

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE ATTITUDES OF WORK-SEEKERS  
TOWARDS WORK

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REPORT ON WORK-SEEKERS  
(QUANTITATIVE STUDY)

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*Prepared for the Department of Labour*

FINAL REPORT

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# **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

This report provides an analysis of the factors behind: the assumed reluctance of South African work-seekers to take employment in sectors like agriculture, security, hospitality; and the perceived preference of employers to hire migrant workers in these sectors. The focus of the report is framed within the context of a relatively high South African unemployment rate, which continues to hover at around 26% (2014-2015). Furthermore, increasing participation in the labour market, as a necessary condition for achieving the employment target set in the National Development Plan, lies at the heart of the country's development strategy. However, despite the urgency for unemployment alleviation, steadily accumulating anecdotal evidence points to a perceived reluctance, on the part of low skilled segments of the unemployed population, to accept employment in economic sectors that are considered to absorb relatively high numbers of low skilled workers. Based on their work in the field, DoL staff report South African work-seekers refusing to accept employment, mostly in agriculture, and to a lesser extent in hospitality and security. These observations are based on work-seekers' reported refusal to accept an employment offer after being matched with an employer by the Public Employment Services' (PES) ESSA system. The Department of Labour (DoL) therefore elected to commission an empirical investigation of these apparent phenomena to form the basis for a policy response.

## **2. STUDY RATIONALE AND POLICY CONTEXT**

According to the DoL, employers have themselves reported that South African work-seekers spurn certain jobs. Furthermore, "... operational experience has demonstrated that there are several cases wherein foreigners are employed in occupational positions, especially in agriculture, in which South African citizens are suitably skilled to perform" (DoL, 2014). "Immigration law provides that Government should be able to access the scarce and critical skills anywhere in the world where the need arises" (DoL, 2014). Scarce and critical skills are identified by reference to a shortage in the labour market of South Africans who have the relevant skills. This justifies hiring foreign workers. The current dilemma that the DoL faces lies in its observation that foreigners are being offered work in occupational roles for which - it is assumed - many South Africans have the appropriate competencies, given the high levels of unemployment among semi-skilled and unskilled citizens. The situation confronting the

DoL is all the more sensitive because a “... Government policy principle is to protect vulnerable citizens against unfair competition for employment opportunities in the labour market by equally skilled foreigners” (DoL, 2014).

As a result of self-reported anecdotes from employers about difficulties related to hiring locals, the Department of Labour has reported an increase in work permit requests from employers, in order that they may hire foreign labour in the sectors referred to. According to the new Immigration Act of 2012, employers have a right to hire foreign labour to meet their labour needs, when they are unable to find suitably qualified South Africans to fill job vacancies. The DoL plays an important role in the process leading to a decision to approve or decline work permit application by foreigners. It ensures that “... Employment Services exhausts all avenues of recruiting, selecting and referring suitable candidates to employers intending to recruit abroad” (DoL, 2014). If efforts to find a local candidate through the Public Employment Services system are to no avail, then employing a foreign worker may be considered. This procedure is applied to foreign workers outside the country, or inside the country on a visitor’s visa.

A second dilemma emerges for the DoL in executing its mandate to prevent “unfair competition for employment opportunities in the labour market by equally skilled foreigners”. That is, job opportunities are not only offered on the basis of skills, but also with regard given to the employer’s judgement as to the work ethic and other characteristics offered by the candidate. In this respect, the DoL reports that some employers are highly critical of a ‘poor’ attitude to work that is apparently exhibited by citizens: “At the other side of the spectrum, employers allege that local citizens are either lazy, suffer from alcohol abuse (which leads to irregular reporting for work), are reluctant to do weekend-work or any required over-time work, or are reluctant to reside in the provided on-site accommodation (instead demanding to be transported regularly between work and home)” (DoL, 2014).

It is therefore a matter of serious concern if work-seekers are voluntarily withdrawing from some sectors that have a high labour absorption growth potential. The sectors of interest are largely characterised by non-standard precarious work and high proportions of informal undeclared workers that are poorly paid, insecure and unprotected. However, on the surface it seems counter-intuitive that in the context of high unemployment, work-seekers would be unwilling to accept whatever job is available, in order to escape unemployment.

### **3. THE NEED FOR AN EVIDENCE BASE TO INFORM INTERVENTIONS**

The report explores a number of labour market and policy issues that arise from: the apparent inclination of low-skilled and unskilled South African work-seekers to reject job offers in particular sectors; and the reported influx of foreign migrants into the employment options left vacant. Specifically, the report responds to two high level objectives:

1. It assesses the reasons why South African work-seekers are not willing to take jobs like farm work and others where employers end up hiring migrant workers.
2. It explores the reasons why employers consider migrant workers for jobs in sectors like agriculture, security, hospitality and the like in a labour market that has more than 2 million nationals who are unemployed (DoL, 2014).

### **4. METHODOLOGY**

Using a comprehensive, integrative and collaborative, mixed methods approach, which draws on primary data collected through quantitative and qualitative methods, the report findings present a novel interpretation of the central research questions that guided specification of the Terms of Reference (ToRs).

Briefly, the study comprised four phases. The first phase included a literature review, instrument development, establishment of sampling frames and selection of samples. The second and third phases were conducted in parallel. The second phase of the study included a work-seekers survey. The survey investigated the reasons behind the assumed reluctance of work-seekers to accept employment in the selected sectors. It furthermore explored perceptions about attitudes of work-seekers towards different employment types, working conditions and environments, and employment preferences. The third phase involved in-depth interviews with selected employers and key informants in the selected industry sectors (agriculture, hospitality and security). The fourth phase entailed data cleaning, transcribing, quality assurance, analyses and report writing.

### **5. THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF THE STUDY**

The study undertook a comprehensive literature review that explored issues regarding occupational choice, work-seeker attitudes, factors that affect worker selection by employers, the role of migrant labour in the local economy, labour market segmentation as it relates to good jobs and bad jobs, and the link between these matters and work-seeker attitudes. Due to

the centrality of the empirical review in unpacking the foregoing issues regarding the reluctance of work-seekers to accept an employment offer, important aspects of literature will be briefly discussed next.

### **5.1 Factors that influence the decision to work or not to work**

The report draws on literature that shows that the decision to work or not to work is the outcome of a choice that the individual makes based on two inter-related factors: the terms and the level of employment, which determine outcomes on the supply side. The terms of employment include wages, compensation levels, working conditions, the type of contract and other institutional factors such as the level of unionization. Although the terms of employment are set out and enforced by an act of law, the importance of each one in determining whether or not a work seeker will accept an offer is largely determined by individual characteristics, as the empirical evidence demonstrates. While the final choice to accept an offer is ultimately determined by the weight assigned to each condition by the worker, remuneration is one of the most important factors that workers consider. The more attractive the terms of employment, the more willing a worker will be to supply his/ her labour services (Ehrenberg & Smith, 2011).

The level of employment influences the degree of competition for opportunities, and more so in the context of international migration. These two interrelated factors will vary across occupations, skills and demographic groups that constitute the overall labour market. Occupational choices are influenced by expected wages in a given occupation, and other non-monetary factors and individual characteristics that shape preferences.

### **5.2 Occupational choice and occupational change**

The report highlights that the occupational choice process is complex, develops over many years and is influenced by several experiences that in combination have the effect of narrowing down the range of future alternatives and the final occupation of choice (Blau, Gustad, Jessor, Parnes and Wilcock, 1956). It is also important to note that when work-seekers are confronted with a choice among different occupations, the potential worker will weigh the benefits, potential earnings, non-monetary returns, and cost of training, and foregone earnings (Boskin, 1974). The worker will thus invest in changing occupations only if the returns are sufficiently large to make the change worthwhile, and the most profitable use of his/ her limited resources.

### **5.3 Work-seeker Attitudes**

Although the findings from the literature review point to the significance of individual attitudes in the decision to work or not, very little research was found on the effect of work-seekers 'attitudes' on their desire to participate in the labour market in South Africa. In the context of high unemployment, alongside a history of unequal labour market opportunities, the major preoccupation has been with supply factors such as work-seekers abilities and skills. There has been limited focus to date on the influence of work-seeker attitudes on labour market outcomes. Nonetheless, empirical recommendations illustrate the value of studying individual attitudes in order to comprehensively understand the intention to engage in work-related behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

### **5.4 Employer factors in worker selection**

Turning to demand side factors that influence a firm's decision to hire foreign workers, the literature reflected on two main reasons. First, is the need to fill labour and skills shortages; second, is employer preferences, which are driven by perceptions of foreign labour providing relatively cheap and exploitable replacement for local labour (Anderson and Ruhs, 2010). The argument is that employers are often driven by their concern for profitability and control of the workforce.

### **5.5 Migrant labour - convenience or necessity?**

The literature that was reviewed makes a distinction between labour being structurally necessary and labour being preferable and convenient for the employer (Bosok, 2002). Migrant labour is seen as being structurally necessary in sectors that survive by employing workers who can be described as 'unfree', i.e. 'those that are not only unable to circulate in the labour market as they (are) constrained through political and legal compulsion', but who are also not in a position to refuse employer demands. In this case, the employment of foreign migrant labour is said to be 'targeted' in order to meet the specific needs of the business (Bosok, 2002). 'Targeting' has been found to be driven by migrant labour's language skills and specific knowledge of the local culture. The need to fill labour shortages with foreign migrant labour is often based on perceptions of their heightened work ethic and commitment (more willing to do shift work, to work long hours, and being more reliable) compared with local labour.

## **5.6 ‘Good jobs’ and ‘bad jobs’ in low skilled jobs**

By focusing on the characteristics of good jobs and bad jobs and mapping these against the economy, the empirical analysis of this study finds a novel interpretation of the factors that might influence the decision of local work-seekers to shun the sectors of interest. The literature reviewed indicates that, globally, the nature of work is changing in a way that is altering the work experience. This has been accompanied by an exponential increase in temporal and casual work relative to permanent jobs; it is characterised as a-typical employment that is based on non-standard or flexible contractual arrangements (Mckay, Jefferys, Paraksevopoulou, and Keles, 2012). While general consensus posits that wages are an essential determinant of job quality, lack of access to health insurance or pension benefits are also important criteria that define bad jobs. Bad jobs tend to be characterized by non-standard employment arrangements (Kalleberg et al., 2000). This means that jobs are less secure and that employment contracts are not only temporary but also flexible, thus lowering the cost of labour to the employer.

The literature highlights that retention of workers in ‘bad’ jobs is low, with high job turnover experienced (Atkinson and Williams, 2003). The report also shows that the notion of bad jobs, which is often taken from the worker perspective, can also be extended to the employer. Good employers are seen as those providing secure, stable jobs as well as training and promotion opportunities. ‘Bad’ employers are those that provide jobs with little to no job-security, flexible contracts and where there is no progression. As a result, bad jobs are those that are not covered by union protection, largely because regulation is almost impossible or non-existent where there is such a high degree of flexibility. These non-standard work arrangements would, typically, be attractive to employers, as they reduce employment costs (Kalleberg et al., 2000).

## **5.7 Segmented labour market theory offers a way forward**

In the wake of the growth of low quality jobs, segmented labour market theories have re-emerged. Segmented labour market theory argues that markets are differentiated along two main dimensions: the characteristics of jobs; and the characteristics of individuals (Doeringer and Piore, 1971). So the two sub-markets are not defined according to specific occupations or industries; rather, they are based on a set of general features (Uys and Blaauw, 2006). The segmented labour market theory provides a division of the market into: a primary segment

consisting of the 'good jobs' with stable employment; a secondary segment of low paid, unskilled and short term jobs comprises 'bad jobs'.

Jobs in the primary segment of the labour market are governed by the rules of the internal labour market of companies; they are characterised by relatively good wages, stable employment, good working conditions, collective agreement, job security and good promotion prospects. On the other hand, the secondary segment is subject to the demand and supply logic of the market. Jobs in this category lack skill specificity, with the labour pool to fill these jobs being comparatively undifferentiated. These jobs are also characterised by the absence of a union presence, with no codification of work rules. Workers who fill these jobs manifest traits that are compatible with these jobs: poor work discipline, unreliability, unstable work patterns, lack of punctuality and respect, regular absenteeism, and petty theft from the firm (Uys and Blaauw, 2006:249). Secondary sector employment is said to create and reinforce these bad work habits. Consequently, these sectors are characterised by high levels of turnover. Certain groups, such as migrants, low skilled workers and parts of the female workforce were found to be over-represented in the secondary segment (Berger and Piore, 1980).

Agriculture and hospitality can be classified as secondary sectors to a large extent and possessing most of the characteristics that are found in the bad jobs. This is due to the inherent informality in terms of jobs in these sectors, which makes it difficult to enforce regulation. The security sector is better structured in terms of formality, even though some features of non-compliant/informal security firms deem this sector as belong to a secondary segment. The segmented labour market argues that the fragmented nature of the labour market occurs as a result of the behaviour of firms and the characteristics of jobs - rather than the characteristics of workers. Neo-classic economic theory, in contrast, argues that work-seekers are able to choose among job options in the labour market, and are guided by personal taste, preferences, abilities and skills. Segmented labour markets theory argues that there are institutional barriers that prohibit some groups from benefiting equally from education and training, as they are trapped in the lower segments of the labour market.



## 5.8 The conceptual framework

Segmented labour market theory (Piore, 1970) seemed appropriate for use to investigate and explain the paradox that DoL officials have witnessed in key sectors in the current labour market. This study was therefore framed on the basis of a segmented labour market theory approach, which allowed for a more nuanced understanding of: factors influencing work-seekers' decisions to accept or decline employment; and of the drivers of migrant labour recruitment. The approach allowed us to investigate: the attitudes and behaviour patterns of both sets of actors - work-seekers and employers; and how their behaviour impacts on labour market outcomes.

To address the questions, the research team needed to understand work-seeker preferences and choice of job. A framework was needed to guide analysis of the factors and influences that underpin the 'reasons' why work-seekers make the decisions they do. This is because a decision to refuse a job offer does not 'just happen'. Rather, it occurs at a point in a process through which individuals: develop their own perceptions about what a 'good job' is; and formulate decisions about their action in the labour market, subject to material needs and household obligations. The conceptual framework for this study was constructed with reference to research and theory relevant to:

- the economic rationale for taking up paid work;
- how work-seeker preferences are formed;
- how work quality is conceived;
- how occupations and sectors are perceived;
- how different sectoral recruitment practices emerge;
- what extent work-seekers acquire good job-search skills, without which job preferences may not be fulfilled and which leads to frustration.

Data collection and analysis conducted for this study therefore touched on all of these facets, as follows, and which are reported in detail in the report:

- socio-economic circumstances and labour market outcomes;
- the role of employment status and gender on sector preferences;
- work-seeker attitudes and preferences;
- work-seeker reluctance to accept job opportunities;
- work-seeker orientation to work in selected economic sectors;

- work-seeker attitudes towards foreign immigrants;
- job search attitudes and behaviours.

## **6. KEY RESEARCH FINDINGS**

### **6.1 Profile of the sample of work-seekers**

The profile of the sample of work-seekers was analysed and, where possible, compared with the population of the ESSA database, which contains the population of registered work-seekers in the specified period. The following are some of the key features:

- The proportion of men and women is 55% and 45%, respectively.
- African work-seekers are in the majority (82%), followed by: 12% coloured; 1% Indian; and 4% white.
- Respondents who claimed disability constituted 3% of the sample.
- The majority of work-seekers indicated the highest qualification level as being equal to or above grade 12; 45% had lower than a grade 12 qualification.
- In terms of age, the majority of work-seekers (57%) were younger than 35, of whom 19% were 16 to 25 years old.
- The sample was provincially representative, with the two largest provinces being Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, with 23% and 19% of all work-seekers, respectively.
- At the time of the survey, 25% of all respondents were employed, while over two thirds were not working but had previous work experience. Just below 10% (8%) had not held a paid job before.
- Of those with work experience: 42% had previously held one job; 31% had held two jobs; while 27% had held three or more jobs.

### **6.2 Key research question: refusal to take up a job offer**

The first key research question refers to refusal of an employment offer in a low-skilled job in economic sectors such as agriculture, hospitality and security. No evidence emerged from the Work-seekers Survey attesting to refusal of a job offer by significant numbers of workers. Firstly, from 2 934 work-seeker respondents of whom 25% were employed at the time of the survey, a small number of 62 work-seekers reported receiving a formal employment offer of whom 47 accepted and 15 refused. Reasons for refusing a job offer included: that the job required higher or lower qualifications or skill levels than the work-seeker possessed; or, the job offer required working experience the work-seeker did not have; or the location of the

business premises was not suitable; or the work-seeker had already committed to another job or training programme; or the work-seeker's work occupational preference was not met. From this we infer that the reasons for a large number of job refusals are based on pragmatic considerations, rather than an evaluation of the job quality in terms of its intrinsic and extrinsic characteristics.

Secondly, it was observed that a high proportion of job negotiations, especially with agriculture workers and restaurant waitering occupations: involve word-of-mouth communication; and are frequently conducted on the spur of the moment. Consequently, there are no formal records of such informal job offers and refusals, from which an estimate of the proportion of refusals can be derived. A further methodological difficulty with estimating 'refusals', is how to factor in a work-seeker's prior decision not to work in particular occupations. This rejection of occupational alternatives would take place before an application is made. It is suggested that this option taken by work-seekers should be factored in, to obtain a more realistic estimation of negative evaluation of jobs by work-seekers.

### **6.3 Socio-economic circumstances and labour market outcomes**

The results of the analysis of socio-economic circumstances points to the presence of push factors that should lead work-seekers to want to be in paid work, since the socio-economic outcomes of those in paid work are superior to those who are unemployed. For example, the extent to which employment status is associated with better socio-economic outcomes seems to provide an incentive that might increase the willingness of work-seekers to accept any employment offer, due to the need to meet certain family obligations.

The findings from the socio-economic analysis appear to indicate relatively strong incentives to want to work; nonetheless, the following analysis of perceptions and attitudes towards work, would suggest that the final decision to reject or accept an offer of employment is influenced by the interaction of all these factors.

### **6.4 Work-seeker attitudes and preferences: assessing work-seekers' reluctance to accept job opportunities**

Analysis of work-seeker preferences reveals that there are certain job attributes that they consider most important. The three highest ranked attributes are jobs that provide: opportunities to use their own skills and education, job security, and earnings. These are closely followed by another valued attribute, which is work that is interesting. However,

although these attributes are ranked highly, on average, by all work-seekers, there were differences among work-seekers in valuation of job attributes.

The analysis also factored 'extreme' work conditions into the mix of work attributes to which workers were requested to respond. A consistent pattern of responses is observed, with just over two-thirds of workers being willing to work under all conditions presented in the instrument.

Statistical analysis of nineteen questions relating to work attributes considered by work-seekers revealed that work-seekers perceived earnings or salary as the most important factor to consider when pursuing employment. The second most important factor relates to the type of job and the suitability of the work-seeker's skills for the job, i.e. opportunity to use his/ her skills, job security, interesting job or preferred type of job.

The three characteristics of a job cited as being important by a large majority of respondents are often absent in the so called 'good jobs' - and particularly in the sectors of interest: agriculture, hospitality and security. 'Bad jobs' or 'dirty jobs' have been described as those jobs that offer meagre pay and fringe benefits, low status, potential danger and a lack of upward mobility. Embedded in this preference pattern is the definition of a good job.

### **6.5 Assessing work-seekers orientation to work in selected economic sectors**

In addition to the formation of attitudes to occupations and jobs, work-seekers in South Africa also develop perceptions about sectors. Perceptions and valuation of sectors and occupations among work-seekers were explored from a number of dimensions. The aim was to elicit responses regarding the willingness of respondents to recommend or refer jobs in particular sectors to friends. The intention was to conduct a socio-demographic analysis of attitudes to working in each of the targeted sectors: agriculture, hospitality and security. The objective was to take a detailed look at how the characteristics of work-seekers may produce differences in perceptions regarding work in the sectors. The analysis also focused on questions about perceptions of personal dignity associated with working in a particular occupation. The results show that work-seekers were more than willing to refer family members or acquaintances to jobs in the various sectors, but were less expansive when the question was directed to their personal willingness.

Responses from work-seekers on the likelihood of their working in each sector were disaggregated by gender, age and education level. Likelihood of working in a sector was

relatively even for agriculture and security, but was higher for females in hospitality. The age groups showing a higher likelihood of taking up work across the sectors were the 25 to 34 and 35 to 44 age groups. According to education level, the likelihood of taking jobs in security was highest amongst work-seekers who have some form of secondary school qualification. Across all sectors, the strongest disinclination to take up a job was amongst work-seekers with no education or below Grade 3 education. With respect to perceptions of personal dignity associated with working in a particular occupation, more than half of work-seekers perceived no work as below their dignity. However, the results seem to indicate that the security sector is the least preferred of the three sectors under scrutiny.

## **6.6 The role of employment status, and gender in moulding sector preferences**

In order to consolidate the findings from the demographic, socio-economic, attitudes and work-seeker preferences analyses two models were run. This analysis highlights a number of useful insights into: the demographic, sectoral and job specific preferences of the unemployed; and the differences between men and women with respect to these factors. What is relatively clear from the findings is that work-seekers (both the unemployed and women) negotiate the labour market based on a consideration of a complex set of interactions between the aforementioned factors. With respect to sector preferences, the results provided by the two models showed consistent patterns of response. Both the unemployed and women were more likely to decline employment in agriculture, with the former being statistically significant at the 1% level. The results also showed that both groups were less likely to decline employment in the hospitality sector, with this preference being statistically significant for women. The third sector that showed consistency of preference was the mining sector, with the results for both groups being statistically significant.

However, although women were less likely to self-select away from the hospitality sector, they were also less likely to accept a job that required them to work over weekends: this preference is at odds with their sectoral preference, given that the hospitality sector generally operates on weekends and public holidays. Although seemingly contradictory, this result highlights the complex nature of sectoral and job choices. It highlights that work-seekers are constantly trying to balance the trade-off between a sector of choice and the characteristics of jobs found in that sector.

## **6.7 Work-seeker attitudes towards foreign immigrants**

In pursuing the question ‘What impact does the presence of foreign immigrants have on a labour market?’, a series of four questions were included in the survey, in order to explore the existence and strength of South African workers’ attitudes towards foreign workers. In the South African labour market, the influx of large numbers of immigrants and their employment on a relatively large scale (and particularly in low-skill jobs) prompted the following questions, in order to explore local workers’ views on the reasons given by employers for taking on foreign workers.

Just over half of the sample population of employed and unemployed workers hold the view that it is easier for employers to pay foreigners low wages (53.7%). This perception informs concerns that employers can hire cheap foreign labour and reduce the number of low-skill local workers they employ. However, as discussed in the report, regulatory conditions, inspections and sanctions may limit the extent of this practise. Overall, employed and unemployed workers held similar views, with 44.8% in both groups agreeing that foreigners have better skills than locals. However, 54.4% of post-school educated respondents disagreed with the view that foreigners have better skills. Educational level seems to be associated with the perception that foreigners have better skills. Local workers with higher skills – of post-school education - are confident about their skill levels, whereas their lesser skilled fellows are insecure regarding the situation.

Respondents were further asked to indicate their agreement levels with the following statement: to what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs? A significant proportion of African respondents considered the statement that employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs to be true. By educational level, from low to high, the proportion of those in agreement ranged between 54.4% and 61.0%. Although there was general agreement with this statement, a large proportion of those who agreed were in employment at the time of the survey. The profile of responses of the employed and unemployed are very similar in their proportions, with a majority of 51% in broad disagreement and a minority of about 40% in agreement with the statement that local workers are not hard-working. The position adopted on this matter depends on the point of view of the observer. In the following chapter, this issue is discussed in more detail, with reference to employer interviews.

## **6.8 Job search attitudes and behaviours**

The report explored in detail alternative job search methods that are employed by work-seekers to look for employment. The findings show that a high proportion (40%) of the population of work-seekers had been out of work for one to two years and that the following three approaches to finding a job had been attempted by only 20% to 30% of job seekers: applied for a post, approached an employer, spoke to family and network. Work seekers tend to neglect using as many channels as possible to find a job. Although about 40% of respondents were optimistic that they would find a job in the next three months, 36% were pessimistic, while nearly 25% said they did not know whether they would jobs, which perhaps reflects apathy.

Responses suggested that lack of local employment opportunities is the biggest obstacle to finding a job: this is true for 23.5% of respondents. The second most serious difficulty encountered by work-seekers was identified as a lack of information. A relatively small proportion of unemployed work-seekers remain committed to continuing their job-search, while nearly 10% take up further study and 24% reveal they are doing 'nothing'.

## **7. SUMMARY AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS**

The quantitative analysis sought to further explore the second research question of the study: Under what circumstances do work-seekers decline employment offers from the agriculture, hospitality and security sectors? In answer to this question, Berger and Piore's (1980) theoretical framework (which stratifies the economy into primary and secondary segments) proved revealing. The report related the demand for foreign migrant workers to the segmented nature of the South African labour market. The primary segment, which is governed by the rules of the internal labour market, offers: relatively better wages; relatively good working conditions; stable employment and job security; collective labour agreements; and prospects of upward mobility. These sectors are seen as offering 'good jobs', characterised by stable employment. On the other hand, in the secondary segment, jobs are characterised by unattractive low wages, dismal working conditions, limited promotional prospects, and "general inferior or demeaning social status attached to them" (Berger and Piore, 1979:17; Berger and Piore, 1989:17-18 in Bosok, 2002:7). This secondary segment of the labour market therefore relies on low paid, unskilled and unstable employment (Doeringer and Piore, 1971) - or what can be referred to as 'bad jobs'.

The segmented economy framework was assessed in this study by asking work-seekers about seven attributes that would highlight the extent to which their preferences coincided with a

given segment. The results showed a preference profile that translates to job values that are consistent with those in the primary segment of the labour market, which is characterised by 'good jobs'. Three of the highest ranked attributes were jobs that provide security, opportunities to use own skills and education and earnings. This preference pattern begins to explain why some work-seekers turn down job offers in sectors that they perceive as not offering the attributes they consider important in a job. It is therefore safe to say that work-seekers will decline an employment offer when there is a mismatch between the working conditions in a sector and the job value preferences of a work-seeker.

The results of the analysis of socio-economic circumstances points to the presence of push factors that should lead work-seekers to want to be in paid work - and more so given that the socio-economic outcomes for those in paid work are better than for those who are unemployed. For example, the extent to which employment status is associated with better socio-economic outcomes should provide an incentive that might increase the willingness of work-seekers to accept any employment offer due to the need to meet their socio-economic needs. These findings from the socio-economic analysis appear to indicate a relatively strong incentive to want to work; nonetheless the analysis of perceptions and attitudes towards work indicates that the final decision to reject or accept an employment offer will be influenced by interaction of all these factors.

In order to test how the different factors are related to each other, two models were estimated: an unemployment model and a gender model. The results of the regression analysis show that work-seekers, both the unemployed and women, negotiate the labour market based on the interaction of a complex set of factors. The seeming contradictions in preferences are explained by the fact that choices are being presented in isolation of a specific employment offer. This would explain, for example, why a woman would be more likely to accept an offer in hospitality even though she is less likely to accept a job that requires her to work on weekends.

With respect to sector preferences, the results from the two models found consistent patterns of response. Both the unemployed and women were more likely to decline employment in agriculture, with the former being statistically significant. The results also showed that both groups were less likely to decline employment in the hospitality sector, with this preference being statistically significant for women. The third sector that showed consistency of



preference was the mining sector: here the results for both groups were statistically significant, with both groups being more likely to decline an offer in this sector.

## **Recommendations**

### **Research**

- Targeted research, particularly in sub-sectors such as the grape and deciduous industries in the Western Cape.
- Targeted research in Limpopo in the regions bordering other countries, so as to assess the immediate impact of border crossings and how migrants proceed inland to find work.
- A tracer study to investigate where former rural and agriculture farm workers migrate to and their experience in finding jobs in urban areas.
- Further investigation into the appointment of foreign migrants in the security industry.

### **Policy**

- Improve the capacity of Home Affairs' databases to generate data on: overall immigration; issuing of individual work permits per occupation or sector; issuing of group/ corporate work permits.
- Improve the efficiency of Home Affairs in processing work permit applications.
- Improve the ESSA database ability to generate higher levels of matching between demand and supply.
- Improve the Department of Labour's ability to carry out inspections in high density farming areas.
- Encourage union representation on farms.
- Better career guidance for learners in rural towns.
- Implementation of rural development projects and initiatives, in order to attract labour absorbing growth.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

CATI	Computer Assisted Telephonic Interviewing
CV	Curriculum Vitae
DFA	Department of Foreign Affairs
DHA	Department of Home Affairs
DoL	Department of Labour
ESSA	Employment Services of South Africa
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council
ID	Identity Document
MS	Microsoft
NDP	National Development Plan
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PES	Public Employment Services
PRP	Permanent Resident Permits
PSC	Project Steering Committee
PSIRA	Private Security Industry Regulatory Authority
REC	Research Ethics Clearance
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SA	South Africa
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SASSETA	Safety and Security Sector Education and Training Authority
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Scientist
TEBA	The Employment Bureau of Africa
TIPS	Trade and Industrial Policy Strategies
TRP	Temporary Resident Permits
UIF	Unemployment Insurance Fund
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
WAI	Weighted Average Index

## **CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION**

“Too few South Africans work”, lamented the National Planning Commission Diagnostic Report of 2011. The unemployment rate continues to hover at around 25%, based on the third quarter results of the Statistics South Africa’s (Stats SA) Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2014. During this period: the labour force consisted of about 20 million people: 15 million were employed; and 5 million did not have jobs, but were actively looking for employment. Unemployment: is prevalent amongst the vulnerable groups in the population, including previously disadvantaged individuals, and semi-skilled and unskilled members of the labour force: and is disproportionately present amongst youth. Increasing participation in the labour market has thus been identified as a necessary condition for achieving the employment target set in the National Development Plan (NDP) - of an additional 11 million jobs by 2030 - and it therefore lies at the heart of the country’s development strategy.

One of the key strategies the government has identified to alleviate unemployment has been to introduce labour market policies to accelerate job creation and promote employment in: traditional labour-intensive industries such as agriculture, mining and manufacturing; and in high level service industries such as tourism and business services (South African Government Communications, 2013).

This undertaking is also shared by the Department of Labour (DoL) through its Employment Services of South Africa (ESSA) system, located within the Public Employment Services (PES) unit of DoL. ESSA’s main mandate is to reduce unemployment by matching work-seekers with available work opportunities. As of 2012, over 600 000 work-seekers had registered on the ESSA database (Prinsloo et al., 2011). Most work-seekers on the database share similar characteristics, with a large majority being low-skilled (Arends et al., 2015) and equipped with minimal work experience.

### **1.1. Background and rationale**

#### **1.1.1. An unexpected response: work-seekers refuse work offers**

Despite the urgent need to alleviate unemployment, steadily accumulating anecdotal evidence points to a perceived reluctance, by low-skilled segments of the unemployed population, to

accept employment in some priority economic sectors (including agriculture, hospitality and security).

Based on their work in the field, DoL staff report South African work-seekers refusing to accept employment, mostly in agriculture, and to a lesser extent in hospitality and security. These observations are based on work-seeker's reported refusal to accept employment offers after they were matched with employers by the PES's ESSA system. According to the DoL, employers themselves have reported that South African work-seekers spurn these jobs.

It is a matter of serious concern if work-seekers are voluntarily withdrawing from some of the sectors and jobs that have been targeted for labour absorbing growth. Even though the sectors of interest are largely characterised by non-standard precarious work (McKay, 2009), with high proportions of informal undeclared workers that are poorly paid, insecure and unprotected, it still seems counter-intuitive that in the current harsh unemployment environment, work-seekers would be *unwilling* to accept whatever job is available, in order to escape unemployment.

### **1.1.2. Employers offer jobs to foreign workers and seek work permits**

Seemingly, local employers have been hiring foreign migrants to fill job opportunities because South Africans refuse the openings on offer. According to the DoL, "... operational experience has demonstrated that there are several cases in which foreigners are employed in occupational positions, especially in agriculture, for which South African citizens are suitably skilled" (DoL, 2014).

"Immigration law provides that Government should be able to access scarce and critical skills anywhere in the world, when the need arises" (DoL, 2014). Scarce and critical skills are identified as a shortage of South Africans in the labour market with the relevant skills. This justifies the practice of resorting to hiring foreign workers. The current dilemma that the DoL faces lies in their observation that foreigners are being offered work in occupational roles for which - it is assumed - many South Africans have the appropriate competencies, given the high levels of unemployment among semi-skilled and unskilled citizens. The situation confronting DoL is all the more sensitive because a "Government policy principle is to protect vulnerable citizens against unfair competition for employment opportunities in the labour market by equally skilled foreigners" (DoL, 2014).

The DoL has reported an increase in work permit requests by employers wanting to hire foreign labour in the sectors referred to. According to the new Immigration Act of 2012, employers have a right to hire foreign labour to meet their labour needs when they are unable to find suitably qualified South Africans to fill job vacancies. The DoL plays an important role in the process leading to the decision to approve or decline a work permit application by foreigners. It ensures that "... Employment Services exhausts all avenues of recruiting, selecting and referring suitable candidates to employers intending to recruit abroad" (DoL, 2014, para. 2.2). If efforts to find a local candidate through the PES system are to no avail, then employing a foreign worker may be considered. This procedure is applied to foreign workers outside the country or in the country on a visitor's visa.

A second dilemma emerges for the DoL in executing its mandate to prevent "unfair competition for employment opportunities in the labour market by equally skilled foreigners". That is, job opportunities are not only offered on the basis of skills, but also in terms of the employer's judgement as to the work ethic and other characteristics offered by the candidate. In this respect, the DoL reports that some employers are highly critical of a 'poor' attitude to work apparently exhibited by citizens: "At the other side of the spectrum, employers allege that local citizens are either: lazy; suffer from alcohol abuse (which leads to irregular reporting for work); are reluctant to do weekend-work or any required over-time work; or are reluctant to reside in the provided on-site accommodation, demanding that they be transported regularly between work and home" (DoL, 2014, para. 2.4).

## **1.2. The need for an evidence base to inform interventions**

A number of labour market and policy issues are raised by: the apparent inclination of low-skill and unskilled South African work-seekers to reject job offers in particular sectors; and the reported influx of foreign migrants into the positions left vacant. The DoL has undertaken its own initial enquiries and decided that the matter warrants further empirical research: "Thus far, the Department of Labour has interacted with the employers in an endeavour to verify the allegations. The work-seekers' versions have not yet been heard. An empirical investigation will, believably, unearth the causes of this work-seeker behaviour, in order for Government to devise a policy response" (DoL, 2014).

Accordingly, the DoL prepared terms of reference for the current research, which included two high level objectives:

1. To develop a report on the reasons why South African work-seekers are not willing to take certain jobs like farm work and others, with employers ending up hiring migrant workers.
2. To establish the reasons why employers consider migrant workers for jobs in sectors like agriculture, security, hospitality and the like, in a labour market that has more than 2 million nationals who are unemployed (DoL, 2014).

The DoL therefore raised a question that requires systematic research evidence, to inform interventions that may be required to address the problem:

What are: the factors behind the assumed reluctance of South African work-seekers to accept employment in sectors like agriculture, security, hospitality; and the perceived preference of employers to hire migrant workers in these sectors?

### **1.2.1. Worker and employer agendas**

Given two sets of protagonists with differing perspectives on what they want or need from their relationship as worker and employer, these are extremely complex questions to address. At a conceptual level, labour market outcomes are determined by the decision set of workers, on the one hand, and employers on the other. Respectively, these two groups represent the supply and demand side of the labour market. On the supply side, there are a number of factors that determine the willingness of an individual to choose a given job, to acquire education and to be motivated to apply effort in a particular occupation. Similarly, on the demand side, there are a number of factors that affect the decision of a firm to: hire and fire workers; offer jobs with different characteristics; discriminate among different workers; and choose particular compensation policies. The decisions of both groups are also strongly influenced by a range of labour market regulations and policies, including minimum wage regulations, laws regarding conditions of work and affirmative action imperatives.

### **1.2.2. Terms and levels of employment**

The decision to work or not to work is the outcome of a choice that the individual makes based on two inter-related factors, the terms and the levels of employment, which determine outcomes on the supply side. The terms of employment include wages, compensation levels, working conditions, the type of contract and other institutional factors such as the level of unionization. Although the terms of employment are set out and enforced by an act of law,

the importance of each one in determining whether or not a work-seeker will accept an offer is largely determined by individual characteristics, as the empirical evidence demonstrates. While the final choice to accept an offer is ultimately determined by the weight assigned to each condition by the worker, remuneration is one of the most important factors that workers consider. The more attractive the terms of employment, the more willing a given worker will be to supply their labour services (Ehrenberg & Smith, 2011).

The level of employment influences the degree of competition for opportunities, more so in the context of international migration. These two inter-related factors will vary across the occupational groups, skill groups, or demographic groups that constitute the overall labour market. Occupational choices are influenced by expected wages in a given occupation, other non-monetary factors and individual characteristics that shape preferences.

### **1.2.3. Occupational choice and occupational change**

In their seminal work, Blau et al. (1956) argue that the occupational choice process is: complex; develops over many years; and is influenced by several experiences that, in combination, have the effect of narrowing the range of future alternatives and the final occupation of choice. According to Boskin (1974), when work-seekers are confronted with a choice among different occupations, the potential worker will weigh the benefits, potential earnings, non-monetary returns, cost of training and foregone earnings. The worker will thus invest in changing occupations only if the returns are sufficiently large to make the change worthwhile, and the most profitable use of his/ her limited resources.

The location of a work opportunity is important and might influence the willingness of potential work-seekers to accept employment (Christiadi & Cushing, 2008). This relationship is portrayed as an interaction between the supply of occupational skills by local or migrant individuals and the demand for labour by various labour market regions. The relationship is a complex one, since migrant individuals are more mobile and flexible and could easily change occupation, based on choice of region and vice versa.

### **1.2.4. Work-seeker attitudes**

The literature thus points to the significance of individual attitudes in the decision to work or not. However, very little research exists on the effect of work-seeker attitudes on their desire to participate in the labour market in South Africa. In the context of high unemployment, alongside a history of unequal labour market opportunities, the major preoccupation has

instead been with supply factors, such as work-seeker abilities and skills. There has been limited focus on the influence of work-seeker attitudes on labour market outcomes to date. Research by scholars such as Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) illustrates the value of studying individual attitudes in order to properly understand the intention to engage in work related behaviour.

### **1.2.5. Employer factors in worker selection**

Turning to the demand side factors that influence a firm's decision to hire foreign workers, the literature has reflected on two main reasons. First, is the need to fill labour and skills shortages; second are employer preferences that are driven by perceptions of foreign labour as providing a relatively cheap and exploitable replacement for local labour (Anderson and Ruhs, 2010). The argument is that employers are often driven by their concern for profitability and control of the workforce.

### **1.2.6. Migrant labour - convenience or necessity?**

Bosok (2002) argues strongly that the current literature fails to separate labour that is a 'structural necessity' from labour that is merely 'preferable and convenient' for the employer. Migrant labour is structurally necessary in sectors that survive by employing workers that are described as 'unfree', i.e. 'those that are not only unable to circulate in the labour market, as they (are) constrained through political and legal compulsion', but who are also not in a position to refuse employer demands. Seasonal workers, for example, can refuse to offer labour, but because of economic pressures they are forced to accept precarious employment. In this case, the employment of foreign migrant labour is said to be 'targeted' in order to meet specific needs of the business (Bosok, 2002). 'Targeting' has been found to be driven by migrant labour's language skills and specific knowledge of the local culture. The need to fill labour shortages with foreign migrant labour is often based on perceptions of the heightened work ethic and commitment (more willing to do shift work and work long hours, and more reliable) of foreign labour, compared with that of local labour. A more nuanced understanding of the complex circumstances surrounding employer decisions to engage foreign labour is particularly pertinent in a country with high unemployment amongst the low-skilled, as is the case in South Africa.

### **1.2.7. 'Good jobs' and 'bad jobs' in low-skill jobs**

Globally, the nature of work is changing and has altered the work experience. This has been accompanied by an exponential increase in temporal and casual work relative to permanent jobs (McKay et al., 2012), which is characterised as a-typical employment operating on non-standard or flexible contractual arrangements. The transformed organization of work and of employment relationships are amongst several factors that have altered the meaning of work and the experience of work. This has profound implications on the overall quality of work, as evidenced by the widening gap between ‘good’ and ‘bad’ jobs (Kalleberg, Reskin and Hudson, 2000; Acemoglu, 2001; Atkinson and Williams, 2003). While general consensus posits that wages are an essential determinant of job quality, lack of access to health insurance or pension benefits are also important criteria for defining bad jobs. Bad jobs tend to be characterized by non-standard employment arrangements (Kalleberg et al., 2000). This means that jobs are less secure and employment contracts are not only temporary but also flexible, which lowers the cost of labour for the employer. Atkinson and Williams (2003) report that retention of workers in ‘bad’ jobs is low and high job turnover is experienced.

The definition of ‘bad’ jobs has largely been taken from the worker perspective. However, Atkinson and Williams (2003) corroborate the definition from the employer side, by describing good employers as those providing secure and stable jobs, as well as training and promotion opportunities. ‘Bad’ employers are those who provide jobs with little to no job-security, flexible contracts and with no progression offered. As a result, bad jobs are those that are not covered by union protection, largely because regulation is almost impossible or non-existent when there is such a high degree of flexibility. These non-standard work arrangements would typically be attractive to employers, as they reduce employment costs (Kalleberg, Reskin and Hudson, 2000).

### **1.2.8. Segmented labour market theory offers a way forward**

In the wake of growth in low quality jobs, segmented labour market theories have emerged on the academic agenda in recent years. The pioneers of segmented labour market theory (Doeringer and Piore, 1971) argued that markets are differentiated along two main dimensions: the characteristics of jobs; and the characteristics of individuals. So the two sub-markets are not defined according to specific occupations or industries; rather, they are based on a set of general features (Uys and Blaauw, 2006:12). Deakin (2013) observes this segmentation of the labour market to be premised on different characteristics and behavioural rules (Deakin, 2013:4).



The segmented labour market theory identifies a division of the market into a primary segment consisting of the ‘good jobs’ with stable employment and a secondary segment of low paid, unskilled or low-skilled and short-term jobs (Doeringer and Piore, 1971) consists of ‘bad jobs’. Jobs in the primary segment of the labour market are governed by the rules of the internal labour market of companies, which is characterised by relatively good wages, stable employment, with good work conditions, collective agreement, job security and good promotion prospects. On the other hand, the secondary segment is subject to the demand and supply logic of the market. Jobs in this category lack skill specificity, with the labour pool to fill these jobs being comparatively undifferentiated. These jobs are also characterised by the absence of a union presence, with no codification of work rules. Workers who fill these jobs manifest traits that are compatible with these jobs, e.g.: poor work discipline, unreliability, unstable work patterns, lack of punctuality and respect, regular absenteeism, and petty theft from the firm (Uys and Blaauw, 2006:249). Secondary sector employment is said to create and reinforce these bad work habits. Consequently, these sectors are characterised by high levels of turnover. Certain groups, such as migrants, the low-skilled and parts of the female workforce, were found to be over-represented in the secondary segment (Berger and Piore, 1980).

Of the sectors of interest for the present research, agriculture and hospitality can be classified as secondary segments that, to a large extent, possess most of the characteristics of bad jobs. This is due to these sectors consisting large components of informality, making it difficult to enforce regulation. The security sector is better structured in terms of formality, even though tendencies of informal firms also exist in some security companies.

This theory further proposes that the fragmented nature of the labour market occurs as a result of the behaviour of firms and of the characteristics of jobs, rather than the characteristics of workers. Neo-classic economic theory, in contrast, argues that work-seekers are able to choose from job options in the labour market, being guided by personal taste, preferences, abilities and skills. Segmented labour market theory argues that there are institutional barriers that prohibit some groups from benefiting equally from education and training, as they are trapped in the lower segments of the labour market.

### **1.3. A segmented labour market approach: the conceptual framework**

Segmented labour market theory (Piore, 1979) seems appropriate for use in investigating and explaining the paradox that the DoL officials have witnessed in key sectors in the current

labour market. It may be that employers recruit foreign migrant labour for agriculture, security and hospitality jobs (Ehrenberg & Smith, 2011), to take up occupations and employment opportunities that are being avoided by low-skilled local labour, due to their ‘bad’ working conditions (low pay, demanding work and poor image).

Our study will therefore be framed by the segmented labour market theory approach, in order to obtain a more nuanced understanding of: factors influencing work-seekers decisions to accept or decline employment; and the drivers of migrant labour recruitment. This approach leads us to investigate the attitudes and behaviour patterns of both sets of actors - work-seekers and employers - and how their behaviour impacts on labour market outcomes. It leads us to frame the research question as follows:

*Under what circumstances do work-seekers withdraw from work opportunities in a labour market?*

This research question is broad enough to allow for a comprehensive investigation of multiple factors associated with work-seekers occupational and sectoral choices in a labour market, across individuals within various sub-groupings (such as employment status, skill level, race, age and gender). The research question is also broad enough to allow space to investigate the role, experiences and practices of employers, through their responses to the changing nature of work and their contribution to work-seeker’s labour market choices.

Figure 1.1 below provides a visual guide to the theoretical and conceptual framework developed for the study. The key theoretical assumptions (depicted in the upper section of Figure 1.1) have been introduced here and will be elaborated more fully in Chapter 2 below.

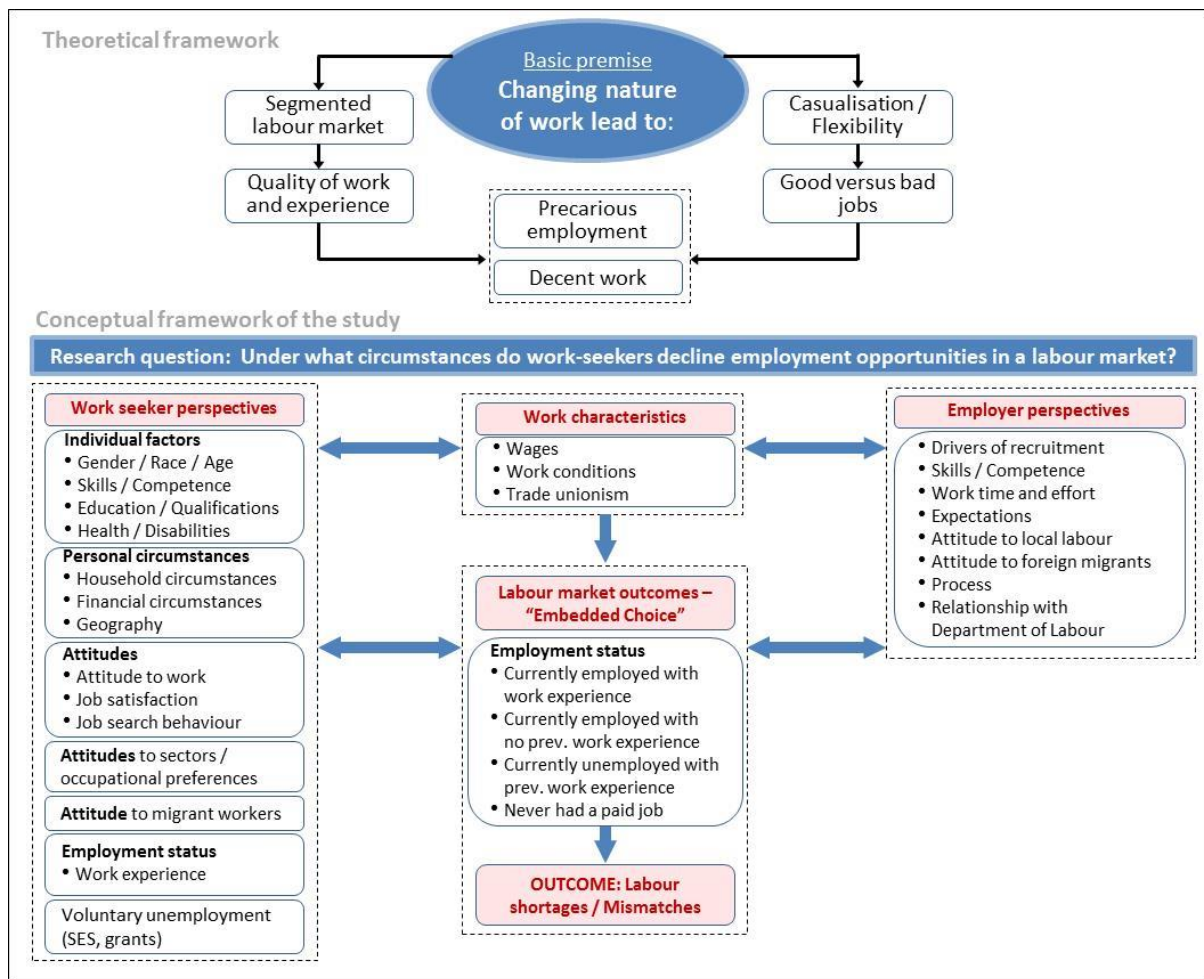


Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework

The concepts used to inform the investigation of motivations and decisions of work-seekers and employers are depicted in the bottom section of **Error! Reference source not found.**, with: the factors influencing worker behaviour on the left; and the factors informing employer behaviour on the right. Work conditions that emerge from the interaction of employer and worker behaviour within broad legislative, institutional and locational constraints and the labour market opportunities they offer, are represented in the middle blocks. The arrows indicate the flow of influence that may impact on behaviour to a greater or lesser extent, but do not imply a direct relationship between groups of factors. These concepts will also be explained more fully in the literature review section, as well as when we discuss the design of the instrument.

The diagram was developed as an analytical tool in an attempt to capture the complexity of the attitudes, behaviour and relationships between work-seekers and employers. It was used to inform the design, methodology and instruments required for the study, as well as to inform data analysis. It will thus provide a key reference point for the sections that follow.

However, before we proceed, we need to explore the empirical context in greater detail. We need to understand: the nature of employment services that the DoL offers work-seekers; and the scale and nature of labour migration in South Africa. This is the focus of the next sections.

#### **1.4. Structure of report**

The remainder of the report is structured into two parts: Part A and Part B.

**Part A** elaborates the conceptual framework and design of the research. It presents the quantitative approaches employed to sample, collect and analyse data for the study.

**Chapter 2** describes the design and methodology of the research. It explains the design of a survey of work-seekers registered on the ESSA database.

**Part B** focuses on an analysis of survey data on work-seeker attitudes to work, in order to: improve understanding of their behaviour; and to systematically investigate the factors that could account for labour market preferences and outcomes.

**Chapter 3** begins by describing the profile of the sample of work-seekers.

**Chapter 4** investigates the role of socio-economic circumstances on the labour market outcomes of work-seekers.

**Chapter 5** illuminates work-seekers' attitudes to work and their occupational or sectoral preferences. One specific focus here is to consider the impact of gender on work preferences.

**Chapter 6** presents information about work-seeker attitudes and preferences relating to conditions and environmental factors at work.

**Chapter 7** identifies a group of work-seekers who were offered work opportunities through the ESSA system and explores their behaviour and attitudes.

**Chapter 8** assesses work-seeker willingness to work in the different sectors of interest, including agriculture, hospitality, security, mining and construction.

**Chapter 9** focuses on the specific issue of work-seeker attitudes to foreign immigrants.

**Chapter 10** analyses job search attitudes and behaviour and highlights perceived barriers.

**Chapter 11** provides concluding remarks.

## **PART A**

### **THE FRAMEWORK AND DESIGN OF THE STUDY**

## CHAPTER 2. METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the study research design, instrument design, the methods utilised in sample selection and the data analysis.

### 2.1. Research design

The study used a comprehensive, integrative and collaborative, mixed methods approach in its execution. Primary data was collected through quantitative and qualitative methods. The study comprised four phases. The first phase included a literature review; instrument development; establishment of sampling frames; and the selection of samples. Before collection of the data, a literature review was conducted to inform the conceptual framework of the study and also to frame the instruments that were designed to be used in data collection. The second and third phases were conducted in parallel. The second phase of the study included a work-seekers survey. The survey investigated the reasons behind the assumed reluctance of work-seekers to accept employment in the selected sectors. It furthermore explored perceptions about and attitudes of work-seekers regarding different employment types, working conditions, environments and employment preferences. The third phase involved in-depth interviews with selected employers and key informants in the selected industry sectors (agriculture, hospitality and security), which are discussed in another report. The fourth phase entailed data cleaning, transcribing, quality assurance, analyses and report writing.

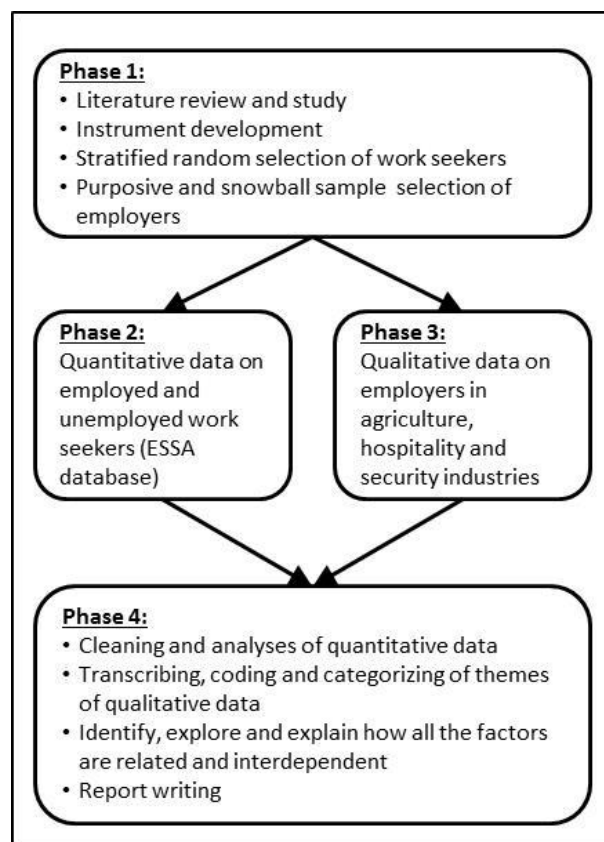


Figure 2.1: Research Design

A Project Steering Committee (PSC) was established to facilitate collaboration between the stakeholders of the project. Many decisions on a variety of issues needed to be taken at

different stages in the study and all stakeholders needed to provide input and be part of the decision making process, for example, decisions regarding the sampling frame such as which records based on which year period to include in the sampling frame and which variables to use in sample stratification. Furthermore, decisions with regard to selection of the sample of employers and informants to include in the survey and the need to get their ‘buy in’ in order to participate in the study, as well as the sensitive nature of the topic on ‘migrant labour’ were issues upon which advice were provided by the PSC. The PSC therefore operated as a forum where ideas were shared, and advice and guidance were given; it also allowed for regular communication between the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) and the DoL.

Regular meetings took place between the HSRC’s researchers and DoL officials through the PSC. This communication between DoL and the HSRC was regarded as effective and useful to the project.

## **2.2. Phase 2: Quantitative research approach**

It is important to understand the composition and characteristics of the population of people registered on the ESSA database to picture the sampling frame. The DoL reported on the ESSA population as follows:

While we refer to the people on the Department of Labour database as “work-seekers”, the database differentiates between various status categories. Overall: 92% are classified as unemployed work-seekers; 2% as employed work-seekers; 1% as having been placed by Employment Services South Africa; and less than 1% each as individuals in projects and individuals seeking information. The remaining 4% are classified in the “Other” category (DoL, 2012).

Information about the spread of work-seeker registrations according to province was requested from the DoL, in order to establish the sampling frame for the survey. The research team received aggregated summary tables of the number of people registered on the ESSA database. All work-seekers, since the implementation of the ESSA system up to 14 July 2014, were included in the tables received from the DoL.

**Error! Reference source not found.** is an extraction of the summary tables. The number of work-seekers registered in 2007/08, as displayed in the table, includes all registrations from 2 May 2007 (which is the date on which the ESSA database was implemented), while the 2014/15 registrations indicate registrations only up to the end of June 2014.

After a series of deliberations between the HSRC and DoL, it was decided to use the population of employed and unemployed work-seekers registered in the 2013/14 financial year as the sampling frame from which the sample for the survey of work-seekers was selected. The rationale behind the decision to restrict the sample frame to the population of employed and unemployed work-seekers registered in the 2013/14 financial year included the following three main reasons:

1. It was assumed that this group would reflect the most recent contact details.
2. Analysis of the work-seekers database indicated that more than one in every five (22.5%) of the population of work-seekers registered on the ESSA database in the 2013/14 financial year (cf. **Error! Reference source not found.**).
3. It was found that the provincial work-seeker registration profiles were similar in different years (cf. **Error! Reference source not found.**).

**Table 2.1: Number of registered work-seekers on ESSA database by year of registration**

<b>Financial Year</b>	<b>Number of work-seekers</b>	<b>%</b>
2007/08	52 861	2.0
2008/09	131 361	5.1
2009/10	185 902	7.2
2010/11	343 170	13.3
2011/12	505 195	19.6
2012/13	506 125	19.6
2013/14	579 833	22.5
2014/15	275 230	10.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>2 579 677</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: ESSA database, DoL -2007-2015.



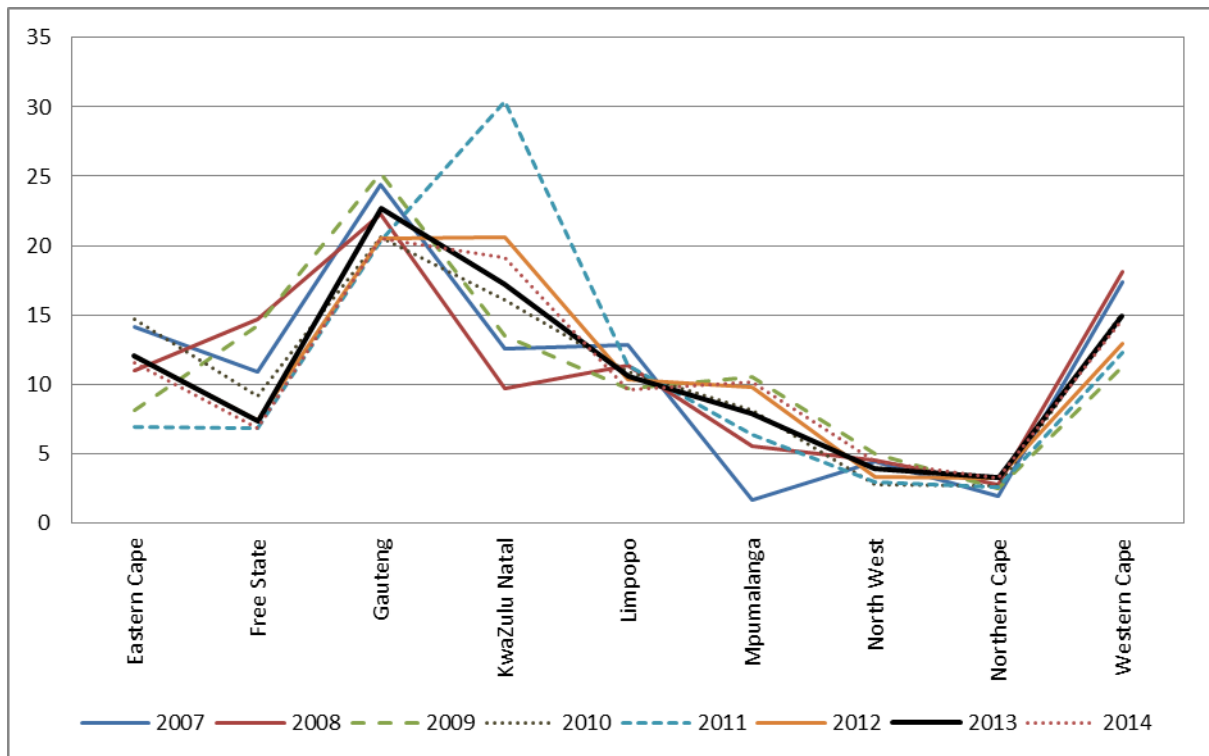


Figure 2.2: Distribution of work-seeker registrations according to province and year of registration

The HSRC received a number of datasets with individual unit level records from the DoL, which included variables extracted from the ESSA work-seeker database. The datasets were merged, where possible, to ensure that all stratification variables were included in the final sampling frame. Cleaning procedures included the exclusion of all persons other than employed and unemployed work-seekers. All data records for which the variables were not complete in terms of province, race, gender and age were also removed. The database was further cleaned by removal of all work-seekers below age 15 and above 64 years.

The final set of records consisted of all employed and unemployed work-seekers who had registered in the 2013/14 financial year, with complete telephone contact information being provide, and for which information on the province, race group, gender and age variables were complete.

The next important step in the sample selection process was to decide on the strata to be used for stratification. Frequency tables were constructed and evaluated on selected variables, including province, gender, race group and age. To ensure age representation in the selected sample, the age variable was re-coded into three equally sized age groups: 15-27, 28-37 and 38-65. After collaboration with DoL, it was decided to stratify the sample by race group,

gender and age group. After stratification, the sample was randomly selected. Cells with low representation were over-sampled to a maximum of 60 respondents.

**Error! Reference source not found.** presents the distribution of work-seekers by gender, race and age group for the 2013/14 financial year. The survey sample was selected from this sampling frame.

It is interesting to note that 55% of the sampling frame represented men and 45% women. Of the total population: 81% were African; 12% coloured; 2% Indian; and 5% white. Fifty-seven per cent of the population of work-seekers who registered in 2013/14 were 34 years of age or younger. In addition: African men aged 34 and younger were in the majority, comprising 26% of the sample frame; while African women aged 34 and younger were the second largest group, comprising 24% of the sample frame.

**Table 2.2: Distribution of sampling frame in terms of gender, age and race**

<i>Age group</i>	<i>Age group 1=(15 to 27 years)</i>		<i>Age group 2=(28 to 37 years)</i>		<i>Age group 3=(38 to 65 years)</i>		<i>Total</i>
<b>Gender</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Race</b>							
African	77 397	75 889	89 389	73 681	87 385	57 855	461 596
Coloured	9 416	9 597	9 579	9 832	15 287	14 460	68 171
Indian	884	571	1 411	860	2 995	1 687	8 408
White	1 539	1 073	2 722	2 306	9 528	7 245	24 413
Total	89 236	87 130	103 101	86 679	115 195	81 247	562 588

### 2.3. Sample and sampling techniques

A sample of 3 500 employed and unemployed work-seekers was randomly selected from the 2013/14 registrations on the ESSA database, after stratification by race, gender and age group. This entailed the complete sample frame being divided into 24 cells, based on the categories in the stratification variables (cf. Table 2.). A unique random number between zero and one was then allocated to each individual record within each cell. The random numbers in each cell were then sorted in ascending order and the targeted number of records (based on population proportions) was then selected from the top of the list in each cell.

The fifth column in Table 2. (with heading “A”) provides the number of work-seekers selected in accordance with population proportions. The proportional calculations resulted in some cells having too low a number of work-seekers. It was therefore decided to over-sample

these cells up to a maximum of 60 respondents (cf. column “B”) and simultaneously reduce the cells proportionally in those where enough work-seekers were selected, so that the final sample still added up to 3 500 respondents. Column “C” provides the number of selected work-seekers, including two replacements for each respondent.

When the interviewers (who conducted the telephonic survey) exhausted the given number of selected records as well as the given number of replacements (as in column “C”), the next set of work-seeker records on the list of the required cell group was selected and provided to the call centre. Column “D” provides the number of additional records that were provided to the interviewers; column “E” provides the cumulative number of records provided to the call centre.

It should be noted that the ESSA database is not representative of all South African work-seekers. It is rather skewed in nature and the data collected was reflective of the experiences and views of those who elected to register on the ESSA database. The selected sample is representative of the work-seekers on the ESSA database.

**Table 2.3: Distribution of the sampling frame across gender, age and population group**

<i>Cell</i>	<i>Race</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>E</i>
Cell 1	African	Female	15-27	464	354	1 062		1 062
Cell 2	African	Male	15-27	473	365	1 095		1 095
Cell 3	African	Female	28-37	449	349	1 047	698	1 745
Cell 4	African	Male	28-37	544	448	1 344	896	2 240
Cell 5	African	Female	38-64	362	309	927	618	1 545
Cell 6	African	Male	38-64	554	513	1 539	1 026	2 565
Cell 7	Coloured	Female	15-27	59	60	180		180
Cell 8	Coloured	Male	15-27	58	60	180		180
Cell 9	Coloured	Female	28-37	60	60	180	120	300
Cell 10	Coloured	Male	28-37	58	60	180		180
Cell 11	Coloured	Female	38-64	91	91	273	182	455
Cell 12	Coloured	Male	38-64	98	98	295		295
Cell 13	Indian	Female	15-27	3	60	180		180
Cell 14	Indian	Male	15-27	5	60	180		180
Cell 15	Indian	Female	28-37	5	60	180		180
Cell 16	Indian	Male	28-37	9	60	180		180
Cell 17	Indian	Female	38-64	11	60	180		180
Cell 18	Indian	Male	38-64	20	60	180		180
Cell 19	White	Female	15-27	7	60	180	120	300
Cell 20	White	Male	15-27	9	60	180		180
Cell 21	White	Female	28-37	14	60	180		180
Cell 22	White	Male	28-37	16	60	180		180

<i>Cell</i>	<i>Race</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Age</i>	<i>A</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>E</i>
Cell 23	White	Female	38-64	56	60	180	120	300
Cell 24	White	Male	38-64	73	73	219	146	364
Total				3 500	3 500	10 501	3 926	14 427

Note: A = Real sample based on population proportions

B = Adjusted sample to ensure required responses (target)

C = Sample provided to call centre (including 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> replacements)

D = Additional sample provided to call centre (3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> replacement)

E = Total number of records provided to the call centre

## **2.4. Development of research instruments**

The development of research instruments entailed a number of processes. First, it was based on the conceptual framework for the study, as presented in the introduction, and informed by the literature review presented in Chapter 2 of the report. Second, it involved wide consultation, including a one-day workshop, follow-up meetings between HSRC and DoL representatives, previous empirically tested instruments and expert advice. Two instruments were developed: a survey questionnaire used to obtain work-seekers' responses; and a semi-structured interview schedule used for employers' responses. The survey questionnaire and semi-structured interview schedule were used, respectively, to gather quantitative and qualitative data and information. Detail regarding development of the survey questionnaire is provided in this section, while detail relating to the development of the semi-structured interview schedule is explained in another report ('Employers' Attitudes'), in which the strategies, methods and findings of the qualitative component of the study are given.

### **2.4.1. Survey questionnaire**

Design and development of the survey questionnaire was informed by the conceptual framework of the study and followed Computer Assisted Telephonic Interviewing (CATI) principles. The diagram in Figure depicts the different components of the instrument, which consists of twelve parts. A copy of the survey questionnaire is attached in Appendix A.

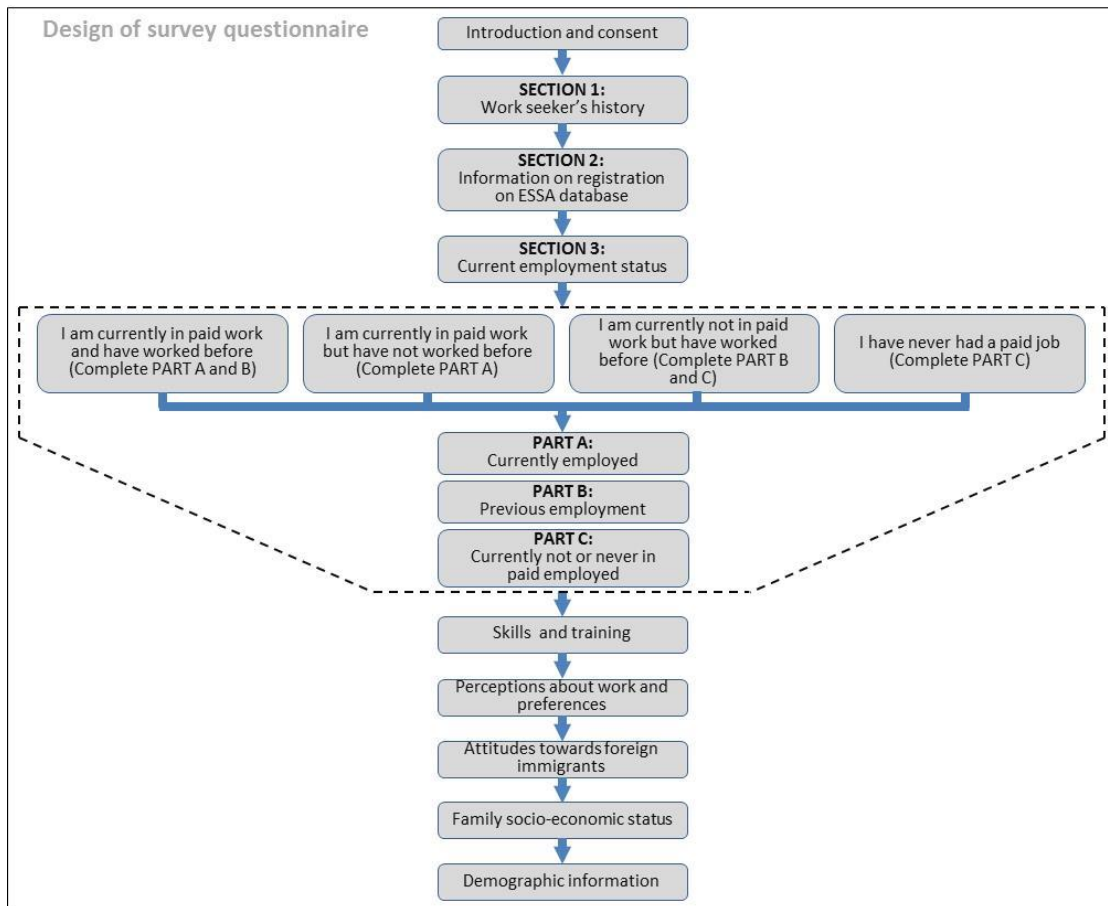


Figure 2.3: Design of survey questionnaire

The first part of the instrument is an introduction. This part contains pre-populated data on the name, surname and telephone contact details of the work-seeker, to enable the interviewer to make contact with the work-seeker. The purpose of the introduction was to establish if the work-seeker was the correct person and if he/ she was willing to participate in the survey. The second part (*Section 1: Work-seeker history*) was used to gather information from the work-seeker regarding previous work experience. The third part (*Section 2: Registration on DoL ESSA database*) was used to collect information about the location where the person registered on ESSA and if the person had been offered work opportunities emanating from matching opportunities to the ESSA database. The fourth part (*Section 3: Current employment status*) was used to determine if the person:

- Is in paid work and has worked before (Group 1);
- Is in paid work and has not worked before (Group 2);
- Is not in paid work, but has worked before (Group 3); and
- Has never had a paid job (Group 4).

This part served as a streaming variable through which different sets of questions, relevant to the participant's employment status, were posed. The fifth part (*Part A: Currently employed*) was relevant to group 1 and 2 and explored items such as occupational type, nature, activities, economic sector, satisfaction with the job and information about the employer. The sixth part (*Part B: Previous employment*) was used to gather similar information to the fifth part, but as it related to the participant's previous work experience. The seventh section of the instrument (*Part C: Currently not or never in paid work*) was used to collect information about: how long participants have been unemployed; what means they have used to search for a job; which type of jobs they prefer; factors they consider and obstacles they experience in their search for a job.

The last five sections of the instrument were answered by all work-seekers and elicited information about work-seekers' skills and training; their perceptions about work and preferences; their attitudes towards foreign immigrants; their family's socio-economic status; and their demographic information.

#### **2.4.2. Pilot study**

Piloting questionnaires is a particularly vital stage in the questionnaire development process. The pilot phase is crucial to provide advance warning about major challenges that could be avoided in the main study. For the implementation of the pilot study, 60 national randomly selected participants were contacted and interviewed.

The pilot study was conducted in order to test research methods as well as the feasibility of the large study. Specifically, the pilot study was conducted in order to determine the following:

- To discover how long it takes to administer the questionnaire;
- To determine the most appropriate sequencing of sections and questions;
- Correctness of the skip patterns;
- Identifying whether or not the wording of questions is clear and understandable to those being interviewed;
- Providing fieldworkers with a chance to practice using the CATI tool during pilot testing;
- To obtain a range of response options that used to close questions that were previously open questions.

All the questions in the questionnaire were analysed in terms of time, length, order and structure, and whether they made sense or not; on the basis of these analysis, recommendations, changes were made and discussed with the DoL during progress meetings. The instrument was refined and adjusted, based on the findings of the pilot study. The revised instrument was again tested on another national, randomly selected sample of 60 participants.

## **2.5. Data collection techniques**

The study made use of CATI for data collection. CATI is an interactive front-end computer system that is designed to guide interviewers with a script, as they prompt and ask questions over the telephone. While sitting behind a computer station, interviewers go through the questions that appear on the screen and, after receiving answers to the questions (from the respondents), immediately capture the responses onto the computer system. The computer programme: controls branching to questions or skipping questions that are not applicable; and validates the data as it is captured or entered. The interviews are more personalized and questions are standardized via a drop-down menu of responses. CATI works particularly well in situations where a short implementation schedule exists. This is because it allows interviewers to perform a number of tasks simultaneously: interviewing, data entry and simple coding. Since interviewers enter information directly into the computer system, data capturing via a separate process was not necessary. This also meant that printing and distribution of questionnaires was not necessary. Since data is collected and captured simultaneously, experienced and trained telephone operators were needed, as, once captured, the data would be impossible to verify, unlike with paper based interviews.

The service of an experienced telephone data collection company was solicited. The call centre company made use of an internet based data collection tool.

Since the success of a CATI application depends heavily on the accuracy of the participants' contact details, it was important to establish the completeness and accuracy of the contact details of the selected sample of participants on the ESSA database. It was found that only about 2% of the 562 588 work-seekers who registered in 2013/14 did not have telephone contact details. Furthermore, for the majority of the remaining 98% of work-seekers, cell phone contact details were available.

### **2.5.1. Training of call centre interviewers**

A total of 20 call centre interviewers attended the training. The training was conducted by both the HSRC and the call centre manager. The training included introducing the data collectors to the background and rationale for the study. This was followed by intensive discussion of the questionnaire and systematically discussing it question by question to ensure that interviewers understood the meaning of key concepts as well as the intention behind all questions.

The training sessions were participatory, practical and interactive, and gave fieldworkers the opportunity to obtain clarification on questions. The interviewers were well represented in terms of language diversity. They were furthermore provided with documents containing: definitions of the different social grants available; definitions of the occupational categories in the framework of occupations; and a list of labour centres and their contact details. The information was provided to broaden their knowledge, in case of enquiries from respondents.

Fieldworkers raised a number of questions for clarification during the training session, which contributed to refinement of the instrument. The most important issue related to functionality of the main filter question, namely ‘What is your current employment status?’, where the available options were:

<i>I am currently in paid work</i>	<i>I am currently not in paid work but have worked before</i>	<i>I have never had a paid job</i>
1	2	3
Complete Part A and B	Complete Part B and C	Complete Part C

An observation was made that it is possible for a work-seeker to be employed without previous work experience. This is to be expected amongst the new entrants to the labour market and the filter question was consequently adjusted to include a fourth category.

### **2.5.2. Data collection challenges**

Time constraints were experienced during the data collection phase. The main data collection phase started later than planned, because an additional pilot study was conducted. Challenges that emerged from the first pilot study were addressed and the improved survey instrument was tested again in a second pilot study. The main data collection phase commenced on 12 September 2014 and the final dataset was received on 1 December 2014. Thus the survey stretched over a period of almost three months.



Some of the challenges that were encountered included the following:

- Depending on the background of the informant, the interviews varied in time required. Interviews took longer for work-seekers who have previous work experience, but were shorter for those who have not worked before. Based on voice recordings of the pilot studies, interviews took 44 minutes, on average, to complete.
- Most of the contact numbers rang straight to voicemail, with many reasons for this, ranging from the respondent no longer using the same number to the respondent being busy at the time of the call and having switching off the phone.
- Older respondents tended not to provide short and to the point answers. Interviews with this group turned into conversations that took very long, on average, and delayed the flow of the survey.
- Some older respondents were not interested in participating in the study on work related issues, as they saw no benefit from the participation.

The following measures were implemented to ensure successful administration of the survey:

- Successfully completed interviews were carefully monitored and the quality of the interviews checked on a daily basis.
- Spot checks and random call recordings were listened to, to make sure that quality was maintained at all stages of the data collection phase.
- During the last part of the data collection phase, interviewers desisted from tracking and following up on the work-seekers who were not available at the time of the call, i.e. they concentrated on following a fresh lead instead.

Despite the challenges experienced, an appropriate number of respondents were interviewed and the realised sample of 2 934 is large enough to yield statistically significant results.

## **2.6. Issues of reliability and validity**

Quality control has been exercised through various means in all phases of the project, with each phase having a different quality control mechanism. During the pilot survey, the following were tested: concepts, the length of the questionnaire, and whether or not important concepts were explained correctly. The data was collected by trained telephone interviewers and experienced sub-supervisors and supervisors. Moreover, scripts were designed to guide interviewers as they interacted with respondents. During the training offered to supervisors

and interviewers, as part of the preparatory process for both the qualitative and quantitative component of the study, interviewers had an opportunity to ask questions and also to share their views about important concepts. Interviewers were also issued with a fieldwork manual that explained the purpose of all questions in detail.

## **2.7. Data analysis and interpretation**

The data was cleaned and analysed with data analysis and database management tools, including MS Access, IBM SPSS Statistics and Microsoft Excel. Open-ended questions were re-coded for analysis purposes.

Although the initial sample was selected based on a stratified random selection of work-seekers, the realised sample was slightly skewed towards the younger age groups and weights had to be applied to align the sample to the ESSA database population proportions. Table 2. shows the weights that were used for the sample.

For the quantitative study, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics such as mean, frequencies, percentages and graphical displays were used to describe the sample and the key variables. Crosstabs were also used to compare identified variables, while inferential statistics such as Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Chi-square tests were used to test for statistically significant differences and relationships.

PCA is a variation of factor analysis; it seeks to establish correlations between variables in a multivariate model. In essence, a number of variables are selected and included in the analysis, in order to evaluate if the variables can be grouped to produce a reduced number of variables. Put differently, the outcome of the analysis suggests a reduction of the variables. This method was used to reduce the number of variables for work-seeker perceptions about work and work preferences. A total number of nineteen variables were included in the analysis and the PCA produced six components – in other words the PCA suggested that the nineteen variables can be reduced to six.

An index called Weighted Average Index (WAI) was also used in the study, for instance in the section on work-seeker attitudes towards migrant workers. The index is used to compare variables with scaled responses. The index is calculated by dividing the sum of the product of each scale value and the number of work-seekers who selected the value, with the total number of responses.

Regression analysis is a statistical modelling approach that describes the relationship between two or more variables. The binary outcome model, also known as a logistic regression, is a probabilistic statistical classification model that is used to predict the outcome of a categorical dependant variable, based on a set of predictor variables. In this report, two binary models are estimated: an unemployment model, with employment status as the categorical dependant variable; and a gender model, with gender as the dependant variable. These models are used to identify the characteristics that are more or less likely to be associated with the unemployed or with women.

**Table 2.4: Population, sample sizes and weights applied per cell**

<i>Cell</i>	<i>Population</i>		<i>Survey</i>		<i>Weight</i>
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Portion</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Portion</i>	
Cell 1	75 889	0.1348927	393	0.13394683	1.007061341
Cell 2	77 397	0.1375731	332	0.113156101	1.215781942
Cell 3	73 681	0.130968	331	0.112815269	1.160906286
Cell 4	89 389	0.1588889	449	0.153033401	1.038263013
Cell 5	57 855	0.1028372	287	0.097818678	1.051304797
Cell 6	87 385	0.1553268	490	0.167007498	0.930058906
Cell 7	9 597	0.0170587	47	0.016019087	1.064896211
Cell 8	9 416	0.0167369	29	0.009884117	1.693316331
Cell 9	9 832	0.0174764	24	0.008179959	2.136487092
Cell 10	9 579	0.0170267	35	0.011929107	1.427321389
Cell 11	14 460	0.0257026	42	0.014314928	1.795513388
Cell 12	15 287	0.0271726	75	0.025562372	1.062993594
Cell 13	571	0.001015	32	0.010906612	0.093058442
Cell 14	884	0.0015713	43	0.01465576	0.107214483
Cell 15	860	0.0015286	28	0.009543286	0.160180655
Cell 16	1 411	0.0025081	55	0.01874574	0.133793178
Cell 17	1 687	0.0029986	39	0.013292434	0.225590144
Cell 18	2 995	0.0053236	45	0.015337423	0.347099476
Cell 19	1 073	0.0019073	20	0.006816633	0.279794628
Cell 20	1 539	0.0027356	33	0.011247444	0.243217223
Cell 21	2 306	0.0040989	38	0.012951602	0.316479331
Cell 22	2 722	0.0048384	35	0.011929107	0.405592319
Cell 23	7 245	0.012878	21	0.007157464	1.799238519
Cell 24	9 528	0.016936	11	0.003749148	4.517297658
	562 588	1	2 934	1	

## **2.8. Ethical considerations**

The study proposal, research methods, research instruments (survey questionnaire and semi-structured interview schedule), consent letters and forms have been subjected to scrutiny by the HSRC Research Ethics Clearance (REC) committee. The HSRC adheres to stringent ethical practices and high standards in conducting research. All projects undertaken by the HSRC subscribe to a strict internal Code of Ethics. The Code of Conduct of the HSRC sets clear guidelines and standards for the use of research information and personal details of respondents. The project was conducted in a confidential manner and no individual's responses were disclosed to any third party.

### **2.8.1. Confidentiality**

The confidentiality of participants is protected by means of unique codes on the CATI tool and database. The participants' names were not captured on the database and it is not possible to identify any participant on the database. The data were analysed and reported in an aggregated format. Only the research team at the HSRC who was involved in the project had access to the selected sample and will be able to link respondents' names to responses.

### **2.8.2. Informed consent**

The script on the CATI instrument clearly stated that the interviewer would like to ask for 20-25 minutes of the work-seeker's time to participate in the study. The participant was furthermore asked if he/ she would be prepared to participate in the study by answering the questions. It was made clear by the interviewer that participation was voluntary, that the answers would remain confidential, that the interview could be stopped at any point and that the respondent had the right not to answer any question that he/ she did not want to. If consent was given, it was recorded on the database and the interview then commenced.

## **PART B**

### **AN ANALYSIS OF WORK-SEEKER ATTITUDES, PERSPECTIVES AND BEHAVIOUR: THE SURVEY DATA**

## CHAPTER 3. PROFILE OF THE SAMPLE OF WORK-SEEKERS

In this section, information is provided about the characteristics of the survey sample with regard to: racial composition; distribution of work-seekers by gender, age, highest qualification, province and employment status.

Although the aim was to contact and interview 3 500 work-seekers, the size of the realised sample was 2 934; this is still large enough to yield statistically significant results. Telephonic interviews were conducted with representatives in all the cells within the four stratification levels; and weighting was then applied to align the sample to the population (cf. Table 2.).

### 3.1. Demographics

Both the population and the sample consisted of 55% men and 45% women. African work-seekers were in the majority, with the racial distribution being: 82% African; 12% coloured; 1% Indian; and 4% white. Although only 1% of the sampling frame of work-seekers was reportedly disabled, 3% of sample respondents reported being disabled. Sight (blind/ severe visual limitation) (31%) and physical (e.g. needs a wheelchair, crutches or prosthesis) (35%) disabilities contributed two-thirds of the disabled group in the sample.

### 3.2. Registration on the ESSA database

Table shows the number of work-seekers according to number of years registered on the ESSA database, as reported by survey participants. One in five participants did not respond to this question (20% missing values). Most of the participants who answered the question had registered on the ESSA database as an unemployed work-seeker in 2013 (1074 or 46%). A total of 621 (26%) registered in 2014.

**Table 3.1: Work-seekers according to number of years registered on ESSA database**

	1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years	6 years	7 years	8 years	Invalid response	Total
Number	621	1074	297	114	80	60	65	39	584	2934
Percentage	21	37	10	4	3	2	2	1	20	100

### 3.3. Highest qualification level

The highest qualification held by work-seekers ranged from no schooling to a doctorate (Figure ). One percent of the work-seekers interviewed were at or below Grade 3 level; 7% had some primary school education (up to Grade 7; more than a third had, respectively, obtained either some secondary education, but below Grade 12 level education (37%) or a Grade 12 level qualification (39%). It is evident (see Figure that 16% of work-seekers - almost one-in-five - had a post-school qualification.

The majority of work-seekers' (55%) highest qualification was equal to or above Grade 12 (Matric), while 45% had lower than a Grade 12 qualification. Almost one in ten work-seekers (8%) held lower than a secondary school education.

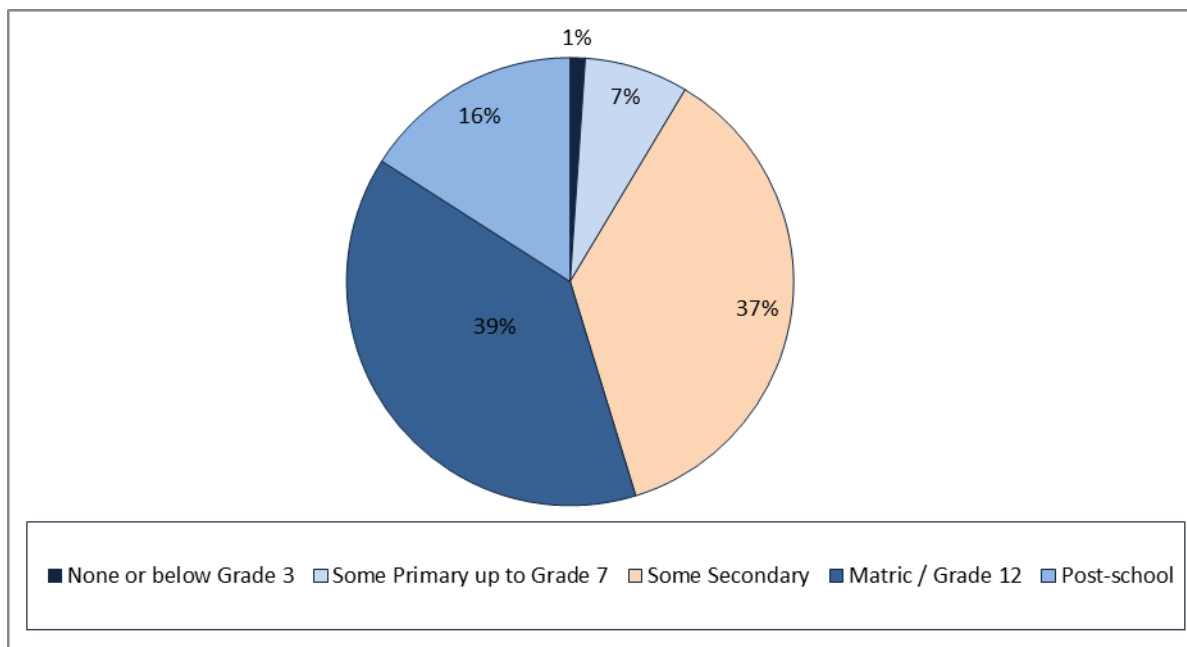


Figure 3.1: Work-seekers' highest level of qualification

### 3.4. Age profile

The sample and population had similar age profiles (Figure ). An analysis of the age distribution revealed that one in five (19%) the work-seekers was in the age group 16 to 25; more than a third (38%) of the sample was in the age group 25-34; a quarter (26%) were in the age group 35-44; and 17% were older than 45. In other words, more than half (57%) the work-seekers were younger than 35.

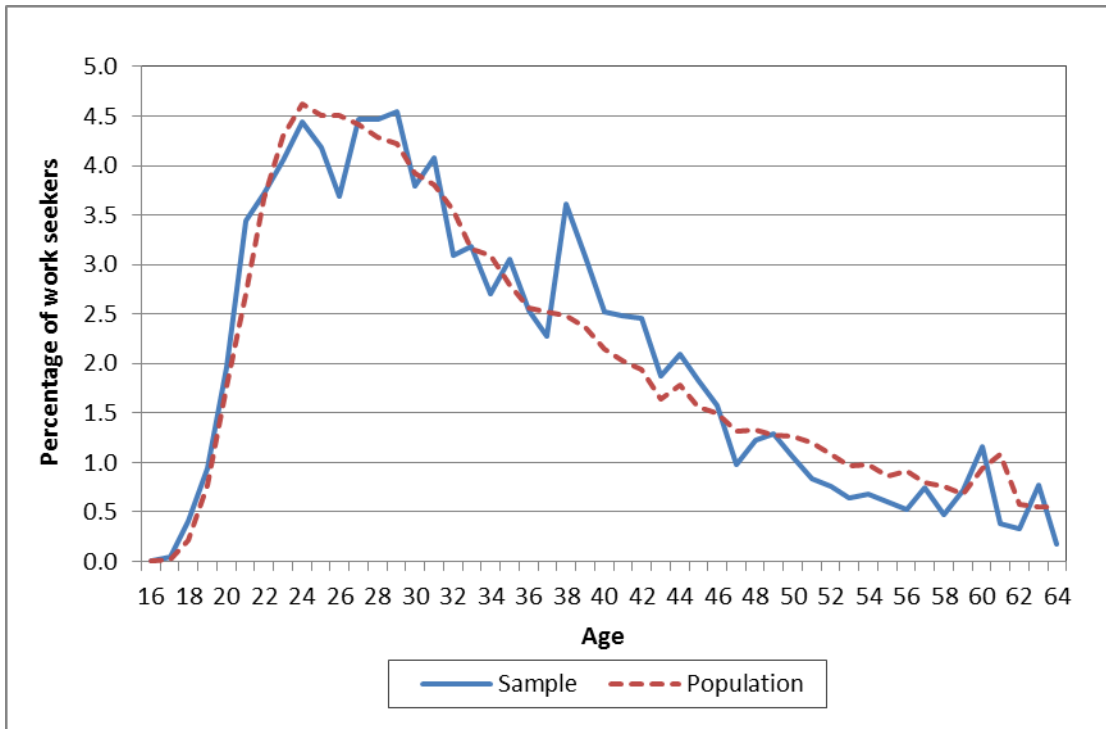


Figure 3.2: Age profile of the population and sample of work-seekers

Furthermore, a strong statistically significant relationship between age and level of education existed:  $\chi^2(12, N = 2836) = 486.09, p = .00$ . Figure depicts the number of work-seekers by age group and highest education level. The group of work-seekers with an education level lower than Grade 8, although small in size (244, 8%), was dominated by older work-seekers (45 years and older). It is also evident that the number of older work-seekers (45 and above) decreased with higher education levels. The largest group was work-seekers with a Grade 12 in the 25-34 year age group.



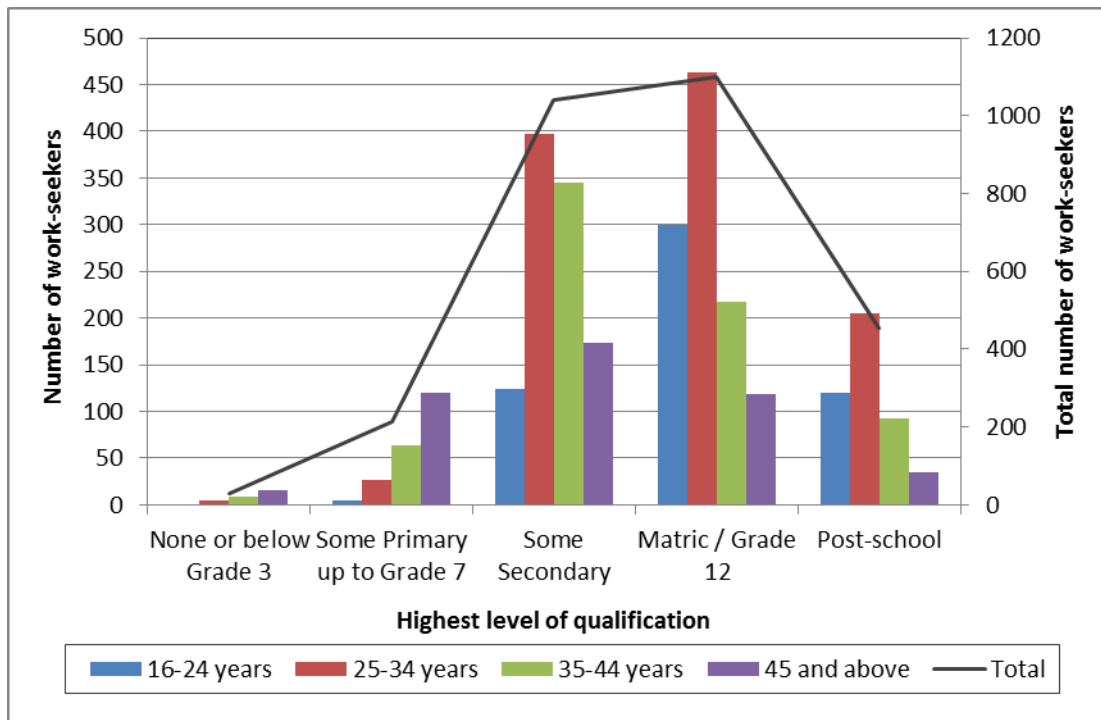


Figure 3.3: Work-seekers'- age and highest education level

### 3.5. Distribution of work-seekers across provinces

Although 'province' was not one of the stratification variables for sample selection, the randomness of the selected sample of work-seekers yielded a provincially representative sample, as is evident in Figure . The sample represents all provinces, with the highest representation from: Gauteng - almost one in four work-seekers (23%); and KwaZulu-Natal - almost one in five work-seekers (19%). The Eastern Cape and Western Cape both represented 12% of the sample; Limpopo and Mpumalanga each represented 10%; and the Free State, North West and Northern Cape all represented less than 6% of the sample.

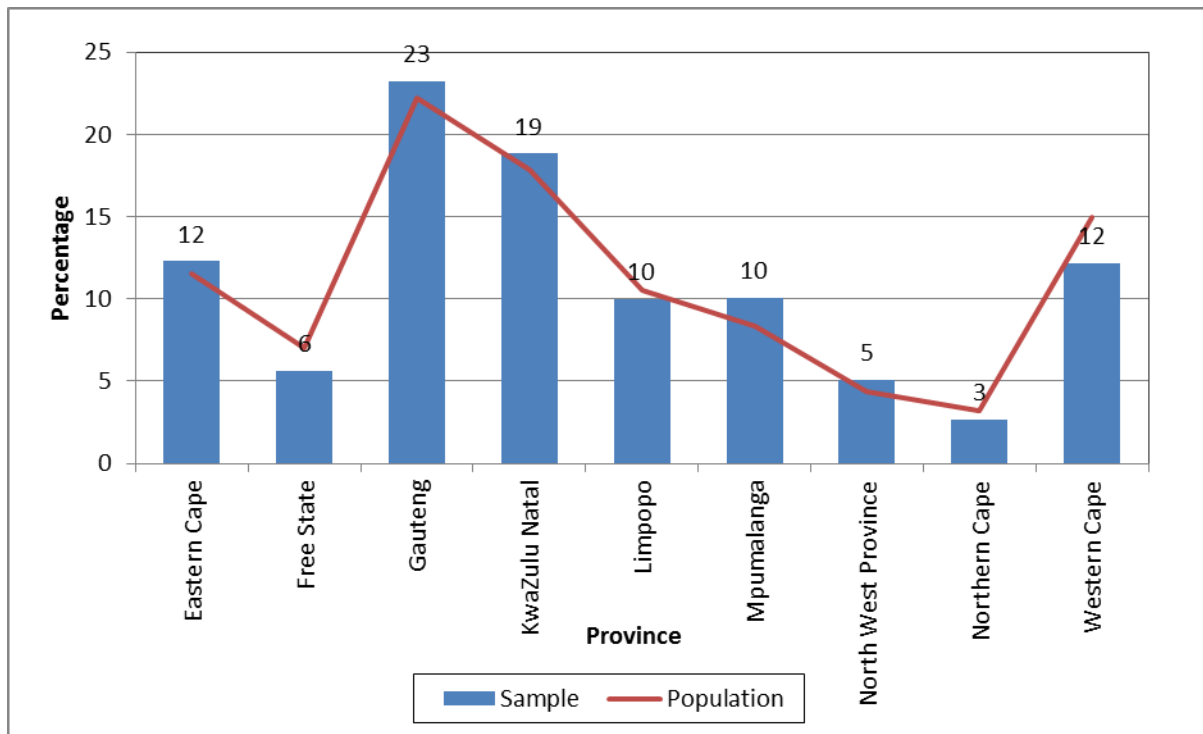


Figure 3.4: Provincial distribution of realised sample of work-seekers compared to population proportions

Statistically significant results, as depicted in Table , were yielded for the analyses of the relationships between province and the variables gender, race group, age, highest education level, employment status and number of jobs the work-seekers had in their lifetime: gender:  $\chi^2(8, N = 2934) = 29.22, p = .00$ ; race group:  $\chi^2(24, N = 2934) = 1267.29, p = .00$ ; age group:  $\chi^2(24, N = 2934) = 107.54, p = .00$ ; highest education level:  $\chi^2(32, N = 2831) = 92.49, p = .00$ ; employment status:  $\chi^2(24, N = 2934) = 84.28, p = .00$ ; number of jobs:  $\chi^2(32, N = 2934) = 101.98, p = .00$ .

In all the provinces, except for the Eastern Cape and North West province, men outnumbered women: men constituted almost two-thirds of the work-seekers in the Free State and Mpumalanga (Table ). African work-seekers were in the majority in all provinces, except for the Northern Cape and Western Cape provinces, where coloured work-seekers were in the majority. In all provinces the majority of work-seekers were younger than 35 years of age. Provinces with the largest portions of youth (16-34 years) were: Northern Cape (72%); North West province (69%); Limpopo (68%); and the Free State (61%).

In four of the nine provinces, half of the work-seekers' had a highest qualification level that was below Grade 12. These provinces included: Eastern Cape (50%); Free State (50%); KwaZulu-Natal (51%); and Western Cape (53%). Interestingly, almost a quarter (24%) of work-seekers in Limpopo had a post-school level qualification.

**Table 3.2: Percentage distribution of work-seekers by province, gender, race group, age group and employment status at the time of the survey**

	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	North West Province	Northern Cape	Western Cape	Total
<b>Gender:</b>										
Female	52	38	43	42	49	39	55	45	50	45
Male	48	62	57	58	51	61	45	55	50	55
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Race group:</b>										
African	81	91	91	89	98	94	97	44	33	82
Coloured	15	5	2	3	1	2	3	55	55	12
Indian	0	0	1	7	0	0	0	0	0	2
White	3	4	6	2	0	4	0	1	11	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Age group:</b>										
16-24	17	24	17	16	26	20	27	34	14	19
25-34	37	37	40	37	42	43	42	38	30	38
35-44	33	26	27	27	20	19	24	15	29	26
45 and above	13	14	16	21	12	18	7	13	26	17
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Qualification level:</b>										
None or below Grade 3	1	0	1	2	0	1	0	0	1	1
Some Primary up to Grade 7	6	8	5	10	6	10	5	10	9	8
Some Secondary	43	42	31	39	31	35	31	37	43	37
Matric/ Grade 12	36	38	41	37	39	40	51	40	34	39
Post-school	14	12	21	12	24	13	13	13	13	16
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Employment status:</b>										
I am currently in paid work but have never worked before.	5	9	4	3	7	4	8	7	4	5
I am currently in paid work and have worked before.	19	18	20	20	20	18	14	22	23	20
I am currently not in paid work but have worked before.	67	58	69	71	57	69	63	61	70	67
I have never had a paid job.	9	15	7	7	16	9	15	9	3	9
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Number of jobs in lifetime:</b>										
Never had a paid job	9	15	7	7	16	9	15	9	3	9
One job	38	41	36	36	38	35	41	36	44	38
Two jobs	25	22	29	28	26	31	29	34	30	28
Three jobs	16	15	18	18	14	14	9	4	11	15
More than three jobs	12	7	9	11	7	11	6	17	12	10
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

*Note: Due to rounding, not all totals add up to exactly 100.*

Similar trends in employment status were revealed for all provinces. Across provinces: 3% to 9% of work-seekers were in a paid job but had never worked before; from 14% to 23% of work-seekers were employed and had worked before; from 58% to 71% of work-seekers were unemployed at the time of the survey but had worked before; and 3% to 16% had never

had a paid job in their lifetime. Provinces with high portions of work-seekers who had never had a paid job in their lifetime were: Limpopo (16%); Free State (15%); and North West province (15%).

In all provinces, more than one-third of all work-seekers reported having had one job in their lifetime and more than a quarter reported having two jobs in their lifetime. In the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Mpumalanga, Northern Cape and Western Cape more than one in ten work-seekers reported having had more than three jobs in their lifetime.

The next section provides more results on the employment status of the work-seekers at the time of registration on the ESSA database and at the time of the survey.

### **3.6. Employment status**

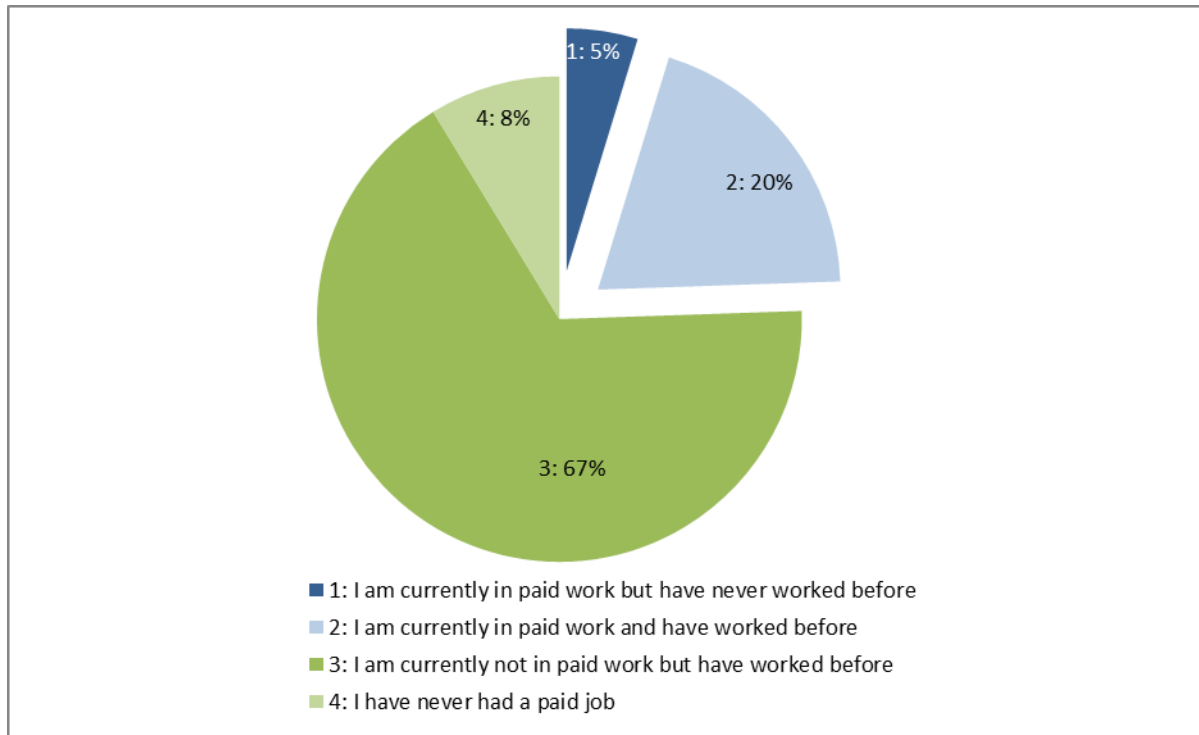
One of the characteristics of the sampling frame was the inclusion of both employed and unemployed work-seekers. As expected, all respondents in the realised sample were classified as unemployed work-seekers at the time of registration on the ESSA database. Change in a work-seeker's employment status is one of the fields that cannot be updated easily on a public database, such as the ESSA database, because their employment status can be highly variable over time. Furthermore, after a person has registered on the database, it becomes that person's responsibility to keep the information up to date by notifying the ESSA database operators of any change in personal information or circumstances – but this does not take place consistently.

Data analysis revealed that the situation for many work-seekers had changed since registration on the ESSA database, with one in four (25%) being employed at the time of the survey. Employment status, in this context, includes any full-time, part-time, temporary or casual of employment. It is also not clear if the respondent, after becoming employed, still preferred to be categorised as a work-seeker on the ESSA database. It was evident that work-seekers who had found employment were not being removed from the ESSA database.

The survey investigated four categories of work-seekers:

- Currently in paid work, but have never worked before.
- Currently in paid work and have worked before.
- Currently not in paid work, but have worked before.
- Have never had a paid job.

Figure indicates the proportion of work-seekers in these four categories. The data revealed that more than two-thirds (67%) of respondents reported that they were not working at the time of the survey, but that they did have previous work experience. A quarter of the survey participants (25%) were in paid work. Almost one in ten (8%) had never had a paid job in their lifetime. Thus, 92% of the work-seekers had working experience.



**Figure 3.5: Work-seekers and current employment status**

Data analysis revealed statistically significant relationships between the employment status of the work-seeker and: gender ( $\chi^2(3, N = 2934) = 51.16, p = .00$ ); race group ( $\chi^2(9, N = 2933) = 38.41, p = .00$ ); age group ( $\chi^2(9, N = 2934) = 490.16, p = .00$ ); qualification level ( $\chi^2(12, N = 2833) = 124.52, p = .00$ ); and number of jobs in lifetime ( $\chi^2(12, N = 2934) = 3070.06, p = .00$ ). The data suggests that the relationship between the four categories of employment status at the time of the survey and the number of jobs the work-seeker reported having had in his/her lifetime revealed the strongest relationship.

Table provides information on the characteristics of work-seekers in the four employment status groups. In all groups, except for the group of work-seekers who had never had a paid job (which comprised 8% of all work-seekers), males dominated. Almost two-thirds (63%) of the group who had never been employed were women.

The majority of work-seekers were unemployed at the time of the survey (67%), but had been employed previously. This group is characterized by: 54% men; 82% African; older group compared to other categories, with 50% older than 44; lower qualified compared to other groups, with 52% with a lower education level than Grade 12; and 42% reported only having had one job in their lifetime.

The second largest group - work-seekers who were employed and had previous working experience (20% of all work-seekers) - were characterized by: 63% men, which is higher than the survey population portion of 55%; 77% African, which is lower than the survey population portion of 82%; 15% coloured work-seekers, which is higher than the survey population portion of 12%; 71% between the age of 24 and 45, compared to 64% in the same age category for the survey population; 65% with a matric or higher qualification; and 69% having had more than one job in their lifetime.

**Table 3.3: Characteristics of the four employment categories (percentage of work-seekers)**

	<i>I am currently in paid work, but have never worked before.</i>	<i>I am currently in paid work and have worked before.</i>	<i>I am currently not in paid work, but have worked before.</i>	<i>I have never had a paid job.</i>	<i>Total</i>
<b>Gender:</b>					
Female	38	37	46	63	45
Male	62	63	54	37	55
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Race group:</b>					
African	85	77	82	94	82
Coloured	10	15	12	5	12
Indian	1	2	2	0	2
White	4	6	4	0	4
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Age group:</b>					
16-24	38	18	12	65	19
25-34	37	42	39	26	38
35-44	14	29	29	4	26
45 and above	11	11	21	5	17
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Qualification level:</b>					
None or below Grade 3	0	1	1	0	1
Some Primary up to Grade 7	3	6	9	3	8
Some Secondary	30	28	42	19	37
Matric/ Grade 12	46	43	35	53	39
Post-school	21	21	13	25	16
Total	100	100	100	100	100

*Note: Due to rounding, not all totals add up to exactly 100.*

The four employment status categories were combined to generate a variable for employed (25%) and unemployed work-seekers (75%). The data suggests that the majority of employed work-seekers were younger than 35.

The following section focuses on the group of work-seekers with work experience.

### **3.7. Work-seeker employment experience**

The survey investigated how many jobs the work-seekers with working experience have had in their lifetime, using the longest unbroken employment period and the type of jobs they have had as proxies for the quality of their employment experiences.

Ninety-two percent of work-seekers had been employed previously and thus gained working experience (8% had never had a paid job in their lifetime). Almost half (42%) of this group had only had one job; almost a third (31%) had had two jobs; 16% had had three jobs; and 11% had had more than three jobs in their lifetime.

Data analyses furthermore revealed statistically significant relationships between the number of jobs work-seekers had had in their lifetime and: gender ( $\chi^2(3, N = 2679) = 20.37, p = .00$ ); race group ( $\chi^2(9, N = 2678) = 36.67, p = .00$ ); age group ( $\chi^2(9, N = 2679) = 41.26, p = .00$ ); and unbroken employment period ( $\chi^2(9, N = 2628) = 46.57, p = .00$ ). However, the association between the number of jobs and qualification level ( $\chi^2(12, N = 2591) = 11.81, p = .46$ ) and employment status (the two categories being employed and unemployed) at the time of the survey ( $\chi^2(3, N = 2678) = 3.91, p = .27$ ) were not statistically significant.

Table provides the characteristics of each category of work-seeker, categorized by number of jobs they have had in their lifetime.

**Table 3.4: Characteristics of work-seekers with work experience and number of jobs held in their lifetime**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>One job</b>	<b>Two jobs</b>	<b>Three jobs</b>	<b>More than three jobs</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Gender:</b>					
Female	47	45	38	36	44
Male	53	55	62	64	56
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Race group:</b>					
African	79	82	88	75	81
Coloured	13	12	9	19	13
Indian	2	1	1	2	2
White	6	5	1	4	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Age group:</b>					
16-24	18	15	10	8	15
25-34	35	41	46	42	39
35-44	28	27	29	30	28
45 and above	19	17	15	20	18
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Qualification level:</b>					
None or below Grade 3	1	1	1	2	1
Some Primary up to Grade 7	8	8	8	7	8
Some Secondary	40	38	33	38	38
Matric/ Grade 12	35	38	42	37	37
Post-school	16	14	15	16	15
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Employment status at the time of the survey:</b>					
Currently employed	26	25	30	29	27
Currently unemployed	74	75	70	71	73
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Longest unbroken employment period:</b>					
Less than a year	21	18	14	11	18
One year but less than three years	24	25	28	30	26
Three to five years	17	22	26	26	21
More than five years	38	34	32	33	36
Total	100	100	100	100	100

*Note: Due to rounding, not all totals add up to exactly 100.*

The longest unbroken duration of jobs work-seekers had in their lifetime ranged from less than 3 months to more than 5 years. More than one-third (36%) of work-seekers with working experience had worked continuously for more than 5 years; a fifth (21%) reported unbroken employment for three to five years; a quarter (26%) had worked continuously for a



period of one to three years; and 17% has worked for shorter periods than a year, of which 3% had worked for less than three months uninterrupted.

Data analysis revealed statistically significant relationships for the associations between the longest unbroken period of employment and: gender ( $\chi^2(3, N = 2630) = 26.53, p = .00$ ); race group ( $\chi^2(9, N = 2628) = 87.96, p = .00$ ); age group ( $\chi^2(9, N = 2628) = 1064.92, p = .00$ ); highest qualification level ( $\chi^2(12, N = 2547) = 137.10, p = .00$ ); and employment status ( $\chi^2(3, N = 2629) = 17.83, p = .00$ ). The percentage distribution of these variables is displayed in Table .

The group of work-seekers who reported more than five years of unbroken employment in their lifetime were characterized as being proportionately more: white, male, older than 34, lower qualified, and with higher portions of unemployment at the time of the survey compared to the other groups.

**Table 3.5: Characteristics of work-seekers and longest unbroken period of employment in their lifetime**

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Less than a year</i>	<i>One year to less than three years</i>	<i>Three to five years</i>	<i>More than five years</i>	<i>Total</i>
<b>Gender:</b>					
Female	50	47	44	37	44
Male	50	53	56	63	56
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Race group:</b>					
African	84	83	84	75	81
Coloured	14	14	11	13	13
Indian	1	1	1	2	2
White	1	1	3	10	5
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Age group:</b>					
16-24	44	22	5	0	15
25-34	40	51	56	21	40
35-44	9	20	30	42	28
45 and above	6	7	8	37	18
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Qualification level:</b>					
None or below Grade 3	0	0	1	2	1
Some Primary up to Grade 7	3	5	5	14	8
Some Secondary	32	35	41	43	38
Matric/ Grade 12	43	43	40	29	37
Post-school	21	17	12	13	15
Total	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Employment status:</b>					
Currently employed	32	29	29	22	27

<i>Characteristic</i>	<i>Less than a year</i>	<i>One year to less than three years</i>	<i>Three to five years</i>	<i>More than five years</i>	<i>Total</i>
Currently unemployed	68	71	71	78	73
Total	100	100	100	100	100

*Note: Due to rounding, not all totals add up to exactly 100.*

Responses to a question on which types of jobs work-seekers had done most often in their lifetime (in order to explore the type of employment experience work-seekers had gained) produced a long list of varied jobs. Employment types in all economic sectors were reported, for example: ‘General workers’ comprised 14% of the work-seekers with work experience; ‘Security Guards / Security Officers’ constituted 8%; ‘Shop / Store / Sales Worker / Sales Assistant / Merchandiser’ comprised 7%; Cleaners, Drivers, Cashiers, Domestic Workers, more or less 5% each; Construction workers, Builder / Plasterer / Brick layer / Painter / Paver, and Baker / Cook / Chef / Caterer made up 2% each of the group with working experience.

### **3.8. Conclusions**

The profile of the sample of work-seekers was analysed and, where possible, compared with the population of the ESSA database (the population of registered work-seekers) in the specified period. The following are some of the key features:

- The proportions of men and women are 55% and 45%, respectively.
- African work-seekers are the majority at 82%, followed by 12% coloured, 1% Indian and 4% white.
- Respondents who claimed disability constituted 3% of the sample.
- The majority of work-seekers’ indicated their highest qualification level was equal to or above Grade 12, whilst 45% had a qualification lower than a Grade 12.
- In terms of age, the majority (57%) of work-seekers were younger than 35, of whom 19% were aged 16 to 25.
- The sample was provincially representative, with the two largest provinces being Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal, with 23% and 19% of all work-seekers, respectively.
- At the time of the survey, 25% of all respondents were employed, while over two-thirds were not working but had previous work experience. Just below 10% (8%) had not held a paid job before.

- Of those with work experience: 42% had previously held one job; 31% had held two jobs; while 27% had held three or more jobs.

Having sketched the main characteristics of the sample of work-seekers, the following chapter explores the socio-economic characteristics of work-seekers with regard to: the people who depend on them for financial or in-kind support; the kinds of resources that they or the people in their household collectively have access to; and the poverty levels that might impact on the sustainability of work-seeker households. By focusing on the resources that work-seekers need to meet familial and social obligations, the analysis may shed some light on how these demands contribute to pressure on work-seekers to find a job.

## **CHAPTER 4. SOCIO-ECONOMIC CIRCUMSTANCES AND LABOUR MARKET OUTCOMES**

According to this study's conceptual framework, socio-economic factors influence the decision of an individual to seek employment. Whilst holding constant job-search difficulties that might prevent a work-seeker from taking up employment; we would expect poor socio-economic circumstances to push work-seekers into the labour market, regardless of sector; working conditions; and the level of participation by foreign migrants.

However, as will be shown later (through a binary outcome model), the specific labour market outcomes will depend on the interaction of socio-economic factors, job specific conditions and perceptions and attitude towards some of these job characteristics. This section and the econometric analysis raise questions regarding anecdotes that seem to suggest that low participation of South Africans in certain sectors is linked to the participation of migrants in those sectors - which might lead to situations where work-seekers shun certain employment offers. The question that arises is: Can a work-seeker living in poor socio-economic conditions choose to remain unemployed and forgo paid income due to attitudinal reasons and perceptions about a given sector?

### **4.1. Work-seekers and financial support expectations**

To understand the socio-economic context that might have an impact on attitudes towards and perceptions about work, respondents were asked the following questions:

1. If you had a job, would other people (excluding your spouse and children) expect you to support them financially?
2. How many people (adults and children) do you stay with at your current residential address?
3. What are the main sources of income in your household?
4. Do you or anyone in this household receive any of the following welfare grants?
5. What is your household's gross monthly income before deductions?
6. How many of the people counted above receive an income?

With respect to questions 1 and 2, we would expect work-seekers with additional family responsibilities to be more willing to accept a job offer, regardless of sector. Questions 3 to 6 are related to sources of support during periods of unemployment.

Responses to the six questions by work-seekers (75%) are compared with the responses of those who are currently employed (25%). We would therefore expect the extent to which employment status is associated with better socio-economic outcomes to provide a case that increases the willingness of work-seekers to accept any employment offer due to the need to meet certain family obligations. An understanding of the differences between employment status and socio-economic status should also help us understand whether or not the latter influences attitudes towards and perceptions about work.

With respect to financial support of additional family members, the assumption is that work-seekers who are expected to provide for members of their extended families might be less disinclined to refuse a job offer in any of the sectors of interest. The study sought to understand this dynamic, by asking currently unemployed work-seekers if they were expected to support additional relatives/ family members other than a spouse and children, Figure shows that, on average, 74% answered yes to this question. This would suggest relatively high social pressure to find work.

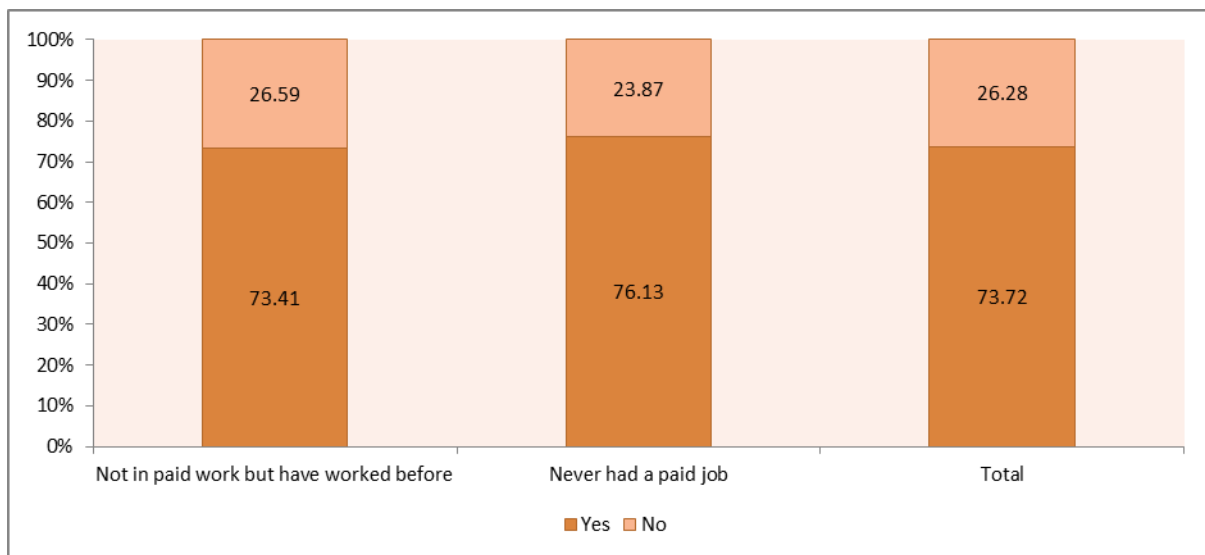


Figure 4.1: Unemployed work-seekers and financial support

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

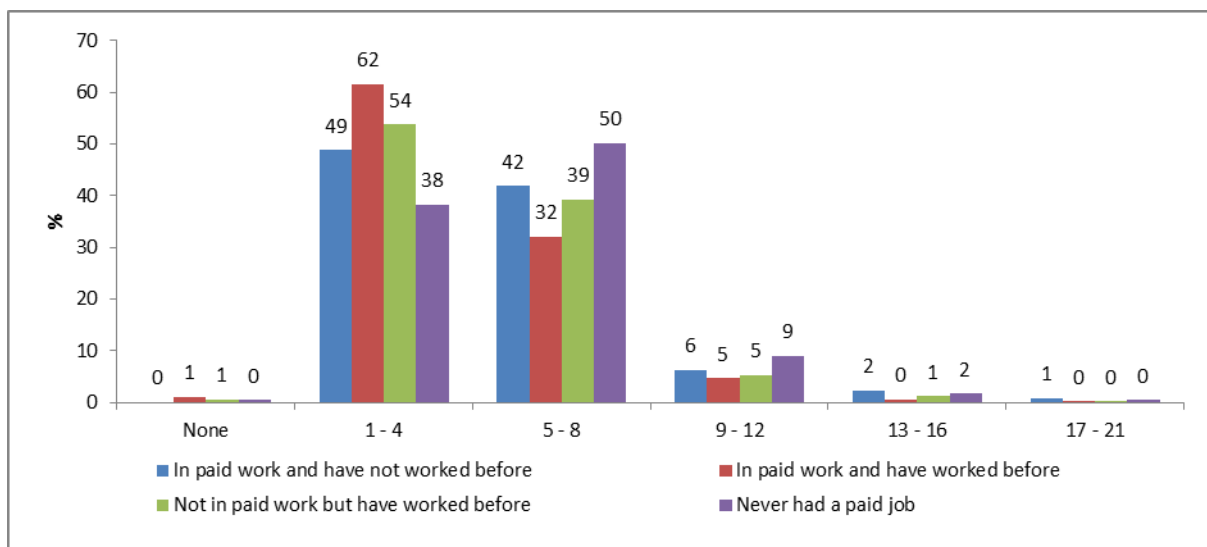
The average household size in the residence where the respondent is currently staying is: 5 for respondents who are currently unemployed; and 4 for those who are employed (see Table ). The results also reveal household sizes as large as 19 and 21.

**Table 4.1: Household size at respondent's current residential address**

	<i>N</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>
Currently employed	754	3,228	4	0	19	19	2.56
Currently unemployed	2,180	10,370	5	0	21	21	2.53
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,934</b>	<b>13,598</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>2.55</b>

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Figure : shows the distribution of household size by current employment status; and highlights that, on average, respondents who have never been employed come from relatively large households, with 59% of them coming from households with 5-12 members. Figure furthermore shows that larger household sizes tend to be below the poverty line - an association that is statistically significant at the 1% level. Those who are currently in paid work and have worked before, generally come from households with 1–4 household members. The observed difference between the association of household size and current employment status is statistically significant at the 1% level.



**Figure 4.2: Percentage distribution of household size and current employment status**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

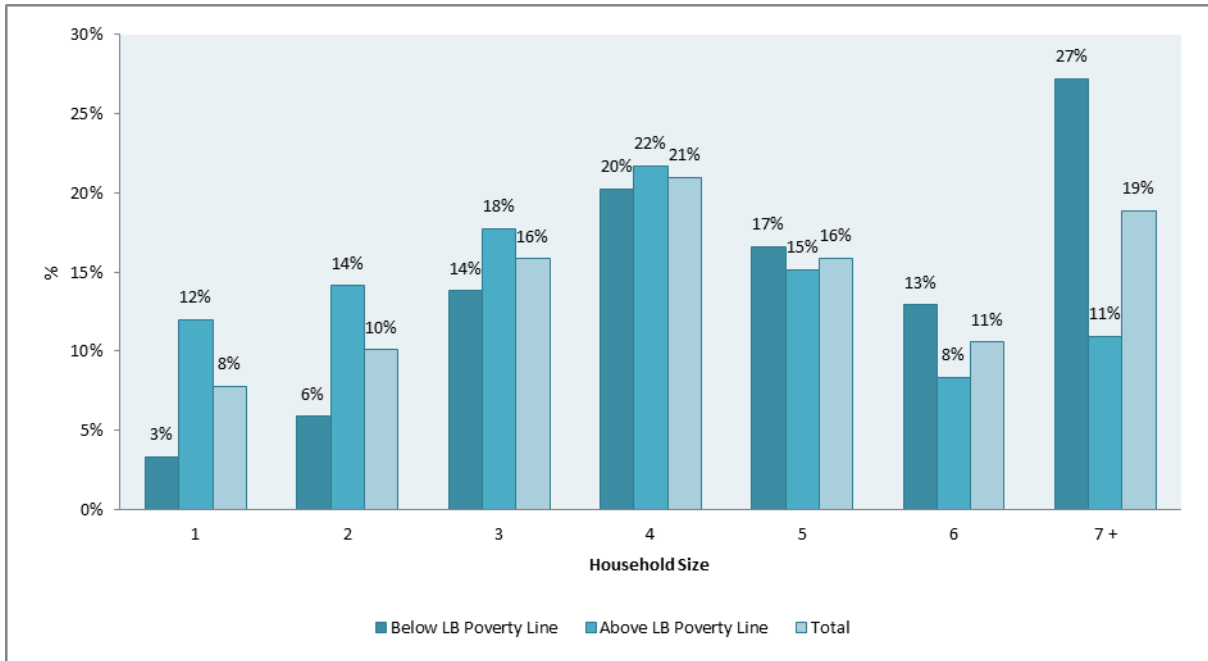


Figure 4.3: Poverty and household size

With respect to number of income earners in the household of the respondent, Table shows that, on average, those who are currently employed have one additional income earner relative to those who are not.

Table 4.2: Number of household members receiving an income

<i>z</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Sum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>
Currently employed	729	1343	2	0	7	7	1.16
Currently unemployed	2124	3154	1	0	10	10	1.25
<b>Total</b>	<b>2853</b>	<b>4497</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>1.23</b>

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Figure shows the distribution of income earners by current employment status; and it can be seen that all types of respondents generally have 1–2 income earners in the household. It can also be observed that more of those who are currently unemployed are in households that do not have an income earner. Furthermore, the association of number of income earners with employment status is also statistically significant at the 1% level.

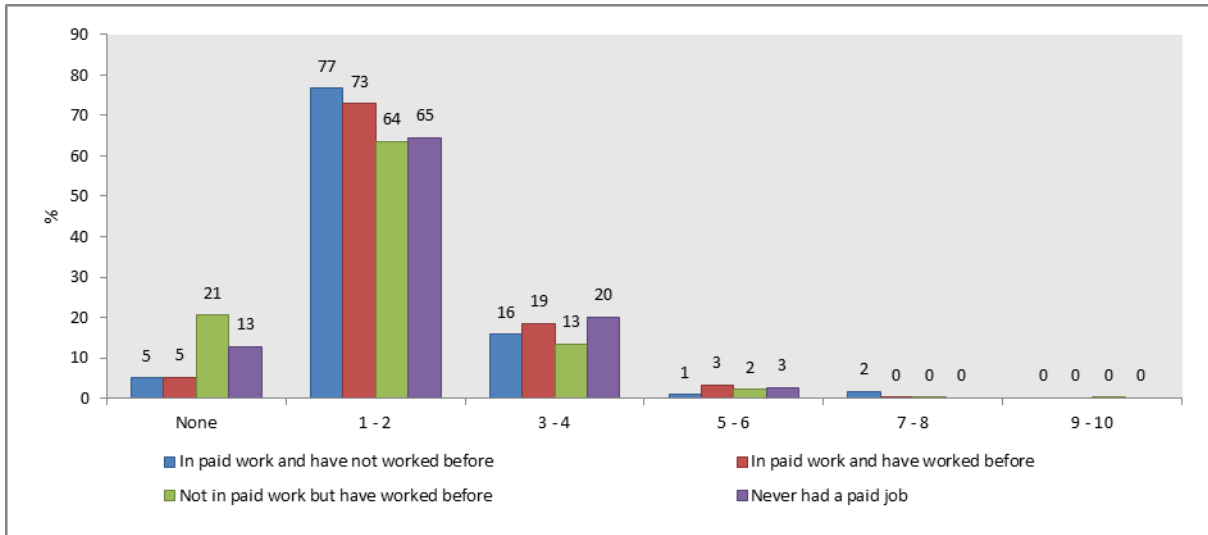


Figure 4.4: Distribution of income earners and current employment status

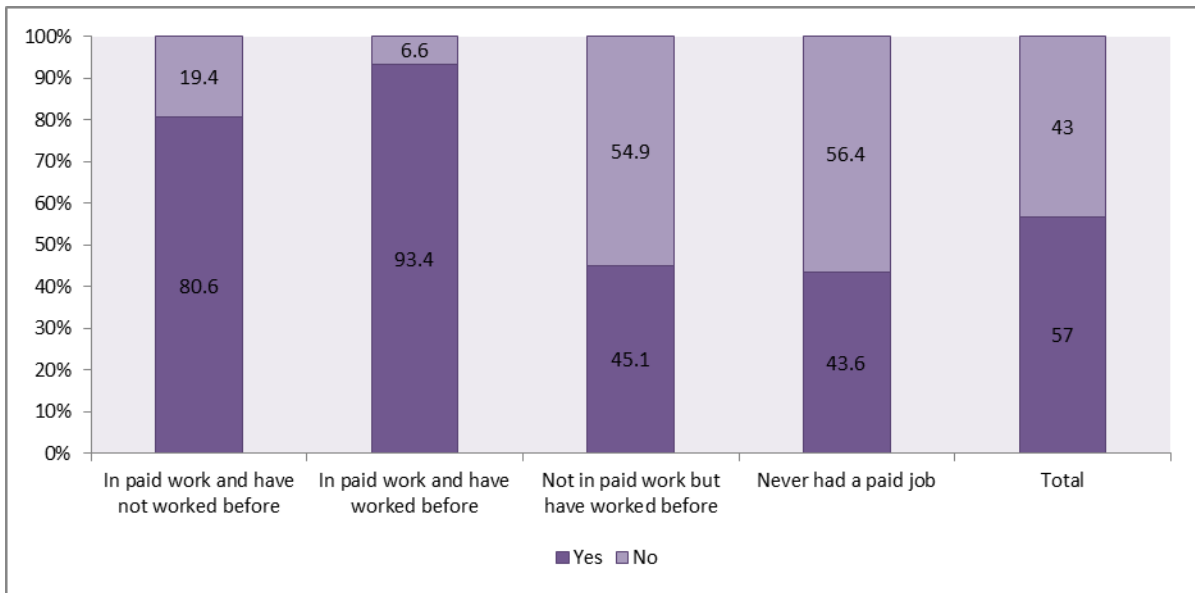
Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

The results show that, on average, 20% of the unemployed are in households without an income earner; this represents 562 households in this sample. The question that arises is whether or not these non-income households rely on social grants. This question will be discussed in one of the following sections on main income source.

#### 4.2. Main sources of household income

With respect to income, the study found that there were two main sources that households generally depended on. Respondents were asked to indicate what the main source of income was in the household in which they were living. Those who were currently employed relied more on salaries and/or wages: 93% of those who were currently working and had worked before indicated this as the main income source (Figure ). Tests of the association of this income source and employment status were statistically significant at the 1% level. Consistent with the findings seen in the previous section: fewer respondents who are currently unemployed reported salaries and/or wages as the main household income source; only 44% of those who had never worked reported this income as a main source.





**Figure 4.5: Main Source of Household Income: Salaries and/or wages**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Figure shows that those who are currently unemployed are more reliant on social grants as a main source of income than those who are currently employed: almost half (47%) of the respondents who had never worked indicated that this was their household’s main income source. A closer look at the pattern of the two income sources begins to suggest that the progression from never having worked to successfully staying in paid employment, might be associated with the process of graduation from social grants. This would suggest that reliance on grants might be strongly correlated with employment status in a way that begins to question grant dependency claims, with those who have never worked being the most reliant, followed by those who are currently not working but have worked before. Reliance on social grants by those who are currently employed and have never worked before seems to reduce as people enter the labour market (at 27%), as observed in Figure Reliance on grants then drops to 15% for those who are fully integrated into the labour market, as measured by their ability to successfully stay in paid work, that is, currently employed and have worked before. The association of this income source and employment status is also statistically significant at the 1% level.

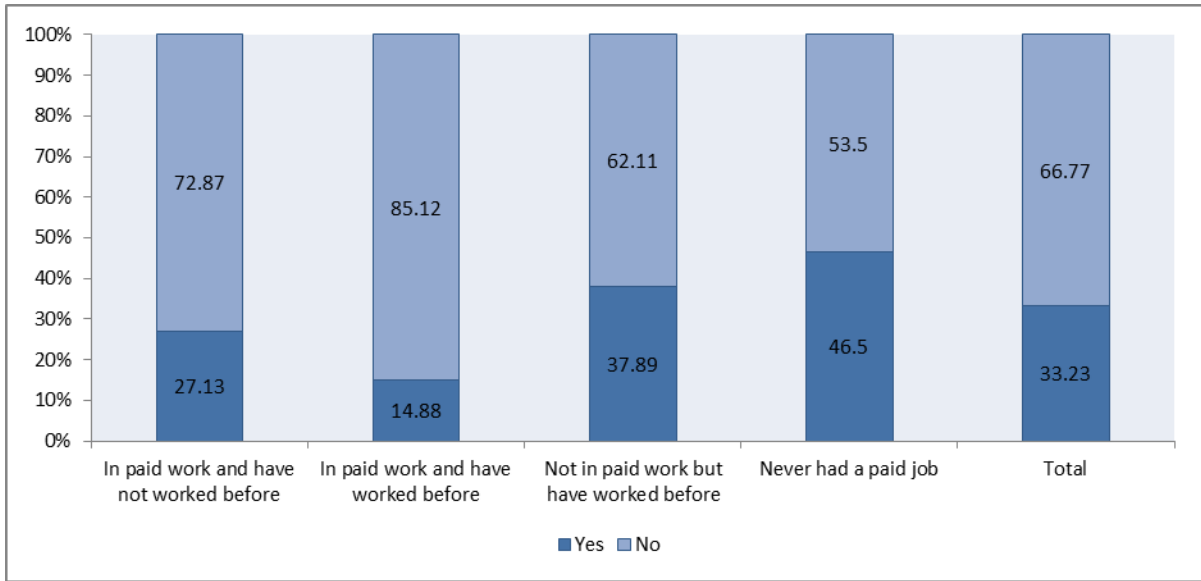


Figure 4.6: Main Sources of Household Income: Pensions and grants

Source: HSRC-DoL Work-seekers Survey, 2014

In order to identify what type of social assistance respondents household were accessing most, participants were presented with a menu<sup>1</sup> of 10 different types of social grants and other forms of social assistance, including the option that no-one in the household was receiving any benefits. Of the nine forms of social assistance, the old age grant and the child support grant were the most frequently accessed - see Figure and Figure .

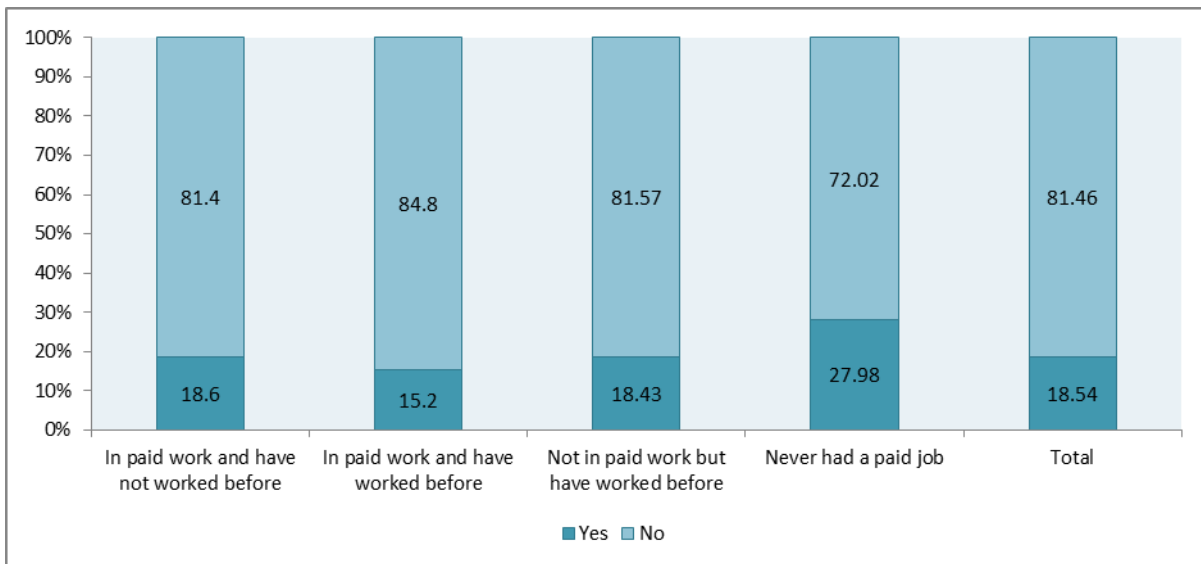


Figure 4.7: Old Age Grant recipient in respondent's household

Source: HSRC-DoL Work-seekers Survey, 2014

<sup>1</sup> Old Age Grant; Child Support Grant; Disability Grant; Care Dependency Grant; Foster Care Grant; Grant in Aid; UIF (Blue Card) or Workman's Compensation; Social Relief of Distress (emergency food parcels, food vouchers or temporary cash transfer); Military Veteran Grant; (No-one in household receiving any benefits).

The last two grants were the only ones where the association of form of assistance and employment status was statistically significant at the 1% level.

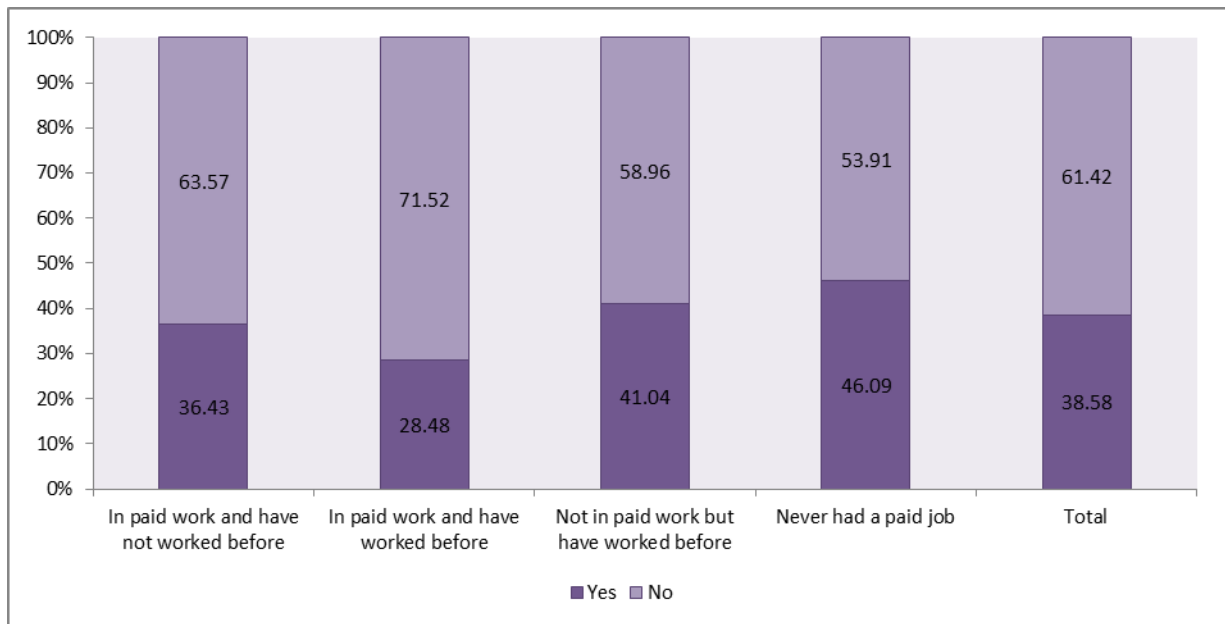


Figure 4.8: Child Support Grant recipient in respondent's household

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Figure , also shows that there are a number of respondents who are in households that do not currently receive any form of social benefit. These results show that the pattern is largely consistent with the observed relationship between participation in paid work and grant access. Only 24% of those who have never had a job reported not having any form of social benefit; those currently in paid employment and who have worked before have the most respondents in households with no social assistance - 46%.

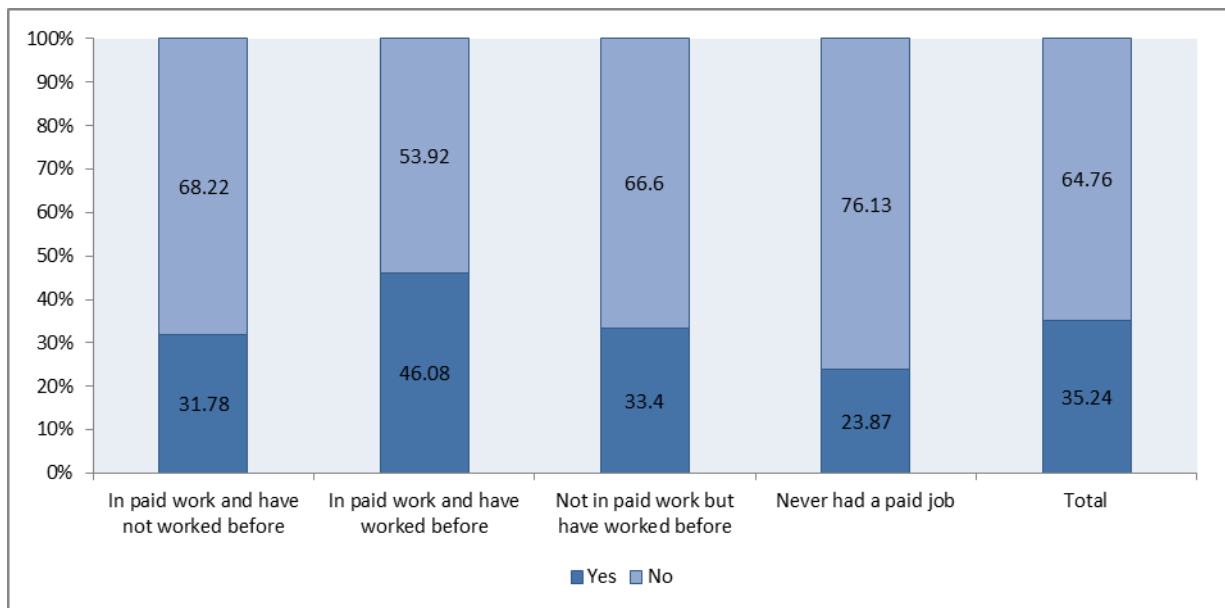


Figure 4.9: No-one in household receiving any benefits

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

### 4.3. Sources of Support for Work-seekers

The preceding section assessed the main sources of household income and social assistance. This section takes a closer look at the sources of support for work-seekers and which specific family members provide that support. Specifically, respondents were asked two questions, as follows:

1. Given that you are currently out of work, what are your sources of support for survival?
2. Does anyone in the household contribute to any of your expenses (such as clothing, transport or fees) or contribute toward your share of food, electricity, rent, etc.?

Figure shows that most respondents survive by doing ‘piece work’ for pay/ in kind; this is closely followed by social grants and support in the form of cash/ food/ clothing from family or friends. Social grants were cited as a common source of support and this highlights the role of social benefits in providing a broad base for social protection.

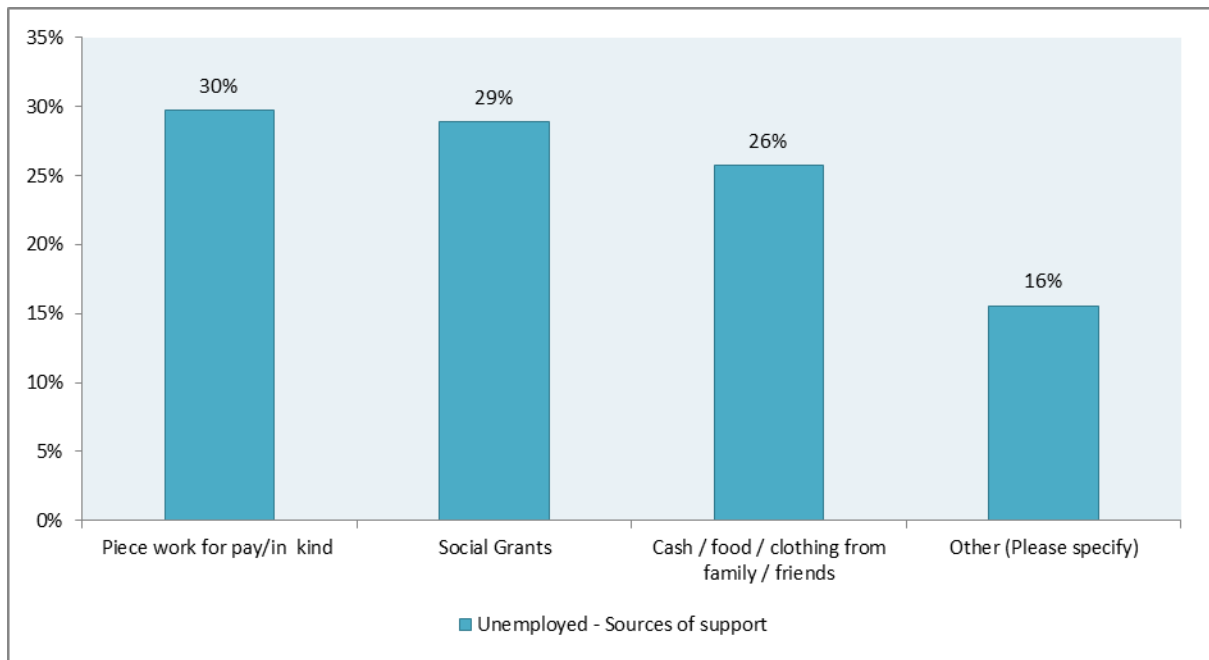
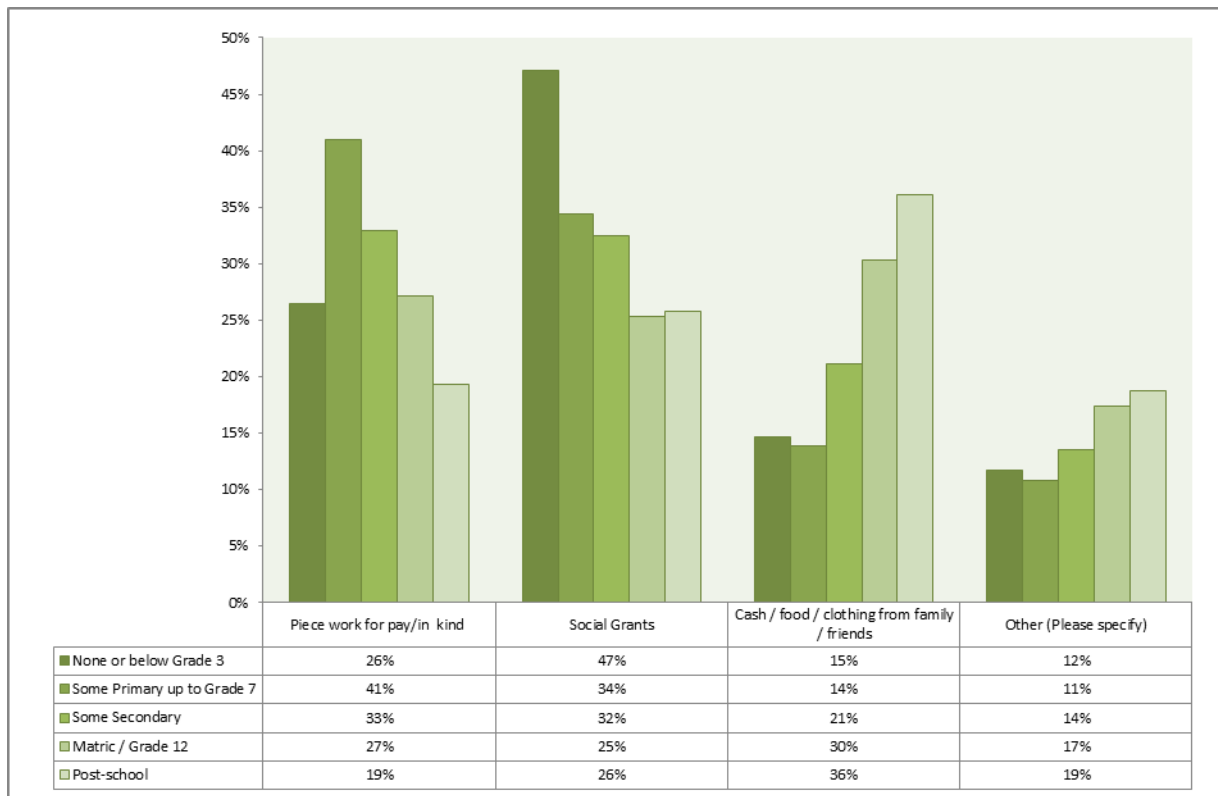


Figure 4.10: Given that you are currently out of work, what are your sources of support for survival?

When source of support was assessed relative to educational qualification, the distribution of responses showed a notable gradient across the three sources of support. Figure , shows that support from both ‘piece work’ and social grants appear to be inversely related to educational level completed, with the reliance of both forms of support weakening as the level of schooling completed rises higher. This was in sharp contrast to receiving cash/ food/ clothing from family or friends, which is positively related to education.



**Figure 4.11: Sources of support for survival by qualification**

With respect to the specific household members who provide the financial support, Figure shows that other family members (26%), parents (24%) and partners (17%) were the most common sponsors of the work-seeker's expenses (such as clothing, transport, fees, food, electricity and rent).

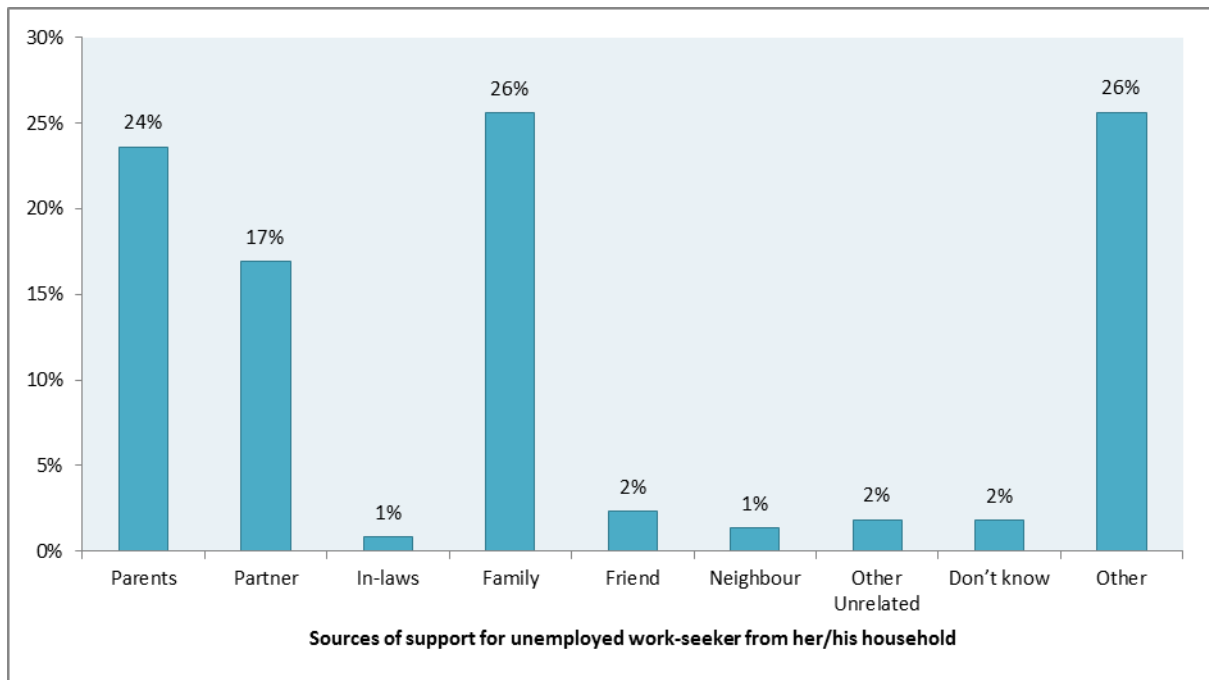


Figure 4.12: Does anyone in the household contribute to any of your expenses?

These results show that non-income earning work-seekers have a number of sources of support and financial benefactors.

#### 4.4. Household income distribution and employment status

This section of the report presents findings on the estimated income distribution for the surveyed population according to employment status, which is represented by the black density curve in the two income distributions (Figure and Figure ). In each graph, the fitted normal distribution is meant to serve as a reference point to indicate the skewed profile.

Figure shows the income distribution of those who are currently employed. This distribution approximates the normal distribution, its peaked profile (i.e. relatively high kurtosis) indicates clustering around the mean gross household monthly income of R3 001 – R5 000. Relative to the normal distribution, the latter has a relatively small standard deviation which implies lower levels of income inequality in this group of respondents. Figure also shows that over 60% of those who are currently employed come from households that earn a gross monthly income of between R2 000 and R10 000 per month.

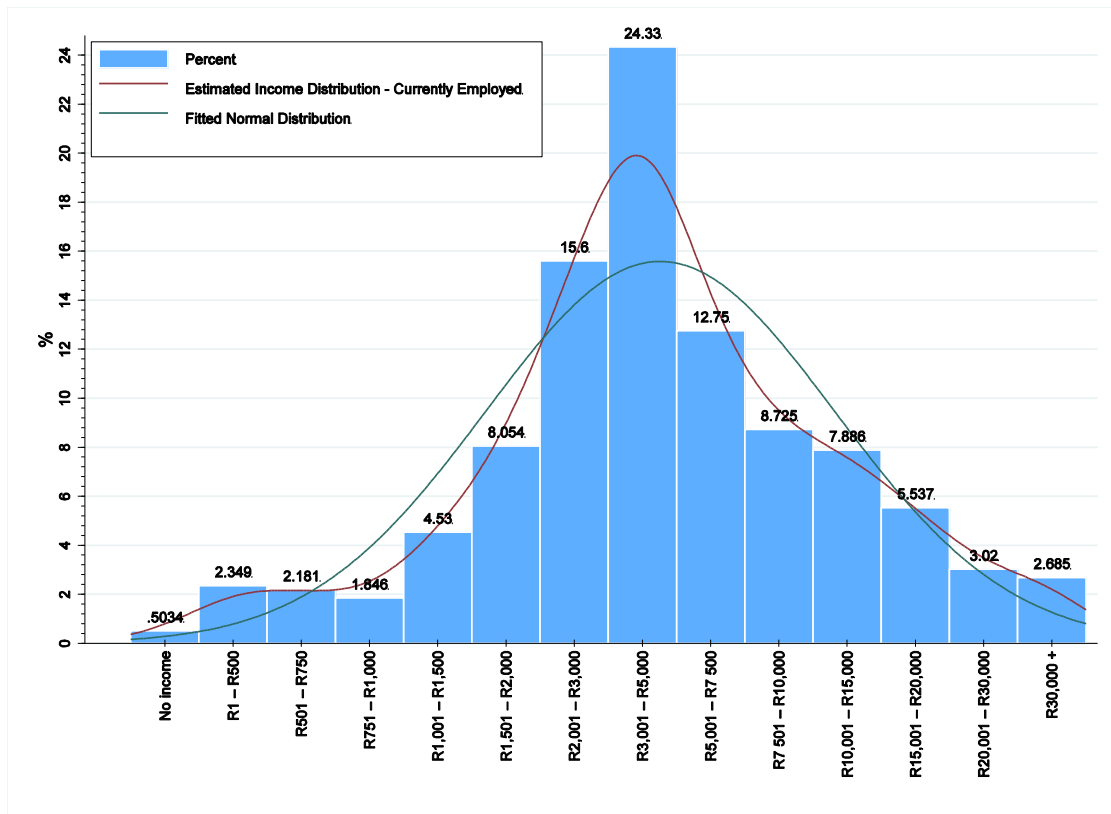


Figure 4.13: Income distribution: Gross household monthly income for the currently employed

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Figure shows the income distribution of those who are currently unemployed; and the first observation is that the distribution is heavily skewed to the lower end of the income spectrum: 73% of all currently unemployed respondents come from households with a gross monthly income of less than R3,000. The distribution is multimodal, which shows clustering around different income bands; this indicates relatively high levels of income inequality amongst households of work-seekers.

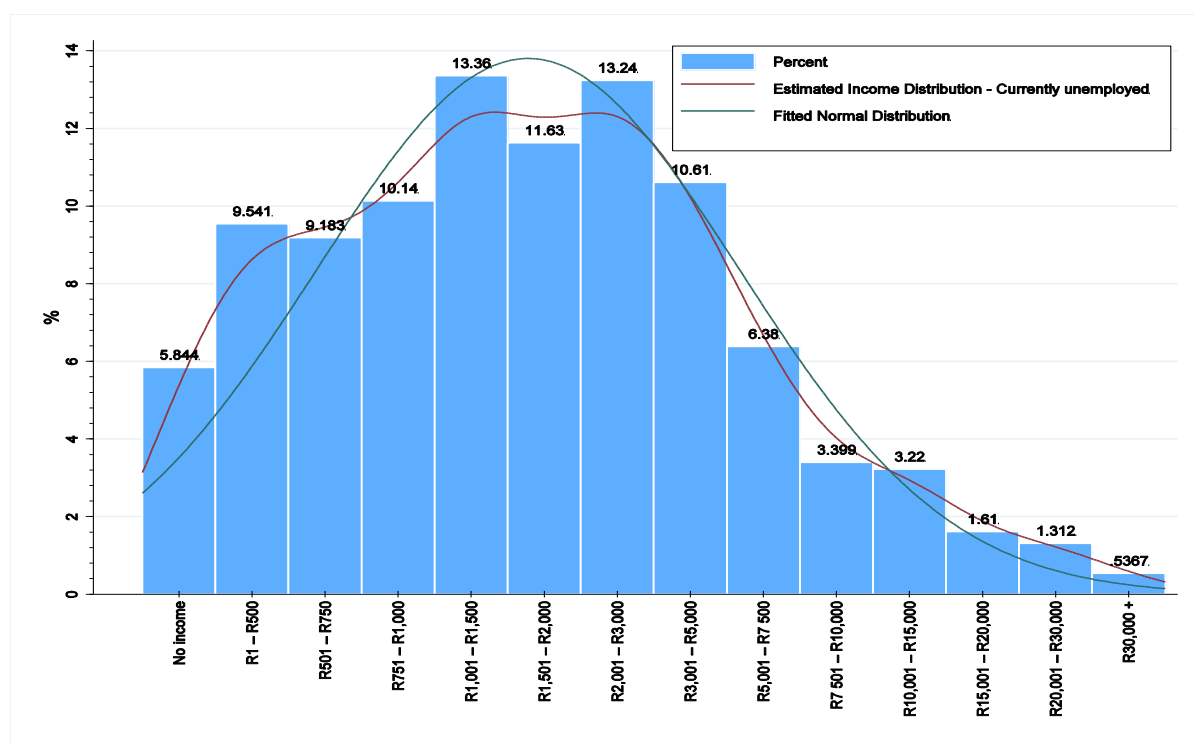
In order to test for the difference between mean household income for those who are currently employed, relative to those who are not, a two means t-test was conducted. Table shows that the mean income of those who are currently employed is R6,672.46, relative to a mean gross household monthly income of R3,165.79 for those who are unemployed. This represents a relatively large difference of R3,506.67. The t-test showed that these observed differences in mean income are statistically significant at the 1% level.



**Table 4.3: Comparison of means: employed vs unemployed - Gross household monthly income**

<i>Group</i>	<i>Obs</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>Std. Dev.</i>	<i>[95% Conf. Interval]</i>	
Currently employed	596	6,672.46	274.00	6,689.18	6,134.34	7,210.59
Currently unemployed	1,677	3,165.79	112.67	4,614.02	2,944.80	3,386.78
<i>Combined</i>	<i>2,273</i>	<i>4,085.27</i>	<i>114.51</i>	<i>5,459.17</i>	<i>3,860.73</i>	<i>4,309.82</i>
Diff		3,506.67	249.78		3,016.85	3,996.49

Source: Author calculations, HSRC Work-Seekers Survey, 2014. (t = 14.0390, Pr(|T| > |t|) = 0.0000)



**Figure 4.14: Income distribution: gross household monthly income for the currently unemployed**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

#### 4.5. Socio-economic status and employment status

To get a better sense of the socio-economic status of respondents, we estimated the incidence of poverty. The updated lower-bound Stats SA (2014) poverty line was used. This gives an inflation adjusted, per capita, per month, poverty line of R443. Once the appropriate poverty line was chosen, the surveyed population was then evaluated relative to this line. The reported gross household monthly income from the survey was taken and divided by the reported household size. This approach gives the basic income headcount poverty ratio.

Figure shows poverty incidence by employment status and it is relatively clear that paid employment is associated with a lower incidence of poverty. Almost 60% of those currently unemployed are below the poverty line. Given that this group comes from households with a

total sample population of 10,370 (Table ) household members, this means that as many as 6,139 individuals in the study population are currently living in poverty. This is in contrast to 19% of those who are currently employed. The association between employment status and poverty status was found to be statistically significant at the 1% level.

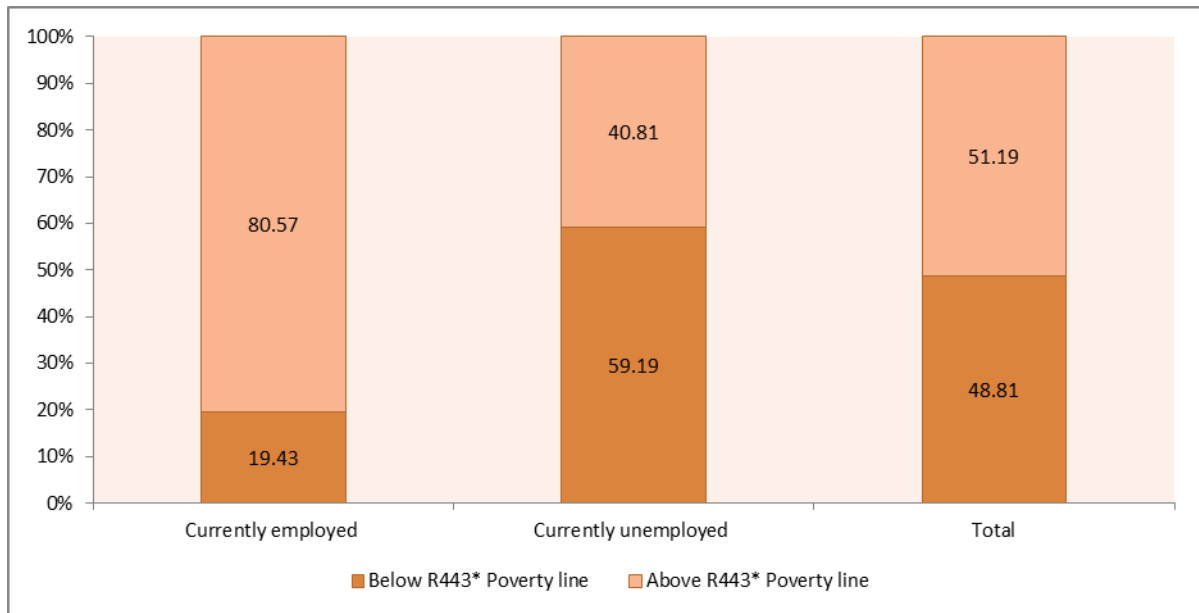


Figure 4.15: Poverty incidence and employment status

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014; StatsSA (2014) \* lower-bound poverty line

## 4.6. Conclusions

The results of the analysis of socio-economic circumstances points to the presence of push factors that should lead work-seekers to want to be in paid work, since socio-economic outcomes for those in paid work are far superior than for those who are unemployed. The extent to which employment status is associated with better socio-economic outcomes seems to provide an incentive to increase the willingness of work-seekers to accept any employment offer, due to the need to meet certain family obligations.

A key question addressed was: Is the difference in mean household income of currently employed and unemployed respondents sufficiently different to encourage unemployed workers to seek employment? Data supplied by respondents shows that the mean income of those who are currently employed is R6,672.46, relative to a mean gross household monthly income of R3,165.79 for those who are unemployed; this is a relatively large difference. A t-test showed that the observed difference in mean income is statistically significant at the 1% level. In addition, analysis of poverty incidence by employment status suggested that paid employment is associated with a lower incidence of poverty.

Findings from the socio-economic analysis appear to indicate a relatively strong incentive to want to work; nonetheless, the following sections on perceptions about and attitudes toward work suggest that the final decision of whether or not someone ends up rejecting or accepting an employment offer is influenced by interaction of all these factors. This is important, given that work-seekers declined work opportunities due to prohibitive distances between where they reside and the job offer.

Furthermore, there are differences in outcomes in terms of the basis of demographic characteristics, such as gender and employment status. In the next chapter, the influence of unemployment and gender on work-seeker preferences for employment in jobs and sectors is discussed, showing that the association between employment status and gender can create labour outcomes that are not as straightforward as suggested by casual observations.

## **CHAPTER 5. THE EFFECT OF EMPLOYMENT STATUS AND GENDER IN DETERMINING SECTOR PREFERENCE**

### **5.1. Employment status and sector preferences**

In order to identify the different characteristics of employed and unemployed work-seekers, a binary outcome logistic regression was estimated. The dichotomous dependent variable was coded: 0 = currently employed; 1 = currently unemployed. A number of predictor variables were chosen; these included demographic characteristics and preference variables regarding different characteristics of jobs. The rationale is that employment status is a function of demographic factors and preferences regarding work. As mentioned in previous sections, we would expect certain socio-economic factors - such as type of dwelling and average household size - to act as push factors that increase willingness to work under most working conditions. At the same time, we would also expect the unemployed to show a positive inclination toward most sectors of employment, because, given push factors such as socio-economic conditions, we would not expect unemployed workers to self-select away from certain industries.

The demographic characteristics that are modelled as predictors of employment status include:

- gender
- race
- age
- education level
- income level
- average size of a family
- dwelling type
- socio-economic status, as measured by the head-count poverty line (i.e. above or below the poverty line).

Preferences regarding different job characteristics were captured in terms of the following variables:

- willingness to accept work for low pay

- likelihood of accepting a job in one of five sectors (agriculture, construction, hospitality, security and mining)
- willingness to accept a job for which one was not trained
- willingness to accept a job that required one to relocate
- willingness to accept a job that required one to work on weekends.

Other variables that had the potential to influence the employment status of workers were included, as follows:

- whether the work-seeker belongs to a union or not
- whether the work-seeker had a driver’s licence or not.

With respect to the inclusion of the union variable, a question did arise as to whether or not it was logical to include this as a predictor, given that 8% of respondents in the study had never worked before. This variable was included based on the presence of work-seekers in the survey who had never worked but who were members of a union - see Figure .

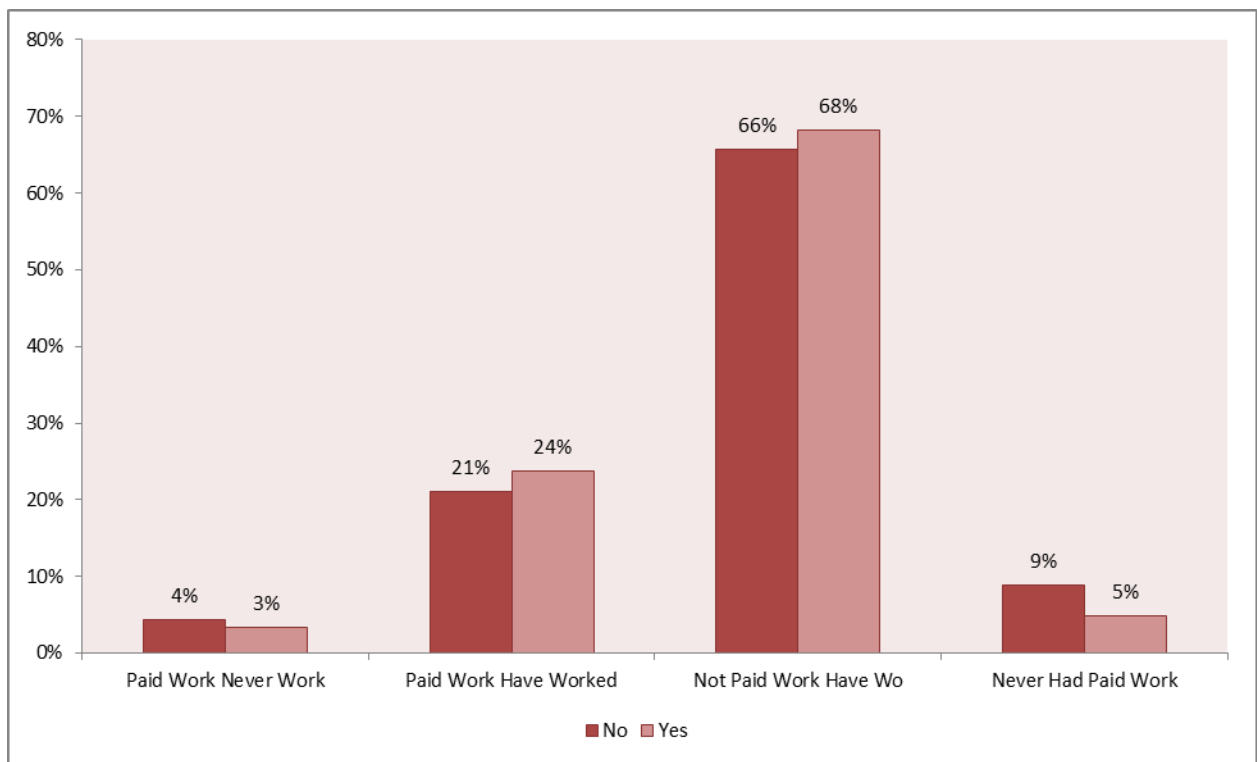


Figure 5.1: Were/ are you a member of a trade union?

The discussion of the results will begin with an analysis of the demographic characteristics of work-seekers. The objective is to highlight the individual characteristics that are mostly associated with those who are unemployed relative to those who are employed. The results of

the estimated model can be found in Table and show that: females are 4% more likely to be unemployed than males; this result is statistically significant at the 5% level. With respect to race, the odds of whites being unemployed is 20% less likely relative to blacks; whilst coloureds and Indians are more likely to be unemployed than blacks; however, these results are insignificant, with the exception of coloured work-seekers.

**Table 5.1: Logistic regression – Dependent Variable Employment Status (0 = Employed; 1 = Unemployed)**

	<i>Marginal Effects</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>P&gt;z</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>P&gt;z</i>
<b>Gender</b>								
<i>Male</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Female	0.04	0.018	1.970	**0.049	1.30	0.171	1.960	**0.050
<b>Race</b>								
<i>Black</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Coloured	0.04	0.027	1.650	*0.099	1.40	0.296	1.590	0.111
Indian	0.01	0.034	0.210	0.835	1.05	0.261	0.210	0.835
White	-0.03	0.036	-0.860	0.390	0.80	0.204	-0.870	0.382
Other	-0.19	0.152	-1.270	0.204	0.26	0.274	-1.280	0.199
<b>Age</b>	0.002	0.001	2.190	**0.029	1.02	0.007	2.180	0.030
<b>Job pays less</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	0.13	0.019	6.730	***0.000	2.46	0.328	6.780	***0.000
				0				0
<b>Qualification</b>								
<i>None or below Grade 3</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Some Primary up to Grade 7	0.12	0.107	1.100	0.271	2.25	1.635	1.110	0.265
Some Secondary	0.17	0.103	1.690	*0.091	3.42	2.382	1.770	*0.077
Matric/ Grade 12	0.11	0.104	1.040	0.296	2.09	1.458	1.060	0.290
Post-school	0.12	0.105	1.100	0.271	2.20	1.557	1.120	0.264
<b>Dwelling Type</b>								
<i>Formal</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Informal	0.01	0.021	0.270	0.785	1.04	0.164	0.270	0.786
<b>Salaries &amp; Wages</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.33	0.019	-	***0.000	0.07	0.015	-	***0.000
			17.260	0			12.720	0
<b>Pensions &amp; Grants</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.04	0.022	-1.760	*0.079	0.75	0.123	-1.760	*0.079
<b>Agriculture</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	0.08	0.029	2.570	*0.010	1.81	0.451	2.380	*0.018
<b>Construction</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	-0.05	0.025	-2.020	***0.044	0.70	0.123	-2.050	***0.040
<b>Hospitality</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	-0.01	0.027	-0.450	0.651	0.92	0.178	-0.460	0.649
<b>Security</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	0.01	0.018	0.740	0.456	1.11	0.150	0.740	0.459
<b>Mining</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	0.04	0.022	1.770	*0.077	1.33	0.220	1.730	*0.083
<b>Not trained</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.04	0.022	-1.630	0.103	0.76	0.129	-1.590	0.112
<b>Relocate</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			

Yes	-0.03	0.024	-1.240	0.216	0.80	0.148	-1.210	0.225
<b>Work Weekends</b>								
No	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	0.02	0.027	0.570	0.565	1.12	0.222	0.580	0.562
<b>Household Size</b>	0.01	0.004	1.640	0.102	1.05	0.031	1.630	0.103
<b>Income Earners</b>	-0.02	0.008	-3.010	**0.003	0.83	0.051	-2.980	**0.003
<b>Drivers</b>								
No	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.03	0.019	-1.360	0.173	0.83	0.113	-1.370	0.170
<b>Union</b>								
No	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.03	0.023	-1.100	0.273	0.83	0.138	-1.110	0.267
<b>Poverty line</b>								
Above R443* Poverty line	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Below R443* Poverty line	0.13	0.020	6.350	**0.000	2.52	0.376	6.200	**0.000
<i>Constant</i>					2.93	2.442	1.290	0.196
	N = 2136							
	LR chi2(28) = 687.84							
	Prob > Chi2 = 0.000							
	Pseudo R2 = 0.2815							

Significant at: \* = 10%; \*\* = 5%; \*\*\* = 1%.

Marginal effects are interpreted as percentages relative to the reference group; for example, women are 4% more likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts. The second half of the table reports on the odds ratios (ORs). For example, in this table, ORs greater than 1 indicate that the odds of the predicted outcome are greater for the unemployed. The approach used in this report is to report one of the three standard levels of significance with each result, to allow the reader to understand the degree of significance - with 1% being highly significant.

Age seems to play an important role in determining employment status, with the results showing that as work-seekers get older they are more likely to be unemployed; this result is significant at the 5% level. We would expect education to play an important role in positively influencing employment status; however, these results seem to indicate that, relative to the referent group of those with little education, those with higher levels of education are more likely to be unemployed - although this result is statistically insignificant, with the exception of those with some secondary schooling. The results also show that: those who are unemployed are more likely to reside in an informal dwelling; they are also less likely to come from households that are reliant on salaries/ wages, and pensions and grants as the main income source; these two predictors are statistically significant.

With respect to other demographic characteristics, unemployed work-seekers were found to be more likely to come from larger households, and with fewer income earners than those who are unemployed. Although the former is statistically insignificant the latter was found to be significant at the 5% level. The headcount measure of poverty was used to identify those

respondents whose current household income put them below the poverty line. The results indicate that: the odds of someone who is unemployed living below the poverty line was 2.5 times greater than for those who are employed; this result is statistically significant at the 1% level.

As mentioned in the socio-economic section of the report, these demographic factors should increase the willingness of unemployed work-seekers to accept job offers under a whole range of employment conditions. However, the following section shows that sectoral and specific job preferences do play a role in influencing willingness to work. This helps us to begin to understand situations wherein unemployed workers might decline employment opportunities in certain sectors and under conditions that they might deem unacceptable.

## **5.2. Sectoral preferences**

The following are the results of the association between employment status and sector preferences; these indicate that those who are unemployed are more likely to decline employment in the agricultural sector than those who are currently employed. This result is statistically significant at the 10% level. In fact, the odds of someone who is currently unemployed, declining a job in the agricultural sector, is significantly higher than for those who are likely to accept employment in this sector.

With respect to the construction sector, the results indicate that the unemployed are 5% less likely to decline an offer in this sector than those with likely/ neutral preferences; this result is statistically significant at the 5% level. Although the hospitality industry is generally perceived as offering precarious employment, the results of this study indicate that the unemployed are less likely to decline an offer to work in this sector; however the difference between them and those who are employed is statistically insignificant. The results also indicate that: the unemployed are more likely to decline work in the security sector and mining sector relative to those who are currently employed; this result is only significant for the latter and not the former.

## **5.3. Job specific preferences**

As mentioned the decision to work is also affected by other factors which can influence the likelihood of accepting certain jobs. With respect to whether a respondent was willing to accept a job for which he/ she was not trained and whether a respondent was willing to relocate, the results indicate that those who were unemployed at the time of the survey were



less likely to accept a job for which they do not have any skills and less likely to be willing to relocate for work reasons, however, these results were both statistically insignificant. The results also showed that the unemployed were more likely than the employed to be willing to accept a job that required them to work over the weekend. When it came to attributes such as having a driver's licence and being a member of a union, those who were unemployed were found to be less likely to have a licence or to be a member of a union. The results also showed that unemployed work-seekers were 13% more likely to accept a job that paid less than their wage expectations.

#### **5.4. Gender based work and sector preferences**

In order to understand if there are any differences in work and sector preferences between men and women, a gender logistic regression was estimated using the same predictors. The dichotomous dependent variable was coded: 0 = male; 1 = female. The rationale for making this assessment was that some of the sectors of interest tend to be either male dominated (e.g. construction) or female dominated (e.g. hospitality). Furthermore, women more than men tend to face certain constraints, for example with respect to mobility, which might prevent them from accepting work opportunities that require them to relocate.

The results indicate that: women are more likely to be more educated, with the odds of a woman having a post-school education being 3.1 times greater than that of a man; this result is statistically significant at the 5% level. Women were also less likely to stay in an informal dwelling relative to men - a result that is statistically significant at the 5% level. The results regarding source of income indicate: that women are more likely than men to come from households that have salaries/ wages and pensions/ grants as the main sources of income; both results are statistically significant.

The results also indicate that: women are more likely than men to come from larger households, and where there are fewer income earners; both results are statistically significant at the 5% level. The results on socio-economic status show: that women are twice as likely as men to be below the poverty line; this result is statistically significant at the 1% level. These results are similar to those of the unemployed and should carry the same implications with respect to attitudes toward work. With respect to employment status, the results indicate that: women are more likely than men to be in paid employment for the first time; although this result is statistically insignificant. However: women are more likely than men to be unemployed; and the odds of a woman never having had a paid job is twice as

likely as a man who is currently employed and who has worked before; this result is significant at the 5% level.

### **5.5. Sectoral preferences**

There are statistically significant differences in sectoral preferences between gender, with women being more likely to self-select away from jobs in the agricultural, construction and mining sectors, with the result being statistically significant at the 1% level for mining and construction (Table ). The results indicate that women are less likely than men to say no to a job in hospitality and security - the two sectors that are known to offer precarious employment. The result for willingness to work in hospitality is statistically significant at the 1% level.

**Table 5.2: Logistic regression – Dependent Variable Gender Status: 0 = Male; 1 = Female**

	<i>Marginal Effects</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>P&gt;z</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>P&gt;z</i>
<b>Race</b>								
<i>Black</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Coloured	-0.01	0.036	-0.370	0.712	0.93	0.175	-0.370	0.712
Indian	-0.04	0.045	-0.850	0.396	0.82	0.193	-0.840	0.400
White	0.19	0.044	4.320	***0.000	2.72	0.671	4.060	0.000
Other	0.18	0.161	1.090	0.276	2.50	2.188	1.040	0.296
<b>Age</b>	-0.002	0.001	-1.810	*0.070	0.99	0.006	-1.810	0.070
<b>Job pays less</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.02	0.023	-0.960	0.337	0.89	0.106	-0.960	0.337
<b>Qualification</b>								
<i>None or below Grade 3</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Some Primary up to Grade 7	-0.10	0.098	-0.990	0.321	0.58	0.307	-1.030	0.305
Some Secondary	0.01	0.094	0.070	0.940	1.04	0.518	0.070	0.941
Matric/ Grade 12	0.08	0.095	0.860	0.391	1.53	0.769	0.840	0.400
Post-school	0.22	0.097	2.240	**0.025	3.10	1.604	2.190	0.029
<b>Dwelling Type</b>								
<i>Formal</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Informal	-0.05	0.024	-2.270	**0.023	0.76	0.094	-2.250	0.024
<b>Salaries &amp; Wages</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	0.05	0.025	1.870	*0.062	1.28	0.172	1.840	0.066
<b>Pensions &amp; Grants</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	0.16	0.025	6.590	***0.000	2.27	0.283	6.570	0.000
<b>Agriculture</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	0.01	0.040	0.350	0.729	1.07	0.223	0.350	0.728
<b>Construction</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	0.10	0.030	3.210	***0.001	1.64	0.253	3.200	0.001
<b>Hospitality</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	-0.11	0.033	-3.200	***0.001	0.57	0.103	-3.090	0.002
<b>Security</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	-0.02	0.023	-0.720	0.471	0.92	0.110	-0.720	0.472
<b>Mining</b>								
<i>Likely/ Neutral</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Never	0.07	0.027	2.650	***0.008	1.44	0.196	2.660	0.008
<b>Not trained</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	0.07	0.027	2.410	**0.016	1.41	0.202	2.370	0.018
<b>Relocate</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.15	0.031	-5.060	***0.000	0.45	0.072	-4.950	0.000
<b>Work Weekends</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.13	0.034	-3.750	***0.000	0.52	0.092	-3.700	0.000
Household Size	0.01	0.005	2.170	**0.030	1.05	0.025	2.160	0.031
Income Earners	-0.02	0.009	-2.460	**0.014	0.89	0.042	-2.450	0.014
<b>Drivers</b>								

	<i>Marginal Effects</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>P&gt;z</i>	<i>Odds Ratio</i>	<i>Std. Err.</i>	<i>z</i>	<i>P&gt;z</i>
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.25	0.022	-11.360	***0.000	0.28	0.034	-10.460	0.000
<b>Union</b>								
<i>No</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Yes	-0.12	0.026	-4.710	***0.000	0.52	0.075	-4.550	0.000
<b>Poverty line</b>								
<i>Above R443* Poverty line</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
<i>Below R443* Poverty line</i>	0.15	0.024	6.050	***0.000	2.09	0.258	6.010	0.000
<b>Employment Status</b>								
<i>Paid Work Have Worked</i>	<i>Reference</i>				<i>Reference</i>			
Paid Work Never Work	0.06	0.051	1.200	0.230	1.37	0.358	1.210	0.227
Not Paid Work Have Worked	0.05	0.028	1.970	**0.048	1.32	0.189	1.970	0.049
Never Had Paid Work	0.11	0.044	2.490	**0.013	1.75	0.390	2.510	0.012
Constant					1.25	0.806	0.350	0.724
N	= 2136							
LR chi2(29)	= 516.62							
Prob > chi2	= 0.000							
Pseudo R2	= 0.1756							

Significant at: \* = 10%; \*\* = 5%; \*\*\* = 1%.

## 5.6. Job specific preferences

In this sample, women were more likely than men to accept a job that would pay them less than what they were trained for. This is an interesting finding, bearing in mind that women are generally found to have a higher educational attainment than men. The results also indicate that women: are 15% less likely than men to accept a job that would require them to relocate; are also less likely to accept a job that required them to work over weekends. Both of these results are statistically significant at the 5% and 1% level, respectively.

With respect to other job related characteristics, women were 25% less likely to have a driver's license. The importance of this is that it automatically excludes them from a number of occupations. The results also indicate that women are 11% less likely to belong to a union. Both of these results are statistically significant at the 1% level.

## 5.7. Conclusions

The results in this section have highlighted a number of useful insights into: the demographic, sectoral and job specific preferences of the unemployed; and the differences between men and women, with respect to these factors. What is relatively clear is that work-seekers (both

the unemployed and women) negotiate the labour market based on consideration of a complex set of interactions between factors.

With respect to sector preferences, the results from the two models found consistent patterns of response. Both the unemployed and women were more likely to decline employment in agriculture, with the result of the former being statistically significant at the 1% level. The results also showed that both groups were less likely to decline employment in the hospitality sector, with this preference being statistically significant for women. The third sector that showed consistency in terms of preferences was the mining sector; here the results for both groups were statistically significant.

It should be noted that although women were less likely to self-select away from the hospitality sector, they were also less likely to accept a job that required them to work over weekends - a preference that is at odds with their sectoral preference, given that the hospitality sector generally operates on weekends and public holidays. Although seemingly contradictory, this result highlights the complex nature of sectoral and job choices. It highlights that work-seekers are constantly trying to balance the trade-off between sector of choice and the characteristics of jobs found in that sector.

In the sections that follow, job choice and sector choice will be given in-depth analysis, in order to reveal how work-seeker attitudes and preferences will inform their commitment to or rejection of jobs. Accordingly, the analysis that follows should provide evidence of how job preference might guide, moderate or perhaps even over-ride the imperative to earn a salary - which remains a central assumption behind, firstly the decision to work and, secondly the decision to work in a job-role that may or may not be consonant with the work-seeker's attitudes and preferences.

## **CHAPTER 6. WORK-SEEKER ATTITUDES AND PREFERENCES**

To assess possible reasons for work-seekers' reluctance to accept employment in sectors characterised by 'bad' work, we asked them to: reflect on an array of job characteristics; and then indicate the extent to which they perceived those aspects to be important. Insights from the literature on attitudes draw attention to the oft-neglected dimension of the studies of work (labour market studies) that acknowledge the absence of the inherent meaning of work, i.e. even though there is a common agreement about the importance of work, individuals uniquely impute, define and attach such meanings to their work activity (Kallerberg, 1977).

Therefore, one of the most common methods used to study what work means to individuals is to assess the degree of value they place on different aspects of work, including factors such as job security, autonomy, flexibility and income. This allows one to detect individual needs, expectations and priorities relating to a job. Understanding work orientation and work values is therefore important for understanding attitudes about work, job choices and behaviour in the labour market. This is based on the assumption that work values and orientation mediate people's interpretation of their work as their attitudes take shape. The primary assumption is that individual value priorities relate to peoples' attitudes and this is manifested in their behaviour and in the occupational roles they assume in the labour market.

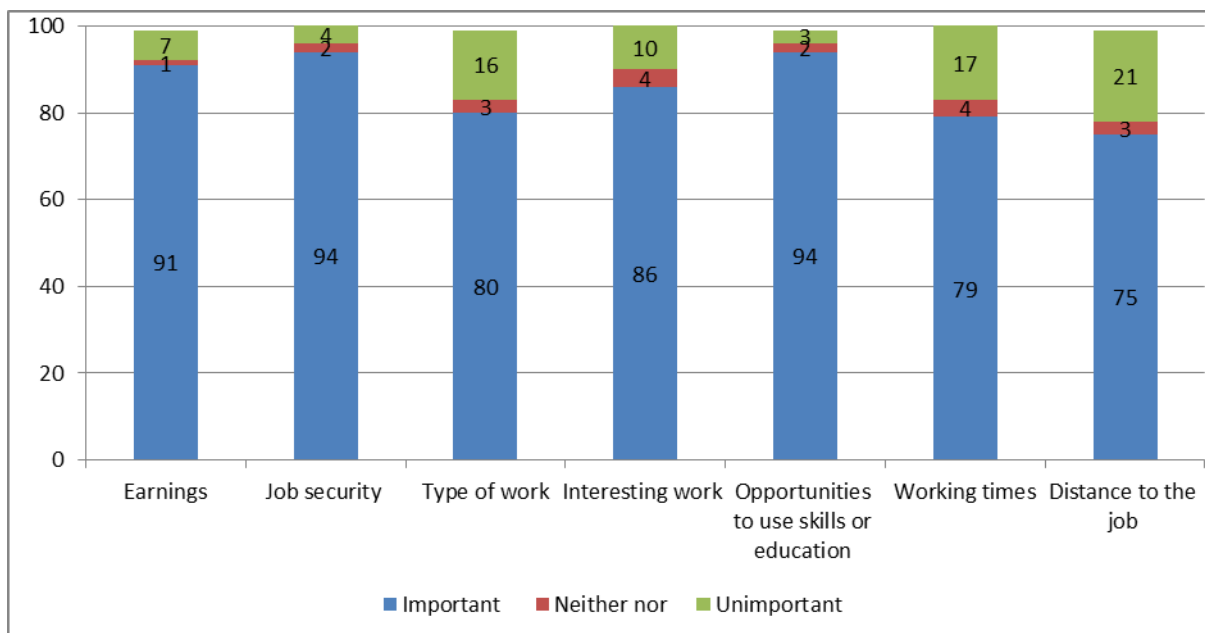
Understanding what work-seekers prioritise and where they place value in different aspects of a job provides insight into the individual and environmental factors responsible for the work-seeker's decision to participate or not participate in the labour market. This would better our understanding of the nature and source of work-seekers work values - that which individuals believe should be satisfied as a result of their performing a work role.

Respondents were also asked if they would be willing to accept so-called 'dirty jobs' that involve working in areas that are highly polluted, or risky (with the presence of dangerous machines, chemically hazardous or inflammable material). We expected their responses to differ across the different segments of the population.

### **6.1. Job attributes regarded as important**

The study evaluated eight aspects relating to work values on a 3-point scale (ranging from important to unimportant). This was asked of the entire work-seeker population - whether currently employed or not.

Work-seekers were asked to indicate the extent to which the following aspects are important or unimportant in a job: earnings; job security; type of work; interesting job; opportunities to use one’s skills or education; working hours (day/ night shift); and distance to the job. On the basis of the dual conception of the characteristics of work, i.e. intrinsic and extrinsic work characteristics: earnings, security, and distance to a job will be regarded as extrinsic characteristics. Type of work, opportunities to use one’s skills or education and working times will be taken as intrinsic characteristics of work (features of a job that are a means to another end). Figure presents the percentage distribution of responses to the question.

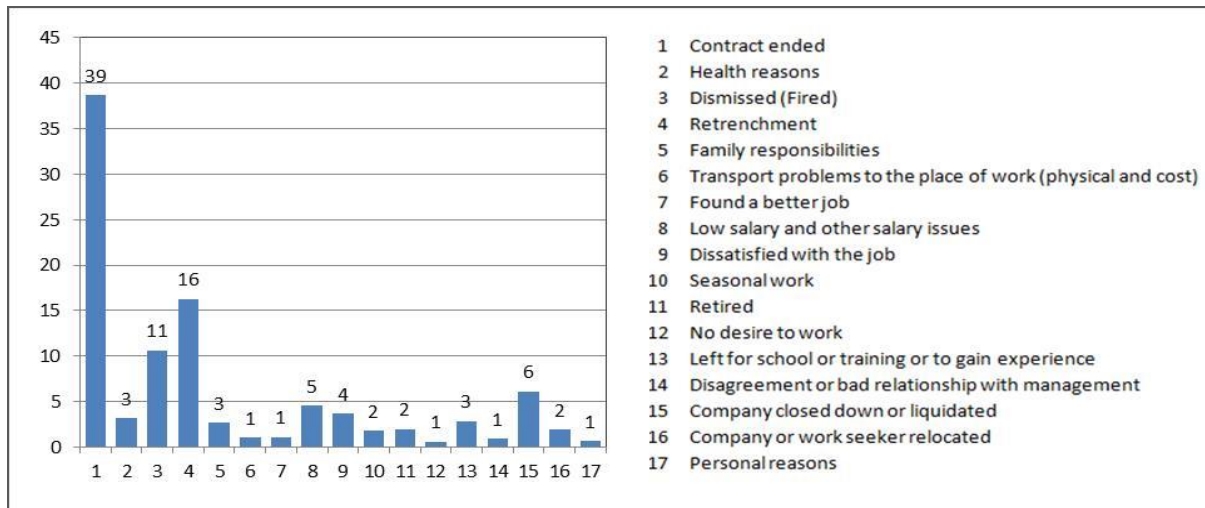


**Figure 6.1: Job attributes and perception of importance**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Work-seekers perceived all stated aspects of a job as important and the proportions ranged from 75% to 94%. The three most cited aspects of work, in order of importance, were: job security; opportunities to use one’s set of existing skills and education; and salary. In the context of persistent unemployment, work scarcity and the growing forms of non-standard employment, it is expected that work-seekers would prefer employment that offers more, security rather than flexible work arrangements. These could also be those in short term employment and aspiring for long term contracts. The data shows that most work-seekers

who have work experience, but who are not currently working, lost their jobs due to their a contract ending (39%) (Figure ). Only 3% indicated that they had left a job due to re-entering school, undergoing training or to gain other work experience. More than a quarter (27%) left their previous job because of retrenchment or dismissal. Six percent lost their jobs due to liquidation or closing down of the company.



**Figure 6.2: Work-seekers who are currently not in employment, but who have work experience and main reason for leaving**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

The opportunity to use one’s stock of skills would have been important amongst work-seekers who have occupational skill and experience but lack formal education and accompanying certification. This segment is more likely to struggle to find employment, due to the increased likelihood of a mismatch between available offers from employers and the skills they possess. Earnings was the third highest aspect of work cited as important, which signifies that wages are still a premium condition in a decision to participate in the labour market or not. After all, Kallerberg et al. (2000) pointed out that wages are an essential determinant of job quality. The three characteristics of a job cited by a large majority as being important are often absent in the so-called ‘good jobs’ and particularly in the sectors of interest: agriculture, hospitality and security. ‘Bad jobs’ or ‘dirty jobs’ have been described as those jobs that have meagre pay and fringe benefits, low status, potential danger and a lack of upward mobility (Huddle, 1883:515).

Almost nine in ten work-seekers interviewed perceived the extent to which the job is ‘interesting’ as being important. This suggests that work-seekers are concerned about the overall experience of engaging in a work activity, thus signifying the importance of a match



between the work-seeker's personality and the characteristics of a job: work-seekers are therefore (to a certain extent) more likely to choose work where they see opportunities for a positive work experience.

About eight in ten work-seekers interviewed indicated that 'type of work' is also an important aspect of a job. The parameter 'type of work' was taken to refer to the nature and overall characteristics of a job. This is an important measure in discerning reasons why work-seekers are reluctant to accept some opportunities for work. Work-seekers were less concerned about distance to a job and working hours, with such sentiments ranging between 75% and 79%.

The next section presents a socio-demographic analysis of perceptions of the seven aspects of work that are highlighted in this study.

### 6.1.1. Opportunity to use skills and education

Table presents characteristics of work-seekers disaggregated by perception of the importance of the job aspect 'opportunity to use one's skills and education'.

**Table 6.1: Opportunity to use one's skills and education by work-seeker characteristics**

	Important	Neither/ Nor	Unimportant	Total
South Africa	94	3	3	100
<b>Age group</b>				
16-24 years	95	2	3	100
25-34 years	95	2	3	100
35-44 years	95	2	3	100
45 years and above	88	7	4	100
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	95	2	3	100
Female	95	2	3	100
<b>Population group</b>				
Black African	95	2	3	100
Coloured	93	3	3	100
Indian	92	5	4	100
White	92	3	5	100
<b>Education completed</b>				
None/ below Grade 3	81	10	10	100
Some primary to Grade 7	92	5	3	100
Some secondary	94	2	6	100
Matric/ Grade 12	96	2	3	100
Post School	97		3	100
<b>Employment status</b>				
Employed	94	2	3	100
Unemployed	94	3	3	100
<b>Expanded employment status</b>				
In paid work & have never worked before	92	4	4	100
In paid work & have worked before	95	2	3	100
Not in paid work & have worked before	94	3	4	100
Have never had a paid job	94	3	3	100

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

The national pattern is consistent for all sub-groupings, with an over-whelming majority indicating that the ability to utilise one's skills and education is an important aspect of work. There were, however, some notable variations when analysing the responses by work-seeker level of education and by age. A notable gradient of differences emerges in the perceptions of the older group (45 and above) when compared to the entire work-seeker population. The older segment of the population (45 and above) had lower expectations than all other age groups who perceived the ability to use one's skills and education as a priority (88% compared to 95%). This older category contained a higher proportion of respondents (8%) who were uncertain about the extent to which this aspect is important. Higher proportions of work-seekers who perceived this aspect to be unimportant were found amongst work-seekers with no education or low levels of education. Again, it should be noted that a significant 10% said this aspect was neither important nor unimportant.

### **6.1.2. Type of work**

The national results show that whilst an overwhelming 80% saw 'type of work' as important, a notable 17% of work-seekers did not perceive this aspect of work as 'important'. Although modest, there are important nuances that emerge in the differences between the various sub-groupings. There are marginal differences in perceptions when analysing by gender. However, with regard to age, a higher proportion of those who said 'neither nor' were in the '45 and above' age category. A notable race gradient is also evident, with about 82% of Blacks, 78% coloured, and 79% Indian seeing this aspect as important. A significantly lower proportion (67%) of Whites shared this sentiment; whilst a dominant share of those perceiving this aspect as 'unimportant' was from this segment of the population (20%) (Table ).

Stronger sentiments stating this aspect as important were over-represented amongst those with an education level above Grade 3. Those with no formal education or lower levels of education were less likely to see this aspect as important. These people were more likely to say 'neither nor' (10%) compared to others.

Those seeing this aspect as important were over-represented amongst those in employment (85%), with lower proportions of those without jobs (78%) citing it as important.

In summary, the type of job was not as important for older, white, lower qualified respondents and those employed at the time of the survey.

**Table 6.2: Type of work and work-seeker characteristics**

	<b>Important</b>	<b>Neither/ Nor</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Total</b>
South Africa	80	3	17	100
<b>Age group</b>				
16-24 years	80	2	18	100
25-34 years	80	2	18	100
35-44 years	82	3	15	100
45 years and above	77	9	13	100
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	81	3	16	100
Female	80	3	17	100
<b>Population group</b>				
Black African	82	2	17	100
Coloured	78	5	17	100
Indian	79	7	14	100
White	67	13	20	100
<b>Education completed</b>				
None/ below Grade 3	74	10	13	100
Some primary to Grade 7	84	3	13	100
Some secondary	82	2	17	100
Matric/ Grade 12	80	3	18	100
Post School	80	3	17	100
<b>Employment status</b>				
Employed	85	5	11	100
Unemployed	78	3	18	100
<b>Expanded employ. status</b>				
In paid work & have never worked before	82	6	12	100
In paid work & have worked before	86	3	11	100
Not in paid work & have worked before	78	3	18	100
Have never had a paid job	81	2	17	100

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

### 6.1.3. Working hours

Again, the national response pattern to ‘working hours’ is consistent for all sub-groupings (Table ). There are, however, some notable variations in the representation of those who perceived this aspect to be ‘unimportant’. Work-seekers perceiving this aspect to be ‘unimportant’ were largely 16-24 years old, with over –one-fifth (22%) citing it as not important. These sentiments were also over-represented amongst Coloureds (26%), Whites (20%), those with post-school education and those who have never had a job (21%). On the other hand, the hours of work impacted significantly on those in the 34-44 years old age group. A notable gender gradient also emerged, as more females were more concerned about ‘hours of work’. Females could be concerned about the pattern of working hours because of domestic and family responsibilities.

**Table 6.3: Working hours and work-seeker characteristics**

	<b>Important</b>	<b>Neither/ Nor</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Total</b>
South Africa	79	4	17	100
<b>Age group</b>				

16-24 years	75	2	22	100
25-34 years	78	3	18	100
35-44 years	82	3	15	100
45 years and above	79	7	14	100
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	77	4	19	100
Female	81	3	16	100
<b>Population group</b>				
Black African	81	2	16	100
Coloured	67	6	26	100
Indian	72	9	19	100
White	70	10	20	100
<b>Education completed</b>				
None/ below Grade 3	80	10	10	100
Some primary to Grade 7	86	4	9	100
Some secondary	82	3	15	100
Matric/ Grade 12	78	3	19	100
Post-school	73	2	25	100
<b>Employment status</b>				
Employed	80	5	15	100
Unemployed	78	3	18	100
<b>Expanded employ. status</b>				
In paid work & have never worked before	76	8	16	100
In paid work & have worked before	81	4	15	100
Not in paid work & have worked before	79	3	18	100
Have never had a paid job	75	4	21	100

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

#### 6.1.4. Distance to and from the workplace

Notable nuances emerged regarding work-seekers' thoughts on the importance of distance to and from a job (Table ). Importance attached to this aspect of a job increased with age. Distance to work seemed to matter most (83%) to the older work-seekers (45 and above). On the contrary, when disaggregated by education level, the importance of distance to work: seemed to matter more to those with a lower education standard than matric (over 80%); and tended to be weaker amongst those with matric and a post-school education. One of the reasons for work-seekers with a low education being concerned about distance to work might be 'affordability'. Jobs that are closer to their homes would be more desirable, as this would mean less resources being spent on transport. Distance to work was also an important consideration for white work-seekers (81%). Notably, higher proportions of those who perceived this aspect to matter were significantly over-represented amongst those who are employed (80%). On the contrary, those who are not currently working were more likely to hold a perception that distance to work is an 'unimportant' factor - possibly because distance manifests as a concrete factor once a job is offered.

**Table 6.4: Distance to and from the job, and work-seeker characteristics**

	Important	Neither/ Nor	Unimportant	Total
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South Africa	74	3	24	100
<b>Age group</b>				
16-24 years	72	3	25	100
25-34 years	73	3	23	100
35-44 years	77	3	20	100
45 years and above	83	4	14	100
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	75	3	22	100
Female	76	3	21	100
<b>Population group</b>				
Black African	76	2	22	100
Coloured	70	7	23	100
Indian	74	7	19	100
White	81	4	14	100
<b>Education completed</b>				
None/ below Grade 3	81	6	13	100
Some primary to Grade 7	85	4	10	100
Some secondary	81	3	16	100
Matric/ Grade 12	74	3	24	100
Post-school	64	3	33	100
<b>Employment status</b>				
Employed	80	3	17	100
Unemployed	74	3	22	100
<b>Expanded employment status</b>				
In paid work & have never worked before	80	3	17	100
In paid work & have worked before	80	3	18	100
Not in paid work & have worked before	75	3	22	100
Have never had a paid job	73	2	25	100

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

### 6.1.5. Earnings

Priority attached to ‘earnings’ as an aspect of a job was less crucial for the younger (16-24) group of work-seekers, 13% of whom indicated that this aspect of work is ‘unimportant’ (Table ). Higher proportions of those who did not place a premium on earnings in a job were found amongst: those with a post-school qualification (14%); and those who have never worked before (12%). This is far above the national average of 7%.

**Table 6.5: Earnings and work-seeker characteristics**

	<b>Important</b>	<b>Neither/ Nor</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Total</b>
South Africa	91	2	7	100
<b>Age group</b>				
16-24 years	86	1	13	100
25-34 years	92	1	7	100
35-44 years	94	1	5	100
45 years and above	92	3	6	100
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	92	1	7	100
Female	91	1	8	100
<b>Population group</b>				
Black African	91	1	8	100
Coloured	93	1	5	100
Indian	95	2	2	100
White	96	2	3	100

	Important	Neither/ Nor	Unimportant	Total
<b>Education completed</b>				
None/ below Grade 3	90	3	7	100
Some primary to Grade 7	94	1	5	100
Some secondary	94	1	5	100
Matric/ Grade 12	90	1	7	100
Post-school	86	2	12	100
<b>Employment status</b>				
Employed	93	1	6	100
Unemployed	91	2	8	100
<b>Expanded employment status</b>				
In paid work & have never worked before	91	1	8	100
In paid work & have worked before	93	1	6	100
Not in paid work & have worked before	91	2	7	100
Have never had a paid job	85	1	14	100

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

### 6.1.6. Security

The socio-demographic analysis shows overwhelming importance attached to job security in the job (Table ). Even though marginal differences emerged across the different sub-groupings, an important gradient of perceptions exist when looking at the data according to employment status. Employed work-seekers, who are currently in their first jobs, were the least likely to place emphasis on job security. The same pattern emerges when comparing level of education completed by work-seekers: those with no education or lower levels of education (84%) did not feel that job security is such an important aspect of a job.

Table 6.6: Security and work-seeker characteristics

	Important	Neither/ Nor	Unimportant	Total
South Africa	94	2	3	100
<b>Age group</b>				
16-24 years	95	2	3	100
25-34 years	94	1	4	100
35-44 years	95	1	4	100
45 years and above	91	7	2	100
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	93	2	4	100
Female	95	2	3	100
<b>Population group</b>				
Black African	95	1	4	100
Coloured	94	3	3	100
Indian	95		5	100
White	96		4	100
<b>Education completed</b>				
None/ below Grade 3	84	10	6	100
Some primary to Grade 7	93	5	2	100
Some secondary	95	1	4	100
Matric/ Grade 12	95	1	4	100
Post-school	95	2	3	100
<b>Employment status</b>				
Employed	91	4	5	100
Unemployed	95	2	3	100
<b>Expanded employ. status</b>				

	<b>Important</b>	<b>Neither/ Nor</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Total</b>
In paid work & have never worked before	88	6	6	100
In paid work & have worked before	92	3	4	100
Not in paid work & have worked before	94	2	3	100
Have never had a paid job	96	2	2	100

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

### 6.1.7. Interesting job

There was general agreement that this is a very important aspect of work, as affirmed by 86% of respondents across the various sub-groupings, with negligible differences emerging in terms of dimensions such as age, gender, population group and employment status (Table ). However, work-seekers who were currently employed, or had worked before were more likely to place emphasis on the extent to which the job is interesting. Contrarily, work-seekers with no education or lower levels of education were not bothered about whether or not the job is interesting.

**Table 6.7: Interesting job and work-seeker characteristics**

	<b>Important</b>	<b>Neither Nor</b>	<b>Unimportant</b>	<b>Total</b>
South Africa	86	4	10	100
<b>Age group</b>				
16-24 years	84	2	14	100
25-34 years	87	2	10	100
35-44 years	86	5	9	100
45 years and above	83	10	8	100
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	87	4	9	100
Female	85	3	12	100
<b>Population group</b>				
Black African	86	2	11	100
Coloured	88	7	6	100
Indian	81	11	7	100
White	81	11	8	100
<b>Education completed</b>				
None/ below Grade 3	77	8	13	100
Some primary to Grade 7	85	6	8	100
Some secondary	86	3	10	100
Matric/ Grade 12	86	2	11	100
Post-school	86	3	11	100
<b>Employment status</b>				
Employed	89	4	7	100
Unemployed	84	4	11	100
<b>Expanded employ. status</b>				
In paid work & have never worked before	83	6	12	100
In paid work & have worked before	90	3	6	100
Not in paid work & have worked before	85	4	11	100
Have never had a paid job	82	3	15	100

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

## 6.2. Work-seeker willingness to work under extreme conditions

To further understand factors that are responsible for work-seekers' choice of job and occupation, work-seekers were asked to indicate the extent to which they were willing to accept employment that would subject them to extreme and uncomfortable environmental conditions (Table and Figure ). They had to indicate if they would accept employment where they would be exposed to the following:

- immense air pollution
- where it is too hot or too cold
- where they will work high up or below ground level
- dangerous machines
- Hazardous material, or inflammable or explosive material.

**Table 6.8: Willingness to work under extreme conditions**

	Yes		No		Maybe		Total
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Air pollution (dust, smoke, gas, fumes)	1928	66	801	27	205	7	2934
Too much heat	2071	71	696	24	168	6	2934
Too much cold	2098	71	655	22	182	6	2934
Too much noise	2249	77	514	18	171	6	2934
Up high or below ground level	2089	71	581	20	264	9	2934
Dangerous machines	1999	68	813	28	122	4	2934
Chemically hazardous materials	1993	68	829	28	113	4	2934
Inflammable or explosive materials	1921	65	923	31	90	3	2934

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Table shows that work-seekers were prepared to accept employment under the various adverse working conditions. Over six in ten interviewees responded positively. It is nevertheless evident that work-seekers indicated that they would be more tolerant of working in conditions where they were exposed to heat or extreme cold or in very noisy environments. Work-seekers were clearly less tolerant of entertaining the prospect of working with dangerous machines, or with chemically hazardous materials (68% each). They were significantly intolerant to work in environments where they would be exposed to air pollution (66%) or inflammable (explosive) materials.



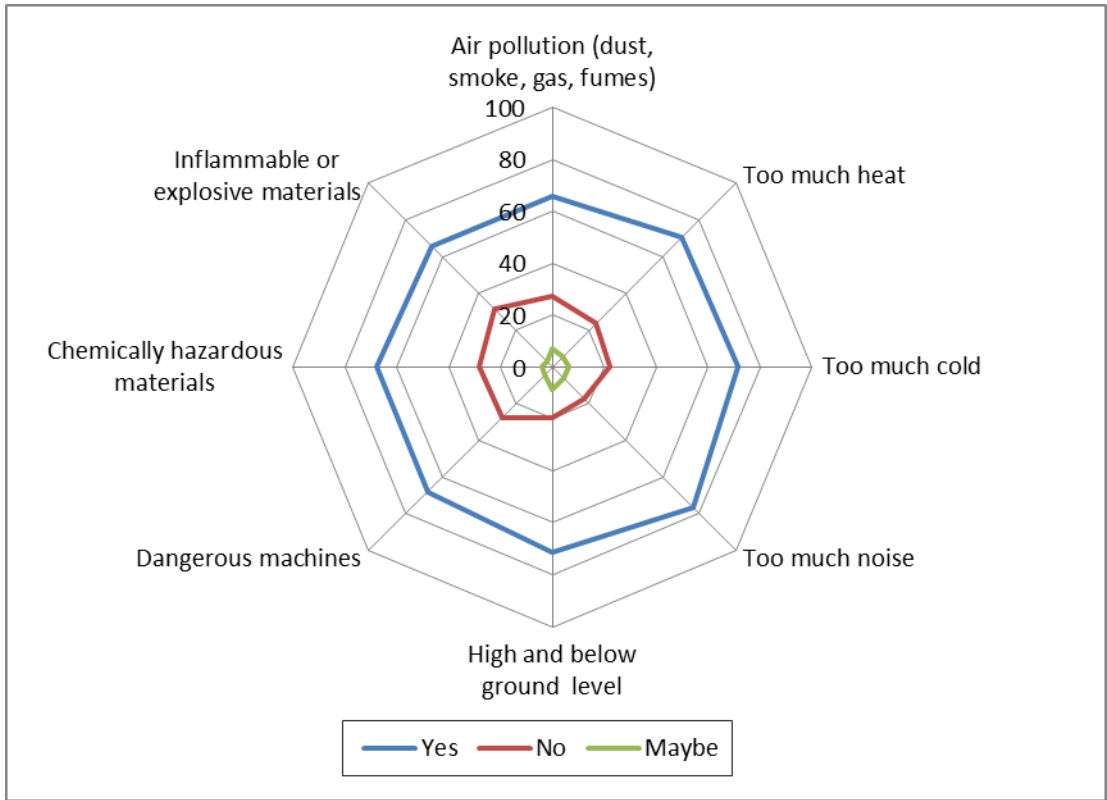


Figure 6.3: Extreme working conditions and work-seeker characteristics

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

### 6.3. Work-seeker perceptions about work and work preferences

Given the important role of perceptions in informing work preferences, work-seeker perceptions of working conditions were explored through a series of questions. Work-seekers’ perceptions of various facets of working conditions were given attention, such as: earnings, security, type of work, working hours, distance to work, opportunities to use skills and education. Also, the instrument permitted analysis of the conditions under which work-seekers would be prepared to work. Work-seeker responses therefore included responses to various conditions in the work environment such as: air pollution; adverse temperatures; too much noise; and the proximity of dangerous machines, or hazardous, materials. Further, work-seeker inclinations that were evaluated included: work-seeker willingness to take jobs that would pay less than expected; work-seeker preparedness to migrate to another area; job requirements for the work-seeker to work on weekends and holidays; or willingness to take jobs for which they were not trained.

A PCA was conducted on nineteen questions related to preferences and perceptions of work-seekers towards work, so as to reduce the number of variables and generate categories of variables for ease of analysis and clarity. The PCA extracted six components that explained 58% of the variance in the sample. The results of the PCA are presented in Table and Table .

**Table 6.9: Results of a PCA on the variables perceptions and preferences about work**

<i>Component</i>	<i>Initial Eigen values</i>			<i>Extraction Sum of Squared Loadings</i>			<i>Rotation Sum of Squared Loadings</i>		
	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>% of Variance</i>	<i>Cumulative %</i>
1	4.223	22.229	22.229	4.223	22.229	22.229	2.846	14.978	14.978
2	2.221	11.691	33.919	2.221	11.691	33.919	2.228	11.724	26.702
3	1.343	7.069	40.988	1.343	7.069	40.988	1.878	9.885	36.587
4	1.206	6.349	47.337	1.206	6.349	47.337	1.693	8.912	45.499
5	1.100	5.787	53.123	1.100	5.787	53.123	1.412	7.434	52.933
6	1.012	5.325	58.448	1.012	5.325	58.448	1.048	5.515	58.448
7	.881	4.638	63.086						
8	.818	4.303	67.389						
9	.764	4.022	71.411						
10	.729	3.837	75.248						
11	.672	3.539	78.787						
12	.641	3.375	82.161						
13	.604	3.178	85.340						
14	.588	3.094	88.434						
15	.576	3.030	91.464						
16	.520	2.735	94.199						
17	.397	2.088	96.287						
18	.386	2.031	98.318						
19	.320	1.682	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The variables included in the extracted components are displayed in Table . New variables were created, based on the six components. The newly created variables (components) were tested for reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and were found to be reliable. The new variables were named as follows: Component 1: Poor environmental factors (5 items;  $\alpha = .80$ ); Component 2: Dangerous, hazardous, inflammable or explosive factors (3 items;  $\alpha = .84$ ); Component 3: Opportunity to use skills, job security, interesting job or type of job (4 items;  $\alpha = .58$ ); Component 4: Lower salary, need to migrate, work on weekends/ holidays or a skills mismatch (4 items;  $\alpha = .52$ ); Component 5: Distance to job and working hours (2 items;  $\alpha = .54$ ); Component 6: Earnings/ Salary.

**Table 6.10: Rotated component Matrix**

Variables	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Too much heat	.810					
Too much cold	.791					
Too much noise	.725					
Air pollution	.661					
Up high or below ground level	.555					
Chemically hazardous materials		.833				
Inflammable or explosive materials		.827				
Dangerous machines		.802				
Opportunities to use skills or education			.709			
Job security			.658			
Interesting job			.651			
Type of job			.616			
To accept less pay than you expect				.687		
You move to another area				.665		
You need to work on weekends and holidays				.633		
Skills for which you have not been trained				.486		
Distance to job					.813	
Working hours					.686	
Your earnings						.858

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Descriptive statistics of the new variables revealed that work-seekers perceived earnings or salary as the most important factor to consider when pursuing employment. The second most important factors are the type of job and the suitability of the work-seeker's skills for the job, i.e. opportunity to use their skills, job security, or interesting jobs or preferred type of job. The responses further reveal that work-seekers would rather work weekends and holidays, accept a lower salary, migrate or accept a job that required skills which they did not have, than commute long distances and work under dangerous, unpleasant environmental circumstances.

#### **6.4. Conclusions**

Analysis of work-seeker preferences reveals that there are certain job attributes that they consider most important. The three highest ranked attributes are jobs that provide them with: opportunities to use their own skills and education; job security; and earnings. These are closely followed by another valued attribute, i.e. work that is interesting.

However, though these attributes are ranked highly, on average, by all work-seekers, there are differences among work-seekers in their valuation of job attributes. For example, respondents with a limited education background - in this case none or below Grade 3 - rate the opportunity to use one's skills and education well below the average. The same group is also less concerned about the 'type of work' that they have to do - perhaps indicating recognition that their restricted educational background limits their choice of job and even the kind of security of tenure or intrinsic 'interest' that it offers. The same category of work-seekers (with low-skills levels) will probably only find low paying employment; therefore they will want to limit travel costs, making distance to and from the job very important to them. In contrast, this attribute is less likely to trouble workers with a post-school qualification, who (as higher earners) may not find travel costs a significant drain on their resources. For the same reason, these work-seekers show less concern about the salary characteristic. While working hours are considered an important attribute, especially for work-seekers with some primary education to Grade 7 education, this is much less important for 16-24 year-olds and those who have never had a paid job. Thus, prioritization of job attributes shifts, depending on labour market position, with inexperienced and younger work-seekers prepared to sacrifice some attributes in order to become employed. The analysis above and the selected examples discussed in this conclusion reveals that work-seekers are willing to compromise on desired attributes of a job, based on an appraisal of their location of relative strength or weakness in the job market. This tendency seems to contrast with claims regarding work-seeker refusals to take jobs.

This chapter factored 'extreme' work conditions into the mix of work attributes to which workers are were requested to respond. A consistent pattern of responses is observed, with about two-thirds of workers willing to work under all conditions presented in the instrument.

Statistical analysis of nineteen questions relating to work attributes perceived by work-seekers revealed that work-seekers perceived earnings or salary as the most important factor to consider when pursuing employment. The second most important factors relate to the type of job and the suitability of the work-seeker's skills for the job, i.e. opportunity to use their skills, job security, interesting jobs or preferred types of job.

## **CHAPTER 7. ASSESSING WORK-SEEKER RELUCTANCE TO ACCEPT JOB OPPORTUNITIES**

### **7.1. Introduction**

Anecdotal evidence points to a perceived reluctance on the part of low-skilled segments of the unemployed population to accept employment in some priority economic sectors, including agriculture, hospitality and security. One of the functions of the work-seeker survey was to explore this occurrence through canvassing work-seekers directly regarding their experience of job-offers and how they responded to the offers - and specifically with reference to whether or not they had refused such offers.

### **7.2. Results of the survey**

According to the work-seekers' survey results: only 2.1% (62 out of 2934 individuals) of work-seekers had received a job opportunity offer from an employer through the ESSA system: only 1.6% (47 individuals) accepted the offered job opportunity.

The review of the literature suggests that, on average, 2.3% of the ESSA registered work-seekers were placed in employment annually, over the period 2007/08 to the first quarter of 2010/11, by linking registered work-seekers to available employer-registered work opportunities (Rasool, 2010; Ramutloa, 2013).

Analyses of the relationships of the group that received job opportunities with other characteristics revealed statistically significant results only for the association with age groups:  $\chi^2(3, N = 2934) = 14.33, p = .002$ .

Table provides information on the characteristics investigated. Evidently, no significant difference between the group who received job opportunities and the group who have not received job opportunities in terms of gender, race and qualification level was noted.

The percentage of work-seekers who had received a job offer was: 82% African; 12% coloured; 1% Indian; and 4% white. More men (55%) than women (45%) had received a job offer. Forty percent - more than one-third - of this group had lower than a Grade 12 level qualification; 45% had a qualification equal to Grade 12; and 15% reached post-school qualification level. Comparative figures for the total sample are, respectively: 45%, 39% and

16%. Age analysis revealed that 75% of this group was younger than 35 – compared to a portion of 57% of this age group in the total survey. Almost one-third (32%) of work-seekers who received opportunities were employed at the time of the survey, compared to only 24% of the group who did not receive an offer.

**Table 7.1: Characteristics of the 62 work-seekers who had been offered a job opportunity through the DoL’s ESSA database**

	Offered opportunity from ESSA	No offer from ESSA	Total
<b>Gender:</b>			
Female	45	45	45
Male	55	55	55
Total	100	100	100
<b>Race group:</b>			
African	82	82	82
Coloured	15	12	12
Indian	0	1	1
White	3	4	4
Total	100	100	100
<b>Age group:</b>			
16-24 years	35	19	19
25-34 years	40	38	38
35-44 years	11	26	26
45 and above	14	17	17
Total	100	100	100
<b>Qualification level:</b>			
None or below Grade 3	0	1	1
Some Primary schooling - up to Grade 7	3	8	8
Some Secondary schooling	37	37	37
Matric/ Grade 12	45	39	39
Post-school	15	16	16
Total	100	100	100
<b>Employment status:</b>			
Currently employed	32	24	24
Currently unemployed	68	76	76
Total	100	100	100
<b>Province:</b>			
Eastern Cape	10	11	11
Free State	11	6	6
Gauteng	22	24	24
KwaZulu-Natal	13	18	18
Limpopo	11	11	11
Mpumalanga	14	10	10
North West Province	0	5	5
Northern Cape	0	3	3
Western Cape	19	13	13
Total	100	100	100

*Note: Due to rounding, not all totals add up to exactly 100.*

At the time of the survey, 68% of the group who received offers from ESSA were unemployed. The sources of support for survival that they used included: ‘piece work’ for payment in kind (48%); pension in family (29%); foster care grant (7%); cash/ food/ clothing from family or friends (7%); and other means, such as support from savings or retirement package, and selling clothes or farm products (9%).

Regarding their general attitude to work and earning an income, more than two-thirds (64% - compared to 62% of the total sample) said that they would enjoy having a paid job, even if they did not need the money.

A provincial analysis showed that job offers were not proportionately spread across provinces (Figure ). Work-seekers in the Free State, Mpumalanga and the Western Cape received the most job offers, whilst work-seekers in Eastern Cape, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Northern Cape received lower proportions of job offers, in relation to the provincial share of the total sample.

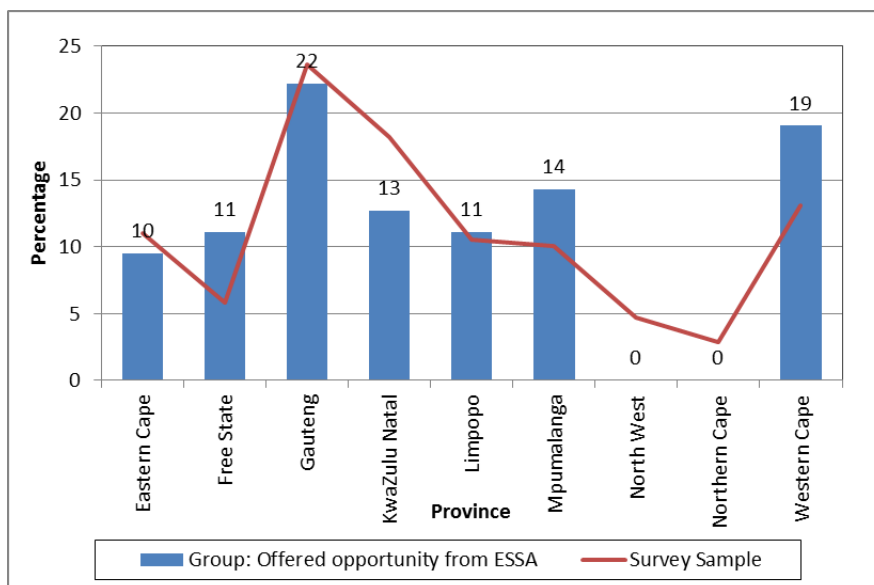


Figure 7.1: Work-seekers and: job opportunities provided; and province

A wide variety of job offers were made to the 62 work-seekers, for example, employment in the banking sector, artisanal types of occupations (carpenter, welder, electrician, steel cutter, etc.), jobs in construction, general workers, retail workers, cleaners, landscapers, etc. (Table ).

Table 7.2: List of job opportunities offered to 62 work-seekers

Offered opportunity	Percentage
Administration	2
Assistant general worker	2
Assistant welder	4
Bank teller	2
Carpenter	2
Cashier	4
Cleaner	6
Clerk	2
Computer training	2
Construction	4
Driver	5

<b>Offered opportunity</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Factory worker	5
Foam worker	2
General worker	10
Graduate programme	2
Homework assistant	2
Internship at SAA	2
Landscaper	2
Learnership	10
Librarian	2
Packer	3
Plumber	2
Project artisan	2
Receptionist	2
Security guard	4
Shop worker	12
Steel cutter	2
Youth project	2
Total	100

Respondents reported declining offers for the following types of job: receptionist, administrative worker, cashier), carpenter, furniture shop assistant, painter, librarian, waiter, security guard and general worker.

Reasons provided by work-seekers for declining the offers include the following: “Below my level”; “Didn’t decline - failed the assessment test”; “Distance reasons”; “Do not like hospitality”; “Don’t have the skills”; “I was doing my driver’s license”; “I was not ready because I had gone back to school”; “I was working; It was a voluntary service”; “It was too far”; “It’s not my type of job”; “They did not call me back after the offer”; “They need 2 years’ experience”; “Was already working somewhere”; “Was busy with other work”; “Was busy with a learnership”; “Was far from the offer”; “Was not around”.

In summary, the reasons for refusal could be classified as responses to job offers that: required higher or lower qualifications or skills levels than what the work-seeker possessed; or the job offer required working experience that the work-seeker did not have; or the geographical location of the job offer was not suitable; or the work-seeker was already committed to another job or training programme; or the work-seeker’s occupational preference was not met.

### **7.3. Conclusions**

Thus, the evidence generated does not directly support a finding that work-seekers were or were not consistently reluctant to take employment in sectors like agriculture, security and



hospitality. Very few work-seekers have been offered an opportunity. Those that declined a job offer declined due to reasons other than reluctance to work in a particular sector.

## **CHAPTER 8. ASSESSING WORK-SEEKER ORIENTATION TO WORK IN SELECTED ECONOMIC SECTORS**

### **8.1. Introduction**

In South Africa, in addition to the formation of attitudes to occupations and jobs, work-seekers also develop perceptions about sectors. Perceptions and valuation of sectors and occupations among work-seekers are explored from a number of dimensions in this chapter.

First, the aim is to elicit responses regarding the willingness of respondents to recommend or refer jobs in particular sectors to friends.

Second, the intention is to conduct socio-demographic analysis of attitudes towards working in each of the targeted sectors: agriculture, hospitality and security. The aim here is to look in more detail at how characteristics of work-seekers may produce differences in position adopted regarding work in the sectors.

Third, the analysis is focused on a question about perceptions of personal dignity associated with working in a particular occupation.

### **8.2. Willingness to refer friends, and willingness to work in selected sectors**

The aim is to elicit responses regarding the willingness of respondents to recommend or refer jobs in particular sectors to friends. This approach was adopted in recognition of how perceptions of sectoral work are shared and formed through interactions in family and social networks. The responses to this approach might reveal shared perceptions that are valid for social groups as well as individuals. The assumption is that work-seekers would not recommend a job to a family member or associate unless this option was sufficiently well regarded within that social context. Work-seekers were asked:

1) If they would consider encouraging friends and relatives to work in the following sectors: agriculture, construction, hospitality, security and mining. 2) If they would personally consider working in these sectors.

Table and Figure present the findings in this regard.

**Table 8.1: Referring family members or acquaintances to selected sectors**

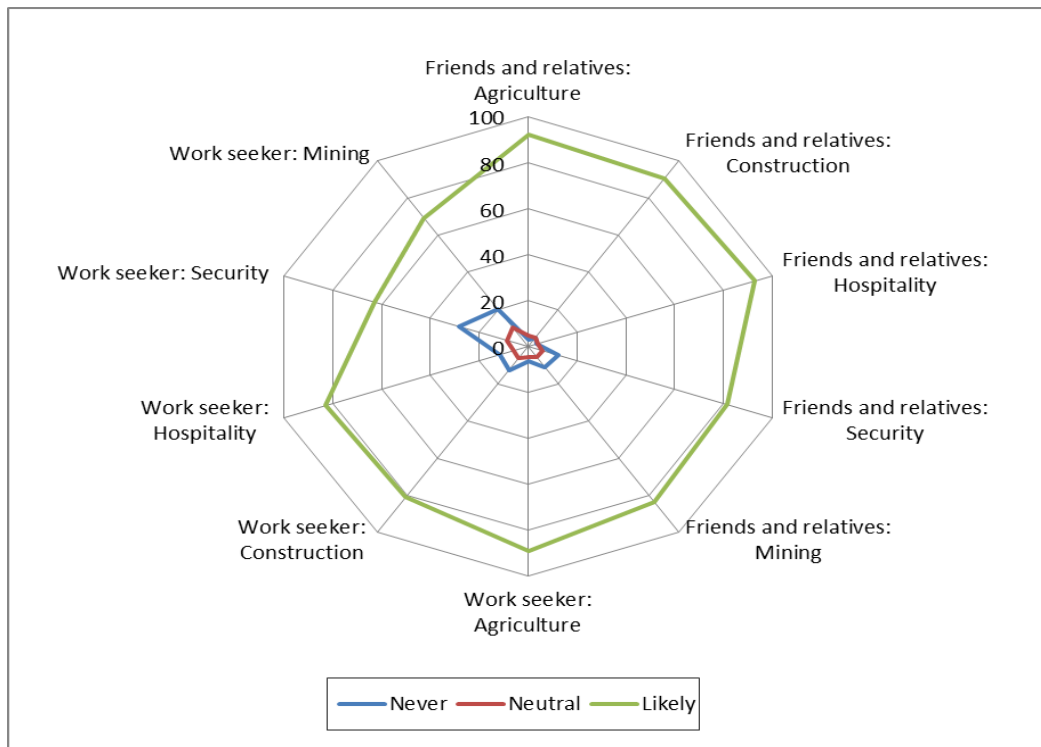
	Never		Neutral		Likely		Total
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Friends and relatives: Agriculture	89	3	139	5	2706	92	2934
Friends and relatives: Construction	149	5	137	5	2648	90	2934
Friends and relatives: Hospitality	105	4	114	4	2715	93	2934
Friends and relatives: Security	368	13	176	6	2390	81	2934
Friends and relatives: Mining	322	11	165	6	2446	83	2933
Work-seeker: Agriculture	190	6	140	5	2605	89	2935
Work-seeker: Construction	376	13	183	6	2375	81	2934
Work-seeker: Hospitality	329	11	175	6	2430	83	2934
Work-seeker: Security	827	28	259	9	1848	63	2934
Work-seeker: Mining	597	20	307	10	2029	69	2933

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

High proportions of work-seekers (above 90%) indicated that they were prepared to make referrals for jobs in agriculture and hospitality, but to a markedly lesser extent in security (81%). The proportions willing to refer friends and relatives to work in security and mining are slightly lower - ranging between 81% and 83%.

Willingness to accept jobs in agriculture (89%), hospitality (83%) and construction (81%) is much higher in comparison with willingness to accept jobs in the mining (69%) and security (63%) industries. It is interesting to note that almost one-third (28%) of work-seekers explicitly indicated that they would ‘never’ accept employment in the security sector. From the responses of work-seekers, there is clearly a distinction made in their minds between the acceptability of working in the three sectors of interest to this study, with agriculture and then hospitality preferred in comparison with security.

Work-seekers were more than willing to refer their family members or acquaintances to jobs in the various sectors, but were less expansive when the question was directed to personal willingness to work in the sectors.



**Figure 8.1: Preference to work in selected sectors**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

The next section takes a closer look at the extent to which work-seekers favour work in the security, hospitality and agriculture sectors, according to socio-demographic characteristics. Work available for semi-skilled and unskilled work-seekers in these industries typically contains elements of precariousness (perceived to be insecure and low paid) and lend these jobs to being classified as ‘dirty jobs’. It is therefore expected that age, level of education and gender of work-seekers will significantly influence willingness to participate in their sectors.

### **8.3. Socio-demographic analysis of attitudes toward agriculture, hospitality and security**

The next section describes the patterns of respondent willingness to work in the agriculture, hospitality and security sectors according to gender, education and age of the work-seekers. The analysis will focus on the extent to which work-seekers stated it was ‘likely’ that they would take a job, as opposed to stating ‘never’ or taking a ‘neutral’ stance.

#### **8.3.1. Expressed preference regarding working in the agriculture sector**

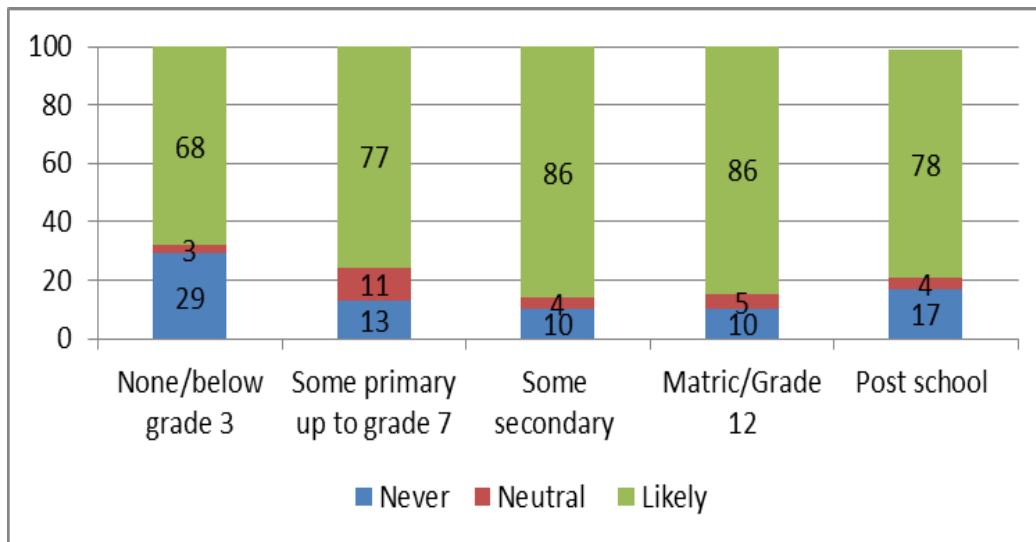
- Slightly fewer females (88%) indicated interest in participating in agricultural work than did males (91%).

- In terms of age, the youth (16-24 years old) appear to be less interested in agriculture as a source of employment. Data reveals that interest in working in this sector is highest in the groups aged 25-34 (92%) and 35-44 (92%). Thereafter, there is a decline in desire to participate in agricultural work.
- Highest reluctance to participate in the agricultural sector was found amongst work-seekers with no or low levels of education: about 13% indicated that they would 'never' participate in the agriculture sector.

The next section describes respondent willingness to work in the hospitality sector according gender, education and age of work-seekers.

### **8.3.2. Expressed preference regarding working in the hospitality sector**

- A notable gender gradient emerged on the question of willingness to accept work in the hospitality sector. More females (88%) were more interested in accepting employment in this sector, compared to their male counterparts. About 14% of males said they would 'never' work in the hospitality sector. Again, this might be reflective of the traditional belief about work in the hospitality industry as being female dominated.
- Proportions of work-seekers indicating likelihood of working in the hospitality sector in terms of age ranged from 73% to 81% across the four age categories. The 25-34 and 35-44 age categories are the most keen to accept jobs in the hospitality industry at 85% each. Older work-seekers revealed a higher proportion of those who were 'neutral' (12%) or stated 'never' (14%).
- In terms of education, willingness to take up jobs in the hospitality sector increased linearly with level of education completed. Proportions of those prepared to accept employment in this sector ranged from: 68% of those with no schooling; to 86% of those with matric. About 29% of those with an education below Grade 3 indicated that they would 'never' take up jobs in the hospitality sector. Interest in participating in this sector declines amongst those with a post-school education (Figure ).



**Figure 8.2: Likelihood of working in the hospitality sector -per education level**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

The next section describes respondent willingness to work in the security sector according to gender, education and age of work-seekers.

### 8.3.3. Expressed preference regarding working in the security sector

- The reported likelihood of work-seekers accepting employment in the security sector (63%) was lower than for the agriculture and hospitality sector.
- The proportion of males and females who indicated that they would likely accept employment in the security sector was almost the same (male - 64%; female - 62%); however, females were 3% less likely to accept a job in this sector.
- Proportions of work-seekers indicating the likelihood of working in the hospitality sector varied, ranging from 56% to 67% across the four age categories. Furthermore, about two-thirds of work-seekers between the ages of 25-44 were more willing to accept work in this sector than were the other age groups. The youth had the highest proportion of those who indicated they would never accept a job in the hospitality sector (36%) (**Error! Reference source not found.**).

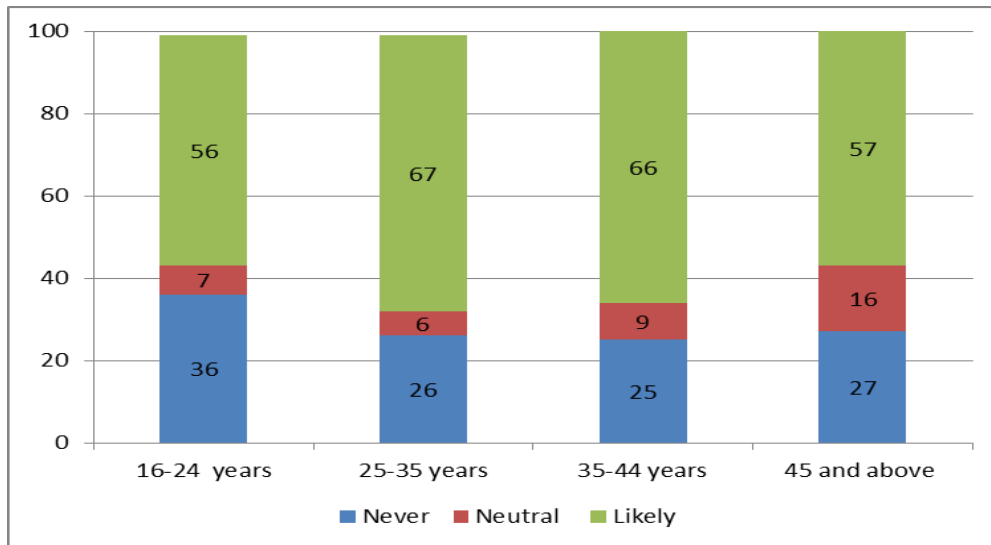


Figure 8.3: Likelihood of working in the security sector per age group

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

- Work-seekers' reported likelihood of working in the security industry according to educational level reveals a higher response of 'never' (32%) for those with a Grade 3 or lower education, and for those with a matric (32%) or post-school qualification (37%). Respondents with some secondary education reflected the highest willingness (72%). Work-seekers' overall willingness to work in this sector was consistently lower than the other sectors, irrespective of the work-seeker's level of education (Figure ).

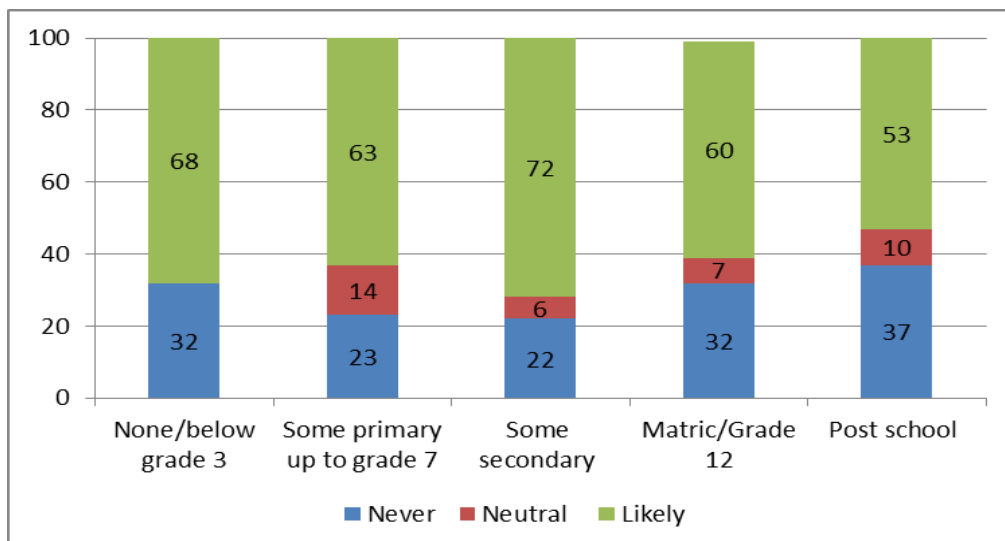


Figure 8.4: Likelihood of working in the security sector according to education level

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

#### **8.3.4. Provincial analysis of work-seekers who indicated willingness to work in selected sectors**

An analysis of the willingness of work-seekers to work in industry sectors (including agriculture, construction, hospitality, security and mining) according to province revealed interesting results (Figure to Figure ). The analysis revealed statistically significant associations between the extent of willingness to work in a particular sector and province for all sectors - except for agriculture and hospitality. It is not clear if the category 'neutral' in the context of the question would incline a respondent to respond 'never' or 'likely'.

The data analysis revealed that, overall 7%, 13%, 11%, 28% and 20% of work-seekers were disinclined to work in the agriculture, construction, hospitality, security and mining sectors, respectively.

- On average, work-seekers were: least reluctant to work in the agriculture sector; and most unwilling to work in the security sector.
- Work-seekers in the Western Cape consistently showed higher reluctance to work in any of the mentioned sectors compared to the other provinces.
- In the provinces where high volumes of agriculture activity usually occur (e.g. Western Cape, Limpopo, Mpumalanga and Northern Cape), work-seekers in the Northern Cape were the most reluctant to work in the agriculture sector (12% of work-seekers responded 'never').
- The highest percentages of reluctance per province were recorded as follows: 19% of the work-seekers in the Western Cape reported unwillingness to work in the construction sector; 18% of work-seekers in the Northern Cape were reluctant to work in the hospitality sector; 38% - more than one-third – of work-seekers in the Western Cape were unwilling to work in the security sector; and 45% - almost half - of work-seekers in the Western Cape were disinclined to work in the mining sector.



Figure 8.5: Likelihood of working in the agriculture sector by province

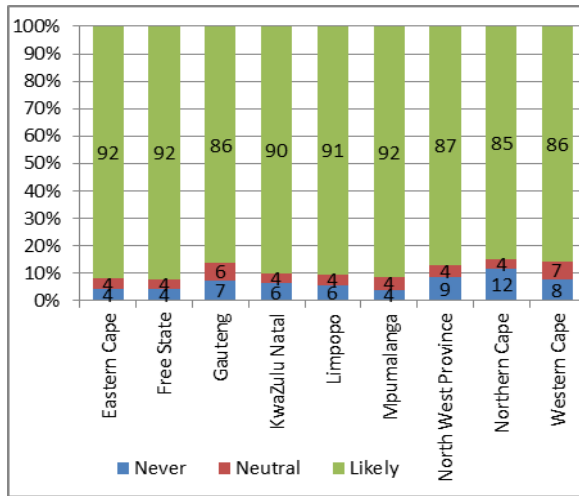


Figure 8.6: Likelihood of working in the construction sector by province

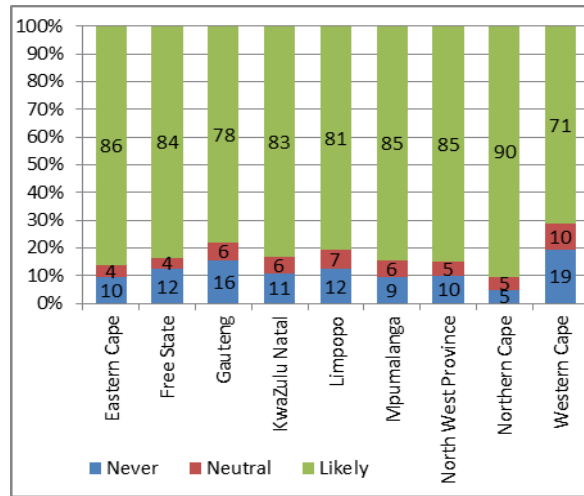


Figure 8.7: Likelihood of working in the hospitality sector by province

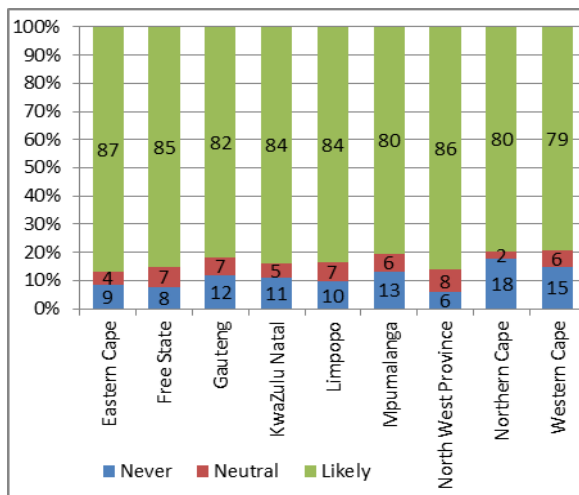


Figure 8.8: Likelihood of working in the security sector by province

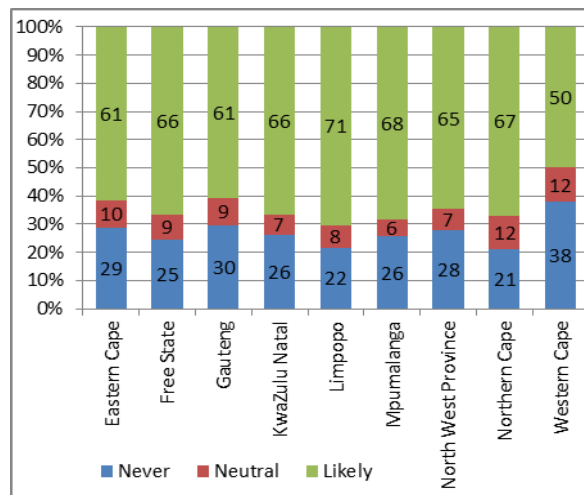
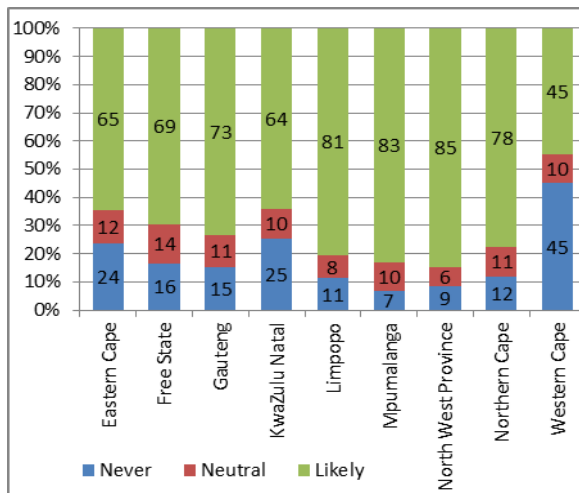


Figure 8.9 Likelihood of working in the mining sector by province



#### **8.4. Types of work considered ‘below your dignity’**

Occupational identity of workers contributes significantly to their feelings of self-worth; therefore it was decided to explore what jobs were perceived as being below their dignity. Observation of the responses suggested that some work-seekers might have misinterpreted the question. In these cases, respondents seemed to respond to what they thought the question was: ‘*What type of work are you unwilling to do?*’, when the question in the instrument was: ‘*What type of work would you regard as below your dignity?*’

More than half (54%) of the work-seekers reported that they perceived no work as being below their dignity. This finding suggests that the majority of work-seekers would do any job to earn a salary. Ten percent of work-seekers considered employment as a ‘security guard’ to be below their dignity. To be a ‘miner’ or a ‘cleaner’ was perceived to be below the dignity of 4% of work-seekers. ‘Mortuary worker’, ‘construction worker’, ‘domestic worker’, ‘immoral work’ and ‘toilet cleaner’ were seen as below the dignity of 2% to 3% of work-seekers.

It is important to note that work in hospitality and agriculture was perceived as below their dignity by only 1% of work-seekers.

#### **8.5. Conclusions**

Firstly, in terms of willingness to refer friends or acquaintances to jobs in selected sectors, with particular emphasis on sectoral differences, preference was clearly stronger for agriculture and hospitality - and to a much lesser extent for security. This pattern was repeated when respondents reflected on their own inclinations, which favoured working in the agriculture and hospitality sectors, rather than the security sector.

Secondly, responses from work-seekers regarding the likelihood of their working in each sector were disaggregated by gender, age and education level.

- Agriculture and hospitality, on aggregate, recorded higher proportions of work-seekers who indicated they would be likely to work in those sectors, rather than in security.
- Likelihood of working in a sector was relatively even for agriculture and security, but was much higher for females in hospitality.

- The age groups showing a higher likelihood of accepting work across the sectors were the 25-34 and 35-44 age groups.
- According to education level, likelihood of taking a job in the security was highest with work-seekers who hold some secondary qualification. Across all sectors, the strongest disinclination to take a job was registered by work-seekers with no education or below Grade 3 level achievement.
- More than half the work-seekers perceived no work as being below their dignity.

Thirdly, one in ten (10%) work-seekers considered employment as a security guard, to be below their dignity; while work in hospitality and agriculture was perceived by only 1% of work-seekers as being below their dignity. Different questions have reinforced the view of work-seekers that security is the least preferred of the three sectors under scrutiny.

## **CHAPTER 9. WORK-SEEKER ATTITUDES TOWARDS FOREIGN IMMIGRANTS**

The literature reveals that foreign workers can elicit strong negative attitudes from local workers, based, firstly, on the belief that foreign workers are willing to accept lower wages and will cause a decline or stagnation in the wages of particular occupations that locals traditionally occupy. Local fears arise that this situation would lead to the exclusion of local workers from the contested occupations. And secondly, the presence of foreign workers in certain occupations is perceived by some local workers (and perhaps even in the community) to lower the social status of that occupation, creating an attitudinal barrier among local workers against taking employment in the occupation.

In pursuing the question ‘What impact does the presence of foreign immigrants have on a labour market?’, a series of four questions were introduced to the survey, in order to explore the existence of and strength of South African worker attitudes towards foreign workers. In a heterogeneous institutional context, such as a labour market, certain attitudes or beliefs may be expressed through implicit or explicit comparison between social groups, which entails attribution of characteristics to the ‘other’ group. In the South African labour market, the influx of large numbers of immigrants and their employment on a relatively large scale - in particular in low-skill jobs - prompted the following questions, which were designed to explore local workers’ views on the reasons given by employers for taking on foreign workers:

1. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that it is easier to pay foreigners low wages?
2. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that foreigners have better skills than locals?
3. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs?
4. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that local workers are not hard working?

Of the four questions, three reflect respondent beliefs regarding foreign workers: namely the willingness of foreign workers to accept lower pay; their higher skills levels; and their hard working characteristic. The fourth question touches on the claim that employers cannot find locals to work in certain (unspecified) jobs.

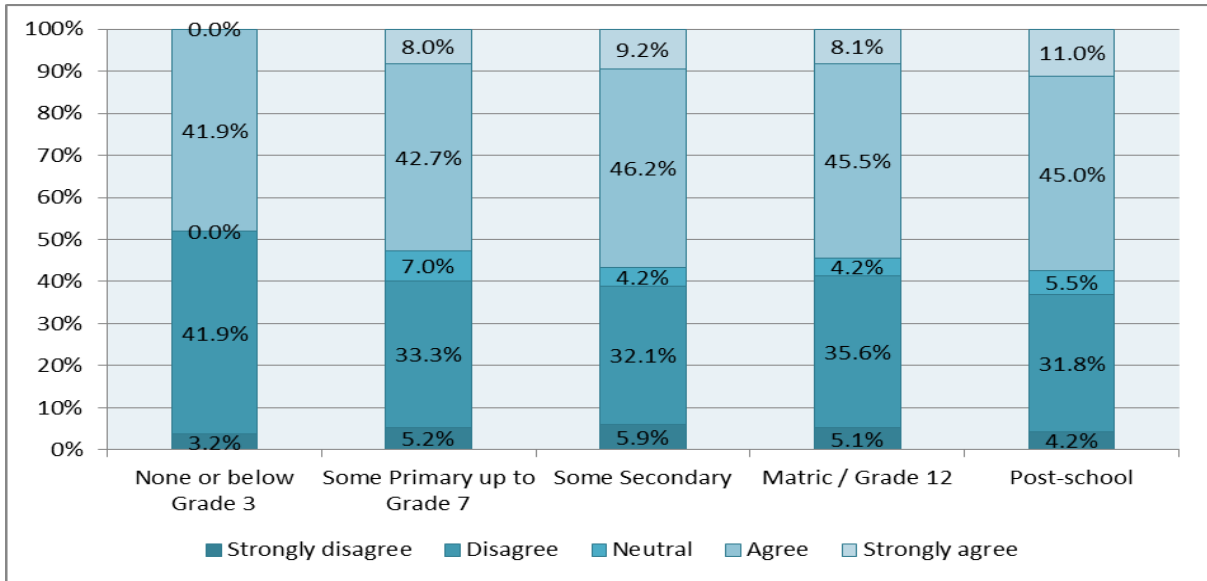
Respondents' views will be examined through the eyes of different demographic categories, namely: employment status, level of education, age group, population group, gender, and categories reflecting respondent employment status and employment experience.

### **9.1. 'It is easier to pay foreigners low wages'**

There is an implied comparison in this statement, which can be completed as follows: "It's easier to pay foreigners low wages (than it is to pay South Africans low wages)". The response to the related question could depend on direct exposure of respondents to the presence of foreign workers, the jobs that they occupy, and their wages. Alternatively, responses could reflect attitudes absorbed from various formal or informal sources of information, even in the absence of direct exposure to foreign workers.

The distribution of responses across employment status was remarkably similar. Overall, the proportion who 'agree' and 'strongly agree' constitute 53.7% of the population, while those who 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' constitute 38.9% of the population of employed and unemployed workers. This means that just over half of the population of employed and unemployed workers hold the view that it is easier for employers to pay foreigners low wages (Figure ).

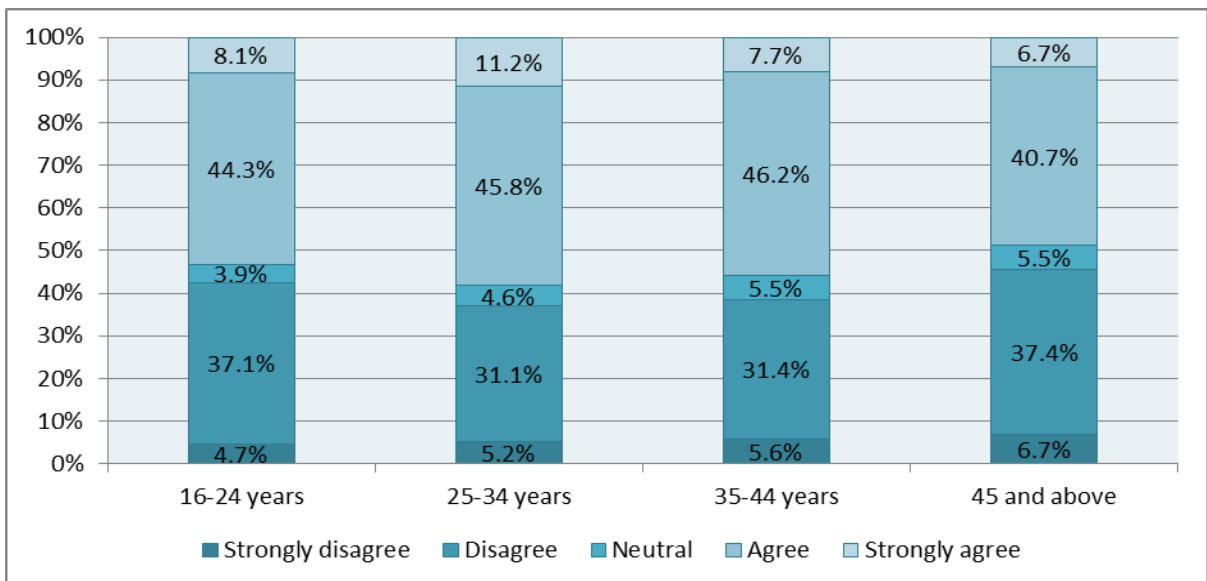
We now turn to consideration of how the distribution of agreement and disagreement with the statement is related to the educational level of workers. Agreement with the statement rises with each increased education level, from its lowest point (based on responses from workers with no education or below Grade 3 education) to the point where 56.1% of respondents at post-school level agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that it is easier to pay foreigners low wages.



**Figure 9.1: Responses to the statement ‘It is easier to pay foreigners low wages’, according to education level of respondent**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Looking at the interaction of the assertion about ease of paying foreign workers by age: respondents in the 25-34 age group showed the highest support for the statement, with 57% agreeing or strongly agreeing (Figure ). The age groups 25-34 and 35-44, which would have the highest proportional participation in the labour market, would also be assumed to express the strongest desire to retain their jobs. Consequently, they would express the greatest concern about the possibility that foreign workers could take their jobs by accepting lower wages.



**Figure 9.2: Responses to the statement ‘It is easier to pay foreigners low wages’, according to age of respondent**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Race proved to be the demographic that revealed the greatest differences between groups. In this context, 57.2% of African respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. By comparison, with workers from other race groups, cumulative agreement (sum of ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’) barely exceeded 40% (Figure ).

This difference could be ascribed to the range of occupations for which foreign workers are most likely to compete. These would be: job opportunities in economic sectors requiring low-skilled labour for labour-intensive work; as well as the jobs most easily accessed by unofficial/ informal immigrants who do not have proper documentation and who would be under duress to accept lower wages than could be demanded by a fully compliant immigrant who has a work permit. Given the historical legacy of discrimination in access to and quality of education and participation in the labour market, the incumbents of jobs most likely to be targeted by immigrant workers are likely to be African.

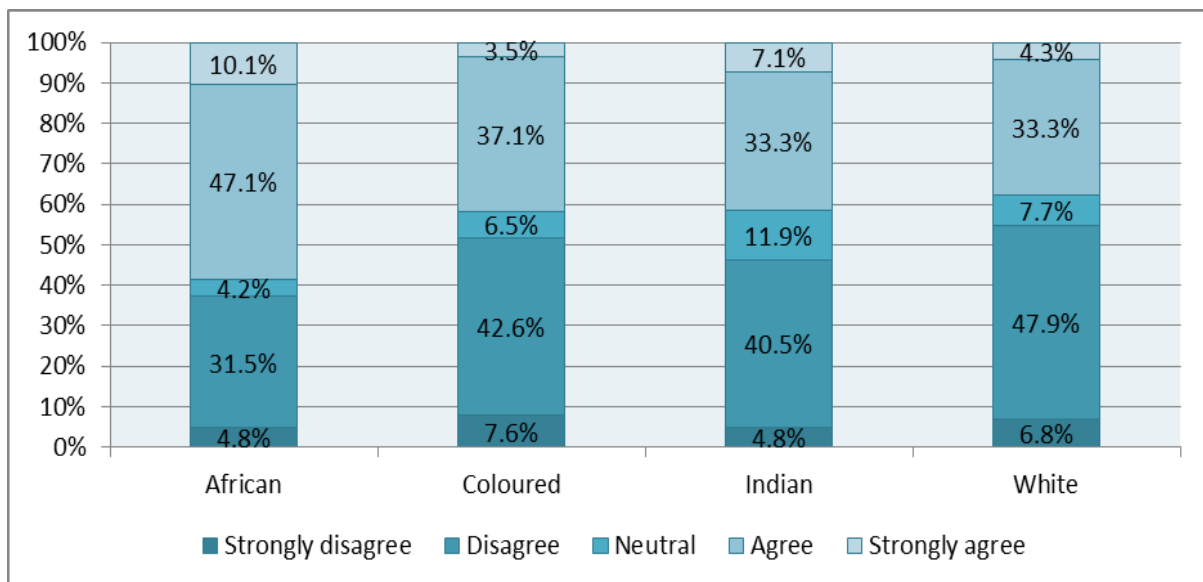


Figure 9.3: Responses to the statement ‘It is easier to pay foreigners low wages’, according to race of respondent

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Gender differences in agreement with the statement that ‘It is easier to pay foreigners low wages’ were relatively substantial: 57% of males, compared to 50.7% of females, agreed or strongly agreed that it is easier to pay foreigners low wages.

## 9.2. 'Foreigners have better skills than locals'

The argument that foreigners have better skills than locals is associated with some employers in the agriculture industry, and is discussed in some depth in the chapter that presents case-studies of employment practices in agriculture.

Overall, employed and unemployed workers held similar views regarding whether or not foreigners have better skills than locals, with 44.8% in both groups agreeing or strongly agreeing that foreigners have better skills than locals (Figure ). In terms of disagreement with the statement, there is small variation between employed and unemployed respondents, where 41.8% and 45.6%, respectively, disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. In each case, the balance is occupied by a neutral category. This suggests that, among employed and unemployed workers, there is a relatively even distribution of those who agree and those who disagree with the statement that skills offered by foreign workers are better than South African workers' skills.

Responses to the statement elicited strong differences between groups according to level of education. Views change according to relationship with education level. Workers with lower skills are more prone to believe and agree with the statement that foreigners have better skills than locals. For example: among respondents with no education or below Grade 3 education, or primary education up to Grade 7, 54.0% agreed that foreigners have better skills. In contrast: 54.4% of post-school educated respondents disagreed with the statement that foreigners have better skills.

With possession of higher levels of education, this view moderates to the extent that, among respondents with post-school education, a much lower proportion of 33.8% were inclined to agree that foreigners have better skills.

The 16-24 year old group contained the highest proportion of respondents (47.9%) who agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that foreign workers have better skills. By comparison, the lowest levels of agreement were expressed in the 45 and above age group. This, the category of oldest respondents, also registered a high proportion of members who claimed a neutral stance on the matter.

Practically half (49%) of all African respondents agree or strongly agree with the statement. This is double the proportion of those in the other race groups who agree or strongly agree.



Correspondingly, among Coloured and Indian respondents, those in disagreement were more than double those who agreed.

The enhanced perception, particularly among African respondents, that foreigners have better skills than locals may be ascribed to: awareness of the weaknesses in the domestic basic education system; the presence of a high proportion of low-skill Africans in the workforce; a lack of confidence in skills or qualifications obtained locally, linked to over-estimation of the real value of foreigners’ skills.

One prominent feature of this distribution is the high proportion of respondents who adopted a neutral stance. Those taking a neutral stance on the issue were above 10% across the Coloured, Indian and White groups, but rising to 16.3% among Indians. Perhaps these groups felt uncertain or even unqualified to take a clear position.

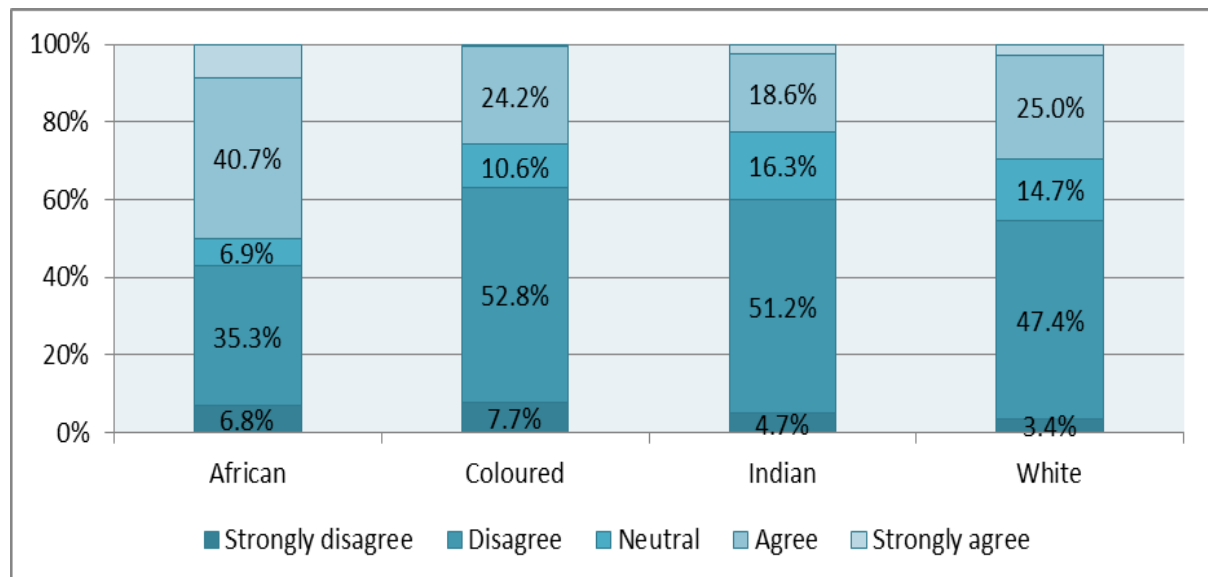


Figure 9.4: Responses to the statement ‘Foreigners have better skills than locals’ according to race of respondent

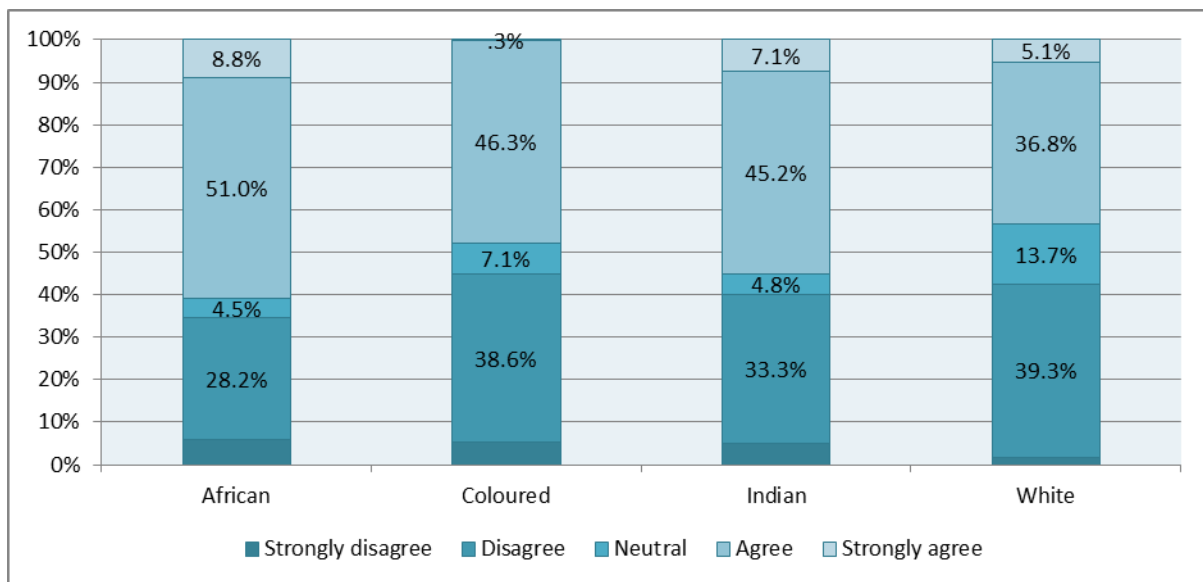
Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Slightly more females tended to be in disagreement (47.5%) than in agreement (42.3%); while males expressed the reverse of the female perspective: disagreement at 42.3% and agreement at 47.5%. This reveals that males are more pessimistic about the relative quality of South Africans’ skills vis-à-vis foreign workers.

### 9.3. ‘Employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs’

Though both employed and unemployed respondents were predominantly in agreement with the statement, the employed group (with a 61% agreement level) was five percentage points

higher than the unemployed group. Groups at all qualification levels expressed agreement (i.e. ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’) with this statement fairly consistently. The proportions of those in agreement ranged between 54.4% and 61.0%. Given the general assent, which ranges between a few percentage points, it seems that educational level per se does not generate a differences in view on the willingness of locals to accept jobs. Among African respondents, those broadly in agreement with the statement (sum of ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’) stood in a two-to-one relationship with those broadly disagreeing (sum of ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’). Clearly a significant proportion of African respondents considered this statement to be true. In contrast, Coloured and White responses contained roughly similar proportions of agreement and disagreement - in the low 40% range (Figure ).



**Figure 9.5: Responses to the statement ‘Employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs’, according to race of respondent**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

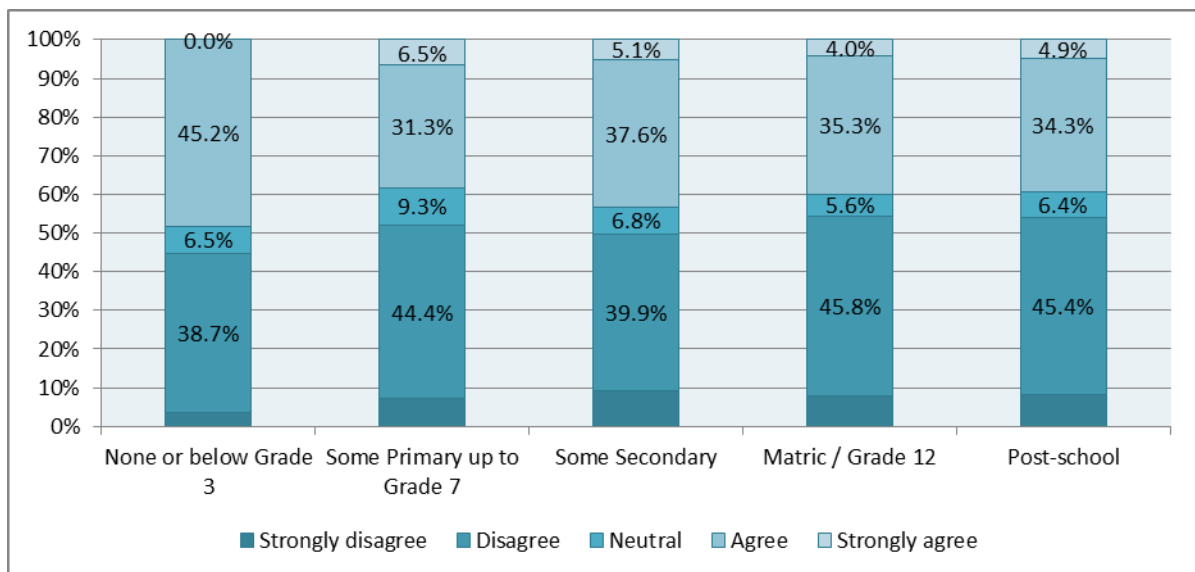
The majority of male and female respondents affirmed their agreement (sum of ‘agree’ and ‘strongly agree’) at the 58.1% and 56.6% levels.

#### **9.4. ‘Local workers are not hard working’**

The descriptor ‘hard working’ might bring to mind qualities such as reliability, diligence and thoroughness; or, for some, the appellation would be analogous with productivity, which is a key issue in the South African labour market and economy. It is acknowledged that, by certain measures, the productivity of South African workers lags behind their cost profile.

Though this depiction of South African workers is raised in general discussions on productivity, it is also introduced into discussions about what factors seem to predispose employers to hire foreign immigrant workers. Hence, depending on context, this question may be raised with reference to international comparisons of national workforce productivity or with particular reference to competition between locals and foreigners over jobs in South Africa (SA), as occurs elsewhere. The literature shows that higher levels of motivation to succeed are characteristic of immigrant populations; therefore, what distinguishes them from South Africans is their drive to succeed, rather than a cultural characteristic of the culture in the country from which they originate.

The profile of responses of the employed and unemployed are very similar in proportion, with: a majority of 51% in broad disagreement; and a minority of about 40% in agreement. This means that there is no differentiation in the balance of the distribution of attitudes across the two groups. In turn, this isomorphism implies that the employed and unemployed groups do not bring forth differences in their responses that demand further analysis.



**Figure 9.6: Responses to the statement ‘Local workers are not hard working’, according to education level of respondent**

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Broad disagreement (sum of the ‘disagree’ and ‘strongly disagree’ categories) with this statement is registered by respondents in four of the five education levels, starting with some primary education up to Grade 7, and going up to post-school education level. With rising education level, the groups record marginal increases in disagreement, rising from 51.4% to 53.5% (Figure ). Yet the group with no schooling or below a Grade 3 education counters this

trend with 45.2% of respondents who ‘agree’ or ‘strongly agree’ with the statement put forward that local workers are not hard working. This position gives cause for further analysis, which may be taken forward in the light of information from the qualitative interviews of employers if it is touched upon. The response of all race groups is in disagreement with the statement, though in different ways (Figure ). The proportion of coloured and Indian respondents disagreeing (60.0 % and 64.3% respectively) while Africans and whites disagreed in similar proportions – about 50%, although 10% of the latter group opted for a ‘neutral’ judgement.

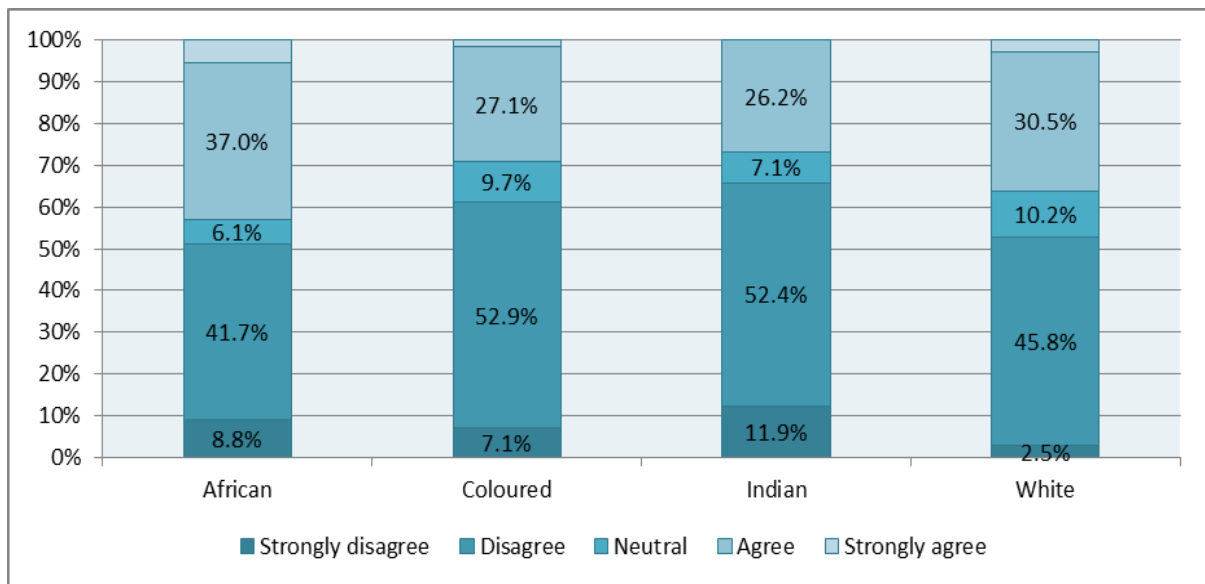


Figure 9.7: Responses to the statement ‘Local workers are not hard working’, according to race of respondent

Source: HSRC-DoL, 2014

Overall, slightly higher proportions of males disagreed or strongly disagreed (53%) with the statement than did females (49.7%), with the percentage gap being less than 5%. This reveals limited underlying differences in attitude regarding the statement in terms of gender.

Differences in terms of age are relatively minor. Three age groups (spanning 16-44 year-olds) presented disagree and strongly disagree ratings of a similar magnitude in a range just under 55%.

### 9.5. Key determinants and strength of work-seekers’ attitudes towards foreign migrants

On the question where work-seekers were asked to estimate how many immigrants were living in their area: more than half (54%) of the work-seekers reported ‘many’ immigrants;

17% said 'some'; almost a quarter (21%) answered a 'few'; and 8% reported 'none'. Further investigation into perceptions about foreign immigrants (among: men and women; race groups; age groups; and work-seekers with different levels of education and employment status) revealed interesting results.

The association between perceptions of the extent of the presence of foreign immigrants and the gender of the work-seeker was statistically significant:  $\chi^2(4, N = 2934) = 29.43, p = .00$ . More men (58%) than women (48%) reported the presence of immigrants as 'many'. Statistically significant results on race groups were found ( $\chi^2(12, N = 2933) = 153.71, p = .00$ ): 58% of coloured, 55% of African, 36% of Indian, and 27% of white work-seekers reported the presence of 'many' foreign immigrants in the area in which they were living.

Work-seekers in different age groups also had different views on this issue. Younger work-seekers, especially those in the age group 25-34, perceived more foreign immigrants where they lived than did older work-seekers:  $\chi^2(12, N = 2933) = 66.05, p = .00$ . Fifty-three percent of work-seekers in the age group 16-24, 57% of 25-35 year-olds, 53% of work-seekers aged 35-44, and 50% of work-seekers older than 44 reported that 'many' immigrants were living in their area.

The relationships between work-seeker response to this question and highest level of education and employment status were also found to be statistically significant ( $\chi^2(16, N = 2834) = 49.33, p = .00$  and  $\chi^2(4, N = 2934) = 9.62, p = .05$  respectively). Data analysis revealed that work-seekers with a higher level of education reported a smaller presence of foreign immigrants in the areas in which they were living. Almost two-thirds (65%) of work-seekers with no education or below a Grade 3 education level reported 'many' immigrants in the area in which they were living, as did: 57% with some primary education, up to Grade 7 education level; 56% with some secondary education, but below Grade 12 education level; 52% with a Grade 12 education; and 52% of work-seekers with a post-school education.

Perceptions of South African work-seekers on the following matters were also explored: lower wages for foreign immigrants; locals not being hard working; locals not willing to work in certain jobs; foreigners are better skilled.

The calculation of a WAI, as depicted in Table , was conducted on four questions in the questionnaire. The WAI values for all four statements were above average (above 2.5 out of a possible 5), which is an indication of agreement with these statements. The highest level of

work-seeker agreement (with a WAI value of 3.2 out of 5) was with the following statements: ‘It’s easier to pay foreigners low wages’; ‘Employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs’. The statement, ‘Foreigners have better skills than locals’ received the second highest level of agreement (3.0 out of 5). The statement, ‘Local workers are not hard working’ was rated 2.9 out of 5 - the lowest rating scored by the four statements. It is evident from Table that work-seekers did not strongly agree with the statement ‘Local workers are not hard working’.

**Table 9.1: Extent of work-seekers agreement or disagreement with listed statements**

<i>Work-seekers' perception</i>	<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neither agree nor disagree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>WAI</i>
It's easier to pay foreigners low wages.	160	980	144	1313	263	2858	3.2
Local workers are not hard working.	250	1251	204	1035	143	2883	2.9
Employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs.	170	871	159	1445	229	2873	3.2
Foreigners have better skills than locals.	205	1110	235	1092	219	2860	3.0

In another analysis, a selected list of occupations was presented to work-seekers and they were requested to rate their agreement with employers hiring foreign immigrants for these job types (Table ). The selected occupations included doctors, teachers, waiters, farm workers, domestic workers, security officers, engineers and miners. The responses were similar for all job types, with a range of agreement levels from 57% (waiters) to 62% (engineers). A WAI was generated and revealed similar results, with WAI values ranging from 2.2 to 2.3 out of a maximum 3 points. Thus, the data suggests that work-seekers, on average, did not object to foreign immigrants being recruited by South African employers, given that a WAI value of 1.5 represents the mid-point.

**Table 9.2: Extent of work-seeker agreement with employers hiring foreign immigrants for the listed occupations**

	<i>%</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>WAI</i>
Doctor	61	920	226	1789	2934	2.3
Teacher	60	982	181	1770	2934	2.3
Waiter	57	1064	192	1678	2934	2.2
Farm worker	60	982	208	1744	2934	2.3
Domestic worker	59	1004	199	1730	2934	2.2
Security officer	58	1069	177	1689	2934	2.2
Engineer	62	905	199	1830	2934	2.3
Miner	59	1020	171	1743	2934	2.2

## 9.6. Foreign workers in the labour market

Responses to the key questions are captured in brief below:

a) *To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that it is easier to pay foreigners low wages?*

Just over half of the sample population of employed and unemployed workers hold the view that it is easier for employers to pay foreigners low wages (53.7%). This perception informs concerns that employers can hire cheap foreign labour and reduce the number of low-skill local workers they employ. However, as will be discussed later, regulatory conditions, inspections and sanctions may limit the extent of this practise.

b) *To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that foreigners have better skills than locals?*

Overall, employed and unemployed workers held similar views, with 44.8% in both groups agreeing that foreigners have better skills than locals. However, 54.4% of post-school educated respondents disagreed with the statement that foreigners have better skills. Educational level seems to be associated with the perception that foreigners have better skills. Local workers with higher skills –post-school level - are confident, whereas their lesser-skilled fellows are insecure regarding the situation.

c) *To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs?*

By educational level, from low to high, proportions of those in agreement ranged between 54.4% and 61.0%. A significant proportion of African respondents considered this statement to be true. Although there was agreement with this statement, in general, a large proportion of those who agreed were in employment at the time of the survey.

d) *To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statement that local workers are not hard working?*

The profile of responses from the employed and unemployed are similar in proportion, with: a majority of 51% in broad disagreement; and a minority of about 40% in agreement. The position adopted on this matter depends on the point of view of the observer. In the following chapter, this issue is discussed in more detail, with reference to interviews with employers.

Further analysis of these results was undertaken after a WAI analysis was conducted on the above four questions in the questionnaire. The WAI values for all four statements were located around 3, the mid-point out of a possible maximum of 5. With statement (a.), respondents were in slight disagreement; with (c.) and (d.), they were in slight agreement. In the case of (b.), opinion was split evenly. In other words, the distribution of opinions in favour of and against are weighted quite evenly around the mid-point:

- a. Local workers are not hard working.: 2.9
- b. Foreigners have better skills than locals.: 3.0
- c. It's easier to pay foreigners low wages.: 3.2
- d. Employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs.: 3.2



## CHAPTER 10. JOB SEARCH ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR

This section will explore, in detail, alternative methods that are employed by work-seekers to look for employment. Furthermore, this section will assess the work-seeker's level of optimism about finding employment. It is expected that those who are optimistic about finding employment will search more intensively using varied methods. Moreover, this chapter will also highlight some of the factors perceived by work-seekers as important when looking for a job. It will also tap into their experiences of looking for employment and illuminate what they perceive as barriers in trying to find employment.

### 10.1. Length of time without work and trying to find another job

The length of time that a person has remained jobless can impact negatively on the self-concept and self-confidence needed to regain stable working status. Not all have the ability to recuperate from the debilitating effects of extended periods without work. Accordingly, it is necessary to establish the parameters of time spent without work in a population, as this characteristic is likely to influence how those affected respond to new opportunities or further set-backs. Better still is to prevent job losses where possible.

More than a third (38%) of the survey population who were unemployed at the time of the survey had been without a job for less than one year; while a high proportion of 43% had been unemployed for one to less than three years (Figure ). Combining the 1 to <3 and 3-5 years categories indicates that more than half (55%) of unemployed people may remain out of work from one to five years.

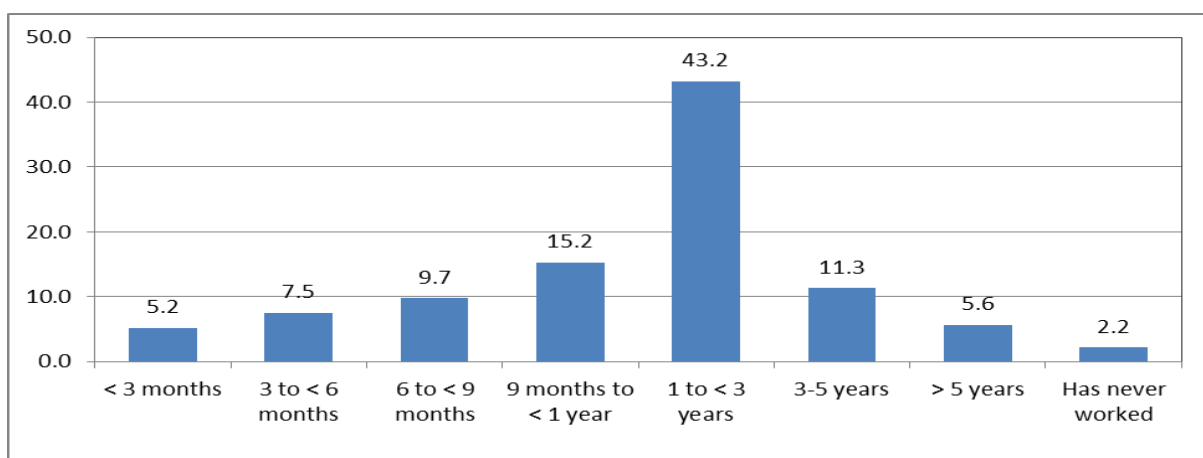


Figure 10.1: Length of time without a job while involved in job-search

## 10.2. Alternative job search methods

There is not a great variety of job search methods that can be employed, so it is important to explore which approaches are favoured by work seekers and why this is the case. Practically, job search activities should be implemented across all potential channels.

A high percentage of respondents (40%) reported having applied directly to employers for a job. The second highest number (38%) indicated that they were talking to relatives and friend about looking for a job. It is also not surprising that more than a quarter (28%) of the unemployed were looking for a job on the internet, since this medium does not necessarily require effort to initiate an interaction or pursue an enquiry (Figure ). Therefore it is important to learn the skills of creating an attractive profile on a career website and posting a CV. The effort required would be similar to registering at an employment agency, the only difference being that the agency will look for matches against the vacancies of clients on its books, whereas the website serves to broadly facilitate exchange between participants.

The following three approaches (applied for a post (22%), approached an employer (40%), spoke to family and network (38%)) all require greater effort than applying through the internet and involve some risk on behalf of the respondent, since they demand that the work-seeker initiates interaction that will hopefully elicit a response. This may explain why so few respondents reported having attended an interview (3%), though the costs of interviewing can also represent a financial burden. All three of the job search techniques mentioned should be pursued vigorously in generating more interview opportunities.

Notwithstanding the selection of methods, what must be considered is whether or not those looking for jobs are making the best of each search method. Put differently: Are work seekers sufficiently well informed to know how to communicate the quality of their application by exploiting the various methods to the best effect?

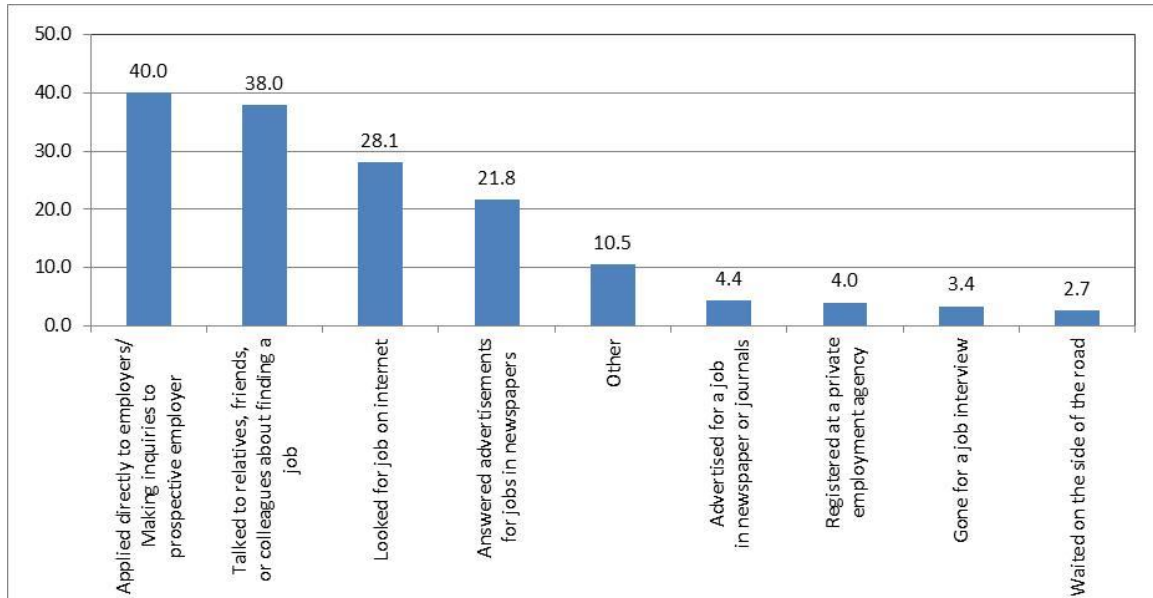


Figure 10.2: Job search methods used by respondents to find employment, other than registering at a Labour Centre of the Department of Labour

### 10.3. Level of optimism about finding employment in the next three months

Looking for and finding a job requires the individual to express agency, and the strength of that agency will be enhanced by positive perceptions and levels of optimism. Work-seekers who believe they will find a job will be more likely to make more effort towards that goal, and will be less easily discouraged. It is therefore disappointing to see that more than one-third of respondents consider it ‘unlikely’ or ‘very unlikely’ that they will find a job in the following three months (Figure ). On the other hand, the optimists who believe it to be ‘likely’ or ‘very likely’ they will find a job outnumber the pessimists slightly. The sizeable proportion of respondents who indicated that they ‘don’t know’ is concerning, since this equivocal position may be reflective of apathy. Others would argue that this is the most ‘realistic’ response.

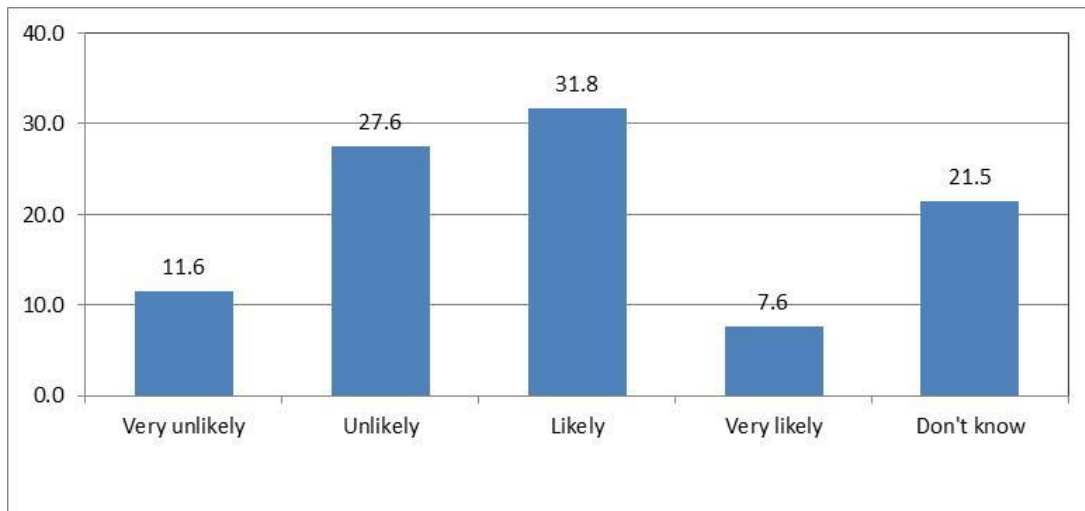


Figure 10.3: Respondents' perceptions of whether or not they would find a job in the next three months

#### 10.4. Important factors considered by work-seekers when looking for a job

Work seekers were asked to indicate what factors they consider important when searching for work. By far the most important factor for respondents when looking for a job is the salary or wage package (51%). Nevertheless, this factor is selected by just over half of respondents, reflecting that work-seekers are mindful of various important job characteristics that need to be considered, including health and pension facilities. In contrast, sadly there is a small group (5%) who are desperate enough to take any opportunity.

Job security (at 18.7%) is in third highest place, reflecting its relative importance to people who were formerly without jobs and who want security of tenure. This is lower than the expected rating and may reflect South Africa's progressive labour laws, which protect worker rights. On the other hand, the intrinsic value of work features as important to respondents in three categories: that the respondent is in a post for which his/ her qualifications are applicable (11.5%); the work is interesting (11.5%); there are career prospects (3.9%), i.e. opportunity for growth. These ratings stand in sharp contrast with the 5% of respondents who just need a job, reflecting perhaps the different occupational backgrounds of work-seekers and the differences between households in terms of financial need. Indeed, the rating given to obtaining work that respects family responsibilities (11.2%) is also given prominence (Figure ).

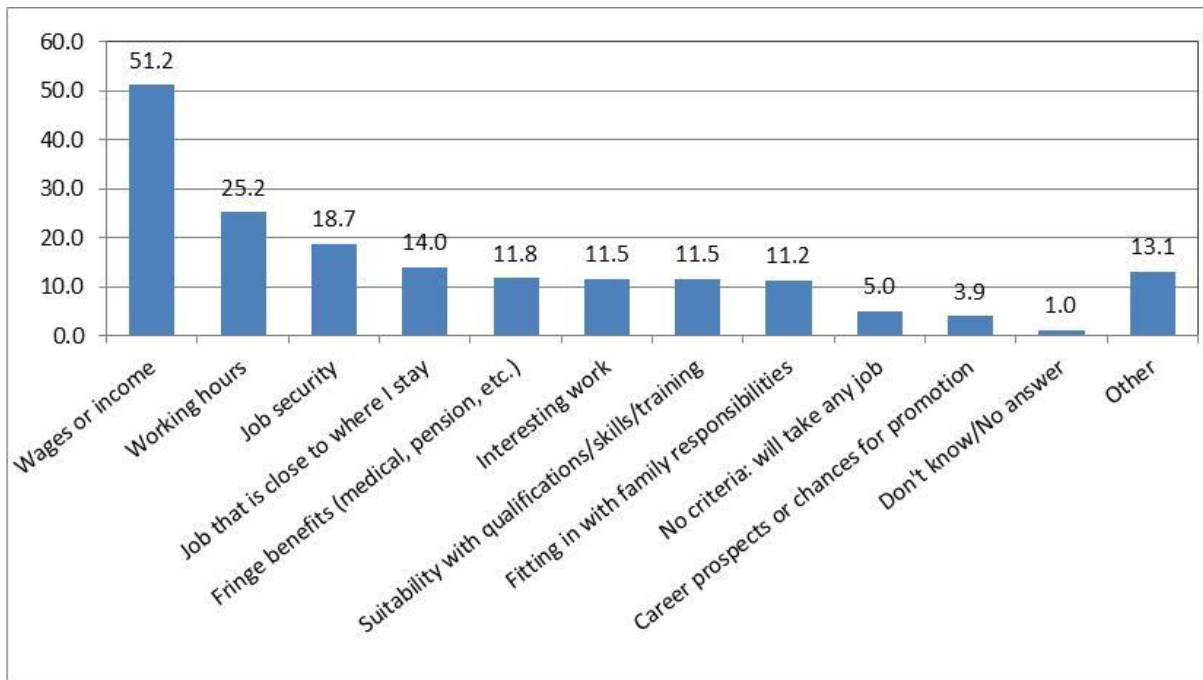


Figure 10.4: The most important factors respondents consider when looking for a job

## 10.5. Work-seeker perceptions of the main obstacles to finding a job

Furthermore, work seekers had to draw from their own perceptions and experiences regarding what they think are main obstacles to finding employment. A third of respondents (32.7%) observed that the biggest obstacle is the lack of employment opportunities available in the local area (Figure ). This assessment, made on the basis of their experience of unemployment and job-searching, is of profound concern. In an economic environment that does not support the generation of new jobs and where the shortage of opportunities is so evident, searching for elusive paid employment must be painfully dispiriting. Closely related to the lack of opportunity is that a high proportion of respondents (15.7%) perceived that there was an inadequate fit between the skills they could offer and the jobs available. The fact that 8.3% of respondents observe there to be ‘no obstacles’ to finding work simply reflects differences in the distribution of available work.

Another important obstacle is identified by 16.4% of respondents as difficulties in sourcing information about employment. Availability of information about work opportunities is vital for work-seekers to make informed decisions and appropriate choices, without which they are disempowered from giving direction to their lives. An important source of informal

information for job searching derives from personal networks. This is especially the case when formal methods of communicating job opportunities are limited. In this context, a substantial proportion of respondents (23.1%) observed that a substantial obstacle for them was a lack of personal connections, through which jobs or job information is often shared.

Finding work opportunities is a resource-intensive process, both in terms of time and finances, since it involves use of (especially) telecommunication and transport facilities. Lack of financial resources for this purpose was experienced by 11.4% of respondents, while a further 0.8% (with an entrepreneurial inclination) noted that they were without the funds necessary to become self-employed.

A high proportion of respondents reported that they had experienced discrimination by age, race, nationality or gender as an obstacle (7.1%); while disability was cited by 0.8% as an obstacle; and health reasons by 1.9%.

Documentation such as an identity document (ID), and a residence permit and work permit were cited as obstacles by 0.3% and 0.7% of respondents, respectively. A small portion (0.8%) was not interested in available jobs.

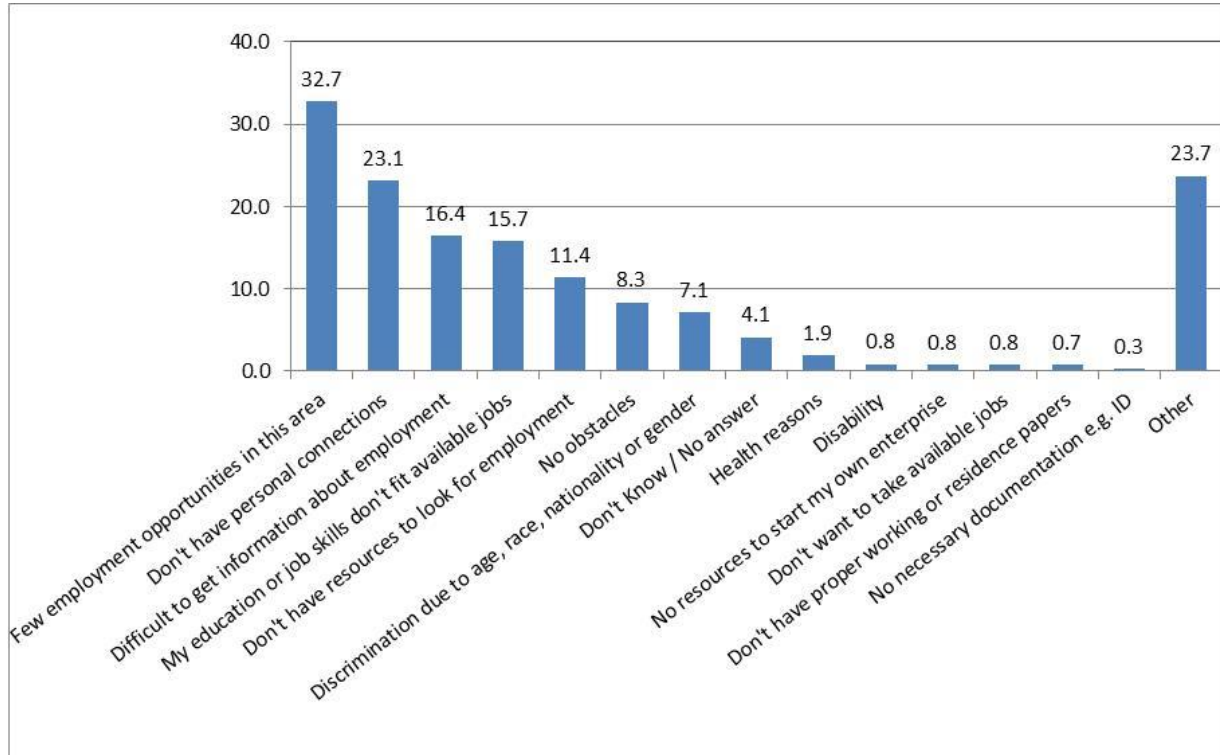


Figure 10.5: Perceived main obstacles to finding a job

## 10.6. Maximum time to commute

Upon being asked to indicate the maximum time work-seekers were willing to travel to get to work, the national pattern reveals that an overwhelming majority were prepared to travel up to an hour and more to the place of employment. Figure presents evidence showing substantial differences in the time that work-seekers are willing to spend on travel, particularly in terms of work-seeker employment status.

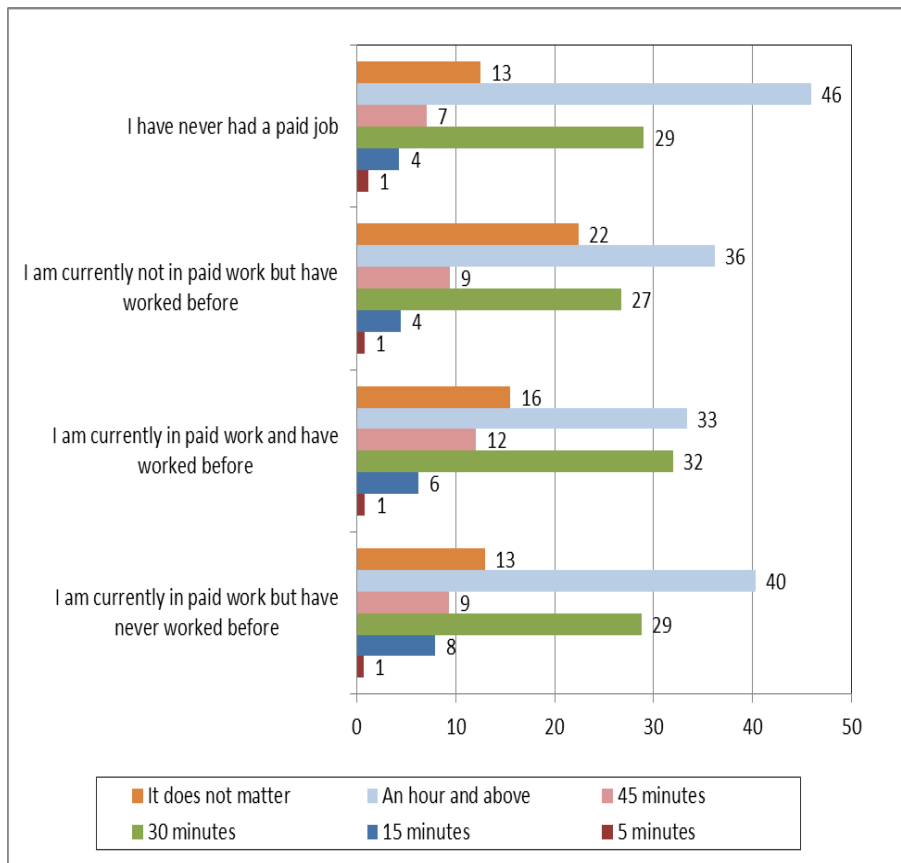


Figure 10.6: Maximum commute time

Source: HSRC-DoL Work-seekers Survey, 2014

## 10.7. What unemployed work-seekers do with their time

Of critical importance is to ask what job-seekers are doing with their time. Having insight into allocation of time resources, gives an indication of how they are strategizing and improving their chances of finding a job. It is encouraging to see that 34% remain committed to an ongoing job search. A further 3% are engaged in doing unpaid volunteer work, which is

a positive response, as respondents can accumulate experience and build working networks via this route, which could result in an offer of appointment.

An alternative strategy in periods of unemployment is for individuals to undertake further study; and 3% and 4% of respondents fortunate to have the resources available are enrolled for full-time or part-time study respectively. On the other hand, in households where resources are scarce, 18.6% of respondents find themselves obliged to accept any piece-work for payment in kind (Figure ).

A small proportion of respondents (2.5%) turn to taking care of the home on a full-time basis. Perhaps of most concern is the finding that 20% of respondents reveal that they are ‘doing nothing’ with their time, which can contribute to feelings of frustration, lack of self-worth, helplessness and hopelessness.

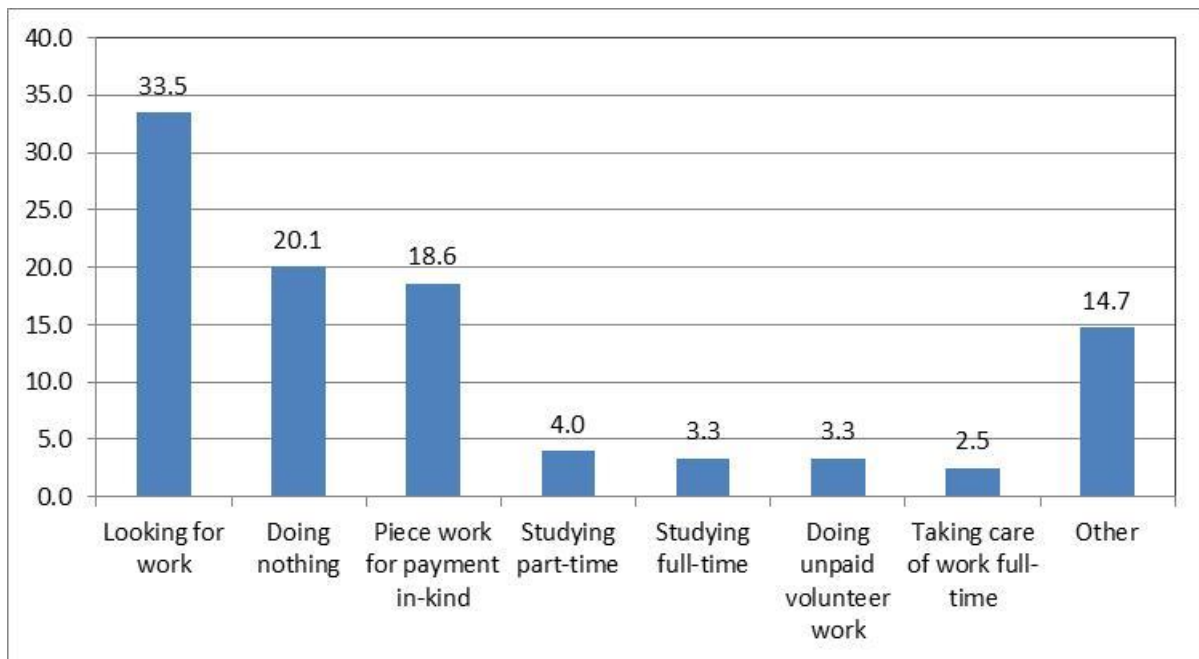


Figure 10.7: What do you currently do with your time?

## 10.8. Conclusion

A high proportion (43%) of the population of unemployed work-seekers had been out of work for one to less than three years. The following three approaches to finding a job have been attempted by 28% to 40% of job seekers: approached an employer, spoke to family and network, or searched for a job on the internet. Work seekers tend to neglect following up as



many channels for finding a job as possible. Although about 40% of respondents were optimistic they would find a job in the next three months, 39% are pessimistic, while nearly 22% don't know, which perhaps reflects apathy. Work seekers rate wages or income more highly than other criteria to be taken into consideration; this is followed by working hours, job security and location of home in relation to work. These criteria largely corroborate responses reported to other questions. Responses suggest that a lack of local employment opportunities is the biggest obstacle to finding a job: this is true for 33% of respondents. In this equation, the willingness to migrate becomes a key factor. The second most important difficulty encountered by work-seekers was identified as lack of personal connections. Willingness to commute was explored, showing substantial differences, depending on characteristics of the individual. A third of unemployed work-seekers remain committed to ongoing job-search, while nearly 8% undertake further study and 20% reveal that they are doing 'nothing'. Given the psychological impact of unemployment, it is vital to keep motivation levels up.

## CHAPTER 11. Concluding remarks

The main aim of the report was to explore the first part of the research question: under what circumstances do work-seekers decline an employment offer, particularly from the agriculture, hospitality and security sectors.

In answer to this question, Berger and Piore's (1980) theoretical framework (which stratifies the economy into primary and secondary segments) proved revealing. The report related the demand for foreign migrant workers to the segmented nature of the South African labour market. The primary segment, which is governed by the rules of the internal labour market, offers: relatively better and attractive wages; relatively good work conditions; stable employment and job security; collective agreement; and prospects of upward mobility. This segment is seen as offering 'good jobs', characterised by stable employment. On the other hand, in the secondary segment, jobs are characterised by unattractive low wages, dismal working conditions, limited promotional prospects, and "general inferior or demeaning social status attached to them" (Berger and Piore, 1979:17; Berger and Piore, 1989:17-18 in Bosok, 2002:7). This secondary segment of the labour market therefore relies on low paid, unskilled and unstable employment (Doeringer and Piore, 1971) - or what can be referred to as 'bad jobs'.

The segmented economy framework was assessed in this study by asking work-seekers about seven attributes that would highlight the extent to which their preferences coincided with a given segment. The results showed a preference profile that translates to job values that are consistent with those in the primary segment of the labour market, which is characterised by good jobs. Three of the highest ranked attributes were jobs that provide: security, opportunities to use own skills and education, and earnings. This preference pattern begins to explain why some work-seekers turn down offers in sectors that they perceived as not offering the attributes they felt were important in a job. It is therefore safe to say that work-seekers will decline an employment offer when there is a mismatch between the working conditions in a sector and the job value preferences of a work-seeker. This kind of behaviour does not accord with the assumption of standard economic theory, which holds that any jobless individual should be willing to accept any job offered. This represents an important finding as it begins to highlight the complex factors that have a bearing on labour market participation decisions, as well as on occupational or sector choices. Furthermore, it brings to

the fore the need for a comprehensive understanding of work-seekers and priorities and preferences, in order to understand labour market behaviour.

The results of the analysis of socio-economic circumstances points to the presence of push factors that should lead work-seekers to want to be in paid work, given that the socio-economic outcomes of those in paid work are superior to those who are unemployed. For example, the extent to which employment status is associated with better socio-economic outcomes should provide an incentive that might increase the willingness of work-seekers to accept any employment offer, due to the need to meet their socio-economic needs. These findings (from the socio-economic analysis) appear to indicate relatively strong incentives to want to work; nonetheless, the analysis on perceptions and attitudes towards work indicates that the final decision to reject or accept an employment offer will be influenced by interaction of all these factors.

In order to test how the different factors are related to each other, two models were estimated: an unemployment model; and a gender model. The results of the regression analysis show that work-seekers - both the unemployed and women - negotiate the labour market based on the interaction of a complex set of factors. The seeming contradictions in preferences are explained by the fact that choices are being presented in isolation of a specific employment offer, this would explain, for example, why a woman would be more likely to accept an offer in hospitality even though she is less likely to accept a job that requires her to work on weekends. With respect to sector preferences, the results from the two models estimated found consistent patterns of response: both the unemployed and women were more likely to decline employment in agriculture, with the result of the former being statistically significant. The results also showed that both groups were less likely to decline employment in the hospitality sector, with this preference being statistically significant for women. The third sector that showed consistency in preferences was the mining sector: the results for both groups were statistically significant, with both being more likely to decline an offer in this sector.

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## APPENDIX A



labour

Department:  
Labour  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA



HSRC

Human Sciences  
Research Council

A South African Study of attitudes towards work: work seeker and employer perspectives:

### AN INVESTIGATION OF THE ATTITUDES OF WORK SEEKERS TOWARDS WORK

2014

#### INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Note that any information provided in this questionnaire is **confidential** and will be used for statistical reporting only. To be captured by an interviewer of a call centre by means of a MS Access capturing form.

#### INTRODUCTION

*(Please verify the populated fields. Make changes and/or additions if necessary)*

Good day, my name is ..... I am working for the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC). The HSRC has been asked by the Department of Labour to speak to work seekers in the whole country asking them about factors that influence their work seeking activities. We received work seeker contact details from the Department of Labour and your name was drawn randomly.

The first column provides the contact details as on the database; please enter updated contact details in the second column if applicable.

Unique ID	<input type="text"/>	Telephone:	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
ID Number:	<input type="text"/>	Cell phone:	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
Work seeker name:	<input type="text"/>			
Initials:	<input type="text"/>			
Surname	<input type="text"/>			

I would like to ask for 20-25 minutes of your time to participate in this study. Would you be prepared to participate in the study by answering a few questions?

1. Please understand that your participation is voluntary.
2. Your answers will remain confidential
3. If you agree to participate, you may stop the interview at any point if you get uncomfortable to continue.
4. You also have a right not to answer any questions you don't want to.

Consent:

#### SECTION 1: WORK SEEKER HISTORY

1.1 How many jobs have you had in your lifetime?

None/Has never worked before <i>Please go to section 2</i>

1.2 What was the longest unbroken employment period that you have had?

- Less than 3 months
- 3 months – less than 6 months
- 6 months – less than 9 months
- 9 months – less than a year
- 1 year – less than 3 years
- 3 years – 5 years
- More than 5 years

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

**SECTION 2: REGISTRATION ON DoL-ESSA DATABASE INFORMATION**

2. 1. In which year did you register at a labour centre for the first time as a work seeker?

Yes/No(if no skip to Section 2.5)
Yes/No (if no skip to Section 3)

2. 2. Have you registered at a labour centre more than once or claimed UIF?

2. 5. Have you been offered a job opportunity through the Public Employment Services of the Department of Labour before?

2. 7. If 'yes', which job opportunity (ies) have been offered?

1
2
3
4

2. 8. Which job opportunity (ies) did you accept?

1
2
3
4

2. 9. Have you declined the (any of the) job opportunity (ies) offered?

Yes/No
--------

2.10. Which job opportunity did you decline?

1
2
3
4

2.11 Please provide reasons, why you declined the offer(s)?

1
2
3
4

## SECTION 3: CURRENT EMPLOYMENT STATUS

1. What is your current employment status?

I am currently in <b>paid work and have worked before</b>	I am currently <b>in paid work, and have not</b> worked before	I am currently <b>not in paid work</b> but have worked before	I have <b>never had a paid job</b>
1	2	3	4
Complete Part A and B	Complete Part A	Complete Part B and C	Complete Part C

### PART A: CURRENTLY EMPLOYED

2. Please provide your current position / post description? (E.g. Clerk, IT Manager, etc.)

3. Tell us about your **CURRENT** employment activities

3.1 Main task or duty

3.1 Main goods or services produced or main functions

3.2 Employment type:

Part time	1
Full time	2
Temporary	3
Casual	4

3.3 Please indicate the maximum number of hours that you work in a week

< 40 hours)

1

>= 40 hours)

2

3.4 Nature of employment contract:

Written Contract / temporary (with fixed end date)

1

Written Contract Permanent (no end date)

2

Casual (day to day/on and off)

3

A verbal agreement (indefinite duration)

4

3.6 Occupational category:

Legislators, senior officials and managers

1

Professionals

2

Technicians and associate professionals

3

Clerks

4

Service workers and shop and market sales workers

5

Skilled agricultural and fishery workers

6

Craft and related trades workers

7

Plant and machinery operators and assemblers

8

Elementary occupations

9

Armed forces, occupations unspecified and not elsewhere classified

10

<b>3.7 About your employer:</b>	Private sector/ Enterprise	1
	Self Employed	2
	Parastatal	3
	Government	4

<b>3.8 Sector employed in:</b>	Formal	1
	Informal	2

<b>3.9 In which economic sector does the company that you work for fall:</b>	Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	1
	Mining and quarrying	2
	Manufacturing	3
	Electricity, gas and water	4
	Construction	5
	Wholesale and retail trade	6
	Transport, storage and communication	7
	Financial intermediation, insurance, real estate and business services	8
	Community, social and personal services	9
	Private households with employed people	10
	Unsure	11

**3.10 How long have you been in this current job?**

Less than 3 months	1
3 months – less than 6 months	2
6 months – less than 9 months	3
9 months – less than a year	4
1 year – less than 3 years	5
3 years – 5 years	6
More than 5 years	7

**3.11 How long does it take you to get to your place of employment each day?**

5 minutes	1
15 minutes	2
30 minutes	3
45 minutes	4
An hour and above	5
I live within my place of employment	6

**3.12 Please indicate how you usually get to your place of employment? (More than one option may be selected.) By:**

foot	1
bicycle	2
private vehicle	3
bus	4
taxi	5
truck	6
I live within my place of employment	7
Other, please specify	8

**3.13 How did you find this job?**

Talked to relatives, friends, or colleagues about finding a job	1
Answered advertisements for jobs in newspapers	2
Looked for job on internet	3
Applied directly to employers/ Making enquiries to prospective employer	4
Gone for a job interview	5
Advertised in a newspaper	6
Registered at the Department of labour's labour centre	7
Registered at a private employment agency	8
Waited on the side of the road	9
Other, please specify	10

**3.14 How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about your job?**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	(Can't Choose)
My job is secure	1	2	3	4	5	6
My income is high	1	2	3	4	5	6
My opportunities for advancement are high	1	2	3	4	5	6
My job is interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6
My job is useful to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6
My job gives me a chance to improve my skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
The work that I do makes full use of my knowledge and skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
The pay and benefits I receive are fair for the work I do	1	2	3	4	5	6

**3.15 Please provide us with information on the number of hours that you are working?**

How many hours a week are you required to work for your salary?

How many hours did you work last week?

Would you like to work more hours (not overtime) in order to increase your earnings?

If yes, how many more hours a week would you like to work?

Do you work overtime?

How many hours of paid overtime did you work last week?

YES (if yes skip to 3.16 E)	NO (if NO skip to 3.17)
Y	N

**3.16 Please provide us with information about your working conditions and benefits :**

Which of the following benefits, if any, are you entitled to?

- a) Paid leave
- b) Sick leave
- c) Maternity / paternity leave
- d) Does your employer pay UIF?
- e) Accomodation
- f) Does your employer contribute towards membership of a medical aid fund health insurance?

YES	NO
YES	NO
YES	NO
YES	NO
YES	NO
YES	NO

**3.18 Please indicate whether you regularly work in close contact with ::**

- a) dangerous machines?
- b) chemically hazardous materials?
- c) inflammable or explosive materials?

YES	NO
YES	NO
YES	NO

**3.19 Please indicate whether the conditions stated above were indicated in your contract of employment ( or verbal agreement) :**

Yes	1
No	2
Can't remember	3

**3.20 Have you ever considered quitting this job because of the working conditions?**

Yes	1
No	2

**3.21 Please provide an explanation of your answer**

--

**3.22 Overall, how satisfied would you say you are in your current job?**

Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied	(Can't choose)
1	2	3	4	5	6

**3.23 What income band best describes your monthly income (before deductions):**

R1 – R500	1
R501 – R750	2
R751 – R1 000	3
R1 001 – R1 500	4
R1 501 – R2 000	5
R2 001 – R3 000	6
R3 001 – R5 000	7
R5 001 – R7 500	8
R7 501 – R10 000	9
R10 001 – R15 000	10
R15 001 – R20 000	11
R20 001 – R30 000	12
R30 000 and above	13
Refused to answer	14
Not sure / don't know	15

**PART B: PREVIOUS EMPLOYMENT**

**4. Tell us about your PREVIOUS employment activities:**

**4.1 Please provide your previous position / post description? (E.g. Clerk, IT Manager, etc.) – Job title**

--

4.2 Main task or duty

4.3 Main goods or services produced or main functions

**4.4 Nature of employment:**

Part time	1
Full time	2
Temporal	3
Casual	4

**4.5 Weekly working hours:**

< 40 hours)

1
2

>= 40 hours)

**4.6 Nature of employment contract:**

Written Contract / temporary (with fixed end date)

1
2
3
4
5

Written Contract Permanent (no end date)

Casual (day to day/on and off)

A verbal agreement (indefinite duration)

No formal contract

**4.7 Was this contract with your employer or the contractor**

Employer

1
2

Contractor

**4.9 About your employer:**

Private sector/ Enterprise

1
2
3
4

Self Employed

Parastatal

Government

**4.10 Sector employed in:**

Formal

1
2

Informal

**4.11 In which economic sector did the company that you worked for fall:**

Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing

Mining and quarrying

Manufacturing

Electricity, gas and water

Construction

Wholesale and retail trade

Transport, storage and communication

Financial intermediation, insurance, real estate and business services

Community, social and personal services

Private households with employed people

Unsure

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

**4.12 How did you find this job:**

Talked to relatives, friends, or colleagues about finding a job

Answered advertisements for jobs in newspapers

Looked for job on internet

Applied directly to employers/ Making enquiries to prospective employer

Gone for a job interview

Advertised for a job in newspaper or journals

Registered at a public labour centre (PES)

Registered at a private employment agency

Waited on the side of the road

Other (Please specify)

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10



---

**4.16 Please indicate the MAIN reason for leaving your previous job:**

Contract ended	1
Health reasons	2
Dismissed (Fired)	3
Retrenchment	4
Family responsibilities	5
Transport problems to the place of work (physical and cost)	6
Accommodation problems (physical and cost)	7
Found a better job	8
Low salary	9
Dissatisfied with the job	10
Seasonal work	11
Retired	12
No desire to work	13
Left for school or training	14
Don't remember	15
Other	16

---

**4.17 What income band best described your monthly income (before deductions):**

R1 – R500	1
R501 – R750	2
R751 – R1 000	3
R1 001 – R1 500	4
R1 501 – R2 000	5
R2 001 – R3 000	6
R3 001 – R5 000	7
R5 001 – R7 500	8
R7 501 – R10 000	9
R10 001 – R15 000	10
R15 001 – R20 000	11
R20 001 – R30 000	12
R30 000 and above	13
Refused to answer	15
Not sure / don't know	16

---

**PART C: CURRENTLY NOT OR NEVER IN PAID WORK**

**5.1 For how long have you been without work and trying to find another job?**

Less than 3 months	1
3 months – less than 6 months	2
6 months – less than 9 months	3
9 months – less than a year	4
1 year – less than 3 years	5
3 years – 5 years	6
More than 5 years	7
Has never worked before	8

---

**5.2 Apart from registering at the Department of labour's labour centre, what other job search method are you using to find employment**

(More than one option can be selected)

Talked to relatives, friends, or colleagues about finding a job	1
Answered advertisements for jobs in newspapers	2
Looked for job on internet	3
Applied directly to employers/ Making enquiries to prospective employer	4
Gone for a job interview	5
Advertised for a job in newspaper or journals	6
Registered at a private employment agency	7
Waited on the side of the road	8
Other (Please specify)	9

**5.4 If you had a choice between different jobs, what job would you like to have?**

**5.5 Please elaborate on why you want that specific job?**

I know someone who can get me in	1
Because of my work experience	2
Because of my education, qualifications and skills	3
It would be easier to get that kind of a job	4
Other, please explain	5

**5.6 How likely do you think it is that you would find a job in the next three months?**

Very unlikely	Unlikely	Likely	Very likely	Don't know
1	2	3	4	5

**5.7 Please give a reason for your selected response:**

**5.8 What are the two most important factors you consider when looking for a job?**

Wages or income	1
Fringe benefits (medical, pension, etc.)	2
Working hours	3
Interesting work	4
Suitability with qualifications/skills/training	5
Career prospects or chances for promotion	6
Job security	7
Job that is close to where I stay	8
Fitting in with family responsibilities	9
No criteria: will take any job	10
Don't Know / No answer	11
Other (Please specify)	12

**5.9. What are the biggest obstacles you have faced in trying to find work? (Please select at most 2 answers)**

No obstacles	1
Difficult to get information about employment	2
Few employment opportunities in this area	3
My education or job skills don't fit available jobs	4
Don't have resources to look for employment	5
Don't have personal connections	6
Discrimination due to age, race, nationality or gender	7
Don't have proper working or residence papers	8
No resources to start my own enterprise	9
Disability	10
Health reasons	11
No necessary documentation e.g. IDs	12
Don't want to take available jobs	13
Don't Know / No answer	14
Other (Please specify)	15

---

**5.10 What do you think is the main reason that you have not found a job?**

Lack of appropriate skills	1
Lack of appropriate work opportunities	2
Lack of work experience	3
Not interested in available jobs	4
General scarcity of jobs	5
Disability	6
(Don't know)	7
Other (specify)	8

---

**5.11 If a job was offered to you within 5 KILOMETRES of your stay, what weekly salary would you accept? (Round off to the nearest R100.)**

R

**5.12 What do you currently do with your time? (Select one option only)**

Studying, full time	1
Studying, part time	2
Doing unpaid volunteer	3
Piece work for payment in kind	4
Looking for work	5
Doing nothing	6
Taking care of home full-time	7
Other (Please specify)	8

---

**5.13 What are you planning to do in the next few months to change our employment status? (More than one may be selected)**

Keep on looking for any job	1
Keep looking for a job in related field	2
Give up looking for a job	3
Consider self-employment	4
Enrol for further education and training	5
Other (Please specify)	4

---

**5.14 Given that you are currently out of work, what are your sources of support for survival? (May select more than one option)**

Piece work for pay/in kind	1
Piece work for payment in kind	2
Child support grant	3
Foster care grant	4
Pension in family	5
Cash / food / clothing from family / friends	6
Disability grant / pension	7
Other (Please specify)	8

**5.15 Does anyone in this household contribute to any of your expenses, such as clothing, transport, fees, or contribute toward your share of food, electricity, rent, etc.?**

Parents	YES	NO
Partner	YES	NO
In-laws	YES	NO
Family	YES	NO
Friend	YES	NO
Neighbour	YES	NO
Other unrelated	YES	NO
Don't know	YES	NO
Other	YES	NO

**5.16 If you had a job, would other people (excluding your spouse and children) expect you to support them financially?**

YES	NO
-----	----

**SKILLS AND TRAINING**

**6.1 How would you rate your language skills in English?**

	Don't know at all	A little bit	Can use for everyday situations	Know very well	Not sure / No answer
Speaking English	1	2	3	4	5
Reading English	1	2	3	4	5
Writing English	1	2	3	4	5

**6.2 On a scale from one to five, where 1 = poor and 5 = excellent, please rate your proficiency in the following:**

	Poor				Excellent	(Do not know)
Computer skills	1	2	3	4	5	8

**PERCEPTIONS ABOUT WORK AND PREFERENCES**

**7.1. Please indicate to what extent do you think the following aspects of a job are important or unimportant?**

	Unimportant	Neither important nor unimportant	Important
Your earnings?	1	2	3
Job security?	1	2	3
Type of work?	1	2	3
Interesting job?	1	2	3
Opportunities to use your skills or education?	1	2	3
Working times (day/ night / shift)?	1	2	3
Distance to the job?	1	2	3

**7.2. Would you be prepared to take a job that will expose you to the following:**

	Yes	No	Maybe
Air pollution (dust, smoke, gas, fumes)?	1	2	3
Too much heat?	1	2	3
Too much cold?	1	2	3
Too much noise?	1	2	3
High and below ground level?	1	2	3

**7.3. Would you be willing to accept a job where you will work in close contact with :**

	Yes	No	Maybe
Dangerous machines?	1	2	3
Chemically hazardous materials?	1	2	3
Inflammable or explosive materials?	1	2	3

**7.4. In order to avoid unemployment, would you be willing to take a job that will require:**

	Yes	No	Maybe
Skills for which you have not been trained?	1	2	3
You move to another area?	1	2	3
To accept less pay than you expect?	1	2	3
You to work weekends and holidays?	1	2	3

**7.5. What is the maximum time you would be willing to commute to work each day?**

5 minutes	1
15 minutes	2
30 minutes	3
45 minutes	4
An hour and above	5
It does not matter	4

**7.6 How likely do you think it is that you would encourage your friends and relatives to work in the following industries?**

	Never	Neutral	Likely
Agriculture	1	2	3
Construction	1	2	3
Hospitality	1	2	3
Security	1	2	3
Mining	1	2	3

**7.7 What about you, do you think that you will accept work in the following industries?**

	Never	Neutral	Likely	Please state the reason for your answer:
Agriculture	1	2	3	
Construction	1	2	3	
Hospitality	1	2	3	
Security	1	2	3	
Mining	1	2	3	

**7.8 What type of work, if any, that is available locally would you regard as below your dignity?**


**7.9 How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?**

A job is just a way of earning money – no more

I would enjoy having a paid job even if I did not need the money

Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree
1	2	3
1	2	3

**ATTITUDES TOWARDS FOREIGN IMMIGRANTS**

**8.1 How many immigrants would you say live in your area?**

None

Few

Some

Many

(Can't choose)

1
2
3
4
6

**8.2 To what extent do you AGREE or DISAGREE that, South African employers should hire foreign immigrants for the following occupations?**

	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Doctors	1	2	3
Teachers	1	2	3
Waiters	1	2	3
Farm workers	1	2	3
Domestic workers	1	2	3
Security officers	1	2	3
Engineers	1	2	3
Miners	1	2	3

**8.3 To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Is it because:**

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	(Do not know)
It's easier to pay foreigners low wages	1	2	3	4	5	8
Locals workers are not hardworking	1	2	3	4	5	8
Employers cannot find locals willing to work in certain jobs	1	2	3	4	5	8
Foreigners have better skills than locals	1	2	3	4	5	8

**FAMILY SOCIO ECONOMIC STATUS**

**9.1 What are the main sources of income in your household?**

Salaries and/or wages	1
Remittances	2
Pensions and/or grants	3
Sale of farm products and services	4
Other non-farm income	5
No income	6
(Refused to answer)	7
(Don't know)	8

**9.2 Do you or anyone in this household receive any of the following Welfare Grants?**

Old Age Grant	YES	NO
Child Support Grant	YES	NO
Disability Grant	YES	NO
Care dependency grant	YES	NO
Foster care grant	YES	NO
Grant in aid	YES	NO
UIF (Blue Card) or workman's compensation	YES	NO
Social Relief of Distress (emergency food parcels, food vouchers or temporary cash transfer)	YES	NO
Military Veterans Grant	YES	NO
(No-one in household receiving any benefits)	YES	NO
(Refused to answer)	YES	NO
(Do not know)	YES	NO

**9.3 What is your household's gross monthly income before deductions?**

No income	1
R1 – R500	2
R501 – R750	3
R751 – R1 000	4
R1 001 – R1 500	5
R1 501 – R2 000	6
R2 001 – R3 000	7
R3 001 – R5 000	8
R5 001 – R7 500	9
R7 501 – R10 000	10
R10 001 – R15 000	11
R15 001 – R20 000	12
R20 001 – R30 000	13
R30 000 and above	14
Refused to answer	15
Not sure / don't know	16

**9.4 How many people (adults and children) do you stay with at your current residential address?**

**9.5 How many of the people counted above receive an income?**

**9.8 In which type of dwelling / house do you stay?**

Dwelling/ house or brick structure on a separate stand or yard	1
Traditional dwelling/ hut / structure made of traditional materials	2
Flat or apartment in a block of flats	3
Town / cluster / semi-detached house (simplex, duplex or triplex)	4
Unit in a retirement village	5
Dwelling/ house / flat/ room in back yard	6
Informal dwelling/ shack in back yard	7
Informal dwelling/ shack NOT in back yard-- e.g. in informal / squatter settlement	8
Room / flatlet in someone else's house	9
Hostel or dormitory	10
Other (Specify)	11

**DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

*Please verify the populated fields. Make changes and/or additions if necessary.*

Please tick the appropriate boxes where applicable?

<b>10.1 Population group:</b>	African	<input type="checkbox"/>	<b>10.2. Gender:</b>	Male	<input type="checkbox"/>	<b>10.3. Date of birth :</b>	yyyy/mm/dd
	Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>		Female	<input type="checkbox"/>		
	Indian	<input type="checkbox"/>					
	White	<input type="checkbox"/>					
	Other	<input type="checkbox"/>					

**10.4. Are you a person living with a disability?**

None	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sight (blind / severe visual limitation)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hearing (deaf, profoundly hard of hearing)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Communication (speech impairment)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Physical (e.g. needs wheelchair, crutches or prosthesis)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Intellectual (serious difficulties in learning)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Emotional (behavioural, psychological)	<input type="checkbox"/>

**10.5. What is the highest**

**qualification that you have successfully completed?**

Not applicable	<input type="checkbox"/>
Std 1 / Gr 3 (NQF 0 (ABET 1))	<input type="checkbox"/>
Std 3 / Gr 5 (NQF 0 (ABET 2))	<input type="checkbox"/>
Std 5 / Gr 7 (NQF 0 (ABET 3))	<input type="checkbox"/>
Std 7 / Gr 9 (NQF 1 (ABET 4))	<input type="checkbox"/>
N1 (NQF 2)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Std 8 / Gr 10 (NQF 2)	<input type="checkbox"/>



**10.6. Which ONE of the following languages do you speak the most at home?**

Afrikaans	1
English	2
IsiNdebele	3
Sepedi	4
Sesotho	5
Seswati	6
Setswana	7
Tshivenda	8
IsiXhosa	9
IsiZulu	10
Xitsonga	11
Other	12

N2 (NQF 3)	8
Std 9 / Gr 11 (NQF 3)	9
Matric (NQF 4)	10
N3 (NQF 4)	11
Higher certificate (NQF 5)	12
Diploma / Advanced certificate (NQF 6)	13
Bachelor's degree / Advanced diploma (NQF 7)	14
Honours degree / Post graduate diploma (NQF 8)	15
Master's degree (NQF 9)	16
Doctorates (NQF 10)	17

10.7. Do you currently have a valid driver's license?

YES	NO
YES	NO

10.8. Were/Are you a member of a trade union?

10.9 Place and province of birth

10.10 Place and province where you grew up?

10.11 Place and province where you currently live?

10.12 Place and province where you registered with the Department of Labour 's Labour Centre?

10.13 Labour centre where you registered with the Department of Labour 's ESSA?

Place	Province

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION**