REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Goal 3
Promote gender equality and empower women

UNDP

The South Africa I know, the home I understand

Contents

3.1 Targets and indicators

Target 3A: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015	**Performance summary:** Target achieved **State of supportive environment**: Fair
Standard MDG indicators	1. Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education
	2. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector
	3. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
Additional indicators	4. Ratio of literate females to males of age group 15-24 years[1]
	5. Proportion of seats held by women in provincial legislature

Target 3A is assigned as the measure of achievement in respect of Goal 3. Primarily Target 3A, encompasses 3 indicators, the first of which has three elements. The target is expressed as eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015. Two of the indicators relate directly to the target in that they focus on education. The third and additional fourth indicators relate to employment and decision-making respectively. The additional fourth and fifth indicators were included by the team which proposed the standard indicators in order to emphasise that education is not only an end in itself, but also a means to other ends. The third and fourth indicators thus reflect back on the goal, which is about 'empowerment' as well as equality. The indicators attempt to measure the economic and political aspects of empowerment.

The addendum to the guidelines for compilation of MDG reports emphasises the importance of disaggregation by location and other indicators relevant for a particular country. In South Africa it is especially important to look at population group (race) differences. These and other differences need to be looked at the same time as analysis is done by gender i.e. in the same tables or graphs, so as to capture the differences between, for example, Black and White women at the same time as capturing the male-female differences. Combined population group and gender analysis is therefore included in this report as is some analysis by province.

[1] This indicator appears in Goal 2 and was dropped from the list of MDG indicators in 2008. However the MDG team decided to include it in Goal 3 as a domesticated indicator.

3.2 Facts and figures

GOAL 3: PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY AND EMPOWER WOMEN					
Goal 3 Indicators	**1994 baseline (or closest year)**	**Current status 2010 (or nearest year)**	**2015 target**	**Target achievability**	**Indicator type**
Ratios of girls to boys in: • primary • secondary • tertiary	0,97:1 *(1996)*	0,96:1 *(2009)*	1:1	**Likely**	**MDG**
	1,13:1 *(1996)*	1,05:1 *(2009)*		**Achieved**	
	0,86:1 *(1996)*	1,26:1 *(2009)*		**Achieved**	
Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (as a percentage)	43 *(1996)*	45 *(2010)*	50	**Likely**	**MDG**
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament (as a percentage)	25 *(1994)*	44 *(2009)*	50	**Likely**	**MDG**
Ratio of literate females to males of 15-24 years of age	1,1:1 *(1996)*	1:1 *(2009)*	1:1	**Achieved**	**Domestic**

3.3 Education

Indicator: Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education

During the late apartheid years, racial disparities far outweighed those based on gender with respect to education. Thus in 1990 there was little difference between the school patterns for girls and boys within each population group. Amongst Black Africans, for example, there were slightly more boys at primary schools than girls, but more girls than boys in the secondary grades.

Primary school

In 1994, the number of girls enrolled in primary school was almost equal to the number of boys enrolled, although consistently lower than that of boys in each year. This pattern has continued in subsequent years.

One problem with using female:male ratios that are based on absolute numbers is that this approach does not take into account possible differences in male and female population counts.

The Geneva 2003 Inter-Agency and Expert Meeting on MDGs therefore suggested that it would also be useful to report the gender parity index (GPI). The GPI is the ratio of the female gross enrolment ratio (GER) to the male gross enrolment ratio. The GER, in turn, is defined as the number of learners, irrespective of their age, enrolled in a particular 'phase' of schooling as a percentage of the total population whose age is appropriate to that phase.

For primary school, we use the years 7–13 as the appropriate age, while for secondary school we use 14–18 years.

For the period up to 2001, we replicate the estimates used in South Africa's earlier report, which use population estimates from the ASSA2002 model as denominator. For the period 2006 onwards we rely on the Department of Education's *Annual School Survey* data.

Table 3.1: Gross enrolment ratios and gender parity index at primary school, 1990–2009

Year	Female GER	Male GER	GPI
1990	1,10	1,15	0,96
1993	1,17	1,23	0,95
1996	1,27	1,31	0,97
1999	1,26	1,29	0,98
2006	1,00	1,05	0,96
2009	0,95	0,99	0,96

Source: *MDG report 2005*, Government of South Africa; *Annual School Survey: 2008-2009*, Department of Education; *Mid-year population estimates*, Statistics South Africa

The GER and GPI estimates in Table 3.1 confirm that the higher number of boys enrolled is not simply a reflection of population ratios as the GERs for boys are slightly higher than those for girls at each age and the GPI is slightly lower than unity.

Gross enrolment rates do not correct for out-of-age children i.e. children who are in a grade for which they are either too young or too old. Net enrolment rates, in contrast, measure the proportion of children of the appropriate age who are in a particular phase. Net enrolment rates are discussed in detail under Goal 2.

Secondary school

Unlike at the primary school level, the number of girls has outnumbered the number of boys in secondary school from before 1994. This pattern suggests that the above-unity GPI at primary level may be due to more boys than girls repeating a grade in the earlier grades.

To arrive at MDG estimates, as with primary school, we calculate secondary school level GERs and the GPI using population estimates derived from the ASSA2002 model for the earlier years and mid-year population estimates derived by Statistics South Africa for the later years. Table 3.2 confirms that the female GER is higher than the male GER for all years, resulting in a GPI that is greater than unity.

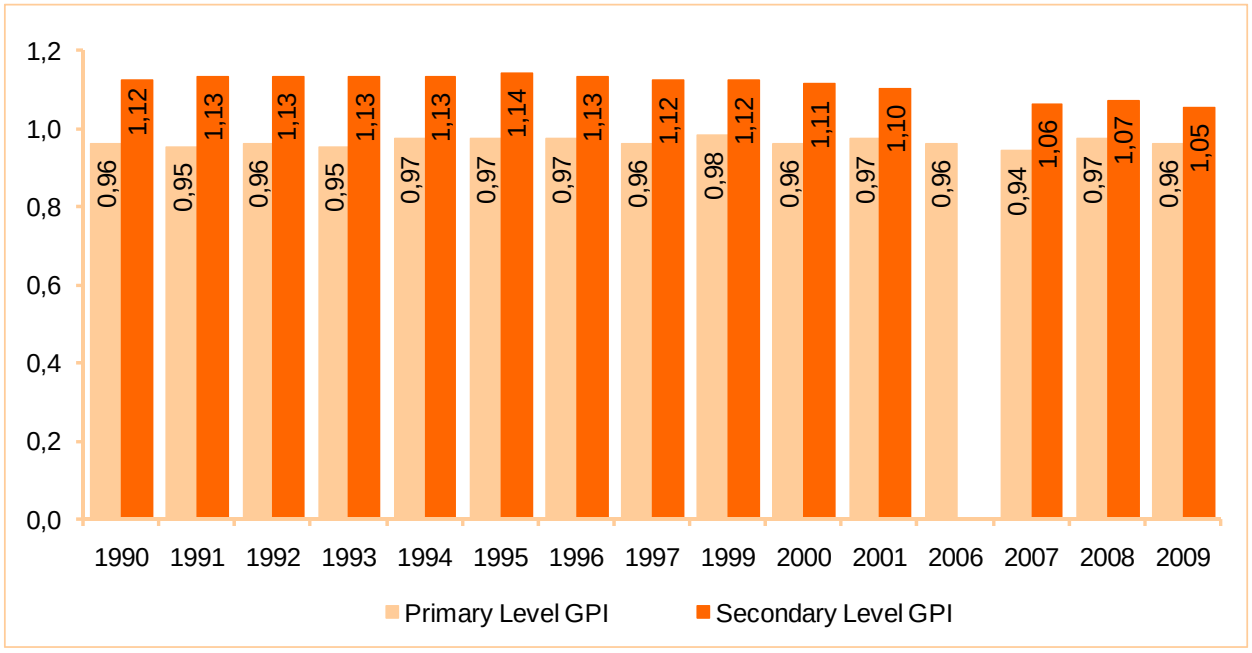
Table 3.2: Gross enrolment ratios and gender parity index at secondary school, 1990–2009

Year	Female GER	Male GER	GPI
1990	0,74	0,66	1,12
1993	0,86	0,76	1,13
1996	0,94	0,83	1,13
1999	0,92	0,82	1,12
2007	0,93	0,88	1,06
2008	0,87	0,82	1,07
2009	0,86	0,82	1,05

Source: *MDG report 2005*, Government of South Africa; *School Realities 2008-2009*, Department of Education; *Mid-year population estimates*, Statistics South Africa

Figure 3.1 shows that both primary and secondary level GPIs started to decline after 2001, signifying the reduction in the gap between female and male enrolment levels at both school levels. However, the GPI for primary level remained below unity even after 2001 signifying that even though the enrolment gap was declining, the higher enrolment levels for boys compared to girls persisted at this level. The opposite is found for secondary level enrolment where there were higher enrolment levels for girls compared to boys.

Figure 3.1: Gender parity index at primary and secondary levels, 1990–2009

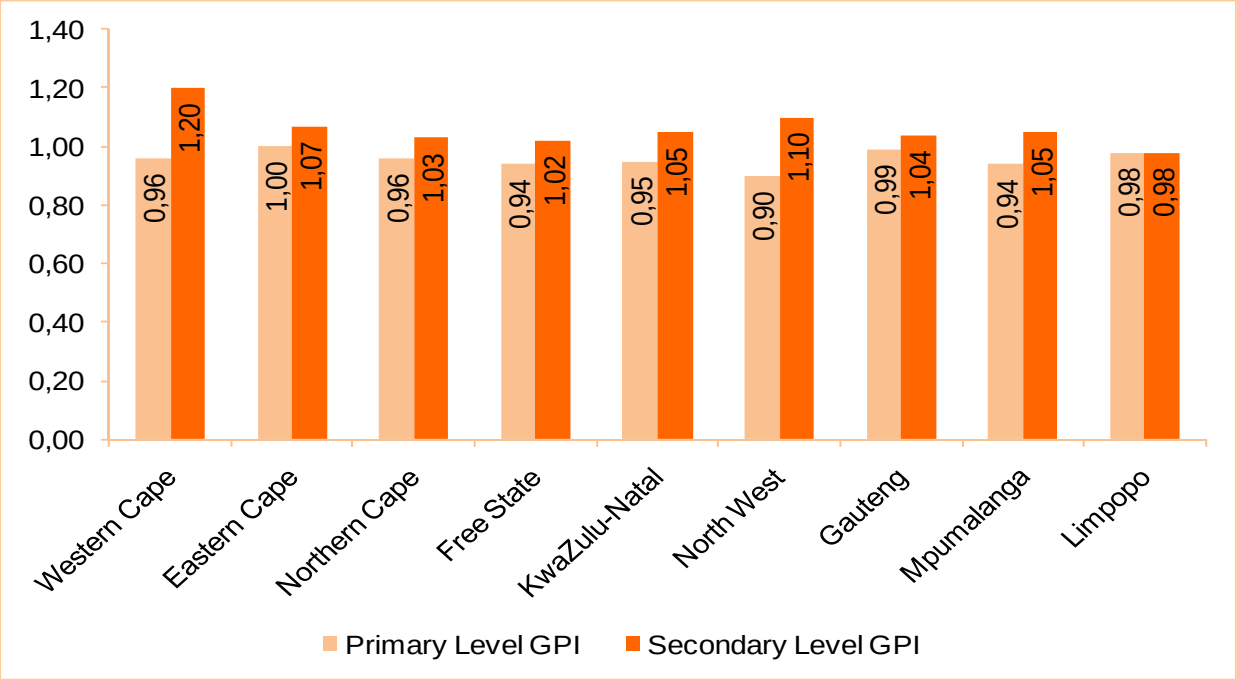


Source: *Stats at a Glance 2003-2007*; *School Realities 2008-2009*, Department of Education; *Mid-year population estimates*, Statistics South Africa

Figure 3.2 shows that in Limpopo province GPIs were lower than unity at both primary and secondary levels, implying lower enrolment levels of girls compared to boys at both levels. In

Eastern Cape, the primary level GPI of unity signifies that the enrolment levels for boys and girls were equal. However at secondary level, girls were still in the lead by 2009. Western Cape has the relatively greatest preponderance of girls at secondary level, while North West has the relatively greatest preponderance of boys at primary level.

Figure 3.2: Gender parity index by province for primary and secondary levels, 2009



Source: *Stats at a Glance 2003-2007*; *School Realities 2008-2009*, Department of Education; *Mid-year population estimates*, Statistics South Africa

Analysis of data from the General Household Survey (GHS) of 2009 suggests that 88,8% of boys aged 14–18 years and 88,1% of girls of this age were attending school. The gender ratio of attendees was 0,97:1. This seems to contradict other estimates which show a larger number of female than male enrolments in secondary school. A similar pattern was reported in respect of 2003 in South Africa's first MDG report. The seeming anomaly is perhaps explained by secondary learners outside the 14–18 year range. In South Africa, many pupils do not complete their secondary school in the minimum number of years and it could be that young women tend to persevere with schooling longer than young men. However, the Ministerial Committee on Learner Retention (2007: 111) reports that female learners in South Africa, like their peers internationally, have lower repeater rates than their male counterparts. Lower female than male repetition rates were also recorded in a more recent study covering approximately 4 500 households in South Africa. Further, this pattern was consistent across all provinces and population groups (Social Surveys and Centre for Applied Legal Studies, 2009: 19). The seeming anomaly may also reflect challenges in weighting this age group for which, internationally, surveys and censuses tend to capture fewer males than females.

There are no official figures for school dropouts in South Africa. However, the progress report of the Ministerial Committee on Learner Retention (2007: 113), appointed by Minister Pandor,

reports a dropout rate across all grades of 17,7% for females and 24,7% for males for the 2002 school year, giving a combined dropout rate of 21,3%. For the same year it reports a survival rate to last grade of 82,3% for females and 75,3% for males, with an overall survival rate of 78,7%. These figures present a more optimistic picture for girls than boys.

Enrolment is one measure of educational performance. Equally, if not more important, is the learners' actual performance in terms of gaining knowledge. Table 3.3 is based on data supplied by the Department of Basic Education, and it shows the number entering the National Senior Certificate examination at the end of grade 12 in 2009, and the percentage writing and passing at different levels.

Table 3.3: Performance in National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations by type of pass, province and sex, 2009

Province	Gender	Entered	Pass Total	% who wrote	% Bachelor pass	% Diploma pass	% Certificate pass	% NSC pass
Western Cape	Female	26 692	**19 252**	96	32	25	15	72
	Male	20 170	**14 910**	96	29	29	15	74
Eastern Cape	Female	39 600	**19 142**	97	13	19	16	48
	Male	31 022	**15 676**	97	14	21	16	51
Northern Cape	Female	58 04	**3 423**	97	18	23	18	59
	Male	4 961	**3 013**	98	15	28	19	61
Free State	Female	16 229	**10 818**	98	21	26	19	67
	Male	14 233	**9 862**	98	19	31	19	69
KwaZulu-Natal	Female	75 590	**44 084**	95	20	22	16	58
	Male	64 374	**37 456**	96	18	24	16	58
North West	Female	16 829	**10 746**	97	21	24	19	64
	Male	14 566	**9 954**	98	20	28	20	68
Gauteng	Female	55 198	**38 687**	97	30	26	14	70
	Male	46 070	**32 242**	97	26	30	14	70
Mpumalanga	Female	29 791	**12 991**	96	11	17	16	44
	Male	25 941	**12 862**	97	12	20	17	50
Limpopo	Female	51 082	**21 825**	95	10	16	17	43
	Male	42 207	**21 632**	96	13	20	18	51
Total	**Female**	**316 815**	**180 968**	**96**	**19**	**21**	**16**	**57**
	Male	**263 544**	**157 607**	**97**	**19**	**25**	**17**	**60**

Source: *Education Management Information System (EMIS)*, Department of Basic Education

The table reveals that across provinces the overall pass rate tends to be higher among young men than among young women. This pattern is also found for passes that qualify the learner to enrol for a diploma and, to a lesser extent, passes that qualify for enrolment for a certificate. However, the column on the total numbers who passed the examination reveals that in absolute terms more young women than young men passed. This pattern is found across all provinces. It thus seems that more young women than men are attempting the examination, a smaller proportion are passing, as opposed to a greater absolute number. This pattern tallies with the higher enrolments of women than men at tertiary level described below. What remains worrying in respect of both women and men is the low percentages of learners who pass the examinations.

Tertiary education

By 1990 women already accounted for 46,7% of total university enrolment in South Africa. (The tertiary education statistics presented in this section reflect students in the public institutions.) However, 49% of these women were White, 39% Black African, 6% Coloured and 6% Indian/Asian. These percentages are very different from the population group percentages in the population as a whole. The women were not evenly distributed between the universities. For example, 67% of the students at Vista University, which catered predominantly for Black teachers upgrading, were female. In addition, the representation of women decreased at advanced levels of study. In the same year the Technikons enrolled 92 715 students, compared to the 293 001 enrolled at universities. Technikon enrolments were heavily male-dominated. In 1987 the overall gender breakdown for Technikons was 70% male, 30% female.

By 2003, there were 113 290 females and 116 766 males enrolled in technikons, giving a much higher female percentage than previously of 49%. At the universities, enrolments stood at 265 670 for females and 209 528 for males, giving a female percentage of 56%. Combining technikons and universities, women accounted for 54% of the total of 705 254 enrolments, giving a female:male ratio of 1,16:1.

In 2003, the tertiary level of education in South Africa underwent major reforms which saw mergers of existing institutions as well as replacement of the previous university versus Technikon distinction. These institutions are now referred to as Universities of Technologies (equivalent to the previous Technikons), Comprehensive Universities (where one or more Technikons merged with one or more Traditional University), and the Traditional Universities (which are referred to simply as "Universities" in the tables that follow).

Table 3.4 presents the picture for 2008, the latest date for which data are currently available on the Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS). It shows a female:male ratio above unity for all three types of universities. However, the ratio continues to be lower for the more Technical Universities of Technology compared to the other two types. Comparing the total enrolment of 799 465 with the 718 192 for 2003 also shows fairly substantial growth in public tertiary education over a five-year period.

Table 3.4: Tertiary education enrolments by sex, 2008

	Universities of Technology	Comprehensives	Universities	Total
Male	68 484	158 899	121 431	348 814
Female	71 846	216 484	162 321	450 651
Total	140 330	375 383	283 752	799 465
F:M ratio	1,05:1	1,36:1	1,34:1	1,29:1

Source: *Higher Education Management Information System,* Department of Education

We can calculate GERs and the GPI for the tertiary level as was done for the primary and secondary levels. However, choosing an age group for tertiary study is more difficult for the tertiary level than primary or secondary. For the purposes of this report, we use the age group

19–25. Table 3.5 shows even more clearly than previous tables how the gender ratio has shifted in favour of females over a relatively short period.

Table 3.5: Gross enrolment ratios and gender parity index at tertiary level, selected years

Year	Female GER	Male GER	Total GER	GPI
1996	0,09	0,11	0,10	0,86
2001	0,11	0,10	0,11	1,10
2003	0,12	0,11	0,12	1,13
2008	0,13	0,11	0,12	1,26

Source: *RIEP (1996), HEMIS (2001–2008)*

Overall women accounted for 56,4% of tertiary students in 2008. Table 3.6 shows that women dominate even among those at higher levels. Thus women account for 51,8% of those studying at masters level or above, and 55,2% of those studying at postgraduate level. More detailed examination of the statistics reveals that women are under-represented at the masters-plus level at universities of technology and comprehensive universities. However, they account for more than half the post-graduate students at all three types of universities.

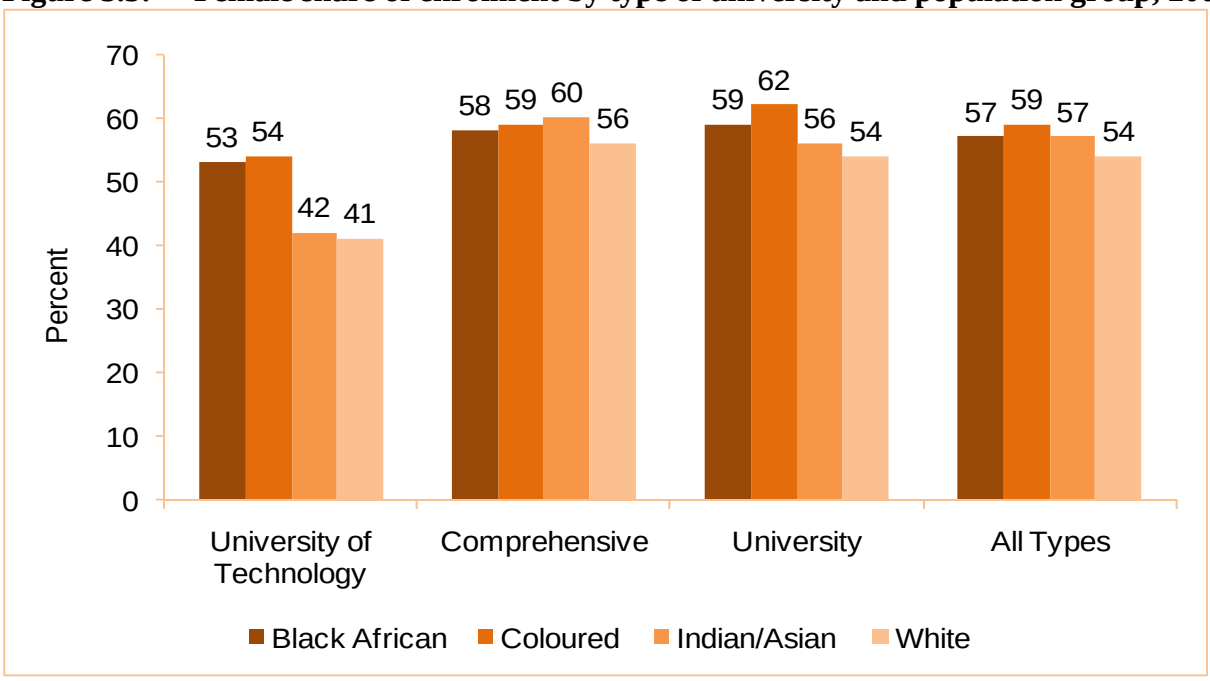
Table 3.6: Female shares of tertiary students studying at higher levels, 2008

	Total	Masters+	Masters+ Female share	Postgraduate	Postgraduate Female share
Female: University of Technology	71 846	1 245	42,7	2 326	52,2
Male: University of Technology	68 484	1 668	57,3	2 127	47,8
Female: Comprehensive	216 484	4 552	45,7	23 685	59,8
Male: Comprehensive	158 899	5 400	54,3	15 914	40,2
Female: University	162 321	39 465	52,9	39 465	52,9
Male: University	121 431	35 100	47,1	35 100	47,1
Female: all types	450 651	45262	51,8	65 476	55,2
Male: all types	348 814	42168	48,2	53 141	44,8

Source: *Higher Education Management Information System*, Department of Education

Figure 3.3 shows that females accounted for more than half of enrolments for the Black African and Coloured population groups across all three types of universities. For the other two population groups, women were under-represented at universities of technology but over-represented at the other two types of universities. Across the population groups, female enrolment was lower at the universities of technology compared to any other type of university.

Figure 3.3: Female share of enrolment by type of university and population group, 2008



Source: *Higher Education Management Information System*, Department of Education

Traditionally, one expects women's presence to be greater in the human sciences than in the natural sciences. Table 3.7 reveals that overall 72% of students are located in the human sciences, and 28% in natural sciences. Natural sciences account for almost half (47%) of students at universities of technology, but only 17% of students at comprehensive universities. The expected gender patterns are found in that only 22% of female students are in the natural sciences, compared to 36% of male students. This pattern is found across all types of universities. It is most marked for universities of technology, where 57% of male students are in the natural sciences compared to only 36% of female students in all types of universities.

Table 3.7: Tertiary enrolments by field of study, type of university and sex (percentages), 2008

	Field of study	University of Technology	Comprehensives	Universities	All types
Total	**Human Sciences**	**53**	**83**	**67**	**72**
	Natural Sciences	**47**	**17**	**33**	**28**
	Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Female	Human Sciences	64	87	71	78
	Natural Sciences	36	13	29	22
	Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Male	Human Sciences	43	77	60	64
	Natural Sciences	57	23	40	36
	Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: *Higher Education Management Information System*, Department of Education

South Africa is not alone in having higher female than male enrolments at tertiary level. One possible reason for this pattern is that – women tend to earn less than men with equivalent educational qualifications. Women thus need to study further in order to attain a particular level of earnings. Further, traditionally men have been welcomed into a wider range of occupations whereas women have tended to cluster either in lower-paid jobs (with domestic work predominating in South Africa) or, at the higher end, in professional and semi-professional jobs such as nursing and teaching that require higher education. Women and their families might thus perceive there to be fewer decent income-earning opportunities available for them if they do not acquire higher education

Indicator: Ratio of literate females to males of 15–24 years old

Table 3.8 shows the percentage of men and women aged 15–24 years who had completed grade 7, a common measure of literacy, in 1996 and 2009. (The data in this and the following two tables are derived from calculations based on the raw data from the October Household Survey (OHS) of 1996 and GHS of 2009.) The 1996 data suggests that women of this age group fared better than men in terms of literacy. In 2009, young women were still ahead of young men on this indicator. However, the female:male ratio based on the percentage dropped from 1,1:1,0 in 1996 to 1,0:1,0 in 2009.

Table 3.8: Grade 7 completion for the population aged 15–24 years by sex, 1996 and 2009

	1996			2009		
	Male	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
%Grade 7+	79,5	83,9	81,8	88,9	93,0	90,9
F: M ratio	**1,1:1,0**			**1,0:1,0**		

Source: *October Household Survey 1996; General Household Survey 2009*, Statistics South Africa

Table 3.9 disaggregates the data by population group. The female:male ratio for all population groups remained the same over the period. Among Black Africans, the ratio is above unity, showing higher achievement by young women than young men, while for all other groups the ratio is unity. In terms of the percentage of the population who has completed Grade 7, Indian/Asian and White youth fared far better than Coloured and Black African youth in 1996. However by 2009, there was a marked increase in the percentage of Black African and Coloured youths who had completed Grade 7. Nevertheless White and Indian/Asian youth were still ahead of the other two population groups.

Table 3.9: Grade 7 completion for the population aged 15–24 years by sex and population group, 1996 and 2009

	1996			2009		
Race	**Male**	**Female**	**F:M Ratio**	**Male**	**Female**	**F:M Ratio**
Black African	76,3	81,9	1,1:1,0	87,6	92,0	1,1:1,0
Coloured	87,1	87,1	1,0:1,0	92,4	96,8	1,0:1,0
Indian/Asian	97,7	98,7	1,0:1,0	98,2	99,7	1,0:1,0
White	95,5	94,9	1,0:1,0	98,0	99,3	1,0:1,0

Source: *October Household Survey 1996; General Household Survey 2009*, Statistics South Africa

Table 3.10 shows the gender patterns in respect of the population aged 25 years and above. This age group is not covered by the standard MDG indicators. The group is, however, important as it provides a measure of the impact of past discrimination during the years when older people should have been at school but were prevented from doing so. In 1996, the percentage of the population which had completed grade 7 was noticeably lower for women than men (female:male ratio of 0,9:1). The position has since improved and in 2009 there is a smaller difference between males and females. However, the gap is not yet completely closed.

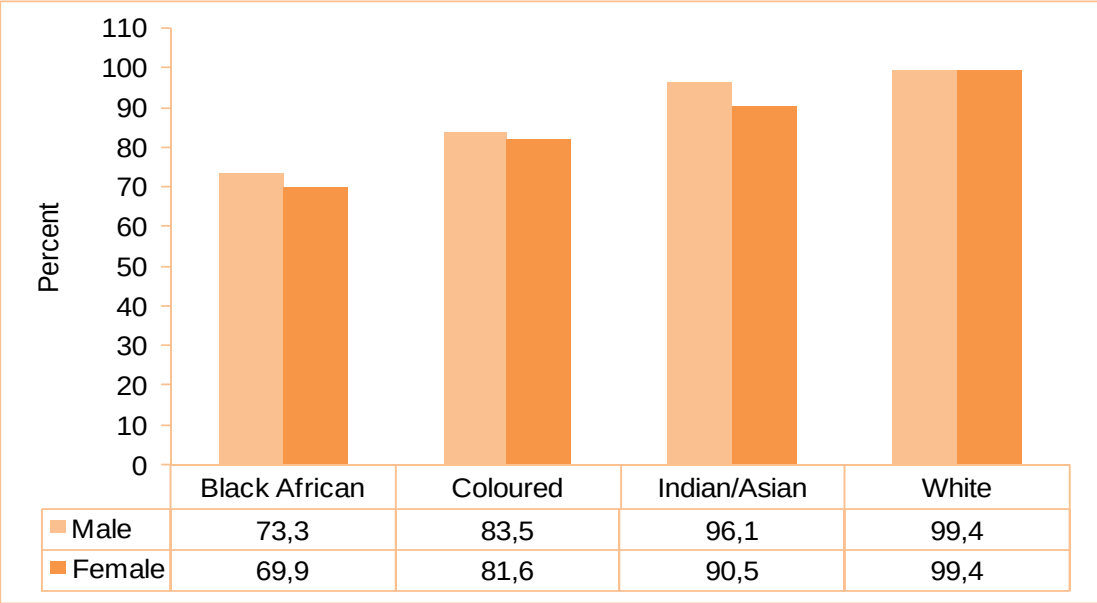
Table 3.10: Grade 7 completion for the population aged 25 years and above by sex, 1996 and 2009

Educational level	**1996**			**2009 GHS**		
	Male	**Female**	**Total**	**Male**	**Female**	**Total**
% Grade 7+	65,6	60,2	62,7	78,6	75,3	76,8
F : M ratio	**0,9:1,0**			**1,0:1,0**		

Source: *October Household Survey 1996; General Household Survey 2009*, Statistics South Africa

Figure 3.4 disaggregates the data by population group in respect of those aged 25 years and above. It shows that by 2009 there were no major variations between males and females within any population group. The gender ratio is not shown in the figure, but is 1,0 for all groups except Indian/Asian, for whom it is 0,9. However, while gender differences are minimal, differences by population group remain. White people were in the lead in terms of Grade 7 completion close to 100%, followed closely by Indian/Asian people, while Black African men and women recorded the lowest percentages of completion at 73% and 70% respectively. Thus the apartheid legacy is still in evidence in terms of population group disparities.

Figure 3.4: Grade 7 completion for the population aged 25 years and above by sex and population group, 2009



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
Male	73,3	83,5	96,1	99,4
Female	69,9	81,6	90,5	99,4

Source: *General Household Survey 2009*, Statistics South Africa

3.4 The labour market

Indicator: Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector[2]

The UNDP included this indicator for the gender equality goal in recognition of the fact that an assessment of gender equality and women's empowerment in any country needs to look beyond education and political life. The indicator aims to measure the extent to which the labour market is open to women in industry and the service sectors. The exclusion of agriculture was an attempt to focus on "modern" sector employment in the monetary economy, whether in the formal or informal sector (Communication from Richard Leete, UNDP Malaysia).

Table 3.11 provides the information for the period 1996–2010, calculated from data from the OHS (October Household Survey) (for 1996 and 1999), Labour Force Survey (LFS) (for 2005) and Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) (for 2010. This table suggests that in both 1996 and 1999, the female share of wage employment was 43% if agriculture was excluded. The share increased to 44% in 2005 and then 45% by 2010. Some caution should be exercised in interpreting these trends because the questions in the LFS and QLFS differ quite significantly from those used in the OHS. In particular, the questions which determine whether a person is

[2] Note that in this section estimates for 2001 to 2005 may differ slightly from those reported in the first South African MDG report as the Labour Force Survey data for these years were reweighted by Statistics South Africa after that report was written. In addition, the earlier report was based on the age group 15+ for these years, while this report uses the age group 15–64 years.

employed or not, and those determining status in employment (i.e. whether they are an employee or in some other contractual situation) are very different in the two series. In addition, for 2005 and 2009 the estimates refer to the age group 15–24, whereas for the earlier years the estimates refer to the population 15+.

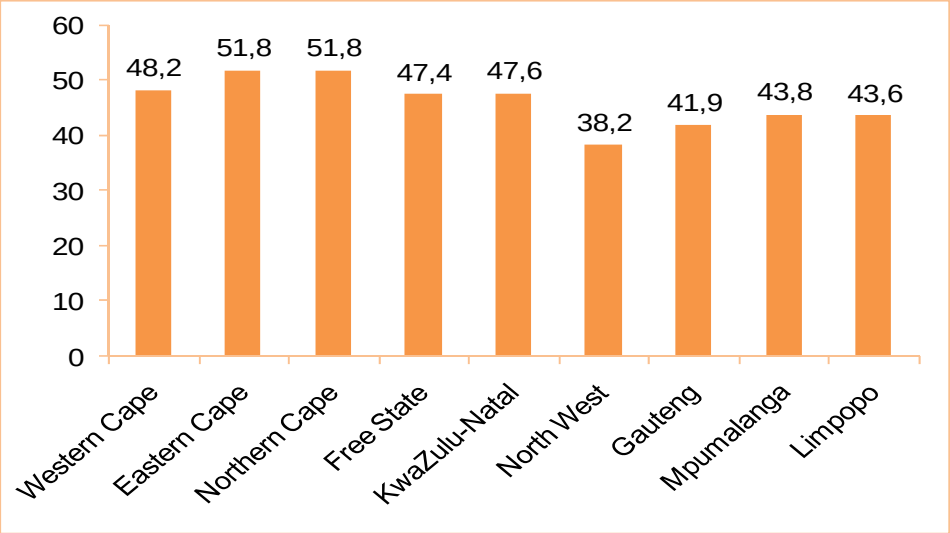
Table 3.11: Employees by sex, excluding agriculture, 1996–2010

Year	Male	Female	Female share (%)
1996	4 191 155	3 226 789	43
1999	5 300 237	3 987 245	43
2005	5 359 657	4 138 220	44
2010	5 621 478	4 672 513	45

Source: *October Household Surveys 1996, and 1999*; *Labour Force Survey March 2005*; *Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 1st quarter 2010*, Statistics South Africa

Figure 3.5 shows that in 2010 Northern and Eastern Cape women accounted for more than half of employees in the non-agricultural sector. In North West, however, they accounted for 38,2%.

Figure 3.5: Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector (percentages), 2010



Source: *Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 1st quarter 2010*, Statistics South Africa

Table 3.12 gives the number of women and men reported to be working as employees in the QLFS for the first quarter of 2010 both excluding and including agriculture. Employees working for private households are separated out from other employees. This separation is particularly important in South Africa, where a large number of people are employed in domestic work – over one million as seen in the table. It is even more important when doing gender analysis, as domestic work is heavily female-dominated. Domestic work is usually done for relatively low wages, and under relatively poor conditions. The motivation for excluding agriculture from the standard MDG indicator was that agricultural employment was usually not part of the "modern" sector, which is assumed to have better conditions. This line of argument would support

separating out domestic work as well although domestic workers in South Africa have since 2002 been covered by a sectoral determination that specifies minimum wages and conditions.

Table 3.12 shows that the female share of employees remains the same whether agriculture is excluded or included. It shows further that the female share is higher in the formal sector than in the informal sector and agriculture, but the highest by far in the household sector, which consists primarily of domestic workers.

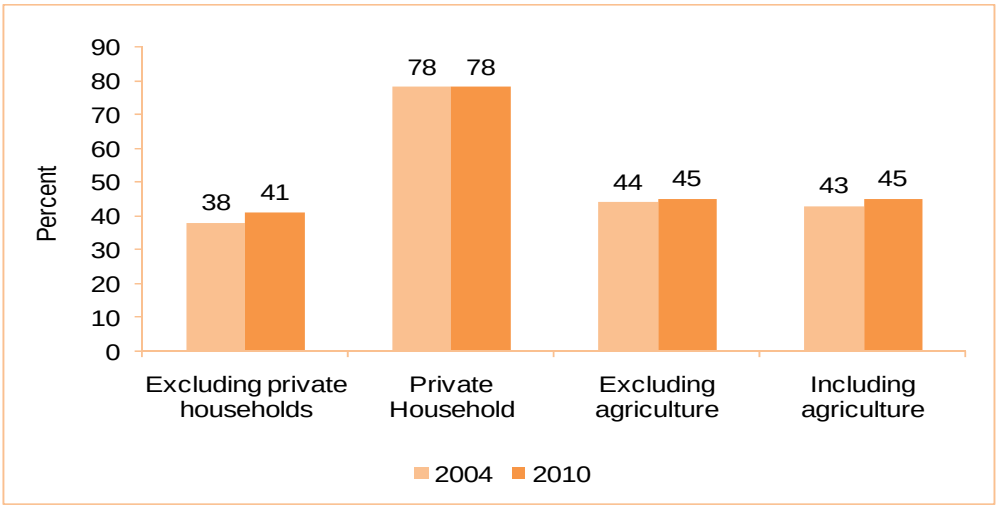
Table 3.12: Type of employment by sex

Sector	Male	Female	Total	Female share (%)
Formal sector	4 895 821	3 501 237	8 397 058	42
Informal sector	467 617	279 191	746 808	37
Agriculture	353 595	223 995	577 590	39
Private households	258 040	892 084	1 150 125	78
Total including agriculture	5 975 073	4 896 508	10 871 581	45
Total excluding agriculture	5 621 478	4 672 513	10 293 991	45

Source: *Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 1st quarter 2010,* Statistics South Africa

Figure 3.6 compares the female shares of different categories of wage employment in 2004 and 2010. As noted above, for employees as a whole, inclusion or exclusion of agriculture does not make much difference in 2010 as the female share remains at 45%. For 2004 the situation is similar, with a difference of only one percentage point in the share when excluding or including agriculture. The share for private households is much higher (78% in 2010) than for those in other sectors (41% in 2010). The graph suggests a decrease in the female share in private households over the period 2004 to 2010 accompanied by an increase in the non-household share. This increase might be partly an artefact of the changes in methodology between the LFS and QLFS.

Figure 3.5: Female share of wage employment, 2004 and 2010



Source: *Labour Force Survey March 2004; Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 1st quarter 2010,* Statistics South Africa

Table 3.13 disaggregates non-agricultural employment by population group. For the Coloured group, the overall female share was 48,2%, which was the highest of all groups, followed by White females at 47,5%. The share was lowest among the Indian/Asian group. Black African and Coloured groups had their highest shares in the private household sector. The estimates for the Indian/Asian and White groups were too small to allow meaningful analysis for this sector.

Table 3.13: Female share of employment by population group, excluding agriculture, 2010

	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Formal sector	39,4	46,0	40,3	46,9	41,7
Informal	34,9	40,7	42,3	64,2	37,4
Private household	77,1	82,3			77,6
Total	**44,7**	**48,2**	**40,5**	**47,5**	**45,4**

Note: 'Other' population group excluded except from total
Source*: Quarterly Labour Force Survey 1st quarter 2010*, Statistics South Africa

Table 3.14 shows the female share of employment by population group, excluding agriculture, for 2004 and 2009. The female share of employment increased for the Black African and Indian/Asian groups regardless of whether private households were included while that for the Coloured group declined slightly over the period. The share for the White population group remained more or less constant over the period.

Table 3.14: Female share of employment by population group, excluding agriculture, 2004 and 2010

	All		Excluding private households	
Population group	**2004**	**2010**	**2004**	**2010**
Black African	42	45	35	39
Coloured	50	48	47	46
Indian/Asian	37	40	37	40
White	46	47	46	47
Total	44	45	39	41

Note: 'Other' population group excluded except from total
Source: *Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 1st quarter 2010*, Statistics South Africa

The Bureau of Statistics of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) has developed an alternative to the standard employment indicator. The ILO's alternative takes into account the formal-informal distinction as well as the distinction between agriculture and other sectors, and between wage earners and the self-employed. Table 3.15 provides an approximation of the ILO's indicators for South Africa based on the LFS of March 2004 and the QLFS for the first quarter of 2010.

The table shows that for both 2004 and 2010 the female share of employment is highest for informal wage employment, which includes domestic work. It is lowest for agricultural employment, which includes both commercial and subsistence agriculture. The shares for some categories appear to change over time. In particular, the share for informal self-employment falls

from 53% to 47% and the share for non-agricultural self-employment as a whole falls from 47% to 40%. Meanwhile the share for agricultural employment increases from 34% to 39%. At least part of these changes probably reflects the introduction of a new way of distinguishing the formal and informal sectors in 2008 when Statistics South Africa introduced the QLFS as well as a change in what is categorised as employment.

Table 3.15: Female share of employment using task force indicators on employment, 2004 and 2010

	2004	2010
Total employment	43	45
Agricultural employment	34	39
Non-agricultural wage employment	44	45
Informal wage employment	60	62
Non-agricultural self-employment	47	40
Informal self-employment	53	47

Source*: Labour Force Survey March 2004; Quarterly Labour Force Survey 1st quarter 2010*, Statistics South Africa

The ILO proposes that the distinction between formal and informal employment be made only in respect of non-agricultural employment. It does so on the assumption that most agricultural employment is self-employment and informal. This is, however, not the case in South Africa where in the first quarter of 2010, 80% of all people employed in agriculture were employees in formal sector enterprises.

The standard MDG indicator focuses on the absolute numbers of women and men employed. It does not look at the quality of that employment. The simplest, and probably most important, measure of the quality of employment is the remuneration received. The MDG indicators should, ideally, thus include some measure of the female:male remuneration gap. The MDG Gender Task Force has proposed that an indicator be added to the standard set to measure gender gaps in earnings in wage- and self-employment (Grown et al, 2005: 18). Unfortunately, the QLFS does not currently include income data.

Shepherd's (2008) analysis of data from Statistics South Africa surveys over the period 1996 to 2006 reveals that if analysis is confined to the formal sector, female earnings are, on average, higher than male earnings. However, when coverage includes the informal sector, there is a marked gender gap in favour of men, especially for African and Coloured people. If educational levels are taken into account, the gender gap is again in favour of men even when analysis is confined to the formal sector. Further, the level of discrimination remained more or less constant over the period, and discrimination was more severe in respect of Black African than Coloured or White women. Reasons for perhaps unexpected difference in favour of women if educational levels are ignored include large numbers of women employed in government, many of whom are in professional positions.

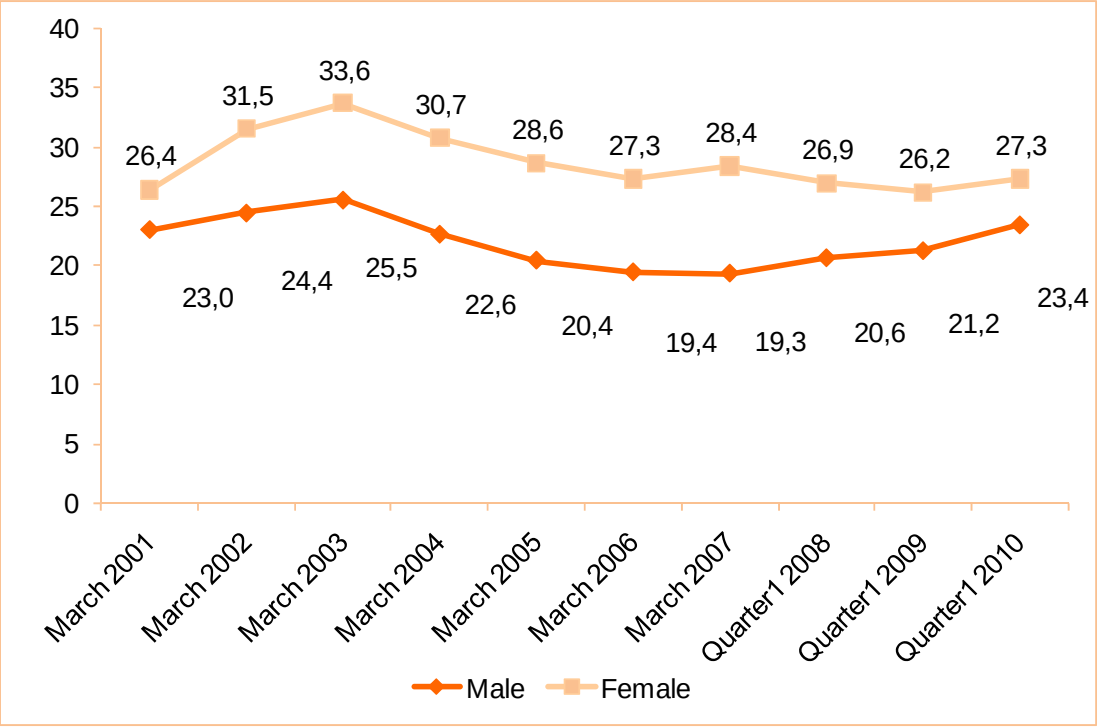
The Employment Equity Act requires monitoring of wage differentials. This aspect of the Act has not been implemented to date. Further, when it is implemented, one would need to ensure that wage differentials in respect of gender were reported on alongside differentials by

occupational level and population group

The standard MDG indicator focuses on those who are fortunate enough to be employed (and, more specifically, on those who are employees, thus excluding much of the informal sector). Also of concern are those people who would like to work, but cannot find work. Ideally, the standard indicators should include some measure of this phenomenon.

Statistics South Africa's official unemployment rate requires that to be considered unemployed a person must have taken active steps to find work in the past month. Figure 3.7 gives the official rate of unemployment for women and men over the period 2001 to 2010. The graph nevertheless clearly reveals that the female rate is noticeably higher than that for men in all years and irrespective of changes in methodology implemented in 2008.

Figure 3.6: Official unemployment rate by sex, 2001–2010



Source: *Labour Force Surveys 2001–2007; Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2008–2010*, Statistics South Africa

In addition to the gender gap, there are differences in terms of population group. Table 3.16 shows these differences for the period under consideration. It includes estimates for 1993, although it must be noted that the methodology used for that survey was very different from that used in the later surveys. For all measures and groups, the rate is highest among Black Africans, followed by Coloured, Indian/Asian and then White people. For each population group the rate for women is higher than that for men, although for the Coloured group the difference is minimal in 2010.

Table 3.16: Unemployment rate by sex and population group, age 15–64 years: 1993, 2005 and 2010

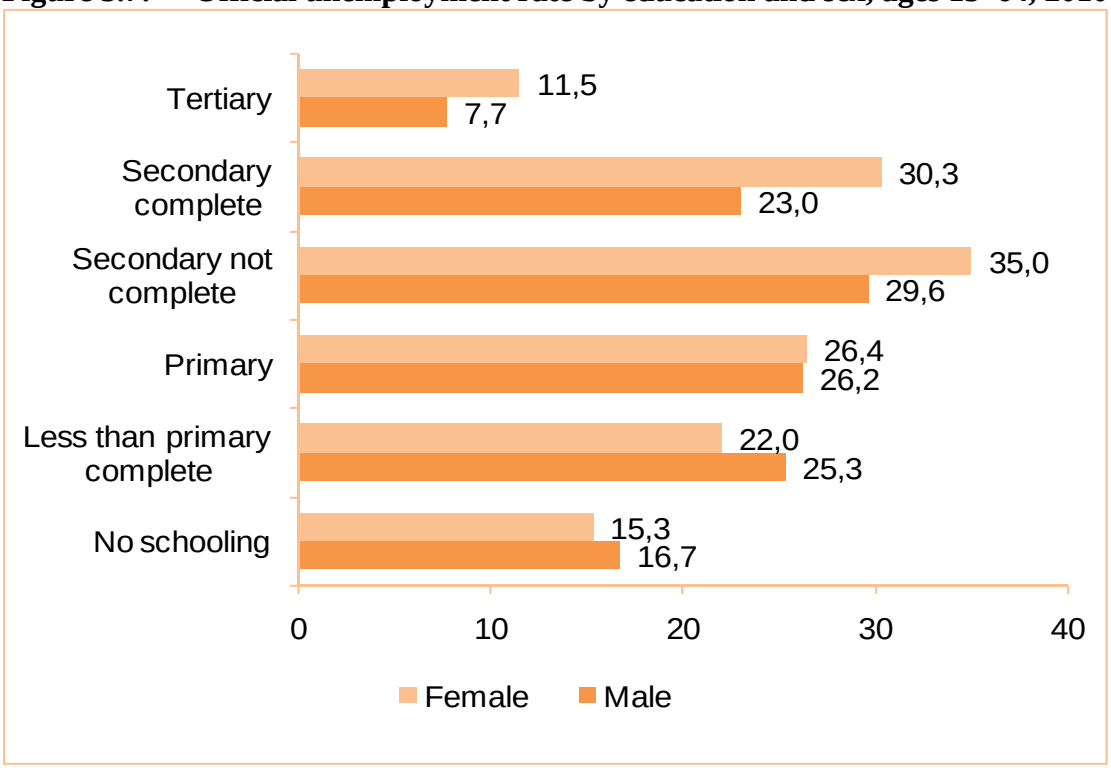
	1993		2005		2010	
Population group	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Black African	14.6	17.9	24.2	33.6	27.5	32.1
Coloured	12.5	18.4	18.3	21.9	21.7	21.9
Indian/Asian	7.1	9.1	11.2	18.5	8.3	10.6
White	2.7	3.9	4.9	6.7	5.5	6.8

Source: *Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development; Labour Force Survey March 2005; Quarterly Labour Force Survey 1st quarter 2010*, Statistics South Africa

Many people will assume that improved educational levels of women will result in increased employment. This is true to some extent, but the educational and employment patterns show that although women tend to be more educated than men in South Africa, they are more likely to be unemployed. This pattern would be found in some other countries. There are, however, further complications to the relationship between unemployment levels and education in South Africa. In particular, Figure 3.8 reveals that unemployment peaks among those with incomplete secondary education, and that those with lower levels of education are less likely to be unemployed than this group. This counter-intuitive pattern is at least partly a result of age, as younger people are more likely to have higher education than the older generations, but also far more likely to be unemployed. What Figure 3.8 further reveals is that at every level of education except those with some education but less than complete primary, women are more likely than men to be unemployed. In 2004, female unemployment exceeded male unemployment at all levels of education.

The proposal by the ILO Bureau of Statistics will go some way in improving the gender-sensitivity of the MDG employment indicator. The ILO proposal does not, however, capture all important aspects. In particular, choosing a target in the form of a ratio of female:male paid employment ignores the unpaid work done by women and men. In all countries of the world in which unpaid work such as household management, care for children and other people, and community work has been measured, women have been found to do significantly more of this work than men. South Africa's time use survey of 2000, which looked at people aged 10 years and over, found that females did an average 216 minutes of productive work falling outside the production boundary of the System of National Accounts (SNA) per day, compared to an average of 83 for males. If we add the time spent on work inside and outside the SNA production boundary, females spent an average of 332 minutes per day compared to 274 minutes for males (Budlender et al, 2001: 95). The difference would be even greater if one counted the time spent collecting material for fuel and water unpaid together with other unpaid work, rather than as falling within the SNA production boundary as dictated by the SNA rules. This unpaid work needs to be progressively more evenly distributed between women and men as ways are found to increase the levels of women's engagement in decent, paid productive work. Statistics South Africa plans to conduct a second time use survey in 2010.

Figure 3.7: Official unemployment rate by education and sex, ages 15–64, 2010



Source: *Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 1st quarter 2010*, Statistics South Africa

The MDG Gender Task Force has proposed that an indicator be added to the standard set measuring the hours per day or year that women and men spend fetching water and collecting material to be used for fuel (Grown, 2005: 18). This information will be provided by the time use survey.

3.5 Political participation

Indicator: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament

During the apartheid era, there were very few female members of parliament. In 1985, only 2.8% of the members of the White parliament were women. Since 1994, national elections have been held on a five-yearly basis – in 1994, 1999, 2004 and 2009.

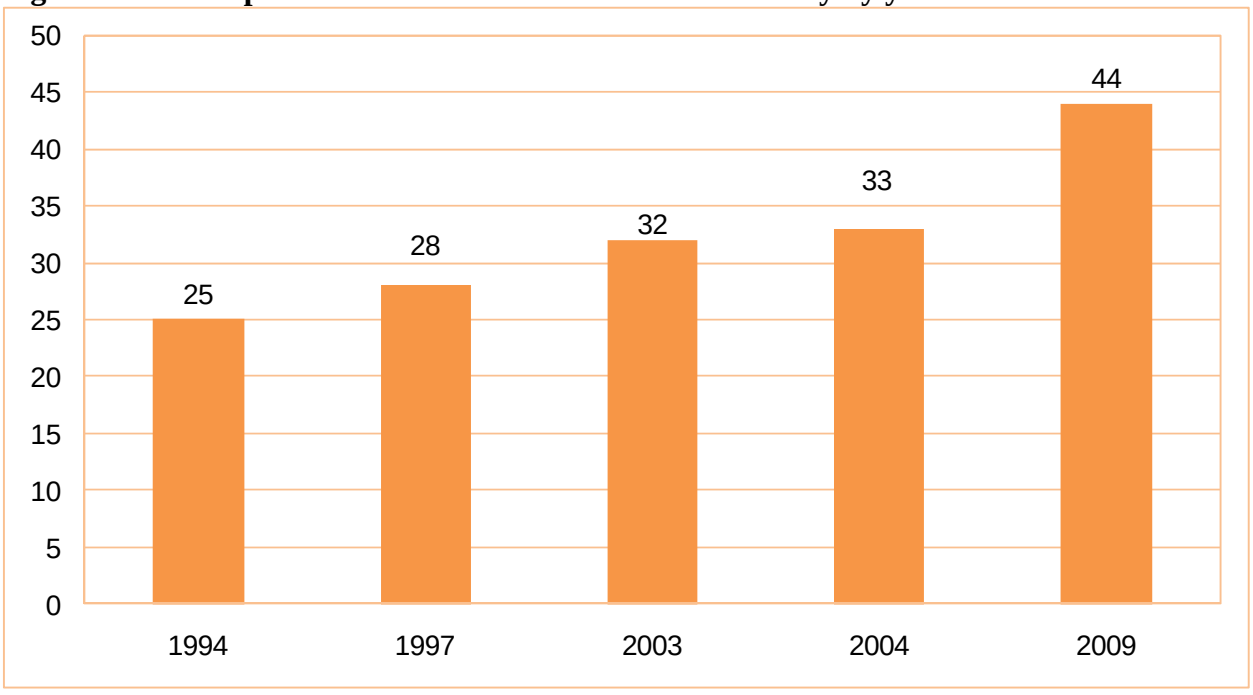
The elections of April 1994, which ushered in the formal end of apartheid, were governed by the interim constitution of 1993. The 1993 Constitution established a two-house parliament. The National Assembly was to be elected according to a system of proportional representation while the Senate consisted of 10 delegates from each of the nine provinces nominated in accordance with the principle of proportional representation. Largely due to a decision by the African National Congress (ANC) to include a 33% quota for women on their party lists, there were 101 women out of 400 in the first post-apartheid National Assembly. There were, however, only 16

women among the 90 Senate members.

The new Constitution of 1996 came into effect on 4 February 1997. This Constitution also provided for two houses – a National Assembly and a National Council of Provinces (NCOP) which replaced the Senate. The National Assembly was to be elected as before. The National Council of Provinces consists of 54 permanent representatives and 36 special delegates nominated from time to time by the provincial legislatures. A gender breakdown is only meaningful in respect of the 54 permanent members.

By 1997, when the South African government compiled its first report to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), 111 of the 400 members of the National Assembly were women. The increase in the number of women members between 1994 and 1997 happened as a result of resignations, redeployments and other changes as there were no elections between these dates. The proportion continued to rise with each election and by 2009 it had risen to 44% as shown in Figure 3.8. The marked increase between 2004 and 2009 reflects a shift in policy by the African National Congress (ANC), which has been the majority party throughout the period. Whereas for the earlier election, the ANC ensured that at least every third person on the party list was a woman, for the 2009 election women accounted for 50% of those on the party list.

Figure 3.8: Proportion of women in the National Assembly by year



Source: Government of South Africa *MDG report 2005*; Morna et al, 2009

Table 3.17 shows the percentage distribution of female members of the National Assembly by political party in 2009. The table confirms the contribution of the ANC towards the overall favourable gender ratio.

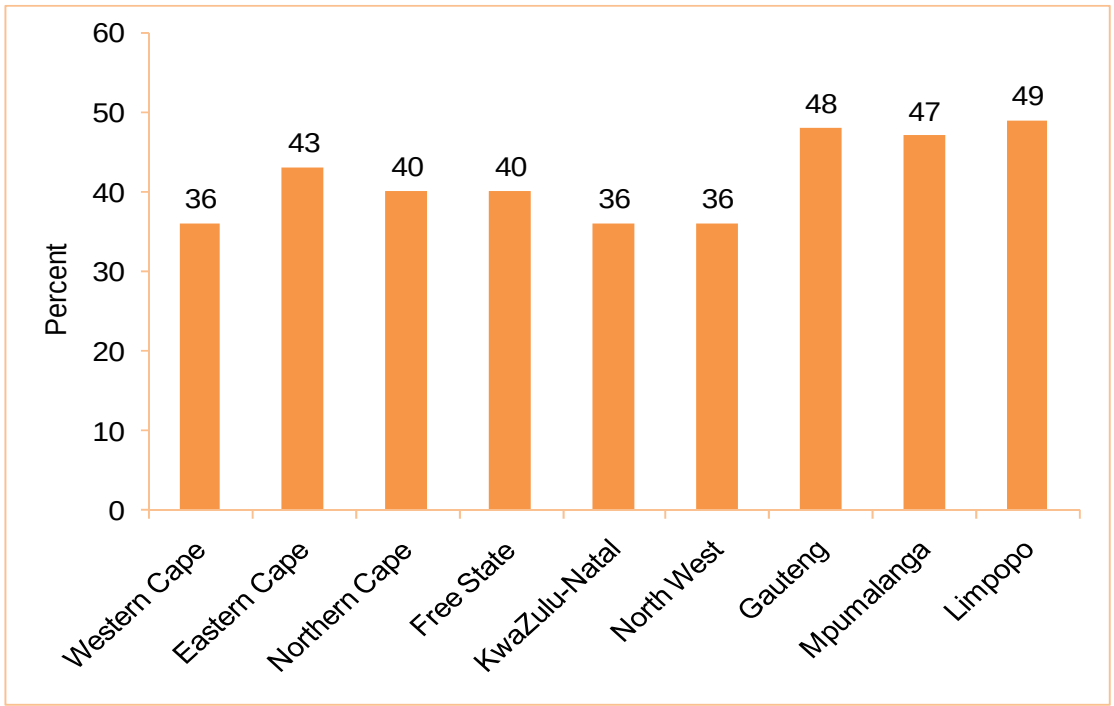
Table 3.17: Proportion of women in National Assembly by political party, 2009

Party	2009
African Christian Democratic Party	33
African National Congress	50
African Peoples Convention	0
Azanian People's Organisation	0
Congress of the People	47
Democratic Alliance	31
Freedom Front Plus	0
Independent Democratic Party	25
Inkatha Freedom Party	22
Minority Front	0
Pan African Congress	0
United Christian Democratic Party	100
United Democratic Movement	0
Total	**44**

Source: Morna et al, 2009

The provincial breakdown in Figure 3.10 shows that Limpopo had the highest proportion of National Assembly members who were women (49%) followed closely by Gauteng (48%) and Mpumalanga (47%). KwaZulu-Natal, North West and Western Cape had the lowest proportions – at 36%.

Figure 3.9: Proportion of women in National Assembly by province, 2009.



Source: Government of South Africa MDG Report 2005; Morna et al, 2009

The first NCOP had only eight permanent women representatives (15% of the total). All these representatives were from the ANC. In mid-2003, the proportion of women rose to 37% but it declined slightly to 34% in 2004. It subsequently declined even further to 19% in 2009 as shown in Table 3.18 below.

Table 3.18: Women and men in the National Council of Provinces by year

Year	Women	Men	Total	% women
1996	8	46	54	15
2003	20	34	54	37
2004	18	35	53	34
2009	10	44	54	19

Source: Government of South Africa *MDG Report 2005*; Morna et al, 2009

Table 3.19 provides the provincial distribution of members of the NCOP by sex. It shows that Northern Cape has no female representation while two out of the six representatives in Gauteng and Mpumalanga are women.

Table 3.19: Permanent delegates of the National Council of Provinces by province and sex, 2009

Province	Women	Men	Total
Eastern Cape	1	5	6
Free State	1	5	6
Gauteng	2	4	6
KwaZulu-Natal	1	5	6
Limpopo	1	5	6
Mpumalanga	2	4	6
Northern Cape	0	6	6
North West	1	5	6
Western Cape	1	5	6
Total	**10**	**44**	**54**

Source: Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, 2009: 27-28

The standard MDG indicator does not look beyond parliamentarians. South Africa has, however, also performed well in respect of cabinet ministers. Prior to the 1994 elections, there was one woman cabinet minister (Health, from the late 1980s) and one deputy minister (Justice, only from 1993) in the White government parliament. Table 3.20 shows the number of women and men cabinet ministers and deputy ministers for 1994 immediately after the first democratic elections, for May 1996 after a cabinet reshuffle, for mid-2003 before the third national elections, for late 2004 after the 2004 elections, and for 2009, after the most recent elections. The table shows a fairly steady increase in female representation up until 2004, followed by a decrease in 2009.

Table 3.20: Ministers and deputy ministers, 1994, 1996, 2003, 2004, and 2009

	Women	Men	Total	% female
1994				
Ministers	3	24	27	11
Deputy ministers	3	9	12	25
1996				
Ministers	4	21	25	16
Deputy ministers	8	5	13	62
2003				
Ministers	9	20	29	31
Deputy ministers	8	8	16	50
2004				
Ministers	12	16	28	43
Deputy ministers	10	10	20	50
2009				
Ministers	14	20	34	41
Deputy ministers	11	17	28	39

Source: Government of South Africa *MDG Report 2005*; Morna et al 2009

The table depicts the situation immediately after the 2009 elections. Since that time one of the male deputy ministers was killed in a traffic accident. Until he is replaced, the female percentage among deputy ministers will therefore be higher than shown in the table.

In South Africa, female ministers have not been confined to the social sector, as is the case in some other countries. In 2009, for example, there were women ministers responsible for Correctional Services, Defence and Military Veterans, Energy, Home Affairs, International Relations and Cooperation, Mining, Public Enterprises, and Science and Technology.

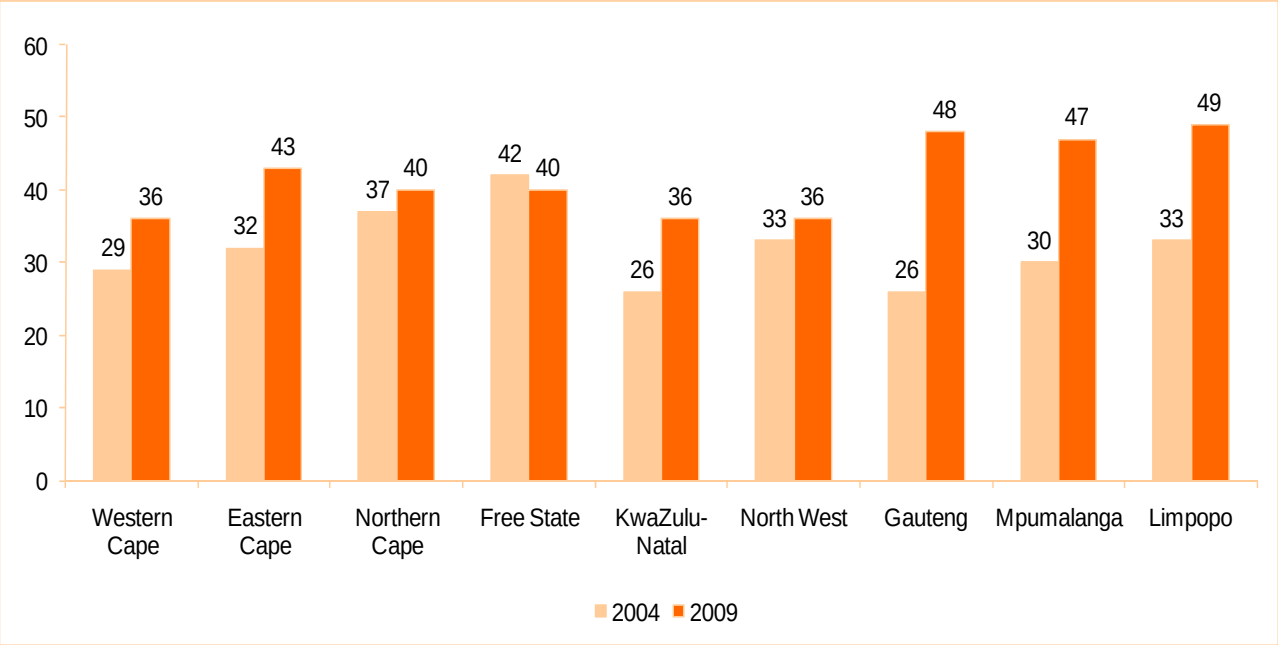
In terms of parliamentary office-bearers, there has been some regression in terms of female representation. From 1994 until the 2009 elections, both the Speaker and Deputy Speaker of the National Assembly were women. Since 2009, the Speaker is a man while the Deputy Speaker is a woman. The chairperson of the National Council of Provinces is also now a man, whereas before the 2009 elections this position was held by a woman. Similarly, while before the 2009 elections the Deputy President of the country was a woman, since the 2009 elections both the Deputy President and President are male.

Indicator: Proportion of seats held by women in provincial legislature

Kabeer (2003: 188) suggests that the extent of women's participation in local government may be a better goal for poor women than the focus in the standard indicators on national parliament. The MDG Gender Task Force therefore proposed an additional indicator in the form of the percentage of seats held by women in local government bodies (Grown, 2005: 18). Local

government statistics were unfortunately not available for this report, but statistics in respect of the provincial legislatures were available. Figure 3.11 reveals that all provinces except Free State experienced an increase in the share of provincial legislature seats held by women when one compares the 2009 elections with those of 2004. In Gauteng, the female share increased from 26% to 48%. This increase would again reflect the increase in the ANC quota in the 2009 elections from 33% to 50%.

Figure 3.10: Representation of women in the provincial legislatures by province, 2004 and 2009



Source: Morna et al, 2009

Overall, currently women occupy 42% of seats in provincial legislatures. The number of female premiers (the provincial equivalent of the president) also increased from four out of nine after the 2004 elections, to the current five out of nine.

Apart from the NCOP, South Africa's performance in respect of political representation of women is firmly above the 30% which the CEDAW Committee felt was necessary for "critical mass" and which is recommended in the Beijing Platform for Action, but below the 50% female political presentation which former President Mbeki declared as his aim.

In terms of voters, the records of the Independent Electoral Commission reveal that women accounted for 55% of all registered voters at the time of the 2009 elections (Morna et al, 2009: 27). The female percentage ranged from 51% in Gauteng to 60% in Limpopo.

3.6 Discussion

The factors that have facilitated South Africa's improved performance towards gender equality include the African National Congress's quota in respect of political representation of women, as well as a widespread recognition since 1994 that South Africa has an obligation to address gender inequalities alongside those relating to race. This recognition is firmly grounded in the Constitution and reflected in a wide range of laws, policies, programmes and practices. The constitutional mandate on gender equality is clear, and the legislative process is providing the building blocks for a gender equitable society.

Eliminating violence is essential for achieving gender equality and the empowerment of women. The existing target, to eliminate the gender disparity in education, captures only one, albeit a key, dimension of gender inequality. Eliminating violence against women is a prerequisite for gender equality and empowerment of women. The follow-up by mothers and fathers on school and extracurricular activities of their children reinforces the family ties, favours socialisation at home and reduces the risk of violence and/or aggression in the streets.

The Government does, however, face major implementation challenges in ensuring that constitutional, legislative and policy imperatives on gender equality and women's empowerment are translated into substantive improvements in the lives of women and girls for especially those that live in disadvantaged environments. Key implementation issues that the Government, through the Ministry of Women, Children and People with Disabilities, are currently addressing include:

- Proactively addressing the unintended consequences of progressive legislation, policy and regulation to ensure that progress on gender equality remains on track;
- Strengthening the regulatory frameworks that have been put in place and ensure that they are effectively implemented, enforced, monitored and evaluated;
- Ensuring that sufficient and effective budgeting processes support the implementation of gender equitable processes;
- Aligning constitutional protection of religious and culture practices with the secular rights held by women and girls under the constitution and related legislation;
- Working with a broad range of community and interest groups to address social, religious and cultural beliefs, assumptions and practices that remain as barriers to women's empowerment and gender equality.

While the government continues to take the lead in providing the rights-based legislative framework for achieving gender equality, there is an ongoing need to ensure that there is a critical mass within the broader South African society that supports and practises gender equality. These challenges require a continuing dialogue between the public, private and civil society sectors, in partnership with international agencies on awareness raising, advocacy, and education in support of the socio-economic and political rights and entitlements of women and girls.

The data provided confirms that South Africa has generally performed well against the international indicators for Goal 3. Indeed, South Africa could be considered to have reached

most gender equality targets, if not exceeded them. South Africa's performance has also improved for several of the indicators over the period. While the country performs well on the international indicators, South Africa does face a range of socio-economic and cultural challenges that continue to underpin aspects of gender inequality. The following factors play an important role in the complex dynamics of assessing progress towards achieving gender equality:

The need to encourage a more equitable and non-gendered division of labour	Women's share of non-agricultural wage employment remains below half, but realistically one would not expect it to reach half given the gendered division of labour in the home that is internationally pervasive. Nevertheless, limited participation of men in unpaid care work as well as limited provision of child care services for young children could be serving as obstacles to increasing the share.
The need to develop measurements that better capture the complex dynamics of gender in South Africa	The variable availability and quality of data suggests that the standard indicators are not adequate for capturing the complex nature of gender equality challenges in South Africa.
The need to ensure equitable access to employment opportunities for women	The fact that women continue to have a higher rate of unemployment than men and tend to earn less than men is, from a gender perspective, undesirable. This is even more undesirable given that, on average, women's attainment in respect of education is higher than that of men. These are some of the issues that South Africa needs to focus on if gender equality and equity is to be achieved.
The need to address gender-based violence on all fronts	Within the education, health and justice sectors more needs to be done to address the pervasively high levels of violence, including gender-based violence.
The need to ensure that women and men have equal access to improved educational and employment opportunities	Looking beyond gender differences, there is clearly also still a long way to go in addressing the high levels of unemployment, and poor quality of education and poor performance of both male and female learners. Further, differences persist at geographical level and between population groups.

3.7 Conclusion

The ratio of girls to boys at primary school shows that on balance the country is quite close to gender parity. There is evidence of a somewhat higher gross enrolment ratio for boys than girls throughout the period at the primary level. In general, South Africa has made a great deal of progress with more girls than boys at secondary level, and a total reversal of the trend at the tertiary level, as males dominated in 1996, but were taken over by females by 2009.

The share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector is another important indicator of progress made both on gender equality and women's empowerment in the labour force. In 1996 the female share of wage employment was 43% if agriculture was excluded. The share increased at a snail pace to 45% by 2010.

The proportion of seats held by women in national parliament is another significant indicator of women's increased participation in national decision-making processes. The representation of women in the South African Parliament has increased from 27,8% in 1994 to 44% in 2009. Similarly, the representation of women in Provincial Legislatures has increased from 25,4% to 42,4% respectively. Local government is also showing improved performance: after the 2006 local government elections, female representation in Local Government Councils was at 40%. One reason for the most recent increase is the fact that the African National Congress increased their quota of women on the party list from 33% to 50%.

It is clear that South Africa has reached most gender equality targets, if not exceeded them. South Africa's performance has also improved for several of the indicators over the period. A more serious challenge relates to other socio-economic concerns where women continue to have a higher rate of unemployment than men, their share of non-agricultural wage remains below 50%, and a greater prevalence of violence against women.

In the context of this patriarchal society, there is a history of violence and gender inequality as women are perceived to be subordinate and inferior to men. In order to correct this perception the report proposes the following:

3.8 Recommendations

• Draw women into local resource planning, management and monitoring
• Create specific programmes to empower women such as:
- Provide access to credit for women;
- Ensure that unused land is available for production/farming;
- Engage traditional leaders for access to communal land for farming purposes;
- Women's rights to work should be protected regardless of age and socioeconomic status;
- Prioritise women-run businesses and have special protective dispensation for them;
- Enforce the protection of women through the criminal justice system and effectively communicating the Domestic Violence Act;

- Train female police officers in order to provide victim support and create a user friendly centre for reporting domestic violence and abuse;
- Use NGOs who work with trauma counselling and domestic violence as part of victim support infrastructure;
- Eliminate harmful cultural practices that discriminate against women and young girls;
- Women to have a right to exercise choice over their sexuality and should not be discriminated against regardless of sexual orientation;
- Women-founded NGOs must be funded and focus their skills development.

• Address the special quality of life needs of rural, peri urban and urban women.
• Mobilise outreach and awareness programmes for men in order to bring them into a care net.
• Resource the ministry of women adequately in order for it to lead in equipping women and their programmes.
• Mainstream gender in all departments with sufficient resources;
• Mobilise young women for participation in political sphere.

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