16.8533*	.20531	.000	-17.6619	-16.0447
	North West	-25.3648*	.18741	.000	-26.1028	-24.6267
	Gauteng	-19.9383*	.17172	.000	-20.6145	-19.2620
	Mpumalanga	-20.2826*	.20364	.000	-21.0846	-19.4806
	Northern Province (now Limpopo	-13.2998*	.20342	.000	-14.1009	-12.4986
North West	Western Cape	23.4244*	.20438	.000	22.6195	24.2293
	Eastern Cape	38.4723 <sup>*</sup>	.25698	.000	37.4602	39.4843
	Northern Cape	31.5319*	.57739	.000	29.2579	33.8059
	Free State	8.5114*	.15413	.000	7.9044	9.1184
	KwaZulu-Natal	25.3648*	.18741	.000	24.6267	26.1028
	Gauteng	5.4265*	.10531	.000	5.0118	5.8412
	Mpumalanga	5.0821*	.15190	.000	4.4839	5.6804
	Northern Province (now Limpopo	12.0650*	.15161	.000	11.4679	12.6621
Gauteng	Western Cape	17.9979*	.19009	.000	17.2493	18.7465
	Eastern Cape	33.0458*	.24577	.000	32.0779	34.0137
	Northern Cape	26.1054 <sup>*</sup>	.57249	.000	23.8507	28.3600

	Free State	3.0849*	.13461	.000	2.5548	3.6151
	KwaZulu-Natal	19.9383 <sup>*</sup>	.17172	.000	19.2620	20.6145
	North West	-5.4265*	.10531	.000	-5.8412	-5.0118
	Mpumalanga	3444	.13205	.558	8644	.1757
	Northern Province (now Limpopo	6.6385 <sup>*</sup>	.13171	.000	6.1198	7.1572
Mpumalanga	Western Cape	18.3423*	.21936	.000	17.4784	19.2062
	Eastern Cape	33.3901*	.26905	.000	32.3305	34.4497
	Northern Cape	26.4498*	.58286	.000	24.1542	28.7453
	Free State	3.4293 <sup>*</sup>	.17351	.000	2.7460	4.1126
	KwaZulu-Natal	20.2826*	.20364	.000	19.4806	21.0846
	North West	-5.0821*	.15190	.000	-5.6804	-4.4839
	Gauteng	.3444	.13205	.558	1757	.8644
	Northern Province (now Limpopo	6.9829 <sup>*</sup>	.17127	.000	6.3084	7.6574
Northern Province	Western Cape	11.3594 <sup>*</sup>	.21915	.000	10.4963	12.2225
(now Limpopo)	Eastern Cape	26.4073*	.26888	.000	25.3483	27.4662
	Northern Cape	19.4669*	.58279	.000	17.1717	21.7621
	Free State	-3.5536 <sup>*</sup>	.17325	.000	-4.2359	-2.8713
	KwaZulu-Natal	13.2998*	.20342	.000	12.4986	14.1009
	North West	-12.0650*	.15161	.000	-12.6621	-11.4679
	Gauteng	-6.6385 <sup>*</sup>	.13171	.000	-7.1572	-6.1198
	Mpumalanga	-6.9829*	.17127	.000	-7.6574	-6.3084
Based on observed The error term is M 31.202.	means. Mean Square (Error) =					
*. The mean differe	nce is significant at the 0.03	5 level.				

#### **APPENDIX 2**

## **Employment status logistic regression**

Gender

## **Dependent Variable Encoding**

Original Value	Internal Value		
Employed	0		
Unemployed	1		

Categorical Variables Coding

Categorical variables coding							
			Parameter coding				
	LINI	Frequency	(1)				
GENDER	male	14514	0.000				
	female	4029	1.000				

## Variables in the Equation

_	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-1.130	0.017	4367.166	1	0.000	0.323

**Model Summary** 

Step	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R
	likelihood	R Square	Square
1	18975.000 <sup>a</sup>	0.085	0.126

#### **Classification Table**

			Predicted Employment Status				
	Observed		Employed	Unemployed	Percentage Correct		
Step 1	Employment	Employed	14014	0	100.0		
	Status	Unemployed	4529	0	0.0		
		Overall Percentage			75.6		
a. The c	a. The cut value is 0.500						

#### Variables in the Equation

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	Gender(1)	1.559	0.038	1649.736	<b>5</b>	0.000	4.755
	Constant	-1.562	0.022	5073.436	1	0.000	0.210
					Щ		

## Marital Status

# Dependent Variable Encoding

Original Value	Internal Value
Employed	0
Unemployed	1

**Categorical Variables Coding** 

	- Categoriear ,				
			Parameter coding		
		Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)
marital	married	8695	0.000	0.000	0.000
status	living together as unmarried partners	2844	1.000	0.000	0.000
	never married	6465	0.000	1.000	0.000
	widow/separated/divorced	539	0.000	0.000	1.000

Variables in the Equation

-	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-1.130	0.017	4367.166	1	0.000	0.323

**Model Summary** 

	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R
Step	likelihood	R Square	Square
1	19986.946 <sup>a</sup>	0.033	0.050

#### **Classification table**

				Predicted		
			Employment Status			
	Observed		Employed	Unemployed	Percentage Correct	
Step 1	Employment	Employed	14014	0	100.0	
	Status	Unemployed	4529	0	0.0	
		Overall Percentage			75.6	

				re equation			
		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	Marital Status			601.137	3	0.000	
	Marital Status(1)	0.713	0.051	197.418	1	0.000	2.040
	Marital Status(2)	0.946	0.039	580.513	1	0.000	2.575
	Marital Status(3)	0.713	0.100	51.048	1	0.000	2.041
	Constant	-1.639	0.029	3180.145	1	0.000	0.194

#### **Educational level**

## **Dependent variable Encoding**

Original	Internal
Value	Value
Employed	00
Unemployed	RSITY of the

WESTERN CAPE
Categorical variable

			Parameter coding					
		Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	
LEVEL OF	No schooling	3632	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
EDUCATION	Some primary	4213	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	Complete primary	1794	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	
	Some secondary	5858	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	
	Grade 12 / Std 10	1997	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	
	Higher	1049	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	

	_	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	-1.130	0.017	4367.166	1	0.000	0.323

**Model summary** 

	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R
Step	likelihood	R Square	Square
1	20487.176 <sup>a</sup>	0.007	0.010

Classification table

		Ciassilica	tion table				
			Predicted				
			Employment Status				
		m-m-n			Percentage		
	Observed		Employed	Unemployed	Correct		
Step 1	Employment	Employed	14014	0	100.0		
	Status	Unemployed	4529	0	0.0		
		Overall Percentage	RN CAP	E	75.6		
a. The c	a. The cut value is 0.500						

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	Educational level			121.088	5	0.000	
	Educational level (1)	-0.260	0.053	24.221	1	0.000	0.771
	Educational level (2)	-0.142	0.067	4.508	1	0.034	0.868
	Educational level (3)	0.050	0.048	1.088	1	0.297	1.051
	Educational level (4)	-0.284	0.066	18.403	1	0.000	0.753
	Educational level (5)	-0.766	0.095	64.415	1	0.000	0.465
	Constant	-1.010	0.038	724.567	<b>)</b>	0.000	0.364

Age group

# **Dependent Variable Encoding**

Original Value	Internal Value
Employed	0
Unemployed	1

Categorical variable

			Parameter coding				
		Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)		
Age group	15-24	3825	0.000	0.000	0.000		
	25-39	9646	1.000	0.000	0.000		
	40-49	3552	0.000	1.000	0.000		
	50-64	1520	0.000	0.000	1.000		

-	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-1.130	0.017	4367.166	1	0.000	0.323

**Model summary** 

	-2 Log		Nagelkerke R					
Step	likelihood	R Square	Square					
1	19707.081 <sup>a</sup>	0.048	0.071					

**Classification table** 

				Predicted			
			Employment Status				
	Observed		Employed	Unemployed	Percentage Correct		
Step 1	Employmen	Employed	14014	0	100.0		
	t Status	Unemployed	4529	0	0.0		
		Overall Percentage	RSITY of t	he	75.6		
a. The c	eut value is 0.5	500	RN CAR	10			

Variables in the equation

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	Age group			868.973	3	0.000	
	Age group (1)	-0.826	0.041	411.835	1	0.000	0.438
	Age group (2)	-1.442	0.058	614.258	1	0.000	0.237
	Age group (3)	-1.679	0.087	375.857	1	0.000	0.186
	Constant	-0.353	0.033	115.799	1	0.000	0.702

**Destination** 

**Dependent Variable Encodin** 

sependent tur	more Bireoun
Original Value	Internal Value
Employed	0
Unemployed	1

**Categorical Variable Coding** 

categoriear variable country						
			Parameter coding			
		Frequency	(1)			
Destination	Urban	11785	0.000			
	Rural	6758	1.000			

Variable in Equation

	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-1.130	0.017	4367.166	1	0.000	0.323

**Model summary** 

	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·					
	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R			
Step	likelihood	R Square	Square			
1	20174.252 <sup>a</sup>	0.024	0.035			

#### **Classification Table**

	Observed		Predicted Employment Status				
			Employed	Unemployed	Percentage Correct		
Step 1	Employment	Employed	14014	0	100.0		
	Status	Unemployed	4529	0	0.0		
		Overall Percentage			75.6		
a. The c	cut value is 0.50	00					

Variables in Equation

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	Destination(1)	-0.789	0.039	410.348	1	0.000	0.454
	Constant	-0.879	0.020	1888.460	1	0.000	0.415

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

## **APPENDIX 3**

## Work status logistic regression

Gender

**Dependent variable Encoding** 

Original Value	Internal Value
paid employee	0
self-employer+ employer	1

**Categorical variable Coding** 

penenenenen

			Parameter coding
	WES	Frequency	n (1)
GENDER	male	11860	0.000
	female	1969	1.000

Variable in Equation

_	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-1.938	0.026	5714.254	1	0.000	0.144

**Model summary** 

Step	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R
	likelihood	R Square	Square
1	10431.659 <sup>a</sup>	0.003	0.005

#### **Classification Table**

			Predicted				
				p19_wsta_last			
	Observed		paid employee	self- employer+ employer	Percentage Correct		
Step 1	Work Status	paid employee	12088	0	100.0		
		self-employer+ employer	1741	0	0.0		
		Overall Percentage			87.4		
a. The c	a. The cut value is 0.500						

Variable in Equation

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	Gender(1)	0.417	0.066	39.445	1	0.000	1.518
	Constant	-2.005	0.028	4987.295	1	0.000	0.135

UNIVERSITY of the

Marital status

**Dependent Variable Encoding** 

Original Value	Internal Value
paid employee	0
self-employer+ employer	1

**Categorical Variables Coding** 

			Parameter coding		
		Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)
marital status	married	7214	0.000	0.000	0.000
	living together as unmarried partners	2008	1.000	0.000	0.000
	never married	4231	0.000	1.000	0.000
	widow/separated/divorc ed	376	0.000	0.000	1.000

Variables in the Equation

	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-1.938	0.026	5714.254	1	0.000	0.144

**Model Summary** 

Step	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R
	likelihood	R Square	Square
1	10296.469 <sup>a</sup>	0.012	0.023

#### **Classification Table**

ï			Predicted					
				p19_wsta_last				
	Observed		paid employee	self- employer+ employer	Percentage Correct			
Step 1	p19_wsta_last	paid employee	12088	0	100.0			
		self-employer+ employer	1741	0	0.0			
		Overall Percentage			87.4			
a. The c	a. The cut value is 0.500							

				Equation			
		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	marital status			173.901	3	0.000	
	marital status (1)	0.227	0.080	8.013	1	0.005	1.255
	marital status (2)	0.729	0.057	165.182	1	0.000	2.074
	marital status (3)	0.669	0.143	21.886	1	0.000	1.952
	Constant	-2.253	0.040	3150.954	1	0.000	0.105

#### **Educational level**

**Dependent Variable Encoding** 

Original Value	Internal Value
paid employee	0
self-employer+	
employer	

**Categorical Variables Coding** 

		Parameter coding					
		Frequency	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
LEVEL OF	No schooling	2608	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
EDUCATION	Some primary	3265	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Complete primary	1343	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Some secondary	4183	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000	0.000
	Grade 12 / Std 10	1544	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000	0.000
	Higher	886	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	1.000

Variables in the Equation

_	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-1.938	0.026	5714.254	1	0.000	0.144

**Model Summary** 

		·	
	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R
Step	likelihood	R Square	Square
1	10110.269 <sup>a</sup>	0.026	0.048

**Classification Table** 

			Predicted					
			Work status					
	Observed		paid employee	self- employer+ employer	Percentage Correct			
Step 1	Work status	paid employee	12088	0	100.0			
		self-employer+ employer	1741	0	0.0			
		Overall Percentage			87.4			

Variables in the Equation

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	Work status	UN	IVERS	371.587	5	0.000	
	Work status (1)	-0.281	0.093	9.065	1	0.003	0.755
	Work status (2)	-0.068	0.115	.346	1	0.556	0.935
	Work status (3)	0.283	0.081	12.331	1	0.000	1.327
	Work status (4)	1.098	0.088	154.239	1	0.000	2.999
	Work status (5)	1.017	0.103	96.918	1	0.000	2.766
	Constant	-2.218	0.066	1135.616	1	0.000	0.109

## Destination

**Dependent Variable Encoding** 

Original Value	Internal Value
paid employee	0
self-employer+ employer	1

**Categorical Variables Coding** 

Categorical variables Couning					
			Parameter coding		
		Frequency	(1)		
Destination	Urban	8220	0.000		
	Rural	5609	1.000		

Variables in the Equation

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0	Constant	-1.938	0.026	5714.254	1	0.000	0.144

Model Summary

	1,10del Summary							
	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R					
Step	likelihood	R Square	Square					
1	10089.575 <sup>a</sup>	0.027	0.051					

UNIVERSITY of the Classification Table

·		******	Predicted				
			Work status				
	Observed		paid employee	self- employer+ employer	Percentage Correct		
Step 1	Work status	paid employee	12088	0	100.0		
		self-employer+ employer	1741	0	0.0		
		Overall Percentage			87.4		

Variables in the Equation

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 1	Destination(1)	-1.126	0.063	323.037	1	0.000	0.324
	Constant	-1.589	0.029	2922.736	1	0.000	0.204

#### **Economic sector**

**Dependent Variable Encoding** 

Original Value	Internal Value
paid employee	0
self-employer+ employer	1

**Categorical Variables Coding** 

			Parameter coding		
		Frequency	(1)	(2)	
Economic sector	Yes: formal registered (non-farming)	9606	0.000	0.000	
	Yes: informal unregistered (non-farming)	2584	1.000	0.000	
	Yes: farming	1426	0.000	1.000	

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Variables in the Equation

_	В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Step 0 Constant	-1.959	0.026	5659.945	1	0.000	0.141

**Model Summary** 

	-2 Log	Cox & Snell	Nagelkerke R
Step	likelihood	R Square	Square
1	8530.444 <sup>a</sup>	0.114	0.217

## **Classification Table**

			Predicted				
	Observed		Work status				
			paid employee	self- employer+ employer	Percentage Correct		
Step 1	Work status	paid employee	11934	0	100.0		
		self-employer+ employer	1682	0	0.0		
		Overall Percentage			87.6		
a. The cut value is 0.500							

Variables in the Equation

		В	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)		
Step 1	Economic sector			1619.715	2	0.000			
	Economic sector (1)	2.236	0.058	1483.021	1 the	0.000	9.353		
	Economic sector (2)	388	0.135	8.224	PE 1	0.004	0.678		
	Constant	-2.686	0.042	4139.823	1	0.000	0.068		