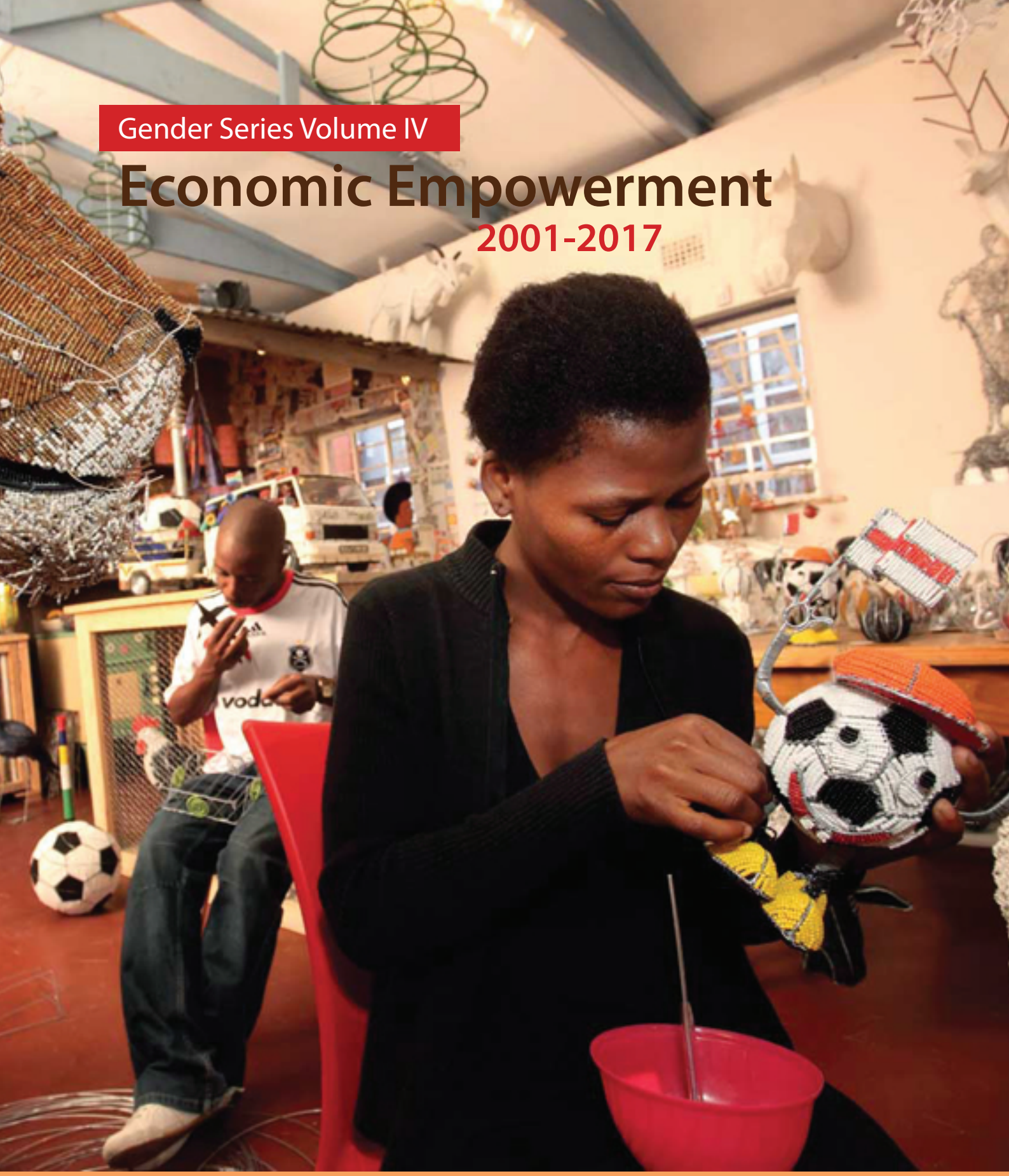
Gender Series Volume IV

Economic Empowerment

2001-2017



THE SOUTH AFRICA I KNOW, THE HOME I UNDERSTAND

STATS SA
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Gender Series Volume IV
Economic Empowerment, 2001-2017

Statistics South Africa

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Statistician-General

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CJS	Criminal Justice System
CS	Community Survey
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
DoH	Department of Health
DSD	Department of Social Development
DU	Dwelling unit
DW	Department of Women
EA	Enumeration area
GCIS	Government Communication Information Services
GHS	General Household Survey
HIV	Human Immune Deficiency
ILO	International Labour Organisation
LFPR	Labour force participation rate
MSF	Master Sample Frame
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NPA	National Prosecuting Authority
NPF	National Policy Framework
NSC	National Senior Certificate
PSU	Primary sampling unit
QLFS	Quarterly Labour Force Survey
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAPS	South African Police Service
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
Stats SA	Statistics South Africa
UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WHO	World Health Organization

FOREWORD

This report forms part of a series of gender publications and is a sequel to the thematic report focusing on gender disparities in economic empowerment, published in 2014. It contains indicators on trends and patterns related to economic empowerment including an in-depth analyses of different focal areas related to gender. These are based on a number of different surveys produced by Stats SA. It also provides some insight into various aspects of the living conditions of women, as well as on their participation in the labour market. A number of indicators profiled in the report are critical for the evaluation of progress and monitoring of the National Development Plan (NDP) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) targets. Information about indicators identified in the report will inform policymakers and the general public on progress, challenges and how these need to be incorporated into South Africa's development agenda.

Data from the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) indicate a steady increase in women's share in the working-age population over the last decade. Despite the number of females in the workforce still exceeding that of males, males continue to participate in the labour market at a higher rate than their female counterparts. The gap between male and female participation rates remained relatively stable over the past 16 years, with a 12,4 percentage point difference in 2001 and a 12,1 percentage point difference in 2017. The findings indicate that when participation was analysed by the presence of minor children in households, females without minor children reported higher participation rates than those with minor children. This phenomenon differed in rural and urban settings.

Decreasing the levels of unemployment is particularly important because of its direct impact on the reduction of poverty. Women continued to be more likely than men to be unemployed. General labour force participation rates also remained higher for men than for women with virtually no change in the gap between the two genders since 2001.

Achieving gender equity in positions of decision-making, both in government and in the private sector, is an important dimension of the empowerment of women. Leadership positions presented in this report include SMS and MMS positions in the Public Service as well as the representation of men and women in the legislature, justice sector and mayoral positions. Even though parity is within reach in Middle Management Service (MMS) positions, six in ten public servants occupying Senior Management Service positions (SMS) are still male. Progress has been made at national and provincial levels in the political and judicial participation of women, but relative high levels inequality still persist at local municipal level.

Risenga Maluleke
Statistician-General

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

South Africa has a number of policy frameworks and legislation that promote women's economic empowerment. The country is also a signatory to a number of international treaties which advance gender equality by supporting women's empowerment. These include the Beijing Platform for Action and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) amongst others. Various government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs), including the United Nations, U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID) and World Bank advocate for the inclusion of economic empowerment as one of the programme elements for achieving gender equity.

The World Bank regards economic empowerment as central to realising men and women's rights and a way to achieve broader development goals such as economic growth, poverty reduction, health, education and welfare. The Bank also promotes gender mainstreaming and regards it as a priority in measuring and tracking changes in levels of empowerment between women and men. In the absence of such measures, it is difficult to determine whether efforts towards gender equality are succeeding. In general, economic empowerment includes both women and men; however, women's economic empowerment is usually given priority since they generally lag behind. Economic empowerment is considered one of the most powerful tools that can be used to reduce poverty, achieve and advance the rights of women. Women economic empowerment is defined as both the ability to succeed and advance economically, and the power to make and act on economic decisions and the power to make and act on economic decisions.[1]

There are many interrelated aspects of economic empowerment which are core to its progress. Discrimination against women is regarded as unfair and economically inefficient as women who are economically empowered contribute more to their family's wellbeing and national economic growth. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO) the gender pay gap is defined as the difference between men and women's earnings. The principle of equal pay for work of equal value, is widely endorsed, and is also included under Goal 8 in the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals. Some factors that impact on the narrowing of the gender pay gap are women's rising educational attainment and continuous participation in employment which equips them with more work experience. And, in fact, some of the variables that have traditionally been used as "proxies" for empowerment, such as education and employment, might be better described as enabling factors or sources of empowerment.[2]

Several studies have been conducted to understand and develop comprehensive frameworks delineating the various dimensions along which women can be empowered. Access to resources is one of the factors that is considered a catalyst or an important condition for economic empowerment.

The literature shows that the proportion of women in parliament is a credible indicator of gender equality. The concept of women's empowerment is rooted in human rights treaties. The 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action was just the start of concerted efforts to strengthen women's participation in decision-making[3]. Therefore, women's empowerment is embedded in the protection of women's rights, which has political and legal implications. Insight into these advances a better understanding of women's development in terms of their role in political decision making processes, given that through those processes they are able to influence government in policymaking.

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1 Anne Marie Golla, Anju Malhotra, Priya Nanda, and Rekha Mehra, 2011. Understanding and Measuring Women's Economic Empowerment: Definition, Framework and Indicators. https://www.icrw.org

2 World Bank, 2002. Measuring Women's Empowerment as a Variable in International Development. https://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTGENDER/Resources/MalhotraSchulerBoender.pdf

3 University of Wisconsin, 2013. Indicators of Women's Empowerment in Developing Nations. https://www.lafollette.wisc.edu/images/publications/workshops/2013-women.pdf

This report highlights critical factors and tracks change associated with economic empowerment in South Africa. It also seeks to inform the effectiveness of programmes targeted at the advancement of women in South Africa by using some of the agenda 2030 development indicators.

1.2 Legislation and policy frameworks

South Africa has made significant progress in putting in place legislation and policy frameworks for advancing gender equality, empowerment and the protection of women against discrimination and victimisation based on gender. South Africa is also a signatory to key international and regional protocols, such as the Beijing Platform for Action; the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa; the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa; and the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development.

With respect to legislation, the following Acts contain key elements that are designed to protect the rights of women, promote gender equality and facilitate women's empowerment: The Constitution of South Africa (1996), the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (2000), the Employment Equity Act (1998), the Electoral Act (1998), the Municipal Systems Act (2000), and the Communal Land Rights Act (2004), among others. At the strategic policy level, the country's National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality (2000) established a clear vision and framework to guide the processes of developing laws, policies, procedures and practices that would ensure equal rights and opportunities for women and men in all spheres, levels and structures of government, the workplace, the community and the family. Furthermore, Chapter 5 of the revised 2013 Women's Empowerment and Equality Bill aims to strengthen the enforcement of compliance by both government and the private sector in matters of gender mainstreaming and equality.

1.3 Data sources

The current report focuses mainly on presenting data comparing the years 2001 and 2017. However, where data representing the years 2001 and 2017 were not available, the oldest and or the most recently available survey data were used. For example, analyses using data from the General Household Survey (GHS) data primarily focus on comparisons between the years 2002 and 2017. In some cases key indicators were first measured in 2009, rather than 2002 and in those cases 2009 was used as the baseline year.

The main sources of statistics on household, demographic and labour statistics that will be used in this study are the Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2001 March series, the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) Q1: 2008 and Q1: 2017, the General Household Survey (GHS) 2002 and 2017, and the Non-financial census of municipality 2017. The two household surveys each cover approximately 30 000 households that are representative of all nine provinces. Both QLFS and GHS data are weighted so as to make the results representative of the overall population of the country. Most analysis covers comparisons over a 17-year period.

In the case of administrative data, 2017 data was sourced. However, in the case of legislative and South African Police Services (SAPS) data, 2018 data was more readily available and therefore used.

1.4 Definitions

Gender equality: Refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men; and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same, but that women's and men's rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female (UN, 1997[4]).

[4] United Nations (1997). Report of the Economic and Social Council for 1997. A/52/3.18 September 1997, at 28: "Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels.

Gender Parity Ratio (GPR): Is calculated as the proportion of the number of females by the number of males. Although these ratios are usually designed to measure the relative access to education of males and females, the ratios can be generally applied to calculate gender disparities or gaps on different socioeconomic indicators (Koronkiewicz, 2008[5]). The Gender Parity Ratios (GPRs) calculated and discussed in this report.

Youth: Persons between the ages 15–34 years.

Adults: Persons aged 35–64 years.

Graduates: Individuals who have completed a university degree.

Provincial categories: In certain parts of the report, provinces are grouped into three main categories. The grouping is based on income as reported in Census 2011.

High income provinces include Gauteng and Western Cape

Middle income provinces include Northern Cape, Free State, Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal

Low income provinces include North West, Limpopo, and Eastern Cape

Geotype: Census 2011 definitions for urban and rural areas have been applied. According to Stats SA, an urban area is defined as a continuously built-up area with characteristics such as type of economic activity and land use. Cities, towns, townships, suburbs, etc. are typical urban areas.

An **urban area** is one which was proclaimed or classified as such (i.e. in an urban municipality under the old demarcation), or classified as such during census demarcation by Stats SA, based on its observation of aerial photographs or on other information.

A **rural area** is defined as any area that is not classified urban. Rural areas may comprise one or more of the following: tribal areas, commercial farms and rural formal areas.

Head of the household: There are many debates on what constitutes the term '**household head'**. Arguments and discussions around the definition usually deal with the subjective assumptions carried by its interpretation, its implication and influence in socially constructed gender roles (Hedman et al., 1996[6], Rosenhouse, 1989[7]). Taking into account arguments for and against, Stats SA loosely defines the **head of the household** as the person (male or female) who assumes responsibility for the household. This person can be the chief economic provider, the chief decision-maker or the person designated by other members as the head. Survey officers are instructed to record this person as person '01', in the first column of the questionnaire during data collection. However, given that the definition used for households is based on the four-by-four rule[8], some individuals, especially migrant workers, who may be considered the heads of the households by their households, are often excluded from the data as a result of their limited presence within the household. In those cases the acting household head from the household perspective is indicated in the dataset as the household head.

Minor children: For the purpose of this report, minor children are defined as children aged 6 years and below.

5 Koronkiewicz M. 2008. Gender Parity Index, UNESCO, Bangkok.

6 Hedman B., Perucci F. and Sundstrom P. 1996. Engendering Statistics: A Tool for Change. Statistics Sweden: Orebro.

7 Rosenhouse S. 1989. Identifying the Poor: Is 'Headship' a Useful Concept? LSMS Working Paper No 58, World Bank, Washington DC.

8 The person should have been present in the household for at least four nights per week for the past four weeks.

Labour market: Economic activities are those that contribute to the production of goods and services in the country. There are two types of economic activities, namely:

(1) Market production activities (work done for others and usually associated with pay or profit); and

(2) Non-market production activities (work done for the benefit of the household, e.g. subsistence farming).

Working-age population: Comprises all persons aged 15–64 years.

The **labour force:** Comprises all persons who are employed plus all persons who are unemployed.

Labour force participation rate: The proportion of the working-age population that is either employed or unemployed.

Employed persons: Those aged 15–64 years who, during the reference week, did any work for at least one hour, or had a job or business but were not at work (temporarily absent).

Employment-to-population ratio (labour absorption rate): The proportion of the working-age population that is employed.

Informal sector: The informal sector has the following two components:

(1) Employees working in establishments that employ fewer than five employees, who do not deduct income tax from their salaries/wages; and

(2) Employers, own-account workers and persons helping unpaid in their household business who are not registered for either income tax or value added tax.

Industry groups: Industries are grouped into four categories:

Primary industries are agriculture and mining

Secondary industries are manufacturing, utilities and construction

Tertiary industries are trade, transport, finance, social and personal services

Private households are households that are for citizens and not of a government entity

Occupation groups: Occupations in this report have been grouped by hierarchy from the way they appear in QLFS release publications. A classification of skills categories is drawn from Bhorat, H & Oosthuizen, M in the 'Employment shifts and the jobless growth debate' Chapter in Human Resource Development Review 2008, Education, Employment and Skills in South Africa' editors A. Kraak & K. Press, HSRC Press:

High-skilled occupations comprises managers, professionals and technicians

Semi-skilled occupations comprises clerks, sales and services, skilled agriculture, crafts and related trade, plant and machine operators

Low-skilled occupations comprises elementary and domestic work

Long-term unemployment: Persons in long-term unemployment are those individuals among the unemployed who were without work and trying to find a job or start a business for one year or more.

Not economically active: Persons aged 15–64 years who are neither employed nor unemployed in the reference week.

Unemployment rate: The proportion of the labour force that is unemployed.

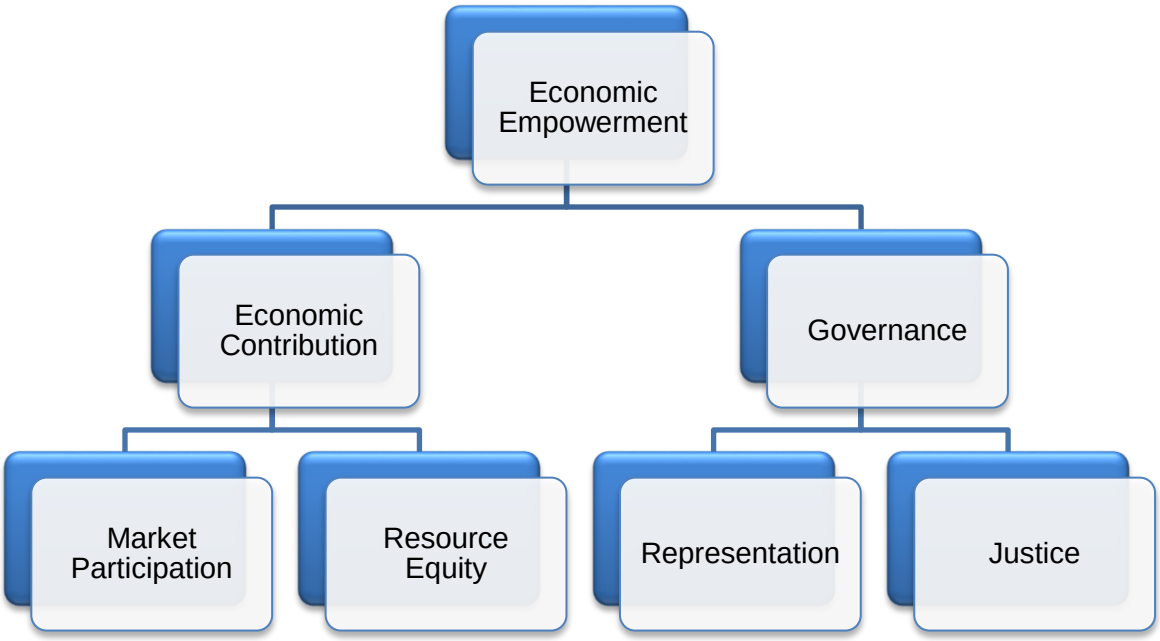
Persons in **underemployment (time-related):** Employed persons who were willing and available to work additional hours, and whose total number of hours actually worked during the reference period were below 35 hours per week.

Discouraged job-seeker: A person who was not employed during the reference period, wanted to work, was available to work/start a business but did not take active steps to find work during the last four weeks, provided that the main reason given for not seeking work was any of the following: No jobs available in the area; Unable to find work requiring his/her skills; Lost hope of finding any kind of work.

1.5 Objective and layout of the report

The purpose of this report is to provide analysis relating to gender disparities in economic empowerment using secondary data from Stats SA, as well as administrative data obtained from external sources. The general analysis in the report covers trends in economic empowerment over the past 16–17 years to assess progress made towards gender equality. Indicators covered in this report focus on two dimensions of economic empowerment, i.e. economic contribution and governance (Malhotra et al., 2002). Each dimension is further divided into categories as shown in Figure 1.1 on the next page.

Figure 1.1: The economic empowerment concept and its components



Chapter 2, of this report focuses on the economic contribution dimension which details gender disparities in market participation. The first sections demonstrate women's participation in the South African labour market by focusing on the working-age population and gender trends in labour force participation. Following on this, is an analysis of employment trends. This includes descriptors of employment that are assessed and disaggregated by sex and socio-demographic variables in terms of:

- Occupational structure of employment analysed by gender;
- Earnings distribution, which demonstrates women's financial and economic power;
- Gender composition within the formal and informal sectors;
- Vulnerable employment; and
- Involvement of men and women in entrepreneurial activities.

This chapter also examines gender disparities and trends in unemployment, looking at the distribution of males and females in descriptors of unemployment such as gender differences in means of survival, and job search activity and economic inactivity.

The second category of empowerment which increases economic productivity is resource equity. This subject is examined in Chapter 3. Gender inequity in assets and resources reflects differences in terms of access to resources as well as the power to bargain for it. Research indicates that equitable access to resources and women's power to bargain can lead to more efficient distribution of economic development opportunities for the overall population (Elson, Evers and Gideon, 1997[9]; Randriamaro, 2006[10]). Indicators measuring access to the means of increasing economic capacity and power to bargain, such as for example asset ownership, are also examined in this chapter.

The dimension of governance is the focal point of Chapter 4 of this report. Two sections make up the governance chapter, i.e. sections on representation in decision-making positions and a section on Justice.

[9] Elson D., Evers B. and Gideon J. 1997. Gender Aware Country Economic Reports: Concepts and Sources. Working Paper No 1, GENECON Unit: University of Manchester.

[10] Randriamaro Z. Gender and Trade. Overview Report. IDS/BRIDGE, Brighton, 2006.

CHAPTER 2: MARKET PARTICIPATION

2.1 Introduction

According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the working-age population is defined as individuals aged between 15 and 64. These individuals represent the potential labour supply of the population. The labour force is that portion of the working-age population, which is economically active, meaning either employed or unemployed persons, who are actively looking for work. Equal representation of both sexes in the labour force is of great importance. The influential role of gender equality in economic growth is most directly illustrated in the participation of women in the labour force. The workforce is under-utilised and economic resources are wasted when women are not active. Gender equality allows for an increase in the number of women in the working sector, thereby leading to an expansion of the labour force and an increase in economic productivity (Chung et al., 2013). Unemployment has been identified as one of the triple challenges faced by the country, which directly serves as a catalyst to poverty and inequality. Issues pertaining to unemployment and job creation have long found their expression in the country's Vision 2030, National Development Plan (NDP) and remain a priority. Decreasing levels of unemployment is particularly important because of its direct impact on the reduction of poverty (Frye, 2006[11]). Unemployment affects men and women equally. However, the rate of unemployment tends to be higher for women than for men. This chapter presents a detailed analyses of unemployment and then continues with a discussion on labour force participation rates.

Labour force participation cannot be considered in isolation because it provides a partial representation of women and men's involvement in the labour market. Gender differences in access to economic opportunities frequently favour men (highest ratio of male to female employment rates). In addition to the overall decline in labour force participation over the past 16 years, gender differences in levels of earnings persist across different jobs and sectors. This section will therefore also focus on how differences in average earnings between employed men and women of different ages and educational backgrounds, as well as levels of educational attainment also facilitate absorption in the labour market.

According to the ILO, being in paid employment is not a sufficient condition in many countries for workers to be treated fairly by employers to safeguard such; the country's labour policies protect the employed by providing employment protection legislation and other regulation aimed at providing job security to those in formal and informal employment. This chapter also describes gender differences in economic inactivity and investigates reasons provided by males and females for economic inactivity.

2.2 The working-age population

This section summarises the distribution of males and females of working age disaggregated by the demographic variables of age, education and geotype. Given that throughout the report, various social factors determining labour market outcomes for males and females are investigated, the section also profiles the working-age population by factors such as sex or head of the household and presence of minor children in the household.

[11] Frye I. 2006, Poverty and unemployment in South Africa. NALEDI.

Table 2.1: Working-age population by sex, age, and marital status, 2001

2001										
Age	Male			Female			Both sexes			Both sexes
	Married/ Cohabiting	Widow/ Widower/ Divorced	Never married	Married/ Cohabiting	Widow/ Widower/ Divorced	Never married	Married/ Cohabiting	Widow/ Widower/ Divorced	Never married	
	Thousand									
15-24	143	9	4 216	511	23	4 179	654	32	8 395	**9 080**
25-34	1 288	59	2 073	1 759	144	1 896	3 047	204	3 968	**7 219**
35-44	1 720	100	524	1 688	357	654	3 408	457	1 178	**5 043**
45-54	1 354	139	181	1 154	474	298	2 508	613	478	**3 599**
55-64	837	135	64	638	516	127	1 475	651	191	**2 318**
Total	**5 343**	**443**	**7 058**	**5 749**	**1 514**	**7 153**	**11 091**	**1 957**	**14 211**	**27 259**
	Percentages									
15-24	21,9	28,0	50,2	78,1	72,0	49,8	100,0	100,0	100,0	**33,3**
25-34	42,3	29,2	52,2	57,7	70,8	47,8	100,0	100,0	100,0	**26,5**
35-44	50,5	21,9	44,5	49,5	78,1	55,5	100,0	100,0	100,0	**18,5**
45-54	54,0	22,7	37,8	46,0	77,3	62,2	100,0	100,0	100,0	**13,2**
55-64	56,7	20,8	33,6	43,3	79,2	66,4	100,0	100,0	100,0	**8,5**
Total	**48,2**	**22,6**	**49,7**	**51,8**	**77,4**	**50,3**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Source: LFS March 2001

Table 2.2: Working-age population by sex age, and marital status, 2017

2017										
Age	Male			Female			Both sexes			Both sexes
	Married/ Cohabiting	Widow/ Widower/ Divorced	Never married	Married/ Cohabiting	Widow/ Widower/ Divorced	Never married	Married/ Cohabiting	Widow/ Widower/ Divorced	Never married	
	Thousand									
15-24	130	2	5 046	387	3	4 755	517	5	9 801	**10 323**
25-34	1 298	44	3 613	1 856	45	2 888	3 153	90	6 501	**9 744**
35-44	2 182	99	1 692	2 114	260	1 561	4 296	359	3 254	**7 908**
45-54	1 771	209	571	1 524	511	831	3 295	720	1 402	**5 417**
55-64	1 220	214	222	962	658	410	2 182	872	632	**3 686**
Total	**6 601**	**569**	**11 144**	**6 842**	**1 477**	**10 445**	**13 443**	**2 046**	**21 590**	**37 078**
	Percentages									
15-24	25,1	35,6	51,5	74,9	64,4	48,5	100,0	100,0	100,0	**27,8**
25-34	41,2	49,6	55,6	58,8	50,4	44,4	100,0	100,0	100,0	**26,3**
35-44	50,8	27,6	52,0	49,2	72,4	48,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	**21,3**
45-54	53,8	29,0	40,7	46,2	71,0	59,3	100,0	100,0	100,0	**14,6**
55-64	55,9	24,6	35,1	44,1	75,4	64,9	100,0	100,0	100,0	**9,9**
Total	**49,1**	**27,8**	**51,6**	**50,9**	**72,2**	**48,4**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Source: QLFS Q1: 2017

According to Tables 2.1 and 2.2, between 2001 and 2017, the working-age population increased for both sexes. The total increased from 27,3 million to 37,1 million individuals. Over this time period, the number of males has increased by 43% and that of females by 30%. In 2001 there was a considerable demographic gender gap favouring of females, with 1,12 females being in employment for every male. This gap narrowed considerably to 1,02 females for every male in 2017. The tables above also show that almost six in ten individuals of working age are youth aged 15–34 years.

In terms of marital status, the proportion of males who had never been married increased across all age groups, while that of females declined. The largest increase among males who had never been married were observed amongst those aged 35–44 and 25–34 (7,5 and 3,3 percentage points respectively). In contrast, the percentage of females who were married increased within each age group, except among the 15–24 age group, where there was a marginal decline by 3,3 percentage points. Table 2.2 further shows that in 2017, the largest percentage share of widowed or divorced females was found among those aged 45 years and above (around 73%). The highest percentage of widowed/ divorced males was observed among those aged between 15–34 years.

Table 2.3: Working-age population proportioned by sex, level of educational attainment and geotype, 2001 and 2017

Highest level of educational attainment	Male		Female		Total		Total
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	
	Per cent (year 2001)						
Less than matric	62,5	85,3	63,4	85,0	63,0	85,1	**71,8**
Matric	25,5	11,6	25,4	11,2	25,4	11,4	**19,8**
Tertiary	12,1	3,1	11,2	3,8	11,6	3,5	**8,4**
	Per cent (year 2017)						
Less than matric	58,7	76,9	55,8	74,7	57,3	75,8	**63,2**
Matric	28,5	18,4	28,9	18,7	28,7	18,6	**25,5**
Tertiary	12,8	4,7	15,3	6,5	14,1	5,6	**11,4**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017
* Figures exclude the category '*other*'

According to Stats SA, an urban area is defined as a continuously built-up area with specific characteristics related to economic activity and land use. Cities, towns, townships, suburbs, etc. are typical urban areas. An urban area is one which was proclaimed or classified as such (i.e. in an urban municipality under the old demarcation), or identified as urban during demarcation for Census purposes by Stats SA, based on its observation of aerial photographs or on other information. On the other hand, a rural area is defined as any area that is not classified urban. Rural areas may comprise one or more of the following: tribal areas, commercial farms and rural formal areas.

Table 2.3 shows that the percentages of males and females having less than matric are higher in rural than in urban areas for both 2001 and 2017. The proportion of persons with less than matric has, however, decreased for both males and females over that time period. In total, the percentage of persons with less than matric decreased by 5,7 percentage points in urban areas and by 9,3 percentage points in rural areas. The percentage of individuals who have completed their secondary education (Grade 12 or matric) has increased for males and females in both urban and rural areas. While the number of persons who have a tertiary education has increased by 3,0 percentage points in urban areas, the increase in rural areas was much slower with an increase of only 2,1 percentage points.

Table 2.4: Working-age population by sex of household head, 2001 and 2017

Household head	2001			2017		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
	Thousand					
	6 812	4 170	**10 982**	8 850	4 978	**13 829**
	Percentage (%)					
	65,1	34,9	**100,0**	64,0	36,0	**100,0**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.4 illustrates that since 2001, households were more likely to be headed by males than females as approximately 6 in 10 were male headed. However, there appears to be a decline as their representation declined over the reference period by 1,1 percentage points.

Table 2.5: Working-age population by presence of minor children in the household

Presence of minor child	2001			2017		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
	Thousand					
None	8 012	7 365	**15 377**	12 233	10 110	**22 343**
At least one	4 834	7 054	**11 888**	6 074	8 644	**14 718**
Total	**12 847**	**14 419**	**27 265**	**18 307**	**18 753**	**37 061**
	Percentage (%)					
None	52,1	47,9	**100**	54,8	45,2	**100,0**
At least one	40,7	59,3	**100**	41,3	58,7	**100,0**
Total	**47,1**	**52,9**	**100**	**49,4**	**50,6**	**100,0**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Over the reference period the number of males and females increased for both those with and without minor children. The percentage of males amongst those reporting to have no minor children increased by almost 2,7 percentage points over the reference period. Around six in every ten people reporting the presence of minor children in the household were female. This was true in both 2001 and 2017.

2.3 Labour force participation

Limited growth in the population of economically active individuals can negatively affect long-term economic growth, unless there are increases in labour participation (Daly, 2007[12]). Female participation in the labour market is crucial for a number of reasons. The participation of women in the economy can have an impact on raising the overall income of households. Raised income for females in turn increases their access to, and control over resources, and can have a statistically significant impact on poverty reduction (Bravo & Contreras, 2004[13]). This section accordingly examines gender disparities of males and females who are participating in the South African labour market.

[12] Daly K. 2007. "Gender Inequality, Growth and Global Ageing," Global Economics Paper.
[13] Bravo D. and Contreras D. 2004. Income distribution 1190-1996: Analysis of the impacts of the labour markets and social policies, reforms and social review, 99-128.

Figure 2.2: Labour force participation rate by sex, 2001 and 2017

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

The labour force participation rates of males and females decreased over the reference period. For men it decreased from 67,4% in 2001 to 66,6% in 2017, while participation rates for women changed 55,0% in 2001 to 54,5% in 2017.

The labour force participation rate of males was higher than for females in both 2001 and in 2017. Even though both sexes were participating at lower rates in 2017 than in 2001, the gap between male and female participation rates was slightly lower in 2017 (12,1 percentage points) than in 2001 (12,4 percentage point difference).

Figure 2.2: Labour force participation rate of males by province, 2001 and 2017

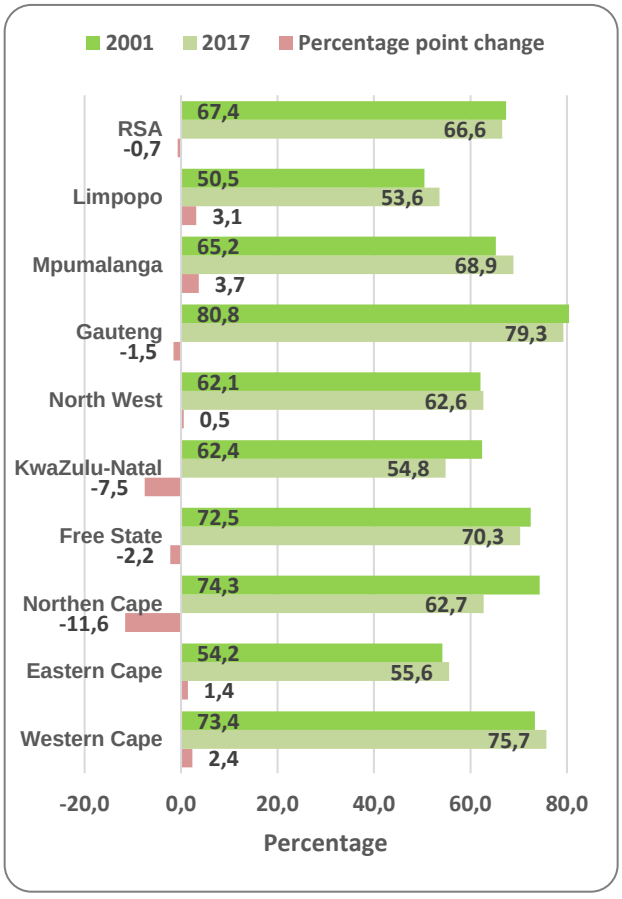
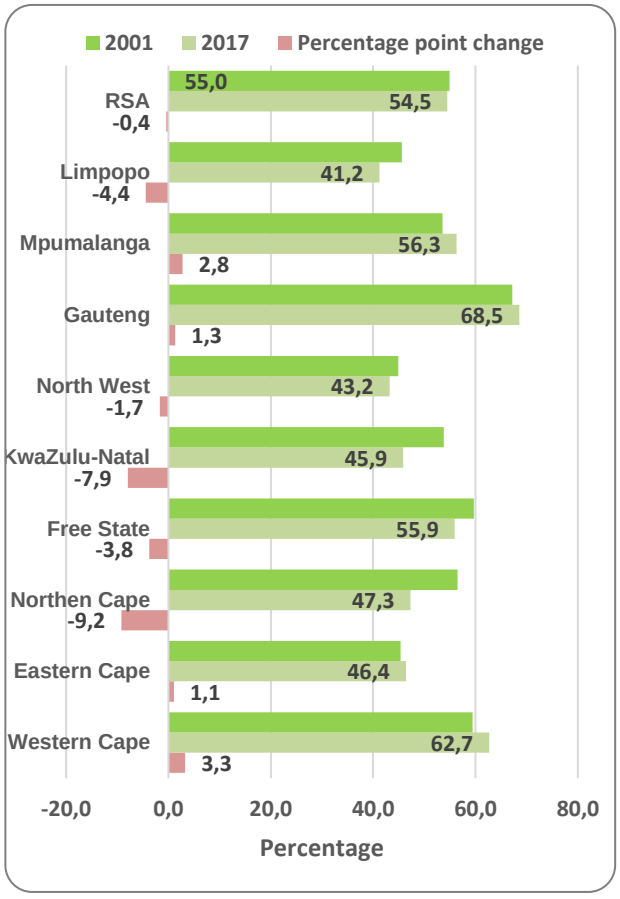


Figure 2.33: Labour force participation rate of females by province, 2001 and 2017

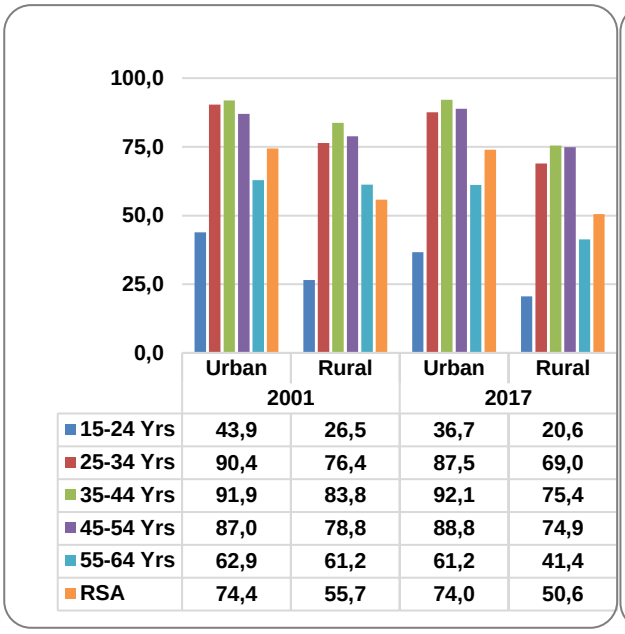


Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

The decrease in national participation rates is also reflected in the provinces, except for Mpumalanga and the Western Cape where there was a slight increase during the reference period, as shown in Figures 2.2 and 2.3 above. The greatest decreases for males and females were found in Northern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal, where the participation rates for males dropped by 11,6 and 7,5 percentage points and for females 9,2 and 7,9 percentage points respectively (Figure 2.3).

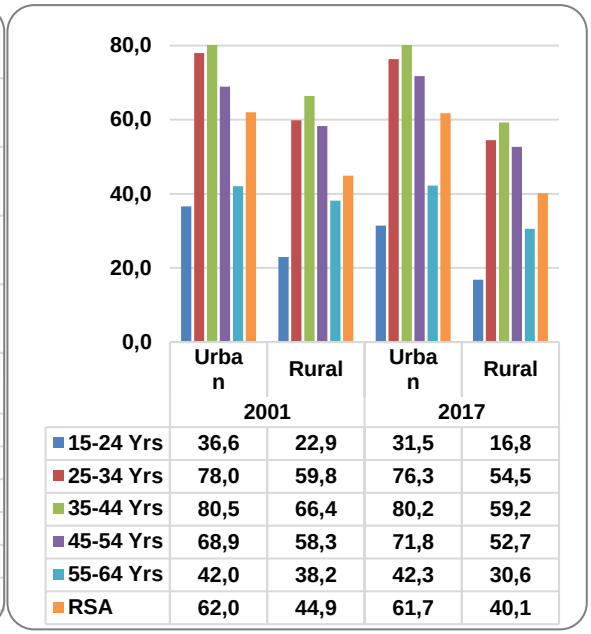
In 2017, males had the highest labour force participation rates in Gauteng (79,3%), followed by a 75,7% participation rate in Western Cape. The lowest labour participation rate for males was observed in the Limpopo Province (53,6%). For females the labour force participation rate was also highest in Gauteng (68,5%), followed by 62,7% in Western Cape, while the lowest labour participation rate for women was also observed in Limpopo (41,2%).

Figure 2.4: Labour force participation rate of males by age and geotype, 2001 and 2017



	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
	2001		2017	
15-24 Yrs	43,9	26,5	36,7	20,6
25-34 Yrs	90,4	76,4	87,5	69,0
35-44 Yrs	91,9	83,8	92,1	75,4
45-54 Yrs	87,0	78,8	88,8	74,9
55-64 Yrs	62,9	61,2	61,2	41,4
RSA	74,4	55,7	74,0	50,6

Figure 2.5: Labour force participation rate of females by age and geotype, 2001 and 2017



	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
	2001		2017	
15-24 Yrs	36,6	22,9	31,5	16,8
25-34 Yrs	78,0	59,8	76,3	54,5
35-44 Yrs	80,5	66,4	80,2	59,2
45-54 Yrs	68,9	58,3	71,8	52,7
55-64 Yrs	42,0	38,2	42,3	30,6
RSA	62,0	44,9	61,7	40,1

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

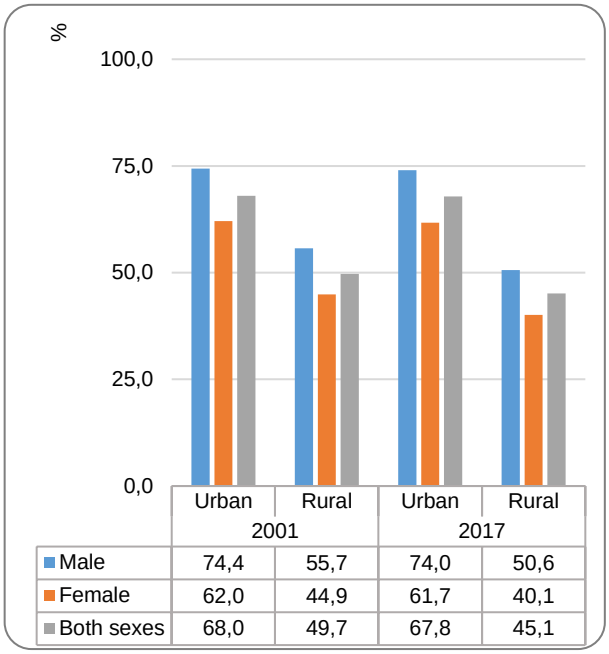
The figures above show that the participation rates of males were found to be higher than that of females for all age groups, regardless of geographic area, in both 2001 and 2017.

In 2001, the labour force participation rate of males was 74,4% in urban areas and 55,7% in rural areas. These declined respectively to 74% and 50,6% in 2017. Females had a participation rate of 62,0% in urban areas and 44,9% in rural areas in 2001. In 2017, the female participation rates declined to 61,7% in urban areas and 40,1% in rural areas. Declines over the reference period were bigger in rural than in urban areas for both sexes.

In 2017, male labour force participation rates were the lowest for males aged 15–24 years who live in rural areas (20,6%). The second lowest rate was found in urban areas amongst the same age group (36,7%), followed by males aged 55–64 and living in rural areas with a rate of 41,4%. The male sub-group most likely to be participating in the labour force, were those living in urban areas and aged 35–44 (92,1%), followed by urban males in the age group 45–54 years (88,8%) and 25–34 years (87,5%).

As already indicated, the female labour force participation rates for 2017 were lower than those of males for all age groups and geographic types. Amongst females, the lowest participation rates were also found amongst individuals aged 15–24 years living in rural areas (16,8%). This was followed by rural females aged 55–64 (30,6%) and urban females aged 15–24 years (31,5%). Females most likely to be participating in the labour force in 2017, lived in urban areas and were of the age groups 35–44 (80,2%), 25–34 (76,3%) and 45–54 (71,8%).

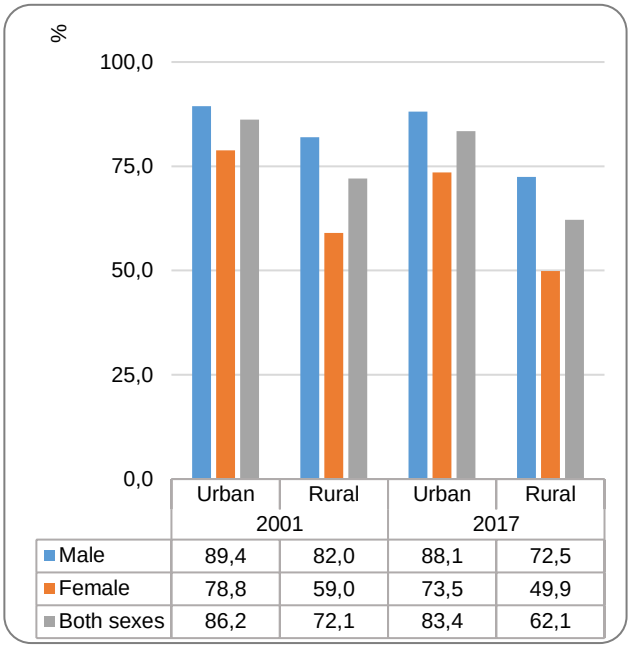
Figure 2.6: Labour force participation rate by sex and geotype (rural & urban), 2001 and 2017



	Urban 2001	Rural 2001	Urban 2017	Rural 2017
Male	74,4	55,7	74,0	50,6
Female	62,0	44,9	61,7	40,1
Both sexes	68,0	49,7	67,8	45,1

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Figure 2.7: Labour force participation rate by sex of household head and geotype, 2001 and 2017



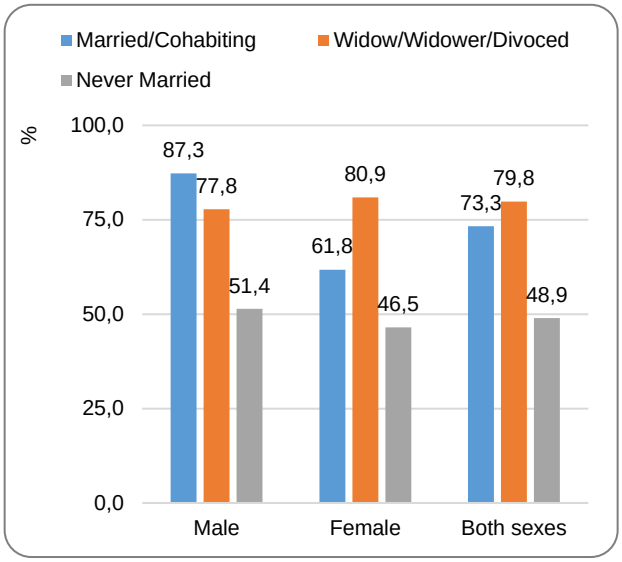
	Urban 2001	Rural 2001	Urban 2017	Rural 2017
Male	89,4	82,0	88,1	72,5
Female	78,8	59,0	73,5	49,9
Both sexes	86,2	72,1	83,4	62,1

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Figure 2.7 shows differences in participation rates of all males and females of working age residing in rural and urban areas. Figure 2.8 on the other hand, illustrates participation rates of male and female household heads by geographic location. According to Figure 2.7 males were more likely to participate in the labour force than females, irrespective of geographic location. The figure also shows noticeable decreases in participation rates of males and females residing in urban and rural areas between 2001 and 2017. The biggest decrease was observed amongst males (5,1 percentage points) in rural areas followed by females in rural areas (4,8 percentage points).

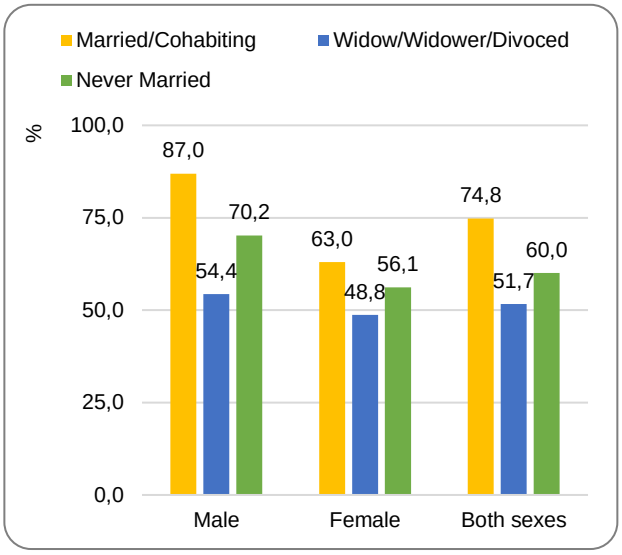
Participation rates of male and female household heads (Figure 2.7) were higher than males and females in general (Figure 2.6) (all males and females participating in the labour force). Over the past 16 years, the observed decrease in the participation rate of male headed households living in rural areas was higher than that of female headed households (9,5 compared to 9,1 percentage points).

Figure 2.8: Labour force participation rate by sex and marital status, 2001



Source: LFS March 2001

Figure 2.9: Labour force participation rate by sex and marital status, 2017

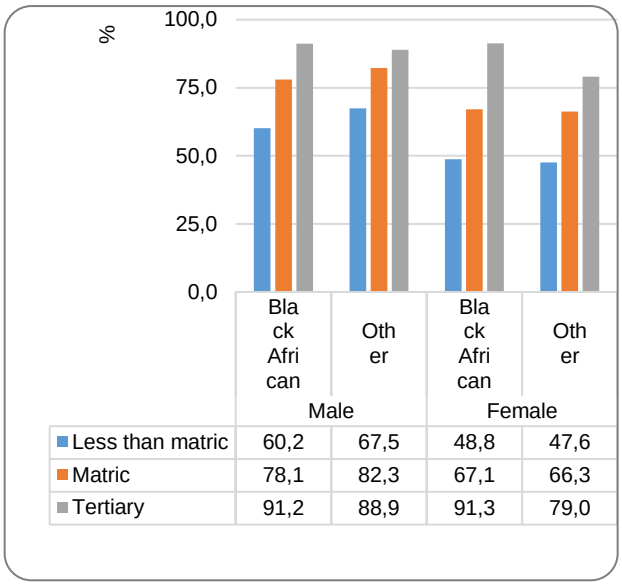


Source: QLFS Q1: 2017

Figures 2.8 and 2.9 illustrate the labour force participation rates of males and females by marital status. In 2001, the results showed that, for both males and females, individuals who were married/cohabiting accounted for a 73,3% participation rate, while in 2017; 74,8% of them participated in the labour force.

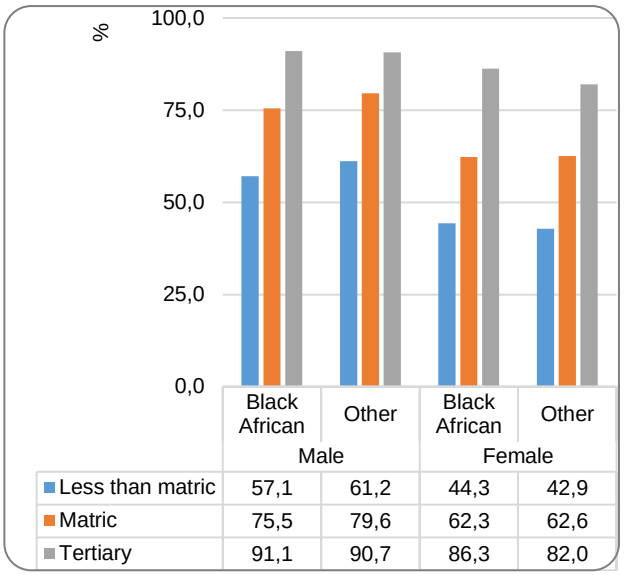
Married/cohabiting males maintained the highest participation rates in 2001 (87,2%) as well as 2017 (87,0%). The second highest participation rate among females during 2001 was within the widow/divorced category at 80,9%; this category also had the second highest participation rate among males in that year at 77,8%. Contrary to this in 2017, the widowed/divorced category had the lowest participation rate for both males and females, exceeded by those in the never been married category.

Figure 2.10: Labour force participation rates by sex, population group and educational attainment, 2001



Source: LFS March 2001

Figure 2.11: Labour force participation rates by sex, population group and educational attainment, 2017

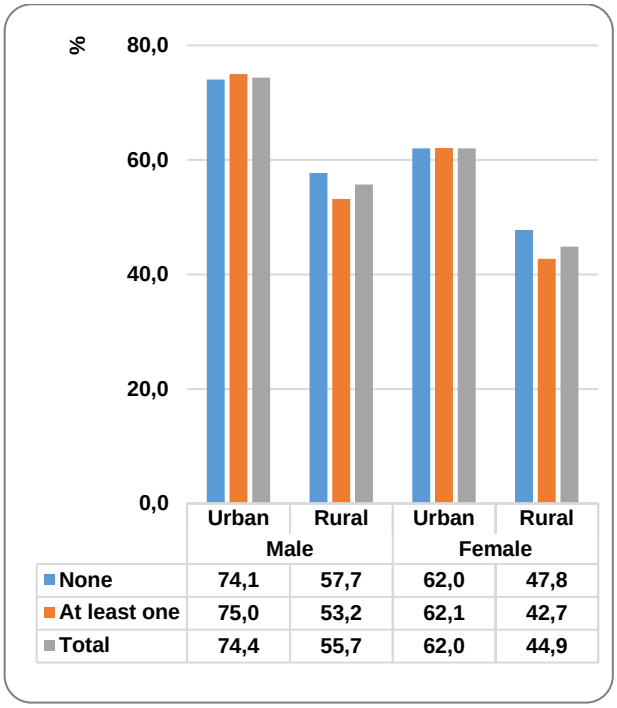


Source: QLFS Q1: 2017

Figures 2.10 and 2.11 show that since 2001, a positive relationship between the levels of educational attainment and the labour force participation rate was observed for all population groups and for both sexes. During this period, the labour force participation rates were the highest for those with a tertiary education, for males as well as females across all population groups. However, participation rates for black African males with a tertiary education remained stable at approximately 91% over the reference period, but increased by 1,8 percentage points for their male counterparts.

Amongst black African females with a tertiary education, participation rates were lower in 2017 (86,3%) than in 2001 (91,3%). Individuals with less than matric were the least likely to participate in the labour market in 2001 and 2017 for both sexes. However, females were consistently less likely to participate in the labour market than males. In 2017, females with matric had similar participation rates for black Africans (60,3%) and other population groups (62,6%). Though black Africans females with less than matric were significantly more likely to be employed (44,3%) than their counterparts (42,9%).

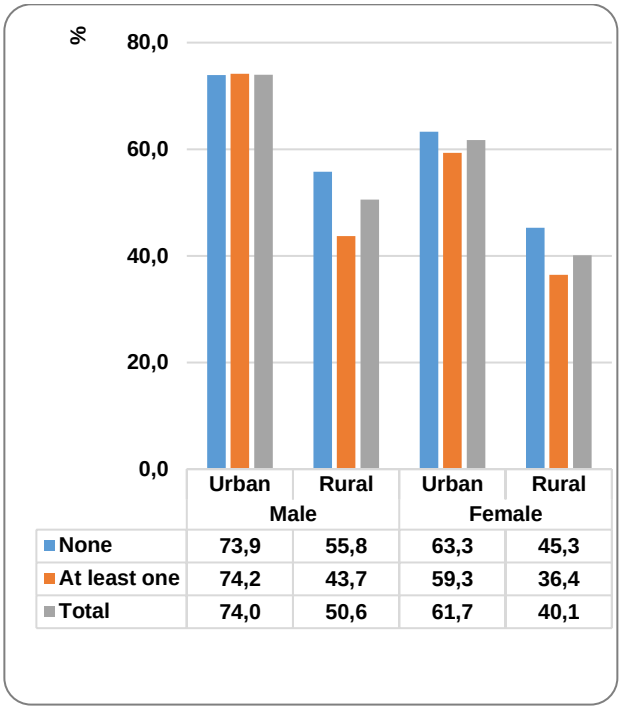
Figure 2.12: Labour force participation rate by presence of minor children, sex and geotype, 2001



	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
	Male		Female	
None	74,1	57,7	62,0	47,8
At least one	75,0	53,2	62,1	42,7
Total	74,4	55,7	62,0	44,9

Source: LFS March 2001

Figure 2.13: Labour force participation rate by presence of minor children, sex and geotype, 2017



	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
	Male		Female	
None	73,9	55,8	63,3	45,3
At least one	74,2	43,7	59,3	36,4
Total	74,0	50,6	61,7	40,1

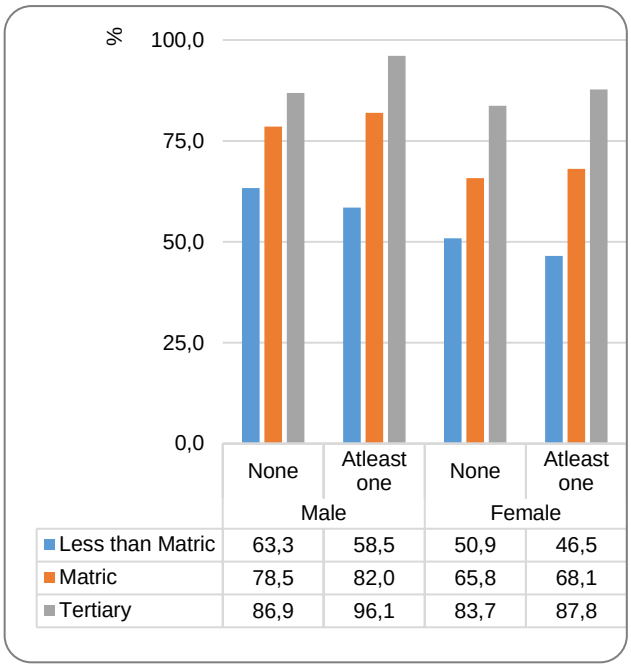
Source: QLFS Q1: 2017

The examination of the presence of minor children in households and its impact on labour market outcomes is crucial in gender analysis. Research, for example, shows that the number of young children present in a household is likely to negatively affect labour participation of women in the labour market (Evans & Waddoups, 2008[14]).

Figure 2.12 shows that the labour force participation rate by presence of minor children in the household in 2001 was highest among males who lived in urban areas with at least one minor child. Males with no minor children present in the household accounted for 74,1% compared to 62,0% females with no minor children in the household. In general, as confirmed before, males had higher participation rates than females in both urban and rural areas, regardless of the number of children present in the household. Similar trends were observed in 2017 for urban males and females. Males had higher participation rates than females in both urban and rural areas, and males living in households with at least one minor child were more likely to participate (74,2%) than males with no minor children (73,9%) in the household.

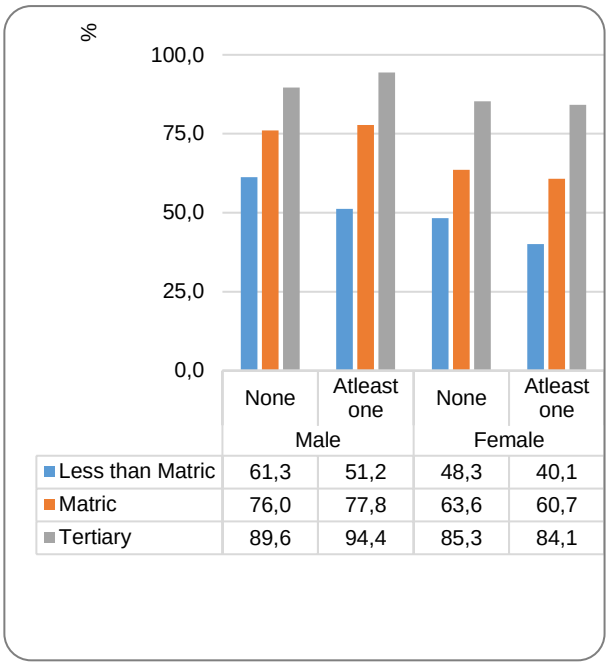
[14] Evans B. and Waddoups J.C. 2008. Labour market participation, *Gender, Ethnicity and Employment Contributions to Economics 2008*, pp 61-95.

Figure 2.14: Labour force participation rates by presence of minor children, sex and education, 2001



Source: LFS March 2001

Figure 2.15: Labour force participation rates by presence of minor children, sex and education, 2017



Source: QLFS Q1: 2017

Figure 2.14 and 2.15 show that for males and females, the higher the level of educational attainment, the higher the labour force participation rate irrespective of the presence of minor children. The participation rates of both males and females with less than matric were reduced when there were minor children present. The general trend for both males and females in 2001 was increased participation when minors were in the household if the level of education was matric or higher. This pattern was the same for males with matric or tertiary education in 2017 (Figure 2.15), but in the case of females there was reduced participation when there were minors in the home.

2.4 Levels of employment and the employment rate

The employment rate differs from labour force participation rates in that the employment rate is calculated as the proportion of the working-age population that is employed, whereas the labour force participation rate is the proportion of the working-age population that is either employed or unemployed; that is, unemployed persons who are actively looking for work. Gender differences in labour productivity are sometimes influenced by differences in the economic activities of men and women (Dolado, Felgueroso, &Jimeno, 2004[15]). Analyses in this section looks at gender differences in employment levels between males and females; and will also show that even though males were more likely to be employed than females, few gender disparities in employment rates existed for males and females with higher levels of education.

[15]Dolado J., Felgueroso F. and Jimeno J.F.2004. Where do women work? Analysing patterns in occupational segregation by gender, *Annals of Economics and Statistics, 17*/72:293-315.

Table 2.6: Levels of employment by sex and age, 2001 and 2017

	Male			Female			Both sexes		
	2001	2017	Change	2001	2017	Change	2001	2017	Change
Age	Thousands								
15-24yrs	829	767	-62	703	548	-155	1 532	1 315	-217
25-34yrs	2 197	2 855	659	1 812	2 111	299	4 009	4 966	958
35-44yrs	1 803	2 783	980	1 712	2 233	521	3 515	5 016	1 501
45-54yrs	1 248	1 812	564	1 113	1 582	468	2 361	3 393	1 032
55-64yrs	590	813	223	487	709	223	1 077	1 522	445
Total	**6 666**	**9 030**	**2 364**	**5 827**	**7 182**	**1 355**	**12 494**	**16 212**	**3 719**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.6 shows that between 2001 and 2017, levels of employment increased by 3,7 million. Males reported the highest increase of about 2,3 million individuals, while the number of employed females only increased by 1,3 million. Within each age group, fewer females than males were employed for both years (2001 and 2017). In 2001, levels of employment were the highest for males and females aged 25–34. By 2017, males in the 25–34-year age cohort remained the most likely to be employed, while the highest levels of employment for females were found among those aged 35–44.

Table 2.7: Share in employment for men and women with tertiary qualifications by sex and field of study, 2001 and 2017

	2001					2017				
	Male		Female		Total	Male		Female		Total
Field of study	'000	Per cent	'000	Per cent	'000	'000	Per cent	'000	Per cent	'000
Social studies/Health science	176	43,4	230	56,6	407	209	51,8	195	48,2	404
Arts and education/hospitality	231	37,7	383	62,3	614	32	32,2	67	67,8	99
Economic and management sciences	199	52,8	178	47,2	377	163	38,5	260	61,5	423
Physical/mathematical/ engineering sciences	282	73,3	103	26,7	385	340	74,5	116	25,5	456
Agriculture/Other	24	62,5	14	37,5	38	209	54,9	172	45,1	382
Total	**912**	**50,1**	**908**	**49,9**	**1 821**	**953**	**54,0**	**810**	**46,0**	**1 764**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.7 analyses the share in employment of males and females with tertiary qualifications by field of study. Physics/mathematics or engineering graduates, who were employed, were twice more likely to be male than female with a percentage share of 73,3% in 2001 and 74,5% in 2017. On the other hand, employed individuals qualified in Arts/education/hospitality were more likely to be female (62% and 68% respectively). Table 2.7 also shows that there was an increase in females with qualifications in EMS (14,3 percentage points) and Agriculture/other (7,6 percentage points), which may suggest a narrowing of gender gaps within these fields of study.

Figure 2.16: Employment rates in relation to employment levels by sex and age group, 2001

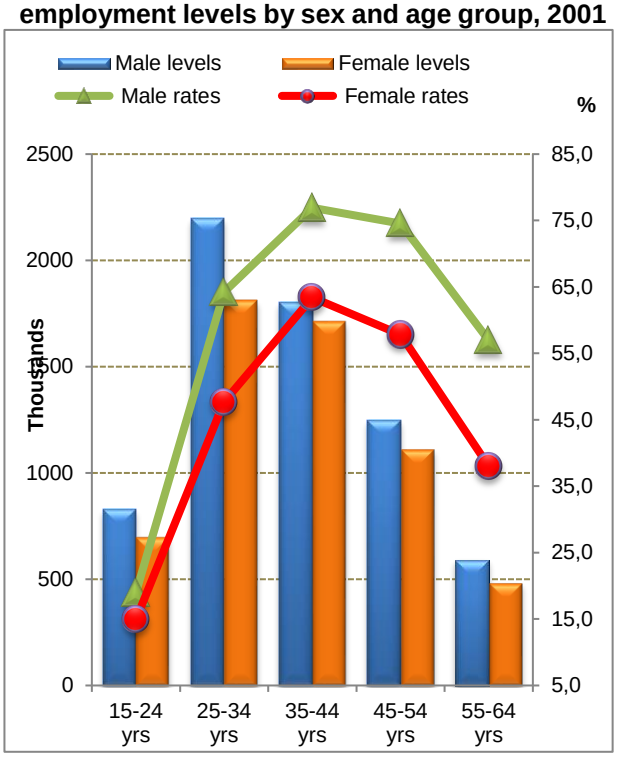
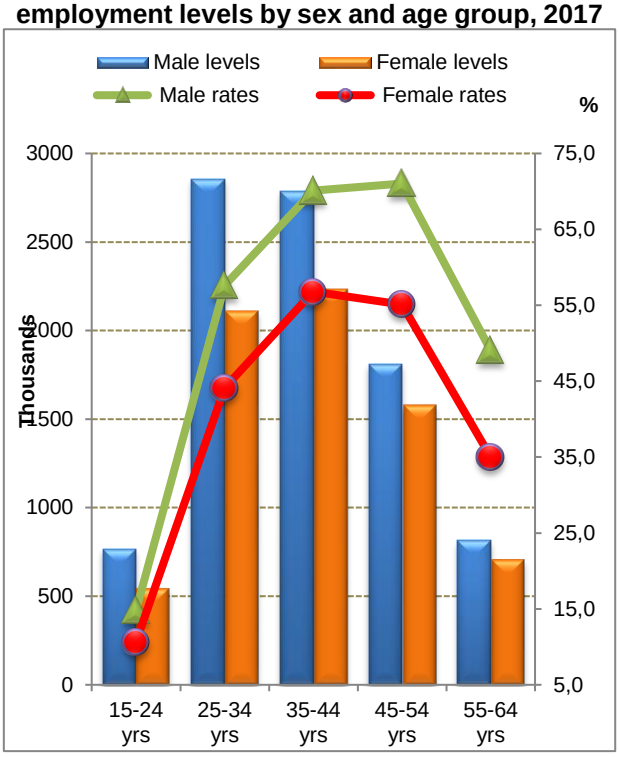


Figure 2.17: Employment rates in relation to employment levels by sex and age group, 2017

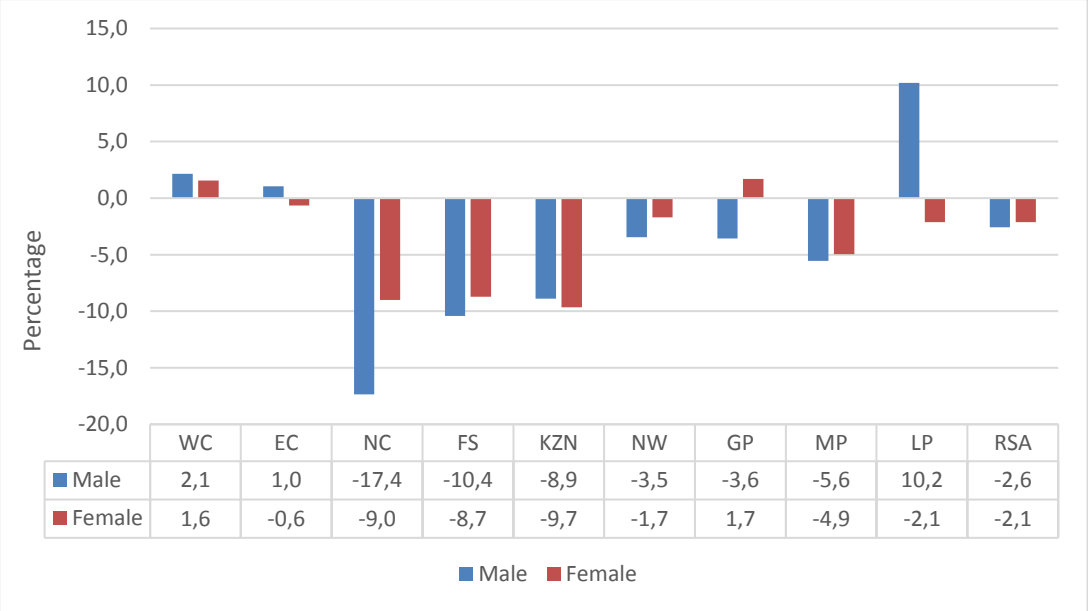


Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Figures 2.16 and 2.17 illustrate the employment rates in relation to levels of employment for males and females classified by age group. Between 2001 and 2017, levels of employment for both males and females increased while their employment rates decreased. This is due to the fact that the working-age (15–64 years) population for both sexes increased by 9,8 million over the 16-year period. During this same time period the increase in the employment rates for males and females was almost equal at 3,3% and 3,2% respectively. These findings suggest that job creation in the country is not expanding at the same rate as the growth of the population, regardless of gender.

The figures also show that since 2001, the employment rate for males has been consistently higher than that of females. However, trends in the employment rate for males and females follow a similar pattern. The employment rate for both males and females peaks at the age 35–44 years and gradually declines thereafter. Of note however, is that the changes in employment rates for males and females within the different age categories differs substantially. For example, although there was a decrease in the employment rates of both males and females aged 15–24 and 35–44 years, the percentage change for male employment rates was noticeably higher compared to that of females for the same age groupings.

Figure 2.18: Percentage point changes in the employment rates by sex and province, 2001 and 2017



Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Figure 2.18 illustrates the provincial percentage point changes of employment rates by sex over the 16-year period. The national employment rates of both sexes declined by 2,6 percentage points for males and 2,1 percentage points for females.

The increase in the employment rate of females was observed in Gauteng and Western Cape by 1,7 and 1,6 percentage points respectively. While Limpopo had the highest increase in employment rate for males by 10,2 percentage points, Northern Cape experienced the highest decline of 17,4 percentage points.

Table 2.8: Employment rate by sex and Geo-type, 2001 and 2017

	Male			Female			Both sexes		
	2001	2017	Change in percentage points	2001	2017	Change in percentage points	2001	2017	Change in percentage points
Geo-type	Percentage								
Non-urban	42,7	35,4	-7,3	33,9	26,1	-7,8	37,8	30,6	-7,2
Urban	57,4	55,7	-1,7	45,0	44,3	-0,7	51,1	50,0	-1,0
RSA	**51,9**	**49,3**	**-2,6**	**40,4**	**38,3**	**-2,1**	**45,8**	**43,7**	**-2,1**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.8 shows the employment rate by sex and geo-type for the years 2001 and 2017. Between 2001 and 2017, males were more likely to be employed than females, irrespective of settlement type.

The overall decline in the national employment rate over the 16-year period was most probably driven by the decline in the employment rates observed among males and females living in non-urban areas. Although the employment rate of non-urban females declined with a slightly lower percentage compared to that of non-urban males (7,8 percentage points and 7,3 percentage points respectively), females residing in non-urban areas remain less likely to be employed.

Figure 2.19: Employment rates by sex and highest level of education, 2001

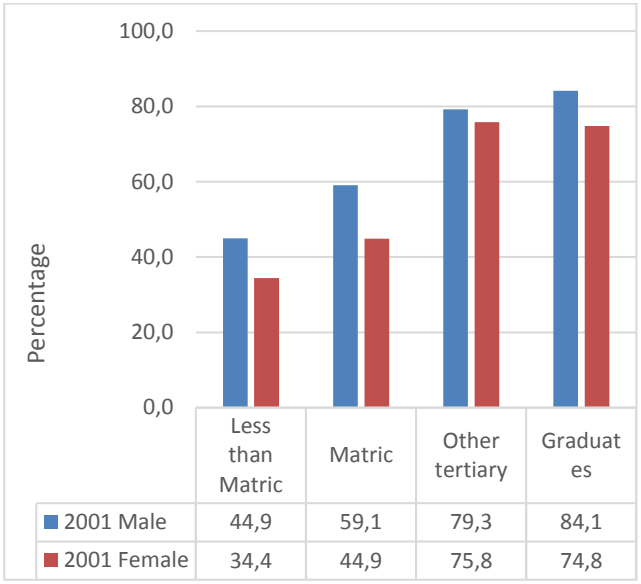
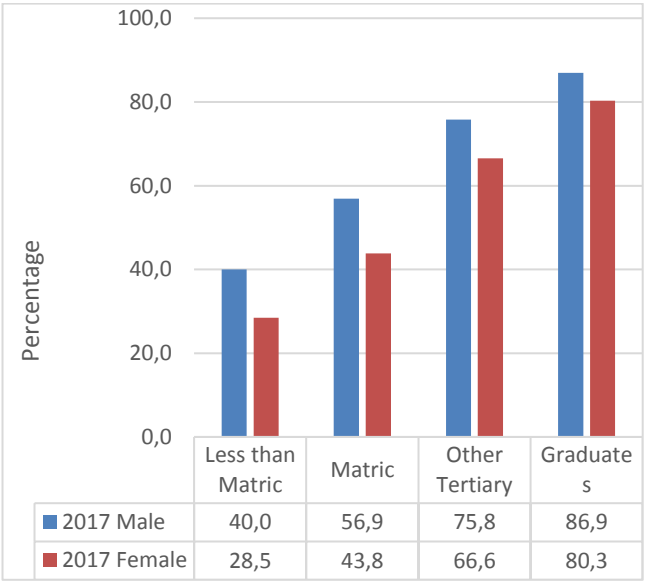


Figure 2.20: Employment rates by sex and highest level of education, 2017



Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Figures 2.19 and 2.20 demonstrate that little gender disparities exist in employment rates of males and females with higher levels of education. In 2001 and 2017, males and females who were graduates had the highest employment rates, and this may indicate that the higher the level of educational attainment, the higher the chances of being employed.

For both years, the employment rates of males with tertiary education, other than a university degree were almost the same at approximately 80%. The year 2017 however, saw females with other tertiary qualifications experiencing noticeably lower rates of employment compared to their male counter parts (9,2 percentage point difference when compared to 2001). On the other hand, the gap between employment rates amongst males and females graduates slightly narrowed over the 16-year reference period. This may suggest that education (particularly a university degree) can be an important tool to address gender parity in employment.

Table 2.9: Monthly earnings by sex, 2017

Monthly earnings	2017		Both sexes
	Male	Female	
	Thousand		
R1-R1 500	1 234	1 517	2 752
R1 501-R2 500	969	1 063	2 032
R2 501-R3 500	1 165	960	2 126
R3 501-R6 000	1 390	843	2 233
R6 001-R11 000	1 105	618	1 723
R11 001-R16 000	529	369	898
R16 001+	1 187	694	1 881
Other	1 451	1 117	2 567
Total	9 030	7 182	16 212

Source: QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.9 shows the number of males and females and their respective earnings for each earning category. Unfortunately the 2001 LSF data for March included many unspecified and unknown earnings values and was therefore not used in the table. The effect is more pronounced when reporting on the distribution over income categories.

Table 2.10: Percentage share and distribution of monthly earnings by sex, 2017

	2017			
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Monthly earnings	Row percentage		Column percentage	
R1-R1 500	44,9	55,1	13,7	21,1
R1 501-R2 500	47,7	52,3	10,7	14,8
R2 501-R3 500	54,8	45,2	12,9	13,4
R3 501-R6 000	62,3	37,8	15,4	11,7
R6 001-R11 000	64,1	35,9	12,2	8,6
R11 001-R16 000	58,9	41,1	5,9	5,1
R16 001+	63,1	36,9	13,1	9,7
Other	56,5	43,5	16,1	15,6

Source: QLFS Q1:2017

The table includes those who could not provide earnings information

Table 2.10 depicts the percentage share of males and females within each earnings category for 2017 (row percentage), as well as the percentage of males and females across categories (column percentage).

The table shows that females consistently were less represented in the higher income categories than males, while they were more likely to be found in the lower income categories. In 2017 37,3% of males earned below R3 500 per month, whilst 49,1% of females fell in the same category. In contrast to this 19% of males earned R11 000 or more compared to 14,8% of females. This suggests that, males and females were to some extent concentrated at the extreme ends of the salary scale.

Figure 2.21: Percentage share of males and females by occupation, 2001

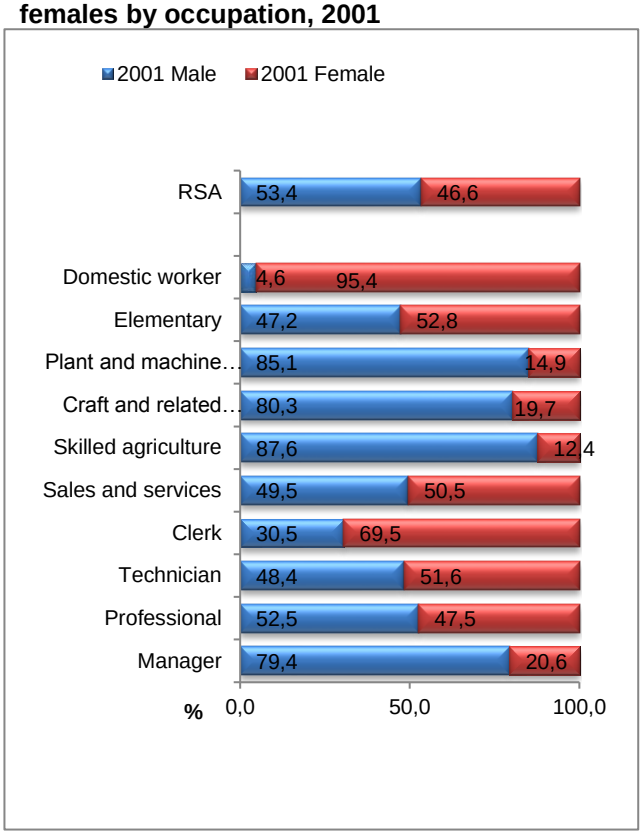
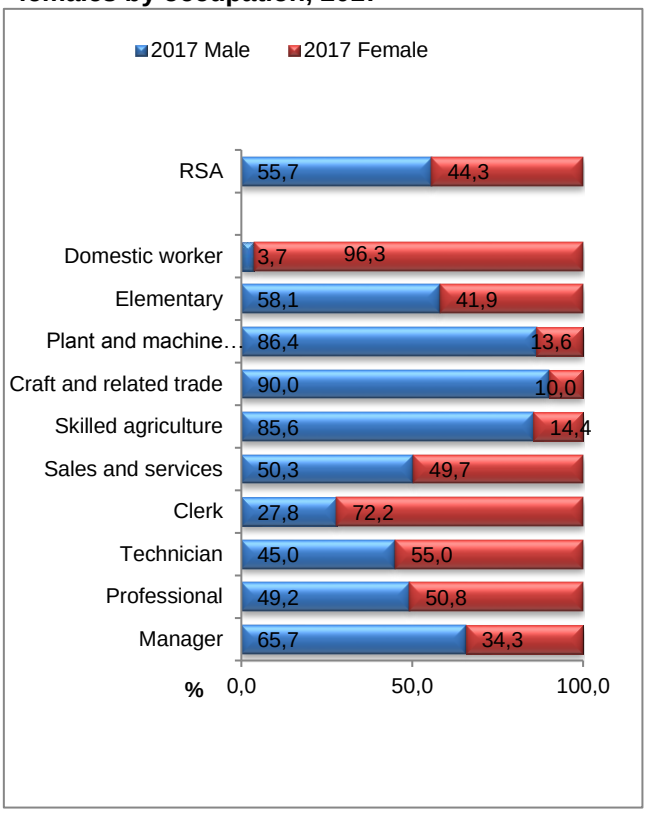


Figure 2.22: Percentage share of males and females by occupation, 2017



Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Even when women are able to access formal employment, gender stereotypes and cultural norms often limit women to certain positions, which tend to be lower status or lower-paid positions than men.[16]

Figures 2.21 and 2.22 show the percentage distribution of occupational categories of males and females for 2001 and 2017. Working for households as domestic workers was more common among females than males. The second most common occupation for employed females was working as a clerk; more than two-thirds reported to be in this occupation. There has been a substantial decrease in the percentage share of females in elementary jobs (10,9 percentage points) over the 16-year period.

Gender disparities were observed in occupations like skilled agriculture, where females are represented in small numbers, even though the situation has improved over time. The gender parity index for skilled agriculture increased slightly from 0,14 in 2001 to 0,16 in 2017. Although still low, it does show that females are slowly venturing into skilled agriculture. Plant and machine operator was one of the largest occupational category choices for males, with a growing increase from 85,1% in 2001 to 86,4 % in 2017.

16 "Leave No One Behind: A Call to Action for Gender Equality and Women's Economic Empowerment." UNHLP. UNDP., 2016. http://www.womenseconomicempowerment.

2.5 Vulnerable employment/ Decent work

According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), decent work involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social cohesion, freedom for people to express their concerns, organise and participate in the decisions that affect their lives, and equal opportunity and treatment for all women and men (EU, 2008). The decent work indicators selected and discussed in this section are reflective of males and females who are in vulnerable employment.

An important attribute of decent work is that workers should benefit from remunerative employment, which is one element of the quality of work. The determining figure that constitutes remunerative employment therefore mostly depends on each country's prevailing societal values and material prosperity (Dharam, 2003[17]). However, for comparisons, the ILO recommends that the proportion of workers (excluding agricultural workers) with monthly earnings below two-thirds of median monthly earnings be used to measure the adequacy of remuneration. To protect and combat the exploitation of workers, the South African government introduced a minimum wage for domestic workers and recently adopted the minimum wage bill.

Figure 2.23: Percentage share of males and females earning below two-thirds of median salary by educational attainment, 2001

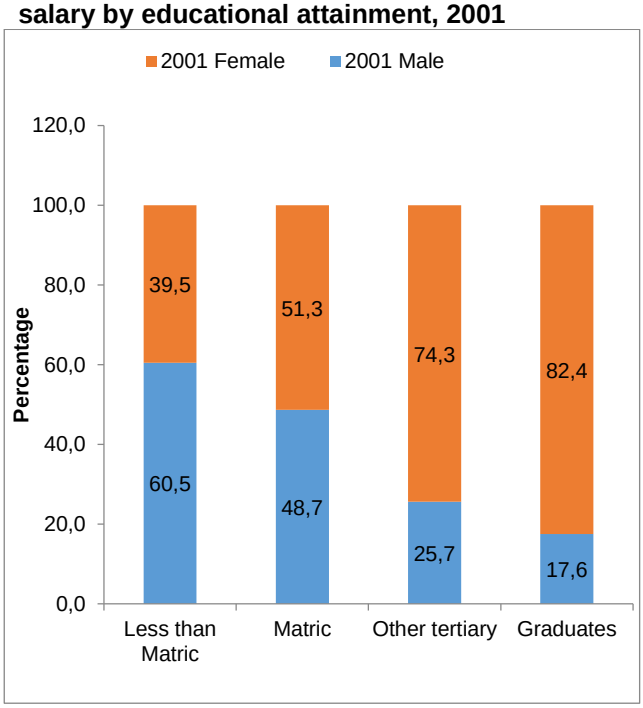
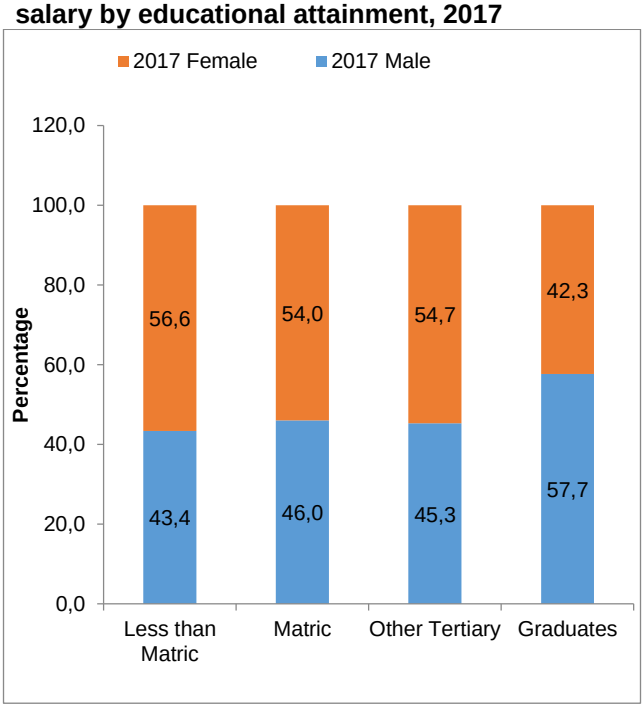


Figure 2.24: Percentage share of males and females earning below two-thirds of median salary by educational attainment, 2017



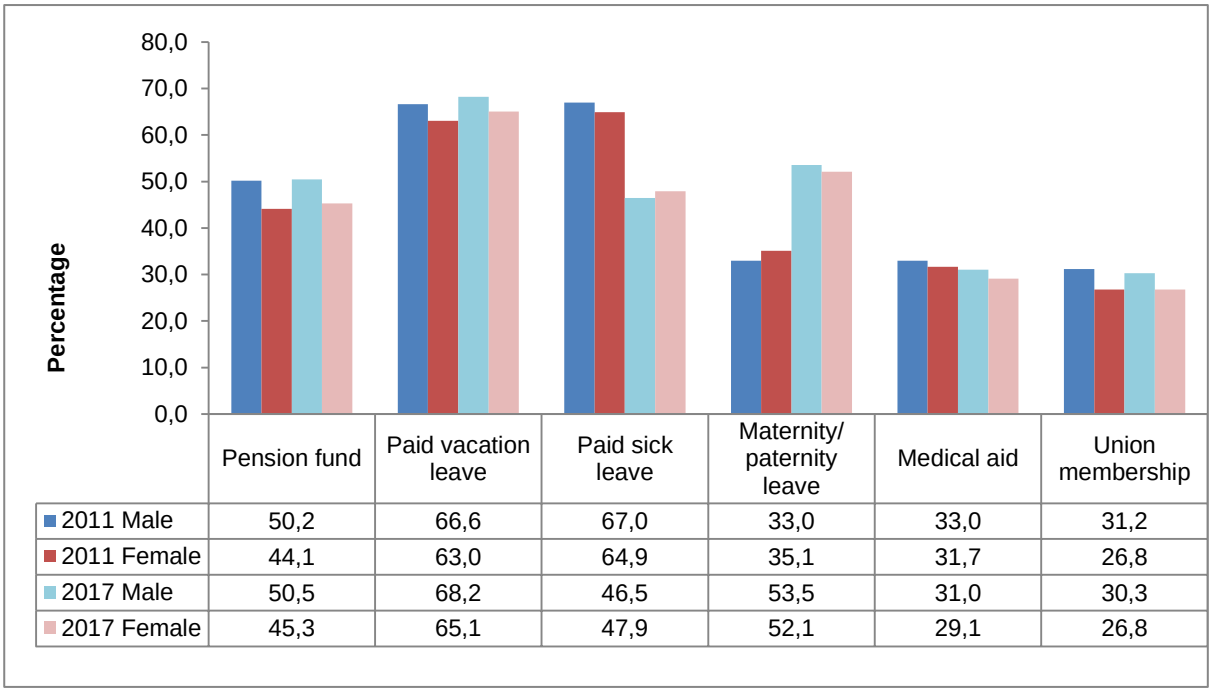
Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017
Due to high levels of unknown and unspecified values in the LFS March 2001 data set, these statistics have to be used with caution

The figures above illustrate the percentage share of males and females earning below two-thirds of monthly median earnings by highest level of education when measured over the 16-year period. These charts show that there has been a general improvement in the workers' earnings over the period. The highest improvement has been that of female graduates (recording an improvement of nearly 50%).

[17] Dharam G. 2003. *Decent work: Concept and indicators*. Retrieved from://www.ilo.org/public/English/revue/download/pdf/ghai.pdf

In 2001, the highest percentage share of males with monthly earnings below the cut-off median salary was reported amongst those with less than matric (60,5%), followed by those with matric (48,7%). In contrast, the highest percentages of females who earned monthly earnings below two-thirds of monthly median earnings were observed amongst graduates (82,4%). Sixteen years later, there was a fair distribution between males and females earning below the median salary (narrowing of the gender gap). However, a higher percentage of males earning less than two-thirds was observed for graduates and those with matric (57,7% and 46,0% respectively),while that of females was reported among those with less than matric and other tertiary qualification (56,6% and 54,7% respectively).

Figure 2.25: Employed persons entitled to employee benefits by sex, 2011 and 2017



	Pension fund	Paid vacation leave	Paid sick leave	Maternity/ paternity leave	Medical aid	Union membership
2011 Male	50,2	66,6	67,0	33,0	33,0	31,2
2011 Female	44,1	63,0	64,9	35,1	31,7	26,8
2017 Male	50,5	68,2	46,5	53,5	31,0	30,3
2017 Female	45,3	65,1	47,9	52,1	29,1	26,8

Source: QLFS Q1: 2011 and QLFS Q1: 2017

As part of decent work, women and men must be able to access maternity/ paternity leave and other types of beneficial leave, and protection against unfair treatment through unrestricted affiliation to trade unions.

Figure 2.25 shows the employed population who were entitled to employee basic benefits during 2011 and 2017. During this period, half of employed males were members of a pension fund. Females were less likely than males to belong to a pension fund. The percentage of males receiving a pension fund benefit increased by 0,3 of a percentage point while the percentage of females receiving this benefit increased by 1,2 percentage points.

The figure further illustrates that medical aid membership is higher amongst males than among their female counterparts. This trend is also observed for trade union membership. However, trade union affiliation declined for males, while there was no change for females between during this period. The proportion of males and females who were entitled to paid sick leave decreased for both males and females between 2011 and 2017. Percentages for both years show that fewer females were receiving paid vacation leave than males, although the percentage for both males and females increased slightly over this period.

2.6 Business enterprises

This section provides information about males and females running their own business enterprises, i.e. those who operate as employers and/or own-account workers. According to the QLFS, employers are defined as persons running a business and employing at least one person. Own-account workers, on the other hand, are individuals who run their businesses on their own (i.e. not employing anyone).

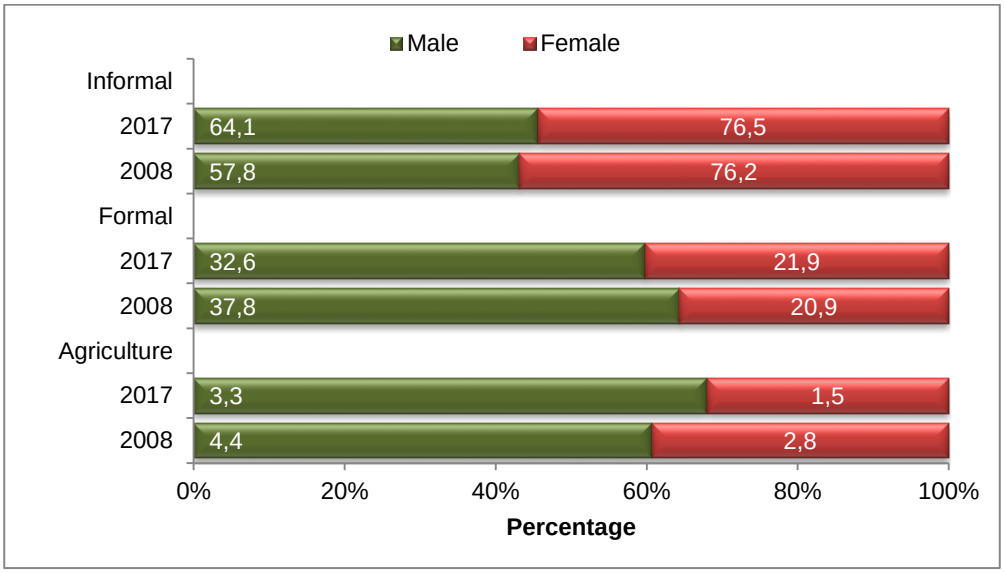
Table 2.11: Levels and percentage share of employers and own-account workers by sex, 2008 and 2017

Year	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	Thousand	Percentage	Thousand	Percentage	Thousand	Percentage
2008	1 206	57,1	905	42,9	**2 111**	**100,0**
2017	1 524	64,1	852	35,9	**2 376**	**100,0**

Source: QLFS Q1: 2008 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.11 shows that over the last nine years, the number of employers and own-account workers increased by 265 000. The proportion of employers and own account decreased for females by 7 percentage points.

Figure 2.26: Employers and own-account workers by sex and sector, 2008 and 2017



Source: QLFS Q1: 2008 and QLFS Q1: 2017

This figure shows the distribution of male and female business enterprises by sector. It shows that in general, employers and own-account workers dominate in the informal sector but are the least prevalent in agriculture.

The figure also shows that three out of four females (76,2% in 2008 and 76,5% in 2017) were operating businesses in the informal sector and no major increases were observed during this period. The presence of males in the informal sector experienced a 6,3 percentage point increase over this period. The difference between male and female-run businesses, operating in the formal sector was 16,9% points in 2008, with a decline to 10,7% percentage points in 2017, pointing towards a narrowing in the gender gap in the formal sector.

Figure 2.27: Males employers and own-account workers by business size, 2008 and 2017

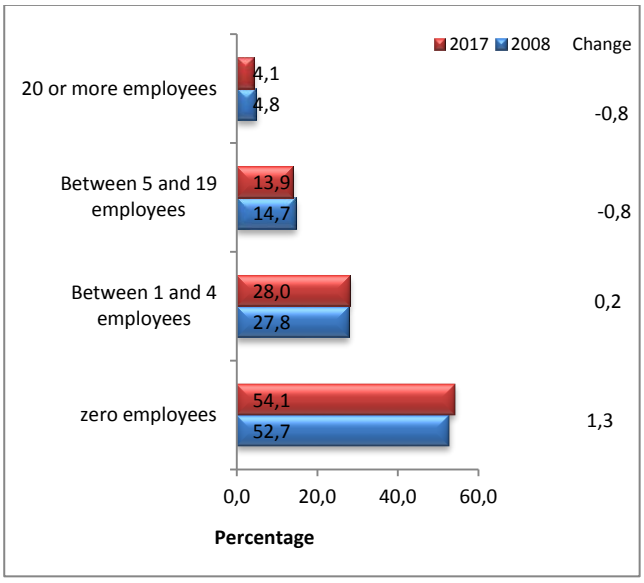
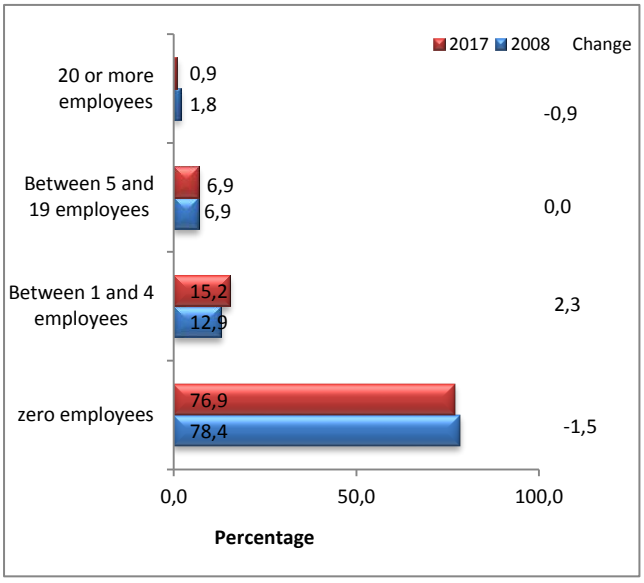


Figure 2.28: Females employers and own-account workers by business size, 2008 and 2017



Source: QLFS Q1: 2008 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Figures 2.27 and 2.28 illustrate the distribution of business owners by size of businesses over the period 2008 and 2017. This analysis groups businesses into three categories, namely i) Businesses where employers are employ between 1–4 individuals are categorised as small-sized businesses; ii) Those employing between 5–19 individuals are referred to as medium-sized businesses; while iii) Businesses employing 20 or more persons are labelled as large-sized businesses.

Since 2008, a higher percentage of male and female business owners were own-account workers. Females were however, more likely to be own-account workers than males. While the proportion of male own-account workers increased between 2008 and 2017 by 1,4 percentage points, that of their female counterparts declined by approximately the same magnitude. Of those employing one or more persons in their businesses (employers), the percentage amongst males and females who reported to be employing 20 or more people (owning large businesses) declined by 0,7 and 0,9 of a percentage point respectively. The results indicate a rise in the percentage shares amongst females owning small-sized businesses, while those running medium-sized businesses remained relatively the same.

2.7 Levels of unemployment and the unemployment rate

The analysis in this section explores gender differences in unemployment by socio-demographic factors such as age, education as well as geographic location. It further presents findings on the association between gender differentials and the presence of minor children in the household.

Table 2.12: Levels of unemployment by sex and age group, 2001 and 2017

Age group	Male			Female			Both sexes		
	2001	2017	Change	2001	2017	Change	2001	2017	Change
	Thousand								
15-24	738	790	52	717	771	54	**1 455**	**1 561**	**106**
25-34	739	1 186	447	892	1 210	318	**1 631**	**2 395**	**765**
35-44	292	714	422	322	697	374	**615**	**1 411**	**797**
45-54	162	366	204	134	303	169	**296**	**668**	**373**
55-64	55	109	54	30	69	39	**85**	**178**	**93**
Total	**1 986**	**3 165**	**1 179**	**2 095**	**3 049**	**954**	**4 081**	**6 214**	**2 133**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.12 illustrates that between 2001 and 2017, levels of unemployment increased by 2,1 million. The number of unemployed males increased proportionately by almost 1,2 million, which was greater than the increase recorded for females (954 thousand). Compared with females, males were less likely to be employed as they had higher levels of employment. However, it is worth noting that unemployment levels reached a ceiling at age 25–34 years, and then reduced with increasing age.

Age group variations revealed that there was an overall increase in unemployment levels across all age groups over the 16-year period of reporting. Males experienced the largest increases for ages 25–54 years when compared to their female counterparts. However, the age groups 15–24 and 55–64 years had the smallest increases for both males and females when compared to other age groups.

Table 2.13: Unemployment rate by sex and age group, 2001 and 2017

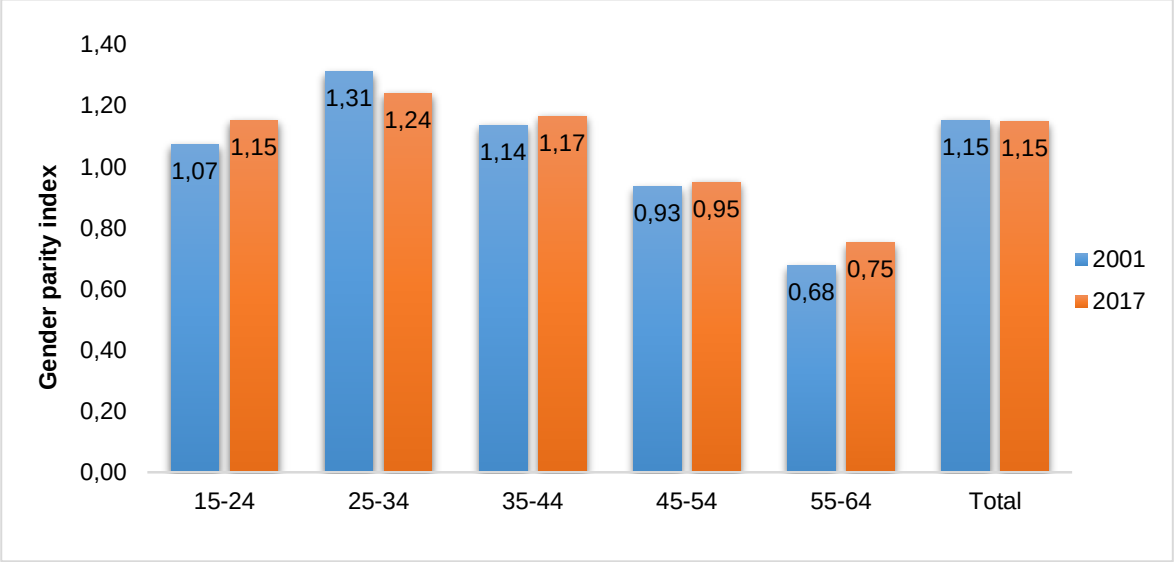
Age group	Male			Female			Both sexes		
	2001	2017	Change in percentage points	2001	2017	Change in percentage points	2001	2017	Change in percentage points
15-24	47,1	50,7	3,6	50,5	58,4	8,0	48,7	54,3	5,5
25-34	25,2	29,3	4,2	33,0	36,4	3,4	28,9	32,5	3,6
35-44	13,9	20,4	6,5	15,8	23,8	8,0	14,9	22,0	7,1
45-54	11,5	16,9	5,4	10,7	16,0	5,3	11,1	16,5	5,3
55-64	8,6	11,8	3,3	5,8	8,9	3,1	7,3	10,5	3,1
Total	**23,0**	**26,0**	**3,0**	**26,4**	**29,8**	**3,4**	**24,6**	**27,7**	**3,1**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.13 shows unemployment rates of males and females by different age group categories. The overall unemployment rate grew by 3,1 percentage points, from 24,6% in 2001 to 27,7% in 2017. This increase was mainly driven by the large increases that occurred in 35–44 (7,1%) and 15–24 (5,5%) age groups. Generally, unemployment rates amongst females increased across all age group categories between 2001 and 2017. The increase was even more prominent for the age groups 15–24 and 35–44 years as these age categories shared an equal percentage point increase of 8,0%, followed by the age group 45–54 years at 5,3%.

Similarly to females, males observed a general increase in their unemployment rate across all age group categories. However, the 35 – 44 and 45 – 54 age groups displayed the largest increases of 6,5 and 5,4 percentage points respectively when compared to other age groups. The age group 35 – 44 years had the largest percentage point increases for both males and females, which resulted to the largest growth in unemployment rate amongst both sexes in the same age.

Figure 2.29: Gender parity of unemployment rate by age groups, 2001 and 2017



Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Between 2001 and 2017, the gender gaps in unemployment rates showed notable variations between age groups, with the largest gaps observed among males and females in the age group 25–34 years for both years of analysis. Gender disparities in unemployment rates were disproportionately biased towards females for ages 15–44 years. For example, the unemployment rate of females aged 25–34 years was about 31% higher than that of males in 2001 and 24% higher in 2017, which was a decline of 7% from 2001. In contrast to these high gender disparities, females aged 45–64 years were less likely to be unemployed for both years. In 2017, the gender gaps were skewed towards males for the age group 55–64 (GPR: 0,75) and 45–54 (GPR: 0,95). This denoted lower unemployment rates among females in these age groups. It is clear from Figure 2.29 that the unemployment rate reached a ceiling at age 25–34 years and thereafter fell with increasing age.

Table 2.14: Unemployment rates of females by population group, age and education, 2001 and 2017

Highest level of education	Age	Black African			Other			All population groups		
		2001	Q1: 2017	% change	2001	Q1: 2017	% change	2001	Q1: 2017	% change
Less than Matric	Youth	44,4	54,2	9,9	33,0	40,4	7,4	42,3	52,4	10,1
	Adult	15,9	26,0	10,1	14,1	19,4	5,2	15,6	25,0	9,5
	Total	**29,9**	**37,8**	**7,9**	**23,6**	**28,1**	**4,4**	**28,8**	**36,5**	**7,7**
Matric	Youth	50,9	45,9	-4,9	19,6	19,5	0,0	41,3	40,0	-1,3
	Adult	19,3	21,3	2,1	7,0	8,6	1,6	12,0	17,1	5,1
	Total	**44,7**	**35,9**	**-8,8**	**14,0**	**13,6**	**-0,4**	**32,8**	**29,9**	**-2,9**
Graduates	Youth	25,2	18,8	-6,4	5,0	6,2	1,2	15,4	13,1	-2,3
	Adult	3,6	8,7	5,0	5,0	4,7	-0,3	4,5	6,9	2,3
	Total	**16,1**	**12,5**	**-3,6**	**5,0**	**5,2**	**0,3**	**9,6**	**9,2**	**-0,4**
Other Tertiary	Youth	28,9	38,7	9,8	5,2	5,7	0,6	22,0	32,4	10,5
	Adult	2,4	11,6	9,2	2,4	3,8	1,4	2,4	9,1	6,7
	Total	**18,4**	**24,1**	**5,7**	**3,3**	**4,4**	**1,1**	**12,6**	**18,9**	**6,3**

Source: LFS 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017
Note: Table excludes the category 'Other' and 'no schooling' for education.

Table 2.14 depicts the unemployment rate for females by population group, highest level of education attained, and age (youth and adults).

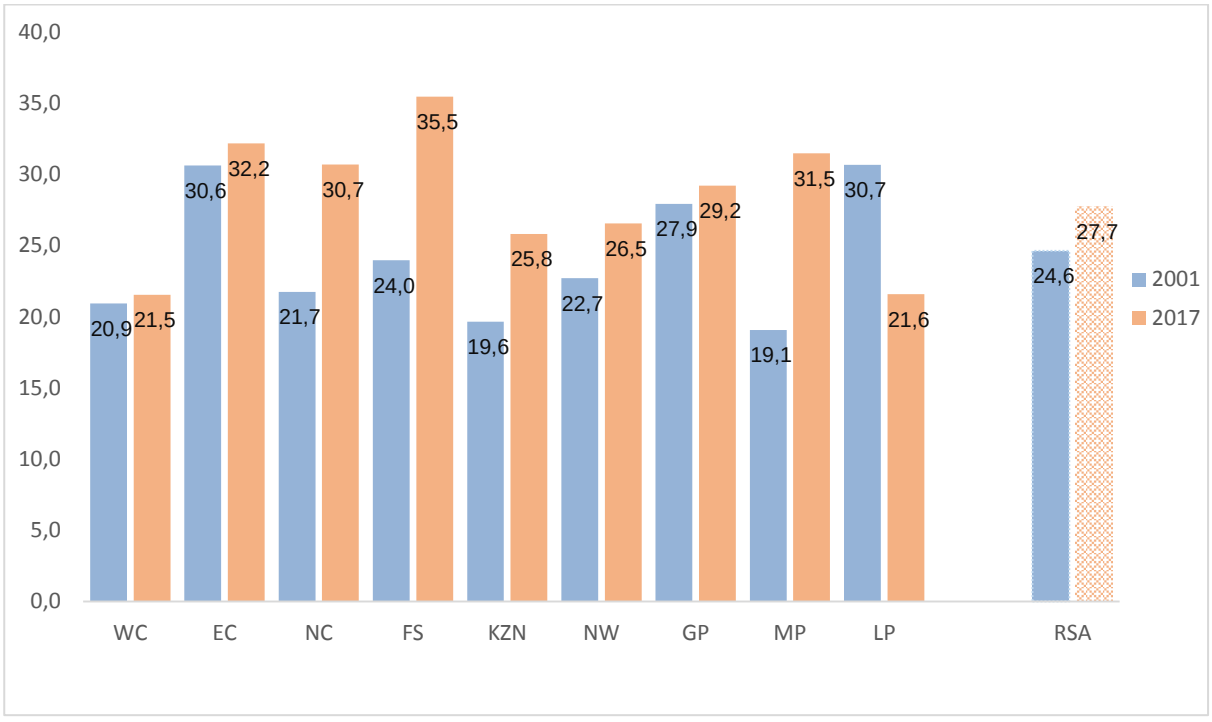
Between 2001 and 2017, the unemployment rate amongst females with degrees and matric decreased by 0,4 and 2,9 percentage points respectively. However, females with levels of education of less than Grade 12/matric, regardless of their population group, showed an overall increase of 7,7 percentage points over the same time period. This is indicative of the curvillinear relationship between education and unemployment i.e. lower levels of education are associated with high levels of unemployment and vice versa.

A comparative analysis of older and younger females shows that younger females were most likely to be unemployed, irrespective of their educational level and population group. With an unemployment rate of 54,2% in 2017, young black African females with less than matric were most likely to be unemployed. Amongst young females, the lowest unemployment rates were observed for females belonging to other population groups and who had other tertiary qualifications, which included Technical and Vocational Education Training (TVET) qualifications at (5,7%). This group was followed by female graduates, belonging to other population groups (6,2%) and black African female graduates (18,8%).

Over the 16-year period of reporting, notable increases in unemployment rates were observed amongst females with less than matric. Older black African females recorded the highest increase of 10,1 percentage points. On the other hand, young black African female graduates and those with a matric qualification were the only two groups showing a decline in the unemployment rate over the last 16 years (down by 6,4 and 4,9 percentage points respectively).

While both black African and non-black African adult female graduates were least likely to be unemployed in 2017, the unemployment rate for adult females belonging to other population groups declined by less than half of a percentage point (down by 0,3 of a percentage point), whereas that of their black African counterparts increased by 5,0 percentage points. Similarly, the unemployment rate for young black African female graduates decreased by 6,4 percentage points compared to their young non-black African counterparts who recorded an increase of 1,2 percentage points.

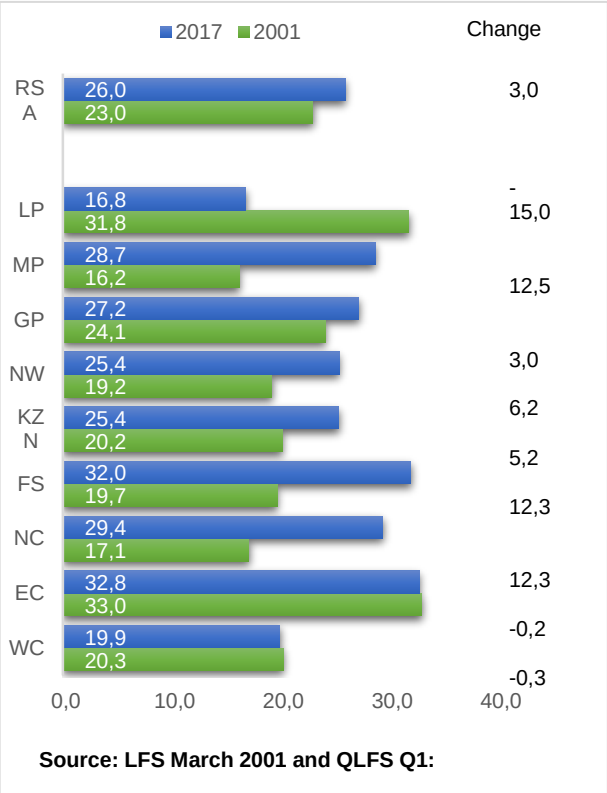
Figure 2.30: Unemployment rates by province, 2001 and 2017



Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1:2017

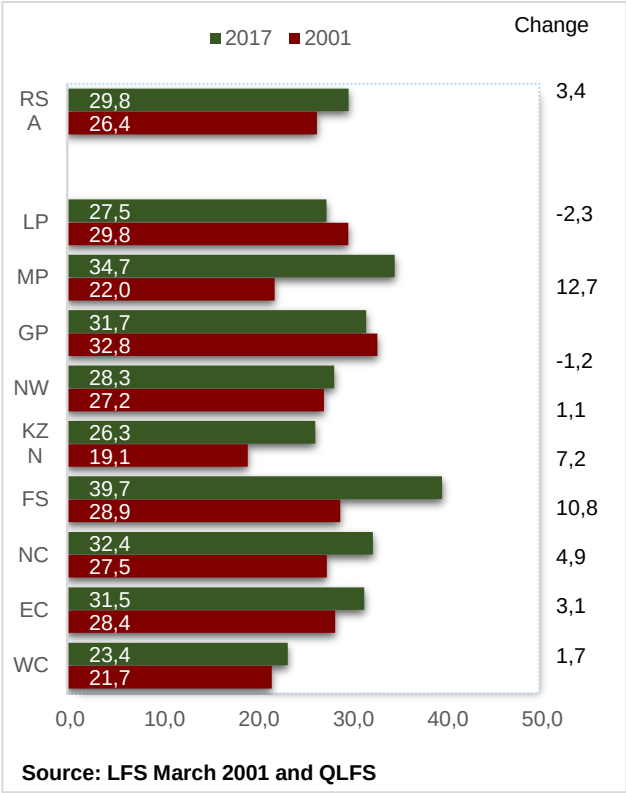
Figure 2.30 depicts provincial variations with regards to unemployment rates. The largest variations in the unemployment rate occurred in the Free State, Mpumalanga, and Northern Cape provinces. Limpopo showed an overall decrease of more than 9 percentage points (9,1%) from 2001 to 2017. In contrast to this, both Mpumalanga and Free State experienced increases of more than 10 percentage points (12,4% and 11,5% respectively) over the same period. These were followed by the Northern Cape province with an increase of 8,9 percentage points.

Figure 2.31: Male unemployment rates by province, 2001 and 2017



Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1:

Figure 2.4 Female unemployment rates by province, 2001 and 2017



Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS

Figure 2.31 shows male and Figure 2.32 female unemployment rates by province. Although the highest increases in unemployment rates (for males and females) were recorded in Mpumalanga, these increases were more pronounced amongst females than males. During the reference period, the male unemployment rate in Mpumalanga increased by 12,5 percentage points, while females experienced an increase of 12,7 percentage points over the same time period. Among males, Northern Cape and Free State recorded equivalent increases in their unemployment rates of 12,3 percentage points. Limpopo experienced the highest decline for both sexes, although the decline was larger for males than females. The male unemployment rate declined from 31,8% in 2001 to 16,8% in 2017 (15,0 percentage points), while the female unemployment rate declined by 2,3 percentage points.

Between 2001 and 2017, the unemployment gender gap changed significantly. The gender gap ratio for males and females residing in the Eastern Cape was the only ratio to remain below one, over the reporting period. Females residing in the Eastern Cape were less likely to be unemployed than males. In 2001, females residing in KwaZulu-Natal and Limpopo were less likely to be unemployed compared to their male counterparts (GPR: 0,95 and 0,94 respectively). In contrast to this females living in the Northern Cape were more likely than males to be unemployed (GPR: 1,61). The situation reversed in 2017 whereby the gender parity gap ratio for Limpopo widened significantly with an increase in female unemployment (GPR: 1,64). This represents an unemployment rate of females that was 64 per cent higher than that of their male counterparts. Even though women in KwaZulu-Natal were also more likely to be unemployed in 2017, the difference between male and female unemployment rates was only 0,9 percentage points.

Table 2.15: Graduate unemployment rate by sex and age group, 2001 and 2017

Age group	Male			Female			Both sexes		
	2001	2017	Percentage point change	2001	2017	Percentage point change	2001	2017	Percentage point change
15-24	42,9	32,8	-10,1	31,3	28,4	-3,0	36,2	29,8	-6,4
25-34	11,0	6,1	-4,9	12,3	9,9	-2,4	11,7	8,1	-3,6
35-44	0,9	5,1	4,2	2,8	10,3	7,5	1,8	7,7	5,9
45-54	0,4	3,5	3,1	8,3	2,7	-5,6	3,2	3,1	-0,1
55-64	5,5	3,4	-2,1	3,8	5,6	1,8	4,9	4,3	-0,6
Total	**6,3**	**5,6**	**-0,7**	**9,6**	**9,2**	**-0,4**	**7,8**	**7,4**	**-0,4**

Source: LFS 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

The table above depicts graduate unemployment rates of males and females by different age group categories. Overall graduate unemployment rates declined by 0,4 of a percentage point, from 7,8% in 2001 to 7,4% in 2017. This decline was mainly driven by the decreases in the unemployment rate which occurred amongst the youth aged 15–24 (down by 6,4 percentage points) and 25–34 (down by 3,6 percentage points).

Between 2001 and 2017, the unemployment rate among female graduates decreased by 0,4 percentage points. The decrease was due to the notable declines which occurred in three age groups, namely 15–24, 25–34 and 45–54 years. The largest decrease occurred in the group aged 45–54 years (5,6 percentage points). In contrast to this, female graduates belonging to the age groups 35–44 and 55–64 years experienced increases in the unemployment rate, with the largest increase occurring in the age group 35–44 year (up by 7,5 percentage points).

Similarly to their young female graduates, the unemployment rate of young male graduates (15–34 years) also declined. However, the decline in the unemployment rates for 15–24 years was more than twice that recorded for age group 25–34 years (10,1 percentage points compared to 4,9 percentage points). In contrast to this, unemployment rates among male graduates belonging to the age groups 35–44 and 45–54 years increased over the same period. These groups had unemployment rate increases of 4,2 and 3,5 percentage points respectively.

Table 2.16: Graduate unemployment rate by field of study and sex, 2001 and 2017

Field of study	Male			Female			Both sexes		
	2001	2017	% Change	2001	2017	% Change	2001	2017	% Change
Social studies/health sciences	4,6	7,2	2,6	15,1	10,9	-4,2	9,8	9,3	-0,5
Arts/education/hospitality	6,5	4,2	-2,3	7,0	8,0	1,0	6,8	6,9	0,1
Economic and management sciences (EMS)	6,3	5,7	-0,6	8,2	9,5	1,3	7,0	7,3	0,4
Physical/mathematical sciences/engineering	6,4	5,5	-0,9	5,3	7,5	2,2	6,1	6,1	0,0
Agriculture/other	17,1	3,9	-13,2	14,4	9,3	-5,1	16,4	6,3	-10,1
Total	**6,4**	**5,6**	-0,7	**9,6**	**9,2**	-0,4	**7,8**	**7,4**	-0,4

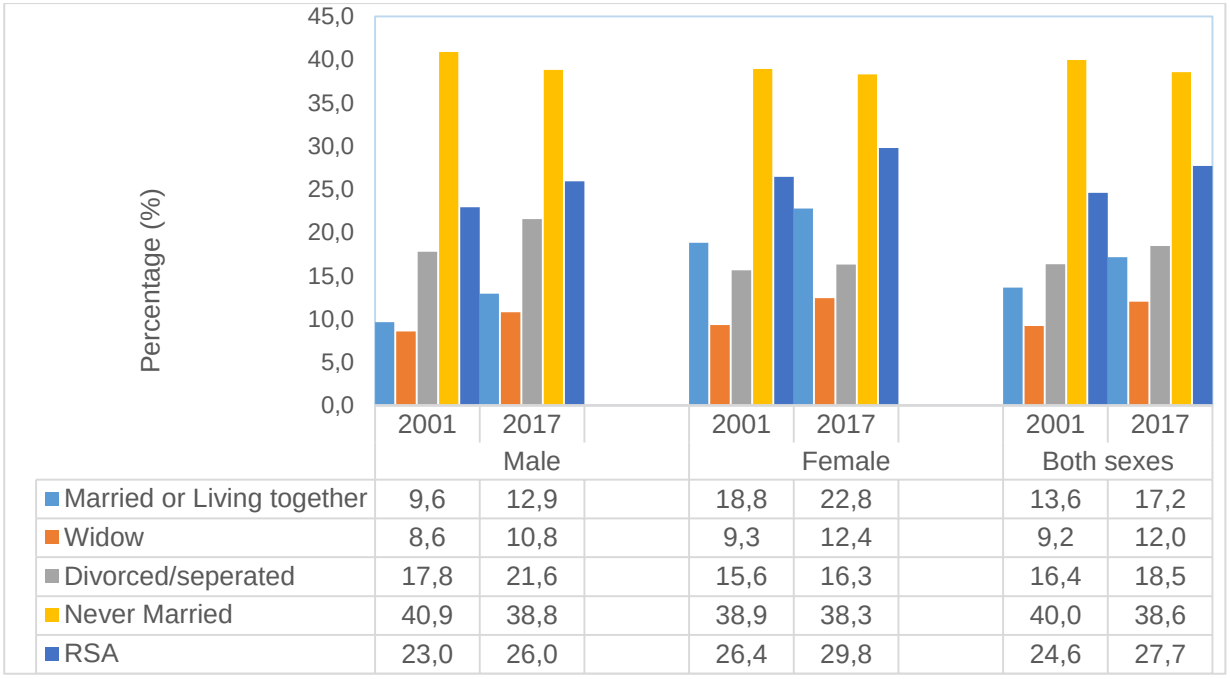
Source: LFS 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.16 illustrates unemployment rates for male and female graduates by field of study. Between 2001 and 2017, unemployment rates based on field of study showed significant variations, with the largest decline occurring in the field of agriculture/other (down by 10,1 percentage points) regardless of gender. The unemployment rate in the field of physical/mathematical sciences/engineering remained unchanged over the past 16 years. Relatively small changes were observed in the unemployment rate of graduates in the field of arts/education/hospitality and economic and management science (EMS).

Over the reference period, the female graduate unemployment rate declined only in two fields of study, namely social studies/health sciences and agriculture/other. All other fields of study recorded increases of at least one percentage point in their unemployment rates, with the physical/mathematical sciences/engineering fields experiencing the largest increase (up by 2,2 percentage points).

Generally, unemployment rates for male graduates declined in almost all fields of study, except the field of social studies/health sciences which recorded an increase of 2,6 percentage points. The male unemployment rate in the field of agriculture/other experienced the largest decline of 13,2 percentage points, while a decline of 2,3 percentage points was observed in the field of arts/education/hospitality.

Figure 2.33: Unemployment rate by marital status and sex, 2001 and 2017



	Male		Female		Both sexes	
	2001	2017	2001	2017	2001	2017
Married or Living together	9,6	12,9	18,8	22,8	13,6	17,2
Widow	8,6	10,8	9,3	12,4	9,2	12,0
Divorced/seperated	17,8	21,6	15,6	16,3	16,4	18,5
Never Married	40,9	38,8	38,9	38,3	40,0	38,6
RSA	23,0	26,0	26,4	29,8	24,6	27,7

Source: LFS 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

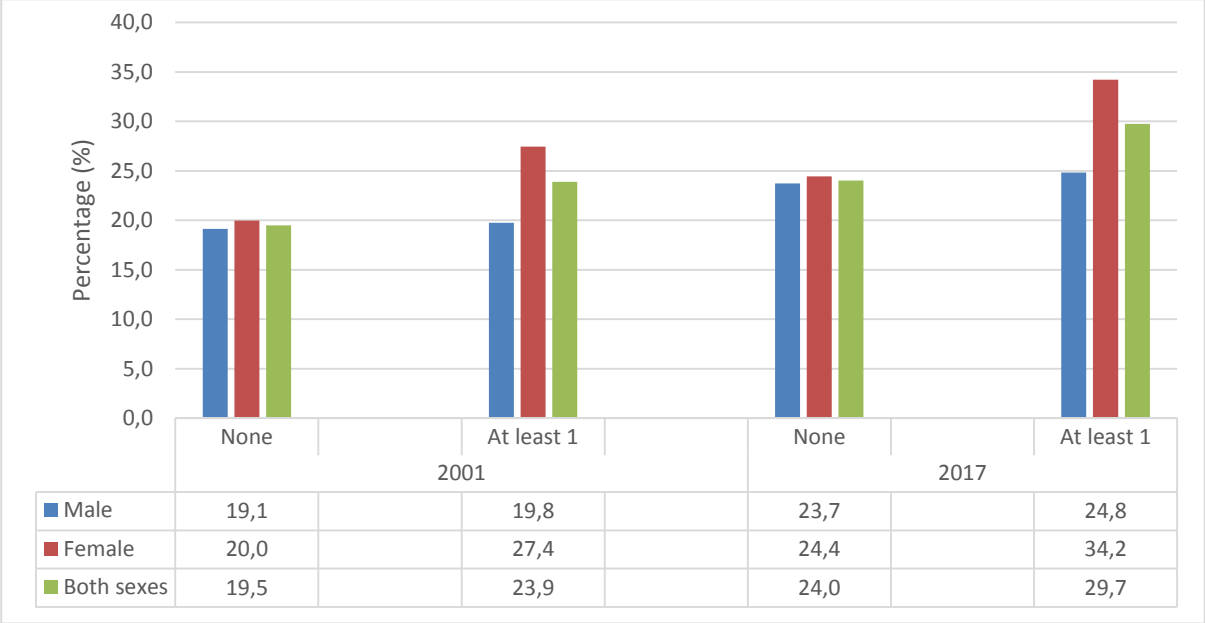
Over the 16-year period of reporting, the unemployment rate for persons who had never been married declined for both males and females. Although the unemployment rate of this group dropped over the 16-year period of reporting, it however remained relatively high when compared to other categories of marital status (see Figure 2.33). In contrast to these findings, widowed individuals were less likely to be unemployed irrespective of their gender.

Between 2001 and 2017, married males or males living together were less likely to be unemployed than their female counterparts. However, the opposite was true for divorced/separated males where females were less likely to be unemployed.

2.8 Presence of minor child in the household

The presence of minor children (children aged less than six years and below) in the household can somehow induce high levels of unemployment, particularly amongst women. This could be due to the fact that most women feel obliged to care for their children until they reach a certain age where they feel comfortable to let go. Sometimes, this could be attributed to the fact that some women derive pleasure in caring for their children. This section examines unemployment rates through a gender lens among households where there were minor children.

Figure 2.34: Unemployment rate of persons aged 25–49 by sex and presence of a minor child in the household, 2001 and 2014



	2001 None	2001 At least 1	2017 None	2017 At least 1
Male	19,1	19,8	23,7	24,8
Female	20,0	27,4	24,4	34,2
Both sexes	19,5	23,9	24,0	29,7

Source: LFS 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Figure 2.34 summarises unemployment rates for both males and females by presence of minor children (children who are six years and below) in the household. Males and females with minor children were most likely to be unemployed compared to their counterparts (males and females with no minor children) for both years (2001 and 2017).

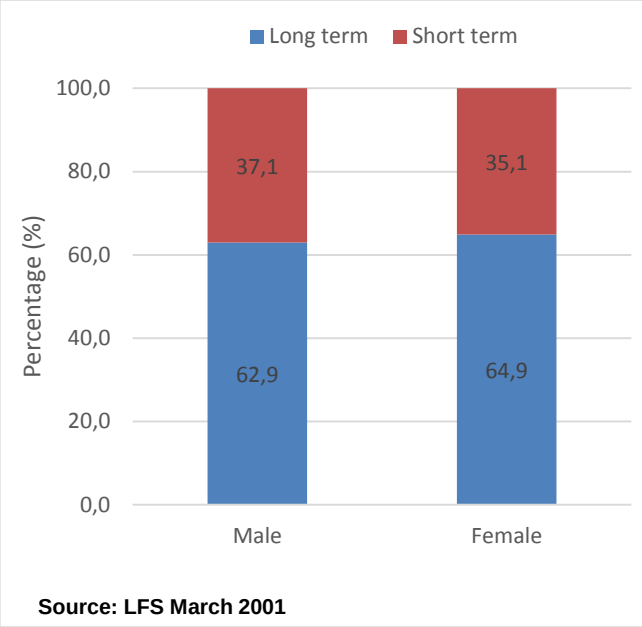
Amongst the group with no minor children, the unemployment rate for both males and females increased (4,6 and 4,4 percentage points respectively) over the reference period. Although the increases occurred for both sexes, the unemployment rate for females was slightly higher at 24,4% (compared to 23,7% for males) in 2017. The same is true for males and females with minor children: the unemployment rate for both these groups increased by 6,8 and 5,0 percentage points respectively over the reference period. Amongst the group with minor children, for both sexes, the unemployment rate increased from 23,9% in 2001 to 29,7% in 2017 (5,8 percentage points).

Between 2001 and 2017, the gender parity ratio for unemployed males and females with no minor children, remained virtually unchanged (slightly declining from 1,05 in 2001 to 1,03 in 2017). During the same period, the gap between males and females who had minor children, remained unchanged (GPR: 1,38). This indicates that females with minor children in their households were more likely to be unemployed than their male counterparts.

2.9 Long-term and short-term unemployment

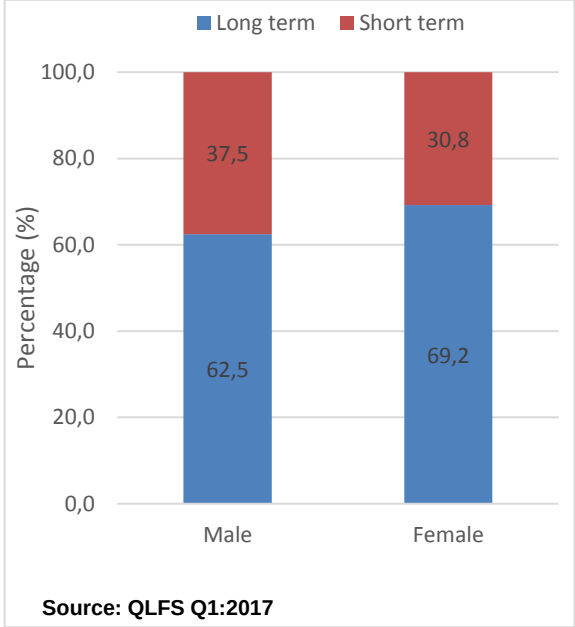
The labour market results of the QLFS panel data analyses show that the longer individuals remain unemployed, the harder it becomes to find employment. This section accordingly examines male and female patterns in long-term and short-term unemployment. Persons who have been unemployed for a period of one year and longer are referred to as being in long-term unemployment, while short-term unemployed persons are defined as those who have been unemployed for less than one year.

Figure 2.35: Percentage share of males and females by duration in unemployment, 2001



Source: LFS March 2001

Figure 2.36: Percentage share of males and females by duration in unemployment, 2017



Source: QLFS Q1:2017

Figures 2.35 and 2.36 illustrate trends (with respect to percentage shares in short-term and long-term unemployment) in duration of unemployment for males and females. In both years (2001 and 2017), females were more likely to be in long-term unemployment (64,9% in 2001 and 69,2% in 2017) than their male counterparts (62,9% in 2001 and 62,5% in 2017).

Between 2001 and 2017, males were more likely to experience short-term unemployment than females. However, amongst women a decline in the short-term unemployment resulted in an increase in the percentage share of females slipping into long-term unemployment. In 2017, wider gender disparities were recorded for both those in short- and long-term unemployment. Gender parity for those in long-term unemployment was 1,11 and 0,82 for short-term unemployment.

Table 2.17: Duration in unemployment by age group, 2001 and 2017

Age group	Long-term			Short-term			RSA		
	2001	2017	% Change	2001	2017	% Change	2001	2017	% Change
15-24	28,7	22,6	-6,1	48,3	29,9	-18,4	35,7	25,1	-10,6
25-34	43,8	38,9	-4,9	33,3	37,8	4,5	40,0	38,5	-1,5
35-44	16,8	24,2	7,3	11,7	19,9	8,3	15,0	22,7	7,8
45-54	8,2	11,4	3,3	5,4	9,5	4,1	7,2	10,8	3,6
55-64	2,6	2,9	0,3	1,4	2,9	1,5	2,1	2,9	0,7

Source: LFS 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Table 2.17 depicts the duration of unemployment by age group. The percentage share of persons who were in long-term unemployment over the 16-year period of reporting declined for the age groups 15–24 and 25–34 years. The largest drop was recorded among the younger youth (15–24 years) from 28,7% in 2001 to 22,6% in 2017 (down by 6,1 percentage points) whereas older youth (25–34 years) declined from 43,8% to 38,9% (down by 4,9 percentage points). However, persons who were in short-term unemployment increased in most of the age groups, with the exception of those aged 15– 24years, which recorded the largest decrease of 18,4 percentage points.

2.10 Job search methods

In this section, data that examine the different job search methods that unemployed persons utilised were analysed. The methods used to search for employment that will be discussed in this section are grouped into four categories:

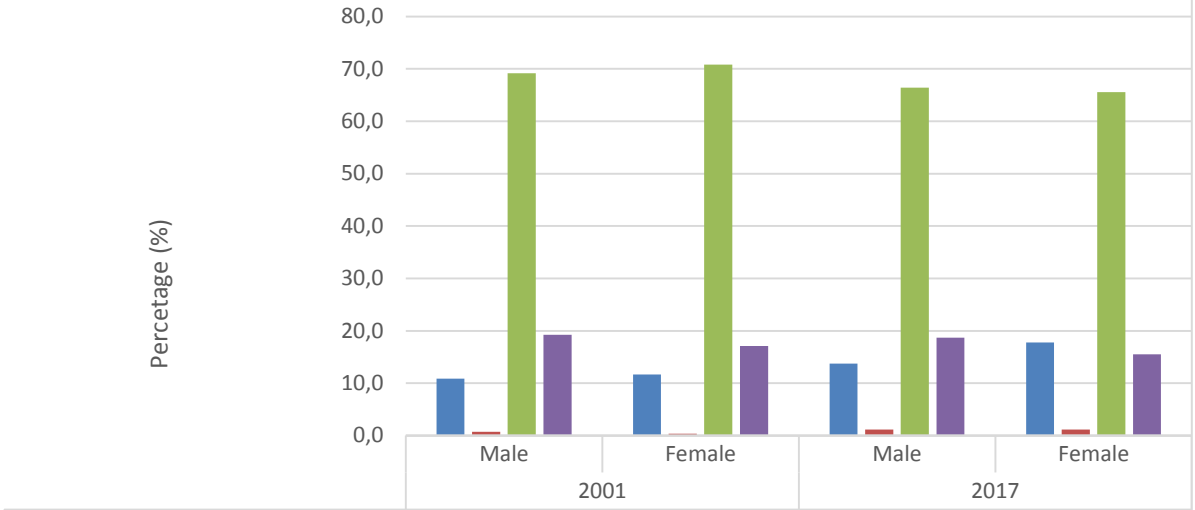
a) Searched through job advertisements: These entailed job search methods such as looking through job advertisements in various forms of media such as newspapers and the Internet. The category also includes placing advertisements on various platforms.

b) Approaching someone for assistance: This category includes seeking financial assistance to start your own business or looking for employment. The category also includes looking for land, a building, equipment or applying for a permit to start one's own business or farming.

c) Enquiring at workplaces/ asking for assistance from relatives or friends: Job search methods such as going to different companies, farms, or factories, and enquiring about vacancies or calling them to enquire. Asking for assistance from friends or relatives about job opportunities was also included in this category.

d) Waiting at potential workplaces: This job search method involves waiting or registering at employment agencies or trade unions. The category also captures those who waited at the street side where casual workers are found/ picked up, and any other initiative taken to search for employment.

Figure 2.37: Job search method by sex, 2001 and 2017



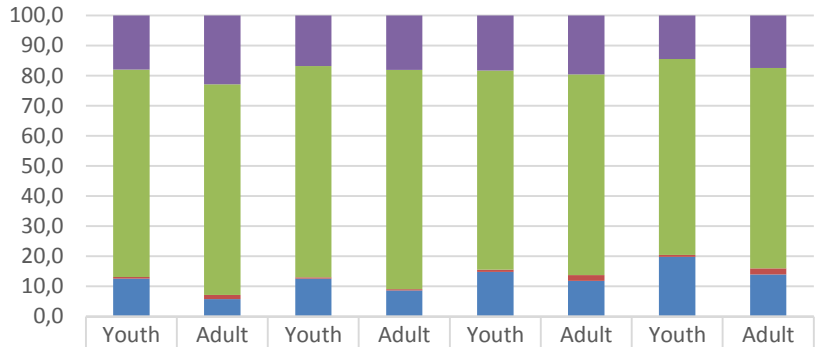
	2001 Male	2001 Female	2017 Male	2017 Female
Searched through job advertisements	10,9	11,7	13,8	17,8
Approached someone for assistance	0,7	0,4	1,1	1,1
Enquired at work place/Sought assistance	69,2	70,8	66,4	65,6
Waited at potential work places	19,2	17,1	18,7	15,5

Source: LFS 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

Figure 2.37 shows that the most used job search method was enquiring at workplaces or asking friends/relatives. For this job search method, the gap between males and females was insignificant for both years. The second most used job search method varied by year of reporting. In 2001, waiting at potential workplaces was the second most used job search method, while in 2017 gender variations occurred. A large number of males reported waiting at potential workplaces as the second most used job search method, while a significant number of females reported searching through job advertisements as the second most likely method of searching for employment.

The job search method which was used the least was the one which involves approaching someone for assistance (this method included assistance with starting up one's own business). As shown in Figure 2.37, both sexes were least likely to utilise this technique.

Figure 2.38: Job search method used by sex and age of job seeker, 2001 and 2017



	Youth Male 2001	Adult Male 2001	Youth Female 2001	Adult Female 2001	Youth Male 2017	Adult Male 2017	Youth Female 2017	Adult Female 2017
Waited at potential work places	18,0	22,8	16,8	18,1	18,2	19,5	14,5	17,4
Enquired at work place/Sought assistance	68,9	70,1	70,2	72,9	66,2	66,7	65,0	66,5
Approached someone for assistance	0,5	1,3	0,4	0,4	0,7	1,9	0,6	2,1
Searched through job advertisements	12,6	5,8	12,6	8,7	14,9	11,9	19,8	14,0

Source: LFS 2001 and QLFS Q1: 2017

The pattern for job search methods was the same for both youth and adults. It reflected similar findings, as shown in Figure 2.38 where enquiring at workplaces/ seeking help from friends/relatives was reported as the job search method used the most. For enquiring at the workplaces/seeking help from friends/relatives, adults aged 35 years and older had higher percentages using this method than youth (15–34 years). However, the opposite was observed when looking at the percentages of those who reportedly used job advertisements to search for employment, youth had higher percentages than adults, and this was true for both sexes. Waiting at potential workplaces was the second most frequently used job-seeking method in 2001 and adults were slightly more likely than youth to use this method. However in 2017, gender variations occurred, where a significant number of male job seekers reported waiting at potential workplaces as the second most used this job search method while a significant amount of females reported searching through job advertisements as the second most preferred method of searching for employment. These gender differences were true for both youth and adults.

2.11 Means of survival

This section provides an analysis of the means of survival for unemployed persons. This analysis is crucial as it explores different safety net options available to the unemployed to cushion them from absolute poverty. Furthermore, the analysis will explore the extent to which gender differentials influence the type of potential sources of income an individual has access to.

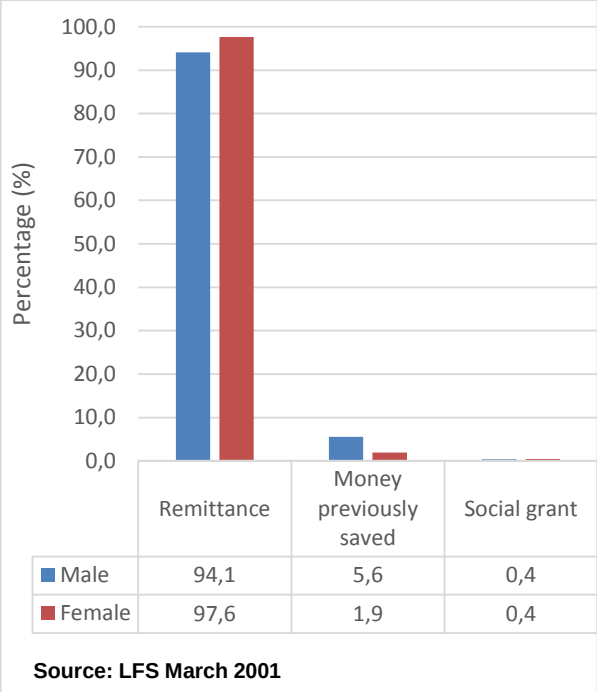
The three variables that will be analysed were categorised as follows:

a) Remittances: This category includes situations where a person is supported by other people either within or outside the household. Remittances also include being supported by a charity or a church.

b) Money previously earned: Includes money from sources such as the Unemployment Insurance Fund (UIF) and money from savings or previous earnings.

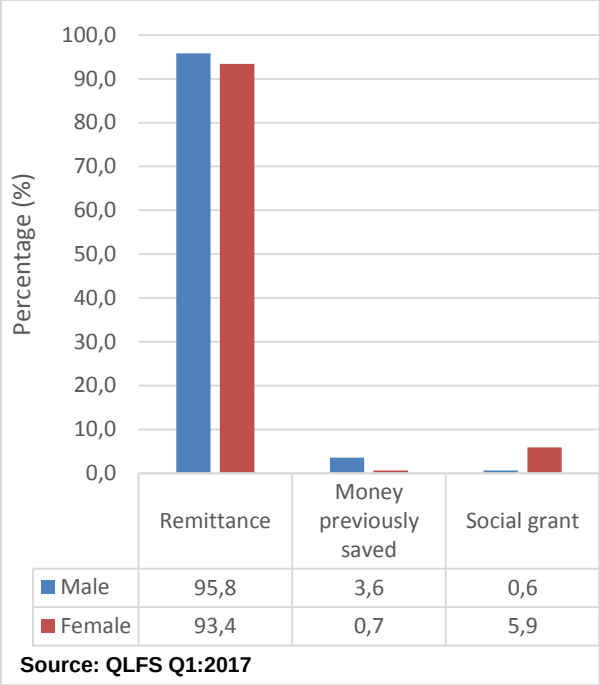
c) Social grants: Money that is received through government social welfare systems is grouped under this category. The different types of social grants captured in this category include grants such as old-age, disability, child support and foster care grants as well as any other social grants.

Figure 2.39: Means of survival by sex, 2001



Source: LFS March 2001

Figure 2.40: Means of survival by sex, 2017



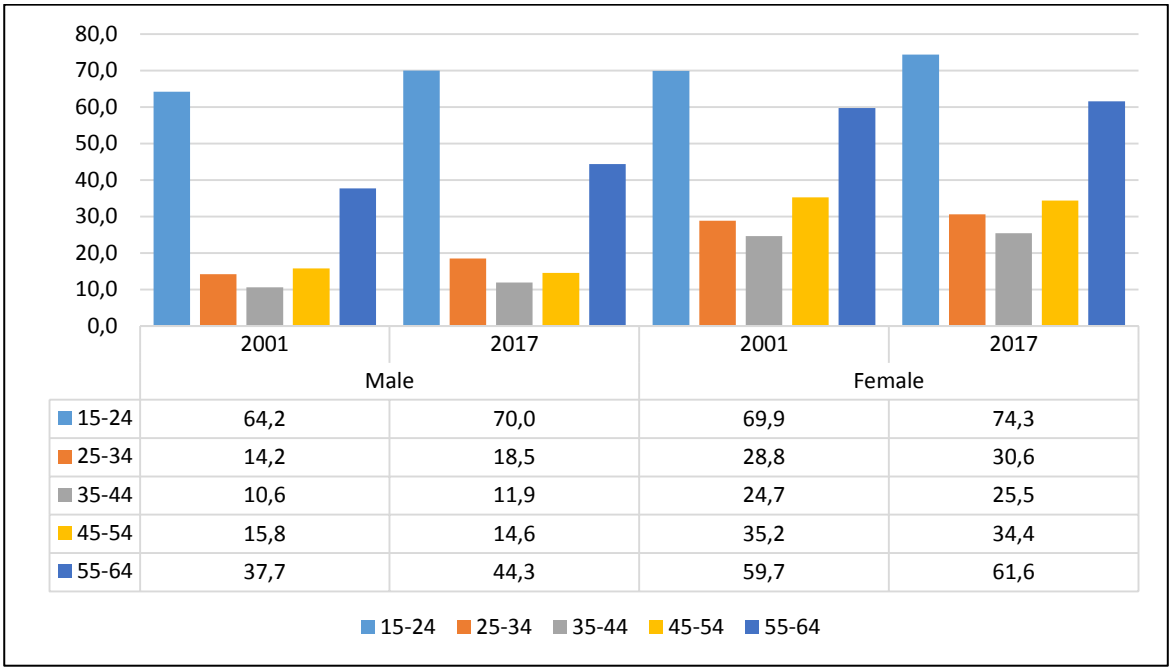
Source: QLFS Q1:2017

Figures 2.39 and 2.40 depict the means of survival for unemployed persons by sex. Between 2001 and 2017, high percentages of people relied on remittances for their survival; this was true for both males and females. There were no huge disparities reported as remittances accounted for over 90% in both groups. In 2001, the percentages of those who survived on money previously earned, were higher among males than females. However, in 2017, a notable shift occurred among males who were surviving using money previously saved. A significant number of them transitioned from this form of survival to remittances (up by 1,7 percentage points from 2001 whereas money previously saved dropped by 2,0 percentage points). Reliance on social grants by males also grew, but by a smaller margin (up by 0,2 of a percentage point from 2001).

Over the same period of reporting, the opposite trend emerged for females. There was a decline in females who relied on remittances to survive (from 97,6% in 2001 to 93,4% in 2017). Furthermore, the percentage of those who survived by using money previously saved, also declined by 1,2 percentage points. The decline in the two means of survival resulted in an increased dependency on social grants by females in 2017 (from 0,4% in 2001 to 5,9% in 2017).

2.12 Economic inactivity rate

Figure 2.41: Economic inactivity rate by sex and age, 2001 and 2017

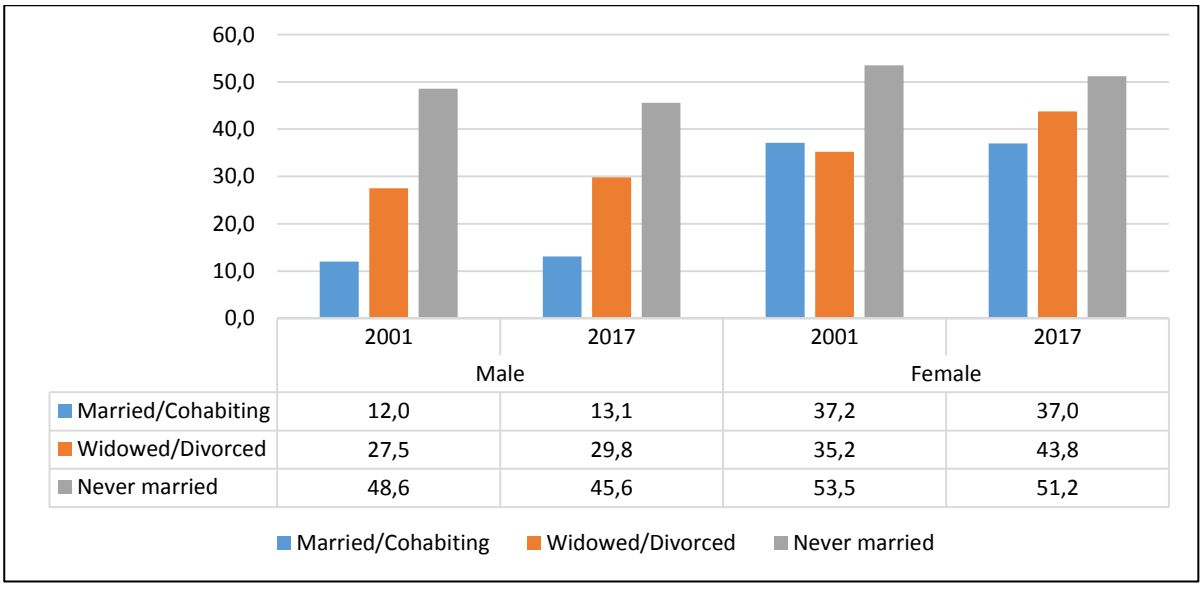


	Male		Female	
	2001	2017	2001	2017
15-24	64,2	70,0	69,9	74,3
25-34	14,2	18,5	28,8	30,6
35-44	10,6	11,9	24,7	25,5
45-54	15,8	14,6	35,2	34,4
55-64	37,7	44,3	59,7	61,6

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

Figure 2.41 shows the economic inactivity rate of males and females for different age groups. The results show that for both years and all age groups, the economic inactivity rate was higher for females than their male counterparts. The figure also shows that the economic inactivity rate was higher amongst the youth (aged 15–24) than any other age group, a six percentage point difference was observed between the two sexes for both years. The 55–64 age category also had a comparatively high economic inactivity rate among females, with gaps of 22,0 percentage points in 2001 and 17,3 percentage points in 2017. The 45–54 and 55–64 age groups had the largest disparities between sexes. It is also important to note that there was an increase in inactivity for both sexes and across all age groups between 2001 and 2017.

Figure 2.42: Economic inactivity rate by sex and marital status, 2001 and 2017

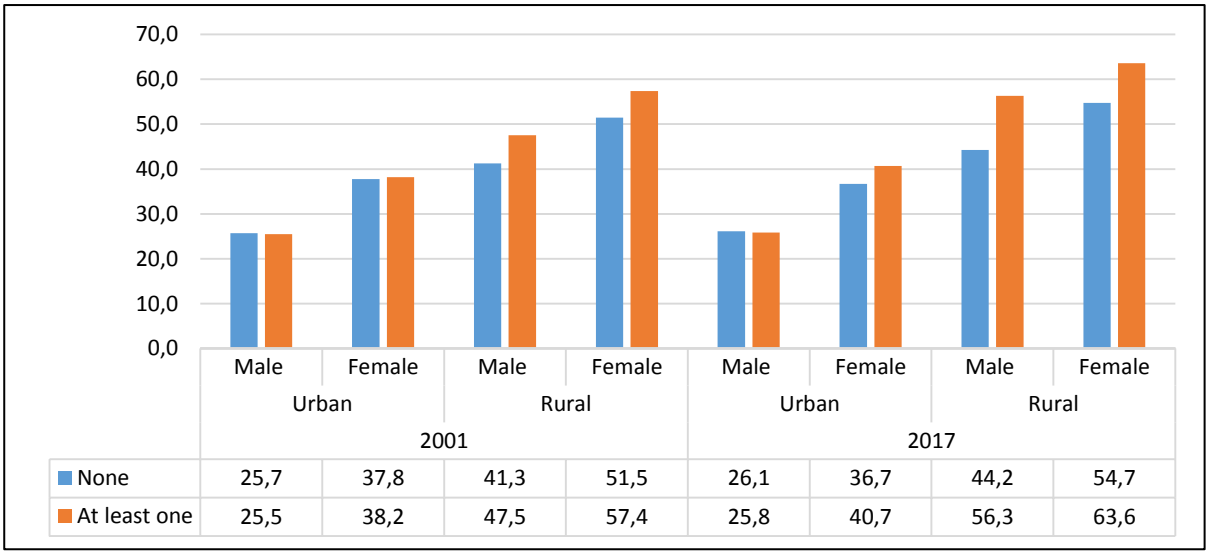


	Male		Female	
	2001	2017	2001	2017
Married/Cohabiting	12,0	13,1	37,2	37,0
Widowed/Divorced	27,5	29,8	35,2	43,8
Never married	48,6	45,6	53,5	51,2

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

Figure 2.42 shows the distribution of males and females who are economically inactive by their marital status. As shown, the economic inactivity rate was higher amongst females than their male counterparts in all categories. This was true for both 2001 and 2017. Moreover, the proportions increased between 2001 and 2017 for both sexes and for all categories. The highest proportion of inactivity was among the group that had never been married for both 2001 and 2017. Males who reported to be married/cohabiting had the lowest rates of the three categories, with 12% in 2001 and 13% in 2017. Economically inactive females, who have never been married, recorded the highest inactivity rate at 53,5% in 2001 and at 51,2% in 2017.

Figure 2.43: Economic inactivity rate by sex and presence of a minor child in the household in urban or rural areas, 2001 and 2017



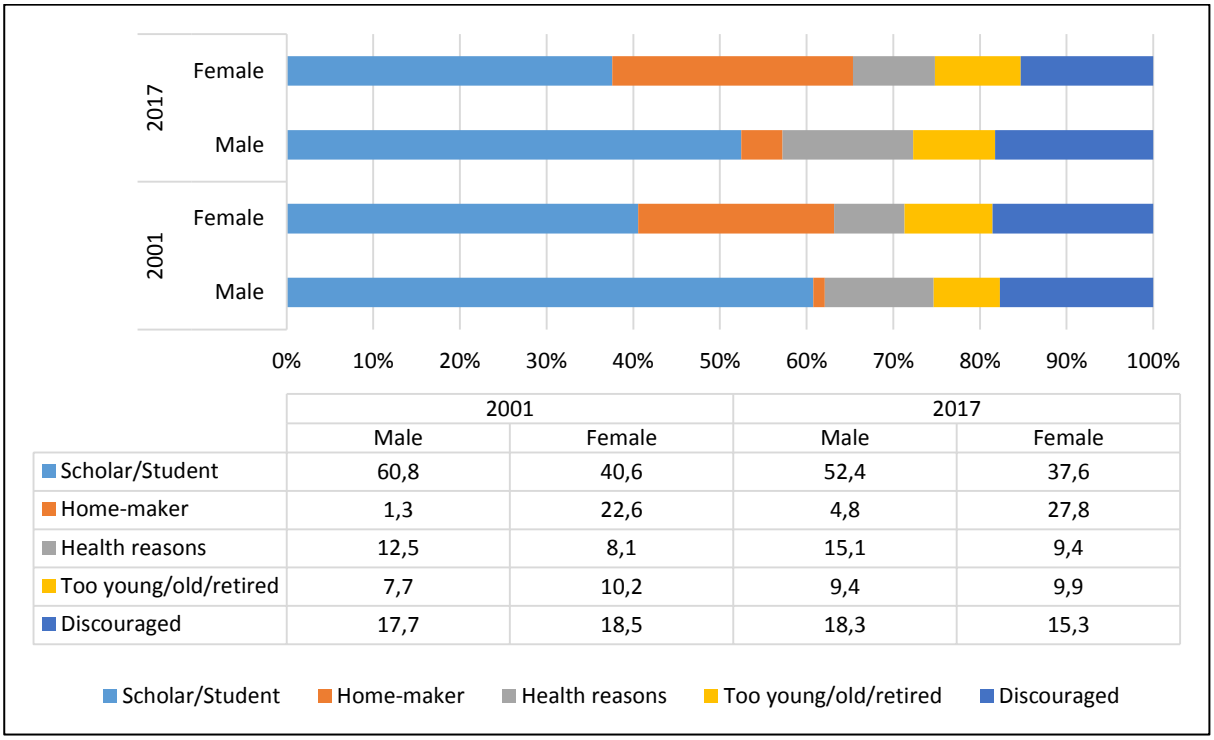
	Urban 2001 Male	Urban 2001 Female	Rural 2001 Male	Rural 2001 Female	Urban 2017 Male	Urban 2017 Female	Rural 2017 Male	Rural 2017 Female
None	25,7	37,8	41,3	51,5	26,1	36,7	44,2	54,7
At least one	25,5	38,2	47,5	57,4	25,8	40,7	56,3	63,6

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

The presence of a minor child affects the economic inactivity rates of both males and females. The effect was negligible in urban areas, but significant in rural areas for both males and females. Rural females who reported to be living with at least one minor child had a 57,4% economic inactivity rate in 2001, while their counterparts who lived with no minor children had a 51,5% economic inactivity rate. This figure increased over the 16-year reporting period, and females in rural settlements who lived with at least one minor child reported a 63,6% rate of economic inactivity in 2017. This figure was 9 percentage points higher than that of their counterparts who did not live with minor children in the same year. The presence of a minor child over the reporting period affected rural and urban settings differently. For urban settings, the 2001 rates for both males and females differed by less than one percentage point between those who lived with minor children and those who did not. This was almost the same for males in urban settings in 2017. For rural areas, however, the 2001 economic inactivity rate amongst males differed by 6 percentage points between those who lived with at least one minor child and those who lived with none. This figure increased by 12 percentage points during the reference period.

2.13 Reasons for economic inactivity

Figure 2.44: Reasons for economic inactivity by sex, 2001 and 2017



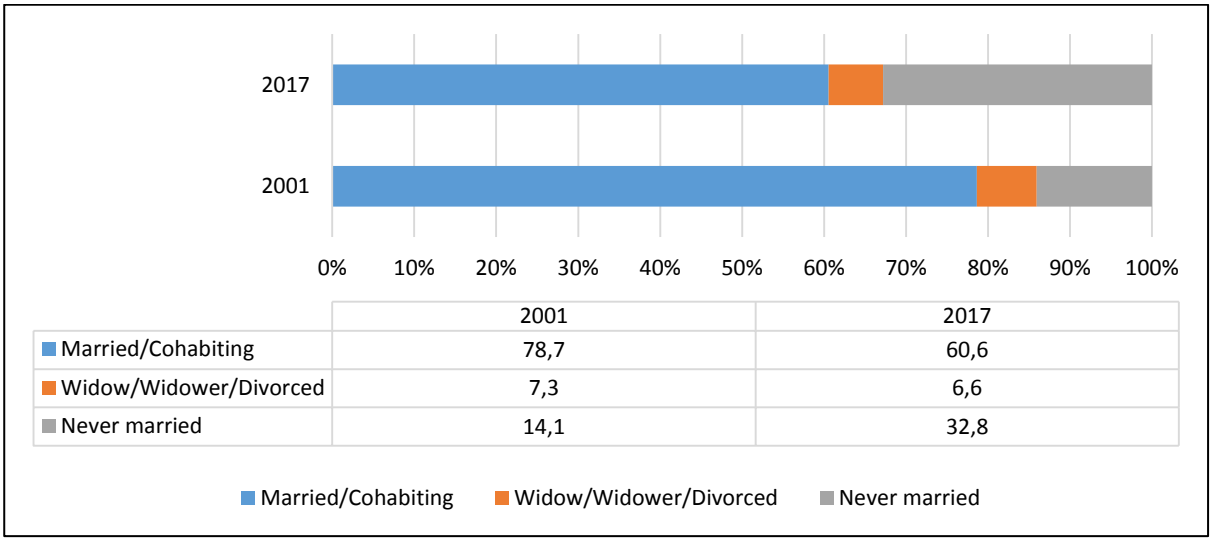
	2001		2017	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Scholar/Student	60,8	40,6	52,4	37,6
Home-maker	1,3	22,6	4,8	27,8
Health reasons	12,5	8,1	15,1	9,4
Too young/old/retired	7,7	10,2	9,4	9,9
Discouraged	17,7	18,5	18,3	15,3

Scholar/Student Home-maker Health reasons Too young/old/retired Discouraged

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

Figure 2.44 shows that between 2001 and 2017, the main reason for economic inactivity was due to being a student. The figures also show that for both years, the proportion of males who reported studying as the reason for economic inactivity was higher than that of their female counterparts (20,1 and 14,8 percentage points respectively). The second reason provided for economic inactivity varied by sex. In both years, discouragement was the second reason provided by males, whereas for females it was because they were full-time home-makers.

Figure 2.45: Female home-makers by marital status, 2001 and 2017



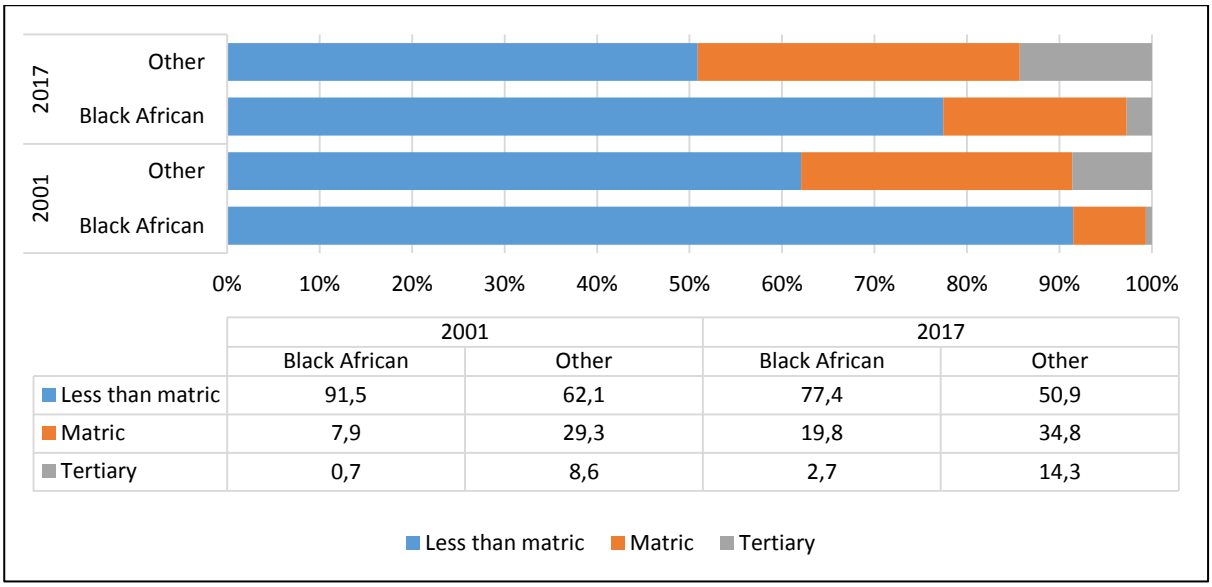
	2001	2017
Married/Cohabiting	78,7	60,6
Widow/Widower/Divorced	7,3	6,6
Never married	14,1	32,8

Married/Cohabiting Widow/Widower/Divorced Never married

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

As shown in Figure 2.45, a high percentage of female home-makers fall under the married/cohabiting category. This was true for both 2001 and 2017. However, it is important to note that in 2017, there was a significant increase in the percentage of female home-makers who had never been married. This percentage more than doubled from 14,1% in 2001 to 32,8% in 2017. This was accompanied by a decrease of approximately 18 percentage points in the proportion of those that were married or cohabiting.

Figure 2.5: Female home-makers by education and population group, 2001 and 2017

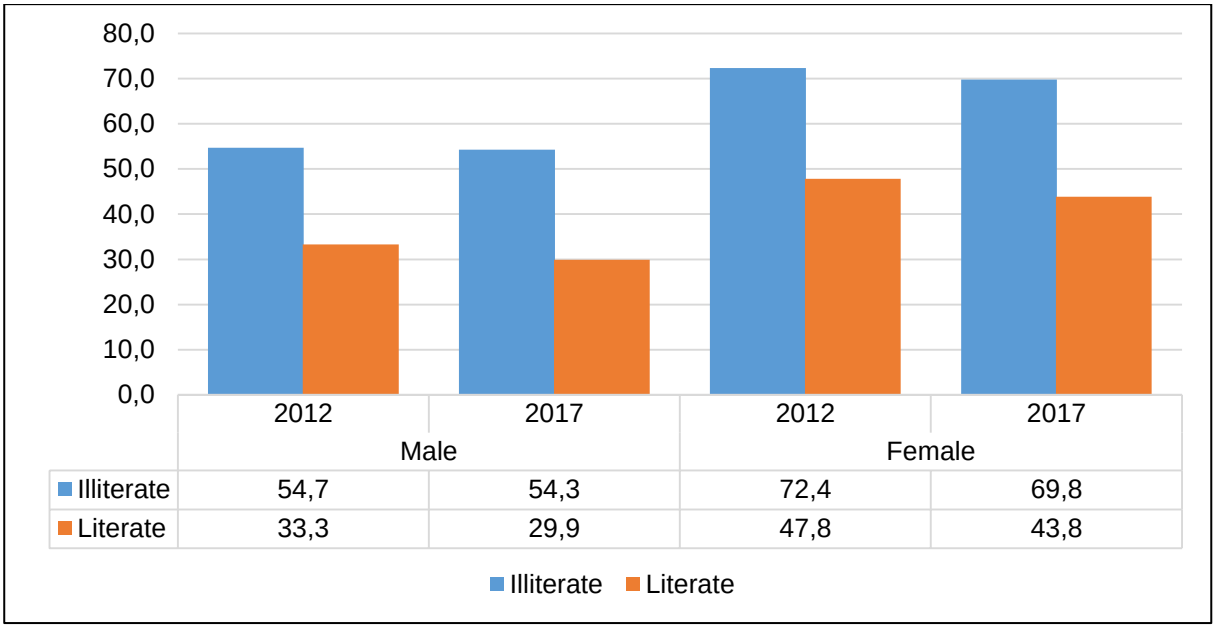


	2001		2017	
	Black African	Other	Black African	Other
Less than matric	91,5	62,1	77,4	50,9
Matric	7,9	29,3	19,8	34,8
Tertiary	0,7	8,6	2,7	14,3

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

As shown in Figure 2.46, female home-makers were more likely to have less than a matric qualification. However, in both 2001 and 2017, a higher percentage of black African females with less than matric were likely to be home-makers than females from other population groups (91,5% among black Africans compared to 62,1% for other population groups in 2001, and 77,4% for black Africans and 60,5% for other population groups in 2017). Also, the proportion of home-makers with matric or a tertiary education decreased between 2001 and 2017 for all population groups. These figures suggest that, as females become more educated, the more likely it will be for them to transition into the labour force market.

Figure 2.6: Economic inactivity rate by sex and literacy, 2012 and 2017



Source: GHS 2012 and 2017

Figure 2.47 shows that economic inactivity was higher among people who were illiterate than among those who were literate. Both years of reporting show that females who were illiterate showed higher rates of economic inactivity than their male counterparts. The gap between males and females in this category decreased from 15 percentage points in 2012 to 13,9 percentage points in 2017.

2.14 Discouraged work seekers

The analysis on discouraged work-seekers by gender is crucial in understanding disparities between males and females located in different provinces and geographical areas. As it is often reported, provinces that are predominantly rural tend to have high rates of females who have given up looking for work. Data in this section will also be examined to assess the effects of marital status, age and population group on male and female discouragement.

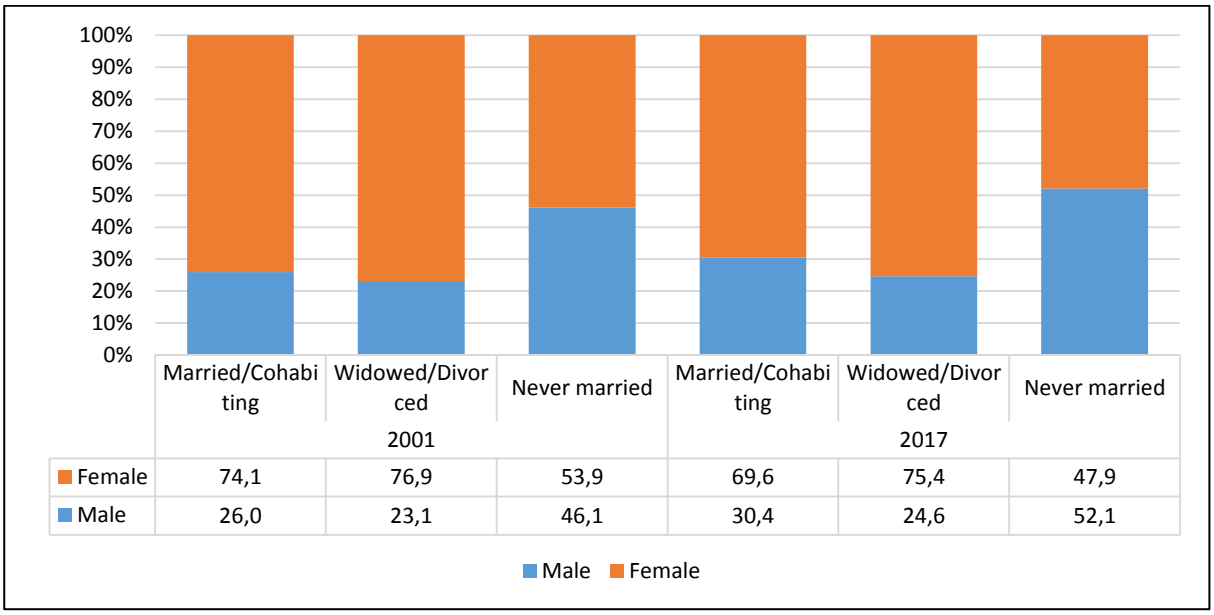
Table 2.18: Discouraged work-seekers by sex and province, 2001 and 2017

	2001		2017	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Western Cape	39,5	60,5	56,1	43,9
Eastern Cape	38,9	61,1	50,1	49,9
Northern Cape	31,6	68,4	41,4	58,6
Free State	37,7	62,3	43,5	56,5
KwaZulu-Natal	40,8	59,2	46,5	53,5
North West	38,2	61,8	44,0	56,0
Gauteng	37,0	63,0	48,7	51,3
Mpumalanga	37,2	62,8	39,5	60,5
Limpopo	35,8	64,2	43,9	56,1
RSA	**38,3**	**61,7**	**45,8**	**54,2**

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

According to Table 2.18, provincial percentages for discouraged work-seekers show that, in 2001, females were more likely to be discouraged than males across all provinces. However, in 2017, the gender gap between males and females was smaller within most provinces compared to 2001. In 2001, the average gender gap across provinces was 25,2%.This gap had narrowed to 10,8 % in 2017. The Mpumalanga province recorded the most marginal change of male and female discouraged work-seekers (2,3 percentage points) over the 16-year period. In 2017, the Eastern Cape and Western Cape provinces were the only provinces that recorded a higher percentage of male discouraged work-seekers as compared to females.

Figure 2.7: Discouraged work-seekers by sex and marital status, 2001 and 2017

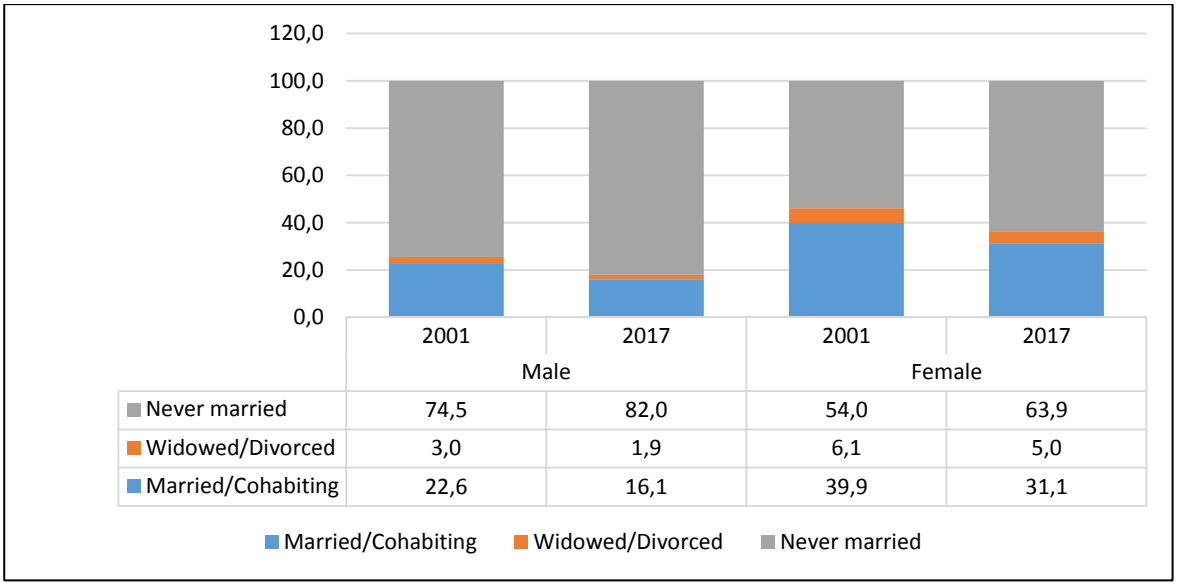


	Married/Cohabiting	Widowed/Divorced	Never married	Married/Cohabiting	Widowed/Divorced	Never married
	2001			2017		
Female	74,1	76,9	53,9	69,6	75,4	47,9
Male	26,0	23,1	46,1	30,4	24,6	52,1

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

Figure 2.48 looks at the distribution of males and females who reported to be discouraged in seeking work, within each marital status group for 2001 and 2017 respectively. The figure shows that in 2001, females accounted for a higher percentage of discouraged work seekers across all marital status categories. However, in 2017, males in the never been married category reported higher levels of discouragement than females. Moreover, of all the marital status categories, the never been married category had the smallest gender gap between males and females. In 2001, the difference in the proportion of males and females who had never been married was approximately seven percentage points. This decreased to around four percentage points in 2017. The gap between males and females for other marital status categories exceeded 20 percentage points, and this is true for both periods of reporting.

Figure 2.8: Discouraged work-seekers by sex and marital status, 2001 and 2017

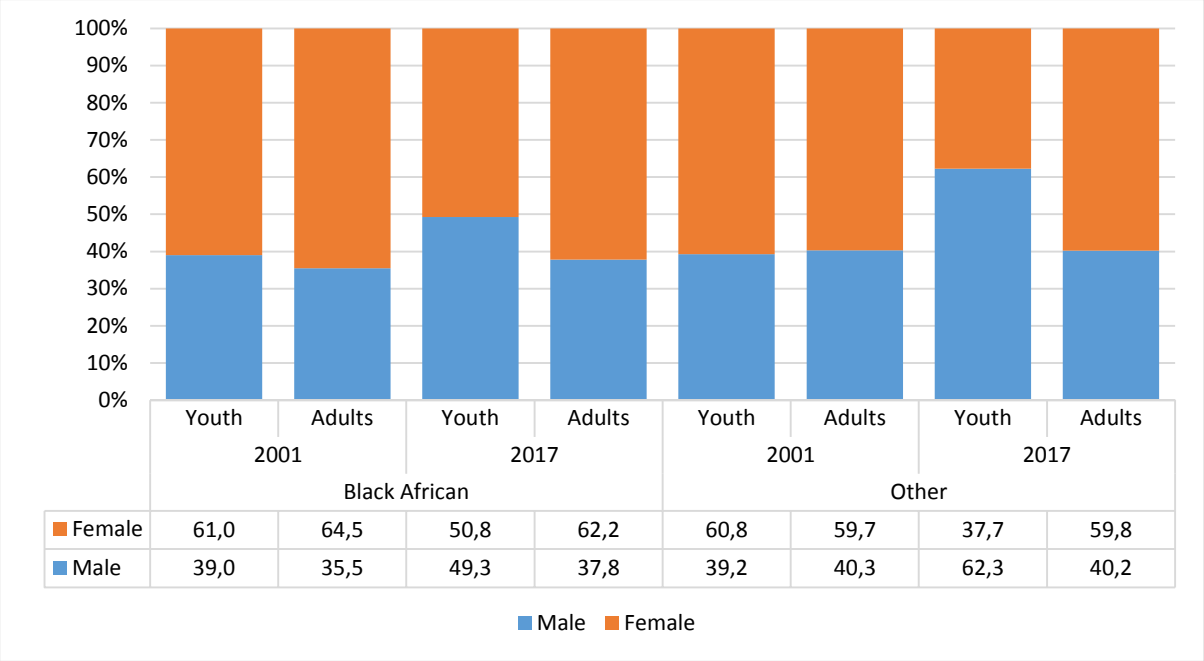


	Male		Female	
	2001	2017	2001	2017
Never married	74,5	82,0	54,0	63,9
Widowed/Divorced	3,0	1,9	6,1	5,0
Married/Cohabiting	22,6	16,1	39,9	31,1

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

Figure 2.49 on the other hand, shows marital status amongst discouraged males and females during 2001 and 2017. The figure shows that over the 16-year period, the percentage of discouraged work-seekers was higher for males who had never been married (74,5% in 2001 and 82,0% in 2017) than for females (54,0% in 2001 and 63,9% in 2017). Since 2001, discouragement was lowest among both males and females who were widowed or divorced (though the percentage reported among females was approximately twice the percentage reported among males). Figure 2.49 also depicts that the proportion of discouraged work-seekers declined among both males and females who were widowed/divorced as well as those that were married/cohabiting. Between 2001 and 2017, the percentage decline among females who were married/cohabiting was 8,8 percentage points while it dropped for males by 6,5 percentage points.

Figure 2.9: Discouraged work-seekers by sex, age and population group, 2001 and 2017



	Black African				Other			
	Youth	Adults	Youth	Adults	Youth	Adults	Youth	Adults
	2001		2017		2001		2017	
Female	61,0	64,5	50,8	62,2	60,8	59,7	37,7	59,8
Male	39,0	35,5	49,3	37,8	39,2	40,3	62,3	40,2

Source: LFS March 2001 and QLFS Q1.2017

Figure 2.50 shows that in 2001, both youth and adult females were more likely to be discouraged. The results also show that a higher percentage of non-black African adult males reported being discouraged than their adult black African counterparts. For both years of reporting, adult black Africans experienced the highest gender gap, with the percentage difference among discouraged, black African, adult females being 29 and 24 percentage points higher than that of their male counterparts in 2001 and 2017 respectively. A higher proportion of male discouraged work seekers than females was found in 2017 for non-black African youth.

2.15 Conclusion

Limited growth in the population of economically active individuals can negatively affect long-term economic growth, unless there are increases in labour force participation rates. Analyses in this chapter indicated that, although the size of the South African workforce increased, the participation rates of both males and females decreased between 2001 and 2017. Despite the number of females in the workforce still exceeding that of males, males continue to participate in the labour market at a higher rate than their female counterparts. The gap between male and female participation rates also remained relatively stable over the past 16 years, 12,4 percentage point difference in 2001 and 12,1 percentage points in 2017.

The analyses also showed that females are not a homogeneous group and that their participation in the labour market is influenced by various socio-demographic factors that affect individuals differently. For example, although labour force participation rates of males were found to be higher than those of females for all age groups, regardless of geographic and reference year, there were some variations in trends when examining other variables. Females who were most likely to be participating in labour activities in 2017, lived in urban areas and their participation rates were highest in the age groups 35–44 (80,2%), 25–34 (76,3%) and 45–54 (71,8%).

Similarly, when participation rates were analysed by the presence of minor children in the household, females without minor children reported higher participation rates than females with minor children. However, when it comes to rural areas, the situation looked significantly different. Rural females were less likely to participate than males in 2001 regardless of the presence or absence of children in their household. In terms of the influence of marital status, the second highest participation rate among females during 2001 was within the widowed/divorced category at 64,8%. The widowed/divorced category also had the second highest participation rate among males in that year at 72%. However, in 2017, persons in the widowed/divorced category had the lowest participation rate for both males and females, only being exceeded by that of the never been married category.

Levels of employment increased by 3,7 million during the period of analyses with males reporting the highest increase of about 2,3 million. The analyses in this section also showed that having a higher level of education mattered in reducing gender disparities in the employment of both males and females. For example, even though males were more likely to be employed, fewer gender disparities existed between the employment rates of males and females with higher levels of education.

Decreasing the levels of unemployment is particularly important because of its direct impact on the reduction of poverty. Unemployment affects men and women equally. However, the rate of unemployment tends to be higher for women than for men. Overall unemployment rates for males and females grew by 3,1 percentage points between 2001 and 2017 from 24,6% in 2001 to 27,7% in 2017. Females aged 15–24 years were most likely to be unemployed with an unemployment rate of 58,4% in 2017. The largest increase was observed between 2001 and 2017 (8,0 percentage points). However, this percentage increase was equivalent to the increase observed by females aged 35–44 years (unemployment rate grew from 15,8% in 2001 to 23,8% in 2017)

The curvilinear relationship between education and unemployment was even more pronounced in 2017 than in 2001. This was true, regardless of the population group. Black African females without Grade 12/Matric experienced the highest increase of 9,9 percentage points. Even though unemployment rates increased between 2001 and 2017, the graduate unemployment rate declined by 0,4 percentage points. This decrease was mainly driven by negligible decreases which occurred in both male and female graduate unemployment rate (males dropped from 6,3% in 2001 to 5,6% in 2017 and females dropped from 9,6% in 2001 to 9,2% in 2017).

Provincial variations showed that between 2001 and 2017, gender gaps changed significantly. Eastern Cape was the only province in which the gender parity ratio remained below one over the 16-year period of reporting. In 2017, the gender gaps for Limpopo widened (GPR: 164), meaning that the unemployment rate among females was about 64% higher than that of their male counterparts. Unemployment rates among the never married persons declined between 2001 and 2017, although they remained relatively high when compared to other categories of marital status (down from 40,0% in 2001 to 38,6% in 2017). However, widows were less likely to be unemployed during the same period. The presence of minor children in the household also influenced the unemployment rate of males and females. While both males and females with minor children were more likely to be unemployed, the gender parity ratio for unemployed males and females who had minor children remained unchanged at 1,38 over the 16-year reporting period.

Analysis of the duration of unemployment revealed that females were more likely to be in long-term unemployment (up from 64,9% in 2001 to 69,2% in 2017) while males were more likely only to be subjected to short-term unemployment. Examination of gender differences on means of survival, showed that high percentages of both unemployed males and females relied on remittances to survive. A notable shift occurred among males who were surviving by money previously saved as a significant number of them transitioned from this form of survival to remittances (up by 1,7 percentage points from 2001 whereas money previously saved dropped by 2,0 percentage points). There was a decline in the percentage of females who relied on remittances to survive (from 97,6% in 2001 to 93,4% in 2017). Furthermore, the percentage of those who survived by using money previously saved, also declined by 1,2 percentage points. The decline in the two means of survival resulted in an increased dependency on social grants by females in 2017 (from 0,4% in 2001 to 5,9% in 2017).

Examining the effects of age, education and marital status on economic inactivity enhances our understanding of a number of issues in relation to the differences between employment rates and labour absorption rates. The economic inactivity rate was generally higher amongst females than among their male counterparts. Among this group, the highest rates were observed for those that were younger (aged 15–24), and those who have never been married, and were still at school.

In terms of children, the presence of a minor child over the 16-year reporting period, affected rural and urban settings differently. The presence of a minor child affects the economic inactivity rates of both sexes. The effect was negligible in urban areas, but significant in rural areas for both males and females. For urban settings, the 2001 rates for males differed by one percentage point between those who lived with minor children and those who did not, and for females the difference was two percentage points. In both years, the main reason for inactivity was to being a student; discouragement was the second reason provided by males, whereas for females it was being a home-maker.

CHAPTER 3: RESOURCE EQUITY

3.1 Introduction

Women's ownership of, and control over resources is increasingly seen as a key element of women's empowerment. Indicators of men's and women's asset ownership and control are important measures used for the monitoring of gender equality. The literature also shows that gender equality is achieved when people are able to access and enjoy the same rewards, resources and opportunities regardless of whether they are male or female (UN, 2013[18]). This chapter accordingly examines the distribution of males and females in accessing various resources. The resources discussed in this chapter include poverty alleviation grants, access to communication and property ownership.

3.2 Poverty alleviation

Figure 3.1: Percentage distribution of social grant recipients in relation to the total population by sex and province, 2009

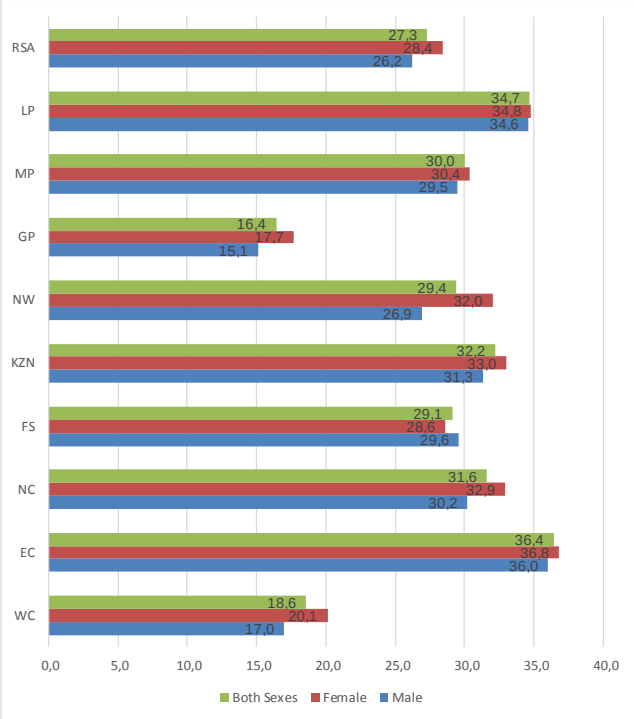
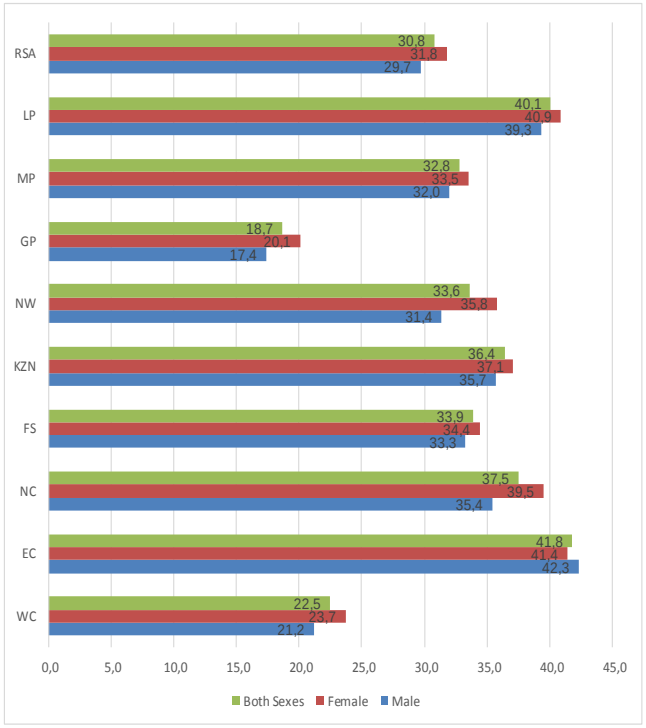


Figure 3.2: Percentage distribution of social grant recipients in relation to the total population by sex and province, 2017



Source: GHS: 2009, 2017

Figures 3.1 and 3.2 show how the recipients of social grants are distributed among the nine provinces in relation to the total population. Between 2009 and 2017, an increase of 3,5 percentage points was recorded for males and females who received social grants in South Africa. For both periods, individuals living in Eastern Cape (36,4% and 41,8% in 2009 and 2017 respectively) were the most likely to receive grants. They are followed by Limpopo (34,7% and 40,1% in 2009 and 2017 respectively).

[18] United Nations. 2013. A new global partnership: Eradicate poverty and transform economies through sustainable development. The Report of the High-Level Panel of Eminent Persons on the Post-2015 Development Agenda. http://www.post2015hlp.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/HLP-Report_English-Access-PDF.pdf

Provincial distributions show that the largest male percentage increase over the reference period was reported in Eastern Cape (6,3 percentage points), whilst the lowest increase was reported in Gauteng (2,3 percentage points). Similarly, over the same period Northern Cape witnessed the highest percentage point increase (6,6), while the lowest was reported in Gauteng (2,4 percentage points). The figures also show that females were more likely to be grant recipients than males in all the provinces for both periods, except for Free State in 2009 and Eastern Cape in 2017.

Table 3.1: Type of social grants by sex and number of recipients, 2009 and 2017

Type of grant	2009						2017					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	N('000)	%	N('000)	%	N('000)	%	N('000)	%	N('000)	%	N('000)	%
Child support grant	4 591	50,0	4 586	50,0	**9 177**	**100,0**	6 463	49,6	6 561	50,4	**13 024**	**100,0**
Old age grant	1 023	35,8	1 834	64,2	**2 858**	**100,0**	1 098	35,1	2 030	64,9	**3 128**	**100,0**
Disability grant	672	47,7	736	52,3	**1 408**	**100,0**	511	51,5	481	48,5	**992**	**100,0**
Care dependency grant	126	51,8	117	48,2	**243**	**100,0**	23	49,3	24	50,7	**47**	**100,0**
Foster care grant	325	47,7	356	52,3	**681**	**100,0**	148	51,1	142	48,9	**289**	**100,0**

Source: GHS: 2009, 2017

The distribution of the different types of social grants among males and females is shown in Table 3.1 for both 2009 and 2017. Table 3.1 indicates that there was an increase in the number of grant recipients during this period. The table further shows that child support grant recipients increased from 9 million in 2009 to 13 million in 2017. During the same period, old-age grant receipts grew by two hundred and seventy thousand recipients. There seems to be a decline in the number of disability, care dependency and foster care grants recipients between the two periods, however, this needs to be treated cautiously as sample surveys either tend to under- or over-estimate these grants due to these being statistically rare events that cannot be picked up reliably with the current sample sizes in use by Stats SA.

The most accessed social grant in the country was the child support grant, while the care dependency grant was the least accessed. The old-age grant had the highest gender inequality, because in both years there were more female old-age grant recipients than male recipients. This can be attributed to the higher longevity of females when compared to males. A slightly higher percentage of females than males received child support and care dependency grants. The opposite was true for disability and foster care grants during 2017.

3.3 Dwelling ownership

For most individuals and households, the ownership of a dwelling is the most valuable asset in their asset inventories. Historically, because of social and cultural practices, ownership of this valuable resource was primarily vested in males across all population groups. However, this section will show that significant shifts have taken place in this regard since 2002.

Table 3.2: Dwelling ownership by type of dwelling, sex of the household head, RSA, 2002 and 2017

	2002			2017			Gender parity	
	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	2002	2017
Type of dwelling	**Thousand**							
Formal dwelling	3 294	2 359	5 653	4 320	3 726	8 046	0,72	0,86
Informal dwelling	589	360	949	476	282	758	0,61	0,59
Traditional dwelling	462	632	1 093	264	413	677	1,37	1,57
Other	12	7	19	9	4	14	0,55	0,49
Total	**4 357**	**3 357**	**7 715**	**5 069**	**4 425**	**9 494**	**0,77**	**0,87**
Type of dwelling	**Percentage**							
Formal dwelling	58,3	41,7	100,0	53,7	46,3	100,0		
Informal dwelling	62,1	37,9	100,0	62,8	37,2	100,0		
Traditional dwelling	42,2	57,8	100,0	39,0	61,0	100,0		
Other	64,7	35,3	100,0	67,1	32,9	100,0		
Total	**56,5**	**35,3**	**100,0**	**53,4**	**46,6**	**100,0**		

Source: GHS: 2002, 2017

In 2017, 53,4% of households headed by males owned their dwellings, compared to 46,6% of female headed households. Table 3.2 also shows that the smallest gender gap in household dwelling ownership was observed among those owning formal dwellings (GPI=0,86). In addition, households headed by females owning traditional dwellings exceeded that of their male counterparts (GPI=1,57). This may be the result of a high number of females acting as household heads in the absence of partners who are migrant labourers as well as changes in family structures.

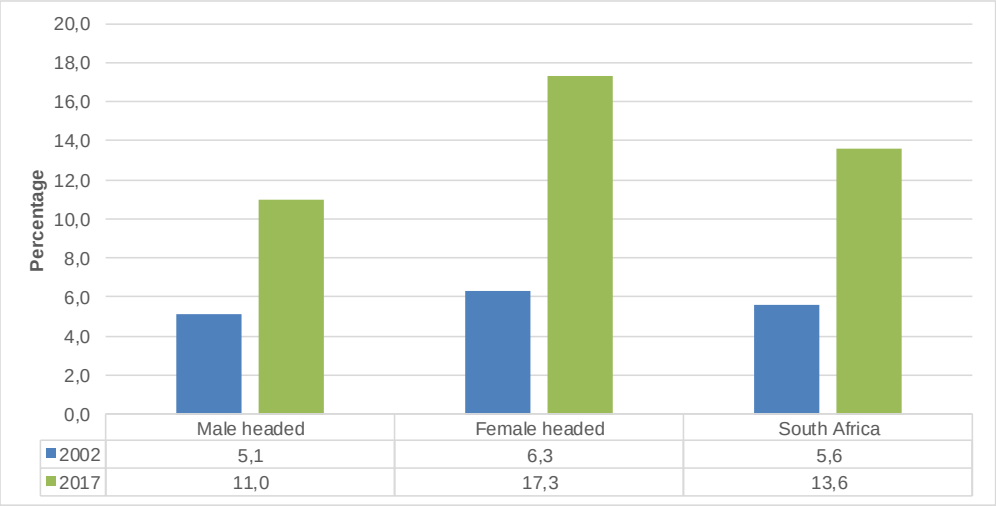
Table 3. 3: Formal dwelling ownership by province and sex of the head of the household, 2002 and 2017

	Male		Female		Female % change
Province	**2002**	**2017**	**2002**	**2017**	
WC	73,2	63,2	26,8	36,8	10,0
EC	52,0	48,3	48,0	51,7	3,7
NC	63,3	48,9	36,7	51,1	14,4
FS	60,5	51,0	39,5	49,0	9,5
KZN	56,7	50,3	43,3	49,7	6,5
NW	51,7	54,5	48,3	45,5	-2,8
GP	67,1	60,0	32,9	40,0	7,1
MP	53,1	53,8	46,9	46,2	-0,7
LP	43,9	43,8	56,1	56,2	0,1
RSA	**58,3**	**53,7**	**41,7**	**46,3**	**4,6**

Source: GHS: 2002, 2017

Table 3.3 displays formal dwelling ownership by sex of the head of the household. The table indicates that there has been an improvement of 4,6 percentage points in the number of female-headed households that owned formal dwellings between 2002 and 2017. The largest percentage increase in number of households headed by females owning formal dwellings was found in Northern Cape (14,4 percentage points), Western Cape (10 percentage points), Free State (9,5 percentage points) and Gauteng (7,5 percentage points). Notable declines in the percentage of female heads owning formal dwellings were observed in North West (-2,8 percentage points) and Mpumalanga (-0,7 percentage points). Although the percentage of households headed by females in Limpopo that own formal dwellings remained stable at 56%, this is still the highest ownership ratio in the country. Improvements in formal dwelling ownership for female-headed households may be linked with the government housing subsidy for this group, as well as large scale improvements in housing that are invested in the province by civil servants, who are originally from the province, but working in Gauteng.

Figure 3.3: Percentage of households that received housing subsidy by sex of the household head, 2002 and 2017



Source: GHS: 2002, 2017

Figure 3.3 shows that the percentage of households that received some form of government housing subsidy increased from 5,6% in 2002 to 13,6% in 2017. A slightly higher percentage of female-headed households (17,3%) than male-headed households (11,0%) received subsidies. This is in line with government policies that give preference to households headed by individuals from vulnerable groups, including females, and individuals with disabilities.

Table 3.4: Percentage of households that benefited from government housing subsidy by province and sex of the household head, 2002 and 2017

Province	Male		Female		Female % change
	2002	2017	2002	2017	
WC	67,4	49,9	32,6	50,1	17,5
EC	51,6	44,4	48,4	55,6	7,2
NC	54,6	44,8	45,4	55,2	9,8
FS	53,4	44,2	46,6	55,8	9,2
KZN	42,7	40,2	57,3	59,9	2,6
NW	57,7	48,0	42,3	52,0	9,7
GP	62,5	52,6	37,5	47,4	9,9
MP	48,7	49,2	51,4	50,9	-0,5
LP	44,6	45,4	55,4	54,6	-0,8
RSA	**54,6**	**47,1**	**45,4**	**52,9**	**7,4**

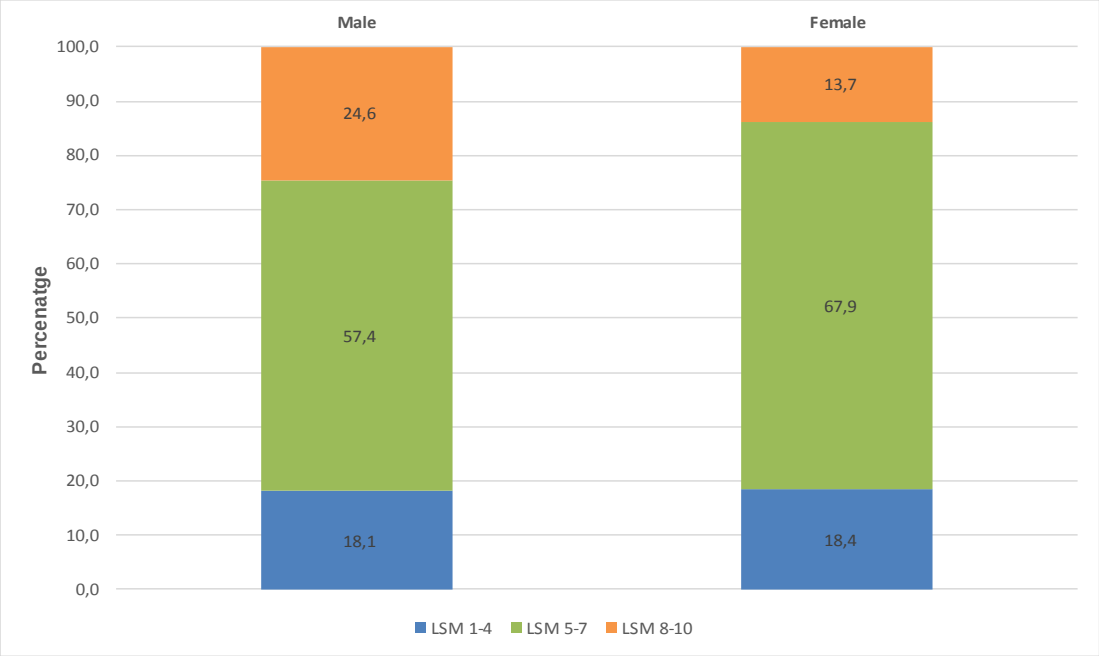
Source: GHS: 2002, 2017

Findings of Table 3.4 reaffirm the findings of Table 3.3 that growth in the percentage of female headed households that own formal dwellings might be the result of female heads being the main beneficiaries of government housing subsidies. The provincial movements in this table are in line with the findings of Table 3.3 as female heads in Western Cape, who were housing subsidy recipients, increased by 17,5 percentage points, followed by female household heads in Gauteng and Northern Cape (9,9 and 9,8 percentage points respectively).

3.4 Household goods ownership

In 2017, households were asked to indicate ownership of a number of household items during data collection of the General Household Survey (GHS). The ownership of assets was then categorised into three Living Standard Measures (LSMs). Although the South African Advertising Research Foundation's (SAARF) Universal LSM (SU-LSM) is a market segmentation tool that assists businesses to direct their marketing activities, the tool is useful to divide a large population into smaller, relatively homogeneous groups according to their living standards rather than their income. The LSM is therefore a wealth measure using criteria such as degree of urbanisation and ownership of certain assets to create a ten-point scale (LSM-groups 1-10). LSM-group 1 refers to households with the lowest socio-economic status, whereas LSM-group 10 refers to those of highest status. For the purpose of this report, the study divides the 10 LSMs into three categories, namely: Low (LSM 1–4), Intermediate (LSM 5–7) and High (LSM 8–10).

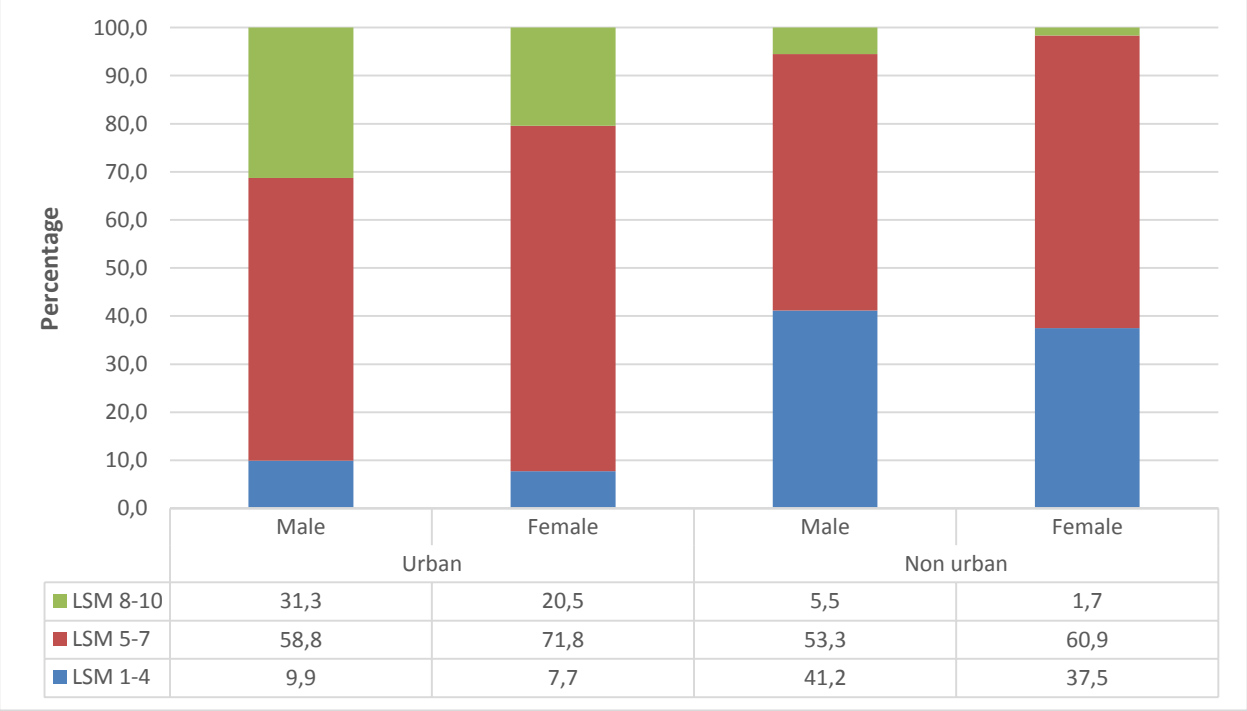
Figure 3.4: Household heads distribution by living standard measure index, 2017



Source: GHS 2017

Figure 3.4 shows the distribution of household heads by living standard measure index. The figure indicates that the economic status of a quarter of households headed by males was regarded as high, compared to slightly more than a tenth of households headed by females. The economic status of over two-thirds of households headed by females was regarded as intermediate and the comparable figure for male-headed households was 57,4%. Males and females were evenly distributed across the lowest LSM bands (1–4).

Figure 3.5: Living standards measure by sex of household head and geo-type, 2017



	Urban		Non urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
LSM 8-10	31,3	20,5	5,5	1,7
LSM 5-7	58,8	71,8	53,3	60,9
LSM 1-4	9,9	7,7	41,2	37,5

Source: GHS 2017

Figure 3.5 shows the distribution of the sex of the household head by geotype and living standard measure index. The figure indicates that the socio economic status of nearly a third of households headed by males residing in urban areas was considered high, compared to a fifth of household headed by females. It is worth noting that the economic status of the majority of households living in urban areas was classified as intermediate with a higher percentage of female-headed households in this category. Households headed by males living in non-urban areas were less likely to be classified as poor than their female counterparts. Ownership and control over assets provides multiple benefits to individuals and households, including a secure place to live and can be used as collateral when investing in other assets. To allow a gender analysis of goods and assets, data need to be collected at the individual level rather than only at the household level, as such data is important; while it may not be feasible to ask individual ownership questions about all household goods they are sometimes assumed to be owned collectively by household members.[19]

3.5 Asset ownership

Increasing women's financial inclusion by means of owning assets is particularly important as women disproportionately experience poverty, stemming from unequal divisions of labour and a lack of control over economic resources. Asset ownership can be considered as an empowerment tool as it provides collateral to access credit, sustain livelihoods, generate income, and assist with poverty alleviation.[20] Gender inequality in access to financial assets is substantial and associated with discriminatory inheritance practices and gender-biased access to resources.[21] To develop policies to promote the accumulation of assets, it is critical to understand how assets are acquired and whether acquisition patterns differ for males and females.

Table 3.5: Distribution for individuals aged 15 and older who exclusively/ jointly own financial assets by sex, 2016 and 2017

	2016							2017						
	Male		Female		Both sexes		Total	Male		Female		Both sexes		Total
Financial assets	No	Yes	No	Yes	Male Total	Female Total		No	Yes	No	Yes	Male Total	Female Total	
Bank Account	6666	12085	7641	12449	18751	**20090**	**38841**	6960	12096	7970	12406	**19056**	**20376**	**39432**
Informal savings	16904	1800	16702	3361	18704	**20064**	**38768**	17471	1601	17074	3336	**19072**	**20409**	**39481**
Investment savings	12210	6440	14020	5997	18650	**20017**	**38667**	12591	6436	14285	6096	**19027**	**20382**	**39409**
Any type of land	17341	1413	18607	1478	18754	**20085**	**38838**	17908	1227	19171	1289	**19135**	**20460**	**39595**
Pension	14470	4175	16609	3415	18644	**20024**	**38668**	14551	4438	16824	3529	**18989**	**20352**	**39342**
Other residential property	16656	2080	17930	2137	18736	**20067**	**38802**	17229	1887	18518	1916	**19116**	**20435**	**39551**
Current dwelling	13091	5676	13252	6845	18766	**20097**	**38864**	13313	5828	13266	7207	**19142**	**20473**	**39615**
Percentage														
Bank Account	35,5	64,5	38,0	62,0				36,5	63,5	39,1	60,9			
Informal savings	90,4	9,6	83,2	16,8				91,6	8,4	83,7	16,3			
Investment savings	65,5	34,5	70,0	30,0				66,2	33,8	70,1	29,9			
Any type of land	92,5	7,5	92,6	7,4				93,6	6,4	93,7	6,3			
Pension	77,6	22,4	82,9	17,1				76,6	23,4	82,7	17,3			
Other residential property	88,9	11,1	89,4	10,6				90,1	9,9	90,6	9,4			
Current dwelling	69,8	30,2	65,9	34,1				69,6	30,4	64,8	35,2			

Source: GHS 2016 and 2017 * Male and female totals do not add to the population total because of joint ownership being included.

[19] World Bank, 2008. Gender and asset ownership. http://siteresources.worldbank.org

[20] Kyle Holloway, Zahra Niazi, Rebecca Rouse, 2017. Women's Economic Empowerment Through Financial Inclusion: A Review of Existing Evidence and Remaining Knowledge Gaps. www.poverty-action.org

[21] United Nations,2009. Women's Control over Economic Resources and Access to Financial Resources, including Microfinance. http://www.un.org

Since 2016 the GHS has included a question on individual asset ownership. Even though this question is still answered by a proxy respondent on behalf of everyone in the household, it gives a better indication of the position of women than the measurement of household asset ownership against the sex of the household head. Table 3.5 summarises the distribution of asset ownership by sex and type of financial asset for individuals aged 15 years and older as reported in the GHS. Men were more likely than women to have bank accounts, own investment accounts and have pensions, while women were more likely to engage in informal savings and own dwellings. More than two-thirds of men and women own a bank account exclusively or jointly with someone else for both years of reporting, while only nearly a third own an investment account. One of the barriers to access and use of an investment savings account might be the costs associated with opening and maintaining such accounts. An even distribution was observed among males and females for those who own any type of land.

The proportion of females who reported to own the dwelling in which they were interviewed, increased slightly from 34,1% to 35,2% in 2017. Some progress has been made with regards to legislative and policy reform that gives women preference to own dwellings, but implementation may be hindered by sociocultural norms and women's lack of knowledge of their privileges.

Figure 3.6: Percentage share of males and females aged 15 and older who exclusively/ jointly own financial assets, 2016

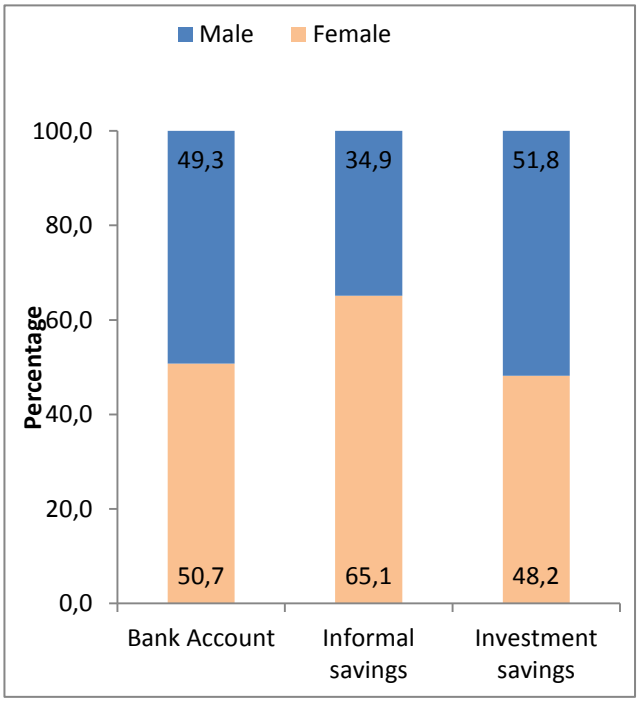
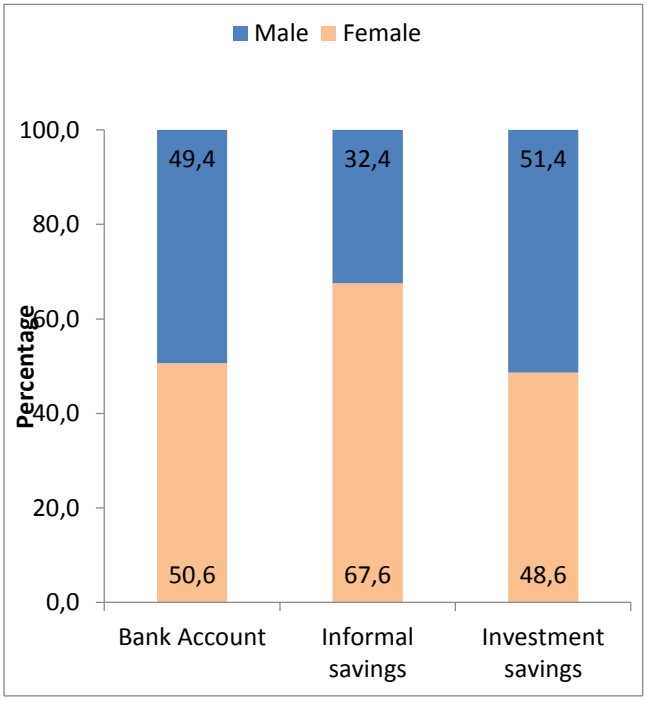


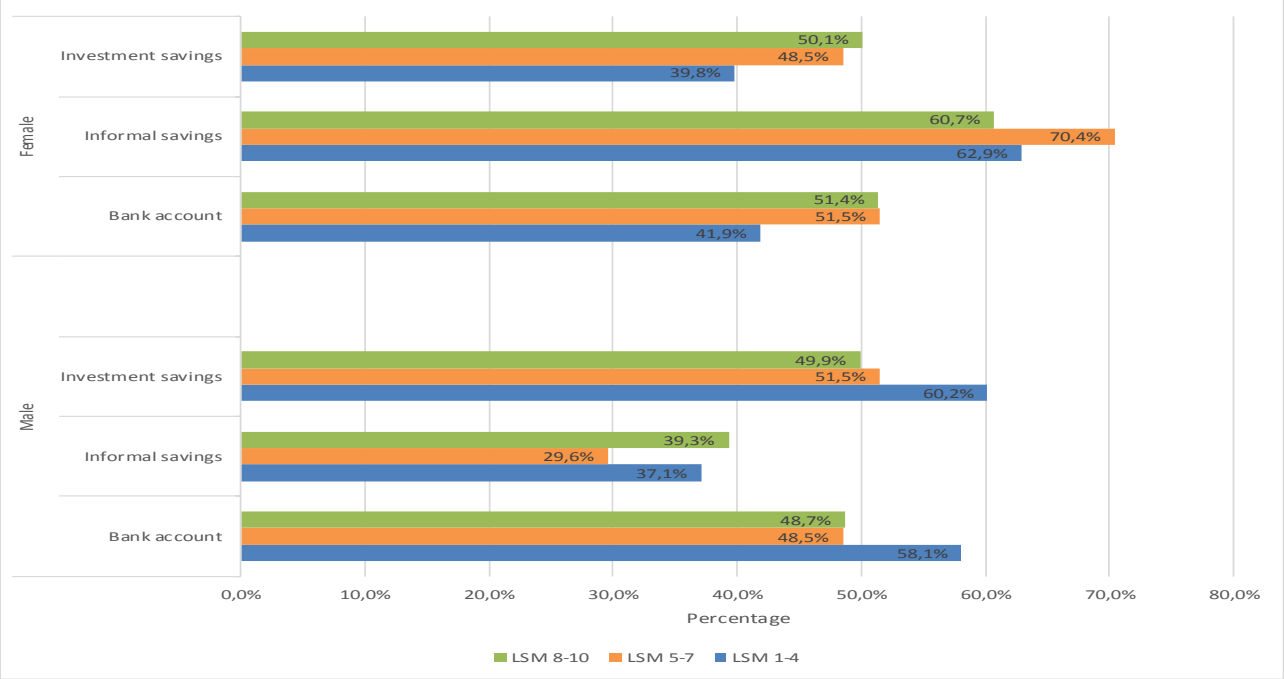
Figure 3.7: Percentage share of males and females aged 15 and older who exclusively/ jointly own financial assets, 2017



Source: GHS 2016 and 2017

Figures 3.6 and 3.7 illustrate the percentage distribution of males and females among those who exclusively or jointly owned financial assets between 2016 and 2017. A nearly equal spread was observed in the gender distribution of bank account ownership and investments in savings for both years of reporting. Two-thirds of all investors in informal savings (e.g. stokvels) were female 65,1% and 67,6% in 2016 and 2017 respectively.

Figure 3.8: Percentage share of males and females aged 15 and older who exclusively/ jointly own financial assets by living standard measure index, 2017



Source: GHS 2017

Figure 3.8 depicts the percentage of males and females aged 15 years and older who exclusively or jointly own financial assets by living standard measure index. The figure displays that females across all the living standard measures were most likely to own informal savings than males. There seems to be no gender divide in terms of ownership of a bank account and an investment saving, however, a slightly higher percentage of males in LSM 8–10 owned these assets than females.

3.6 Conclusion

Women's ownership of, and control over resources is increasingly seen as a key element of women's empowerment. According to the United Nations (UN), gender equality is achieved when people are able to access and enjoy the same rewards, resources and opportunities regardless of whether they are male or female. This chapter accordingly investigated gender equity with regards to various resources such as access to government poverty alleviation grants, property and household goods ownership.

The government alleviates poverty by providing social security in the form of grants. Between 2009 and 2017 females were more likely than males to receive grants. Since the introduction of the child support grant it has shown a steady increase of its recipients from approximately 9 million in 2009 to 13 million in 2017.

In terms of gender parity in dwelling ownership, there has been an improvement of 4,6 percentage points in the number of female-headed households that owned formal dwellings between 2002 and 2017. The largest percentage increase in number of households headed by females owning formal dwellings was observed in Northern Cape, Western Cape, Free State and Gauteng, whilst marginal declines were reported in North West and Mpumalanga. The percentage of households that received a housing subsidy more than doubled between 2002 and 2017, with a slightly higher percentage of female-headed households than male-headed household receiving government-housing subsidies. This was found to be in line with government policies that give preference to households headed by individuals from vulnerable groups, including females, and individuals with disabilities.

The South African Advertising Research Foundation's (SAARF) Universal LSM (SU-LSM) market segmentation tool is useful to divide a large population into smaller, relatively homogeneous groups according to their living standards rather than their income. The tool indicated that, the economic status of a quarter of households headed by males 'was regarded as having high socio economic status compared to slightly over a third of households headed by females. The economic status of over two-thirds of households headed by females was regarded as intermediate and the comparable figure for male-headed households was 57,4%. According to this tool the socio economic status of nearly a third of households headed by males residing in urban areas was considered high, compared to a fifth of households headed by females. It is worth nothing that the economic status of many households living in urban areas was classified as intermediate with a higher percentage of female-headed households in this category. Although there was no significant gender differences between households headed by males and females in non-urban areas, a larger percentage of households in non-urban than in urban areas had an economic status that was classified as poor.

Findings on ownership of financial assets found that there was a fair distribution of males and females who owned bank accounts. However, females were twice more likely to invest in informal savings (e.g. stokvels) than their male counterparts 65,1% and 67,6% in 2016 and 2017 respectively.

CHAPTER 4: GOVERNANCE START

4.1 Introduction

Good governance allows democratic reform, promotes transparency, and fosters an efficient environment for achieving policy objectives (Arndt & Oman, 2006). Although women's economic empowerment improved with the implementation of gender-sensitive policies, governance still lags behind in other dimensions. With increasing awareness of the political importance of gender-sensitive economic development and policy reform, decision-makers are starting to pay attention to the roles women play in governance.

4.2 Representation in decision making positions

Women's participation in decision-making processes is critical when assessing women's economic empowerment, gender equity and other developmental goals (IDEA 2005[22]). Achieving gender equity in positions of decision-making, both in government and in the private sector is crucial to providing women with responsibilities for planning, making decisions, recommending policies, and coordinating empowerment efforts. Research shows that this allocation of power and responsibility has been useful in initiating adjustments to laws and national plans to include gender equity (Al Maaitah et al., 2011[23]).

South Africa has three spheres of government comprising of the national government, provincial government and local government. These spheres are autonomous, but at the same time operate according to the Constitution and laws and policies made by national Parliament. The findings of this chapter on gender equity in decision making positions in Government shows that there has been an improvement in increasing gender equity in decision making positions.

[22] IDEA (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance). 2005. *Women in parliament: Beyond numbers*. Stockholm, Sweden: IDEA. http://www.idea.int/publications/wip2/.

[23] Al Maaitah, Hadeel A., Hmoud O. and Muntaha G. 2011. Arab women and political participation, *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 12,7-26

Table 4.1: Decision-making in political executive positions in South Africa by sex, 1994–2017

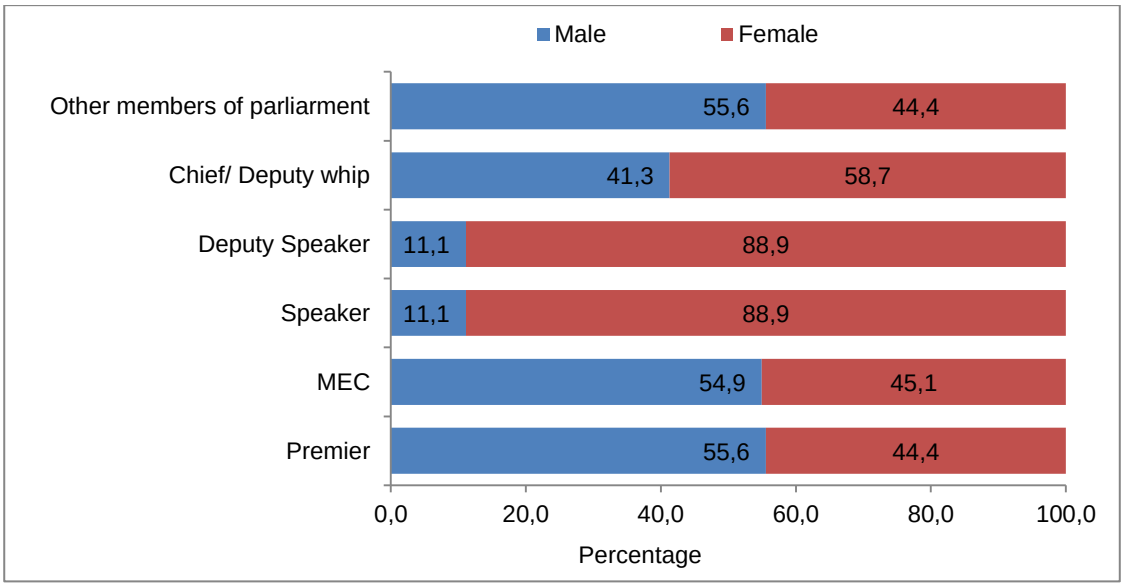
Position type	1994		1999		2004		2009		2014		2017	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Numbers												
Minister	26	2	18	9	17	11	16	14	20	15	18	17
Deputy Minister	10	8	-	-	13	7	19	14	19	18	20	16
Number of Parliamentarians	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	238	162	233	167
Percentages												
Minister	92,9	7,1	66,7	33,3	60,7	39,3	53,3	46,7	57,1	42,9	51,4	48,5
Deputy Minister	55,6	44,4	-	-	65,0	35,0	57,6	42,4	51,4	48,6	55,5	44,5
Number of Parliamentarians	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	59,5	40,5	58,3	41,7

Sources: Cabinet South Africa, Department of communications, Parliament 1994-2017

The Cabinet consists of the President, as head, the Deputy President and ministers and its role is to lead government policy and make decisions pertaining to the country. Between 1994 and 2009, South Africa saw a steady increase in the number of female ministers (from 7,1% in 1994 to 46,7% in 2009). In 2014, the percentage of female ministers declined by almost 4 percentage points reaching 42,9%. However, even though 2017 was not an election year, the recent composition show improvements recording the highest proportion of female minsters in cabinet (48,5%).

In terms of deputy ministerial positions, Table 4.1 shows that although the number of deputy ministers increased over the 23-year period, the percentage share of females in deputy ministerial positions remained relatively stable between 1994 and 2017 (44,4% and 44,5% respectively). Even though the figures depicted in Table 4.1 show a general picture of fewer females involved in the development of policies in the country, and that gender equality has not been completely achieved, the table also demonstrates significant progression towards reaching gender equity in political representation at least at national level.

Figure 4.1: Composition of provincial legislatures positions by sex, 2018

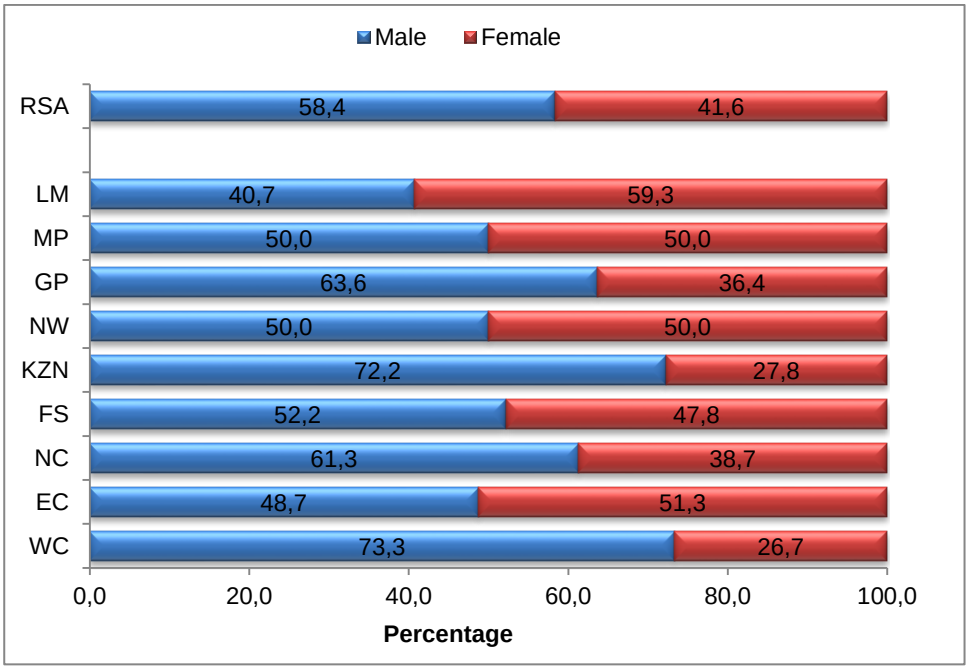


Sources: Provincial legislatures, 2018

After the initial democratic elections in 1994, all premiers in the country were males, the situation improved considerably in 2018 when 44,4% of the premiers heading provinces in South Africa were female. In 2018, the gender parities among Premiers and Members of the Executive Committee (MEC) were 0,79 and 0,82 respectively. This indicates progression towards achieving gender equity in these positions.

Approximately a tenth of males were appointed as speakers or deputy speakers of provincial legislatures.

Figure 4.2: Executive mayors and mayoral positions by sex and province, 2017



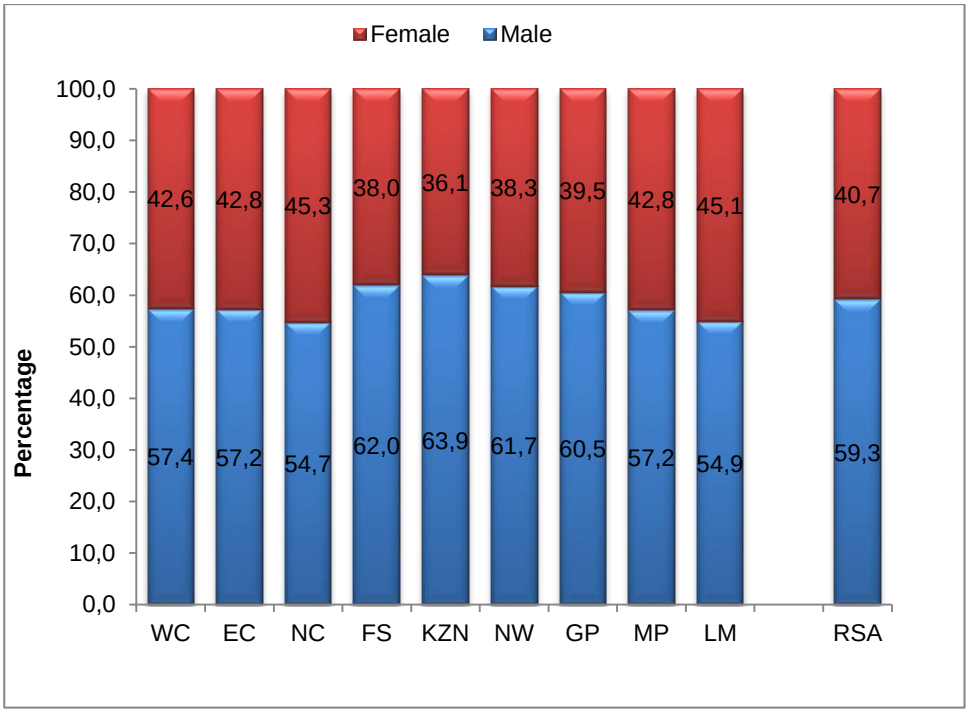
Source: Non-financial census of municipalities, 2017

Local government is the sphere of government closest to the people. Many basic services are delivered by local municipalities and mayors and local ward councillors are the politicians responsible at a local level.

Figure 4.2 shows the provincial distribution of mayoral positions in municipalities across the country in 2017. Nationally, males were more likely to hold mayoral positions than females (58,4% vs 41,6%).

Provinces varied in the appointment of mayors and wide gender gaps were observed in provinces such as Limpopo (GPR 0,36), KwaZulu-Natal (GPR 0,38) and Gauteng (0,57). With gender parity of one (1), the appointment of mayors was equally distributed in Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga and North West.

Figure 4.3: Full-time and part-time municipal councillors by sex and province, 2017



Source: Non-financial census of municipalities, 2017

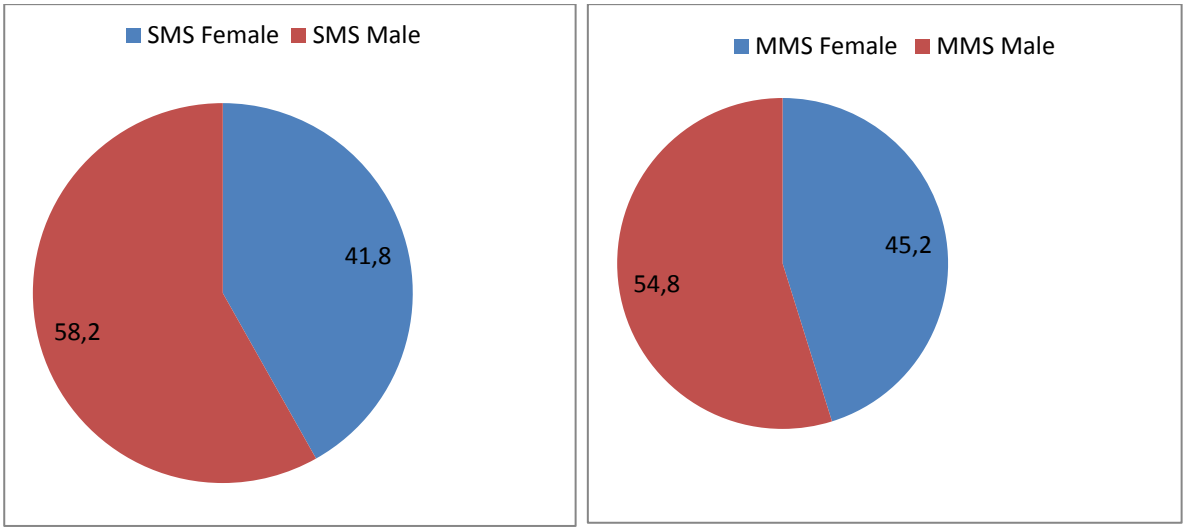
Councillors are entrusted to work in local communities to address development and empower people. This requires gender mainstreaming and sensitivity i.e. being aware of the issues around gender, and ensuring that these are taken into consideration when drafting programmes and making decisions. Gender equality in local spheres cannot be achieved without the involvement of both men and women.[24]

Figure 4.3 shows the gender distribution of municipal councillors at local government in provinces during 2017. Approximately three in five municipal councillors are males, this trend is almost the same in all provinces. The gender parity in councillor positions varies between 0,56 to 0,82 with Northern Cape and Limpopo closest to achieving parity.

Figure 4.4 summarises the gender distribution of staff appointed to Senior and Middle management positions in the Public Sector.

[24] Camel Joseph, 2002. Gender and local government. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu

Figure 4.4: Senior (SMS) and middle (MMS) management positions in the public sector by sex, 2018



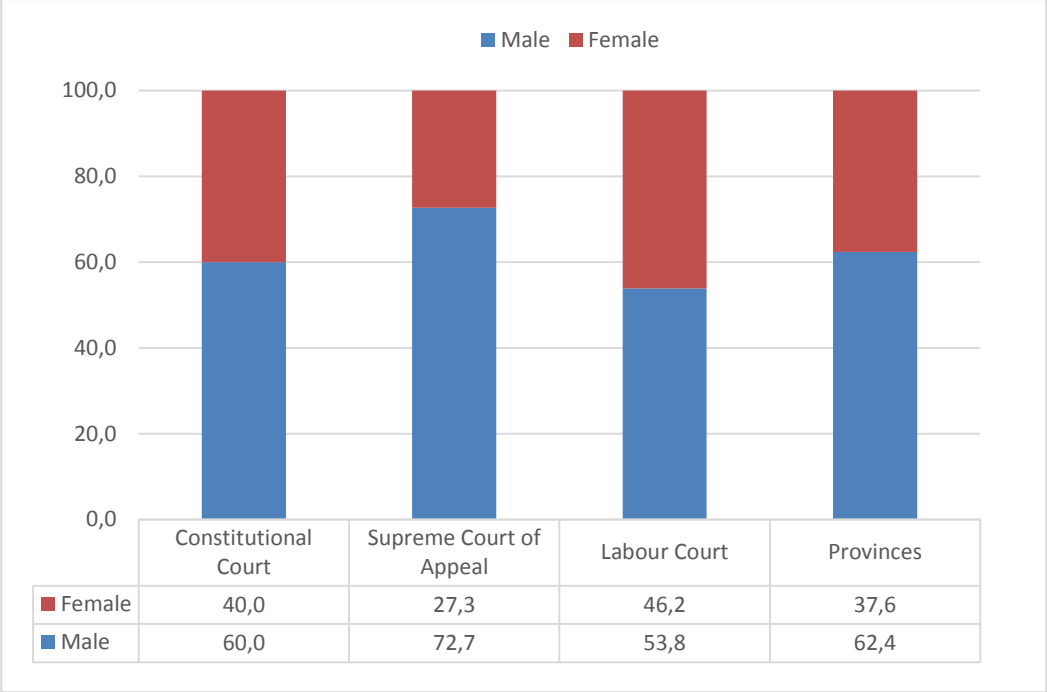
Source: DPSA, July 2018

Figure 4.4 shows that for all senior management positions, a higher percentage of personnel occupying SMS positions were male (58,2%) than females. Only four in 10 personnel, who were in SMS positions, were females. Middle management positions had a better gender distribution than SMS with a GPR of 0,82.

4.3 Justice

Gender equality in justice is important in promoting equal treatment in relation to legislation, gender mainstreaming and encouraging the advancement of females in justice positions. The lack of women in leadership positions means that female talent is being underutilised, human capital wasted and the quality of appointments to the highest positions may be compromised (EU, 2011). Female representation in the judiciary also ensures that the rights of children are implemented and social issues are uplifted, additionally, the impact of dispensing justice is more significant for women than it is for men. (UNICEF, 2007).

Figure 4.5: South African Court judges and advocates by sex, 2017



Source: Department of Justice, 31 October 2017

Figure 4.4 shows that during 2017, there was low representation of females in the South African justice system. Approximately less than a third of employed Supreme Court judges or advocates were female. When calculating the gender gap, the labour court had the lowest gender gap (0,85), followed by the Constitutional Court (0,66).

Table 4.2: South African Police Service workforce profile, 2018

South African Police Service	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
	Numbers			Percentage	
Police service act	107 260	42 537	**149 797**	71,6	28,4
Public service act	14 073	28 287	**42 360**	33,2	66,8
RSA	**121 333**	**70 824**	**192 157**	**63,1**	**36,9**

Source: SAPS, 30 June 2018

Traditionally, jobs that are physically demanding such as those in the police force were conventionally accepted as being for males, gender stereotypes could still play a role in the gender gaps observed in the police force for those serving under the Police Service Act. Nationally, over a third (36,9%) of the police workforce were females.

Varying gender gaps were observed between police officers serving under the different applicable service Acts. The gender gap between female and male police officers serving under the Public Service Act was (2,01), signifying that overall, a higher proportion of police officers were female compared to those under the police service Act with the gap of 0,39.

4.4 Conclusion

Achieving gender equity in positions of decision-making, both in government and in the private sector, is crucial to providing women with the responsibility of taking ownership of decisions affecting corporate outcomes, their lives and the lives of others. Leadership positions highlighted in this chapter included political positions, positions in the judiciary, mayoral positions in municipalities, senior management services (SMS) and middle management services (MMS) levels in the public sector.

Between 1994 and 2017, South Africa saw a steady increase in the number of female ministers (from 7,1% in 1994 to 48,5% in 2017). In 2018, the gender parities among Premiers and Members of the Executive Committee (MEC) were 0,79 and 0,82 respectively. This indicates progression towards achieving gender equity in these positions.

The results also highlighted relatively slow progress in gender equity within mayoral positions in municipalities. Gender parity ratios calculated for certain municipalities were comparatively wider than those reported for national level; however a few municipalities had reached parity.

When looking at the 'Justice' indicator, analyses in this chapter found that approximately 70% of persons employed in the judiciary for the year 2017 were male. Nationally, over a third (36,9%) of the police workforce were females. Varying gender gaps were observed between police officers serving under the different applicable service acts.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This report analysed gender disparities in economic empowerment using secondary data from Stats SA, as well as administrative data obtained from external sources. The general analyses in the report covered trends in economic empowerment over the past 16–17 years, assessing progress made towards gender equality. The analysis was focused on two dimensions: economic contribution and governance. In the case of the economic contribution dimension, market participation and resource equity were the focus, whilst representation and justice were the sub-categories for the governance dimension.

The statistics presented in the report reveal two main trends. On the one hand, there are indicators showing significant progress towards the realisation of gender equality, and on the other hand, the data are indicative of either a lack of, or very little progress.

This chapter highlights the areas where gender equity, with respect to economic empowerment, has been accomplished and also those areas that should be of concern.

5.2 Economic contribution

Market participation as the first dimension of economic contribution was evaluated in terms of labour force participation, employment, unemployment rates and economic inactivity.

Even though the number of females in the workforce still exceeds that of males, males continue to participate in the labour market at a higher rate than their female counterparts. The gap between male and female participation rates also remained relatively stable over the past 16 years, with a 12,4 percentage points difference in 2001 and 12,1 percentage points in 2017.

The analyses also showed that females are not a homogeneous group and that their participation in the labour market is influenced by various socio-demographic factors that affect individuals differently, there were some variations in trends when examining other variables. Females who were most likely to be participating in 2017 lived in urban areas and participation rates were highest in the age groups 35–44 (80,2%), 25–34 (76,3%) and 45–54 (71,8%). Similarly, when participation was analysed by the presence of minor children in the household, females without minor children reported higher participation rates than females with minor children. However, when it comes to rural areas, the situation looked significantly different. Rural females were less likely to participate than males in 2001 regardless of the presence or absence of children in their household.

Even though **employment** rates declined between 2001 and 2017, the decline took place at almost the same rate for males and females (2,6 percentage points for males and 2,1 percentage points for females), signifying a semblance of gender balance. Levels of employment increased by 3,7 million during the period of analyses with males reporting the highest increase of about 2,3 million. The analyses in this section also showed that having a higher level of education mattered in reducing gender disparities in the employment of both males and females. Even though males were more likely to be employed, fewer gender disparities existed between the employment rates of males and females with higher levels of education than for those without matric.

Decreasing the levels of unemployment is particularly important because of its direct impact on the reduction of poverty. Unemployment affects men and women equally. However, the rate of unemployment tends to be higher for women than for men. Overall unemployment rates for males and females grew by 3,1 percentage points between 2001 and 2017 from 24,6% in 2001 to 27,7% in 2017. The curvilinear relationship between education and unemployment was even more pronounced in 2017 than in 2001. This was true, regardless of the population group. Black African females without Grade 12/Matric experienced the highest increase of 9,9 percentage points. Even though unemployment rates increased between 2001 and 2017, the graduate unemployment rate declined by 0,4 percentage points. This decrease was mainly driven by negligible decreases which occurred in both male and female graduate unemployment rates (males dropped from 6,3% in 2001 to 5,6% in 2017 and females dropped from 9,6% in 2001 to 9,2% in 2017). Analysis of the duration of

unemployment revealed that females were more likely to be in long-term unemployment (up from 64,9% in 2001 to 69,2% in 2017) while males were more likely to be subjected to only short-term unemployment.

Examining the effects of age, education and marital status on economic inactivity enhances our understanding of a number of issues in relation to the differences between employment rates and labour absorption rates. The economic inactivity rate was generally higher amongst females than their male counterparts. Amongst this group, the highest rates were observed for those that were younger (aged 15–24), those who have never been married, and were still at school.

In terms of children, the presence of a minor child in a household over the 16-year reporting period, affected rural and urban settings differently, even though it did affect the economic inactivity rates of both sexes. The effect was negligible in urban areas, but significant in rural areas for both males and females. In both years, the main reason for inactivity was ''being a student''; discouragement was the second reason provided by males, whereas for females it was being a home-maker. Both years of reporting showed that economic inactivity was higher among people who were illiterate than among those who were not, moreover, females who were illiterate showed higher rates of economic inactivity than their male counterparts.

The second component of the economic empowerment dimension which was covered in the report, is resource equity. The kinds of resources covered in the report included: access to government poverty alleviation grants, property and household goods and financial asset ownership. Between 2009 and 2017, a larger number of females received grants than their male counterparts. Since the introduction of the child support grant, there has been a steady increase in the number of recipients, from approximately 9 million in 2009, to 13 million in 2017.

In terms of gender parity in dwelling ownership, an improvement of 4,6 percentage points was observed in the number of female-headed households that owned formal dwellings between 2002 and 2017. Government policies on housing subsidies give preference to households headed by individuals from vulnerable groups, including females, and persons with disabilities. In line with this, the percentage of households that received housing subsidies more than doubled between 2002 and 2017 with a slightly higher percentage of female-headed households than male-headed households receiving government-housing subsidies.

5.3 Governance

Between 1994 and 2017, South Africa experienced a steady increase in the percentage of female ministers (from 7,1% in 1994 to 48,5% in 2017). In 2018, the gender parities among Premiers and Members of the Executive Committee (MECs) were 0,79 and 0,82 respectively. This indicates progression towards achieving gender equity in these positions.

There is still room for progress in management positions in the Public Service. Six in ten civil servants in SMS positions are male, whilst the MMS occupancy rate for males was 54%.

The results of the study show relatively slow progress in gender equity with regards to mayoral positions in municipalities. Nationally, over a third (36,9%) of the police workforce were females. Varying gender gaps were observed between police officers serving under the different applicable service Acts.

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