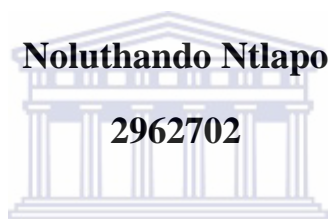


DEPARTMENT OF STATISTICS AND POPULATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF NATURAL SCIENCES

Female-male differentials in earning in South Africa: A comparative socio-demographic approach using data from Labour Force of 2007 and 2011



Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy (MPhil) in Population Studies in the Department of Statistics & Population Studies, University of the Western Cape

Supervisor

Prof. G. Tati

November 2014

Declaration

I declare that *Female-male differentials in earning in South Africa: A comparative socio-demographic approach* 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.

Noluthando Ntlapo

November 2014

Signed: _____



Acknowledgements

I wish to acknowledge my outmost gratitude to my supervisor Professor Gabriel Tati who has supported, motivated and encouraged me through the completion of my thesis. Your support was mostly appreciated even when it did not seem so. Thank you very much for not giving up on me Prof, today I have this qualification because of your consistent encouragement.

I would also like to acknowledge my friends who assisted me in the production of my dissertation. Thank you so much for your support, in helping me when I couldn't work, when I needed assistance when I was stuck, your help in editing and last but not least your helping hand with printing the final product. To Mluleki Tsawe, Tephney Hutchinson and Ajayi Olabode this is for you; your help was highly appreciated. Marc Ngama you couldn't have come at a better time in my life, I appreciate your friendship, consistent reassurance and your support.



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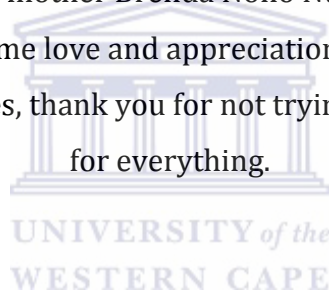
Thank you all so much!!!

Dedication

I initially dedicate this thesis to the Lord Almighty, who has strengthened me throughout my days of darkness and throughout my life. I am also dedicating this work to my late grandmother Matlakala Maria Ntlapo who never ceased to believe and encourage me. I am sure today you would be very proud of what I have achievement so far. I pray that wherever you are, you are looking down on me with a smile on your face.

I love and miss you so much. This is for you.

I also dedicate this work to my brother, Hlompo Ntlapo who is the reason I strive to be a better person every day. I know it might not seem so every day but you inspire me to be more and do more. And to my mother Brenda Nono Ntlapo who brought me into this world, thank you for showing me love and appreciation. Thank you for allowing me to grow and make my own choices, thank you for not trying to dictate my path, thank you for everything.



To the rest of my family, I love you and...

This is for you!!!

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ABSTRACT

The study examines female-male differentials in earnings and factors associated with them within the labour market of South Africa. Dating back from the end of apartheid in 1994, a few labour policies have been implemented to reduce poverty especially in the area of gender equity and wage discrimination. However, little evidence has been produced to inform on the magnitude of changes in reducing differences and progress achieved so far. Therefore the study attempts to assess and explain the structural changes in female-male differentials in earnings within the labour market. Sparsely conducted studies during the early years of post-apartheid South Africa showed strong racial divide in terms of wage gaps. This proposed study extends this analysis to socio-demographic attributes and also considers a more encompassing notion of earnings. Thus controlling for individual attributes, the overarching issue in this study stems from the following questions: do male workers earn more than their female counterparts within the Labour market? And if it is the case, what are some of the underlying social and demographic variables contributing to this difference? To assess the structural changes in earnings, data utilized for this study are derived from the Labour Force Survey of 2007 and 2011 carried out respectively under Statistics South Africa. Other public records are used to supplement these two sources. In the first step bivariate analysis are carried out to establish patterns and statistical relationships amongst variables selected. Drawing from that, the study makes use of a predictive model to analyse the combined effect of these variables taken together onto the dependent variable. It is expected to observe varying differences in the magnitude of earnings across the selected variables. Differences could be specific to occupation or industrial sector. Temporal variation provides insights about the dynamics of female-male differentials in earnings. From this the study draws some recommendations to guide policy interventions in the labour market.

KEYWORDS:

Gender equity; labour market segmentation; wage discrimination; wage gaps; human capital investments; bread-winner model; labour market feminisation; gender segregation; occupational segregation; gender-based disparities.

ACRONYMS

BC	-	Bargaining Council
LFS	-	Labour Force Survey
STATSSA	-	Statistics South Africa
COSATU	-	Congress of South African trade Union
UN	-	United Nations
WEF	-	World Economic Forum
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
ANC	-	African National Congress
NEDLAC	-	National Economic Development And Labour Council
CCMA	-	Commission for Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration



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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

The South African labour market has been documented to be highly characterised by earning inequality. The earning analysis in South Africa has been intense on racial attributes; this is reasonable considering the country's history of strong racial divide. However, given the circumstance that females suffered discrimination in the labour market during apartheid government, examination of progress achieved in the area of gender earning inequality is essential. Sparsely conducted studies on gender inequality have highlighted a persistent trend where females earn relatively lower than males (Burger and Yu, 2006). As a consequent, this fosters to the country's stagnation in economic development. Policies implemented in the South African labour market in the advent of apartheid, have intended to diminish inequality however the endeavour have been rather slow. Nonetheless, according to Shepard (2008) "the importance of continued redistribution of male and female employment to ensure an equal labour market experience was apparent". Despite this, females assuming traditionally male dominated work have been found to be discriminated upon.

Captured by the World Economic Forum (WEF) in the Global Gender Gap Report of 2011, South Africa ranked 14th out of 135 countries in gender equality. This positioned South Africa amongst the top 15 states to be close to closing the gender gap (Hausmann et al, 2011). Even so, the gap index for this report was however measured with four factors as indicators, namely; economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment (Hausmann et al, 2011). Therefore it might be that the actual factors contributing to the narrowing of the gender gap are rather those unrelated to economic participation. Thus looking at the country unaided, the economic status of females is yet low, thereupon perpetuating a gender gap along the lines of earning differentials and further maximizing poverty. Globally there has been an increase of female headed households, and South Africa experienced the increase as well (Madhavan et al, 2010). Moreover, female headed households have been found

to have a higher dependency ratio than males, and consequently shoulder a link between growing amounts and the feminization of poverty (Chant, 2003; Momsen, 2002, Madhavan et al, 2011). More so, Rogan (2014) found a large poverty gap of 30% in relation to income and at the household level females were poorer between 38% and more compared to households headed by males. Therefore suggested by the discourse here is female economical vulnerability and households headed by them to be the poorest compared to males.

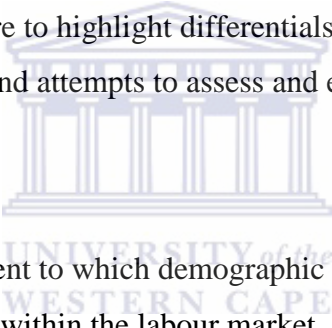
Nevertheless, generally the female-male earnings differential was found more prevalent within developing countries than it is in developed countries (Bhorat et al, 2009; Hodgson, 2012). According to Daza and colleagues the gender earnings gap around the world in 2011 was more substantial in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa (2011) which South Africa falls into. Moreover, Hodgson in 2012 argued in this regard that “South Africa has the highest income inequality in the world measured by the Gini Index a level that has remained relatively unchanged between 1990 and 2004”. This deems that there has been no improvement in the female-male earning disparities and discrimination within the relevant years.

International literature highlighted the gender earning differential as embedded in discrimination, human investments, personal attributes and gender specific factors (Lee and Nagaraj, 1995; Blau & Kahn, 1992). For the South African labour market similarly such factors were evidently persistent in apartheid South Africa. During this time the apartheid government systematically excluded designated group's (African, women and the disabled) participation within the labour market. Predominantly race was the integral source of this exclusion throughout this period. The imposed restrictions affected the population groups differently, with Africans being the most prominent group to experience barriers. However, since the end of apartheid in 1994, policies have been implemented to redress the injustices of apartheid especially in the area of gender equity and wage discrimination. The Labour Market Equity (1998) was one of the few policies implemented to rectify the disadvantages in the labour market experienced by designated groups. Therefore it has since improved in its inclusiveness of those groups that were segregated upon during apartheid; however equality within the labour market is still far off in terms of access to employment and equality in earnings catalysed by within group inequality (Bhorat and Kanbur, 2005).

Recently conducted studies on female-male earning had confined the notion of returns to wages, which is limiting information as this excludes individuals who are not working for people (Hinks, 2002; Burger & Jafta, 2006; Bhorat, 2000). Therefore adopting the notion of earnings allowed the incorporation of all salaries as well as incomes. Moreover, the study comprises of more variables that could have outcomes on the earnings gender differential some of which include but not limited to age, marital status, province, type of business and work status. Furthermore, studies have covered changes in earning differentials up to the period of 2006. Therefore the current study offset the period of 2007 and 2011 respectively in seeking to prolong the gender earnings analysis and to build from them in assessing structural changes in earning differentials within the labour market.

1.2. Objectives

The main objectives of this study are to highlight differentials and factors in female-male earnings within the labour market and attempts to assess and explain their structural changes. It also aims at:

- 
- Examining the different extent to which demographic and economic aspects influence the gender earnings differential within the labour market.
 - Reviewing the affiliation of females within the labour market.
 - Determine the role equity policies have played in changes of earnings distribution for 2007 and 2011.

1.3. The problem statement

South Africa continues to be a country with high inequality even after almost two decades of the country's appointment to a democratic government. The economic status of previously designated groups remains relatively low. Females particularly remain underrepresented within the labour market hence the female-male earnings gap persists. The gender-based disparities prove to be challenging in that, many policies aimed at redressing such inequalities have been implemented yet inequality remains an overarching issue. In post-apartheid South Africa the inequality has been found to be proliferating, and while a proportion of the gap was explained,

some proportion remained unexplained. The magnitude of the earnings gap in recent years has not been assessed and thus the quality of equity legislatures may be less effective due to a lack of recent knowledge on changes in earning differentials. Some factors that could help explain the inequalities may have not been included in previous studies.

1.4 General Question

How does the female-male earning differential relate to socio-demographic and socioeconomic factors?

Table 1: Specific Questions and Hypotheses

Questions	Hypotheses
What is the effect of age in the gender earning differential?	Age increases earnings for males more than it does for females
How does population group relate to gender earning differential?	The gender earnings differential varies within population
What is the effect of marital status in earning differential?	The gender earnings differential varies within marital statuses
How does the education level of males and females affect earnings?	Males and females with same education receive different earnings
How does provinces relate to the earning differential ?	The gender earning differential spatially varies
In which sector of the labour market is the gender earning differential prevalent?	The earnings gap is substantial within the informal sector
How do occupations relate to the earning differential ?	High skilled occupations constitutes most of the gender earning differential
What is the effect of the type of business one works in on the gender on earning differential	Government organisations constitutes a lower gender earning differential
How does work status relate to gender earning differential?	The gender earnings differential is prevalent within limited duration work
How does union membership relate to the gender earning differential?	The gender earnings differential is less prevalent between union members

1.5 Data and Methods of analysis

To assess structural changes in earnings, data utilized for this study are derived from the Labour Force Survey 2007 and Labour market dynamics 2011 carried out respectively under Statistics South Africa. The initial source of the study Labour Force Survey 2007 was conducted using a sample living in over 30 000 households across the country. The households living in sampled dwelling units in each of the nine provinces were visited by field staff employed and trained by Stats SA, and an LFS questionnaire was completed through face-to-face interviews for each household visited.

Variables used for this study include earning; Earnings as the dependant variable and this encompass salaries (interval) and income which comprised of categories from lowest to highest. The independent variable comprised of demographic and socioeconomic

- Demographic variables: ethnic group (African, coloured, Indian white), age group (15-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65-74, 75+), marital status (married, cohabiting, divorced/separated, widowed and never married), highest education attained (No schooling, primary, incomplete high school, completed high school and tertiary) and provinces (Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape, Free State, North West, KwaZulu Natal, Gauteng, Mpumalanga and Limpopo)
- Socio economic factors: sector of work (Formal, informal), occupation (Legislators, senior officials and managers, professionals, technical and associate professionals, clerks, service workers and shop and market sales workers, skilled agriculture and fishery workers, craft and related trade workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers, elementary occupation, domestic workers), type of business (Government, non-profit organisations, private, self-employed), work status (Permanent, limited duration), trade union membership (yes, no).

Empirical relationships were statistically established between the dependent and independent variables using the SPSS statistical program. Initially were done for 2007 and then 2011 in order to assess changes. In the first step univariate analysis was employed. Thereafter bivariate

analysis was carried out to establish patterns and statistical relationships amongst variables selected. The first dependent variable (income) was taken with the independent variables individually (for instance earnings on age) using cross tabulations and gender was used as a layer to establish the effects of the relationships on females and males. The significance of the relationships were tested using Chi-square, Cramer's V, Goodman and Kruskal, Phi, and Lambda at a P value <0.05. For the second dependent variable (salaries) the use of T-tests to establish reliable differences in mean salaries of males and females within each independent variable was employed. The significance of the T-tests were validated with P value <0.05. Drawing from this, the study made use of a Binary Logistic Regression and a Multiple Logistic Regression to analyse the combined effect of these variables taken together onto the dependent variable which is earnings.

1.6 Importance of the study

The purpose of undertaking this study was to determine the magnitude of female-male differentials in earnings within the labour market for the periods 2007 and 2011 respectively. Therefore this contributes to the establishment of changes in gender earning differentials within the labour market. The study also contributes in highlighting the status of females in the labour market for the respective years and likewise stressing the quality of the post-apartheid labour equity legislatives. Moreover, the significance of the study is to ways to improve these labour market legislatives.

1.7 Delimitations

The study is covering the national level, its main focus on the issue will be analysing the South African situation for the period of 2007 and 2011 respectively and thus the key gender differential analysis of the study focuses mainly on this period. Data utilized for the study are not from primary data they are secondary sources, thus certain variables that might have been relevant might be omitted, placing a limit to the scope of the current study. For instance number of children, which might affect the disparities within marital statuses and years of experience.

1.8 Definitions

- **Income:** Money or other forms of payment (received periodically or regularly)
- **Salary:** Agreed-upon and regular compensation for employment that may be paid in any frequency but, in common practice, is paid on monthly and not on hourly, daily, weekly, or piece-work basis.
- **Widows-** Females who have lost their spouses by death and has not married again.
- **Widowers-** Males who have lost their spouses by death and has not married again.
- **Cohabiting-** Living together as husband and wife without being legally married
- **Occupational status** describes the individuals activity in other words it informs the nature of the work into which the individuals is involved.
- **The formal sector:** includes all businesses that are registered in any way. For the LFS this is identified by the respondents.
- **The informal sector:** consists of those businesses that are not registered in any way. They are generally small in nature, and are seldom run from business premises. Instead, they are run from homes, street pavements or other informal arrangements.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

A number of theories have been proposed to elucidate gender earning differentials in post-apartheid South Africa. Debates still persist however on formulated theories aimed at explaining the gender earning differentials. Nevertheless given the lack of conclusive evidence on which theory best explains the female-male earning differentials within the labour market, the study thus adopts a conceptual framework. Theories central to the study include labour market segmentation theory, wage and gender discrimination theory, human capital theory as well a feminist theory. The reason for utilizing this approach is that first and foremost it is a known fact that the apartheid regime was characterized by the components of discrimination and segmentation. This affected the economy to an extent that marginalization in the labour market led to implications of absolute poverty to certain designated groups (of which the majority were formed by Africans and women). Therefore there has not been enough evidence on the success of interventions aimed at combating such components in the labour market and thus its magnitudes remain unknown resulting in the scepticism of some scholars for the use of some theories in explaining the female-male wage differentials.

2.2 Labour Market segmentation

As noted above some authors have adopted the theoretical perspective of the labour market segmentation for explaining gender earning gaps within the labour market. As defined by Heintz and Posel (2008; 26) “labour market segmentation is the existence of barriers to mobility within labour markets that prevent employed individuals from maximizing the returns to their labour by switching to more highly remunerated type of employment”. The body of international literature provides evidence that the labour market in developing countries is not a homogenous entity, but it is segmented to distinct sectors that assign labour into different jobs (Howell, 2011; Herrera, 2013; Fields, 2009). South Africa is no exception from these findings. Many researchers view the labour market of South Africa as segmented into two sectors namely, the primary sector and

the secondary sector. The primary sector is characterised by high productivity, skills rich, high earnings and a strong union's bargaining power (Tati, 2010) and contrary is the secondary sector which is characterized by low returns, job insecurities, and sector immobility. Some researchers have argued that the segmentation is especially a result of the union's monopoly power, a component of the primary sector which often amplifies unemployment and wage bargaining. For instance Tati (2010) argues that trade unions in the labour market have bargaining power and they constantly persuade the inequality of earnings between skilled and unskilled sectors by their biased power in negotiating earnings. Suggesting that "unions set wages by maximizing a weighted average of the workers' aggregate surplus from the job and aggregate employment" (Faia & Rossi: 2012: 408). Furthermore, such powers on occasion are reinforced by political elites (Tati 2010). This view is further extended by Hofmeyr (2001) who argues that unionization of the primary sector has led to the persistent marginalization of the previously disadvantaged groups. He further argues that measures put to protect the unionized workers in post-apartheid South Africa within the labour market have had negative implications for those viewed as 'outsiders'. In turn these measures have put more privileges to be relished by those who were already in the labour market prior post-apartheid. This suggests that even though policies put in post-apartheid are aimed at aiding inequality, the disadvantaged groups (Africans, women) of the apartheid regime continue to be marginalized and being the ones benefiting less from these policies. In variance, Lee and Nagaraj (1995) found that in Malaysia the union membership premium in amongst workers in the manufacturing sector to be higher for females than for their male counterparts. Moreover they found the manufacturing industry in Malaysia to be the fastest growing industry for female employment. Once more contradicting the South African situation where growth of female employment had been due to the informal self-employment/secondary sector. Therefore, this suggests that union's powers in negotiating wages vary throughout countries and within sectors of employment.

Casale and Posel (2009) took a different approach in determining the power in which unions have in negotiating earnings within the labour market. In their study they explored if South Africa unions were associated with comparable gender wage effects amongst African workers. They found the gender earning gap larger in the unionized sector than it was in the non-unionized sector. This is probable to the explanation that the extent in which certain unions can

negotiate earnings is limited. Moreover, this points out a favouring of a particular gender by unions. Nonetheless, on the other hand Heinz and Posel (2008) suggested that the labour market was more complex than meets the eye. Consistent with Casale and Posel's (2009) argument, they argued that even within sectors there exist inequalities. Particularly, their study focused on the informal (secondary) sector which they found to have barriers in terms of entering; although it is mostly viewed as an open sector of which anyone can enter.

Nevertheless, the structure of the labour market in South Africa originates itself on the discriminatory nature of the apartheid era, it is segmented along the racial and gender lines regardless of interventions of inequality. This is in support of the above theories and likewise there is ample evidence on studies conducted recently for assessing changes in the labour market since post-apartheid. Most of these studies show that the previously disadvantaged groups are mostly concentrated on the secondary sector of the labour market with low earnings and constraints to mobility.

Trends in labour force participation provide an overview of the labour market and suggest explanations of the disparities within the segments of the labour market.

It has been found that the South African labour market has increasingly risen since 1994. From the period 1995 to 2002 in particular, the labour market has increased by 16 percent equivalent to growth rate of 2.1 per annum (Bhorat and Oosthuizen, 2005) however this increase has been due in to the increase of participation in the secondary sector. The rise of the economically active population has been that of women, between 1995 and 2001 the number of strictly defined economically active women increased by 2.4 million compared to that of men which increased by close to 1.5 million (Casale, 2004) and Department of Labour (2007) found that for the period 1995 and 2005 female and male employment grew by 41% and 22 % respectively. This suggests that policies in post-apartheid have had some effect with regard to the inclusion within the labour force for some of the previously disadvantaged groups, women in particular. This view is also in line with the findings by Department of Labour (2007) that by 2002 the labour market was almost proportionally split between males (50.7%) and females (49.3%), due to pervasive rise of female labour participation with a net increase of 61% for the period 1995-2002. Nonetheless Casale (2004) argued that the form of employment that was rapidly growing for both African

men and women in the period 1995 and 2001 was in the informal self-employment (but more for women). Thus during these periods the intake of the labour market for Africans has been concentrated on the informal sector which is characterized by low earnings and women, relative to men in this group continue to be disadvantaged within this sector.

During the period 1995 and 2001 increases in the formal sectors (professional categories and managerial position) where earnings are substantially high, for white women were observed by Casale (2004) and a decrease for this category for African women. This suggests that the affirmative action policy put in place to promote equality has benefitted certain groups thus they have little impact on eradicating this inequality components. Nonetheless, 47% of African women were employed in the formal sector by 2001 while 73% African men were employed in the formal sector during the same period and by 2007, 53% of women were in the informal sector while the percentage of African men in this sector remained the same (Bhorat and Goga, 2013). Thus there was a slight increase in formal sector employment for African female the period of 2001 to 2007 standing at 6%. Moreover Bhorat and Goga(2013) found that average hourly wage disaggregation by race and gender generated segmentation by race in the earnings market; for both male and female cohorts average earnings for Africans were the lowest compared to other racial groups, with whites having highest average earnings. Consistent with most studies, they also found that Africans constituted the largest proportion of the labour force in South Africa (77 % in 2007), but were yet lessened in employment.

Nonetheless, not all earning differential studies have been undertaken using the labour market segmentation theory. Some researchers found that explaining differentials in earnings by the labour market segmentation theory does not offer ample evidence to the gaps. Therefore some other researchers have taken different approaches explaining some of the underlying bases of the differentials in earnings between genders.

2.3. Wage Discrimination and Gender discrimination theory

Female-male earning differentials in the labour market have been associated with different types of discriminations, particularly gender discrimination and wage discrimination. Wage discrimination refers to the distribution of earnings based on characteristics other than those of an individual's labour productivity, while gender discrimination implies that the characteristic that is used to distribute wages in the labour market is particularly gender.

Studies that have used the wage discrimination theory as an explanation of the gender wage gap have interpreted findings as a result of the proportion of the earning gap that remained unexplained after controlling for individual characteristics. For instance, the study conducted by Hinks (2002) using a one year study (October Household Survey 1995) for earnings differentials in the labour force found that white and Asian males were overcompensated by 9% and 8% respectively and the African male by 4%. He further argued that the findings revealed the gender discrimination in that, males were over compensated compared to their female counterparts. Furthermore, the undercompensating among females was at the extremes for White and Asian female. Implying that the wage gap was wide for the White and Asian population and this was a result of the lower earnings that existed amongst Africans and Coloureds. In addition, given the time of the data used for the study it is unsurprising that earnings were most high for White females over the rest of other groups apart from the white males, as privileges of the legislative apartheid government favoured this group.

Burger and Jafta (2006) in their ten year comparison study 1995-2005 found that the substantial White-Black wage discrimination was found within occupations rather than between them for all the ten years under consideration. Therefore the White-Black wage discrimination for the occupation variable had been persistent for all the years considered in the study. Moreover with regard to wage discrimination, Africans earned less than their white counterparts even when they were in the same occupation. Accordingly, Bhorat and McCord argued that "African workers consistently earn less than their white counterparts with African professionals earning 35 per cent of the white professional earning 39 per cent of whites" (2003:131). Notwithstanding this,

Burger and Jafta (2006) further argue that consequences of “pure discrimination” were replaced by discrepant returns to education. Moreover, this result was further increased by varying qualities of education between groups. This denotes that employees used the education variable by segregating it to what they perceived as quality education and poor education. Furthermore, this distinction in education was being utilised as a form of determinant in being employed and earnings received.

In line with this view are Hanushek and Wobman (2007) who pointed out that tertiary education increases the probability of being employed and the effects of this education in earnings lies in the racial differentiation and differentiation based on the quality and quantity of tertiary education. Tertiary institutions viewed as having poor quality education are the ones that were underprivileged in apartheid and consequently such institutions comprised of a large proportion of the previously disadvantaged groups. Contrary to studies that highlight poor education of disadvantaged groups, is the Department of labour (2007) which indicated that real monthly earnings figures confirm this. In both 2001 and 2005, a higher level of education was associated with higher monthly earnings for male and females irrespective of race (Department of labour 2007). Furthermore, it was found that when comparing nominal earnings of men and women African and coloured women experienced an increase in earnings (65 per cent and 58 per cent respectively) for the period of 2001 and 2005 compared to their male counterparts. However, earnings for white females remained twice as high by 2005. In all racial groups women earned less than men both in 2001 and in 2005 Department of Labour (2007).

Collating male and female African cohorts, it was found that returns for being a manager rather than an elementary worker were higher for African males than of their female counterparts in 2001, 2005 and 2007, and the same trend was found to be true for professionals (Bhorat & Goga, 2013). These findings highlight the persisted trend of female’s lower earnings regardless of them assuming the same professions as males. Also these results may be an indication of the “glass ceiling” effects which Kiane and Singh (2013) found to be existent in the South African labour market. Moreover, their study stressed aspects that manifested as barriers to the development of females were gender based discrimination, deficiency in respect and insensitivity to female’s compound roles (Kiane, Singh, 2013).

Nonetheless, the gender earnings gap was between 35% and 45% for African subpopulation in 2001, 2005 and 2007 and was found to have stayed constant for the period 2001 to 2007. Borat and Goga (2013) once more maintained that more share of the gender pay gap is explained by discrimination or unobservable characteristics with regard to earnings between genders than by differences in observable characteristics between males and females. What this means is that the unexpanded proportion of the earnings gap is larger than the explained proposing that discrimination by gender is much higher than the proportion by differences in socio economic factors. As has been noted that other theories have been proposed by some authors in explaining the discrepancies in earnings, therefore the following section will be considering the human capital theory.

2.4 Human Capital Theory

Theorists who have argued against the discrimination theory, have pointed out that the proportion of the remaining wage gap after controlling for individual characteristics might be explained by human capital investments to increase their productivity in the stock of their lives (Becker, 1993; Polachek, 2004)

These can either be innate or they can be acquired and include, the IQ component which is said to be genetic although this is still debated, some economists have taken it into consideration. Others elements like strengths, years of schooling, school quality and non-schooling investments, training and pre-labour market influences are also regarded as human capital investments. However it has also been noted that even though the presumptions of this model help in explaining the earnings gap, some exceptions of the earning differentials analysis are likewise highlighted, for instance, compensation differentials; where a worker is paid less because part of his compensation is received in terms of other characteristics of the job, (Gasset, 2001). Labour market imperfections which refer to; when two workers with the same human capital may be paid different wages due to differing productivity between jobs and lastly taste based discrimination; referring to when employers may pay different earnings due to their prejudices

towards workers based on gender or race. Nonetheless the aforementioned exceptions will be discussed at a later stage.

The human capital theory suggests that education and training increases worker's productivity by putting in useful understanding and skills in the job and in turn this equivalently escalates worker's future earnings (Berker, 1975). The provision of formal education is seen as an investment in human capital, on which proponents of the theory have considered as equally or even more worthwhile than that of physical capital (Woodhall, 2001). Almendarez (2011) in his study of human capital and economic growth finds that education is vitally important for both the individual and the society and in his paper stresses that Smith "views the externalities to education as important to the proper functioning not only of the economy but of a democratic society". This suggests that investing in education as individuals will not only benefit the economy but will also characterise a society of equality. Moreover (Almendarez, 2011) maintains that educational investments enhances the chances of individuals getting employment in the labour market, and permits them to reap economic and non-economic returns and allows opportunities for sectoral mobility. Also South African studies have indicated that educational attainment has a strong positive effect on earnings. Particularly for women, the education spline indicated that women with less than a matric education were less likely to find employment for the period 2001 and 2005.

Casale (2004) also produced results that confirm that education is an important factor in explaining earnings for men and women of different race in South Africa. Empirical evidence highlights that for both African and white women and men's average earnings increase with the level of education completed. Nevertheless although this is the case, returns to education are found to not only be lower for African male and female but are within ethnic groups, women's earnings are substantially lower relative to men's Casale (2004). Concerning international literature, human capital investments particularly education almost always yields well above average earnings, even so, results varied from more developed countries to those that are less developed.

Furthermore, the 1970's in America experienced a fall of average earnings for the education variable leading economists to be sceptical about investing in education and training for higher productivity and the assumptions that these were just signals of talents and abilities surfaced (Freeman, 1976). However since then substantial increases in average earnings for the education and training variables raised to 75 per cent for those with college education relative to those with high school graduates (Berker, 1975). Recently however what has been a concern to education there like in South Africa has been its quality and quantity. Particularly, with the quality of education of graduates, in terms of quantity empirical results have showed that the higher the education the higher the increase in average earnings. For instance it was found that white graduates were more likely to find work than any other graduates from other racial groups, Bhorat and Oosthuizen (2005) argued that this may be linked with employer's perceptions of the quality of education. Thus as a result, large companies in the private sector select only what they perceive as best candidates based on institutions that are recognized as having 'quality education'. As a result potential workers with qualifications from previously disadvantaged educational institutions are likely to find themselves victims of perceptions of poorer quality education, thus hampering their ability to compete in the labour force (Bhorat and Oosthuizen, 2005) This also can be probable to be the explanations of the earning differentials between ethnic groups in that the best paying companies only higher potential workers from highly supreme institutions, and due to different backgrounds and disadvantages the majority at these 'supreme institutions' are white with very few of other population groups. Therefore investing in education thus is influenced by other factors. In line with this, Woodhall (2001) pointed to studies carried out in other countries which indicated rates of return to education falling with educational level and also an association with family background rather than innate differences.

2.5 Feminist Theory

Analysis of the gender pay gap from human capital theory, focusing on productivity related personal attributes have been established to not entirely account for the explained portion of the gender pay gap (Karamessini & Loakimoglou, 2007). Karamessini & Loakimoglou stress that "earning differentials by dual/segmented labour market theories have not fully theorized the interaction of patriarchy and capitalism to produce employment segregation by gender" (2007: 34). Feminist economics therefore highlight that since the individual is the fundamental unit of

analysis in neoclassical theories, the household is treated as though it were a unit of cohesive interests instead of it being a batch of people comprising different genders who have different access to the market income (Code, 2002). This has been instituted to conceal and marginalise the needs of the different units found in the household (women, children and the elderly) who are unable to obtain their own income through market participation. Moreover this reinforces the gender division of labour of men and women into different occupations and naturalizing women's roles in the household as wives and mothers (Code, 2002). Thus it is in this sense that feminist theory assumes that the wage-setting is a political, cultural and economic process that is rooted in an institutional and societal context (Karamessini & Loakimoglou, 2007). Moreover Karamessini & Loakimoglou, (2007) state that "in the feminist economy much attention has been on occupational segregation of the labour force and it has been regarded as the outcome of gendered socialization processes that constrain women's employment (domestic division of labour and welfare-state policies based on the breadwinner model of the family economy)" (43).

The traditional focus of the economies primarily being on topics that are said to be culturally masculine for instance those of autonomy, abstraction, and logic have partly been the cause on the call by feminist economies for the inclusion of more feminine topics such as family economics, connections, concreteness emotion and in showing problems related to the exclusion of such topics in wage determination (Karamessini & Loakimoglou, 2007). Feminist economists have also called for considerations in the activities that are rendered as not part of market activities (like activities performed in the household and for subsistence) by mainstream economy since they are not regarded as labour exchange for wages thus they are 'unproductive work' (Thomson, 1993). Such non-market activities are not properly examined in that, part of these activities may be a contribution of the human capital investment, more specifically Folbre (1994) a feminist economists focusing on these non-market activities probes on the contribution of these activities to the development of human capital from parents to their children. Therefore although these activities are seen as being 'unproductive work' Folbre argues that this undermines the state of women as they are the ones who are primary caregivers to their children and thus not including them in the economics analysis undervalues their contribution to human capital investments (1994). Karamessini & Loakimoglou (2007) have argued on the same sense that women's work is undervalued even in those activities that are paid in the labour market

women are concentrated in lower paying jobs, their skills underutilised through lack of recognition.

Nonetheless Karamessini & Loakimoglou (2007) in their study of wage determination and gender wage gap used a Marxian framework of capitalist competition. According to this framework, although the occupational wage structure depends on the relative value of the labour power in the different occupations, it is “distorted” by inter-industry and intra-industry capitalist competition, which sets higher bound for the average wage that each industry/firm is willing to pay. It considers both culture and the balance of power between labour and capital like Folbre’s insertion of non-market work as culture encompasses the division of expected labour to be done by both men and women. The study established that gender segregation by occupation and industry was the main factor which determines the explained portion of the wage gap and work experience as a second determining factor (Kariamessin & Loakimoglou, 2007). They concluded that gender segregation, collective wage practices and gender differences in work experience account more, compared to discriminations in earnings by employers against women in the labour market (Kariamessin & Loakimoglou, 2007). This view contradicts the discrimination theory which puts more emphasis on discriminatory treatment against women by employers. Therefore suggesting gender earning differentials to not only be rooted in the workplace but also entrenched by social and cultural institutional margins against females. Likewise Code (2002) maintained that “unfair and discriminatory labour market outcomes are the result of a traditional sexual division of labour institutionalized in the norms and practices of contemporary society”. Contradictory to this notion however is the theory of compensation differentials; which reasons that females choose occupations or jobs that fit in with their life conducts, especially their family responsibilities and when a child or children are involved women willingly accept lower pay for working conditions that would suit their situations (Bhorat, 2000). Women’s over representation on low paying jobs relative to men has been associated with these institutionalized margins by most feminist’s theories. Women benefited from the net new jobs created in the period 1995-2005 in South Africa however the wage differentials remains a challenge regardless of this increase in women participation in the labour market. Compared to the rest of the world, the third world countries have been especially the ones being affected and women in these countries and they bear the double burden of unpaid household work and low wage market work (Code, 2002). Moreover as cited by Code (2002), Ester Boserup’s study shows that development projects have

often deprived women the economic opportunities relative to men and their ignorance to contributions of women have also deprived women's status in the labour.

Female's increased participation in the South African labour market has been associated with the abolition of apartheid laws which previously restricted access to employment; the Employment Equity Act (1998) Skills (1998) Development Act and the Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act are some of the legislations that were put in order to include previously disadvantaged groups into the labour market. Although the increase in the female employment has been found to reflect an increase in lower paying and less secure form employment, the education coefficient has a strong positive effect on earnings of the employed in South Africa. Nonetheless feminist theorists likewise conclude that the South African labour market is segregated by occupation and that these occupational segregations are the ones that lead men and women to make different choices in human capital investments throughout the stock of their lives. Therefore human capital investments are themselves socially and culturally embedded and gender segregation of employment is an equally or more powerful determinant of male-female differential. Therefore the cultural prejudice in relation to female and male's skills worth, work, the weaker individual and collective bargaining power of women that have historically depreciated the value of the female labour and average wages in female-dominated occupations and industries continue to hinder this trend. With respect to the marriage variable the above devaluing of women is further pronounced by Karamessini & Loakimoglou, 2007 in their statement that "employers usually attribute responsibility, reliability, and discipline at work to married men and the opposite social skills and behaviour to married women". Hence females are crowded in lower paying jobs.

Moreover, trade openness has been suggested to reduce the wage gap in developing countries by mainstream trade theories and Becker's theory of discrimination, however feminist economists have argued against this prediction. They stressed that this would widen the earning differentials by the increase in capital mobility and reducing women's bargaining power more, since they have fewer fall back options compared to men and also because of women being placed in less secure occupations and industries (Aydiner-avsar, 2010). Aydiner-avsar 2010 in his study for Turkey, found results that were consistent with the expectations of feminist trade theory; a larger

gender wage gap and wage discrimination in tradable sectors than there is in non-tradable sectors was established. Therefore it was concluded that women faced more discrimination in open sectors of the economy than they do in closed sectors (Aydiner-avsar, 2010). Correspondingly, women at the higher end of the distribution held a wage advantage over men as a result of having better productivity-related characteristics than men in non-tradable sectors (Aydiner-avsar, 2010).

2.6 Conceptual framework

All the theories reviewed point to differences based on the institutions regulating the labour market, individual and socio economic characteristics. In line with this, the study assumes the existence of differences between male and female workers and it is expected that the differences will be influenced by the above mentioned characteristics. Therefore along the socio demographic factors of importance; variables such as age, education and ethnicity will have major influence, additional factors such as the affiliation to trade union and working within the formal/informal sectors will also have an impact on the difference. Specifically, it is expected that at younger ages the differences in male and female earnings are minimal, however as age increases a widening gap is anticipated. For the education spline, the study anticipates a wider gap in the lower levels while a narrowed gap within higher education is foreseen. Dispersal on the influence of ethnicity in the earning difference is expected, in this manner the white population is expected to have an extensive differential compared to the African population. Furthermore, drawing from the well documented powers trade unions have in bargaining earnings; it is expected to find lessened differences in earnings between male and female workers with membership in trade unions. Additionally, because of the institutionally protected rights and privileges existing in the formal sector and lack thereof in the informal sector, the study predicts the gender earning differentials are lower in the former sector. Nonetheless, specific hypothesis to be tested in the study will be further elicited later in the chapter of the study detailing the methods followed.

CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF SOME LABOUR MARKET POLICIES

3.1 Introduction

1970's marked an era of market regulation and growing labour market flexibility in the global economy (Standing, 1999). This means that new technologies, new labour control systems and reformed forms of work organization have transformed patterns of labour force participation throughout the world. South Africa's labour market had restricted collective bargaining and rights of protection of workers to white workers only. However in 1994 in the quest to improve every workers conditions, South Africa joined the International Labour Organization (ILO) resulting in (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, No 108 of 1996) which took effect in February 1997 and both these Acts incorporated labour rights in a Bill of Rights (Cliffedekkerhofmeyer, 2014).

Under the government of the African National Congress (ANC) in 1994 major labour legislatures that had since this time been passed on include; Labour Relations Act (1995), Basic Conditions of Employment Act (1997), the Skills Development Act (1998) and the Employment Equity Act (1998). These were formed through the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) established in 1995. NEDLAC is an institution formed to involve governmental and business representatives for a collective bargaining to counterfeit labour market legislatives. These legislatives were strategies to eliminate labour discrimination and inequality and a means to facilitate better working conditions for all South Africans. These policies are discussed in detail below.

3.2. Labour Relations Act

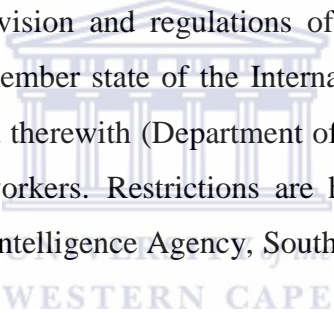
Guided by Section 27 of the constitution, Labour Relations Act (LRA) No. 66 was established in 1995, to deploy laws in governing the labour market of South Africa. LRA indoctrinates the rights of workers and employers to form organisations for collective bargaining and sets out rights and duties of employers and employees (Open Source Software Africa, 2008). The Act

was formed to advocate economic development, social justice, labour peace and democracy in the workplace (Department of Labour, 2005). It polices structural rights of trade unions with strikes and lockouts and these unions are required to rule out against gender and racial discrimination (Open Source Software Africa, 2008). Unions can either be registered by the Department of Labour or not, however the former relish more organizational rights. Some of trade union's rights include but not limited to; helping employers in grievance and disciplinary hearings, monitor employer's compliance with labour laws and reporting breaches of the Act. In South Africa some of the major trade unions federations include COSATU (Congress of South African Trade Union), FEDUSA (Federations of Trade Unions of South Africa) and NACTU (National Council of Trade Unions).

The Act authorizes centralized collective bargaining, meaning employers and a trade union (or trade unions acting jointly) can negotiate a joint agreement, providing for communal negotiations (Department of Labour, 2005). Three systems for collective bargaining are central to the LRA and these include collective agreements, bargaining councils and statutory councils. Collective agreement is an agreement that is simply between employers and a union or unions, and parties affected by this agreement are these two. The second system of collective bargaining, Bargaining Council (BC) is widely ranged and covers issues such as; conditions of work, benefits, training schemes, corrective and objection procedures. Moreover, BC's prolongs to all employers and employees within the council's scope of representivity, as long as certain requirements are met. An array on the conditions for formation of a BC is set out by LRA, in this regard employees and union representatives set out a Bargaining Council Agreement which must be accepted by the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) (Department of Labour, 2002). The Public Service Co-coordinating Bargaining Council is one of the most prominent BC's negotiating central issues to public service employees for instance salaries, family responsibility leaves etc. The last system Statutory Council is a weaker account of the BC due to its limitations in the inclusion of outside parties without being authorised by the Minister of Labour. The establishment of the latter requires 30% representation on both sides meaning at least 30% of the employers in the sector must employ at least 30% of the workers.

LRA also advocates conciliation and negotiation as a way of settling labour disputes for parties to make quick and genuine disputes settlements through conciliation. Resolutions of disputes are conducted through the Commission of Conciliation Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) (Bhorat, 2002). It thereby aims to reduce the level of industrial conflict, and to reduce the need for increased legal advice costs (Department of Labour, 1995). The CCMA plays a critical role in actively conciliating and arbitrating disputes, and also provides advice on a range of issues to the parties concerned (Department of Labour, 1995).

3.3. Basic Conditions of Employment Act

Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA) No.75 of 1997 was established to adjust labour practices and to make provision of rights and duties of employers and employees (Open Source Software Africa, 2008). Such provision and regulations of conditions were formed with the obligations of the Republic as a member state of the International Labour Organization (ILO); and to afford for matters connected therewith (Department of Labour, 2005). The Act covers all employees including vocational workers. Restrictions are however made to members of the National Defence Force, National Intelligence Agency, South African Secret Service and unpaid volunteers working for charities. 

BCEA's aim to provide communal fairness by basic standards of employment such as working hours as well as leaves. Henceforth, in terms of working hours the Act outlaws working more than 45 hours in a week, more than nine hours if a person works five days per week and eight hours a day if a worker works more than five days (Department of Labour, 2005). In consideration of leaves the BCEA makes provision for annual leaves, sick leaves, maternity leave and family responsibility leave. With regard to annual leave, employees working 24 hours in a month are entitled to 21 days of paid leave. Moreover, in a case where an employer is to leave a job, employer can only pay a worker instead of giving leave (Western Cape government, 2014). In terms of sick leaves, this is regulated by the amount of hours an employer usually works. However a worker can take up to six weeks' paid sick leave during a 36-month cycle and during the first six months, a worker can take one day's paid sick leave for every 26 days worked (Western Cape government, 2014).

According to this Act, “a pregnant worker can take up to four continuous months of maternity leave. She can start leave any time from four weeks before the expected date of birth or on a date a doctor or midwife says is necessary for her health or that of her unborn child” (Western Cape Government, 2014). She likewise may not work for six weeks after the birth of her child unless affirmed fit and stringent work for a pregnant/breastfeeding is forbidden by the Act. Furthermore, family responsibility leave is granted to full time employers 3 days every year and this applies to males and females, married or unmarried on the conditions; that a male worker's child is born or sick (Western Cape Government, 2014). This also applies for the death of the worker's spouse or life partner, parent, adoptive parent, grandparent, child, adopted child, grandchild or sibling. An employer may want proof that this leave was needed (Open Source Software Africa, 2008).

BEAC endorses sectoral determination, which refers to a set of labour bylaws that apply only to a particular employment sector with conditions such as remuneration, hours of work, minimum standards, training, travelling and other allowances will be set and will apply to all or some of the employees in that employment sector (Department of labour, 2014).

3.4. Employment Equity Act

Established in 1998, the Employment Equity Act (EEA) No. 55, it recognized the discriminatory laws and apartheid practice that caused differentials in employment, occupation and income within the labour market (Acts online, 2013). The implications of these discriminatory laws resulted in prominent disadvantages for certain groups which were impossible to be rectified by just abolishing laws. In this regard, the EEA was devised as a means to promote equality through the promotion of the constitutional right of equality and the exercise of true democracy; the elimination of unfair discrimination in employment; ensuring of the implementation of employment equity to redress the effects of discrimination; promotion of economic development and efficiency in the workforce and giving effect to the obligations of the Republic as a member of the International Labour Organization (Acts online, 2013). The Act applies to designated groups (blacks, females and disables persons). EEA requires designated employers to develop employment equity plans and describing the objectives to achieve proper representation in the workplace and the timetable within which this is to be achieved (Parliamentary Monitoring

Group, 2000). Compulsions to the employer by this Act include unfair discrimination and affirmative Action.

For unfair discrimination employers are required put measures for preventing discrimination in any employment policy or practice. These policy practices include but not limited to; appointment processes, job classification and grading, remuneration, employment benefits, job assignments and training and development (Acts online, 2013). Unfair discrimination could be antecedents on the bases of race, sex, pregnancy, HIV status and religion etc. (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2000). Affirmative action procedures are advocated to guarantee suitably qualified people from designated groups have equal prospects within the labour market (Acts online, 2013). In addition measures of affirmative action requisite the following (Acts online, 2013);

- (i) finding ways to detect and diminish employment barriers and discrimination affecting designated groups
- (ii) procedures to advance diversity in workplace based on equal dignity and respect
- (iii) modifying workplace environment that will help incorporate designated groups and equate them with equal prospects and representation in workplace
- (iv) warrant unbiased representation of all suitably qualified people from designated group in all occupational levels of workforce
- (v) retain and cultivate designated groups through appropriate implementation procedures including those under the Act of parliament providing skills advancements

Moreover, Affirmative Action in the Public Service Act comprise of employment within government service. Entailed in the Act is a compulsory requirement for all government departments have affirmative action programmes that set forth procedures for an equal representation of designated groups (Open Source Software Africa, 2008).

3.5. Skills Development Act

As a strategy to improve the skills of the South African workforce of economic growth, the Skills Development Act was passed in 1998. The specific aims of the Act were to (Labour Guide. (2014);

- advance the expertise of the South African work force, increase investment in education and training and improve return on investments in those areas,
- improve efficiency by using the workplace as an active learning environment;
- embolden workers to partake in training programs;
- rectifying previous disadvantages through training and education;
- warrant the quality of education and training in and for the workplace, and
- Assist with the placement of first time work-seekers

Under this SDA the The National Skills Authority was established (NSA) and Sector Education Training Authorities (SETAs). The former comprises of representatives from organised business, labour, government and other bodies and guides the Minister of Labour on policy and strategy linked to skills development (Skills Portal, 2011). Conversely SETAs are accountable for developing skills strategies and running learnerships and skills programmes in their specific sectors (Open Source Software Africa, 2008). The financing is solely embodied by skills development levies participating companies in its sector and money from the National Skills Fund.

3.6 Conclusion

The labour legislative policies have been highlighted in this chapter, the role that these policies have plays will be assesses in the results of the study. The following chapter covers the methods and data of the study.

CHAPTER 4: METHODS AND DATA

4.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods used in the study as well as the data utilized. It consists of sub divisional sections where in which each part of the research process which concisely highlights data collection and methods of the study. Initially the study perspective is discussed, followed by the design of the research utilized. Subsequently, the context, data, population and variables of interest to be used are assessed. The dependent variable in this study refers to earnings which, depending on the respondent's statement during the data collection, either consists of salary or income group. Thus the study has two dependent variables (salary and income group). In all the operations of data gathering (surveys and censuses) conducted by Statistics South Africa, salary is measured with an interval level while income is measured using an ordinal level (income category). The reason for including both is that respondents were given two options; to disclose their monthly salary or to choose an income range of which their monthly earnings fell into. Therefore earning information from respondents was captured with the inclusion of both without them overlapping. The independent variables include demographic and socio-economic factors which are further described and explained in this chapter. The last part consists of a discussion on the statistical methods used to analyze the impact of socio-demographic and economic variables on the gender earning differential.

4.2 Study perspective

The framework of the study is a quantitative analytical framework. This is used to examine the association of individual demographic and socio economic factors on the distribution of earnings. In this regard therefore, the study makes use of an empirical view to examine relationships of quantitative properties. Moreover, the study adopts an explanatory and predictor model in examining the relationships.

4.3 Type of design

The research makes use of a cross-sectional design by which a survey by Statistics South Africa was used to collect data from a randomly selected sample utilizing a questionnaire. Questions concerning relevance to labour market issues were asked by use of the labour Force Survey questionnaire. The reason for using this survey is that it is assumed to be of good quality and provides coherent information that reflects a true picture of the data. In essence, the data serves the purpose of the study which is assessing structural changes for 2007 and 2011 in female male earning differentials taking into account socio-demographic and socio-economic factors that may be prominent to the changes.

4.4 Sources of Data

The study was carried out utilizing data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) of 2007 and Labour Force Dynamics 2011. The instrumentation as well as the content of the two surveys is the same. The differences however is that the Labour Force Survey was done per semester while the latter is done yearly. These data were both obtained from Statistics South Africa. The Labour Force Survey 2007 data set was presented in two separate files. The first one comprised of personal characteristics of individuals. The second file contained the conditions of participating in the labour market. The files came in zipped SPSS format. Therefore because the significance of the study concerned both demographic and labour market related factors, the files were unzipped and merged into one. This merge was allowed by the record of a unique number (UqNr) as a house identifier and for individuals in a household, a further two digits constituted the person number (PersonNr). The latter were used together with the former to merge the Person and worker file.

Furthermore the two surveys are designed to obtain information regarding various domains of the labour market including; current employment, socio demographic characteristics of the labour force, changes in the informal/ formal sector, occupational status, positions in the employment and statuses of employment. The data allowed the establishment insertions and

extractions of different individuals in the labour market with particular attention on sectoral employment. The method of data collection used in LFS was a personal questionnaire of which enumerators were employed to collect information on the formulated questions on the unit of analysis in each household. Statistics South Africa used a questionnaire covering 98 questions and six sections, each of which focused on a particular topic with concern to labour market issues. The questionnaire comprised of closed ended questions which were pre-coded thus respondents had a set of options which they could choose from. Also it contained open ended questions which respondents were allowed responding in their own words.

4.5. The spatial context of the study

The study took place in South Africa at the national level. This means that all the nine provinces of South Africa were covered specifically to obtain insights on the movement and distribution of earnings of males and females in the labour market from 2007 and 2011. The coverage of the study included all households, residents in workers' hostels and convents/monasteries and excluded old age homes, hospitals, prisons and military barracks. The ultimate sampling unit was the dwelling with the unit of observation being the household and the unit of analysis was the person.

4.6 Population of Interest and sampling technique

The significance of the study was to assess gender earning differentials between males and females within the labour market. Hence the population of interest were males and females aged 15 years and above. The age constitutes the population which is considered eligible to be participating in the labour market in South Africa. Hence the study comprised of persons who were involved in some kind of activities seven days prior the survey. Activities that were to be considered were those that lasted for an hour within the seven days prior the undertaking of the Labour Force Survey.

Table 2 represents a general picture of the sample used. For the initial year, 2007 a total of 9713817 cases were selected for analysis from the 2007 dataset. Males constituted 58.2% out of this number and 41.8 were females. In 2011, 55.7% of males and 44.3% of females were selected for the analysis amounting to the total of 11703537 cases analysed this year.

To obtain the Master sample, StatsSA used a multi-stage stratification. The design of the study involved two sample stages each of which comprise of a systematic selection. The total strata consisted of 53 district councils obtained from the census frame. In the first stage, a sampling unit was done by drawing an even number of Primary Sampling Units (PSU) from each stratum using Probability Proportional to Size technique (PPS). The general PSU's were 3000. The second sample stage involved systematically drawing the Dwelling units per PSU.

Omissions in the census frame included Enumeration Areas consisting of a household count of less than twenty-five. The sample was representative because the sample technique was properly designed to include all nine provinces of South Africa. Enumerators employed and trained by Statistics South Africa were sent to each of these households with the questionnaire to obtain the necessary information. The enumerators employed face to face interviews and were advised to not assume anything by judging the appearances of the individuals. The data is reliable because of the fact that Statistics South Africa has been conducting the same study for many years therefore guaranteeing consistency.

Table 2: Selected data for analysis, 2007 and 2011 datasets (weighted)

2007		
Sex	Number	Percentage
Male	5651165	58.2
Female	4062651	41.8
Total	9713817	100
2011		
Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	6520162	55.6
Female	5183375	44.3
Total	11703537	100

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 and Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

4.7 Description of instrumental variables

The variables of concern in this study were the same used in the Labour Force Survey. These variables were classified in the following groups; socio-demographic variables, socio-economic variables.

Socio demographic variable entails; gender, age, population group, marital status, province. These variable are recorded in the person file which also incorporates data from flap section and section of the questionnaire.

Socioeconomic variable included: Income, salaries, sector of work, main occupation, and type of business, work status and union membership. These variable are recorded in the work file which also incorporates data from flap section and section of the questionnaire.

4.7.1 Demographic variables

4.7.1.1 Gender

The first dependant variable chosen and was central to the study was the gender variable. The question asked to attain this variable was; is.... a male or a female? The options given were the following;

1=Male, 2=Female

- The reason for choosing this variable is to assess changes in the inclusion of previously disadvantaged groups (females) in the labour market. The literature has revealed that the gender variable has played a major role in the distribution of earnings, more in particular, the male average earnings have been shown to be significantly high relative female's.

4.7.1.2. Age

To find out the age of the members of the household the question; How old is.....? was asked. The answer was to be given in completed years. For instance a person whose 16 years 2 month

was to give the full years only thus his answer would be =16 and this was to be given in figures. The data of this category was recoded into the following age cohorts;

1=15-24, 2= 25-34, 3=35-44, 4=45-54, 5=55-64, 6=65-74, 7=75 and older

- In terms of gender earnings differentials, the literature has reflected that the age variable was prominent in the negotiation of earnings between males and females.

4.7.1.3 Population group

To establish the population group of household members, the following question was asked; what population group does....belong to? and the following options were presented;

1=African/Black; 2=Coloured; 3=Indian/Asia; 4=white

- This question was to establish the population group members of the household belong to and respondents are expected to answer for each member without the enumerators judgmental assumptions. This variable is a critical account of previous recall context of South Africa where certain population groups were excluded and disadvantaged in the labour market. Thus taking it will shed light on the structural adjustments for the gaps between previously disadvantaged groups and the advantaged groups.

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4.7.1.4 Marital Status

The question relating to establishing respondent's marital status was; what is.....current marital status? Respondents were to choose from either of the following codes;

1 = Married, 2 = Living together like husband and wife, 3 = Widow/Widower, 4 = Divorced or Separated, 5 = Never married

- The reason for taking into account this variable was that previous studies have found discrepancies in terms of earnings between married women and those who are not married within the labour market. These differences were due to personal responsibilities for married.

4.7.1.5 Highest education level

The question asked for the education variable was; what is the highest level of education that has completed? Only qualifications that members already obtained were to be administered here, those that are busy with were not to be entered. Respondents were given a selection to choose from. This was then recoded to the following classification as education attained using SPSS:

1= No schooling

1= No schooling

2= Primary School

This variable include the initial categories which were; Grade R/0, Grade 1/ Sub A, Grade 2/ Sub B, Grade 3/Standard 1, Grade 4/Standard 2, Grade 5/Standard 3; Grade 6/Standard 4 and Grade 7/Standard 5

3= Incomplete high school

This includes the categories of the initial highest education variable that were; Grade 8/Standard 6/Form 1, Grade 9/Standard 7/Form 2, Grade 10/Standard 8/Form 3, Grade 11/Standard 9/Form 4, NTC I; NTC II, Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10; Diploma with less than Grade 12/Std 10

4= Completed High School

Includes; Grade 12/Standard 10/Form 5/Matric; NTC III

5=Tertiary Education

The category includes the following; Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10, Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10; Bachelor's Degree, Bachelor's Degree and diploma, Honours degree, Higher degree (masters. doctorate)

- This question helped establish individual's educational attainments, and to establish the variations of earnings by gender and education. This variable was significant to the study because it reflected the effective participation of individuals constituting different

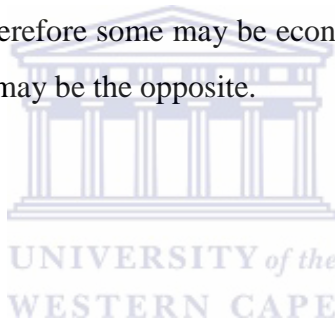
education levels and also as it has been presented in the literature review; that people with higher levels of education earn more compared to those with lower levels of education

4.7.1.6 Province

The establishment of respondent's province was derived from the Unique Number associated with a person. The South African provinces were codes as follows;

1= Western Cape 2=Eastern Cape 3= Northern Cape 4= Free State 5= KwaZulu Natal 6= North West 7= Gauteng 8= Mpumalanga 9= Limpopo

- The significance of this variable to the study is because of the differences in the provinces developments, therefore some may be economically endowed but promote less gender equity while others may be the opposite.



4.7.2 Socio economic variables

4.7.2.1 Salaries/earnings

To establish individual's salaries; the following question was asked what is....' total salary in main job? (including overtime, allowances and bonuses, before any tax or deductions). This was to be given in full figures without any text or decimals.

- This variable is pivotal to the study as it is the dependent variable by which males and females are assessed in.

4.7.2.2 Income/salary category

For no response, refusal and don't know to giving full salary amounts, respondents were presented with categorical incomes to choose from, the categories included;

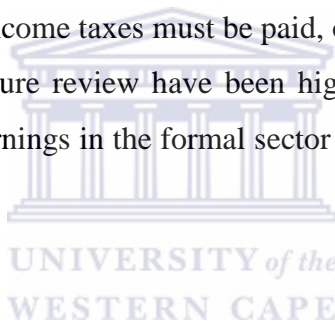
1=None, 2=R1-R200, 3= R201-R500, 4=R501-R1000, 5=R1001-R1500, 6=R1501-R2500, 7=R2501-R3500, 8=R3501-R4500, 9=R4501-R6000, 10=R6001-R8000, 11=R8001-R11000, 12=R11001-R16000, 13=R16001-R30000, 14=R300001 and more.

4.7.2.3 Sector

To establish if respondents worked in an informal or formal sector the following question was asked; is the organization/ business/ enterprise/ branch where works?

1 = Formal sector, 2 = Informal sector (including domestic work)

- This was to be given by the respondent in their own opinion. The formal sector is the sector encompassing all jobs with normal hours and regular wages, and are recognized as income sources on which income taxes must be paid, opposed to the informal sector. The earnings gaps in the literature review have been highlighted to differ between the two sectors; in particular the earnings in the formal sector were significantly higher compared to the informal.



4.7.2.4 Occupation

The occupation variable was determined by the use of two questions asked by enumerators to participants. The first question asked was; what kind of work did do in his/her last job? Participants were expected to give occupation or job title eg. car salesperson, office cleaner, vegetable farmer, primary school teacher, etc. For agricultural work on own/family farm/plot, state whether for own use or for sale mostly. The second question asked was What were 's main tasks or duties in this job? eg. selling fruit, repairing watches, keeping accounts, feeding and watering cattle, teaching children. The final occupations were as follows;

1=Legislators, senior officials and managers, 2=professionals, 3= Technical and associate professionals, 4= Clerks 5= Service workers and shop and market sales workers, 6= Skilled agriculture and fishery workers, 7= Craft and related trade workers, 8= Plant and machine operators and assemblers, 9=Elementary occupation, 10=Domestic workers

- The earnings gap has been found to exist between occupations and some researchers have found that there is a significant gap within occupations. Thus taking this variable into consideration will help evaluate if specific occupations yield higher earnings than others for males and females.

4.7.2.5 Work status

This variable was intended to find the different levels of job securities that people have and the amount and types of people found. The question asked here was; Is 's work? This variable was recoded to the following using the SPSS program;

1= Permanent

2= Limited duration

This recoded category includes the following; fixed period contract, Temporary, Casual, Seasonal.

- The work status has been found to affect the wage gap in a way that those with permanent work tend to earn more compared to others.

4.7.2.6 Type of business

What is the business or enterprise/branch where works? This question was intended to find out how many and what type of people are in the government, NGO's, private sectors as well the are self-employed. The variable was recoded to the following;

1 = Government

This variable incorporates; National government, Provincial government, Local government, A government enterprise (Transnet, Telkom, etc.),

2= Non- profit

This recoded category include the following initial categories; A club, community organization, welfare organization, NGO, or a church, A co-operative, self-help association, labour union, professional association, or business league,

3= Private enterprise

Included in this category are the following; private business or a private household

3=Self-employed

- This variable was chosen as a result of evidence reflected in previous studies that opportunities for men and women in the private and public sectors differ; with women having better opportunities in the public sector than in private. This finding is probable to the enforced gender equity in the public sector.



4.7.2.7 Union Status

Is a member of a trade union? This question was asked to establish if people in the labour market are members of some trade unions or not. The options to choose from where

1= Yes, 2 = No,

- This variable helped distinguish earnings between union members and non-union members in order to establish if there are any discrepancies and the magnitude of these differences. Studies done have indicated the monopoly bargaining of unions over earnings negotiations in the labour market.

4.8 Data Analysis Methods

This section encompasses the analysis conducted in the study. It provides information on the types of analysis used to examine gender earning differential with the aim to profile the hypotheses and observed findings.

By use of the SPSS program thus data is analyzed using the Labour Force Survey 2007 and the Labour Force Dynamics 2004. The dependant variable is earnings (salaries, incomes); this

variable is critical due to deterioration in its distribution within sexes in the labour market. Hence the decomposition of the study is by sex. The independent variables (age, marital status, education attained, sector of work etc.) are employed and the significance lies in their direct influences in the negotiations of earnings between the sexes.

4.8.1 Bivariate Analysis

The initial analysis involved testing relationships between variables. Therefore each of the individual independent variables was taken against the dependent variable (income ranges) by use of cross tabulations. The gender variable was employed as a layer in each of the tests done for the independent variable and the dependent variable. This was done to mirror differences found between the variables concerned between the genders. Since salaries were interval, the independent T-tests to examine relationships were employed. The significance of the relationships found between the variables of the tests was tested using, Chi-square, Cramer's V, Eta and the Lambda statistics. The Chi-square was used to test the significance of the differences in the expected and observed findings. Cramer's V statistic measured the association found in the dependent and independent variables, and this was assessed in its value taking 0-1. Lambda allowed the examination of the strength of relationships found between the variables concerned. Lastly the hypothesis formulated was confirmed by significance of the p-value at a level < 0.05 .

4.8.2 Multivariate Analysis

To model the relationships between the independent variables taken all together in the dependant variable, two types of regressions were used. The first being the Binary logistic regression mathematically expressed as;

$$\ln (P/1-P) = \alpha + \beta_1x_1 + \beta_2x_2 + \beta_3x_3 + \dots + \beta_ix_i$$

This model is represented by more than one independent variable that is dichotomous, ordinal, nominal, continuous, and so forth. The dependent variable in this model is the income threshold

of R2501 and more (P/1-P). The purpose of regression coefficient (β_i) is that it increases natural logarithm (log-odds) for a one unit increase in the predictor variable (x_i) when all other variables x_i s are constant. It measures association between x_i and natural logarithm (log-odds) adjusted for all other x_i s.

4.9. Hypotheses to be tested

Hypothesis 1: Age increases earnings for males more than it does for females

The age variable was cross tabulated with income category and gender was taken as a layer. The association found was tested using the Chi-square and T test. Along with this the strength of the relationship was tested using Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal and Phi while the significance was confirmed by the P-value. The binary regression model was used to grasp which age groups were most likely to earn within the income threshold of R2501 and more for males and females. Linear regression was utilized to examine the effect of age in salaries.

Hypothesis 2: The gender earnings differential varies within population

Initially the variable was analyzed by use of cross tabulation of the nominal variables; income category and population group and gender was taken as a layer. The use of the T-test was employed for the interval variable of salaries and population group. The relationships were tested by the chi-square, Cramer's V Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal, Phi and the significance was verified by the p-value. The binary regression model was used to perceive the males and females of different population groups most likely to earn within the income threshold of R2501 and more. Linear regression analysis was used to examine the effect of age in salaries.

Hypothesis 3: The gender earnings differential varies within marital statuses

This hypothesis was tested by use of cross tabulating the nominal variables; income category and marital status. T-test was used for the interval variable of salaries and nominal variable on marital status of Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal, Phi and the significance was verified by the p-value. The binary regression model was used to establish which group was

more likely income from R2501 and more. Linear regression of analysis was used to examine the effect of age in salaries.

Hypothesis 4: Males and females with same education receive different earnings

First the analysis conducted cross tabulation between the dependent variable (income category) and ordinal variable highest education attained. The Chi square of association Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal and Phi were used to confirm the relationship. Moreover, T-test was run for the interval variable of salary and education for differences in males and females. Lastly the binary regression model as well as linear regression was also employment to assess the effects of education attained in earnings.

Hypothesis 5: The gender earning differential spatially varies

To test the given hypothesis cross tabulation of the nominal variables; province and income group was done with gender as a layer. Together with this T-tests were used to analyze salaries between males and females. The test for the association was done through the Chi-square and the strength was measured by lambda while the significance was verified by the p-value. For multivariate analysis, the binary regression was conducted to assess which province males and females were more likely to earn within the income threshold of R2501 and more. Moreover, the linear regression was used to examine the effects of being in this province in terms of males and females earnings.

Hypothesis 6: The earnings gap is substantial within the informal sector

To test this formulated hypothesis, cross tabulation between the sector variable with income categories was used. The association established was verified through the Chi square, Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal, Phi and the significance of the p value. Moreover for the reason that salaries were interval, The T tests were run to assess the relationships with gender taken as a layer for the analysis. Lastly Binary regression was employed to examine which males and females were more likely to earn R22501 and more. Furthermore, the logistic regression was done to explore the effect of the sector variable in earning between males and female.

Hypothesis 7: High skilled occupations constitutes most of the gender earning differential

This hypothesis was tested initially using cross tabulation between the nominal variable income category and occupation between male and females. This analysis was supplemented by chi-square use in order to assess the association and the strength was examined with Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal and Phi while the significance of the hypothesis was verified by the p-value. The t-test was also employed due to salaries being interval. Multivariate analysis was conducted by means of Binary regression as well for this variable and the threshold R2501 and more was used to establish in which occupations males and females are likely to earn within this income. Moreover, linear regression was used to examine the effect of occupations in salaries of males and females.

Hypothesis 8: Government organizations constitutes a lower gender earning differential

To test this hypothesis cross tabulations were run for the type of business variable together with income; the chi-square statistic was used to establish the association within these variables. The strength of this relationship was analyzed using Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal and Phi. Additionally, the hypothesis was validated by the p-value. T-test was employed for salaries and type of business. The binary logistic model was used to highlight the likelihood of males and females working under certain businesses to earn R2501 and more. Also the linear regression was used to analyze association of type of businesses to earnings of males and females.

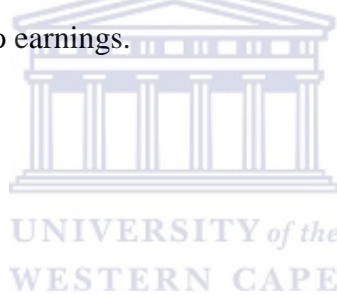
Hypothesis 9: The gender earnings differential is prevalent within limited duration work

Bivariate analysis using cross tabulation of nominal variables; work status and income category was initially used. The T test was used for salaries and work status with gender as the layer within the analysis. The associations were tested by Chi square, Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal and Phi. To confirm the hypothesis the p value was verified at a level of <0.05 . To model relationships binary regression was utilized with the income threshold of R2501 and more being used to examine between males and females with different work status who were most

likely to earn within the respective income range. Also for salaries linear regression was conducted to explore the effects of work status between males and female's earnings.

Hypothesis 10: The gender earnings differential is less prevalent between union members

Initially to test this hypothesis the bivariate analysis by use of cross tabulation was employed. The latter was conducted between the nominal variable of union membership and income category. T –tests were used to analyze the relationship of salaries with union membership for males and females. Chi-square, Cramer's V, Lambda, Goodman and Kruskal and Phi were utilized to assess the association between these variables. The p-value was further used to verify the hypothesis. Regression models were also conducted, initially binary logistic regression was employed. This model was to assess male and female union and non-union members that were likely to earn R2501 and more. Thereafter the linear regression model was used to explore the association of union membership to earnings.



CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1. Introduction

Making way to improve discrepancies of earnings in the labour market is a pivotal aspect in the South African economy. Especially now that it has been clear that inequality between and within sexes plays a major role in generating poverty. Due to the significant contribution women have been shown to play in the reconstruction and development of the country's economy (Mahlangu, 2007), making amends to equalize the status of females to that of men can help improve the country's GDP and help eradicate poverty. Increased entrants to the labour market did not automatically translate into equality in terms of earnings. Thus the issue of earning differentials has a broad spectrum of gaps which inform or underlay the inequalities. The following section of the study will be examining earnings (income and salaries) distribution of males and females taking into account factors (independent variables) to assess relationships using appropriate statistical tests. To establish earnings of those household members were asked to give their salaries in full amounts, and those who did not respond were presented to choose in categorical incomes.

5.2 Clinical examination of the dynamics of monthly earnings of South Africa

The increased number of people entering the labor market has resulted in narrowing the labour market inclusion gap, however as has been pointed out; the implication have had little effect on the earnings inequality that exist. Creating opportunities in the labour market was aimed at increasing the economic status of designated groups and yet, they remain at the lower end of the hierarchical earnings distribution. Such a trend of the earnings distribution has thus been highlighted in studies assessing changes subsequent 1994. Post transition earning trends highlighted generally an increase in average real monthly earnings for each of South Africa's population groups between 1995 and 2005 (Burger, 2007). Burger using the Household Survey Data from StatsSA found that the increase was however lower for Africans than coloureds, Indians and whites (2003). Relatively, whites had the highest increase overall for the respective

years. By 2003, a slight decrease was observed for whites but by this time Africans and coloureds experienced an increase in earnings by 16% and 18% respectively (Burger, 2007). Between males and females working within the formal sector, females experienced a decline in earnings so much that by 2005, their earnings were lower compared to 1995. Males on the contrary had fluctuating earnings for this period but by 2003 they had a sharper increase which generated higher earnings in 2005 compared to 1995. Therefore in 2005, male and females earnings were still divergent although with a slight narrowing trend (Burger, 2007).

Nonetheless, Hlekiso & Mahlo (2006) in their study, using the Labour Force Survey from StatsSA 2001-2005 found increased median wages within the community, social and personal service and electricity, gas and water supply industries. At the same time they found private households and agriculture, fishing and forestry industries with the lowest median wage. Therefore this sheds some light in disparities considering, as highlighted in chapter three of the study that the community, social and personal service industry had a sharp increase of males between 2000 and 2007 while private households had a higher proportion of females than males. Furthermore, their regression model females as the reference point for assessing the wage premium in 2001 and 2005, males had a wage premium increase from 31% in 2001 to 38% in 2005 (Hlekiso & Mahlo, 2006). This clearly outlines a persistent progression of the gender earnings differential.

The statistical release from Statistics South Africa for the year 2010 also clearly illustrated monthly earnings distribution of South Africans. What the differences indicated was a consistent trend in the earning distribution as found by (Burger, 2007 and Hlekiso & Mahlo, 2006). In 2010, a large number of paid workers amounting to 12.9 million were indicated to have low earnings, the average man's median earnings was R2800 (Stats SA,2010). When these results are decomposed to the population sphere, similarly to what Burger found in 2005, the median highest between the population groups was that of whites at R9500 followed by Indians at R6000 (Stats SA,2010). Also the results are in line with the findings by Hinks (2001). Thus considering the time period from Hink's study together with the legislative policies one would expect changes or better yet, similarities in earnings of all the population groups. The monthly earnings

ratios of other population groups to the white population was; 22.8 for Africans and 27.9% for coloureds. This means that Africans earned 22.8% of what was whites median earnings while coloureds earned 27.9% of the whites median earnings (Stats SA,2010).

Furthermore, females to males's median monthly earnings were unevenly distributed, with females earning less than males in all population groups. However the variation at which the median average earnings were highest between the sexes were within the Indians at 100% followed by coloureds at 78.1% and for Africans and whites at 69.3% and 66.4% respectively. The findings are contrary to the results found by Hinks in 2002 study, the differences of the sexes within the population groups were highest amongst whites compared to any other group. It was however also found that for the period 1995-2001 the difference in average earnings between white males and females was narrowing while for Africans the difference was broadening (Hinks, 2002). Clearly this trend has been persistent considering the narrowing of the gender gap within the white population.

The education variable conversely had been consistent, in all the bottom spheres of the median, those with tertiary education had higher earnings compared to other levels of education. In the entire bottom 5% to bottom 25% as well as the top 25 to top 5% the average median earnings increased with the education level (Stats SA,2010). This trend had also been evident in previous years in studies done by Casale 2005. Therefore the educational facet as yet, had an increased effect on earnings. Therefore as has been highlighted in chapter three that a number of females have been acquiring tertiary education, it should be that education instigates a different effect on the gender earning differential.

5.2.1. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by age

Age has been found to be a factor that influences income distribution. It has been previously highlighted age increases earnings, particularly as one gets older so does the increase in earnings. Therefore the age variable in the following analysis was taken against the dependent variables (income and salaries) to assess its effects male and females.

Appendix 1 displays income distribution by age for males and females, primarily for 2007. Initially within the category labelled 'None' or R0 referring to those that were working however not receiving remuneration in monetary value, were males and females aged 15 to 44. Also reflected are 1.3% of males aged 64-74. Moreover, from monthly income of R1 to R1000 females in almost all ages are dominated in proportions, while in the income category of R1001-R1500 males at all ages are higher in proportions compared to their female counterparts. Therefore what this exudes is the idea that within lower incomes including R0, females are mostly represented than males. For the monthly income of R1001-R1500 however although males dominated in most age groups, females aged 45-54 and 55-64 had higher proportions than their male counterparts as well as those females aged 75+. Implying that these females were probable to earn the respective income than their male counterparts and those females aged 44 and less. From then on, in almost all age groups males dominated from R15001 to R11000. Although females aged 15-24 to 64-74 were more, overall males were higher in proportions than them especially at ages 45-64. Therefore the idea depicted here is that, when it comes to higher income, males in most age groups earn higher compared female. Additionally, generally income increased with age for males more than it did for females. This could be due to constraints females had previously within the labour market; differences in skills and education may have been the hindering factor of the lower earnings for females aged 45 and above. Relatively the lower differential in lower ages could be an indication of labour policies. Nonetheless, depicting variations between the genders is the income range of R11001 and more, males predominantly were higher in proportions than their female counterparts, such that males 74+ constituted 44.8% while their female counterparts were at 0%. Once more, the variations were highest within the higher income ages.

Highlighting similarities and some differences are the results for 2011 presented in Appendix 2. Again for this year those who weren't earnings anything, were mostly scattered within the lower ages, however this time almost equally split between males and females. From monthly incomes of R1 to R1000 yet, a similar trend was depicted with females constituting higher proportions than males. This suggests a stagnant trend in earnings distributed from 2007 to 2011. Females aged 45-64 however were also more in the income range of R1001-R2500. This means that these

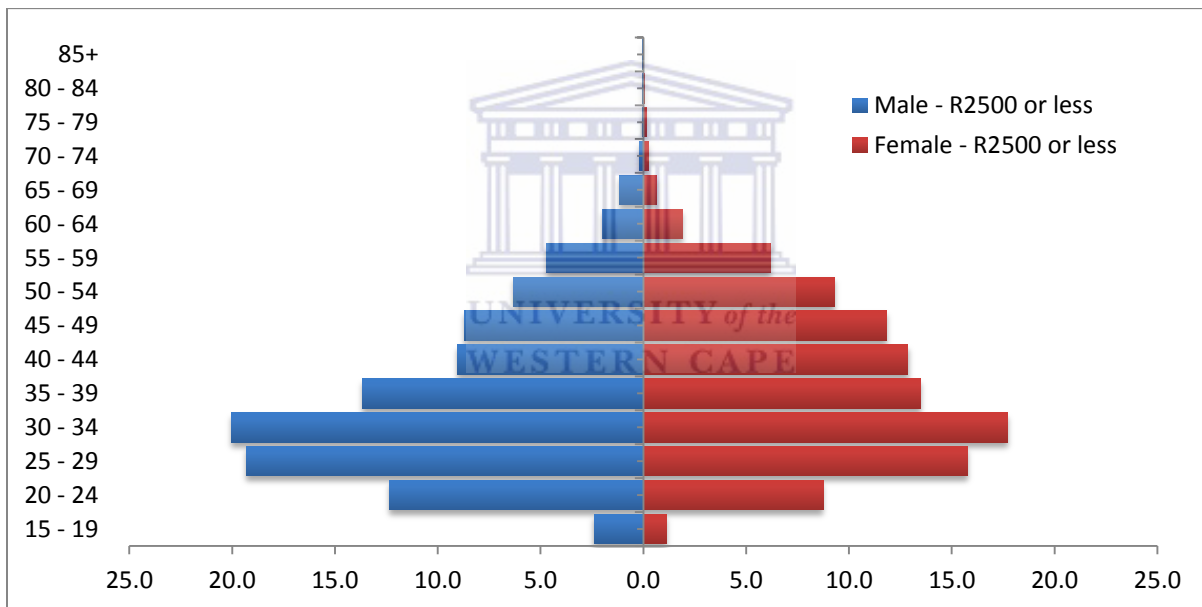
females yet assumed higher proportions in higher incomes compared to other females. This suggests that they were at an advantage compared to other females. Furthermore, monthly income ranges between R2501 and R11001 similarly to 2007 were generally male dominated however with a few differences in some age groups. Females aged 15-24 for instance this year, had higher proportions than their male counterparts in monthly income ranges R4501 to R16000 while those aged 75+ assumed higher proportions than their male counterparts from income range within R4501 to R11000. Therefore for this year, indicating higher proportions of females who were probable to earn higher income to be at the extremes of the age strand. Once more, similarly to 2007, the variations are males exceeding females within monthly income of R2051 and R11001 in ages 35 to 64. This suggests the gender income differential to have still been higher within this age range. Nonetheless, for the monthly income of R11001 and more, females in each of the age ranges 15-24 to those aged 54-64 exceeded the proportions of their male counterparts. However from R16001 and more, males remained in higher proportions. Therefore suggestion that males persisted in assuming higher income ranges.

As females more than males took up income ranges of R2500 and less in both years, Figure 1 presents a pyramid by age and sex of workers earning the respective income for 2007. This is done to shed a clear depiction of the differences existing between males and females earning lower earnings. Illustrative in the figure, is both males and females workers earning within the given threshold are youth aged 15-34. However, the rate was more for males than females. Thereafter similarly for both sexes a decline was indicated from the age range of 35-39. Nevertheless the decline was more for males such that those aged 40-44 and 45-49 constituted a rate that was almost half of what their 30-34 year old male counterparts was in the given income. On the contrary females aged 40-44, 45-49 and 50-54 were still at a rate that was 10 and more. Thus males on the latter age group were at a rate almost equivalent to 5. Reiteratively, this clearly highlights female's concentration within lower earnings compared to males. Moreover, it precisely depicts a trend highlighting male's increase in years of age, decreases the chances lower remunerations.

In 2011 similar results are depicted by Figure 2 for male and female workers who were earning R2500 and less. Once more the majority was amongst the youth, however contrary to 2007,

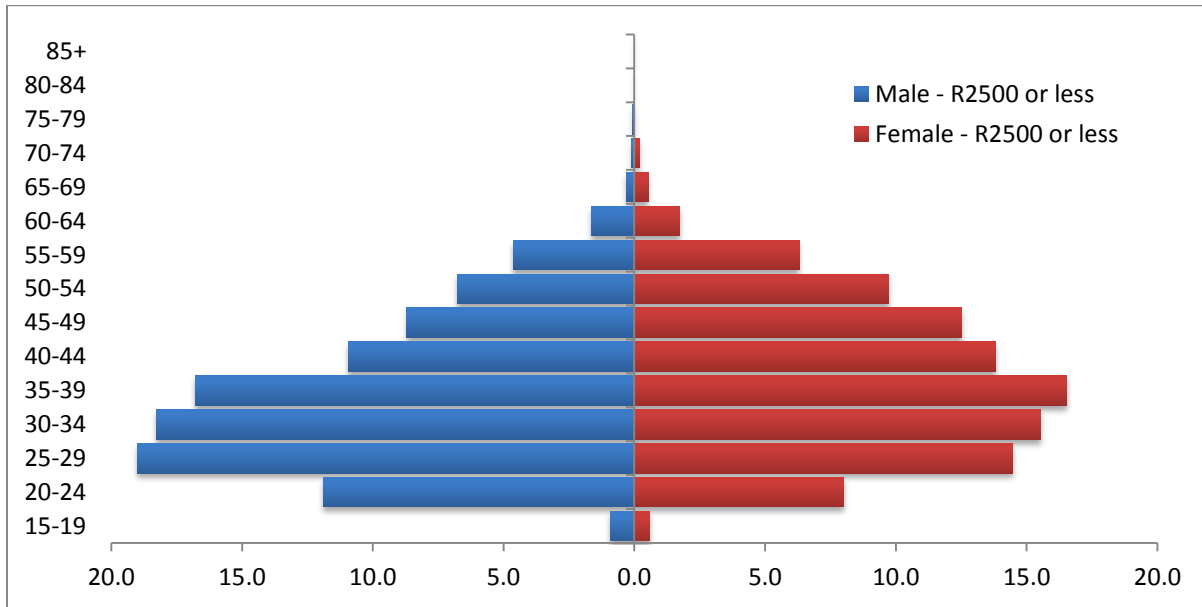
males aged 35-39 were at a higher ratio almost the same as those aged 34-35. Therefore it means unlike 2007, in 2011 more males were disposed to monthly earnings equivalent to R2500 and less. Females aged 35-39 constituted a higher ratio this time compared to females in other age ranges, and even when they are compared to males. What this entails is an overall increase of workers earning R2500 and less within the age range of 35-39. However within age ranges above 40, males were yet at lower rates compared to females who were experiencing a flat decline from age 35-39. Thus females in age ranges 40 and above were still at higher rates compared to their male counterparts. Therefore by 2011, there were still more females than males earning R2500 and lower in older ages (35years and more).

Figure 1: Age and sex structure of people earning R2500 or less per month, in 2007



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Figure 2: Age and sex structure of people earning R2500 or less per month, in 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

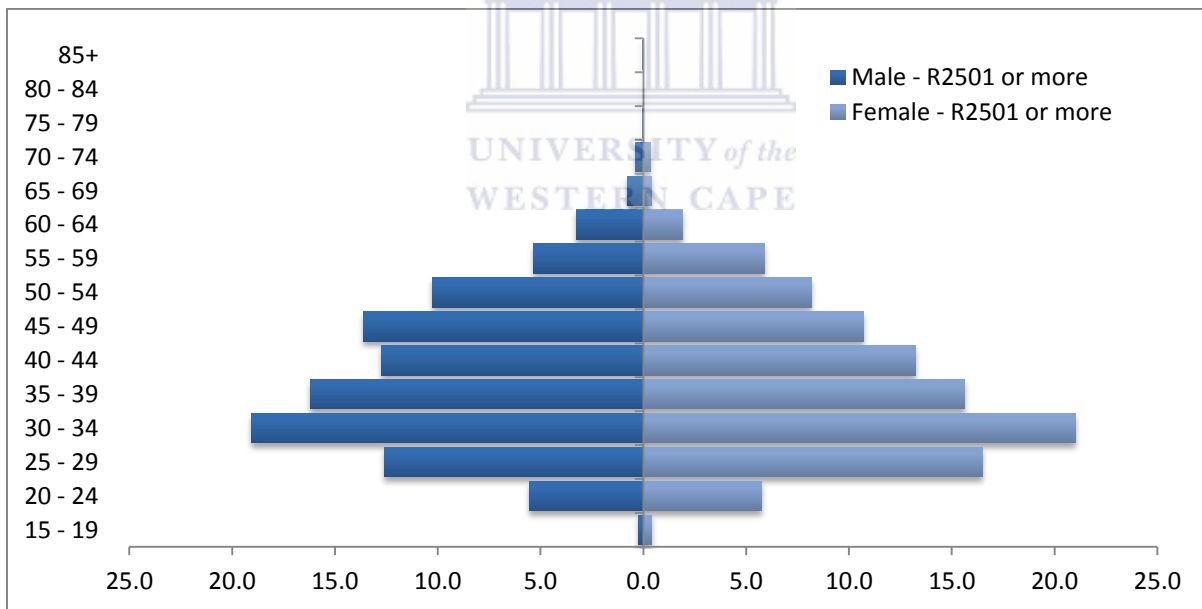
Thus as the variation in those earning less than R2500 have been highlighted, following is a thorough analysis for males and females earning R2501 and more presented in Figure 3 on a pyramid. What the figure present is an increase in ratios by age for both gender groups from age ranges 20-24 to 30-34. Thereafter indicated are precise differences between the sexes. While the decline for females followed a constant declining trend, from age ranges above 34 males highlighted a fluctuating trend. Thus even though a decline is reflected for males, after the age range of 30-34 there is an increase in age 45-49 while a decrease is again reflected for age 50 and above. Even so, males remained with higher rates compared to females from age range 45 and above while most females were mostly distributed than males in age range 25-34.

In 2011 on the contrary Figure 4 shows a similar trend for the two sexes in all the age groups. Initially like in 2007, workers aged 15-19 had lower rates and increased with age for both males and females. Along with this from age ranges above 34 there was a decline similarly, for this year however while the decline was sharp for males, females had a rather low one. As a consequence, females aged 40-45 were higher in ratio compared to males. Moreover, from age

46 and above the ratios of males and females who were earning R2501 and more were almost evenly distributed.

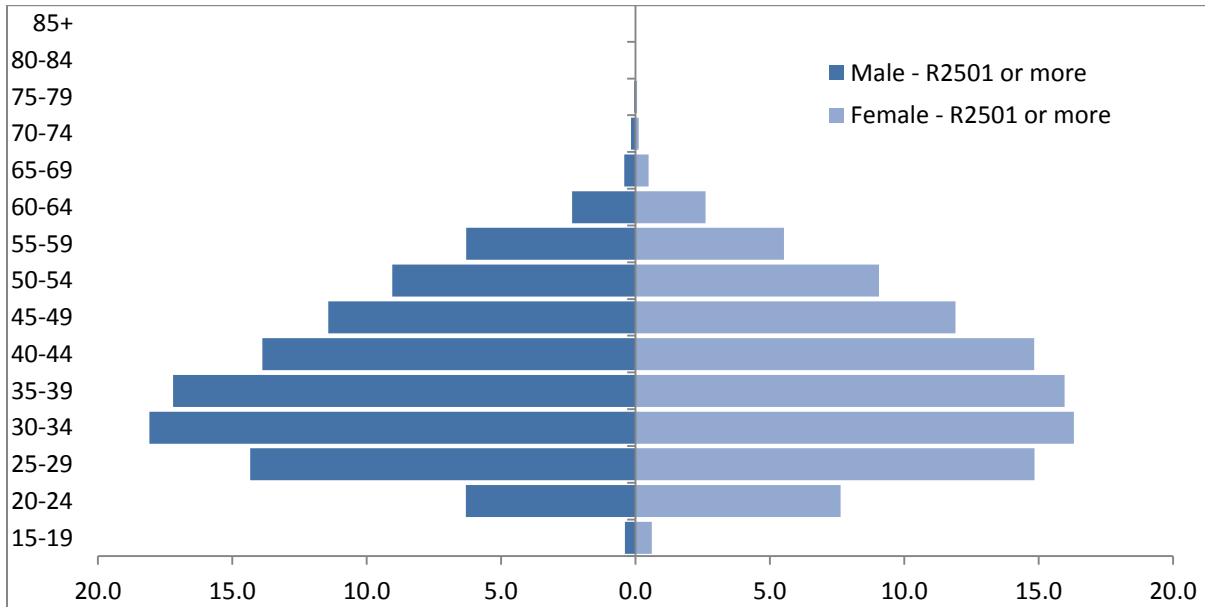
Therefore changes in ratios by age ranges of those who were earning R2500 and less seem to have been stagnant between the year 2007 and 2011, with more females earning within this threshold. For those earning R2501 and above on the contrary, changes have been that initially older males dominated this income range; however by 2011 in almost all age groups were almost even distributions of males and females. This transition could be an indication of females having acquired skills that allowed better competence within the labour market. Thus perhaps under the improvements of Sector Training and Education Authority (SETA) females were able to advance in skills, particularly for those females within older ages.

Figure 3: Age and sex structure of people earning R2501 or more per month, in 2007



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Figure 4: Age and sex structure of people earning R2501 or more per month, in 2011



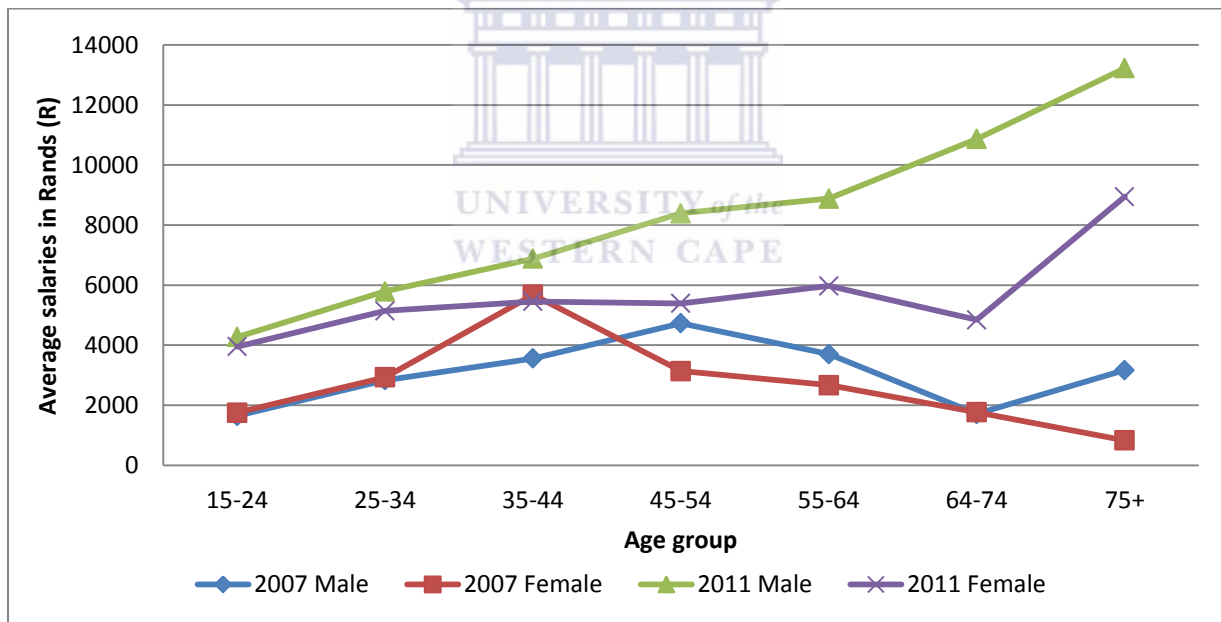
Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Figure 5 inspects salaries by age groups and gender for the years 2007 and 2011. Initially, the highlight in the figure is an inconsistent trend in males' and females' average earnings by age for the year 2007. The same is reflected for females in 2011; however males showed different results, their average earnings indicated an increasing trend by age. As a consequence in 2011 female and male earnings were precisely dispersed. Implying that by this time age had distinct effects on male and female earnings. However also previously highlighted that males earnings more than females increased with age, therefore this means yet the age aspect has had a consistent effect for males. Nonetheless, specifically examining the earnings by age, the first age range 15-24 in both years males and females average earnings were lower. An increase in age 25-34 is observed with not much differentiation between the genders in 2007. For 2011 on the contrary a distinctions for males and female earnings is depicted with females having lower average earnings than their male counterparts.

In 2007 while females aged 35-44 had substantially higher average earnings than males, in 2011 they had lower average earnings compared to males. This depicts a transition that could be

attributed to a whole lot of factors that might have been affluent to these females transition in this age group. Again in the age group 45-54 while in both years males had increased earnings, females in comparisons had lower average earnings. In 2007 for age ranges 55-64 and 64-74 both genders had lower earnings but male' earnings remained higher than females'. On the contrary, males in the respective age groups in 2011 had relatively increased earnings while their female counterparts were with relatively lower average earnings. Finally in the last age range in 2007 females earnings continued being lower than males. Males for this year had increased average earnings for this year also this increase is depicted in 2011 for both males and females however more for males than females. Thus once more, these results reveal that males and females age affects their earning outcomes differently, however as suggested these may be due to factors such as differences in skills, education etc.

Figure 5: Average earnings by gender and age group for years 2007 and 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

5.2.2. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by population group

Drawing from previous studies, South Africa has been highlighted to be one of the countries mostly characterized by high levels of economic inequality with tenacious racial nature (Keswell, 2004, Hodgson, 2010). It has been documented that certain population groups have higher earnings in comparisons to others. Particularly, it has been confirmed that whites have had higher earnings than any other population group and the difference have been found more substantial between the white and African/black population group (Van Der Berg, 2010). Also stressed was that within each of the population groups also exists discrepancies in earnings between males and females. This has been established to be prevalent within the white population in previous studies (Hinks, 2002), for the particular reason that they constitute higher earnings.

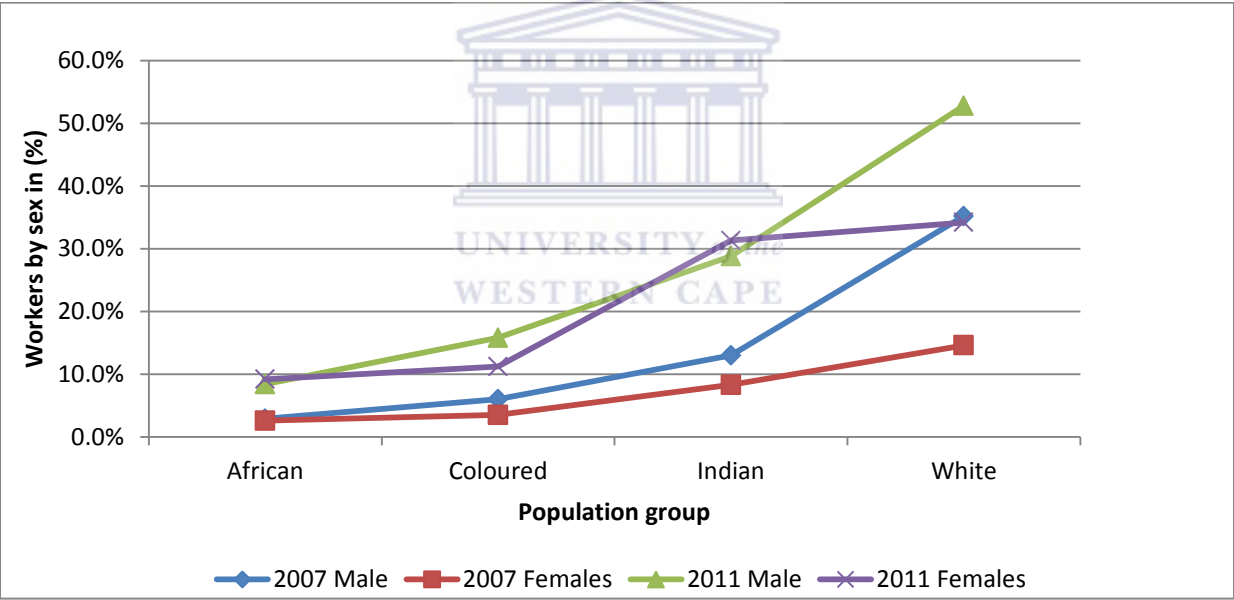
According to Casale, 2004 women were concentrated in lower paying jobs, however within each population the gap varied. Additionally, the degree at which the earning differential found within genders was highlighted to vary between the population groups. Henceforth, collating males and females within each of the population groups exposes variability to different extents. Appendix 3 shows the distribution of incomes between males and females for the year 2007. In the first income, for those that earned nothing in monetary value, were African males and females, while for coloureds there were no males however with 1% of females. For Indians and whites on the contrary, both males and females of these groups accounted for 0%. What this entails is that more Africans than other population groups were working for unpaid work and within coloureds females than males earned nothing. For the income ranges between R1 to R1000, African females dominated compared to their male counterparts. On the contrary coloured and Indian females had higher proportions compared to their male counterparts from monthly income ranging from R1 to R2500, with Indian females also dominating R4501-R60000. Distinct from this were findings within the white population where females were higher in proportion in incomes ranging from R1-R8000. The concentration of females within lower earnings was more for African females compared to coloured, Indian and white females. Thus the emergence of the

economic need stressed by Casale (2004) to incorporate females within the labour market rather than had negative implications mostly for African females. Resulting from the overflow of low skills, females, particularly African female's affiliation within the labour market had resulted in the characteristic of lower earnings. Nonetheless, in income range between R6000 to R11000 African females were slightly higher than their male counterparts however still substantially lower compared to white females. Therefore this is an indication that within the African population the gender earning differential had some narrowing to some extent. This could be a result of the recent changes in education attained by African females who have assumed higher percentages in tertiary level education. Even so, from the income ranges of R11000 and more, males within each of the population groups have higher proportions than their female counterparts. This implies a persistent trend of males assuming higher rates in higher monthly earnings compared to females.

Comparing these results with the findings of 2011, Appendix 4 presents some differences, initially amongst those workers that were not earning anything in monetary value. White females and males accounted for 0.6% and 0% respectively while Black females were 0.1% and their male counterparts were 0.2%. Therefore by this time, there were white females in this threshold than white males. Moreover, in income R1-R1500 African, coloured and Indian females were in excess compared to males still. With Indian females also dominating the income ranges of R2501 to R6000. For Africans and Indians this highlights a stagnant trend, while for coloureds the trend was negative for females. This is because this year, there were more males in the income range of R1501-R2500 contrary to 2007. Nonetheless, white female's similar results were found however this time, where they also dominated the income ranges of R11001-R16000. This was also reflected for African and Indian females, while coloured males and females had an equivalent proportion. This generally suggests more females to have been earning within the respective income range by 2011. Thus once more this can be attributed to female's higher education attainments as well as training provided by SETA under the Skills Development Act (SKD). Nonetheless, the overall proportion of workers earning R11001 and more was generally highest for males by 2011.

Figure 6 precisely illustrates the variations within income ranges R11001 and more. What the figure illustrates generally is Africans comprising of the lowest rate, followed by coloureds and Indians who were less than whites for both years. Between males and females, for both respective years, African males and females had an almost similar rate. The differentials in rate for coloured seem to have widened from 2007 to 2011. On the contrary for Indians, while females were at a lower rate in 2007, in 2011 they had a higher rate compared to their male counterparts. Additionally whites constituted a widened gap for both years with female's increased rate being equivalent to what their male counterpart were in 2007. Therefore while the gap for Africans and Indians narrowed in 2011, for coloured and whites the gap in higher earnings widened, substantially for whites.

Figure 6: Proportion of workers by sex earning R11001 and more for years 2007 and 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

As the variation in incomes has been examined within population groups, the distribution of salaries will now be explored. Figure 7 illustrates the distribution of earnings for the year 2007 and 2011. In the figure a hierarchical trend is reflected once more between the population groups, with Africans at the lower end while Whites are at the higher end. Collating males and females, depicted are salaries for African males initially to have been slightly higher than

females. However by 2011 the gap had narrowed with a marked difference when compared to the difference that was in 2007. This means that within the period of 2007-2011 the increase in salaries was more for males than for females. For coloureds the difference between males and females widened as well. Although generally salaries increased from 2007 to 2011 for Indian males and females, males remained with higher earnings than females; however for this group the difference was stagnant within the respective period. On the contrary for whites while males within this period had an increase in earnings, their female counterparts experienced a decline consequently resulting in a wider gap between the two sexes. Overall the earnings differential from 2007 to 2011 has widened between males and females and remained lowest for the African population. This is an indication that the earnings differential between males and females was persistent during this period. However, given the fact that in 2007 the differences were small and the progress of female's improvement in labour market competence through education, it does suggest some form of discrimination, in that females were being underpaid while males being overcompensated.

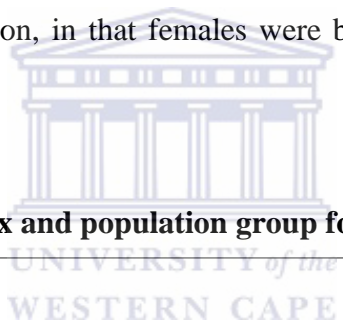
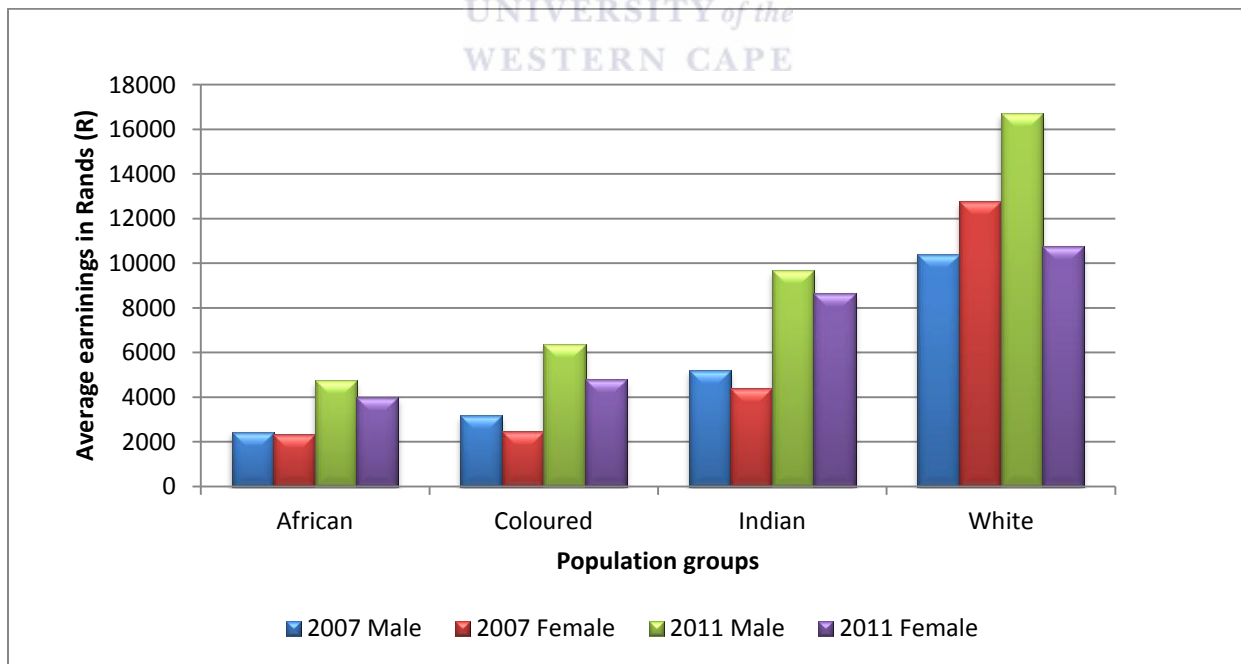


Figure 7: Average earnings by sex and population group for years 2007 and 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

5.2.3. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by marital status

Over the past years South Africa has gone through family transition, marriage has been on the decline. In view of the fact that females have been liberated in terms of participation in the labour market, more women have been entering the labour market and even the traditional roles women previously assumed declined for this reason. Therefore with this given, the distribution of earnings is expected to be on par within marital statuses; however that is not the case. It has been documented in previous studies that married men earned more than those who were never married particularly in higher earnings (Posel & Rudwick, 2013). The following will examine the distribution of earnings by gender and marital status for the years 2007 and 2011

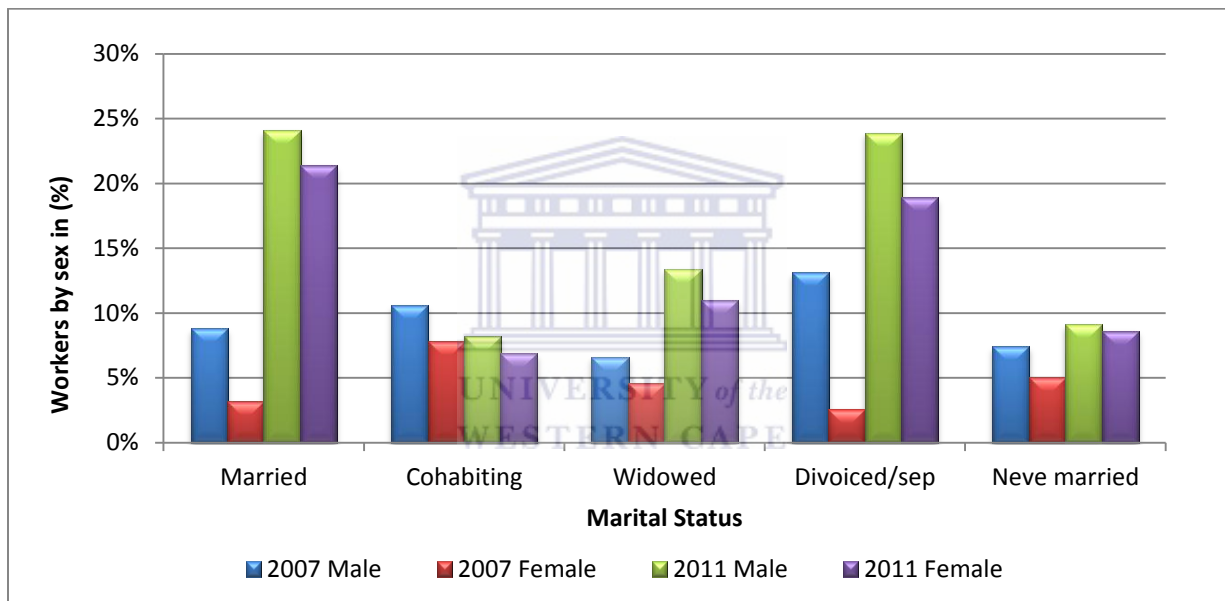
Presented by Appendix 5.1 and Appendix 6.1 is the distribution of income by marital status. Initially what is highlighted here is the first category earning R0 monthly, to have been distributed only amongst those who were married, cohabiting and never married. In incomes from R1- R1500 females in almost the marital categories were more than their male counterparts. However divorced females dominated until the monthly income of R501-R1000. Also in the income range of R1501-R2500, divorced females were in excess compared to their male counterparts. This means that females within each of the marital statuses were all concentrated in lower earnings. Further reiterating this idea is the fact that in income categories that followed males exceeded females. Even so, in income ranges of R4501 to R11000 married and divorced females were in excess than their male counterparts while cohabiting, widowed and never married females dominated some of the categories within this range. What is suggested here is that married and divorced/separated females earned more than their males counterparts in some of the higher monthly income ranges. Moreover, compared to their cohabiting, widowed and never married female counterparts they had a higher chance of earning more. In the income ranges between R11001 and more all females were in lower proportions compared to their male counterparts. The disparities however, seem to have been more for those divorced. Meaning more than other females, married and divorced females had substantially lower proportions within this income range. Thus this implies that although married and divorced females had higher earnings compared to their female counterparts they suffered the most gender earning differential.

Comparing the results to 2011 Appendix 3b shows some differences initially in the category where workers were getting no monetary value as earnings. Females had a higher share in proportion within this category, and it could mean that they were being compensated with other valuables while others were working under their family's businesses. The only females however this year that were not in this category were those that were never married. This could be attributed to varying decisions between males and females on what to settle for. Nonetheless, in income categories that followed, particularly from the range R1 to R1500 females yet dominated while divorced females also dominated income R1501-R2500. This shows that the period of 2007-2011 the income distribution by marital status for males and females had been stagnant. Furthermore like in 2007, in 2011 males were yet in excess incomes that followed. However for this year, females also dominated the income range of R8001 to R16000 particularly married and divorced females. Cohabiting females had an equivalent proportion with their male counterpart in income R11001 to R16000 while widows exceeded their male counterparts in this category. Never married females also were equivalent with their male counterparts in income category of R8001-R11000 while they were in excess for the range R11001-R16000. This implies a transition within the respective period in that more females assumed higher income categories. This could have been a result of a number of factors that will be further discussed below.

For this year, males overall still maintained higher proportions on the income range of R11001 and more and this is clearly illustrated in Figure 8. What the figure highlights is the gap within this income range to have been between those that were married and divorced in 2007 as a consequence males having experienced increased ratios. In 2011 although the gap had narrowed for other groups, it however remained marked within these two groups. Therefore for the married, this could be an implication of household work which feminist theorists highlighted to be unequally distributed between males and females. Moreover, married females could be that are less concentrated in higher earnings as a result of family responsibility and household chores. On the other hand it could be that the bread winner model is still at work within these males and females, hence males, seen as the bread winners of households; are concentrated in higher earnings. The narrowing of the gap thus could be that there is a transition of such socially constructed roles. Regarding those who were divorced this could be an implication of the economic burden they go through, with a clear indication of females suffering more. Between

those that were cohabiting, generally there has been a decline within the respective income range and as a consequence, the gap between males and females has narrowed. The widowed on the contrary experienced an increase in ratios for both genders; however the gap remained stagnant for the two years. Lastly within those that were married, a narrowing gap is indicated compared to 2007. What this entails therefor is that, females continued to be less represented within higher earnings, however for married females, the narrowing of the gap could mean that they have less family responsibilities compared to other females.

Figure 8: Proportion of workers by gender and marital status earning R11001 and more



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

As the variations of gender earnings have been highlighted between the marital categories, the same examination will be made within salaries. Figure 9 generally shows similar results found in income distribution for 2011. However, initially average earnings in 2007 show to have been highest for females that were never married. However looking at males and female differential, married males in 2007 had slightly higher earnings than their female counterparts. However by 2011 the difference was marked once again, implying that married females have to divide their time to concentrate in family responsibility while their male counterparts are only responsible for economic means. Those cohabiting experienced a salary increase from 2007 to 2011; however

the difference between the genders remained the same even in 2011. Widowed males in 2007 had a higher average salary than females but the difference was less substantial compared to 2011. This means that the earning differential increased within the period of 2007 to 2011. The disparities between the genders here could be due to differences in family responsibilities as well. While widows could be receiving less support in terms of taking care of the family; it could be that widowers receive increased support from family members in taking care of their children as it is seen as unnatural for males to bear such responsibility. As a result, allowing widowers more time to dedicate to economic obligations. Nonetheless, within those that were divorced, the gap seems to have been at a constant rate as females in 2011 had lower salaries than their male counterparts. Within those who were married, female average salaries have been constant so much that by 2011 male's average earnings were higher. This means that within the period of 2007 to 2011 married females have had unchanged average earnings.

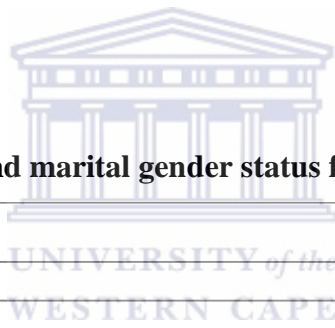
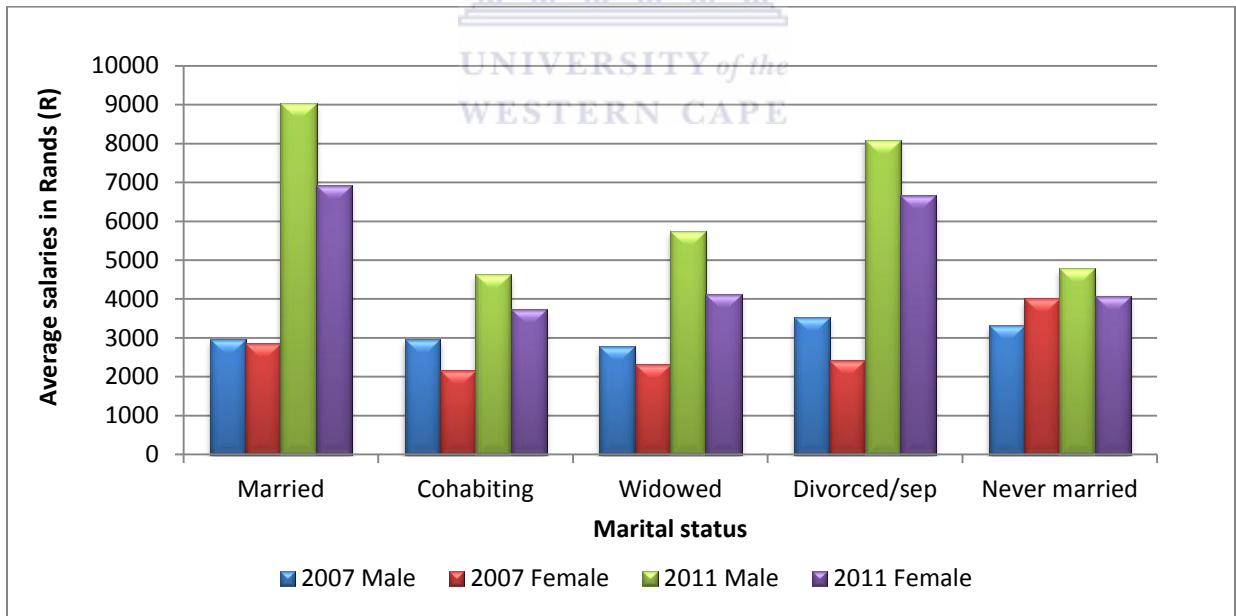


Figure 9: Average earnings by and marital gender status for years 2007 and 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

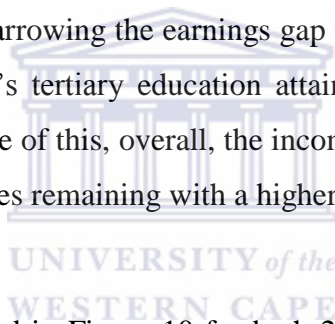
5.2.4. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by education attained

Higher education attainment leads to better competitiveness in the labour market particularly in the negotiation of earnings. Therefore it is an undeniable fact that those with higher education earn more than those with less education. For both males and females this seems to apply, however the extent to which it applies varies as there are discrepancies within those with same higher levels of educations in terms of earnings. Therefore given that education is one of the main bridges to increased earnings, females with higher education should be earning the same as their male counterparts but this has been found to be in paradox in previous studies. Males have been established to be earning more compared to females even with the same education levels.

Thus assessing these discrepancies for the year 2007, initially for unremunerated work, males and females with different education attained have been differently scattered here Appendix 7. Specifically, while males with no schooling were earning nothing, there were females with tertiary education earning nothing. Suggesting that more males with no schooling settled for unpaid work while on the contrary, females with tertiary education settled for unpaid work more compared to males. Moreover, in income ranges from R1 to R1000, there was a concentration of females than males within all the education levels. As expected, within no schooling there was a higher concentration of males and females compared to other education levels within this income range. Thus while females with no schooling and primary school dominated the respective income range, those with incomplete high school and high school also domineered in the income category of R1001-R1500. Females with high school however also had higher percentages in the income range of R3501 to R6000. For tertiary education as well, there were more females than males earning R1 to R1000 and they also had higher proportions in the income range of R1501 to R11000. Therefore this means higher education increases the chances of females to get higher earnings. Furthermore, in all the income categories that followed males dominated most of the income categories. Indicated here is the fact that even with same education levels male's and female's earnings vary. This could be a result of differences in skills or the manifestations of discrimination. Also it could be an implication of marginal earnings to the female group, as a result of costs of signalling by education as highlighted in the human capital theory. This means there may be a premium attached to years spend in education investment rather than work

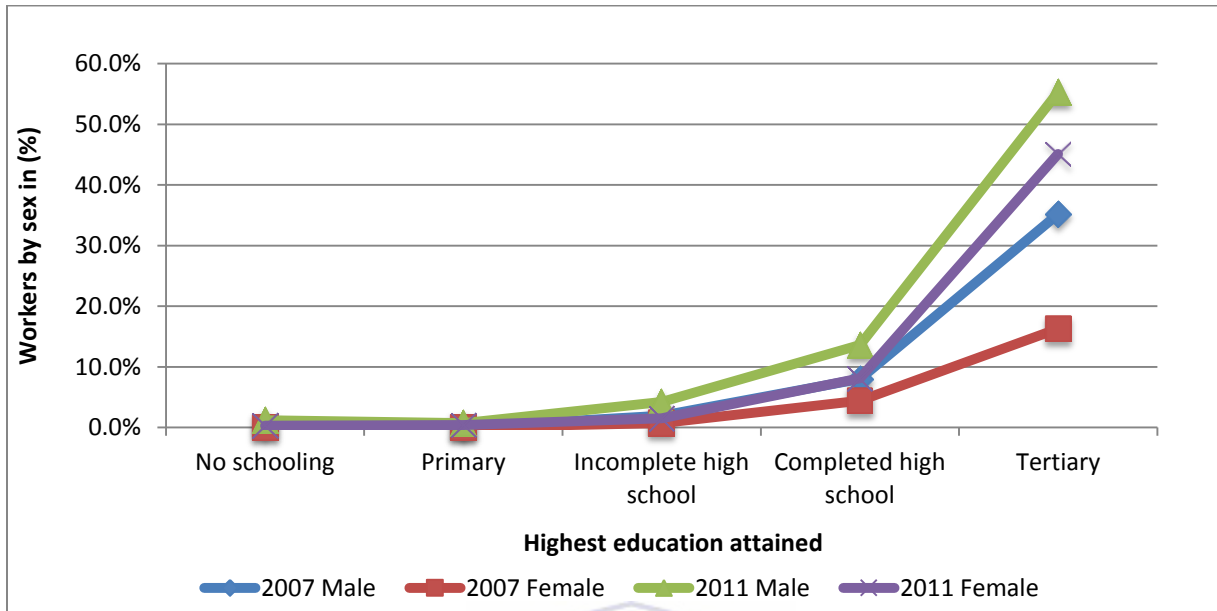
productivity between males and females. This can also be attributed to the effects of what Stanford and Sundstrom (1995) termed as ‘work time out’ which females than males vary in, due to different responsibilities.

In 2011 similar results are displayed particularly for no schooling, primary and incomplete high school Appendix 8. Females persisted having higher percentages within the income range of R1 to R1500 while their male counterparts dominated the income ranges that were higher. On the contrary females with completed high school this time had a higher percentage in monthly income of R4501-R6000. A high point of change was however within tertiary education, where females also dominated the income range of R11001-R16000. What this distinction highlights is a change in earnings of females with tertiary education; it suggests a narrowing trend in the earning differential within this education level. This means that policies implemented to promote equality have had some effect in narrowing the earnings gap within tertiary level education. This points out to the fact that female’s tertiary education attainment yields an even higher value compared to previous years. In spite of this, overall, the income range of R11001 and more were still some clear variations with males remaining with a higher percentage than females.



The variations are clearly illustrated in Figure 10 for both 2007 and 2011. In no schooling and primary schooling, both males and females within this income range were lowest in percentage for both years. However within those with some high school, although relatively low for both, a distinction is visible with males in 2011 having higher proportion than females. And with high school the results show an even precise variation between the genders, both males and females increased in percentage by 2011, however for both years, males remained higher than females. On the contrary, tertiary education exhibited a change. The differences in the percentages of males and females in the respective income range reduced by 2011. Once more this is a suggestion of the diminishing marginal earnings to females. Furthermore assessing distribution of earnings for males and females, following will be an examination within salaries.

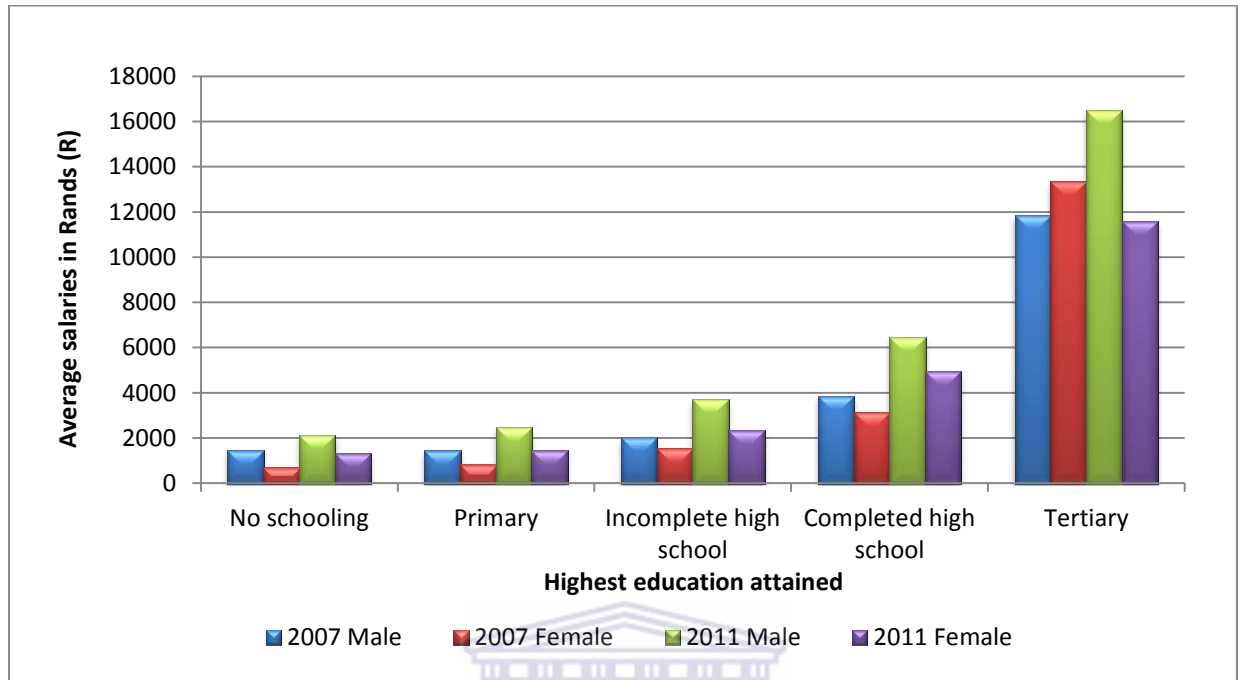
Figure 10: Proportion of workers by sex earning R11001 and more



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Average earnings by education level between males and females in Figure 11 serves in providing some similarities with the income findings. Within salaries as well, a hierarchical distribution of earnings increased with education level attained. Females with no schooling had lower salaries for 2007 and 2011 with no distinct change within the gap for the two years. The same is shown for primary school level and incomplete high school. Completed high school on the contrary shows different results, while males remained with a higher average salary in 2011 the difference in was even higher compared to 2007. In tertiary education the change within the respective years was drastic in that female average salaries fell within the period. As a consequence male's salaries were very high by 2011 resulting in a substantial difference. Thus overall, there is a persistent difference in earnings of males and females in all education levels and while in some levels the difference is narrowing in some the difference is widening. Therefore there is still a need for policies to be implemented to further reduce this inequality.

Figure 11: Average earnings by highest education attained 2007 and 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

5.2.5. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by province

Earning differentials are not only existent in education attained but such differences are also spatial. Traditionally there are provinces that are considered poor like the Eastern Cape for instance and contrary, ones that are considered rich in comparisons to others. Gauteng for instance is given due considerations as South Africa's economic hub with better opportunities. In consequence earnings are thus not equivalently distributed between these provinces; extremes in earnings between South Africa's nine provinces have been accentuated in previous studies. Therefore with this in mind the gender earning discrepancies will be examined.

The current study shows females more than males in 2007 to have been mostly distributed in the lower income ranges in all nine provinces Appendix 9, particularly in the income ranges of R0 to R1000. Females in the Western Cape and KwaZulu Natal were also more compared to males within the income of R1001-R2500. This exhorts that in these provinces females have higher chances of earning more compared to females in other provinces. In the income categories that

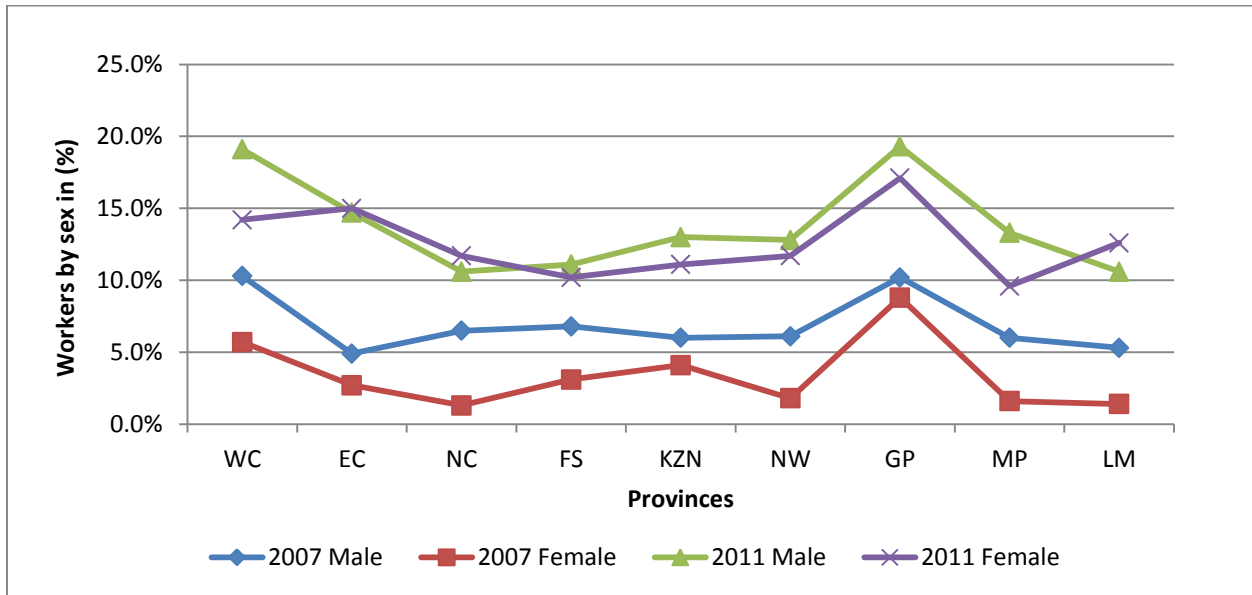
follow however, while males dominated than females in some provinces, females had higher percentages as well. Firstly in the income range of R2501 to R3500 females in the Northern Cape had a higher percentage than males, while those in the Eastern Cape were in excess than males within the income range of R3501 to R11000. Females in North West dominated the income range of R4501 to R11000 while those in Free State were more in income from R4501 to R16000. Also females in Gauteng, Mpumalanga and Limpopo were more in income ranges of R4501 to R8000 and R11000-R16000 for Gauteng. Additionally those in the Northern Cape, Western Cape and Kwa-Zulu Natal were more than their male counterparts in the income category of R6000-R8000. Therefore what this exhibits is that females within the Western Cape and Kwa-Zulu Natal were characterised by lower incomes compared to females in other provinces and accordingly, had even lower earnings than their males counterparts. On the contrary those females in the Eastern Cape, Free State and Gauteng had better chances of earning higher. Even so, the last income categories were male dominated in all provinces.

In comparisons, 2011 shows different results and this is depicted in Appendix 10. In 2011, females in most provinces were more than males from income R1 to R1500. Females from the Eastern Cape and Free State however yet showed the same results. Additionally, females within the Western Cape had higher percentages than their male counterparts in the income category of R1501-R2500 while Gauteng and Mpumalanga females also dominated monthly incomes ranging from R1501 to R3500. In incomes that followed alike in 2007 were mostly dominated by males in some provinces, however once more with some females being in excess in certain income categories. In the Northern Cape and Free State for instance, females had higher proportions than their male counterparts from income ranges of R4501 to R16000 along with females in the Western Cape, Eastern Cape and Gauteng who dominated the income ranges R8001 to R16000. Moreover, those in KwaZulu Natal, North West, Mpumalanga and Limpopo were more compared to their male counterparts within the income category of R11001-R16000. Generally the results also highlights a transition for the income range of R11001-R16000 were it was dominated by females form all the provinces. This suggests that the developmental strategies for economic prosperity for females as well as labour equity procedures were instigated within the period of 2007 and 2011. Particularly for the Free State and Gauteng, there have been consistent improvements with the Western Cape and KwaZulu Natal which reflected exceptional

in terms of female's earnings. Notwithstanding this, most males in 2011 yet accounted for higher proportions within the last income categories compared to females in all the provinces.

The variation within the income range R11001 and more for males and females by provinces is depicted in Figure 12. Comparing the changes by the years illustrates the Western Cape to have had not considerable change in the disparity, while the Eastern Cape showed even more changes such that females were more than males within this income range by 2011. This means that the Eastern Cape has had major adjustments, given that this province was previously characterised by homelands that divided the workforce and perpetuated inequalities (Leibbrandt et al, 2009). Moreover the transition was also reflected within the Northern Cape which by 2011, its females in the respective income category were higher in percentage compared to their male counterparts. For Free State although the gap had narrowed in 2011 males remained higher in proportion compared to females. KwaZulu Natal like the Western Cape reflects stationery change at the time; Gauteng had a slightly narrowed gap in 2011. Gauteng as the economic hub of South Africa it is surprising that the gap widened, because of the fact that equalizing earnings at the central economic hub should be the country's focus for economic stability. Therefore Equity policies should be mobilized robustly within this province. Nonetheless, Mpumalanga like KwaZulu Natal as well, shows stationery change with males remaining with a higher percentage in 2011. Lastly in Limpopo a clear change is reflected which placed females at a higher ratio compared to their male counterparts. Even with such disparities within males and female, workers in general earned more in Gauteng and the Western Cape. Therefore even though the latter provinces have clear disparities in males and female proportion within this income range, they are yet more concentrated in higher earnings compared to their counterparts in other provinces. This further delineates that these provinces are more economically endowed than other provinces. Moreover, confirming this are the results presented for salaries as well.

Figure 12: Proportion of workers by province earning R11001 and more



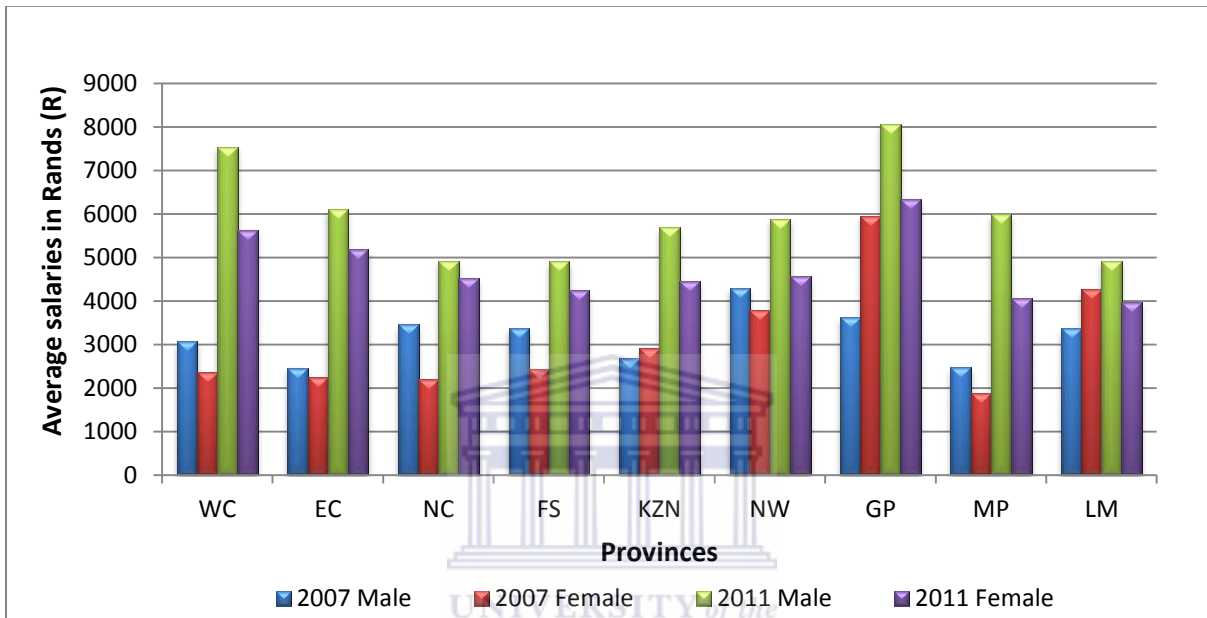
Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

The symbols represents the South African provinces; WC-Western Cape, EA-Eastern Cape, NC-Northern Cape, FS-Free State, KZN-Kwa-Zulu Natal, NE-North West, GP-Gauteng, MP-Mpumalanga, and LM- Limpopo

Also indicated in Figure 13 are salaries of males and females by provinces for 2007 and 2011. Generally, earnings were higher in Gauteng and the Western Cape respectively by 2011. However, the gender earning differential within the Western Cape indicates a prevalent increasing gap in 2011, with males remaining with higher average salaries than females. Within the Eastern Cape the difference in salaries were not substantial in 2007; however by 2011 males had even higher earnings compared to their female counterparts. Contrary to this are the results for Northern Cape which had a marked narrowed gap by 2011, although males remained with higher salaries. The same is indicated for Free State. In KwaZulu Natal a shift is indicated with females in 2011 having lower salaries than males compared to 2007. Therefore this could be an implication of a lack of implementing the labour law policies to promote equality in earnings in some of these provinces. Females in North West also suffered persistent inequalities in earnings and more so by 2011. In Gauteng a shift is reflected in that while in 2007 females had higher average earnings in 2011 males had substantially higher earnings. Once more this emulates a lack of equality practices within this province which deteriorates equality endeavours. In Mpumalanga and Limpopo as well by 2011, males had higher earnings compared to their female

counterparts. Nevertheless, overall the gap was more prevalent within the Western Cape, Gauteng and Mpumalanga and in line with the findings in salary, thus further confirming female’s vulnerability in terms of earnings within these provinces.

Figure 13: Average earnings by province for years 2007 and 2011



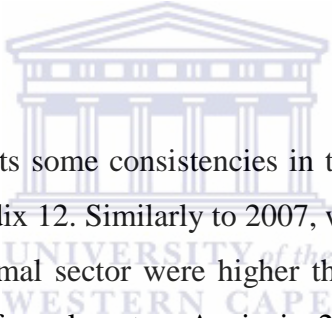
Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

The symbols represents the South African provinces; WC-Western Cape, EA-Eastern Cape, NC-Northern Cape, FS-Free State, KZN-Kwa-Zulu Natal, NE-North West, GP-Gauteng, MP-Mpumalanga, and LM- Limpopo

5.2.6. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by sector of work

Jobs falling out of the formal sector and in the informal sector have been found to be excessively concentrated by lower earnings for the reason of lack of protection on rights by the South African labour law (Lebbraint et al, 2004, Kerr & Teal, 2008). Concurrently, women have been found to be immensely entering the informal sector, and comparing them to males they tend to excel in this sector more than they do in the formal sector. Thus with the informal sector less rich than the formal, females for this reason have been underprivileged in terms of returns compared to their male counterparts.

The current study thus reveals similar results in Appendix 11. Generally depicted in the table are higher proportions of males and females in the informal sector within the lower income categories. However between males and females the concentration was more for females. Particularly in the income range of R1 to R1000, likewise females in the formal sector were higher in proportions within this income category. In the income categories that followed, there was a marked decline of males and females within the informal sector, contrary in the formal sector an increase was observed. While the informal sector the decrease was more for females, the increase in the formal sector was for males. This insinuates the idea that females on both sectors were represented within lower earnings compared to their male counterparts. Furthermore males within the informal sector dominated the incomes that followed. Contrary, females in the formal sector were in excess than their male counterparts in incomes ranging from R4501 to R11001. This indicates better chances of females earning higher within this sector than the informal sector.



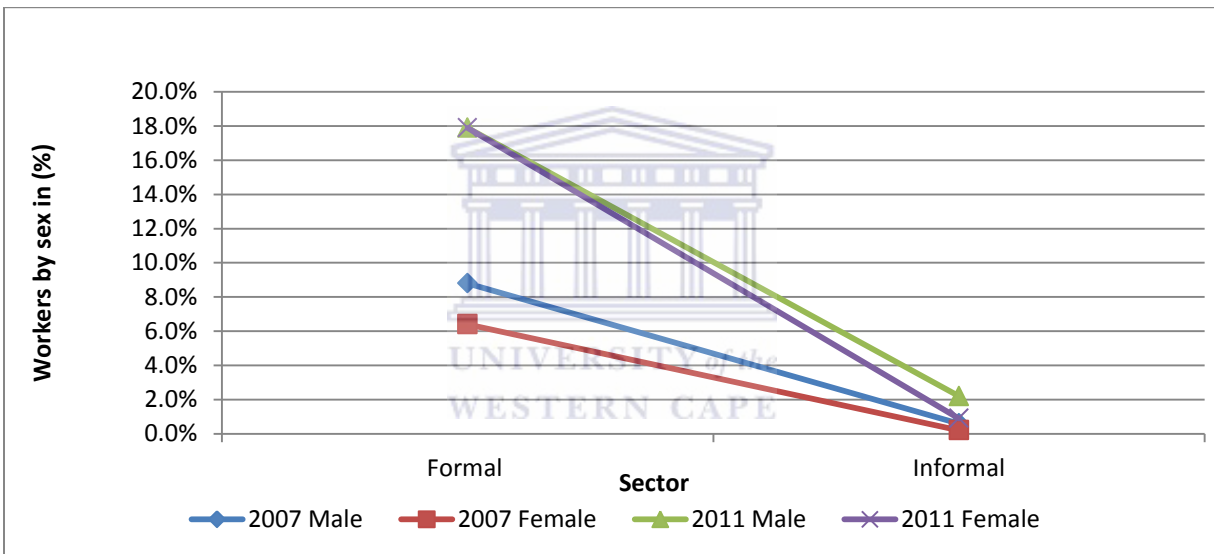
Comparing these to 2011, highlights some consistencies in the way the income was distributed between males and females Appendix 12. Similarly to 2007, while females that were working for other forms of payment in the formal sector were higher than males, the latter group was yet higher than females within the informal sector. Again in 2011, females dominated the lower income ranges; however for this year they were also more within the income category of R1001-R1500. This suggests a slight increase in female earnings in both sectors. However in 2011 yet, males from the informal sector were more than females in the income range of R1501 and more. Females within the formal sector on the contrary had higher percentages in the income of R8001 to R16000. What this proposes is that females within the latter sector are economically well off compared to those within the informal sector. Consequently, the earning differential is higher in the informal sector compared to the formal. In addition, even within the last income categories, females in the formal sector are well represented than those within the informal sector.

Figure 14 illustrates representation of males and female earning R11001 and more in both sectors. The figure illustrates a change within the formal sector, such that the amount of males and females was equivalent. On the contrary, the informal sector displays a widened gap from 2007. This could be ascribed to the effects of the former sector's lack of formality. The formal

sector's narrowed gap can accordingly be due to stringent equity procedures followed. The same is shown in salaries.

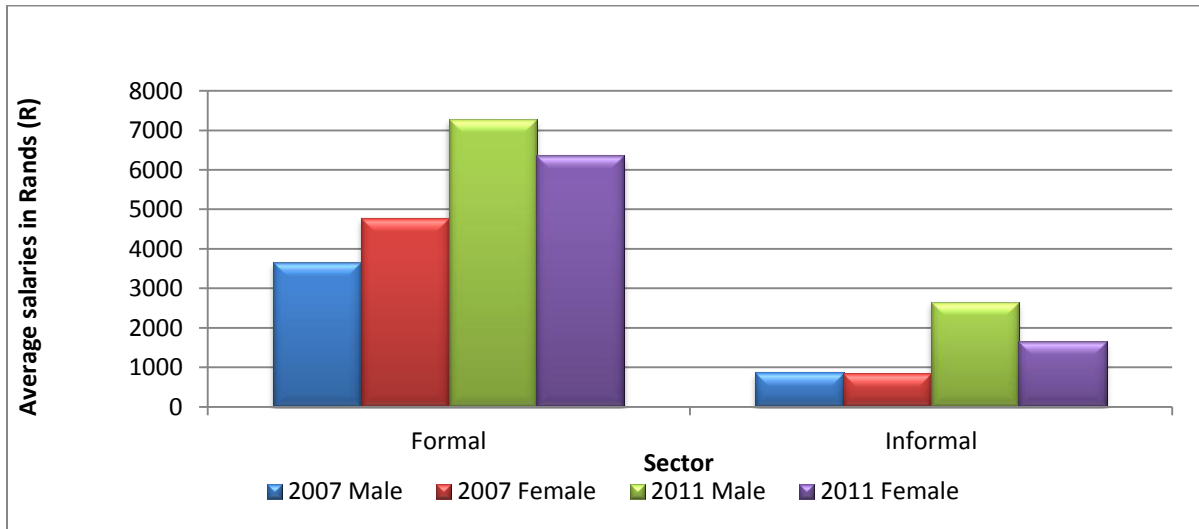
In Figure 15 it is illustrated that by 2011 females within the informal and formal sector earned lower salaries than their male counterparts. This entails that there has been a sharp increase of male's salaries compared to females. Therefore, overall while the gap was narrowing in the formal sector for salaries, the differential in salaries within the informal sector has been increasing.

Figure 14: Proportion of workers by sector earning R11001 and more



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Figure 15: Average earnings by sector 2007 and 2011



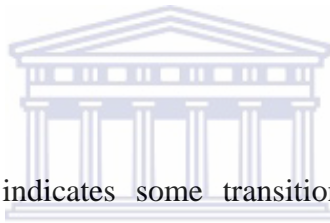
Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

5.2.7. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by occupation

Barnard and Martin argued that “upheld gender discrimination and bias, were the main challenges that women in male-dominated occupations faced” (2013:1). Along with this, Borat et al (2009) found in their study that there was a decline in the earnings gap in highly skilled positions while in female overrepresented (semi-skilled and low skilled) occupations the gap was especially marked. Therefore the current study will be highlighting how these disparities have transitioned from 2007-2011.

The results in Appendix 13 show that in most categories of occupation, females had higher proportions compared to males. This means that there were more females than males who were working for other incentives rather than monetary payment. Nonetheless, for the income ranges of R1 to 2500 most occupations had more females earning within it than males, with females within the technical and associate professionals, service workers and shop and market sales workers, as well as craft and related trade workers dominating the income range from R1 to R1500. Therefore this formerly highlights female’s concentration within lower earnings. However, for professionals, it was males that mostly dominated the respective income range

rather than females, suggesting the contrary compared to females in other occupations. As consequence professional females were in an increased proportion within the income range of R2501-R11000, implying that being female within the professional occupation yielded higher earnings. Also, female legislators, senior officials and managers as well as technical and associate professional were higher in proportions within income ranges of R2501 to R8000 and R3501 to R8000. Therefore, insinuated here is the idea that within these occupations too, females were likely to receive higher earnings, with professional females having more likelihood however. Furthermore, female clerks also had higher proportions compared to their male counterparts in the income categories of R3501-R4501 and R6001-R8000 while those in craft and related trade work were more within the monthly income of R2501-R3500. In other occupations, males were in excess compared to females in almost all the income categories. Therefore this highlights the variation in occupations females have worsened and improved chances to earn higher.

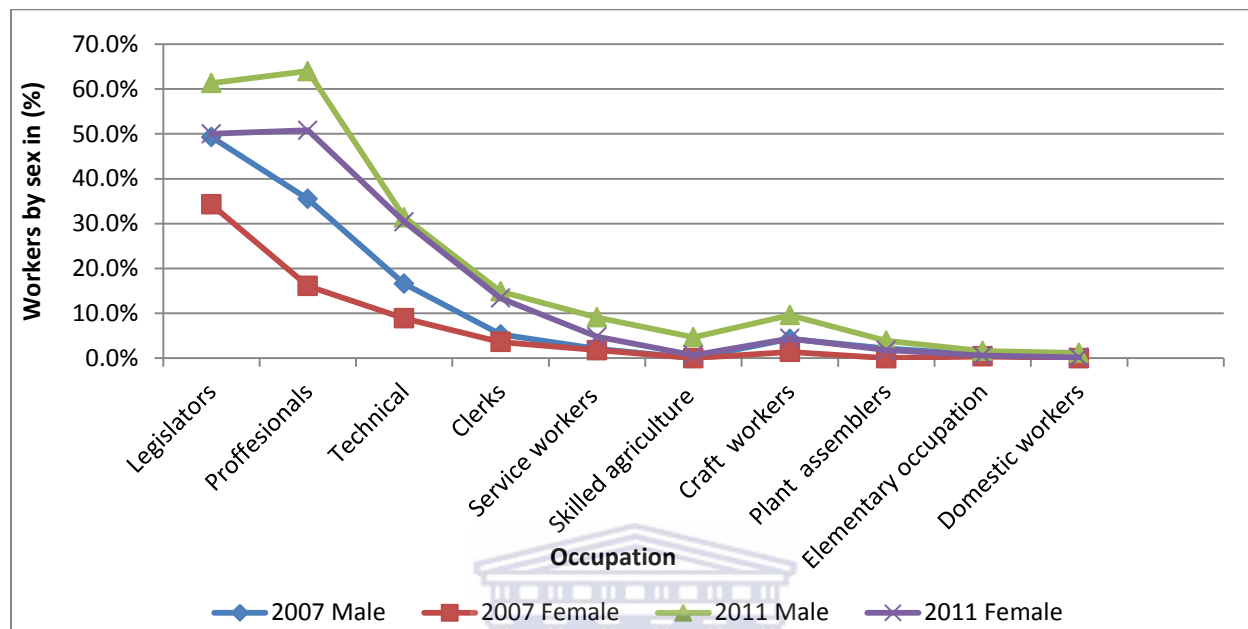


Collating these results to 2011 indicates some transitions in the income distribution by occupation Appendix 14. At first, the change is visible between those that were earning nothing moneywise in the first category. Contrary to 2007, while in some occupations there were both males and females within the high skilled occupations (legislators, senior officials and managers and professional) females remained in excess compared to males. This could be an implication of the different decisions entry level professional males and females take in settling for unpaid work as a consequence of the demand for occupational relevant work experience. Indicating perhaps deterioration in education and training programmes aimed at providing workers with the necessary skills. Nonetheless, similarly to 2007 the income ranges from R1-R2500 were female dominated for most occupations. While the income categories that followed were male dominated in most occupations, professional females once more had higher proportions than males within the higher income categories. Along with this, in 2011 females were also more than their male counterparts within the income category of R11001-R16000. This suggests that within the period of 2007-2011 professional females experienced an increase in their earnings. This could, therefore be associated with part of the Employment Equity Act which exhorts equal remunerations amongst workers doing work of equal value. The same can be attributed to the

occupation of legislators, senior officials and managers as well as technical and associate professional, were females in these occupations dominated the higher income categories including the monthly income of R11001-R16000 in 2011. Notwithstanding this, in 2011 the income range from R11001 was overall dominated by males.

In Figure 16 the variations between males and females within the income range of R11001 and more are illustrated. What is demonstrated is a similar trend for the legislators, senior officials and managers and professional occupations. The two occupations constituted the most substantial gap compared to other occupations for both 2007 and 2011. Moreover, in 2011 there was however a slight decline in the gap for both occupations and it can be attributed to the fact that females by this year dominated the income category of R11001-R16000. Nonetheless the technical associate and professionals as well as clerks occupations also indicated similar results to each other by 2011 in terms of the gap. Although in 2007 for clerks the gap was already narrowing, it means there has been a consistent trend within this occupation. Thus within this occupation females and males were almost the same proportion although males remained more. Service workers and shop and market sales as well as and craft and related trade workers reflect findings that are similar in that, by 2011 the gap widened as compared to 2007. The same is observed for skilled agriculture fishery workers as well as plant and machine operators and assemblers although their increase was slightly lower. Lastly for elementary and domestic workers (lower skilled occupations) generally they had the lowest percentage within this income category as a result there was no precise gap indicated. Overall what these results show is an increased gap within the high skilled occupations while in semi-skilled occupations the gap is not substantial. These results indicate as suggested by Barnard and Martin (2013) that these discrepancies in earnings could be due to discrimination and bias on females within the labour market.

Figure 16: Proportion of workers by province earning R11001 and more for 2007 and 2011

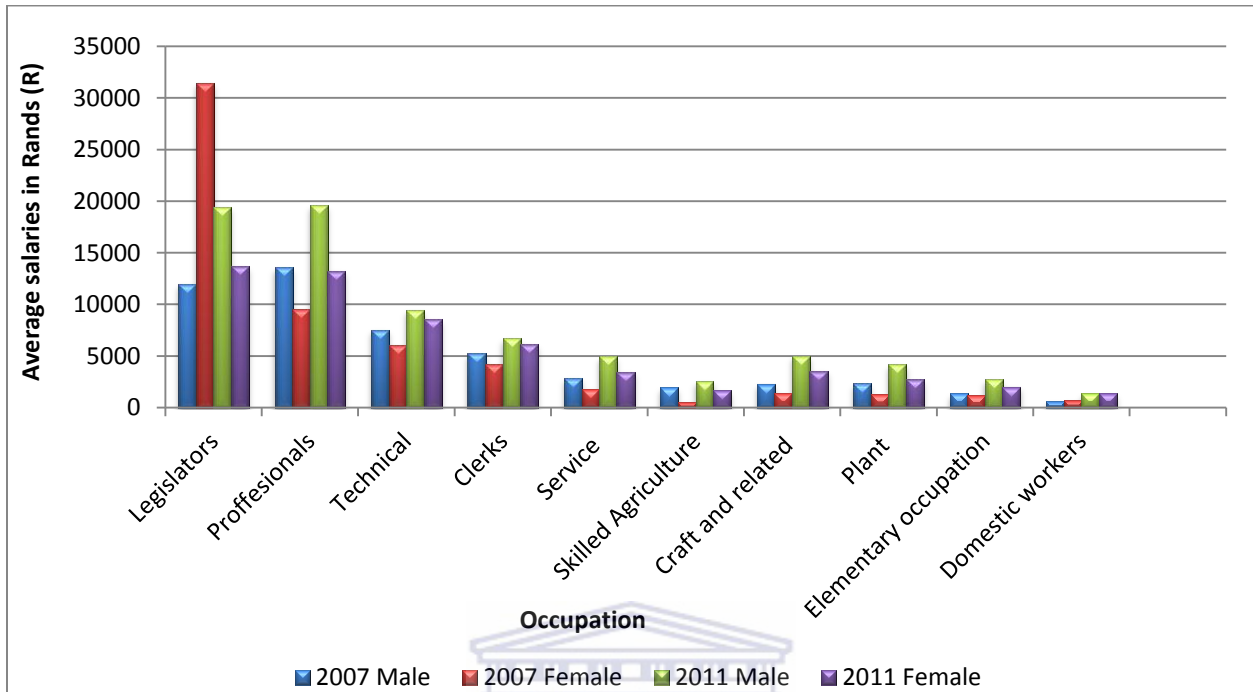


Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Legislators=Legislators, senior officials and managers, Technical=Technical and associate professionals, Service workers=Service workers and shop and market sales workers, Skilled agriculture =Skilled agriculture and fishery workers, Craft workers=craft and related trade workers and Plant and assemblers=Plant and machine operators and assemblers

Nonetheless similarities in the distribution of salaries are also indicated in Figure 17. For salaries, also the highest average salaries are in the legislators, senior officials and managers and professional occupations. However with the former occupation there seem to be an outlier with female salaries. Perhaps there was an error made during data capturing. However male earnings by 2011 were highest for males in all the occupations. Once more the gap is highest within high skill occupations and this could be due to the fact that earnings within these occupations are high. Also as been found in the income analysis, the gap seems to be low within technical and associate professional and clerk occupations, however more so for the latter occupation. Therefore in essence, males have higher earnings than females even in those traditionally female occupations. This reiteratively implies some form of discrimination even within the same work done.

Figure 17: Average earnings by occupation 2007 and 2011



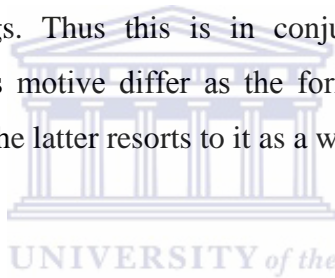
Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Legislators=Legislators, senior officials and managers, Technical=Technical and associate professionals, Service workers=Service workers and shop and market sales workers, Skilled agriculture =Skilled agriculture and fishery workers, Craft workers=craft and related trade workers and Plant and assemblers=Plant and machine operators and assemblers

5.2.8. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by type of business

It has been emphasized that the labour market is a segmented entity where males and female's earnings distribution varies in terms of the type of business of which they work. According to Chatterjee et al (2007) the earning differential in the private sector is larger compared to the public sector for Britain. In South Africa, the same was found, the earning differential was prevalent within the private sector compared to the public (Bosch, 2006). Also pointed out, was that the premium to self-employment is more for males than it is for females, implying negative implications of self-employment for females.

In the first income category, males and females within government had equal proportions whilst in non-profit and private organizations there were more females than males Appendix 15. Within those who were earning within the income range of R1-R1500, females in all of the business type were in excess than their male counterparts. As a result, the income categories that followed were mostly male dominated. Granting all this, there was some income categories that females dominated for instance self-employed females were in excess in the income range of R2501 to R4500. Those females working within the private sector had higher proportion in income ranges of R4501-R6000 and R8001-R11000. While females working in government were higher than their male counterparts within income of R6001-R8000, those working within non-profit organizations dominated monthly incomes within the range of R4501 to R11000. Therefore this entails that females in non-profit organizations earned higher compared to those that were self-employed and working within the government. Furthermore inferred here is that those that were self-employed had lower earnings. Thus this is in conjunction with what Becker (1998) suggested, that male and female's motive differ as the former utilize self employment as an entrepreneurial opportunity while the latter resorts to it as a way to get subsistence returns.



Nevertheless, when these findings are examined to the results of 2011, they highlight differences within the types of businesses Appendix 16. First amongst those that were not earning, were more females than males in government. For the private enterprise, similar proportions of males and females were found. Thus given the fact that government is the regulator of labour legislatures, this implies inconsistencies in promoting equality. Moreover, the income range of R1 to R1500 for this year was dominated by females within government and private businesses. On the contrary within non-profit organization, females for this year had higher proportions than their male counterparts from the income of R1 to R4500. Despite this, males within non-profit organizations dominated all the income categories that followed. Henceforth, females within government for this year were higher in proportions than their male counterparts in the income range of R8000 to R16000. Likewise for private, female domination was also within the income category of R11-R16000. This means that there was a drastic decline in female earnings within non-profit organizations, considering the fact that they were more within income of R4501 to R11000 in 2007. This could be an indication of a decline in equality practices within these

organizations. On the contrary government highlights a proliferate change and this reflects considerable equality practices.

Although the changes have been considerable, males remained with higher proportions compared to females within the income threshold of R11001 and more illustrated in Figure 18. Thus within government, the gap has narrowed substantially for the respective period, while in non-profit organizations it has widened. Within the private enterprise, there are more females within this range although males remained higher in proportion. Again this indicates equity measures to have been implemented within government than other types of businesses. Self-employment was unfortunately not included in this variable for 2011, therefore could not be analysed for this year.

Figure 18: Proportion of workers by type of business earning R11001 and more



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

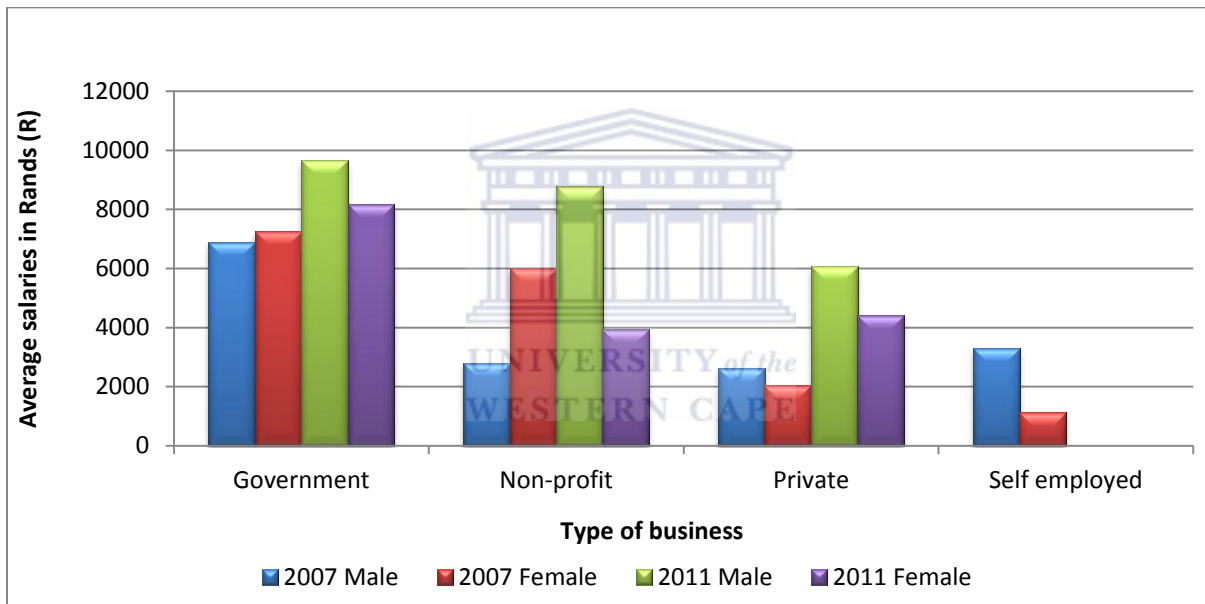
Government=National government, provincial government, local government

Private incorporates private households as well

Regarding salaries, different results are indicated in Figure 19 for the year 2007 and 2011. In government initially females had slightly higher earnings than their male counterpart, however

by 2011; there was a marked difference within the earnings of the sexes. The same is illustrated for non-profit organizations with females indicating a drastic decrease in earnings for the year 2011; while males had a sharp increase consequently causing an increase in the earning differential. For the private sector as well, the gap narrowed for the year 2011. Overall, what the results have indicated is that females are better off within the government sector due to the governance of equity being fostered within this organisation. Additionally the vulnerability of females in terms of earnings seems to be more within non-profit organisations (NGO).

Figure 19: Average earnings by type of business 2007 and 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Government=National government, provincial government, local government

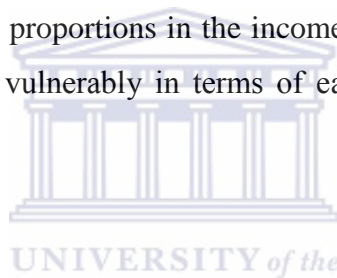
Private incorporates private households as well

5.2.9. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by work status

According to the Basic Conditions of Employment Act under Sectoral Determinations any person employed for 24 or more hours per month is eligible to the rights for leave and sick pay, overtime and public holiday and Sunday rates (Department of Labour, 2014). Although this is so, earnings within limited work duration are considerably lower compared and often precarious to

earnings in permanent work. Subsequently, Fouri, (2008) found mainstream of limited duration workers being, the previously disadvantaged encompassing; women and black unskilled workers.

The current study also indicates some disparities within income distribution of limited duration work and permanent work for males and females. Appendix 17 provides results demonstrating workers receiving nothing in monetary terms, being higher amongst limited duration work and out of this, females were in higher proportions than males. Moreover the lower income categories were mostly dominated by females for both work statuses. Particularly, for permanent work females were higher in proportions from income ranges of R1 to R1500 while in limited duration were in excess only from R1 to R1000. Furthermore, whereas males in limited duration work were higher than their female counterparts in all income ranges that followed, females within permanent work had higher proportions in the income range of R4501-R8000. Therefore this generally highlights female's vulnerability in terms of earnings but more so within limited work.



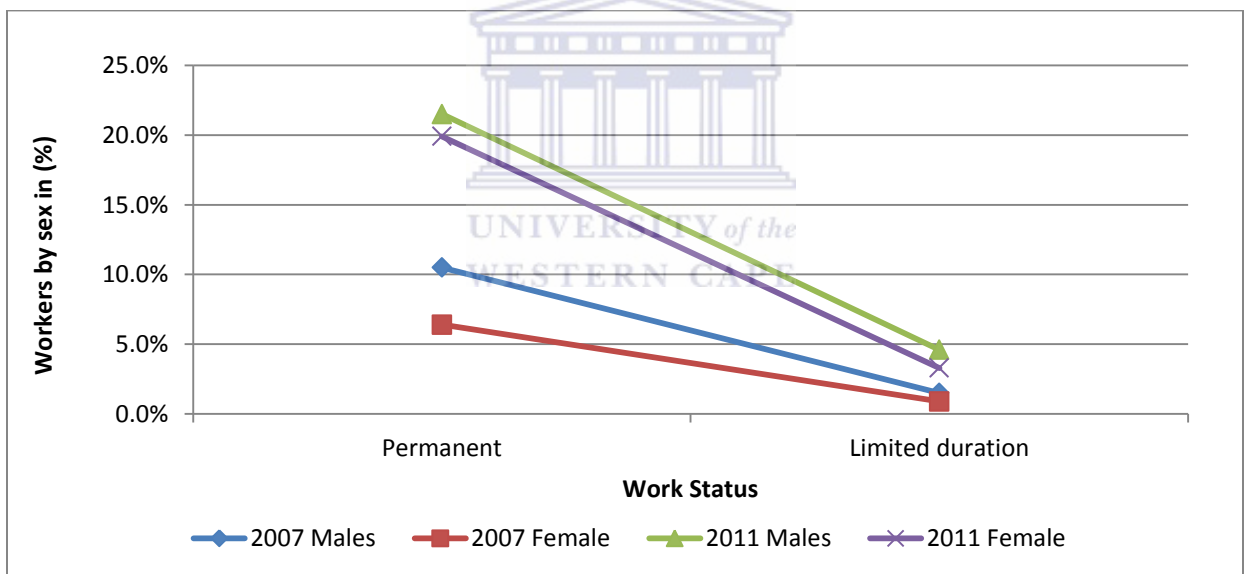
Comparing the results to 2011 reveal somewhat similar outcomes shown in Appendix 18. The lower income ranges were mostly dominated by females as yet, however this time in permanent work they also exceeded their male counterparts from incomes R1 to R2500. Also for limited work, females by 2011 were in excess than males from R1 to R1500. This suggests some increase in female's earnings within this time. However, once more males within limited duration work excessively dominated income range from R1501 and more, while females within permanent work were in excess than their male counterparts in the income range of R8001 to R16000. Suggested by the transition within the period is that females incurred some increase in earnings. This could be an indication of workplace sector training within permanent work and lack thereof for limited work. Despite this, males yet dominated the last income ranges in permanent work as well.

Figure 19 displays a shift from 2007 to 2011 of males and females earning R11001 and more. A highlight in the figure is the narrowed gap from 2007 between males and females in permanent work. Therefore reiteratively, illustrating an increase in female's earnings while on the contrary

those within limited duration work had been stagnant. In salaries the trend is different compared to the results for income.

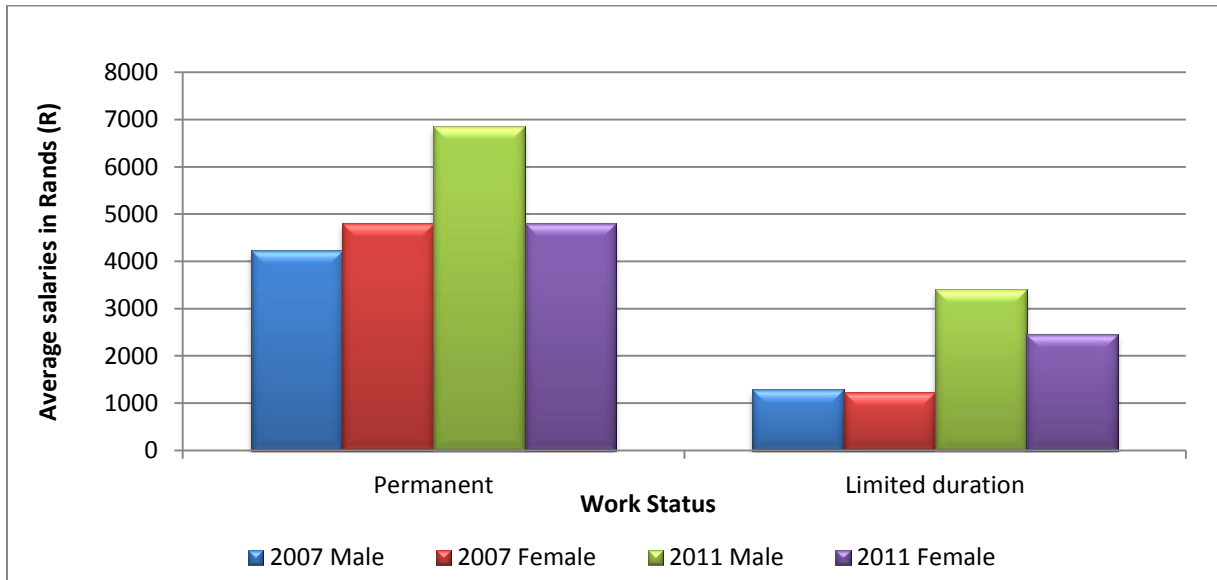
Average salaries by gender and work status are indicated in Figure 20. The figure shows female’s earnings within permanent work to have been stationery, whereas male’s earnings increased sharply from 2007 to 2011. Subsequently by the latter year females earned substantially lower compared to their male counterparts. Within limited work duration on the contrary, females initially had slightly low earnings than males, however the difference by 2011 had been marked. Therefore what these results suggest are the inconsistencies in equality regulations.

Figure 20: Proportion of workers by work status earning R11001 and more



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Figure 21: Average earnings by work status 2007 and 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

5.2.10. Gender differences in income brackets and salaries by union membership

The literature stressed that the labour market is a segmented entity categorized by a primary and secondary sector, with the latter being more endowed than the former in terms of earnings, job security and characterized by union membership (Howell, 2011; Herrera, 2013; Fields, 2009). This unionization has been highlighted to have been instigating persistent earnings differentials within these labour segments (Tati, 2010; Hofmeyr, 2001). What was suggested therefore was that the unionizations further disproportionate the earning distribution.

The current study thus reveal in Appendix 19 disparities in the distribution of incomes by union membership and gender for 2007. In the lower income categories from the lowest to R1500 the income range was dominated by females who were union members, whereas those who were not union members were in excess from lowest until the income group of R1000. Thus the lower income categories for both union and non-union members were dominated by females than males. As the income categories increased both union and non-union male members were in higher proportions than their female counterparts. Within the income range of R4501 to R16000 however, female union members were again in excess than their male counterparts. The same is

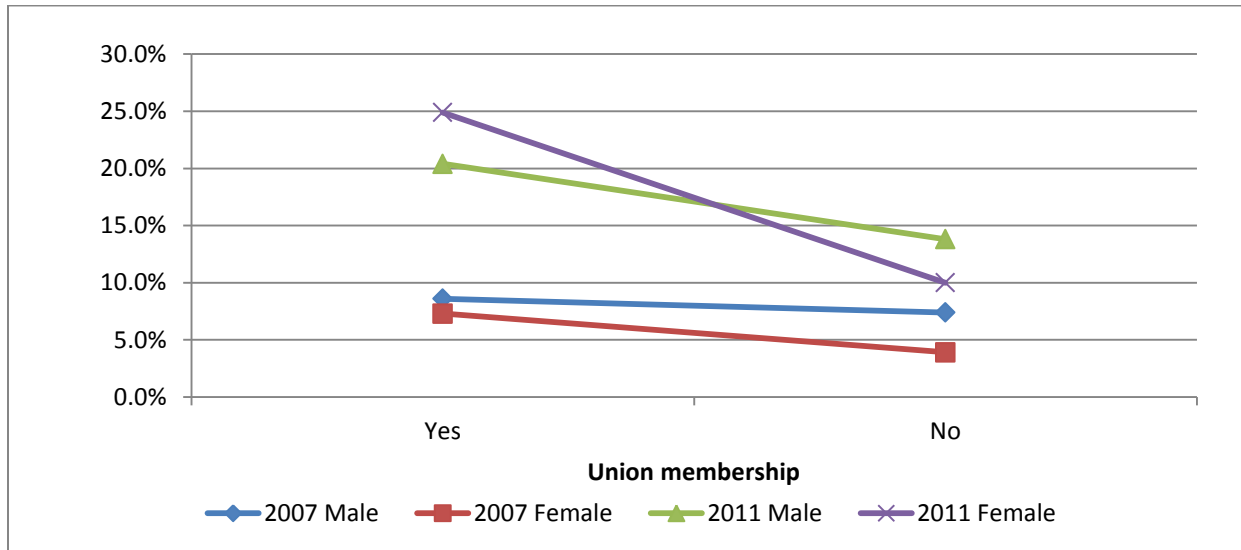
indicated for no-union female members, however with them, excessive proportions were only within the income range of R4501 to R8000. Female union members therefore clearly had increased earnings than those non-union members. Nonetheless for the last two income groups both male union members and non-union members were higher in percentages than their female counterparts.

Comparing these findings to 2011 reveal rather different results in that, by this year female non-union members were also dominating from the lower income to R1500; Appendix 20. Moreover, for the income range of R1501 to R8000 males had the highest proportions than females in both union and non-union memberships. This reveals a consistent trend in the lower income where females dominate with males dominating the higher income ranges. Nonetheless from the income category of R11001 and more female union members in 2011 exceeded their male counterpart's proportion.

Figure 22 demonstrates the proportion of males to that of females in the income range of R11001 and more for the respective years. What the figure highlights is the shift in female union members earning within the respective income range, so much that the male's percentage was lower by 2011. On the contrary, female non-union members were relatively lower in 2007 and remained lower in the year 2011. What the results suggest is a positive influence that the bargaining powers of union members have in the negotiation of earnings for females. Further insinuating this, are the results in salaries for the years 2007 and 2011.

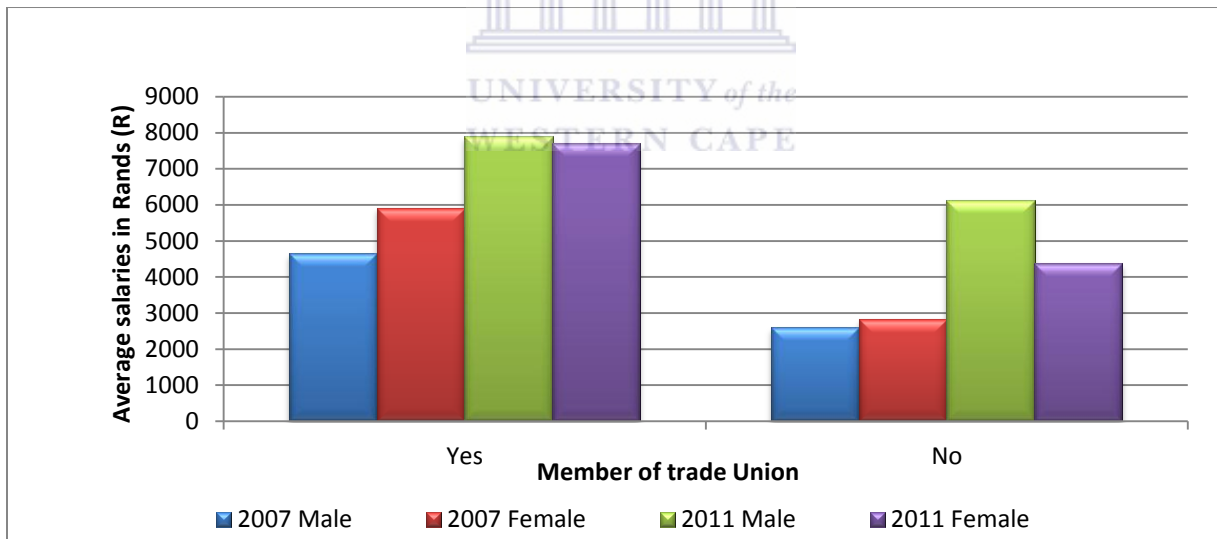
Figure 23 also indicates similar results; however the sharp increase in salaries of male union members by 2011, consequently resulted in a slight gap in union membership. Thus although females also had an increase in their earnings, they were relatively lower than their male counterparts. The same is reflected for male non-union members of which their earnings increased and resulted in a substantial gap for this group. Therefore the results overall suggest that the female-male earning differential is more within non-union members than within union members.

Figure 22: Proportion of workers by union membership earning R11001 and more



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Figure 23: Average earnings by union membership 2007 and 2011



Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

5.3 Multivariate Analysis

The previous sections of the analysis bivariate relationships were examined between the dependent variables and independent variables by use of cross tabulations and the independent T-tests. This section of the analysis therefore makes use of regression models to investigate relationships, taking into account the demographic and socio economic factors at once on the dependent variables. This is done to test the formulated hypotheses of the study.

5.3.1 Regression analysis of earnings by demographic and socioeconomic factors

Socio demographic and socio-economic factors have been highlighted to have an impact on the earnings distribution of males and females. Particularly, it has been contended that possessing certain characteristics (higher education, being married etc.) or working within particular industries (mining) or occupations (professionals) may yield different earnings of males and females. Thus the following section will accentuate on the binary logistic regression. The motive to using logistic regression is for the reason that the variable income has been handled as a dichotomous variable with a cut-off point around 2501. Choosing this specific threshold lies in the on the previous section's results, which indicated substantial variation on the amount of males and females likely to earn more than R2501. In this manner, the analysis utilizes Odds Ratio to further explicitly examine the variations; the significance of the relationship will be confirmed by the p-value.

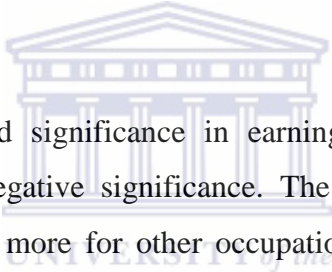
Initially, the multivariate analysis for 2007 reflects males aged 55-64 to have been 4.42 times likely to earn R2501 and above than those aged 15-24 years, shown in Appendix 23. Moreover, males aged 45-54 years, were 4.28 times more likely to earn R2501 compared to those aged 15-24 years. On the contrary, females aged 75 years and above were 6.87 times more likely to earn R2501 and more compared to those aged 15-24 years. In addition, females aged 65-74 years were 3.97 times more likely to earn R2501 and more than those aged 15-24 years. For males, the lowest odds ratios were amongst those aged 25-34 years (odds ratio = 1.71), while females within the same age cohort 2.20 odds.

The population variable was indicated significant in the regression model. Initially, white males were 9.12 times more likely to earn R2501 and more, while Indians/Asians were 3.64 more likely than Black males to earn R2501 and more. Also, Coloured males more than Black males, were 2.70 more likelihood to earn R2501 and more. The same trend was demonstrated for females, with white females being 8.3 more likely to earn R2501 and more than Black females. Whereas Indian females were 3.66 more likely to earn within the respective income range Coloured females had a likelihood of 2.33 to earn R2501 and more compared to Black females.

Marital status in the model was highlighted to also affect earning R2501 and more. Cohabiting males were 1.31 more likely to earn R2501 and more compared to those who were never married. Males that were divorced/separated were 0.63 times less likely to earn R2501 and more compared to those who were never married. Among females, those that were cohabiting were 0.70 times less likely to earn R2501 and more, compared to females that were never married. Married females conversely, were 1.14 times more likely to earn R2501 and more than those who were never married. A strong relationship was also reflected within highest education attained by the regression model. Particularly for tertiary education, males with higher education were 17.70 more likely to earn R2501 and more compared to their counterparts with no schooling. Likewise, those with matric/completed high school had a 5.53 likelihood of earning within the respective income threshold compared to males with no schooling. Similarly, males with incomplete high school at likelihood 2.78 while those with primary were 1.60 more likely to earn the respective income compared to males with no schooling. The same was reflected for females; females with tertiary education had a likelihood of 5.50 compared to females no schooling. Likewise, those with a matric were 1.70 more likely to earn R2501 and more than females with no schooling. For those females with incomplete high school, they were less likely than those with no schooling to earn within the given threshold. The same is reflected for those with primary school.

The Province measure also had a significant relationship with earning R2501 and more. Specifically, males living in Gauteng were 1.46 times more likely to earn R2501 and more than

those in the Western Cape. Those within North West and Mpumalanga were 1.44 and 1.20 times more likely to earn within the given income range respectively. Males in KwaZulu-Natal were 1.20 times more likely to earn R2501 and more than those in the Western Cape. Females in Gauteng were 2.17 more likely than females in the Western Cape to earn R2501 and more. Likewise, females within the North West province were 2.17 times more likely to R2501 and more than those in the Western Cape. On the contrary, females in the Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal provinces were less likely to earn R2501 and more compared to females within the Western Cape. In terms of sectoral fragment, males and females had similar likelihoods however at different units. Males in the informal sector were 0.35 times less likely to earn R2501 and more than those in the formal sector. The same was reflected amongst females, where those within the informal sector were 0.62 times less likely to earn R2501 and above compared to those within the formal sector



The occupational sphere indicated significance in earning R2501 and more, however the domestic work category had a negative significance. The regression model reflected lower likelihoods of earning R2501 and more for other occupations compared to legislators, senior officials and managers for both males and females. What this entails thus is that male and female legislators were more likely to earn R2501 and more than males and females within other occupations in 2007. Intended for the type of business males and females worked in, the regression indicated a lower likelihood of males and females working within non-government organizations (NGO's) to earn R2501 and more compared to those working within government. Males had a negative likelihood of 0.30 with females within NGO's having a negative 0.21 likelihood to earn within the given income range than their counterparts within government. The same is shown for private businesses; males were 0.28 likely than those in governments while females were 0.25 likely to earn R2501 and more matched to females working within governments. Self-employment also had negative likelihoods for males and females when matched to their counterparts working within government.

Directed at the work status variable, a significant relationship was indicated for this variable. Males and females working in limited duration work had less likelihood to earn R2501 and more compared to their counterparts who were working under permanent work. Males working under limited duration conditions were 0.30 likely while the likelihood for females was 0.22 compared to permanent males and females who both had 1.00 likelihood to earn within the respective threshold. In trade union membership the regression model indicated higher odds of earning R2501 and more within those that were union members compared to those that were not. Male non-trade union members were 0.35 times less likely to earn R2501 and more than male union members. The same is revealed for female non-union members who were 0.40 times less likely to earn R2501 and more compared female union members.

Pointed at the year 2011 the binary regression reveal significant relationships between sector of work, occupation, type of business and trade union membership and earning R2051 and more shown in Appendix 24. Therefore, the following write-ups present results from the 2011 data analysis, and tries to make comparisons to results from 2007. For 2011, a shift in ages for males was indicated, at age 65-74 years males were 1.67 times more likely to earn R2501 than those aged 15-24 years. In 2011, males aged 55-64 years were 1.49 times more likely to earn R2501 and more than those aged 15-24 years. Generally females aged 25 years and over were more likely to earn R2501 and more by 2011. Similarly to 2007, females aged 75 years and above were 1.68 times more likely to earn R2501 and more than those aged 15-24 years by 2011. Within ages 55-64 years females remained with higher odds at 1.45 than those within the ages 15-24 years. The same was indicated for females aged 25-34 years who were 1.03 times more likely to earn R2501 and more, compared to those aged 15-24 years.

For the population group variable, by 2011 the same trend for males and females was indicated in that Whites, Indians/Asians and Coloureds had higher odds of earning R2501 and more compared to Blacks. For White males the odds ratio was 3.40, while for male Indians/Asians they were 2.50 more than Blacks. Additionally Coloured males by this year were 1.24 times more likely than African males to earn R2501 and more. White females were 4.33 times more

likely to earn R2501 and more while Indian females had a likelihood of 4.28 than African females. Coloured females were 1.66 times more likely than Black females to earn R2501 and more.

The results for marital status by 2011 revealed that males who were cohabiting were 0.80 times less likely to earn R2501 and more than never married males. However, the divorced/separated males had a higher likelihood to earn R2501 and more compared to the never married. Similarly for females, while those who were married were less likely this time to earn R2501 and more than their never married counterparts, divorced females were 1.07 more likely than the latter to earn the give threshold. Married males and widowers remained with lower odds to earn the given amount than their never married counterparts. Correspondingly widows remained with a lower likelihood to earn within the given income range than never married females in 2011.

As in 2007, the likelihood of earning R2501 and more increased with educational attainment, where people who had higher levels of education were more likely to earn R2501 and more compared to those with lower levels of education. Males with tertiary education were 11.40 times more likely to earn the respective amount than those with no schooling. Once more, males with completed high school were 4.68 times more likely while those with incomplete high school were 2.56 times more likely to earn R2501 and more than their male counterparts with no schooling. Furthermore, males with primary school education were more likely than males with no schooling to earn within the given income range. Some differences were highlighted however for females, particularly with incomplete high school and primary schooling, who were more likely to earn within the respective threshold than females with no schooling.

Within provinces, for both males and females it was Gauteng and North West that had a higher likelihood to earn R2501 and more compared to females and males within the Western Cape. In addition to this, in other provinces the odds of earning the given income threshold were less for males and females compared to their counterparts within the Western Cape. The sector domain

indicated that males and females within the informal sector remained with lower likelihoods of earning R2501 and more compared to those within the formal sector for both sexes. Males were 0.49 times less likely while females were 0.52 times less likely to earn within the given income range than those within the formal sector.

Similarly within occupation, females and males within other occupation were less likely to earn R2501 and more compared to female and male legislators, senior officials and managers. Male professionals were 0.91 times less likely to earn within the respective income range while females professionals were 0.84 times less likely compared with their counterparts that were legislators, senior officials and managers. The type of business variable also indicated similar results by 2011, males and females working apart from government were less likely to earn R2501 and more than those in government. Males in non-profit were 0.90 times less likely while females were 0.72 times less likely to earn within the income range given. Likewise for males within the private segment had a likelihood of 0.51 whereas females had 0.36 likelihood compared to their counterparts working for government at 1.00 likelihood.



Correspondingly to 2007, the work status variable in 2011 revealed similar results for males and females in that by this time those within limited duration work were yet less likely than permanent workers to earn R2501 and more. Males under limited duration work had a likelihood of 0.67 while females had a likelihood of 0.51, which are both lower compared to their counterparts within permanent work. Moreover for trade union membership, male non-union members remained with a lower likelihood of 0.54 to earn R2501 and more than male union members. Likewise, female non-union members were 0.68 less likely than female union members to earn within the given income threshold.

5.3.2 Linear regression on earnings accounting for socio demographic and socio-economic factors

For this analysis, the independent variables that were categorical were recoded to dummy variables. Therefore within each variable, each category was made a dummy variable for

example the variable was recoded as such; population group, 1=white (comparison variable) and 0=other (black,coloured and Indian) and so on. Other variables like sector, work status and union membership were not recoded as they were already dichotomous. Additionally, the age variable used for this analysis was continuous therefore it was not recoded as well. Nonetheless, the following analysis is aimed at discovering the effects of the independent variables taken together on the distribution of the dependent variable (salaries) between males and females. Initially, socio demographic variables will be examined and thereafter the socio economic variables will be explored.

The regression model in Appendix 25 accounting for age, population group, marital status, highest education attained and provinces; the table indicates some of the categories within these variables that are significant for the years 2007.

Amongst variables that were significant was age, the model highlights a positive association between age and earnings for both males and females. What this means is that for every additional year there is an increase of average salaries for both males and females. Thus in this case, the model predicts that for 1 year increase in age for males, there is a salary increase of 52.66 with a Beta of 0.07 while for females the increase was 28.62 and a lower Beta value of 0.02.

For population groups the regression model highlights significant positive correlation for all the groups, however with hierarchical average increase in salaries for both males and females within the respective year. Initially, the average salary for white males than African males was R4981.31 while for Indian males it was R1296.99. For coloured's the average increase in earnings was R1105.55. Likewise for females, the average increase in earnings compared to African females was R5590.80 while for Indian females it was R245.13 and coloured females at 2303.59.

The findings on the regression model within marital status demonstrate negative association of earnings with the married, cohabiting, widowed and divorced/separated throughout for 2007.

This is indicated for both males and females, therefore it means that never married males and females had a higher increase in earnings than their counterparts.

Highest education attained indicated a strong association with salaries within the model. Particularly for males with tertiary education, the model predicted that for this group the increase as compared to males with no schooling was R6457.96 and with a Beta of 0.23. For males with completed high school earnings for increase by R1441.36 than that of males with no schooling. For females the same is highlighted however, with females the increase is substantially higher for tertiary level education attained with a coefficient of R10664.60 than females with no education. An increase in earnings is reflected for those with incomplete high school and primary in males and females compared to their counterparts with no schooling

The regression model on provinces indicates a positive association in 2007 for males in North West and Northern Cape than those in Gauteng. The former's earning increase was R1155.75 while the latter's increased accounted for R159.17 compared to males within Gauteng. For males within other provinces, indicated a decrease in males earnings compared to those males in Gauteng with the Eastern Cape constituting a higher decrease of R855.61. Nonetheless for females in all provinces reflected a decrease in earnings compared to females within the Gauteng. Additionally the decrease in all provinces was more than R1000 and decrease being in Northern Cape equivalent to R3818.39 followed by Eastern Cape indicating a decline of R3230.34.

Within factors involving participation within the labour market, the regression model indicated a significant association of earnings with the sector of work. Males and females being in the informal sector decreased their average earnings by R452.11 for the former and R384.59 for the latter. Moreover for occupations, males within other occupations indicated a decrease in earnings except professionals when compared to male legislators, senior officials and managers. Male professionals had R1688.46 increase compared to their male legislators, senior officials and managers male counterparts. Additionally the occupation with the highest decrease indicated was

domestic work equivalent to R5066.86. On the contrary females within all other occupation indicated higher decreases in earnings compared to female legislators, senior officials and managers.

The regression model on the type of business designates that males working elsewhere other than in government had decreased earnings. The decreased was R1996.51 for males working within non-profit organisations, while males within private enterprises showed a decrease of R1463.00. The same is shown for females working within private enterprises that compared to females within the government their decline in earnings amount to R2174, 79. However, contrary to males, females within non-profit organisations highlighted an increase in their earnings than females in government. The amount indicated is equivalent to R12105.28 with a Beta of 0.11.

The work status of males and females in the regression model for 2007 reflects a negative association with limited work for both males and females. Males working within limited work duration showed a decline in earnings equivalent to R702.12 than males in permanent work. The same is shown for females in limited duration work with a decline of R315.5 compared to those working under permanent work.

In terms of union membership, the regression highlighted a decline in earnings of non-union members that union members. For males the decrease in earnings was R454.19 while for females their decline for being a non-union member was R166.33. This implies that union membership yielded increased earnings for both males and females.

When these results are matched with 2011 Appendix 26, similar results for males and females were indicated. Once more males and females highlighted an increase in age results in an increase in earnings; Even so there is a decline in the amount of the decrease for this year however, for males being by R34.66 while for females the amount is for R16.56. Moreover, for white males in 2011 the increase in their earnings was even higher being R5752.53 this time, while Indian males experienced a decrease resulting in their increase in their earnings to be

equivalent to R1294.85 this time. Even so the increase remained relatively high compared to African males. For coloured males by 2011 indicated an increase of R1270.01 than African males. The same is shown for females with those who are white having R2759.27 increase in earnings than African females, while Indians had an increase of R1666.77 than African females. Coloured females as well yet had an increase in earnings of R558.56 compared to African females. Even though white females and coloured still had higher earnings increase than African females, for this year the increase was lower compared to 2007.

Nonetheless, for marital status, married males remained with increased earnings compared to never married males. And likewise cohabiting, widowed and divorced/separated males had decreased earnings compared to those that were never married. For females, a shift is illustrated in 2011, particularly for married females who by this year had an increase in earnings compared to never married females. Cohabiting, widowed and divorced/separated females remained with decreased earnings compared to never married females. Highest education attained by 2011, indicated the same trend however for primary, females earnings were positive but insignificant. Additionally, for tertiary education in 2011, average earnings remained at different levels for males and females. Meaning that even though an increase was demonstrated for both groups, males was at a higher level than female's. The Beta value was once more higher for tertiary education attained.

Variation is indicated within provinces by 2011; all the provinces males and females had decreased earnings compared to males and females within Gauteng. By this year a higher decrease was in Free State while the lowest decrease was in the Mpumalanga. For females as well, the lowest decrease was within Free State while the lowest was in Eastern Cape. For the sector variable, males and females within the informal sector remained with decreased earnings compared to those within the formal sector. Also while the decrease was declined for males, females on the contrary had a higher decline in earnings by this year. Within occupations, males as well had decreased earnings in all other occupations compared to legislators, senior officials and managers. However professional males had the lowest decrease nonetheless while skilled

agriculture and fishery male workers had the highest decrease. For females the same was reflected in that female legislators, senior officials and managers.

Within type of business the same was reflected for males and females in that those working in government had increased earnings than those males and females within private and non-profit organisations. Work status variable showed the same results as well however this time, the decrease within males and females working in limited duration work duration was higher. Furthermore for union membership male non-union member showed decreased earnings compared to male union members. The same is reflected for females, thus female union members remained with increased earnings compared to non-union members.

5.5.3 Key variables likely to influence earnings between the sexes

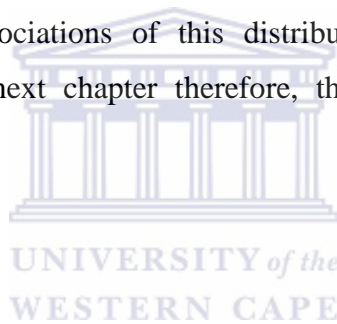
What mostly been highlighted by the two models are the differences in key variables that put males and females in higher and lower earnings. Initially with the consideration of other demographic variables age was found to increase earnings. What has been illustrated is that as one gets older there is an increase in earnings but between males and females, males seem to have privilege in the association of age and earnings than females. The population variable as well, particularly the white population was associated with higher earnings, however between the sexes males seem to have more prominence. On the contrary, for black and coloureds yielded lower earnings and between the sexes females had even lower earnings. The Education spline seems to be more advantageous for females, specifically tertiary education. Being married for males is beneficial in terms of earnings than females. Divorced females on the other hand seem to exhort higher earnings than their married and never married female counterparts. Within provinces Gauteng and the North West yielded more earnings for the two sexes.

For socio economic variables, the formal sector more than the informal sector had a positive association with female and male earnings. Within occupations legislators, professionals and technical associates are positively correlated with female and male increased earnings. Skilled

agriculture on the contrary was negatively correlated with earnings for both males and females. Working within government and being self-employed for males yielded higher earnings while for females working within government and non-profit organizations yielded higher earnings. Self-employment was negatively associated with female earnings. In terms of work status, both males and females were more advantageous in increased earnings if they were permanent, limited duration work yielded decreased earnings. Lastly union membership had a positive association with male's and female's earnings however more for females than it was for males.

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter has evaluated the earnings distribution of males and females within the labour market. It has shed light on the structural changes of this earnings distribution between the genders and highlighted the associations of this distribution with socio-demographic and socioeconomic factors. For the next chapter therefore, the results found will be precisely interpreted and discussed.



CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION

6.1: Introduction

The following section provides a discussion and interpretation of the results of the study. It constructs a thorough comprehension of what has been found regarding earnings differentials of males and females within the South African labour market. The discussion thus contains three subsections covered. The first being the major procedures followed in the research design. Also as the study is aimed at profiling effects of different aspects affecting the gender earning differential, the section that follow elaborates on how the demographic factors influence earnings. Subsequently socioeconomic factors on gender earning differential will be discussed.

6.2 Major procedures followed in the research design

The research was a quantitative study centralized on an analytical design. By use of the Labour Force Survey 2007 and Labour Force Dynamics 2011 obtained from Statistics South Africa, information on the demographics and socio economic information were accessed. These demographics and socioeconomic were utilized to determine the relationships between the dependent variables (salaries and income) and independent variables, some of which included population group, age, sector of organization etc. The research identified what association the independent variables had on the dependent variables when it comes to males and females earnings as the study aimed at establishing variation within the gender groups. Additionally variables were measured using the appropriate statistical methods that helped test the significance of the relationships found.

The study was a cross sectional design where a questionnaire was utilized by Statistics South Africa to collect information on questions formulated from a randomly selected sample. The spatial context included all nine provinces of South Africa and collected data information from household members relating to their demographics and participation within the labour market. The data was in SPSS format for both person file and worker file which were merged for the LFS

2007. For the Labour force dynamics, personal and worker information were in one SPSS formatted file and thus the necessary information was extracted from this file. The focus of the study was on those females and males aged 15 and above that were working seven days prior the survey conduction. The SPSS program was used to perform descriptive analysis by means of cross tabulations. Additionally T-tests, binary as well as linear regressions were utilized to model relationships. The significance of these relationships were tested using Chi square, Cramer's V, Phi, Lambda and Goodman and kruskal tau. Moreover, the significance of the study lies within highlighting fundamental changes of the gender earnings gap for the year 2007 and 2011.

The theoretical framework for the study covered a number of theories including labour market segmentation, gender and wage discrimination, human capital theory as well feminists' theory. Reason was to the fact that there was no unified theory of why earnings differed according to gender. Therefore as suggested by these theories, earnings are distributed according to personal characteristics, human capital investments and sectoral differences, the study incorporated all the factors that might help in explaining the differential in earnings between males and females.

6.3 Socio demographic factors and gender earning differential

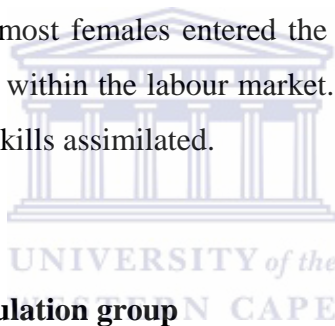
More than labour market productivity, gender earnings differentials have been highlighted to be a result of personal characteristics, therefore some of the demographic variables have been found to be relative to the differences in earning distribution between males and females.

6.3.1 Income distribution by age

As a worker entering the labour market, the lack of skills and experience alters higher earning opportunities and reduces them, however as one gets older there is an increase in earnings. Therefore the age variable seems to be related to earnings. To find the relationship with earnings and age between males and females thus the following research question was formulated;

What is the effect of age in the gender earning differential? The formulated hypothesis was that; Age increases earnings for males more than it does for females. The aim of this question was to

establish if age is more effective in generating higher earnings for males than it is for females. What the results revealed were results that confirmed the hypothesis. Male's earnings increased with age and then decreases in old age again for both years 2007 and 2011. Therefore males earn more than their female counterparts from age 20 years and above mostly. Females on the contrary have earnings that fluctuate with their ages, within those aged 15-24 years however females have higher earnings and this is reflected for both years in incomes and salaries. Female's earnings increase with age however decrease in early age than male's earnings. This could be a result of family responsibilities and also it could be attributed to the circumstance that females in their current forties (40+) are the ones that were affected by apartheid having Bantu education that was induced to African people as a form of demeaning (Africans). Hence, the discrepancy in earnings compared to the male counterparts. Perhaps in the next years there would be some changes resulting in females that are currently engaging in quality education. Nonetheless it might also be that most females entered the labour market at a later stage than males, due to previous segregation within the labour market. Therefore the discrepancies maybe in years of experience and lack of skills assimilated.



6.3.2 Income distribution by population group

The population group variable is important to the study because of the South African history that was characterized by racial divide. Therefore assessing the changes of the gender gap is important as to highlight the status of females within the labour market in general and within each of the population groups'. This informs policy makers of the effectiveness/ineffectiveness of the equity policies that already exist and the need to develop new policies that will be vigorous in eradicating inequality.

The results attempted to answer the research question; *How does population group relate to gender earning differential?* The hypothesis that was tested for this question was; the gender earnings differential varies within populations. This was formulated to establish if the gender earnings gap still varied within population groups, as the literature highlighted it varied due to hierarchical distribution of earnings by population group. Therefore results reflected in the

previous chapter showed discrepancies of the gender gap within population groups for the initial year 2007. The differential for this year was highest in the Indian/Asian population followed by the white, the African population and the coloured in this order. In 2011 however the results showed an increasing trend of the gap for the white population in both income and salaries. For both years, what these results showed is that population groups that are mostly characterized by higher earnings tend to have a gender earnings disparity that is substantial. Consequently, for the population group with the lowest earnings (African population) the gap in 2011 narrowed. Therefore as highlighted in the literature, this could be attributed to the disparities of earnings themselves between these groups. Consequently, perhaps the Employment Equity policy were easy to apply within the groups with lower earnings and the increased earnings within whites and Indian population has been the reason for widening gap for these groups.

6.3.3 Income distribution by marital status

The component of the marital status has been found to cause accumulation of earnings for males and females differently. For the reason of child birth and family formation, females have been the ones limited to labour market economic prospects. Therefore the research question relating to this variable was;

What is the effect of marital status in gender earning differential? The formulated hypothesis for this question was that the gender earnings differential varies within marital statuses. What was meant to be established here was how males and females' earnings within same marital statuses differ. The results thus showed that the earnings differential was substantial amongst those that were married. This means that married males earned more than married females in comparisons to those that were never married, cohabiting, widowed or divorced/separated. This implies the persistent outcomes of gender roles within marriages where economic benefits are more for males than they are for females. This maybe a result of what the feminist theory thus suggested, that the naturalizing of females being wives and mothers further persists the differentials in earnings (Code, 2002). Moreover this also implies the unequal disjuncture of family work in the household and the maintenance of the breadwinner model as persistent (Moreno, 2006). Henceforth, for this reason South Africa need to adopt/promote a family policy that will diminish

the breadwinner model to help balance the inequalities of earnings within those who are married in the labour market. Moreover, it was also highlighted in the literature that employers associate attributes with a solid work ethic related more to married males than females, therefore such persistent disparities could be a form of bias manifestations from employers. Nonetheless, between males, those that were married were more privileged in terms of earnings than other males, the same is reflected between females. Therefore this entails that the married are more economically established compared to others. Nonetheless, males and females that were divorced also highlighted increased earnings with a marked differential while on the contrary those who were never married had a lower income disparity.

6.3.4 Earnings distribution by highest education level attained

The significance of the highest education attained is that education has been established to be strongly correlated with earnings (Hanushek and Wobman; 2007, Romachondra, 2004). Females have thus been affiliated in attaining higher education; therefore like males in recent years have been attaining higher educational levels. Thus the question formulated for this variable was;

How does the education level of males and females affect earnings? The formulated hypothesis was that males and females with same education receive different earnings. The aim of this question was to establish if males still, even with females acquiring higher education have higher earnings regardless. The results confirmed that males have higher earnings compared to females even with the same levels of education. Therefore the findings are in line with what Casale established in her study for 2004. Thus given the Labour Employment Equity Act which orders employers to produce remuneration statements, it means that employers may not be following such procedures therefore, living deteriorations in males and female's earnings. Therefore as suggested by the discrimination theory males could be that they are being overcompensated while their female counterparts are undercompensated irrespective of same education level attained.

Moreover, this could be that the earning discrepancy is due to differences in years of experience between males and females. As human capital theory posits; worker's productivity maximizes

earnings (Kerr, 2011). In this case it means that education and training are a vital combination for competitiveness in earnings within the labor market.

6.3.5 Earnings distribution by province

The spatial context in terms of differences in earnings is an important factor because of the mere fact that some provinces in South Africa are well-endowed than others. Therefore, males and females prosper differently in terms of earnings, thus it may be found that females earn more in certain provinces while in some that might not be the case. Relating to this, the formulated question for the research was;

How does provinces relate to the earning differential? The formulated hypothesis for this question was that; the gender earning differential spatially varies. The question was asked to establish in which of the South African province the gender earning differential accelerates. What the results revealed was a substantial difference in males and female's earnings within the Western Cape Province. This was indicated for both years 2007 and 2011. What this highlights therefore is that inequality in earnings in this province is higher. Given the element that earnings are reflected to be higher within this province following Gauteng, it might be that the increased economic opportunities available within this provinces are mostly reaped and open to males. Moreover, this could be an indication that the conduct of the labour market is yet not followed, implying a lack of promotion for inequality in the Western Cape. The same can be said for Gauteng, although females within this province indicated higher earnings than females within other provinces, the gender differential yet remains. As the economic hub of the country, one would expect the inequality gap to be lowest within this province due to advancement of the province. However the results indicated a contrary outcome. The Eastern Cape and Limpopo showed a narrowing gap and this maybe explanatory to the fact that Limpopo constituted lowest overall earnings compared to other provinces.

6.4 Socio socioeconomic factors and gender earning differential

6.4.1 Earnings distribution by sector

The significance of the sector variable is that there are clear distinctions between the formal and the informal sector, with the latter “lacking the same rights and protection enshrined on the former sector by the South African labour law” (Leibbrandt et al, 2009; 15). Therefore the informal sector being more susceptible to unjust operations with regard to earnings and other work related rights (Leibbrandt et al, 2009; 15). In this regard thus the research question was;

In which sector of the labour market is the gender earning differential prevalent? The hypothesis formulated was that; gender earning differentials are more substantial within the informal sector. The results demonstrated a high differential within the informal sector. For both years 2007 and 2011, females earned lower than their male counterparts in the formal as well as the informal sector. Although the earning differential was substantial within the formal sector than the informal, females within the informal were also earning lower compared to their male counterparts. What this suggests is therefore a defect in the compliance of labour legislative that promotes gender equality within the workplace, especially for the formal sector of which of these legislatives most apply. Furthermore, it suggests that vulnerability for females was within this sector regardless of the fact that policies and protections of the labour market are enshrined within this sector.

6.4.2 Earnings distribution by occupation

The importance of this variable is the traditional renditions attached to certain occupation viewed as being for “males” only or “females” only. For instance domestic work and construction work are occupations traditionally associated with females and males respectively. Therefore there has been a decline in such perceptions recently as females have been found to be occupying traditionally known male occupations. Therefore the research question relating to this was;

How does occupation relate to the earning differential? The hypothesis formulated was that high skilled occupations constitute most of the gender earning differential. The question was formulated to establish if the earning differential within the sexes was within occupation. What

the results revealed was that within the legislator senior officials and managers, professionals and technical and associate professionals' occupations, earnings for males and females were high. However within these occupations, were marked differences between males and female's earnings, with males having higher earnings than females. On the contrary when looking at the semi-skilled occupations, particularly the occupation of clerks highlights a narrowing differential. Therefore with the results that have been gathered through the analysis, it can be deduced that the earning differential is more substantial within high skills occupations. Consistent with what Borat and Goga (2013) as well as Kiaye, and Singh, (2013) found, therefore implying that the glass ceiling effect in occupations is yet persistent in high skilled occupations. Also suggesting some form of discrimination and gender bias within the high skilled occupations. On the contrary the lower differentials within semi-skilled occupations may be a result of female's concentration in these occupations.

6.4.3 Earnings distribution by type of business

As the governing body of equity legislatives, females working within the government have been found to have better opportunities compared to those in non-government organizations. Thus for assessing earnings differentials for this variable, the questions formulated was;

What are the effects of the type of business one works in on the gender earning differential? The hypothesis that government organizations constitute a lower gender earning differential was formulated. What the results therefore revealed were earnings differentials higher in non-government organizations. Consistent with the literature, it means that females have increased opportunities within governmental organizations. Contrary, a notable disparity was found within non-profit organizations and this differential suggests a lack of equality procedures within these organizations. The same can be said with self-employment, although this could be not assessed for 2011, in 2007 females indicated very low earnings and this could be due to the different motivations males and females have for self-employment. Moreover, for males private organizations seem to yield increased earnings when compared to their female counterparts. Once more this is an indication of a lack of equality practices. With regard to equality legislative within the government, the point that there is yet inequality in earnings reflects some defect in

the application of such procedures within the workplace regardless of the narrowing earnings gap.

6.4.4 Earnings distribution by work status

Rights and protections of those working under limited duration work contracts were added in the amended Basic Conditions of Employment Act while the Employment Equity Act and Labour relations Act have long been afforded these rights. With this given, inequalities between male's and female's earnings should be reducing. The same can be said for permanent workers; therefore the formulated research question was;

How does work status relate to gender earning differential? Formulated as the hypothesis was; that the gender earnings differential is prevalent within limited duration work. The question was meant to establish the prevalence of the gender earning differential within males and females in permanent work and those within limited duration work. The results therefore revealed lower earnings for females than their male counterparts in both permanent work and limited duration work. With permanent, a shift from lower earnings was indicated in females however so as males' earnings increased from 2007 to 2011 so much that by the latter year the differential was substantial. Moreover the same was reflected for those in limited duration yet the differential was more within permanent work. What this suggests therefore is that females are more economically vulnerable in permanent work than in limited work contracts. Also what this indicates is distorted equality practices that yet prevails equality within the labour market.

6.4.5 Earnings distribution by union membership

The Labour Relation Act endorses unified collective bargaining, meaning employers and a trade union can negotiate a communal agreement, providing for shared negotiations (Department of Labour, 2002). The collective bargaining also includes the negotiation of earnings. However Casale and Posel (2002) found a large gap in earnings to have been within union members rather than between union members and non-union members. To assess union influence in earnings therefore the current study formulated the following question;

How does union membership relate to gender earning differentials? The hypothesis to be tested was that the gender earning differential is less prevalent between union members. What the results revealed in this regard, was a lower differential between male and female union members and an increased earning differential was reflected between non-union members. Therefore the results are in contrast with what Casale and Posel (2002) found, and may be due to the data used by them. The results do however suggest that union's bargaining powers in negotiating earnings is positively associated with female's earnings. On the contrary, being a nonunion member for females yields lower earnings. Therefore the continued gender earning differential is more substantial within the non-union members. The narrowing of the differential within union members could be a result relating to the element that union bargaining are endorsed by labour market legislatives and therefore may constitute an outline that is equity gender based.



CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Confirmations of hypotheses

This section outlines the overall empirical outcome of the study. The objective of the study was to profile the magnitude of the disparities of female male earning differential within the labour market. This was examined through the use of demographic variables which were; age, population group, marital status, highest education attained and provinces. Correspondently socio economic variables such as sector of work, occupation type of business, work status and union membership.

Through the analysis of the statistical data on earning differential, it can be deduced that generally males persist earning more than females. With workers earning below R2500 being females predominating compared to males. The chi-square statistic and tests indicated a significant relationship between age and earnings of males and females. The hypothesis proposed for this association was that age increases earnings for males more than it does for females. The study provided considerable confirmation for this hypothesis. The possible explanation to these differences could be in assumed responsibilities between males and females as age increases. In terms of population groups there were disparities in earnings of males and females within these groups. This was confirmed by the significance provided by Chi square and the Lambda statistic. Moreover, the magnitude of the disparities declined for the year 2011 for all groups, but notable within the two years 2007 and 2011 was that the differential was substantial within the white population whereas for the African population had minimal variation. A possible explanation to this could be that this is due to the general earning differences between the two groups.

Marital status indicated a significant relationship for male and female earnings. The hypothesis tested was that the gender earnings differential varies within marital statuses. The hypothesis was confirmed and when compared to others who were never married, cohabiting, divorced and widowed, the difference was marked within this group for the two respective years. These results are in line with the literature and as suggested, this could be the implication of gender biases on work ethic more attributed to males than it is to females. Therefore this denotes that marital status is a determinant of the gender earning differential.

Regarding education, the study revealed inequalities in male and female's earnings with same education levels. The relationships tested by Lambda, Phi and Chi-square were statistically significant in 2007 as well as in 2011. Males earned relatively higher than females for both years; however there was a decrease highlighted in the magnitude of the gap within tertiary education due to female's increase in earnings within this time. This could be due to labour law policies of Employment Equity Act advocating equal pay and the diminishing of gender biases within the labour market. Even so, males remained with increased earnings that their female counterparts in all education levels attained. Therefore it can be concluded that the earnings differential's in tertiary education is relatively low.

The gender earning differential has been highlighted statistically significant within provinces. The hypothesis to be tested for this variable was that The gender earning differential spatially varies. Within all provinces females have substantially lower earnings than males and the differentials was more within Western Cape. Gauteng and North West on the contrary highlighted a decline in the gender earnings gap. Socio economic variables indicated relationships with female and males' earnings as well. Particularly, the hypothesis that the earning differential is more prevalent within the informal sector was confirmed utilizing Chi-square, Lambda and Cramer's V to test statistical significance between sector and earnings controlled for gender. What the results revealed was a broad gap in females and male's earnings within the informal sector for 2007 and 2011. A possible explanation to this may be that it is due to the informalities of this sector that instigate averse willingness to follow labour market policies.

The hypothesis that the gender earning differential is more prevalent within high skill occupations was statically confirmed by the significance of Chi-square, Lambda and Cramer's V. The results revealed disparities in male and female's earnings within occupation, the differential was shown to be more within the higher skilled occupations, legislators, senior officials and managers and professionals. Therefore having females and males earning different earnings while in the same occupation indicates a probable explanation to differences in experience and skills of the two groups.

In terms of the type of businesses males and females are occupied in and their association to gender earning differential, the following was hypothesized; the gender earning differential is less prevalent within government. The Chi-square, Lambda and Cramer's V confirmed a significant strong association. The results revealed a widening gender earning differential within private businesses and non-profit organizations while a narrowing differential within government was indicated. Given that government is the facilitator of equity legislatives, the results were not surprising although one would expect such differential to be relatively lower given this element. Work status is confirmed to be significant in gender earning differentials as the Chi-square, Lambda and Cramer's V confirmed the statistical association. What the study revealed were increased earnings of males than females with permanent work and limited duration work. Therefore this confirmed the hypothesis that the gender differential is prevalent in limited duration work.

With union membership the hypothesis tested was that the gender earning differential is less prevalent between union members. What the results revealed in this regard, was a lower differential between male and female union members. The Chi-square, Lambda and Cramer's V confirmed a significant strong association. The results revealed a widening gender earning differential within non-union members. This could be explained by the fact that non-union members have no powers in negotiating earnings, therefore have little endorsement when it comes to this factor.

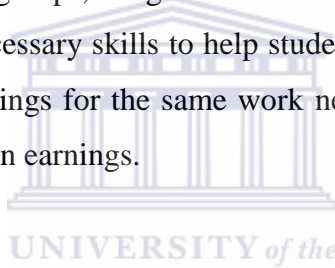
7.2. Recommendation

7.2.1. Policy recommendations

Provided the issues discussed above, it is recommended that robust gender equity procedures be implemented within the labour market. Current policies have been clearly indicated to be vitally important, given the differences highlighted between females working within government and those based in non-government organisations, females are general economically vulnerable within the labour market. Hence, women's economic empowerment should be a central priority in the outline of the labour market legislative dialogue. Moreover, a mainstream equal opportunity and justice measure for women empowerment needs to be implemented in the

workplace. As women's economic vulnerability is not one facet, policy makers also need to consider alerting culturally entrenched restrictions of female's participation within the labour market.

The rendition of the results highlighted as yet, strong inequalities along the racial lines. This is a significant issue considering the country's history. Policy makers need to find new strategies to tackle the racial inequality issue. Looking at the results, Africans remain with relatively lower earnings compared to other population groups. Therefore improvements related to education for this group need substantial consideration due to the great discourse and results of the current study on education and earnings. Government need strategies that will improve quality of education in public schools initially at the lower education level. Considering that the majority of the public schools are with teachers that were are affected by Bantu education and are mostly attended by previously segregated groups, the government need to implement new approaches to give public school teachers the necessary skills to help students acquire quality education. More so, the measure of equalizing earnings for the same work needs execution by policy makers in order to diminish racial inequality in earnings.



A strategic inclusive economic growth need to be implemented as part of remedying discriminatory elements to economic opportunity. As government has already implemented inclusion of designated groups in broad based economy through Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE), an all-encompassing regulatory system based on a productivity growth endeavor should be an emphasis. This is an essential element to a successful growth strategy and to effectively use available resources and regulate competitiveness into markets. Moreover, a more commitment to access resources, markets and unbiased regulatory scheme will intrinsically assist even more with productivity growth under consideration. Furthermore the outline of affirmative action must be reexamined by policy makers so as to increase the effectiveness of this policy scheme. This is due yet to the lower status of the designated groups; hence a more robust implementation of affirmative action must be implemented.

7.3 Future research directions

For future research, the Quarterly Labour Force Survey should include the measurement of salary. Moreover, these surveys should take into account and measure the impact of migration on low-skilled labour, this area of research has the impact of employment subsidies in terms of gendered differences in access to jobs created among the youth.



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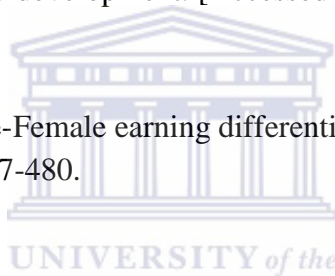
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Appendix

Appendix 1: Income bracket by gender and age for 2007

Monthly income in Rands (R)	Age group													
	15-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65-74		75+	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	938	1278	3767	3632	1179	608	280	256	0	0	703	0	0	0
	0.1%	0.3%	0.2%	0.3%	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
[1 - 200]	11829	9027	26648	15447	12541	23482	7100	22850	7388	9036	1806	998	191	0
	1.7%	2.3%	1.3%	1.1%	0.9%	2.1%	0.7%	2.9%	1.8%	3.1%	3.5%	3.9%	2.8%	0.0%
[201-500]	54730	38832	68705	114814	43101	109415	34368	85776	18274	36524	4747	5894	234	185
	8.0%	9.8%	3.3%	7.9%	3.0%	9.9%	3.5%	10.8%	4.5%	12.4%	9.1%	22.8%	3.5%	5.5%
[501-1000]	132894	98118	290609	299876	169853	223361	100372	159156	49643	55498	11040	6459	1265	937
	19.4%	24.7%	13.9%	20.7%	11.8%	20.3%	10.3%	20.1%	12.3%	18.8%	21.2%	25.0%	18.9%	27.9%
[1001-1500]	159999	66738	356013	213602	169162	127879	88153	95778	41779	35127	8082	1154	431	738
	23.4%	16.8%	17.0%	14.7%	11.8%	11.6%	9.0%	12.1%	10.4%	11.9%	15.5%	4.5%	6.4%	22.0%
[1501-2500]	149069	85447	500591	206533	303980	149651	157213	104997	63654	38517	8037	2705	832	0
	21.8%	21.5%	23.9%	14.2%	21.1%	13.6%	16.1%	13.3%	15.8%	13.0%	15.4%	10.5%	12.4%	0.0%
[2501-3500]	61119	38850	245563	126431	213994	77771	145782	63584	62248	29520	2625	1280	0	1497
	8.9%	9.8%	11.7%	8.7%	14.9%	7.1%	15.0%	8.0%	15.4%	10.0%	5.0%	4.9%	0.0%	44.6%
[3501-4500]	41966	23526	145437	101047	98674	60575	86894	42446	18822	15681	1902	1331	0	0
	6.1%	5.9%	7.0%	7.0%	6.9%	5.5%	8.9%	5.4%	4.7%	5.3%	3.6%	5.1%	0.0%	0.0%
[4501-6000]	24794	19968	127961	123563	100679	89670	87757	58051	42402	25730	4957	3298	725	0
	3.6%	5.0%	6.1%	8.5%	7.0%	8.1%	9.0%	7.3%	10.5%	8.7%	9.5%	12.8%	10.8%	0.0%
[6001-8000]	26265	11803	107623	130251	97599	87057	60688	58275	25258	12924	1050	642	24	0
	3.8%	3.0%	5.1%	9.0%	6.8%	7.9%	6.2%	7.4%	6.3%	4.4%	2.0%	2.5%	0.4%	0.0%
[8001-11000]	11167	1017	90357	50035	96672	86316	86752	56181	28196	21489	4665	311	0	0
	1.6%	0.3%	4.3%	3.4%	6.7%	7.8%	8.9%	7.1%	7.0%	7.3%	8.9%	1.2%	0.0%	0.0%
[11001-16000]	9238	260	64271	42589	70442	32000	55892	28316	22855	11345	2271	1794	568	0
	1.4%	0.1%	3.1%	2.9%	4.9%	2.9%	5.7%	3.6%	5.7%	3.8%	4.4%	6.9%	8.5%	0.0%
[16001-30000]	0	1728	52141	14616	46700	27843	29668	8595	20887	3972	286	0	2436	0
	0.0%	0.4%	2.5%	1.0%	3.2%	2.5%	3.0%	1.1%	5.2%	1.3%	0.5%	0.0%	36.3%	0.0%
[30001 or more]	0	0	12214	9707	13781	4637	33779	6921	1923	0	0	0	0	0
	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%	0.7%	1.0%	0.4%	3.5%	0.9%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Total	684008	396592	2091900	1452143	1438357	1100265	974698	791182	403329	295363	52171	25866	6706	3357
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 2: Income bracket by gender and age for 2011

Monthly income in Rands (R)	Age group													
	15-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65-74		75+	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	1479	0	3538	3584	3547	3570	526	1560	887	824	0	0	0	0
	0.2%	0.0%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%	0.2%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
[1 - 200]	3152	1367	8663	5495	2494	6182	3446	5511	2388	1798	0	574	0	0
	0.5%	0.3%	0.4%	0.3%	0.1%	0.4%	0.3%	0.5%	0.5%	0.4%	0.0%	1.8%	0.0%	0.0%
[201-500]	18310	20893	42689	68624	32065	74817	28362	61784	13118	23343	436	2358	217	303
	2.7%	4.4%	1.8%	4.1%	1.6%	4.7%	2.4%	5.6%	2.6%	5.7%	1.4%	7.5%	6.8%	11.7%
[501-1000]	72821	62388	134358	206819	108158	215801	71643	153849	37087	55504	1969	6122	156	512
	10.9%	13.1%	5.8%	12.5%	5.5%	13.4%	6.0%	14.0%	7.4%	13.7%	6.4%	19.6%	4.9%	19.8%
[1001-1500]	98976	65314	253759	223306	195060	231163	104340	157317	40277	52980	3113	3338	330	126
	14.8%	13.8%	11.0%	13.5%	9.9%	14.4%	8.7%	14.3%	8.1%	13.0%	10.2%	10.7%	10.4%	4.9%
[1501-2500]	174043	102911	518226	320677	363901	273730	185015	183762	69482	60745	3763	3528	574	0
	25.9%	21.7%	22.4%	19.4%	18.6%	17.0%	15.4%	16.7%	13.9%	14.9%	12.3%	11.3%	18.1%	0.0%
[2501-3500]	98513	60887	341972	174155	265030	154947	131717	94016	64484	26636	3338	1711	434	0
	14.7%	12.8%	14.8%	10.5%	13.5%	9.6%	11.0%	8.5%	12.9%	6.6%	10.9%	5.5%	13.7%	0.0%
[3501-4500]	44520	29686	206188	86622	168343	82450	86725	56255	28551	22758	913	2277	0	0
	6.6%	6.3%	8.9%	5.2%	8.6%	5.1%	7.2%	5.1%	5.7%	5.6%	3.0%	7.3%	0.0%	0.0%
[4501-6000]	43194	45746	183183	127282	192630	100406	120329	67221	47190	30603	2423	3659	258	350
	6.4%	9.6%	7.9%	7.7%	9.8%	6.2%	10.0%	6.1%	9.4%	7.5%	7.9%	11.7%	8.1%	13.5%
[6001-8000]	34583	29182	153097	100766	140093	92407	101873	68109	40385	25470	2604	1620	375	578
	5.2%	6.1%	6.6%	6.1%	7.1%	5.7%	8.5%	6.2%	8.1%	6.3%	8.5%	5.2%	11.8%	22.4%
[8001-11000]	33313	24000	169914	134030	170828	119905	100035	82921	35465	35798	3371	2918	0	411
	5.0%	5.1%	7.4%	8.1%	8.7%	7.5%	8.3%	7.5%	7.1%	8.8%	11.0%	9.3%	0.0%	15.9%
[11001-16000]	24594	23888	132369	124315	137107	163260	107105	106303	45908	39684	2371	1508	0	0
	3.7%	5.0%	5.7%	7.5%	7.0%	10.1%	8.9%	9.6%	9.2%	9.8%	7.8%	4.8%	0.0%	0.0%
[16001-30000]	15018	7024	124381	65646	136277	73592	115217	54792	51020	26702	3979	1467	370	0
	2.2%	1.5%	5.4%	4.0%	6.9%	4.6%	9.6%	5.0%	10.2%	6.6%	13.0%	4.7%	11.7%	0.0%
[30001 or more]	8267	1619	37112	15559	45546	16317	41828	8462	23793	3674	2288	210	456	305
	1.2%	0.3%	1.6%	0.9%	2.3%	1.0%	3.5%	0.8%	4.8%	0.9%	7.5%	0.7%	14.4%	11.8%
Total	670783	474905	2309449	1656880	1961079	1608547	1198161	1101862	500035	406519	30568	31290	3170	2585
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 3: Income bracket by gender and population group for 2007

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007							
	African/Black		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	6867	5139	0	438	0	0	0	197
	0.2%	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
1 - 200	62899	71412	4261	6136	0	348	343	2944
	1.5%	2.6%	0.7%	1.1%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.5%
201-500	205729	359975	13367	25477	3929	557	1134	5430
	5.0%	13.2%	2.1%	4.4%	2.3%	0.5%	0.2%	0.8%
501-1000	666886	735658	75387	82083	3981	8207	9421	17455
	16.2%	27.0%	12.1%	14.3%	2.3%	7.0%	1.3%	2.7%
1001-1500	713038	430298	90726	87235	9582	6804	10271	16677
	17.3%	15.8%	14.6%	15.2%	5.6%	5.8%	1.4%	2.6%
1501-2500	991597	376983	114641	139952	28815	23761	48323	47155
	24.1%	13.9%	18.4%	24.4%	16.7%	20.3%	6.6%	7.2%
2501-3500	571063	191467	84616	62477	26059	14150	49593	70839
	13.9%	7.0%	13.6%	10.9%	15.1%	12.1%	6.7%	10.9%
3501-4500	267907	124892	60344	38760	20322	13350	45123	67604
	6.5%	4.6%	9.7%	6.8%	11.8%	11.4%	6.1%	10.4%
4501-6000	240816	149220	52256	41918	21608	19605	74594	109537
	5.8%	5.5%	8.4%	7.3%	12.5%	16.8%	10.1%	16.8%
6001-8000	148740	121679	47793	43075	17717	10668	104258	125530
	3.6%	4.5%	7.7%	7.5%	10.3%	9.1%	14.2%	19.2%
8001-11000	124577	84529	41325	26836	18197	9814	133710	94169
	3.0%	3.1%	6.6%	4.7%	10.5%	8.4%	18.2%	14.4%
11001-16000	76919	40325	24439	18192	10634	4474	113546	53313
	1.9%	1.5%	3.9%	3.2%	6.2%	3.8%	15.4%	8.2%
16001-30000	26112	16593	5981	1456	4528	3884	115496	34822
	0.6%	0.6%	1.0%	0.3%	2.6%	3.3%	15.7%	5.3%
30001 or more	17246	12971	7146	0	7273	1395	30032	6898
	0.4%	0.5%	1.1%	0.0%	4.2%	1.2%	4.1%	1.1%
Total	4120396	2721141	622282	574035	172645	117017	735844	652570
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 4: Income bracket by gender and population group for 2011

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2011							
	African/Black		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	9126	4102	452	659	239	0	160	4778
	0.2%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%
1 - 200	17257	18220	1552	2555	393	0	940	151
	0.4%	0.5%	0.2%	0.4%	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%
201-500	122965	233718	10786	16322	1446	99	0	1983
	2.6%	6.4%	1.4%	2.4%	0.6%	0.1%	0.0%	0.3%
501-1000	376955	633134	29913	51890	3932	3977	15393	11992
	7.9%	17.3%	4.0%	7.7%	1.6%	2.5%	1.8%	1.5%
1001-1500	590975	612859	76315	101378	10815	4305	17750	15003
	12.3%	16.7%	10.1%	15.0%	4.5%	2.7%	2.0%	1.9%
1501-2500	1097514	745815	168522	148707	20406	12704	28562	38127
	22.9%	20.3%	22.3%	22.0%	8.5%	7.8%	3.3%	4.9%
2501-3500	725444	351537	114443	97306	25419	20344	40183	43166
	15.1%	9.6%	15.1%	14.4%	10.6%	12.5%	4.6%	5.5%
3501-4500	422435	158035	62373	50381	22059	16058	28372	55574
	8.8%	4.3%	8.3%	7.5%	9.2%	9.9%	3.2%	7.1%
4501-6000	428546	197082	67737	54888	23498	20274	69427	103024
	8.9%	5.4%	9.0%	8.1%	9.8%	12.5%	7.9%	13.2%
6001-8000	308167	156900	54008	31129	28406	16523	82430	113579
	6.4%	4.3%	7.1%	4.6%	11.9%	10.2%	9.4%	14.6%
8001-11000	297569	213297	50740	44925	33962	17226	130655	124534
	6.2%	5.8%	6.7%	6.6%	14.2%	10.6%	14.9%	16.0%
11001-16000	210717	232759	52523	47147	32032	28678	154183	150374
	4.4%	6.3%	7.0%	7.0%	13.4%	17.7%	17.6%	19.3%
16001-30000	153907	88991	51014	24427	29810	19637	211530	96168
	3.2%	2.4%	6.8%	3.6%	12.5%	12.1%	24.1%	12.3%
30001 or more	40147	19329	15233	3964	6852	2352	97058	20501
	0.8%	0.5%	2.0%	0.6%	2.9%	1.5%	11.1%	2.6%
Total	4801724	3665778	755611	675678	239269	162177	876643	778954
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 5.1: Income bracket by gender and marital status for 2007

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007									
	Married		Cohabiting		Widow/widower		Divorced/sep		Never married	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	2470	1348	347	0	0	170	0	0	4051	4257
	0.2%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.2%
1 - 200	10590	19706	1176	4882	258	8265	0	3671	55479	44316
	0.9%	2.8%	0.4%	2.6%	0.3%	2.4%	0.0%	6.0%	1.3%	1.6%
201-500	46674	66509	9228	11993	5240	34069	360	3578	162657	275290
	4.2%	9.3%	3.4%	6.3%	6.1%	9.8%	0.9%	5.9%	3.9%	10.0%
501-1000	150369	142131	37466	30852	12684	65118	7788	13855	547368	591448
	13.4%	19.9%	14.0%	16.3%	14.8%	18.8%	19.2%	22.8%	13.2%	21.5%
1001-1500	150868	101471	38160	30603	9954	61478	9440	9566	615195	337896
	13.5%	14.2%	14.2%	16.1%	11.6%	17.7%	23.2%	15.7%	14.9%	12.3%
1501-2500	234974	105524	59506	29110	16624	54194	6243	9401	866029	389623
	21.0%	14.8%	22.2%	15.3%	19.3%	15.6%	15.4%	15.5%	20.9%	14.2%
2501-3500	157116	56649	30259	18670	11471	22824	3241	4514	529244	236276
	14.0%	7.9%	11.3%	9.8%	13.3%	6.6%	8.0%	7.4%	12.8%	8.6%
3501-4500	75014	45514	19344	13517	5483	18708	2616	1316	291239	165552
	6.7%	6.4%	7.2%	7.1%	6.4%	5.4%	6.4%	2.2%	7.0%	6.0%
4501-6000	75932	50857	10136	13223	5381	25343	2773	4772	295052	226085
	6.8%	7.1%	3.8%	7.0%	6.3%	7.3%	6.8%	7.8%	7.1%	8.2%
6001-8000	63397	56629	14954	10083	9323	19812	972	5041	229862	209386
	5.7%	7.9%	5.6%	5.3%	10.8%	5.7%	2.4%	8.3%	5.6%	7.6%
8001-11000	54724	46127	19188	12095	3880	20375	1870	3520	238148	133232
	4.9%	6.4%	7.2%	6.4%	4.5%	5.9%	4.6%	5.8%	5.8%	4.8%
11001-16000	51639	12868	18007	10216	1213	6666	3181	1572	151496	84983
	4.6%	1.8%	6.7%	5.4%	1.4%	1.9%	7.8%	2.6%	3.7%	3.1%
16001-30000	45405	9887	5866	1974	2308	5560	369	0	98170	39334
	4.1%	1.4%	2.2%	1.0%	2.7%	1.6%	0.9%	0.0%	2.4%	1.4%
30001 or more	940	0	4689	2566	2142	3930	1791	0	52134	14768
	0.1%	0.0%	1.7%	1.4%	2.5%	1.1%	4.4%	0.0%	1.3%	0.5%
Total	1120112	715220	268326	189784	85961	346512	40644	60806	4136124	2752446
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Cohabiting entails those who were living together as husbands and wives

Divorced include those that were separated with their partners as well

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 6.1: Income bracket by gender and marital status for 2011

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2011									
	Married		Cohabiting		Widow/Widower		Divorce/sep		Never married	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	2560	5425	406	1128	81	870	0	285	6929	1831
	0.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.2%	0.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.1%
[1 - 200]	6464	4946	1336	4583	545	1937	376	1339	11422	8121
	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.9%	0.7%	0.7%	0.3%	0.5%	0.4%	0.4%
[201-500]	38807	71191	12975	35832	4258	28895	4854	7540	74303	108663
	1.3%	3.6%	1.5%	7.3%	5.4%	10.1%	3.4%	2.8%	2.8%	4.8%
[501-1000]	135105	199918	55510	70536	10549	52204	6957	30900	218072	347435
	4.7%	10.1%	6.4%	14.3%	13.4%	18.2%	4.9%	11.6%	8.1%	15.4%
[1001-1500]	216550	205465	118535	91581	8126	42602	14371	26143	338274	367754
	7.5%	10.3%	13.6%	18.6%	10.3%	14.9%	10.1%	9.8%	12.6%	16.3%
[1501-2500]	415449	270015	214290	109334	14628	48942	16433	37268	654205	479795
	14.4%	13.6%	24.6%	22.2%	18.5%	17.1%	11.5%	14.0%	24.3%	21.3%
[2501-3500]	333269	176909	144051	47088	9290	21357	12482	25557	406396	241442
	11.5%	8.9%	16.5%	9.6%	11.8%	7.5%	8.8%	9.6%	15.1%	10.7%
[3501-4500]	222784	113097	86729	22731	6026	11442	10768	16950	208932	115826
	7.7%	5.7%	9.9%	4.6%	7.6%	4.0%	7.6%	6.4%	7.8%	5.1%
[4501-6000]	299891	164725	63233	28354	5863	16503	13923	20625	206297	145059
	10.4%	8.3%	7.3%	5.8%	7.4%	5.8%	9.8%	7.8%	7.7%	6.4%
[6001-8000]	232894	147626	53159	25244	4682	15719	15236	19056	167039	110487
	8.1%	7.4%	6.1%	5.1%	5.9%	5.5%	10.7%	7.2%	6.2%	4.9%
[8001-11000]	289775	203512	49819	22036	4269	14335	12975	29689	156087	130409
	10.0%	10.2%	5.7%	4.5%	5.4%	5.0%	9.1%	11.2%	5.8%	5.8%
[11001-16000]	276623	257973	35793	20381	3735	22141	15680	30815	117624	127648
	9.6%	13.0%	4.1%	4.1%	4.7%	7.7%	11.0%	11.6%	4.4%	5.7%
[16001-30000]	299798	140059	27928	11468	5511	8175	14035	15655	98990	53867
	10.4%	7.0%	3.2%	2.3%	7.0%	2.9%	9.8%	5.9%	3.7%	2.4%
[30001 or more]	119040	27960	8059	2425	1341	1016	4459	3640	26390	11106
	4.1%	1.4%	0.9%	0.5%	1.7%	0.4%	3.1%	1.4%	1.0%	0.5%
Total	2889009	1988821	871823	492721	78904	286138	142549	265462	2690960	2249443
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Cohabiting entails those who were living together as husbands and wives

Divorced include those that were separated with their partners as well

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 7: Income bracket by gender and highest education attained for 2007

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007									
	No schooling		Primary school		Incomplete high school		Complete high school		Tertiary	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	910	0	3582	1160	838	587	1537	2774	0	1253
	0.3%	0.0%	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.2%	0.0%	0.2%
1 - 200	6018	13190	28887	27523	26139	31343	6385	7542	74	174
	2.3%	7.8%	2.7%	4.2%	1.4%	2.5%	0.4%	0.6%	0.0%	0.0%
201-500	25707	49368	81076	134659	82639	149393	23746	47466	10627	8927
	9.9%	29.3%	7.5%	20.8%	4.3%	11.9%	1.5%	4.0%	1.4%	1.1%
501-1000	84400	67790	250806	253873	287621	342272	121525	162059	9547	14304
	32.4%	40.2%	23.3%	39.1%	15.1%	27.2%	7.6%	13.8%	1.2%	1.8%
1001-1500	49990	17004	205449	110434	351968	249728	192893	145658	21207	15813
	19.2%	10.1%	19.1%	17.0%	18.4%	19.9%	12.0%	12.4%	2.8%	2.0%
1501-2500	48033	9943	248594	74581	491499	237320	353078	223472	36523	41168
	18.4%	5.9%	23.1%	11.5%	25.7%	18.9%	22.0%	19.0%	4.7%	5.2%
2501-3500	24805	8744	146035	25418	277098	100025	231614	158344	44160	45787
	9.5%	5.2%	13.6%	3.9%	14.5%	8.0%	14.4%	13.4%	5.7%	5.7%
3501-4500	11303	1950	56300	10907	130398	46192	145424	112622	47362	72936
	4.3%	1.2%	5.2%	1.7%	6.8%	3.7%	9.1%	9.6%	6.1%	9.1%
4501-6000	7454	785	36799	6205	102945	46349	150658	118525	90459	148417
	2.9%	0.5%	3.4%	1.0%	5.4%	3.7%	9.4%	10.1%	11.7%	18.6%
6001-8000	693	0	8389	3282	71103	31844	137541	89182	99065	176536
	0.3%	0.0%	0.8%	0.5%	3.7%	2.5%	8.6%	7.6%	12.9%	22.1%
8001-11000	715	0	7287	623	50427	13640	112114	57985	140534	143100
	0.3%	0.0%	0.7%	0.1%	2.6%	1.1%	7.0%	4.9%	18.2%	17.9%
11001-16000	511	0	838	0	24733	7503	78816	40513	120146	65802
	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	1.3%	0.6%	4.9%	3.4%	15.6%	8.2%
16001-30000	0	0	476	0	7862	1484	39363	9736	104416	45536
	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.4%	0.1%	2.5%	0.8%	13.5%	5.7%
30001 or more	277	0	0	0	4203	0	9730	1925	46806	19339
	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.6%	0.2%	6.1%	2.4%
Total	260816	168774	1E+06	648665	1909473	1257680	1604424	1177803	770926	799092
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Primary school = Grade R/0, Grade 1/ Sub A, Grade 2/ Sub B, Grade 3/Standard 1, Grade 4/Standard 2, Grade 5/Standard 3 ; Grade 6/Standard 4 and Grade 7/Standard 5 *Incomplete high school* = Grade 8/Standard 6/Form 1, Grade 9/Standard 7/Form 2, Grade 10/Standard 8/Form 3, Grade 11/Standard 9/Form 4, NTC I; NTC II, Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10; Diploma with less than Grade 12/Std 10 *Completed High School* = Grade 12/Standard 10/Form 5/Matric; NTC III *Tertiary Education* = Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10, Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10; Bachelor's Degree, Bachelor's Degree and diploma, Honours degree, Higher degree (masters. doct

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 8: Income bracket by gender and highest education attained for 2011

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2011									
	No schooling		Primary school		Incomplete high school		Complete high school		Tertiary	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	334	863	3909	957	3295	1048	1803	1004	636	5667
	0.2%	0.7%	0.5%	0.2%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.4%
1 - 200	1243	1223	5046	7754	9473	8066	4155	2250	226	875
	0.9%	0.9%	0.6%	1.3%	0.4%	0.5%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%
201-500	9076	25559	53198	84572	56903	101533	14132	33179	1270	3642
	6.2%	19.3%	6.1%	13.9%	2.5%	6.4%	0.7%	2.0%	0.1%	0.3%
501-1000	28735	36814	117495	177527	182548	319785	78402	129061	12510	26292
	19.7%	27.8%	13.5%	29.2%	7.9%	20.2%	3.8%	7.9%	1.1%	2.1%
1001-1500	37716	41399	183632	162097	302044	321464	134940	169989	20952	26190
	25.8%	31.2%	21.1%	26.7%	13.0%	20.3%	6.5%	10.4%	1.8%	2.1%
1501-2500	33787	18611	223425	117895	639102	410819	346722	319344	51331	66985
	23.1%	14.0%	25.7%	19.4%	27.6%	26.0%	16.8%	19.5%	4.3%	5.3%
2501-3500	12992	2403	112672	26454	424352	193587	300424	231898	48119	50802
	8.9%	1.8%	13.0%	4.4%	18.3%	12.2%	14.6%	14.2%	4.0%	4.0%
3501-4500	8856	1472	63535	12046	204239	82055	217541	139790	35668	41328
	6.1%	1.1%	7.3%	2.0%	8.8%	5.2%	10.6%	8.5%	3.0%	3.3%
4501-6000	6848	1189	57485	8404	193590	58709	229529	187403	95179	117204
	4.7%	0.9%	6.6%	1.4%	8.3%	3.7%	11.1%	11.4%	8.0%	9.3%
6001-8000	4485	2367	30976	5222	127419	35196	219115	140844	84110	133609
	3.1%	1.8%	3.6%	0.9%	5.5%	2.2%	10.6%	8.6%	7.1%	10.6%
8001-11000	249	296	11648	2129	77176	25571	234369	149207	181939	221314
	0.2%	0.2%	1.3%	0.4%	3.3%	1.6%	11.4%	9.1%	15.3%	17.5%
11001-16000	1319	37	2311	992	49591	15875	164725	89004	227980	350609
	0.9%	0.0%	0.3%	0.2%	2.1%	1.0%	8.0%	5.4%	19.2%	27.7%
16001-30000	509	347	1590	764	39973	6026	97058	37002	306171	184098
	0.3%	0.3%	0.2%	0.1%	1.7%	0.4%	4.7%	2.3%	25.7%	14.5%
30001 or more	0	48	1375	304	8765	1793	18218	6824	123487	36685
	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.1%	0.4%	0.1%	0.9%	0.4%	10.4%	2.9%
Total	146149	132628	868297	607117	2318470	1581527	2061133	1636799	1189578	1265300
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Primary school = Grade R/0, Grade 1/ Sub A, Grade 2/ Sub B, Grade 3/Standard 1, Grade 4/Standard 2, Grade 5/Standard 3 ; Grade 6/Standard 4 and Grade 7/Standard 5 *Incomplete high school* = Grade 8/Standard 6/Form 1, Grade 9/Standard 7/F Grade 11/Standard 9/Form 4, NTC I; NTC II, Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10; Diploma with less than Grade 12/Std : *Completed High School* = Grade 12/Standard 10/Form 5/Matric; NTC *Tertiary Education* = Certificate with Grade 12/Std 10, Diploma with Grade 12/Std 10; Bachelor's Degree, Bachelor's Degree and diploma, Honours degree, Higher degree (masters).

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 9: Income bracket by gender and highest province for 2007

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007																	
	Western Cape		Eastern Cape		Northern Cape		Free State		Kwazulu-Natal		North West		Gauteng		Mpumalanga		Limpopo	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	0	446	299	1069	0	190	1260	363	3316	1391	0	0	280	1455	1040	860	672	0
	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%	0.0%	0.2%	0.3%	0.1%	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.3%	0.2%	0.0%
[1 - 200]	2065	2832	13484	16115	1324	2112	10809	17554	6673	8861	5422	10192	20982	11701	2745	4303	3998	7170
	0.3%	0.4%	2.6%	3.5%	1.0%	2.6%	2.8%	6.7%	0.7%	1.2%	1.2%	3.6%	1.3%	1.2%	0.7%	1.7%	1.2%	2.6%
[201-500]	10717	17753	56875	91778	6246	10056	24050	44968	37764	88261	20857	29456	31442	47344	19787	27774	16421	34049
	1.3%	2.5%	10.9%	20.0%	4.5%	12.2%	6.2%	17.0%	4.0%	11.8%	4.5%	10.4%	1.9%	4.7%	5.0%	10.8%	4.7%	12.4%
[501-1000]	72439	103974	75908	89713	34167	23053	73425	56775	162267	163755	78235	72011	110537	157758	88260	82293	60438	94073
	8.9%	14.9%	14.5%	19.5%	24.7%	27.9%	18.8%	21.5%	17.1%	22.0%	17.0%	25.5%	6.8%	15.8%	22.1%	31.9%	17.5%	34.2%
[1001-1500]	127890	123823	74138	41631	19944	9407	56999	32554	107817	103585	70978	38936	248432	133668	61462	35604	55957	21808
	15.8%	17.8%	14.2%	9.1%	14.4%	11.4%	14.6%	12.3%	11.3%	13.9%	15.4%	13.8%	15.2%	13.4%	15.4%	13.8%	16.2%	7.9%
[1501-2500]	194464	159047	85575	37033	23447	10993	58479	22583	207506	99304	83371	32246	423308	174010	61032	31629	46195	21005
	24.0%	22.8%	16.4%	8.1%	17.0%	13.3%	15.0%	8.6%	21.8%	13.3%	18.1%	11.4%	25.9%	17.4%	15.3%	12.3%	13.4%	7.6%
[2501-3500]	94549	72840	58927	25967	10320	8494	54053	15507	114704	61393	64216	23714	235342	91972	53341	15067	45879	23978
	11.6%	10.4%	11.3%	5.7%	7.5%	10.3%	13.9%	5.9%	12.1%	8.2%	13.9%	8.4%	14.4%	9.2%	13.4%	5.8%	13.3%	8.7%
[3501-4500]	60462	38642	27904	40164	10901	5768	26214	13780	69280	44887	34211	13645	113456	67660	22649	11017	28618	9045
	7.4%	5.5%	5.3%	8.7%	7.9%	7.0%	6.7%	5.2%	7.3%	6.0%	7.4%	4.8%	6.9%	6.8%	5.7%	4.3%	8.3%	3.3%
[4501-6000]	53235	42430	37695	33772	9751	4432	27874	22769	87366	66781	27360	21733	98620	85540	18937	17766	28436	25058
	6.6%	6.1%	7.2%	7.4%	7.1%	5.4%	7.2%	8.6%	9.2%	9.0%	5.9%	7.7%	6.0%	8.5%	4.7%	6.9%	8.2%	9.1%
[6001-8000]	51985	45871	32372	32865	6678	4657	18919	15566	54525	50840	23334	20028	89475	92681	21250	15565	19968	22880
	6.4%	6.6%	6.2%	7.2%	4.8%	5.6%	4.9%	5.9%	5.7%	6.8%	5.1%	7.1%	5.5%	9.3%	5.3%	6.0%	5.8%	8.3%
[8001-11000]	60362	49671	33184	36597	6558	2532	11168	13222	42427	25521	25005	15217	93972	49070	24501	11622	20633	11897
	7.4%	7.1%	6.4%	8.0%	4.7%	3.1%	2.9%	5.0%	4.5%	3.4%	5.4%	5.4%	5.8%	4.9%	6.1%	4.5%	6.0%	4.3%
[11001-16000]	43683	22783	15783	7891	4635	925	9640	7022	27913	19722	17909	3059	77381	48837	15732	3586	12861	2481
	5.4%	3.3%	3.0%	1.7%	3.4%	1.1%	2.5%	2.7%	2.9%	2.6%	3.9%	1.1%	4.7%	4.9%	3.9%	1.4%	3.7%	0.9%
[16001-30000]	25736	10551	7823	4210	2300	140	15771	807	17949	8401	3793	2003	68859	29051	5996	237	3891	1355
	3.2%	1.5%	1.5%	0.9%	1.7%	0.2%	4.0%	0.3%	1.9%	1.1%	0.8%	0.7%	4.2%	2.9%	1.5%	0.1%	1.1%	0.5%
[30001 or more]	14013	6496	2178	575	1873	0	1101	289	11294	3296	6331	0	20803	10351	2313	257	1791	0
	1.7%	0.9%	0.4%	0.1%	1.4%	0.0%	0.3%	0.1%	1.2%	0.4%	1.4%	0.0%	1.3%	1.0%	0.6%	0.1%	0.5%	0.0%
Total	811600	697159	522145	459380	138144	82759	389762	263759	950801	745998	461022	282240	1632889	1001098	399045	257580	345758	274799
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 10: Income bracket by gender and highest province for 2011

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2011																	
	Western Cape		Eastern Cape		Northern Cape		Free State		Kwazulu-Natal		North West		Gauteng		Mpumalanga		Limpopo	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	1629	1924	748	171	282	90	503	256	1473	361	708	1460	2767	3552	1867	1153	0	571
	0.2%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%	0.6%	0.1%	0.2%	0.4%	0.3%	0.0%	0.2%
[1 - 200]	1358	2090	2337	3313	462	1106	3351	2781	1347	2287	1224	1240	4870	3838	1573	1740	3621	2532
	0.1%	0.2%	0.4%	0.6%	0.3%	1.0%	0.8%	1.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.3%	0.5%	0.2%	0.2%	0.3%	0.5%	0.8%	0.7%
[201-500]	8750	13002	32499	40622	4228	4849	19627	24513	25964	69011	8027	15852	11827	34151	9112	19327	15164	30795
	0.9%	1.5%	5.7%	7.7%	2.8%	4.6%	5.0%	9.0%	2.4%	7.6%	1.9%	6.0%	0.5%	2.1%	1.9%	5.7%	3.5%	8.5%
[501-1000]	31057	54093	50698	93376	13126	17361	44338	46852	75808	145968	31384	40271	77875	130789	43585	57253	58322	115031
	3.2%	6.2%	8.9%	17.8%	8.7%	16.3%	11.2%	17.3%	7.0%	16.1%	7.5%	15.4%	3.6%	8.0%	9.0%	16.9%	13.4%	31.6%
[1001-1500]	72444	112464	80131	61444	32652	22355	68566	45545	113884	146593	39568	38912	150517	188421	67757	57746	70336	60065
	7.4%	13.0%	14.1%	11.7%	21.6%	21.0%	17.3%	16.8%	10.5%	16.1%	9.5%	14.8%	7.0%	11.5%	14.0%	17.1%	16.2%	16.5%
[1501-2500]	221583	202256	110208	84110	31022	15631	76927	39758	257847	146797	70200	43679	357655	298661	96094	72039	93468	42422
	22.5%	23.3%	19.4%	16.0%	20.5%	14.7%	19.4%	14.7%	23.7%	16.2%	16.8%	16.7%	16.6%	18.2%	19.9%	21.3%	21.5%	11.7%
[2501-3500]	155713	105464	63768	38181	16673	7332	35382	21194	148044	79678	48671	18497	348154	193636	51871	29586	37214	18783
	15.8%	12.2%	11.3%	7.3%	11.0%	6.9%	8.9%	7.8%	13.6%	8.8%	11.7%	7.1%	16.2%	11.8%	10.8%	8.8%	8.6%	5.2%
[3501-4500]	81253	67302	31323	21399	9057	3864	32892	9997	78636	42487	35982	15315	208081	93993	35960	17459	22053	8230
	8.2%	7.8%	5.5%	4.1%	6.0%	3.6%	8.3%	3.7%	7.2%	4.7%	8.6%	5.8%	9.7%	5.7%	7.5%	5.2%	5.1%	2.3%
[4501-6000]	80655	70515	43324	37392	9210	8362	26420	21773	90829	52152	52506	21497	219137	138035	34678	14968	32449	10572
	8.2%	8.1%	7.6%	7.1%	6.1%	7.9%	6.7%	8.0%	8.3%	5.7%	12.6%	8.2%	10.2%	8.4%	7.2%	4.4%	7.5%	2.9%
[6001-8000]	67233	45576	32575	27345	9400	6551	19852	14797	68387	56285	35508	17035	170966	120160	41454	16752	27634	13632
	6.8%	5.3%	5.7%	5.2%	6.2%	6.2%	5.0%	5.5%	6.3%	6.2%	8.5%	6.5%	7.9%	7.3%	8.6%	5.0%	6.4%	3.7%
[8001-11000]	75758	68659	35552	38120	9245	6383	24148	16133	83832	66084	39146	17702	183721	153982	34046	17284	27479	15635
	7.7%	7.9%	6.3%	7.3%	6.1%	6.0%	6.1%	5.9%	7.7%	7.3%	9.4%	6.7%	8.5%	9.4%	7.1%	5.1%	6.3%	4.3%
[11001-16000]	73014	72791	35551	51158	7634	8242	21313	18402	71122	69071	28501	22793	153562	161278	29572	22560	29187	32664
	7.4%	8.4%	6.3%	9.7%	5.0%	7.8%	5.4%	6.8%	6.5%	7.6%	6.8%	8.7%	7.1%	9.8%	6.1%	6.7%	6.7%	9.0%
[16001-30000]	83942	42502	33111	23290	6607	3348	18276	7596	53143	27073	22670	7689	191806	98736	24270	8951	12435	10039
	8.5%	4.9%	5.8%	4.4%	4.4%	3.2%	4.6%	2.8%	4.9%	3.0%	5.4%	2.9%	8.9%	6.0%	5.0%	2.6%	2.9%	2.8%
[30001 or more]	31074	7919	14885	4886	1812	727	4476	1748	17911	4588	2579	364	71610	21956	10420	1159	4523	2799
	3.2%	0.9%	2.6%	0.9%	1.2%	0.7%	1.1%	0.6%	1.6%	0.5%	0.6%	0.1%	3.3%	1.3%	2.2%	0.3%	1.0%	0.8%
Total	985463	866557	566710	524807	151410	106201	396071	271345	1088227	908435	416674	262306	2152548	1641188	482259	337977	433885	363770
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 11: Income brackets by gender and sector 2007

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007			
	Formal		Informal	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	4019 0.1%	4695 0.2%	2291 0.3%	1080 0.1%
1 - 200	23334 0.5%	22102 0.7%	43733 6.3%	58738 5.7%
201-500	99712 2.0%	111383 3.7%	118658 17.2%	277004 26.8%
501-1000	532881 10.8%	428639 14.2%	216373 31.3%	409569 39.6%
1001-1500	680654 13.8%	374830 12.4%	137488 19.9%	163189 15.8%
1501-2500	1061326 21.6%	505897 16.8%	111190 16.1%	80000 7.7%
2501-3500	696405 14.1%	330570 11.0%	29563 4.3%	8363 0.8%
3501-4500	380468 7.7%	231752 7.7%	13228 1.9%	12855 1.2%
4501-6000	379293 7.7%	315697 10.5%	9334 1.3%	4143 0.4%
6001-8000	316312 6.4%	289032 9.6%	1553 0.2%	11278 1.1%
8001-11000	313864 6.4%	208485 6.9%	3809 0.6%	6863 0.7%
11001-16000	223085 4.5%	114716 3.8%	2452 0.4%	1588 0.2%
16001-30000	151255 3.1%	56515 1.9%	862 0.1%	241 0.0%
30001 or more	60734 1.2%	21265 0.7%	962 0.1%	0 0.0%
Total	4923342 100%	3015578 100%	691496 100%	1034911 100%

Informal sector = including domestic workers

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 12: Income brackets by gender and sector 2011

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2011			
	Formal		Informal	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	6170 0.1%	7723 0.2%	3807 0.4%	1815 0.1%
1 - 200	10748 0.2%	7903 0.2%	9395 1.1%	13023 1.0%
201-500	71023 1.2%	115016 2.9%	64174 7.4%	137106 10.9%
501-1000	264817 4.6%	313828 7.8%	161376 18.6%	387166 30.7%
1001-1500	518617 8.9%	428237 10.6%	177238 20.5%	305309 24.2%
1501-2500	1083041 18.7%	680248 16.9%	231963 26.8%	265105 21.0%
2501-3500	810738 14.0%	436488 10.9%	94751 10.9%	75864 6.0%
3501-4500	493509 8.5%	254218 6.3%	41729 4.8%	25829 2.0%
4501-6000	563491 9.7%	360992 9.0%	25716 3.0%	14275 1.1%
6001-8000	454818 7.8%	306616 7.6%	18192 2.1%	11516 0.9%
8001-11000	494435 8.5%	388705 9.7%	18490 2.1%	11276 0.9%
11001-16000	440609 7.6%	450836 11.2%	8846 1.0%	8122 0.6%
16001-30000	439147 7.6%	225015 5.6%	7114 0.8%	4209 0.3%
30001 or more	155404 2.7%	45981 1.1%	3886 0.4%	166 0.0%
Total	5806567 100%	4021806 100%	866677 100%	1260781 100%

Informal sector = including domestic worker

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 13: Income brackets by gender and occupation 2007

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007																			
	Legislators		Professionals		Technical		Clerks		Service workers		Skilled agriculture		Craft workers		Plant assemblers		Elementary occupation		Domestic workers	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	0	65	0	133	173	1201	0	1412	0	1457	0	0	1159	538	2728	0	2807	969	0	0
	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.4%	0.3%	0.0%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%
1 - 200	0	0	0	94	296	1759	1760	4941	2415	7354	207	0	20891	1821	5678	1109	32782	11979	3473	51782
	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.5%	0.6%	0.3%	1.6%	0.7%	0.0%	1.8%	1.2%	0.6%	0.8%	2.4%	1.7%	5.3%	6.1%
201-500	187	609	851	1585	5804	12353	3417	14526	13851	39136	877	1595	42203	14053	18396	6077	124191	73659	14381	226861
	0.1%	0.3%	0.4%	0.7%	1.3%	2.3%	0.9%	1.9%	1.9%	8.4%	3.0%	17.1%	3.7%	9.2%	2.0%	4.5%	9.0%	10.5%	21.9%	26.5%
501-1000	2828	2320	4193	2510	13046	25006	22925	48916	65849	105150	7903	3366	122776	34914	102637	23313	380947	236785	32572	360910
	0.8%	1.2%	1.7%	1.0%	3.0%	4.7%	6.3%	6.3%	8.9%	22.6%	27.3%	36.1%	10.7%	22.7%	11.1%	17.2%	27.7%	33.8%	49.7%	42.2%
1001-1500	3535	4362	5785	1609	15684	20561	29236	68340	161712	93268	6627	2459	184716	31613	112856	24862	288816	153964	14650	139060
	1.0%	2.3%	2.4%	0.7%	3.6%	3.8%	8.0%	8.9%	22.0%	20.0%	22.9%	26.4%	16.1%	20.6%	12.2%	18.3%	21.0%	22.0%	22.3%	16.3%
1501-2500	19990	8651	14969	8373	45075	48449	62092	138516	214642	106117	3899	1610	312930	33128	236176	48627	273092	125925	510	68455
	5.9%	4.5%	6.2%	3.4%	10.5%	9.0%	16.9%	17.9%	29.1%	22.8%	13.5%	17.3%	27.3%	21.6%	25.6%	35.9%	19.9%	18.0%	0.8%	8.0%
2501-3500	12331	16236	6305	14915	46232	40085	65495	119867	79445	39143	2431	240	168493	24433	213268	18469	137331	62746	0	2797
	3.6%	8.4%	2.6%	6.1%	10.7%	7.5%	17.9%	15.5%	10.8%	8.4%	8.4%	2.6%	14.7%	15.9%	23.1%	13.6%	10.0%	9.0%	0.0%	0.3%
3501-4500	13250	14300	15006	13023	33797	57035	38895	94601	53344	30346	2191	49	92385	5225	86095	6991	58731	20066	0	2971
	3.9%	7.4%	6.2%	5.4%	7.8%	10.6%	10.6%	12.3%	7.2%	6.5%	7.6%	0.5%	8.0%	3.4%	9.3%	5.2%	4.3%	2.9%	0.0%	0.3%
4501-6000	19978	27603	30474	36463	52943	109696	57566	119137	54170	16320	2024	0	64775	1336	67751	2485	39594	7101	0	139
	5.9%	14.4%	12.7%	15.0%	12.3%	20.5%	15.7%	15.4%	7.4%	3.5%	7.0%	0.0%	5.6%	0.9%	7.3%	1.8%	2.9%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%
6001-8000	42967	23297	29533	67492	69298	98215	35240	90900	42656	12766	2785	0	45438	2775	34305	1630	16284	1543	0	2333
	12.7%	12.1%	12.3%	27.8%	16.1%	18.3%	9.6%	11.8%	5.8%	2.7%	9.6%	0.0%	4.0%	1.8%	3.7%	1.2%	1.2%	0.2%	0.0%	0.3%
8001-11000	55874	28909	48127	57738	77069	73881	30491	43269	32515	6272	0	0	43238	1513	22650	2036	7845	1731	0	0
	16.5%	15.0%	20.0%	23.7%	17.9%	13.8%	8.3%	5.6%	4.4%	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%	3.8%	1.0%	2.5%	1.5%	0.6%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%
11001-16000	67952	24145	37639	27023	44518	34582	10617	21395	10648	5859	0	0	36314	2192	11969	0	5879	1038	0	70
	20.1%	12.6%	15.6%	11.1%	10.3%	6.5%	2.9%	2.8%	1.4%	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%	3.2%	1.4%	1.3%	0.0%	0.4%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%
16001-30000	68714	25199	28671	10489	24340	12830	5087	5746	3951	2491	0	0	9908	0	7129	0	4318	0	0	0
	20.3%	13.1%	11.9%	4.3%	5.6%	2.4%	1.4%	0.7%	0.5%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.9%	0.0%	0.8%	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
30001 or more	30236	16578	19193	1685	2895	0	3732	575	1386	0	0	0	2475	0	785	0	994	2426	0	0
	8.9%	8.6%	8.0%	0.7%	0.7%	0.0%	1.0%	0.1%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.3%	0.0%	0.0%
Total	337842	192274	240746	243132	431170	535653	366553	772141	736584	465679	28944	9319	1147701	153541	922423	135599	1373611	699932	65586	855378
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Legislators=Legislators, senior officials and mana Technical=Technical and associate proffesio Service workers=Service workers and shop and market sales worl craft workers=craft and related trade workers

Skilled agriculture =Skilled agriculture and fishery workers Plant and assemblers=Plant and machine operators and assemblers

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 14: Income brackets by gender and occupation 2011

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2011																			
	Legislators		Professionals		Technical		Clerks		Service workers		Skilled agriculture		Craft workers		Plant assemblers		Elementary occupation		Domestic workers	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	256	1271	0	3602	993	804	0	146	1463	249	59	172	2522	97	1304	494	3299	1363	81	1339
	0.1%	0.5%	0.0%	1.1%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%	1.5%	0.2%	0.1%	0.1%	0.3%	0.2%	0.1%	0.2%	0.1%
1 - 200	511	0	154	0	926	1008	0	1296	1025	1664	100	758	3486	279	1800	579	10508	4831	1633	10511
	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.2%	0.1%	0.0%	0.1%	0.1%	0.2%	0.4%	6.6%	0.3%	0.2%	0.2%	0.4%	0.7%	0.5%	4.3%	1.1%
201-500	102	833	144	1693	1524	13903	1977	10698	12732	33206	3133	720	13369	4883	12248	3474	86091	84707	3878	98006
	0.0%	0.3%	0.0%	0.5%	0.2%	1.7%	0.4%	1.1%	1.3%	4.8%	12.9%	6.3%	1.1%	3.5%	1.2%	2.2%	5.6%	9.1%	10.3%	10.5%
501-1000	5909	3420	4765	5579	15011	33763	11695	50129	52492	106393	2593	4545	64284	13001	58654	18344	199528	160055	11262	305763
	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	1.7%	2.4%	4.1%	2.6%	5.0%	5.2%	15.3%	10.7%	39.7%	5.5%	9.3%	5.9%	11.8%	13.0%	17.2%	29.9%	32.8%
1001-1500	7416	5744	3609	8582	24588	37040	21967	61127	82180	92350	8195	2394	98801	21856	104913	32265	333080	222730	11107	249458
	1.6%	2.2%	1.0%	2.5%	4.0%	4.5%	4.8%	6.1%	8.2%	13.3%	33.8%	20.9%	8.4%	15.6%	10.6%	20.8%	21.7%	24.0%	29.4%	26.8%
1501-2500	11161	12283	11181	14362	67058	70022	71890	143272	266496	173545	5145	1316	271720	37384	208214	42770	395275	255118	6865	195281
	2.4%	4.8%	3.0%	4.3%	10.9%	8.6%	15.7%	14.2%	26.4%	25.0%	21.3%	11.5%	23.1%	26.6%	21.1%	27.6%	25.8%	27.4%	18.2%	21.0%
2501-3500	10928	8023	9815	10876	52497	63315	65561	146084	194068	95008	1507	654	218942	23981	162944	27588	187314	91144	1912	45680
	2.3%	3.1%	2.7%	3.2%	8.6%	7.7%	14.3%	14.5%	19.3%	13.7%	6.2%	5.7%	18.6%	17.1%	16.5%	17.8%	12.2%	9.8%	5.1%	4.9%
3501-4500	9420	9471	8068	10818	37006	48235	38906	89286	77865	40957	1095	130	124566	11104	134930	10827	103127	48792	254	10427
	2.0%	3.7%	2.2%	3.2%	6.0%	5.9%	8.5%	8.9%	7.7%	5.9%	4.5%	1.1%	10.6%	7.9%	13.7%	7.0%	6.7%	5.2%	0.7%	1.1%
4501-6000	34825	29189	23970	32356	53649	83064	59676	130355	83534	43176	712	0	109194	8840	121392	6372	101971	37302	285	4612
	7.4%	11.3%	6.5%	9.6%	8.8%	10.2%	13.1%	13.0%	8.3%	6.2%	2.9%	0.0%	9.3%	6.3%	12.3%	4.1%	6.7%	4.0%	0.8%	0.5%
6001-8000	33760	24400	22715	30679	66620	81950	56549	118128	61128	37024	518	272	88652	4744	83926	4547	59143	10690	0	5698
	7.2%	9.4%	6.2%	9.1%	10.9%	10.0%	12.4%	11.7%	6.1%	5.3%	2.1%	2.4%	7.5%	3.4%	8.5%	2.9%	3.9%	1.1%	0.0%	0.6%
8001-11000	68191	34648	47943	47729	100423	136785	60739	120240	83888	37198	0	405	66938	8135	57985	5131	26818	7146	0	2565
	14.5%	13.4%	13.0%	14.1%	16.4%	16.7%	13.3%	12.0%	8.3%	5.4%	0.0%	3.5%	5.7%	5.8%	5.9%	3.3%	1.8%	0.8%	0.0%	0.3%
11001-16000	80981	49865	59941	75475	115706	190906	43306	105837	53269	25414	566	81	61643	4766	20097	2411	13615	2864	330	1339
	17.2%	19.3%	16.3%	22.4%	18.9%	23.3%	9.5%	10.5%	5.3%	3.7%	2.3%	0.7%	5.2%	3.4%	2.0%	1.6%	0.9%	0.3%	0.9%	0.1%
16001-30000	138968	62804	121850	77794	65640	51217	20768	26187	31879	6368	394	0	42302	713	14421	303	9920	2691	120	1146
	29.5%	24.3%	33.1%	23.0%	10.7%	6.3%	4.5%	2.6%	3.2%	0.9%	1.6%	0.0%	3.6%	0.5%	1.5%	0.2%	0.6%	0.3%	0.3%	0.1%
30001 or more	68740	16601	53891	18132	11160	6291	4197	2920	5738	1138	193	0	9747	721	3685	0	1940	296	0	48
	14.6%	6.4%	14.6%	5.4%	1.8%	0.8%	0.9%	0.3%	0.6%	0.2%	0.8%	0.0%	0.8%	0.5%	0.4%	0.0%	0.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Total	471168	258552	368046	337677	612801	818303	457231	1005705	1007757	693690	24210	11447	1176166	140504	986513	155105	1531629	929729	37727	931873
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Legislators=Legislators, senior officials and managers; Technical=Technical and associate professional; Service workers=Service workers and shop and market sales workers; Skilled agriculture=Skilled agriculture and fishery workers

Plant and assemblers=Plant and machine operators and assemblers

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 15: Income brackets by gender and Type of business 2007

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007							
	Government		Non-profit		Private		Self employed	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	6487	2110	381	1874	0	1791	0	0
	0.1%	0.1%	0.0%	0.2%	0.0%	1.3%	0.0%	0.0%
1 - 200	62920	69539	3272	9184	1033	2026	278	90
	1.4%	2.3%	0.4%	1.0%	0.6%	1.5%	0.8%	0.8%
201-500	195109	331047	16323	35111	6693	21479	4972	2818
	4.3%	10.9%	1.8%	4.0%	4.0%	15.9%	15.1%	23.9%
501-1000	701172	769162	32622	47364	17630	24382	3348	2283
	15.5%	25.4%	3.6%	5.4%	10.6%	18.0%	10.2%	19.4%
1001-1500	751568	491370	45387	29752	20631	15170	4635	1541
	16.6%	16.2%	4.9%	3.4%	12.4%	11.2%	14.1%	13.1%
1501-2500	1046276	500613	89130	64960	35649	19232	6648	57
	23.1%	16.6%	9.7%	7.3%	21.4%	14.2%	20.2%	0.5%
2501-3500	581312	236309	109088	85568	34842	13297	5531	3758
	12.9%	7.8%	11.9%	9.7%	20.9%	9.8%	16.8%	31.9%
3501-4500	270873	137224	113764	100711	7425	5215	331	687
	6.0%	4.5%	12.4%	11.4%	4.5%	3.9%	1.0%	5.8%
4501-6000	237511	158699	133819	147244	15699	13194	1558	347
	5.3%	5.2%	14.6%	16.6%	9.4%	9.8%	4.7%	2.9%
6001-8000	196082	144489	113931	150044	8381	6418	113	0
	4.3%	4.8%	12.4%	17.0%	5.0%	4.7%	0.3%	0.0%
8001-11000	181957	77532	129539	130856	5249	6960	1064	0
	4.0%	2.6%	14.1%	14.8%	3.2%	5.1%	3.2%	0.0%
11001-16000	135904	64948	80731	50750	5386	404	3515	202
	3.0%	2.1%	8.8%	5.7%	3.2%	0.3%	10.7%	1.7%
16001-30000	109514	34489	34007	19467	7717	2799	879	0
	2.4%	1.1%	3.7%	2.2%	4.6%	2.1%	2.7%	0.0%
30001 or more	45572	6619	16124	11830	0	2815	0	0
	1.0%	0.2%	1.8%	1.3%	0.0%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Total	4522257	3024150	918118	884715	166335	135182	32872	11783
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Government=National government, provincial government, local government

Private incorporates private households as well

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 16: Income brackets by gender and Type of business 2011

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2011					
	Government		Private enterprise		Non profit	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	1039	2640	8938	6899	0	0
	0.1%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%
1 - 200	883	2225	19260	18702	0	0
	0.1%	0.2%	0.3%	0.5%	0.0%	0.0%
201-500	24621	54903	105844	185650	4616	10879
	2.2%	4.7%	1.9%	4.6%	9.9%	13.4%
501-1000	47047	93453	372887	590401	4922	15923
	4.2%	7.9%	6.8%	14.7%	10.6%	19.6%
1001-1500	53520	69643	636837	651342	4492	11872
	4.8%	5.9%	11.6%	16.2%	9.6%	14.6%
1501-2500	118083	93789	1187533	835203	6005	14441
	10.7%	8.0%	21.5%	20.8%	12.9%	17.8%
2501-3500	81220	74090	821054	432572	2526	5242
	7.3%	6.3%	14.9%	10.8%	5.4%	6.5%
3501-4500	67773	58012	465860	217388	1428	4451
	6.1%	4.9%	8.5%	5.4%	3.1%	5.5%
4501-6000	120450	111207	464673	260148	3984	3827
	10.9%	9.4%	8.4%	6.5%	8.6%	4.7%
6001-8000	108204	110792	362319	203901	2397	2827
	9.8%	9.4%	6.6%	5.1%	5.1%	3.5%
8001-11000	153869	170929	354163	224287	4204	4458
	13.9%	14.5%	6.4%	5.6%	9.0%	5.5%
11001-16000	157326	230147	288479	224781	3446	3602
	14.2%	19.5%	5.2%	5.6%	7.4%	4.4%
16001-30000	135564	91375	303956	134248	6507	3223
	12.2%	7.7%	5.5%	3.3%	14.0%	4.0%
30001 or more	37489	16358	119701	29424	2061	365
	3.4%	1.4%	2.2%	0.7%	4.4%	0.5%
Total	1107088	1179563	5511504	4014946	46588	81110
	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Government=National government, provincial government, local government

Private incorporates private households as well

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 17: Income brackets by gender and work status

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007			
	Permanent		Limited duration	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	1375 0.0%	1454 0.1%	5493 0.3%	4321 0.4%
1 - 200	16760 0.4%	20627 0.7%	50743 3.0%	60101 4.9%
201-500	54938 1.4%	136155 4.8%	167625 9.9%	253241 20.8%
501-1000	343678 8.7%	410110 14.5%	409001 24.2%	427501 35.1%
1001-1500	408507 10.3%	328787 11.6%	413234 24.5%	211311 17.3%
1501-2500	788963 20.0%	440866 15.5%	393351 23.3%	145891 12.0%
2501-3500	616858 15.6%	291683 10.3%	113043 6.7%	47250 3.9%
3501-4500	351722 8.9%	223845 7.9%	41886 2.5%	20762 1.7%
4501-6000	355793 9.0%	298548 10.5%	33481 2.0%	21732 1.8%
6001-8000	294962 7.5%	296878 10.5%	23545 1.4%	4074 0.3%
8001-11000	305676 7.7%	203982 7.2%	12134 0.7%	11366 0.9%
11001-16000	206228 5.2%	109211 3.8%	19309 1.1%	7093 0.6%
16001-30000	149220 3.8%	53321 1.9%	2898 0.2%	3434 0.3%
30001 or more	58881 1.5%	21265 0.7%	2815 0.2%	0 0.0%
Total	3953561 100%	2836732 100%	1688558 100%	1218077 100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 18: Income brackets by gender and work status

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007			
	Permanent		Limited duration	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	1375 0.0%	1454 0.1%	5493 0.3%	4321 0.4%
1 - 200	16760 0.4%	20627 0.7%	50743 3.0%	60101 4.9%
201-500	54938 1.4%	136155 4.8%	167625 9.9%	253241 20.8%
501-1000	343678 8.7%	410110 14.5%	409001 24.2%	427501 35.1%
1001-1500	408507 10.3%	328787 11.6%	413234 24.5%	211311 17.3%
1501-2500	788963 20.0%	440866 15.5%	393351 23.3%	145891 12.0%
2501-3500	616858 15.6%	291683 10.3%	113043 6.7%	47250 3.9%
3501-4500	351722 8.9%	223845 7.9%	41886 2.5%	20762 1.7%
4501-6000	355793 9.0%	298548 10.5%	33481 2.0%	21732 1.8%
6001-8000	294962 7.5%	296878 10.5%	23545 1.4%	4074 0.3%
8001-11000	305676 7.7%	203982 7.2%	12134 0.7%	11366 0.9%
11001-16000	206228 5.2%	109211 3.8%	19309 1.1%	7093 0.6%
16001-30000	149220 3.8%	53321 1.9%	2898 0.2%	3434 0.3%
30001 or more	58881 1.5%	21265 0.7%	2815 0.2%	0 0.0%
Total	3953561 100%	2836732 100%	1688558 100%	1218077 100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 19: Income brackets by gender and Trade union membership

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2007			
	Yes		No	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	0 0.0%	1949 0.2%	6867 0.2%	3825 0.1%
1 - 200	4219 0.2%	3864 0.4%	63284 1.7%	76619 2.6%
201-500	18139 1.0%	15142 1.4%	206020 5.4%	374824 12.7%
501-1000	55525 3.1%	60648 5.6%	698117 18.4%	781392 26.6%
1001-1500	129855 7.2%	82443 7.6%	687891 18.2%	455049 15.5%
1501-2500	327912 18.2%	149902 13.9%	843633 22.3%	427197 14.5%
2501-3500	352243 19.6%	124266 11.5%	365153 9.6%	208276 7.1%
3501-4500	208844 11.6%	112523 10.4%	175449 4.6%	124723 4.2%
4501-6000	212054 11.8%	162259 15.0%	171865 4.5%	156135 5.3%
6001-8000	164096 9.1%	164338 15.2%	146107 3.9%	134432 4.6%
8001-11000	172672 9.6%	126253 11.7%	143452 3.8%	86226 2.9%
11001-16000	102007 5.7%	56105 5.2%	115678 3.1%	57928 2.0%
16001-30000	40059 2.2%	18331 1.7%	111640 3.0%	38003 1.3%
30001 or more	12672 0.7%	4111 0.4%	49024 1.3%	17154 0.6%
Total	1800297 100%	1082134 100%	3784180 100%	2941783 100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 20: Income brackets by gender and Trade union membership

Monthly income in Rands (R)	2011			
	Yes		No	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
None	2556	2689	7421	6671
	0.1%	0.2%	0.2%	0.2%
1 - 200	3045	2554	16797	18275
	0.1%	0.2%	0.4%	0.5%
201-500	14740	16219	119041	231638
	0.7%	1.2%	2.7%	6.1%
501-1000	57666	66481	359954	622535
	2.8%	4.7%	8.1%	16.5%
1001-1500	100104	86321	583508	633869
	4.8%	6.1%	13.1%	16.8%
1501-2500	283059	187181	1001642	736609
	13.6%	13.3%	22.6%	19.5%
2501-3500	252934	135282	628477	367503
	12.1%	9.6%	14.2%	9.7%
3501-4500	194646	96606	326140	176204
	9.3%	6.9%	7.3%	4.7%
4501-6000	278271	139203	296754	227163
	13.3%	9.9%	6.7%	6.0%
6001-8000	218152	130371	244162	183394
	10.5%	9.3%	5.5%	4.9%
8001-11000	255034	193545	246332	198874
	12.2%	13.8%	5.5%	5.3%
11001-16000	210675	240411	230242	215140
	10.1%	17.1%	5.2%	5.7%
16001-30000	168364	94956	269216	132816
	8.1%	6.7%	6.1%	3.5%
30001 or more	46201	15381	109473	30433
	2.2%	1.1%	2.5%	0.8%
Total	2085447	1407200	4439159	3781124
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 21: Summary of statistical tests for cross tabulations

2011						
Bivariate Relationship	Variable	Chi-square	Lambda	Goodman	Phi	Cramer's V
	controlled for			and Kruskal tau		
Income and age	Gender	254431.7***	0.000***	0.002***	0.147***	0.06***
Income and population group	Gender	2414362.73***	0.028***	0.018***	0.454***	0.262***
Income and Marital status	Gender	90469952***	0.000***	0.007***	0.278***	0.139***
Income and highest education attained	Gender	5573033.34***	0.052***	0.042***	0.69***	0.282***
Income and province	Gender	841722.22***	0.005***	0.006***	0.268***	0.095***
Income and sector	Gender	2098220.09***	0.005***	0.016***	0.423***	0.423***
Income and occupation	Gender	6855212.77***	0.067***	0.05***	0.765***	0.255***
Income and type of business	Gender	1026915.12***	0.019***	0.009***	0.296***	0.177***
Income and work status	Gender	2160597.42***	0.000***	0.017***	0.44***	0.43***
Income and trade union membership	Gender	1121030.53***	0.000***	0.01***	0.309***	0.309***
<i>Significance level: * = P<0.05; ** = P<0.01; *** = P<0.001</i>						
2007						
Bivariate Relationship	Variable	Chi-square	Lambda	Goodman	Phi	Cramer's V
	controlled for			and Kruskal tau		
Income and age	Gender	411260.53***	0.001***	0.004***	0.225***	0.092***
Income and population group	Gender	2609569.3***	0.021***	0.021***	0.518***	0.299***
Income and Marital status	Gender	79531.53***	0.002***	0.022***	0.09***	0.045***
Income and highest education attained	Gender	4175576.64***	0.061***	0.036***	0.656***	0.268***
Income and province	Gender	781430.364***	0.042***	0.009***	0.284***	0.1***
Income and sector	Gender	246780.94***	0.055***	0.024***	0.504***	0.356***
Income and occupation	Gender	6654885.64***	0.097***	0.059***	0.828***	0.276***
Income and type of business	Gender	1560631.63***	0.016***	0.016***	0.401***	0.2***
Income and work status	Gender	2108903.19***	0.038***	0.021***	0.466***	0.326***
Income and trade union membership	Gender	1647354.18***	0.026***	0.019***	0.412***	0.291***
<i>Significance level: * = P<0.05; ** = P<0.01; *** = P<0.001</i>						

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 & Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 22: Summary of T-tests for 2011

Variables	2011 t	Sig.	Mean Difference
Age Group			
15-24	31.45	0.000	322.11
25-34	85.84	0.000	650.77
35-44	148.75	0.000	1428.45
45-54	224.89	0.000	2999.66
55-64	135.41	0.000	2906.96
65-74	66.14	0.000	6026.26
75+			
Population Group	9.38	0.000	4281.65
African/Black	172.29	0.000	750.79
Coloured	128.18	0.000	1572.06
Indian/Asian	40.77	0.000	1007.37
White	270.70	0.000	5944.96
Marital status			
Married	221.97	0.000	2123.59
Cohabiting	87.83	0.000	899.63
Divorced/separated	52.50	0.000	1628.18
Widowed	48.65	0.000	1425.24
Never Married	122.08	0.000	698.23
Educational Attainment			
No schooling	105.58	0.000	806.16
Primary	246.26	0.000	1015.56
Incomplete High School	338.11	0.000	1362.15
Complete High School	202.10	0.000	1512.17
Tertiary			
Province			
Western Cape	137.87	0.000	1909.25
Eastern Cape	52.75	0.000	935.83
Northern Cape	15.53	0.000	395.82
Free State	40.58	0.000	669.45
KwaZulu-Natal	136.88	0.000	1235.60
North West	93.68	0.000	1317.97
Gauteng	165.09	0.000	1716.19
Mpumalanga	115.26	0.000	1921.90
Limpopo	58.62	0.000	941.44
Sector			
Formal			
Informal			
Occupation			
Legislators	165.10	0.000	5766.69
Professionals	187.09	0.000	6310.93
Technical	60.38	0.000	938.43
Clerks	46.55	0.000	543.19
Service workers	178.73	0.000	1487.05
Skilled agriculture	25.76	0.000	871.87
Craft and related	126.23	0.000	1489.08
Plant and machine	199.67	0.000	1485.40
Elementary workers	128.97	0.000	721.70
Domestic workers	1.30	0.193	11.58
Type of Business			
Government	121.34	0.000	1479.56
Non-profit	81.49	0.000	4870.40
Private	307.30	0.000	1660.16
Work status			
Permanent			
Limited duration			
Trade Union membership			
Yes	23.30	0.000	199.30
No	283.67	0.000	1753.24

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 23: Binary Logistic Regression 2007

Variables	2007							
	Male				Female			
	B	Wald	P-value	Exp(β)	B	Wald	P-value	Exp(β)
Age Group								
15-24 (Ref)	1	115008.83	0.000		1	34658.32	0.000	
25-34	0.54	15717.16	0.000	1.71	0.79	17400.72	0.000	2.20
35-44	0.95	44023.86	0.000	2.59	0.96	22798.67	0.000	2.61
45-54	1.45	84724.96	0.000	4.28	1.19	29001.03	0.000	3.30
55-64	1.49	58468.60	0.000	4.42	1.26	20528.14	0.000	3.54
65-74	1.06	5714.76	0.000	2.88	1.38	3149.91	0.000	3.97
75+	0.83	343.11	0.000	2.30	1.93	1164.18	0.000	6.87
Population Group								
African/Black (Ref)	1.00	223791.10	0.000		1.00	157405.38	0.000	
Coloured	0.99	46159.14	0.000	2.70	0.85	21260.30	0.000	2.33
Indian/Asian	1.29	31108.18	0.000	3.64	1.30	20000.98	0.000	3.66
White	2.21	190380.36	0.000	9.12	2.12	151010.23	0.000	8.35
Marital status								
Never Married (Ref)	1.00	7629.43	0.000		1.00	3376.65	0.000	
Married	-0.40	4257.46	0.000	0.67	0.13	249.58	0.000	1.14
Cohabiting	0.27	791.60	0.000	1.31	-0.36	2325.81	0.000	0.70
Divorced/separated	-0.46	963.98	0.000	0.63	-0.17	143.12	0.000	0.84
Widowed	-0.17	2838.72	0.000	0.85	-0.04	78.97	0.000	0.96
Educational Attainment								
No schooling (Ref)	1.00	214655.48	0.000		1.00	135484.72	0.000	
Primary	0.47	4992.42	0.000	1.60	-0.53	1672.86	0.000	0.59
Incomplete High School	1.02	23985.06	0.000	2.78	-0.41	1115.81	0.000	0.66
Complete High School	1.71	61894.87	0.000	5.53	0.55	1888.29	0.000	1.73
Tertiary	2.87	120600.70	0.000	17.70	1.69	16035.33	0.000	5.43
Province								
Western Cape (Ref)	1.00	37501.15	0.000		1.00	55793.80	0.000	
Eastern Cape	-0.32	3263.62	0.000	0.73	-0.27	1376.21	0.000	0.77
Northern Cape	-0.30	1337.86	0.000	0.74	-0.39	1082.70	0.000	0.68
Free State	-0.28	2053.61	0.000	0.76	-0.54	4021.69	0.000	0.58
KwaZulu-Natal	0.04	63.32	0.000	1.04	-0.07	118.58	0.000	0.93
North West	0.36	3852.64	0.000	1.44	0.16	344.12	0.000	1.17
Gauteng	0.38	6287.43	0.000	1.46	0.77	14844.50	0.000	2.17
Mpumalanga	0.18	816.36	0.000	1.20	-0.34	1446.73	0.000	0.71
Limpopo	-0.02	8.47	0.004	0.98	-0.09	101.30	0.000	0.91
Sector								
Formal (Ref)	1.00							
Informal	-1.06	34779.63	0.000	0.35	-0.48	2588.38	0.000	0.62
Occupation								
Legislators (Ref)	1.00	210233.90	0.000	1.00	1.00	175255.44	0.000	
Professionals	-0.15	194.28	0.000	0.86	-0.36	636.97	0.000	0.70
Technical	-0.51	3312.39	0.000	0.60	-1.45	17145.74	0.000	0.23
Clerks	-0.62	5221.21	0.000	0.54	-1.32	15945.40	0.000	0.27
Service workers	-1.83	52149.85	0.000	0.16	-2.58	55571.97	0.000	0.08
Skilled agriculture	-1.93	10245.22	0.000	0.15	-3.64	3457.47	0.000	0.03
Craft and related trade workers	-0.86	11975.90	0.000	0.42	-1.98	24801.33	0.000	0.14
Plant and machine	-0.84	11211.77	0.000	0.43	-2.59	40344.48	0.000	0.08
Elementary workers	-1.87	55489.03	0.000	0.15	-2.74	60849.78	0.000	0.07
Domestic workers	-19.94	0.02	0.893	0.00	-4.38	63112.89	0.000	0.01
Type of Business								
Government	1.00	113976.66	0.000		1.00	86371.85	0.000	
Non-profit	-0.98	16419.92	0.000	0.38	-1.57	26858.84	0.000	0.21
Private	-1.27	113715.38	0.000	0.28	-1.37	82485.16	0.000	0.25
Self Employed	-1.16	3191.27	0.000	0.32	-0.45	181.67	0.000	0.64
Work Status								
Permanent	1.00				1.00			
Limited duration	-1.20	141028.31	0.000	0.30	-1.52	104776.62	0.000	0.22
Trade Union membership								
Yes	1.00				1.00			
No	-1.06	153450.97	0.000	0.35	-0.92	52359.89	0.000	0.40
Constant	0.67	2962.40	0.000	1.95	1.95	10759.30	0.000	7.01

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 24: Binary Logistic Regression 2011

Variables	2011							
	Male				Female			
	B	Wald	P-value	Exp(β)	B	Wald	P-value	Exp(β)
Age Group								
15-24 (Ref)	1.00	7113.04	0.000		1.00	4358.77	0.000	
25-34	0.16	2027.70	0.000	1.17	0.03	32.75	0.000	1.03
35-44	0.22	3235.40	0.000	1.24	0.08	295.82	0.000	1.08
45-54	0.33	5461.18	0.000	1.39	0.20	1440.42	0.000	1.23
55-64	0.40	5133.58	0.000	1.49	0.37	2847.65	0.000	1.45
65-74	0.51	815.51	0.000	1.67	0.26	180.26	0.000	1.30
75+	-0.29	22.46	0.000	0.75	0.52	41.42	0.000	1.68
Population Group								
African/Black (Ref)	1.00	80537.46	0.000		1.00	108364.19	0.000	
Coloured	0.22	3186.71	0.000	1.24	0.51	12766.09	0.000	1.66
Indian/Asian	0.92	19159.42	0.000	2.50	1.46	28035.71	0.000	4.28
White	1.24	65922.89	0.000	3.47	1.47	88236.60	0.000	4.33
Marital status								
Never Married (Ref)	1.00	9993.81	0.000		1.00	2884.80	0.000	
Married	-0.21	4396.27	0.000	0.81	-0.24	2514.32	0.000	0.79
Cohabiting	-0.23	613.79	0.000	0.80	-0.07	124.30	0.000	0.93
Divorced/separated	0.14	335.63	0.000	1.15	0.07	120.81	0.000	1.07
Widowed	-0.24	8023.00	0.000	0.79	-0.05	240.71	0.000	0.95
Educational Attainment								
No schooling (Ref)	1.00	215921.91	0.000	1.00	1.00	205884.81	0.000	1.00
Primary	0.45	3979.67	0.000	1.57	0.23	324.60	0.000	1.26
Incomplete High School	0.94	17992.36	0.000	2.56	1.02	6946.63	0.000	2.78
Complete High School	1.54	46176.74	0.000	4.68	1.70	18732.45	0.000	5.47
Tertiary	2.43	90875.77	0.000	11.40	2.73	45258.34	0.000	15.28
Province								
Western Cape (Ref)	1.00	92018.19	0.000	1.00	1.00	48043.95	0.000	1.00
Eastern Cape	-0.36	6250.57	0.000	0.70	-0.11	412.49	0.000	0.90
Northern Cape	-0.42	3801.43	0.000	0.66	-0.18	396.32	0.000	0.83
Free State	-0.52	10444.10	0.000	0.59	-0.26	1518.90	0.000	0.77
KwaZulu-Natal	-0.18	1872.42	0.000	0.84	-0.02	18.76	0.000	0.98
North West	0.23	2107.24	0.000	1.26	0.01	2.44	0.118	1.01
Gauteng	0.31	6837.69	0.000	1.36	0.46	10508.88	0.000	1.59
Mpumalanga	-0.20	1551.62	0.000	0.82	-0.12	313.22	0.000	0.89
Limpopo	-0.57	12986.18	0.000	0.57	-0.48	5354.73	0.000	0.62
Sector								
Formal	1.00			1.00	1.00			1.00
Informal	-0.71	49637.80	0.000	0.49	-0.66	15652.01	0.000	0.52
Occupation								
Legislators (Ref)	1.00	165500.68	0.000	1.00	1.00	141494.92	0.000	1.00
Professionals	-0.09	75.27	0.000	0.91	-0.18	321.77	0.000	0.84
Technical	-1.06	17824.15	0.000	0.35	-0.71	7215.36	0.000	0.49
Clerks	-1.03	16138.44	0.000	0.36	-0.67	6982.89	0.000	0.51
Service workers	-1.48	38227.95	0.000	0.23	-1.23	22543.76	0.000	0.29
Skilled agriculture	-2.51	17396.39	0.000	0.08	-2.09	3919.16	0.000	0.12
Craft and related trade workers	-0.99	17064.89	0.000	0.37	-0.99	10038.34	0.000	0.37
Plant and machine	-1.10	20874.24	0.000	0.33	-1.49	23201.34	0.000	0.23
Elementary workers	-1.82	58313.21	0.000	0.16	-1.82	48512.05	0.000	0.16
Domestic workers	-2.58	15055.25	0.000	0.08	-2.03	40909.88	0.000	0.13
Type of Business								
Government	1.00	3082.85	0.000	1.00	1.00	14318.70	0.000	1.00
Non-profit	-0.11	1125.27	0.000	0.90	-0.34	8302.71	0.000	0.72
Private	-0.67	2536.32	0.000	0.51	-1.02	9976.07	0.000	0.36
Work status								
Permanent	1.00			1.00	1.00			1.00
Limited duration	-0.40	28454.26	0.000	0.67	-0.67	50929.21	0.000	0.51
Trade Union membership								
Yes	1.00		0.000		1.00		0.000	1.00
No	-0.62	55000.41	0.000	0.54	-0.39	13878.19	0.000	0.68
Constant	1.07	8367.745	0.000	2.92	0.13	65.65	0.000	1.14

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations

Appendix 25: Linear Regression 2007

Variables	2007					
	B	Male Beta	Sig.	B	Female Beta	Sig.
(Constant)	6977.41		0.000	26858.31		0.000
Age						
Age	52.66	0.07	0.000	28.62	0.02	0.000
Population group						
African/Black (Ref)						
Coloured	1105.55	0.04	0.000	2303.59	0.04	0.000
Indian/Asian	1296.99	0.03	0.000	245.13	0.00	0.001
White	4981.31	0.17	0.000	5590.80	0.09	0.000
Marital status						
Never married (Ref)						
Married	-193.09	-0.01	0.000	-599.16	-0.01	0.000
Cohabiting	-631.96	-0.02	0.000	-271.89	0.00	0.000
Widowed	-262.24	0.00	0.000	-1121.06	-0.02	0.000
Divorced_separated	-256.71	0.00	0.000	733.83	0.01	0.000
Education attained						
No schooling (Ref)						
Primary	197.16	0.01	0.000	233.92	0.00	0.000
Incomplete High School	554.09	0.03	0.000	516.13	0.01	0.000
Complete High School	1441.36	0.08	0.000	379.35	0.01	0.000
Tertiary	6457.96	0.23	0.000	10664.65	0.19	0.000
Province						
Gauteng (Ref)						
Western Cape	-724.29	-0.03	0.000	-3159.87	-0.06	0.000
Eastern Cape	-855.61	-0.03	0.000	-3230.34	-0.05	0.000
Northern Cape	159.17	0.00	0.000	-3818.39	-0.03	0.000
Free State	-89.94	0.00	0.000	-2746.85	-0.03	0.000
KwaZulu-Natal	-745.38	-0.03	0.000	-1933.98	-0.04	0.000
North West	1155.75	0.04	0.000	-1294.40	-0.02	0.000
Mpumalanga	-324.53	-0.01	0.000	-2384.36	-0.03	0.000
Limpopo	-299.46	-0.01	0.000	-1092.79	-0.01	0.000
Sector						
Formal (Ref)						
Informal	-452.11	-0.02	0.000	-389.59	-0.01	0.000
Occupation						
Legislators (Ref)						
Professionals	1688.46	0.03	0.000	-26821.74	-0.29	0.000
Technical	-3197.03	-0.09	0.000	-26109.65	-0.40	0.000
Clerks	-3617.27	-0.10	0.000	-23798.76	-0.42	0.000
Service workers	-4760.45	-0.20	0.000	-23990.67	-0.38	0.000
Skilled agriculture	-5322.20	-0.05	0.000	-25360.46	-0.07	0.000
Craft and related	-4652.22	-0.23	0.000	-23169.76	-0.23	0.000
Plant and machine	-4812.73	-0.22	0.000	-24088.40	-0.22	0.000
Elementary workers	-5036.97	-0.28	0.000	-23465.21	-0.46	0.000
Domestic workers	-5066.86	-0.07	0.000	-22451.37	-0.48	0.000
Type of business						
Government (Ref)						
Private	-1463.00	-0.07	0.000	-2174.79	-0.05	0.000
Non-profit	-1996.51	-0.04	0.000	12105.28	0.11	0.000
Work status						
Permanent (Ref)						
Limited duration	-702.12	-0.04	0.000	-315.55	-0.01	0.000
Trade union membership						
Yes (Ref)						
No	-454.19	-0.03	0.000	-166.33	0.00	0.000

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Force Survey 2007 with own calculations

Appendix 26: Linear Regression 2011

Variables	2011					
	B	Male Beta	Sig.	B	Female Beta	Sig.
(Constant)	10307.64		0.000	9382.96		0.000
Age						
Age	34.60	0.04	0.000	16.56	0.03	0.000
Population group						
African/Black (Ref)						
Coloured	1270.01	0.04	0.000	558.56	0.03	0.000
Indian/Asian	1294.85	0.02	0.000	1666.77	0.04	0.000
White	5752.53	0.19	0.000	2759.27	0.14	0.000
Marital status						
Never married (Ref)						
Married	677.07	0.03	0.000	238.82	0.02	0.000
Cohabiting	-71.41	0.00	0.000	-137.77	-0.01	0.000
Widowed	481.81	0.01	0.000	-154.05	-0.01	0.000
Divorced_separated	-303.27	0.00	0.000	103.22	0.00	0.000
Education attained						
No schooling (Ref)						
Primary	582.20	0.02	0.000	13.08	0.00	0.448
Incomplete High School	1275.90	0.06	0.000	347.58	0.02	0.000
Complete High School	2329.14	0.11	0.000	1291.47	0.08	0.000
Tertiary	8354.05	0.32	0.000	5686.17	0.34	0.000
Province						
Gauteng (Ref)						
Western Cape	-785.17	-0.03	0.000	-503.82	-0.03	0.000
Eastern Cape	-529.55	-0.02	0.000	-231.43	-0.01	0.000
Northern Cape	-1019.36	-0.02	0.000	-377.34	-0.01	0.000
Free State	-1051.83	-0.03	0.000	-900.58	-0.03	0.000
KwaZulu-Natal	-439.80	-0.02	0.000	-455.65	-0.02	0.000
North West	-235.29	-0.01	0.000	-727.56	-0.02	0.000
Mpumalanga	-30.97	0.00	0.023	-617.90	-0.02	0.000
Limpopo	-610.76	-0.02	0.000	-474.35	-0.02	0.000
Sector						
Formal (Ref)						
Informal	-352.67	-0.01	0.000	-884.80	-0.05	0.000
Occupation						
Legislators (Ref)						
Professionals	-445.41	-0.01	0.000	-826.69	-0.03	0.000
Technical	-7732.80	-0.22	0.000	-4874.75	-0.25	0.000
Clerks	-8136.35	-0.20	0.000	-5346.38	-0.29	0.000
Service workers	-8326.09	-0.29	0.000	-5982.23	-0.28	0.000
Skilled agriculture	-9067.48	-0.06	0.000	-6378.78	-0.04	0.000
Craft and related	-7920.71	-0.30	0.000	-5634.52	-0.13	0.000
Plant and machine	-8308.53	-0.29	0.000	-6541.56	-0.15	0.000
Elementary workers	-8662.80	-0.36	0.000	-6595.10	-0.35	0.000
Domestic workers	-8894.19	-0.07	0.000	-5884.88	-0.32	0.000
Type of business						
Government (Ref)						
Private	-521.15	-0.02	0.000	-663.21	-0.04	0.000
Non-profit	-2007.62	-0.02	0.000	-1683.78	-0.03	0.000
Work status						
Permanent (Ref)						
Limited duration	-719.55	-0.03	0.000	-770.01	-0.05	0.000
Trade union membership						
Yes (Ref)						
No	-334.78	-0.02	0.000	-409.65	-0.03	0.000

Source: Statistics South Africa - Labour Market Dynamics 2011 with own calculations