Measuring the determinants of decent work: Evidence from the Gauteng City-Region

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ABSTRACT

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) has developed a decent work framework which relies on macroeconomic variables to measure the quality of jobs at the country level, and allow for comparability across countries and regions. Some studies have attempted to apply this concept at the micro level, although nationally representative surveys often do not contain the required variables with which to measure or construct decent work indices. The Gauteng City-Region Observatory Quality of Life Survey has incorporated a decent work index (DWI) into their questionnaire. This research made use of this DWI to investigate which factors were significant in determining an individual's DWI. Descriptive statistics and ordinal logistic regressions were utilised to investigate the factors which influence an individual's DWI, and found that individuals with full-time formal employment were more likely to have a higher DWI than individuals with alternative working agreements. Furthermore, it found that individuals in the mining sector have the lowest share of individuals with a low DWI. Using individual characteristics, an individual's DWI was more likely to increase with age, although for women this decreased after the age of 45. Additionally, males were more likely to have a higher DWI than females, while recently located migrants to the Gauteng region were less likely to have a high DWI. Thus, the DWI confirms that 'good' jobs are still biased towards males and formal sector jobs. Although the elements included in the index are not exhaustive of all the factors which may constitute a 'good' job, it does, however, provide a point of departure for the incorporation of a quantitatively measured DWI into large scale nationally representative surveys.

JEL classification: J81; J01; J08; D00

Keywords: Decent work; Gauteng; Labour market; gender; Decent work index; sector

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INTRODUCTION

The concept of decent work has grown in popularity in recent years, and has additionally been identified as one of the United Nations' sustainable development goals. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines decent work as "opportunities for women and men to obtain decent and productive work in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity" (Anker, Chernyshev, Egger, Mehran, & Ritter, 2002, p. 2). Decent work is further defined as "an aspirational statement about the sort of work that ought to define the lives of all who work and who want to work" (Blustein, Olle, Connors-Kellgren, & Diamonti, 2016, p. 1). Though the decent work framework was conceptualised by the ILO in the late 1990s, studies related to decent work has been limited in comparison to those which attempt to investigate related concepts such as job satisfaction and job quality (Burchell, Sehnbruch, Piasna, & Agloni, 2013). However, the benefit which the ILO's decent work framework provides is that it makes an attempt to standardise and universalise what should define decent work or a 'good job', which has often been considered through different lenses depending on which discipline, country, or industry it is studied in.

There is the view that good or decent jobs are imperative to the successful development of the economy (ILO, 2007; Moussa, 2017; Wicaksono & Priyadi, 2016), while others have argued that pushing a decent work agenda in a labour market with high levels of unemployment could divert resources and attention away from a seemingly more imperative job creation strategy (Cohen & Moodley, 2012). Despite this, decent work and its applicability has been studied in depth (Findlay, Kalleberg, & Warhurst, 2013; Ghai, 2003, 2006; Herath, 2011; Rodgers, 2007; Selwyn, 2013), although another controversy surrounding this concept has related to the measurement thereof. Decent work can be measured qualitatively and/or quantitatively, and the ILO has suggested that utilising these approaches simultaneously is most desirable in the measurement of decent work (ILO, 2012). However, time and resource constraints often only allow researchers to apply one of these methods. Furthermore, although the ILO provides adequate guidelines for the quantitative measurement of decent work at the macro level, they do not provide guidance on the measurement at the micro level (i.e. individual, firm or industry level).

The objective of this research was thus to construct a decent work index using the Gauteng City-Region Observatory's (GCRO) Quality of Life III (2013) Survey (QoL). The index, an ordered variable, then allowed for the determination of which characteristics were predictors of an individual's decent work index (DWI). Most South African nationally representative surveys do not have an adequate amount of information to paint a complete picture of the quality of people's jobs, and the DWI in the QoL survey thus provides a point of departure for consideration in the design in other large surveys.

This paper will provide an overview of the ILO's decent work agenda and the importance thereof in the changing global labour market. Followed by a review of studies which have applied the decent work framework empirically, using various components in difference contexts. The next section will then provide an overview of the South African labour market, followed by a discussion of the GCRO's decent work index (DWI), it's application, and the results obtained.

THE ILO'S DECENT WORK AGENDA

At a global level, deregulation, globalisation, casualisation, and the feminisation of the labour force have all formed part of the process which have led to the quality of work which workers currently have. Protecting workers against exploitative practices have become increasingly difficult because of these phenomena, particularly those employed on a part-time or temporary basis in the formal labour sector, or those employed in the informal sector. The concept of decent work largely stems from the market reform agenda pursued by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) which has "undermined the collective bargaining power of labour", through the "deregulation and/or liberalisation of product markets ("non-protectionism") and the deregulation of labour markets ("labour flexibility")" (Von Broembsen, 2012, p. 5). This was aimed at encouraging governments to find a balance between regulation and free markets to avoid high labour costs of businesses which will decrease productivity, and stifle the investment capacity of firms (World Bank, 2006).

The decent work framework is based on four strategic pillars; "full and productive employment, rights at work, social protection and the promotion of social dialogue" (ILO, 2012, p. 7). They further go on to identify indicators which are based on these pillars. These are employment opportunities, adequate earnings and productive work, decent hours or working time, combining work, family, and personal life, work that should be abolished, stability and security at work, equal opportunity and treatment in employment, safe work environment, social security, social dialogue, employers' and workers' representation, economic and social context, and a safe work environment (ILO, 2012, 2013, 2014).

According to Standing (2002, p. 443) "the ILO wishes to help develop and apply an instrument designed for national monitoring, an instrument that can be incorporated into national statistical programmes with national representative random samples and, if applicable, a standard core questionnaire." He further goes on to propose a measure for a decent work index (DWI) which is created additively, "by giving a positive value to certain desirable elements if the individual possesses (or has access to) them, a zero value if not, and a negative value if a negative condition exist" (Standing, 2002, p. 445). Tools which could be considered in the measurement of decent work have been suggested by the ILO and have been built on by

authors[2], some of them macro indicators[3] and others, micro indicators. However, a number of challenges related to the measurement of the indicators exist and one of them is that a lack of internationally analogous datasets make it difficult to conceptualise comparable decent work indices across countries (Burchell et al., 2013; Ghai, 2003). Although researchers have used the statistical indicators identified by the ILO where data were available.

Ghai (2003), for instance, undertook a macro cross-national analysis using 22 OECD countries which are relatively homogenous in their levels of development and for which statistics to undertake a study of this nature was readily available. The ILO's four strategic pillars were used to calculate a DWI for each country, and the economic performance of each was added to the calculation. These countries were then ranked from 1 (the best) to 22 (the worst), although countries would change their position in the rank if only one of the components were considered. Indicating that while some countries may perform worse than others in terms of certain individual components, when all the components are added up, those same countries may perform better overall.

A limitation of rankings and cross-national studies is that these types of studies do not consider the specific deficits which the individual countries, and industries within those countries, may be experiencing in relation to their DWIs. Macro level indicators fail to capture the unique country differences, and as such, some indicators become difficult to compare. The ILO is not specific on the measurement at the micro level either (see for example ILO (2012)). Furthermore, given that labour market surveys do not usually focus on the quality of work, but rather on quantifying numbers relating to labour market status, industries employed in and so forth (Anker et al., 2002), measuring decent work using exiting statistics has been a challenge. This is especially true in a country like South Africa which is plagued by high unemployment rates and income inequality. However, macro level indicators are important to consider nonetheless, and the case for internationally comparable indices is convincingly made by Burchell et al. (2013), but should be complemented by micro level indicators and specific country contexts.

Others have made an attempt at applying these indices at the micro level, where an index could be constructed at the individual level (see for example Moussa (2017), Standing (2002) and Webster, Budlender and Orkin (2015)). However, as the ILO does not have any prescriptions on what a micro level index should look like, authors have used their discretion to decide which measures would best represent the indicators recommended by the ILO; based on what would be most appropriate to measure a certain

[2] The bulk of research on decent work measurement has been published in the ILO's own International Labour Review (Duffy, Blustein, Diemer, & Autin, 2016; Ghai, 2003; Standing, 2002; Webster et al., 2015)

[3] Anker et al. (2002) provides an extensive discussion of indicators which can be used on a macroeconomic level for countries to determine the level of decent work in the labour market.

indicator, or what was available in existing data. This research used the indicators which were included in the GCRO's Quality of Life Survey, which will be expanded on after the following section.

AN OVERVIEW OF THE GAUTENG ECONOMY

South Africa's labour market has been plagued by high levels of unemployment, increasing feminisation of the labour force, and stubborn structural inequalities. South Africa's unemployment rate has remained between 20% and 30% since 1994, reaching just above 27% in 2016 (see Figure 1). This rate only includes those individuals who are officially unemployed. If the 'discouraged work seekers' are included this rate increases to more than 35%. More than a third of the active labour force is thus unemployed.

Figure 1: Unemployment Rate, 1994-2017

Source: Stats SA Quarterly Labour Force Trends, 2008-2017 and South African Reserve Bank

Given the surplus supply of mostly unskilled labour, the decent work framework may be a highly relevant measure in the case of South Africa, as this might increase vulnerability amongst workers[4]. Expectedly, those individuals who are most vulnerable in their socioeconomic status would also most likely be the subjects of exploitation in the labour market.

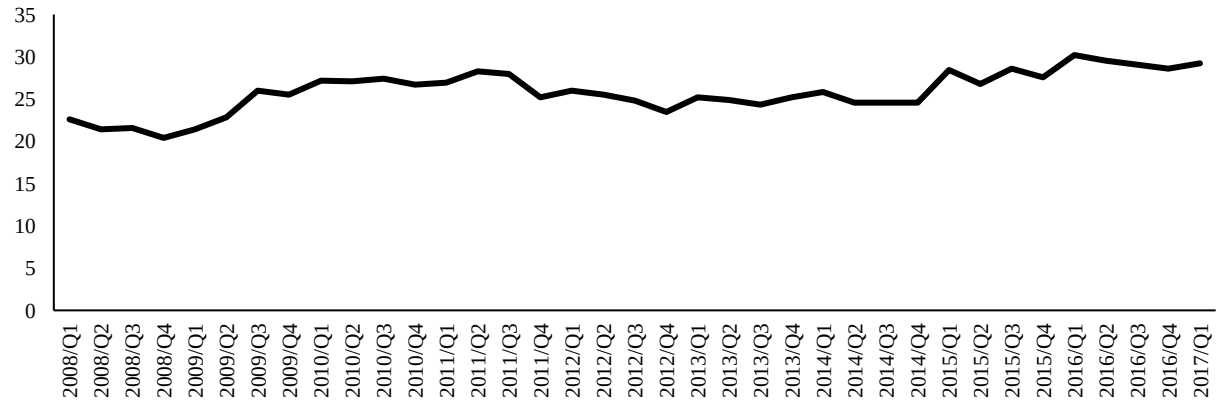
For example, one would expect women to be in jobs where there is less security, employed in industries which do not pay as well, and thus have lower DWIs. While some may argue that women purposely choose these types of jobs, the circumstances which drove many women to the labour market in South

[4] This would increase vulnerability amongst workers if the surplus labour force has what is demanded by employers. A mismatch of supply and demand in the labour market would likely just result in unemployment, which is currently the case in South Africa.

Africa suggests that this is not necessarily the case (see Ntuli and Wittenberg (2013) and Casale (2004) for a discussion on the determinants of female labour force participation in South Africa)

The unemployment rate in the Gauteng province, South Africa's economic hub, is reflective of the unemployment at the national level. This province's unemployment rate has also remained well above 20% since 2008 (see Figure 2). The state of unemployment in the city is of importance and concern as the province is the country's largest contributor to GDP.

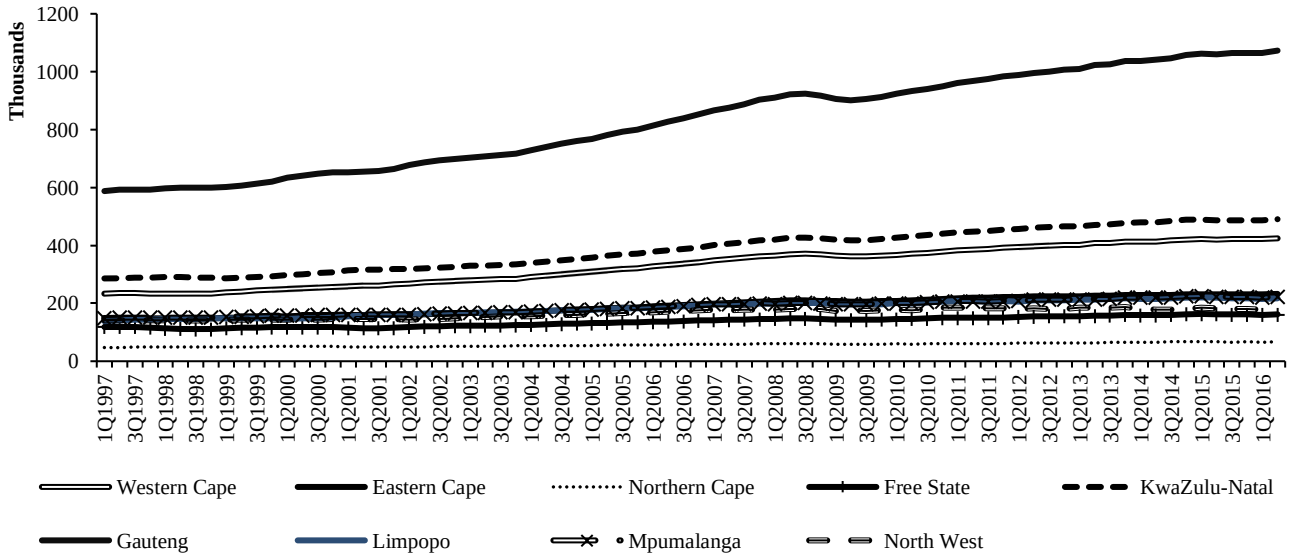
Figure 2: Gauteng official unemployment rate (%)



Source: Labour force survey trends

Compared to the other provinces, Gauteng province has made a substantial contribution to GDP, reaching over R1 million at the beginning of 2016 (see Figure 3). The second and third largest provinces in the country, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape, each managed to contribute less than R500 000 to GDP, thus indicating the importance of the economic contribution which Gauteng makes, and the need for a well-functioning labour market in the province.

Figure 3: GDP by Province (R millions)



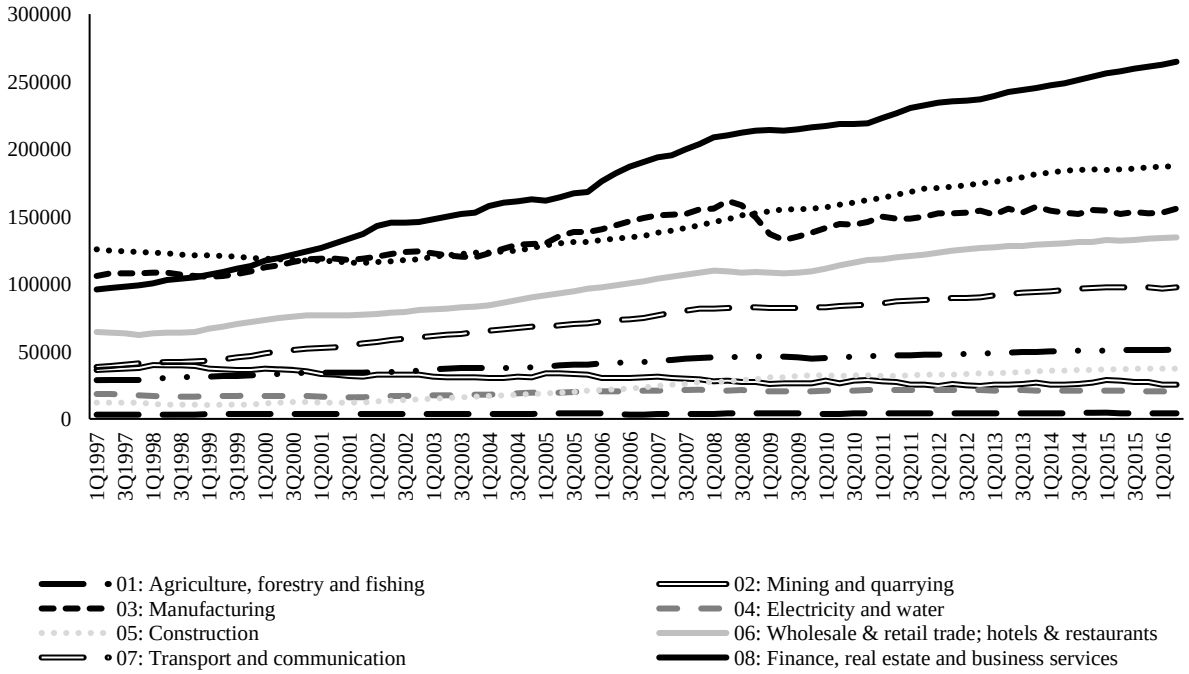
Source: Quantec

Urbanisation has also been a contributor to this problem. Urbanisation in South Africa has been similar to urbanisation in other developing countries; with a general decline being noticeable in agricultural labour, which is the norm in low income countries, and an increase in non-agricultural labour (World Bank, 2013).

Gauteng has been one of the primary destinations for rural to urban migration, which has been accompanied by urban unemployment and individuals resorting to entering the informal sector for opportunities (Paret, 2013). Migrants coming from other provinces within the country are more likely to be male and working age, indicating that these would be individuals most likely in need of work opportunities in the province (Oosthuizen & Naidoo, 2004). In 2009, Johannesburg, Tshwane, and Ekurhuleni alone made up 32 per cent of economic output (Turok, 2012). Some have attributed the rise in urbanisation to the urban bias which is often found in government spending (World Bank, 2009).

By industry, mining is one of the sectors which has been in decline, although high union density persists in the industry. The manufacturing sector has similarly been in decline, over the last two decades. Although movements in the growth of this sector has been more volatile than the other industries. The financial services sector has more than doubled its contribution to the provincial GDP over the last two decades and has been the largest contributor to provincial GDP since the early 2000s (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: Gauteng GDP by industry (basic prices)



Source: Quantec

DATA

The Quality of Life Survey (QoL) is conducted in the GCRO on a biennial cycle[5]. This research utilised the QOL III (2013) which is the third wave of data and consists of 27 490 respondents. The sample includes individuals between the ages of 16 and 59 who reported being in employment.

A DWI index is built into the survey using binary questions. Respondents are asked whether they are provided with training and education, paid or sick leave, family leave, a housing subsidy, a transport allowance, overtime payments, medical aid, a pension or provident fund, a performance bonus, and an annual bonus or 13th cheque. Lastly, the respondents are asked what type of contractual agreement they have with their employer. The responses were coded as 1 if the responded answered yes to a question and 0 if they answered no, while permanent contract arrangements were coded as 1 and 0 otherwise. The index was then constructed by adding up the values of the responses. This gave each individual a score of between 0 (if the individual did not have a permanent contract and answered no to all the questions) and 11 (if the individual had a permanent contract and answered yes to all the questions). Individuals with

[5] The data used in this paper is taken from the 2013 Quality of Life Survey commissioned by the Gauteng City-Region Observatory, a partnership of the University of Johannesburg, the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg and the Gauteng Provincial Government.

scores between 0 and 4 were categorised as having low DWIs, between 5 and 8 as medium DWIs and 9 to 11 as high DWIs.

An ordered logistic model was utilised, which takes on the following form (Greene, 2003):

$$y = x'\beta + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

Where y took on a value of 0 if the individual had a low DWI, 1 if the individual had a medium DWI, and 2 if the individual had a high DWI. Unobservable factors are embedded in ε, the explanatory variables represented by x, and the corresponding coefficient vector, β. These include individual characteristics about an individual, such a gender, age, and level of education. In addition, the individual's employment status and industry, as well as a migration variable were also included. All the regressions were weighted using GCRO weights and includes pooled regressions, as well as regressions disaggregated by gender. Descriptive statistics are presented in the following section which cross tabulates the explanatory variables with the DWI variable.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics

Table 1 displays DWI by gender and indicates that most individuals have low DWI's in the Gauteng City Region, with 52.97% of all workers in the region having a low DWI, 36.14% of employed individuals having a medium DWI, and only 10.88% of individuals a high DWI. Females in the region had a greater percentage of workers with low DWIs compared to men, with 56.08% of workers with a low DWI compared to 51% of men with low DWIs. On the other hand, men had a greater percentage of workers with a high DWI, with 10.99% of the employed male population having a high DWI, compared to 10.72% of the female population with a high DWI. This is also an indication of the types of jobs which are often available to women, who are disproportionately responsible for childcare, housework and other reproductive responsibilities in the private home (Rosenfeld & Birkelund, 1995). They would thus be unlikely to have the same amount of bargaining power in the labour market as men. Concerning, however, is that for both sexes more than half of workers had a low DWI, while the same was true for the pooled regressions.

Table 1: Decent work index by gender (%)

	Low	Medium	High	Total
Male	51.00 (0.70)	38.01 (0.68)	10.99 (0.44)	**100**
Female	56.08	33.20	10.72	**100**

	(0.80)	(0.77)	(0.52)	
Total	52.97 (0.53)	36.14 (0.51)	10.88 (0.34)	**100**
N		**11197**		

Notes:
1. *Date are weighted*
2. *Standard errors in parentheses*

Table 2 displays the index by age bracket. For the pooled category, the 16 to 24-year-old group had the highest percentage of individuals with low DWIs (67.17%), while the 35 to 44-year-old group had the lowest percentage of individuals with low DWIs (48.43%). This is an indication of the increase in the quality of jobs which are available as one becomes older, which often accompanies an increased amount of experience, skill levels, and education.

Men between the ages of 16 and 24 had a greater percentage of individuals with low DWIs (68.50%), compared to females (64.40%), although the same group also had a greater percentage of males with high DWIs (4.32%) than females (3.26%). For all the other age brackets, women had a greater percentage of individuals with low DWIs compared to males. Although the difference between those with low DWIs and a high DWIs are greatest for the 45 to 59 age bracket, where a much larger percentage of women have low DWIs than men. This could likely reflect the changing labour market prospects of women as they become older and more susceptible to age based discrimination (Chepngeno-Langat & Hosegood, 2012). This could also reflect the increasing vulnerability of workers as they approach retirement age.

Table 2: Decent work index by age (%)

	All			**Male**			**Female**		
	Low	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**
16-24	67.17 (1.68)	28.86 (1.63)	3.98 (0.69)	68.50 (2.08)	27.18 (2.00)	4.32 (0.91)	64.40 (2.80)	32.34 (2.77)	3.26 (0.95)
25-34	54.01 (0.90)	36.95 (0.88)	9.04 (0.52)	52.55 (1.16)	38.57 (1.14)	8.88 (0.67)	56.60 (1.40)	34.07 (1.35)	9.32 (0.85)
35-44	48.43 (0.96)	38.12 (0.94)	13.44 (0.67)	46.96 (1.27)	40.06 (1.25)	12.98 (0.86)	50.67 (1.44)	35.18 (1.41)	14.15 (1.04)
45-59	51.93 (1.02)	35.40 (0.99)	12.67 (0.70)	46.42 (1.41)	39.24 (1.39)	14.34 (1.00)	59.01 (1.47)	30.48 (1.40)	10.52 (0.96)
Total	52.97 (0.53)	36.14 (0.51)	10.88 (0.34)	51.00 (0.70)	38.01 (0.68)	10.99 (0.44)	56.08 (0.80)	33.20 (0.77)	10.72 (0.52)
N		**11197**			**6047**			**5150**	

Notes:
1. *Date are weighted*
2. *Standard errors in parentheses*
3. *Rows add up to 100%*

Table 3 displays DWIs by education level and reflects how important education is for labour market success in the South African context. Workers who had no schooling were the worst off with 87.82% having low DWIs. This changes dramatically once an individual has obtained a tertiary level qualification. Just over a quarter (26.78%) of workers with tertiary level qualification had low DWIs, while this group also had the highest percentage of individuals with high DWIs (23.25%).

Both men and women with no schooling had a high percentage of workers with low DWIs. Men with no schooling had 86.09% of workers with low DWIs, while 90.20% of women with no schooling had low DWIs. Although women with primary schooling had an even larger percentage of workers with low DWIs (90.59%). These figures also were considerably lower for workers who had tertiary education. These percentages dropped to 27.14% for men and 26.27% for women. These also translate to higher percentages of individuals with high DWIs for both groups, with 22.79% of men with tertiary level qualifications having high DWIs and 23.91% of women with high DWIs.

Table 3: Decent work index by education level (%)

	All			Men			Women		
	Low	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**
No schooling	87.82	10.92	1.27	86.09	13.21	0.70	90.20	7.76	2.04
	(3.32)	(3.27)	(0.74)	(4.82)	(4.79)	(0.70)	(4.27)	(4.09)	(1.45)
Primary	81.49	16.54	1.96	75.43	21.99	2.58	90.59	8.37	1.04
	(1.34)	(1.28)	(0.51)	(2.00)	(1.91)	(0.79)	(1.41)	(1.34)	(0.48)
Secondary	74.74	22.48	2.78	70.36	26.24	3.40	81.50	16.67	1.83
	(0.86)	(0.82)	(0.33)	(1.20)	(1.15)	(0.48)	(1.13)	(1.09)	(0.39)
Matric	51.50	40.40	8.10	49.68	41.55	8.77	54.79	38.32	6.89
	(0.96)	(0.95)	(0.52)	(1.23)	(1.22)	(0.69)	(1.50)	(1.48)	(0.76)
Tertiary	26.78	49.97	23.25	27.14	50.07	22.79	26.27	49.82	23.91
	(0.86)	(0.97)	(0.82)	(1.14)	(1.29)	(1.08)	(1.32)	(1.49)	(1.26)
Total	52.76	36.30	10.94	50.78	38.16	11.06	55.86	33.39	10.75
	(0.53)	(0.51)	(0.34)	(0.70)	(0.68)	(0.44)	(0.80)	(0.77)	(0.52)
N	**11087**			**5984**			**5103**		

Notes:

1. *Date are weighted*
2. *Standard errors in parentheses*
3. *Rows add up to 100%*

Most workers who were in full-time formal employment had a medium decent work index; indicating that the majority of workers in the province did not qualify for all the benefits included in the GCRO's DWI (see Table 4). It is notable that workers with full time contracts are in a more privileged position than

workers with any other type of employment arrangement. Of those with full time contracts, 18.97% of all workers had a high DWI, 18.75% of men had a high DWI, and 19.34% of women had a high DWI. For all other work arrangements, less than 2% of workers had high DWIs. Interestingly, however, is that a quarter of the workers working full time in the formal sector still have low DWIs, despite these types of contractual arrangements being perceived as most desirable for the social security of workers.

Compared to men, women had a higher percentage of individuals with low DWIs for all the employment categories, except for home businesses, where men had 93.14% of workers with a low DWI, compared to women, where 92.27% of workers had low DWIs. Interestingly, women also had the highest percentage of individuals with high DWIs in each category, compared to men, with the exception of part-time formal employment where men had 1.54% of workers with a high DWI compared to women with 1.21% of workers with a high DWI.

The category where men had a high percentage of low DWI workers is in part-time informal employment. Men with this type of employment had 93.59% of individuals with low DWIs. In the case of women, the same work arrangement resulted in a high percentage of low DWI workers (97.29%). For both men and women, less than 1% of workers working part-time in the informal sector had a high DWI. This indicates that the informal economy is not conducive to high quality jobs, but that circumstance for workers who are only able to engage in this industry on a part-time basis are even worse off than full-time workers in this segment of the economy.

Table 4: Decent work index by employment status (%)

	All			Men			Women		
	Low	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**
Full Time Formal	25.26 (0.62)	55.78 (0.72)	18.97 (0.57)	24.68 (0.80)	56.57 (0.93)	18.75 (0.73)	26.24 (1.00)	54.42 (1.15)	19.34 (0.92)
Part Time Formal	73.69 (1.35)	24.90 (1.32)	1.41 (0.36)	72.04 (1.86)	26.42 (1.83)	1.54 (0.50)	76.11 (1.89)	22.68 (1.86)	1.21 (0.49)
Full Time Informal	84.15 (1.12)	13.96 (1.06)	1.89 (0.44)	81.25 (1.67)	17.08 (1.61)	1.67 (0.55)	87.57 (1.44)	10.29 (1.31)	2.15 (0.70)
Part Time Informal	95.06 (0.76)	4.55 (0.74)	0.39 (0.19)	93.59 (1.15)	6.21 (1.14)	0.21 (0.15)	97.29 (0.80)	2.04 (0.69)	0.66 (0.41)
Other Business	86.64 (1.66)	11.65 (1.57)	1.71 (0.59)	86.13 (1.97)	12.62 (1.89)	1.25 (0.64)	88.03 (3.04)	9.02 (2.81)	2.96 (1.33)
Home Business	92.75 (1.11)	5.58 (0.96)	1.67 (0.60)	93.14 (1.40)	5.32 (1.19)	1.54 (0.77)	92.27 (1.78)	5.89 (1.55)	1.83 (0.95)
Total	52.97 (0.53)	36.14 (0.51)	10.88 (0.34)	51.00 (0.70)	38.01 (0.68)	10.99 (0.44)	56.08 (0.80)	33.20 (0.77)	10.72 (0.52)
N		**11197**			**6047**			**5150**	

Notes:

1. *Date are weighted*
2. *Standard errors in parentheses*
3. *Rows add up to 100%*
4. *Home business refers to self-employed workers who own a business and work from home, while Other business refers to self-employed workers who own a business, but does not work from home.*

Table 5 displays DWIs for workers by industry. These include 10 industries, plus private households. the mining sector had the lowest percentage of workers with low DWIs. This sector is highly unionised, and this reflects the value which unions might add to ensuring that workers have jobs of a higher quality. Interestingly, the mining industry had the highest percentage of women with high DWIs (36.81%), compared to all the other industries. For the pooled group and men, this industry had the lowest percentage of workers with low DWIs; 12.40% for the pooled group and 12.83% for men in this industry.

Private households, on the other hand, had the highest percentage of individuals with low DWIs. For the whole group, 83.43% of workers employed in private households had low DWIs, while this number was 78.36% and 87.12% for males and females, respectively. This is an indication of the types of jobs which are available in private households, which usually includes work relating to domestic labour or childcare.

Lastly, the public sector had the highest percentage of individuals with high DWIs for the pooled group and men. For all the groups, more than 30% of workers had a high DWI. Although the public sector would expectedly be at the forefront of implementation of legislation which positively affects workers, as they do not have the restriction of a profit motive to balance with the needs of their workers.

Table 5: Decent work index by industry (%)

	All			Men			Women		
	Low	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**
Agriculture	63.93 (3.47)	25.69 (3.19)	10.39 (2.12)	64.25 (4.15)	26.05 (3.84)	9.70 (2.50)	63.02 (6.22)	24.68 (5.53)	12.30 (3.99)
Mining	12.40 (2.00)	63.75 (2.74)	23.84 (2.38)	12.83 (2.23)	65.35 (2.95)	21.82 (2.49)	9.65 (3.81)	53.53 (7.11)	36.81 (7.02)
Manufacturing	42.35 (1.79)	47.15 (1.82)	10.49 (1.13)	41.67 (2.05)	47.58 (2.09)	10.75 (1.27)	44.58 (3.66)	45.77 (3.73)	9.65 (2.49)
Electricity	33.00 (2.71)	47.55 (2.94)	19.45 (2.34)	35.00 (3.00)	47.46 (3.19)	17.53 (2.40)	21.97 (5.63)	48.04 (7.55)	29.98 (7.20)
Construction	68.11 (1.99)	24.49 (1.86)	7.40 (1.11)	70.63 (2.05)	23.14 (1.91)	6.23 (1.08)	47.96 (6.17)	35.27 (6.42)	16.77 (4.85)
Retail	60.07 (1.65)	36.07 (1.61)	3.86 (0.65)	60.44 (2.40)	35.42 (2.35)	4.14 (0.91)	59.64 (2.22)	36.84 (2.17)	3.52 (0.93)
Transport	40.53 (2.16)	45.50 (2.21)	13.97 (1.56)	42.57 (2.48)	44.55 (2.51)	12.87 (1.80)	33.56 (4.47)	48.71 (4.65)	17.73 (3.18)
Finance	22.93	58.05	19.02	22.75	56.41	20.84	23.10	59.71	17.19

	(1.74)	(2.04)	(1.61)	(2.47)	(2.89)	(2.38)	(2.44)	(2.86)	(2.16)
Social Services	58.49 (1.54)	34.47 (1.50)	7.04 (0.78)	57.01 (2.12)	36.27 (2.06)	6.73 (1.07)	60.41 (2.24)	32.15 (2.17)	7.44 (1.13)
Private household	83.43 (0.94)	14.91 (0.89)	1.65 (0.35)	78.36 (1.70)	19.39 (1.63)	2.25 (0.64)	87.12 (1.02)	11.66 (0.96)	1.22 (0.38)
Public sector	18.44 (1.15)	50.40 (1.55)	31.16 (1.44)	15.70 (1.62)	52.80 (2.26)	31.49 (2.11)	21.24 (1.64)	47.94 (2.10)	30.82 (1.97)
Total	50.44 (0.56)	37.69 (0.55)	11.87 (0.37)	48.34 (0.75)	39.65 (0.73)	12.02 (0.49)	53.73 (0.85)	34.62 (0.83)	11.65 (0.57)
N		**9807**			**5285**			**4522**	

Notes:

1. *Date are weighted*
2. *Standard errors in parentheses*
3. *Rows add up to 100%*

Race is a highly polarising variable in the South African labour market and despite extensive affirmative action policies implemented by the post-apartheid government, outcomes in the labour market continue to be defined by race. Table 6 displays the DWI by race, and it is clear that Africans are is worse off in the labour market, with 60.15% of Africans having a low DWI, compared to White individuals who had 29.46% of workers with a low DWI. African women were worse off compared to African men, with 65.41% of women with low DWIs, while 57.01% of African men had low DWIs. For all the race groups women had a greater percentage of individuals with low DWIs, although this was not the case for Indians, where 38.94% of men had low DWIs compared to 30.40% of women. The same was true for workers with high DWIs where women had a lower percentage of workers with high DWIs compared to men, although this was not true for Coloured workers, where 14.63% of men had high DWIs compared to 22.33% of women.

Table 6: Decent work index by race (%)

	All			**Men**			**Women**		
	Low	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**
African	60.15 (0.56)	31.36 (0.53)	8.49 (0.31)	57.01 (0.76)	34.39 (0.73)	8.60 (0.43)	65.41 (0.77)	26.29 (0.72)	8.31 (0.44)
Coloured	35.06 (2.85)	46.87 (3.01)	18.07 (2.25)	33.86 (4.00)	51.51 (4.22)	14.63 (2.88)	36.56 (4.03)	41.11 (4.17)	22.33 (3.52)
Indian	35.70 (3.35)	46.97 (3.45)	17.33 (2.64)	38.94 (4.12)	41.75 (4.06)	19.31 (3.30)	30.40 (5.59)	55.50 (6.07)	14.11 (4.37)
White	29.46 (1.32)	52.10 (1.44)	18.45 (1.10)	27.15 (1.68)	52.90 (1.89)	19.94 (1.49)	32.28 (2.09)	51.11 (2.21)	16.61 (1.64)
Total	52.79 (0.53)	36.27 (0.51)	10.95 (0.34)	50.67 (0.70)	38.26 (0.68)	11.07 (0.44)	56.10 (0.80)	33.15 (0.77)	10.76 (0.52)

N	11141	6004	5137

Notes:
1. *Date are weighted*
2. *Standard errors in parentheses*
3. *Rows add up to 100%*

Lastly, Table 7 displays DWIs of individuals by the period in which they migrated to the province. Across the groups, those individuals who were born in Gauteng had a higher percentage of workers who had high DWIs and a lower percentage of individuals who had low DWIs. The opposite was true for individuals who migrated between the year 2009 and 2013. This confirms that labour migrants are thus a vulnerable group of workers in the South African labour market, and that there is a need to deal with the triple threat of increasing migration into the province (from inside and outside the South African border), increasing unemployment, and simultaneously ensuring decent work.

Table 7: Decent work index by migration

	All			Men			Women		
	Low	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**	**Low**	**Medium**	**High**
Born in Gauteng	46.72 (0.74)	39.97 (0.74)	13.31 (0.52)	45.58 (1.01)	40.55 (1.01)	13.87 (0.71)	48.25 (1.09)	39.19 (1.09)	12.56 (0.75)
Pre-1994	53.26 (1.53)	35.85 (1.48)	10.89 (0.98)	48.79 (2.01)	40.37 (1.98)	10.84 (1.25)	60.24 (2.33)	28.79 (2.19)	10.97 (1.56)
1994-1998	58.34 (1.96)	31.51 (1.84)	10.16 (1.29)	56.48 (2.49)	34.27 (2.36)	9.25 (1.53)	62.01 (3.16)	26.03 (2.82)	11.97 (2.37)
1999-2003	57.51 (1.68)	35.25 (1.64)	7.24 (0.83)	54.61 (2.17)	39.13 (2.13)	6.25 (1.02)	63.43 (2.56)	27.32 (2.43)	9.25 (1.43)
2004-2008	59.06 (1.54)	32.48 (1.47)	8.47 (0.89)	54.29 (1.99)	36.46 (1.93)	9.26 (1.17)	68.35 (2.30)	24.72 (2.13)	6.93 (1.31)
2009-2013	69.83 (1.49)	25.11 (1.41)	5.06 (0.73)	66.80 (1.95)	27.25 (1.83)	5.95 (0.98)	75.58 (2.26)	21.03 (2.15)	3.39 (0.98)
Total	52.97 (0.53)	36.14 (0.51)	10.88 (0.34)	51.00 (0.70)	38.01 (0.68)	10.99 (0.44)	56.08 (0.80)	33.20 (0.77)	10.72 (0.52)
N	**11197**			**6047**			**5150**		

Notes:
1. *Date are weighted*
2. *Standard errors in parentheses*
3. *Rows add up to 100%*

Regression analysis

Table 8 displays the results of the ordered logit model, the probability of an individual having a certain DWI, given a number of characteristics. Only the coefficients are displayed here.

The gender variable in Table 8 was negative and significant, indicating that being female resulted in having a lower DWI, compared to being male. This is consistent with the findings of the descriptive statistics, where women had lower numbers for the high DWI, and higher numbers in jobs with low DWIs. This is also consistent with studies which have found that women entering the labour market often do so on "unfavourable terms" (Ahikire, Musiimenta, & Mwiine, 2015, p. 6).

The older an individual became the more likely they were to have a higher DWI, although this is not significant for females between the ages of 25 and 34. The youth generally have worse labour market outcomes, and are more vulnerable in the labour market, not only due to their limited experience, but also lower levels of education compared to the older cohort. This thus makes them more susceptible to unemployment and low quality jobs. Furthermore, their entry into the labour market as new participants has been identified as one of the factors resulting in their vulnerability in the labour market (Leibbrandt, Woolard, McEwen, & Koep, 2009).

The employment status variable indicated that individuals working in home based businesses, were more vulnerable than any other types of workers (except for women working part time in the informal sector). This is an indicator of the nature of these businesses and the lack of security which entrepreneurs are often subject to[6]. Workers working full time and part time in the formal sector, as well as workers working full time in the informal sector were more likely to have a higher DWI than workers working in home businesses. The coefficients were especially large for full time workers in the formal sector while the coefficients for part time workers in the formal sector were not significant, although it was positive for the pooled and male regressions and negative for the female regression. Practical differences between the contractual status of part-time formal workers and those in home businesses may be minimal although, contractual status has often been used as a proxy for job quality by authors (Edralin, 2014; Tregenna, 2010; Worth, 2016). Though this is a narrow measure for the quality of a job or the security which an individual may have in their work, it is clear that it is a pivotal component of a broader definition of good job quality (Burchell, Sehnbruch, Piasna, & Agloni, 2014).

The industry variables did not provide a wide range of significant results, however, working in the mining, electricity, finance, and public sectors meant that individuals were significantly more likely to have higher DWIs than those working in agriculture. The coefficients for females working in the financial sector, however was not significant. Given that the agricultural sector is a sector renowned for its vulnerable workers, it is interesting that the differences in the quality of work between this industry and others are not that pertinent. Furthermore, workers working in private households were significantly less

[6] Standing (2015, p. 2) refers to these workers as "proficians", a "group of workers who live as contractors, consultants, self-employed "businesses"", but who remain vulnerable in their work and social security.

likely to have a higher DWI than agricultural workers. This indicates the vulnerable state of workers within private households, where labour market legislation and regulations are often difficult to impose.

Race was a positive and significant indicator for Coloured individuals who were more likely to have a higher DWI than African individuals. The same was true for White individuals compared to African individuals, although this result was only positive and significant for the pooled and male regressions. What the race variable does do is to reaffirm the racial stratification in the South African labour market, which translates to the racialisation of inequality and poverty more broadly.

Gauteng has been the destination of many labour migrants from more rural parts of the country. Although labour migration was a feature of Apartheid South Africa, this migration continues today. The migration variable measures the effects of the time period in which someone migrated to the province, using as the reference, those individuals who were born in Gauteng. Those who had most recently moved to Gauteng (between 2009 and 2013) were significantly less likely than those who had always been residents to have a higher DWI. This coefficient was greater for men than it was for women. Women who had moved to Gauteng between 1999 and 2008 were also likely to have a lower DWI than native residents. This coefficient was also negative for males, although not significant. Recent migrants might be a reflection of urban unemployment, and growing informal sector activity, as people are unable to find work in the formal sector, but may also be a reflection of the lack of networks which recent migrants might have, compared to those who had been resident in the province for a longer time period, which is a positive predictor of employment (Banjaree, Galiani, Levinsohn, McLaren, & Woolard, 2006).

Table 8: Probability of decent work index, by gender

Ordered logit model			
Decent work Index	**All**	**Male**	**Female**
Gender (Ref: Male)			
Female	-0.191***		
	(0.06)		
Age Bracket (Ref: 16-24 years)			
25-34 years	0.292***	0.347**	0.212
	(0.11)	(0.14)	(0.17)
35-44 years	0.434***	0.369**	0.580***
	(0.11)	(0.15)	(0.17)
45-59 years	0.561***	0.615***	0.559***
	(0.12)	(0.15)	(0.18)
Education (Ref:			
Primary	0.752**	1.407***	-0.491
	(0.37)	(0.37)	(0.62)
Secondary	1.081***	1.674***	-0.002
	(0.36)	(0.36)	(0.62)
Matric	1.851***	2.380***	0.904
	(0.36)	(0.37)	(0.63)
Tertiary	2.627***	3.075***	1.781***
	(0.37)	(0.37)	(0.63)
Employment status (Ref: Home business)			

Full time formal	3.313***	3.567***	3.050***
	(0.20)	(0.25)	(0.31)
Part time formal	1.494***	1.842***	1.066***
	(0.21)	(0.27)	(0.32)
Full time informal	1.706***	1.962***	1.408***
	(0.21)	(0.28)	(0.34)
Part time informal	0.077	0.380	-0.349
	(0.26)	(0.32)	(0.43)
Other business	0.623**	0.864***	0.379
	(0.25)	(0.30)	(0.46)
Industry (Ref: Agriculture)			
Mining	1.418***	1.422***	1.588***
	(0.21)	(0.25)	(0.44)
Manufacturing	0.305	0.417*	0.001
	(0.20)	(0.24)	(0.37)
Electricity	0.691***	0.711***	0.898*
	(0.22)	(0.26)	(0.46)
Construction	-0.180	-0.252	0.429
	(0.22)	(0.26)	(0.46)
Retail	-0.118	-0.061	-0.268
	(0.20)	(0.25)	(0.34)
Transport	0.317	0.372	0.206
	(0.21)	(0.25)	(0.38)
Finance	0.520**	0.678***	0.277
	(0.21)	(0.26)	(0.34)
Social	-0.171	-0.093	-0.332
	(0.20)	(0.25)	(0.34)
Household	-0.734***	-0.488*	-1.031***
	(0.20)	(0.25)	(0.34)
Public	1.010***	1.154***	0.754**
	(0.20)	(0.25)	(0.33)
Race (Ref: African)			
Coloured	0.533***	0.518***	0.574***
	(0.13)	(0.18)	(0.20)
Indian	0.241	0.276	0.178
	(0.17)	(0.21)	(0.29)
White	0.152**	0.298***	-0.060
	(0.08)	(0.10)	(0.12)
Migration (Ref: Born in Gauteng)			
Before 1994	0.081	0.068	0.143
	(0.09)	(0.12)	(0.15)
Between 1994 and 1998	-0.116	-0.111	-0.084
	(0.11)	(0.14)	(0.20)
Between 1999 and 2003	-0.205**	-0.170	-0.265*
	(0.09)	(0.12)	(0.16)
Between 2003 and 2008	-0.168*	-0.059	-0.366**
	(0.10)	(0.12)	(0.16)
Between 2009 and 2013	-0.411***	-0.340***	-0.508***
	(0.10)	(0.13)	(0.17)
Cut 1			
Constant	4.615***	5.527***	3.358***
	(0.44)	(0.50)	(0.75)
Cut 2			
Constant	7.630***	8.574***	6.358***
	(0.45)	(0.51)	(0.77)
N	**22450**	**9635**	**12815**

Notes:

1. *Date are weighted*
2. *Standard errors in parentheses*

CONCLUSION

Given that there is a growing incidence of the working poor and precarious working conditions amongst workers, the measurement of the quality of jobs are of utmost importance. The ILO has created a framework which makes an attempt at being a comprehensive measure of quality of jobs. Discussions on the indicators of this framework have been well ventilated in the literature (Anker et al., 2002; Burchell et al., 2014), while others have gone a step further to attempt measuring these indicators quantitatively (Standing, 2002; Webster et al., 2015). The indicators provide adequate information on measuring the decent work at a macro-country level, which also allows for comparability across countries, although they are less specific of the types of measures that can be utilised at industry, firm, or individual level.

Attempts have been made to create macro-indicators which are more applicable at the micro level. The challenge, however, is that data are not readily available in nationally representative surveys, such a labour force surveys. Thus, in the absence of an adequate amount of resources, researchers will find it challenging to indulge the subject more broadly in the literature at the micro-level, which can help address challenges related to specific sectors. Furthermore, researchers may benefit from the inclusion of at least some elements by survey designers in their questionnaires.

The GCRO built a DWI into their Quality of Life III (2013) survey, which included a number of questions to assist with constructing a DWI at the individual level. This paper used this DWI, as an ordered categorical variable, and used descriptive statistics and regression analysis to measure the determinants of a DWI. The results suggest that women are more likely to have lower DWIs compared to men, as well as younger people compared to the older cohort of the working population. A worker's employment status and industry in which they are employed is also an important predictor of a DWI; with workers employed in private households being more likely to have low DWIs, than those employed in the mining sector. Lastly, recent migration to the region was also a significant predictor of a low DWI.

Although the DWI included in the GCRO QoL survey is not all encompassing of the indicators as set out by the ILO, it does provide a point of departure for the inclusion of questions into surveys which allows researchers to more adequately measure DWI in the South African context. Furthermore, although the DWI needs refinement from a quantitative perspective, more ventilation of the issue in the literature could contribute to the development of a comprehensive micro level index, however, this will only be made possible through available data.

Furthermore, the question of the possible trade-off between good quality jobs and creating 'any' type of jobs in the interests of addressing problems relating to unemployment (as well as in relation to the growing number of working poor individuals) is a particularly important issue in the South African

context. Although the unemployment rate may be of greater national importance to some, the creation of jobs which are of a poor quality and leave workers almost as vulnerable as unemployed persons will be counterproductive to the development goals of the country. This question may also require further investigation.

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