





University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, Cape Town, South Africa Telephone :(021) 959 3858/9 Fax: (021) 959 3849

THE CHALLENGES OF ACCESSING LABOUR MARKETS FOR ASYLUM SEEKERS AND REFUGEES IN CAPE TOWN, SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF BELLVILLE.

A mini-thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Development Studies at the Institute for Social Development, Faculty of Economic and Management Science, University of the Western Cape.

Celse Sebakwiye

Student number 3748670

Supervisor: Prof Mulugeta F. Dinbabo

Co-supervisor: Dr Sharon Penderis

June 2020

http://etd.uwc.ac.za/

ABSTRACT

The world has recognised the global record of increased international migrants and refugees in the last two decades. In South Africa in particular, migrants and refugees have remarkably increased in the last ten years. Refugees in South Africa face many challenges of accessing employment while the government also faces the high global unemployment of its citizens. Also, refugees have problems of accessing social services such as education, shelter, and social grants and also problems of insecurity and safety, discrimination and exclusion.

This research examines the challenges impacting the refugees and asylum seekers when accessing the labour markets in Cape Town, Bellville. The study adopted the quantitative and qualitative exploratory approaches. The quantitative data collection was carried out on purposive and snowball sampling method in which 30 refugees and asylum seekers working in Bellville were questioned using the quantitative tool of survey questionnaires and STATA Version 14 was used as a tool for quantitative analysis. Furthermore, the qualitative sample was carried out on 15 participants whose 10 refugees and asylum seekers representing the overall quantitative sample were selected for the qualitative interview. The qualitative data collection interviewed 3 owners of the businesses employing refugees and 2 organisations that support refugees and the qualitative analysis identified emerging themes in response to the research objective and results supported the quantitative analysis.

With the Sustainable Livelihood Framework employed in this study as a theoretical framework, the key findings were generated from the refugee participants and key informants revealed that refugees have the skills in training and professionalism from their home countries and they are able and available to work in South Africa. In addition, It is very challenging for refugees to be employed by the formal sector, even those employed are located in informal trade and businesses as it is not easy for them to access the formal employment and this is insecure and low-paid sector. Furthermore, various challenges have been also graded as the most barriers for refugees including lack of proper documents, exclusion and marginalisation, being unable to speak English and being unfamiliar of the working environment. The findings revealed also the copings mechanisms used by refugees such as capabilities and socio-economic assets as well as their support structures available such as police, organisations, government institutions and they offer various services but the access

to those services is challenging. Lastly, the recommendations made for the South African government is to recognise people who are seeking international protection from migration.

Key Words: refugees; asylum seekers; labour market; challenges; coping strategies; Sustainable Livelihood Framework; Bellville; Cape Town; South Africa.



DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this mini thesis entitled "The challenges of accessing labour markets for asylum seekers and refugees in Cape Town, South Africa: a case study of Bellville" is my own work and that I have not previously submitted it at any university for a degree or examination. All sources that I have quoted have been indicated and duly acknowledged by means of referencing.

Celse Sebakwiye

Signature:

08 June 2020.

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

DEDICATION

I humbly dedicate this thesis to my beloved parents, my entire family, my friends and colleagues.

In the loving memories of my sister Mutamuriza and my nephew Jojo Uwamariya.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First of all, I wish to thank the almighty God for granting me the strength and wisdom to be able to undertake this study. This research work was made possible thanks to the commendable efforts of many people we would like to express our sincere and heartfelt thanks.

I am extremely grateful to my supervisor and co-supervisor, friends and mentors Professor Mulugeta F. Dinbabo and Dr Sharon Penderis, for their immense support and academic nurturing throughout my studies at the University of the Western Cape. I particularly appreciate their sacrifice to lead this work so rigorously. I gained a tremendous amount of knowledge under their supervision. May their expertise blended with humanism, serve us as the model.

We are thankful to UWC authorities for providing all necessary facilities during the research work. I acknowledge all the academic staff and students of the Institute for Social Department (ISD) for their kind assistance in both theoretical and practical knowledge provided. They were a wonderful family to me throughout my study period in Cape Town. I particularly want to thank Mrs Priscilla Kippie and Mrs Lauren Tavener-Smith for all their untiring efforts especially during the phase of data collection of this study.

I would like to express my heartfelt appreciation to Freda Rhona Philander, it is with a great pleasure for me to reward her guidance and moral support as well as her inspiration, valuable suggestions, effort and other important supports when it was most required throughout my research work. My sincere thanks also addressed to the administrative authorities of Scalabrini Center and VIDEFI refugee community for the cordial welcome, advice and information whose fruit is the success of this research work. My deep appreciation is also addressed to the respondents who agreed to the selected sample and provided valuable information to this research study.

To my beloved parents, my siblings, Maximus de Maximo, Kendrick, whose affection and encouragement have been a driving force for the best result of this research work. Thanks are finally addressed to all those who in some way contributed to the success of this work. I cannot forget my very wonderful friends Aunty Dorry, Aunty Patricia, Maman Antoinette, Claire, Prudence, Dimitri Salomon, Jonas, Brother Chris, Brother

Christian, Angelique and Jean-Paul for always being there for me whenever times were tough and harsh. I surely have neither gold nor silver to offer you but from the bottom of my heart, I pray that good Lord will reward you all in a thousand handfuls. God bless you all.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHA	PΤ	ER (ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
1.	1	Ove	erview and rationalE of the study	1
1.2	2	Bac	kground and contextualisation	2
1.3	3	Ove	erview of the case study area	3
1.4	4	Pro	blem statement, Research questions, Aim and Objectives of the study.	4
	1.4	.1	Problem statement	4
	1.4	.2	Aim and objectives of the study	5
	1.4	.3	Research questions	5
1.	5	Stru	ucture of the thesis	6
CHA	PT		TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.	1	Cha	apter overview	8
2.2	2	Mig	ration statistics	8
	2.2		The world international migrant population	
	2.2		The world refugee population	
2.3	3	Rea	asons for migration	.10
2.4	4	The	challenges faced by asylum seekers and refugees	
	2.4	.1	Accessing employment Accessing employment Accessing employment	.11
	2.4	.2	Safety and security	.11
	2.4	.3	Accommodation and access to social services	.12
2.	5	The	challenges and impact of migration	.12
	2.5	.1	The challenges for migrant-sending and receiving countries	.13
	2.5	.2	Migration and development	.14
2.0	6	The	South African context	.15
	2.6	.1	A brief history of labour migration in South Africa	.16
	2.6	.2	Refugee and asylum seekers statistics in South Africa	.18
	2.6	.3	The challenges of the South African labour market system	.18
	2.6	.4	The challenges faced by the Government of South Africa	.19
	2.6	.5	Migration to the Western Cape	.20
2 .	7	The	socio-economic profile of migrant refugees and asylum seekers	22

2.7.1		In South Africa	22
2.7	7.2	In Cape Town	23
2.8	Ch	apter summary	24
CHAP	TER	THREE: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	25
3.1	Ch	apter overview	25
3.2	Th	eoretical framework	25
3.2	2.1	Push-pull theory and its variants migration theories	25
3.2	2.2	Refugee theory	26
3.2	2.3	Sustainable Livelihood Framework as a theoretical BASIS of the s	tudy
3.3	Co	nceptual framework	38
3.3	3.1	Understanding the concept of migration	38
3.3	3.2	Understanding People Seeking International Protection From Migra 38	atior
3.3	3.3	Labour market	39
3.3	3.4	Conceptual Model for Understanding the Challenges of Refugees	
3.4		apter Summary	
CHAP	TER	FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	43
4.1 4.2	Inti Re	roductionsearch design UNIVERSITY of the	43 43
4.3		search methodology.S	
4.3	3.1	Quantitative Methods	
4.3	3.2	Qualitative Methods	45
4.4	Da	ta analysis and presentation	46
4.4	4.1	Quantitative Data Analysis	
4.4	4.2	Qualitative Data Analysis	47
4.5	Eth	nics statement	49
4.6	Ch	apter Summary	49
CHAP ⁻ 51		FIVE: RESEARCH FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSS	ION
5.1	Int	roduction	51
5.2	Th	e observational profile of participants in Bellville	51

5.2.1	Demographic Information	.52
5.2.2	Socio-economic characteristics of participants	.59
	cessibility of labour markets: Refugees' employment and sustainals "Quantitative analysis"	
5.3.1	The vulnerability context of refugees	.71
5.3.2	Refugee participants and livelihoods assets	.73
5.3.3	Transforming structures and processes	.74
5.3.4	Livelihoods strategies adopted by participants	.77
5.3.5	Coping strategies adopted by participants	.81
5.3.6	Livelihood outcomes	.85
5.3.7	Determinants of the wellbeing of refugees and asylum seekers	.86
	cessibility of labour markets: Refugees' employment and sustainals "Qualitative analysis"	.90
5.4.1	The vulnerability context of refugees	.90
5.4.2	Refugee participants and livelihoods assets	
5.4.3	Transforming structures and processes	.95
5.4.4	Livelihoods strategies adopted by participants	.99
5.4.5	Coping strategies adopted by participants	100
5.4.6	Livelihood outcomes	102
5.5 Sur	mmary UNIVERSITY of the	103
CHAPTER CONCLUSI	SIX: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS A	ND 105
6.1 Intr	oduction	105
6.2 Sur	mmary of findings	105
6.2.1 seekers	Research Objective one: Investigate the challenges impacting on asyls and refugees in accessing the labour market	
	Research Objective two: Identify and examine the livelihood strated oping strategies used by asylum seekers and refugees in access ment opportunities and making a living	sing
	Research Objective three: Evaluate the availability and accessibility t structures to refugees and asylum seekers in facilitating access to market	the
6.3 Red	commendations and limitations	110

6.3	3.1	Recommendations to the South African government and organisa 110		
6.3	3.2	Recommendations to the refugees	111	
6.3	3.3	Recommendation for further research	112	
6.4	Lim	itations	112	
6.5	Cor	nclusion	112	
REFER	RENC	E LIST	113	
ANNEX	(URI	ES	I	
Annexu	ıre 5	Presentation of quantitative research results	l	
Annexu	ıre 1	Research questionnaire: Refugees	V	
Annexu	ıre 2	Semi-structured interview with refugees	XIV	
Annexu	ıre 3	Semi-structured interview with owners of the businesses	XVI	
Annexu	ıre 4	Semi-structured interview with organisations	XVII	
Annexu	ıre 6	Map of Bellville	XVIII	
Annexu	ire 7	UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE	XIX	
		WESTERN CAFE		

LIST OF TABLES

Table 5. 1 Nationality of the participants	53
Table 5.2 Gender of the participants and Marital status	54
Table 5. 3 Legal status of participants by country of orgin	55
Table 5. 4 Reasons for migration of participants by their country of origin	56
Table 5. 5 Duration of stay of participants in south Africa	58
Table 5. 6 Informal industries of participants and monthly income	68
Table 5. 7 Formal industries of participants and monthly income	68
Table 5. 8 Relationship between wellbeing of participants and livelihood strate	egies
adopted	81
Table 5. 9 Determinants of the wellbeing of refugee participants.	87



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3. 1 The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework	30
Figure 3. 2 Adapted frame of refugees within available structures and procechallenges and expectations	
Figure 5. 1 Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country	57
Figure 5. 2 Foreign born participants in South Africa	59
Figure 5. 3 Monthly income of participants.	61
Figure 5. 4 Sector of activities of participants.	63
Figure 5. 5 Informal activities of participants	66
Figure 5. 6 Formal activities of participants	66
Figure 5. 7 Employment status of participants in home country	71
Figure 5. 8 Support structures available to participants	75
Figure 5. 9 Nature of supports provided by structures for participants	76
Figure 5. 10 Level of difficulty in accessing social services for participants	77
Figure 5. 11 Types of livelihood strategies adopted by participants	79
Figure 5. 12 Capabilities adopted by participants	82
Figure 5. 13 Socio-economic resources adopted by participants	84
Figure 5. 14 Desired livelihood outcomes of participants	86

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

DFID: Department for International Development

DHA: Department of Home Affairs

DRC: Democratic Republic of Congo

ISD: Institute for Social Development

NGOs: Non-Governmental Organisations

NPO: Non-Profit Organisation

OECD: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

QLFS: Quarterly Labour Force Survey

R: Rand (the South African currency)

SA: South Africa

SADC: Southern African Development Community

SAMP: Southern Africa Migration Project

STATS SA: Statistics South Africa

UN: United Nations

UNDESA: United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs

UNDP: United Nations Development Programme

UNHCR: United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

USA: United States of America

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 OVERVIEW AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The increased incidence and plight of refugees have been highlighted as among the major issues impacting society since the mid-20th century (Schaeffer, 2010). Giving an analysis of causes, the evidence revealed by the World Bank Report of 2018 indicated that protracted political instability, persistent or periodic conflict, economic deprivation, poverty, drought, famine and other cyclical patterns of violence have led to a wave of forced displacement with people fleeing across international borders seeking protection and a better livelihood (World Bank Group, 2018).

In 2005, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) reported that almost 21 million people were displaced globally, including refugees and asylum seekers (Schaeffer, 2010:2). Of those, 35% were living in exile in developing countries with 29% living in Sub-Saharan Africa countries such as South Africa, Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Botswana and, Angola (World Bank Group, 2018; Shawa, 2012). Moreover, the Southern Africa region has a long history of human mobility and its migration patterns are complex. Migration is motivated by a combination of diverse social, political and economic reasons (Crush, Dodson, Williams & Tevera, 2017a). Referring to the Southern Africa region's position, the mid-year 2017 report of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) shows that the total number of refugees and asylum seekers in the region was 489,266 (World Bank Group, 2018). However, this figure would have been potentially much higher as a great number of asylum applications in South Africa are still pending, waiting on appeal, and in the process of being reviewed (World Bank Group, 2018; UNDESA, 2017).

To this day, the assistance and protection of refugees are uncertain. The criticism focusses on how refugees struggle to access employment opportunities and other assistance and protection in host communities. The studies in South Africa have documented the refugee crisis and the challenges for the South African government in assisting and protecting refugees. This study examines the literature on migrants and refugees. It investigates the challenges of refugees when accessing labour markets and their strategies to overcome them. Apart from adding to the existing body of knowledge in exploring the challenges of accessing labour markets for asylum seekers and refugees, the research is significant in terms of investigating the

strategies used by asylum seekers and refugees to access the labour market of the urban area of Bellville within the City of Cape Town. This area was selected because it hosts a large number of refugees working in the informal sector.

The data generated from the empirical investigation will be of importance to a range of stakeholders including private sector organisations, government officials, social development practitioners and the Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) sector. Micro-data generated by the study will provide valuable insights into conditions faced by refugees and asylum seekers and assist policymakers to formulate appropriate policies and programs related to integrating asylum seekers and refugees into the labour market of South Africa. Furthermore, data generated from the study will add to the research gap on the dynamics involved in accessing labour markets for refugees and asylum seekers within urban areas in the Western Cape.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXTUALISATION

Different studies such as the UNDESA Report of 2017, UNHCR Popstats Mid-year trends of 2017 and World Bank Report of 2011 addressed some of the reasons behind the increased mobility in Southern Africa. Notably, recent transformation in the region's political economy, major political changes and policy amendments, showed the positive attractions and implications for mobility in the region (World Bank Group, 2018; Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015). The World Bank Report of 2018 showed an increase in the overall estimated number of migrants in Southern Africa since the 1990s. Although the increase was estimated at 68%, it was not similar across the southern region. The largest increase in the number of migrants and refugees occurred in South Africa, Botswana and Angola of which South Africa hosted 67% of all migrants of the Southern region (World Bank Group, 2018). South Africa has become the single most significant migration destination in the region, while the poorer economies of Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe have shown a decrease in the number of migrants (World Bank Group, 2018; Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015).

The UNDESA Report of 2017 indicates that South Africa hosts the highest number of asylum seekers and refugees at 308,156 in which asylum seekers and refugees were estimated at 215,860 and 92,296 respectively (World Bank Group, 2018:10; Institute for Social Development (ISD, 2018:1). The major countries of origin for asylum seekers and refugees are the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Somalia,

Ethiopia, Burundi, Rwanda, Congo-Brazzaville, Zimbabwe, Eritrea, Namibia, Uganda, and Mauritania (Dinbabo and Badewa, 2020; World Bank Group, 2018; ISD, 2018, Dinbabo, Belebema and Mensah, 2017; Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015). In addition to the major movements of migrants from the Horn of Africa, the Great Lakes region and Zimbabwe, asylum seekers also migrate from countries in Western Africa (UNHCR, 2018).

The newcomers, both asylum seekers and refugees face multiple problems such as xenophobia, unemployment, difficulty in integrating into the local communities and accessing labour markets. Gaining access to social services such as education and health care, are additional challenges facing migrants (Shawa, 2012). It is against this background that the purpose of this study is to explore the challenges facing asylum seekers and refugees in accessing employment in the suburb of Bellville in Cape Town, South Africa.

1.3 OVERVIEW OF THE CASE STUDY AREA

The study has been conducted in the suburban area of Bellville, which is located within the Metropolitan City of Cape Town, Western Cape Province in South Africa. Referring to the most recent census in South Africa of 2011, UNDESA (2018) reports that Johannesburg is the largest urban area in South Africa with approximately 4.5 million residents and Cape Town is the second most populated urban area with approximately 3.8 million people. In 2019, the population of Cape Town was estimated at approximately 4.5 million (UNDESA, 2018; STATS SA, 2012). On the African continent, the City of Cape Town is also amongst the most populated cities, occupying tenth place in terms of population density. Globally, Cape Town is also one of the most distinguished and well-known multicultural cities in the world, making it very attractive to migrants (Sithole & Dinbabo, 2016).

Bellville was founded as a "12 Mile Post" due to its distance of 12 miles (approximately 19 kilometres) from Cape Town's city centre. Bellville was established as a railway station on the railway line from Cape Town to Stellenbosch and Strand. It consists of 46 residential areas, including Belgravia (Bellville), Bellair, Bellville Central, Belrail, Boston, Chrismar, Sanlamhof, Stikland Industrial and Triangle Farm (STATS SA, 2013; Frith, 2018).

Many migrants from various countries have established enterprises in Bellville. However, the migrants are engaged in both informal and formal sector activities, despite their uncertain status and limited access in terms of capital for investment or any other support (Weideman, 2020; Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015). The employment activities in Bellville among migrants include traders/hawkers (street vendors), hairdressers, tailors, domestic workers and cashiers (Alhourani, 2017; Gastrow & Amit, 2013). Bellville is Cape Town's second busiest area of the transport hub in which tens of thousands of people pass through this area daily when they are going to their business works. Hundreds of traders come to buy goods in Bellville for selling them across the city of Cape Town (Alhourani, 2017; Williams, 2015).

Bellville is occupied mostly by Somalian, Ethiopian and East African migrants. Furthermore, more than 5000 Somalis live and are engaged in different activities in Bellville (Williams, 2015; Van Rooyen, 2013; Nicholson, 2011). Bellville holds the busiest areas renamed Somali Town or Little Mogadishu and East African Town just to mention the central and the safest place where such migrants live and run their business (Van Rooyen, 2013; Nicholson, 2011). Bellville is also known for its famous Ethiopian and Somali restaurants. Most of the migrants live in other suburban locations within the City of Cape Town but have established their informal businesses in Bellville as it is the business hub of the Northern Suburbs (Williams, 2015; Nicholson, 2011).

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT, RESEARCH QUESTIONS, AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY WESTERN CAPE

1.4.1 Problem statement

South Africa has shown a significant increase in refugees in the past ten years. This has brought about challenges experienced by refugees such as safety and security and the integration of migrants and refugees within the communities which they live in.

Numerous authors including Institute for Social Development (ISD, 2018), Dinbabo, Ile, Majee, Belebema and Boadu (2018), Jinnah (2017), Kavuro (2015), Shawa (2012) refer to the problems faced by refugees and asylum seekers. Shawa (2012) has studied the socio-economic challenges of young refugees in the Western Cape, South Africa and found that they faced problems such as accessing employment, education and social services. Furthermore, Kavuro (2015) documented

the problems of exclusion and lack of recognition of refugee documents when investigating the barriers faced by refugees and asylum seekers when attempting to access South Africa's labour markets. Other scholars have studied self-settlement strategies and informal governance. Jinnah (2017) found that the instruments of social networks and informal governance between Somalis refugees in Johannesburg and relationships forged with state authorities and communities shaped their livelihoods and settlement dynamics. Dinbabo et al., (2018) found the poor services delivery to the immigrants when examining the system efficiencies and service delivery of immigrants in South Africa and the United States. Research conducted by the Institute for Social Development (ISD, 2018) examined refugee and asylum-seeking representative structures and their communities in South Africa. Their research concluded that poor community leadership and ineffective government structures such as the Department of Home Affairs and the South African Police service were deemed significant barriers for refugees. However, little is known about the challenges faced by refugees and asylum seekers to access employment opportunities in the labour market and their coping strategies and other, or basic needs and concerns. This study will address this knowledge gap.

1.4.2 Aim and objectives of the study

The main aim of this study is to identify the challenges faced by asylum seekers and refugees in accessing the labour market in Bellville, City of Cape Town, South Africa.

The specific objectives of this study are:

- To investigate the challenges impacting on asylum seekers and refugees in accessing the labour market;
- To identify and examine the livelihood strategies and coping strategies used by asylum seekers and refugees in accessing employment opportunities and making a living; and
- To evaluate the availability and accessibility of support structures to refugees and asylum seekers in facilitating access to the labour market.

1.4.3 Research questions

Following the problem statement, the study seeks to provide the answer to the following questions:

- What are the challenges experienced in accessing the labour market in Bellville?
- What livelihood strategies do refugees use to access employment in the labour market in Bellville?
- What coping strategies do refugees use to obtain employment, to deal with stressful situations, and to survive?
- What support structures are available to refugees and asylum seekers when attempting to access labour markets?

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This research study examines the challenges impacting refugees and asylum seekers when accessing the labour markets. It explores different livelihood strategies and coping mechanisms adopted by refugees for accessing employment and being resilient to shocks and stresses. This study is organised into six chapters:

Chapter one is the introductory chapter of the study. This chapter outlines a brief overview of the problem of refugees and asylum seekers. Therefore, it highlights the rationale, background and contextualisation of the study. The chapter further provides the research problem, objectives and research questions of the study.

Chapter two provides a review of the literature on refugees, asylum seekers and global migration dynamics. The chapter provides a discussion on global migration statistics, reasons that motivate people to migrate, the challenges impacting refugees and asylum seekers and the challenges and impact of migration.

Chapter three presents the theoretical framework of the study. Firstly, it introduces some migration theories including refugee theory and push-pull theory. It provides an in-depth overview of the Sustainable livelihood Framework (SLF) as the theoretical framework employed by the study.

Chapter four outlines the research methodology employed in the study that has been used to respond to the research objectives. This chapter describes and justifies the choice of research design, methodological tools, population and sampling techniques. Moreover, it discusses the method used in selecting the sample and how it was selected.

Chapter five presents the overall research findings of the study. It provides a detailed account of the empirical findings of the research and comprehensive analysis of the collected data. Firstly, the chapter presents the quantitative study results whose presented analysis and discussions have enriched by the qualitative study results.

Chapter six provides a conclusion to the study. This chapter reflects on the theoretical framework, presents a summary of the key findings, as well as practical recommendations and areas for further research in the field of migration.



CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The literature on refugees and their access to labour markets has been increasing as a result of growing interest in its calls for assistance to solve the refugee crisis. There is an ever-increasing incidence of refugees and asylum seekers both at the global level and specifically at the South African level. This chapter reviews the relevant literature relating to the issue of asylum seekers and refugees as well as migration and labour markets. Firstly, this chapter will examine the migration statistics, reasons for migration, and the challenges faced by refugee and asylum seekers, as well as the challenges and impact of migration. Furthermore, the chapter will conclude with the South African context with highlighting the brief overview of the labour market and migration in South Africa, refugee and asylum seeker statistics in South Africa, the challenges experienced by the government of South Africa as documented by authors, the challenges of South African labour market system. Thereafter, the socio-economic profile of refugees and asylum seekers in Cape Town would be discussed.

2.2 MIGRATION STATISTICS

Migration statistics refer to the number of migrants or people moving to or from a described area during a described time. This section provides the statistics of the global migration for migrants and refugees.

2.2.1 The world international migrant population

Over the past two decades, the number of international migrants has continued to grow with a record rate of increase (UNDESA, 2017). In 2000, the world recognised 173 million international migrants, and by 2005, they had increased to 191 million with an average increase of 2% per year during 2000-2005. In 2010, the international migrants grew to 220 million with the annual growth rate of 2.9% during 2005-2010. Moreover, international migrants continued to increase, reaching 248 million by 2015, with a slow decrease in the annual growth rate of 2.4% during 2010-2015. The number of international migrants reached 258 million in 2017 with an average annual growth of 2.0% from 2015 to 2017 (UNDESA, 2017).

According to UNDESA (2017), most of the international migrants, approximately twothirds of all international migrants globally, reside in developed countries of high income. The statistics of 2017 show that developed countries of high-income host 165 million international migrants equivalent to 64% of global international migrants (UNDESA, 2017). Moreover, almost \(\frac{1}{3} \), the rest of 36\% of global international migrants equals to 92 million resides in the countries of middle and low income in which these countries of middle- and low-income host 81 million and 11 million of international migrants respectively (UNDESA, 2017). Precisely, the United State of America (USA) hosted the largest number of international migrants with 50 million followed by Saudi Arabia, Germany, and the Russian Federation with approximately 12 million international migrants each. The United Kingdom and Northern Ireland came behind with approximately 9 million international migrants and the United Arab Emirate with 8 million (UNDESA, 2017). Of the 258 million international migrants at a global level in 2017, Asia had the largest number of sending migrants - 106 million. It is followed by Europe on the second place by recording 61 million of international migrants from Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean recorded 38 million of international migrants, 36 million international migrants were from Africa, Northern America with 4 million and Oceania with 2 million of international migrants (UNDESA, 2017).

2.2.2 The world refugee population

During the last two decades, the world recognised the record of increased refugees. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR, 2017) argues that refugee crisis has been highlighted by an increasing number of refugees and asylum seekers who have been forced to move their countries for several political, social and economic reasons (UNHCR, 2017). The Institute for Social Development (ISD, 2018), the department of the University of the Western Cape (UWC), argues that different studies showed in 2016, approximately a total number of 65.6 million of people were forced to move and displaced from their place and it portrayed the figure of 20 people fleeing from wars, social conflicts, persecution, violence and violation of human rights in every 60 seconds (ISD, 2018).

The global refugee is emerging progressively urbanised with more than 50% of all refugees settle in the densely populated areas or urban territories (ISD, 2018). Therefore, the statistics of urban displaced people vary from one region to another with approximately 28% of displaced people in Africa, 28% in Europe, 23% in Asia, and the Middle East and North Africa having18% of displaced people living in urban areas. Both North America and South America with 3% of displaced people (ISD,

2018). Precisely, in 2016, the highest number of refugee and asylum seekers were mostly from Syria, South Sudan, and Afghanistan. At this point, the top largest hosting refugee at global level comprised Turkey, Jordan and the state of Palestine, Lebanon, Pakistan, Iran, Uganda, and Ethiopia (ISD, 2018; UNDESA, 2017).

2.3 REASONS FOR MIGRATION

The United Nations has developed the legal instruments in favour of international Bill of Human Rights. One of the major concerns is that every person possesses the right to quit either his home country or any other country and to come back to his home country. This right provides the right of migration for all migrants including economic migrants, students, asylum seekers and refugees, and as well as internal migrants (Dinbabo, Belebema & Mensah, 2017; Dinbabo & Badewa, 2020; Dinbabo & Carciotto, 2015).

People migrate from one region to another for three major reasons such as social, political or economical (World Bank Group, 2018). It is presumed that individuals migrate because they believe that in another country their state of wellbeing will be changed for the better (Ehrenberg & Smith, 2017). Economic consideration is often their key motivation (Ehrenberg & Smith, 2017). However, the refugees may be forced to flee their countries of origin without any notice (or often on short notice) for many reasons such as political instability like armed conflict and civil unrest, natural disasters like famine, floods and drought or man-made catastrophes like displacement by large development projects such as dams (World Bank Group, 2018).

Dinbabo and Nyasulu (2015) examined macroeconomic determinants of pull and push factors of international migration and showed several factors that motivate migrants to move. Some of the factors are employment and education, and other economic opportunities. In short, receiving countries expose the opportunity of employment, education, safety and security as pull factors for migrants. On the other hand, poverty, famine, conflict and unemployment are recorded as main push factors for the sending countries (Dinbabo & Badewa, 2020; Dinbabo, Belebema & Mensah, 2017; World Bank Group, 2018; Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015).

2.4 THE CHALLENGES FACED BY ASYLUM SEEKERS AND REFUGEES

As their migration might be without planning, refugees might not be in a financially stable condition than the economic immigrants and the citizens of the country of

destination (Ehrenberg & Smith, 2017). The migrants especially refugees in the host country face many challenges such as access to employment opportunities, the expectation of safety and security, access to accommodation, and social services (Kalitanyi & Visser, 2010).

2.4.1 Accessing employment

The world refugee experiences serious challenges to obtain jobs. Many of refugees are highly educated and skilled labour, but still, it is difficult for them to enter the labour market relevant to their education and experiences (Kalitanyi & Visser, 2010; Barker, 2007).

Many authors and organisations have researched the problem of refugees accessing the labour market. Kavuro (2015), Shawa (2012) and UNHCR (2005) commented that many foreigners and refugees, in particular, would rather be active in informal sectors where demand for low skill labour is required, than finding jobs that matched their education in the formal sector. The refugees choose to engage in activities found in informal sectors which locally-born seem to ignore and undermine. Some of those informal jobs are security guards, car guards, cleaners, plumbers, and small traders like vendors and street traders (STATS SA, 2016).

The Survey of 2003 of the National Refugee Baseline and UNHCR (2005) reported on the most difficult barriers facing refugees when seeking employment. Some of the barriers are firstly, the lack of proper documents as in many firms and companies, employers request the citizen Identity document, Permanent residency, or work permit, to determine if the applicant can legally be employed. Secondly, the other barrier is the language (local and other languages used in the host country). Thirdly, Hooper, Desderio, and Salant (2017) argue that there are several challenges in hiring and recruiting foreign workers such as unclear and complex labour legislation, and the undervaluing of acquired qualifications and skills of foreigners in the country. Fourthly, the barriers of unfamiliarity in the host country, especially with business norms in the area and with competition with the citizens. Lastly, the difficulty of lack of social and professional network in the area of arrival or stay in which he/she can find a job easily (Hooper et al., 2017).

2.4.2 Safety and security

Fagioli-Ndlovu (2015) argues that the neoliberal political system and forces of international development and security policies prevent the mobility of migrants and refugees. However, the safety and security of migrants and refugees in the destination countries are critical.

Refugees face many problems relating to safety and security due to mostly the negative attitudes against migrants and refugees. Some of the problems are criminal violence against most foreigners like discrimination, xenophobia and other crimes (Dinbabo & Carciotto, 2015), as well as food insecurity. In other words, the livelihood of migrants and refugees is unstable (ISD, 2018). Furthermore, ISD (2018) adds that there is an increase in the literature that pivots on the struggles of refugees seeking protection against violence and discrimination, security and safety, and the assistance from government and humanitarian aid (ISD, 2018).

2.4.3 Accommodation and access to social services

The world refugee crisis has raised the interest and significant concerns in the literature in which many scholars and policymakers have discussed the access to social services for migrants and refugees in a country of destination. There is a lack or insufficiency of an adequate system for many receiving countries that could enable appropriate monitoring and evaluation. Moreover, this challenge obstructed their government's intervention of social services for migrants and refugees (Dinbabo, Ile, Majee, Belebema, & Boadu, 2018). Also, refugees face the problem of housing. The families or individuals share the room to minimise the amount of rent (STATS, 2016).

The UNHCR (2005) reports that many of the asylum seekers wait a long period for refugee status settlement and this makes their lives very miserable due to their lower income. During this time, the refugee cannot secure his/her employment and they cannot get the social services easily like education, health care, and housing. Many authors discussed on worries and attitudes of how providers offer social services to migrants and refugees. Peberdy (2002) and ISD (2018) comment that the negative perspectives and behaviour of nationals against the non-citizens could cause negative thinking to the providers of social services. This can result in the exclusion of all categories of non-nationals (migrants including refugees) from services that they are eligible for and they are effectively desperate for.

2.5 THE CHALLENGES AND IMPACT OF MIGRATION

Since the beginning of 1950, the world started to show the transformation and changes by modernisation in societies (Lohrmann, 2000). This modernisation period is marked by the industrialisation and rapid economic expansion of the Western European countries and the United States of America (USA). This period is also marked by the great shortage of labour in which it led to the recruitment of migrant workers from many countries all over the world. At the beginning of 1990, Middle Eastern oil-producing countries were also facing the problem of labour shortage (Lohrmann, 2000).

However, in early 1973, the oil crisis caused the progressive establishment of immigration policies in Western European countries that ban the recruitment of migrant workers (Skleparis, 2017). The economic recession in those countries created the rise of unemployment in which they started to dislike the migrant workers. Despite the immigration policies that ban the movement of labourers, the immigrants continued to increase. It led to the asylum crisis during the decades of 1970s and 1980s in Western European countries. In the 21st century, international migration has caused major concerns and discussions of many researchers and scholars with regards to both origin and receiving countries (ISD, 2018; Skleparis, 2017). However, the flow of migration forced population displacements (refugees and asylum seeker) caused the problem of insecurity in both sending and receiving countries as well as the entire region (Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015).

2.5.1 The challenges for migrant-sending and receiving countries

The insecurity in migrant-receiving countries has been used to justify the rigorous measures and procedures against irregular immigrants and speculative asylum applications (Lohrmann, 2000). There are many allegations against migrants with regards to the threats for public order of the receiving countries. Some of the allegations are crimes such as traffic of drugs and humans, thefts, armed violence, and acts of terrorism (ISD, 2018; Lohrmann, 2000). This negative attitude against migrants has been fortified in recent years, remarkably after the terrorist attacks of an Islamist group on World Trade Centre (USA) in 2001 and of Algerian extremist in France in 1995, the bombing of the US embassy in Kenya and Tanzania in 1998 and Uganda in 2010 by the Somalis Islamist militants.

Some receiving countries, explicitly the Western European Countries, they are apprehensive of cultural homogeneity (Lohrmann, 2000). Migration theorists debate

that migrants of various cultures influence the culture of the country of destination in which the nationals lose their own culture and accommodate the adoption of foreign multiculturism such languages, lifestyles, religions or stylish fashion design. Other theorists like Lohrmann (2000) see this angle of cultural homogeneity differently. Diverse cultural lifestyles brought by migrants from a different region can positively affect the host society and its culture. According to Lohrmann (2000), multicultural migrants do not seem to be a threat to societal security. Instead, it is the political exploitation of immigration since Western European countries are already multicultural societies (Lohrmann, 2000).

The movement of irregular migration and as well as migrant trafficking arouse the conflict and political tensions or awkward bilateral relation between both sending and receiving countries (Lohrmann, 2000). Many sending countries use to complain about the refugee groups in receiving countries involved in military and political activities against the regimes of their home countries. This is illustrated by the case of Rwandan refugees in Uganda in 1990, and Rwandan refugees in DRC, Tanzania and Burundi in July 1994 in which refugee groups planned and tried to attack the Rwandan regime. Currently, the Rwanda regime is accusing some receiving countries like Uganda, France, Belgium and South Africa of hosting and accommodating criminals that are supposed to be punished by law. On the other hand, South Africa and Uganda have accused the Rwanda regime of infiltrating their territories to kidnap Rwandan refugees under protection.

The return of migrants, whether refugees or economic migrants, is suggested by some theorists of creating additional tensions and burdens to the original country's economy. Many countries of origin are poor, politically weak, and with scarce economic resources like water and land. The return of migrants becomes an additional burden to their social services and infrastructures (Chappell & Sriskandarajah, 2007; Lohrmann, 2000).

2.5.2 Migration and development

Many theorists and scholars have found that the concepts of migration and development are hypothetically linked, and they concluded that migration can have both impressive positive effects on development and negative effects at different levels (Chappell & Sriskandarajah, 2007). The labour demand in countries of high and middle

income has been pointed out as the effect that motivates migrants to move from countries of low income. Despite the disagreement among migration scholars on the negative and positive impacts of migration on development, remittance is a tangible asset with a positive impact on development. According to Meyer and Shera (2017), remittances of migrants are a tool that makes a significant impact on economic growth and alleviation of poverty in many developing sending countries. Remittances in developing countries develop the micro and macro level, from individual and household level to the economic growth and development of the country. Ratha (2013) adds that remittances enhance education and poverty reduction by raising the income of poor families and assist with health and gender equality in their societies.

However, migration theorists differ on the negative effects of migration on development. They raise various issues, namely brain drain, labour shortages, and loss of cultural identity (cultural homogeneity) (Docquier, 2014; Chappell & Sriskandarajah, 2007). According to Docquier (2014), the brain drain can be beneficial or destructive to the development and welfare of the country of origin. The brain drain refers to the human capital resources transferred internationally from countries of low income (poor developing countries) to countries of high income (developed countries) (Docquier, 2014). The brain drain has a significant impact on development by its improvement of income-maximising in developing countries, and promoting education and remittance flows (Docquier, 2014; Ratha, 2013); But on the other hand, it can decrease the human capital resources (labour shortage) in poor developing countries (Docquier, 2014).

2.6 THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

In most host countries globally, specifically African countries, the refugee crisis became a phenomenon by the raised of violation of human rights, social and political conflicts and other diverse forms of violence (Msabah, 2019). Refugees in South Africa are seen in certain section by the locals as a burden that exhausts their own country, in which they should not have the roof in South Africa. They are even considered as people who habitually dependent on and exploit the resources without nothing in return (parasites) especially the social services that are meant for the locals (Msabah, 2019). These challenges deprive refugees to enjoy peace and freedom in South Africa. Even though many refugees flee involuntary their home countries without planning of their

survival in the country of destination, they are always hoping to get an improved livelihood and better life in the host country. Refugees forcibly make efforts regardless of what they endure in using available resources (assets) and opportunities to restart a new life using strategies of self-reliance (Msabah, 2019). In South Africa in particular, refugees face many challenges such as unemployment, the problem of safety and insecurity, problems of shelter and access to social services (Msabah, 2019; ISD, 2018; UNHCR, 2005). Their determination to secure their survival forces them to participate and engage in different activities and jobs that generate livelihood incomes. In doing so, refugees contribute to the improvement of their well-being, increase the quality of life in their households and local economic growth (Msabah, 2019).

2.6.1 A brief history of labour migration in South Africa

"The history of humanity is a history of migration" (Harzig, Hoerder & Gabaccia, 2013:8). According to these authors, they argue that migration has existed in human history and they explain that people always seek to move when they are not able to survive in their home place. Therefore, they move to improve their lives in host countries (Msabah, 2019; Harzig, Hoerder & Gabaccia, 2013).

Southern Africa's migration history had been marked by a record of a highly organised and institutionalised labour migration system over several decades. This system was advanced to provide the needs and requirement of labour demand of the mines of the Southern Africa region (World Bank Group, 2018). South Africa started to attract migrant labour with the exploration of the mines of diamond and gold in the late 19th early 20th centuries. Most migrants were moving from the countries namely Zimbabwe, Lesotho, Mozambique, Zambia and Tanzania but migration streams were highly controlled (World Bank Group, 2018; Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015). Since that period, South Africa has become a highly centralised mining industry in the Southern Africa region and this industry occupied a major place in the economy of South Africa. According to Dinbabo and Nyasulu (2015), apart from the discovery of diamond and gold mines, the introduction of sugar cane fields increased the flow of immigrants.

In short, the labour market migration system in South Africa has been considerably transformed compared to the rest of the Southern Africa region. The present migration labour system of the 21st century is different and such difference is explained by the

shift from collective mining to an informal and individual labour migration system and is not highly controlled like before (World Bank Group, 2018).



2.6.2 Refugee and asylum seekers statistics in South Africa

Over the past two decades, South Africa has witnessed an increase in migrants, both refugees and asylum seekers (World Bank Group, 2018; ISD, 2018; Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015). The number of migrants (including refugees and asylum seekers) has continued to grow, reaching approximatively 4 million in 2017, up from 3.8 million in 2015, 2 million in 2010, 1.2 million in 2005, 1 million in 2000, 1 million in 1995 and 1.1 million in 1990 (Macrotrends, 2020; World Bank Group, 2018). According to ISD (2018) and the Department of Homme Affairs (DHA, 2011), It is difficult to determine the exact number of refugees and asylum seekers within South Africa due to the challenging accuracy of the data record from sources which are hard to access by the Department of Home Affairs (ISD, 2018; DHA, 2011). The statistics on the number of refugees and asylum seekers in South Africa reached 1.2 million in 2015, up from 57,899 in 2010; as of 2005 refugees and asylum seekers were 29,214, up from 15,063 in 2000, compared with 101,408 in 1995 and 90,000 in 1990 (World Bank Group, 2018; ISD, 2018). However, the 2017 decrease in the number of refugees and asylum seekers in South Africa compared with the total number estimated in 2015, is explained by alteration and changes to the figures of 2015 and 2016 specifically for the number of asylum applicants that were pending on appeal and review (World Bank Group, 2018; UNDESA, 2017).

2.6.3 The challenges of the South African labour market system

The Financial Fiscal Commission (FFC) reported that the South African labour market faces critical challenges that need to be addressed, such as skills mismatch, which is the disconnect between the education system and the industries, labour legislation that is restrictive in terms of global standards, and the adversarial collective bargaining system as well (People's Assembly, 2016:1). In addition, the high unemployment rate in South Africa is of great concern and a huge challenge. To minimize this challenge, the government instituted programs such as the National Development Plan (NDP). According to the National Planning Commission (NPC, 2012), the NDP recognises job creation as a key driver for rapid growth and a higher standard of living. The NDP set targets to reduce the unemployment rate from 24.9% in 2012 to 14% by 2020 and the target estimation of the continuous decrease in the unemployment rate is 6% by 2030.

South Africa's current unemployment rate is approximately 27% (STATS SA, 2019). Some of the targets that need to be improved are firstly, improving the workforce capabilities to ensure that earnings are sensitive to industrial demands. Secondly, creating a stable and productive environment for bargaining and labour relations that promote investment and ensure human rights (sustainable employment and economic growth). Thirdly, promoting the shift from resource-intensive to more energy-efficient labour-absorptive industries in which the South African economy is mainly conditional on carbon-based fuels. The world has turned against carbon-based fuel energy due to the negative effects of carbon on the environment. Therefore, South Africa must shift to energy-efficient industry. Lastly, support for economies with high potential for job creation will be created out of new business and expansion enabled by the economy (People's Assembly, 2016; NPC, 2012).

Statistics show that in 2015 there was a close association between the economic growth rate and the unemployment rate. Moreover, in the decade of 2000s, the unemployment rate declined when economic growth was strong but with economic growth weakening in 2010 after the recession of 2008 (world financial crisis), the unemployment rate started to increase (People's Assembly, 2016). The results indicate that the unemployment rate in South Africa remained static in the last ten years, during which the unemployment rate was 21.5% in 2008, and currently 27.1% (STATS SA, 2019). Consequently, these statistics contradict the NDP-Medium Term target 2019's expectation of decreasing the unemployment rate to 14% by 2020. Also, according to the International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2019) and STATS SA (2015), the youth are the most vulnerable to unemployment which contributes negatively to social instability and economic growth and development. In 2018, the youth unemployment rate was 38.2% among young South Africans aged 15-34 (STATS SA, 2019). Some of these young people have become discouraged with the labour market and have ceased to expand their knowledge and skills through education and training (STATS SA, 2019).

2.6.4 The challenges faced by the Government of South Africa

South Africa has the highest number of migrants and refugees (World Bank Group, 2018). Like in other host countries, refugees have been identified as security threats and economic burdens in South Africa (Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015). One of the main challenges for the South African government is to integrate and assist refugees. The

local integration for refugees seems to make refugee crisis to be a hard phenomenon in the South African community. Local integration of refugees considers the circumstances in which the receiving country of national and refugee communities is in a position to co-exist and share social and economic resources without antagonism and conflict (Pangilinan, 2015).

Local integration is one of three durable solutions for refugees designed by UNHCR. It is among other major solutions such as voluntary repatriation and resettlement (Pangilinan, 2015). In South Africa, voluntary repatriation is a distant solution as many refugees are from countries of social conflicts and economic and political instability such as Somalia, DRC, and countries of Great Lakes region (World Bank Group, 2018). Also, resettlement is a dream and a far from positive solution, as South Africa and its nationals perceive refugees as threats and burdens to their economic growth (Kanamugire, 2016). This is illustrated by crimes like xenophobic attacks of nationals on foreigners in South Africa. Local integration remains the only possible solution for refugees in South Africa (Kanamugire, 2016).

South Africa is experiencing the problem of high unemployment and unstable economic growth (World Bank Group, 2018). Despite this situation, South Africa is legally responsible for refugee assistance and protection. It is described by international laws for any country to protect the rights of any migrants entered on its territory whether his entry is illegal or not (Dinbabo & Nyasulu, 2015). It is difficult for South Africa to fully integrate refugees to employment opportunities, education, and other services while the nationals are also suffering, but South African government cannot reject the refugees (Dinbabo, et al., 2018; Mena, 2018).

2.6.5 Migration to the Western Cape

The provinces of South Africa do not attract the migrants to the same scale. According to Statistics South Africa (2019), Gauteng and Western Cape attract and host the most migrants who are hoping to find a better life. Gauteng hosts the largest number of international migrants 52% because of its primary position as the economic and financial hub within South Africa. The Western Cape is in second place with 12% of migrants, followed by KwaZulu Natal with 8%. The Free State, Eastern Cape and Northern Cape host the lowest percentages of international migrants. It is important to note that people's migration in South Africa has significant urban dimensions. The

migrants and refugees move to the urban areas of Gauteng such as Johannesburg and of Western Cape, such as Cape Town (World Bank Group, 2018).



2.7 THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF MIGRANT REFUGEES AND ASYLUM SEEKERS

2.7.1 In South Africa

The World Bank Group reported that the census of 2011 presented approximately 2,2 million international migrants (including refugees and asylum seekers) in South Africa, or about 4.2% of the country's total population at that time (World Bank Group, 2018). It is worth noting that migration in South Africa has urban dimensions. The migrants and refugees move and reside in the urban and peri-urban areas in South Africa. In addition, South Africa is one of the most highly urbanised countries in Africa's continent. Migrants and refugees face the hardships alongside local residents including high rates of unemployment, poor service delivery, poverty, overcrowding, high crime rates, and drug and alcohol abuse (World Bank Group, 2018).

According to the same census of 2011, 23% of migrants (including refugees and asylum seekers) were living below the national poverty income level, and generally, over 50% of international migrants were poor (World Bank Group, 2018). Over 27% of all households were female-headed but almost one-third of these female-headed households were living in the national poverty category. Around 63% international migrants (or 3 out of 5) reported being employed in which the majority were employed in the formal sector, 17.2% reported being employed in the informal sector and 17% being employed in private households (World Bank Group, 2018).

However, migrants were more likely than locally-born workers to be employed in agriculture or private households where they work as domestic workers, gardeners and child-care workers (World Bank Group, 2018). The census of 2011 reported that 30% of migrants (including refugees and asylum seekers) were employed in the industry of trade, 6% were employed in the agriculture industry, 11% were employed in the private household industry, 10% were employed in the financial industry, 12% were employed in the construction industry and 10% were employed in the manufacturing industry (World Bank Group, 2018).

2.7.2 In Cape Town

The recent research of Crush, Tawodzera, McCordic and Ramachandran (2017b) revealed that the majority of refugees in Cape Town approximatively 75% are engaged in the retail sector, 25% in services, and 4% in the manufacturing industry. Furthermore, different studies indicate that the most common goods sold by these refugee entrepreneurs are cigarettes, clothing, personal accessories, confectionery and beverages (Crush, Tawodzera, McCordic & Ramachandran, 2017b; Alhourani, 2017; Sithole & Dinbabo, 2016; Williams, 2015; Shawa, 2012).

Tawodzera, Chikanda, Crush and Tengeh (2015) conducted the study on migrants and refugees in Cape Town and investigated the major findings of the socio-economic profile of migrants and refugees operating in the informal business. They found that in 2015 most entrepreneurs originated from over 20 different countries, including Zimbabwe, Somalia, DRC, Nigeria, Malawi, Ethiopia and the Republic of Cameroun. The majority of entrepreneurs were from Zimbabwe 43%, and the rest of the 57% were from countries including DRC, Somalia, Nigeria and Ethiopia. However, the majority of these migrants in these study except Nigerians were in Cape Town as refugees (Tawodzera, Chikanda, Crush & Tengeh, 2015). Few migrants and refugees (approximatively 2%) came into South Africa before the 1994 elections, while 8% arrived in South Africa immediately post-apartheid. Also, 20% came during 2000-2004 and the majority of migrants and refugees (approximatively 70%) came during 2005-2015 (Tawodzera, Chikanda, Crush & Tengeh, 2015).

The majority of the businesses of migrants and refugees are street trading in which 38% are temporary stand on the street and 21% are permanent stand on the street. While 16% of migrants and refugees established fixed premises namely workshops and shops, 11% operated their businesses in their own home, 11% own permanent stands in the markets and 3% established the shop in a house, yard and garage. In addition, 11% own temporary stands or sites in the taxi ranks and 3% in the customer's home. Only 9% of the migrants and refugees were mobile delivering and selling products from door to door (Tawodzera, Chikanda, Crush & Tengeh, 2015).

However, 14% of the migrants and refugees in Cape Town were unemployed in their home countries immediately before leaving for South Africa, 19% of them were still

students, and 26% were employed in the informal sector in their home countries before leaving for South Africa. While 60% had been employed in the formal economy since coming to South Africa in which 20% have been employed as unskilled manual workers, 11% as skilled manual workers, 10% domestic workers, 6% as farmworkers, and 5% as security workers. However, only 12% of migrants and refugees had experienced unemployment periodically and failed to find formal employment, and 7% of them had been students (Tawodzera, Chikanda, Crush & Tengeh, 2015).

2.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has assessed literature linked to the refugee crisis including the issue of asylum seekers and refugees. It further reviewed the literature on migration and labour markets as well. The challenges of accessing labour markets faced by asylum seekers and refugees were assessed and the challenges and impact of migration have been discussed at the global level. In the South African context, this chapter highlighted the brief overview of the labour market and migration, refugees and asylum seekers statistics in South Africa, challenges experienced by the South African government and its labour market and finally, the chapter discussed the socio-economic profile of asylum seekers and refugees in the City of Cape Town. The next chapter focusses on the theoretical framework employed by the study, and its conceptual framework.

WESTERN CAPE

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) is a theoretical framework which has been used in this study as an analytical tool to inform the research. The SLF is a particularly useful model and used extensively to understand the complexity of the livelihoods of the poor concerning the livelihood strategies which they pursue and the opportunities and challenges which they face. This chapter provides some migration theories that explain human mobility and illustrates key elements of the SLF and valuates its applicability to this study. It further discusses the conceptual framework. Moreover, the first section of the chapter discusses migration theories including refugee theory and push-pull theory, analyses the concept of the SLF and provides a discussion of its core principles. This is followed by an in-depth analysis of the SLF and key elements of the framework. Furthermore, the strengths and weaknesses of the SLF are discussed. Finally, the second discusses the concept of migration and other concepts relates to the study including the labour market, migrant, refugee and asylum seeker.

3.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Different theories have been elaborated to treat international patterns of human mobility and his vulnerability context. This first section describes the migration theories including push-pull theory and refugee theory that help us to understand why people move within their panoramic and comprehensive political and economic contexts. Additionally, this section presents the particular approach of the Sustainable Livelihood Framework employed by the study to explore the vulnerability context of refugees and their livelihoods.

3.2.1 Push-pull theory and its variants migration theories

The author Ernest Ravenstein is considered as the earliest theorist in the migration field. With his established works on laws of migration, Ravenstein (1885) argues that the human mobility was administered by the push-pull process of unfavourable conditions in a homeland location of the sending area and favourable conditions in an external location of the receiving area. The unfavourable conditions in a homeland

location including oppressive laws, poverty, heavy taxation, social conflicts push people out and move to the external location in looking for the favourable conditions of better economic opportunities such as education and employment (Lee, 1966; Ravenstein, 1885). Lee (1966) as cited by O'Reilly (2015) further reformulated Ravenstein's theory by pointing out how migration is selective due to various differentials including age, gender and social class that influence the reaction of people to push-pull factors (O'Reilly, 2015).

However, there exist other theories such as neoclassical economic theory, segmented labour market theory, world-systems theory that are variants of push-pull theory. Theorists of neoclassical economic theory associate international migration to the labour demand and supply (O'Reilly, 2015). In a society where they lack labour supply but high labour demand, will be characterised by high wage behaviour that attracts and pull immigrants in from societies with an excess of labour and low labour demand (O'Reilly, 2015). Furthermore, theorists of segmented labour market theory argue that the world economies are structured and required the immigration intervention (O'Reilly, 2015). They describe the developed economies with the dualistic market in which the primary market is very secured with well-paid jobs and secondary market of low-paid jobs that require to recruit immigrants to fill this gap of jobs (O'Reilly, 2015). Lastly, the theorists of the world-systems theory believe that international migration is a result product derived from global capitalism. People tend to migrate from poor countries of the periphery to the developed countries of the core (O'Reilly, 2015). Moreover, industrialised countries have created the structural economic problems in their First World and incite push factors in the poor underdeveloped countries of the Third World (O'Reilly, 2015).

It is important to note that there is no single theory that can explain comprehensively the migration process, but the push-pull theory remains a crucial theory that explains why people migrate.

3.2.2 Refugee theory

The author Rogge (1994) explained that the socio-economic factors which can drive refugee migration, do not equally affect every individual migrant. The refugee migrations vary with their differences as well as their causes and people will always have numerous perceptions of how they perceive and react to threats that cause them

the fear of fleeing their homelands. Furthermore, Shawa (2012) and Collins (1996) argue that political instability is the most case that can push people to migrate and it can be enough for people to flee their place when they face with violent social conflicts.

In the African context, Rogge (1994) argues that the distinction between the political and economic causes of migration in Africa is indistinct and shadowy and as consequence, many refugees may be considered as economic migrants. However, from this misrepresentation, Collins (1996) developed another definition different from that one of Rogge (1994) and identified two categories of migration: forced and impelled migrants and refugees.

Forced migrants and refugees are displaced from their area by an external force, for example, the government and they move without being given a choice in their displacement. At this point, Shawa (2012) provides an example of the South Africans have been forced to displace from their homelands in the period of Apartheid. On the other hand, the impelled migrants and refugees maintain some degree of choice and the decision regarding their possible displacement direction (Collins, 1996). Before moving, the migrants in their decision, they have the opportunity to judge and react to the factors implicated and choose whether to move or to stay regarding the external threats. Collins (1996) concludes that most of the migration in Africa is impelled.

This study employed a particular approach of Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) as the theoretical framework to explore the challenges faced by refugees and their livelihood strategies.

3.2.3 Sustainable Livelihood Framework as a theoretical BASIS of the study

3.2.3.1 Understanding the concept

The Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) is a framework that describes, analyses and assists in understanding the causes and patterns of poverty and the strategies used to access scarce resources in the community. The concept of sustainable livelihood is accredited to Robert Chambers at the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) in Brighton in the United Kingdom and the key reference is the work of Chambers and Gordon Conway in their 1992 discussion paper (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Their working definition is not that different from the definition thereafter adopted by

the Department for International Development (DFID). They describe sustainable livelihoods as follows:

"A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain and enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in short and long term" (Chambers & Conway, 1992:7).

The Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) has been used very successfully by many social practitioners researching the development field, most notably activities relating to the disadvantaged and vulnerable groups (Philander & Karriem, 2016; Valdés-Rodríguez & Pérez-Vásquez, 2011). Numerous authors have used the SLF in different fields of study. Philander and Karriem (2016) employed the SLF in the assessment of urban agriculture as a livelihood strategy for household food security in Cape Town. Furthermore, Elasha, Elhassan, Ahmed and Zakieldin (2005) used the SLF in the assessment of people's resistance and capacity (impacts and adaptation) to recover from climate change in Sudan. Others have adopted the SLF in assessing technologies of agriculture as livelihood strategies in rural communities.

3.2.3.2 Core principles

The Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) falls within people-centred development and participatory approaches. The framework examines the availability of resources, assets, and capabilities that poor people have to improve their state of well-being (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010; Krantz, 2001).

According to Chambers and Conway (1992), the term livelihood assumes the perception of capabilities that allow people to create their opportunities for access to assets. The opportunities and outlet to assets enable activities that allow people to gain the means of living and help them to achieve optimal well-being. Assets are defined as the resources, stores, claims and access to commodities (goods and services). Hence, beyond the theoretical approach to poverty reduction, the SLF refers to the extent of people's capacity and capability by adopting a holistic and dynamic approach and focusing on numerous crucial factors, which according to Philander and Karriem (2016) can restrain or improve a poor household's ability to make a living.

The SLF determines the relationship between people and their surrounding environment that influences the outcomes of livelihood strategies. A livelihood strategy is defined as various activities assumed by households to produce a means of living (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Philander and Karriem (2016) note that without embracing different livelihood strategies, poor households would not be capable of living a sustainable productive and healthy life. Households adopt different livelihood strategies to enhance their standard of living, be more food secure and to generate an income. Furthermore, the diversification of livelihood strategies helps households to resistant to shocks and stresses and to cope better from adverse situations. The capacity of people to engage in different livelihood strategies is determined by their capabilities, resources and assets (Chambers & Conway, 1992).

A livelihood is sustainable when it is flexible and keeps its shape in coping with and recovering from external shock and stress (GLOPP, 2008). The sustainability of livelihood will be determined by its independence from external support and its ability to retain the long-term productivity of natural resources without harming the surrounding environment. A livelihood is described as sustainable when it does not compromise livelihood of others including the future generation (GLOPP, 2008).

3.2.3.3 Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

The Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) as adopted by the Department for International Development (GLOPP, 2008; DFID, 1999), it is a tool used for development work. It can be also understood as a checklist to analyse poverty. The SLF is used to examine and identify the main factors that have an impact on the livelihoods of poor people (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010; Carney, et al., 1999). Ashley and Carney (1999) noted that the SLF does not simply identify the reality, but the approach makes it easier to understand the various factors that influence the limitation or improvement of livelihood opportunities and how these factors interact each other. Generally, the framework provides a means to detect various constraints and opportunities on livelihoods and guarantees relevant elements impacting on livelihoods are not overlooked. The overall theoretical framework for sustainable livelihoods is illustrated in Figure 2.1 below (see also DFID, 1999:3; Adato & Meinzen-Dick, 2002:5-12).

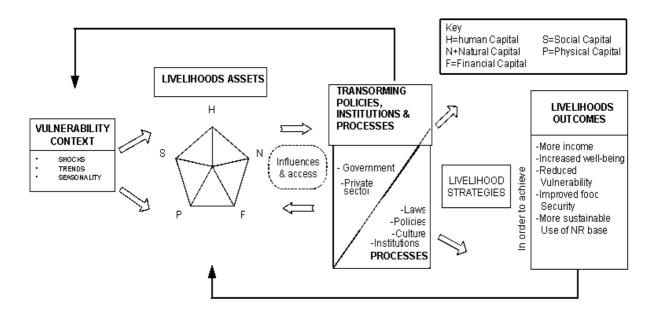


Figure 3. 1 The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (DFID, 1999:3)

Figure 3.1 illustrates the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework as it examines how people engage in different activities as operating in a context of vulnerability within which they have access to resources (assets) and how they cope with shocks, trends and seasonality. Access is gained to available resources through policies and institutions which determines who gets access to assets. An understanding of the vulnerability context provides information relating to how people embrace different livelihood strategies available to them to achieve their self-defined favourable livelihood outcome (Philander & Karriem, 2016; Adato & Meinzen-Dick, 2002). The function of the main elements of the SLF can be summarised as follows:

3.2.3.3.1 Vulnerability context

The vulnerability context shapes the external environment in which people live (GLOPP, 2008). It is understood as those external factors that might influence livelihoods assets. The vulnerability can either contribute positively or negatively to livelihoods and can include shocks and trends that are seasonal and beyond the control of the individual, community or society (Adato & Meinzen-Dick, 2002; De Satge, Holloway, Mullins & Ward, 2002). Shocks can be conflict, changes in health, threats and natural disasters and economic changes, whereas trends refer to changing economic trends, technological trends and changes in political systems. Seasonality

can refer to shifts in prices, employment opportunities and agriculture production (Chambers & Conway, 1992).

In this study, the vulnerability context includes two main factors which have a direct impact on the opportunities available to asylum seekers and refugees to make a living, both now and in the future. Firstly, general trends like national economic and political systems of South Africa can generate either more or fewer opportunities. Secondly, the shocks such as xenophobic attacks, illness, death or conflict can limit refugees and asylum seekers from an important source of income and can result in the loss of some of the assets that they have built up.

3.2.3.3.2 Livelihoods assets

The notion of assets is a central part of the SLF. According to the theoretical framework, livelihoods are built on five types of assets or capitals as part of the SLF, namely human capital, social capital, natural capital, physical capital and financial capital (Adato & Meinzen-Dick, 2002; Twigg, 2001). These assets can be classified into tangible or intangible categories. Chambers and Conway (1992) define tangible assets as available resources and stores that includes land, water, food reserves and cash. They further define intangible assets as support like food, family support, or organisational support received by the household. People require a range of livelihood assets to achieve desired livelihood outcome and the more assets they can access, the higher the likelihood of their enjoying a good quality of life (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Different livelihoods assets are defined as the following five capitals:

Human capital

The concept of human capital is very widespread in an organisation or community in terms of techniques such as the strategic management of human resources (Adato & Meinzen-Dick, 2002). Human capital is considered as an asset or a resource that increases the productivity of individuals or communities (Philander & Karriem, 2016; GLOPP, 2008). It comprises the skills, knowledge, education, training, the ability to work and good health which the labour force possesses which, when combined, allow people to engage in different livelihood strategies and satisfy their desired livelihoods outcomes (Philander & Karriem, 2016; Diebolt, Haupert & Goldin, 2014; GLOPP, 2008). Human capital refers to all attributes of labour that facilitate the individuals to

create personal, social and economic well-being by embracing different livelihood strategies to achieve such livelihood outcomes (GLOPP, 2008; DFID, 1999).

Social capital

The concept of social capital in the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) refers to social resources that facilitate people to make a living and achieve their livelihoods outcomes (DFID, 1999). Social resources in the community are institutions, relationships of people either with other people (group or organisation) or with local people of the community and norms that enable cooperation among people in the community (Philander & Karriem, 2016; Durlauf & Fafchamps, 2003). Furthermore, social capital is centred on relationships of trust, social networks, beliefs, values and norms that facilitate collective actions among people in the community (Philander & Karriem, 2016; Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009).

Social capital exists in different hierarchies in society. The existing literature classifies social capital into two main categories, namely individual and collective levels and micro, meso and macro levels (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009). Firstly, in the individual and collective levels, social capital is regarded as an individual attribute such as individual goods or a community attribute such as collective goods (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009). Secondly, social capital at multiple levels (micro, meso and macro levels) is seen differently from the individual and collective levels (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009). At the micro level, social capital refers to relationships and networks between individuals in households and neighbourhoods and refers to the value of collective actions of individuals (Philander & Karriem, 2016; Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009). At the meso level, social capital refers to the relationship between communities, groups or firms, institutions and organisations. Social capital at the meso level includes the structures that facilitate cooperation (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009). Lastly, viewing social capital at the macro level refers to the relations between regions, nations or states and focuses on their forms of institutional and political environment. This level implies the value of integration and social cohesion (Bhandari & Yasunobu, 2009).

Natural capital

The concept of natural capital refers to natural resources available to people in the community. People rely on natural resources such as land, soils, forests, water and air for their livelihoods. There are many discussions on natural capital in the literature.

The researchers Voora and Venema (2008), from the International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD), view natural capital as the stock of natural resources of the foundation for all human economic activities and the well-being of people.

Natural capital includes physical assets found in the natural environment that produces economic value for human well-being through ecosystem services (Voora & Venema, 2008). Therefore, human activity and human well-being imply the need for concern of the state of natural capital and its services. Natural capital can be described firstly as renewable or active natural resources due to its ability of self-maintenance, for example, solar energy. Secondly, it can be described as non-renewable or inactive natural resources including fossils fuels and mineral raw materials that are passive and formed over geologically long periods (Costanza & Delay, 1992).

Physical capital

The concept of physical capital refers to physical resources including basic infrastructure (namely shelter, transport, communication systems, water and sanitation systems and energy), and production inputs such as tools and equipment that people use to support their livelihoods (Kataria, Curtiss & Balmann, 2012). Physical capital is very important and like other livelihood assets, is one of the three main factors of production in economic theory (Kataria, Curtiss & Balmann, 2012). Other primary factors of production are labour (human resources) and land (natural resources) (Kataria, Curtiss & Balmann, 2012; Goodwin, 2003).

Physical capital encompasses produced assets (Goodwin, 2003). Furthermore, Goodwin (2003) defines the concept of physical capital as physical assets created from natural assets by application of human activities, which facilitate the production of goods and services for people. Physical capital comprises livelihood assets that are used in production and which are manufactured by humans (reproducible assets) (Kataria, Curtiss & Balmann, 2012; Goodwin, 2003).

People need physical assets for their well-being as the lack of adequate access to basic assets such as safe water and energy can affect the health and well-being of people and impact very badly on the lives of poor and disadvantaged people. Also, any cost associated with sub-standard infrastructure can likely obstruct education, access to medical assistance or income generation.

Financial capital

Financial capital refers to all financial assets that people use to achieve the desired objective. In the rural development context, financial capital encompasses financial assets such as savings, regular inflows of money and other financial services that enable firms and individual entrepreneurs to invest, to create or to develop a business (Curtiss, 2012). Within the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF), financial capital describes all financial assets such as flows and stocks. This definition refers to the consumption as well as the production of assets and captures the livelihood building block such as the cash available or equivalent that enables people to embrace different livelihood strategies and achieve desired livelihood outcomes (UNDP, 2017).

The UNDP (2017) identifies two main sources of financial capital namely available stocks and regular inflows of money. Firstly, available stocks include savings that can be held in various forms of cash, bank deposit or liquid assets (livestock and jewellery). Available stocks can also include credit obtained from institutions. Secondly, regular inflows of money exclude any kind of earned income. They refer to pensions and other transfers from the state, payments for environmental services and remittances. Therefore, these inflows must be reliable to have a significant impact on livelihood outcome of beneficiaries and a positive contribution to financial capital as there is a difference in once-off payments and regular cash transfers in which people can plan investments (UNDP, 2017; Scoones 1998). However, research shows that financial capital is one of the five assets that are less available for poor and disadvantaged people as the other remaining assets tend to take precedence (UNDP, 2017).

This research will be focused on an investigation of how the different available assets are employed by case study respondents and how they are positioned concerning the vulnerability setting which they find themselves in and by what strategies are used to achieve the desired livelihood outcome.

3.2.3.3 Policies, Institutions and Processes

Policies, institutions and processes have a significant impact on how people use their resources and embrace different livelihood strategies. They determine access to resources, livelihood strategies and decision-making (Serrat, 2017). Policies, institutions and processes also define the terms of exchange between different assets

and returns to a specific livelihood strategy (Serrat, 2017; Adato & Meinzen-Dick, 2002).

It is important to note that the livelihood strategies and outcomes are not only strongly defined by the vulnerability context and access to capital but also influenced by structures such as policies and institutions that control and influence who gains access to resources (assets) (Serrat, 2017; Adato & Meinzen-Dick, 2002; DFID, 1999).

Within the SLF, structures and processes for transformation comprise institutions, organisations, policies and legislations, and they help to shape livelihoods (Serrat, 2017; UNDP, 2017). They function at all levels from the micro household level to the international macro level. Firstly, they further determine access to capitals, livelihood strategies, decision-makers and influencers. Secondly, they define the terms of exchanges between different types of capital. Lastly, they determine socio-economic gains or any other form of yield resulting from specific livelihood strategies (Serrat, 2017; UNDP, 2017). Using the SLF model enables a comprehensive analysis between different levels and contexts where there is a clear exposure of vulnerabilities and capacities of people in each context and display of livelihood strategy decisions. Furthermore, in the community, structures and processes for transformation act effectively on the inclusion and well-being of poor and disadvantaged people and have a direct and significant impact on their livelihoods (Serrat, 2017; DFID, 1999).

3.2.3.3.4 Livelihood strategies

Livelihood strategies include numerous activities and choices assumed by people to achieve their desired goals. These livelihood strategies are directly dependent on assets (capitals) and structures (institutions, policies and processes). Therefore, people generate livelihoods by engaging in different activities and exploiting their capabilities and assets to achieve beneficial livelihood outcomes. It should be understood that people achieve numerous livelihood outcomes by adopting different livelihoods strategies (Philander & Karriem, 2016). SLF refers to livelihood strategies such as migration, urban agriculture and agriculture technology undertaken by poor households, migrants and disadvantaged people to substitute their gained income and food supply to increase their well-being.

3.2.3.3.5 Livelihood outcomes

Livelihood outcomes can be understood as an improvement in the overall quality of life. This includes an increased income, being more food secure, enjoying an increased standard of living (well-being), decreased levels of vulnerability, improvement of using natural resources sustainably and regaining human dignity (Serrat, 2017). While livelihood outcomes refer to the outputs of livelihood strategies, they are not seen as the endpoint of strategies to achieve sustainable livelihoods. These livelihood outcomes can be reproduced as future livelihood assets and can help to build and strengthen the forms of capital (assets) in the continuing cycle of SLF (Serrat, 2017).

3.2.3.4 Application of the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) to the research

A detailed investigation of the challenges of accessing labour markets for asylum seekers and refugees and their living conditions will be the starting point of this research, using the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF) as a guide.

Although the SLF is usually employed as an analytical tool to understand poverty, in this study the SLF was employed to assess livelihood strategies and livelihood outcomes of refugees and asylum seekers in the selected case study area. The SLF was used to gain insight into the well-being of asylum seekers and refugees of the case study area by considering their vulnerability and assets and to examine the resources that asylum seekers and refugees have access to and the resultant strengthening of their capabilities. The research further interrogated the structures and processes that impact on their livelihoods and explored the challenges faced by asylum seekers and refugees when seeking employment. Finally, attention was focused on examining the mechanisms and different coping strategies used when accessing employment opportunities and their attempts to overcome challenges in the case study area. In this study, the use of the SLF enabled interrogation of the main challenges which prevent refugees and asylum seekers to access employment and important issues that affect their livelihoods. The SLF also enabled an understanding of the main barriers that limit the full realisation of desired livelihood outcomes for refugees and asylum seekers.

3.2.3.5 Strengths and limitations of the SLF

3.2.3.5.1 Strengths

The SLF is well recognised as a flexible framework which can be used and adapted to any field of study within the context of analysing the lives of the vulnerable and disadvantaged. The SLF has been used in various contexts such as agriculture, poverty reduction and development projects in rural and urban development (Philander & Karriem, 2016; Scoones, 1998). One of its strengths is that it provides a practical perspective on poverty reduction when it is used effectively (Serrat, 2017). The use of the SLF integrates the four pillars of development (economic, social, institutional, and environmental) (Serrat, 2017; GLOPP, 2008) and thus can be viewed as a holistic development framework.

The SLF is a bottom-up method approach to development that examines people's attempts to strengthen their capabilities and make choices uses their livelihood assets and outcomes (Serrat, 2017; Krantz, 2001). The approach does not disprove other development approaches such as Participatory Poverty Assessment (PPA), People-centred development, Good Governance Assessment techniques and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA). The SLF attempts to combine these approaches and take advantage of their strengths instead of contradicting them (GLOPP, 2008).

3.2.3.5.2 Limitations UNIVERSITY of the

Despite its strengths, according to the literature, the SLF has some limitations. It pays too much attention to the micro level such as the local community and individuals rather than focusing on the macro level like state and the international community (Petersen & Pedersen, 2010). In addition, it has been stated that even if the SLF defines how micro and macro levels are interrelated, the framework does not provide guidelines of how politics should be transformed to ensure the sustainability of interventions at the micro level (Serrat, 2017; Krantz, 2001).

It was proven by many scholars that the SLF cannot stand on its own when designing and implementing development activities. Some scholars argue that the Livelihood approaches underestimate the consequences that may occur in a holistic overview of which a group of people might benefit in development activity. They add that the assessment of enhancing the livelihoods of specific people can negatively affect and weaken others' livelihoods (Serrat, 2017; GLOPP, 2008).

3.3 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This section provides an extensive, comprehensive explanation for the migration process, the labour market in the migration context, migrants, refugees and asylum seekers. It further places refugees in a frame with structures and processes available to them, their challenges and expectations.

3.3.1 Understanding the concept of migration

Migration is defined as the movement of people from one place to another place for diverse reasons such as political, social or economic (Kok, 1999). There are different types of migration defining human mobility (Kok, 1999). The types of migration are, firstly, internal migration is the movement of people within a country, state or continent. Secondly, the external migration is the movement of people leaving to a different state, country or continent. Thirdly, emigration is defined as the movement of people from one country and moving to another. Fourthly, immigration defined as the movements of people coming into another country. Fifthly, seasonal migration, that occurs when people move according to the season due to the labour seeking or climate conditions. Lastly, the return migration that occurs when people move back to where they came from (Kok, 1999).

UNIVERSITY of the

3.3.2 Understanding People Seeking International Protection From Migration

3.3.2.1 Migrant

It is important to note that there is no universal definition of migrant accepted yet at the international level (IOM, 2019; UN, 2019). International Organisation for Migration (IOM, 2019) defines a migrant as someone who moves away from his place of mostly dwelling place. This person's mobility is localised either inside the country or outside the country across the international border for several reasons such as political, social and economic reasons. The term migrant categorises people who are legally well-defined, like migrant workers, people whose specific movements are legally defined like undocumented migrants (illegal migrants) and people whose legal mobility status is not explicitly defined under international law such as migrant students (IOM, 2019).

3.3.2.2 Refugee and asylum seeker

A refugee is someone who flees from his home country to a foreign country out of fear of danger or fear of being persecuted and seeks refuge in a foreign country (UNHCR, 2005). The UNHCR (2005) adds that a refugee is any person who flees aggression and persecution for diverse reasons. Some of the reasons are race, religion, nationality, membership to a particular social group or political opinion. This person is recognised as a refugee if he is outside of his country or nationality and is unable or unwilling to return to his home country in fear of persecution (UNHCR, 2005). According to the UNHCR (2005), an asylum seeker is defined as a person who registers as a refugee but whose request and application demand are not yet examined.

The concept of refugee and asylum seeker are often undifferentiated. Both are interchangeable and one can be used in the place of other indistinguishably (Shawa, 2012). The South African Department of Home Affairs (DHA) often employs the term refugee to mention all refugees and asylum seekers (Shawa, 2012). The DHA considers refugees and asylum seekers as the same because they all represent people who are seeking refuge and protection in another country. They are forced to leave their home country for reasons such as wars, unstable political government or genocide (DHA, 2011). In this study, the term refugee will include both asylum seekers and refugees without distinction.

3.3.3 Labour market

Parkin et al (2010) define the labour market as a market where a quantity of labour services is offered in exchange for wages. In the migration context, a labour market is understood as one of the push or pull factors (in sending and receiving communities) that oblige people to move out of low growth areas to high growth regions (Kollamparambil, 2017).

WESTERN CAPE

The labour market participation rate includes all employed people as well as unemployed people who are actively looking for a job divided by the total number of people in the labour force. The labour force is defined as people employed and unemployed aged between 15-65 years (Kollamparambil, 2017; Parkin, et al., 2010).

3.3.3.1 Formal economy

The distinction and lines between formal and informal economic activity are not consistently clear. Moreover, since the 1970s, the informal economic activity has brought attention and interest of the studies by scholars and policymakers due to its economic and social role in the economy (De Beer, Fu & Wunsch-Vincent, 2013). According to De Beer, Fu and Wunsch-Vincent (2013), the formal economy refers to the sector that embraces all jobs or economic activities that follow rules and regulations such as normal hours, regular and structured wages, and registration as business entities by administrative authorities. They are recognised as a source of income with taxes to be paid according to the income gained (De Beer, Fu & Wunsch-Vincent, 2013).

3.3.3.2 Informal economy

It is important to delimit the scope of examination by describing core characteristics that differentiate the informal economy from the formal economy. The term informal economy preferably reflects the traditional informal sector since informal workers and informal activities do not only affiliated to one sector of economic activity but extend across other sectors (Pisică, Vasile, & Voineagu, 2012). Therefore, the informal sector consists of all economic activities assumed by low-income workers which is mostly constituted of people with low skills including unskilled migrants (Pisică, Vasile, & Voineagu, 2012).

3.3.4 Conceptual Model for Understanding the Challenges of Refugees

Refugees and asylum seekers according to Rogge's refugee theory (1994) are classified into two major groups such as forced and impelled categories. They encounter many problems in their arrival and stay in the host country including the challenges related to access to employment, education, housing, marginalisation and exclusion. Furthermore, refugees often flee their home country seeking to find freedom and better livelihoods. In the host country, there are various structures and processes constraining refugees' access to livelihood assets. These structures and processes include laws, policies, culture, and institutions in the host country available to refugees. This study is focusing on the challenges impacting refugees and asylum seekers when accessing employment and social services in Cape Town, South Africa, with Bellville

as the case study. Figure 3.2 below is the frame of refugee and available structures and processes that used to understand the challenges of refugees in the study.

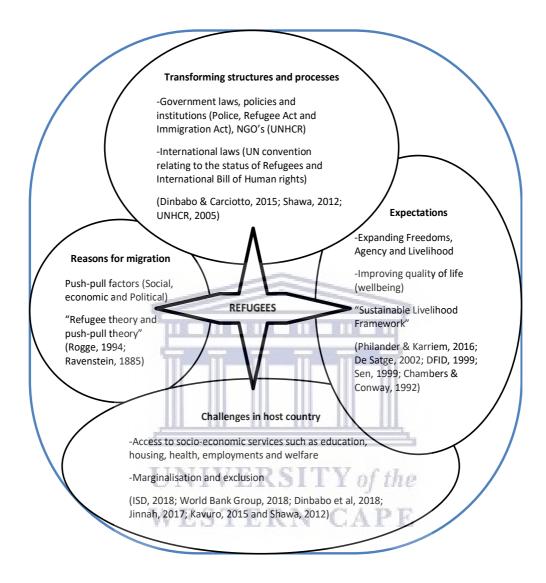


Figure 3.2 Adapted frame of refugees within available structures and processes, challenges and expectations (Researcher's construct adapted from Shawa, 2012:18)

3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed some of the migration theories that explain the migration process including refugee theory and push-pull theory as well as its variant theories. The chapter also discussed the rationale of using the SLF as the theoretical framework of the study and outlined its core elements and principles. The discussion presented reasons why the SLF is a practical theoretical tool to explore various challenges of accessing labour markets for asylum seekers and refugees when they attempt to find employment. The chapter has further highlighted how various livelihood assets and livelihood strategies are used by disadvantaged groups to assist them to deal with vulnerability contexts. The application of the SLF to this study was articulated and the strengths and limitations of the SLF were presented. Finally, the chapter provides, in the conceptual framework, an extensive clarification of the concepts related to the study. It defined the concept of migration, labour market, migrant, refugee and asylum seeker and placed refugee in the frame of available structures and process, their challenges and expectations. The next chapter deals with the research methodology followed in this work.

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Research methodology is a systematic way to find a solution to, an explanation of, or means of effectively coping with a problem (Rajasekar, Philominathan & Chinnathambi, 2013). According to Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi (2013), in research, the methodology section helps and grants the reader to critically and logically assess a study's overall quality, solidity and accuracy. Therefore, this chapter presents the methodology followed in this research. It outlines in detail the procedure or techniques used to identify the research population and to select the study population with the application of certain sampling criteria. Furthermore, the chapter provides the rationale on why such a sampling method and research population were chosen. It presents also the instruments used in the data collection and the method used to analyse the data in the study process. Finally, before summarising this chapter, the ethical considerations followed in the data collection during this study process, are presented.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Babbie and Mouton (2001) define the research design as a plan or a blueprint of how a researcher conducts research. Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004) further state that the research design consists of the overall strategy used by the researcher to examine and conduct the study logically and coherently.

In this research, a case study approach has been used to gain an in-depth understanding of the mechanisms and coping strategies used by refugees and asylum seekers to access job opportunities and to overcome challenges experienced within the City of Cape Town. This research collected primary data using a mixed-method approach including both quantitative and qualitative methods to strengthen the quality of confidence in the study. The research has been conducted in a natural setting where the researcher was directly in interaction with the refugees in Bellville.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In social science, research methodologies include qualitative, quantitative and participatory research (De Vos, 2002; Mouton, 2001). Qualitative research aims to gather an in-depth understanding of human behaviour and the reasons that govern

such behaviour. Qualitative methods attempt to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in its natural setting in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2011; Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004; Mouton, 2001). Quantitative research, on the other hand, focusses on gathering numerical data and measuring variables and testing hypotheses linked to the general case to explain patterns apparent within phenomena (Creswell, 2003; Babbie, 2007; Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In this research, a mixed-method approach enhanced the investigation of the challenges facing asylum seekers and refugees when accessing the labour market. An investigation of this nature required both qualitative and quantitative methodological tools since the weakness of one can be completed by the strength of the other (Babbie, 2007).

4.3.1 Quantitative Methods

The quantitative method used to collect data from refugees and asylum seekers in the form of a structured questionnaire which mainly included closed-ended questions. This method was useful for the researcher to collect numerical data from the respondents.

4.3.1.1 Structured questionnaire

According to Bird (2009), a structured questionnaire is one of the research instruments for data collection that enables the standardisation of answers from respondents of the study and make easier the data compilation in the research process. Structured or close-ended questionnaire was used and focused in this study on gathering demographic, socio-economic and political information from asylum seekers and refugees. A total of 30 refugees were selected. Questions linked to the overall focus of the research question and provided insight into the living circumstances and background of asylum seekers and refugees. The questionnaire further gathered information relating to access to assets and the coping strategies used by respondents to overcome challenges concerning accessing the labour market.

4.3.1.2 Sampling

The sample is defined as the small representation of the whole population in the study (De Vos, 2002). According to Marshall (1996), the selection of the sample is an important stage in the study as it is not often effective and realistic to study the whole population.

In this study, the representative sample will be selected by using the non-probability sampling technique. Both purposive and snowball sampling approaches will be used. In purposive sampling approach, the sample size representative is composed of the elements of the same character attributing to the population being investigated. Also, snowball sampling approach is often employed in the field research where a participant interviewed may be asked to suggest additional people be interviewed (De Vos, 2002; Babbie 2007). Initially, purposive sampling was employed to select some refugees and asylum seekers working in Bellville who is known to the researcher. Thereafter, snowball sampling was used to extend the sample and reach more participants. This has been achieved by asking the first wave of respondents to refer to other respondents known to them to be interviewed. For this study, the sample size selected is 30 respondents. The researcher interviewed each respondent and the length of each interview was expected to take between 45 to 60 minutes.

4.3.2 Qualitative Methods

Qualitative methods allow the researcher to get in-depth data on perspectives of population study (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2011). Qualitative methods were used to collect data from asylum seekers and refugees, owners of businesses and organisations (employers). Interviews with employers and organisations were focused and based on perceptions of the challenges experienced by the refugees within their organisation. The researcher collected data from asylum seekers and refugees on challenges they face when attempting to access the labour market and livelihood strategies used in the process. This method was useful for the researcher and enabled refugees, employers and organisations the autonomy of expression in the identification of the challenges of refugees. Furthermore, the method also enabled the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of the problem under investigation and insight into the livelihoods of asylum seekers and refugees.

4.3.2.1 Observation

In this study, the researcher observed the activities of refugees throughout the entire research process and the behaviour of individuals and the group. Such a method attempts to obtain a snapshot of a particular case in its natural setting and the context within which the group interacts (Bryant, 2015). This method included observation of the dynamics exhibited in their daily activities such as trading, their products at spaza

shops and shebeens. This approach was helpful and enabled the researcher to obtain a deeper appreciation and understanding of the strategies and challenges of refugees within the labour market.

4.3.2.2 Semi-structured interview

Interviews are systematically a technique of having a conversation and listening (verbal communication) between the researcher and participants in the descriptive study to achieve extremely customised data (Mathers, Fox & Hunn, 2000).

Semi-structured interviews were used as one of the qualitative methods to answer the research question. The interview was comprised of open-ended questions to collect in-depth information from interviewees. It was designed to provide clarification of the response provided by the structured questionnaire were needed and further illuminated and built on questionnaire responses. The researcher selected a total of 15 respondents as the sample. This included targeting 3 owners of businesses and 2 organisations that support refugees. The owners of businesses and organisations have been identified by using purposive sampling. The researcher selected 10 refugees from the quantitative sample who are representative of the overall group. This included both employed and unemployed asylum seekers and refugees. Questions directed towards respondents are based on themes which include challenges faced by refugees in accessing the labour market and strategies employed by refugees to access labour markets. Questions directed towards owners of the businesses and organisations focused on refugees as employees within their organisations focusing on questions such as reasons for employment, quality of work of refugees and satisfaction with their work ethic and skill level.

4.4 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

The data analysis is important as it provides and serves a stage from the movement of data to the information needed from the research (Kultar, 2007). This study employed the mixed-method approach and the researcher analysed data using quantitative and qualitative methods. Firstly, the researcher gathered and analysed quantitative data. This was accompanied by the gathering and analysis of qualitative data to get an in-depth understanding of the research question and give width to the quantitative data. According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter (2011), the advantage of this approach is that quantitative data and its analysis generate general

assimilation and insight of the research problem while the qualitative data clarify in detail the statistical results into and out of exploring the views of the population in the study. The data were presented in tables, graphs, figures and charts.

4.4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis in this research attempted to find numerical data collected using questionnaires and present them to inspect all of the inventory from the study. Firstly, data were captured using the questionnaire and secondly, transferred from the questionnaire to Microsoft Excel (Ms Excel). At this stage of data entry, data were tabulated and coded. The researcher re-read the data and made the juxtaposition with questionnaires to identify the errors. Thirdly, data were imported from Ms Excel to the statistical software STATA version 14 for analysis. In the first place, the researcher presented data using descriptive statistics in which he proceeded with the univariate analysis. According to Babbie (2007), the univariate analysis is defined as statistical analysis that analysed one variable at a time and its main purpose is to describe and summarise data. This analysis does not deal with the causes or relationships, but it summarises the data and identifies patterns in the data instead (Babbie, 2007). Descriptive statistics were presented in tables, graphs, charts and figures to show the frequency of the variables, and to describe the demographic and socio-economic characteristics data of the respondents in this research such as age, legal status, household income, education and remittance. In the second place, the researcher described two variables and tested relationships between two or more variables by using inferential statistics.

4.4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

While quantitative data in this research have been processed through questionnaires, qualitative data have been generated by re-reading spoken words of respondents through interviews and followed by re-reading the text from the contextualisation of the study through the observation of the dynamic of activities exhibited in the case study (Bellville) and appreciation of the strategies and challenges of refugees and asylum seekers within the labour market. Qualitative data were analysed using thematic content analysis. According to Maguire and Delahunt (2017), thematic analysis is the process of analysing data by determining patterns or themes through qualitative data collected in the study. The researcher followed Braun and Clarke's six steps of

qualitative data thematic analysis including become familiar with the data, generate initial codes, search for themes, review of themes, define themes and write-up (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017). The steps employed by the researcher are the following:

4.4.2.1 Familiarise with the data

The researcher transcribed the recordings from the interviews. He read and re-read the transcriptions during which he makes notes and summarises every transcription.

4.4.2.2 Generate initial codes

Secondly, when the researcher became familiar with the data, using the research question as a guide, he proceeded by determining the preliminary codes. Using a draft table, the researcher wrote then categorised and organised the transcription data in a table, per the determined codes indicated on top of the table.

4.4.2.3 Search for themes

The next step consists of searching for themes, the researcher arranged the determined codes into categories of themes. At this step, the researcher merged and or divided the codes following the determining themes, to form the reasonable and controllable themes that may explain specifically the research question.

4.4.2.4 Review themes

In this phase, the researcher arranged, modified and developed the preliminary themes identified in the previous step. At this step, the researcher rearranged all the data that is linked to each theme. He questioned himself if the themes make sense, if he fits into a theme or if the data support themes. The researcher further found the subthemes within themes.

UNIVERSITY of the

4.4.2.5 Define the themes

This is the final phase of refining and processing the themes. The researcher had the main intention of identifying the essence of each theme and the meaning of what each theme is about in terms of indispensable quality and nature of its output. After checking the meaning of each theme, He further verified if the subthemes interact and relate to the main theme determined.

4.4.2.6 Writing-up report

Generally, the final stage or endpoint of research (frequently dissertations and journal articles) is writing up the report. At this point, the researcher's qualitative data analysis process transforms themes into explainable information that is capable of being understood in terms of the research question and literature. The researcher then interpreted information and used it to give an in-depth understanding of the research question as well as explain further the quantitative data results of the study.

4.5 ETHICS STATEMENT

Many researchers such as Laws, Harper, Jones and Marcus (2003), Neuman (2011) and Babbie (2007), state that ethics play an important role in every aspect of research for development work. The importance of ethical considerations in social science research activity has been advocated. The ethical consideration in this study was based on the guarantee that the researcher ensures that there would be no harm or risk to the respondents. He made certain that all participants in the study were not harmed or exposed to risks from the research with any kind of harms or risks such as physical, psychological or material. The researcher communicated all information needed in the information sheet with regards to the context of the research and attained in return the informed consent by respondents. The researcher also kept the privacy, confidentiality and secrecy of the participants in the research. This study maintained the fair return for assistance and the rights in data and publications for the respondents that participated in the research.

The researcher conducted the study only after the research proposal was approved and once permission by the Senate Higher Degrees Committee of the University of the Western Cape (UWC) was given in December 2019. The researcher asked the participants and stakeholders involved in this study for permission to proceed and the study conducted only after their given consent. The ethical code of the UWC was adhered to throughout.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter dealt with the research methods used in this study, how data were collected, and which data collection tools were used. Furthermore, this chapter

discussed the sample population and the sampling methods and criteria used to attain a sample representative of the study.

Finally, in the concluding section, the researcher summarises the data analysis process and ethical considerations constraining this research

The following chapter discusses the research findings and presentation. It will further address research questions through the empirical data collected and methods discussed in chapter four.



CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the overall research findings of the study. It provides a detailed account of the empirical findings of the research and comprehensive analysis of the collected data. The chapter seeks to answer the research questions on challenges of accessing employment opportunities for asylum seekers and refugees on South African labour markets, Bellville. The questions on livelihood strategies used by refugees and asylum seekers to access employment are confronted within the presentation of research findings in this chapter. Furthermore, the questions on support structures available to refugees when attempting to access labour markets and their demographic and socio-economic overview are also addressed.

This chapter starts with presenting the nature and characteristics of refugee participants, then secondly, the discussion of findings. The findings are presented as descriptive statistics such as graphs, charts, figures, and tables, as well as inferential statistics to test the bivariate relationship and direct quotations. Furthermore, the findings of this research are analysed and discussed using a reference of relevant literature relating to the issue of asylum seekers and refugees as well as migration and the labour market.

5.2 THE OBSERVATIONAL PROFILE OF PARTICIPANTS IN BELLVILLE

This research was comprised of mixed methods approach to enhance a deep investigation of the challenges facing asylum seekers and refugees when accessing employment opportunities on South African labour markets. The quantitative part of the study had a total of 30 respondents (asylum seekers and refugees) as the sample that participates in the research while the qualitative part held a total of 15 respondents as the sample. This includes 10 respondents (asylum seekers and refugees) selected purposively from the quantitative sample that represent the overall group and 5 respondents representing 3 owners of the businesses that employ refugees and 2 organisations that support refugees.

Generally, migrants including refugees and asylum seekers in Bellville engage in different employment activities within the informal and formal sectors such as street vendors (traders/hawkers), hairdressers, tailors, domestic workers, cashiers, transport, and restaurant services. Bellville is mostly known for its famous Ethiopian and Somalis restaurants. Due to the culture and business activities of Somalis and East African people on Durban road and around the railway station, they renamed the busy place at the bottom of Durban road as Somali Town or Little Mogadishu and the surroundings of Bellville railway station as East African Town, inspired no doubt by the China Towns or Little Tokyos in the USA. Most of the migrant refugees and asylum seekers working in Bellville live in other suburban locations within the city of Cape Town, but they have informal businesses in Bellville as it is the business hub of the Northern Suburbs. Many of migrant refugees and asylum seekers are from East Africa, Somalia, Ethiopia and Zimbabwe, and are youth with low incomes. This section presents the findings of the descriptive statistics, showing characteristics of refugee participants in the study.

5.2.1 Demographic Information

The findings on demographic information of the participants are based on their country of origin (their nationality, gender, marital status, age, household size, and migration information). This section provides a demographic overview of refugee participants and the results are associated with the demographic information of refugees and asylum seekers in the case study area.

5.2.1.1 Home country of participants

The results of findings acquired from this study show that the findings are out of the sample of 30 participants in which 16.67% participants are from the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), 6.67% participants are from Burundi, 16.67% participants are from Rwanda, 13.33% participants are from Ethiopia, 20% participants are from Somalia, 6,67% participants are from Uganda, 13.33% participants are from Zimbabwe and 6.67% participants are from other countries namely the Republic of Cameroun and the Republic of Congo (Congo-Brazzaville) (see Table 5.1).

TERN CAPE

Table 5. 1 Nationality of the participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020)

Country	Percentage
DRC	16.67
Burundi	6.67
Rwanda	16.67
Ethiopia	13.33
Somalia	20.00
Uganda	6.67
Zimbabwe	13.33
Other	6.67
Total	100.00

Most of the participants in this study are from Somalia, followed by Great Lakes countries of East Africa (including DRC, Rwanda and Burundi), Ethiopia, Zimbabwe, Uganda, the Republic of Cameroun and the Republic of Congo. Statistics on this study sample show how Bellville is the busiest area in which most traders are Somalis, Ethiopians, or migrants from the great lakes of East Africa (DRC, Rwanda, Uganda and Burundi) (Gastrow & Amit, 2013; Nicholson, 2011). Furthermore, the reason behind renaming the places of the bottom of Durban road as Somali Town or Little Mogadishu and the periphery of the Bellville railway station as East African Town explain how Somalis migrants and migrants from East Africa found Bellville as a safe place to run their businesses (Williams, 2015; Alhourani, 2015).

5.2.1.2 Gender and marital status V R R S I T V of the

Concerning the gender of the participants, the population of refugees sampled, 30% of participants are female and 70% of participants are male. These statistics of gender imbalance presented in Table 5.2 are explaining by how most migrants who are running businesses in Bellville are men, only a few females who are engaged in street trade and hairdressing (Williams, 2015; Nicholson, 2011). Furthermore, the gender imbalance can be explained by the migration system approach, in which it was proved by researchers that men are more likely to migrate than women (Antman, 2018; Jolly & Reeves, 2005; Ravenstein, 1885). With regards to the marital status, the study revealed that 43.33% of participants are single, 50% of participants are married, and participants who are living with their partner and divorced are 3.33% respectively (See Table 5.2 below).

Table 5.2 Gender of the participants and Marital status (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

	Marital status								
Gender	Single/Never married	Married	Living with a partner	Divorced	Total				
Female	5	4	0	0	9				
	55.56	44.44	0.00	0.00	100.00				
Male	8	11	1	1	21				
	38.10	52.38	4.76	4.76	100.00				
Total	13	15	1	1	30				
	43.33	50.00	3.33	3.33	100.00				

It is well-known that most decisions for people to migrate are made by different economic, social and political reasons. According to Jolly and Reeves (2005), in Africa, the common perception is that men migrate more likely than women. Both men and women migration is motivated by seeking a better life and safety, but cultural restraints and gendered international migration policies may restrict women's potentialities to make a move of migrating. In most cases, women may migrate with the motivation of joining the spouse who migrated, evading gender-based violence or gender norms and conflicts as well (Antman, 2018; Jolly & Reeves, 2005). However, at a global level, since 1960, women tend to migrate on the same scale as men while in 1960, women comprised 47% of international migrants. They reached 48% in 1990 and nearly 49% of international migrants were female in 2000 (Jolly & Reeves, 2005). Furthermore, the recent data found an equal balance between men and women migrants due to an increase in migration possibilities for both men and women, strong partnerships, and gender equality (Antman, 2018).

5.2.1.3 Age category

The findings of the study indicated that most of the respondents are in the 18 to 25 and 26 to 35 years age groups, with 26.67% and 46.67% of participants respectively. 20% of participants are between the ages of 36 and 45 years, and participants between 46 and 55 and above 55 are 3.33% each. These statistics are supported by researchers, arguing that young people are far more likely to migrate than old people (Dodson, et al., 2008; Kannankutty & Burelli, 2007).

5.2.1.4 Migration information

This section consists of findings from the survey on refugees and explores the migrants' reasons for immigration, the duration of their stay in South Africa and Cape

Town, in particular, the size of the household and, their formal legal status in South Africa.

5.2.1.4.1 Legal status

The findings of this research show that participants are distributed into four types of legal status. Half of the participants have legal refugee status, followed by 36.67% of participants who are asylum seekers with a temporary permit. Participants with residence permits and those who are undocumented (stay illegally in South Africa) are 6.67% each (see table 5.3 below).

Table 5. 3 Legal status of participants by country of orgin. Source: Researcher's Field Survey (2020).

	Country								
Legal status	DRC	Burundi	Rwanda	Ethiopia	Somalia	Uganda	Zimbabwe	Other	Total
Asylum									
temporary		-							
permit	3	1	1	2	1	0	2	1	11
	60.00	50.00	20.00	50.00	16.67	0.00	50.00	50.00	36.67
Refugee status	1	1	4	2	5	1	0	1	15
	20.00	50.00	80.00	50.00	83.33	50.00	0.00	50.00	50.00
Residential									
permit	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	50.00	0.00	6.67
Undocumented	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
	20.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	50.00	0.00	0.00	6.67
Total	5	- 2	5	4	- 6	2	4	2	30
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

WESTERN CAPE

5.2.1.4.2 Reasons for leaving home country and motivation for moving to South Africa

Concerning the reasons for leaving the home country, Shawa (2012) argues that political instability in the country is one of the main reasons that push people to migrate. On the other hand, African refugee theory stipulates that political and economic reasons have a correlation with which many migrants are perceived as economic migrants in the host country (Rogge, 1994).

The Table 5.4 indicates that from the findings of this study, most of the participants left their respective home countries for political instability (i.e. 36.67%) followed by 33.33% of participants that indicate economic reasons as the motive for leaving their respective home countries.

Table 5. 4 Reasons for migration of participants by their country of origin. Source: Researcher's Field Survey (2020).

	Country								
Reasons for migration	DRC	Burun di	Rwan da	Ethio- pia	Somali a	Ugan da	Zim- babwe	Othe r	Total
Political instability	2	1	3	2	2	1	0	0	11
%	40	50	60	50	33	50	0	0	36
Economic reasons	2	0	ĮVF	RS.	0	of the	3	2	10
%	40	ov E	20	25	To CA	50	75	100	33.3
Social conflict	1	1	0	1	3	0	1	0	7
%	20	50	0	25	50	0	25	0	23.3
Forced	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
%	0	0	20	0	16.7	0	0	0	6.7
Total	5	2	5	4	6	2	4	2	30
%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

As the motive of coming to South Africa and not a different country, the findings of this study confirm with the literature where in most cases, migration is motivated by the educational needs (Shawa, 2012; Kannankutty & Burelli, 2007). Figure 5.1 indicates that the majority of participants (65.52%) cited educational opportunity as the motive

that attracted them to South Africa but only 34.48% of participants were not motivated by education. It is followed by the motivation of safety and security in which 55.17% of participants against 65.52% were motivated by the safe and secure place to stay. Also, 31.03% of participants against 68.97% mentioned the economic opportunities as the motivation for moving to South Africa while 13.79% of participants against 86.21% were motivated by friends who already stay in South Africa. Finally, 17.24% against 82.76% were motivated by the family in which the motive was to join their families in South Africa. Among respondents, 100% of participants were not motivated by any other motivation than education, economic opportunities, safety and security, friend and family (see Figure 5.1 below). The migration system theory discusses many aspects including networks of social relations of individuals migrants and their communities in which migration to occur, it necessitates social contacts over space and time (Thieme, 2006).

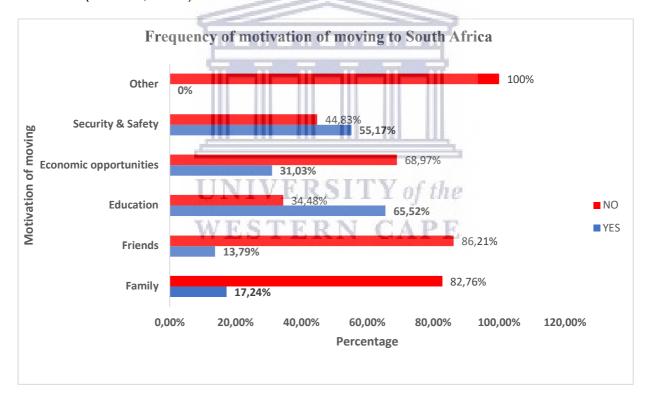


Figure 5. 1 Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020)

The results of findings from the study indicate that education and economic opportunities are major motivations that motivate migrants to leave their home countries. Looking back to the literature, Ravenstein (1885) concludes that migration is a result of macro-structures in interaction with micro-structures in which according

to Parkins (2010) and De Haas (2009), migration is primarily caused by the pull of external economic opportunities. Furthermore, the Ravenstein's push and pull framework presumes that migration empowers people to attain a particular economic equilibrium (Ravenstein, 1885).

5.2.1.4.3 Duration of stay in South Africa

The findings of this study presented in Table 5.5 indicated that many participants have stayed in South Africa for six years. Furthermore, the majority of participants who have stayed in South Africa for 6 to 10 years and a period of above 10 years are 36.67% respectively. The rest of the sample, that is 13.33% respectively of the participants, have stayed in South Africa for less than one year (6 to 12 months) and 2 to 5 years (see Table 5.5). The intense concentration of participants staying in South Africa in periods of 6 to 10 years and above 10 years supports the observation of Van Lennep (2019), Dinbabo and Nyasulu (2015), Tevera (2013) and Crush and Williams (2005).

Table 5. 5 Duration of stay of participants in south Africa. Source: Researcher's Field Survey (2020).

	Country								
Duration of					Somal		Zimbab		
stay in SA	DRC	Burundi	Rwanda	Ethiopia	ia	Uganda	we	Other	Total
7-12 months	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	4
%	20.0	50.0	0.0	25.0	0.0	50.0	0.0	0.0	13.33
2-5 years	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	4
%	0.0	0.0	20.0	25.0	16.67	0.0	25.0	0.0	13.33
6-10 years	3	0	1	0	3	of tha	1	2	11
%	60.0	0.0	20.0	0.0	50.0	50.0	25.0	100.0	36.67
Over 10 years	1	TAT1	3	2	2	0	2	0	11
%	20.0	50.0	60.0	50.0	33.33	0.00	50.0	0.0	36.67
Total	5	2	5	4	6	2	4	2	30
%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

5.2.1.4.4 Born in South Africa

The study attempted to investigate whether there are participants born in South Africa. Figure 5.2 reflects that of 30 respondents, only 10% born in South Africa and 90% have born outside South Africa who migrated to South Africa from their respective home countries. Under international law and the principle of family unity, the children and descendants of refugees are considered as refugees until further durable solutions (UN, 2015; Manby, 2011). However, the statistics show that children born in South Africa to foreign nationals (non-South African citizens) were 39% and 62% of children were born outside and migrated to South Africa for reasons of family tracing

and reunification. Overall children born from the foreign nationals reported by the research report of Scalabrini Centre of Cape Town, the Western Cape is the second province after Gauteng province to have children born in South Africa from the foreign nationals with 19% and 52% of children respectively (Manicom, 2019). With 19% of children born in South Africa counted in the Western Cape province, this province recognises also children born outside South Africa with 41% of children born in DRC, 12% were born in Burundi and 10% were born in Angola (Manicom, 2019).

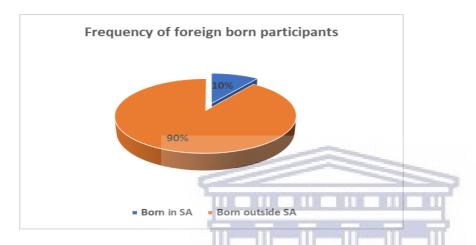


Figure 5. 2 Foreign-born participants in South Africa (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

5.2.2 Socio-economic characteristics of participants

The social capital theory assumes that migrants in host countries do not come with possession of any other resource than the human resource (Bourdieu, 1979). However, this human resource is indicated by the skills, experience, education, trust and network (Maggard, 2004). Migrant refugees in our case study came to Cape Town with mainly human and social resources. This section provides a socio-economic overview of refugee participants and the results are associated with the socio-economic information of refugees and asylum seekers in the case study area.

5.2.2.1 Language skills

The survey study shows that many of the participants (70%) speak regularly English. They are followed by 13.33% of participants who mainly speak their native languages as their first easiest language. In this study, participants speak home languages such as Somali, Swahili, Lingala, Kinyarwanda, Kirundi, Amhari, Luganda and Shona. In addition, 6% of the respondents speak French and 10% of participants speak both

English and French regularly. On the other hand, the English skills survey shows that the majority of participants (46.67%) are very good at speaking English, 43.33% are good at English and 10% are poor at speaking English.

5.2.2.2 Employment status and income of participants

Employment status

The findings of this study reflect that of 30 participants, 16.67% of them are unemployed and 83.33 % are employed. Subsequently, to understand better the employment status of participants in our study, the study provides first the discussion on the monthly income of participants and analyses the employment variable with the variable of monthly income, and later monthly income with other variables such as education status and sector of activities in which various activities help them to gain income and make a living.

Monthly income

According to De Haas (2011) and Maggard (2004), when assessing the contribution of labour migration and migrants in the economy, they argue that the social capital approach states the income as the main resource that migrants depend on in their livelihoods, despite many challenges that migrants face in host countries. Figure 5.3 indicates that the majority of participants 53.33% earn an income of between R1000-R5000. Whereas, 20% of participants earning an income of between R6000-R10000 and participants earning an income of less than R1000 and income of between R11000-R15000 are 10% each. The rest of the sample includes participants earning an income of between R16000-R20000 and income of above R20000 are 3.33% each. This study illustrates that most refugees sampled in the survey earn an income of between R1000-R5000 (see Figure 5.3).

The findings noted the same view with the Statistics South Africa in which according to STATS SA (2014), the majority of refugees earn the small income. In 2016, the national minimum wages of South Africa were estimated at R3500 (nearly R20 per hour) compared with the working poverty line estimated at R4317 (National Treasury, 2016). The majority of South African lives in poverty and enormous inequality and one of the main reasons is that they do not have access to employment opportunities in which according to STATS SA (2019), the unemployment rate raised to 27% or 36%

if including the number of people who have already given up looking for jobs. More than half of South Africans in 2016 were living below the poverty line and live on less than approximatively R1000 per month. However, National Treasury (2016) reported that more than 6.7 million South Africans earn an income of less than R4000 per month and more approximately 4.6 million people do not at least earn an income of R 2500 per month.

Furthermore, more than 50% of the workforce earns an income of below R3700 (National Treasury, 2016). Consequently, these data depict a clear picture of poverty in South Africa in which this misery is judged as consisting of low wages and high levels of unemployment (National Treasury, 2016). These statistics are disturbing and the findings of this study are not surprising as low income for refugees is associated with low accessibility to the better jobs of high earnings and the majority of them do not earn the national minimum wages including those who live below the poverty line (who live on less than R1000 per month).

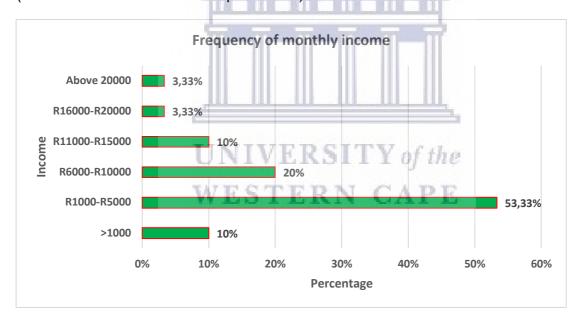


Figure 5. 3 Monthly income of participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey (2020).

Sector of activities

According to STATS SA (2019), South Africa recorded the highest unemployment rate at the global level and the majority of people do not have income. In this study, the majority of refugees have a low income as many of them are employed in the informal sector in which according to the World Bank Group (2018), this sector is known

generally to be low paying occupations with poor working conditions and low wage. In a study of 2011 census, it was estimated that the foreign-born population represented 4% of the South African labour force. Gauteng and Western Cape provinces contained the majority of foreign-born in the labour force of South Africa with 8% and 4% respectively (Weideman, 2020).

This situation has a significant negative impact on livelihoods assets of refugees as their livelihoods are mainly based on their income to make a living. In this study, 16.67% of participants are not employed and 83.33% are employed in which they are distributed in both formal sector (28%) and informal sector (72%) (See Figure 5.4). The results reflected the relationship between the monthly income and employment status of the participants. They indicated that the majority of participants are employed. The income displayed for the employed participants includes the majority of employed participants (53.33%) in the range of R1000-R5000. On the other hands, the income displayed for unemployed participants comprises 60% unemployed participants who earn less than R1000 and 40% unemployed participants who earn an income of between R1000-R5000. This sounds conflicting but it is not. Participants who responded to being unemployed are students that are working sometimes part-time after school to get at least an income to support them for basics needs in their journey studies. Figure 5.3 previously indicated that the most of respondents receive an income of between R1000-5000 that is explaining that most of the respondents earn an income of below the national minimum wage (R3500) even most of the participants are employed but they are earning less income. Hence, with nearly 16.67% of unemployed participants and 83.33 % of employed participants in which 56% of employed fall within the range R1000-R5000, it relates to more than 70% of participants living on a range of incomes of between R1000-R5000 per month, and 10% living on an income of less than R1000.

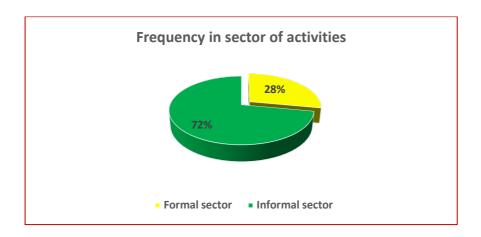


Figure 5. 4 Sector of activities of participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey (2020).

5.2.2.3 Monthly income and education status

Given the reflection on education status and resources of migrants, the generalisation might be prohibited by the lack of homogeneity among the population of migrants and refugees. Migrants and refugees, because of their approach, argued that they are highly educated (Weideman, 2020; Kannankutty & Burelli, 2007; Timberg, 2005). However, in our context, migrants adduce and bring along the skills needed for the development of South Africa (Weideman, 2020). The statistics of South Africa report that foreign-born people approximately 16% have a tertiary qualification in which this statistic includes 25% of African migrants and 62% migrants from North America, Latin America and Europe. Also, migrants who completed secondary education were 23% and other migrants who have incomplete secondary education were 39%. This is followed by the number of migrants who completed primary education and migrants who have no schooling with 18.7% and 7% respectively (Weideman, 2020).

According to SIHMA's report, migrants are more likely to have a tertiary qualification in which the survey of 2006 showed that migrants with postgraduate degrees were 2.9% that is approximately three times than South Africans (1%). The survey further argued that migrants who seek assistance from NGOs in South Africa, 28.7% of them were reported to have completed tertiary qualifications (Weideman, 2020). However, it has been argued that skills, knowledge and education brought by migrants in South Africa are not being exploited on an optimum level. In the South African labour market, they are not employed in their original professions (Weideman, 2020). Looking at the

conditions of employment, despite high skills of migrants and refugees, they are more likely to enter the informal sector than the formal sector and this is low paying sector with poor working conditions and low wages. Thus, our survey attempted to explore the relationship between the monthly income and education status of participants. The study indicates that 26.67% of participants have university degrees (tertiary qualifications) and 56.67% have a diploma and certificate. It also indicated that the majority of participants owning university degrees (37.50%), along with the majority of participants owning diploma and certificates (52.94%) earn an income of between R1000-R5000 and 17.65% of participants owning diploma and certificates earn an income of less than R1000.

Furthermore, the study also indicated that the majority of the respondents 50% have completed their studies in their home countries, and 46.67% of the participants completed their studies in South Africa while 3.33% completed their studies from another country different from their home country and the host country South Africa.

5.2.2.4 Refugees employment by sector of activities

This study previously mentioned how migrants have difficulties to access labour markets. Weideman (2020) argue that fundamentally, the labour market is not easy to access it and migrants who manage to access it are commonly employed in the informal sector or self-employed. This informal sector is exposed to a series of threats or other harm, exploitation (low paying, low wage and poor working conditions) while only a few migrants are employed in the formal sector in the industries such as mining, construction, hospitality and agriculture.

The South African Census of 2011 reported that approximately 63% of employed migrants were in the formal sector and 34% were in the informal sector (Weideman, 2020; World Bank Group, 2018). Furthermore, the 2011 Census and the survey of Labour Force Quality of Life of 2012 reported statistics on foreign-born workers in which 50% of employed migrants are self-employed and approximatively one-third of employed migrants work in the informal sector. 50% of those employed in informal sector are in private households. Although these statistics seem to be disturbing it is more explicit that of migrants and refugees employed in the formal sector, approximately 65% originated from Europe and 7.3% were from SADC while of those

employed in the informal sector, 65% of them were originated from SADC and 10% were from Europe (Weideman, 2020).

In this study, refugee participants are employed in both formal and informal sectors of the South African economy (see Figure 5.5 and Figure 5.6). Albeit, informal sector predominates where a significant number of respondents is involved in the spaza shop businesses at 27.78%, followed by hairdressing (16.67%) and other activities such as mechanical fitting as well as domestic work at 16.67%. While, 11.11% of respondents indicated that they are working in informal services of food processing and vending as well as transportation of passengers and goods, as Figure 5.5 depicts the rests are dispersed in various professions ranging from metalworking (5.56%), informal agriculture (5.56%), traditional medicine (5.56%), to craft and creches at 5.56% and 5.56% respectively. For those that are employed in the formal sector of the economy, the results in the Figure 5.6 displays a large number, i.e 57.14 % are working in the community and social services (health services, education and housing), followed by 28.57% working in formal services (hotel and restaurant) and 14.29% of participants whose activities take place in the transport industry. The predomination of migrants and refugees in the information sector from this study has also reflected by other studies mentioned above such as World Bank Group (2018) and Weideman (2020).

UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

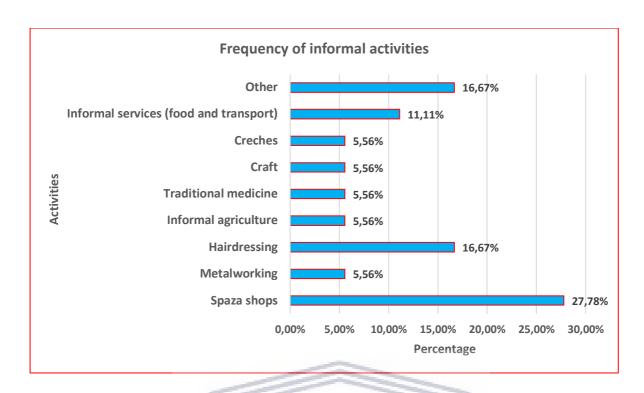


Figure 5. 5 Informal activities of participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

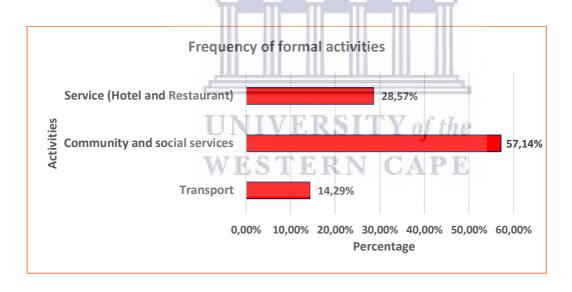


Figure 5. 6 Formal activities of participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

Income varies considerably depending upon the form of employment and sector of the economy involved. Migrant refugees in the formal sector tend to earn a higher income than their counterparts in the informal sector. As illustrated in Table 5.6, the majority of participants (61.11%) in the informal sector account have an income in the range R1000 to R5000. In the informal activities, 40% of participants in spaza shops and all in hairdressing make an income in the range R1000 to -R5000. Likewise, 66.67% of

participants working in the Other category (mechanical fitting and domestic work) earn an income of between R1000 to -R5000 (see Table 5.6). We see in Table 5.7 that 42.86% of participants in the formal sector earn between R1000 and -R5000, and another 42.86% offal in the range of R6000 to R10000. The results depict that in each formal activity, 75% of participants employed in community work and social services earn between R1000 and -R5000 while 25% in this activity earn incomes in the range R6000 to R10000. Half of those working in services (hotel and restaurant) earn between R6000 and R10000, while all participants in transport activities receive between R6000 and R10000 (see Table 5.7). These results are corroborated by Weideman (2020), STATS SA (2019, 2014), and World Bank Group (2018) confirming that most migrants and refugees earn low wages.



Table 5. 6 Informal industries of participants and monthly income. (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

	Monthly income					
	R1000-	R6000-	R11000-	R16000-	Above	
Informal industries	R5000	R10000	R15000	R20000	R20000	Total
Spaza shops	2	2	0	1	0	5
	40.00	40.00	0.00	20.00	0.00	100.00
Metalworking	1	0	0	0	0	1
	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Hairdressing	3	0	0	0	0	3
	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Informal agriculture	1	0	0	0	0	1
	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Traditional medicine	0	0	1	0	0	1
	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Craft	0	1	0	0	0	1
	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Creches	0	0	0	1	1	1
	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Informal services (food & transport)	2	0	0	0	0	2
	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Other	2	0	1	0	0	3
TI	66.67	0.00	33.33	0.00	0.00	100.00
Total	11	3	2	1	1	18
	61.11	16.67	11.11	5.56	5.56	100.00

Table 5. 7 Formal industries of participants and monthly income. Source: Researcher's Field Survey (2020).

II.	Monthly income					
Formal industries	R1000-R5000 R6000-R10000 R11000-R15000					
Transport	F C T TO	RNCA	PF 0		1	
1.7	0.00	100.00	0.00		100.00	
Community and social	3	1	0		4	
	75.00	25.00	0.00		100.00	
	0	1	1		2	
Service (Hotel and Restaurant)	0.00	50.00	50.00		100.00	
Total	3	3	1		7	
	42.86	42.86	14.29		100.00	

5.2.2.5 Household density and income

The study conducted in the cities of Cape Town and Johannesburg indicated that the median of family size (household) is approximatively 4 members in the household (Frayne, et al., 2009). The findings of this study indicated approximately 3 members in the household as an average of the household size of participants. According to Labadarios, et al. (2009), the income determines the capability of living within

households. The income can increase the standard of living in the household (in terms of food and other living expenses) and the employment might enhance the increase of such income. In this context, it is explicit that the increase in household size when the household income remains the same, it will decrease the household capability in securing its living including food security and other expenses.

The low income and poverty have been identified by researchers as the main promoters of food insecurity within households in the communities (Labadarios, et al., 2009). At the global level, the poverty is a serious issue in which the international poverty line per person per day is determined in the range of \$us1.25-\$us2.50 that corresponds to approximately R15-R30 (National Treasury, 2016). In 2015, the poverty line in South Africa is adjusted as follow: admittedly in constant of 2011 prices, the food poverty line is adjusted to R335 per month and 20.76% of the population fall below it, along with 36.15% of the population fall below the lower-bound poverty line of R501 per month and coupled with 53.19% of the population that fall below the upper-bound poverty line of R779 per month (Weideman, 2020). The findings of this study previously reflected on the serious matter of low income for participants. However, the study indicated that approximatively 70% of participants live on monthly income range of R1000-R5000 in which 10% of them live on income of less than R1000 per month.

5.2.2.6 Living expenses and remittance LRSITY of the

When assessing the contribution of migration for the inclusive and sustainable economic growth and development in sending and receiving countries, the UNDESA (2017) reported that remittances play a considerable impact of source of income for households that enhance the livelihoods of families and communities of migrants. The remittances promote investments in education, infrastructure, housing, health and sanitation (UNDESA, 2017). This study reflects on the monthly income gained by participants and how they use it for budget of food and other living expenses and remittances when supporting their members left in their home countries. The findings indicate that the majority of respondents 56.67% spend over 40% of their monthly income for the living expenses in their households, followed by 23.33% of participants spend less than 20%, 13.33% of participants spending between 30%-40% of their budget and 6.67% of participants spending between 20%-30% of their monthly income for their living expenses. This view is resonated by Oxfam (2014) as cited by Philander

and Karriem (2016) arguing that poor people are the most vulnerable when the price of commodities increases in which they spend approximately the half of their income on living expenses such as food and other basic needs and also spend 19% of their income for the housing. On the other hands, the majority of participants 73.33% spend less than 20% of their monthly income for remittance, 16.67% of participants spend between 20%-30% and 10% of participants spend between 30%-40% of their monthly income for remittances to support their families in the countries of origin.

5.2.2.7 Employment status in home countries

The 2006 survey showed that 1 in 10 migrants in the city of Johannesburg had experiences and worked as a doctor, teacher, nurse or lawyer in their country of origin (sending countries) and none were operating into these profession carriers within the host country of South Africa (receiving country) (Weideman, 2020). Furthermore, the data in Figure 5.7 below reflects that of the 30 participants who completed the survey questionnaire, 43.33% were employed in their respective home countries and 56.67% were unemployed. However, of the 43.33% employed participants in their home countries, 38.46% were employed in health services (medical health), 15.33% were employed in education services, and the rest of them, 7.69% were self-employed in their own business and other activities such as hairdressing, community and social services, services (hotel and restaurant), public servant and spaza shop respectively with 7.69% each. Unfortunately, those who had been employed in their home countries could rarely continue to work in the same occupations in South Africa, for example hairdressing, self-employed in own business, or community and social services. For instance, in figures 5.5 and Figure 5.6, no participant is working as a public servant.

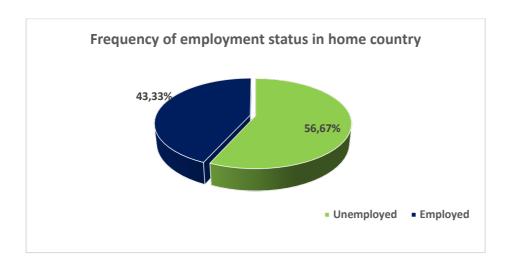


Figure 5. 7 Employment status of participants in home country (Source: Researcher's Field survey 2020).

5.3 ACCESSIBILITY OF LABOUR MARKETS: REFUGEES' EMPLOYMENT AND SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS "QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS"

In this section, the study presents a quantitative analysis of the accessibility of labour markets for refugees and asylum seekers in Cape Town, South Africa. The analysis is made by the comparison between employed and unemployed participants about the challenges of accessing labour markets, coping strategies adopted and availability of supports for refugees and asylum seekers as well as livelihood outcomes. The main statistical analysis employed is inferential statistical analysis. The Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) was employed as the theoretical framework for the analysis.

5.3.1 The vulnerability context of refugees

The vulnerability context of refugees largely describes the possibility of certain harm and a sort of inability or weakness of dealing with such harm. Refugees and asylum seekers can be at risk in many ways and the sources of their vulnerability are different (Riederer, 2018). Refugees and asylum seekers are exposed to various dimensions of vulnerability such as economic that refers to financial aspects (poverty and other economic hardship), social that refers to discrimination and lack of social support, and psychological that refers to depressions, stress and anxiety (Riederer, 2018). The results in this section are associated with the research objective aimed to investigate

the challenges impacting on refugees and asylum seekers in accessing the labour market in Cape Town, South Africa.

Challenges faced by participants from accessing employment opportunities

The intergovernmental Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) argued on challenges of integration for refugees in which they comment that it is difficult to successfully integrate refugees into the labour market of host countries. They give recommendations and suggestions to policymakers including public and private sector as well as the business community to facilitate the key role in the integration process, to contribute and engage in assimilating refugees into the labour market, both with training and by employing them (OECD & UNHCR, 2016; OECD, 2016a; OECD, 2016). Although access to labour markets may be limited and regulated by the administration in host countries, for instance, requiringwork permits or other practical barriers such as language, refugees are given the legal right to work in most host countries. For asylum seekers, the legal right to work and the obligations therein vary from one society to another (OECD & UNHCR, 2016). Refugees and asylum seekers may be granted the legal right to work as soon as they get their asylum or refugee status, but they invariably encounter other barriers to opportunities, like labour markets tests, language proficiency, skills, and qualifications (Dinbabo, et al., 2018; OECD & UNHCR, 2016; OECD, 2016).

In this study, the quantitative analysis presents different views on the obstacles to accessing labour markets for refugees and asylum seekers. Figure 5.10 illustrates that 28% of employed participants cited language proficiency, which refers to their inability to speak English fluently enough, while 72% said that being unable to speak English is a bar to progress in the workplace. 8% of employed participants cited the challenge of the working environment, that is, being unfamiliar with the business culture in South Africa, against 92% did not. The majority of employed participants (64%) indicated the lack of documention as the main obstacle, while 36% did not have that problem. Furthermore, 48% of employed participants experienced exclusion and marginalisation, while 52% d did not. Additionally, 4% of employed participants mentioned other stumbling blocks, including the lack of skills and qualification in relevant fields, and access to information.

Comparatively, while the majority of employed participants largely raised the challenges of lack of documents, exclusion and marginalisation, the view of unemployed participants is not far different but 100% of them did not agree with the challenge of language proficiency and 20% of unemployed raised the challenge of being unfamiliar of working environment of South Africa more than employed participants. The results further reflect that of unemployed participants, 60% indicated the challenge of lack of documents against 40% who did not. Moreover, 40% of unemployed participants mentioned the challenge of exclusion and marginalisation while 60% did not raise it as their challenge.

5.3.2 Refugee participants and livelihoods assets

Generally, livelihoods of refugees and asylum seekers are indicated by reiterations of hard work and investments of time, energy and sometimes money (Barbelet & Wake, 2017). Although refugees in large number are deprived of their assets due to displacement, in particular, there some remaining assets such as social, human financial capital. More explicitly, refugees work as self-sufficiency and their assets are broadly comprised of social networks, higher education achievement and access to finance from remittance (Barbelet & Wake, 2017).

In this study, participants have various assets including assets of human capital in which the higher education achievement as illustrated by this study, the majority of participants (almost 57%) hold diplomas and certificates followed by approximately 27% with university degrees. Furthermore, Figure 5.1 reflects the motivation of participants of moving to South Africa and not another country. As illustrated by Figure 5.1, the motivation of social network between refugee participants and their friends and or families that motivated them to move to South Africa. Lastly, regarding the financial assets, participants of this study do not have any other financial assets other than the income gained from work. The Figure 5.3 and Figure 5.4 indicate the monthly income of participants and their distribution in different activities of the informal and formal sectors. The results of the study depict that the monthly income relative to the household size in which the same income is used to budget their living expenses, saving and remittances to support their families.

5.3.3 Transforming structures and processes

Transforming structures and processes are described as the institutions, organizations, policies and legislation that shape livelihoods in the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework. They control and influence who gain access to the assets (resources) (DFID, 1999). Refugee livelihoods in host countries are deeply controlled and shaped by government policy, local institutions, civil society attitudes and socioeconomic conditions of such host countries. Furthermore, the lack of access to employment opportunities pushes refugees and asylum seekers to seek employment in the informal economy where social protection is incomplete (Brown, et al., 2018). The results in this section are associated with the research objective aimed to evaluate the availability and accessibility of support structures to refugees and asylum seekers in facilitating access to the labour market.

In this study, livelihoods of participants are influenced by various structures such as South African Police (SAPS), Department of Home Affairs, Department of Social Development, Department of Health, NGOs like UNHCR and Scalabrini Center, Refugee centres and other structures such as Department of Education and Department of Labour. Also, they provide various supports for refugees such as education and job opportunities, food and health, financial support and other supports such as legal documents, security and safety. Figure 5.14 indicates that the majority of participants know and get support from the SAPS, the Department of Home Affairs, and refugee centres. Nearly 93% of participants acknowledge the support of SAPS while 7% do not, 70% of participants recognise the support of Department of Home Affairs while 30% do not, and 77% acknowledge the support of Refugee centres while 23% do not. Refugee participants recognize also the support of some NGOs like UNHCR and Scalabrini in which almost 57% acknowledge the support from those organisations while 43% do not (see Figure 5.8).

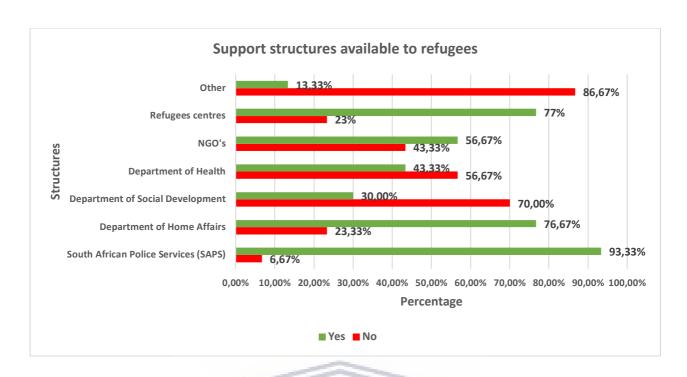


Figure 5. 8 Support structures available to participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

The support services offered by structures available to refugees are diverse. Figure 5.9 below reflects on nature of support provided by the above structures for refugees and asylum seekers. Moreover, almost 43% of participants acknowledge of receiving education opportunities while approximately 56% do not, 20% of participants admit respectively of receiving the job integration and financial support while 80% respectively disagree such statement. Nearly 57% acknowledge receiving food and health support while 43% do not, and lastly, 57% admit receiving legal documentation, security and safety support but 43% disagree (see Figure 5.9 below).

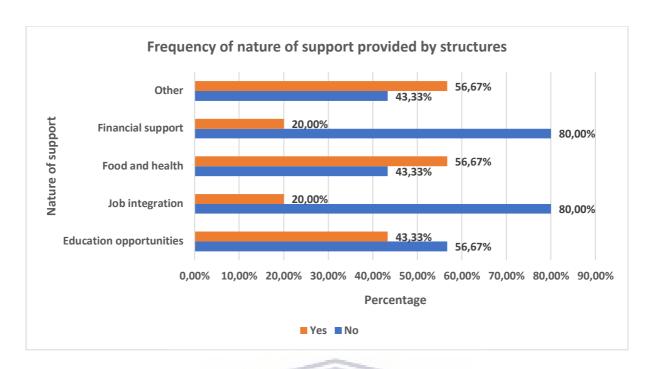


Figure 5. 9 Nature of supports provided by structures for participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey, 2020).

Regarding the accessibility of the above supports, the study was interested to investigate the level of difficulty in accessing social services for participants. The South Africa government is ultimately responsible for controlling, regulating and monitoring who gain access to social services in terms of its constitutional and legal obligations (ISD, 2018; Peberdy, 2002). The social services being investigated in this study are including health services, social grants, education, Home Affairs services and South Africa Police Services. However, refugees and asylum seekers are legally granted access to social services as South African citizens, but such access remains a problem for refugees and asylum seekers (Dinbabo, et al., 2018; ISD, 2018; Peberdy, 2002).

The Figure 5.10 below demonstrates that of 30 participants, the half (i.e. 50%) find it less difficult (easy) to access education services, nearly 13% find it difficult while approximately 37% find it very challenging (very difficult) to access education services. Regarding the access to social grants, among 30 participants, almost 50% affirm that it is very challenging to access social grants, approximately 27% find it difficult while nearly 23% affirm that it is less difficult to get access to social grants. However, in accessing health services, that of 30 participants, 50% affirm that it is less difficult to access health services, 40% find it difficult while only 10% admit that it is very challenging to access health services. The Home Affairs services and social grants

have been highlighted by the participants as the most difficult services to access. Among that of 30 participants, the majority (almost 63%) affirm that it is very challenging to access Home Affairs services, 17% find it difficult while 20% affirm that it is less difficult to access Home Affairs services. Lastly, accessing South African Police services in terms of security and safety, that of 30 participants, the majority (nearly 67%) affirm that it is less difficult to access Police services, 30% find it difficult while approximately 3% find it very challenging to access Police services (See Figure 5.10).

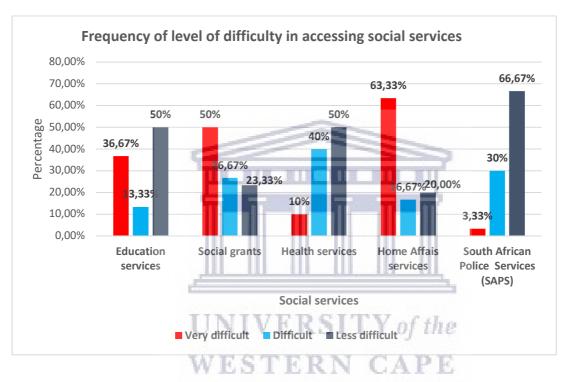


Figure 5. 10 Level of difficulty in accessing social services for participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

5.3.4Livelihoods strategies adopted by participants

There is a thin line that refers to a very small distinction between livelihood strategies and coping strategies. In this study, livelihood strategies refer to what participants do to survive and make a living in South Africa while coping strategies define their capabilities and skills they have in which they use them to overcome challenges to survive and make a living. These results are associated with the research objective aimed to identify the livelihood strategies and coping strategies used by asylum seekers and refugees in accessing employment opportunities and making living.

The majority of refugees and asylum seekers survive in very difficult socio-economic situations. They have gained experience in diversifying their livelihood strategies to

improve and enhance their socio-economic situations. Some livelihood strategies adopted by refugees and asylum seekers comprise the diversification of sources of income by engaging in trade and services, obtaining humanitarian assistance, depending upon social networks and solidarity between family, friends and associations, gaining skills and knowledge by investing in education and training (Barbelet & Wake, 2017). Furthermore, Statistics South Africa in its community household survey indicated that in 2013, livelihood strategies of poor people in urban areas depend on social grants (i.e. 46%) and 65% of poor people in urban areas depend on income from salaries (Philander & Karriem, 2016). In this instance, the livelihood strategies of refugees and asylum seekers in this studyrelate mostly to the income from trade and service activities and other businesses.

The findings of the livelihood strategies adopted by the refugee participants are displayed in Figure 5.11 below. The majority of participants are engaged in different strategies and have more than one additional livelihood strategies. Most of the participants that indicated over and above one livelihood strategy are engaged in informal trade and services and other contract work and businesses as their main source of livelihood strategies, approximately 45% and 23% respectively. Other additional livelihood strategies comprise government social grants (9% and 27% as first and second choice respectively), humanitarian assistance from NGO's (6%, nearly 23% and 69% as first, second, and third choice respectively) and family and friends (nearly 11% and 21% as first and secondchoice respectively).

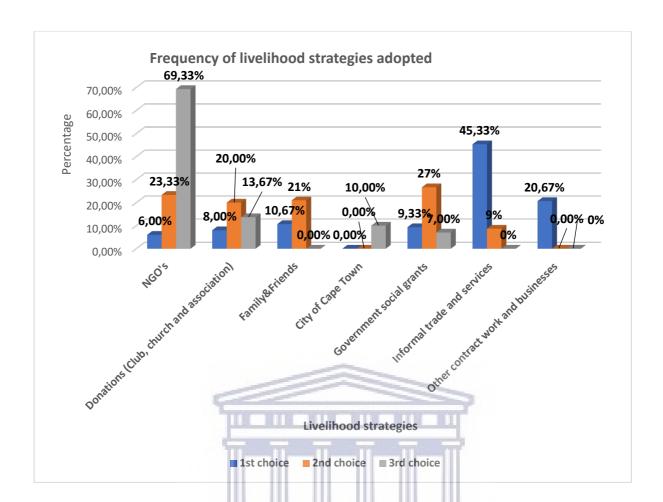


Figure 5. 11 Types of livelihood strategies adopted by participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

UNIVERSITY of the

From the above results, it is clearly seen that participants embrace different livelihood strategies available to them and this helps them to secure their livelihoods by improving their well-being, overcoming problems and coping with stress and shock. Consequently, Pearson's chi-squared test was used to test and verify whether or not there exists a significant relationship between the livelihood strategies adopted and the well-being of the participants (See Annexure 5.3). The following hypothesis null and alternative have been tested:

Ho: Livelihood strategies adopted to contribute to the improvement of the wellbeing of participants.

H1: There is no significant contribution of livelihood strategies adopted to the improvement of the wellbeing of participants.

By employing the logic of different scholars, the diversification of livelihood strategies contributes to a certain level of good achievement of livelihood outcome and this implies the improvement of the well-being of the beneficiaries. According to Neuman (2000), as cited by Philander and Karriem (2016), a testing hypothesis refers to the test of two statements of a relationship between two variables. A significance level of 5% was used to test at 32 degrees of freedom. Fundamentally, Pearson's chi-squared tests only the association between two variables. In its rules, the chi-squared test recommends to accept the null-hypothesis in favour of the alternative when the level of significance of the chi-squared is higher than the significance value of 5% (0.05), and the rule recommends that there is no significant difference between two variables being tested. Comparatively, it also recommends rejecting the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative when the significance level of the chi-squared test is lower or equal to 5% (0.005), and this defines by the rule that there is a significant difference between two variables under investigation.

The test results indicated the Pearson's chi-squared value of 41.3455 at 32 degrees of freedom and a significance level of 0.125 (See Annexure 5.3). Accordingly, by Pearson's chi-squared rule seen above, the level of significance here is higher than the significance level of 5% (0.05). Therefore, the acceptance of null hypothesis in favour of alternative hypothesis will be attributed and this implicates to confirm that there is a relationship between the two variables being tested (livelihood strategies and wellbeing of household participants). Consequently, it is statistically proven that livelihood strategies adopted significantly contribute to the improvement of the well-being of participants.

Apart from Pearson's chi-squared test, the study employed another test of regression to test and reaffirm the strength of the relationship between these two variables (wellbeing and livelihoods strategies adopted) (See Table 5.8 below). The variable of livelihood strategies adopted has a coefficient of .2900356 and it is not statistically significant at the confidence level of 95% considering its p-value of 0.117 which is greater than 5% (0.05) (see Table 5.8).

Source	SS	df	MS		Number o	of obs = 30	
Model	3.15172005	1	3.15172005		F(1, 28) = 2.61		
Residual	33.8149466	28	1.20767666		Prob > F = 0.1174		
Total	36.9666667	29	1.27471264		R-squared = 0.0853		
					Adj R-squared = 0.0526		
					Root MSE = 1.0989		
Wellbeing		Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Livelihood st	ivelihood strategies adopted		.1795365	1.62	0.117	0777283	.6577995
_cons		2.898577	.4971141	5.83	0.000	1.880284	3.916869

Table 5. 8 Relationship between wellbeing of participants and livelihood strategies adopted (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

5.3.5 Coping strategies adopted by participants

Coping strategies are mechanisms adopted by people to survive in their households. According to Oxfam (2014), as cited by Philander and Karriem (2016), coping strategies adopted by households comprise skipping of meals, reducing the number of meals, sometimes eating only the food available to them. Also, households may use other strategies to survive such as buying less, cheaper or expired food and knocking to the neighbours, friends and relatives asking for food or borrowing money for food. Furthermore, Philander and Karriem (2016) argue that sometimes people may involve in criminal activities to get provisions of surviving for their families. Households diversify in different coping strategies to respond to their needs. The coping strategies described in this study are the strategies adopted by refugees and asylum seekers to access employment opportunities and to survive in their households. Those strategies define the capabilities, skills and other resources they have in which they use to access employment, survive and make a living. The results of this section as the previous section, are associated with the research objective aimed to identify the livelihood strategies and coping strategies used by asylum seekers and refugees in accessing employment opportunities and making living.

5.3.5.1 Capabilities

This study focuses on the capability functionings of the refugees and asylum seekers about how they manage their means scarcity with their low income to develop their wellbeing. Sen (1999) defines capabilities as the freedom that people have, given their features and their need of commodities. Sen (1999) describes "functioning" as the

freedom of choice and management of an individual's life. This defines the most popular understanding of wellbeing (Sen, 1999; Todaro & Smith, 2012). Capabilities investigated in this study means and resources used by refugee participants to cope with shocks and stresses, to survive and to make a living in their households. The participants adopt diverse capabilities such as knowledge and experience in the field, relevant skills, formal qualification and appropriate character traits (including receptiveness, self-driven, self-assured, self-esteem and resilient). Figure 5.12 reflects that participants indicated experience at 57%, knowledge (57%) and relevant skills (50%) as the most significant capabilities of their first choice. As their second choice, they also indicated appropriate character traits at 77%, formal qualification (67%), experience at 43%, knowledge (50%) and relevant skills at 43%. The participants used various capabilities to access employment to survive as families.

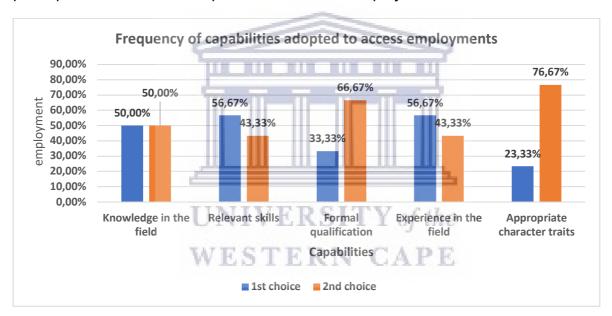


Figure 5. 12 Capabilities adopted by participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

This study assumes that the diversification of capabilities adopted brings good outcome for refugee participants of surviving and coping with shock and stress. To check the impact of appraisal of capabilities adopted by participants, the study tests the association between the variables of wellbeing and capabilities adopted by using a Pearson's chi-squared test with the following statement:

Ho: There is a relationship between wellbeing and capabilities as coping strategies are adopted.

H1: There is no relationship between wellbeing and capabilities.

The test results of the Pearson's chi-squared test indicate its value of 16.9744 at 20 degrees of freedom and 0.655 of significance level (See Annexure 5.4). When employing the Pearson's chi-squared general rule, the significance level of 0.655 is higher than the significance value of 0.05 and we conclude that the null hypothesis is accepted in favour of the alternative hypothesis that allows the confirmation of suggestion of the existence of a relationship between the wellbeing and capabilities of the participants.

5.3.5.2 Socio-economic resources adopted by participants

When refugees have access to economic resources including employment opportunities, they become self-reliant and contribute to the development of the host economy (ISD, 2018). In most cases, refugees may not have access to economic resources such as transportation, education and health facilities, employment, infrastructure, housing and energy in host countries and this increases the high level of vulnerability due to the low access over commodities (ISD, 2018). Even though, the life of refugees and asylum seekers mostly depends on income from salaries (De Haas, 2011; Maggard, 2004). Furthermore, Döring (2019) and ISD (2018) categorise social supports by making a distinction between formal and informal social support systems. The formal support systems comprise the professional entities including governments of host countries, politics and services while informal social support systems comprise assistance from family, fellows, friends and relative and ethnic communities (Döring, 2019; ISD, 2018).

In this study, despite the scarce of socio-economic resources for refugees, the participants employ various socio-economic resources as a coping strategy to access employment opportunities. Such resources include cash (used in transport activities, gaining skills in training and getting licenses for vehicles), bribes, available credit (the available amount to spend), family, friends, and associations such as refugee communities, clubs, and churches. The Figure 5.13 depicts that of 30 participants, they take into account family (50%), friends (50%), cash 30% as their most important economic resources as coping strategy to access employment and they consider such

economic resources as their first choice. Bribes and available credit are their first choice 17% and 13% respectively, and 83% and 87% for the second choice respectively. However, they consider also family (50%), friends (50%) and associations (97%) in their second choice.

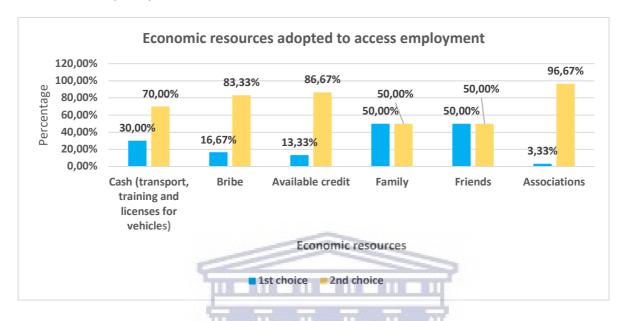


Figure 5. 13 Socio-economic resources adopted by participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

The study investigated whether an association exists between the wellbeing of participants and their adopted economic resources as coping strategies to gain employment. Similarly, Pearson's chi-squared test was employed to test the existence of such relationship and the following hypothesis were used:

H0: There is a relationship between the wellbeing of participants and their adopted socio-economic resources as a coping strategy.

H1: There is no relationship between wellbeing and socio-economic resources.

The results of the Pearson chi-squared test state the chi-squared value of 15.7891 at 15 degrees of freedom and a significance level of 0.396 (See Annexure 5.5). Consequently, as per the general rule of Pearson's chi-squared test, the null hypothesis is accepted in favour of alternative hypotheses due to the higher level of significance. (>0.05). The study concludes that there exists a relationship between the wellbeing of participants and socio-economic resources adopted as a coping strategy.

5.3.6 Livelihood outcomes

In chapter three, the theoretical framework, the meaning of households' livelihoods as assets, capabilities and activities were explained. This section analyses the livelihood outcomes of households. Livelihood outcomes are described as outputs of livelihood strategies. They are not seen as an endpoint of sustainable livelihoods attained but also as a new form of assets that can be reproduced in the existing cycle of Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF). Philander and Karriem (2016) define livelihoods outcomes as the result or effect of adopted livelihood strategies and coping strategies in attaining the desired goal. Livelihoods outcomes comprise gain of more income, increased quality of life (wellbeing), a decrease of vulnerability and increased food security (Philander & Karriem, 2016; Chambers & Conway, 1992).

In this study, most of the participants indicated that access to employment opportunities and diversification of livelihood strategies and coping mechanisms would help them to achieve certain desired livelihoods outcomes. Moreover, with the results illustrated by the Figure 5.14, the majority of participants mentioned that the increased quality of life (nearly 28%), increased income (22%), increased level of food security (20%) and increased housing security for safe shelter and safe place (20%) would be their first choice of desired livelihood outcomes. In addition, 10% of participants would like to reduce their vulnerability (stress and shocks). This is was admitted by Statistics South Africa (STATS SA, 2014), who stated that common characteristics of the basic needs of refugees and asylum seekers are mostly job income and security, housing, education and health care, and food insecurity. As their second choice, 26% of participants would like to enhance their quality of life, 25% would like to increase the level of food security, approximately 20% would like to earn more, 18% would like to get a secure house in a secure place, and nearly 11% would like to reduce their vulnerability. As their third choice, the participants would like to improve their quality of life (nearly 30%), their level of food security (27%), their income (24%) and their housing security (nearly 19%).

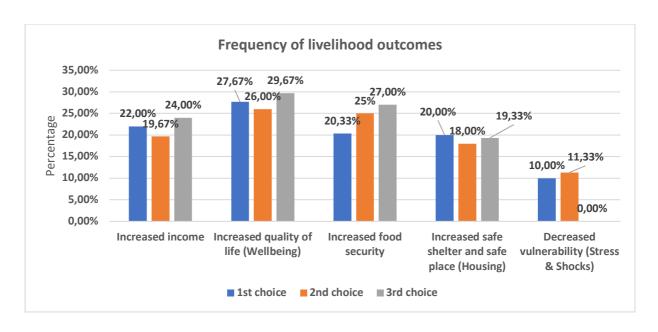


Figure 5. 14 Desired livelihood outcomes of participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

5.3.7 Determinants of the wellbeing of refugees and asylum seekers

Refugees are most vulnerable in different aspects when you compare them to other migrant groups in the host country. According to Campbell, et al. (2018), the social determinants that affect the wellbeing of refugees include employment, the ability of language and housing (accommodation). The variation in these social determinants has a significant impact on the wellbeing of refugees such as their mental health, food security and safety and social protection. In this study, the researcher needs to establish the covariation by using regression analysis and determine the relationship between the wellbeing of refugee participants as the dependent variable and other independent variables such as employment status, monthly income, education status, the ability to speak English and household size. Bless and Kathuria (1993) as cited by Philander and Karriem (2016) argue that the regression line mathematically addresses the law subtending and underlying within variables that are dependent and independent. Undoubtedly, the researcher anticipates that better employment, higher income level, high level of education, good English proficiency and the little size of household (number of members) would improve and increase the quality of life (wellbeing) of participants in their households. Table 5.9 below shows the test results of the regression model in which the researcher tests whether the independent variables listed above are related to the wellbeing of refugee participants.

Table 5. 9 Determinants of the wellbeing of refugee participants (Source: Researcher's Field Survey 2020).

Source	SS	df	MS		Number of obs = 30		
Model	7.16380692	5	1.43276138		F(5,	24) = 1	L.88
Residual	18.3028597	24	.762619156		Prob > F = 0.1356		
Total	25.4666667	29	.87816092		R-squared = 0.2813		
					Adj R-squared = 0.1316		
					Root MSE = .87328		7328
Wellbeing		Coef.	Std. Err.	t	P> t	[95% Conf	. Interval]
employmentstatus		.2348551	.5281263	0.44	0.661	855144	1.324854
Monthlyincome		0693212	.1759996	-0.39	0.697	4325665	.293924
Qualifications		.3285181	.2717616	1.21	0.238	2323703	.8894066
GradeofspeakingEnglish .8		.8140335	.2794439	2.91	0.008	.2372897	1.390777
Familysize		004118	.1608857	-0.03	0.980	3361697	.3279337
_cons		4261027	1.242326	-0.34	0.735	-2.990137	2.137932

Table 5.24 reflects that the model has an F statistic of 1.88 and probability > F= 0.1356, R-squared value of 0.2813 and adjusted R-squared value of 0.1316. Consequently, based on the testing results, the independent variables of employment status, monthly income, qualifications (education status), the grade of speaking English (English proficiency) and family size (household density) explain 13.16% of the variability of the dependent variable (the wellbeing of refugee participants). However, the regression model is not statistically significant at 5% level as its Prob>F= 13.56% is higher than P-value of 5% (0.05). As the results, the model deployed here cannot statistically and significantly anticipate the dependent variable and this means that the independent variables listed above are not the only determinants of the wellbeing of refugees and asylum seekers in Cape Town. Thereafter, the researcher statistically described in details the significance of the predictor variables (independent variables) on an associated dependent variable of a particular outcome of the wellbeing of refugee participants.

5.3.7.1 Employment

The coefficient of employment status is .2348551. It addresses every unit increase in employment would produce an increase in the wellbeing of approximately 0.23 units if all other variables determining the wellbeing remain constant and unchanged. This

was the prediction of the researcher. However, the coefficient of employment status is not statistically significant at the level of 5% (0.05) as its p-value of 0.661 is higher than 0.05. This viewpoint is shared in the ISD (2018) report where they indicate that refugees do not depend only on employment, they may also get assistance from the communities and other organisations.

5.3.7.2 Monthly income

The coefficient of monthly income is negative (-.0693212). It explains that every unit decrease of monthly income would produce a decrease in the wellbeing by approximately 0.07unit point when if all other variables determining the wellbeing remain constant and unchanged. This is what the researcher expected. However, the coefficient of monthly income is not statistically significant at the level of 5% (0.05) as its p-value of 0.697 is higher than 0.05. Similarly, ISD (2018) report has the same viewpoint commenting that refugees failed to access the labour market in South Africa and some of them are unemployed and have unskilled labour jobs. Their main sources of income may be job salary, but they depend also on other sources including donations, family, friends, government social grants and associations (club, church and NGO's).

5.3.7.3 Education

The coefficient of education status (qualifications) is .328518. This explains that every unit increase in education (qualifications) would produce an increase in the wellbeing by approximately 0.33 unit when if all other variables determining the wellbeing remain constant and unchanged. This is what the researcher expected and the prediction shared the viewpoint with Labadarios, et al (2009) who comment that the level of education has a significant impact in the wellbeing of households such as improved the food security and improved income as employment mostly corresponds to the level of education. This explains the gain in income. However, the coefficient of education (qualifications) is not statistically significant at the 95% level of confidence as its p-value of 0.238 is higher than 0.05. The reason behind this statistical insignificance of education is that it is not the only one that determines the wellbeing of refugee participants and many refugee educational skills are not exploited accordingly.

5.3.7.4 Ability to speak English.

The coefficient for the grade of speaking English is .814033. This explains that every unit increase in grade of speaking English would inincrease the wellbeing by approximately 0.814 when if all other variables determining the wellbeing remain constant and unchanged. The researcher was expecting this prediction and the viewpoint is shared with Campbell, et al. (2018) who argue that ability to learn languages of the host country for refugees has a significant impact in enhancing their wellbeing. However, the grading coefficient of speaking English is statistically significant at the 95% level of confidence as its p-value of 0.008 is lower than 0.05. This explains that the grade of speaking English is determined by the variation in the wellbeing of refugee participants.

5.3.7.5 Household size

Ultimately, the coefficient of household size (family size) is negative (-.004118). This indicates that every unit decrease in family size would produce a decrease in wellbeing by approximately 0.004 unit. This contradicts what the researcher was expecting. The prediction was stating that the decrease in the household size would increase the wellbeing of the refugee participants in which the regression model analysis has predicted it differently. However, the coefficient of family size is not statistically significant as its p-value of 0.980 at the level of 5% (0.05) is higher than 0.05.

It is worth noting that, the findings of the quantitative analysis make a strong theoretical case for the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) from within the refugee perspective. Unquestionably, the fact that the lack of access to employment opportunities and social services affects negatively on livelihood indicators of refugees and asylum seekers as enumerated in the above (challenges of accessing labour market, assets and support structures, coping strategies and wellbeing) cross validates the position that from the SLF and refugee perspective, refugees and asylum seekers are vulnerable and need the assistance of labour market integration and access to social services in South African society.

5.4 ACCESSIBILITY OF LABOUR MARKETS: REFUGEES' EMPLOYMENT AND SUSTAINABLE LIVELIHOODS "QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS"

In the prior section of this chapter five, the study presented the quantitative analysis of the accessibility of labour markets for refugees and asylum seekers in Cape Town, South Africa. The empirical findings were presented, discussed and interpreted. This section provides qualitative analysis from the semi-structured interviews and observations. The data from the interviews and observations will be analysed by using thematic content analysis. The researcher employed open-ended questioning to enable participants to reflect on the challenges of accessing labour markets for refugees and asylum seekers. The qualitative data was collected from 10 refugees and asylum seekers selected from the quantitative sample that represent the overall group and 3 owners of the businesses employing refugees and 2 organisations supporting refugees that have been selected using purposive sampling. Thus, this section, unlike the previous section, introduces new participants including owners of businesses and organisations and pays particular attention to different opinions from both sides for qualitative analysis regarding the challenges of refugees and asylum seekers and the insight of their livelihoods. The SLF was employed as a theoretical framework for the analysis and the researcher will use pseudonyms to protect identities of the respondents of the study.

5.4.1 The vulnerability context of refugees

To examine the vulnerability context on access to the labour market, participants were asked to reflect on their experience regarding difficulties and challenges in accessing employment. The results in this section are associated with the research objective aimed to investigate the challenges impacting on refugees and asylum seekers in accessing the labour market in Cape Town, South Africa.

Challenges faced by participants from accessing employment opportunities

All participants of this study including refugees and asylum seekers, owners of the businesses and organisations indicated that it is very challenging to access employment in Cape Town. Eventually, their comments and feedbacks are categorically presented according to refugee and organisational perspectives:

Refugee perspective

The majority of refugee participants pointed out the challenges of language, lack of legal documents, lack of knowledge and information of the labour market and exclusion from the labour market.

"...from my own experience, I cannot access employment so easily as you can hear that I cannot even express myself well in English. Since I came here I am struggling to find a proper job as I do not even have legal documents to present, the reason why I am selling the CDs in order to survive, but we also face challenges of the authorities because it is illegal to sell staffs at this place" (Participant 5).

"...you researchers, you do not have any idea of how, we refugees, are being treated here in South Africa. Just imagine how I was working in my home-country as pharmacologist but arrived here I cannot access proper jobs. In south Africa, when you apply for a job, you must have green South African ID, the refugee status that I own is not going to work and I found this as exclusion set by the government" (Participant 3).

"I remember for my first time here in Cape Town, my friends and I, made inquiry to the security company asking for a job, I could not properly speak English then one of my friend tried to introduce me but suddenly the boss of the company rejected me saying that if I cannot speak English, how will I report the incidents while I am on duties" (Participant 8).

Moreover, six refugees mentioned that sometimes employers have negative behaviours towards refugees (marginalisation) and refugees are often the first to lose their jobs opportunities in the economic downturn situation.

"Refugees in South Africa are suffering too much. For example, I am working in the factory of cheese but my refugee document is not allowed that is why currently I am working under South African names and I feel this very challenging to me as I cannot

access my full salary and the company uses such advantage to marginalise me and I cannot complain about my problem because I am illegally a worker of their company" (Participant 1).

"It has been very difficult for me to find work. This is the second time to struggle with job as our company has been closed by the city of Cape Town, we have been told that the company was illegal and they did not pay us the last three months now we are pursuing them in court, but who cares? Eishh.... Currently, I am looking for another job but normally when companies ask for your papers that is where you will face problem because most managers do not want to employ refugees" (Participant 7).

Organisational perspective

Regarding the access to employment for refugees and asylum seekers, owners of the businesses that employ refugees and organisations that support refugees had the following comments and feedbacks:

"Refugees face mainly the challenges of legal documents, English and other local languages here in South Africa. For example, in my business I need someone who is fluent in Xhosa and English language as he has to interact with my customers. Besides, they face another challenge of legal documents as under South African laws, we must hire legal foreign nationals with legal document such as work permit visa" (Owner1).

"...Migrant refugees from French colonial countries like Burundi, Rwanda, DRC and Congo face the main barrier of English language in accessing employment in South Africa. They cannot communicate well, and they are called Kwele-Kwele by the locals and this put them in unsafe situation. However, South Africa legislation limits also the number of migrants in the South African labour market in which employers are ordered to hire at least 60% of South Africa citizens and less than 40% of foreign nationals and it seems that South Africa is implementing the favour of employing their citizens first" (Organisation 1).

These above findings are therefore in conformity with the findings of quantitative analysis as presented in the previous section 5.3.1. Clearly, refugees and asylum seekers cannot be hired if they do not speak English or other South African local languages. However, without legal documents and English proficiency, refugees and asylum seekers are unhesitatingly excluded from the labour market and social

services as well. It is critically hard for refugees and asylum seekers of high skills in being hired on South African labour market under the Labour Relations Act and Immigration Act and other statutes as their lawful status is made difficult regarding the employment of foreign nationals on South Africa soil.

Equal access to employment

Equal access to employment when applying for a job and equal treatment in a working place for refugees and South African citizens, were other key challenges explored by the qualitative study. The majority of participants in this study including refugees and asylum seekers, owners of the business and organisations indicated the issues of being rejected, not given an equal chance of being selected when applying for a job and paying lower wages and being exploited by working many hours in the working place.

Refugee perspective

All refugee participants mentioned the issue of being rejected and excluded and unequal given chances when they are looking for a job and getting less in favour of South African citizens in the working place.

"...Whether you are or not qualified for the job you are applying for, South Africans get preferences first, you can get only get the job if you are not competing with South Africans. That's where the bosses will have interested in you" (Participant 8).

"The reports say that there is high unemployment in South Africa. Consequently, this means that when it comes the chance of some jobs, the probability will be given to the South Africans first" (Participant 5).

"Imagine you are doing the same job, but at the pay day, you get paid less salary comparing to the South Africans. My supervisor at work keeps telling me that they gave me a favour to employ me despite having my qualification" (Participant 1).

Organisational perspective

Regarding the equal access to employment and treatment in working place among refugees and South African citizens, the viewpoint of the refugee participants is approximatively similar to the owners of the business and organisations but one top of that, they point the negative attitudes of the employers towards refugees when they are applying for jobs or in the working place.

"Most refugees and asylum seekers have their legal permits in A4 paper as their identity while the South African citizens have ID book. Basically, on my first analysis when I am going to employ, I choose who have ID book and refugees might be the second option and that how the worth and value differ. This will not change until government does so." (Owner 1).

"In my own understanding, refugees and the citizens have the same chance to get jobs. The only thing refugees would complain about, it is permanent employment which they are denied but it is comprehensive, you cannot give them permanent contract as their documents are not permanent and that is the responsibility of the Home Affairs department" (Owner3).

"In most cases, the cause is the permit of refugees that expired in short period and sometimes they are denied the extension unless if they pay penalty charges, or it may be late for renewing their permits. Subsequently, the employers fear the loss of credibility and time of their companies when taking risks of employing refugees. Even if we assist refugees but we cannot force the Department of Home Affairs (DHA) to renew their documents...what we can do, is to assist refugees to contact the legal center and the Department of Social Development, then they can pursue the case against DHA in court in which this can possibly force with court order DHA to renew their permits without other conditions" (Organisation 2).

It is important to note that refugees and asylum seekers face many challenges in favour of the local citizens when they are looking for a job or when they are in the working place. Most respondents were in a difficult position to understand why their given documents (permits) state the rights of works and study in South Africa but still, it is not easy to access employment and social services in general for them.

5.4.2 Refugee participants and livelihoods assets

At this point, the participants were asked to reflect on their livelihoods assets that support them to access the labour market in Cape Town. A detailed analysis of the comments and feedbacks collected showed the resemblance to the output of quantitative analysis in section 5.3.2. It mentioned that the livelihoods assets of refugee participants include education achievement and skills in training (human capital), social network determined by the friendship and relationship with family, friends and relatives (social capital) and income salary as a financial asset.

A participant said the following:

"As I mentioned before, I came in South Africa with a master's degree in pharmacy. I am a pharmacologist and I am trying to look for a job but it is very tough, my friends advise me to study further and get a degree in South Africa in order to get a job but I do not have money to study " (Participant 3).

Another participant had also this to say:

"In this country, you cannot survive on your own. We join the refugee communities, church and Scalabrini center and they help us to get various supports such as training, recommendations to the job opportunities and access to information. For example, I am member of one of refugee communities, they learn us English and local languages, we get trainings and recommendations to jobs opportunities once we done the courses, they also help new comers to be familiar with the working system of South Africa" (Participant 9).

In addition, a participant also indicated that:

"When I look at myself, my family and friends mean a lot to me, we help each other to get job network from where they work and when you lose a job, it is very easy to find a new job when you know people. the most importantly, our income from different activities is the only resources that refugees use because we do not own land here in South Africa" (Participant 4).

As evidenced in the above comments, the income salary, friendship and relationship seem to be meaningful as the main resources of refugee participants. Such resources help them to access employment and to survive.

5.4.3 Transforming structures and processes

Additionally, the respondents were asked to reflect on the institutions, organisations, policies and legislations that influence their livelihoods. Moreover, they were asked to reflect on supporting structures and the nature of the support of such structures as well as the level of difficulty of access to social services. The results in this section are associated with the research objective aimed to evaluate the availability and accessibility of support structures to refugees and asylum seekers in facilitating access to the labour market. The findings in this section conform to the quantitative analysis in section 5.3.3. Some interesting comments mentioned South African Police Services,

Department of Home Affairs (DHA), Department of Health, Department of Social Development, Department of Labour, Department of Education, UNHCR and the Scalabrini Centre as supporting structures available to refugees and asylum seekers.

Refugee perspective

All ten refugee participants indicated that they have been assisted by different refugee organisations specifically the UNHCR as the United Nations' specialised agency for refugee and Scalabrini Centre and other government structures.

Some participants emphasised that:

"...I only know Police and Department of Home Affairs. Just because I know that if I get robbed or other problem regarding my safety and security I have to run to the police. Also, Home Affairs because they give me protection by giving me documents" (Participant 7).

"Generally, I know Department of Health, Department of Social Development and Department of Labour and Home Affairs. I think all of us we know how health services are very important, it easy for me to access health services and other social services including social grants but my fellow refugees do not have that chance, I can say that I am lucky but my husband and I are working as car guards as we are struggling to find better employment at the moment" (Participant 6)

One participant mentioned bad experiences from health services:

"...I know UNHCR, Scalabrini centre, Hospitals, Police and Home Affairs. Those organisations provide us support of job opportunities, education and training and security. But I do not appreciate the services of hospitals and clinics, they sometimes do not serve the refugees because of not having proper documents" (Participant 6).

Another participant indicated the bad experience with bank services:

"I do not know about structures, but I know Bank, Home Affairs and Scalabrini centre. I once contacted the NEDBANK to open bank account but they told me that my photo of my permit is not visual (clear) in which I went back to the Home Affairs to correct my permit but they rejected me. Later, my friends told me that NEDBANK do not facilitate refugees then I contacted BIDVEST with the same permit and they opened my bank account. By the way, even Home Affairs does not deliver good services to

the refugees at all, they should have corrected my photo on the permit in order to alleviate the complain of NEDBANK"

Furthermore, another participant mentioned the bad experiences with police services:

"I can say that I know clinic, police and Home Affairs only. Home Affairs provide me documents, clinic; health services but I disagree with Police services. I once got raped but when I went to report two guy rapists, the police said that myself was drunk and I felt myself disappointed as the police should have protected and served me" (Participant 6).

Furthermore, other participants indicated difficulties to access social services especially for undocumented.

"I cannot be able to access education of my children, health care, last month my husband went to the Eerste Rivier hospital seeking blood pressure treatments and they refused to treat her because we have no money" (Participant 6).

"I don't access the social services due to lack of documents, I even missed to go to the university because I don't have documents, I don't have money for transport to go to the home affairs of Pretoria because here in cape town they don't take new comers anymore" (Participant 5).

The study also encountered some cases of lack of information and knowledge for refugees and asylum seekers about policies and legislative frameworks towards refugees in which four of ten refugee participants indicated that they are not aware or uncertain about them.

"In this life, I deal with struggle all the time, I do not know about those policies but I know there might be policies towards refugees even if I do not know them" (Participant 8).

"There might be the constitution, but I have never heard or read about what constitution of South Africa says towards refugees" (Participant 4).

Organisational perspective

In the study, organisations and owners of the businesses were asked to reflect on the role of NGO's in addressing the challenges faced by refugees and the reason that impacts the exclusion of refugees from being employed. They were asked to reflect on laws and policies that could be implemented to address such challenges.

"Refugees come to get assistance by us especially those who are jobless and who do not earn income. They face many challenges and they are helpless; we assist them by the training and counselling them for their situation of stress and shock. Sometimes, they face attacks by the locals and they do not feel comfortable to go to the police. It is not surprisingly, as many people have a false negative assumption saying that police are not cooperative" (Organisation 2).

"It is not surprise that refugees are the most vulnerable here, they do not know about policies even structures and how they operate and as long the system continues in this way, the vulnerability of refugee will be worse than what we see today. Government should think on immediate solution and yes, Home Affairs also should teach refugees about policies and laws on their arrivals and be given pamphlets of those policies" (Organisation 1).

Organisation 1 continued by presenting the key-point of accessing social services for refugees and asylum seekers.

"...The problem of refugees is the lack of information. In some point you can access to social services such social grants when you have permanent illness like HIV-AIDS and Tuberculosis or if you are disabled but for only those who have are recognised as refugee status not asylum seekers. In our organisation, we try to teach refugees about laws and policies that influence them, and I think the government should do the same" (Organisation 1).

WESTERN CAPE
Moreover, another one indicated that:

"Government should allow refugees the same right to be employed as citizen and if they really want help refugees they should provide subsidies to the employers in order to tackle this issue of unemployment among refugees" (Owner 3).

As clearly shown in the comments above, there are various support structures and specific services offered available to refugee participants. These structures impact on the livelihood of refugees and asylum seekers. However, refugee participants expressed their uncertainty and lack of information and knowledge about policies towards refugees. The results of comments shown above have very little added information of accessing bank services to the statistical analysis in section 5.3.3 as this information was not captured by the statistical analysis before.

5.4.4 Livelihoods strategies adopted by participants

During the survey, the participants were also assigned to reflect on what they do to survive and make living in South Africa as adopted livelihood strategies. The results in this section conform to the quantitative analysis in the section 5.3.4. These results are associated to the research objective aimed at identifying the livelihood strategies and coping strategies used by asylum seekers and refugees in accessing employment opportunities and making a living. Several comments of refugee participants indicated their sources of income as livelihood strategies adopted including informal trade and services, humanitarian assistance, social networks, government social grants and other contract work and businesses.

A refugee participant indicated that refugees run informal trade because proper employment are not accessible:

"In most cases, we refugees, run informal activities because we cannot get proper jobs. Besides, we get resources from income of informal activities and other assistance from organisations. For example, I have my own informal business of mechanical windscreen fitting, but it is not enough for me to feed my family. Besides, my wife is hired by Scalabrini center in assisting newcomer refugees and both incomes help to survive our family" (Participant 9).

Other participants mentioned that they rely on government social grant, friendship and relationship between family, friends and relatives:

"In my family, we do not earn much money. As you can see, my husband and I, work as car guards and we do not earn much money for a family of five children we have to feed. On top of that, we get support from the government social grant otherwise we were not going to manage the education of our children and other needs for our family" (Participant 6).

"Basically, I get supports from the organisation and my friends otherwise I cannot survive only with my income because it is too small. I am used to lack money to buy food and pay rent, but my two roommates help me to survive" (Participant 5).

"My father helped me to get a job in WIMPY restaurant because he is friend of manager and I can say that if it was not him, I should not get job as I had no skills when I finished my high school" (Participant 2).

Similarly, one participant told of an interesting experience:

"The questions you are asking are like you are spying on refugees but let me tell you the secret of my journey to employment. I came in this country with nothing, I started by struggling in car guard services, I gathered money for four years saving the money of school fees. After that I went to the university to study nursing and when I completed my degree it is where I got this job. I can say it is a nice job comparing to other refugees who are still struggling" (Participant 10).

Even though, it is important to note that refugee participants in this study use different strategies to get employment and to survive. Some get help from their families or friends; others choose to operate in the informal sector as it is not easy for them to access the formal sector. They also seek assistance from the organisation in terms of education and training and financial supports, lastly and others hardly save money and invest in their studies to get better employment.

5.4.5 Coping strategies adopted by participants

In this study, the participants were asked to reflect on the mechanisms adopted to address the challenges faced when accessing employment. The results of this section as the previous section, are associated with the research objective aimed to identify the livelihood strategies and coping strategies used by asylum seekers and refugees in accessing employment opportunities and making living. These results conform to the quantitative analysis in section 5.3.5. The mechanisms adopted by refugee participants as coping strategies include their capabilities, skills, social and economic assets they possess which they use to access employment and make a living.

Some refugee participants admitted that it is their character, determination and resilience that help them to cope with the challenges faced when seeking employment:

"From my own experience, I can say that I have a mind of hardworking. As I told you before, I spent four years saving money from car guard, after I went to school. In that period, I used to eat once per day and my living situation was not good at all but remember I had a passion and ambition to study and get a nice job. I was so determined" (Participant 10).

"Refugees are always hardworking and want to survive. I do all necessaries to get a daily bread...hahahaha<laughing>..but do not get me wrong, I cannot be involved in illegal things to get that bread" (Participant 5).

One participant mentioned the skills and knowledge and experience:

"I have the skills of mechanical fitting and I have knowledge and experience of 5 years of this field. I do not think that I can lack job" (Participant 9).

Other participants indicated the formal qualification, organisations, association and social network (friendships and relationships):

"Now I got my formal qualification, I would say that I coped with my challenges of accessing employment. Besides, I have my family around and my friends we studied together, we have an association that can help each and every member who faces a problem" (Participant 10).

"When I came here in South Africa, I join the Adventist church at Kuils river. They are really amazing; they support me all the time when I need them" (Participation 9).

"Refugees struggle too much and the most thing we need is job income. Despite all challenges, we have organisations like Scalabrini and UNCHR that support us, you cannot die you run to them and they do not reject anyone" (Participant 6).

Moreover, other participants mentioned the bribe, cash and available credit as coping strategies to access employment:

"I am telling you this country is very corrupted. I cannot tell lies, all jobs that I had been hired before I paid the bribe to be selected. And most refugees pay the bribe in security, cleaning and car guard companies" (Participant 4).

"To start this job of delivery, I used my money to get traffic register and licenses and after I bought this car. But to get my license I paid the bribe otherwise I was not going to get it. All of us we start bad but when you get chance you end up well." (Participant 8).

Moreover, the participant added loan as coping strategies adopted:

"Accessing job needs more strategies for refugees. For me, in this current job, I got helped by my parents who paid my training course and after I borrowed money from my parents to buy facilities for starting this barber shop" (Participant 4).

These comments above reveal the real mechanisms adopted by refugee participants as coping strategies to address their challenges of accessing the labour market. Hence, the results show that participants use personal character, skills, bribe, cash, social network and other mechanisms to cope with the challenges of employment and to survive. All these results are linked to the research objective that was aimed to identify how refugees and asylum seekers cope with the challenges they face and how they survive.

5.4.6 Livelihood outcomes

Lastly, refugee participants in this study were asked to reflect on their desired livelihood outcomes when embracing different strategies and coping mechanisms to access employment opportunities. The results in this section conform with the quantitative analysis in section 5.3.6. The feedback and comments of respondents indicated improved wellbeing, more income, food security as their desired livelihood outcomes they would achieve.

Some participants indicated improving the quality of life including food security and escaping the stressful situation.

"You also understand that when someone works hard, he ends up by gaining more income. Myself was doing two jobs before; during the day was working as car guard but night I go to the security job. The output is just to get more food at home and improve our living situation" (Participant 8).

"I was living in a stressful situation where I was dealing with saving money for my studies. I even had to skip one meal in order to save more, it was a difficult situation. Later on, I went to school and I got a better job which helped to change my life, I cannot say that I have a better life but at least I manage to get food for my family, to pay rent on time and provide education of my children" (Participant 10).

Beyond improved of quality of life, one participant added an improved level of income that allows him to remit money to his family in his home country:

"Everyone dreams to get a job and have a better life. I fought to get my driving license to change my life. I started badly as even I was struggling to speak English but when I started delivery job, I got a new life; I gain more income that is helping with many

things including food security and pay rent and I can send money to my family in my home country" (Participant 8).

Other two participants mentioned the access to education and improved housing and secure place:

"I used to stay in the shack in the location of Kalkfontein at Kuils river but when I settled my own business and my wife got a job, we gathered our income and we rent a nice room in a safe area of Bellville South" (Participant 9).

"Like I said earlier, being refugee seems to be like a criminal but when you get more income, there you will have a voice and none will question who you are as you will be staying in a safe area. Your children will be studying in a nice school of better education and your family will have no stress because your wellbeing is sorted" (Participant 2).

Clearly from the results of this study, the refugee participants adopt different livelihood strategies and coping mechanisms to achieve different livelihood outcomes. Access employment is a key-success to the improved wellbeing of households in the community in which people will feel safe without stress and shock state if the accessibility of economic opportunities is available to them.

5.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the quantitative and qualitative analysis was discussed by employing the Sustainable Livelihood Framework as a theoretical framework in this study. The quantitative analysis presented the results of descriptive statistics, bivariate and multivariate analysis. Furthermore, the study determined the relationship the wellbeing and its sustainable livelihood determinants including employment status. This study affirmed that the capabilities, socio-economic resources have an impact and contribute to the wellbeing of refugee participants. Beyond the wellbeing, other livelihood outcomes have also been identified in this study.

The qualitative analysis was described in six themes that validate the research objectives to authenticate and provide evidence of the challenges of accessing labour markets for refugees and asylum seekers. The qualitative analysis conducted an indepth understanding of the research problem and supported the quantitative analysis. Consequently, the mixed methodology approach used in this study accomplished a

good outcome. However, the data analysed in this study raised unquestionable reasoning in two points: One point stating that refugees are vulnerable and need assistance and another one is asking if enough is being done to improve the need of refugees. With referring to the above analysis of this study, a recommendation will be addressed and discussed in the following chapter.



CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter one, the main aim of this mini-thesis was ventilated as to deeply identify the challenges faced by refugees and asylum seekers in accessing the labour market in Cape Town, South Africa, with Bellville as the case study area. Under these circumstances, the researcher identified three research objectives and described in Chapter one. Consequently, the data were analysed by employing the Sustainable Livelihood Framework as a theoretical framework (Chapter three) and using quantitative and qualitative analysis to respond to the research objectives which were presented in Chapter five. The quantitative analysis provided the demographic and socio-economic overview of refugee participants and the relationship between the dependent variable of the wellbeing of participants and other independents variables such as employment status, education status, household size, income and English proficiency. Multiple tests such as Pearson's chi-squared test and regression analysis were used to test the strength of relationship for some variables that might impact the wellbeing of participants in the study. The qualitative analysis provided an in-depth understanding of the study and described in six themes that validate the research objectives defined in chapter four. VERSITY of the

This final chapter fundamentally presents a summary of findings, recommendations and conclusion of the study. Its core pivot is to revisit the research objectives and research questions of the study as presented in Chapter one and Chapter four and establish the significance to which the findings of the study may justify the views of other researchers in the literature as described in Chapter one and chapter two. Lastly, this study will lay out the summary of findings correlated with the research objectives. Thereafter, the suggestions and recommendations will be given along with the conclusion.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This section reflects on key-findings from the results and discussions of the study that have been presented in Chapter five. However, the key-findings are deliberated in correlation with the research objective in which the main aim of the study is to deeply identify the challenges of accessing labour markets for refugees and asylum seekers

in Cape Town, South Africa. Bellville has been identified as a case study area where a sample of refugee participants, owners of the businesses that employ refugees have been selected. VIDEFI, a Non-Profit Organisation (NPO) along with Scalabrini Center have been initiated as an organisation that supports refugees. In responding to the research objectives, the mixed-method approach and SLF were employed. The researcher believes that qualitative analysis brings in-depth understanding of the quantitative analysis. The results of this study reflect that of 30 respondents, most (20%) are from Somalia, followed by Great Lakes countries of East Africa (including 17% from DRC, 17% from Rwanda and 7% from Burundi), Ethiopia (14%), Zimbabwe (14%), Uganda (7%), the Republic of Cameroun together with the Republic of Congo (7%). The study indicates that approximately 73% of participants are young (between 18-45 years old) and 27% are above 45 years. Furthermore, the study indicated that 72% of participants are employed in the informal sector of activities (including spaza shops, hairdressing and informal services of food and transport) and 28% in the formal sector of activities (including community and services, transport and formal services of hotel and restaurant).

6.2.1 Research Objective one: Investigate the challenges impacting on asylum seekers and refugees in accessing the labour market

In this study, the Sustainable Livelihood Framework was employed as a theoretical framework. This research explored the vulnerability context of refugee participant including their challenges faced when accessing employment opportunities, equal access to employment when they are applying for a job and equal treatment in the working place comparing to their fellow South Africans citizens. Refugees and asylum seekers are exposed to various dimensions of vulnerability such as economic that refers to financial aspects (poverty and other economic hardship), social that refers to discrimination and lack of social support, and psychological that refers to depressions, stress and anxiety (Riederer, 2018). Moreover, Dinbabo, et al., (2018) argue that refugees encounter many barriers such as labour markets tests, language proficiency, skills and qualifications. Subsequently, this study indicated that employed participants graded and arranged by size the challenge encountered. They mentioned the challenge of lack of proper documents being the most barrier for refugees (64%), followed by the exclusion and marginalisation (48%), being unable to speak English (28%) and being unfamiliar of the working environment (8%). On the other hands,

unemployed participants graded only the challenges of lack of documents (60%), exclusion and marginalisation (40%) and being unfamiliar with their working environment (20%). This view of the challenges faced by refugees is shared by owners of the businesses who said that refugees mostly face challenges of legal documents, English proficiency and other local languages. Furthermore, the employers in their companies also obey the rules of employing at least 60% of citizens and less than 40% of migrants (Interview: Owner of the business, 2020). The staff of the organisation added that refugees from French colonial countries face the English barrier as they cannot communicate well (Interview: Organisation, 2020). The refugee participants might admit themselves that they are living in a stressful condition but the reality shows also the same thing as being in the vulnerability situation. Subsequently, the access to employment is more evident to be understood as a limitation for refugees due to some laws and policies of South Africa towards labour migration

6.2.2 Research Objective two: Identify and examine the livelihood strategies and coping strategies used by asylum seekers and refugees in accessing employment opportunities and making a living

Following the SLF as a theoretical framework, the study identified the livelihood strategies adopted by refugee participants to access employment and to make a living. Households engage in different livelihoods strategies to cope with shocks and stressful situations. In this study, nearly 20% of participants engaged in at least two different livelihood strategies and 69% have at least three livelihood strategies. Refugee participants mainly gain their source of livelihood strategies in informal businesses and services (45%). Other livelihood strategies include other contract work and businesses (21%), family and friends (11%), donations (8%), government social grant (9%) and NGO's (6%). This was confirmed by a refugee participant who said that refugees prefer the informal activities as the formal activities are not available to them and they also decide to continue their education and to request support from organisations to raise the chance of accessibility of income and manage their living (Interview: Refugee survey, 2020). Another refugee participant added that refugees rely on relationship and friendship of friends, family and relatives and government social grant as their livelihood strategies (Interview: Refugee survey, 2020).

The study employed the Pearson's chi-squared test and regression analysis to verify if there exists a significant relationship between the wellbeing of refugee participants

and their livelihoods strategies adopted. The study introduced the following hypothesis to test the significance:

Ho: Livelihood strategies adopted to contribute to the improvement of the wellbeing of participants.

H1: There is no significant contribution of livelihood strategies adopted to the improvement of the wellbeing of participants.

The test results indicated the chi-squared value of 41.3455 at 32 degrees of freedom and a significance level of 0.125. Therefore, acceptance of the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative was confirmed. The results of the regression analysis agreed with the above acceptance. This confirmed that at 95% confidence interval, livelihood strategies adopted by participants significantly contribute to the improvement of their well-being.

Refugees participants have different capabilities and socio-economic resources that allow them to access employment and cope with shocks and stresses. In this study, experience in the field (20%), knowledge in the field (33%) and relevant skills (27%) have been graded as the most capabilities adopted to cope the uncertainty of accessing employment and stressful situation. This was complemented by a participant who said that refugees also use the personal characteristics of hard work and formal qualification as their coping mechanism to access jobs and survive (Interview: Refugees survey, 2020).

The study employed the Pearson's chi-squared test to verify if there exists a significant relationship between the wellbeing of refugee participants and their capabilities as coping mechanisms adopted. The study applied the following hypothesis to test the significance:

Ho: There is a relationship between wellbeing and the capabilities as coping strategies adopted.

H1: There is no relationship between wellbeing and capabilities

The test results indicated the chi-squared value of 16.9744 at 20 degrees of freedom and 0.655 significance level. Therefore, the acceptance confirmed the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative. At a 95% confidence interval, there is a significant relationship between the wellbeing of participants and their capabilities.

Despite the scarcity of socio-economic resources, refugee participants employ various resources as coping strategies to access employment and survive. In this study, participants indicated cash (13%), bribe (17%), family (27%) and friends (20%) as their most socio-economic resources that enable them to access employment and survive. This was confirmed by the participant who said that refugees often use bribes as South Africa is more corrupt and cash in skills and training to access employment (Interview: Refugee survey, 2020).

The study employed the chi-squared test and the following hypothesis was used to test the significance:

Ho: there is a relationship between the wellbeing of participants and their adopted socio-economic resources as a coping strategy.

H1: There is no relationship between wellbeing and socio-economic resources

The test results indicated the chi-squared value of 15.7891 at 15 degrees of freedom and the significance level of 0.396. The null hypothesis was accepted in favour of alternative and the study implied the confirmation at 95% confidence interval, the existence of significant relationships between the wellbeing of participants and their socio-economic resources as coping strategies adopted.

6.2.3 Research Objective three: Evaluate the availability and accessibility of support structures to refugees and asylum seekers in facilitating access to the labour market

Refugee livelihoods in host countries are deeply controlled and shaped by government policy, local institutions, civil society attitudes and socio-economic conditions of such host countries. They generally control and influence who gain access to assets (Brown, et al., 2018). In this study, refugee participants graded the South African Police Services (SAPS) at 93%, Department of Home Affairs (70%), Refugees centres (77%) and NGO's (UNHCR and Scalabrini) (57%) as the support structures available to refugees and which influence and control their livelihoods. In this instance, they also graded the education opportunities (43%), job integration (20%), food and health (57%) and legal documentation along with security and safety (57%) as the nature of supports services received from the above structures. This was complemented by the refugee participants who said that refugees get the support of legal document from Home Affairs (refugee centres), security and safety from police, health services from

Department of Health and recommendation of job opportunities, food, training and financial supports from an organisation like UNHCR and Scalabrini (Interview: Refugee survey, 2020).

The South Africa government is ultimately responsible for controlling, regulating and monitoring who gain access to social services in terms of its constitutional and legal obligations (ISD, 2018; Peberdy, 2002). Subsequently, in this study, the participants graded the level of accessibility of social services in which they found very challenging (very difficult) to access the Home Affairs services (63%) and social grants (50%). Furthermore, other social services such as education services (13%), health services (40%) and police services (37%) were graded as difficult to access them. On the contrary, only police services, health services and education services that have been graded as the most services which are less difficult to access. This was complemented by the staff of organisation who said that most refugees do not know policies and structures and their functions which have impacts to the refugees in accessing social services (Interview: Organisation, 2020). Another staff of organisation indicated the lack of information regarding access to social services like social grants in which teaching laws and policies to refugees (Interview: Organisation, 2020). A participant confirmed the above results by mentioning negative behaviours of service providers such as bank services and health services and how they do not treat refugees well (Interview: Refugee survey, 2020).

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

After exploring the challenges of accessing employment opportunities for refugees and asylum seekers, this study suggests the recommendations regarding the integration of refugees in South Africa. The following recommendations are addressed to the South African government, organisations including the owner of the businesses, refugees and researchers of migration field:

6.3.1 Recommendations to the South African government and organisations

 The South African government acknowledges the need to apply the rule of employing at least 60% of its citizens and less than 40% of international migrants to address the problem of high unemployment among its citizens. However, regarding refugee, the government should revise its policies towards refugees in separating the issue of refugee protection from

- international migration. It should also provide the value of refugee documents whose can ensure access to the labour markets for refugees.
- The South African government should consider and include refugees in the
 disadvantaged group like any vulnerable person without separating refugees
 from citizens to be considered by the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 as
 amended, to ensure the equity in the working place and equal opportunity and
 fair treatment in employment towards refugees. However, the government
 should ensure mitigation measures regarding employers when employing
 refugees.
- The South African government should empower the refugee and integrate them to the labour market with the specific policies for the refugee without ignoring the labour market behaviour. In addition, the government should recognise refugees who can establish the informal businesses and those who are engaged in various businesses to assist and improve the run and set up of their businesses by providing them financial support and logistical support.
- The South African government, organisations and other practitioners should ensure that people seeking protection, including refugees, get access to food, housing, social services, and legal advice at the level of service offered to citizens.
- There is a need for the City of Cape Town to assist refugees and campaign for them.
- The owners of businesses (employers) must treat refugees with dignity in the working place regarding illegal exploitation when they are attempting to access employment.
- UNHCR should reinforce its influence regarding refugees in coordination with refugee communities to facilitate refugee protection in South Africa.

6.3.2 Recommendations to the refugees

- The refugees must consult the city of Cape Town, join refugee communities and other organisations for assistance.
- The newcomers must regularise their stay to alleviate the risk of insecurity and the coalition with the police.

6.3.3 Recommendation for further research

- There is further research for exploring the challenges impacting on refugees and asylum seekers in accessing the labour markets in the whole province of the Western Cape and the country of South Africa.
- Further research is needed to intensively study the labour market to make it simpler for refugees and asylum seekers.

6.4 LIMITATIONS

This study focused on exploring the challenges impacting refugees when accessing the labour market and social services from the refugee and organisational perspectives. The research did not consider the government perspective and that could lead to deep understanding of the problem of refugees. The researcher is also aware that a selective study with a much larger sample population over a larger area would have brought a better understanding of the challenges impacting refugees and asylum seekers in the city of Cape Town.

6.5 CONCLUSION

South Africa has recognised the issue of increased refugees over the past ten years. Many displaced people flee their home countries for various social, economic and political reasons, and they moved to South Africa seeking refugee protection. This has generated interest in the challenges impacting refugees and asylum seekers including their safety and security, access to social services, and integration of migrants and refugees in South Africa. The study was conducted in Bellville, Cape Town, and demonstrates the serious issues facing refugees seeking employment opportunities and social services. These harm their livelihoods. Too little is being done to find a durable solution to the challenges faced by refugees as the South African government suffers from high unemployment among its citizens. Such an initiative requires an economically stable government, and for the owners of the businesses and other organisations as well as multilateral institutions to bring their support in finding a solution. The results of the study revealed numerous livelihood strategies and coping mechanisms that refugees adopt when attempting to find employment, and to be resilient in the face of shock and stress.

REFERENCE LIST

Adato, M. and Meinzen-Dick, R.S. 2002. Assessing the impact of agricultural research on poverty using the sustainable livelihoods framework. Washington, D.C. International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). (581-2016-39396).

Alhourani, A.R. 2015. Performative ethnography: difference and conviality of everyday multiculturalism in Bellville (Cape Town). University of the Western Cape Research Repository. *Journal of African Cultural Studies*, 29(2): 211-226. Available at https://dx,doi.org/10.1080/13696815.2016.1273764. [Accessed 15 February 2020].

Antman, F.M. 2018. Women and Migration. IZA Institute of Labour Economics. *Discussion Papers Series No. 11282*

Ashley, C. and Carney, D. 1999. *Sustainable Livelihoods; Lessons from early experience*. London: Department for International Development (DFID).

Babbie, E. 2007. *The practice of social research*. 11th ed. Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth. 24(511):66.

Babbie, E., and Mouton, J. 2001. *The practice of Social Research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Barbelet, V. and Wake, C. 2017. Livelihoods in displacement: from refugee perspectives to aid agency response. Humanitarian policy group (HPG) Report 2017/09. Overseas Development Institute (ODS). Available at: https://www.odi.org.uk/hpg. [Accessed 04 April 2020].

Barker, F. 2007. The South African Labour Market: Theory and Practice. 5th ed. Pretoria: Vain Schaik.

Bhandari, H. and Yasunobu, K. 2009. What is social capital? A comprehensive review of the concept. *Asian Journal of Social Science*, 37(3): 480-510.

Bird, D. K. 2009. The use of questionnaires for acquiring information on public perception of natural hazards and risk mitigation -a review of current knowledge and practice. *Natural Hazards and Earth System Sciences*, 9 (4): 1307-1325.

Bourdieu, P. 1979. Les trois états du capital culturel. In: *Actes de la recherche en Sciences Scociales*, 30(1):3-6.

Brown, A., Mackie, P., Dickenson, K. and Gebre-Egziaber, T. 2018. *Refugees livelihoods in the international context*. International Institute for Environment and Development. JSTOR. Available at: http://www.jstor.org/stable/resrep16507.5. [Accessed 04 April 2020].

Bryant, M. 2015. *Conducting observational research*. In Workshop 6th July. Swinburne Business School. Deakin University. Available at: https://www.deakin.edu.au/data/assets/pdf-file/0004/681025/participant-observation.pdf&ved=2ahUKEwiVy-facessed 21 August 2019].

- Campbell, M.R., Mann, K.D., Moffatt, S., Dave, M., and Pearce, M.S. 2018. Social determinants of emotional wellbeing in new refugees in the UK. Public Health, (164): 72-81. Available at: https://doi:10.1016/j.puhe.2018.07.022. [Accessed 12 April 2020].
- Carney, D., Drinkwater, M., Rusinow, T., Neefjes, K., Wanmali, S. and Sngh, N. 1999. Livelihoods approached compared: a brief comparison of the livelihoods approaches of the UK department for International Development (DFID), CARE, Oxfam and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Department for International Development (DFID), UK.
- Chambers, R. and Conway, G.R. 1992. Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: Practical concepts for the 21st Century, IDS Discussion Paper 296. Brighton: Institute for Development Studies (IDS), UK.
- Chappell, L. and Sriskandarajah, D. 2007. Mapping the development impacts of migration. Development on the Move. *Working Paper 1*. London. Institute of Public Policy Research (IPPR).
- Collins, J.S. 1996. *An analysis of the Voluntariness of Refugees Repatriation in Africa: Refugee Law, Theory and Settlement*. Available at: https://umanitoba.ca/institutes/disaster-research/refugee-thesis/content.pdf. [Accessed 20 April 2020].
- Costanza, R., and Delay, H. 1992. Natural capital and sustainable development. *Conservation Biology*, 6(1): 37-46.
- Creswell, J. 2003. Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches. 2nd ed. California: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Crush, J. and Williams, V. 2005. International Migration and Development Dynamics and Challenges in South and Southern Africa. New York: United Nations Secretariat.
- Crush, J., Dodson, B., Williams, V. and Tevera, D. 2017a. Harnessing Migration for Inclusive Growth and Development in Southern Africa. Southern African Migration Programme Special Report. Waterloo, Ontario: SAMP. Available at: https://www.samponline.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/06/SAMPSpecialReport.pdf. [Accessed 25 April 2019].
- Crush, J., Tawodzera, G., McCordic, C. and Ramachandran, S. 2017b. Refugee Entrepreneurial Economies in Urban South Africa. *Southern African Migration Programme (SAMP). SAMP MIGRATION POLICY SERIES No.* 76, International Migration Research Centre, Ontario, Canada.
- Curtiss, J. 2012. Determinants of financial capital use: Review of theories and implications for rural business. *Working Paper No. 19*. Factor Markets.
- De Beer, J., Fu, K. and Wunsch-Vincent, S. 2013. The informal economy, innovation and intellectual property: concepts, metrics and policy considerations. *Economic Research Working Paper No.10*. World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO).

De Haas, H. 2009. Remittances and social development. *In Financing Social Policy*, 293-318. Palgrave Macmillan: London.

De Haas, H. 2011. The Determinants of International Migration: Conceptualizing Policy, Origin and Destination Effect. *IMI Working paper 32*. Oxford University: International Migration Institute.

De Satge, R., Holloway, A., Mullins, D. and Ward, P. 2002. *Learning about livelihoods. Insights from Southern Africa*. (Cape Town. Periperi Publications in South Africa (1).

De Vos, A. S. 2002. Research at Grassroots: For the Social Science and Human Service Professions. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Department for International Development (DFID). 1999. Sustainable livelihoods guidance sheets, London: DFID. Available at: https://www.livelihoodscentre.org/documents/114097690/114438878/Sustainable%2 Blivelihoods%2Bguidance%2Bsheets.pdf. [Accessed 21 April 2020].

Department of Home Affairs (DHA). 2011. *General information about refugees and asylum* seekers. Available at: https://www.dha.gov.za/Refugee%20status%20asylum.html. [Accessed 06 July 2019].

Diebolt, C., Haupert, M. and Goldin, C. 2014. Human capital. *Handbook of cliometrics*. Havard University: 1-40

Dinbabo, M.F. and Carciotto, S. 2015. International migration in Sub-Saharan Africa: A call for a Global Research Agenda. *African Human Mobility Review* (AHMR), 1(2): 154-177.

Dinbabo, M.F. and Nyasulu, T. 2015. Macroeconomic immigration determinants: an analysis of pull factors of international migration to South Africa. *African Human Mobility Review* (AHMR), 1(1): 27-53.

Dinbabo, MF, Ile, I, Majee, W. Belebema, M and Boadu, E. 2018. Evaluating System Efficiencies and Service Delivery of Immigrant Population in South Africa and United States. *African Human Mobility Review (AHMR)*. 4 (3):1386-1416.

Dinbabo, MF. & Badewa, AS. (2020). Monitoring of migration policy frameworks, treaties and conventions development in Africa. *Journal of African Union Studies*. 9(1), Pp: 23-49

Dinbabo, MF. Belebema. M. & Mensah, C. (2017). Territorial Imbalances but Growing Rural–Urban Linkages. In: Mercandalli, S. & Losch, B., Eds. *Rural Africa in motion. Dynamics and drivers of migration South of the Sahara.* Rome, FAO and CIRAD. Pp: 36-37.

Docquier, F. 2014. The brain drain from developing countries: The brain drain produces many more losers than winners in developing countries. *Working Paper*. IZA World of Labour. Available at: https://doi:10.15185/izawol.31 [Accessed 12 December 2019].

Dodson, B., Simelane, H., Tevera, D., Green, T., Chikanda, A., and De Vletter, F. 2008. Gender, Migration and Remittances in southern Africa. *Migration policy series No. 49*. SAMP Publication.

Döring, I.M. 2019. Refugees welcome: The impact of social support on refugees' wellbeing. Magazine issue 1 2019/issue 39. In-Mind Magazine. Available at: https://www.in-mind.org/article/refugees-wellcome-the-impact-of-social-support-on-fugees-well-being. [Accessed 08 April 2020].

Durlauf, S.N. and Fafchamps, M. 2003. Empirical studies of social capital: a critical survey. *Working Paper*. Oxford University, United Kingdom.

Ehrenberg, R.G. and Smith, R.S. 2017. *Modern Labor Economics: Theory and public policy*, 13th ed. New York. Routledge. Available at: https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315101798. [Accessed 06 August 2019].

Elasha, B.O., Elhassan, N.G., Ahmed, H. and Zakieldin, S. 2005. Sustainable livelihood approach for assessing community resilience to climate change: case studies from Sudan. Assessment of impacts and adaptations to climate change. *AIACC working papers*. (17). Available at: https://www.aiaccproject.org. [Accessed 24 July 2019].

Fagioli-Ndlovu, M., 2015. The migration-development nexus in Somaliland: Critical voices from the Somali diaspora. *African Human Mobility Review (AHMR)*,1(1):101-129.

Frayne, B., Battersby-Lennard, J., Fincham, R. and Haysom, G. 2009. Urban food security in South Africa: Case study of Cape Town, Msunduza and Johannesburg, Midrand: Development Planning Division, *Working Paper Series No.15*, DBSA.

Frith, A. 2018. Main place Bellville from Census 2011 "Census 2011 Community Profile Databases and Census 2011". [blog] Available at: https://census2011.adrianfrith.com/place/199016. [Accessed 20 March 2019].

Gastrow, V. and Amit, R. 2013. SOMALINOMICS: a case study on the economics of Somali informal trade in western Cape. African Centre for Migration and Society (ACMS) Research Report. University of Witwatersrand, School of Social Sciences. Available at: https://www.migration.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2017/08/Somalinomics.s-case-study-0f-the-economics-of-somali-informal-trade-in-the-western-cape.pdf. [Accessed 15 February 2020].

Globalisation and Livelihood Options of People living in Poverty (GLOPP). 2008. *DFID's Sustainable Livelihood Approach and its Framework*. [Online]. Swiss Virtual Campus (SVC). Available at: https://www.glopp.ch/B7/en/multimedia/B71pdf2.pdf. [Accessed 17 August 2019].

Goodwin, N.R. 2003. Five kinds of capital: Useful concepts for sustainable development. *Working Paper No. 03-07*. Global Development and Environment Institute. Tufts University, USA.

Harzig, C., Hoerder, D. and Gabaccia, D. 2013. *What is migration history?* John Wiley & Sons, Inc. New Jersey, USA.

Henning, E., Van Rensburg, W. and Smit, B. 2004. *Finding your way in Qualitative Research*. Pretoria. Van Schaik.

Hooper, K., Desderio, M.V. and Salant, B. 2017. Improving the Labour Market Integration of Migrants and Refugees: Empowering Cities Through Better use of EU instruments. Migration Policy Institute Europe (MPI).

Institute for Social Development (ISD). 2018. Refugee and asylum seeking representative structures and their communities in South Africa-Final report 11 May 2018. *Parliamentary Monitoring Group (PMG)*. Available at: policydocument">https://pmg.org.za>policydocument. [Accessed 06 July 2019].

International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD). 2012. IISD says Natural Capital Declaration demonstrates global commitment of financial institutions. Rio+20 conference. Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Available at: https://www.iisd.org/media/iisd-says-natural-capital-demonnstrates-global-commitment-of-financial-institutions. [Accessed 19 September 2019].

International Labour Organisation (ILO). 2014. Transitioning from the informal to the formal economy. International Labour Conference, 103rd Session, Report V (1), ILC.103/V/1. Geneva. Available at: https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/ed norm/relconf/documents/meetingdocument/wcms218128.pdf [accessed 10 December 2019].

International Labour Organisation (ILO). 2019. World Employment and Social Outlook-Trends 2019: Poor working conditions are main global employment challenge. Available at: https://www.ilo.org/globsl/sbout-the-ilo/newsroom/news/WCMS 670171/lang-en/index.html. [Accessed 28 April 2019].

International Organisation for Migration (IOM). 2019. *Glossary on migration*. IML series No. 34, 2019. Available at: https://www.iom.int/who-is-a-migrant. [Accessed 03 August 2019].

Jinnah, Z. 2017. In the shadow of a state: Self-settlement strategies and informal governance amongst Somalis in Johannesburg. *Journal of International Migration and Integration*. 18:881-895.

Jolly, S. and Reeves, H. 2005. Gender and Migration: Overview report. Institute for Development Studies (IDS). Brighton, London, UK.

Kalitanyi, V. & Visser, K. 2010. African immigrants in South Africa: Job seekers or Job creators. South African Journal of Economic Management Sciences, 13 (4): 376-390.

Kanamugire, C. 2016. Local integration as durable solution for refugees in South Africa. *Acta Universitatis Danubius*. Juridica, 12 (3): 44-57.

Kannankutty, N. and Burelli, J. 2007. Why did they Come to the Unites States? A profile of immigrants Scientists and Engineers. Arlington: United States National Science, Division of Science Resources Statistics, USA.

Kataria, K., Curtiss, J. and Balmann, A. 2012. Drivers of agricultural physical capital development: Theoretical framework and hypotheses. *Working Paper No. 18*. Factor Markets.

Kavuro, C. 2015. Refugees and asylum seekers: Barriers to accessing South Africa's labour market. *Law, Democracy and Development*. [online]. 19. Cape Town. Available at: https://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ldd.v19i1.12. [Accessed 20 June 2019]

Kok, P. 1999. The definition of migration and its application: Making sense of recent South African census and survey data. *Journal of Demography*, 7(1).

Kollamparambil, U. 2017. Labour market impact of internal in-migration: A district level analysis of South Africa. *Economic Research Southern Africa Working Paper*. 667.

Krantz, L. 2001. The Sustainable Livelihood Approach to Poverty Reduction: An Introduction. Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA). Division for Policy and Socio-Economic Analysis. 44.

Kultar, S. 2007. Quantitative Social Research Methods. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Labadarios, D., Davids, Y., Mchiza, Z. & Weir-Smith, G. 2009. *The assessment of food insecurity*, Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC).

Laws, S., Harper, C., Jones, N. and Marcus, R. 2003. Research for development: A practical guide. London, Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.

Lee, E.S. 1966. A theory of migration. *Demography*, 3(1): 47-57.

Lohrmann, R., 2000. Migrants, refugees and insecurity. Current threats to peace? *International Migration*, 38(4): 3-22.

Macrotrends. 2020. South Africa immigration statistics 1960-2020. Macrotrends LLC. Available at: https://www.macrotrends.net/countries/ZAF/south-africa/immigration-statistics South Africa Immigration Statistics 1960-2020. [Accessed 23 September 2020].

Maggard, K. Q. 2004. The Role of Social Capital in the remittance Decisions of Mexican Migrants From 1969 to 2000. *Working paper 2004-29*. Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta.

Maguire, M. and Delahunt, B. 2017. Doing thematic analysis: a practical, step-by-step guide for learning and teaching scholars. *All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (AISHE)*, 8(3): 3351-3364. Available at: http://ojs.aishe.org/index.php/aishe-j/article/view/335. [Accessed 25 January 2020].

Manby, B. 2011. Statelessness in Southern Africa. In Briefing paper for UNHCR Regional Conference on Statelessness in southern Africa.

Manicom, L. 2019. Foreign children in care: South Africa. A comparative report of foreign children placed in child and youth care centres in Gauteng, Limpopo and Western Cape provinces of south Africa. (Research report 2019/07). Scalabrini Centre of Cape Town, South Africa. Available at: https://scalabrini.org.za/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Scalabrini Centre Cape Town Foreign Children in Care Comparative Report South Africa 2019.pdf. [Accessed 06 March 2020].

Marshall, M.N. 1996. Sampling for qualitative research. *Family Practice*, 13(6):522-526.

Mathers, N., Fox, N.J. and Hunn, A. 2000. Using Interviews in a research project. Radcliffe Medical Press/Trent Focus, 113-134.

Mena, W.B. 2018. Refugee integration between a rock and hard place: Challenges and possibilities of local integration as a durable solution for Eritrean and Somali refugees in Ethiopia. *African Human Mobility Review (AHMR)*, 4(3): 1359-1385.

Meyer, D. and Shera, A. 2017. The impact of remittances on economic growth: An econometric model. *EconomiA*, 18(2): 147-155

Mouton, J. 2001. How to succeed in your master's and doctoral studies. Pretoria. Vain Schaik.

Msabah, B.A. 2019. Refugee migrants as agents of change: Strategies for improved livelihoods and self-reliance, *Verbum et Ecclesia*, 40(1):1-8, a1851. https://doi.org/10.4102/ve.v40i1.1851

National Planning Commission (NPC). 2012. *National development Plan 2030: Our future - make it work*. Pretoria: National Planning Commission.

National Treasury. 2016. *National Minimum Wage for South Africa.* National Treasury Report 2016. Available online: https://www.treasury.gov.za/publications/other/NMW%2520Report%2520Draft%252 OCoP%2520FINAL.PDF. [Accessed 15 March 2020].

Neuman, W.L. 2000. Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches. 4th ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Neuman, W.L. 2011. Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches. 7th ed. Boston: Pearson.

Nicholson, Z. 2011. Bellville a "Safe haven" for Somalis. IOL News of 11 May 2011. Available at: https://iol.co.za/news/south-africa/western-cape/bellville-a-safe-haven-for-somalis-1067257. [Accessed 15 February 2020].

O'Reilly, K. 2015. Migration theories: A critical overview. In *Routledge Handbook of Immigration and Refugee Studies*. A. Triandafyllidou, Ed. Abingdon, Oxford: Routledge, 25-33. Available at: https://hdl.handle.net/2134/19442. [Accessed 20 April 2020].

OECD and UNHCR. 2016. Hiring refugees: what are the opportunities and challenges for employers? OECD and UNHCR Publishing. *Migration Policy Debates*, (10):1-8: Available at www.oecd.or/migration. [Accessed 27 March 2020].

OECD. 2016. Are there alternative pathways for refugees? OECD Publishing. *Migration Policy Debates*, (12):1-4. Available at www.oecd.or/migration. [Accessed 27 March 2020].

OECD. 2016a. Making integration work: Refugees and others in need of protection, OECD Publishing, Paris, France. Available at: https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264251236-en. [Accessed 27 March 2020].

Pangilinan, C. 2015. Local integration and Congolese forced migrants in Dare es Salaam, Tanzania. *African Human Mobility Review (AHMR)*, 1(1): 54-78.

Parkin, M., Thompson, K., Scholtz, D., Schoer, V., Saayman, A. Rhodes, B., Lakay, L, and Kholer, M. 2010. Economics: *Global and Southern African Perspectives*. 1st ed. Cape Town, South Africa: Pearson Education.

Parkins, N.C. 2010. Push and Pull Factors of Migration. *American Review of Political Economy*, Vol. 8 (2): 6-24.

Peberdy, S. 2002. Hurdles to Trade? South Africa's Immigration Policy and Informal Sector cross-border traders in the SADC. Presented at SAMP/ HSRC Workshop on Regional Integration, Poverty and South Africa's Proposed Migration Policy. Pretoria, 23 April 2002. Available on http://www.queensu.ca/samp/Conferences/Agendas/Agenda7d.pdf Accessed on July 06, 2019.

People's Assembly. 2016. Infographic: *Overview of the South African Labour Market*. [Blog, 11 March 2016] Available at: https://www.pa.org.za/blog/infographic-overview-south-african-labour-market. [Accessed 07 March 2019].

Petersen, E.K. and Pedersen, M.L. 2010. *The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach*. Aarhus: Institute of Biology, University of Aarhus. Available at: subsites>Uland">https://www.ps.au.dk.Dokumenter>subsites>Uland. [Accessed 01 April 2019].

Philander, F.R. and Karriem, A. 2016. Assessment of Urban Agriculture as a Livelihood Strategy for Households Food Security: An Appraisal of Urban Gardens in Langa, Cape Town. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences, CD-ROM. ISSN:* 1994-6934:: 07(05):327-338 (2014).

Pisică, S., Vasile V., and Voineagu, V. 2012. Book review-Labor market between formal and informal "*Piața muncii între formal şi informal*", Editura Expert-Expert press: 192-226. Available at: http://revecon.ro/articles/2012-1/2012-1-10.pdf [accessed 04December 2019].

Rajasekar, S., Philominathan, P. and Chinnathambi, V. 2013. Research methodology. Eprint. *arXiv Preprint Physics*/0601009, 3:1-53.

Ratha, D. 2013. The impact of remittances on economic growth and poverty reduction. Migration Policy Institute (MPI). *Policy Brief*, (8).

Ravenstein, E.G. 1885. The Law of Migration. *The Journal of the Statistical Society of London*, Vol. 48.

Riederer, B. E. 2018. Experts' expectations of future vulnerability at the peak of the "refugee crisis", *Vienna Institute of demography Working Papers, No. 09/2018*, Austrian Academy of Science, Vienna Institute of Demography (VID). Available at: https://hdl.handle.net/10419/207052. [Accessed 04 April 2020].

Rogge, J.R. 1994. Repatriation of refugees: A not so simple optimum solution. In Allen, T. & Morsink, H., 14-49.

Schaeffer, P. 2010. Refugees: On the Economics of Political Migration, *International Migration*. 41(8):1-22. Available at: https://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.989646. [Accessed 25 April 2019].

Scoones, I. 1998. Sustainable Rural Livelihoods: A Framework for analysis. IDS, Working Paper 72. Brighton: IDS.

Sen, A. 1999. Development as Freedom. New York: Knopf.

Serrat, O. 2017. The Sustainable livelihoods approach. Asian Development Bank. *Knowledge Solutions*. 15: 1-4. Available at: https://DOI10.1007/978-981-10-0983-9 5. [Accessed 21 April 2020].

Shawa, E. H. L. 2012. Exploring the key socio-economic challenges facing youth refugees in the Western Cape. (Professional) Dissertation. Department of Social Development, University of Cape Town. Available at: https://hdl.handle.net/11427/12038. [Accessed 06 August 2019].

Sithole, S. and Dinbabo, M.F. 2016. Exploring youth migration and the food security nexus: Zimbabwean youths in Cape Town, South Africa. *African Human Mobility Review (AHMR)*. 2 (2): 512-537.

Skleparis, D. 2017. European governments' responses to the refugee crisis. *Southeastern Europe*, 41(3): 276.

Statistics South Africa (STATS SA). 2012. South African Statistics, 2012. STATS SA Library Cataloguing-in-publication (CIP) Data. Available at: https://statssa.gov.za [Accessed 25 March 2019].

Statistics South Africa (STATS SA). 2013. *City of Cape Town-2011 Census Suburb Bellville*. Available at: https://www.capetown.gov.za//Family-and-home/education-and-research-materials/data-statistics-and-research/cape-town-census. [Accessed 26 March 2019].

Statistics South Africa (STATS SA). 2014. *Documented Immigrants in South Africa*, Pretoria, South Africa. Available at: https://www.statssa.gov.za. [Accessed 20 February 2020].

Statistics South Africa (STATS SA). 2015. *National and Provincial labour market: Youth.* Pretoria: Department of Labour.

Statistics South Africa (STATS SA). 2019. *P0211-Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS)*, 4th Quarter 2018. Statistical Release. Available at: https://www.statssa.gov.za/?page_id=1854&PPN=0211&SCH-7331 [Accessed 11 May 2019].

Tawodzera, G., Chikanda, A., Crush, J. and Tengeh, R. 2015. International Migrants and Refugees in Cape Town's Informal Economy. *Southern African Migration Programme (SAMP). SAMP MIGRATION POLICY SERIES No. 70*, International Migration Research Centre, Ontario, Canada.

Terre Blanche, M.D.K.D., Durrheim, K. and Painter, D. 2011. *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. 2nd ed. Cape Town. University of Cape Town.

Tevera, D. 2013. African migrants, xenophobia and urban violence in post-apartheid South Africa, *Alternation*, 7:9-26.

The National Refugee Baseline Survey. 2003. Final Report Researched for JICA and UNHCR by the Community Agency for Social Enquiry. South Africa: CASE.

Thieme, S. 2006. Social networks and migration: Far West Nepalese Labour Migrants in Delhi. Vol. 7. LIT Verlag Münster.

Timberg, C. 2005. Refugees with skills and hopes find opportunity in South Africa. USA: Washington Post, Foreign Service, A21.

Todaro, P.M., & Smith, S.C. 2012. *Economic Development*. 11th ed. Washington: Addison-Wesley

Twigg, J. 2001. Sustainable livelihoods and vulnerability to disasters. *Benfield Greig Hazard Research, Disaster Management Working Paper 2/2001*. Disaster Mitigation Institute (DMI).

United Nations (UN). 2016. *International Migration Report 2015 Highlights*. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. New York: United Nations. Available at docsPDF">https://www.un.org>docsPDF. [Accessed 04 June 2020].

United Nations (UN). 2019. *Refugees and Migrants*. Available at: https://refugeesmigrants.un.org/definitions. [Accessed 03 August 2019].

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). 2017. Guidance note: Application of the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework in Development Projects. Available at: https://www.undp.org/content/dam/rblac/docs/ [accessed 20 September 2019].

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). 2005. *Basic Facts: 2005 Edition.* New York: United Nations Publications.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). 2017. Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2016. Available at: https://www.refworld.org/docid/594aa38e0.html [accessed 10 December 2019].

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). 2018. *UNHCR Population Statistics Database - Mid-Year Trends 2017*. [Online]. Available at: https://popstats.unhcr.org/en/overview. [Accessed 25 April 2019].

United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (UNDESA). 2018. *World Urbanization Prospects: 2018 Revision*. [Online Edition]. Available at: https://esa.un.org/unpd/wup/publications. [Accessed 05 July 2019].

United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (UNDESA). 2017. *International Migration Report 2017: Highlights* (ST/ESA/SER.A/404). United Nations, New York.

Valdés-Rodríguez, O. A., and Pérez-Vásquez, A. 2011. Sustainable livelihoods: An analysis of the methodology. *Tropical and Subtropical Agroecosystems.* 14: 91-99. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/224895053. [accessed 27 March 2019].

Van Lennep, T. 2019. Migration III: Interpreting the data on South Africa migration. *Politicsweb*. 19 September 2019. Available at: https://www.politicsweb.co.za/opinion/migration-iii-interpreting-the-data-on-south-africa-migration. [Accessed 22 February 2020].

Van Rooyen, G. 2013. Somali town: the other side of Bellville. The crozier street Files of 19/11/2013. Available at: https://crozierfiles.wordpress.com/2013.11/19/somali-town-the-other-side-of-bellville/amp/ [Accessed 16 February 2020].

Voora, V.A. and Venema, H.D. 2008. The natural capital approach: a concept paper. *International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD)*. Manitoba, Canada.

Weideman, M. 2020. Labour-related experiences of migrants and refugees in South Africa. Scalabrini Institute for Human Mobility in Africa (SIHMA) Report 2020/03 of 16th March 2020. Available at http://sihma.org.za/reports/Laudato%20si%20South%20Africa%20Book%20A4.pdf. [Accessed 22 March 2020].

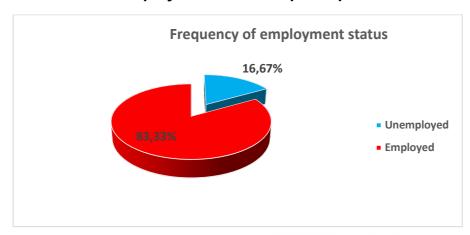
Williams, R. 2015. "No-Talking streets" walk reveals another side of Bellville. *Open StreetsCapeTown*. Monday 20 July 2015. Available at: https://openstreets.org.za/news/notalking-streets-walk-reveals-another-side-bellville. [Accessed 15 February 2020].

World Bank Group. 2018. *Mixed Migration, Forced Displacement and Job Outcomes in South Africa*. Washington, DC. World Bank. Available at: https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/haandle/10986/30158 license: CC BY 3.0 IGO. [Accessed 27 June 2018].

ANNEXURES

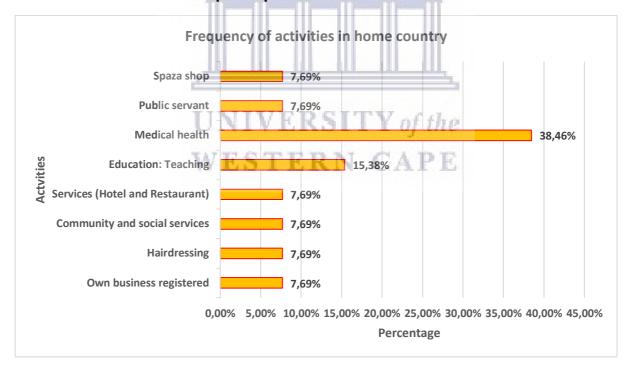
Annexure 5. Presentation of quantitative research results

Annexure 5.1 Employment status of participants



Source: Research's Field Survey (2020)

Annexure 5.2 Activities of participants in their home countries



Annexure 5.3 Chi-Square Test: Impact of livelihood strategies adopted on the wellbeing of participants

Livelihood strategies	How households survive (well-being)						
adopted	No worries about food, rent and other financial support	Cover all the basic needs in households	Without enough money to secure food and rent	Stay in the location because rent is cheap	Sometimes skipped meal due to lack of food		
NGO's	0	0	0	1	1		
	0.00	0.00	0.00	50.00	50.00		
Donations	0	0	2	1	0		
(Club, church and	0.00	0.00	66.67	33.33	0.00		
association)				2			
Family &	1	0	1111111	2	0		
Friends	25.00	0.00	25.00	50.00	0.00		
City of Cape	0	0	0	0	0		
Town	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00		
Government	o UN	OVER	SITY of	the	2		
social grants	0.00 WI	0.00	ROO CAI	33.33	66.67		
Informal	3	4	2	4	0		
trade and services	23.07	30.77	15.39	30.77	0.00		
Other	1	4	0	0	0		
contract work and businesses	20.00	80.00	0.00	0.00	0.00		
Pearsor	n chi2(32) = 41.3455	Pr = 0.125					

Annexure 5.4 Chi-Square Test: Relationship between wellbeing of participants and capabilities adopted

Capabilities to access	How households survive (well-being)						
employments opportunities	No worries about food, rent and other financial support	Cover all the basic needs in households	Without enough money to secure food and rent	Stay in the location because rent is cheap	Sometimes skipped meal due to lack of food		
Knowledge in	5	2	2	1	0		
the field	50.00	20.00	20.00	10.00	00.00		
Relevant skills	4	2	1	1	0		
	50.00	25.00	12.50	12.50	0.00		
Formal	0	0	2	0	1		
qualification	0.00	0.00	66.67	0.00	33.33		
Experience in	2	1	1	1	1		
the field	33.33	16.67	16.67	16.67	16.67		
Appropriate	0	0	1	1	1		
character traits	0.00 UN	0.00/ER	33.33TY of	33.33	33.33		
Pearson chi2(20) = 16.9744 Pr = 0.655							

Annexure 5.5 Chi-Square Test: Relationship between wellbeing of participants and socio-economic resources

Socio-Economic	How househ	nolds survive (v	vell-being)		
resources to access employments opportunities	No worries about food, rent and other financial support	Cover all the basic needs in households	Without enough money to secure food and rent	Stay in the location because rent is cheap	skipped meal
Cash (transport, training and licenses for vehicles)	3 50.00	33.33	0 0.00	1 16.67	0 0.00
Bribe	2 40.00	20.00	20.00	0.00	1 20.00
Available credit	1 33.33	0.00	66.67	0.00	0.00
Family		2V E R S 25.00 E R		25.00	0.00
Friends	2 33.33	0 0.00	2 33.33	1 16.67	1 16.67
Associations	0 0.00	0.00	1 50.00	0.00	1 50.00
Pearson chi2(15) = 15.7891 Pr = 0.396					

Annexure 1. Research questionnaire: Refugees







University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, Cape Town, South Africa Telephone :(021) 959 3858/9 Fax: (021) 959 3849

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE: ASYLUM SEEKERS AND REFUGEES IN BELLVILLE (employed and non-employed)

The aim of this study is to explore the challenges of accessing the labour market for asylum seekers and refugees in Bellville.

The questions refer to your socio-economic and demographic characteristics, capabilities, livelihoods and challenges experienced when attempting to access employment opportunities. Please note that your information will be kept confidential and should you wish to withdraw at any time you have the right to do so.

SECTION I. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION TY of the

Please tick only the answer that applies to you.

1. Country of Origin

Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC)	Somalia	
Burundi	Uganda	
Rwanda	Zimbabwe	
Ethiopia	Other (Specify)	

2. Gender

Female
i elliale

3. Marital Status

Single/Never married	Divorced	
Married	Widowed	
Living with partner	Separated	

4. Age category

18-25	46-55	
26-35	56-65	
36-45	66 and above	

5. How many members do you stay together in the house?

Stay alone	3-4	
1-2	5 and above	

6. What is your legal status in South Africa?

Asylum seeker with t	emporary permit
Refugees status	
Resident permit	
Undocumented	
Citizenship	UNIVERSITY of the

7. Why did you leave your home-country?

Political instability	
Economic reasons	
Social conflict	
Forced	
Other (Specify)	_

SECTION II. SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

8. What is the highest level of education that you completed?

No formal education	
Primary school education	
Secondary school education	
College education	
University Degree	

9. What are your qualifications?

Degree		No formal qualification	
Diploma and Certificate		None	
Other (specify)			

10. Where did you obtain your education qualification?

Home country		
South Africa		
From another country (please specify) LRSIII Of the		

WESTERN CAPE

11. What language do you speak regularly?

French	French & English	
English	Other (specify)	

12. How would you grade your level of competence in speaking English?

Poor	
Good	
Very Good	

13. How long have you lived in South Africa?

Less than 6 months	6-10 years	
7-12 months	Over 10 years	
2-5 years		

14. Were you born in South Africa?

15. Did you move from another province in South Africa to Cape Town?

Yes (specify)	No	

16. If you moved, what were your reasons for moving to Cape Town?

Friends	Economic opportunities
Family	Security & Safety
Education	Other (specify)

UNIVERSITY of the

17. How long have you lived in Cape Town?

Less than 6 months	6-10 years	
7-12 months	Over 10 years	
2-5 years		

18. What motivated you to move to South Africa and not a different country?

Family	Economic opportunities	
Friends	Security & Safety	
Education	Other (specify)	

19. What is your monthly income?

>R1000	R11000-R15000	
R1000-R5000	R16000-R20000	
R6000-R10000	Above R20000	

20. How much of your budget do you spend on your living expenses in South Africa?

Less than 20%	Between 30% and 40%	
Between 20% and 30%	More than 40%	

21. How much of your budget do you send to your family at home (remittances)?

Less than 20%	NIN.	Between 30% and 40%	
Between 20% and 30%	-	More than 40%	

SECTION III. EMPLOYMENT CHARACTERISTICS

22. Are you employed?

	CALL THE PARTY	LULL LUI WILL	
Yes		No	

23. If yes, in which sector are you employed?

Formal sector		Informal sector	
---------------	--	-----------------	--

24. If it is formal sector, in which industry are you working?

Own business registered	Finance and other business services
Agriculture	Community and social services
Manufacturing	Public servant
Utilities	Service (Hotel and Restaurant)
Construction	Security guard
Trade	Other (Specify)
Transport	

25. If it is informal sector, in which industry are you working?

Spaza shops	Informal agriculture
Vendor (including hawkers, street traders, and other)	Traditional medicine
Car guard	Craft
Domestic worker	Crèches
Shebeens (selling alcohol)	Dressmakers
Metalworking	Informal services (food and transport)
Hairdressing	Other (Specify)

26. Were you employed in your home country?

Vaa	Ma	
Yes	NO	

If Yes, please answer the question 27

27. What industry were you employed in?

	, 111				
Own business registered			Finance and other business services		
Formal agriculture UNIVI		R	Community and social services		
Transport	MEST	I 7	Service (Hotel and Restaurant)		
Manufacturing	WEST.		Education: Teaching		
Utilities			Medical health		
Construction			Public servant		
Trade			Vendors		
Craft			Spaza shop		
Hairdressing			Informal agriculture		
Metalworking			Other (Specify)		

28. If you are not employed, are you currently looking for job?

Yes		No		
-----	--	----	--	--

Language (not being able to spe	ak English)	
being unfamiliar of working in S	outh Africa	
Lack of documents		
Exclusion/Marginalisation		
Other (specify)		
when applying for wo		Strongly disagree Moderately disagree
when applying for wo		Strongly disagree
when applying for wo Strongly agree Moderately agree Agree	rk?	Strongly disagree
when applying for wo Strongly agree Moderately agree Agree 32. Please motivate your	rk?	Strongly disagree Moderately disagree
when applying for wo Strongly agree Moderately agree Agree 32. Please motivate your	answer NIVERS	Strongly disagree Moderately disagree Disagree

SECTION V. COPING STRATEGIES

35. What capabilities do you have that you use to access the employment opportunities on the labour market?

Knowledge in the field	Experience in the field
Relevant Skills	Appropriate character traits (receptiveness,
Formal qualification	self-driven, self-assured and resilient)
Other (Specify)	

36. What social resources do you have that you use to access the employment opportunities on the labour market?

Family	Associations (church support, club)	
Friends	Other specify	

37. What economic resources do you have that you use to access employment opportunities?

Cash (Transport, training, licences for vehicles, and other)	ERSITY of the	
Bribe WEST	E Friends APE	
Available credit	Other (Specify)	

38. Where do you get resources that support you to survive in your household?

NGO's	Donations & Family/Friends
Donations	Government social grant
Family/Friends	Other (Specify)
City of Cape Town	

SECTION IV. SUPPORTS

39. Do you know of support structures available to refugees?

The South African Police Services (SAPS)	
Department of Home Affairs	
Department of Social Development	
Department of Health	
NGOs	
Refugee centres	
Other (specify)	

40. What is the nature of support of the above structures?

Education opportunities	
Job integration	
Food and health	
Financial support	
Other (specify)	UNIVERSITY of the

41. What is the level of difficulty in accessing social services?

	Very difficult	Difficult	Not difficult
Education			
Social grants			
Health			
Home Affairs services			
South African Police Services (SAPS)			

Annexure 2. Semi-structured interview with refugees







University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, Cape Town, South Africa Telephone :(021) 959 3858/9 Fax: (021) 959 3849

Interview schedule

Interview schedule for refugees working in Bellville

- 1. Do you know if there are government and private institutions that support refugees in Cape Town?
- 2. Do you have access to these support structures?
- 3. How do these institutions provide for your needs?
- 4. Do you experience difficulty in accessing employment in South Africa?
- 5. If yes, what difficulties do you have finding employment?
- 6. What has been your experience in seeking employment? (Explore difficulties and challenges)
- 7. How do you deal with such challenges?
- 8. What do you think could be put in place in order for you to easily find employment?
- 9. Who has assisted you with finding employment?
- 10. Do you have your own business or you are working for someone else?
- 11. Do you face threats as a business owner? Please explain.
- 12. Do you have sufficient resources to live a comfortable life in Cape Town? Please specify.

- 13. Are there things that could be done to make your life more comfortable in your community? Please motivate.
- 14. What strategies do you use to overcome the challenges you face as a refugee?
- 15. Does your income cover the basic needs required by your household such as sufficient daily access to food, housing, education and health? Please specify.



Annexure 3. Semi-structured interview with owners of the businesses







University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, Cape Town, South Africa Telephone :(021) 959 3858/9 Fax: (021) 959 3849

Interview schedule

Interview schedule for owners of the businesses working in Bellville

- 1. How long have you employed refugees in your business?
- 2. How do you rate the quality of work of refugees?
- 3. Is there a difference between the quality of work of refugees and South Africans? Please specify.
- 4. In your view, what could the reasons be for not employing refugees in businesses?
- 5. What in your view, could be put in place in order for refugees to more easily find employment?

Annexure 4. Semi-structured interview with organisations







University of the Western Cape

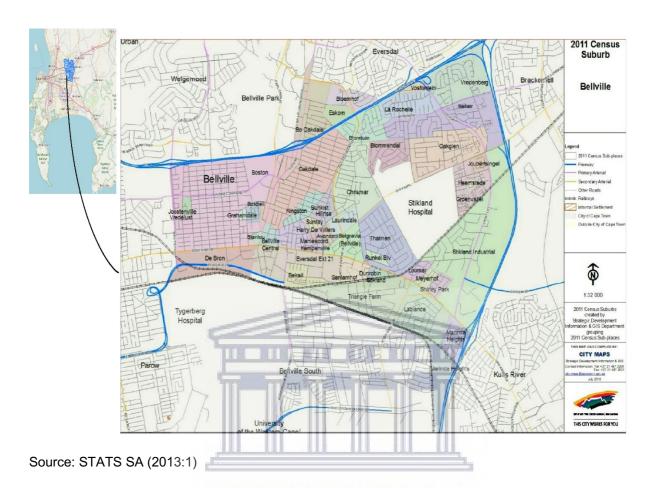
Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, Cape Town, South Africa Telephone :(021) 959 3858/9 Fax: (021) 959 3849

Interview schedule

Interview schedule for organisation in Bellville

- 1. Describe your relationship with refugees
- 2. Does your organisation contribute to the refugee's support, and if so, in which way?
- 3. In your view, what do you think can be the reason that limits refugees from being employed?
- 4. Can you think of any strategies the government can implement to deal with challenges faced by refugees? (Give some examples of what could be done)
- 5. What role do you think NGO's can play to deal with the various challenges that refugees are facing? (Give some examples of how they could assist refugees)
- 6. What do you think is the most crucial strategy that could be implemented to address the challenges faced by refugees? (Laws, policies, refugee organization)
- 7. And who can really assist the implementation of that specific strategy? (Home Affairs, Police, NGO or Government)?

Annexure 6. Map of Bellville



UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

Annexure 7. STATA DO-FILE

clear

use "C:\Users\Celse3748670\Desktop\Mini Thesis\HardWorkDraft on Mini Thesis\Refugee survey\Bellville survey\CELSE BELLVILLE SURVEY UPDATE.dta"

******Define and assign Variable values ***

Country of orgin

label define Country 1 "DRC" 2 "Burundi" 3 "Rwanda" 4 "Ethiopia" 5 "Somalia" 6 "Uganda" 7 "Zimbabwe" 8 "Other"

label values Country Country

Gender*

label define Gender 0 "Female" 1 "Male"

label values Gender Gender

Marital Status

label define Martalstatus 1 "Single/Never married" 2 "Married" 3 "Living with partner" 4 "Dovorced" 5 "Widowed" 6 "Separated"

label values Martalstatus Martalstatus

Age category

label define Agecategory 1 "18-25" 2 "26-35" 3 "36-45" 4 "46-55" 5 "56-65" 6 "66 and above"

label values Agecategory Agecategory

Family size

label define Familysize 1 "Stay alone" 2 "1-2" 3 "3-4" 4 "5 and above"

label values Familysize Familysize

Legal status

label define Legalstatus 1 "Asylum seeker with temporary permit" 2 "Refugee status" 3 "Resident permit" 4 "Undocumented" 5 "Citizenship"

label values Legalstatus Legalstatus

Reasons of Migration

label define Reasonsofmigration 1 "Political instability" 2 "Economic reasons" 3 "Social conflict" 4 "Forced" 5 "Other"

label values Reasonsofmigration Reasonsofmigration

Level of education label define Levelofeducation 1 "No formal education" 2 "Primary education" 3 "Secondary education" 4 "College education" 5 "University degree" label values Levelofeducation Levelofeducation ****Qualifications**** label define Qualifications 1 "Degree" 2 "Diploma and Certificate" 3 "No formal qualification" 4 "None" 5 "Other" label values Qualifications Qualifications ***Place of the qualification obtained*** label define Placeofthequalificationobtai 1 "Home country" 2 "South Africa" 3 "From another country" label values Placeofthequalificationobtai Placeofthequalificationobtai ***Languages spoken*** label define Languagespoken 1 "French" 2 "English" 3 "French & English" 4 "Other" label values Languagespoken Languagespoken ***Grade of speaking English*** label define GradeofspeakingEnglish 1 "Poor" 2 "Good" 3 "Very good" label values GradeofspeakingEnglish GradeofspeakingEnglish ***Duration of stay in South Africa*** label define ThestayinSA 1 "Less than 6 months" 2 "7-12 months" 3 "2-5 years" 4 "6-10 years" 5 "Over WESTERN CAPE 10 years" label values ThestayinSA ThestayinSA ***Born in South Africa*** label define BorninSA 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values BorninSA BorninSA ***Internal migration (from another province in SA to Cape Town)*** label define Internalmigrationfromanother 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values Internalmigrationfromanother Internalmigrationfromanother ***Motivation of moving to Cape Town*** ***Motivation of Friends***

label define CPTMTV1 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values CPTMTV1 CPTMTV1 ***Motivation of Family*** label define CPTMTV2 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values CPTMTV2 CPTMTV2 ***Motivation Education*** label define CPTMTV3 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values CPTMTV3 CPTMTV3 ***Motivation of Economic opportunities*** label define CPTMTV4 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values CPTMTV4 CPTMTV4 ***Motivation of Security and Safety*** label define CPTMTV5 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values CPTMTV5 CPTMTV5 ***Motivation of Other*** label define CPTMTV6 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values CPTMTV6 CPTMTV6 ***Duration of stay in Cape Town*** label define StayinCapeTown 1 "Less than 6 months" 2 "7-12 months" 3 "2-5 years" 4 "6-10 years" 5 "Over 10 years" label values StayinCapeTown StayinCapeTown **Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country*** ***Motivation of Family*** label define SAMTV1 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values SAMTV1 SAMTV1 ***Motivation Friends*** label define SAMTV2 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values SAMTV2 SAMTV2 ***Motivation of Education***

label define SAMTV3 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values SAMTV3 SAMTV3 ***Motivation of Economic opportunities*** label define SAMTV4 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values SAMTV4 SAMTV4 ***Motivation of Security & Safety*** label define SAMTV5 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values SAMTV5 SAMTV5 ***Motivation of Other*** label define SAMTV6 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values SAMTV6 SAMTV6 ***Monthly income*** label define Monthlyincome 1 ">R1000" 2 "R1000-R5000" 3 "R6000-R10000" 4 "R11000-R15000" 5 "R16000-R20000" 6 "Above R20000" label values Monthlyincome Monthlyincome ***Budget on living expenses*** label define Livingexpenses 1 "Less than 20%" 2 "Between 20% and 30%" 3 "Between 30% and 40%" 4 "More than 40%" label values Livingexpenses Livingexpenses *** budget on remittances*** label define Remittances 1 "Less than 20%" 2 "Between 20% and 30%" 3 "Between 30% and 40%" 4 "More than 40%" label values Remittances Remittances ***Employment status in South Africa*** label define employmentstatus 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values employmentstatus employmentstatus ***Sector of activities*** label define Sectorofactivities 1 "Formal sector" 2 "Informal sector" label values Sectorofactivities Sectorofactivities ***Formal industries***

label define Formalindustries 1 "Own business" 2 "Agriculture" 3 "Manufacturing" 4 "Utilities" 5 "Construction" 6 "Trade" 7 "Transport" 8 "Finance and other business services" 9 "Community and social services" 10 "Public servant" 11 "Service (Hotel and Restaurant)" 12 "Security guard" 13 "Other"

label values Formalindustries Formalindustries

Informal industries

label define Informalindustries 1 "Spaza shops" 2 "Vendor (including hawkers, street traders and other)" 3 "Car guard" 4 "Domestic worker" 5 "Shebeens (selling alcohol)" 6 "Metalworking" 7 "Hairdressing" 8 "Informal agriculture" 9 "Traditional medicine" 10 "Craft" 11 "Creches" 12 "Dressmakers" 13 "Informal services (food and transport)" 14 "Other"

label values Informalindustries Informalindustries

Employment status in home country

label define Employmentstatusinhomecountr 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Employmentstatusinhomecountr Employmentstatusinhomecountr

Employment industries in home country

label define employmentindustryinhomecoun 1 "Own business registered" 2 "Formal agriculture" 3 "Transport" 4 "Manufacturing" 5 "Utilities" 6 "Construction" 7 "Trade" 8 "Craft" 9 "Hairdressing" 10 "Metalworking" 11 "Finance and other business services" 12 "Community and social services" 13 "Services (Hotel and Restaurant)" 14 "Education: Teaching" 15 "Medical health" 16 "Public servant" 17 "Vendors" 18 "Spaza shop" 19 "Informal agriculture" 20 "Other"

label values employmentindustryinhomecoun employmentindustryinhomecoun

Currently looking for jobs in South Africa (for unemployed)

label define CurrentlylookingforjobinSA 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values CurrentlylookingforjobinSA CurrentlylookingforjobinSA

****Challenges of accessing employments opportunities***

Challenge of Language (not being able to speak English)

label define Challenge1 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Challenge1 Challenge1

Challenge of Being unfamiliar of working in Sourh Africa

label define Challenge2 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Challenge2 Challenge2

```
***Challenge Of Lack of documents***
label define Challenge3 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
label values Challenge3 Challenge3
***Challenge of Exclusion/Marginalisation***
label define Challenge4 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
label values Challenge4 Challenge4
***challenge of Other***
label define Challenge5 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
label values Challenge5 Challenge5
***Treatment of refugee and citizen***
***Equal treatment when applying for job***
label define Equaltreatment1 1 "Strongly agree" 2 "Moderately agree" 3 "Agree" 4 "Strongly disagree"
5 "Moderately disagree" 6 "Disagree"
label values Equaltreatment1 Equaltreatment1
***Equal treatment in working place***
label define Equaltreatment2 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
label values Equaltreatment2 Equaltreatment2
***Capabilities to access employment opportunities***
***Capability of Knowledge in the field***
label define Capability1 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
label values Capability1 Capability1
***Capability of Relevant skills***
label define Capability2 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
label values Capability2 Capability2
***Capability of Formal qualification***
label define Capability3 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
```

label values Capability3 Capability3 ***Capability of Experience in the field*** label define Capability4 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values Capability4 Capability4 ***Capability of Appropriate character traits*** label define Capability5 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values Capability5 Capability5 ***Capability of Other*** label define Capability6 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values Capability6 Capability6 ***Social resources to access employment opportunities*** ***Social resource of Family*** label define Social1 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values Social1 Social1 ***Social resource of Friends*** label values Social2 Social2 ***Social resource of Associations (church support, club, NGO)*** label define Social3 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values Social3 Social3 ***Social resource of Other*** label define Social4 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values Social4 Social4 ***Economic resources to access employment opportunities*** ***Economic resource of Cash (Transport, licences for vehicles, and other)***

label define Economic1 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Economic1 Economic1

Economic resource of Bribe

label define Economic2 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Economic2 Economic2

Economic resource of Available credit

label define Economic3 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Economic3 Economic3

Economic resource of Family

label define Economic4 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Economic4 Economic4

Economic resource of Friends

label define Economic5 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Economic5 Economic5

Economic resource of Other

label define Economic6 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Economic6 Economic6

Source of resources supporting the household

Support from NGO's

label define SourceSpt1 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values SourceSpt1 SourceSpt1

Support from Donations

label define SourceSpt2 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values SourceSpt2 SourceSpt2

Support from Family & Friends

label define SourceSpt3 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values SourceSpt3 SourceSpt3

Support from City of cape Town

label define SourceSpt4 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values SourceSpt4 SourceSpt4

Support from Donations, Family and Friends
label define SourceSpt5 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
label values SourceSpt5 SourceSpt5

Support from Government social grant
label define SourceSpt6 0 "No" 1 "Yes"
label values SourceSpt6 SourceSpt6

Support from Other
label define SourceSpt7 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

Support structures available to refugees

Structure of South African Police Services (SAPS)

label define Structure1 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values SourceSpt7 SourceSpt7

label values Structure1 Structure1

Structure of Department of Home Affairs

label define Structure2 0 "No" 1 "Yes" V FRSITY of the

label values Structure2 Structure2

Structure of Department of Social Development

label define Structure3 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Structure3 Structure3

Structure of Department of Health

label define Structure4 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Structure4 Structure4

Structure of NGO's

label define Structure5 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Structure5 Structure5

Structure of Refugee centres

label define Structure6 0 "No" 1 "Yes"

label values Structure6 Structure6 ***Structure of Other*** label define Structure7 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values Structure7 Structure7 ***Nature of support of the structures*** ***Nature of Education opportunities*** label define NatureSpt1 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values NatureSpt1 NatureSpt1 ***Nature of Job integration*** label define NatureSpt2 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values NatureSpt2 NatureSpt2 ***Nature of Food and health*** label define NatureSpt3 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values NatureSpt3 NatureSpt3 ***Nature Financial support*** label define NatureSpt4 0 "No" 1 "Yes" V R R S I T Y of the label values NatureSpt4 NatureSpt4 ***Nature of Other*** label define NatureSpt5 0 "No" 1 "Yes" label values NatureSpt5 NatureSpt5 ***Level of difficulty in accessing social services*** ***Access to education*** label define AccesstoEducation 1 "Very difficult" 2 "Difficult" 3 "Not difficult" label values AccesstoEducation AccesstoEducation ***Access to Social grants*** label define AccesstoSocialgrants 1 "Very difficult" 2 "Difficult" 3 "Not difficult" label values AccesstoSocialgrants AccesstoSocialgrants

Access to Health

label define Accesstohealth 1 "Very difficult" 2 "Difficult" 3 "Not difficult"

label values Accesstohealth Accesstohealth

Access to Home Affairs Services

label define AccesstoHaservices 1 "Very difficult" 2 "Difficult" 3 "Not difficult"

label values AccesstoHaservices AccesstoHaservices

Access to South African Police Services (SAPS)

label define AccesstoSAPS 1 "Very difficult" 2 "Difficult" 3 "Not difficult"

label values AccesstoSAPS AccesstoSAPS

label variable Martalstatus "Marital status"

label variable ThestayinSA "Duration of stay in South Africa"

label variable BorninSA "Born in South Africa"

label variable CPTMTV1 "Motivation of moving to Cape Town (Friends)"

label variable CPTMTV2 "Motivation of moving to Cape Town (Family)"

label variable CPTMTV3 "Motivation of moving to Cape Town (Education)"

label variable CPTMTV4 "Motivation of moving to Cape Town (Economic opportunities)"

label variable CPTMTV5 "Motivation of moving to Cape Town (Security and Safety)"

label variable CPTMTV6 "Motivation of moving to Cape Town (Other)"

label variable StayinCapeTown "Duration of stay in Cape Town"

label variable SAMTV1 "Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country (Family)"

label variable SAMTV2 "Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country (Friends)"

label variable SAMTV3 "Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country (Education)"

label variable SAMTV4 "Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country (Economic opportunities)"

label variable SAMTV5 "Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country (Security & Safety)"

label variable SAMTV6 "Motivation of moving to South Africa and not a different country (Other)"

label variable employmentindustryinhomecoun "Employment industry in home country"

label variable Challenge1 "Challenge of language (being unable to speak English)"

label variable Challenge2 "Challenge of being unfamiliar of working in South Africa)" label variable Challenge3 "Challenge of lack of documents)" label variable Challenge4 "Challenge of exclusion/marginalisation)" label variable Challenge5 "Other Challenge)" label variable Equaltreatment1 "Equal treatment for refugee and citizen when applying for a job" label variable Equaltreatment2 "Equal treatment for refugee and citizen in working place" label variable Capability1 "Capabilities to access employment (Knowledge in the field)" label variable Capability2 "Capabilities to access employment (Relevant skills)" label variable Capability3 "Capabilities to access employment (Formal qualification)" label variable Capability4 "Capabilities to access employment (Experiences in the field)" label variable Capability5 "Capabilities to access employment (Appropriate character traits)" label variable Capability6 "Capabilties to access employment (Other)" label variable Social1 "Social resources to access employment(Family)" label variable Social2 "Social resources to access employment(Friends)" label variable Social3 "Social resources to access employment(Associations)" label variable Social4 "Social resources to access employment(Other)" label variable Economic1 "Economic resources to access employment (Cash)" label variable Economic2 "Economic resources to access employment (Bribe)" label variable Economic3 "Economic resources to access employment (Available credit)" label variable Economic4 "Economic resources to access employment (Family)" label variable Economic5 "Economic resources to access employment (Friends)" label variable Economic6 "Economic resources to access employment (Other)" label variable SourceSpt1 "Source of resources supporting the household (NGO)" label variable SourceSpt2 "Source of resources supporting the household (Donations)" label variable SourceSpt3 "Source of resources supporting the household (Family/Friends)" label variable SourceSpt4 "Source of resources supporting the household (City of Cape Town)" label variable SourceSpt5 "Source of resources supporting the household (Donations & Family/Friends)"

label variable SourceSpt6 "Source of resources supporting the household (Government social grant)"

label variable SourceSpt7 "Source of resources supporting the household (Other)"

label variable Structure1 "Support structures available to refugees (South African Police Services-SAPS)"

label variable Structure2 "Support structures available to refugees (Department of Home Affairs-DHA)" label variable Structure3 "Support structures available to refugees (Department of Social Development)"

label variable Structure4 "Support structures available to refugees (Health)"
label variable Structure5 "Support structures available to refugees (NGOS)"
label variable Structure6 "Support structures available to refugees (Refugee centres)"
label variable Structure7 "Support structures available to refugees (Other)"
label variable NatureSpt1 "Nature of support of structures (Education opportunities)"
label variable NatureSpt2 "Nature of support of structures (Job integration)"
label variable NatureSpt3 "Nature of support of structures (Food and health)"
label variable NatureSpt4 "Nature of support of structures (Financial support)"
label variable NatureSpt5 "Nature of support of structures (Other)"
label variable AccesstoHaservices "Access to Home Affairs services"
label variable AccesstoSAPS "Access to South African Police Services"

destring SAMTV5, replace force

****Converting string variables into numeric variables and replace non-numeric data as missing data***
destring CPTMTV1, replace force
destring CPTMTV2, replace force
destring CPTMTV4, replace force
destring CPTMTV5, replace force
destring CPTMTV6, replace force
destring CPTMTV6, replace force
destring SAMTV1, replace force
destring SAMTV1, replace force
destring SAMTV2, replace force
destring SAMTV4, replace force
destring SAMTV4, replace force

destring SAMTV6, replace force

destring Sectorofactivities, replace force

destring Formalindustries, replace force

destring Informalindustries, replace force

destring Employmentstatusinhomecountr, replace force

destring employmentindustryinhomecoun, replace force

destring CurrentlylookingforjobinSA, replace force

destring Equaltreatment2, replace force

destring Equaltreatment1, replace force

replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 1 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 8 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 9 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 10 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 12 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 13 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 14 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 16 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 17 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 18 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 20 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 21 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 23 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 24 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 26 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 28 replace Employmentstatusinhomecountr = 0 in 29 replace CurrentlylookingforjobinSA = 0 in 17 ****************Discriptives Analysis**********

Demographic information

XXXII

tab Country

tab Country Gender

tab Gender Martalstatus

tab Martalstatus

tab Martalstatus Country

tab Familysize Country, col

tab Livingexpenses Country, col

tab Monthlyincome Familysize, col

tab Livingexpenses Country, col

tab Monthlyincome Familysize

tab Monthlyincome Levelofeducation

tab Levelofeducation

tab Monthlyincome Levelofeducation, col

summarize Monthlyincome

summarize Employmentstatusinhomecountr

tab Monthlyincome employmentstatus, row

tab employmentstatus

tab employmentstatus Monthlyincome

tab employmentstatus Sectorofactivities

tab employmentstatus Sectorofactivities, col

tab employmentstatus Sectorofactivities, row

tab Monthlyincome employmentstatus, col

tab Monthlyincome Formalindustries

tab Formalindustries

tab Informalindustries

tab Monthlyincome Informalindustries

tab Informalindustries Monthlyincome, col

tab Informalindustries Monthlyincome, row

tab Formalindustries Monthlyincome, row

tab Sectorofactivities Monthlyincome

tab Sectorofactivities Monthlyincome, row

tab Sectorofactivities

tab Informalindustries

tab Formalindustries

tab Livingexpenses

tab Remittances

summarize Familysize

tab Familysize Monthlyincome, row

tab Familysize Monthlyincome, col

tab Monthlyincome Remittances

tab Remittances Monthlyincome, col

tab Remittances Monthlyincome, row

tab Remittances Monthlyincome, chi

tab Remittances Monthlyincome, chi row

tab Qualifications Monthlyincome, row

tab Qualifications Monthlyincome, col

tab Qualifications Monthlyincome, chi ro

tab Monthlyincome Levelofeducation, chi row

tab Levelofeducation Monthlyincome, chi row

tab GradeofspeakingEnglish Monthlyincome, chi

tab Livingexpenses Monthlyincome, chi row

tab employmentstatus

tab Employmentstatusinhomecountr

tab CurrentlylookingforjobinSA

tab SAMTV5 employmentstatus

tab Challenge1 employmentstatus

tab Challenge2 employmentstatus

tab Challenge1 employmentstatus, col

tab Challenge2 employmentstatus, col

tab Challenge3 employmentstatus, col

tab Challenge4 employmentstatus, col

tab Challenge5 employmentstatus, col

tab Structure1

tab Structure2

tab Structure3

tab Structure4

tab Structure5

tab Structure6

tab Structure7

tab NatureSpt1

tab NatureSpt2

tab NatureSpt3

tab NatureSpt4

tab NatureSpt5

tab AccesstoEducation

tab Accesstohealth

tab AccesstoSocialgrants

tab AccesstoHaservices

tab AccesstoSAPS



graph pie, over(Employmentstatusinhomecountr) plabel(_all percent)

tab Livelihoods Monthlyincome, chi row

tab Livelihoodstrategiesadopted Wellbeing, chi row

********************Infernctial Analysis************

graph pie, over(Employmentstatusinhomecountr) plabel(_all percent)

regress Informalindustries Employmentstatusinhomecountr

regress Remittances

regress SourceSpt2 SourceSpt3 SourceSpt4 SourceSpt5 SourceSpt6 SourceSpt7

regress Monthlyincome

regress Levelofeducation

regress Familysize

regress Agecategory

regress Gender

regress employmentstatus

regress Challenge3

regress Equaltreatment1

regress AccesstoEducation

regress Informalindustries Employmentstatusinhomecountr

regress Levelofeducation Monthlyincome

tab Gender Martalstatus, row

tab Gender Martalstatus, col

regress Wellbeing employmentstatus Monthlyincome Qualifications GradeofspeakingEnglish

UNIVERSITY of the

WESTERN CAPE

Familysize