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MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

The South Africa I know, the Home I understand

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MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Goal 3: Promote gender equality and empower women

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ACRONYMS

ANC	African National Congress
CEDAW	Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CGE	Commission on Gender Equality
FET	Further education and training
F:M	Female: male
GER	Gross enrolment ratio
GET	General education and training
GHS	General Household Survey
GPI	Gender parity index
HEMIS	Higher Education Management Information System
ILO	International Labour Organisation
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MEC	Member of the Executive Council
NCOP	National Council of Provinces
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation
OHS	October Household Survey
QLFS	Quarterly Labour Force Survey
Qtr	Quarter
SADC	Southern Africa Development Cooperation
SIGI	Social Institutions and Gender Index
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
SWG	Sectoral working group
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

STATUS AT A GLANCE

The table below summarises achievements on the indicators for target 4, which relate to Goal 3. All but one of the international targets in respect of education have been achieved and/or surpassed. The exception, which is the indicator for the gender parity index (GPI) at primary level, has a score just below the target. This under-achievement may, in fact, mirror the over-achievement in respect of secondary level GPI. It is thus not necessarily cause for concern from the perspective of empowerment of women and girls.

For the two remaining indicators, which relate to non-agricultural wage employment and seats held by women in the national parliament, there has been some progress over the period since 1996. The progress in respect of seats in the national parliament is substantial. However, male: female parity is very unlikely to be achieved for either of these targets by 2015.

Goal 3: Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women						
Indicator	**1994 baseline (or nearest year)**	**2010 Status (or nearest year)**	**Current status (2013 or nearest year)**	**2015 Target**	**Target achievability**	**Indicator type**
Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2013						
GPI primary	0.97:1 (1996)	0.98:1[1] (2009)	0.96:1 (2011)	1:1	**Likely**	MDG
GPI secondary	1.13:1 (1996)	1.01:1[2] (2009)	1.07:1 (2011)	1:1	**Achieved**	MDG
GPI tertiary	0.86:1 (1996)	1.32:1[3] (2009)	1.38:1 (2011)	1:1	**Achieved**	MDG
Ratio of literate females to literate males 15-24 years	1.1:1 (1996)	1:1 (2009)	1.0:1 (2011)	1:1	**Achieved**	MDG
Female share of non-agricultural wage employment	43 (1996)	45 (2010)	45 (2012)	50	**Unlikely**	MDG
Ratio of female unemployed to male unemployed 15-64 years	1.1:1 (2001)	No data	1.0:1 (2011)	1:1	**Achieved**	Domesticated
Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament (%)	25 (1996)	44 (2009)	44 (2009)	50	**Likely**	MDG

[1]Revised from 0.96:1 (2006)
[2]Revised from 1.05:1 (2006)
[3]Revised from 1.26:1 (2006)

INTRODUCTION

This report focuses on Goal 3 of the MDGs, which relates to promotion of gender equality and women empowerment. The report was prepared using data sourced by a support team from Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). The report was developed with strong guidance by a sectoral working group (SWG) which also oversaw and guided the development of the report on Goal 2. The SWG included government officials from relevant departments, officials of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and academics who served as representatives of civil society. The SWG guided the development of the list of indicators using the global indicators as the basis. The SWG also provided comments on several draft versions of the report. The SWG also advised on acceptability of the various data sources. For the most part, the data were sourced from government, and included both data generated by Stats SA from surveys and administrative data from other government agencies.

Target 4 is assigned as the measure of achievement in respect of Goal 3. Target 4, in turn, encompasses four international 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 fourth indicators relate to employment and decision-making respectively. These additional 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 targets thus reflect back on the goal, which is about "empowerment" as well as equality. The targets attempt to measure the economic and political aspects of empowerment. The four indicators are as follows:

- Indicator 9: Ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education
- Indicator 10: Ratio of literate females to males of 15-24 years olds
- Indicator 11: Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector
- Indicator 12: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament

The guidelines for compilation of MDG reports emphasise 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 explored at the same time as analysis is done by gender so as to capture the differences between the different sub-groups. For example, it is important to compare black and white women and men at the same time as capturing the male-female differences rather than having one table or graph that disaggregates into male and female and another separate table or graph that disaggregates by population group. Analysis which combines population group and gender is therefore included in this report as is some analysis by province. The analysis by province is important, among others, as a proxy for the apartheid legacy as provinces which are made up of former "homelands" tend to have different patterns from those which are made up of mainly non-"homeland" areas.

In addition to analysis by population group and location, the report considers differences

between younger and older women and men. The calculations for the gender parity indices in education take age into account, and the standard international literacy indicator focuses on youth. The report extends discussion of literacy to older adults, and also provides analysis disaggregated by age for some of the employment-related indicators.

DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT

Since 1994 South Africa has become known internationally for relatively good performance in terms of common measures of gender equality. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), with its strong provisions in respect of equality, lays the basis for this achievement. Politically there has also been a strong emphasis on the need to move towards a non-racist and non-sexist South Africa.

Institutionally, article 187 of the 1996 Constitution provided for the establishment of the Commission for Gender Equality, as one of the "Chapter Nine" institutions intended to support constitutional democracy. The Commission's mandate is to "promote respect for gender equality and the protection, development and attainment of gender equality." At the executive level, in 2009 government established the Department of Women, Children and People with Disabilities. The Department replaced the Office on the Status of Women which had been located within the Presidency. The Offices on the Status of Women remain in place at provincial level, but in Eastern Cape and North West the function have been shifted into a line function department. Many national and provincial departments also have gender focal points. There is no standard institutional mechanism for the management of gender at local government level.

Since 1994, the South African government has ratified a number of international and regional conventions and instruments that directly address gender issues. These include:

- the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (ratified in 1995)
- the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (ratified in 1996)
- the Beijing Platform for Action (ratified in 1995)
- the Protocol to prevent, suppress and punishing of Trafficking in Persons especially women and children, supplementing the UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (ratified in 2004).
- the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (ratified in 1997)
- the Equal Remuneration Convention (ratified in 2000)
- The Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (ratified in 2004)
- the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (ratified in 2004)
- the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development (ratified in 2008).

Parliament has introduced and amended a range of different laws that directly address gender issues. These include:

- the Citizenship Act (no 88 of 1995)
- the Domestic Violence Act (no 116 of 1998)
- the Maintenance Amendment Act (no 99 of 1998)
- the Recognition of Customary Marriages Act (no 120 of 1998)

- the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (no 4 of 2000)
- the Employment Equity Act (no 55 of 1998)
- the Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act (no 41 of 2003)
- the Civil Union Act (no 17 of 2006)
- the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act (no 32 of 2007)
- the Choice on Termination of Pregnancy and Amendment Act (no 92 of 1996; no 1 of 2008)
- the Protection from Harassment Act (no 17 of 2011).

The Prevention and Combating of Trafficking in Persons Bill (B7-2010) was tabled in Parliament in March 2010, but has not yet been fully considered by the National Council of Provinces.

The Department of Women, Children and People with Disabilities has played a lead role in developing the Women and Gender Equality Bill, but this has not yet been debated and voted on by the legislature.

The CGE is one of a range of bodies that highlighted the unconstitutional nature of several elements of the Traditional Courts Bill (B1-2012) when it was tabled in Parliament (Commission on Gender Equality, 2012). These included elements that would undermine gender equality. The Commission offered these criticisms after conducting hearings around the country. The criticisms of the Bill resulted in its being withdrawn for redrafting.

Statistically, South Africa's relatively good performance is evident on both international and regional indices.

- The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) of the Organisation for Economic Development and Cooperation measures discrimination against women in (mainly developing) countries. The 14 indicators of the index encompass five dimensions: discriminatory family code, restricted physical integrity, son bias, restricted civil liberties and restricted resources and entitlements. South Africa ranked 4th of out 87 countries in the 2012 SIGI and was the top-ranked country in Africa(OECD Development Centre, 2012: 13)
- The SADC Gender and Development Index rates countries on their achievement of the 28 targets for 2015 specified in the Southern African Development Community Gender Protocol. The index is based on 23 indicators in six sectors. South Africa ranks second on the overall index, with a score very marginally less than that of the leader, Seychelles (Lowe-Morna and Nyakujarah, 2012).
- South Africa ranks 90th out of 148 countries with gender inequality index ratings for 2012, as against 121st out of 186 countries with human development index ratings (United Nations Development Programme, 2013).

However, while South Africa's overall achievement on indices such as these is pleasing, the overall scores mask problems. Firstly, the overall scores mask differences in the scores, such as those related to population groups and location. Secondly, the SIGI has several indicators that are based on the existence of legislation. These indicators do not take into account how well the legislation is implemented and enforced. Further, there are some issues, most notably gender-based violence, that are not well captured in any of the indices. A further issue that has attracted public concern and policy attention is teenage pregnancy. Pregnant girls and young women cannot be denied access to education, as this would be in conflict with the Constitution as well as with the policy document Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy released by the then Department of Education in 2007 (Panday et al, 2009: 22). Nevertheless, bearing children at a young age is not good for either the mother or the child. The subsequent caregiving and other responsibilities that result for the young mother will restrict the opportunities open to her in terms of her personal educational and work development.

The overview to the National Development Plan Vision 2030 released in November 2011 does not address the MDG-related gender issues in depth. The document mentions gender and/or women four times in its ten-page list and discussion of key targets and implementable actions. Three of these mentions – those relating to nutrition, maternal mortality and microbicides – can be seen as directly relevant to MDGs 1 and 5, but not to MDG 3. The fourth mention, in relation to access to housing, is less directly relevant to the MDGs.

On the positive side, South Africa is recognised internationally for the scope of its social security system, a scope that is unusual for developing countries. The system is important in the context of the MDGs, in that the social security system directly targets poverty. The system is also important when poverty and development are considered from a gender perspective, as the number of female direct beneficiaries is far greater than the number of male direct beneficiaries. Women outnumber men among the 2,8 million beneficiaries of the old age grant both because women are more likely than men to be poor (and thus to pass the means test which is based on the income of the person and, if they are married, that of their spouse) and because women tend to live longer than men, and are thus eligible for a longer period. Women predominate even more strongly among the caregivers who receive the child support grant, which is the grant that has the largest number of beneficiaries, reaching caregivers of 11,1 million in 2013 (National Treasury, 2013: 438). Their predominance among direct recipients of the child support has a negative side in that it reflects the extent to which women bear the responsibility of raising and caring for children. These gender roles mean that women also predominate heavily among the caregiver recipients of the foster child grant and the care dependency grant. (The latter grant is provided to caregivers of severely disabled children between the ages of 1 and 18 years who require 24-hour care.)

CURRENT STATUS AND PAST TRENDS IN THE INDICATORS

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

MDG3 focuses on the relative position of girls and boys, women and men in respect of educational achievement, while MDG2 focuses on absolute levels of achievement, with a focus on primary education. The relative measures used for MDG3 clearly need to be considered against the background of the absolute levels of achievement. This is important because equality, or parity, between female and male is not a desirable situation for anyone if both female and male have very low levels of achievement.

During the late apartheid years, racial disparities far outweighed gender ones in respect of education. Thus already in 1990 there was little difference between the school patterns for girls and boys within each population group. There were, however, substantial differences between the girls and boys of different population groups.

Primary school

Already in 1994 the number of girls enrolled in primary school was similar to the number of boys enrolled, although consistently slightly below that for boys in each year. This pattern has continued in subsequent years. Table 1 reveals that in 2011, girls accounted for 48.6% of all primary enrolees, and girls and young women accounted for 51.3% of all secondary enrolees.

Table 1: Enrolment in primary and secondary schools, 2011

Sex	Primary	Secondary
Female	3 378 569	2 327 134
Male	3 578 863	2 207 305
Total	6 957 432	4 534 439
Female as % of total	48.6	51.3

Source: SNAP Survey, Department of Basic Education

However, female: male ratios based on absolute numbers do 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 the MDG indicators, the phases considered are primary, secondary and tertiary education. For primary school (spanning grades 1 to 7), the population aged 7-13 years is used, for secondary school (spanning grades 8 to 12) the population aged 14-18 years is used, and for tertiary education the age group 20-24 is used.

The GPI, as a ratio measure, is more complicated than the GER or than simple headcounts. However, the use of a ratio controls for possible differences in male and female population counts. A GPI of 1.0 indicates complete equality or parity between female and male. A GPI of less than 1.0 indicates that boys/men predominate in relative terms, while a GPI of more than 1.0 indicates that girls/women predominate. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) considers GPI values between 0.97 and 1.03 as reflecting achievement of gender parity. UNESCO argues that values above 1.03, while not reflecting gender "parity", are a positive development as they indicate, firstly, the "changing values and attitudes related to the role and aspirations of women in society" (UNESCO, 2012: 21), as well as the other demands on and opportunities available to men other than continuing with education.

The first two numeric columns of the table show the female and male GER which are used to calculate the GPI. Up until 2006 the GERs generally exceed 100, reflecting a relatively large number of children in primary school who are not the appropriate age for this level of schooling. From 2007 onwards, the GERs are slightly under 100. This is, at least in part, the result of efforts to ensure that children start their schooling at the correct age and restrictions on the number of times that children can repeat grades.

Table 2: Gross enrolment ratios and gender parity index at primary school, 1996-2011

Year	Female GER	Male GER	GPI
1996	127	131	0.97
1997	116	120	0.97
1998	115	118	0.97
1999	113	116	0.97
2000	97	100	0.95
2001	114	120	0.96
2002	103	108	0.95
2003	101	106	0.95
2004	102	107	0.95
2005	101	105	0.96
2006	100	104	0.96
2007	98	100	0.97
2008	97	100	0.98
2009	96	99	0.98
2010	92	96	0.96
2011	91	95	0.96

Source: SNAP Survey, Department of Basic Education; Mid-year population estimates Statistics South Africa

It has been recognised since the 17th century that, unless other factors (such as sex-selective abortion) intervene, more boy than girl babies will be born (Chahnazarian, 1998). However, mortality then tends to be higher for boy children than girl children. As a result, boys can be

expected to outnumber girls among young children, with females outnumbering males as age increases.

The fact that boys outnumber girls in the population will result in the ratio of the number of boys to number of girls enrolled being more than one if the percentage of girls who are enrolled is the same as the percentage of boys who are enrolled. As explained above, the GER and GPI calculations remove the impact of different numbers of boys and girls in the population. However, even after this adjustment, the GERs for boys are slightly higher than those for girls at each age and the GPI is slightly less than one.

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 level, the number of girls outnumbers the number of boys in secondary school throughout the period covered. This pattern suggests that the fact that the GPI is more than one at primary level may be due to more boys than girls repeating in the earlier grades (Department of Basic Education, 2011: 33).

To arrive at MDG estimates, the sources are the same as for the primary school estimates, namely enrolment data supplied by the Department of Basic Education and the mid-year population estimates calculated by Statistics South Africa.

Table 3 confirms that the female GER is higher than the male GER for all years, resulting in a GPI greater than one. Throughout the period, the female GER is around 90 for all years except 2002 and 2003. In contrast, the male GER has generally remained below 85.

Table 2 shows that primary GPIs have remained more or less constant over the period 1996 to 2011, and have remained less than one throughout the period. In contrast, the secondary GPI decreased from a high in 1997 to 2007, after which it again began increasing. The combination of a low primary GPI and a high secondary GPI probably, at least in part, reflects higher repetition rates at the primary level for boys.

Table 3: Gross enrolment ratios and gender parity index at secondary school, 1996-2011

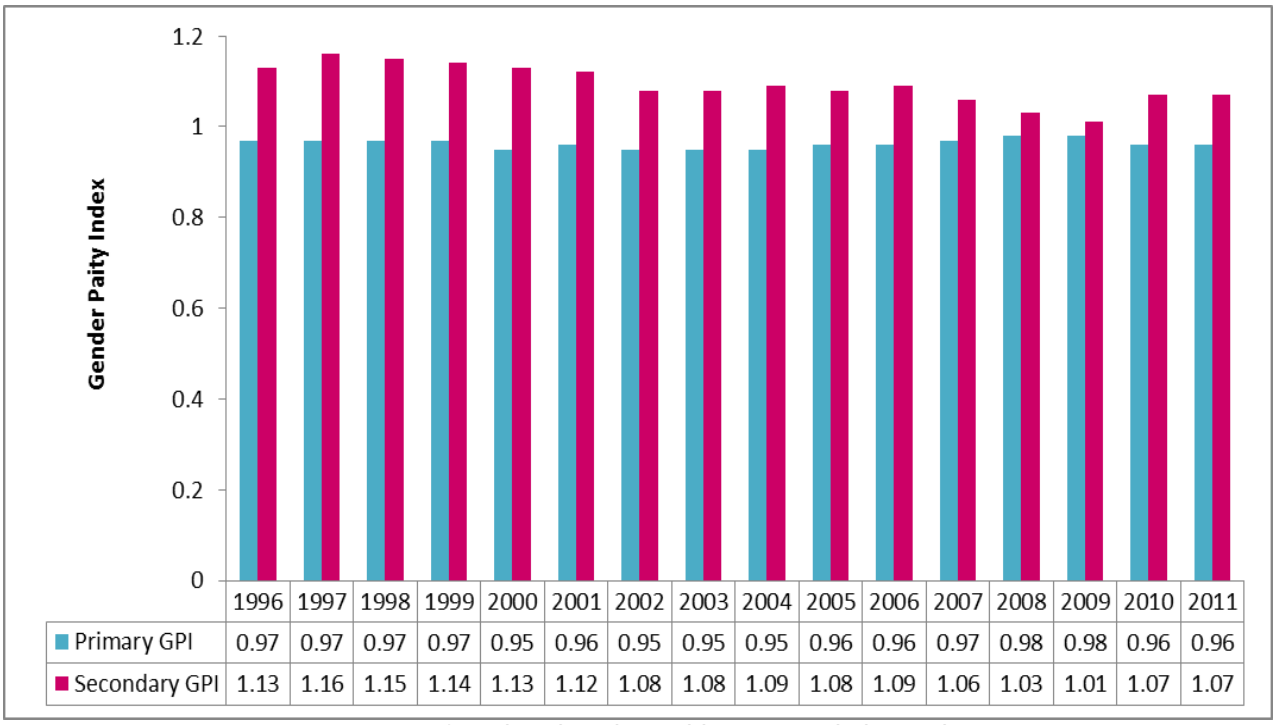
Year	Female GER	Male GER	GPI
1996	94	83	1.13
1997	90	77	1.16
1998	92	80	1.15
1999	91	80	1.14
2000	91	82	1.13
2001	90	81	1.12
2002	84	78	1.08
2003	83	87	1.08
2004	93	85	1.09
2005	92	85	1.08
2006	95	87	1.09
2007	92	84	1.06
2008	87	82	1.03
2009	88	82	1.01
2010	89	83	1.07
2011	90	84	1.07

Source: SNAP Survey, Department of Basic Education; Mid-year population estimates, Statistics South Africa

Figure 1 shows the provincial picture. Instead of primary and secondary levels, the figure shows the GPI for the General Education and Training (GET) band of Grades R through 9 and the Further Education and Training (FET) band equivalent to Grades 10 through 12. For the country as a whole the GPI is 0.97 at GET level and 1.13 in the FET band.

The reasons for this pattern would be the same as those why the GPI for primary schooling is less than one while the GPI for secondary schooling is more than one. These reasons may include higher rates of repetition among male learners, as well as a greater likelihood that girls will remain in school until they have completed grade 12 than the likelihood of this being the case for boys (Department of Basic Education, 2011: 29).

Figure 1: Gender parity index at primary and secondary levels, 1996-2011

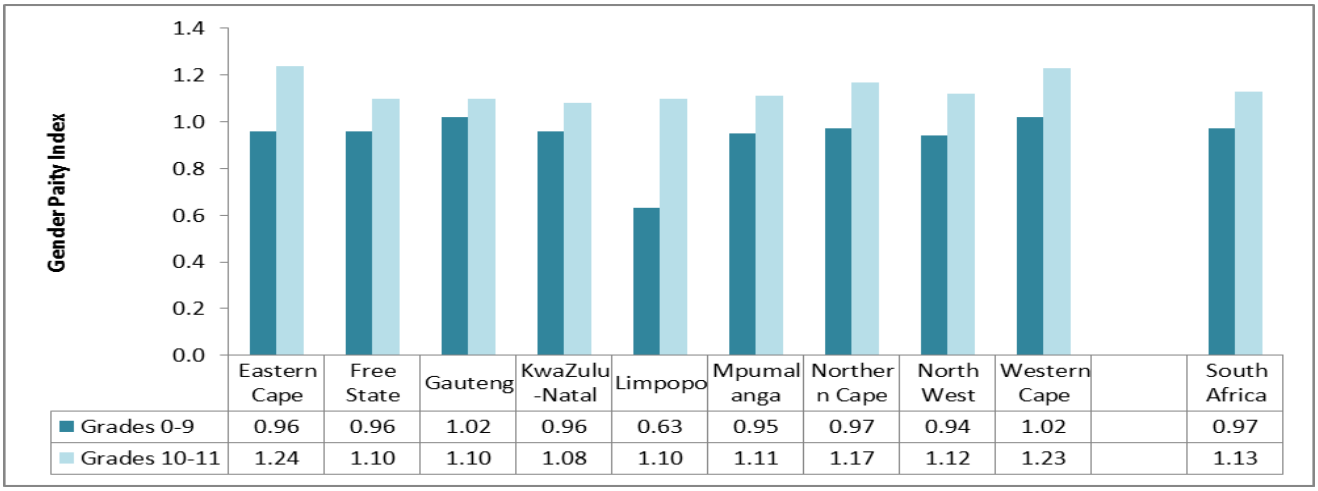


	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Primary GPI	0.97	0.97	0.97	0.97	0.95	0.96	0.95	0.95	0.95	0.96	0.96	0.97	0.98	0.98	0.96	0.96
Secondary GPI	1.13	1.16	1.15	1.14	1.13	1.12	1.08	1.08	1.09	1.08	1.09	1.06	1.03	1.01	1.07	1.07

Source: SNAP Survey, Department of Basic Education; Mid-year population estimates, Statistics South Africa

For all provinces the GPI for the FET level is noticeably higher than for the GET band. Gauteng and Western Cape are the only two provinces for which the GET GPI is greater than one. In contrast, for all nine provinces the GPI for the higher FET band is 1.08 or higher. Eastern Cape has the greatest preponderance of girls for the FET band and Limpopo has the greatest preponderance of boys for the GET band.

Figure 2: Gender parity index by province for general education and further education levels, 2011



	Eastern Cape	Free State	Gauteng	KwaZulu-Natal	Limpopo	Mpumalanga	Northern Cape	North West	Western Cape		South Africa
Grades 0-9	0.96	0.96	1.02	0.96	0.63	0.95	0.97	0.94	1.02		0.97
Grades 10-11	1.24	1.10	1.10	1.08	1.10	1.11	1.17	1.12	1.23		1.13

Source: SNAP survey, Department of Basic Education; Mid-year population estimates, Statistics South Africa

Analysis of data from the General Household Survey (GHS) of 2011 suggests that 90.6% of boys aged 14-18 and 89.2% of girls of this age were attending school. The gender ratio of attendees was 0.98. 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 and 2009 in South Africa's earlier MDG reports. The seeming anomaly is perhaps explained by secondary learners outside the 14-18 year range. In South Africa, many young people 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.

One of the reasons for dropout that affects girls directly in a way that it does not affect boys is pregnancy. Section 9(3) of the 1996 Constitution outlaws direct and indirect discrimination on the basis of pregnancy. Pregnant girls and young women therefore cannot be denied access to education, as this would be in conflict with the Constitution as well as with the policy document *Measures for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy* released by the then Department of Education in 2007 (Panday et al, 2009: 22). In practice, however, many girls who fall pregnant will drop out, whether because they are excluded or because they choose or are forced to do so because of the new responsibilities associated with having a baby.

Table 4 shows that the total number of pregnant learners decreased each year between 2008 and 2011, falling from 49 618 in 2008 to 30 005 in 2011. While the decrease is pleasing, the 2011 figure is still high. Also of concern is that Gauteng, Northern Cape and Western Cape record an increase in the number of pregnant school learners between 2008 and 2011.

Table 4: Pregnant school learners by province, 2008-2011

Province	2008	2009	2010	2011
Eastern Cape	8 674	8 420	6 516	5 126
Free State	1 390	798	809	672
Gauteng	3 923	5 272	4 013	4 217
KwaZulu-Natal	14 688	12 954	14 340	10 577
Limpopo	10 823	10 323	2 310	1 508
Mpumalanga	5 479	5 794	5 280	4 719
Northern Cape	780	232	929	869
North West	1 878	271	372	222
Western Cape	1 983	1 212	2 133	2 095
Total	49 618	45 276	36 702	30 005

Source: Department of Basic Education

Enrolment is a measure of access to education. Equally, if not more important, is the learners' actual performance in terms of gaining knowledge. A key indicator in this respect is successful completion of grade 12, the final year of secondary schooling.

Table 5 below shows, for 2011, the number of female and male learners entering the National Senior Certificate examination that is written at the end of grade 12. It also shows the percentage writing and passing at different levels. The numeric columns of the table can be understood as follows:

- Entered: This reflects the number of female and male learners who registered to write the examinations
- Total passes: These two columns reflect, firstly, the total number of female and male learners who passed the exam, regardless of the type of pass achieved and secondly, the total number of passes expressed as a percentage of all those who entered the examination i.e. the value in the first numeric column divided by the value in the second numeric column.
- Bachelor passes: This column reflects the percentages of female and male learners writing the examination who achieved a pass at a level that qualifies them for enrolment for a bachelor degree.
- Diploma passes: This column reflects the percentages of female and male learners writing the examination who achieved a pass at a level that qualifies them for enrolment for a diploma course at tertiary level.
- Certificate passes: This column reflects the percentages of female and male learners writing the examination who achieved a pass at a level that qualifies them for enrolment for a certificate course at tertiary level.

Table 5: Performance in National Senior Certificate examinations by type of pass, 2011

Province	Sex	Entered	Total passes		Bachelor passes	Diploma passes	Certificated passes
		Number	Number	%	%	%	%
Eastern Cape	Female	36 534	20 481	56	15	22	18
	Male	28 825	17 516	61	16	26	19
Free State	Female	13 625	10 068	74	27	30	17
	Male	12 307	9 550	78	26	35	17
Gauteng	Female	45 781	36 875	81	37	30	13
	Male	39 586	32 341	82	33	35	14
KwaZulu-Natal	Female	63 397	42 867	68	23	27	18
	Male	58 729	40 337	69	22	29	18
Limpopo	Female	39 316	23 651	60	16	24	21
	Male	34 415	23 440	68	20	28	21
Mpumalanga	Female	25 657	16 041	63	17	26	19
	Male	22 478	15 146	67	20	29	19
Northern Cape	Female	5 503	3 771	69	21	27	20
	Male	4 613	3 186	69	18	30	21
North West	Female	13 216	10 100	76	29	31	17
	Male	12 148	9 637	79	28	35	16
Western Cape	Female	22 215	18 206	82	39	29	14
	Male	17 745	14 904	84	37	34	13
Total	Female	265 244	182 060	69	25	27	17
	Male	230 846	166 057	72	24	30	17

Source: National Senior Certificate database, 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. For passes that qualify for enrolment for a certificate the male and female rates are very similar, while for passes that qualify for enrolment for a bachelor's degree the female pass rate exceeds the male rate in six of the nine provinces and for the country as a whole. Further, the column on total numbers who passed the examination reveals that in absolute terms more young women than young men passed. This pattern, of more female than male passes in terms of absolute numbers, is found across all provinces. It thus seems that

more young women than men are attempting the examination, a smaller proportion of those who write are passing, but a greater absolute number. This pattern – as well as the higher rate of female than male bachelor passes – 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 relatively high rate of learners who do not pass the examinations.

Tertiary education

By 2003, the then Department of Education's Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS) recorded that women accounted for 49% of the total of 230 052 enrolments at the technikons, which provided more technically oriented higher education, and 56% of the total of 487 740enrolments at the more academically-oriented universities. Combining universities and technikons, women accounted for 54% of the total of 718 192 enrolments, giving a female: male ratio of 1.16. In 2008, total enrolments stood at 799 465 with a female: male ratio of 1.29.(Not that these are simple ratios, rather than the gender parity index reported below as the calculations here do not take into account the number of females and males in the relevant age group.)

In 2003 the South African government initiated a process within the higher education system in terms of which several of the existing tertiary institutions that had been reserved for the different population groups during the apartheid years were merged into single institutions. After the mergers, tertiary institutions were classified into three categories, namely universities of technology (equivalent to the previous technikons), comprehensive universities (where one or more technikon merged with one or more traditional university), and the traditional universities (referred to simply as "universities" in the tables that follow).

Table 6 presents the picture for 2011. It shows a female: male ratio of more than one for all three types of university. The ratio is also higher overall than the 1.29 reported for 2008 in the previous MDG report. However, the ratio continues to be lower for the more technical universities of technology than the other two types. Indeed, the ratio for universities of technology, at 1.03, is slightly lower than the 1.05 recorded for 2008.

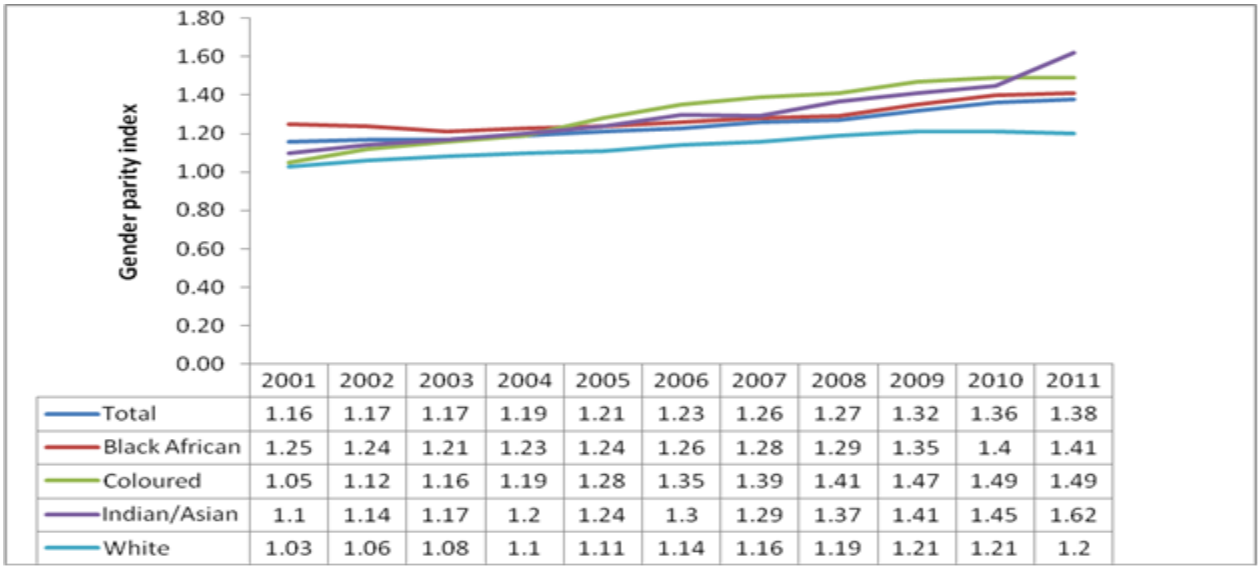
Table 6: Tertiary education enrolments by sex, 2011

Sex	Comprehensives	Universities	Universities of Technology	Total
Female	275 108	190 816	77 073	542 997
Male	183 502	136 476	75 139	395 117
Unknown	1	86		87
Total	458 611	327 378	152 212	938 201
F:M ratio	1.50	1.40	1.03	1.37
Women as % of total	60.0	58.3	50.6	57.9

Source: Higher Education Management Information System[4], Department of Higher Education and Training

In 1996 the GPI for the tertiary level, using the age group 20-24 years as the basis, was 0.96. 0 confirms the pattern in the previous table of a marked shift in the gender ratio in favour of females over a relatively short period. In 2001, the black African GPI was the highest, but by 2011 the Indian/Asian GPI was the highest. Throughout the period, the white GPI remained lower than that for any other population group. Nevertheless, even the white GPI was above one throughout the period.

Figure 3: Gender parity index at tertiary level, 2001-2011



	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	1.16	1.17	1.17	1.19	1.21	1.23	1.26	1.27	1.32	1.36	1.38
Black African	1.25	1.24	1.21	1.23	1.24	1.26	1.28	1.29	1.35	1.4	1.41
Coloured	1.05	1.12	1.16	1.19	1.28	1.35	1.39	1.41	1.47	1.49	1.49
Indian/Asian	1.1	1.14	1.17	1.2	1.24	1.3	1.29	1.37	1.41	1.45	1.62
White	1.03	1.06	1.08	1.1	1.11	1.14	1.16	1.19	1.21	1.21	1.2

Source: Education Management Information System, Department of Higher Education and Training; Mid-year population estimates, Statistics South Africa[5].

[4] Calculation excludes those of unknown sex

Overall HEMIS reveals that women accounted for 56.4% of tertiary students in 2008 and 57.9% of tertiary students in 2011.However, Table 7 below shows that while women dominated overall in 2011, they were under-represented among students studying at masters level and above. At this higher level, 47.0% of the students were women in 2011 and women's share was below 50% at all three types of institutions. This is different from 2008, when women accounted for 51.8% of those studying at masters level and above.

Table 7: Female shares of tertiary students by type of institution and level, 2011

	Total	Masters and above	Total Postgraduate
Comprehensives	458 611	13 743	53 173
Female	275 108	6 312	31 858
Male	183 502	7 431	21 315
Unknown	1		
Female share	60.0	45.9	59.9
Universities	327 378	44 510	89 421
Female	190 816	21 177	49 108
Male	136 476	23 329	40 262
Unknown	86	4	51
Female share	58.3	47.6	54.9
Universities of Technology	152 212	3 452	5 299
Female	77 073	1499	2 710
Male	75 139	1953	2 589
Female share	50.6	43.4	51.1
Total	938 201	61 705	147 893
Female	542 997	28 988	83 676
Male	395 117	32 713	64 166
Unknown	87	4	51
Female share	57.9	47.0	56.6

Source: Higher Education Management Information System, Department of Higher Education and Training

In 2011, 68% of all tertiary students were black African, 6% coloured, 6% Indian/Asian and 19% white. If we focus only on women students, 69% were black African, 7% were coloured, 6% were Indian/Asian and 18% were white. This is a marked improvement over the 1994 profile, but still does not match the overall population profile.

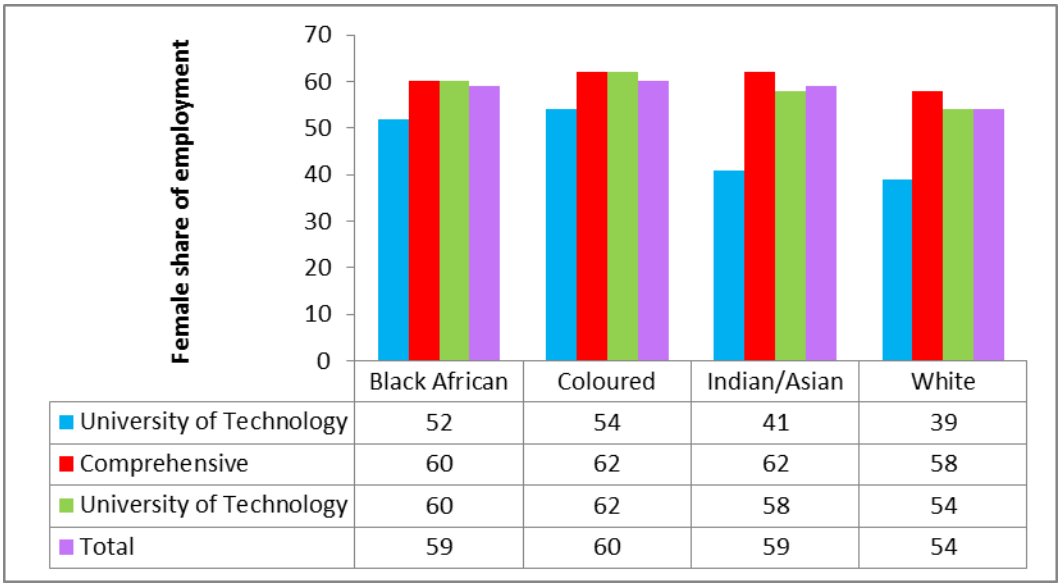
Figure 4 below shows, for each population group, the female share of enrolment for each of the different types of tertiary institutions. For example, the figure shows that 52% of the black

[5] Calculation excludes those of unknown sex.

African students enrolled at universities of technology were women, while this was the case for 60% of the black African students enrolled at the two other types of university. Overall, 59% of the black African students enrolled at all types of universities combined were women.

The figure reveals that females accounted for more than half of enrolments for the black African and coloured groups across all three types of universities. For the other two population groups – Indian/Asian and white – women were under-represented at universities of technology but over-represented at the other two types of university. Across the population groups, female enrolment was lower at the universities of technology than any other type of university. Across all three types of university the female share of enrolments was highest for coloured students and lowest for white students.

Figure 4: Female share of enrolment by type of institution and population group, 2011



	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
University of Technology	52	54	41	39
Comprehensive	60	62	62	58
University of Technology	60	62	58	54
Total	59	60	59	54

Source: Higher Education Management Information System, Department of Higher Education and Training

Gender norms lead one to expect women's presence to be greater in the human sciences than in the natural sciences. Table 8 reveals that overall 72% of students were studying human sciences in 2011, with the remaining 28% in the natural sciences. Natural sciences accounted for almost half (46%) 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 were in the natural sciences, compared to 37% of male students. This pattern is found across all types of university. It is most marked for universities of technology, where 57% of male students were in the natural sciences compared to only 36% of female students. Comparison of these patterns with those reported for three years earlier, in 2008, confirms that there have been almost no changes in the patterns over time.

Table 8: Percentage distribution of tertiary enrolments across human and natural sciences by type of institution and sex, 2011

Type of institution					
Sex	Field of study	University of Technology	Comprehensives	Universities	Total
		%	%	%	%
Female	Human sciences	64	88	70	78
	Natural sciences	36	12	30	22
	Total	100	100	100	100
Male	Human Sciences	43	75	59	63
	Natural sciences	57	25	41	37
Total	Human sciences	54	83	65	72
	Natural sciences	46	17	35	28
	Total	100	100	100	100

Source: Higher Education Management Information System, Department of Higher Education and Training

South Africa is not the only country with higher female than male enrolments at tertiary level. One possible reason for this pattern is that – as discussed in respect of indicator 11 below – 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 of the occupational spectrum – 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.

2. Ratio of literate females to males aged 15-24 years

Table 9 shows the ratio of literate females to males in the narrowly defined youth age group of those aged 15-24 years. Literacy is defined here as the proportion of the relevant population that has completed Grade 7. The discussion of performance on Goal 2 records that in 2011, the rate was 98.4% for young men of this age and 99.2% for young women. The discussion here focuses on the ratio of female to male literate youth.

Table 10 shows that for the population as a whole, as well as for three of the four population groups, the ratio was one or more throughout the period. The exception is the Indian/Asian group in which for two years the ratio was below unit. This exception should be treated with caution as the small size of the group means that the survey findings have a larger margin of error than for other groups. Throughout the period, the ratio was highest for the black African group. However, as seen in the section of the report that discusses MDG2, in terms of the absolute levels black African women and men have lower achievement than those in other

population groups.

Table 9: Ratio of literate females to males aged 15-24 years by population group, 2002-2011

Population group	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Black African	1.08	1.07	1.08	1.06	1.06	1.07	1.05	1.05	1.06	1.05
Coloureds	1.01	1.00	1.01	1.01	1.02	1.00	1.02	1.05	1.01	1.02
Indian/ Asian	1.01	1.03	1.01	0.95	0.99	1.02	1.01	1.02	1.01	0.99
White	1.01	1.00	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.00	1.02
Total	1.06	1.06	1.07	1.05	1.05	1.06	1.04	1.05	1.05	1.04

Source: General Household Survey 2002-2011, Statistics South Africa

Table 10 presents the same information by province. Here the only case in which a ratio of less than one is found is Northern Cape in 2002. Again, this could be an error based on a small sample as the Northern Cape has the smallest population of all provinces. The ratio was highest in Eastern Cape throughout the period. Gauteng, the province with the lowest prevalence of women in its population, had the lowest ratio in 2011.

Table 10: Ratio of literate females to males aged 15-24 years by province, 2002-2011

Province	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Eastern Cape	1.17	1.15	1.16	1.15	1.09	1.17	1.15	1.12	1.14	1.12
Free State	1.06	1.04	1.03	1.04	1.05	1.05	1.04	1.04	1.03	1.05
Gauteng	1.04	1.04	1.03	1.01	1.04	1.02	1.00	1.02	1.01	1.01
KwaZulu-Natal	1.04	1.07	1.03	1.02	1.02	1.03	1.03	1.05	1.05	1.03
Limpopo	1.08	1.06	1.09	1.07	1.06	1.04	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03
Mpumalanga	1.03	1.10	1.08	1.06	1.07	1.05	1.02	1.03	1.03	1.07
North West	1.09	1.00	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.04	1.01	1.05	1.06	1.04
Northern Cape	0.94	1.00	1.01	1.10	1.06	1.12	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.05
Western Cape	1.03	1.00	1.08	1.06	1.03	1.05	1.02	1.02	1.02	1.02
South Africa	1.06	1.06	1.07	1.05	1.05	1.06	1.04	1.05	1.05	1.04

Source: General Household Survey 2002-2011, Statistics South Africa

Table 11 shows the gender patterns in respect of the population aged 25 years and above. Literacy here is again defined as having completed grade 7. The age group 25 years and above 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. 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). The position has since

improved and in 2009 there was a smaller difference between males and females. However, the gap is had yet completely closed.

Table 11: Grade 7 completion of population 25+ by sex, 1996 and 2011

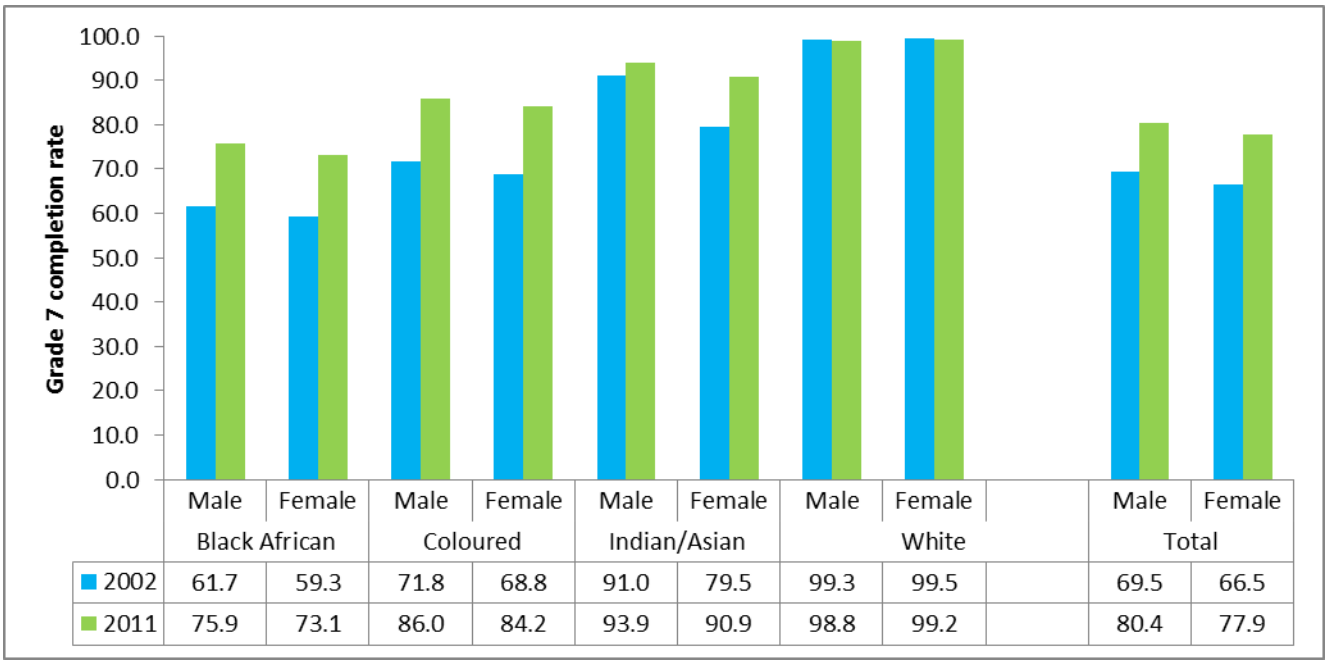
Educational level	1996			2011		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
% Grade 7+	65.6	60.2	62.7	80.4	77.9	79.1
F : M ratio	0.9			1.0		

Source: October Household Survey 1996, Statistics South Africa; General Household Survey 2011 Statistics South Africa

Figure 5 disaggregates the data by population group in respect of those aged 25 years and above. It shows that by 2011 the percentage of the female population that had completed grade 7 was lower the comparable percentage of the male population for three of the four population groups – all except the white group. The figure shows that for all groups except the white group, there had been a clear increase over the period in the percentages of both women and men who had completed grade 7. In the white group, already by 1996, 99% of both women and men had completed this level of education.

The improvement in the percentage for the Black African, coloured and Indian/Asian groups reflects the improvement in access to education over recent decades. Thus, as older people who were denied access to education die and younger people who have had access reach the age of 25, the percentage increases. However, despite this improvement the apartheid legacy is still in evidence in terms of population group disparities. The data labels in the graph show that in 2011 only about three-quarters of Black Africans aged 25 years or more had completed grade 7, as opposed to about 85% of coloured people, 92% of Indian people, and 99% of whites.

Figure 5: Grade 7 completion of population 25+ by sex and population group, 2002 and 2011



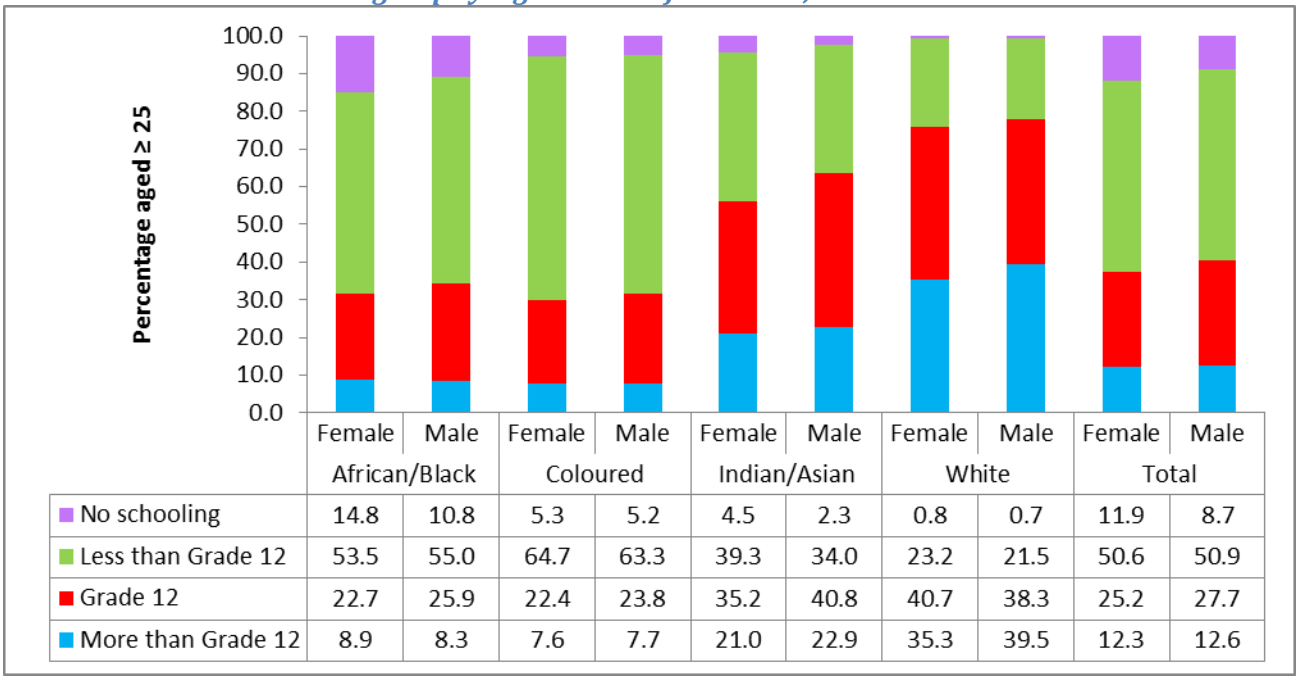
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		Male	Female
	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White			Total	
2002	61.7	59.3	71.8	68.8	91.0	79.5	99.3	99.5		69.5	66.5
2011	75.9	73.1	86.0	84.2	93.9	90.9	98.8	99.2		80.4	77.9

Source: General Household Surveys 2002 and 2011, Statistics South Africa

The final graph in this section, Figure 6 below, shows the percentage distribution of women and men aged 25 years and above by four educational categories – no formal schooling, less than grade 12, grade 12, and education above grade 12. The graph reveals that in 2011 14.8% of black African women and 10.8% of black African men in this age group had received no formal schooling. Much lower percentages of coloured, Indian/Asian and white women and men had not received formal schooling. Nevertheless, the percentages without formal schooling for these coloured women and men and Indian women are still large enough to merit attention. For each population group the percentage of women with no formal education was higher than that for men.

At the other end of the scale, the graph shows coloured women and men in the worst-off position in terms of post-grade 12 education. However, the gender differences are small for the Black African and coloured groups, and Black African women are, in fact, slightly more likely than their male counterparts to have post-grade 12 education. The gender differences in respect of post-grade 12 education are largest for the white group, and here women are clearly at a disadvantage. Across all four population groups, women in this age group are less likely than men to have completed grade 12.

Figure 6: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 25 years and above for each population group by highest level of education, 2011



	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
	African/Black		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White		Total	
No schooling	14.8	10.8	5.3	5.2	4.5	2.3	0.8	0.7	11.9	8.7
Less than Grade 12	53.5	55.0	64.7	63.3	39.3	34.0	23.2	21.5	50.6	50.9
Grade 12	22.7	25.9	22.4	23.8	35.2	40.8	40.7	38.3	25.2	27.7
More than Grade 12	8.9	8.3	7.6	7.7	21.0	22.9	35.3	39.5	12.3	12.6

Source: General Household Survey 2011, Statistics South Africa

3. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector[6]

The United Nations Development Programme (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. Employment is especially important for the MDGs given that the MDGs focus is poverty, because employment potentially results in earnings and these earnings can assist individuals and their families in escaping poverty. 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). This makes sense from a poverty perspective to the extent that agriculture in many developing countries encompasses a large subsistence sector, which does not provide the monetary income that would help people escape poverty. The exclusion of agriculture makes less sense in a country such as South Africa in which much of agricultural production is commercial. We therefore report both on the

[6]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. The estimates recorded in this report are also calculated as averages over all surveys for a particular year, while in previous years only one survey per year was used. 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.

standard international indicator so as to allow for international comparisons, but we also report on domesticated indicators that include agriculture.

Table 12 below provides the information on the standard international indicators for the period 1996-2012 calculated from data from Statistics South Africa's household surveys. The October Household Survey (OHS) is used for 1996 and 1999, the Labour Force Survey for 2005, and the Quarterly Labour Force Survey for 2010 and 2012. The table suggests that in 1996, 1999 and 2005, the female share of wage employment excluding agriculture was 43%. The share then increased to 44% in 2010 and 45% in 2012. Some caution should be exercised in interpreting these trends because the questions in the LFS and QLFS differ from those used in the OHS. In particular, the questions which determine whether a person is employed or not, and those determining status in employment (i.e. whether an individual is an employee or in some other contractual situation) are very different in the two series. In addition, for 2005 onwards the estimates refer to the age group 15-64, whereas for the earlier years the estimates refer to the population 15+.

Table 12: Employees by sex, excluding agriculture, 1996-2010 (thousands)

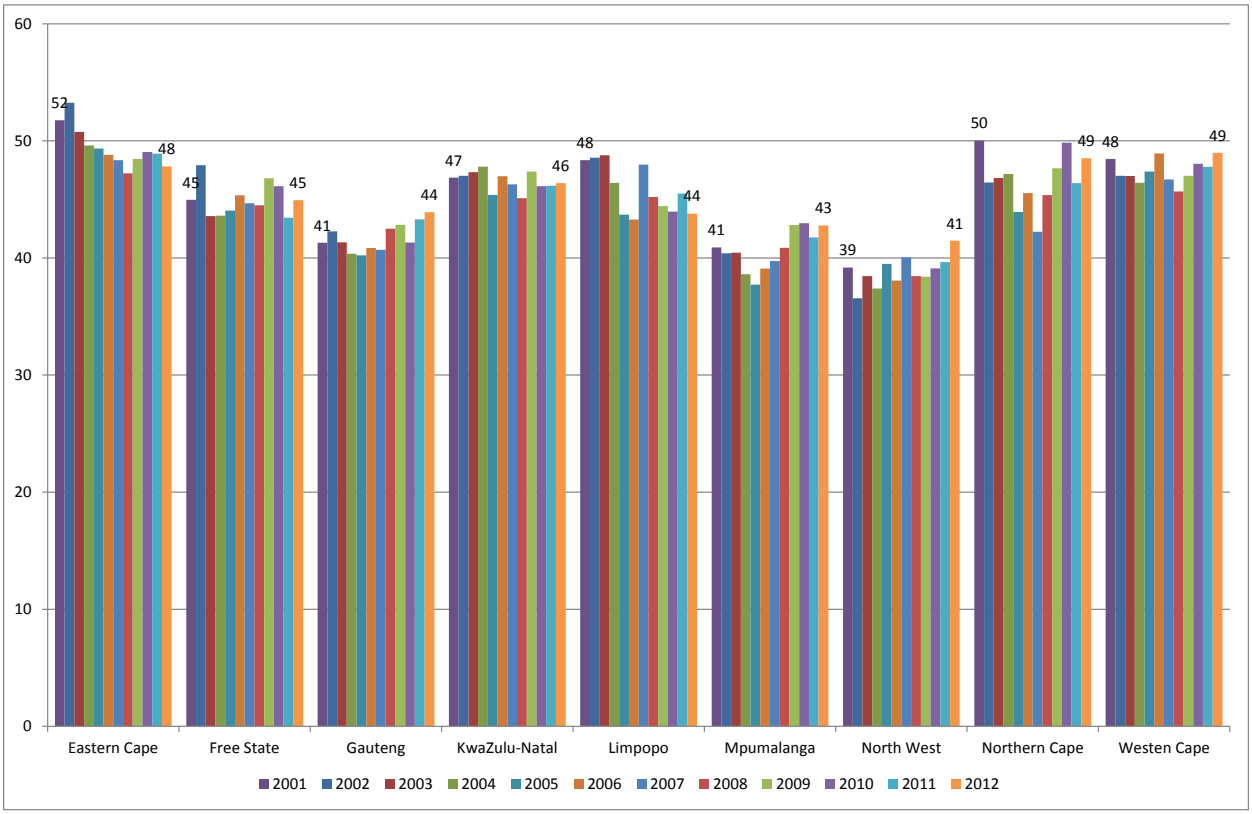
Year	1996	1999	2005	2010	2012
Male	4 191	5 300	5 509	5 802	5 929
Female	3 227	3 987	4 216	4 652	4 929
Female share	43	43	43	44	45

Source: October Household Surveys 1996, 1999, Statistics South Africa; Labour Force Surveys 2005; Quarterly Labour Force Surveys 2010 and 2012, Statistics South Africa

The previous table draws on diverse surveys, including Stats SA's OHS for the period before Stats SA introduced its labour force series. The tables that follow draw on the LFS and the QLFS.

Figure 7 below gives the provincial female shares over the period 2000 to 2011.The figure shows that across all nine provinces, and for the full period 2001 through 2012, it was only in three years and only in the Eastern Cape that women accounted for more than half of non-agricultural employees. In most other years and provinces women accounted for between 40% and 50% of non-agricultural employees. However, in North West the female percentage was less than 40% for most years, while this was also the case for four of the 12 years in Mpumalanga. The female share seems to have decreased over the period in Eastern Cape and Limpopo, and increased in North West. Nevertheless, North West still records the lowest female share in 2012. The lower female shares in North West and Mpumalanga may be partly attributable to the dominance of mining and agriculture, respectively, in these provinces. The relatively low female share in Gauteng reflects, at least in part, that the adult population of this province is male-dominated. This in turn, is partly a legacy of the apartheid years during which there were particularly severe restrictions on the movement of Black African women to "white" urban areas. Conversely, the high female share in Eastern Cape could reflect the fact that a large part of this province is made up of ex-homeland areas to which many Black African women were restricted.

Figure 7: Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector, 2001-2012



Source: Labour Force Survey 2001-2007 Statistics South Africa; Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2008-2012 Statistics South Africa

As noted above, the international indicator which excludes agriculture may not be the best one for South Africa, with its substantial commercial agricultural sector. Figure 7 therefore gives the number of women and men reported to be working as employees in the QLFS for the fourth quarter of 2012 both excluding and including agriculture. Employees working for private households are separated out from other employees. This separation is 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. As noted above, 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 condition.

Table 13 shows that the female share of employees remains more or less the same whether agriculture is excluded or included. Nevertheless, the female share of agricultural employment is much lower (33%) than the female share of employees as a whole. This apparent anomaly is explained by the fact that agriculture accounts for a relatively small proportion (5%) of all

employees. The lower female share for agriculture therefore does not have a big effect on the overall (average) gender profile. In addition, the table shows that the female share is higher in the formal sector (42%) than in the informal sector (36%), but is highest by far in the household sector (78%), which consists primarily of domestic workers.

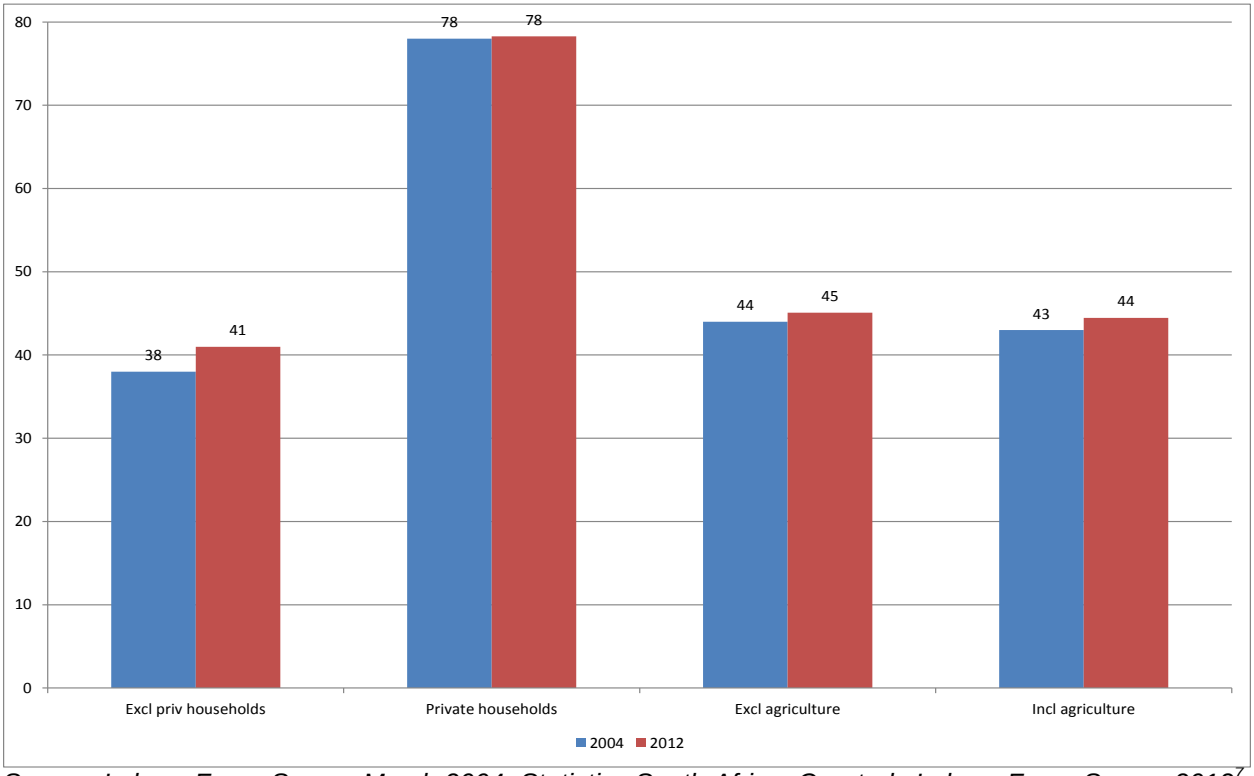
Table 13: Employees by sex (thousands)

Sector	Male	Female	Total	Female share (%)
Formal sector	5 204	3 790	8 994	42
Informal sector	477	274	750	36
Agriculture	407	204	610	33
Private households	248	865	1 113	78
Total including agriculture	6 336	5 132	11 468	45
Total excluding agriculture	5 929	4 929	10 858	45

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2012, Statistics South Africa

Figure 8 compare the female shares of different categories of wage employment in 2004 and 2012. The figure suggests that the gender profile in terms of wage employment was more or less constant over the period even after disaggregation into key sectors of employment. However, the figure once again confirms the domination of women among domestic workers.

Figure 8: Female share of wage employment, 2004 and 2012



Source: Labour Force Survey March 2004, Statistics South Africa; Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2012[7], Statistics South Africa

Table 14 disaggregates non-agricultural wage employment by population group. For the coloured group, the overall female share was 49% in 2012, which was the highest of all groups. The share was lowest among the Indian/Asian group, at 41%. Black African and coloured groups had their highest shares in the private household sector. In some categories the estimates for the Indian/Asian and white groups are too small to allow meaningful analysis.

Table 14: Female share of wage employment by population group, excluding agriculture, 2012

	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White	Total
Formal sector	40	47	41	46	42
Informal sector	35	38		62	36
Private household	77	84			78
Total	45	49	41	46	45

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2012, Statistics South Africa

[7] The slight difference in height between the two columns for private households is explained by differences before rounding to remove decimal places.

Table 15 shows the female share of wage employment by population group, excluding agriculture, for 2004 and 2012. The female share of employment increased for the Black African and Indian/Asian groups regardless of whether private households are included. The female share for the coloured and white groups remained more or less constant over the period.

Table 15: Female share of wage employment, excluding agriculture, 2004 and 2012

Population group	All		Excluding private households	
	2004	2012	2004	2012
Black African	43	45	35	40
Coloured	49	49	46	47
Indian/Asian	38	41	38	41
White	46	46	46	46
Total	44	45	39	42

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2012[8], Statistics South Africa

The standard MDG3 employment indicator focuses only on wage employment. It thus ignores those who are employers, own-account workers and unpaid workers in family businesses. 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 and self-employment (i.e. employers, own-account and unpaid family workers). 0below provides an approximation of the ILO's indicators for South Africa based on the LFS of 2004 and the QLFS of 2010 and 2012.

Table 16 shows that for all three years the female share of employment is highest for informal sector 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 sector self-employment falls from 58% to 47% and the share for non-agricultural self-employment as a whole falls from 56% to 45%. Some of the change between 2004 and 2010probably 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.

[8] "Other" population group excluded except from total

Table 16: Percentage female share of employment using task force indicators on employment, 2004, 2010 and 2012

	2004	2010	2012
Total employment	44	43	44
Agricultural employment	34	34	33
Non-agricultural wage employment	44	44	45
Informal sector wage employment	62	60	61
Non-agricultural self-employment	56	49	45
Informal sector self-employment	58	51	47

Source: Labour Force Survey March 2004, Statistics South Africa; Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2010 and 2012, Statistics South Africa

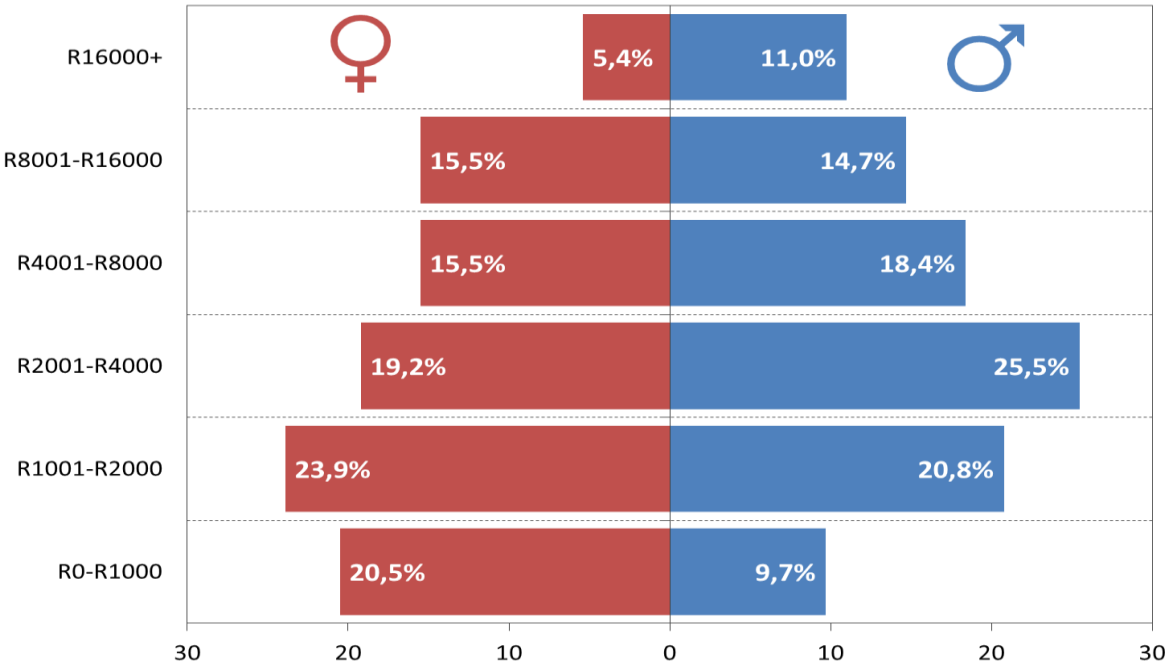
The ILO proposes that the distinction between formal and informal be made only in respect of non-agricultural employment. It does so on the assumption that most agricultural employment is self-employment and informal. This is, however, not the case in South Africa where in the fourth quarter of 2012 84% 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 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).

The QLFS conducted by Statistics South Africa is the best source of data on earnings, as other sources, such as the Living Conditions Survey of 2008/09 and five-yearly Income and Expenditure Surveys focus on all forms of income rather than on earned income. In 2010, the Quarterly Labour Force Surveys found that the median monthly earnings for male employees were R3 033 per month, as compared to R2 340 per month for female employees i.e. female employees tended to earn only 77% of what male employees earned (Statistic South Africa, 2010: viii).

Figure 9 shows the percentage distribution by earnings of employed women and men in 2011. At the lower end of earnings, more than 20% of women earned R1 000 or less per month, compared to 10% of men. At the upper end, four in every ten men (40,8%) earned R4 501 or more compared to just over a third (34,1%) of women. Yet, as seen above, there was very little difference in educational achievement of women and men.

Figure 9: Percentage distribution of employed women and men aged 15–64 years by earnings, 2011



Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2011, Statistics South Africa

South Africa has not ratified the ILO's Equal Remuneration Convention 100 of 1951. This convention goes beyond calling simply for equal remuneration for equal work. Such a call would have been largely met in South Africa since 1981, when legislation outlawed the setting of different minimum wages for male and female workers doing similar jobs. However, this provision does not get to the heart of inequalities in remuneration because it does not cater for situations in which women and men tend to do different work. The convention therefore calls for 'equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value'.

Section 27 of the Employment Equity Act (no 55 of 1998) requires that employers report on income differentials in the workplace, including gender-based differentials. This aspect of the Act has not been reported on to date.

Further indications of employment-related gender inequalities are found when we examine the gender profile of top managers in the economy. In 2012 all formal sector employers with 50 or more employees were required to submit returns in terms of the Employment Equity Act. The requirement applied to government, parastatals, the private sector and non-profit organisations. Overall, only 19.9 per cent of top managers in these companies and institutions were female. Only 3.6 per cent were black African women, compared to 12.8 per cent white women, 1.6 per cent who were Indian/Asian women, 1.5 per cent who were coloured women, and 0.4% who were foreign women. Nearly six in ten (59.8 per cent) of the top managers were white men (Commission for Employment Equity, 2013: 39).

The standard MDG indicator focuses on those who are 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.

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. This official definition tends to undercount the extent of women's disadvantage as women are more likely than men to be among discouraged work seekers, i.e. among those who would like work but have not taken steps to find it because they do not expect to be able to find a job or cannot afford to look for one. For example, in the third quarter of 2012 there were 1 268 thousand female discouraged work seekers as against 988 thousand male discouraged work seekers (Statistics South Africa, 2012: 2-3). These discouraged work seekers are not included when the official unemployment rate is calculated.

Table 17 shows the trends in the ratio of the number of female unemployed to male unemployed over the period 2001 to 2012 for each of the nine provinces. The table is based on the official definition of unemployment. For 2012 the ratios range between 0.9 in Limpopo, North West and Western Cape and 1.2 in Mpumalanga. Throughout the period most provinces have ratios within this range, suggesting relatively similar numbers of unemployed women and unemployed men. Limpopo and Mpumalanga have regularly had ratios above 1.2, exposing a situation where unemployed women seriously outnumber unemployed men. This situation is also found for some years in Northern Cape and Free State. There are no examples, across all nine provinces and the full period 2001 to 2012, in which the ratio is less than 0.9.

Table 17: Ratio of female to male unemployed by province, 2001-2012

Province	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Eastern Cape	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Free State	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.3	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.1
Gauteng	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0
KwaZulu-Natal	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0
Limpopo	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9
Mpumalanga	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2
North West	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Northern Cape	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.0
Western Cape	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9
South Africa	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

Source: Labour Force Survey, Statistics South Africa; Quarterly Labour Force Survey Statistics South Africa

Table 18 reveals that the highest female: male ratios of unemployed are found amongst Black Africans. However, the ratio never rises above 1.3 and by 2011 is 1.1. The lowest rates are found amongst whites, where the ratio was as low as 0.6 in 2009 and was 0.7 in 2011, the last

year shown in the table. The low rate for whites is explained, at least in part, by the relatively low labour force participation rate among white women.

Table 18: Ratio of female to male unemployed by population group, 2001-2012

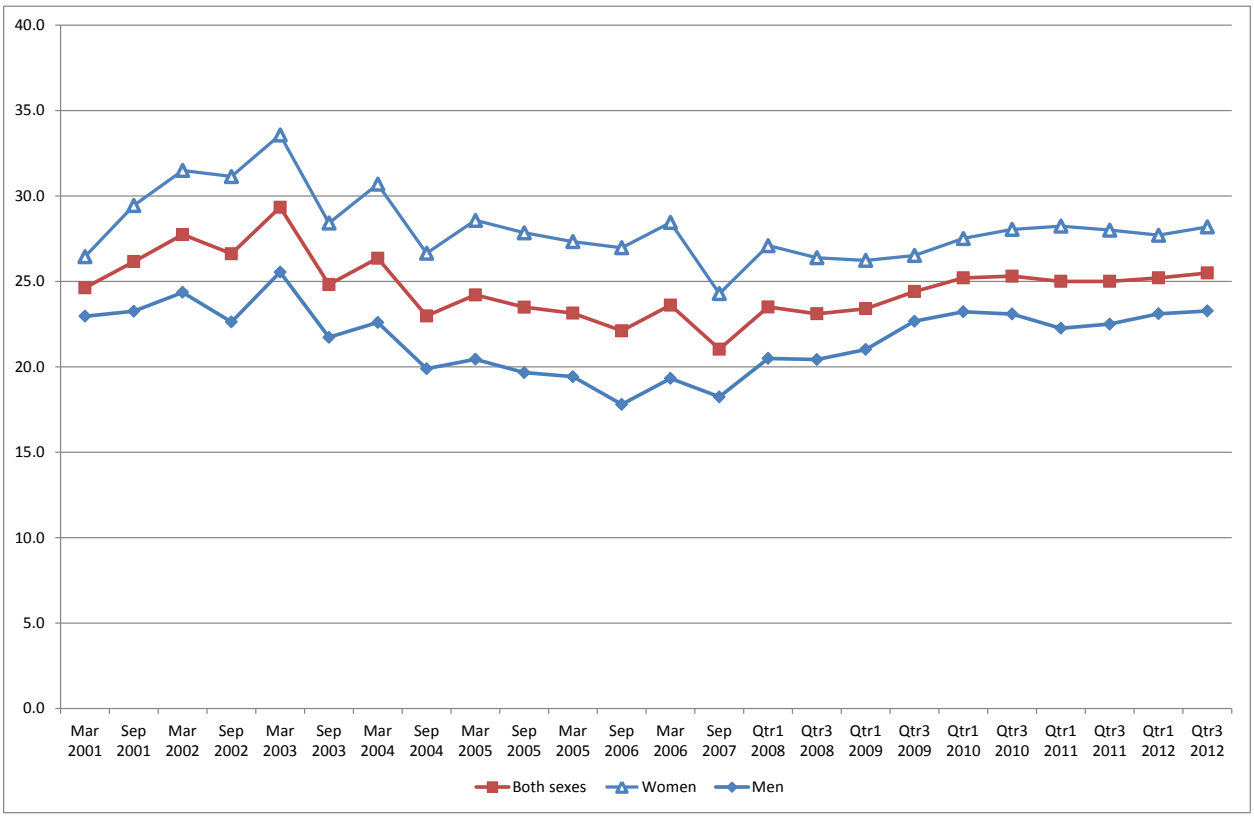
Group	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Black African	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0
Coloured	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.2	1.1	0.9	1.1	0.8
Indian	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.5
White	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.8	0.7	1.1
Total	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

Source: Labour Force Survey, Statistics South Africa; Quarterly Labour Force Survey, Statistics South Africa

This finding in respect of white women illustrates the fact that a ratio based on the number of unemployed understates the disadvantage of women to the extent that there are fewer women than men in the labour force. It is therefore useful to compare unemployment rates of women and men over the period as the rates are calculated by dividing the number of unemployed by the combined total of unemployed and employed. This removes the bias caused by the smaller number of women in the labour force.

Figure 10 presents the official rate of unemployment for women and men over the period 2001 to 2011. The graph reveals that the female rate is noticeably higher than that for men in all years and irrespective of changes in methodology in 2008. If one calculates the ratio of the female unemployment rate to the male unemployment rate, the ratio is 1.2 for the country as a whole in 2012. Only one province – Western Cape – has a ratio below one (0.9), while in Free State the ratio is 1.5 and in Northern Cape and Mpumalanga it is 1.4.

Figure 10: Official unemployment rate by sex, 2001-2012



Source: Statistics South Africa Labour Force Surveys 2001-2007; Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2008-2011

In addition to the gender gap, there are differences in terms of population group. Table 19 shows these differences for the period under consideration.[9] For all measures and groups, the rate is highest among Black African people, followed by coloured, Indian/Asian and then white. For three of the population groups the rate for women is higher than that for men. For the coloured group this is the case in the earlier years, but by 2012 the pattern has reversed.

[9] The table 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.

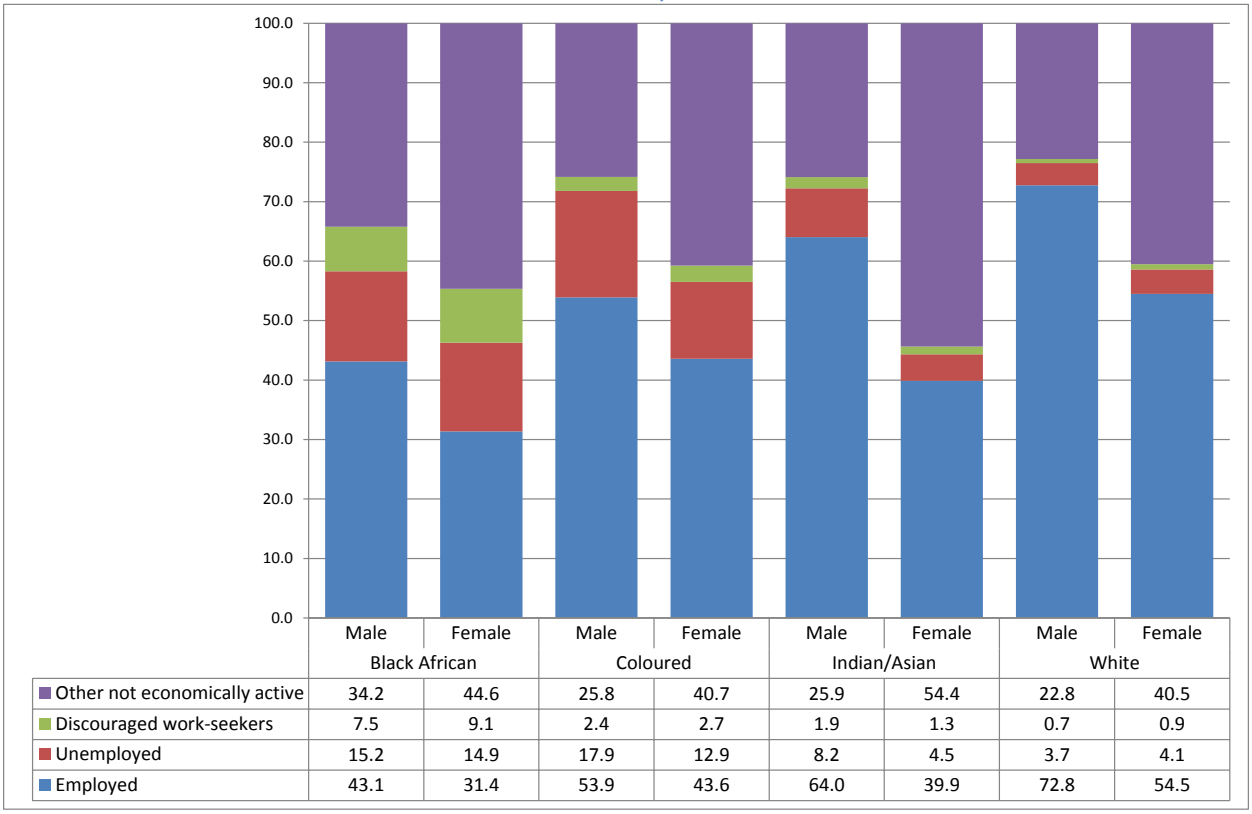
Table 19: Unemployment rates by sex and population group, age 15-64: 1993-2012

Population group	1993		2005		2010		2012	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Black African	14.6	17.9	24.2	33.6	27.5	32.1	26.0	32.2
Coloured	12.5	18.4	18.3	21.9	21.7	21.9	24.9	22.9
Indian/Asian	7.1	9.1	11.2	18.5	8.3	10.6	11.4	10.0
White	2.7	3.9	4.9	6.7	5.5	6.8	4.9	7.0
Total	11.5	14.7	22.5	31.5	23.4	27.3	22.9	27.8

Source: Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit Project for Statistics on Living Standards and Development; Labour Force Survey March 2005; Quarterly Labour Force Survey 1st quarter 2010, 2012, Statistics South Africa

Figure 11 shows clearly that across all four population groups the percentage of women who are employed is much lower than the percentage of men. The figure also confirms the especially high percentage of white women who are neither employed nor unemployed. This group accounts for more than half (54.5%) of white women aged 15-64 years. (The "other not economically active" category includes all who are not economically active other than discouraged work seekers. This grouping includes full-time students, full-time homemakers, people too old to work, and those with disabilities who are unable to work.)

Figure 11: Percentage distribution of women and men aged 15–64 years in each population group by work status, 2012

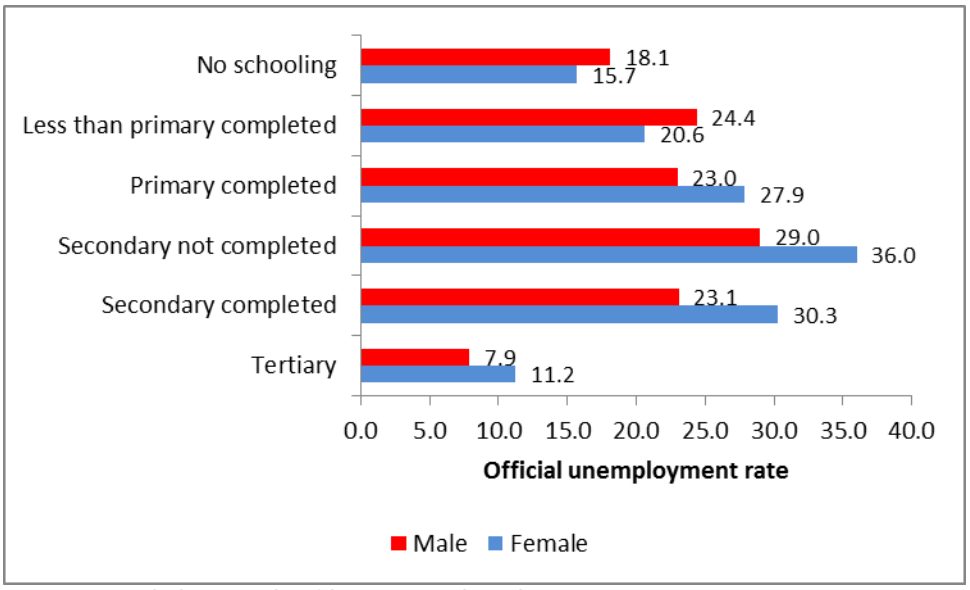


	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White	
Other not economically active	34.2	44.6	25.8	40.7	25.9	54.4	22.8	40.5
Discouraged work-seekers	7.5	9.1	2.4	2.7	1.9	1.3	0.7	0.9
Unemployed	15.2	14.9	17.9	12.9	8.2	4.5	3.7	4.1
Employed	43.1	31.4	53.9	43.6	64.0	39.9	72.8	54.5

Source: Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2012, Statistics South Africa

Many people will assume that improved educational levels of women will result in increased employment. This is true to some extent. However, 0 confirms that at each level of education except those without any formal schooling women are more likely than men to be unemployed. The group without schooling for whom this exception occurs accounts for only 3% of the female population aged 15-64 years and 4% of the male population. 0 reveals further 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 (and particularly younger women) are more likely to have higher education than the older generations, but also far more likely to be unemployed. For example, in the fourth quarter of 2012 the QLFS recorded that 63% and 66% respectively of female and male youth aged 15-34 years had not completed secondary education. For those aged 35-64 67% and 60% respectively had incomplete secondary education. The same survey recorded female and male unemployment rates of 41.0% and 31.4% respectively for youth aged 15-34 years as compared to female and male unemployment rates of 15.1% and 13.5% respectively for those aged 35-64 years.

Figure 12: Official unemployment rate by education and sex, ages 15-64, 2012



Source: Statistics South Africa Quarterly Labour Force Survey 2012

The proposal by the ILO Bureau of Statistics to include all forms of employment in MDG indicators goes some way in improving the gender sensitivity of the MDG employment indicator. However, the ILO proposal ignores the unpaid work done by women and men in the form of household management (including all forms of unpaid housework), care for children and other people in the household, and community work, i.e. the forms of work that make up unpaid care work.

Table 20 records the findings of South Africa's Time Use Surveys of 2000 and 2010. In both years women spent approximately 61 minutes on employment-related work[10] for every 100 minutes spent by men on this work. In contrast, women spent more than twice as many minutes on unpaid care work than men. When both types of work are combined, in 2010 women spent an average of 115 minutes working for every 100 minutes worked by the average man.

[10]This category includes collection of water and fuel for household use as, according to the System of National Accounts, these activities fall within the production boundary and they should therefore be regarded as employment.

Table 20: Minutes per day spend on different types of work by sex, 2000 and 2010

	2000			2010		
	Male	**Female**	**Ratio**	**Male**	**Female**	**Ratio**
Employment-related work	191	116	0.61	214	130	0.61
Unpaid care work	83	216	2.60	97	229	2.36
Total work	274	332	1.21	311	358	1.15

Source: Time Use Survey 2000, 2010, Statistics South Africa; Budlender et al, 2001: 95

The MDG Gender Task Force 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 fuel (Grown, 2005: 18). In the Quarterly Labour Force of the fourth quarter of 2012, a mean of 0.22 of an hour spent on this work was reported for males aged 10 years and above, as compared to 0,47 of an hour for females. This gives a female: male ratio of 2.1, indicating that women tend to spend more than double the time spent by men on this task.

4. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament

Chapter 3 of the 1996 Constitution provides for three spheres of government – national, provincial and local. At each of these spheres there are elected representatives who make up the legislatures in the national and provincial spheres and constitute the council in the local government sphere. The standard MDG indicator refers only to the national sphere of government. The discussion here extends to other spheres, as well as to other elected and non-elected key political decision-makers.

When considering performance in respect of representation of women in leadership and decision-making positions, it must also be borne in mind that the presence of women does not necessarily translate into an improvement in the situation of poorer women, or those who are disadvantaged in other ways, such as through location (rural or urban informal), population group or disability.

During the apartheid era, there were very few female members of parliament. In 1985, only 3% 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.

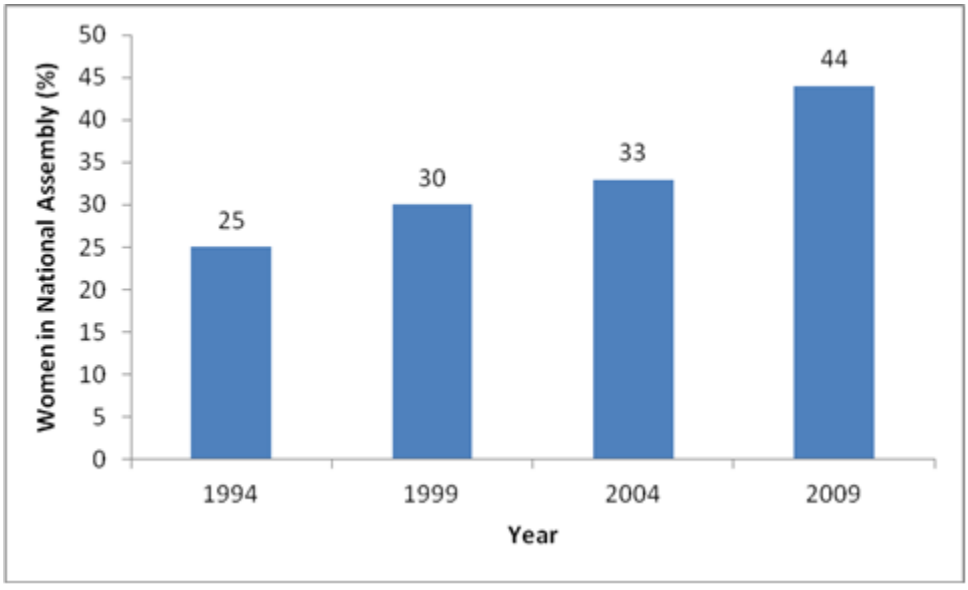
The elections of April 1994 which ushered in the formal end of apartheid were governed by the interim constitution of 1993. The interim Constitution established a two-house parliament. The National Assembly was to be elected according to a system of proportional representation while the Senate consisted 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 (no 108 of 1998) 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 was to consist of 54 permanent representatives and 36 special delegates nominated from time to time by the provincial legislatures. Because the 36 special delegates can change from one meeting to the next, the gender breakdown below is provided in respect of the 54 permanent members.

By 1997, 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 13. The marked increase between 2004 and 2009 reflects a shift in policy of 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 the ANC resolved on a “zebra” approach in which women accounted for 50% of those on the party list i.e. every second person.

Figure 13: Proportion of women in the National Assembly by election years



Source: Parliament of the Republic of South Africa; Hendricks, 2005; Lowe-Morna et al, 2009

Table 21 shows the percentage distribution of female members of the National Assembly by political party in 2009. Table 21 confirms the contribution of the ANC towards the overall favourable gender ratio.

Table 21: 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: Secretaries of Provincial Legislators, Lowe-Morna et al, 2009

The first NCOP had only eight permanent women representatives. This equates to 15% of the total, much lower than the female percentage in the National Assembly and among elected representatives in the provincial and local spheres. 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 22 below.

Table 22: 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: Secretaries of Provincial Legislators; Lowe-Morna et al, 2009

Table 23 provides the provincial distribution of members of the NCOP by sex. It shows that Northern Cape has no female representation while 2 out of the 6 representatives in Gauteng

and Mpumalanga are women.

Table 23: 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 parliament.

Table 24 below 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.If we compare 1994 and 2009, women accounted for only 11% of ministers and 25% of deputy ministers in 1994, compared to 41% of ministers and 39% of deputy ministers in 2009. However, the 2009 percentages reflect a decrease from 43% of ministers in 2004 and from 50% of deputy ministers in the same year. (The table depicts the situation immediately after the 2009 elections.)

Table 24: Ministers and deputy ministers, 1994, 1996, 2003, 2004, 2009

	Women	Men	Total	% women
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 Communication and Information System (GCIS); Lowe-Morna et al 2009

Table 25 shows the gender profile for the senior management services within national government departments as at September 2012. Overall, 39% of officials at these higher levels of decision-making are women. The female percentage is, however, only 25% for the highest level, namely director general, but then increases as the level of seniority decreases to 40% among directors.

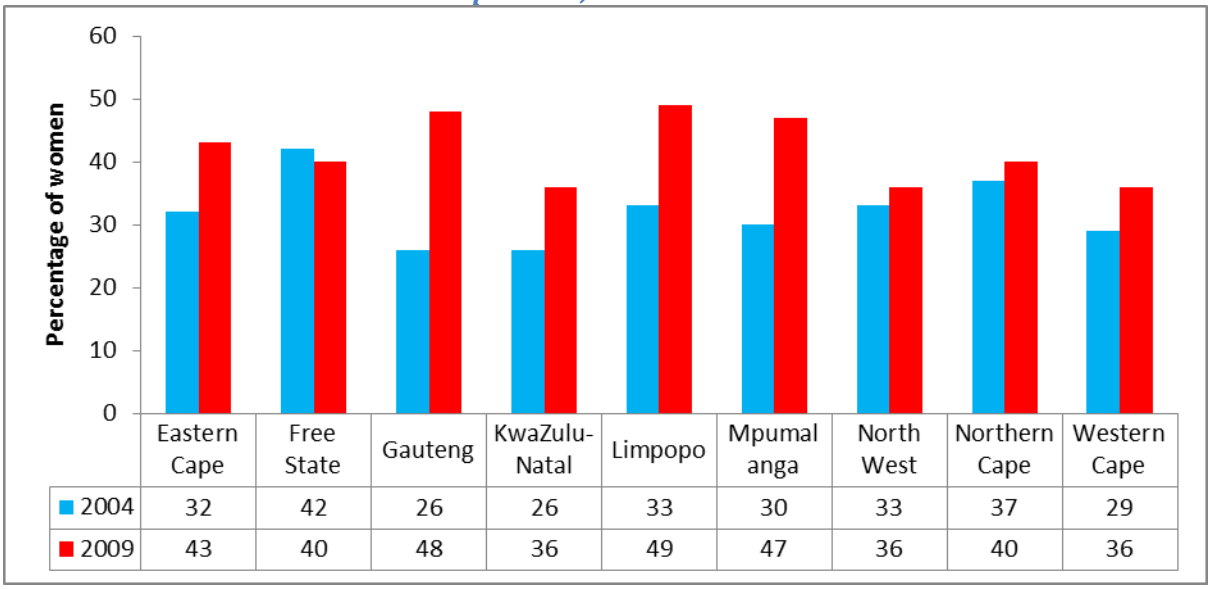
Table 25: Senior management services, September 2012

Rank	Women	Men	Total	% women
Director general	35	107	142	25
Deputy director general	179	336	515	35
Chief director	752	1 261	2 013	37
Director	2 498	3 809	6 307	40
Total	3 464	5 513	8 977	39

Source: Personnel and salary system (Persal), Department of Public Service and Administration

The MDG Gender Task Force proposed an additional indicator in the form of the percentage of seats held by women in local government bodies (Grown, 2005: 18). Figure 14 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 14: Representation of women in the provincial legislatures immediately after elections, by province, 2004 and 2009



Source: Secretaries of Provincial Legislators, Lowe-Morna, 2009

Representatives can change between elections as a result of resignations, deaths and other changes. Table 27 gives the share of women in each of the provincial legislatures in 2012. In Gauteng and Limpopo women accounted for more than half of members of the provincial legislatures in 2012. Overall, women accounted for 44% of members of provincial legislatures. This is higher than the 42% recorded immediately after the 2009 elections.

Table 26: Representation of women in provincial legislatures by province, 2012

Province	% women
Eastern Cape	46
Free State	40
Gauteng	52
KwaZulu-Natal	45
Limpopo	51
Mpumalanga	43
North West	39
Northern Cape	43
Western Cape	37%

Source: Secretaries of Provincial Legislatures

In terms of Members of the Executive Council (MECs), in Gauteng more than half were women,

in Eastern Cape, Free State, Mpumalanga and North West exactly half were women, while in KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo and Northern Cape about two-fifths were women. The exception in this respect was Western Cape, where the Democratic Alliance is the ruling party, and where none of the MECS were women.

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 the ruling African National Congress has stated to be its aim.

At local government level, a mixed system that includes both proportional representation and first-past-the-post is used for election of councillors. In the first system seats are allocated in proportion to the number of votes cast for each party. In the second system seats are allocated to the individual candidates for whom most votes are cast. Thus party lists are used for the proportional representation seats, while for the ward seats residents vote for a candidate of their choice.

Article 11(3) of the Municipal Structures Act (no 117 of 1998) provides that every party must "seek to ensure that fifty per cent of the candidates on the party list are women and that women and men candidates are evenly distributed through the list." If this article was taken seriously by all parliaments, parity in representation would be achieved among local government representatives. However, as can be seen from the wording "seek to ensure", this provision is not mandatory. In practice, many parties do not ensure that that fifty per cent of the candidates are women, and this – together with the ward seats – translates into municipal councils in which less than 50% of elected representatives are women.

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 (Lowe-Morna et al, 2009: 27). The female percentage ranged from 51% in Gauteng to 60% in Limpopo.

CHALLENGES

South Africa has generally performed well against the international indicators for Goal 3.

- In respect of indicator 9, the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education, the GPI is only slightly under one for the primary level, slightly above one for the secondary level, and well above one for the tertiary level. The fact that the primary indicator is slightly below one does not seem cause for concern as it is probably primarily due to more "out-of-age" enrolments among boys than girls. There is cause for concern about performance and the quality of education received, but this concern relates as much – if not more – to boys as to girls. At tertiary level women could be seen as "over-represented". Unlike in earlier years, there is good female representation even in the more technically-oriented institutions. Further, women are better represented than before at the higher levels of study although not yet at parity for masters level and above.
- On indicator 10, the ratio of literate females to males of 15-24 years old, young women generally perform slightly better than young men. For women and men aged 25 years and above the percentage with less than grade 7 has decreased. However, a substantial proportion of Black African women and men remain without formal education.
- On indicator 11, the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector, women still account for less than half of wage employees. Realistically, however, it is unlikely that women will ever account for half or more of wage employees given the unpaid care work roles that they play in the household. The availability of early childhood education services has increased substantially over the period (Richter, 2012) and this should assist in allowing women to take on paid work. However, such services are less available for younger children than for those in the Grade R year before schooling. Further, a smaller proportion of the children from poorer households than those from better-off households access such services.
- On indicator 12, the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament, South Africa is well above the 30% benchmark except in respect of the NCOP. However, it is unlikely to achieve the 50% target that the country has set for itself.

The likelihood of achieving the targets for the standard international targets can be summarised as follows:

- South Africa is very close to achieving the target of gender parity in primary education
- South Africa has exceeded the target of gender parity in secondary education
- South Africa has exceeded the target of gender parity in tertiary education
- South Africa has achieved the target in respect of the ratio of literate female youth to literate male youth
- South Africa has not achieved the target of a 50% share in non-agricultural wage employment, or in total wage employment including agriculture. It is unlikely to

achieve this target by 2015.

- South Africa has achieved the target in respect of the number of female to male unemployed youth.
- South Africa is close to achieving alignment with the African Union's policy in respect of 50% seats held by women in the national (and provincial) parliaments. There has been steady progress over the years for these two measures and South Africa performance is among the best in the world.

On official international indicators, South Africa does well. This does not, however, mean that the country has reached gender equality.

Firstly, a weakness of the education indicators is that they measure access but do not reflect the gendered impact of this education. Even if we add measures of performance, these still do not tell us whether better performance by women and girls in education results in improved rewards. Expressed differently, the indicators do not show whether there is a linkage between performance on the education indicators and performance on the employment indicators, and whether the latter, in turn, translates into better earnings for women. Further, the available evidence suggests that women's greater achievement in education, as shown in this report for secondary and tertiary level, does not seem to result in equivalent earnings and employment opportunities in the labour market. To help address this problem, South Africa needs to ratify the Equal Remuneration Convention. Parliament needs to pass the amendments to the Employment Equity Act relating to equal pay for work of equal value reflected in the Employment Equity Amendment Bill of 2012. However, this amendment needs to provide for comparisons across companies and industries rather than being restricted to individual employers as proposed in article 2 of the bill.

Secondly, while South Africa does well when compared with most other countries on representation of women among top decision-makers, having women in these positions does not automatically translate into better lives for the majority of South African women, who disproportionately represented amongst the poor.

In the early years of the MDGs the gender task force suggested a range of further indicators. These indicators elaborated, in particular, on the minimal employment-related indicators in the basic set. These additional indicators need to be included in the global set of indicators for the Sustainable Development Goals that replace the MDGs.

When the South African indicators are extended to the further indicators suggested by the MDG gender task force South Africa does relatively well on some of these indicators. However, it does less well in respect of earnings of women compared to those of men.

South Africa's poorer performance on earnings than on employment highlights the fact that the MDG indicators tend to focus on participation, whether in education, the labour force, and decision-making. What the indicators do not capture is the outcomes and rewards of that

participation. Thus, for example, while women are now participating more than men in education, their earnings in the labour market do not reflect this. And while women's participation relative to men in the labour force is at a relatively high rate, women continue to spend more time than men working if all forms of work, including unpaid care work, are considered. The issue of pay is especially important in assessing performance on the MDGs, where the main focus is poverty. Further, while the relatively large proportion of women in the national parliament could result in more gender-sensitive legislation, this does not necessarily mean that the legislation will be effectively implemented and enforced.

A further concern is that parity alone is not adequate for ensuring well-being. What is also important is the level of achievement on indicators. Thus a finding that similar numbers of women and men are unemployed is still of concern if the numbers (and proportions) of women and men are – as is the case in South Africa – very high. Similarly, a finding that the gender gap in literacy is smallest for Black Africans is of little comfort when the literacy rates for both female and male Black Africans is lower than those for women and men in other population groups.

This raises another area of concern, namely the on-going disparities by population group and location. As noted above, location itself when measured by province is in part a proxy for the apartheid legacy as large proportions of the population in provinces such as Limpopo, Eastern Cape and North West live in ex-"homeland" areas which were severely deprived of services and opportunities during the apartheid era. The evidence presented above shows that the legacy of apartheid remains on many of the indicators.

There are also no reliable national data available on gender-based violence, yet this is recognised as a very serious problem in the country. Stats SA does not currently have a survey that focuses specifically on gender issues, and a Demographic and Health Survey was last conducted in South Africa in 2003. Stats SA has attempted to capture gender-based violence in its victims of crime surveys, which are now conducted on an annual basis. In the survey conducted in 2011 (Statistics South Africa, 2012a), about 30 per cent of household respondents reported that they were afraid of sexual offences, and 17 per cent reported this to be one of the most common crimes in the neighbourhood. In the individual respondent section, only 32 000 (weighted) respondents – equivalent to 0.1 per cent of the total – reported being a victim of a sexual offence in the past twelve months. A footnote to the table notes: "Sexual offences are underreported in the household survey due to its sensitive nature."

The South African Police Service's crime statistics record a total of only 64 514 sexual offences for the twelve-month period April 2011 to March 2012 (South African Police Service, 2012). This produces a crime ratio of only 127.5 sexual offences per 100 000 of the population. This relatively low number provides support for the widely held acknowledgment that sexual offences are seriously under-reported. The crime statistics also do not include all forms of gender-based violence. In particular, they exclude domestic violence and sexual harassment. The Department of Social Development does not produce regular statistics on the number of victims and survivors of the various forms of gender-based violence to whom they and the non-profit organisations which they subsidise to provide services such as accommodation in shelters and

counselling.

Administrative statistics will not provide the full picture of gender-based violence until there is increased trust that the various agencies will provide good protective services and this trust translates into higher reporting rates. This does not, however, constitute a reason that agencies such as the South African Police Force, the court system and the Department of Social Development should not report more fully on the number of women, children and men to whom they provide services related to the different forms of gender-based violence. A further Demographic and Health Survey could also provide better survey-based information related to attitudes affecting gender-based violence.

Given the focus within the MDGs on education, it is particularly important to focus on gender-based violence in schools and higher education institutions as such violence can restrict the ability of girls and women to benefit fully from the educational opportunities available. A recent national survey covering 5 939 learners drawn using random selection from all nine provinces found that 4.7% of the secondary school learners reported that they had been sexually assaulted or raped at school (Leoschut, 2013: 2). A pilot survey on gender-based violence conducted by Gender Links and the South African Medical Research Council in Johannesburg found that 51% of adult women surveyed in the province reported having experienced emotional, economic, physical or sexual violence in their lifetime, while 76% of men reported having perpetrated some form of violence against women. If analysis is restricted to sexual violence, a quarter of the surveyed women reported having experienced this during their lifetime, while 37% of men reported having perpetrated sexual violence (Machisa et al, 2011: 9).

Finally, across virtually all indicators the statistics presented above suggest that there is still a great need to address racial disparities, so that black women perform well not only in relation to black men, but also when compared to, for example, white women and men.

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Acts

Choice on Termination of Pregnancy and Amendment Act (no 92 of 1996; no 1 of 2008)
Citizenship Act (no 88 of 1995)
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Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act (no 32 of 2007)
Domestic Violence Act (no 116 of 1998)
Employment Equity Act (no 55 of 1998)
Maintenance Amendment Act (no 99 of 1998)
Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (no 4 of 2000)
Protection from Harassment Act (no 17 of 2011)
Recognition of Customary Marriages Act (no 120 of 1998)
Traditional Leadership and Governance Framework Act (no 41 of 2003)

Bills

Prevention and Combating of Trafficking in Persons Bill (B7-2010)
Traditional Courts Bill (B1-2012)
Women and Gender Equality Bill