



**UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE**

**Faculty of Natural Sciences
Department of Statistics and Population Studies**

**Labour force participation among African female migrants in South
Africa: the case of Gauteng Province**

By

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A full thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of MPhil in Population Studies, Department of Statistics and Population Studies, Faculty of Natural Sciences, University of the Western Cape, South Africa.

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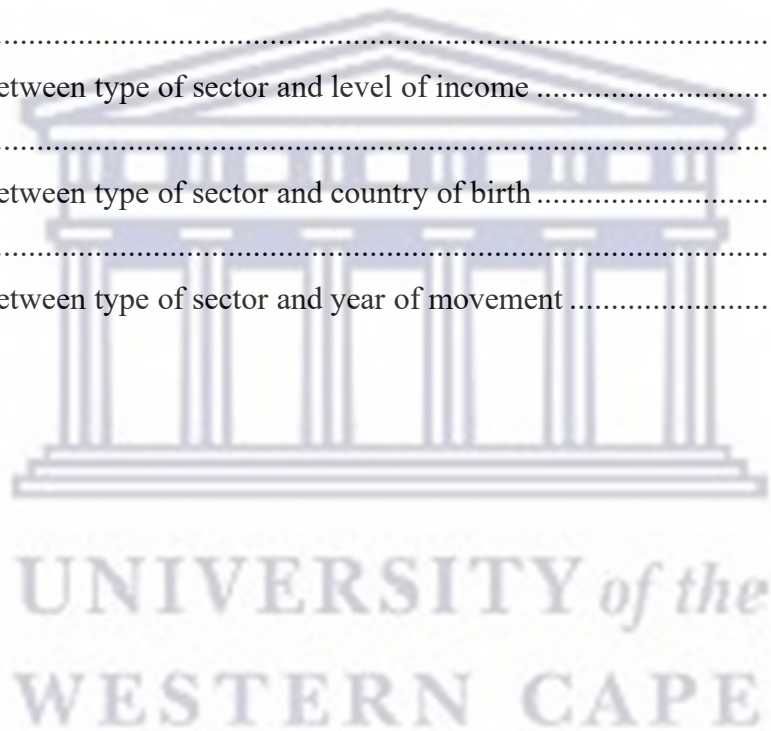
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Declaration

I, Pontsho Justinus Mfolo, hereby affirm that ‘Labour force participation among African female migrants in South Africa: the case of Gauteng Province’ is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any academic institution, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete reference.

Pontsho Justinus Mfolo

November 2023

Signed.....



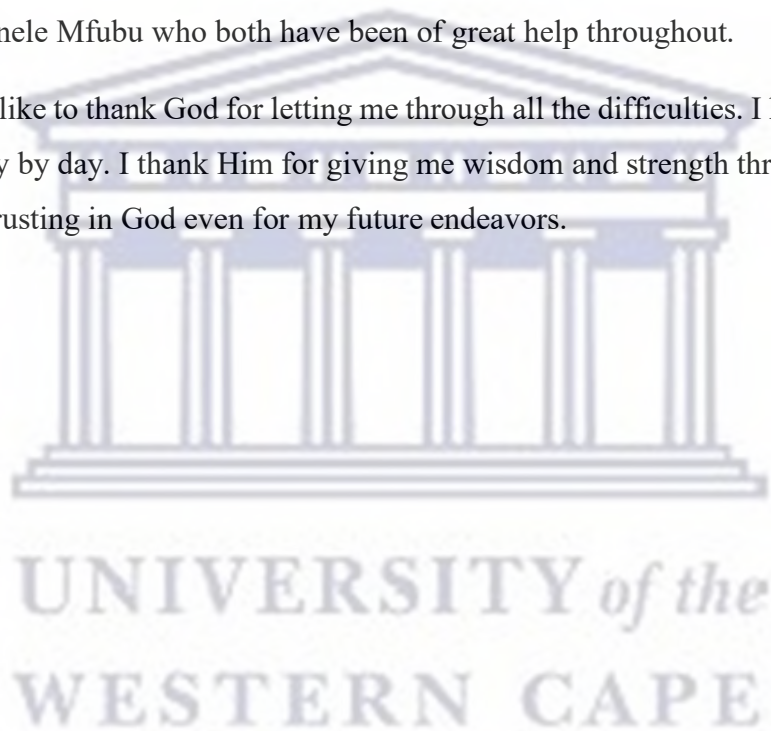
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Dedication

I dedicate my entire thesis to God who has been from day one, my source of strength, wisdom, power of thinking, guidance, and grace throughout the period of my research. It is by His Grace and favor that I have been able to complete my work and overcome all the challenges and setbacks that I was faced with.

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List of Abbreviations

DHA – Department of Home Affairs

DHS – Demographic Health Survey

GCRO – Gauteng City-Region Observatory

GDP – Gross Domestic Products

ICMPD – International Centre for Migration Policy Development

ILO – International Labour Organization

IOM – International Organisation of Migration

OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

SADC – Southern African Development Community

SAIIA – South African Institute of International Affairs

SIHMA – Scalabrini Institute for Human Mobility in Africa

SACN- South African Cities Network

SPSS- Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

Stats SA – Statistics South Africa

UNDESA – United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

UNICEF – United Nations Children's Fund



Abstract

The African female migration theme has several dynamic components and characteristics that have not been fully explored. In the South African context, the influence of the labour force participation among African female migrants in Gauteng province, is one such case. African female migrants frequently migrate to South Africa's Gauteng province in search of better opportunities. Many are forced to migrate due to a lack of employment opportunities in their home countries. This study used secondary data from the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses obtained from Statistics South Africa. The study focused on socio-demographic, socio-economic, and migration aspects such as age group, marital status, level of education, employment status, level of income, occupation, type of sector, reasons for not working, country of birth and year of movement. Firstly, the method of analysis includes univariate analysis, using graphs to display the characteristics of African female migrants. Secondly, bivariate analysis uses cross-tabulation and the Chi-square test of Independence to determine the relationship between two variables, and lastly multivariate analysis, which incorporated the multinomial logistic regression technique to estimate the odds ratio of the dependent variables. The analysis was performed using the SPSS version 28.

The findings reveal that majority of female migrants working in Gauteng province came from Zimbabwe. Based on the study's findings, most of the African female migrants who participated in labour force were employed in the Gauteng province, many were not married and that most of the African female migrants had completed secondary education. Furthermore, the results revealed that the greatest number of African female migrants worked mainly in the informal sector as domestic workers or related helpers. Moreover, the study reveals that age group, marital status, level of education, employment status and level of income are the main contributing factors to labour force participation in Gauteng province. Since most African female migrants are working in the informal sector in Gauteng province, the government should enforce regulations that protect migrant workers. The government should also encourage the feminisation of migration, which will increase women's empowerment and involvement in economic growth.

Keywords: African female migrants, Informal sector, Country of birth, Feminisation, Occupation

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

Labour force participation can be defined as the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work (Bourmpoula et al., 2013). Labour force participation is important for women migrants in general, because it is associated with empowerment in the family of origin or in the area of destination (Verick, 2014). Hence, this study is aimed at investigating the characteristics of African female migrants who entered the labour force in Gauteng Province, and to assess whether the rate of African female migrants has increased between 2001 and 2011.

Feminisation of migration is a growing phenomenon in recent years, as more and more women migrate for different reasons (Scalabrini Institute of Human Mobility in Africa, 2021). Feminisation of migration plays a huge role in influencing labour force to occur, and females are often being obliged to migrate for various pull and push factors. The number of women migrants has increased globally in recent years. In the migration stream, the proportion of female migrants from sub-Saharan Africa has risen from 46.4% in 2005 to 47.5% in 2019 (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), 2019). Since the dawn of democracy in 1994, South Africa has received an influx of migrant from various parts of Africa (Ncube, 2017). Research on migration studies has shown that African female migrants make up almost half of the migrant population in South Africa. Traditionally, it used to be a male-dominated patterns of migration. However, the picture of migration is changing today. There is an increasing number of African women migrants in the migration stream (South African Institute of International Affairs, 2008). There were 519 315 international female migrants in South Africa in 1990 and 1 007 320 in 2011 (Mokabati, 2021).

South Africa is a preferred destination of the majority of African migrants and is a well-studied country concerning the migration passage of Africans from the north of its borders (Scalabrini Institute for Human Mobility in Africa, 2021). In comparison to the situation in their home countries, many African female migrants perceive South Africa as having a thriving, vibrant and developed economy, where jobs are available, despite South Africa having an unemployment rate of 29% (Statistics South Africa, 2019). Research shows that most African female immigrants coming to South Africa are mainly from African countries, such as Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland and Zimbabwe

South Africa's history of immigration dates back to the Bantu migration, which predated the arrival of White settlers in 1652. However, the turning point is commonly identified by scholars

in the 19th century, the late-1860s striking of gold in the Witwatersrand basin, around Johannesburg, which led to the Gauteng province becoming the economic hub of Africa. The province enjoys strong financial services and manufacturing sectors. Hence, Gauteng has become the largest urban area in Africa which is a centre of financial opportunities that attracts many migrants from across the African continent and other regions in South Africa, and where almost 44% of the total population are migrants. For this reason, it attracts economic migrants, including female migrants from African countries and elsewhere who look for job opportunities to free themselves from political instability, just to name a few. Since in its earlier stages of development, Gauteng had become a prominent mining region, which had resulted in a long history of attracting migrants, including women (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2004). Hence, feminisation of migration to Gauteng is associated with various opportunities and access to the labour market in the province.

Migrant flows to Gauteng province have changed significantly between the years 2001 and 2011. Gauteng province has always had a higher rate of African female migrants wanting to access scarce resources and also to look for work opportunities. The province experienced high levels of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth in its urban metropolitan districts of between 4.7 percent and 5.5 percent over the period 2001 to 2004 (SACN, 2006).

The population growth in Gauteng province is strongly influenced by migrant flows and has been the focus of cross border migration for a while now. The movement of African female migrants plays an important role in the development of the province as some of migrants come with diverse skills needed in the working environment, while others come because of accessible resources. However, the majority of African female migrate to Gauteng province in search of employment opportunities to earn better income while others come for quality education and improved services (Ngobeni, 2014).

Nevertheless, in international migration research, studies often analyse migration between Least Developed Countries (LDCs) and industrialized or More Developed Countries (MDCs), i.e., South-North, for example, from Africa to Europe, and not South-South migration such as migration from countries in Africa to South Africa. The link between migration studies and development studies was previously researched (Nsengiyumva, 2014; Mokabati, 2021); however, these studies primarily examine the effect of remittances on development (Nzabamwita, 2021). The studies are at a macro-level and do not consider the labour force participation of migrants at a micro-level, particularly in Gauteng province. Moreover, the issue of gender and labour force participation has been silent in migration research in Gauteng. Specifically, little is known whether the number of African female migrants coming to Gauteng province of South Africa has increased during this period of investigation. Statistically, the

distribution of African female migrants, according to employment status in Gauteng province, is still unknown. In addition, the distribution of African female migrants by sector of employment in Gauteng province is scanty in the existing body of knowledge. In the current stock of the literature, the information regarding socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory characteristics, such as level of education, marital status, age, country of birth and duration of residence that influence employment status of African female migrants in Gauteng province, are still under researched.

1.2 Problem statement

Gauteng has seen the greatest influx of African migrants since the early 2000s. Immigration has tended to increase over the recent decade, particularly since the arrival of democracy and end of apartheid in 1994 (Moyo, 2014). The number of African female migrants was estimated to be around 894 400 between the years 2001 to 2011, and this implies that problems in the province has increased more due to overcrowding of migrants. Despite the province having a comparatively high industrialised economy, it is assumed that this has increased pressure on the existing backlog of the labour market sector.

Therefore, statistically, there is no sufficient information regarding the profile of African female migrant residing in Gauteng province. The employment status among African female migrants and their attributes are not clearly defined in the existing stock of the literature. The employment status of African female migrants in Gauteng is not clearly defined as migrant women are not often perceived from an employment perspective. This research will further discuss the involvement of African female migrants within the labour force in Gauteng province. The study will examine the relationship between labour force participation among female migrants in Gauteng province of South Africa with socio-demographic and socio-economic and migration variables, such as age, level of education, marital status and country of birth.

1.3 Aim and objectives of the study

Main objective:

Given that Gauteng province is the economic centre of South Africa, it attracts many migrants from across the African continent and other regions of the globe. In this regard, the main objective of the study is to examine the profile of African female migrants who have migrated

to Gauteng and to, also, identify the factors associated with their access to the employment in Gauteng province of South Africa.

Specific objectives:

- To find out whether the number of African female migrants who migrated to Gauteng province has increased from 2001 to 2011.
- To identify which African countries are more likely to send more migrants to Gauteng province.
- To identify the profile of African female migrants who are more likely to migrate to Gauteng province.
- To examine whether there is a relationship between the socio-demographic characteristics (age, level of education, marital status) of African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province and employment status.
- To measure the relationship between socio-economic characteristics (level of income, occupation and reasons for not working) of African female migrants in Gauteng province.
- To examine the relationship between the migratory variables that influence employment status of African female migrants in Gauteng province.
- To identify the factors associated with access to employment among African female migrants in Gauteng province.

1.4 Research questions

The following research questions will be examined throughout the study:

- Has the number of African female migrants who came to Gauteng increased from 2001 to 2011?
- Which African countries are more likely to send African female migrants to Gauteng province?
- What is the socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory characteristics of African female migrants who are more likely to migrate to Gauteng province?
- Is there a relationship between socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory characteristics of African female migrants and employment status?
- What is the socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory factors influencing the access to the employment among African female migrants in Gauteng province?

1.5 Hypotheses

In this study, the following hypotheses were tested:

- The number of African female migrants who migrated to Gauteng province has increased from 2001 to 2011, and Mozambique and Zimbabwe are the top African countries which are more likely to send African female migrants to the province.
- Young single African female migrants with secondary education are more likely to migrate to Gauteng province.
- African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province are more likely to be employed in informal sectors, such as domestic work, helpers or street vendors.
- The socio-demographic characteristics (age, level of education, marital status) are associated with the employment status of African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province.
- Age, educational level, marital status, country of birth and year of movement determine the access to employment among African female migrants in Gauteng province.

1.6 Significance of the study

Gauteng, South Africa's economic powerhouse, has long been dependent on immigration to supply its labour requirements, a phenomenon deeply rooted in the province's early economic history and the development of mining and heavy industry. Although migration has contributed to the development of the province, it also poses challenges to the provincial government, partially through the added burden on state-financed services and programmes.

1.7 Definition of key terms

Labour force participation - Is defined as the section of working population in the age group of 15-64 in the economy currently employed or seeking employment (Reddy, 2016).

Migrant - A person who moves away from his or her place of usual residence, whether within a country or across an international border, temporarily or permanently, and for a variety of reasons. (IMO, 2020).

Gauteng - Is the wealthiest province in South Africa and considered as the financial hub of Africa.

In-migration - It can be defined as the international movement of people to a destination country of which they are not natives or where they do not possess citizenship in order to settle as permanent residents or naturalized citizens (ECPS,2019).

Feminisation - It is a term used to refer to the rapid and substantial increase in the proportions of women in paid work over the last two decades. At the global level, about 70% in the 20-54 age group are members of the paid workforce (United Nations, 1999).

Employment Status - is the total number of African migrants between the ages 15 and 64 years who are economically active, that is, those who are employed and unemployed (Stats SA, 2011).

Occupation - refers to the actual work the person does, for example, professional, clerical or elementary work.

Non-professional - relating to or engaged in a paid occupation that does not require advanced education or training.

1.8 Outline of the thesis

The thesis will be split up with five chapters. The first chapter will be the introduction which will include background of the study, problem statement, research questions, aim and objectives of the study, significance of the study and definition of key terms. The second chapter will focus on literature review, and it will include, theoretical literature, empirical literature and the conceptual framework. The third chapter will discuss the research methodology, and this will include the data collection, the methods used in the data analysis and the identification of variables. The fourth chapter will be the data analysis where the results of the findings will be discussed. The fifth chapter will be the discussion of the last chapter will cover the findings, conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter will review on the theoretical literature on labour force participation among African female migrants in South Africa, particularly in the Gauteng province. The chapter will be divided into two sections, namely, the theoretical literature and the empirical literature. The section on theoretical literature will discuss different theories that relates to labour force participation among African female migrants, while the empirical literature will review the existing research concerning labour force participation, and migrant women.

2.2 Theoretical literature

2.2.1 Feminisation Theory

According to De Haan (2000), migration was dominated by single men, and the migration of females on a larger scale in the world, is hardly two centuries old. This is an indication that feminisation of migration is one of the recent changes in the population movement. In Africa, female migration is also largely a new phenomenon. The traditional pattern of migration within sub-Saharan Africa which used to be male-dominated, long-term and long-distance, is increasingly becoming feminized. Evidence reveals a striking increase in migration by women, who had traditionally remained at home while men moved around in search of paid work. A significant share of these women is made up of migrants who move independently to fulfill their own economic needs and not simply joining a husband or other family members (Adepoju, 2006).

The feminisation of labour migration has become a well-established fact. Not only are increasing numbers of women participating, but also, they often exceed the numbers of men Macinko *et al.*, (2003). Feminisation of migration means movement of women searching for a better life, more opportunities and access to resources. Women usually migrate within their own countries, mainly from rural to urban areas, as well as across borders. Since the early 1980s, increasing number of women, both single and married are often better educated than men which means they have been moving on their own to take up jobs in other countries. In recent years, the term feminisation of migration has been used more frequently as more women are migrating independently in search of jobs, rather than as family dependents travelling with their husbands (Kok, 2005).

Females currently represent over half of international migrants in the more developed areas, and Gauteng is one those provinces that attract women into the province. African women

migrate to the province with the hope for better living conditions, getting job opportunities and also accessing resources. Among other factors that may contribute significantly to the decision to migrate are for increasing labour demand on the service market unemployment, low wages, and limited social and economic opportunities. Women are also in ever-increasing numbers represented in migration flows that involve better opportunities from economically less developed to more advanced countries (Williams, 2009).

The growth of service sector employment in Gauteng province, as much as elsewhere, also contributed to an increasing feminisation of labour migration. Much of the feminisation of labour migration in the global economic system is thus a reflection of women's roles as workers in different fields. Women have sought equal pay for equal work, equal employment opportunities and recognition of the contribution their unpaid work in the home makes to the economy; hence, African females leave their birth countries to look for a better life. Feminisation of migration has also been linked to deteriorating working conditions which also lead to the feminization of poverty and a development of greater migration drive by women. Migrant women represent a particularly disadvantaged group: gender, ethnicity and racial discrimination can lead to a triple disadvantage for migrant women in the host society (Piper, 2006); thus, adding to pre-existing hardships in the broader population.

2.2.2 Human Capital Theory

In the Human Capital theory, migration is considered as an investment in the human agent which involves costs and returns, the focus is on the individual's decision to move and this decision is conditional upon the return she expects to receive from moving as compared to staying (Kan, 1999; Khwaja, 2002). According to this theory, human capital is the dominant personal driver of migration. Through migration, females can get access to opportunities beyond their current activity space which forces them to migrate to new places. Human capital also includes the stock of skills and productive knowledge embodied in people. The theory can likewise be modelled on the basis of individually expected gains, costs and risks which are defined in dependence of migrant's demographic and labour market characteristics (Smith & Murilo, 2018). This theory consists of characteristics such as age, gender, education, work experience and language competencies which determine migration decisions.

The Human Capital theory allows exploring the gender aspect of migration and helps characterise female migration motivations (Brown et al., 2005). According to this theory, females in traditional societies migrate less often than in more open ones and they are typically more attached to their children and dependent relatives at home than men. With respect to age, the human capital theory would expect younger females to be more likely to migrate, as they

seek better opportunities like employment and better services; hence, they migrate from one place to another (Williams, 2012). Females may also face better employment opportunities abroad and generally tend to have lower migration costs due to more effective and efficient search strategies for transportation, housing and foreign employment. Human capital theory shows that the choice of employment location is based on a migrant worker's human capital reward probability distribution and migration costs (Schaeffer, 1985).

According to (Boyd & Grieco, 2004), looking at the education characteristic, this aspect is expected to be an essential determinant of migration. The more likely the transferability of individual human capital, the greater should be the incentive to go abroad. It is often assumed that this is especially the case with higher skilled individuals. On the one hand, higher educated individuals may find better employment at home and thus feel less pressure for emigration, or they may also face better employment opportunities abroad and generally tend to have lower migration costs due to more effective and efficient search strategies for transportation, housing and foreign employment.

2.2.3 Push and Pull Migration Theory

Push-pull theories of migration originate from Ernst Ravenstein's "Laws of Migration" (Ravenstein, 1889). The process of migration is not only the process of selection but also the process of weighing costs and benefits. This theory holds that push factors, which are negative factors, existing at the origin, drive people away, while positive factors attract people to the new destination, called pull factors. Since the nature of migration decisions is complicated, push and pull factors do not work sufficiently as intervening obstacles or variables are also suggested (Jackson et al., 2004). From the perspective of migration employment wage income, Todaro (1969) posits that the urban rural income gap is the main motivation for migration among labourers and those potential migrants choose a place to work with relatively high wages.

In the modern era, migration has gained importance with the ushering of the era of industrialisation and urbanisation. The factors like development of modern means of transport and communication, globalisation and interaction of different cultures has led thousands of people to migrate in search of better opportunities related to education, employment and living standard among other factors. With this theory, the personal characteristics of migrants such as gender, age, educational level and skills are important factors that influence employment location choices. In fact, social, cultural, economic and other personal characteristics are the most important factors affecting a migrant worker's decision regarding whether and where to migrate (Li et al., 2009).

2.3 Empirical literature

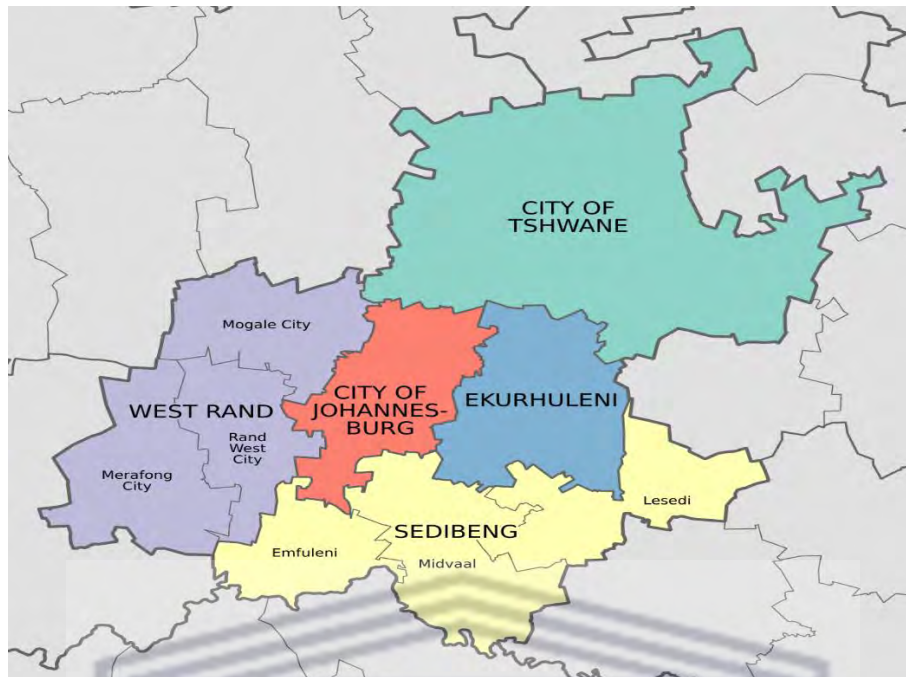
This part will outline the existing empirical literature on the issues concerning the female labour force participation in Gauteng province.

2.3.1 Description of the study setting: Gauteng province

The study area is Gauteng, the province is the smallest one in the country but most densely populated province. According to Sihlongonyane (2018), Gauteng is an integrated cluster of cities, towns and urban nodes that together make up the economic heartland of South Africa. It is divided into three metropolitan municipalities, which is Johannesburg, Tshwane and Ekurhuleni. Gauteng continues to have the highest population proportion in South Africa, with 15,1 million people (Statistics South Africa, 2023). It includes the cities of Johannesburg, once the world's most important centre of gold production and today South Africa's financial capital, and Tshwane the country's administrative capital (see Figure 2.1). Blacks make up about three-fourths of the province's population, Whites about one-fifth. Several languages are spoken in the province and the most widely spoken are Zulu, Afrikaans, Sotho and English.

According to Gauteng City-Region Observatory (GCRO) 2020, Gauteng province contributes a significant proportion of South Africa's economic output, with its different areas, focused variously on mining, manufacturing, financial and business services, innovation or trade, working together to constitute a functionally integrated urban economy and single labour market. Its relative economic weight in the country and the subcontinent means that the province has advantages over other parts of the country. There is a widespread perception that better work and education opportunities are available here.

Figure 2.1: Map of Gauteng province showing the metropolitan cities and district municipalities



Source: Gauteng, Department of Human Settlement 2018

2.4 Migration and global labour force participation

According to the United Nations (2019), since the earliest times, humanity has been on the move. Some people move in search of work or economic opportunities, to join family, or to study. Today, more people than ever live in a country other than the one in which they were born. According to the IOM World Migration Report 2020, as of June 2019, the number of international migrants was estimated to be almost 272 million globally, 51 million more than in 2010. While many individuals migrate out of choice, many others migrate out of necessity. More than 270 million people, roughly one out of every thirty people on earth currently live in a country in which they were not born.

With more people than ever on the move, it is important to understand what drives migration because it is increasingly possible that people will encounter or become migrants in their lifetime. People move for several reasons, which are often called push and pull factors. Some people are pushed to leave their countries because of conflict, natural disasters, or persecution. The majority, however, are pulled to countries that offer better economic prospects for themselves or their families. It is quite common that a mix of push and pull factors affects a person's decision to migrate (World 101, 2023). The female labour force participation rate (in the formal workforce) has seen a modest increase, nevertheless, there has been a more pronounced rise in the population of unskilled and semi-skilled work undertaken by women. In fact, women are overrepresented in risky, low-wage and low-productivity work.

Changes in the size of the working-age population can impact significantly the labour market and the economy. A growing working-age population provides opportunities for economic growth while at the same time creating challenges for job creation and integration of new labour market entrants. International migrant workers constitute nearly 5 per cent of the global labour force and are an integral part of the world economy. Labour migration not only benefits the migrant worker, but also the communities they become part of, as well as their country of origin. The labour market continues to favour men and shows no signs of making real progress towards improving prospects for women (Stats SA, 2022). Globally, and in South Africa, the discrimination of women in the labour market persists. It is harder for women to find work compared to men. Women who find employment are often active in low paying jobs, where improvement prospects are limited (International Labour Organisation, 2022).

Women are continuing to migrate at an increasing rate, particularly within Europe, Africa and Oceania, and have developed a pronounced role within the global labour market (Pew Research, 2006). The presence of migrant women in the labour force is also greater than that of non-migrant women in all countries, except those of low-income (Migration Data Portal, 2020).

2.5 Migration and labour force participation in Africa

In Africa, women migrants constitute a great spring of manpower to sustainable development and are therefore a powerful but untapped economic resource. However, socio-economic and cultural background exerts an important influence on the women's life cycle. Hence, the stalled or slow increase in female labour force in Africa from the 1990s to date is notable (World Development Indicators, 2015). Female migrant labour force participation rate is lower in the Middle East and North Africa than other regions of the world (Robinson, 2005). Young people entering the labour force, particularly women migrants, face extremely high levels of unemployment. According to the World Bank, female unemployment rates are as high as 50 percent in some countries (World Development Report, 2012). High unemployment rate discourages women from joining the labour force and also limit the economic opportunities available to women.

According to the African Union (2021), female migration in Africa is due to a multiplicity of factors that include the need for improved socio-economic conditions through employment, environmental factors, as well as respite from political instability, conflict and civil strife. Africa is also witnessing changing patterns of migration reflected in the feminisation of migration, an increase in the number of youths on the move seeking employment and stability.

African women are involved in various typologies of migration, including cross-border trade, temporary and circular migration and longer-term settlement migration.

Labour migration in Africa is largely intra-regional (80%) and mainly characterized by the migration of low-skilled workers. There are few African countries not participating in migration flows, whether as countries of origin, transit or destination. Demand in economic sectors such as agriculture, fishing, mining and construction as well as services such as domestic work, health care, cleaning, restaurants and hotels and retail trade are significant drivers within the continent (ILO, 2016). Education and employment rates have a huge influence on migration trends, and its relation to working women's decision to migrate varies across region and status. Much of the migration within Africa takes place within regional geographical framework (ICMPD & IOM, 2015).

2.6 Migration trends in Gauteng of (African Female Migrants)

Gauteng remains South Africa's most populated province in South Africa partly because of opportunities in the province (Statistics South Africa, 2018). African female migrants relocate to Gauteng due to a number of reasons, and these can be categorised under economic, social-political, cultural or environmental. The economic strength of Gauteng relates to pull factors that influence its attractiveness to migrants. Migration of females into South Africa has been from countries within the SADC region (Crush & Dodson, 2007). African female migrants have limited economic opportunities, limited access to services and limited choices of shelter, yet over the years there has been an increase of African females migrating alone with the hope of finding their economic independence and empowerment.

In the past, there has been significant increase in the number of African female migrants from other African countries, such as Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Swaziland and Zimbabwe to South Africa. Many African women migrants in South Africa are irregular migrants who enter low skilled employment. No legal visa pathways are available to them, so they are largely unable to engage in the formal economy. Most find employment in informal, domestic and agricultural sectors. Factors, such as gender-based violence, lack of access to education, poverty and political and economic instability are key factors that contribute to the feminisation of migration in Africa.

2.7 Access to labour market

Access to the labour market by African female migrants remains a contentious issue in South Africa. Women are increasingly migrating on their own often to enhance economic opportunities by seeking jobs or education. African women are located at the lower end of the

occupational hierarchy in both informal and formal labour markets (Tsikata, 2009). Education levels are an important factor in determining the nature of working opportunities for women. For African female migrants arriving in South Africa in search of better opportunities for socio-economic wellbeing; however, the South African labour market poses significant challenges for integration.

Many African female migrants who come to South Africa are involved in different job sectors; these include formal employment in the public and private sector, informal jobs, as well as surviving through domestic work, farm work or self-employment by trading in retail, hairdressing, vending and cooking on the street. Little is known about how skilled female migrants who emigrate in the context of family migration, fare in the labour market in South Africa (Scalabrini Institute for Human Mobility in Africa, 2020).

Studies show that African female migration is a growing phenomenon in recent years as more and more women migrate. South Africa is the country with the highest number of domestic workers in Africa, according to ILO (2019). With its larger economy, demands in such sectors as domestic work, agriculture and other services, African female migrants tend to be greatly involved in those sectors. In 2011, 1.1 million domestic workers worked for private households with the majority working in Gauteng province.

2.8 Level of education for African female migrants

Education is another factor that influences the propensity to move. It has been argued that education is not a good predictor of short-term migration but rather of long-term migration (White 2023; Mueller, 2013). According to Stats SA (2011), 39% of foreign-born migrants had completed secondary or higher education. Seven percent did not attend school at all. Stats SA migration dynamics report explains that female migrants are more educated than their male counterpart, and more females proportionally also have higher education.

Female migrants have limited economic opportunities, limited access to services, and limited choices of shelter, yet over the years there has been an increase of females migrating alone with the hope of finding their economic independence and empowerment due to the educational background they have (Phillips and James, 2014:425).

Recent studies in South Africa have shown that African female migration is led by women seeking better work opportunities through wage income or self-employment. Women coming from countries like Nigeria, Zimbabwe and Ghana often have secondary education or tertiary education, and they also tend to migrate to urban places. Young women usually find it easier than older women to migrate because there are more jobs and because they have not yet married

or have established families. Education is to some degree, an insurance against being engaged in the informal sector or in a precarious employment situation but this is not the case with African female migrants in Gauteng.

2.9 Sector of employment for African female migrants

In developing countries, women typically have a narrower range of job opportunities and are most often found in industries, such as clothing manufacturing, agriculture, hospitality and domestic services. Migrant women hold even lower-status jobs than migrant men and are more likely to work in the informal sector of the economy. According to Stats SA (2019), female migrants are much more likely to be doing precarious jobs than South Africans. African female migrants tend to accept more risky jobs because of their willingness to survive and support their families. In search for jobs, many migrants settle mostly in South Africa's urban areas (Kok, 2006)

Many of female migrants' struggle to find work in their home countries due to economic instability; hence, they migrate to South Africa. Most of them are seen going to Gauteng due to opportunities in the province. Domestic work is one of the most prominent sectors for migrant workers in Gauteng. They work for private households in the framework of a work relationship through which the employed person receives remuneration; however, this is often without clear terms of employment and without a work permit, in the case of migrant domestic workers (ILO, 2021). In the domestic sector, African female migrants often work long hours and receive lower wages too.

According to SAIIA 2019, the majority of African female migrants in Gauteng province find employment as street vendors or hairdressers as they do not have proper paperwork to participate in the formal sector. These sectors have long been an important division of employment for Black South African women and now increasingly women migrants from other African countries have also become participants. Migrants play a positive role in the South African economy as they contribute immensely by paying rent and providing affordable goods to the consumers.

2.10 The main reason of African female migration

According to Masanja (2012), African women move independently within and outside their countries for reasons, such as economic, education, professional development, marriage and protection. The increasing feminisation of migration is a result of the shifting demands for types of skills, such as in the service industries, especially for domestic workers, nurses, teachers, care workers and other typically female dominated professions. The feminisation of

migration serves to contribute to gender equality, as women become economically empowered, gain new skills and take on different roles in countries of origin, transit and destination. Recent years have witnessed an overall feminisation in migration from Africa, but also on a global scale.

With increasing levels of education among African women in the past decades, they have become more qualified and willing to participate in the migration of skilled professionals (Peil, 1995; Adepoju, 2002). African women are now increasingly involved in international migration movements as part of survival and in search of better opportunities even in the face of low wages, unemployment, rural underdevelopment and poverty. Fuelled by the rapid population growth in relation to the lack of resources and opportunities in the country of origin, migrants set out in search of greener pastures.

Migration is increasingly being recognised as a significant global challenge and opportunity and is an important phenomenon shaping the demographic profile of countries. Women are joining migration flows in growing numbers as independent workers, which has important consequences for gender equality in countries of origin and destination alike. Factors like better life, high income, greater security, better quality of education and health care contribute to African women migrating to other countries. According to IOM (2020), some women migrate to be economically independent, solely so they can take care of their children, themselves and be emancipated from social pressures and what are known as “gendered expectations”.

2.11 African female migrants and sector of activity

Many migrants perceived South Africa as having a thriving, vibrant and developed economy where jobs are available, despite South Africa having an unemployment rate of 32.9% (Stats SA, 2023). African women are located at the lower end of the occupational hierarchy in both informal and formal labour markets (Tsikata, 2009). Moreover, when compared to men, their labour is more highly concentrated in the informal sector. Domestic work is an important sector of occupation for African women, but migrants only constitute a small part of it. Many of the tasks domestic workers perform are extremely important for households. In South Africa, domestic service has long been an important sector of employment for Black South African women and increasingly female migrants from other African countries (Griffin, 2011).

Education levels are an important factor in determining the nature of working opportunities for women. A migrant woman with the correct or legal documentation and a formal job will cope and adapt better than a migrant who must first regularise her stay before she can get formal employment and earn a living. Uneducated migrants must rely on or take a lower level skill position like physical labour instead of using their intellectual skills to earn a living (Ncube.

2017). For instance, in South Africa, Zimbabwean migrant women are likely to work in low-skilled and low-paying jobs, although the majority have completed secondary and tertiary education, mainly because of the non-recognition of their foreign qualifications and the prejudices against foreign education in the host country (Tayah, 2016).

According to Cohen & Moodley (2012), in many countries, informal employment represents a significant part of the economy and labour market, and thus plays a major role in production, employment creation and income generation. The informal employment sector is not a protected sector, in the sense that there are no adequate social safety nets, for example, unemployment insurance and other social protection benefits do not exist. Wages may also be low, and the hours are not regulated. Almost one in two migrant women are involved in the informal sector in South Africa.

2.12 Review of policy on migration in South Africa

After the National Party took power in 1948, the Afrikaner government implemented three major migration policies (OECD/ILO 2018). In order to separate the population into four racial groups —White, Black, Indian and Coloured — the 1950 Population Registration Act was introduced. All Black people were required to carry ‘reference books’ containing their photographs and information about their places of origin, their employment records, their tax payments and their encounter with the police. From 1961 until 1991 the South African government implemented a ‘proactive White (and Protestant) immigration policy to selectively allow immigrants to stay in the country based on racial criteria (Kabwe-Segatti, 2008).

After the end of apartheid in 1994, South Africa found itself saddled with an immigration policy that researchers describe as one of the ‘dying Acts of apartheid’ – the Aliens Control Act of 1991 (Hart, 2014). According to Khan (2007), the Aliens Control Act did not totally restrict Africans from neighbouring countries to enter South Africa; however, they were mainly allowed to enter as labourers. The legislation was also designed to prohibit the movement of migrant workers from changing and abandoning their employment.

An important piece of post-apartheid migration legislation is the 1998 Refugees Act, enacted in 2000, and widely considered to be one of the most progressive refugee laws (Johnson & Carciotto, 2017). This Act permits migrants to apply for permanent residence after five years of stay in the country, guarantees fundamental socio-economic rights, including access to health and education services, and the right to work as asylum seekers. It has been suggested that during apartheid, immigration took place through a two-gate policy. The “front gate” welcomed certain “desirable” White migrants that did not constitute a threat to “European culture”. The “back gate” tolerated “undesirable” and often clandestine African migrants for

temporary periods, to satisfy the labour demands of mining and agriculture (DHA, 2010). The new government enabled many migrants to come to the country from other corners of Africa.

According to Segati (2011), between 1994 and 2004, the Department of Home Affairs developed a new post-apartheid immigration policy framework. During the Immigration Act 2002, migration to South Africa was in decline and only 30% of immigrants were in unskilled positions. In 2005, skilled migrant from Africa exceeded those from Europe for the first time, and between 2000 and 2004, legal immigration to South Africa grew from around 4 000 to 11 000 immigrants per annum. The Immigration Amendment Act 2007 made changes in favour of cross-border traders, particularly focusing on women.

Following the passage of comprehensive immigration reform in 2002, the policy environment became more welcoming for skilled foreigners. Further progressive changes followed these initial reforms in the following years, and the country's immigration policy has been repeatedly amended (in 2004, 2007, 2011 and 2016) with the stated aim of encouraging more skilled labour migration. Despite progressive policy change, the government has remained highly concerned with border security and the risks associated with international migration.

2.13 Conceptual framework

Migration of female migrants is selective. Hence, participation of African female migrants is associated with female migrant's socio-demographic characteristics such as age, marital status and level of education.

2.13.1 Age of female migrants

Like the populations of developing countries in general, most migrant populations in Africa are young. Female migrants are typically very young with many women making their first move as teenagers. Migration among women tends to peak at ages 15 to 24. A second, smaller age peak occurs at around age 45; however, women in their forties may be able to migrate more readily than women in their late 20s or 30s. Migrants often are younger than non-migrants in the same area, for example, in 19 out of 22 countries studied using the Demographic Health Survey (DHS) data on urban women of reproductive age, a larger percentage of migrants than non-migrants were below the age of twenty-five (Posel, 2003). Many young migrants set out to find opportunities for work or education, or to escape challenges and difficulties in their country of origin.

Working-age women are more likely to migrate from households where there is old-age pension-eligible women present (Ardington et al., 2009). In recent years, gendered labour allocation regimes which were previously sustained by women's economic dependence on

men, household gender attitudes and social pressure have become less relevant as women have become more educated and less likely to marry; this also gives them an opportunity to migrate to their places of choice. Young adults have a positive net expected return on migration due to their extended life expectancy.

Migration rates are generally low for children which then increases from the age of ten and peaks at the age category between 25 and 29 years (Roux, 2009). In Gauteng, migration rates are generally high for migrants aged 20 to 29 followed by the category 30 to 39 (Peberdy et al., 2017). People also often migrate from one place to the other as a result of being attracted by better incomes offered by the destination area.

2.13.2 Gender selectivity

Women, both single and married, are now migrating independently in search of secure jobs in rich countries as a survival strategy to augment dwindling family income, thus redefining traditional gender roles within families and societies (Adepoju, 2006d). Gender is central to the causes and consequences of migration and shapes every stage of the journey. Women are often compelled to migrate for different push and pull factors than men. The characteristics of women migration continue to evolve and change. Historically, women have had less autonomy over migration choices. Yet evidence is now showing that a growing number of women are making individual migration decisions and moving more than ever to meet their own or their families' economic needs (Pophiwa, 2014).

According to O'Neil et al. (2016), South Africa has become the regional migration hub in southern Africa, including for women. Historically, migration to South Africa was predominantly an act by single, male labourers. There has been a distinct rise in women migrants, as a proportion of total migrants but particularly in absolute numbers. Estimates indicate the number of women migrants in South Africa has quadrupled since 1990 (Crush et al., 2017). The overall rise in the number of African female migrants is linked to the increasing role they play as economic beings. Despite these changes, women migrants are less able to advance their own interests than men. Women remain more likely to migrate as a result of a family decision and are more likely to choose destinations, according to perceived economic opportunities and the presence of social networks.

The demand for labour is increasingly becoming gender-selective and more in favour of jobs typically filled by women. Gender selectivity appears to depend on the level of development in the country or region concerned. Witherick (1993:86) notes that in advanced countries today, a disproportionate number of women are involved in short-distance migration and men in long-distance migration. Displacement and migration often disrupt gender norms and increase or

introduce new pressures for both men and women. Men are often not able to provide for or meet the expectations of their families. Women may be expected to work for the first time. African women increasingly participate in migration as a family survival strategy.

2.13.3 Marital status of female migrants

According to Hosegood (2009), single young females are most likely to move in search of jobs in the age group where marriage is most likely. Declines in formal marriage rates across all groups may have affected female migration rates positively in two other ways, firstly, women not living with men in restrictive relationships would have been free to pursue personal income-maximising strategies and secondly, women not living with men might have needed to migrate to distant labour markets to compensate for the absence of male incomes.

The migration of single women is usually associated with economic motives; hence, they move from one destination to another. Unmarried migrant women often marry once they settle in new places. Women are migrating independently on an international level, unaccompanied by their spouses, to flee the rising levels of poverty in order to meet their economic needs rather than relying on their husbands (Adepoju, 2005b:2). Several studies reported that more than half of the global migrants are women migrating independently seeking employment opportunities (IOM, 2008; Ghosh, 2009).

Married women who bear the main responsibility for feeding their families, have increasingly turned to migration to satisfy their cash needs. The decision to migrate across regional territories is not a personal venture but a familial affair that involves family participation in deciding who, where and when to move. Thus, when decisions are made that women join their spouses, they are left with limited choices. Recent studies reveal that married women around the late 20s to early 30s are the ones who are likely to migrate in order to support their families (Peberdy, 2017).

2.13.4 Level of education of female migrants

Looking into education, Connell et al. (1976:61) state that educational status is a marketable commodity; hence, schooling is used specifically to gain better employment for an individual and the location of such employment requires one to migrate. According to the 2011 Census, 39% of African female migrants had completed secondary or higher education and only 7% did not attend school at all. Stats SA's migration dynamics report explained that female migrants were more educated than their male counterparts and more females proportionally also had higher education. Increased education seems to encourage more migration of women

and in turn foster greater education of females and give rise to economic opportunities among other reasons for the acceptability of women migration.

According to Parshotam (2018), numerous female migrants do not have higher educational skills and they find it difficult to find decent work; thus, they enter the market as semi-skilled or unskilled workers in South Africa. Their lack of education compared to men limits their opportunities and they most often find themselves holding marginal jobs characterized by low wages and little security. Employers tend to see migrant women as inexpensive, docile and expendable. As a result of such conditions, women who migrate to urban places like Gauteng often become prisoners of their low status, both as migrants and as women. On the job, they often have no voice or means to protest long hours and the violation of local labour laws and regulations.

2.14 Chapter summary

This chapter focused on the literature review of labour force participation of African female migrants. The first section of the study concentrated on theoretical literature that discussed various theories that encourage women to migrate. One of the main findings was that women migrate as a result of both push and pull factors. The Gauteng province which serves as South Africa's economic center was the subject of empirical literature in the second section. In search of better economic, educational, or career opportunities, African women migrate to the Gauteng province. Africa's female migrants, mostly from Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Lesotho, consistently flood to the province. Most African women who migrate to Gauteng province are between the ages of 15 and 24 years and a majority have completed their secondary education.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter will concentrate on the research methods used to analyse African female migrants who are active in the South African labour market in the province of Gauteng. In relation to the sort of research and the study's context, firstly the study's scope and research perspective is explored. Secondly, the chapter will examine the study design, including sampling procedures and data gathering methods. In addition, the process of data analysis will be examined, along with how the variables will be analysed an important aspect of this study is the data analysis, which comprises describing variables such the descriptive name, position, source and valid range of variables. Examining the connections or relationships among employment, socio-demographic, socio-economic, and migration-related variables are the study's main goal. The method of hypothesis testing is examined in the context to determine whether they are valid or not.

3.2 Scope and perspective

In terms of the factors that will be examined through scientific sampling, the study on labour force participation among African migrant women is quantitative. In Gauteng province, there has been minimal statistical research done on the labour force involvement of African female migrants. Age, gender, employment position, income, education level, country of birth, and marital status are just a few examples of the socio-demographic, socio-economic and migratory variables of the female migrants that are considered in the study.

The socio-economic factors such as employment status, level of income, occupation, type of sector and reasons for not working are analysed for the study. Gauteng will be used as the geographical setting to measure African females migrating to the province. The study examines the relationship between African female migration and the labour force situation by combining socio-economic, socio-demographic, migratory and labour force participation variables. To understand the direction of migration and the impact it has on women from African countries that migrate, migratory factors such the year of movement, country of birth, duration of stay and citizenship were used.

3.3 Research design

According to Singh (2023), a research design can be referred to as a plan or framework used to conduct a research study. It involves outlining the overall approach and methods that will be used to collect and analyse data in order to answer research questions or test hypotheses. A

well-designed research study should have a clear and well-defined research question, a detailed plan for collecting data and a method for analysing and interpreting the results.

Since the study includes information from a population census conducted between 2001 and 2011, a cross-sectional design will be used in the investigation. Survey research is typically associated with this type of design. It consists of taking a random sample of individuals to respond to questions related to the participants' backgrounds, past experiences and attitudes (Nsengiyumva, 2013). From a statistical perspective, the study is interested in which African females are active in the labour market and which industries they work in. This is because South Africa has a large African female population.

3.4 Data sources

This study will use both the 2001 and 2011 population census data obtained from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). The second population census, Census 2001, was carried out in October 2001, over the nights of October 9 and 10. The third census, Census 2011, following the post-democratic elections in 1994, measured a number of demographic and household characteristics and produced a wide range of statistics. From October 9 until October 31, 2011, the census was scheduled to take place. The date was changed to December 2011 though, as the census could not be finished in this time frame. The 2011 census data, which provides information on all the variables necessary for the completion of this dissertation, is the most recent demographic census to contain data relating to migration and labour force variables.

In order to comply with a global United Nations directive calling for a census every five years, planning for the population count began in 2003, initially with a countrywide count scheduled for 2006. A comprehensive Community Survey was carried out across all provinces in February 2007. Then, in 2008 and 2009, pilot censuses were used to create methodologies and procedures to test them. In 2010, a year before the 2011 Census, the last pilot was tested. The pilot's results were used to improve the strategies and preparations for a final test in 2010, which was supposed to replicate the 2011 Census.

3.5 Data collection

The population censuses from 2001 and 2011 was used for the data analysis in this study. The data was collected using questionnaires in both 2001 and 2011 population censuses (This is due to the fact that the Census 2022 data was not yet released when the research was undertaken). The second census after the democratic elections in 1994 was conducted in 2001. The most difficult and significant task a national statistical office performs is a population census. It involves mapping the entire nation, enlisting and training a sizable number of

enumerators, launching an extensive publicity campaign, encouraging every household to participate, gathering personal information, compiling sizable amounts of completed questionnaires, and then analysing and disseminating the results.

For the purpose of gathering census data, the enumerators received training. Information was gathered through in-person interviews with respondents. Families were urged to let the interviewer fill out the questionnaires, but in rare circumstances, those who wished to do so themselves were provided written instructions on how to do so. The surveys were written in English, and there were additional instructions available in a number of South African languages.

3.6 Description of the variables

The aim of the study is to pinpoint the features of African female migrants who are active in the labour force in South Africa, more specifically in the Gauteng area. The 2011 Census, which is the most recent one available, and the 2001 Census will be used to choose and extract the variables. The variables will be divided into three categories in relation to these characteristics, socio-demographic variables, socio-economic variables and migratory variables.

3.6.1 Socio-demographic variables

Socio-demographic variables will include migrants' characteristics, such as age, marital status and level of education.

3.6.1.1 Age group

The variable examines the age of African female migrants who are employed in South Africa. According to Stats SA (2011), age is the interval of time between the day, month and year of birth and the day and year of occurrence of the event expressed in the largest completed unit of solar time. The following question was posed in order to ascertain the participants' ages: "What is the age in completed years?" Age will be categorized in age groups as follows: (1) 15-19, (2) 20-24, (3) 25-29, (4) 30-34, (5) 35-39, (6) 40-44, (7) 45-49, (8) 50-54, (9) 55-59 and (10) 60-64.

The age groups were recoded as follows:

(1) 15-29

(2) 30-49

(3) 50-64

3.6.1.2 Marital status

This variable will be examined to determine marital status trends among African female migrants in South Africa. The term ‘marital status’ can be used to describe a person’s position in regard to a nation’s marriage laws or customs. Customary unions are now recognised as a legal marital status. The questioning was as follows: ‘What is (*name’s*) present marital status?’ The categories under marital status are single, married, cohabiting as a married pair, divorced, separated, and widowed. The marital status can be categorised as follows:

- (1) Married
- (2) Never married
- (3) Widowed
- (4) Divorced

3.6.1.3 Level of education

Education prepares people for entering the workforce in the future, which has a direct impact on both their quality of life and the nation’s economy (Stats SA, 2011). This variable will examine the level of education of African immigrant women in South Africa. The question asked was: ‘What is the highest level of education completed?’ This question was intended to establish the level of education completed, not the current level the individual was at. This variable will be coded as follows:

- (1) No schooling
- (2) Primary education
- (3) Secondary education
- (4) Tertiary education

3.6.2 Socio-economic variables

For this variable, attention is paid to the following factors: employment status, level of income, occupation, type of sector and reasons for not working.

3.6.2.1 Employment status

This variable examines the job status of all African female migrants who are in the labour force. The term ‘employed’ refers to those who were working for income, profit or family gain at the time of the census or who were not working but were engaged in some kind of job (Stats SA).

The employed will be all persons who are 15 years or older. The following options were: (1) Employed, (2) Unemployed and (3) Discouraged work-seeker, (4) Other not economically active, (5) Age less than 15 years and (6) Eligible age but no response to employment questions. And these were recoded as follows:

- (1) Employed
- (2) Unemployed
- (3) Not economically active

3.6.2.2 Level of income

Based on their income bracket, the variable was used to calculate the level of income for African immigrant women. The question that was asked was: ‘What is the income category that best describes the gross annual or monthly income of *(name)* before deductions and including all sources of income?’ The options for the respondent were as follows:

- (1) No income
- (2) Low income
- (3) Middle income
- (4) High income

3.6.2.3 Occupation

The question that was asked was ‘What kind of work does *(name)* usually do in his/her main job/business?’ This variable will examine the line of work that African female migrants are engaged in. The choices were divided into the following categories: (1) Managers (2) Professionals, (3) Clerk (4) Sales and services, (5) Skilled agricultural, (6) Craft and related trades workers, (7) Plant and machine operators (8) Domestic workers and related helpers (9) Street vendors and related workers. And the choices were recoded as follows:

- (1) Professionals
- (2) Non-professionals
- (3) Domestic workers and related helpers
- (4) Other

3.6.2.4 Type of sector

This question assisted in determining the industry in which African female migrants work. The following question was posed: “Is (*name*’s) place of work? And the answers were recorded as follows: Type of section only appears in 2011 Population Census.

- (1) In the formal sector
- (2) In the informal sector
- (3) Private household

3.6.2.5 Reasons for not working

Regarding this variable, the following question was posed: “What was the main reason for not trying to find work or starting a business in the last four weeks before” furthermore providing the options listed, (1) Awaiting the season for work, (2) Pregnancy, (3) Disabled or unable to work (handicapped), (4) Housewife/homemaker (family considerations/child care), (5) No jobs available in the area, (6) Lack of money to pay for transport to look for work, (7) Unable to find work requiring his/her skills, (8) Did not want to work. The options were recoded as follows:

- (1) Housewife/homemaker
- (2) Student
- (3) Could not find work
- (4) Other

The 2001 and the 2011 population censuses were not consistent regarding the categories of reasons for not working. However, in this study, the categories that were not included in the 2001 dataset were recorded as ‘Other reasons for not working’, this helps to maintain consistency in the data analysis. The ‘Other reasons for not working’ include (1) Awaiting the season to work, (2) Waiting to be recalled to former job, (3) Health reasons, (4) Undergoing training to help find work, (5) Lost hope of finding any kind of work, (6) Too old/young to work

3.6.3 Migratory variables

This will consist of country of birth and year of movement.

3.6.3.1 Country of birth

To identify the nationalities that were most prevalent, the country of birth was used as a stand-in for citizenship. To determine the country which African female migrants are from, the following question was asked “In which country in Africa were you born?” The choices were refined as follows:

- (1) Zimbabwe
- (2) Lesotho
- (3) Botswana
- (4) Namibia
- (5) Mozambique

The variable, country of birth, assists in measuring the differentials among African female migrants from different African countries in relation to labour force participation.

3.6.3.2 Year of movement

According to previous studies, the end of apartheid drew a large number of immigrants to Gauteng province. This variable was used to calculate the number of years’ migrants have lived in South Africa. The question was posed as follows: “In which year did you move to South Africa?” The relocation shouldn't take place prior to October 2001. In this study this variable was recorded as follows:

- (1) 2001
- (2) 2002
- (3) 2003
- (4) 2004
- (5) 2005
- (6) 2006
- (7) 2007
- (8) 2008
- (9) 2009
- (10) 2010

3.7 Methods of data analysis

The goal of data analysis is to provide accurate and dependable information. The usage of a computer will aid in the analysis of huge amounts of data, and the data analysis will be tested using SPSS version 28. Three statistical methods—univariate, bivariate and multivariate analyses—will be used to approach data analysis.

The dataset will be examined using descriptive statistics as part of the univariate approach. Cross-tabulation and Chi-square test of Independence statistics are used in the bivariate approach to assess the association between the independent and dependent variables. Multivariate analysis, which comprises of logistic regression, will be the final technique utilised to determine the variables influencing the labour force participation of African female migrants in South Africa.

3.7.1 Univariate analysis

Univariate analysis determines the distribution of a single variable. The primary purpose of univariate analysis is to describe the data using techniques such as frequency tables and graphs to inform about the attributes of the variables under study.

3.7.2 Bivariate analysis

Bivariate analysis can be referred to as the analysis of two variables to determine relationships between them. Another type of data analysis will be utilised in this chapter to investigate the relationship between the characteristics of African female migrants and labour force variables in South Africa. The population censuses of 2001 and 2011 will be compared using their respective data sets. The analysis will be done by the cross-tabulation technique, using a two-way table with categorical variable distribution.

In order to compare two variables and determine whether they have any relation to one another, the Chi-square test of Independence will be conducted. Additionally, this will make it easier for us to comprehend and analyse how the variables are related. With SPSS's assistance, the p-value will be calculated. If the p-value is less than 0.05, it may be asserted that there is statistical significance between the two variables. We, therefore, reject the null hypothesis. This number determines the statistical significance of the link between the variables.

The Chi-square formula is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

The analysis will include the Cramer's V test to assess the strength of the association between the categorical variables.

Table 3.1: Cramer's V interpretation

Estimated values	Interpretation of association
0.00–0.10	Negligible
0.10–0.20	Weak
0.20–0.40	Moderate
0.40–0.60	Relatively strong
0.60–0.80	Strong
0.80–1.00	Very strong

Source: https://www.researchgate.net/figure/Interpretation-of-PH-in-Chi-statistics-or-Cramers-V_tbl2_311335682

It ranges from 0 to 1 where:

- 0 indicates no association between the two variables.
- 1 indicates a perfect association between the two variables.

3.7.3 Multivariate analysis

After conducting a bivariate analysis, a multivariate analysis will be conducted which examines more than two variables. The correlation between the dependent variables, such as employment status, occupation and reasons for not working, and the independent variables (age group, marital status, level of education, level of income and country of birth) will be investigated using a multinomial logistic regression. The study's use of logistic regression will help to clarify how the dependent and independent variables relate to one another.

3.7.3.1 Multinomial logistic regression

The effect of African female migrants socio-demographic, socio-economic and migration characteristics on labour force will be investigated using multinomial logistics regression. Multinomial logistic regression is used to model nominal outcome variables, in which the log odds of the outcomes are modelled as a linear combination of the predictor variables. This model can be used with any number of independent variables that are categorical or continuous. Ramadhan et al (2017), categories of the outcome variable must be mutually exclusive and

exhaustive. When the dependent variables involve three or more categories, multinomial logistic regression is used, and the multinomial logistic regression model in which the dependent variables are more than two, discrete and non-ordered categories with nominal properties and exhibit multinomial distribution is an expansion of the binomial logistic distribution for the category.

According to Ramadhan et al (2017), in order to make comparisons or analyses, a baseline category should be determined in this model. The package software has the ability to randomly select the baseline category (J). For example, if the dependent variable has 1, 2, 3, and 4 categories, the baseline category can be set to 1. The dependent variable has four categories, therefore three odds ratios are calculated, each category is compared with these ratios, and the model is linearized by taking the natural logarithms of these odds ratios to obtain logistic models.

Given the predictors $X_1, \dots, X_p, 1, \dots, 1$, *multinomial logistic regression* models the probability of each level j of K by;

$$\pi_j = \frac{\exp\left(\sum_{k=1}^k \beta_{jk} \chi_k\right)}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{j-1} \left(\sum_{k=1}^k \beta_{jk} \chi_k\right)} \quad j= 1, 2, \dots, J - 1 \quad (1)$$

Multinomial logistic regression also includes Goodness of fit, which provides results of the Chi-Square. Goodness-of-Fit test is used to assess the significance of the overall mode and it determines a statistically significant result on the "Pearson" measure which indicates that the model is not a good fit for the data. Model fitting information is also another way to assess the fit of the model, significance here means that the model with the variables is a better predictor than the model without the variables. Likelihood ratio tests, indicates the significance of each predictor variable.

3.8 Chapter summary

This chapter details the research methods that was used in this study. In order to justify the number of African female migrants who participated in the labour force between 2001 and 2011, quantitative research will be used in the study. The population censuses of 2001 and 2011 will be utilised as a source of data for comparison. The analysis methods that were used include univariate, bivariate, and multivariate. Frequency tables and graphs were used in the univariate method, cross tabulation and chi-square in the bivariate method, and multinomial logistic regression in the multivariate method. The analysis will be applied in the next chapter.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 Introduction

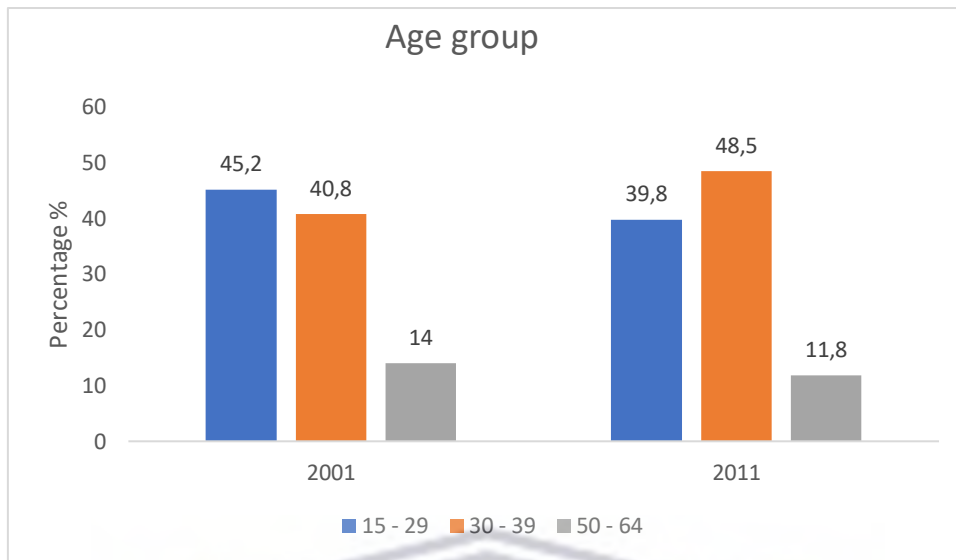
This chapter will focus on analysis of African female migrants who were involved in the labour market in Gauteng province. A comparison using the 2001 and 2011 Population Censuses will be done for the analysis on African female migrants in Gauteng province. The study will use three approaches for the analyses: univariate, bivariate and multivariate. The univariate analysis will look at features of African female migration using descriptive statistics which consists of frequency tables and graphs. Secondly, the bivariate method will include cross-tabulation where the relationship between dependent and independent variables will be tested by using the Chi-square test of Independence. Lastly, the multivariate analysis will consist of the Multinomial Logistical Regression technique to test the significant of the variables.

4.2 Size and distribution of African female migrants (Univariate analysis)

4.2.1 Age group of African female migrants

Figure 4.1 displays the age group of African female migrant using Census 2001 and Census 2011. The figure shows that in 2001 the highest percentage of African female migrants who were participating in the labour force in Gauteng was in the age group 15-29 with 45.2%, followed by the age group 30-49 with 40.8%. In 2011, the age group 15-29 decreased to 39.8% while the highest age group was 30-49 which increased to 48.5%. In the 50-64 age group, the statistics dropped from 14% in 2001 to 11.8% in 2011.

Figure 4.1: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of age group of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011



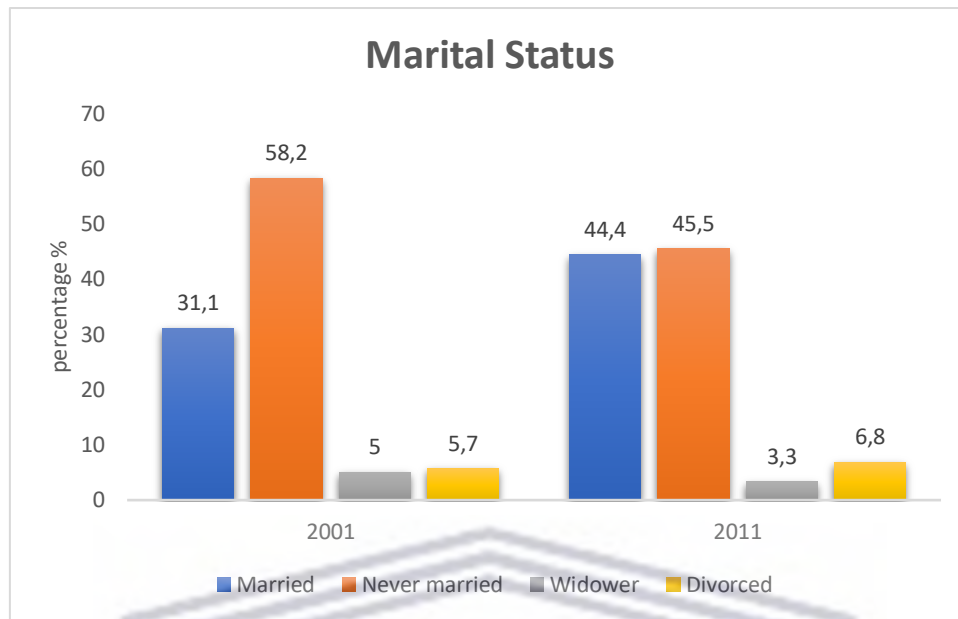
Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.2.2 Marital status of African female migrants

Figure 4.2 displays the frequency distribution of marital status of African female migrants both in Census 2001 and Census 2011. The figure shows that in 2001 most migrants who were involved in the labour force were never married with 58.2% followed by those who were married with 31.1%. But in 2011 the results show that there is a huge increase of married women involved in the labour force with 44.4%. However, those who are not married still dominates the labour market with 45.5%.

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Figure 4.2: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of marital status of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011

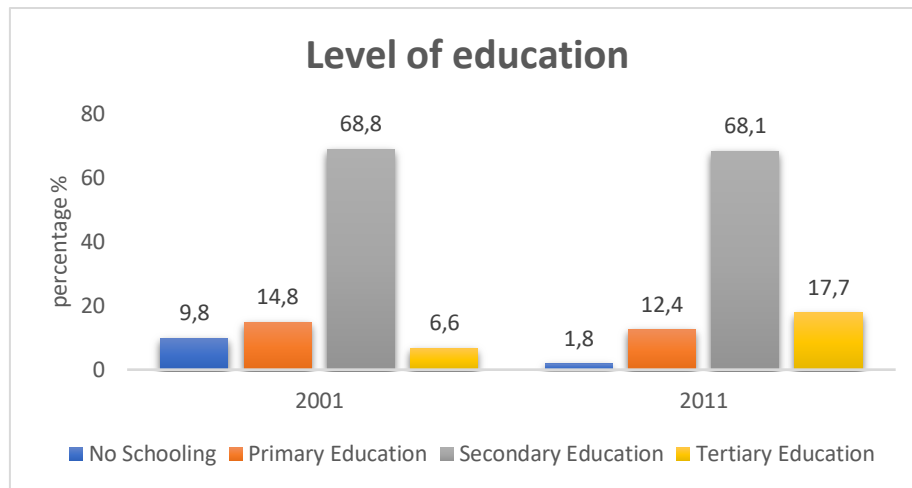


Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.2.3 Level of education of African female migrants

The findings show in 2001 that 68.8% of African female migrants completed secondary education followed by those have completed primary education with 14.8%. In 2011, the graph shows that 17.7% of African female migrants have completed tertiary education and only 1.8% had no schooling at all. Compared to 2001, the number of African female migrants who have completed secondary education slightly decreased to 68.1%. The females with tertiary education show a jump from 6.6% in 2001 to 17.7% in 2011 which is more than 10% which is impressive.

Figure 4.3: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of the level of education of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011

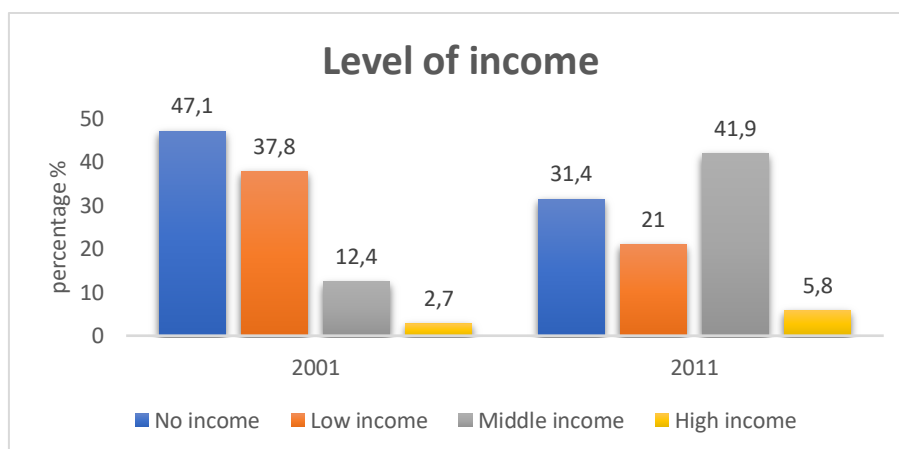


Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.2.4 Level of income of African female migrants

The graph, Figure 4.4 shows that in 2001, 37.8% of African female migrants were receiving low income and the reason might be that most of migrants are working the informal sector. 12.4% were receiving middle income while a portion of 2.7% received high income. In 2011, the percentage of African female migrants who were receiving low income decreased to 21% while those who earning middle income increased massively to 41.9%. The high income doubled from 2.7% in 2001 to 5.8% in 2011 which reflects that more African female migrants are obtaining higher education.

Figure 4.4: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of the level of income of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011

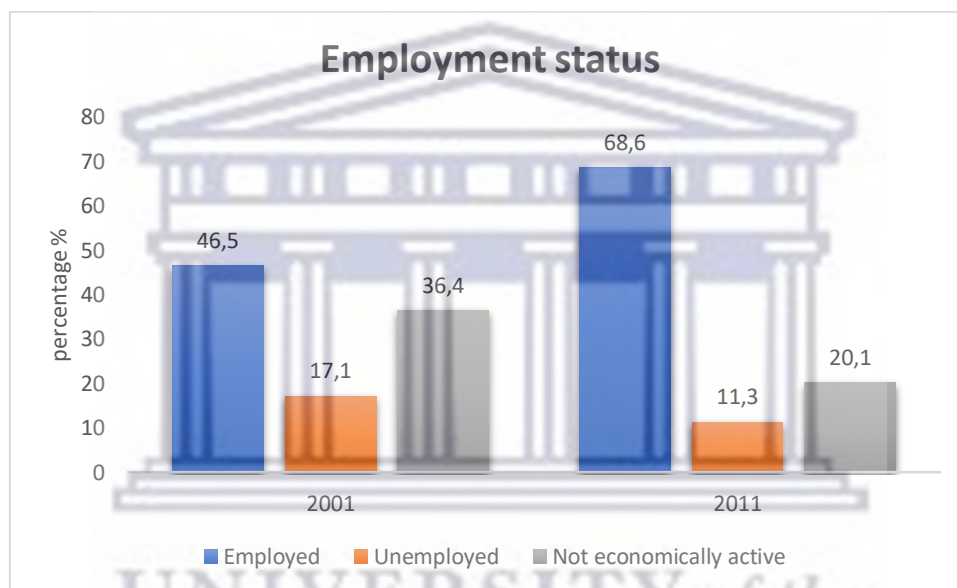


Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.2.5 Employment status of African female migrants

The graph in Figure 4.5 shows that in 2001, majority of African female migrants who were in the labour force were employed with 46.5%, followed by Africa female migrants who were not economically active with 36.4% and this can due to various factors which hinders them to work. In 2011, 68.6% of African female migrants were employed and this is a huge increase from 2001, and 11.3% of the migrants were unemployed. Thus, there has been a substantial upward improvement in the employment rate for African female migrants.

Figure 4.5: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of employment status of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011

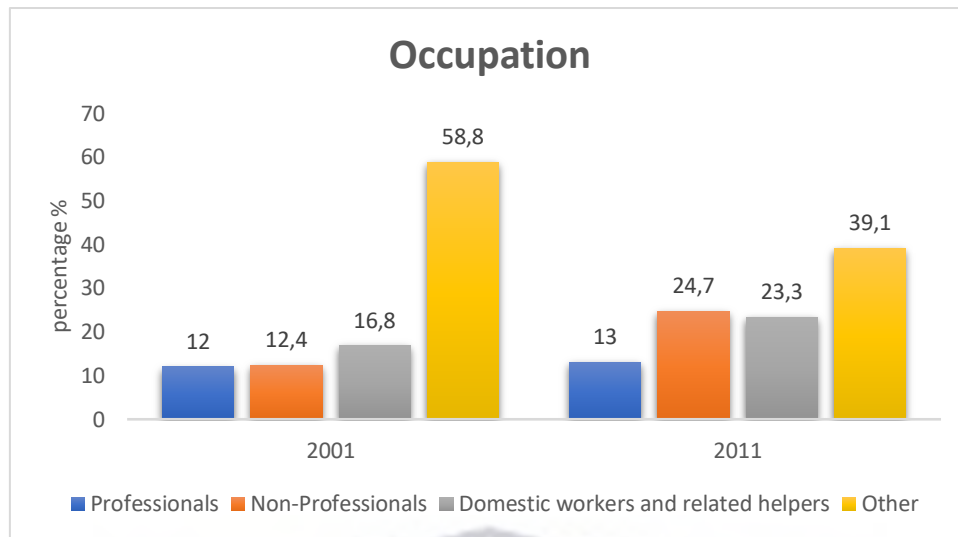


Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.2.6 Occupation of African female migrants

Regarding occupation level, Figure 4.6 shows that in 2001, 16.8% of African female migrants were domestic workers and related helpers while 12.4% were professionals and 12% non-professionals. Furthermore, in 2011, the number of domestic workers and related helpers increased to 23.3% while number of non-professionals also increased to 24.7%.

Figure 4.6: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of occupation of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011

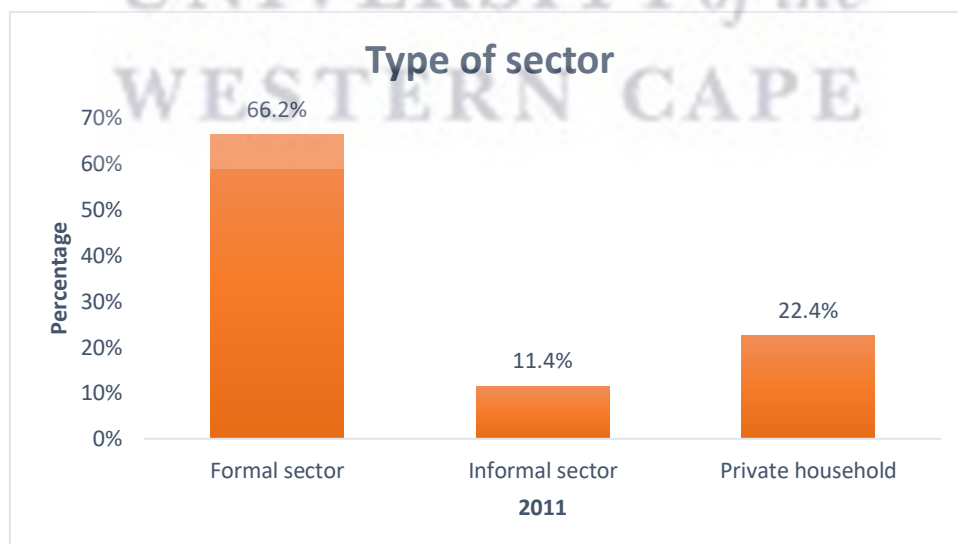


Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.2.7 Type of sector by African female migrants

The Figure 4.7 below displays type of sector in 2011 and it shows that most African female migrants were in the formal sector with 66.2% followed by those who were involved in the private household with 22.4% and lastly, those involved in the informal sector with 11.4%.

Figure 4.7: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of occupation of African female migrants, 2011

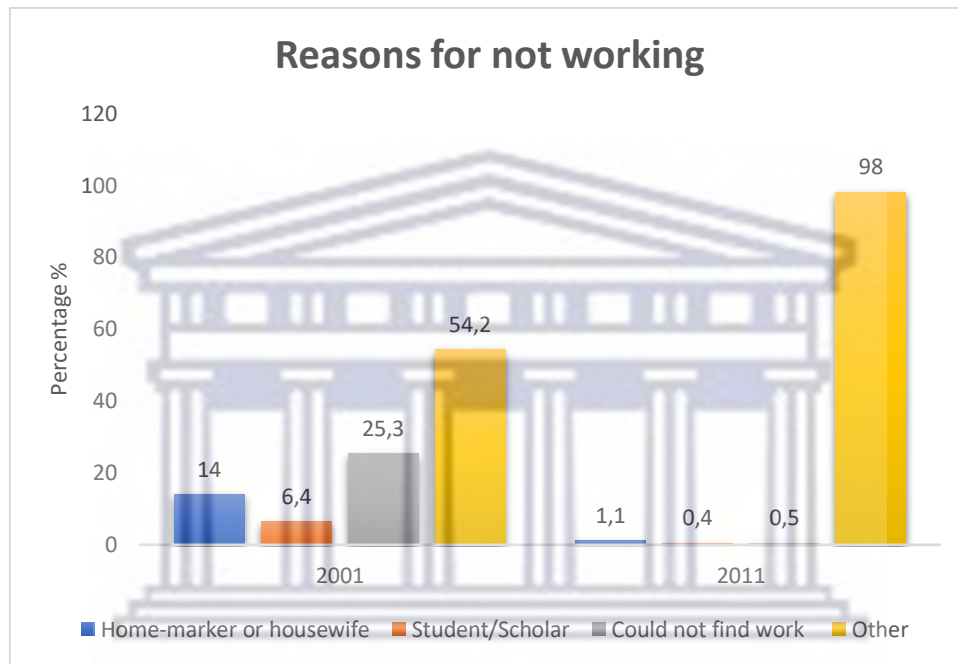


Source: Author's own calculation using 2011 Population census

4.2.8 Reasons for not working by African female migrants

Regarding reasons for not working among African female migrants, the data reveal that in 2001, most of African female migrants could not find work with 25.3%, while 14% were home-markers and 6.4% were students. In 2011, most of the female migrants were housewives with 1.1%, and hence, they could not work.

Figure 4.8: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of reasons for not working of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011

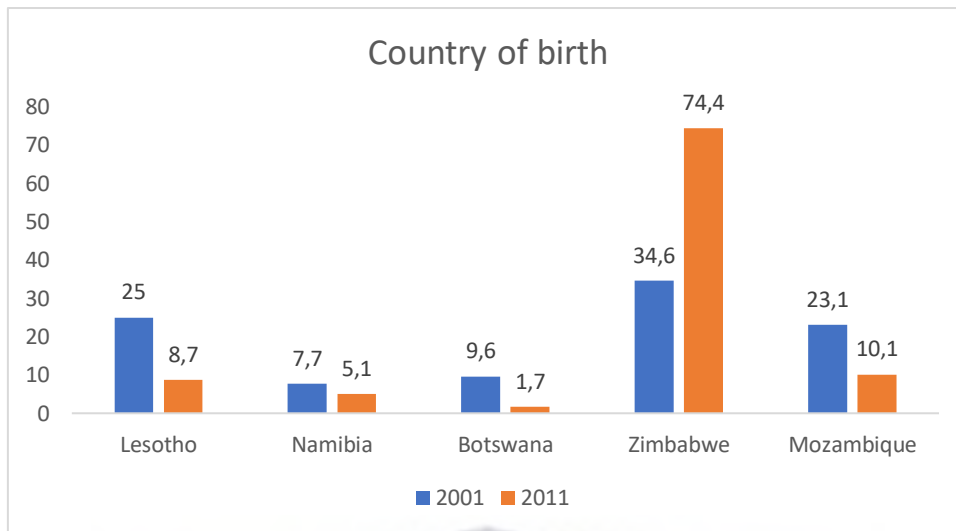


Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.2.9 Country of birth by African female migrants

With regards to country of birth, in 2001, most African female migrants were from Zimbabwe with 34.6% followed by Lesotho with 25% and Mozambique with 23.1%. Furthermore, in 2011, the country that had highest percentage of female migrants was from Zimbabwe with 74.4%, followed by Mozambique with 10.1%. The lowest African female migrants in Gauteng were from Botswana and Namibia with 1.7% and 5.1%, respectively.

Figure 4.9: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of country of birth of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011

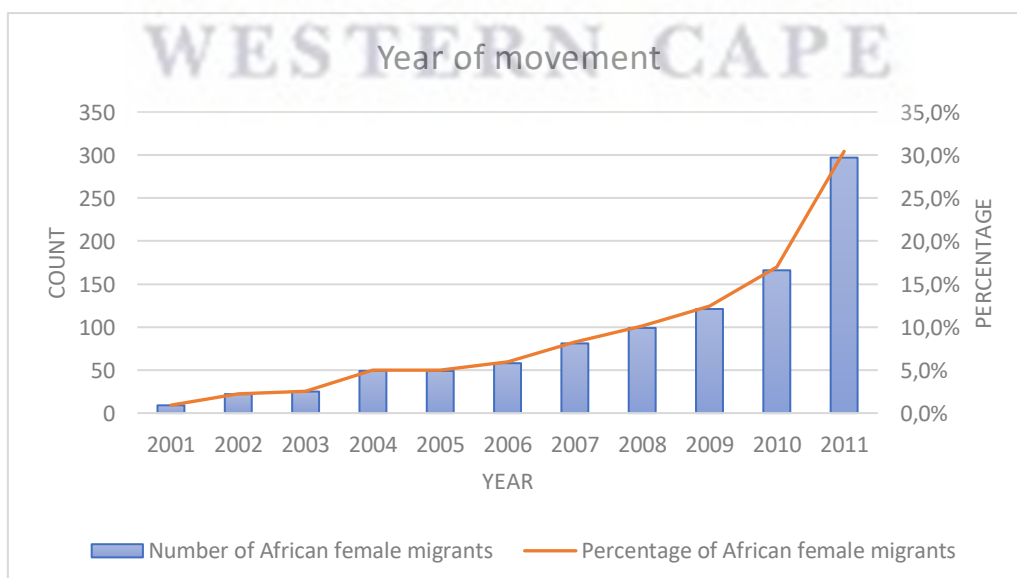


Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuse

4.2.10 Year of movement by African female migrants

This figure below displays year of movement from 2001 to 2011, it shows that most African female migrants moved to Gauteng province in 2011 with 30.4%, followed by 2010 with 17%. The figure also shows that in year 2004 and 2005, 5% of African female migrants moved to the province to seek better life. The figure shows that from 2001 to 2011, there had been a progressive increase of migrants.

Figure 4.10: Bar graph displaying the percentage distribution of year of movement of African female migrants, 2001 to 2011



Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.3 Employment status and African female migrant's characteristics (Bivariate analysis)

The section will make use of bivariate analysis to investigate the relationship between employment status and African female migrant characteristics. The bivariate method will make use of the cross-tabulation technique to test the hypothesis and significance of the relationship.

4.3.1 The distribution between employment status and age group

The table presents the relationship between employment status and age group. The results show that the age group who was employed the most in 2001 was 30-49 with 56.0% but this was less in 2011 with 53.3%. Furthermore, the results indicate the age group who were mostly unemployed in 2001 was in the age group 15-29 with 55.3% and the reason can be that most of African female migrants in that age group are still completing their studies; hence, they are not employed. With economically not active, 15-29 is the highest age group with 59.8% in 2001, but in 2011 the percentage dropped to 54.3%.

A Chi-square test statistic was used to weigh the level of association between the employment status and age group for **2001** and the results were significant. The findings indicate a $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ which is less than 0.05 which means that the null hypothesis is rejected and there is a relationship between the variables. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to assess the strength of the relationship between the variables. The Cramer's V (0.242) results indicate that there is a moderate relationship between employment status and age (see Appendix 1).

A Chi-square test statistic was used to weigh the level of association between the employment status and age group for **2011** and the results were significant. The findings indicate a $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ which is less than 0.05 which means that the null hypothesis is rejected and there is a relationship between the variables. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to assess the strength of the relationship between the variables. The Cramer's V (0.135) results indicate that there is a weak relationship between employment status and age (see Appendix 1).

Table 4.1: Distribution of employment status and age group

Employment status	Age group 2001				Age group 2011			
	15-29	30-49	50-64	Total	15-29	30-49	50-64	Total
Employed	321 30.0%	599 56.0%	149 13.9%	1 069 100%	280 33.5%	445 53.3%	110 13.2%	835 100%
Unemployed	218 55.3%	115 39.3%	21 5.3%	394 100%	71 51.8%	56 40.9%	10 7.3%	137 100%
Not economically active	500 59.8%	183 21.9%	153 18.3%	836 100%	133 54.3%	89 36.3%	23 9.4%	245 100%
Total	1 039 45.2%	937 40.8%	323 14.0%	2 299 100%	484 39.8%	590 48.5%	143 11.8%	1 217 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.3.2 The distribution between employment status and marital status

According to ILO (2020), single people are more likely to be unemployed than married people. However, when unemployed, married people find it harder to secure a suitable job and remain unemployed for longer. The Table 4.2 indicates that in 2001, most African female migrants who were never married were the ones who were employed with 48.8% but in 2011 those who were married were the ones who were most employed with 44.2%. With unemployed, those who were never married had the highest percentage with 72.6% in 2001 but in 2011, the percentage decreased to 56.9%. For those who were not economically active, never married had the highest percentage in 2001 with 63.3%, but in 2011 those who were married had the highest percentage of 49.8%.

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between employment status and marital status for **2001**. It showed a p-value of < 0.001 , indicating that there is a significant relationship between employment status and marital status. Cramer's V (0.153) revealed that the relationship is weak between the two variables (see Appendix 2).

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between employment status and marital status for **2011**. It showed a p-value of < 0.001 , indicating that there is a significant relationship between employment status and marital status. Cramer's V (0.098) revealed that the relationship is negligible between the two variables (see Appendix 2).

Table 4.2: Distribution of employment status and marital status

Employment status	Marital Status 2001					Marital Status 2011				
	Married	Never Married	Widower	Divorced	Total	Married	Never Married	Widower	Divorced	Total
Employed	390 36.5%	552 48.8%	58 5.4%	99 9.3%	1 069 100%	369 44.2%	363 43.5%	32 3.8%	71 8.5%	835 100%
Unemployed	92 23.4%	286 72.6%	7 1.8%	9 2.3%	394 100%	49 35.8%	78 56.9%	3 2.2%	7 5.1%	137 100%
Not economically active	233 27.9%	529 63.3%	50 6.0%	24 2.9%	836 100%	122 49.8%	113 46.1%	5 2.0%	5 2.0%	245 100%
Total	715 31.1%	1 337 58.2%	115 5.0%	132 5.7%	2 299 100%	540 44.4%	554 45.5%	40 3.3%	83 6.3%	1 217 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.3.3 The distribution between employment status and level of education

According to Williams (2009), educational attainment is considered to be a part of the human capital model, leading to individuals gaining better outcomes from migration, and it varies, depending on several factors. The Table 4.3 below shows that in 2001, most African female migrants who had completed secondary education were the one who were the most employed with 61.0% but that increased to 66.3% in 2011. Looking at unemployed, the results reveal in that in 2001, those who had completed secondary education also had the highest percentage with 72.8% and the percentage increased to 73.7% in 2011. Regarding not economically active, the results show that African female migrants who had completed only primary education were 11.5% in 2001 but in 2011, the percentage increased to 14.3% and those who completed secondary education made up to 76.8% in 2001 but in 2011 the percentage decreased to 71.0%.

Chi-square test statistic was used for **2001**, the findings indicated a p-value of $0.001 < 0.05$ and the data demonstrated that there is a significant link between employment status and level of education. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to assess the strength of the relationship between the two variables. The Cramer's V (0.141) results indicate that there is a weak relationship between employment status and level of education (see Appendix 3).

Chi-square test statistic was used for **2011**, the findings indicated a p-value of $0.001 < 0.05$ and the data demonstrated that there is a significant link between employment status and level of education. The Phi and Cramer's V tests were used to assess the strength of the relationship between the two variables. The Phi and Cramer's V (0.141) results indicate that there is a weak relationship between employment status and level of education. (see Appendix 3).

Table 4.3: Distribution between employment status and level of education

Employment status	Level of education 2001					Level of education 2011				
	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	Total	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	Total
Employed	116 10.9%	184 17.2%	652 61.0%	117 10.9%	1 069 100 %	10 1.2%	92 11.0%	554 66.3%	179 21.4%	835 100%
Unemployed	41 10.4%	61 15.5%	287 72.8%	5 1.3%	394 100 %	1 0.7%	24 17.5%	101 73.7%	11 8.0%	137 100.0 %
Not economically active	68 8.1%	96 11.5%	642 76.8%	30 3.6%	836 100 %	11 4.5%	35 14.3%	174 71.0%	25 10.2%	245 100%
Total	225 9.8%	341 14.8%	1 581 68.8%	152 6.6%	2 299 100 %	22 1.8%	151 12.4%	829 68.1%	215 17.7%	1 217 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.3.4 Distribution of employment status and level of income

The table shows the distribution of employment status by level of income. The results reveals that most African female migrants who employed in 2001 received low income in Gauteng province with 68%, but that changed in 2011 when most African migrants were receiving middle income with 55.6%, majority of those who were unemployed had no income at all in both 2001 and 2011. Same as those who were not economically active, most of the African female migrants residing in Gauteng did not receive an income at all.

The Chi-square test statistic was used to assess the relationship between the employment status and level of income for **2001**. The p-value is 0.012 which is less than 0.05. We reject the null hypothesis. This means that there is a relationship between these two variables. The Cramer's V (0.098) tests were used to assess the relationship between the two variables, and it showed a weak relationship (see Appendix 4).

The Chi-square test statistic was used to assess the relationship between the employment status and level of income for **2011**. The p-value is <0.001 which is less than 0.05. We reject the null hypothesis. This means that there is a relationship between these two variables. The Cramer's V (0.497) tests were used to assess the relationship between the two variables, and it showed a relatively strong relationship (see Appendix 4).

Table 4.4: Distribution of employment status and level of income

Employment status	Level of income 2001					Level of income 2011				
	No income	Low income	Middle income	High income	Total	No income	Low income	Middle income	High income	Total
Employed	25 2.3%	722 68%	265 2.3%	57 5.3%	1 069 100.0%	79 9.5%	225 26.9%	464 55.6%	67 8.0%	835 100.0%
Unemployed	365 92.6%	26 6.6%	3 0.8%	0 0.0%	394 100.0%	120 87.6%	8 5.8%	9 6.6%	0 0.0%	137 100.0%
Not economically active	693 82.9%	120 14.4%	18 2.2%	5 0.6%	836 100.0%	183 74.4%	22 9.0%	37 15.1%	3 1.2%	245 100%
Total	1 083 47.1%	868 37.8%	286 12.4%	62 2.7%	2 299 100%	382 31.4%	255 21.0%	510 41.9%	70 5.8%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.3.5 Distribution of employment status and country of birth

Looking at the Table 4.5 in 2001, most of African female migrants who were employed were from Zimbabwe with 44% then followed by Lesotho with 29.6%. The table reveals that most African female migrants who are unemployed were from Mozambique with 44.4% followed by Lesotho with 22.2%. Furthermore, the table shows that most African female migrants who were not economically active were from Zimbabwe with 31.1% then followed by Botswana with 51.0%. In 2011, most African female migrants who were employed were from Zimbabwe increasing to 77.8% from 2001, with Lesotho decreasing to 9.6% compared to 2001. Most of female migrants who were unemployed were also from Zimbabwe increasing to 67.2% followed by Mozambique with 20.4%. Lastly, most of African female migrants who were not economically active were from Zimbabwe increasing to 66.5% in 2011 from 31.3% in 2001.

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between employment status and country of birth for **2001**. The findings show a p-value of 0.388. However, since all 100% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood Ratio where the p-value =0.324 which is greater than 0.05. We, therefore, accept the null hypothesis. This means that there is no relationship between these two variables (see Appendix 5).

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between employment status and country of birth for **2011**. The findings show a p-value of <0.001. We therefore, reject the null hypothesis. This means that there is a relationship between these two variables. The Cramer's V (0.174) test was used to assess the relationship between the two variables, and it showed a weak relationship (see Appendix 5).

Table 4.5: Distribution of employment status and country of birth

Employment status	Country of birth 2001					
	Lesotho	Namibia	Botswana	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Total
Employed	8 29.6%	3 11.1%	0 0.0%	12 44.4%	4 14.8%	27 100.0%
Unemployed	2 22.2%	1 11.1%	1 11.1%	1 11.1%	4 44.4%	9 100.0%
Not economically active	3 18.8%	0 0.0%	4 25.0%	5 31.3%	4 25.0%	16 100.0%
Total	13 25.0%	4 7.7%	5 9.6%	18 34.6%	12 23.1%	52 100.0%

Employment status	Country of birth 2011					
	Lesotho	Namibia	Botswana	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Total
Employed	80 9.6%	46 5.5%	11 1.3%	650 77.8%	48 5.7%	835 100.0%
Unemployed	14 10.2%	3 2.2%	0 0.0%	92 67.2%	28 20.4%	137 100%
Not economically active	12 4.9%	13 5.3%	10 4.1%	163 66.5%	47 19.2%	245 100.0%
Total	106 8.7%	62 5.1%	21 1.7%	905 74.4%	123 10.1%	1 217 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.3.6 Distribution of employment status and year of movement

The table below shows the relationship between employment status and year of movement. The results show that the most African female migrants who were employed relocated to Gauteng province in 2011 with 28.5% followed by 2010 with 17.0%. Looking at unemployed, the results reveal that from 2008 to 2010, Gauteng has been receiving the same number of migrants with 12.4% to seek better opportunities and employment. Most of African female migrants who were not economically active moved to Gauteng province in 2011 with 31.8%, followed in 2010 with 19.4%.

A Chi-square test was performed to determine the relationship between employment status and year of movement for **2011**. The findings showed a p-value of 0.558, which exceeded the value of 0.05, which indicates no relationship between employment status and year of movement. The Cramer's V cannot be tested in this instance (see Appendix 6).

Table 4.6: Distribution of employment status and year of movement

Employment status	Year of movement 2011											
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Total
Employed	7 1.1%	13 2.0%	18 2.8%	38 5.8%	37 5.7%	44 6.7%	55 8.4%	62 9.5%	81 12.4%	111 17.0%	186 28.5%	652 100.0%
Unemployed	0 0.0%	4 3.5%	4 3.5%	3 2.7%	3 2.7%	3 2.7%	10 8.8%	14 12.4%	14 12.4%	14 12.4%	44 38.9%	113 100.0%
Not economically active	2 0.9%	5 2.4%	3 1.4%	8 3.8%	9 4.3%	11 5.2%	16 7.6%	23 10.9%	26 12.3%	41 19.4%	67 31.8%	211 100.0%
Total	9 0.9%	22 2.3%	25 2.6%	49 5.0%	49 5.0%	58 5.9%	81 8.3%	99 10.1%	121 12.4%	166 17.0%	297 30.4%	967 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.4 Distribution of occupation and African female characteristics

The section will make use of bivariate analysis to investigate the relationship between occupation and African female migrant characteristics. The bivariate method will make use of the cross-tabulation technique to test the hypothesis and significance of the relationship.

4.4.1 The distribution between occupation and age

Table 4.7 below shows the relationship between occupation and age using Census 2001 and Census 2011. The results show that in 2001, most African female migrants who were professionals were in the age group 30-49 with 56.3% and that number increased to 58.9% in 2011 within the same age group. The International Organisation for Migration (2016) states that most migrants came to the province of Gauteng to look for better jobs in the formal economy and to start businesses in the informal economy. With non-professionals, in 2001, the age group 15-29 had 42.5% of African female migrants and that decreased to 36.1% in 2011, and this can be influenced by the level of education obtained between the years. In 2001, most

African female migrants between 30-49 were working as domestic workers and related workers with 63.2% and it decreased to 51.9% in 2011, within the same age group.

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between occupation and age for **2001**. The findings showed a p-value of <0.001, which does not exceed the value of 0.05, which indicates a relationship between the employment status and their age. To measure the strength of the association between occupation and age group, Cramer's V (0.235) test was used. The test showed a moderate relationship between the variables (see Appendix 7).

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between occupation and age for **2011**. The findings showed a p-value of <0.001, which does not exceed the value of 0.05, which indicates a relationship between the employment status and their age. To measure the strength of the association between occupation and age group, Cramer's V (0.128) test was used. The test showed a weak relationship between the variables (see Appendix 7).

Table 4.7: Distribution between occupation and age group

Occupation	Age group 2001				Age group 2011			
	15-29	30-49	50-64	Total	15-29	30-34	50-64	Total
Professionals	87 31.4%	156 56.3%	34 12.3%	277 100.0%	35 22.2%	93 58.9%	30 19.0%	158 100.0%
Non-professionals	121 42.5%	140 49.1%	24 8.4%	285 100.0%	110 36.7%	150 50.0%	40 13.3%	300 100.0%
Domestic workers and related helpers	63 16.3%	244 63.2%	79 20.5%	386 100.0%	113 39.9%	147 51.9%	23 8.1%	283 100.0%
Other	768 56.8%	397 29.4%	186 13.8%	1 351 100.0%	226 47.5%	200 42.0%	50 10.5%	476 100.0%
Total	1 039 45.2%	937 40.8%	323 14.0%	2 299 100.0%	484 39.8%	590 48.5%	143 11.8%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.4.2 Distribution between occupation and marital status

According to IMO (2016), marital status suggests a significant jump in female domestic responsibility. Being a wife bears on average much more housework than being a daughter in another household. The Table 4.8 below shows that in 2001, most African female migrants who were married were involved in the professional space with 49.1% and that increased to

52.5% in 2011. With non-professionals, majority of them were never married in 2001 with 53.0% but the percentage decreased to 44.0% in 2011. Looking at domestic workers and related helpers, most of female migrants were never married in this sector with 52.3% in 2001 but the percentage decreased to 49.8% in 2011.

The Chi-square test statistic was used to assess the relationship between the occupation and marital status for **2001**. It showed a p-value of <0.001, indicating that there is a significant relationship between occupation and marital status. Cramer's V (0.146) revealed that the relationship is weak between occupation and marital status among African female migrants (see Appendix 8).

The Chi-square test statistic was used to assess the relationship between the occupation and marital status for **2011**. It showed a p-value of <0.001, indicating that there is a significant relationship between occupation and marital status. Cramer's V (0.101) revealed that the relationship is weak between occupation and marital status among African female migrants (see Appendix 8).

Table 4.8: Distribution between occupation and marital status

Occupation	Marital Status 2001					Marital Status 2011				
	Married	Never married	Widower	Divorced	Total	Married	Never married	Widower	Divorced	Total
Professionals	136 49.1%	104 37.5%	7 2.5%	30 10.8%	277 100.0%	83 52.5%	55 34.8%	2 1.3%	18 11.4%	158 100.0%
Non-professionals	98 34.4%	151 53.0%	9 3.2%	27 9.5%	285 100.0%	139 46.3%	132 44.0%	9 3.0%	20 6.7%	300 100.0%
Domestic workers and related helpers	109 28.2%	202 52.3%	36 9.3%	39 10.1%	386 100.0%	99 35.0%	141 49.8%	18 6.4%	25 8.8%	283 100.0%
Other	372 27.5%	880 65.1%	63 4.7%	36 2.7%	1 351 100.0%	219 46.0%	226 47.5%	11 2.3%	20 4.2%	476 100.0%
Total	715 31.1%	1 337 58.2%	115 5.0%	132 5.7%	2 299 100.0%	540 44.4%	554 45.5%	40 3.3%	83 6.8%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.4.3 Distribution between occupation and level of education

Education is the key factor in determining employment sector outcomes, the more educated you are the more chances of getting a decent job. Table 4.9 below shows that in 2011, more African female migrants who were professionals had completed their tertiary education making

up 54.4% compared to 30.3% in 2001. Furthermore, in 2001 most African female migrants who were involved in non-professional occupation, had completed their secondary education making up 82.5%. Looking at domestic workers and related helpers, more of those who were involved in this sector had completed only secondary education with 41.2% in 2001, but that increased rapidly in 2011 to 72.4%.

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between occupation and level of education for **2001**. The findings have shown that the $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ which is less than 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between occupation and level of education. To measure the strength of the association between these two variables, the study used Cramer's V (0.291). The findings in the test show moderate strength in the association between the variables (see Appendix 9).

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between occupation and level of education for **2011**. The findings have shown that the $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ which is less than 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a significant relationship between occupation and level of education. To measure the strength of the association between these two variables, the study used Cramer's V (0.258). The findings in the test show moderate strength in the association between the variables (see Appendix 9).

Table 4.9: Distribution between occupation and level of education

Occupation	Level of education 2001					Level of education 2011				
	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary Education	Total	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary Education	Total
Professionals	8 2.9%	4 1.4%	181 65.3%	84 30.3%	277 100.0%	0 0.0%	6 3.8%	66 41.8%	86 54.4%	158 100.0%
Non-professionals	15 5.3%	18 6.3%	235 82.5%	17 6.0%	285 100.0%	2 0.7%	10 3.3%	226 75.3%	62 20.7%	300 100%
Domestic workers and related helpers	80 20.7%	145 37.6%	159 41.2%	2 0.5%	386 100.0%	8 2.8%	61 21.6%	205 72.4%	9 3.2%	283 100.0%
Other	122 9.0%	174 12.9%	1 006 74.5%	49 3.6%	1 351 100.0%	12 2.5%	74 15.5%	332 69.7%	58 12.2%	476 100.0%
Total	225 9.8%	341 14.8	1 581 68.8%	152 6.6%	2 299 100.0%	22 1.8%	151 12.4%	829 68.1%	215 17.7%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.4.4 Distribution between occupation and level of income

African women are located at the lower end of the occupational hierarchy in both informal and formal labour markets (Tsikata, 2009). World Bank data indicate that fewer than 15% of women in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) work for a single employer (World Bank, 2014). From the Table 4.10 below, it shows that many African female migrants who were professionals, received middle income with 55.6% in 2001 but that increased later in 2011 to 65.8%. As several studies have indicated that domestic workers are under paid, and the table reveals that in 2001, 95.9% of African female were receiving low income but in 2011, majority of them were receiving middle income with 62.3%.

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between occupation and level of income for **2001**. The findings show a p-value of 0.000 and this means that there is a significant relationship between these two variables. The Cramer's V (0.550) tests were used to assess the relationship between the two variables, and it showed a relatively strong relationship (see Appendix 10).

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to test the relationship between occupation and level of income for **2011**. The findings show a p-value of <0.001 and this means that there is a significant relationship between these two variables. The Cramer's V (0.387) tests were used to assess the relationship between the two variables, and it showed a moderate relationship (see Appendix 10).

Table 4.10: Distribution between occupation and level of income

Occupation	Level of income 2001					Level of income 2011				
	No income	Low income	Middle income	High income	Total	No income	Low income	Middle income	High income	Total
Professionals	4 1.4%	77 27.8%	154 55.6%	42 15.2%	277 100.0%	13 8.2%	13 8.2%	104 65.8%	28 17.7%	158 100.0%
Non-professionals	1 0.4%	195 68.4%	82 28.8%	7 2.5%	285 100.0%	25 8.3%	67 22.3%	187 62.3%	21 7.0%	300 100.0%
Domestic workers and related helpers	9 2.3%	370 95.9%	4 1.0%	3 0.8%	386 100.0%	32 11.3%	119 42.0%	127 44.9%	5 1.8%	283 100.0%
Other	1 069 79.1%	226 16.7%	46 3.4%	10 0.7%	1 351 100.0%	312 65.5%	56 11.8%	92 19.3%	16 3.4%	476 100.0%
Total	1 083 47.1%	868 37.8%	286 12.4%	62 2.7%	2 299 100.0%	382 31.4%	255 21.0%	510 41.9%	70 5.8%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.4.5 Distribution between occupation and country of birth

Much of the migration within Africa takes place within regional geographical frameworks. There are similar migratory movements in Southern Africa with South Africa constituting important destination country. The Table 4.11 below indicates that in 2001 most African female migrants who were involved in the professional sector were from Zimbabwe with 50.0% and Namibia with 30.0%, but in 2011 migrants from Namibia decreased to 9.5% and Zimbabwe increased to 77.8%. Looking at non-professional, most migrants were from Zimbabwe with 60.0% and Mozambique with 40.0%, in 2011 Zimbabwe increased to 79.0% and Mozambique decreased to 6.0%. With domestic workers and related helpers, migrants from Lesotho were the highest with 50.0% but decreased to 6.0% in 2011.

The relationship between occupation and country of birth was tested for **2001**. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.020 which is than less than 0.05 but since 85% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, the Likelihood Ratio is used, p=007. This value is also less than 0.05 and therefore, there is a statistically significant relationship between occupation and the country of birth. The Cramer's V (0.393) test was used to assess the relationship between the two variables, and it showed a moderate relationship (see Appendix 11).

The relationship between occupation and country of birth was tested for **2011**. The findings have shown that the p-value<0.001 which is less than 0.05, and therefore, there is a statistically significant relationship between occupation and the country of birth. The Cramer's V (0.151) test was used to assess the relationship between the two variables, and it showed a weak relationship (see Appendix 11).

Table 4.11: Distribution between occupation and country of birth

Occupation	Country of birth 2001					Total
	Lesotho	Namibia	Botswana	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	
Professionals	1 10.0%	3 30.0%	0 0.0%	5 50.0%	1 10.0%	10 100.0%
Non-professionals	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 60.0%	2 40.0%	5 100.0%
Domestic workers and related helpers	4 50.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	4 50.0%	0 0.0%	8 100.0%
Other	8 27.6%	1 3.4%	5 17.2%	6 20.7%	9 31.0%	29 100%
Total	13 25.0%	4 7.7%	5 9.6%	18 34.6%	12 23.1%	52 100%

Country of birth 2011					
Lesotho	Namibia	Botswana	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Total
9 5.7%	15 9.5%	2 1.3%	123 77.8%	9 5.7%	158 100.0%
18 6.0%	23 7.7%	4 1.3%	237 79.0%	18 6.0%	300 100%
43 15.2%	2 0.7%	3 1.1%	220 77.7%	15 5.3%	283 100.0%
36 7.6%	22 4.6%	12 2.5%	325 68.3%	81 17.0%	476 100%
106 8.7%	62 5.1%	21 1.7%	905 74.4%	123 10.1%	1217 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.4.6 Distribution of occupation and year of movement

According to Moyo (2018), immigration has tended to increase over recent decades, particularly since the arrival of democracy, and end of apartheid in 1994. Most immigrants live in Gauteng, the country's richest province, which comprises the commercial capital of Johannesburg, and the executive capital Pretoria/Tshwane and the manufacturing hub of Ekurhuleni. The Table 4.12 shows that, most African female migrants who were professionals relocated to Gauteng province in 2009 with 22.2%, followed by the year 2010 with 17.2%. With non-professionals, most of them went to Gauteng in 2011 with 34.4%, followed by the year 2010 with 16.3%. Furthermore, those who were domestic workers and related helpers came in numbers in 2011 with 28.6%, followed by 17.3% in 2010.

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between occupation and year of movement for **2011**. The findings have shown that the p-value= 0.070 which exceed 0.05, and therefore, the relationship cannot be tested, i.e., Cramer's V cannot be tested. We therefore, accept the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between occupation and year of movement (see Appendix 12).

Table 4.12: Distribution of occupation and year of movement

Occupation	Year of movement 2011											
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Total
Professionals	1 1.0%	2 2.0%	1 1.0%	8 8.1%	8 8.1%	8 8.1%	7 7.1%	10 10.1%	22 22.2%	17 17.2%	15 15.2%	99 100.0%
Non-professionals	4 1.8%	5 2.2%	6 2.6%	12 5.3%	14 6.2%	13 5.7%	15 6.6%	23 10.1%	20 8.8%	37 16.3%	78 34.4%	227 100.0%
Domestic workers and related helpers	1 0.4%	3 1.2%	8 3.2%	12 4.8%	11 4.4%	22 8.9%	24 9.7%	22 8.9%	31 12.5%	43 17.3%	71 28.6%	248 100.0%
Other	3 0.7%	12 3.0%	10 2.5%	17 4.2%	16 4.0%	15 3.7%	35 8.7%	44 10.9%	48 11.9%	69 17.2%	133 33.1%	402 100.0%
Total	9 0.9%	22 2.3%	25 2.6%	49 5.0%	49 5.0%	58 5.9%	81 8.3%	99 10.1%	121 17.0%	166 17.0%	297 30.4%	976 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.5 Distribution of reasons for not working and African female migrant's characteristics

The section will make use of bivariate analysis to investigate the relationship between reasons for not working and African female migrant characteristics. The bivariate method will make use of the cross-tabulation technique to test the hypothesis and significance of the relationship.

4.5.1 Distribution of reasons for not working and age group

Table 4.13 below shows the relationship between reasons for not working and age group using Census 2001 and Census 2011 datasets. The results reveal that in 2001, most of African female migrants between 15-29 were not working because they were homemakers with 96.6%. The reason can be that most of the migrants were taking care of the children, hence, they could not work. This means that they do not go to school. But in 2011, the age group 30-49 was the one that had most homemakers with 53.8%. Regarding students, the results show in 2001, the leading age group was 30-49 with 49.0% which came as a surprise, and in 2011, the age group 15-29 had the highest percentage of 100%. In most cases, the age group 15-29 is dominated by students, hence, they are not working. In 2001, the age group that could not find work was between the age group 15-29 with 53.4%, followed by the age group 30-49 with 38.2%. This might be true because they are still schooling. Furthermore, in 2011, the age group 15-29 and 30-49 had the same percentage of African female migrants who could not work with 50.0% in each age group.

A Chi-square test was done to investigate the relationship between the reason women are not working and age group for **2001**. The findings have shown that the $p\text{-value} < 0.01$ which is less than 0.05 and this implies that there is a significant relationship between the variables. To measure the strength of the association between reason for not working and age group, Cramer's V (0.339) test was used. The test showed a moderate relationship between the variables (see Appendix 13).

A Chi-square test was done to investigate the relationship between the reason women are not working and age group for **2011**. The findings have shown that the $p\text{-value} = 0.113$ which is greater than 0.05 but since 58.3% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood Ratio, $p = 0.028$. This is less than 0.05 and therefore there is a relationship between the reason women are not working and age group and this implies that there is a significant relationship between the variables. To measure the strength of the association between reason for not working and age group, Cramer's V (0.065) test was used. The test showed a negligible relationship between the variables (see Appendix 13).

Table 4.13: Distribution reasons for not working and age group

Reasons for not working	Age group 2001				Age group 2011			
	15-29	30-49	50-64	Total	15-29	30-49	50-64	Total
Home-marker or housewife	312 96.6%	11 3.4%	0 0.0%	323 100.0%	6 46.2%	7 53.8%	0 0.0%	13 100.0%
Student/Scholar	28 19.0%	72 49.0%	47 32.0%	147 100.0%	5 100.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	5 100.0%
Could not find work	311 53.4%	223 38.3%	48 8.2%	582 100.0%	3 50.0%	3 50.0%	0 0.0%	6 100.0%
Other	388 31.1%	631 50.6%	228 18.3%	1 247 100.0%	470 39.4%	580 48.6%	143 11.8%	1 193 100.0%
Total	1 039 45.2%	937 40.8%	323 14.0%	2 299 100.0%	484 39.8%	590 48.5%	143 11.8%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.5.2 Distribution of reasons for not working and marital status

According to Maharaj and Shangase (2020), women who are single opt for a later age of marriage in order to establish themselves financially, gain independence, build their careers and accrue some assets as well as to improve their families' living standards. Table 4.14 shows that in 2011, most of the African female migrants were students and they were never married

with 100%; hence, they could not work. Furthermore, the results show that majority of African female migrant who were never married could not find work in 2001 with 69.4% but the percentage decreased to 66.7% in 2011. The reason might be that they were studying; hence, they could not find work.

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between reasons for not working and marital status for **2001**. The findings have shown that the $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ which is less than 0.05 and therefore, statistically there is a relationship between reasons for not working and marital status. To measure the strength of the association between reasons for not working and marital status, Cramer's V (0.246) test was used. The test showed a moderate relationship between the variables (see Appendix 14).

The statistical Chi-square test was performed to testing the relationship between reasons for not working and marital status for **2011**. The findings have shown the $p\text{-value} = 0.151$ which is greater than 0.05 but since 62.5% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood Ratio, $p = 0.053$. This is also greater than 0.05 and therefore there is no relationship between the reason women are not working and marital status; hence, the relationship is not significant (see Appendix 14).

Table 4.14: Distribution of reasons for not working and marital status

Reasons for not working	Marital Status 2001					Marital Status 2011				
	Married	Never Married	Widower	Divorced	Total	Married	Never married	Widower	Divorced	Total
Home-marker or housewife	13 4.0%	308 95.4%	1 0.3%	1 0.3%	323 100.0%	10 76.9%	3 23.1%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	13 100.0%
Student/Scholar	111 75.5%	25 17.0%	6 4.1%	5 3.4%	147 100.0%	0 0.0%	5 100.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	5 100.0%
Could not find work	142 24.4%	404 69.4%	18 7.1%	19 2.9%	582 100.0%	2 33.3%	4 66.7%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	6 100.0%
Other	449 36.0%	600 48.1%	89 7.1%	109 8.7%	1 247 100.0%	528 44.3%	542 45.4%	40 3.4%	83 7.0%	1 193 100.0%
Total	715 31.1%	1 337 58.2%	115 5.0%	132 5.7%	2 299 100.0%	540 44.4%	554 45.5%	40 3.3%	83 6.8%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.5.3 Distribution between reasons for not working and level of education

Table 4.15 below shows in 2001 most African female migrants who were home markers had completed secondary education with 88.9%; hence, they were not working but in 2011, the percentage decreased to 61.5%. Furthermore, the table reveal that in 2001, most African female migrants who were students had completed secondary education with 65.3% but that increased to 80.0% in 2011. Most of them were studying and, hence, they could not work. The table also reveals that most African females who had completed secondary school, both in 2001 and 2011, could not find work with 71.6% and 83.3%, respectively.

A Chi-square test statistic was used to test the association remove between reasons for not working and level of education for **2001**. The findings indicate a $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ which is less than 0.05 and this implies that there is a significant relationship between the two variables. To measure the strength of the association between reasons for not working and level of education, Cramer's V (0.138) test was used. The test showed a weak relationship between the variables (see Appendix 15).

A Chi-square test statistic was used to test the association remove between reasons for not working and level of education for 2011. The findings indicate a $p\text{-value} = 0.833$ which is greater than 0.05 but since 68.8% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood ratio, $p = 0.765$. This is also greater than 0.05 and therefore, there is no relationship between the reasons women are not working and level of education, and the relationship is not significant (see Appendix 15).

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Table 4.15: Distribution between reasons for not working and level of education

Reasons for not working	Level of education 2001					Level of education 2011				
	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary Education	Tertiary education	Total	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	Total
Home-marker or housewife	1 0.3%	24 7.4%	287 88.9%	11 3.4%	323 100.0%	1 7.7%	2 15.4%	8 61.5%	2 15.4%	13 100.0%
Student/Scholar	24 16.3%	18 12.2%	96 65.3%	9 6.1%	147 100.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	4 80.0%	1 20.0%	5 100.0%
Could not find work	65 11.2%	92 15.8%	417 71.6%	9 1.4%	582 100.0%	0 0.0%	1 16.7%	5 83.3%	0 0.0%	6 100.0%
Other	135 10.8%	207 16.6%	781 62.6%	124 9.9%	1 247 100.0%	21 1.8%	148 12.4%	812 68.1%	212 17.8%	1 193 100.0%
Total	225 9.8%	341 14.8%	1 581 68.8%	152 6.6%	2 299 100.0%	22 1.8%	151 12.4%	829 68.1%	215 17.7%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.5.4 Distribution between reasons for not working and level of income

Table 4.16 shows that in 2001, most of African female migrants who were home-markers, were not receiving any income at all with 93.8% in 2001 and 92.3% in 2011. The reason could be that the housewives are depending on their husbands in order to survive. With regards to the students, the results reveal that most African female migrants who were students were not receiving income with 83.0% in 2001 but that decreased to 60.0% in 2011. However, in 2011, 40% of the African female migrants were receiving middle income and that could be from the funding they obtained from their various work modes. Furthermore, the results show that in 2001 majority of African female migrants who could not find work did not receive any income due to lack of jobs with 90.2% in 2001, and that increased to 100% in 2011.

The Chi-square test statistic was used to assess the relationship between the reasons for not working and level of income for **2001**. It showed a p-value of 0.000, indicating the statistical evidence to conclude that there is a strong relationship between the two variables. To measure the strength of the association between these two variables, the test, Cramer's V (0.460), which showed a relatively strong association between the variables (see Appendix 16).

The Chi-square test statistic was used to assess the relationship between the reasons for not working and level of income for **2011**. It showed a p-value of 0.130 but since 25% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood Ratio, $p=0.126$. This is also greater

than 0.05 and therefore there is no relationship between the reason women are not working and level of income-the relationship is not significant (see Appendix 16).

Table 4.16: Distribution between reasons for not working and level of income

Reasons for not working	Level of income 2001					Level of income 2011				
	No income	Low income	Middle income	High income	Total	No income	Low income	Middle income	High income	Total
Home-marker or housewife	303 93.8%	19 5.9%	1 0.3%	0 0.0%	323 100.0%	12 92.3%	1 7.7%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	13 100.0%
Student/Scholar	122 83.0%	19 12.9%	3 2.0%	3 2.0%	147 100.0%	3 60.0%	0 0.0%	2 40.0%	0 0.0%	5 100.0%
Could not find work	525 90.2%	49 8.4%	7 1.2%	1 0.2%	582 100.0%	6 100.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	6 100.0%
Other	133 10.7%	781 62.6%	275 22.1%	58 4.7%	1 247 100.0%	361 30.3%	254 21.3%	508 42.6%	70 5.9%	1 193 100.0%
Total	1 083 47.1%	868 37.8%	286 12.4%	62 2.7%	2 299 100.0%	382 31.4%	255 21.0%	510 41.9%	70 5.8%	1 217 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.5.5 Distribution of reasons for not working and country of birth

Table 4.17 displays the relationship between reasons for not working and country of birth. According to Tayah (2016), Zimbabwean migrant women are likely to work in low-skilled and low-paying jobs, although the majority have completed secondary and tertiary education mainly because of the non-recognition of their foreign qualifications and the prejudices against foreign education in the host country. The results show that in 2001, most of African female migrants who were home-markers were from our neighboring Botswana with 42.9% followed by Lesotho with 28.6% but in 2011, most African female migrants who were home-markers were from Zimbabwe with 69.2%, followed by Mozambique with 23.1%. With students, the results showed that in 2001, Botswana and Zimbabwe had most of the students in Gauteng province with 50% each, respectively. In 2011, Lesotho, Namibia and Botswana had the same percentage of students in Gauteng with 20% each. Furthermore, the table shows that in 2001, Mozambique had most migrants who could not find work with 46.2% followed by Lesotho with 23.1%. In 2011, Zimbabwe had most female migrants who could not find work with 50% and followed by Lesotho with 33.3%.

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between reasons for not working and country of birth for **2001**. The findings showed a p-value of 0.022 which is less than 0.05 but since 85% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood ratio, $p=0.031$ which is also less than 0.05 and this indicates that there is a significant relationship between the two variables. To measure the strength of the association between occupation and age group, Cramer's V (0.390) test was used. The test showed a moderate relationship between the variables (see Appendix 17).

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between reasons for not working and country of birth for **2011**. The findings showed a p-value of 0.028 which is less than 0.05. Since 70% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood Ratio, $p=0.222$ which is greater than 0.05 and this indicates that there is an insignificant relationship between the two variables. We do not test for Cramer's V (see Appendix 17).

Table 4.17: Distribution of reasons for not working and country of birth

Reasons for not working	Country of birth 2001						Country of birth 2011					
	Lesotho	Namibia	Botswana	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Total	Lesotho	Namibia	Botswana	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Total
Home-marker or housewife	2 28.6%	0 0.0%	3 42.9%	1 14.3%	1 14.3%	7 100%	0 0.0%	1 7.7%	0 0.0%	9 69.2%	3 23.1%	13 100%
Student/Scholar	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 50.0%	1 50.0%	0 0.0%	2 100%	1 20.0%	1 20.0%	1 20.0%	2 40.0%	0 0.0%	5 100%
Could not find work	3 23.1%	1 7.7%	1 7.7%	2 15.4%	6 46.2%	13 100%	2 33.3%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 50.0%	1 16.7%	6 100%
Other	8 26.7%	3 10.0%	0 0.0%	14 46.7%	5 16.7%	30 100%	103 8.6%	60 5.0%	20 1.7%	891 74.7%	119 10.0%	1 193 100%
Total	13 25.0%	4 7.7%	5 9.6%	18 34.6%	12 23.1%	52 100%	106 8.7%	62 5.1%	21 1.7%	905 74.4%	123 10.1%	1 217 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.5.6 Distribution between reasons for not working and year of movement

Table 4.18 shows that most African female migrants who were home-markers or housewives moved to Gauteng province in 2011 with 30%. The years 2007, 2008, and 2009 demonstrate that 20% of African female migrants who were home markers relocate to Gauteng. Furthermore, the table show that most African female migrants who were students moved to

the province in 2010 with 50.0%. The results reveal that the year 2006 and 2010 had the same percentage of African female who could not find work in Gauteng with 33.3% each.

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between reasons for not working and year of movement for 2011. The findings showed a p-value of 0.306 which is greater than 0.05 but since 75% of the cells have expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood Ratio, $p=0.443$ which is also greater than 0.05. This indicates that there is no significance between the two variables. Therefore, Cramer's V cannot be tested (see Appendix 18).

Table 4.18: Distribution between reasons for not working and year of movement

Reasons for not working	Year of movement 2011											
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Total
Home-marker/ Housewife	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 20%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 20%	2 20%	1 10.0%	3 30%	10 100.0%
Student/Scholar	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 25%	2 50.0%	1 25%	4 100.0%
Could not find work	0 0.0%	1 16.7%	0 0.0%	1 16.7%	0 0.0%	2 33.3%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 33.3%	0 0.0%	6 100.0%
Other	9 0.9%	21 2.2%	25 2.6%	48 5.0%	47 4.9%	56 5.9%	81 8.5%	97 10.1%	118 12.3%	161 16.8%	293 30.6%	956 100.0%
Total	9 0.9%	22 2.3%	25 2.6%	49 5.0%	49 5.0%	58 5.9%	81 8.3%	99 10.1%	121 12.4%	166 17.0%	297 30.4%	976 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.6 Distribution of type of sector and African female characteristics

The section will make use of bivariate analysis to investigate the relationship between type of sector and African female migrant characteristics. The bivariate method will make use of the cross-tabulation technique to test the hypothesis and significance of the relationship.

4.6.1 Distribution of type of sector and age

According to (ILO, 2021) domestic workers comprise a significant part of the global workforce in informal employment and are among the most vulnerable groups of workers. They work for private households in the framework of a work relationship through which the employed person

receives remuneration. However, this is often without clear terms of employment. The table shows the relationship between type of sector and age group using Census 2011. The results reveal that in the formal sector, the dominating age group was 30-49 with 52.9%, followed by age group 15-29 with 31.4%. With regards to the informal sector, most African female migrants in Gauteng were between age group 30-49 with 48.9% then followed by age group 15-29 with 44.6%. Focusing on private household, the results show age group 50-64 had less African female migrants involved in the sector with 10.6%.

In order to test the relationship between type of sector and age group for **2011**, Pearson Chi-square statistical test was used. The results indicate $p=0.013$ which is less than 0.05, meaning that there is a significant relationship between the two variables. The Phi and Cramer's V (0.089) tests were used to assess the relationship between the two variables, and it showed a negligible relationship (see Appendix 19).

Table 4.19: Distribution of type of sector and age

Type of sector	Age group 2011			
	15-29	30-49	50-64	Total
Formal sector	167 31.4%	281 52.8%	84 15.8%	532 100%
Informal sector	41 44.6%	45 48.9%	6 6.5%	92 100%
Private household	54 30.0%	107 59.4%	19 10.6%	108 100%
Total	262 32.6%	433 53.9%	109 13.6%	804 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.6.2 Distribution between type of sector and marital status

Table 4.20 displays the relationship between type of sector and marital status. The reveals that, in the formal sector, most African female migrants were married with 49.1%. The reason can be that married females has a lot of responsibilities hence there are more involved in the formal sector. In the informal sector, never married African female migrants dominated with 55.4%. And also in the private household, never married women were also the most with 42.8% followed by married women with 38.7%.

A Chi-square test statistic was used to test the association level between type of sector and marital status for **2011**. The findings indicate a $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ which is less than 0.05 and this implies that there is a significant relationship between the two variables. To measure the strength of the association between reasons for working and level of education, Cramer's V (0.121) test was used. The test showed a weak relationship between the variables (see Appendix 20).

Table 4.20: Distribution between type of sector and marital status

Type of sector	Marital Status 2011				
	Married	Never married	Widower	Separated	Total
Formal sector	26 49.1%	213 40.0%	13 2.4%	45 8.5%	532 100%
Informal sector	33 35.9%	51 55.4%	5 5.4%	3 3.3%	92 100%
Private household	69 38.3%	77 42.8%	13 7.2%	21 11.7%	180 100%
Total	363 45.1%	341 42.4%	31 3.9%	69 8.6%	804 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.6.3 Distribution between type of sector and level of education

With regards to level of education in the formal sector, more African female migrants had completed their secondary education with 63.0% followed by those who have completed their tertiary education with 27.8%. This result came as surprise because it is expected that women with tertiary education are the ones who should dominate the formal sector. Focusing on informal sector, only 17.4% of African female migrants had completed primary education. Furthermore, with private household, the results show that most African female migrants with secondary education (70.6%) are involved in this sector followed by the ones who have completed primary education with 17.8%.

A Chi-square test was done to investigate the relationship between type of sector and level of education in **2011**. The findings have shown that the $p\text{-value} < 0.001$ which is less than 0.05 which implies that there is a significant relationship between the variables. To measure the strength of the association between type of sector and level of education, Cramer's V (0.168) test was used. The test showed a weak relationship between the variables (see Appendix 21).

Table 4.21: Distribution between type of sector and level of education

Type of sector	Level of education 2011				
	No schooling	Primary education	Secondary education	Tertiary education	Total
Formal sector	6 1.1%	43 8.1%	335 63.0%	148 27.8%	532 100%
Informal sector	0 0.0%	16 17.4%	66 71.7%	10 10.9%	92 100%
Private household	4 2.2%	32 17.8%	127 70.6%	17 9.4%	180 100%
Total	10 1.2%	91 11.3%	528 65.7%	175 21.8%	804 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.6.4 Distribution between type of sector and level of income

African women are located at the lower end of the occupational hierarchy in both informal and formal labour markets (Tsikata, 2009). Moreover, when compared to men, their labour is more highly concentrated in the informal sector. The table show the distribution of type of sector by level of income in 2011. In the formal sector, most of African female migrants in Gauteng earn middle income with 59.0%. Furthermore, in the informal sector, more African females in Gauteng were earning low income with 47.8%. Surprisingly in the private household, majority of female migrants were receiving middle income with 56.1% followed by the ones who were earning low income with 36.1%.

The Chi-square test statistic was used to assess the relationship between type of sector and level of income for 2011. It showed a p-value of <0.001, indicating the statistical evidence to conclude that there is a strong relationship between the two variables. To measure the strength of the association between these two variables, the study used Cramer's V (0.186), which showed a weak association between the variables (see Appendix 22).

Table 4.22: Distribution between type of sector and level of income

Type of sector	Level of income 2011				
	No income	Low income	Middle income	High income	Total
Formal sector	52 9.8%	107 20.1%	314 59.0%	59 11.1%	532 100%
Informal sector	6 6.5%	44 47.8%	39 42.4%	3 3.3%	92 100%
Private household	9 5.0%	65 36.1%	101 56.1%	5 2.8%	180 100%
Total	67 8.3%	216 26.9%	454 56.5%	67 8.3%	804 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.6.5 Distribution between type of sector and country of birth

Within Africa, migration of females into South Africa has majorly been from countries within the SADC. Table 4.23 shows the relationship between type of sector by country of birth. The results below show that in the formal sector, female migrants who are dominating are from Zimbabwe with 77.1% followed by Lesotho with 7.3%. In the informal sector, Mozambique had 7.6% female migrants while Lesotho had 9.8%. With regards to the private household, Zimbabwe had 78.9% female migrants followed by Lesotho with 15.6%. The results indicate that Zimbabwe has the highest number of African female migrants in Gauteng province.

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between type of sector and country of birth for 2011. It showed a p-value of <0.001, indicating that there is a significant relationship between employment status and marital status. Cramer's V (0.138) revealed that the relationship is weak between the two variables (see Appendix 23).

Table 4.23: Distribution between type of sector and country of birth

Type of sector	Country of birth 2011					
	Lesotho	Namibia	Botswana	Zimbabwe	Mozambique	Total
Formal sector	39 7.3%	43 8.1%	8 1.5%	410 77.1%	32 6.0%	532 100%
Informal sector	9 9.8%	1 1.1%	0 0.0%	75 81.5%	7 7.6%	92 100%
Private household	28 15.6%	1 0.6%	2 1.1%	142 78.9%	7 3.9%	180 100%
Total	76 9.5%	45 5.6%	10 1.2%	627 78.0%	46 5.7%	804 100%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.6.6 Distribution between type of sector and year of movement

The table presents the distribution of type of sector by year of movement. Regarding formal sector, the results show that in 2011, majority of Africa female migrants moved to Gauteng province with 24.8% followed by 2010 with 16.8%. With informal sector, the results show that in 2002 and 2004, some African female migrants started moving to Gauteng province with the percentage of 4.0% in both years. Furthermore, focusing on private household, the results show that there's been an increasing of female migrants moving to Gauteng from 2003 to 2008, but the year with highest receiver of African female migrants is 2011 with 32.7%.

The statistical Chi-square test was used to investigate the association between type of sector and year of movement for **2011**. The findings showed a p-value of 0.012 which is less than 0.05 but since 27.3% of the cells have an expected count of less than 5, we use the Likelihood Ratio, $p=0.002$. This indicates that there is a significance between the two variables. Cramer's V (0.172) revealed that the relationship is weak between the two variables (see Appendix 24).

Table 4.24: Distribution between type of sector and year of movement

Type of sector	Year of movement 2011											
	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Total
Formal sector	7 1.7%	8 2.0%	16 4.0%	30 7.4%	27 6.7%	30 7.4%	33 8.2%	34 8.4%	51 12.6%	68 16.8%	100 24.8%	404 100.0%
Informal sector	0 0.0%	3 4.0%	0 0.0%	3 4.0%	5 6.7%	2 2.7%	8 10.7%	4 5.3%	4 5.3%	16 21.3%	30 40.0%	75 100.0%
Private household	0 0.0%	1 0.7%	2 1.4%	4 2.7%	5 3.4%	11 7.5%	13 8.8%	21 14.3%	19 12.9%	23 15.6%	48 32.7%	147 100.0%
Total	7 1.1%	12 1.9%	18 2.9%	37 5.9%	37 5.9%	43 6.9%	54 8.6%	59 9.4%	74 11.8%	107 17.1%	178 28.4%	626 100.0%

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.7 Multinomial logistic regression

Descriptive and bivariate analyses were performed in the previous sections of this analytical chapter. This part will make use of multinomial logistic regression techniques. The purpose of multinomial logistic regression is to construct a model that explains the relationship between the explanatory variables and the outcome. A multinomial logistic regression is used when the outcome or dependent variable being predicted is nominal and has more than two categories that do not have a given rank or order. This model can be used with any number of independent variables that are categorical or continuous. The dependent variables that were used in this section includes, employment status, occupation and reasons for not working. While the independent variables that were tested includes, age group, marital status, level of education, level of income and country of birth and type of sector.

4.7.1 Factors contributing to employment status 2001

Table 4.25 below display the likelihood of African female migrants being employed in Gauteng province using the data set from Census 2001 and 2011. Census 2001 indicates that the model of fitness that was assessed using the Chi-square statistic test and the value was 2165.061 with $p=0.00$; this proves a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in the study's final model. The Pearson 849.141 and deviance 312.158 statistics test prove that the model is fit, $p<0.05$ and thus the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables is significant. The likelihood ration test also indicated a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables with $p<0.05$, this is an

indication that the variables under study have a significant contribution to the final model of the study.

For age group in 2001, the table reveals that African female migrant's youth (15-29) and adult (30-49) were more likely to be employed with 3.411 and 4.864 odds than the elderly in Gauteng province. With marital status, married African female migrants and those who are widowers were likely to get employed with 0.419 and 0.217 odds than those who were divorced. The table further reveals that with level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving any income are more likely to be employed than those who receiving high income. Furthermore, the table show that the with age group, youth (15-29) and adult (30-49) were more likely to be unemployed with both age groups having the odds of 1.874 and 4.590 than the elderly (50-64). With regards to level of education, the table reveals that African female migrants who had no schooling had the highest odds of being unemployed with 3.407 followed by those who have completed primary education and secondary education with 3.111 and 2.489 odds than those who have completed tertiary education. Furthermore, concerning level of income, the table shows that African female migrants who were not earning any income and those who were receiving low income were likely to be unemployed with 1.568 and 4.831 odds than those who were receiving high income.

4.7.2 Factors contributing to employment status 2011

Census 2011 indicates that the model of fitness that was assessed using the Chi-square statistic test and the value was 665.876 with $p=0.00$, this proves a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in the study's final model. The Pearson 399.647 and deviance 298.177 statistics test prove that the model does not fit, $p=0.607$ and thus the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables is not significant. The likelihood ration test indicated a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables with $p=0.01$, this is an indication that the variables under study have a significant contribution to the final model of the study.

In 2011, the table shows that regarding level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving any income were likely to be employed with 0.023 odds than those who were earning high income. With regards to country of birth, the table reveals that African female migrants from Lesotho were more likely to be employed in Gauteng province with 3.300 odds than those who were from Mozambique. Focusing on unemployed, the table reveals with marital status, married women were more likely to be unemployed with 0.299 odds than those were divorced in Gauteng province. Furthermore, the table reveals that with level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving any income had more chances to be unemployed, same as

those ones who received low income with 2.539 and 1.890 odds than those who receiving high income in Gauteng province.

Table 4.25: Multinomial logistic regression of factors affecting employment status

Employment status	2001						2011					
	B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Employed Intercept	2.236	.663	11.367	1	<.001		3.387	.861	15.477	1	<.001	
Age group												
Age group (15-29)	1.227	.258	22.611	1	<.001	3.411	.065	.348	.034	1	.853	1.067
Age group (30-49)	1.582	.218	52.858	1	<.001	4.864	.307	.328	.875	1	.350	1.359
Age group (50-64)	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Marital status												
Married	-.871	.382	5.183	1	.023	.419	-.705	.529	1.775	1	.183	.494
Never married	-.635	.390	2.648	1	.104	.530	-.627	.539	1.349	1	.245	.534
Widower	-1.575	.439	12.862	1	<.001	.207	-.945	.739	1.632	1	.201	.389
Divorced	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Level of education												
No schooling	.069	.455	.023	1	.880	1.071	-.787	.643	1.497	1	.221	.455
Primary education	.645	.445	2.106	1	.147	1.907	-.257	.400	.411	1	.521	.773
Secondary education	-.447	.382	1.370	1	.242	.639	-.449	.301	2.216	1	.137	.638
Tertiary education	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Level of income												
No income	-5.931	.542	119.780	1	<.001	.003	-3.772	.638	34.947	1	<.001	.023
Low income	-.546	.503	1.178	1	.278	.579	-.721	.666	1.174	1	.279	.486
Middle income	.493	.544	.822	1	.365	1.637	-.460	.631	.532	1	.466	.631
High income	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Country of birth												
Lesotho	1.264	1.128	1.255	1	.263	3.538	1.194	.455	6.891	1	.009	3.300
Namibia	20.555	21236.594	.000	1	.999	84475250	-.332	.496	.447	1	.504	.718
						5.832						
Botswana	-19.771	.000	.	1	.	2.593E-9	-1.123	.640	3.081	1	.079	.325
Zimbabwe	1.052	1.085	.941	1	.332	2.863	.551	.303	3.304	1	.069	1.734

Mozambique	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Unemployed Intercept	-21.643	.914	561.210	1	<.001		-16.978	.863	387.109	1	<.001	
d												
Age group												
Age group (15-29)	.628	.288	4.767	1	.029	1.874	-.133	.456	.084	1	.771	.876
Age group (30-49)	1.524	.273	31.158	1	<.001	4.590	.228	.446	.262	1	.609	1.256
Age group (50-64)	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Marital Status												
Married	.183	.449	.167	1	.683	1.201	-1.473	.641	5.284	1	.022	.229
Never married	.575	.449	1.639	1	.201	1.777	-.906	.648	1.958	1	.162	.404
Widower	-.231	.608	.144	1	.704	.794	-.907	.979	.858	1	.354	.404
Divorced	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Level of education												
No schooling	1.226	.545	5.054	1	.025	3.407	-1.982	1.128	3.089	1	.079	.138
Primary education	1.135	.532	4.551	1	.033	3.111	-.079	.494	.025	1	.873	.924
Secondary education	.912	.507	3.230	1	.072	2.489	-.075	.413	.033	1	.857	.928
Tertiary education	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Level of income												
No income	18.770	.639	862.732	1	<.001	1.568	17.786	.413	1858.983	1	.000	2.539
Low income	17.960	.668	723.474	1	<.001	4.831	16.974	.570	885.442	1	<.001	1.890
Middle income	17.891	.000	.	1	.	58895389	16.696	.000	.	1	.	17828644
High income	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Country of birth												
Lesotho	-.085	.939	.008	1	.928	.919	.546	.478	1.307	1	.253	1.726
Namibia	20.655	21236.594	.000	1	.999	93390759	-.644	.735	.767	1	.381	.525
Botswana	.072	1.163	.004	1	.950	1.075	-19.987	9423.322	.000	1	.998	2.087E-9
Zimbabwe	-.746	1.114	.448	1	.503	.474	.046	.300	.024	1	.878	1.047
Mozambique	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.

The last category SPSS converted it into the reference category.

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.7.3 Factors contributing to occupation in 2001

The table below display the likelihood of African female migrants being employed in Gauteng province using the data set from Census 2001 and 2011. Census 2001 indicates that the model of fitness that was assessed using the Chi-square statistic test and the value was 385.17 with $p=0.001$ this proves a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in the study's final model. The Pearson 1.259E+208 and deviance 44782.775 statistics test prove that the model is fit, $p<0.05$ and thus the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables is significant. The likelihood ration test also indicated a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables with $p<0.05$, this is an indication that the variables under study have a significant contribution to the final model of the study.

The table 4.26 display the odds of different occupations among African female migrants in Gauteng province. In Gauteng in 2001, with age group, youth (15-29) and adult (30-49) African female migrants were more likely to work as professionals compared to other type of occupations. The results reveal that, with age group, African female migrants who were youth (15-29) and adult (30-49) were likely to be professionals in 2001 with 2.429 and 2.821 increased odds than those who were in their elderly ages (50-64). Regarding marital status, married African female migrants were likely to be professionals with 0.356 odds. Never married women and widowers were also likely to be professionals with 0.292 and 0.096 odds than those who were divorced. Concerning level of education, African female migrants who had no schooling had smaller chances to be professionals with 0.122 odds. Same as those who have completed primary education and secondary education with 0.072 and 0.260 odds than those who have completed their tertiary education. Regarding level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving income at all had more chances to be professionals, same as those were receiving low income with 5.526 and 2.919 odds than those who were receiving high income. This is not surprising given that migrants in a foreign country are less likely to have an income due to their lower likelihood of employment. Even when they are working, they receive low wages and are treated as cheap laborers.

Furthermore, the table in 2001 reveals that with age group, African female migrants who were youth (15-29) and adult (30-49) had more chances to be non-professionals with 3.557 and 3.298 odds than those who were elderly (50-64). Regarding marital status, the results show that African female migrants who were married and those who were never married were likely to be non-professionals with 0.313 and 0.348 odds. And also, African female migrants who were widowers were likely to be non-professionals with 0.126 odds than those who were divorced.

With regards to level of income, the results show that African female migrants who were not receiving income at all were likely to be non-professionals, same as those who were receiving low income with 3.010 and 6.098 odds than those who were earning high income.

Focusing on African female migrants who were employed as domestic work and related helpers, the results reveal that with age group, adults (30-49) were highly likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers with 1.983 odds than the elderly (50-64) in Gauteng province. Concerning marital status, the results show that African female migrants who were married and those who were widowers were likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers with 0.310 and 0.312 odds than those who were divorced. With regards to level of education, the results reveal that African female migrants with no schooling were likely to be domestic workers and related helpers with 13.410 odds, and those who had completed primary education and secondary education were also likely to be domestic workers and related helpers with 23.812 and 5.936 odds than those who have completed tertiary education. Furthermore, with level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving any income had more chances to be domestic workers and related helpers, same as the one who were receiving low income with 3.268 and 3.860 odds than those who were earning high income. Additionally, the results reveal that with country of birth, African female migrants from Zimbabwe were likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers with 9.165 odds than the ones from Mozambique.

4.7.4 Factors contributing to occupation in 2011

Census 2011 indicates that the model of fitness that was assessed using the Chi-square statistic test and the value was 726.853 with $p=0.01$, this proves a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in the study's final model. The Pearson 758.478 and deviance 571.881 statistics test prove that the model does not fit, $p=0.001$ and thus the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables is significant. The likelihood ratio test indicated a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables with $p=0.01$, this is an indication that the variables under study have a significant contribution to the final model of the study.

In 2011, the results reveal that with level of education, African female migrants who had completed primary education and secondary education were less likely to be professional with 0.129 and 0.230 odds than those who have completed tertiary education. With regards to level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving income were less likely to be professionals with 0.57 odds and those who were receiving low income also had less chances to be professionals with 0.352 odds than those who were earning high income. Regarding

African female migrants who were non-professionals, the results reveal that with level of education, African female migrants who have completed primary education were likely to be non-professionals with 0.257 odds than those who have tertiary education. Focusing on level of income, African female migrants with no income were likely to be non-professionals with 0.063 odds more than those who were earning high income.

Furthermore, the table reveals that in 2011, with age group, most African female migrants who were youth (15-29) had more chances to be domestic workers and related helpers with 2.013 odds than the elderly (50-64) in Gauteng province. With level of education, the results show that African female migrants with no schooling were likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers with 12.744 odds, same as those who have completed primary and secondary education with 7.135 and 4.391 odds. Regarding level of income, the results show that African female migrants with no income were likely to work as domestic workers and related helpers with 0.132 odds than those who were earning high income. Focusing on country of birth, the results reveal that, African female migrants who were from Lesotho and Zimbabwe were likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers with 3.301 and 2.113 odds than those from Mozambique.

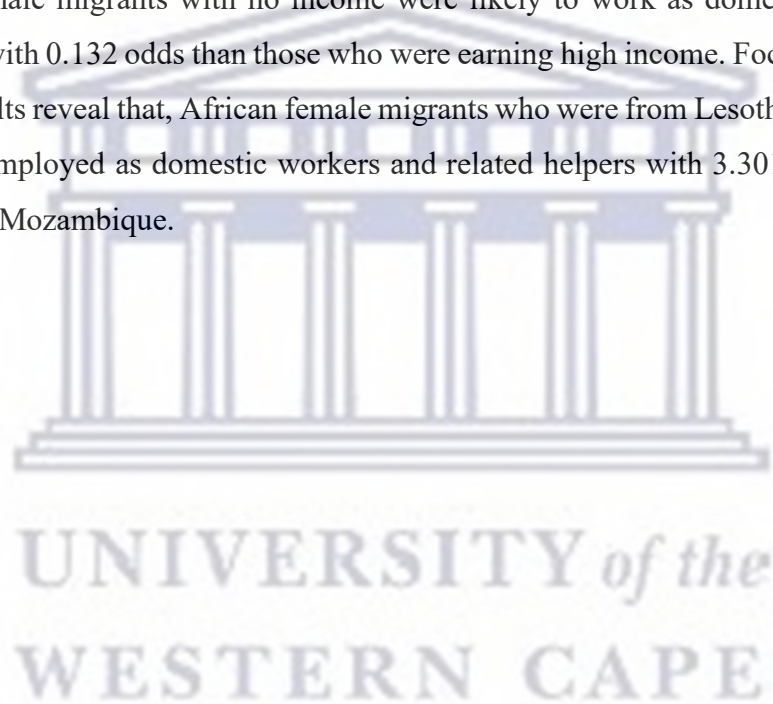


Table 4.26: Multinomial logistic regression of factors affecting occupation

Occupation	2001						2011						
	B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	
Professionals	Intercept	-	.524	820824.542	1	.000							
		474.683					1.245	.681	3.344	1	.067		
	Age group												
	Age group (15-29)	.888	.335	7.037	1	.008	2.429	-.165	.375	.194	1	.659	.848
	Age group (30-49)	1.037	.298	12.136	1	<.001	2.821	.193	.317	.372	1	.542	1.213
	Age group (50-64)	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
	Marital status												
	Married	-1.034	.410	6.346	1	.012	.356	-.221	.408	.294	1	.588	.801
	Never married	-1.231	.422	8.507	1	.004	.292	-.049	.434	.013	1	.910	.952
	Widower	-2.343	.624	14.086	1	<.001	.096	-1.597	.909	3.089	1	.079	.203
	Divorced	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
	Level of education												
	No Schooling	-2.101	.536	15.364	1	<.001	.122	-	.000	.	1	.	1.088E-9
	Primary education	-2.633	.610	18.640	1	<.001	.072	-2.046	.514	15.816	1	<.001	.129
	Secondary education	-1.348	.333	16.428	1	<.001	.260	-1.471	.264	31.126	1	<.001	.230
	Tertiary education	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
	Level of income												
	No income	471.437	.415	1288691.387	1	.000	5.526	-2.861	.465	37.771	1	<.001	.057
	Low income	475.404	.234	4114677.036	1	.000	2.919	-1.043	.492	4.500	1	.034	.352
	Middle income	477.335	.000	.	1	.	2.013	.095	.374	.064	1	.800	1.099
	High income	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
	Country of birth												
	Lesotho	-1.306	1.681	.604	1	.437	.271	-.082	.588	.019	1	.889	.921
	Namibia	2.487	1.498	2.758	1	.097	12.029	-.445	.581	.587	1	.444	.641
	Botswana	-1.777	5.026	.125	1	.724	.169	-1.617	.951	2.894	1	.089	.198
	Zimbabwe	1.136	1.094	1.077	1	.299	3.114	-.084	.433	.038	1	.846	.919
	Mozambique	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Non-professionals	Intercept	-	.545	247501.105	1	.000							
		271.304					-0.094	.606	.024	1	.877		
	Age group												

Age group (15-29)	1.275	.307	17.264	1	<.001	3.577	.333	.311	1.147	1	.284	1.395
Age group (30-49)	1.193	.276	18.665	1	<.001	3.298	.224	.279	.647	1	.421	1.251
Age group (50-64)	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Marital status												
Married	-1.163	.384	9.190	1	.002	.313	.166	.372	.199	1	.656	1.180
Never married	-1.057	.388	7.409	1	.006	.348	.175	.387	.205	1	.651	1.191
Widower	-2.072	.538	14.844	1	<.001	.126	-.120	.601	.040	1	.841	.886
Divorced	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Level of income												
No schooling	-.611	.506	1.459	1	.227	.543	-.504	.869	.336	1	.562	.604
Primary education	-.384	.485	.628	1	.428	.681	-1.358	.441	9.473	1	.002	.257
Secondary education	.167	.387	.187	1	.666	1.182	-.081	.250	.105	1	.746	.922
Tertiary education	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Level of income												
No income	265.899	.473	316095.100	1	.000	3.010	-2.772	.428	41.909	1	<.001	.063
Low income	271.210	.227	1425652.785	1	.000	6.098	-.033	.417	.006	1	.937	.968
Middle income	271.944	.000	.	1	.	1.270	.436	.372	1.375	1	.241	1.547
High income	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Country of birth												
Lesotho	-2.476	2.497	.983	1	.321	.084	.066	.453	.021	1	.885	1.068
Namibia	-5.137	26.430	.038	1	.846	.006	.026	.474	.003	1	.956	1.026
Botswana	-2.217	5.421	.167	1	.683	.109	-.948	.719	1.736	1	.188	.388
Zimbabwe	.965	1.091	.781	1	.377	2.624	.187	.333	.314	1	.575	1.205
Mozambique	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Domestic workers and related helpers	Intercept	-	1.076	17097.767	1	.000	-2.475	.773	10.247	1	.001	
		140.739										
Age group												
Age group (15-29)	-.096	.280	.117	1	.732	.908	.700	.350	3.989	1	.046	2.013
Age group (30-49)	.684	.220	9.681	1	.002	1.983	.477	.323	2.186	1	.139	1.611
Age group (50-64)	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Marital status												
Married	-1.170	.368	10.136	1	.001	.310	-.600	.373	2.582	1	.108	.549
Never married	-.697	.367	3.604	1	.058	.498	-.557	.381	2.131	1	.144	.573
Widower	-1.164	.432	7.247	1	.007	.312	.061	.558	.012	1	.913	1.063
Divorced	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.

Level of education												
No schooling	2.596	.919	7.983	1	.005	13.410	2.547	.704	13.088	1	<.001	12.774
Primary education	3.170	.914	12.030	1	<.001	23.812	1.965	.459	18.291	1	<.001	7.135
Secondary education	1.781	.899	3.926	1	.048	5.936	1.480	.401	13.588	1	<.001	4.391
Tertiary education	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Level of income												
No income	134.734	.605	49564.254	1	.000	3.268	-2.026	.594	11.640	1	<.001	.132
Low income	139.506	.536	67669.757	1	.000	3.860	.829	.582	2.029	1	.154	2.291
Middle income	137.067	.000	.	1	.	3.368E+59	.813	.559	2.119	1	.145	2.255
High income	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.
Country of birth												
Lesotho	.190	.899	.045	1	.833	1.209	1.194	.423	7.956	1	.005	3.301
Namibia	-4.594	17.519	.069	1	.793	.010	-1.365	.846	2.606	1	.106	.255
Botswana	-2.317	4.665	.247	1	.619	.099	-.245	.803	.093	1	.760	.783
Zimbabwe	2.215	1.033	4.602	1	.032	9.165	.748	.345	4.711	1	.030	2.113
Mozambique	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.

The last category SPSS converted it into the reference category.

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.7.5 Factors influencing reasons for not working in 2001

The table below depicts the likelihood of African female migrant reasons for not working in Gauteng province using Census 2001 and 2011 data sets. Census 2001 indicates that the model of fitness that was assessed using the Chi-square statistic test and the value was 2294.067 with $p=0.00$, this proves a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in the study's final model. The Pearson 442.587 and deviance 280.188 statistics test prove that the model is fit, $p>0.05$ and thus the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables is not significant. The likelihood ration test also indicated a significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables with $p<0.05$, this is an indication that the variables under study have a significant contribution to the final model of the study.

The table display the odds of African female migrant's reasons for not working. The results show that in 2001, with regards to level of education, African female migrants who had no schooling were more likely to be housewives with 0.037 odds than the one who have completed their tertiary education in Gauteng province. Furthermore, the results reveal that with country

of birth, African female migrants from Botswana were more likely to be housewives with 553.163 odds than African female migrants from Mozambique. Moreover, the results show that with age group, African female migrants who were youth (15-29) were likely to be students with 0.366 odds than the elderly (50-64). Additionally, the results show that with marital status, African female migrants who were married were more likely to be students with 5.305 odds than those who were divorced. With regards to level of income, the results show that African female migrants who were not receiving any income were likely to be students with 28.311 odds more than those who were receiving high income. In terms of country of birth, the results show that African female migrants from Botswana were more likely to be students with 2.587 odds than migrants from Mozambique.

Table 4.27 further display that with age group, African female migrants who were youth (15-29) and adults (30-49) were more likely not to find work with 1.758 and 2.765 odds than the elderly. With regards to marital status, African female migrants who were married were likely not to find work with 2.712 odds than those who were divorced. Focusing on level of education, African female migrants with no schooling were likely not to find work with 3.234 odds, same with those who have completed secondary education with 2.968 odds. Regarding level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving any income were most likely not to find work with 203.971 odds than those were earning high income.

4.7.6 Factors affecting reasons for not working in 2011

Census 2011 indicates that the model of fitness that was assessed using the Chi-square statistic test and the value was 83.981 with $p=0.78$, this prove that there is no significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in the study's final model. The Pearson 56.286 and deviance 47.237 statistics test prove that the model does not fit, $p>0.05$ and thus the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables is not significant. The likelihood ration test also indicated there is no significant relationship between the independent and the dependent variables with $p>0.05$, this is an indication that the variables under study does not have significant contribution to the final model of the study.

As indicated in the methodology, Population census 2001 and 2011 were not consistent in terms categories for "reasons for not working"; hence, the model could not fit the study.

Table 4.27: Multinomial logistic regression of factors affecting reasons for not working

Reasons for not working	B	2001					Exp(B)	B	2011				
		Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Std. Error			Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	
Home-marker/Housewives													
Intercept	-30.417	409.451	.006	1	.941		-51.582	5500.774	.000	1	.993		
Age group													
Age group (15-29)	14.365	181.865	.006	1	.937	1731740.624	15.741	2255.133	.000	1	.994	6858638.460	
Age group (30-49)	12.087	181.865	.004	1	.947	177620.651	16.082	2255.133	.000	1	.994	9641221.420	
Age group (50-64)	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.	
Marital status													
Married	-.159	1.185	.018	1	.893	.853	15.458	3083.168	.000	1	.996	5169594.471	
Never married	1.642	1.151	2.038	1	.153	5.168	14.233	3083.168	.000	1	.996	1518690.746	
Widower	1.380	1.640	.708	1	.400	3.974	-.041	5509.860	.000	1	1.000	.960	
Divorced	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.	
Level of education													
No schooling	-3.299	1.162	8.058	1	.005	.037	-.085	1.358	.004	1	.950	.919	
Primary education	-.661	.608	1.180	1	.277	.517	-.623	1.139	.299	1	.584	.536	
Secondary education	-.033	.541	.004	1	.951	.967	-.603	.891	.458	1	.498	.547	
Tertiary education	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.	
Level of income													
No income	16.130	366.843	.002	1	.965	10118394.107	18.160	3958.151	.000	1	.996	77086357.601	
Low income	12.215	366.843	.001	1	.973	201834.806	16.486	3958.151	.000	1	.997	14442710.844	

	Middle income	10.250	366.845	.001	1	.978	28276.196	.667	4215.408	.000	1	1.000	1.949
	High income ^{0b}	.	.	0	.	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
	Country of birth												
	Lesotho	2.518	1.318	3.653	1	.056	12.408	-16.307	3035.915	.000	1	.996	8.279E-8
	Namibia	-	1435.922	.000	1	.994	2.690E-5	.692	1.352	.262	1	.609	1.998
	Botswana	22.932	1.398	268.957	1	<.001	553.163	-17.275	9599.150	.000	1	.999	3.146E-8
	Zimbabwe	-1.606	1.258	1.630	1	.202	.201	-.285	.756	.142	1	.706	.752
	Mozambique ^{0b}	.	.	0	.	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
Students	Intercept	-3.936	.854	21.261	1	<.001		-59.952	5782.036	.000	1	.992	
	Age group												
	Age group (15-29)	-1.006	.349	8.315	1	.004	.366	15.940	2425.485	.000	1	.995	8366235.655
	Age group (30-49)	.086	.285	.091	1	.763	1.090	1.113	2645.128	.000	1	1.000	3.044
	Age group (50-64)	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
	Marital status												
	Married	1.669	.540	9.553	1	.002	5.305	-1.969	3231.479	.000	1	1.000	.140
	Never married	-.152	.579	.069	1	.793	.859	13.620	3011.770	.000	1	.996	822551.362
	Widower	.121	.722	.028	1	.867	1.128	11.758	8221.559	.000	1	.999	127756.564
	Divorced	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
	Level of education												
	No schooling	.464	.552	.709	1	.400	1.591	.257	4644.344	.000	1	1.000	1.293
	Primary education	-.413	.555	.554	1	.457	.662	-15.089	3100.831	.000	1	.996	2.799E-7
	Secondary education	.095	.479	.040	1	.842	1.100	-.057	1.258	.002	1	.964	.944

Tertiary education	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
Level of income												
No income	3.343	.656	25.940	1	<.001	28.311	11.199	2060.046	.000	1	.996	73060.204
Low income	-.636	.680	.874	1	.350	.530	-4.958	2904.356	.000	1	.999	.007
Middle income	-1.618	.847	3.649	1	.056	.198	10.672	2060.046	.000	1	.996	43139.803
High income	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
Country of birth												
Lesotho	-	1013.283	.000	1	.989	6.199E-7	16.944	3772.698	.000	1	.996	22843303.577
	14.294											
Namibia	-	2440.281	.000	1	.995	1.022E-6	18.893	3772.699	.000	1	.996	160328629.240
	13.793											
Botswana	22.059	1.677	173.112	1	<.001	2.587	17.270	3772.699	.000	1	.996	31640104.248
Zimbabwe	-1.507	1.240	1.477	1	.224	.222	15.131	3772.698	.000	1	.997	3725895.386
Mozambique	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
Could not find work												
Intercept	-6.253	1.157	29.207	1	<.001		-64.334	7690.264	.000	1	.993	
Age group												
Age group (15-29)	.564	.282	3.995	1	.046	1.758	14.405	3121.122	.000	1	.996	1802893.910
Age group (30-49)	1.017	.265	14.700	1	<.001	2.765	14.896	3121.122	.000	1	.996	2947195.475
Age group (50-64)	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
Marital status												
Married	.482	.399	1.459	1	.227	1.619	14.921	4056.179	.000	1	.997	3020972.848
Never married	.776	.398	3.804	1	.051	2.172	15.113	4056.179	.000	1	.997	3659897.959
Widower	.467	.521	.804	1	.370	1.595	1.091	6699.703	.000	1	1.000	2.978
Divorced	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
Level of education												

No schooling	1.174	.520	5.086	1	.024	3.234	-1.682	10262.946	.000	1	1.000	.186
Primary education	.819	.504	2.641	1	.104	2.268	14.872	2703.976	.000	1	.996	2876221.712
Secondary education	1.088	.471	5.327	1	.021	2.968	15.236	2703.976	.000	1	.996	4137234.029
Tertiary education	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
Level of income												
No income	5.318	1.023	27.008	1	<.001	203.971	15.465	5063.073	.000	1	.998	5206391.693
Low income	1.081	1.027	1.107	1	.293	2.948	-2.293	5848.140	.000	1	1.000	.101
Middle income	.349	1.084	.104	1	.747	1.418	-1.561	5467.952	.000	1	1.000	.210
High income	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.
Country of birth												
Lesotho	.001	1.075	.000	1	1.000	1.001	1.519	1.294	1.378	1	.240	4.569
Namibia	.462	1.866	.061	1	.805	1.586	-14.369	4942.400	.000	1	.998	5.748E-7
Botswana	21.719	.000	.	1	.	2705943209.025	-16.531	.000	.	1	.	6.618E-8
Zimbabwe	-1.386	.942	2.165	1	.141	.250	-.113	1.232	.008	1	.927	.893
Mozambique	0 ^b	.	.	0	.	.	0 ^c	.	.	0	.	.

The last category SPSS converted it into the reference category.

Source: Author's own calculation using 2001 and 2011 Population censuses

4.8 Chapter summary

This chapter consisted of data analysis using the 2001 and 2011 censuses data. The study found that most of female migrants were young (15-29), not married, and with secondary education. The majority of them came from Mozambique, and most of them were employed as not professionals. Furthermore, the study indicates that majority of female migrants had low income. Moreover, the study found an association between age, marital status, level of education, country of birth, level of income and employment status, occupation and reasons for not working. Furthermore, the study highlights that the factors contributing to female employment are age, level of education and income. In addition, most of female migrants were domestic workers for both 2001 and 2011.

Chapter 5: Discussion of results

5.1 Introduction

The objective of this research is to investigate the relationship between labour force participation and the socio-demographic characteristics of African female migrants in Gauteng province. The focus is on how migrants' demographic, socio-economic and migratory variables influence labour force participation. The objective of this study was to compare the labour force participation of African female migrants in Gauteng province between 2001 and 2011. The study compared data from the 2001 population census and the 2011 population census, both of which were obtained from Statistics South Africa.

5.2 Review of the methodology

This cross-sectional quantitative research was used to examine at what extent African female migrants were involved in the labour force in Gauteng province. There is limited research on African female migration in terms of demographic, socio-economic and migratory characteristics in South Africa, particularly in Gauteng province. However, the 2001 and 2011 population censuses from Statistics South Africa were used to achieve the study's goal. The purpose of this study was to show changes in the labour force participation of African female migrants in South Africa over a ten-year period. The correlation between the dependent and independent variables was investigated. The independent variables of the study are age group, marital status, level of education, level of income, country of birth and year of movement. The dependent variables are employment status, occupation, reasons for not working and type of sector. Three statistical methods were used to evaluate the significance of the relationships between variables.

5.3 Size and distribution of African female migrants

The fourth chapter begins by describing the size and composition of African female migrants in Gauteng province between 2001 and 2011. Variables such as age group, marital status, level of education, level of income and employment status, occupation, type of sector, reasons for not working, country of birth, and year of movement were all investigated. To determine the population size of African female migrants, the following research question was developed: *“Has the number of African female migrants who came to Gauteng increased from 2001 to 2011?”* By this question, it was possible to find out whether there was an increase in the number of African female migrants who joined the South African labour force between the two census periods.

According to the previous chapter, which is the findings, Figure 4.1 reveals that African female migrants who were in the age group (30-49), had an increase of 7% within the ten-year period in the labour market in Gauteng province. The reason for this can be that most of the African female migrants who are in this age group have many responsibilities at home; hence, they were more involved in the labour market than other age groups between 2001 and 2011. They can be influenced by feminisation as women are now migrating more frequently for a variety of reasons, including job opportunities.

Furthermore, Figure 4.2 reveals that there was an increase of married women in the labour market in Gauteng province in the ten-year period. According to UNDESA 2005, married women continue migrating mainly for family reasons and they are increasingly migrating for employment reasons. Women migrants' participation in the formal and informal labour markets is increasing as a survival strategy to supplement their families' meagre incomes, according to Awumbila et al. (2014). For women, marriage or reuniting with family is a more important motivation for being involved in the labour market. Results in Table 4.2 are in line with the Human Capital theory which states that the factors that influence migration decisions, include age, gender, marital status, education, work experience and language proficiency.

The findings in Figure 4.3 show that both in 2001 and 2011, most African female migrants who had completed their secondary education were involved in the labour market in Gauteng province. The figure also reveals a rise in the number of African female migrants who finished their tertiary education between 2001 and 2011. Figure 4.4 shows that in Gauteng province, 12.4% of African female migrants were earning middle income. However, in 2011, that number rose to 41.9%, indicating a significant shift. In this case, it can be said that the increase in income was caused by the ability of African female migrants with higher education to obtain professional jobs.

Figure 4.5 shows that the percentage of African female migrants employed in Gauteng province increased by 22.1% between 2001 and 2011. During that ten-year span, there was a 5.8% decrease in the number of unemployed African female migrants in Gauteng province. Additionally, as Gauteng continues to develop, more job opportunities have arisen, as a result, more African female migrants have found employment over time. All three of the occupations have increased over the years, as seen in Figure 4.6, between 2001 and 2001. Professionals have increased by 1%, non-professionals by 12.3%, and domestic workers and related helpers by 6.5%.

Figure 4.7 displays population 2011 'type of sector', and the results show that most African female migrants in Gauteng were working in the formal sector followed by those who were

working in the private household. The majority of African female migrants in Gauteng province are employed in the informal sector, according to earlier research, so these findings are not significant. According to Bertulfo (2011), existing data suggest that the majority of economically active women in developing countries are engaged in the informal sector. Figure 4.9 demonstrates that between the two census periods, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Lesotho accounted for the majority of African female migrants in Gauteng province. These nations' political, social and economic struggles force many of them to flee to South Africa in order to survive.

5.4 African female migrants and employment status

The objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between African female migrants' socio-demographic and socio-economic in Gauteng province. The results show that most African female migrants who were involved in the labour market are participating in the informal sector in order to survive or support their families. This is impacted by both socio-economic and socio-demographic aspects upon the arrival of African female migrants in South Africa, with continuation from the selection features that motivated their migration.

5.4.1 African female migrants and employment status by age group

Age has a significant impact on all migration studies. Age is a key factor that can either positively or negatively affect a migrant's decision to migrate, according to Brichall (2016). This indicates that among other things, the migrant's age has an impact on their ultimate decision to migrate. This study's hypothesis states, "*African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province are more likely to be employed than those who migrate to other provinces*". The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is a moderate relationship between employment status and age of African female migrant who reside in Gauteng. The Cramer's V test was used to measure the strength of this relationship. The results show that for 2001, it was (moderate relationship) and while in 2011, it was (weak relationship). The results reveal that migrants aged 30-49 were more likely to participate in the labour force than the migrants who were in the age groups 15-29 and 50-64.

The findings show that majority of African female migrants were employed in both 2001 and 2011. On the other hand, fewer African female migrants found employment in 2011 than in 2001. This might be related to the 2008 recession, which had a significant negative influence on the economy and led to job losses. The other cause might be the 2008 xenophobic violence, which drove several African female migrants to return to their home countries. According to World Bank Report (2009), in May 2008, xenophobic violence broke out in Johannesburg and

rapidly spread to seven of South Africa's nine provinces, resulting in deaths. Some foreign nationals left the country to flee the danger.

5.4.2 African female migrants and employment status by marital status

Another factor that is generally acknowledged to influence labour participation is marital status. The hypothesis in this study is that " *The socio-demographic characteristics (age, level of education, marital status) are associated with the employment status of African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province*". The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is a significant relationship between African female migrant's employment status and marital status in Gauteng. The results show a weak relationship for 2001 and a negligible relationship for 2011.

The findings reveal that majority of African female migrants who were never married in 2001 were working. However, in 2011, married African female migrants made up the majority of those in employment. The need to support their families may be the driving force behind the increased number of married African female migrants in the labour market. According to Souza (2021), the employment probabilities of married women increase with more time of residence in South Africa.

5.4.3 African female migrants and employment status by level of education

Education plays a vital role in the labour market since it is frequently used as a means to quantify the abilities that are needed to conduct labour activities. The hypothesis, "*Young single African female migrants with secondary education are more likely to migrate to Gauteng province of South Africa*". A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The findings show a relationship between employment status and level of education. The strength of this association was measured, and it was found to be weak in both 2001 and 2011.

Table 4.3 reveals that most African female migrants in Gauteng province with a secondary education were working between 2001 and 2011. They can engage in cheap labour because they only have a secondary education. According to Mabudusha (2014), the absence of formal education and skills training had compelled migrant women to rely on implicit entrepreneurial skills learnt through trading activities in their home countries. Migrants who have completed their secondary and tertiary education are more likely to be employed than those who have no schooling.

5.4.4 African female migrants and employment status by level of income

The objective was to measure the relationship between employment status and level of income. The hypothesis in this study “*Level of income is associated with African female migrants with employment status*” was formulated. A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The results from the Chi-square statistical test revealed a relationship between African female migrants in Gauteng’s level of income and employment status. The Cramer’s V test was used to measure the strength of this relationship. The results confirm a weak relationship for 2001 and a negligible relationship for 2011. Table 4.4 reveals that majority of African female migrants who were engaged in the labour market in 2001 made low-income earnings, but by 2011, the majority of them were earning middle income in the province of Gauteng.

According to the South African Institute of International Affairs (SAIIA) (2008), South Africa is becoming a more popular destination for migrants in terms of numbers. However, it is also a dangerous and insecure place for women migrants who face abuse, open hostility, social isolation and economic exploitation. The findings show that some African female migrants in Gauteng were earning low income, and this means that they were participating in cheap labour in order to survive.

5.4.5 African female migrants and employment status by country of birth

According to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Report (2017), female migrants constituted 44.4% of the total migrant population in South Africa. Statistics South Africa (2018) identified that 8% of the approximately 13 million people residing in Gauteng province in South Africa consisted of immigrants from the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. Most African female migrants come to South Africa in search of better economic opportunities because of the political and economic instability of the SADC countries.

The objective of the study is to measure the relationship between country of birth and employment status. The hypothesis that was formulated was, “*The number of African female migrants who migrated to Gauteng province has increased from 2001 to 2011, and Lesotho and Zimbabwe are the top African countries which more likely to send African female migrants to Gauteng province of South Africa*”. The results from the Chi-square statistical test revealed that there is a significant relationship between African female migrant’s employment status and country of birth in Gauteng for 2011. The results confirm a no relationship for 2001 and a weak relationship for 2011.

The findings indeed show that both in 2001 and 2011, more African female migrants from Zimbabwe and Lesotho have been migrating to Gauteng province. The financial struggles they experience back home make it easy for migrants from these neighbouring countries to relocate to Gauteng as a result of pull and push factors. The findings also indicate that between 2001 and 2011, the number of African women migrating to Gauteng province increased.

5.5 African female migrants and occupation

The objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between African female migrants' socio-demographic and socio-economic, migratory characteristics and occupation in Gauteng province. The findings indicate that the majority of African women migrants who were employed in Gauteng province were employed as domestic workers and related helpers. This is impacted by both socio-economic and socio-demographic aspects upon the arrival of African female migrants in South Africa, with continuation from the selection features that motivated their migration.

5.5.1 African female migrants and occupation by age group

The objective of the study is to measure the relationship between occupation and age group of African female migrants in Gauteng province. The hypothesis that was formulated was “*The socio-demographic characteristics (age group, level of education, marital status) are associated with the employment status of African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province.*” A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The findings show a strong correlation between occupation and age. The strength of this association was measured, and it was found to be a moderate relationship in 2001 and a weak relationship in 2011.

Age is important when analysing the labour force or the labour market because only people aged 15 to 64 are considered. The findings indicate that in Gauteng province, more African women migrants worked as domestic workers and related helpers in 2001 than in any other occupation. However, in 2011, the majority of these migrants were employed as non-professionals. In a qualitative study conducted in KwaZulu-Natal, Raniga (2019) found that foreign national women can secure contracts as domestic workers as they accept lower remuneration rates than the locals.

5.5.2 African female migrants and occupation by marital status

When examining occupation, marital status is a significant factor. The hypothesis in this study is that “*The socio-demographic characteristics (age, level of education, marital status) are associated with the employment status of African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng*

province”. The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is a significant relationship between African female migrant’s occupation and marital status in Gauteng. The results confirm a weak relationship for both 2001 and 2011.

The results show that more African female migrants who had never married were employed in Gauteng province as domestic helpers and related workers in 2001 and 2011. According to ILO (2021), domestic work is one of the sectors driving migration in southern Africa, especially to South Africa, the top destination for African migrants. In order to survive, single African female migrants tend to take any job available in the market. African female migrants who are single often accept any job that is offered to them in order to survive. The findings also indicate that in 2001, the majority of non-professional African female migrants were single, but by 2011, the majority were married.

5.5.3 African female migrants and occupation by level of education

One of the primary factors influencing a person’s occupation is their level of education. The hypothesis in this study is that *“Young single African female migrants with secondary education are more likely to migrate to Gauteng province of South Africa”*. A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The findings show a strong correlation between occupation and level of education. The strength of this association was measured, and it was found to be moderate in both 2001 and 2011. The Cramer’s V test was used to measure the strength of this relationship. The results confirm a moderate relationship for both 2001 and 2011.

According to the results, more professional African female migrants had finished their secondary education in 2001, but in 2011, the majority of African female migrants had finished their tertiary education. This suggests that compared to individuals without education, migrants with secondary or post-secondary education, have a greater likelihood of becoming professionals. According to Majikijela (2015), employability relies on qualifications and skills and through this, African female migrants who have secondary and tertiary education are more employable.

5.5.4 African female migrants and occupation by level of income

The objective was to measure the relationship between occupation and level of income. The hypothesis in this study *“Level of income is associated with African female migrants with employment status”* was formulated. A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is a relationship between African female migrants in Gauteng’s level of income and occupation.

The Cramer's V test was used to measure the strength of this relationship. The results confirm a relatively strong relationship for 2001 and a moderate relationship for 2011.

The results demonstrate that the majority of African female migrants who worked as domestic helpers and related workers between 2001 and 2011 earned low income. It was to be expected, given that this kind of work is either unpaid or poorly compensated. According to ILO (2016), domestic workers' work is often undervalued and unprotected, which can and must be redressed. In many parts of the world, domestic workers face low wages, excessively long working hours and have no guaranteed weekly day of rest. Given their desperation for employment, a number of African female migrants are keen to work in an environment like that.

5.5.5 African female migrants and occupation by country of birth

The objective of the study is to measure the relationship between country of birth and occupation. The hypothesis that was formulated was, "*The number of African female migrants who migrated to Gauteng province has increased from 2001 to 2011, and Lesotho and Zimbabwe are the top African countries which are more likely to send African female migrants to Gauteng province of South Africa*". A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The findings show a correlation between occupation and country of birth. The strength of this association was measured, and it was found to be a moderate relationship for 2001 and a weak relationship for 2011.

The results indicate that while Lesotho and Zimbabwe had more African women migrants working in Gauteng province in 2001, Mozambique and Zimbabwe had the highest number of African women migrants in 2011. African female migrants from SADC often migrate to Gauteng province, which is the centre of South Africa's economy, in search of employment opportunities that will enable them to support themselves. According to Crush (2015), female migrants from Zimbabwe are main breadwinners in their households; hence, they opt to migrate to South Africa for a better life. A significant number of Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa are unskilled and undocumented because of the stringent immigration requirements that do not accommodate low and unskilled migrants to apply for a temporary work permit (Landau et al., 2005).

5.6 African female migrants and reasons for not working

The objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between African female migrants' socio-demographic and socio-economic, migratory characteristics and reasons for not working in Gauteng province. The results show that African women migrants were not employed

because some of them were housewives or students and were therefore unable to obtain employment. This is impacted by both socio-economic and socio-demographic aspects upon the arrival of African female migrants in South Africa.

5.6.1 African female migrants and reasons for not working by age group

The objective of the study was to measure the relationship between reasons for not working and age group. The hypothesis was formulated “*The socio-demographic characteristics (age group, level of education, marital status) are associated with the employment status of African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province*”. A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The findings show a strong correlation between reasons for not working and age group. The strength of this association was measured, and it was found to be a moderate relationship for 2001 and a negligible relationship for 2011.

The results indicate that in 2001, African female migrants aged 15-29, were unable to find employment because they were housewives but in 2011, the age group shifted to 30-49. African female migrants have to perform household duties while their men work in public and private sectors, which is why they are housewives. In addition, patriarchal norms may prevent women from seeking employment.

5.6.2 African female migrants and reasons for not working by marital status

Marital status has a significant impact on labour force participation. The hypothesis that was formulated was ‘*The socio-demographic characteristics (age, level of education, marital status) are associated with the employment status of African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province*’. The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is a significant relationship between African female migrant’s reasons for not working and marital status in Gauteng for 2001. The results confirm a moderate relationship for 2001 and no relationship for 2011.

Compared to 2001, the majority of married African female migrants were housewives in 2011. In African societies, where women are expected to stay at home and take care of the children, this can be seen as a logical assumption. Interesting results show that in 2001, majority of African female migrants who were married were students, but in 2011, most of African female migrants who were single, were students.

5.6.3 African female migrants and reasons for not working by level of education

The objective of the study is to measure the relationship between reasons for not working and level of education. The hypothesis that was formulated was “*Young single African female*

migrants with secondary education, are more likely to migrate to Gauteng province of South Africa". A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The findings show a correlation between reasons for not working and level of education. The strength of this association was measured, and it was found to be a weak relationship in 2001, and no relationship in 2011.

The findings show that majority of African female migrants were students in 2001, which prevented them from finding employment. However, in 2011, the majority of single African female migrants were also students; hence, they did not work. Furthermore, African female migrants must at least finish their tertiary education in order to find competent jobs in Gauteng. According to Tayah (2016), Zimbabwean migrant women are likely to work in low-skilled and low-paying jobs, although the majority have completed secondary and tertiary education, mainly because of the non-recognition of their foreign qualifications and the prejudices against foreign education in the host country.

5.6.4 African female migrants and reasons for not working by level of income

The objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between reasons for not working and level of income. The hypothesis in this study, "*Level of income is associated with African female migrants with employment status*" was formulated. A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is a relationship between African female migrants in Gauteng's level of income and reasons for not working in 2001. The Cramer's V test was used to measure the strength of this relationship. The results confirm a strong relationship for 2001, and no relationship in 2011.

The findings show that most African women migrants in Gauteng province were housewives who did not receive any income because they were dependent on their husbands for financial support in 2001 and 2011. Additionally, the results demonstrate that in 2001 and 2011, a small number of female African female migrants who were students had low incomes, which may have been related to the bursaries they received for their education.

5.6.5 African female migrants and reasons for not working by country of birth

The main objective in this section was to measure the relationship between reasons for not working and the country of origin of African female migrants. The hypothesis, "*The number of African female migrants who migrated to Gauteng province has increased from 2001 to 2011, and Lesotho and Zimbabwe are the top African countries which more likely to send African female migrants to Gauteng province of South Africa*" was formulated. To confirm

this, a Chi-square statistical test was performed to test the hypothesis. The results confirm a significant relationship between reasons for not working and African female migrants' country of birth in 2001. The strength of this association was measured, and it was found to be a moderate relationship in 2001, and no relationship 2011.

According to Majikijela (2015), many African female migrants come into South Africa for employment and other opportunities. The findings show that, the majority of African female migrants who were housewives in 2001 came from Botswana, but in 2011, the majority of African female migrants came from Zimbabwe. The findings also indicate that between 2001 and 2011, the number of African female migrants who were housewives increased in Gauteng. Furthermore, the findings indicate that in 2001, the majority of African female migrants studying in Gauteng, were from Zimbabwe and Botswana, and that number rose in 2011.

5.7 African female migrants and type of sector

The objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between African female migrants' socio-demographic, socio-economic, migratory characteristics and type of sector in Gauteng province. The results indicate that most African female migrants were participating in the formal sector in Gauteng province which contradicts the existing literature. This is impacted by both socio-economic and socio-demographic aspects upon the arrival of African female migrants in South Africa.

5.7.1 African female migrants and type of sector by age group

The main objective in this section was to measure the relationship between type of sector and age of African female migrants. The research verifies that there is a relationship between the two variables using a Chi-square test statistic. The results confirm a significant relationship between type of sector and age. The strength of this association was measured, and it was found to be a negligible relationship in 2011.

The results indicate that the majority of female African migrants working in the informal sector were between the ages of 30 and 49. This suggests that more female migrants in that age group were involved in the informal sector than any other age group because they have many responsibilities. According to Mncube (2016), African female migrants work in informal sector so that they can be able to provide financial support to their children by sending remittances home. Money transfers by migrants to their relatives are recognized by governments and international organizations as important tools for reducing household poverty and enhancing local development (IOM, 2004).

5.7.2 African female migrants and type of sector by marital status

When analysing the type of sector, marital status is a significant factor. The hypothesis in this study, “*The socio-demographic characteristics (age, level of education, marital status) are associated with the type of sector of African female migrants who migrate to Gauteng province*”. The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is a significant relationship between African female migrant’s type of sector and marital status in Gauteng. The results confirm a weak relationship for 2011.

The results show that the majority of African female migrants who were never married, worked in private households in Gauteng province. This would include working as housekeepers, caretakers or domestic workers. The other findings demonstrate that single African women migrants dominated the formal sector. As discussed in chapter 2, feminisation of migration has taken hold in recent years, and as a result, women are now more educated than in the past, and can enjoy better lives and decent jobs, in contrast to the past, when they were dependent on men.

5.7.3 African female migrants and type of sector by level of education

According to Majikijela (2015), the Migration Selectivity theory on education suggests that educated people tend to migrate more than uneducated people and that education increases the probability of employment. Education, therefore, raises the likelihood of finding work and earning a respectable wage. The objective was to measure the relationship between type of sector and level of education. The Chi-square results showed a weak relationship between type of sector and level of education.

It was anticipated that more African female migrants with tertiary education would be dominating the formal sector. In this case, the results show that the majority of African female migrants working in the formal sector had completed their secondary education. Moreover, the findings indicate that African female migrants with a secondary education were the majority in the informal sector. Despite having a tertiary education, some research indicates that African migrants work in the informal sector. However, because their foreign qualifications are not recognized, they are forced to work in this environment.

5.7.4 African female migrants and type of sector by level of income

The objective of the study was to investigate the relationship between type of sector and level of income. The hypothesis in this study, “*Level of income is associated with African female migrants with type of sector*” was formulated. A Chi-square statistical test was used to test the hypothesis in order to prove this. The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed

that there is a weak relationship between African female migrants in Gauteng's level of income and type of sector for 2011.

The findings reveal that the majority of African female migrants make low incomes in the informal sector. Informal workers' working environment is not protected by health and safety legislation. They do not receive overtime payment, a minimum wage or worker benefits, such as paid vacation and sick leave, health insurance, unemployment insurance, maternity benefits and parental leave (Bertulfo, 2011). As would be expected in the formal sector, the interesting results indicate that the majority of African female migrants were earning a middle-class income in private households.

5.7.5 African female migrants and type of sector by country of birth

The objective of this section is to measure the relationship between type of sector and country of birth. As a result, a hypothesis was developed in this regard. The results from the Chi-square statistical test also revealed that there is a significant relationship between African female migrant's type of sector and country of birth in Gauteng. The results confirm a weak association.

The results show that the majority of African female migrants in the formal sector came from Namibia and Zimbabwe. Additionally, the data show that the majority of African women migrants in the informal sector were from Zimbabwe and Lesotho. The findings indicate that among the three sectors, the majority of African female migrants in Gauteng province are from Zimbabwe. This may be because there aren't enough jobs in their home country, and they therefore moved to Gauteng in search of work.

According to Crush (2017), the deepening levels of poverty in Zimbabwe have resulted in high numbers of Zimbabwean women migrating to South Africa in the hopes of securing a better standard of living. The relatively stable political climate and a quite strong economy, coupled with low travel costs, make South Africa an attractive destination for many Zimbabwean migrants. Migrant women from Zimbabwe span across all classes and professions. However, those who are unskilled and undocumented can be regarded as precarious workers, employed in the informal sector, and the study's findings support that.

5.8 The predictors of labour force participation among African female migrants in South Africa in 2001 and 2011

The study used multinomial logistic regression analysis to identify factors influencing labour force participation among African female migrants in Gauteng province. In order to determine whether there has been an increase in African female migration between these two time periods,

the Population Census data sets from 2001 and 2011 were compared in this study. Given that South Africa has a high unemployment rate, it was expected that new arrivals from other African nations would put additional strain on the labour force.

5.8.1 Factors contributing to African female migrant's employment status in Gauteng province in 2001

The study looked at the factors that influence African female migrant's employment status in the Gauteng province.

Variables that influence employment status among African female migrants in Gauteng province in 2001 were identified by multinomial logistic regression. The test model was found to be significant with a p-value less than 0.05. The test was statistically significant, and the data fits the model. The likelihood ratio was also tested, and it indicates that the test is significant.

The findings in Table 4.25 show that African female migrants who were aged 15-29 and 30-49 were likely to be employed in Gauteng province in 2001. According to ILO (2020), young women are likely to find employment than their native peers. This fits with research showing that younger women who are fleeing difficult circumstances back home, typically have greater access to employment opportunities.

Regarding marital status, the results show that married African female migrants and widowers had higher employment rates than single migrants. Existing research does not support the statement above, as Grossbard-Schechtman and Neuman (1988) argue that married women are less likely to enter the labour market as they are found to be less attractive in the labour force. Furthermore, married women are less attractive because they bear a greater share of the household duties.

The findings also show that level of income influence employment status in Gauteng province. The results indicate that African female migrants who did not receive any income were likely to be employed than those who were receiving high income. According to Gao (2022), many African female migrants struggle to find work in their home countries due to economic instability, but they find employment in South Africa as low-skilled labourers as such as domestic workers. This suggests that African female migrants are likely to find employment because in their desperation for work, they will accept any job that is offered to them.

The results show that African female migrants who were aged 15-29 and 30-49 were likely to be unemployed than the elderly. This may be because African female migrants, aged 15 to 29, were still relatively new to the workforce and thus more likely to be unemployed. Additionally, those in the 30-49 age range are likely to be unemployed due to their increased family

responsibilities. With level of education, the findings demonstrate that African female migrants with no schooling were likely to be unemployed than those who have completed primary and secondary education in Gauteng province. This suggests that education matters when it comes to employment, and the data support the idea that the less educated you are, the greater your likelihood of being unemployed.

5.8.2 Factors contributing to employment status in 2011

Variables that influence employment status among African female migrants in Gauteng province in 2011 were identified by multinomial logistic regression. The test model was found to be significant with a p-value less than 0.05. The test was statistically significant, and the data fits the model. The likelihood ratio was also tested, and it indicates that the test is significant.

Table 4.25 shows that the level of income influenced the employment status of African female migrants in Gauteng province in 2011. According to the findings, African female migrants who did not receive any income were more likely to be employed than those who were receiving high income. This is true given that these migrants are unable to negotiate a salary and must accept any job that is given to them in order to sustain themselves. Focusing on country of birth, the results indicate that female migrants from Lesotho were more likely to be employed than female migrants from Mozambique. According to (ILO) 2014, the main destination for Basotho migrants is South Africa and 99.8% are said to work in South Africa. This implies that some of the female migrants travel to Gauteng in search of greener pastures.

Furthermore, the findings reveal that African female migrants who were married were more likely to be unemployed than those who were divorced. These results are accurate since studies have shown that married women's obligations at home make them appear less attractive. Additionally, the results indicate that African female migrants with no income were more likely to be unemployed than those who were receiving high income.

5.9 Factors contributing to African female migrant's occupation in Gauteng province

The study looked at the factors influencing the occupation of African women migrants in Gauteng province.

5.9.1 Factors contributing to occupation in 2001

Variables that influence occupation among African female migrants in Gauteng province in 2001 were identified by multinomial logistic regression. The test model was found to be significant with a p-value less than 0.05. The test was statistically significant, and the data fits the model. The likelihood ratio was also tested, and it indicates that the test is significant.

The findings in Table 4.26 show that age had an influence on the likelihood of African female migrants to be professionals in Gauteng province in 2001. The findings indicate that African female migrants who were in the age groups, 15-29 and 30-49 were likely to be professionals than the elderly.

Furthermore, the results indicate that African female migrants who were single or widowed had a higher likelihood of being professionals compared to those who were divorced, based on their marital status. As discussed in chapter 2, women now choose feminisation, which means they can be educated and independent, resulting in them having professional qualifications rather than relying on men to provide. Concerning level of education, African female migrants with no schooling had small chances to be professionals than those with tertiary education. According to Bertulfo (2011), without formal education, African women are more likely to work in the informal economy in order to support their families and make ends meet.

Moreover, the findings show that African female migrants who were in the age groups, 15-29 and 30-49 were likely to be non-professionals. The studies have revealed that because of the political unrest and economic issues in neighbouring' countries, migrants frequently accept any job that is offered to them, regardless of the work conditions (IOM, 2018). With regards to marital status, findings show that African female migrants who were married and unmarried were likely to be non-professionals than those who were divorced. The explanation could be that married African women migrants are compelled to work in the informal sector because they have children to support. The findings also indicate that African female migrants with no income were likely to be non-professionals in Gauteng province.

The findings show that African female migrants who were aged 30-49 were likely to be employed as domestic-workers and related helpers than the elderly in Gauteng province. Besides, the findings indicate that African female migrants who were married and widowers were likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers than those who were divorced. With regards to country of birth, African female migrants from Zimbabwe were likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers than female migrants from Mozambique. According to research presented in Chapter 4, the majority of African women migrants in Gauteng are from Zimbabwe, so this is true, and this makes sense given that Zimbabwe's economy collapsed and there are now insufficient job opportunities there.

5.9.2 Factors contributing to occupation in 2011

Variables that influence occupation among African female migrants in Gauteng province in 2011 were identified by multinomial logistic regression. The test model was found to be

significant with a p-value less than 0.05. The test was statistically significant, and the data fit the model. The likelihood ratio was also tested, and it indicates that the test is significant.

Looking at the variable in Table 4.26 in 2011, level of education was found to be significant. This implies that African female migrants with primary and secondary education were less likely to be professionals than those who have completed their tertiary education in Gauteng province. According to Härkönen (2018), African migrants with low literacy levels have little or no access to secure jobs in the formal economy. With regards to level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving any income and those who were receiving low income were less likely to be professionals than those who were receiving high income.

Looking at African female migrants who were non-professionals, the findings indicate that African female migrants who had completed primary education had more chances to be employed as non-professional. According to Thornton (2021), African migrants frequently arrive in South Africa with no tertiary education and often work in the informal sector as street vendors, hairdressers or domestic workers.

Also, with age, the findings indicate that African female migrants who were in the age group 15-29, were likely to domestic workers and related helpers than the elderly. Domestic work is one of the sectors driving migration in Southern Africa, especially to South Africa which is the top destination for African migrants (ILO, 2016). This suggests that because African female migrants between the ages of 15 and 29 are still relatively new to the workforce, they are likely to take any domestic job that becomes available. With level of income, the findings indicate that African female migrants with no schooling, were likely to be domestic workers and related helpers than those with tertiary education. This suggests that formal education is not necessary to obtain employment in the domestic sector.

With level of income, the findings reveal that African female migrants who were not receiving any income were more likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers than those who were receiving high income in Gauteng province. The majority of African female migrants to Gauteng come as unemployed individuals, meaning they have no income, and when they are offered jobs within a particular household, they accept the position, despite the difficult working conditions. Additionally, the results indicate that with country of birth, female migrants from Lesotho and Zimbabwe were more likely to be employed as domestic workers and related helpers than those from Mozambique. According to Moletsane (2017), women migrants from Lesotho typically leave their home country due to economic hardships in order to seek employment in South Africa, primarily in the domestic sector.

5.10 Factors contributing to African female migrant's reasons for not working in Gauteng province

The research examined the variables influencing African female migrants' reasons for not working in Gauteng province.

5.10.1 Factors contributing to reasons for not working in 2001

The multinomial logistic regression was used to determine the primary factors influencing the likelihood that African female migrants in Gauteng province would have reasons for not working in 2001. The test model was found to be significant with a p-value less than 0.05. The test was statistically significant, and the data fits the model. The likelihood ratio was also tested, and it indicates that the test is significant.

The results show that the likelihood of African female migrants having a reason not to work in Gauteng was influenced by their level of education. The findings indicate that African female migrants with no schooling were likely to be housewives than those who have completed their tertiary education. This is true given that their lack of education will make it difficult for them to find employment. The findings also indicate that African female migrants from Botswana were more likely to be housewives than female migrants from Mozambique.

Regarding age group, the findings indicate that African female migrants who were aged 15-29 were likely to be students than the elderly (50-64). Because Gauteng province has a wide range of universities, migrants frequently relocate there to further their education and hope to find work as soon as they finish their studies. Interesting results reveal that African female migrants who were married were likely to be students than those who were divorced. In this instance, one would expect that African female migrants who are unmarried are likely to be students than those who are married.

With regards to level of income, African female migrants who were not receiving any income were more likely to be students than those who were receiving high income. This suggests that they need to have more education in order to find a suitable job and earn a steady salary. Furthermore, the results indicate female migrants from Botswana were more likely to be students than female migrants from Mozambique.

Looking at age group, African female migrants who were aged 15-29 and 30-49 were more likely not to find work than the elderly. Undocumented immigrants frequently face difficulties finding employment in South Africa or are forced to work in unfavourable conditions in order to make ends meet (Griffin, 2011). Moreover, the results indicate that African female migrants

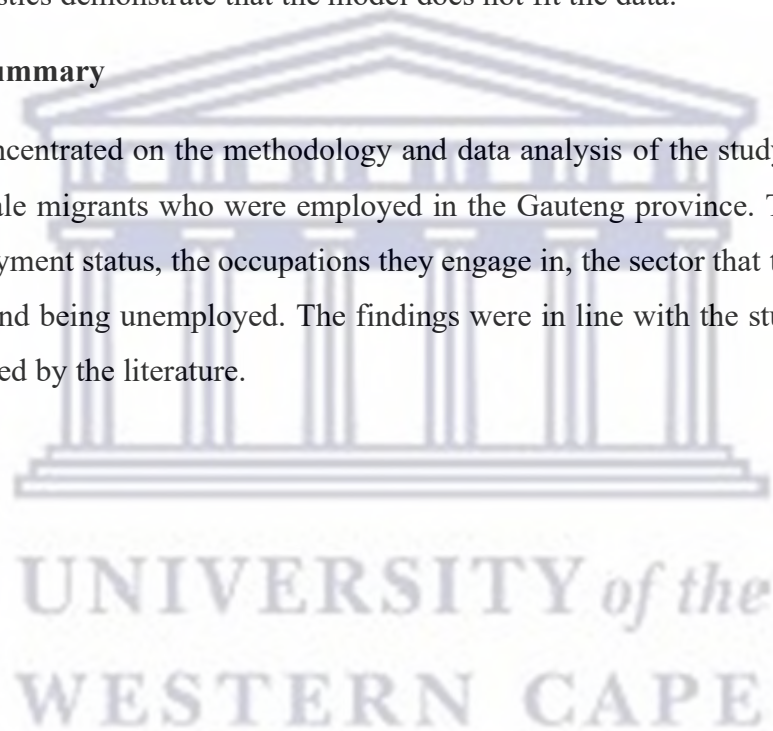
who were married were likely not find work than those who were divorced. This could be due to having a lot of household responsibilities, which makes it difficult to find work. Regarding level of income, results in Table 4.27 indicates that African female migrants who were not receiving any income were likely to not find work than those who were earning high income. This could be due to the Gauteng economy's inability to accommodate all African female migrants looking for work.

5.10.2 Factors contributing to reasons for not working in 2011

The multinomial logistic regression was used to determine the primary factors influencing the likelihood that African female migrants in Gauteng province would have reasons for not working in 2011. The test model was found not to be significant with a p-value more than 0.05. As a result, statistics demonstrate that the model does not fit the data.

5.11 Chapter summary

This chapter concentrated on the methodology and data analysis of the study. The focus was on African female migrants who were employed in the Gauteng province. The study looked into their employment status, the occupations they engage in, the sector that they work in, and the reasons behind being unemployed. The findings were in line with the study's hypotheses and was supported by the literature.



Chapter 6: Conclusion and recommendations

6.1 Introduction

The focus of this study was on the participation of African female migrants in the labour force in Gauteng province. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether there has been an increase in the labour force participation of African female migrants in Gauteng province between 2001 and 2011. The study looked at the socio-demographic, socio-economic, and migration factors that influence labour force participation among female migrants in Gauteng province of South Africa. This includes factors such as age, marital status, level of education, employment status, and level of income and occupation just to name a few. Migration variables such as year of movement and country of birth were used, and year of movement. The study relied on secondary data from the 2001 and 2011 population censuses obtained from Statistics South Africa. The data analysis was performed using the SPSS version 28.

The study first used univariate analysis to investigate the distribution of variables applied in this research. Furthermore, the study used bivariate analysis, which included cross-tabulation, Chi-square, Phi, and Cramer's V, this method was used to investigate the association between independent and dependent variables. In addition, the study used multivariate analysis, using multinomial logistic regression to identify factors influencing the labour force participation of African female migrants in Gauteng province. Given that there is no unifying theory applicable to the labour force among African female migrants in Gauteng, the study explored existing theories such as feminisation theory, human capital theory and pull and push theory, and selectivity theory. The theories mentioned above were used to develop a conceptual framework to guide the study of African female migrants who work in Gauteng province.

6.2 Summary of the research findings

According to the univariate analysis, in 2001, the majority of African female migrants in the labour force were between the ages of 15 and 29. The reason for this is that it is anticipated that young migrants will move in pursuit of work or education. The study's findings also show that the majority of African female migrants who were involved in the labour market in Gauteng province between 2001 and 2011 were not married. This is due to feminisation of women, as they no longer rely on men and thus migrate on their own in search of independence. According to Apatinga et al, (2020), women are increasingly migrating on their own often to enhance economic opportunities by seeking job or education. This trend is commonly referred to as feminisation of migration.

According to the findings, the majority of African female migrants in Gauteng province had completed secondary school in both 2001 and 2011. According to Migration Policy Series (2012), most migrants from SADC are educated, skilled and enterprising. This suggests that the majority of African female migrants in Gauteng who were in the labour market had some sort of educational background. Furthermore, it is expected that African female migrants with a background in education will be involved in the labour market. In terms of employment status, the majority of African female migrants who participated in the labour market in 2001 and 2011 were employed. This is not surprising given that African female migrants came to Gauteng in search of work to support their families or to become financially independent.

The results further indicated that most of African female migrants in 2001 were working as domestic workers and related helpers in Gauteng province. Given that the majority of African female migrants in Gauteng come from economically unstable countries, they are expected to work in the informal sector in order to earn a living. While in 2011, most of the African female migrants were working as non-professionals. This was also expected as most African female migrants struggle to find professional jobs in South Africa due to non-recognition of their foreign qualifications. With regards to country of birth, the findings show that most African female migrants were from Zimbabwe both in 2001 and 2011. This is to be expected given that Zimbabwe's economy began to collapse in 2000 and that this drove many of the country's migrants to flee in quest of a better life.

According to bivariate analysis, the majority of African female migrants in Gauteng province in 2001 received low income. This is not surprising given that the majority of African female migrants worked in the informal sector, and it is expected that workers in the informal sector are unpaid. The study also confirmed that most African female migrants aged 30-49 were working as domestic workers and related helpers in both 2001 and 2011. It is reasonable to conclude from these results that women between the ages of 30-49 have a lot of responsibilities around their households. Furthermore, the findings show that the majority of African female migrants were unable to work because they were either housewives or students in both 2001 and 2011. The study also looked at the sector, and the findings revealed that the majority of African female migrants working in the informal sector had completed secondary school. All of these associations were validated by Chi-square statistics, which included the Phi and Cramer's V.

In reviewing multivariate analysis, African female migrants aged 15-29 and 30-49 were more likely to be employed than African female migrants aged 50-64 in 2001. This is accurate given that African female migrants aged 50-64 are considered old enough to be active in the workplace or are frequently sick, preventing them from being more productive. The field of

domestic workers and related helpers was found to be dominated by female migrants from Zimbabwe in both 2001 and 2011. In addition, the study revealed that African female migrants with no education background were more likely to be housewives in 2001 in Gauteng. Patriarchal norms, as discussed in the study, are one of the reasons African female migrants in Gauteng province are not working.

6.3 Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, it is attainable to conclude that there was an increase in the participation of African female migrants in the Gauteng province labour force between 2001 and 2011. Because of economic fragility and political instability in most African countries, African female migrants to Gauteng province have sought better opportunities in order to make ends meet. The empirical evidence in the thesis revealed that young and adult African female migrants were migrating the most. Given the predominance of single African female migrant in the labour market, demographic variable like marital status also had an impact. Even though the majority of African female migrants had completed their secondary education, the study confirmed that they were primarily employed in the informal sector. In order for African females to be more involved in formal spaces in the future, policy changes should be implemented.

6.4 Recommendations

Given that the majority of African female migrants are migrating to Gauteng because it offers a diverse range of job opportunities. The province is becoming overcrowded, which means there will be insufficient job opportunities in the near future. It is recommended that African Countries work to improve their economies in order to create more job opportunities, which will prevent migrants from migrating to Gauteng. As the study reveals, the majority of African female migrants' tertiary qualifications are not recognised in South Africa, the government should implement strategies that will help African female migrants with tertiary education to obtain better jobs in the formal sector.

South Africa government should encourage the feminisation of migration because African female migrants are now responsible for running the households and providing for their families. Women who are empowered will have greater access to employment opportunities and the chance to become self-sufficient. Because they will feel more empowered, they will also be able to migrate anywhere.

The Department of Employment and Labour should develop regulations or policies that protects African migrants working in the informal sector, as they are frequently not treated with

dignity. The regulations should include a fair minimum wage and working conditions that are relevant to their field of work. To promote decent work, a comprehensive and integrated strategy that covers multiple policy areas is required. This will result in the informal sector becoming a protected industry, which will attract workers.

Lastly, the government should launch an education campaign to inform African female migrants about the various careers available in South Africa. This will lead to African female migrants becoming more involved in the professional space and showcase their skills. Given the demand for certain skills, African female migrants who meet the necessary qualifications can fill these positions.

6.5 Areas for future research

Given that there no sufficient research done on African female migrants residing in Gauteng province. Scholars should conduct more research to identify other factors that might influence labour force participation. Future researchers should also consider using qualitative research by conducting focus group to gather opinion directly from African female migrants regarding their experiences on labour force.

Future research should be conducted on African female migrants working in all nine provinces and their work experiences. This will be useful in determining what industry they are involved in and how their working environment is. And scholars should also compare the access to employment between migrants and non-migrants. This literature will be useful in determining whether or not migrants in South Africa are having more difficulty than citizens when entering the labour force.

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Appendix 1

Employment status and African female migrant's characteristics

The distribution between employment status and age group

2001 Age group

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	269.381 ^a	4	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	286.669	4	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	65.724	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 55,36.

2001 Age group

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.342	<,001
	Cramer's V	.242	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

2011 Age group

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.156 ^a	4	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	43.917	4	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	31.964	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.10.

2011 Age group

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.190	<,001
	Cramer's V	.135	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 2

Distribution of employment status and marital status

Marital status 2001

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	107.681 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	111.919	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.147	1	.284
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19.71.

Marital status 2001

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.216	<,001
	Cramer's V	.153	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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Marital Status 2011

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.302 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	26.284	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.202	1	.001
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 1 cells (8,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,50.

Marital Status 2011

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.138	<,001
	Cramer's V	.098	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 3

The distribution between employment status and level of education

2001 Level of education

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	91.350 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	97.703	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.044	1	.307
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26.05.

2001 Level of education

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.199	<,001
	Cramer's V	.141	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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2011 Level of education

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	40.194 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	40.302	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	26.923	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 2 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.48.

2011 Level of education

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal Phi	.182	<,001
Nominal by Nominal Cramer's V	.129	<,001
N of Valid Cases	1217	

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Appendix 4

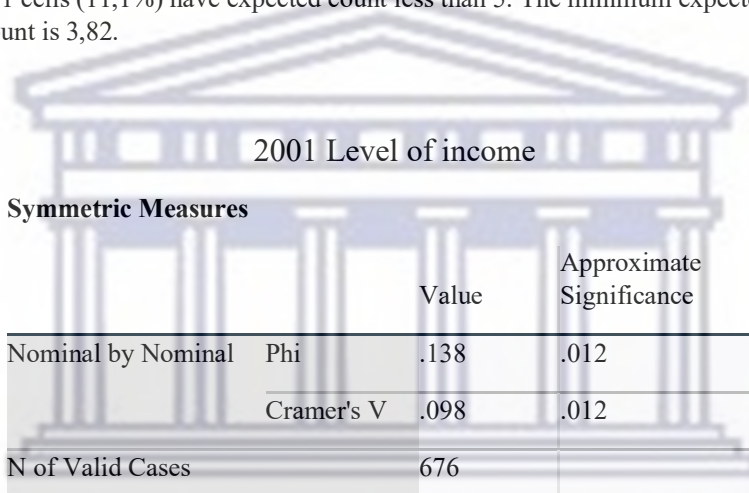
Distribution of employment status and level of income

2001 Level of income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.947 ^a	4	.012
Likelihood Ratio	13.270	4	.010
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.999	1	.025
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 1 cells (11,1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,82.



2001 Level of income

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.138	.012
	Cramer's V	.098	.012
N of Valid Cases		676	

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2011 Level of income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	602.289 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	617.907	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	385.190	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,88.

2011 Level of income

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.703	<,001
	Cramer's V	.497	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 5

Distribution of employment status and country of birth

2001 Country of birth

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.133 ^a	4	.388
Likelihood Ratio	4.660	4	.324
Linear-by-Linear Association	.006	1	.941
N of Valid Cases	52		

a. 10 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,48.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.407	.388
	Cramer's V	.407	.388
N of Valid Cases		52	

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2011 Country of birth

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	73.269 ^a	8	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	70.306	8	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	13.541	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 2 cells (13,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,36.

2011 country of birth

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.245	<,001
	Cramer's V	.174	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 6

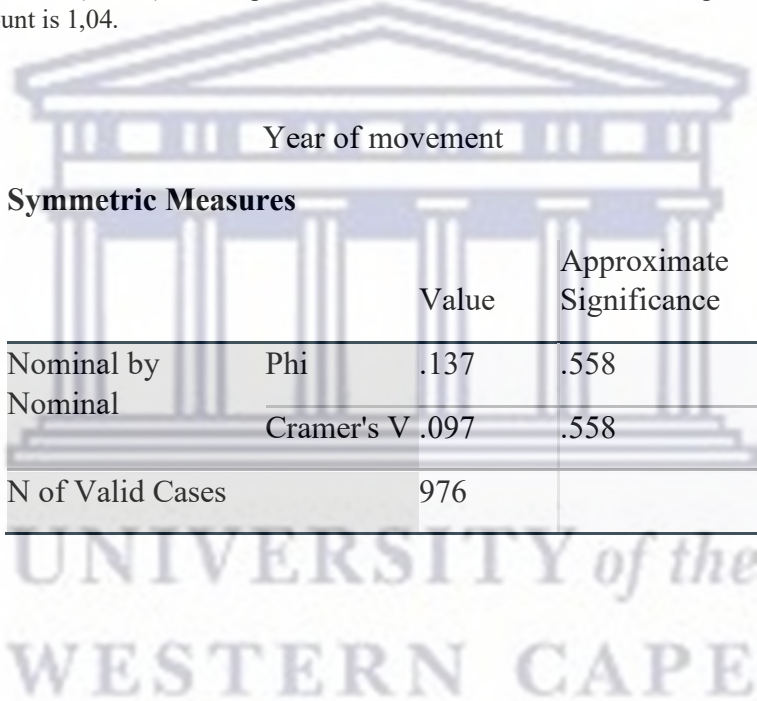
Distribution of employment status and year of movement

Year of movement

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.448 ^a	20	.558
Likelihood Ratio	20.459	20	.430
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.970	1	.046
N of Valid Cases	976		

a. 5 cells (15,2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,04.



Year of movement

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.137	.558
	Cramer's V	.097	.558
N of Valid Cases		976	

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Appendix 7

Distribution of occupation and African female characteristics

The distribution between occupation and age

2001 Age group

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	254.320 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	271.351	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	36.975	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 38.92.

2001 Age group

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.333	<,001
	Cramer's V	.235	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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2011 Age group

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	40.103 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	41.297	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	30.060	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.57.

2011 Age group

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.182	<,001
	Cramer's V	.128	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 8

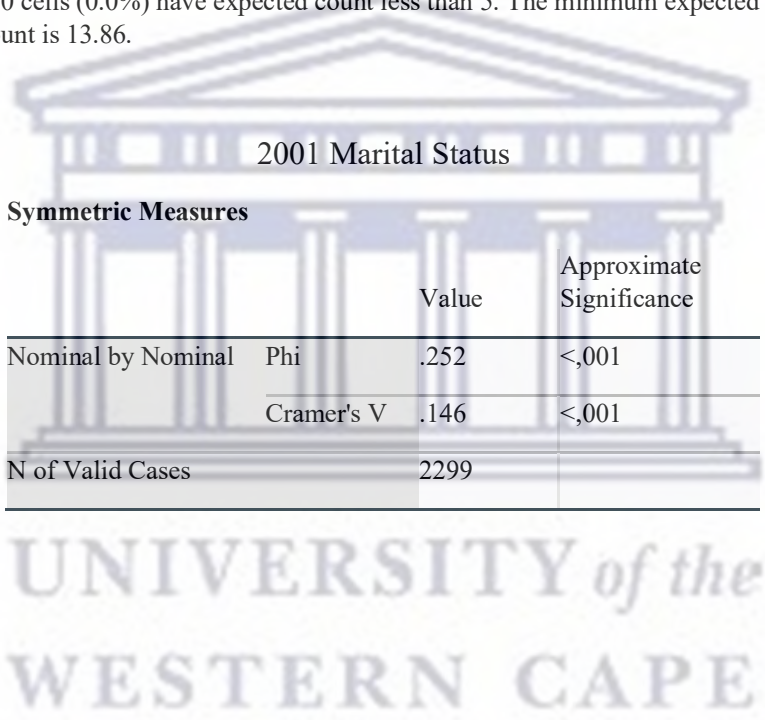
Distribution between occupation and marital status

2001 Marital status

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	146.039 ^a	9	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	142.086	9	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	.078	1	.780
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13.86.



2001 Marital Status

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.252	<,001
	Cramer's V	.146	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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2011 Marital Status

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	37.101 ^a	9	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	36.528	9	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	.743	1	.389
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5,19.

2011 Marital Status

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.175	<,001
	Cramer's V	.101	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 9

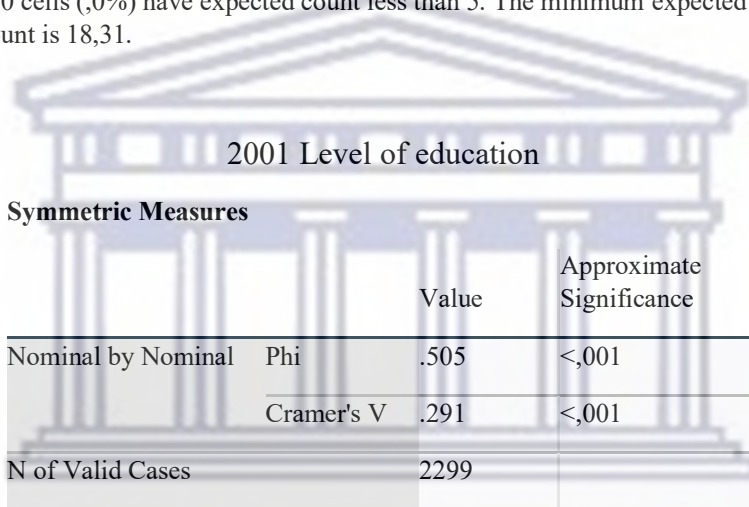
Distribution between occupation and level of education

2001 Level of education

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	585.724 ^a	9	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	480.513	9	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	75.326	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18,31.



2001 Level of education

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.505	<,001
	Cramer's V	.291	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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2011 Level of education

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	243.670 ^a	9	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	232.309	9	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	116.250	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 1 cells (6.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.86.

2011 Level of education

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.447	<,001
	Cramer's V	.258	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 10

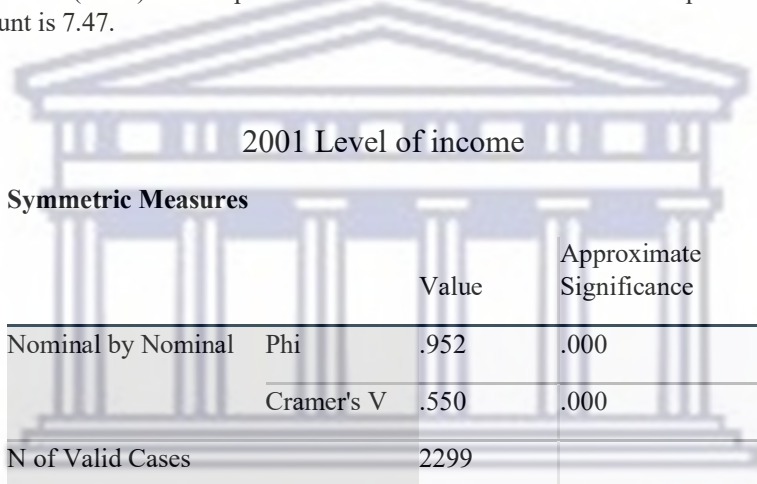
Distribution between occupation and level of income

2001 Level of income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2083.683 ^a	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	2093.227	9	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1233.994	1	<.001
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.47.



2001 Level of income

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.952	.000
	Cramer's V	.550	.000
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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2011 Level of income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	545.519 ^a	9	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	538.055	9	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	336.936	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9,09.

2011 Level of income

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.670	<,001
	Cramer's V	.387	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 11

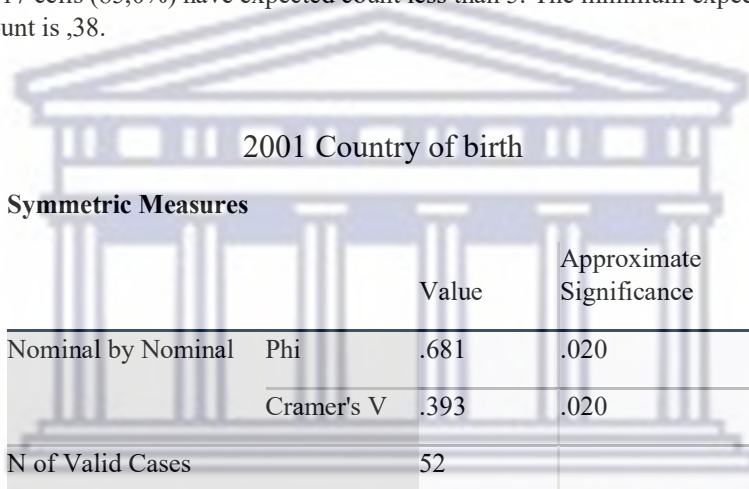
Distribution between occupation and country of birth

2001 Country of birth

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	24.131 ^a	12	.020
Likelihood Ratio	27.292	12	.007
Linear-by-Linear Association	.141	1	.708
N of Valid Cases	52		

a. 17 cells (85,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,38.



2001 Country of birth

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.681	.020
	Cramer's V	.393	.020
N of Valid Cases		52	

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2011 Country of birth

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	83.226 ^a	12	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	84.704	12	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.850	1	.091
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 2 cells (10.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.73.

2011 Country of birth

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.262	<,001
	Cramer's V	.151	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 12

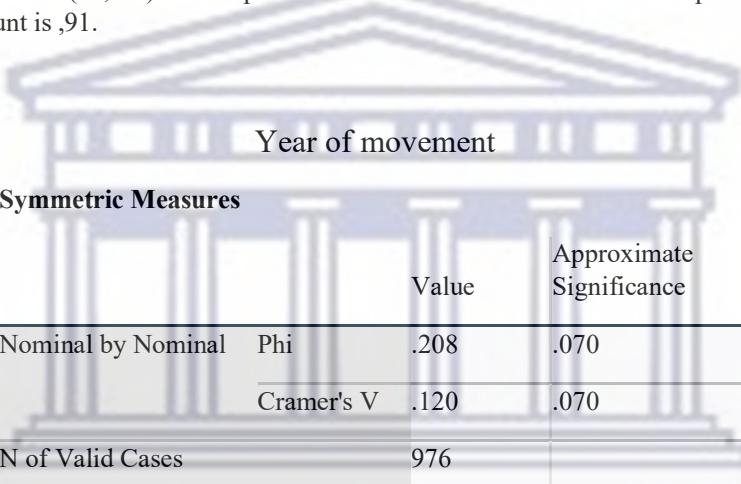
Distribution of occupation and year of movement

Year of movement

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	42.124 ^a	30	.070
Likelihood Ratio	42.306	30	.067
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.033	1	.045
N of Valid Cases	976		

a. 8 cells (18,2%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,91.



Year of movement

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.208	.070
	Cramer's V	.120	.070
N of Valid Cases		976	

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Appendix 13

Distribution of reasons for not working and African female migrant's characteristics

Distribution reasons for not working and age group

2001 Age group

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	526.862 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	603.767	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	267.201	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20,65.

2001 Age group

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.479	<,001
	Cramer's V	.339	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

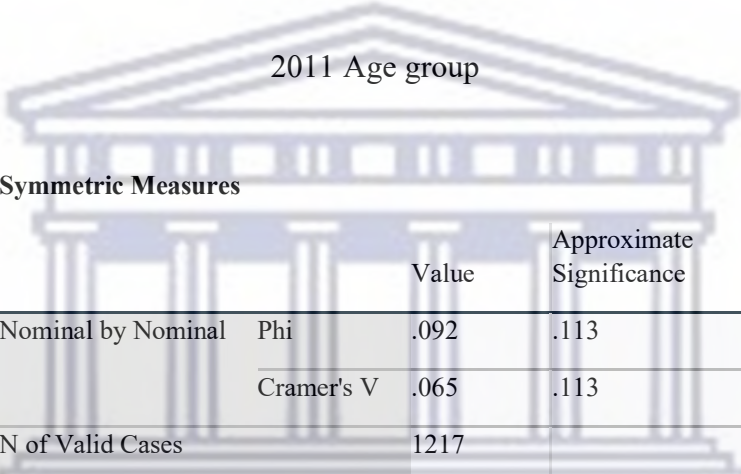
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2011 Age group

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.279 ^a	6	.113
Likelihood Ratio	14.138	6	.028
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.957	1	.047
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 7 cells (58.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .59.



2011 Age group

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.092	.113
	Cramer's V	.065	.113
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 14

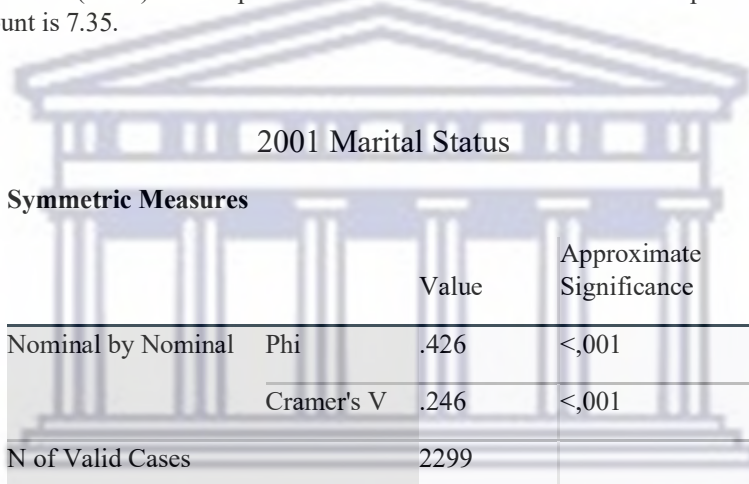
Distribution of reasons for not working and marital status

2001 Marital Status

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	416.324 ^a	9	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	461.698	9	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.047	1	.306
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.35.



2001 Marital Status

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.426	<,001
	Cramer's V	.246	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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2011 Marital Status

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13.256 ^a	9	.151
Likelihood Ratio	16.760	9	.053
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.015	1	.083
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 10 cells (62.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .16.

2011 Marital Status

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.104	.151
	Cramer's V	.060	.151
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 15

Distribution between reasons for not working and level of education

2001 Level of education

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	131.073 ^a	9	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	165.746	9	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.235	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.72.

2001 Level of education

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.239	<,001
	Cramer's V	.138	<,001
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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2011 Level of education

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.017 ^a	9	.833
Likelihood Ratio	5.741	9	.765
Linear-by-Linear Association	.665	1	.415
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 11 cells (68.8%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .09.

2011 Level of education

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.064	.833
	Cramer's V	.037	.833
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 16

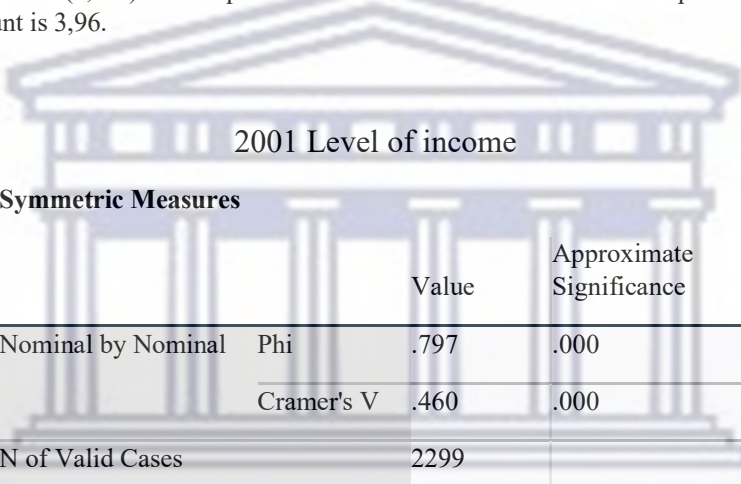
Distribution between reasons for not working and level of income

2001 Level of income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1461.757 ^a	9	.000
Likelihood Ratio	1694.740	9	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	765.078	1	<.001
N of Valid Cases	2299		

a. 1 cells (6,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,96.



2001 Level of income

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.797	.000
	Cramer's V	.460	.000
N of Valid Cases		2299	

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2011 Level of income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.875 ^a	6	.130
Likelihood Ratio	9.969	6	.126
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.099	1	.014
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.00.

2011 Level of income

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.179	<,001
	Cramer's V	.104	<,001
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 17

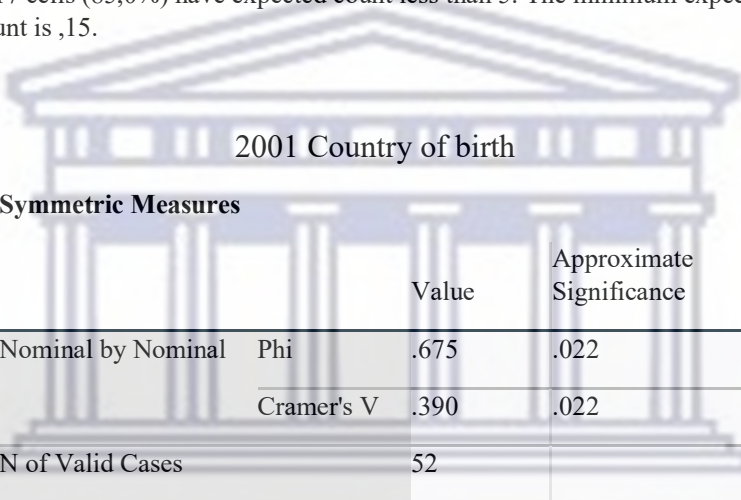
Distribution of reasons for not working and country of birth

2001 Country of birth

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.710 ^a	12	.022
Likelihood Ratio	22.669	12	.031
Linear-by-Linear Association	.058	1	.809
N of Valid Cases	52		

a. 17 cells (85,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,15.



2001 Country of birth

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.675	.022
	Cramer's V	.390	.022
N of Valid Cases		52	

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2011 Country of birth

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.019 ^a	12	.028
Likelihood Ratio	15.368	12	.222
Linear-by-Linear Association	.013	1	.910
N of Valid Cases	1217		

a. 14 cells (70.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .09.

2011 Country of birth

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.138	.028
	Cramer's V	.079	.028
N of Valid Cases		1217	

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Appendix 18

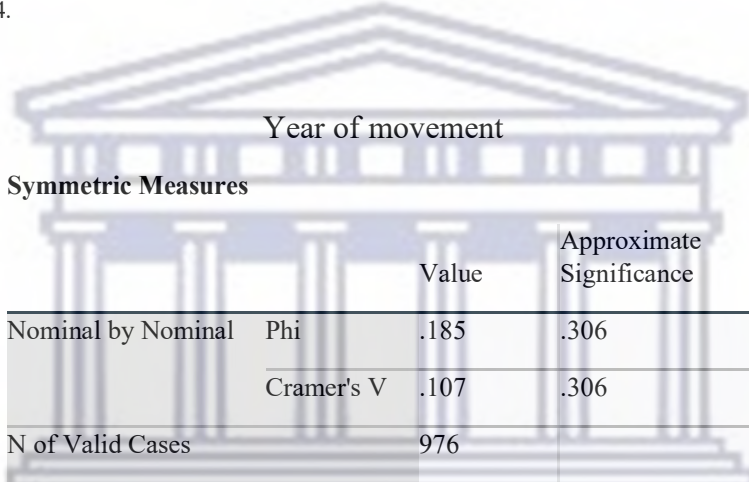
Distribution between reasons for not working and year of movement

Year of movement

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	33.381 ^a	30	.306
Likelihood Ratio	30.451	30	.443
Linear-by-Linear Association	.036	1	.850
N of Valid Cases	976		

a. 33 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .04.



Year of movement

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.185	.306
	Cramer's V	.107	.306
N of Valid Cases		976	

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Appendix 19

Distribution of type of sector and African female characteristics

Distribution between type of sector and age group

2011 Age group

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12.732 ^a	4	.013
Likelihood Ratio	13.109	4	.011
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.517	1	.218
N of Valid Cases	804		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12,47.

2011 Age group
Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.126	.013
	Cramer's V	.089	.013
N of Valid Cases		804	

Appendix 20

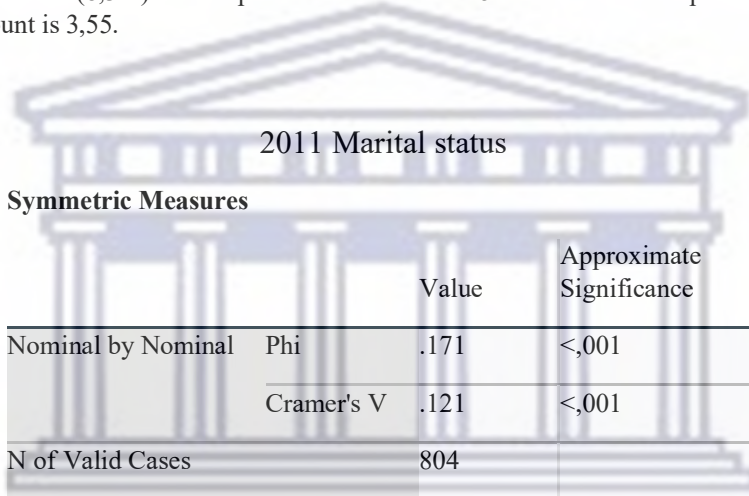
Distribution between type of sector and marital status

2011 Marital Status

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	23.478 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	23.351	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	8.058	1	.005
N of Valid Cases	804		

a. 1 cells (8,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,55.



2011 Marital status

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.171	<,001
	Cramer's V	.121	<,001
N of Valid Cases		804	

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Appendix 21

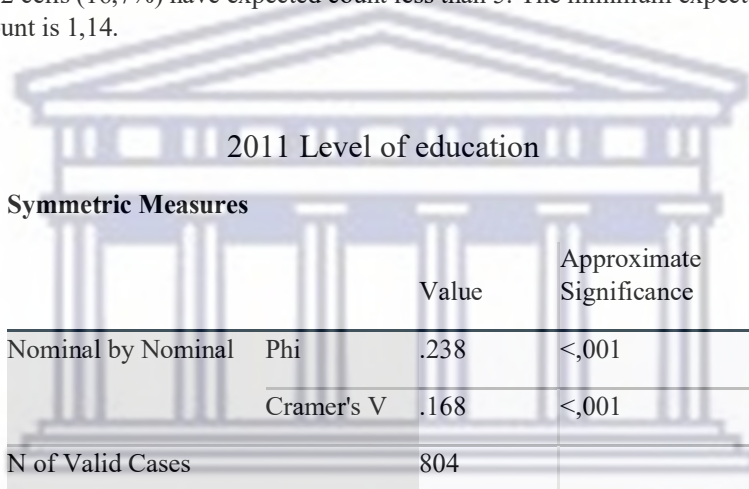
Distribution between type of sector and level of education

2011 Level of education

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	45.433 ^a	6	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	49.250	6	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	37.026	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	804		

a. 2 cells (16,7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,14.



2011 Level of education

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.238	<,001
	Cramer's V	.168	<,001
N of Valid Cases		804	

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Appendix 22

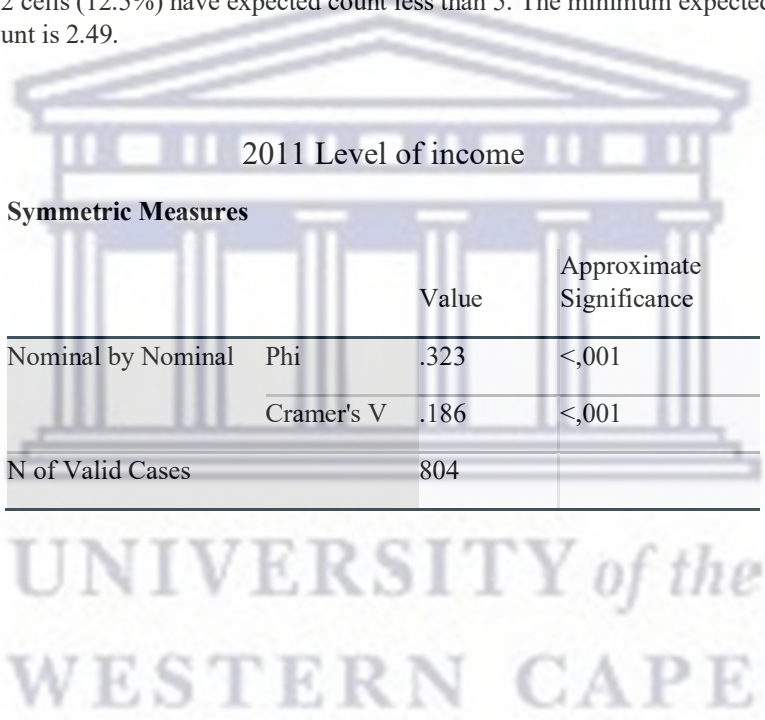
Distribution between type of sector and level of income

2011 Level of income

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	87.031 ^a	9	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	78.573	9	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	24.043	1	<,001
N of Valid Cases	804		

a. 2 cells (12.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.49.



2011 Level of income

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.323	<,001
	Cramer's V	.186	<,001
N of Valid Cases		804	

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Appendix 23

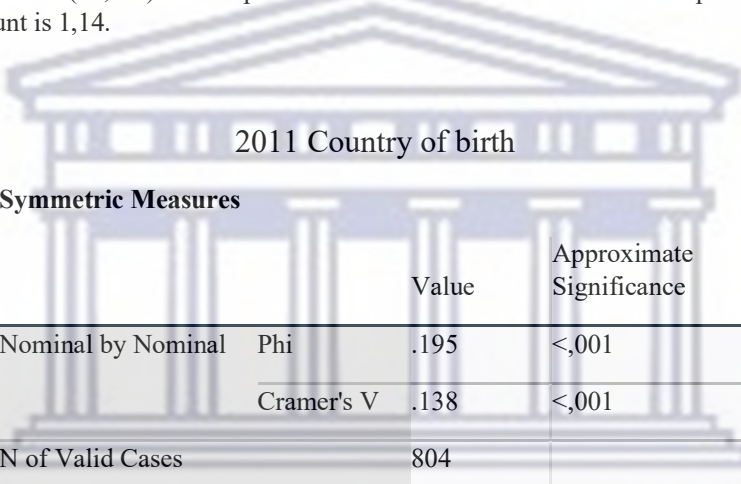
Distribution between type of sector and country of birth

2011 Country of birth

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	30.419 ^a	8	<,001
Likelihood Ratio	36.986	8	<,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.137	1	.286
N of Valid Cases	804		

a. 2 cells (13,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1,14.



2011 Country of birth

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.195	<,001
	Cramer's V	.138	<,001
N of Valid Cases		804	

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Appendix 24

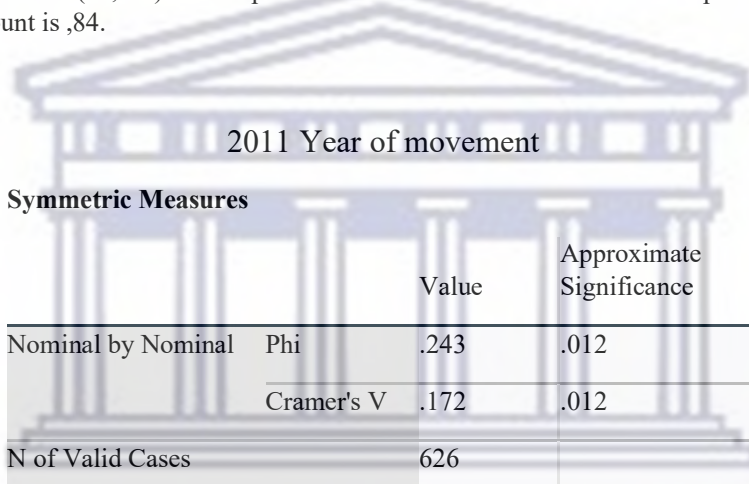
Distribution between type of sector and year of movement

2011 Year of movement

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	36.833 ^a	20	.012
Likelihood Ratio	42.812	20	.002
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.481	1	<.,001
N of Valid Cases	626		

a. 9 cells (27,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is ,84.



2011 Year of movement

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approximate Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.243	.012
	Cramer's V	.172	.012
N of Valid Cases		626	

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