Gender Series Volume 2
Education 2004-2014

Statistics South Africa

The South Africa I know, the home I understand

Gender Series Volume II
Education and Gender, 2004–2014

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Foreword

Defining the relationship between education and gender equality is not a simple task. Firstly, institutions of education can serve two distinct roles in the gender narrative. On the one hand, they can be places where perceptions around traditional gender roles are inadvertently strengthened. On the other hand, education institutions can simultaneously create new possibilities for emancipation as and when skills and knowledge are acquired. In this way, education does far more than unconsciously maintain gender inequalities as it also stimulates learners to think beyond ideological limitations which exist in a world that they form part of. This paradox occurs at every level and in every aspect of education.

My second view around education and gender is one in which education is viewed as providing a link between two worlds; the private and public worlds. In this sense, the private world consists of the families from which educators and learners come, where norms and values are rooted. The public world I refer to mainly comprises the labour market, which continues to be largely structurally defined around sex and race. Through educational institutions, children are brought into the education system from their families (private), they are then prepared (skilled) and sent out to a public world i.e. the labour market. Educational systems therefore represent a gateway into which the state becomes part of the family life due to its vested interest in children's training for the work force. Because of this link, it is critical that the education system consciously takes into account existing ideologies around issues of social inequality cutting across class, race and gender. This must occur not only in terms of access to education, but also in relation to the quality of education that is provided. This must also happen at all levels of education, from basic to higher education. Likewise, it is imperative that any attempt towards investigating the relationship between education and gender sees through the link between the private and the public worlds.

Since there are many ways to look at gender and education, the primary focus of the current publication is to assess the country's progress towards achieving greater access and improved quality in education through a gender lens. The report covers for the most part trends observed over the period 2004 and 2014. The effects of various demographic, geographic and socio-economic variables on education are also measured in order to try to explain some of the observed trends. The present publication forms part of a series of gender reports that provide more in-depth analyses covering different gender focal areas on an annual basis.

Pali Lehohla

Statistician-General

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Access to education

Figures show that South Africa has made pronounced progress in achieving universal access to education since 1994. These achievements are well noted and documented across various sources both nationally and internationally (MDG 2015; Dalton, Mckenzie & Kahonde, 2012[1]; UNICEF, 2013[2]). Realising universal access to education in the country has been primarily the result of an enabling strategy, commitments, policy and legislative environment as created by government, communities, as well as civil society and communities. In terms of policy and legislation, compulsory primary schooling for children aged 7–15 years; the adaptation of a No-fee Schools Policy which eliminated school fees in poor primary schools in the country, making education accessible regardless of children's socio-economic status; continuous efforts towards implementing and improving an integrated early childhood development approach (which aims to benefit all children between birth and school-going age) all ensured progressive access to education in the country.

Internationally, South Africa remains a signatory of the Dakar Framework for Action (Dakar, 2000)[3]. During the year 2000, a total of 164 countries assembled in Dakar, Senegal, for the World Education Forum and collectively committed to achieving Education For All (EFA). Commitments on six priority goals to be met by 2015 were identified by attendees. These included:

(i) Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children;

(ii) Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality;

(iii) Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes;

(iv) Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;

(v) Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality;

(vi) Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

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[1] Dalton, E.M., Mckenzie, J.A., Kahonde, C. 2012. 'The implementation of inclusive education in South Africa: Reflections arising from a workshop for teachers and therapists to introduce Universal Design for Learning', *African Journal of Disability* 1(1), Art. #13, 7 pages. http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/ajod.v1i1.13

[2] UICEF & Department of Women, Children and People with Disabilities: A South Africa fit for children 2012 – 2017, obtained from http://www.unicef.org/southafrica/resources_15360.html

[3] Dakar, 2000. The World Education Forum (26-28 April 2000, Dakar) adopted the **Dakar Framework for Action, Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments,** UNESCO.

Accordingly, this report partly aims to shed light with respect to tracking and ascertaining progress made on the proposed Dakar Framework for Action priority goals. Furthermore, notwithstanding the milestones that the country has achieved in access to education, a number of challenges remain. These mainly relate to the quality of education learners receive and include, among other issues:

- Low levels of performance as measured through National Senior Certificate examinations;
- Worrying trends in levels of school non-attendance; and
- Racial and gender inequalities in secondary and tertiary education (predominantly in the area of study fields).

Does focus on increased access to education negatively impact quality in education?

Various studies argue that the quality of education is more important than educational attainment in determining both the economic growth of nations and the labour market performance (Kadzamira & Rose, 2003[4]; Hanushek & Woessmann, 2008)[5]. In fact, Hanushek and Woessmann (2008) found that increased access to education negatively impact quality (as measured by test scores) in the following ways:

- The changing social composition of schools (i.e. an influx of disadvantaged children) is likely to drive down average scores even if the value added by schools remains unaffected;
- The changing social composition of schools could negatively influence the learning outcomes of children who would have been enrolled even in the absence of the increased access through peer effects; and
- A strain on resources such as pupil–teacher ratios may reduce school effectiveness; and
- If the expansion is driven by abolishing school fees, this may weaken local accountability and hence school quality.

Other studies, however, report contradictory findings to the belief that increased access to education causes a deterioration in the effectiveness of educational systems to produce quality learning. For example, by employing a method of combining educational access (survival grades) and quality (learning outcomes), a study by Taylor and Spaull (2015)[6] found that amongst other factors, gender also impacts on access to learning and access to numeracy. For example, in their study, Taylor and Spaull (2015) showed that in relatively poor and in East African countries (Mozambique, Malawi, Uganda, Zambia), girls typically have lower access to learning than boys. However, they argued that by analysing only gender inequalities in access to schooling or only gender inequalities in test scores, the overall gender gap in access to learning is generally understated. When combined figures for access and numeracy were analysed (access-to-numeracy rate), the rate for girls improved slightly when compared to that of boys, yielding a narrower Gender Parity Ratio (GPR). These authors also allude to possible traditional perceptions – numeracy tends to favour boys – in explaining gender differences in test scores. They conclude that findings do not necessarily reflect an innate advantage for boys in numeracy, but rather the effects of a self-fulfilling socially constructed perception of such an advantage.

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[4] Kadzamira, E., Rose, P. 2003. Can free primary education meet the needs of the poor? Evidence from Malawi. *International Journal of Educational Development, 23*, 501–516.

[5] Hanushek, E.A. & Woessmann, L. 2008. The role of cognitive skills in economic development, *Journal of Economic Literature*, http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/jel.46.3.607.

[6] Taylor, S. & Spaull, N. 2015. Measuring access to learning over a period of increased access to schooling: The case of Southern and Eastern Africa since 2000, *International Journal of Educational Development, 41,* 47-59.

With respect to the relationship between access and quality, findings from Taylor and Spaull's (2015) study therefore cautions us to not focus on only one variable (access only or quality only), but rather the inter-relationship between the two in order to better inform policy. Whereas the aforementioned study used innovative methods of data analysis to pull-out factors such as gender, population group and regional differences (including culture) to explain variations observed in test scores (used as a proxy to measure quality of education), the current report examines additional possible contributors to learners' quality of education, such as the learning environment (Chapter 6).

Education and gender

South Africa has made great strides towards achieving gender equality in education. According to the 2015 Millennium Development Goals (MDG)[7] report, gender parity on all education indicators has been reached. Moreover, females make up a higher proportion of persons enrolled in secondary and tertiary level education (MDG, 2015). Increased levels of education particularly among females have been found to have positive impacts on the overall empowerment of women and girls in the long run. This is because education equips them with the self-confidence, knowledge and skills that are necessary to participate fully in the development process within their communities (Medel-Anonuevo, 1993)[8].

However, despite the noticeable progress achieved in education, gender differences and inequalities persist. This is in terms of subject preferences and performance, and in specific aspects related to the education and training experience which often result in varying social and economic gender inequalities. For example, there is a significant gap in South Africa in favour of males qualified in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) subjects, thus explaining the male dominance in STEM-related occupations such as engineers and architects. Research partly attributes this dominance to the masculinised culture in STEM courses at higher learning institutions and disproves perceptions indicating to females' lack of academic or technical skills as the reason why women do not pursue STEM careers (Skaggs, 2011)[9]. The lack of inclusion of women in these fields limits their penetration, participation and their ability to make meaningful contributions in development processes requiring STEM skills.

Secondly, females in South Africa remain disadvantaged in terms of pay, promotion, job stability and status, and employment benefits such as pensions regardless of educational attainment (Gender Series Volume 1, 2014)[10]. Consequently, Chapter 6 of the report uses multivariate analyses to explore determinants of labour market outcomes for males and females respectively, given levels of education obtained and the field of study. Another issue related to gender, education and labour market outcomes relates to time use. Results published by Statistics South Africa's (Stats SA) 2010 Time Use Report point to gender inequalities in performing unpaid care or house work. This has been found to contribute significantly to the hindrance of women getting ahead in their careers in the labour market, impacting their work status and pay, regardless of levels of education obtained. Achieving equality in doing unpaid care or house work is fundamental to gender equality, including gender equality in education.

A concern on gender matters and education is the performance of boys. This is both in terms of literacy rates as well as performance in secondary and tertiary level education. Data from the

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[7] Millennium Development Goal 2015 Report
[8] Medel-Anonuevo, C. 1993. Women, Education and Empowerment: Pathways towards Autonomy, *Report of the International Seminar held at UIE, Hamburg, 27 January - 2 February 1993*
[9] Skaggs, J. 2011. *Making the Blind to See: Balancing STEM Identity with Gender Identity*, University of Kentucky.
[10] *Gender Series Volume 1: Economic Empowerment, 2001-2014*. 2014. Stats SA, ISBN: 978-0-621-43133-9, Report No (03-10-04).

General Household Survey (GHS) show that boys' performance in literacy is significantly lower than that of girls in the country. Boys are also more likely to leave school early. Some of the negative social impacts associated with boys dropping out of school include crime and gender-based violence (Richard, 1991; Djamba & Kimuna, 2015)[11]. For example, a study by Djamba and Kimuna (2015) found that level of education played an important role in constraining men to engage in spousal violence against their wives and women's acceptance of violence. Men who only had a primary level education were shown to be more likely to perpetuate spousal violence compared to those with higher levels of education. On the other hand, Richard (1991) found that a large proportion of youths who dropped out of high school developed criminal records. Given the negative consequences of this to society, it becomes imperative to identify factors that are linked to the dropping out of boys in secondary schools. This is done with the anticipation of informing a systematic and targeted programme and policy intervention. The purpose of the analysis in Chapter 5 is precisely just that. The promotion of education among females in the country cannot and should not be at the expense of their male counterparts. The intended consequence of achieving gender equality in education should thus be improved levels of quality of life for all.

In conclusion, even though data point to parity in education, it is important to determine elements which contribute to differences in educational outcomes for males and females. This is important as social, economic and psychological factors such as household structure, poverty, health and general well-being can impact individuals' educational outcome (Skaggs, 2011). The question, however is, "do these factors have the same outcome for both sexes?" The purpose of this report – particularly in Section 2 of the report – therefore is ultimately to unpack educational outcomes so as to provide some understanding into observed differences in the lives of men and women, notwithstanding gender parity being achieved. Lastly, a critical but difficult area to assess when exploring effects of gender on educational outcomes is to determine the extent to which gender stereotypes shape and influence male and female perceptions and behaviour towards education outcomes. It is envisaged that future reports in this series will be able to explore this area.

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[11] Richard, L. 1991. School Crime and Juvenile Justice. *Oxford University Press, Order Department, 2001 Evans Road, Cary, NC 27513 (paperback: ISBN-0-19-510165-0, $19.95; clothbound: ISBN-0-19-510164-2).*
Djamba, Y.K. and Kimuna, S.R. 2015. Gender-Based Violence: Perspectives from Africa, the Middle East, and India. ISBN 978-3-319-16669-8, Doi 10.1007/978-3-319-16670-4

Legislation

This section covers the legislative framework in terms of policies and measures put in place in the country with respect to gender equality in education. Education in South Africa is governed by the following key policies and legislation:

- The fundamental policy framework of the Ministry of Basic Education is stated in the Ministry's first White Paper on Education and Training in a Democratic South Africa.

- The National Education Policy Act (NEPA), 1996 brought into law the policies, and legislative and monitoring responsibilities of the Minister of Education.

- The South African Schools Act (SASA), 1996 is aimed at ensuring that all learners have access to quality education without discrimination, and makes schooling compulsory for children aged 7–15 years.

- The Adult Basic Education and Training (Abet) Act, 2000 regulates Abet and provides for the establishment, governance and funding of public adult learning centres.

- The Employment of Educators Act, 1998 regulates the professional, moral and ethical responsibilities of educators, as well as teachers' competency requirements.

- The design of the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) was refined with the publication of the Higher Education Qualifications Framework in the Government Gazette in October 2007, to provide 10 NQF levels.

- The Education White Paper on Early Childhood Development, 2000 provides for the expansion and full participation of five-year-olds in pre-school Grade R education by 2010.

- The Education White Paper 6 on Inclusive Education (2001) describes the DBE's intention to implement inclusive education at all levels in the system by 2020.

- The Education Laws Amendment Act, 2002 set the age of admission to Grade 1 as the year in which the child turns seven.

- The Umalusi Council sets and monitors standards for general and further education and training in South Africa.

Other legislation and policy documents impacting access to education

- South African Constitution 1996

- National Development Plan 2030

- Draft Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 2030

- Choice on Termination of Pregnancy Act 92 (1996); Amendment Acts (2004, 2008)

- Domestic Violence Act 116 (1998)

- Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act 23 (2007)

- National Contraception Policy: Guidelines within a Reproductive Health Framework (2001), a revision.

Objective and layout of the report

The purpose of this report is to provide analysis relating to gender and educational outcomes using secondary data from Stats SA, as well as administrative data obtained from external sources. The general analysis in the report covers trends in education over the past 10 years (i.e. 2004 and 2014). Chapter 1 is introductory and briefly discussed education in relation to gender. Moreover, this chapter seeks to establish the rationale for producing the report. The rest of the report focusses on covering two main areas. Section 1 employs descriptive analysis to provide a context into the educational outcomes of males and females in the country between 2004 and 2014. This is done through Chapters 2–5 where a wide range of indicators are analysed using frequency tables. The second part of the report (covered through Chapters 6–7) attempts to provide answers to two matters. Various multi-variety statistics such as Cohort and Regression analyses are used to achieve the following:

- Provide an understanding of differences between of men and women, despite gender parity being achieved in the country; and
- Determine socio-economic factors contributing to educational outcomes for males and females.

A description of each of the chapter contents is as follows. The introduction chapter provides background to policy framework designed to ensure increased access to education. This chapter also highlights attempts made by government to address gender equality in access to education as well as challenges encountered during the 10-year period (between 2004 and 2014). The rest of the report comprises two sections. The first section presents descriptive analyses while the second focuses on multivariate statistics.

Section 1: Descriptive analyses

Chapter 2 presents analysis on education attainment where highest level of education attained and literacy proportions for males and females are measured based on demographic, geographical and socio-economic variables. Chapter 3 focuses on access to education analysing factors that impact school attendance and non-attendance. These factors are then further analysed in terms of their impact on girls and boys respectively. Chapter 4 analyses data on children's learning environment by focusing on the impact that the learning environment can have on learning outcomes. Chapter 5 concludes Section 1 by looking at Post-school Education and Training (PSET) through a gender lens. This chapter ascertains various aspects impacting access and educational outcomes for males and females in PSET.

Section 2: Multivariate analyses

The second part of the report consists of multivariate analyses. Chapter 6 focuses on predictors of educational outcomes for males and females. An additional analysis contained in this chapter is determining the relationship between educational attainment and employment outcomes for males and females. Chapter 7 on the other hand, pays attention to children who are not attending school. Chapter 8 concludes the report by summarising the main findings and making recommendations.

Data sources

Stats SA data sources

The current report focuses mainly on presenting data comparing the years 2004 and 2014. However, where data representing the years 2004 and 2014 were not available, the oldest and the most recent survey data available were used. For example, analyses using data from the General Household Survey (GHS) on Post-school Education and Training (PSET) primarily focuses on comparisons between the years 2009 and 2014.

The main sources of statistics on household, demographic and labour statistics that will be used in this study are Census 2001 and Census 2011, the Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2001 March series, the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS) Q4: 2014, and the General Household Survey (GHS) 2004 and 2014. The census data attempted to cover all households, and were weighted to adjust for the under-count. 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 10-year period. In these instances, Census 2001 and the Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2004 March series are used as the baseline for these comparisons. In terms of data on the labour force, it is important to note that the 2008 re-engineering of the LFS to the QLFS necessitated the adjustment of the earlier LFS series to preserve historical continuity with the QLFS. In order to achieve this, link factors were computed on the basis of an overlap of the QLFS and the LFS in March and September 2008. The historical adjustment methodologically involved reweighting the LFS unit record (microdata) files[12]. In doing this reweighting, a substantial number of variables were set as control totals. This was done using the QLFS/LFS ratios from the estimates for variables (employed, unemployed, not economically active, industry, occupation, etc.) for Q1: 2008/March 2008 and Q3: 2008/September 2008. A detailed report on the methodology used to derive link factors is available on www.statssa.gov.za/qLFS/indes.asp. The last source of data used in this report is the 2010 Time Use Survey, which had a sample size of 30 000 dwellings.

External data sources

One of the major challenges in monitoring progress towards attaining gender equity is the lack of data. Even as the official supplier of statistics in South Africa, Stats SA cannot produce all data required to measure gender-related indicators. Administrative sources of data were therefore also used for data analysis in this report. Government departments collect a large amount of data as a part of their day-to-day administration. Administrative records contain a wide variety of data covering different socio-economic and demographic information which is usually required to complete processes such as providing goods and services. The main advantage of using administrative sources of data is that the cost of data collection is relatively small in relation to the costs that are incurred when conducting censuses and surveys. Most often information on administrative unit records is available in the form of registers that facilitate extraction of primary data. Another advantage is that, since administrative data is collected usually invoking some statutory or regulatory authority vested with the government organisation, the coverage of data is often better than those derived through sample surveys. In contrast, however, the main drawbacks of using such data relate to incompleteness as well as inaccuracy. The latter is caused by a number of factors, including inconsistent applications of definitions and standards and/or poor training or a lack of training for those responsible for recording or collecting the data.

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[12] Stats SA is currently preparing to reweight the LFS-linked historical data based on Census 2011.

The use of multiple sources of data (administrative, survey, census) therefore creates an opportunity for Stats SA and stakeholders within the gender sector to expand the much required information base of gender statistics. This, however, has to be done in a coordinated manner to ensure effectiveness and quality in the production of data as well as to maximise coverage of gender-related statistics.

Administrative sources of data used in this report were obtained from the Departments of Basic Education (DBE) and Higher Education (DHE).

Definitions and abbreviations

DEFINITIONS

Education attainment: Refers to the highest level of education an individual has completed.

Endorsement: Refers to the endorsement by the education council that a senior certificate candidate has satisfied the requirements for matriculation. A pass with endorsement means that a candidate has obtained a Senior Certificate that fulfils basic requirements for entry into South African universities.

Gross enrolment ratio: Total enrolment in a specific level of education regardless of age, as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year.[13]

Gender Parity Index: The ratio of the number of female students enrolled at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education to the number of male students in each level. It is a socio-economic index usually designed to measure the relative access to education of males and females.

Gender ratio: Refers to the proportion of males to females in a given population, usually expressed as the number of males per 100 females.

Graduates: Refers to persons who have obtained a university degree

Literacy: The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) defines literacy as the "ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts"[14].

Net enrolment rate: Defined by UNESCO as the enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population.

Senior Certificate: A high school diploma that is the main school-leaving certificate in South Africa. This certificate is commonly known as the matriculation (matric) certificate, as Grade 12 is the matriculation grade.

Senior Certificate Examination: The school leaving examination written in the final grade of high school.

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[13] Education indicators technical guidelines. UNESCO institute for statistics 2009.
[14] "The Plurality of Literacy and its implications for Policies and Programs" *(PDF). UNESCO Education Sector Position Paper: 13. 2004.*

Quintile status: All South African public ordinary schools are categorised into five groups, called quintiles, largely for purposes of the allocation of financial resources. Quintile 1 is the 'poorest' quintile, while quintile 5 is the 'least poor'. Schools in quintile 1, 2 and 3 have been declared no-fee schools, while schools in quintiles 4 and 5 are fee-paying schools.

ABBREVIATIONS

DBE – Department of Basic Education

DHE – Department of Higher Education

GER – Gross Enrolment Ratio

GHS – General Household Survey

GPR – Gender Parity Ratio

MDG – Millennium Development Goals

NEET – Not in Education, Employment or Training

NER – Net Enrolment Rate

NSC – National Senior Certificate

NSCE – National Senior Certificate Examination

PSET – Post-school Education and Training

QLFS – Quarterly Labour Force Survey

SCE – Senior Certificate Examination

SET – Science, Engineering and Technology

SNA – System of National Accounts

STEM – Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics

TVET – Technical and Vocational Education and Training

SECTION 1: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

CHAPTER 2: EDUCATION ATTAINMENT

Chapter 2 presents analysis on education attainment, where highest level of education attained and literacy proportions for males and females are measured based on demographic, geographical and socio-economic variables.

Literacy

The data presented in this section is an illustration of levels of literacy measured using the General Household Survey (GHS) over a period which spans 2001 to 2014. As widely reported in literature, educating males and females impacts the country's development positively as it grants access to opportunities that improve their quality of life and allows them to make better choices pertaining to their well-being[15]. Educating females in particular has proven over the years to have added benefits that help government curb the scourge of social ills that impact negatively on the future of the girl child. These benefits are both economical and health related. Economically, the education of girls yield higher family incomes and increased productivity while health benefits include delayed marriages, reduced fertility rates and improved health. All these translate into improved well-being of the society[16.] This section provides a gendered analysis of survey data measuring literacy.

Figure 2.1: Literacy rates for persons aged 15–54 by sex and age, 2009 and 2014

	15 - 24	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	Total
Male 2009	96,0	95,7	94,4	88,6	94,5
Male 2014	98,5	97,7	96,8	92,9	97,0
Female 2009	97,0	96,6	93,5	84,3	94,0
Female 2014	99,1	98,6	96,8	91,2	97,1
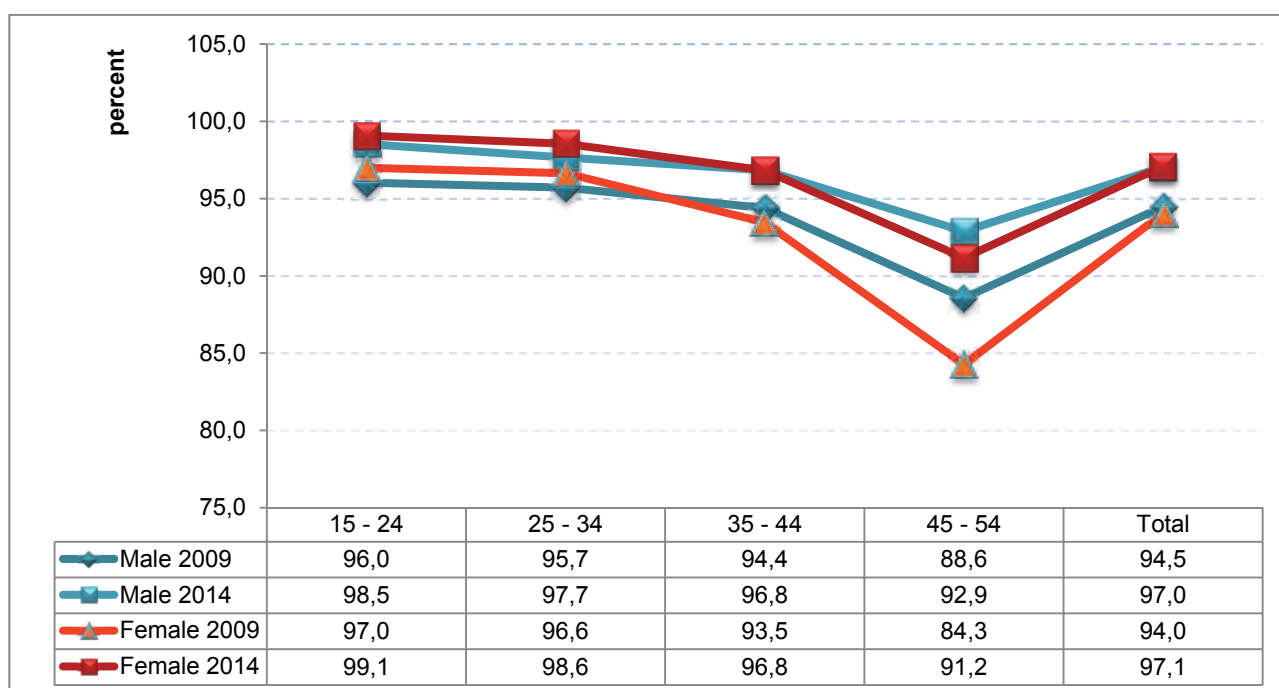
Source: GHS 2009; 2014

Between 2009 and 2014, literacy rates for both males and females increased by 3,1 and 2,6 percentage points respectively, (i.e. from 94,0 in 2009 to 97,1 in 2014 for females and from 94,5 in 2009 to 97,0 in 2014 for males). The largest increase was observed for those aged 45–54 years old, with females recording a higher increase of 6,9 percentage points than males (4,3 percentage points.

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[15] Baum, S. & Payea, K. 2005. The benefits of higher education for individuals and society, revised edition. Retrieved from www.collegebord.com
[16] Report prepared by the Equate Project, Management Systems international for USAID's office of women in development (2008). Education from a gender equality perspective.

Table 2.1: Proportions of persons aged 20 years and above who are literate by sex, age and geo-type, 2009[17] and 2014

	Male				Female				Gender Parity Index			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural		2009		2014	
	2009	2014	2009	2014	2009	2014	2009	2014	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
15–24	29,3	28,3	45,8	16,2	29,4	28,8	41,6	39,5	1,00	1,01	1,00	0,99
25–34	31,4	30,3	27,5	23,3	30,4	29,5	28,1	27,7	0,96	1,14	0,96	1,03
35–44	23,8	25,5	16,3	24,9	24,2	24,8	18,5	20,0	1,01	1,27	0,96	1,22
45–54	15,4	15,8	10,4	35,6	16,0	16,9	11,8	12,9	1,03	1,26	1,05	1,34
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	0,99	1,12	0,99	1,08

Source: GHS: 2009; 2014

When literacy data were disaggregated by geographical area, the figures revealed that rural young males between ages 15–24 accounted significantly to the decrease observed over the five-year period (2009–2014) with proportions decreasing by 29,6 percentage points. Marginal decreases were noted among other age group categories (both for males and females). As indicated earlier in Figure 2.2, literacy among males and females in older age group categories increased when 2008 and 2014 data were compared. The most significant increase was among rural males between the ages 35–44 with an increase of 8,6 percentage points.

Literacy among older females increased slightly more for those aged 35–44 and 45–54 years living in rural areas (1,5 and 1,1 percentage points respectively), while that observed among their urban counterparts remained virtually unchanged.

Overall gender parity ratios show that gender disparities (in favour of females) are more prevalent among males and females residing in rural areas. However, nationally this gap narrowed over the last 5 years by 0,4 of a percentage point. When rural literacy data were further disaggregated by age, figures showed that for both 2009 and 2014, the largest gender gaps were found among those aged 35 years and older, with the highest disparities observed in the 45–54-year age group category. Moreover, gender gap disparities increased only among this group over the last five years (from 1,26 in 2009 to 1,34 in 2014).

Both 2009 and 2014 figures depict that parity was achieved in urban areas. When examining ratios within age groups, it was notable that parity remained constant for urban males and females between the ages of 15–24 and 25–34 years. In contrast to rural areas where females were generally more likely to be literate than males across most age groups, gender parity ratios in favour of males were observed among those aged 25–44 years living in urban areas.

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[17] Data for literacy were only available in 2009 onwards in GHS. Comparison could therefore only be possible starting from 2009.

Figure 2.2: Persons aged 20 years and above who are literate by sex and province, 2009[18] and 2014
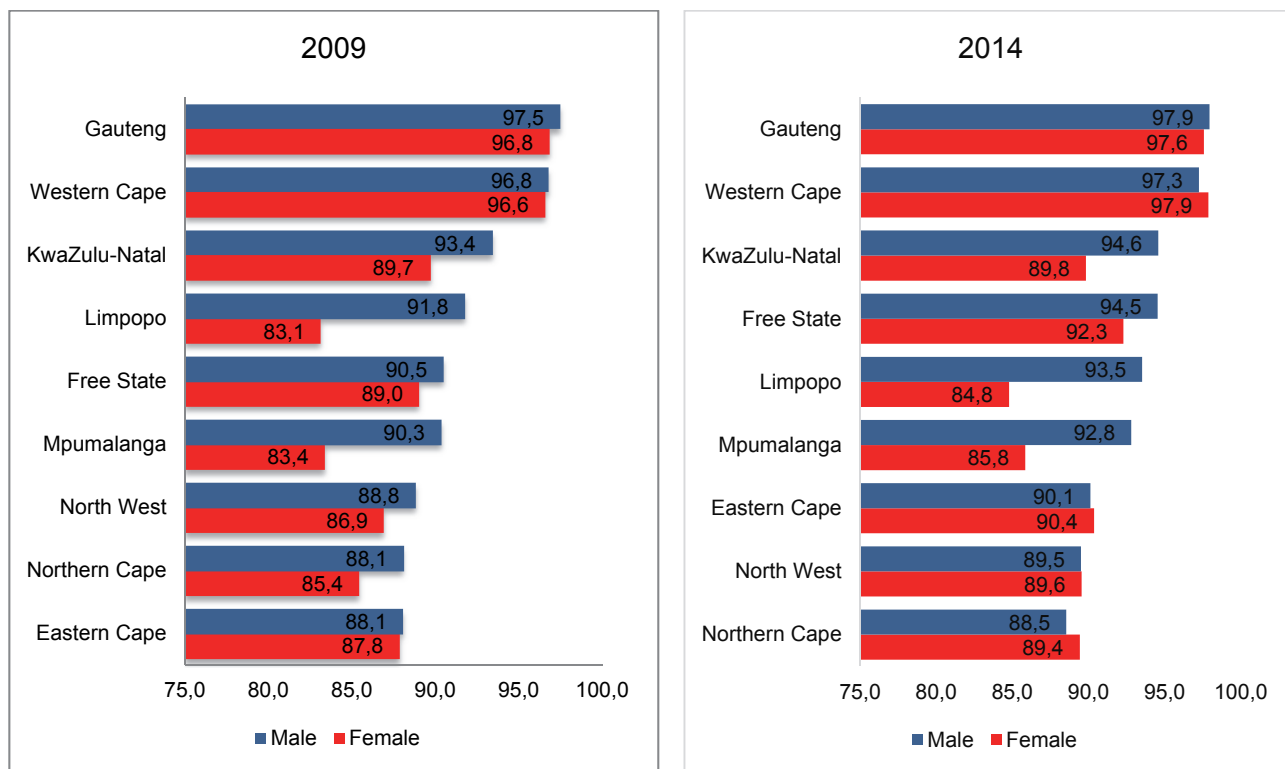
Figure 2.2 shows the sex distribution of persons who are literate within provinces. Generally, the percentage amongst males and females who are literate marginally increased. The largest increase was observed amongst females who reside in the Northern Cape and males who reside in Free State with each increasing by four percentage points, followed by females in Free State with an increase of 3,3 percentage points.

Gauteng and Western Cape, as shown in Figure 2.2, had the highest percentage of those who are literate in the country and they had the smallest differences between sexes, both in 2009 and 2014. Limpopo had the biggest differences between sexes (in favour of males) for both reporting years, followed by Mpumalanga.

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[18] Data for literacy were only available in 2009 onwards in GHS. Comparison could therefore only be possible starting from 2009.

Table 2.2: Proportions of persons aged 20 years and above who are literate by sex and population group, 2009 and 2014

	Male			Female		
	Literate	**Illiterate**	**Total**	**Literate**	**Illiterate**	**Total**
2009						
Black African	92,8	7,2	100,0	90	10,0	**100,0**
Coloured	96,3	3,7	100,0	95	5,0	**100,0**
Indian/Asian	99,5	0,5	100,0	98	2,0	**100,0**
White	99,8	0,2	100,0	99,9	0,1	**100,0**
Total	**94,1**	**5,9**	**100,0**	**91,8**	**8,2**	**100,0**
2014						
Black African	94,3	5,7	100,0	91,6	8,4	**100,0**
Coloured	97,0	3,0	100,0	96,9	3,1	**100,0**
Indian/Asian	99,7	0,3	100,0	97,3	2,7	**100,0**
White	99,9	0,1	100,0	99,9	0,1	**100,0**
Total	**95,3**	**4,7**	**100,0**	**93,1**	**6,9**	**100,0**

Source: GHS 2009; 2014

When literacy proportions were analysed according to population groups, the results showed increases from 2009 to 2014. Indian/Asian females were the only group which recorded a decrease from 98,0% in 2009 to 97,3% in 2014. For both reporting years, black African females and males recorded the highest proportions of persons who were illiterate, i.e. 10% (2009) and 8,4% (2014) for females, and 7,2% (2009) and 5,7 (2014) for their male counterparts.

Table 2.3: Literacy statuses of persons aged 20 years and above living in households with income in the 1st quintile (estimated monthly income of R1 500) by sex and population group, 2014

Population group	Literate		Not Literate		Total*		GPR
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	
	Thousand						
Black African	1 844	1 950	180	250	**2 031**	**2 207**	1,06
Coloured	86	122	7	7	**94**	**129**	1,42
Indian/Asian	10	9	0	1	**10**	**11**	0,90
White	33	48	0	0	**33**	**48**	1,45

*Note: Total includes unspecified cases
Source: GHS 2014

Figure 2.3: Distributions of literacy statuses of persons aged 20 years and above living in households with income in the 1st quintile (estimated monthly income of R1 500) by sex and population group, 2014
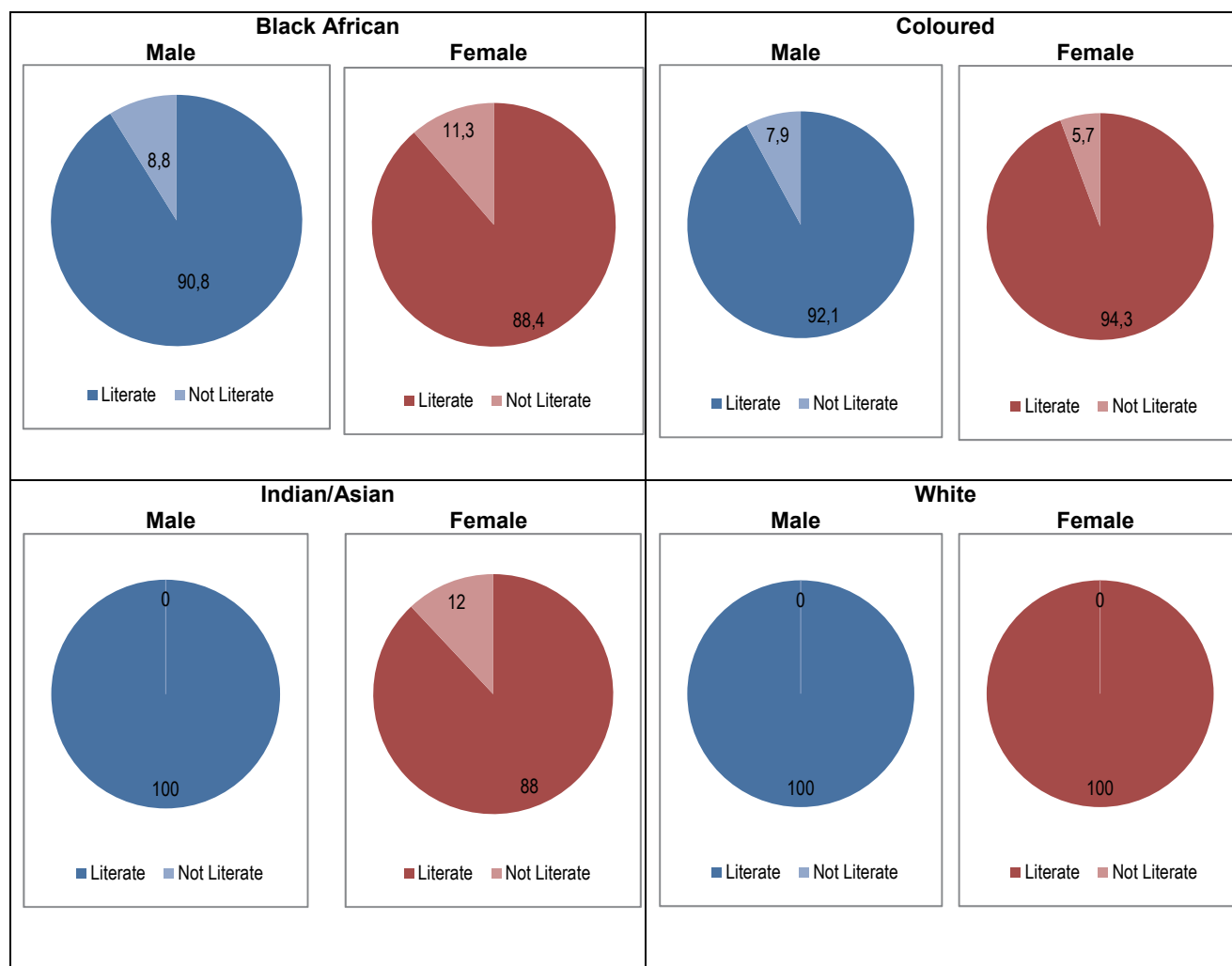
Source: GHS 2014

Table 2.3 and Figure 2.3 above show that in 2014, individuals residing in households up to an estimated income of up to R1 500 per month were more likely to have literacy rates that were slightly above 90%. This was true for all population groups except for Indian/Asian and black African females, who recorded the lowest literacy proportions of 88,0% and 88,4% respectively within the 1st quintile. The gender gap between males and females who were literate and living in households with an estimated income in quintile 1 was widest for the coloured (GPR=1,42) and white (GPR=1,45) population groups in favour of females.

Table 2.4: Literacy statuses of persons aged 20 years and above living in households with income between the 2nd and 3rd quintile (estimated monthly income between R2 880 and R5 460) by sex and population group, 2014

Literacy	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
	Thousand							
Literate	2 726	2 830	276	306	46	45	65	91
Not literate	227	371	9	16	0	0	0	0
Total*	**2 956**	**3 204**	**286**	**322**	**46**	**46**	**65**	**92**
	Per cent							
Literate	92,2	88,3	96,7	95,0	100,0	99,1	100,0	99,5
Not literate	7,7	11,6	3,1	4,9	0,0	0,9	0,0	0,5
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
GPR: Literacy	1,04		1,11		0,97		1,4	

*Note: Total includes unspecified cases.
Source: GHS 2014

Literacy rates of persons living in households reporting income levels falling between the 2nd or 3rd quantile (estimated income of R2 880–R5 460) generally had higher levels of literacy than those living in households from quantile 1. However, as previously observed in quintile 1, black African females were still less likely to be literate (88,3%) than males and females living in quintiles 2 and 3. Although the white and coloured population groups continued to maintain the widest gender gaps in quintiles 2 and 3, the GPR observed between coloured males and females slightly narrowed.

Table 2.5: Literacy statuses of persons aged 20 years and above living in households in the 4th quintile (estimated monthly income of R14 000) by sex and population group, 2014

Literacy	Black African		Coloured		Indian/Asian		White	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
	Thousand							
Literate	2 032	1 992	451	468	298	291	1 232	1 286
Not literate	45	58	2	5	1	7	2	1
***Total**	**2 077**	**2 050**	**453**	**473**	**299**	**298**	**1 238**	**1 286**
	Per cent							
Literate	97,8	97,2	99,6	99,0	99,6	97,6	99,6	99,9
Not literate	2,2	2,8	0,4	1,0	0,4	2,4	0,2	0,1
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**
GPR: Literacy	0,98		1,04		0,98		1,04	

*Note: Total includes unspecified cases.
Source: GHS 2014

The table above shows that in 2014, virtually all persons (irrespective of population group or sex) belonging to quintile 4 households (estimated monthly income of R14 000) were literate. The lowest literacy proportions were reported among black African (97,2%) and Indian/Asian females (97,6%). Gender parity ratios of males and females who were literate were narrower across all population groups in quintile 4 when compared to ratios recorded for those belonging to households falling in either the 1st or those between the 2nd and 3rd quintiles.

Highest level of education attained by demographic variables

This section examines the highest level of education completed or achieved for persons aged 20 years and above. Educational attainment is often considered a proxy for 'human capital', i.e. skills and knowledge of a population. This is particularly important when, for example, assessing the potential productivity of a country's labour force or working-age population. Variations in educational attainment by demographic and socio-economic aspects therefore provide information about access to education and equity in education.

Table 2.6: Education attainment of persons aged 20 years and above by sex and geo-type, 2001 and 2011

Highest level of education	Male				Female			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
	2001	**2011**	**2001**	**2011**	**2001**	**2011**	**2001**	**2011**
No schooling	8,0	3,5	25,1	10,9	8,6	3,7	30,5	14,0
Some primary	13,4	8,7	22,7	16,8	12,5	8,4	20,1	15,8
Complete primary	6,2	4,0	7,2	5,4	6,5	4,0	6,8	5,3
Some secondary	34,3	35	27,7	37,7	35,1	34,3	26,2	35,6
Matric/Grade 12	26,8	33,5	13,2	24,3	25,9	33,4	12,2	23,7
Higher	11,2	15,3	4,1	4,9	11,4	16,2	4,2	5,6
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: Census 2001; 2011

When education attainment and geographic area were compared, data showed that between 2001 and 2011, rural females had the highest proportion of people who had no schooling. Although this figure decreased from 30,5% in 2001 to 14,0% in 2011, it was still significantly higher when compared to males and females residing in both urban and rural areas.

The proportion of matriculated males and females aged 20 and older increased by 37 percentage points over the last 10 years of reporting. The largest increases were observed among females residing in rural areas which increased by 11,5 percentage points (i.e. from 12,2% in 2001 to 23,7% in 2011).

Likewise, the proportion of persons with a post-school qualification (tertiary) increased by 11,1 percentage points between 2001 and 2011. The biggest increase was observed among females residing in urban areas (up by 4,8 percentage points). Nationally, females were more likely to hold a tertiary-level education qualification than their male counterparts. Tertiary education attainment was lowest among males residing in rural areas (4,1% and 4,9% respectively) during both years of reporting, i.e. between 2001 and 2011.

Table 2.7: Education attainment (20–59 years) by sex and age group, 2001 and 2011

Highest level of education	Male							
	20–29		30–39		40–49		50–59	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
No schooling	7,3	2,4	11,3	4,0	17,7	7,1	25	12,8
Some primary	10,8	5,9	16,7	8,9	21,9	15,7	22,6	22,3
Complete primary	5,4	3,4	7,1	4,1	7,9	5,9	6,8	6,4
Some secondary	37,7	40,9	31,7	34,8	28,9	32,1	25,1	29,8
Matric/Grade 12	31,4	37,7	22,6	34,4	14	24,3	11,7	15,7
Higher	7,4	9,7	10,6	13,8	9,6	14,9	8,7	13
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Highest level of education	Female							
	20–29		30–39		40– 49		50–59	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
No schooling	8,0	2,1	14	4,0	21,9	8,7	29,1	16,0
Some primary	8,4	4,0	15,4	7,3	21,3	15,7	22,4	23,3
Complete primary	4,9	2,7	7,4	4,0	8,2	6,5	7,5	6,9
Some secondary	38,0	38,3	32,1	35,4	28,1	33,0	24,5	29,3
Matric/Grade 12	32,1	40,8	20,6	33,9	11,9	22,3	10,0	13,9
Higher	8,6	12,0	10,5	15,3	8,6	13,8	6,6	10,6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Census 2001; 2011

Table 2.7 shows that among males and females, the proportion of people with some secondary schooling continue to be highest across almost all age groups for both reporting years. There were notable decreases among both males and females who have attained primary school or less with females between ages 60 and 64 accounting for the largest decrease of 17,6 percentage points. In contrast, as shown above, proportions of those with matric and higher increased when 2001 and 2011 data were compared. The highest increases were observed among females aged between 30 and 39 years who have matric (with 13,3 percentage points); and among males aged between 30 and 39 years who have the same level of education (with 11,8 percentage points). The age group composed of the youngest people (20–29) had slightly higher proportions of females with matric and tertiary education than males.

Figure 2.4: Gender parity ratios for education attainment (20 years and above) by sex and age group, 2001 and 2011

2001

	No schooling	Some primary	Complete primary	Some secondary	Std 10/Grade 12	Higher
20 - 29	1,16	0,82	0,96	1,07	1,08	1,23
30 - 39	1,38	1,03	1,15	1,13	1,01	1,11
40 - 49	1,41	1,11	1,18	1,11	0,97	1,02
50 - 59	1,34	1,14	1,27	1,12	0,99	0,87
60 +	1,72	1,4	1,5	1,28	1,02	0,85

2011

	No schooling	Some primary	Complete primary	Some secondary	Std 10/Grade 12	Higher
20 - 29	0,89	0,68	0,8	0,94	1,09	1,25
30 - 39	1,03	0,84	0,97	1,03	1	1,13
40 - 49	1,41	1,16	1,29	1,2	1,07	1,07
50 – 59	1,52	1,27	1,32	1,2	1,08	0,99
60 +	1,5	1,33	1,47	1,25	1,15	0,86

Source: Census 2001; 2011

Figure 2.4 shows that when 2001 and 2011 data were compared, gender ratios show a stronger tendency towards female education attainment in nearly all age categories. As depicted in the table above, the ratio for those with matric has become more favourable to females when 2001 and 2011 are compared. In 2001, males in the age group categories 30–39 and 40–49 years were the only groups more likely to have matric than their female counterparts. Similarly, when the ratio for tertiary education was observed, proportions leaned in favour of female attainment with only those 50 years and above showing higher proportions for males in both 2001 and 2011. The ratios also show that there are proportionately more males than females in the age category of 20–39 (in 2014) who have attained lower levels of education (some primary and complete primary). The figure shows that while those between 30–39 years achieved parity in 2001, the picture changed in favour of males in 2011.

Education attainment and other socio-economic variables

The following section looks at education attainment using various socio-economic variables, such as household income, employment status, head of the household, the ages that females gave birth to their child as well as time use, in an attempt to assess educational outcomes in relation to different socio-economic factors.

Level of education for persons aged 20 and above by sex and the educational status of the household head

The data below looks at educational attainment for males and females within a household with respect to the highest level of education obtained by the household head. Table 2.8 analyses educational attainment for household members where the household head's highest level of educational attainment is less than matric. Table 2.9 and Figure 2.7 on the other hand, look at household heads who have obtained at least a university degree. The analysis reveals there is a relationship between the educational attainment of a household head and the educational outcome of other household members. Tables 2.8 and 2.9 additionally reveal gender influences in the educational outcomes of household members.

Table 2.8: Highest level of education for persons aged 20 and above by sex of household head with less than matric, 2014

Highest level of education	Male-headed households			Female-headed households		
	Male	**Female**	**Both**	**Male**	**Female**	**Both**
Less than matric	88,8	71,7	82,2	68,2	84,5	79,7
Matric/Grade 12	9,6	22,8	14,8	26,6	12,8	16,9
Other tertiary	1,0	3,6	2,0	2,7	1,8	2,1
Graduates	0,2	1,2	0,6	1,1	0,7	0,8
Other	0,3	0,7	0,5	1,3	0,2	0,6
Total	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**	**100,0**

Source: GHS 2014

Of those living in male-headed households whose highest level of education was matric, males were more likely to have a highest level of education of less than matric than their female counterparts (88,8% vs 71,7%). Levels of education for females living in male-headed households were generally more likely to have Grade 12 or more than their male counterparts.

An opposite trend was observed for males and females residing in female-headed households with less than matric. In these households, female household members were more likely to have less than matric (84,5%) than male household members (68,2%). Female household members were also less likely to have obtained higher levels of education when compared to their male counterparts.

Table 2.9: Highest level of education attained for persons aged 20 and above living in households headed by males/females with a bachelor's degree or higher, 2014

Figure 2.5: Graduates living in households where the household head's educational attainment is a bachelor's degree or higher , 2014

Highest level of education	Male-headed households			Female-headed households		
	Male	Female	Both	Male	Female	Both
Less than matric	2,4	6,0	4,0	15,6	4,5	7,2
Matric/Grade 12	6,1	27,1	15,5	35,7	6,9	13,8
Other tertiary	2,4	17,9	9,4	23,7	8,1	11,9
Graduates	88,9	47,4	70,3	24,7	80,4	67,0
Other	0,2	1,5	0,8	0,3	0,0	0,1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100
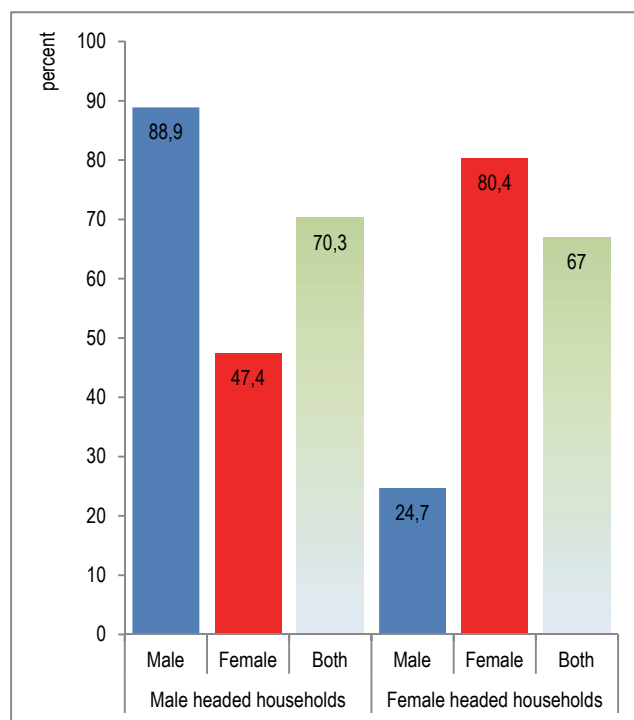
Source: GHS 2014

Table 2.9 shows the highest level of education for persons living in households headed by graduates. Again, the results indicate a gender match between the educational attainment of the household head and members of the household. Table 2.9 illustrates that persons (male and female) residing in households headed by graduates are also likely to have obtained a university degree or higher irrespective of the sex of the household head (70,3% for male-headed households and 67,0% for female-headed households). However, males living in male-headed households were more likely to be graduates compared to their female counterparts (88,9% among males vs. 47,4% among females). Similarly, of those residing in households headed by female graduates, a higher proportion of graduates was observed among females (80,4%) compared to males (24,7%).

These findings suggest that high levels of education of the household head plays a significant role in the educational outcomes of same sex household members.

Education attainment and household income

The analysis below focuses on educational outcomes in relation to estimated household monthly income for the year 2014. The analysis categorises household income into quintiles. Quintile 1 consists of households with an estimated monthly income of up to R1 500 per month. Individuals in the second and third quintiles live in households with incomes between R2 880–R5 460 a month, while those in quintile 4 have an estimated monthly household income of R14 000 and above.

Table 2.10: Education levels of persons aged 20 years and above, living in households with an income in quintile 1 (estimated monthly income up to R1 500) by sex, 2014

Highest level of education	Male		Female		Both		GPR
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	
Less than matric	1 381	74,6	1 440	74,7	2 820	74,6	1,0
Matric/Grade 12	390	21,1	405	21,0	794	21,0	1,0
Other tertiary	42	2,3	55	2,8	97	2,6	1,3
Graduates	10	0,6	17	0,9	27	0,7	1,6
Other	27	1,5	12	0,6	39	1,0	
Total	**1 851**	**100,0**	**1 928**	**100,0**	**3 778**	**100,0**	**1,0**

Source: GHS 2014

Table 2.10 above shows that in 2014, more than two thirds of those living in households with incomes classified in the first quintile (low income) had less than matric (74,6%), followed by those who have completed Grade 12 (21,0%). Proportionally, very little gender differences were noticeable between the two sexes in quintile 1, irrespective of level of education attained. However, GPR figures show that while parity has been reached between males and females with matric or less, the gender gap for those with tertiary education is widening (in favour of females), with a slightly wider gap observed amongst graduates.

Table 2.11: Education levels of persons aged 20 years and above, living in households with incomes between the 2nd and 3rd quintiles (estimated monthly income between R2 880–R5 460) by sex, 2014

Highest level of education	Male		Female		Both		GPR
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	
Less than matric	1 884	66,2	1 780	62,8	3 664	64,5	0,9
Matric/Grade 12	793	27,9	865	30,5	1 658	29,2	1,1
Other tertiary	104	3,7	127	4,5	231	4,1	1,2
Graduates	27	1,0	30	1,1	58	1,0	1,1
Other	38	1,3	33	1,2	71	1,3	
Total	**2 846**	**100,0**	**2 836**	**100,0**	**5 682**	**100,0**	**1,0**

Source: GHS 2014

Although persons with less than matric were also dominant in households falling in the middle income quintiles (2 and 3), proportions amongst this group were lower than those living in households belonging to the lowest quintile, quintile 1 (64,5% compared to 74,6%). In addition, females in households between quintiles 2 and 3, i.e. those with a monthly income between R2 880–R5 460, were slightly more likely to have obtained higher levels of education (i.e. matric or more) compared to their male counterparts (Table 2.11). With a GPR of 1,2, the gender gap was somewhat wider among those with a tertiary education other than a university degree.

Table 2.12: Education levels of persons aged 20 years and above, living in households in the 4th quintile (estimated monthly income of R14 000 and above) by sex, 2014

Highest level of education	Male		Female		Both		
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	GPR
Less than matric	783	23,7	629	19,2	1 412	21,4	0,8
Matric/Grade 12	1 295	39,2	1 310	39,9	2 605	39,5	1,0
Other tertiary	542	16,4	625	19,1	1 168	17,7	1,2
Graduates	648	19,6	680	20,7	1 329	20,2	1,0
Other	38	1,2	36	1,1	74	1,1	
Total	**3 307**	**100,0**	**3 281**	**100,0**	**6 588**	**100,0**	1,0

Source: GHS 2014

At 37,9% the proportion of both males and females residing in households in the 4th quintile were more likely to have a tertiary education compared to those in quintile 1 (3,3%) and quintiles 2 and 3 (5,1%). Proportionally, Table 2.12 above shows a similar trend to that depicted in quintiles 2 and 3; females living in households falling in the highest quintile (quintile 4) were more likely to have matric or tertiary-level education. However, in contrast to Table 2.11, gender parity in quintile 4 has been reached only for those whose highest level of education is Grade 12 or a university degree (graduates). A slight widening of the gender gap (in favour of females) is observed amongst those with a tertiary education other than a university degree.

In summary, the analysis above showed that, irrespective of estimated household income, gender parity has been reached for males and females whose highest level of education is a matric qualification. For households with incomes falling in the lowest quintile 1, gender parity is also evident amongst those with lower that matric. In terms of tertiary-level education, proportions amongst females with tertiary were higher than amongst their male counterparts. This was true for all four quintiles. However, with a GPR of 1,6, a considerably larger gender gap was observed amongst graduates in quintile 1. On the other hand, gender parity was reached amongst graduate males and females residing in households with incomes falling in the highest quintile (quintile 4). Irrespective of household income, the likelihood of females to have achieved a non-university degree was high.

Education attainment and employment status

The analysis below summarises education attainment for males and females given their labour market status.

Table 2.13: Education attainment of persons aged 20 years and above by sex and employment status, 2001 and 2011

Highest level of education	Male						Female					
	Employed		Unemployed		Not economically active		Employed		Unemployed		Not economically active	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
No schooling	10,5	4,0	15,1	5,0	19,3	11,1	9,6	3,5	15,5	5,4	24,9	12,9
Some primary	14,7	9,1	18,9	12,4	17,2	16,2	12,4	7,5	15,9	10,3	17,6	16,4
Complete primary	6,0	4,0	7,7	5,2	5,9	5,0	5,7	3,5	7,5	4,9	6,5	5,6
Some secondary	29,2	31,6	34,8	42,9	35,4	36,7	27,7	27,7	36,3	42,6	31,0	35,1
Matric/Grade 12	25,6	33,0	20,3	29,6	17,0	24,8	26,6	34,2	20,9	31,0	15,3	23,6
Higher	13,9	18,3	3,2	4,9	5,1	6,1	18,0	23,6	3,8	5,7	4,8	6,4
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: Census 2001; 2011

As shown in Table 2.13, irrespective of employment status, general increases were observed for males and females with some secondary school and above when 2001 and 2011 data were compared. The largest increases were observed among unemployed females with matric with a 10,1 percentage point increase and employed females with a 5,6 percentage point increase for tertiary education. The table also shows that, for both reporting years, females were more likely to have a tertiary-level education qualification than their male counterparts.

The proportions of the not economically active category showed notable decreases among those with primary school and lower. The largest decrease was observed among females with no schooling, which declined by 12 percentage points between 2001 and 2011.

Education attainment and age at first birth for females

Research shows that a birth during the teenage years can curtail education. Women who bear their first child while still quite young tend to complete fewer years of formal schooling and not proceed to higher education compared to those who delay entry into motherhood (Moore & Waite, 1977)[19]. Using data collected during Census 2011, the analysis below looks at females' educational outcomes given their age as well as the age at which they first gave birth.

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[19] Moore, K.A. and Waite, L.J. 1977. Family planning perspectives, 9, 220-225

Figure 2.6: Age at first birth for females aged 21–54 years by highest level of education, 2011

Age at first-born child	Less than matric	Matric	Other tertiary	Graduates
Thousand ('000)				
Less than 19 yrs.	1 460	518	89	24
19-24 yrs.	2 252	1 474	325	103
25 yrs +	670	663	280	184
Total	4 382	2 655	694	311

Source: Census 2011
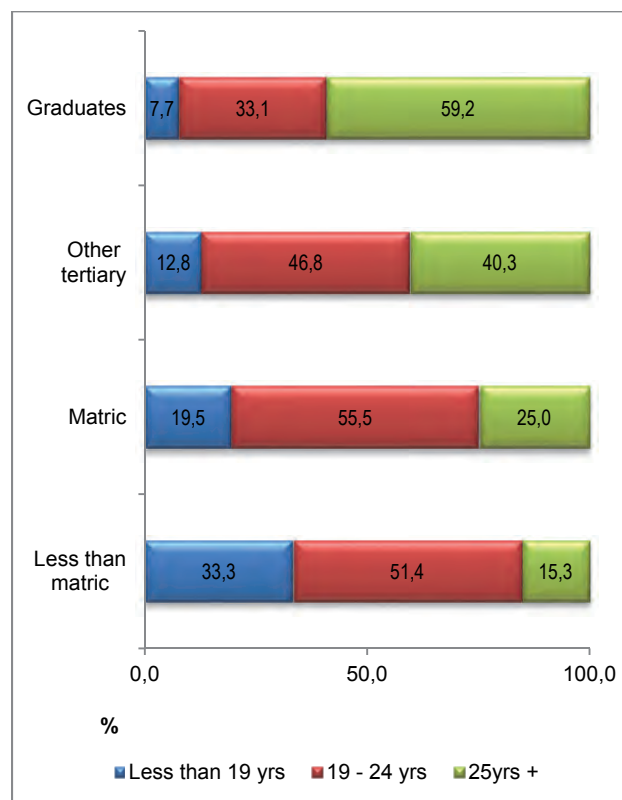
Census 2011 data, as summarised in Figure 2.6 above, shows a sub-population of females aged between 21–54 years by their highest level of education attained. The figure shows that education is positively associated with age at first birth, i.e. the older the age at first birth, the higher the level of education attained. This is particularly true for females who have obtained a university degree. Among graduates, almost two-thirds (59,2%) gave birth to their first-born child at the age of 25 years or older. A larger proportion amongst those with other tertiary qualifications were also likely to have given birth to their first child at the age of 25 years or older (40,3%) compared to those with matric or lower. However, in contrast to their counterparts with degrees, a higher proportion amongst this group (46,8%) gave birth to their first child at a younger age (19–24 years).

Among those with less than matric, over a third (33,3%) had their first child when they were teenagers (younger than 19 years). This figure was higher than amongst females who had attained matric (19,5%), other tertiary (12,8%) or university degrees (7,7%).

Education attainment and time use

Gender inequalities at home coupled with perceptions around traditional female responsibilities can limit females' continued access to education, which in turn can potentially limit their future employment and empowerment possibilities. Data analysed by Stats SA's 2010 Time Use Survey (TUS) showed that in 2010, females spent more time on non-Systematic National Account (non-SNA) activities compared to their male counterparts. Males on the other hand spent most of their time on SNA activities[20]. SNA production includes activities such as engaging in waged employment, domestic work or looking for work. Non-SNA production consists of household maintenance activities such as: housework, personal and household shopping, care of persons in the household such as looking after children, the sick, the elderly etc. This section determines gender differences in the educational attainment of males and females by time spent on non-SNA activities.

Table 2.14: Mean minutes per day spent by respondents who engaged in a non-SNA activities by sex

Highest level of education	Non-SNA activities		
	Male	Female	Both sexes
Less than grade 12	128	248	196
Grade 12	138	266	210
Tertiary	129	226	187
Average	**131**	**246**	**198**

Source: Time Use Survey 2010

Table 2.14 looks at education attainment in relation to performing non-SNA activities by sex. Non-SNA activities comprise household maintenance, care of persons and community service.

In 2010, females were more likely to engage in non-SNA activities compared to males. In total, females spent almost twice as much time than their male counterparts on non-productive activities (246 mean minutes per day for females compared to 113 for males). Table 2.14 also shows that females spent more time performing activities relating to household maintenance, care of persons and community service, regardless of their level of education.

Among males, few differences were notable in the amount of time spent on non-SNA activities by educational attainment. For example, males with tertiary education spent only 1 minute more on non-SNA activities than those with less than matric and spent 9 minutes less than those who had obtained Grade 12. Among females, however, time spent on non-SNA activities was negatively related to levels of educational attainment. Females with tertiary education spent the least amount of time engaging in non-SNA activities compared to those with lower levels of educational attainment. This could suggest that, reducing the burden of household and care responsibilities among females could provide them with an opportunity to pursue higher levels of education.

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[20] http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/Report-02-02-00/Report-02-02-002010.pdf

CHAPTER 3: ACCESS TO EDUCATION AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

The Constitution of South Africa states that the right to education is one of the fundamental human rights. In agreement, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) points out that *"universal access to quality education is not a privilege but rather a basic human right"*[21] and that equal and quality education has the potential to increase a country's gross domestic product per capita. Chapter 3 determines access to education by looking at the population of children who are attending and not attending school. The chapter starts off with tables showing distributions of public schools by their quintile status so as to set a context with which the rest of the analyses discussed in the chapter can be understood.

Table 3.1: Distribution of public primary schools by province and quintile status, 2004 and 2014

Province	2004					2014				
	QNT 1	QNT 2	QNT 3	QNT 4	QNT 5	QNT 1	QNT 2	QNT 3	QNT 4	QNT 5
WC	24,4	9,1	15,4	22,6	28,4	24,9	12,3	12,5	22,1	28,2
EC	37,0	32,2	19,1	6,9	4,8	37,6	31,1	28,2	1,2	1,9
NC	21,4	32,5	22,6	10,5	13,0	33,9	23,7	21,0	12,4	9,0
FS	70,5	10,4	8,8	6,0	4,4	59,6	13,9	14,7	6,1	5,7
KZN	35,3	22,7	23,1	10,9	8,1	34,6	29,6	19,3	9,3	7,2
NW	40,7	19,3	35,9	2,1	2,0	39,9	20,0	32,1	6,8	1,2
GP	9,1	10,6	33,3	26,4	20,6	15,0	12,8	28,4	23,6	20,2
MP	26,5	27,3	20,7	15,5	10,0	54,8	31,5	7,0	2,9	3,7
LP	38,0	33,7	22,8	3,9	1,6	40,4	42,0	15,6	0,4	1,6
RSA	**35,9**	**24,2**	**21,9**	**10,0**	**8,0**	**37,2**	**27,8**	**21,0**	**7,2**	**6,8**

Source: DBE 2004, 2014

Table 3.1 shows the distribution of public primary schools by province and quintile status. Schools classified as quintile 1, 2 and 3 are non-fee paying schools subsidised fully by the government, while quintile 4 and 5 schools' learners pay fees. In 2004, the largest proportion of quintile 1 schools were found in Free State (70,5%), followed by North West (40,7%). Ten years on, the largest proportion of quintile 1 schools were still concentrated in Free State. However, Mpumalanga recorded the second largest share of quintile 1 schools (59,6% and 54,8% respectively). Quintile 4 and 5 schools on the other hand, have consistently been concentrated in Western Cape and Gauteng over the ten-year period of reporting.

In terms of no-fee schools (quintile 1, 2 and 3), there was a general increase in primary schools categorised as quintile 1 and 2 over the ten-year period, while those categorised as quintile 3 declined. The highest increase among quintile 1 schools was observed in Mpumalanga (28,3 percentage points). On the other hand, the decline noted within quintile 3 schools was mostly driven by decreases observed in Mpumalanga and Limpopo (13,3 and 7,2 percentage points respectively).

Nationally, there was a drop in the proportion of learner-paying schools (quintile 4 and 5) between 2004 and 2014. However, increases in quintile 4 schools were observed in North West (from 2,1% in 2004 to 6,8% in 2014) and Northern Cape (from 10,5% in 2004 to 12,4% in 2014). With an increase of 1,3 percentage points, the Free State was the only province to record an increase in quintile 5 schools (from 4,4% in 2004 to 5,7% in 2014).

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[21] http://www.unicef.org/education/bege_61657.html

Table 3.2: Distribution of public secondary schools by province and quintile status, 2004 and 2014

Province	2004					2014				
	QNT 1	QNT 2	QNT 3	QNT 4	QNT 5	QNT 1	QNT 2	QNT 3	QNT 4	QNT 5
WC	6,0	7,4	22,3	27,9	36,4	9,4	11,3	20,3	23,3	35,5
EC	41,8	29,7	18,7	5,4	4,5	42,1	27,9	26,3	1,8	1,9
NC	18,2	31,8	23,3	11,9	14,8	28,8	21,4	20,2	16,5	13,2
FS	44,5	17,9	17,9	10,1	9,5	41,4	19,3	23,0	6,4	9,8
KZN	32,2	23,8	23,5	11,6	8,9	30,3	30,8	20,2	10,6	8,1
NW	33,5	19,4	41,9	2,6	2,5	32,5	21,0	34,3	10,9	1,3
GP	6,3	11,2	31,5	27,9	23,0	14,3	12,1	26,4	25,0	22,2
MP	21,4	20,1	27,5	18,3	12,7	48,2	34,1	10,6	3,0	4,0
LP	43,2	28,5	22,5	4,1	1,7	40,6	41,0	16,1	0,7	1,6
RSA	**34,0**	**24,2**	**23,3**	**9,9**	**8,6**	**35,2**	**28,0**	**22,1**	**7,5**	**7,2**

Source: DBE 2004, 2014

Table 3.2 shows the distribution of public secondary schools by province and quintile status. Classifying schools within these quintile statuses differ amongst provinces. In 2014, Western Cape had the highest proportion of quintile 5 schools while provinces like Mpumalanga, Free State, Limpopo and Eastern Cape had relatively high proportions of the schools classified as quintile 1.

In terms of non-fee paying schools (quintiles 1, 2 and 3), there was a general increase in secondary schools categorised as quintile 1 and 2 over the ten-year period, while those categorised as quintile 3 declined. The highest increase among quintile 1 schools was observed in Mpumalanga (26,3 percentage points), while the decline noted within quintile 3 schools was mostly driven by decreases in Mpumalanga and Limpopo (6,9 and 6,4 percentage points respectively).

Nationally, there was a drop in the proportion of learner-paying schools (quintile 4 and 5) between 2004 and 2014. However, increases within quintile 4 schools were observed in North West (8,3 percentage points) and Northern Cape (4,6 percentage points). With an increase of 0,3 percentage points, the Free State was the only province to record an increase in quintile 5 (from 9,5% in 2004 to 9,8% in 2014).

Figure 3.1a: Age structure of male and female populations, 2001
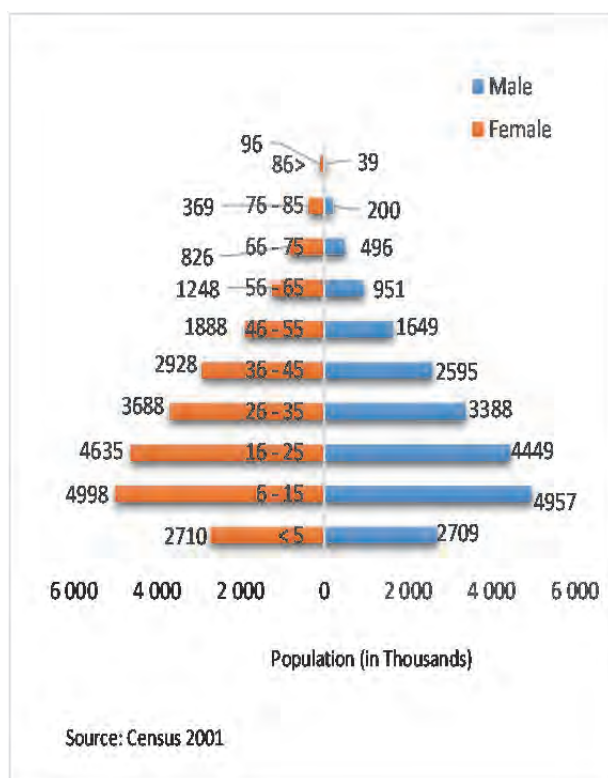
Figure 3.1b: Age structure of male and female populations, 2011

Source: Census 2001

Source: Census 2011
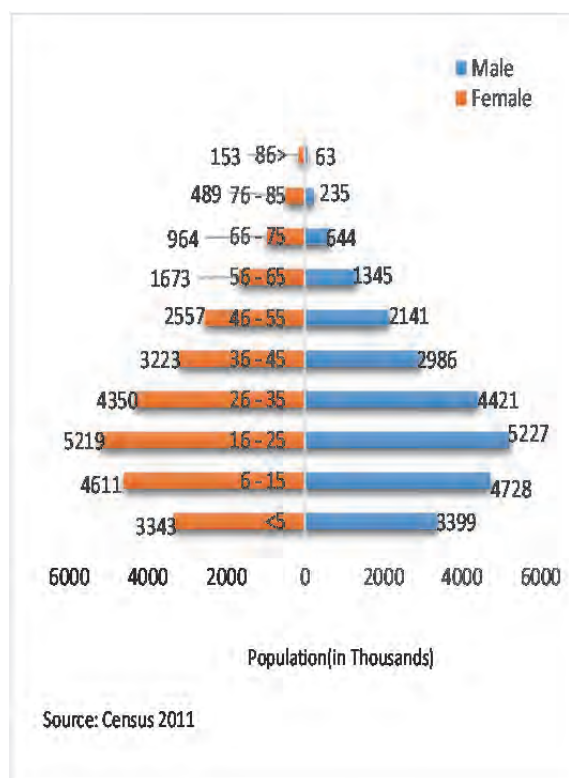
Figures 3.1a and 3.1b show the distributions of the male and female population by age groups in 2001 and 2011. In general the percentage share of the age group 6–15 years (official school-going age) within the total population decreased between 2001 and 2011 from 22,2% (of 44,8 million persons in 2001) to 18,0% (of 52 million persons in 2011).

With an overall decrease of 6,2% from the population aged 6–15 years of about 10 million (5 million boys and 5 million girls) in 2001 to 9,3 million (4,7 million boys and 4,6 million girls) in 2011, the age cohort 6–15 years went from being the largest age group contributing to the South African population in 2001, to becoming the second largest cohort in 2011 when compared to the 16–25 age group cohort.

Table 3.3: Entry levels of learners into Grade 1 by sex and province, 2004 and 2013

	2004		2013		Change (%)	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
Province	**Thousand**					
Western Cape	48	46	47	46	-2,1	0,0
Eastern Cape	128	115	84	78	-34,4	-32,2
Northern Cape	8	8	12	12	50,0	50,0
Free State	28	26	27	26	-3,6	0,0
KwaZulu-Natal	133	118	113	106	-15,0	-10,2
North West	39	37	31	30	-20,5	-18,9
Gauteng	74	70	100	97	35,1	38,6
Mpumalanga	44	41	43	41	-2,3	0,0
Limpopo	74	70	66	64	-10,8	-8,6
Total	**577**	**532**	**524**	**500**	**-9,2**	**-6,0**
	Per cent					
Western Cape	50,7	49,3	50,5	49,5		
Eastern Cape	52,6	47,4	51,9	48,1		
Northern Cape	52,9	47,1	51,4	48,6		
Free State	51,7	48,3	51,0	49,0		
KwaZulu-Natal	52,9	47,1	51,5	48,5		
North West	51,2	48,8	50,5	49,5		
Gauteng	51,5	48,5	50,8	49,2		
Mpumalanga	51,8	48,2	51,3	48,7		
Limpopo	51,5	48,5	50,9	49,1		
Total	**52,0**	**48,0**	**51,2**	**48,8**		

Source: DBE 2004, 2013
*The devisor is the total number of learners into grade per province.

Table 3.3 shows the level of new entrants into the first grade of ordinary schools, regardless of age. Between 2004 and 2013, the level of new entrants into Grade 1 dropped amongst both male and female groups – with percentage changes of 9,2 and 6,0 percentage points respectively. Amongst both males and females, overall declines were mainly driven by declines observed in KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, and North West. In addition, the decrease of new entrants also complements the result previously observed (Figures 3.1a and 3.1b) with regard to the population decrease of those who are of official school age (6–15 years).

Although levels of new entrants decreased, during the reference period, gender gaps (GPR) across all provinces improved. Significant improvements were observed in Northern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal with declines of 0,06 and 0,05 units respectively.

Figure 3.2a: Male lower secondary education attainment rate (cohort 3–7 years above official age) by province, 2004 and 2014
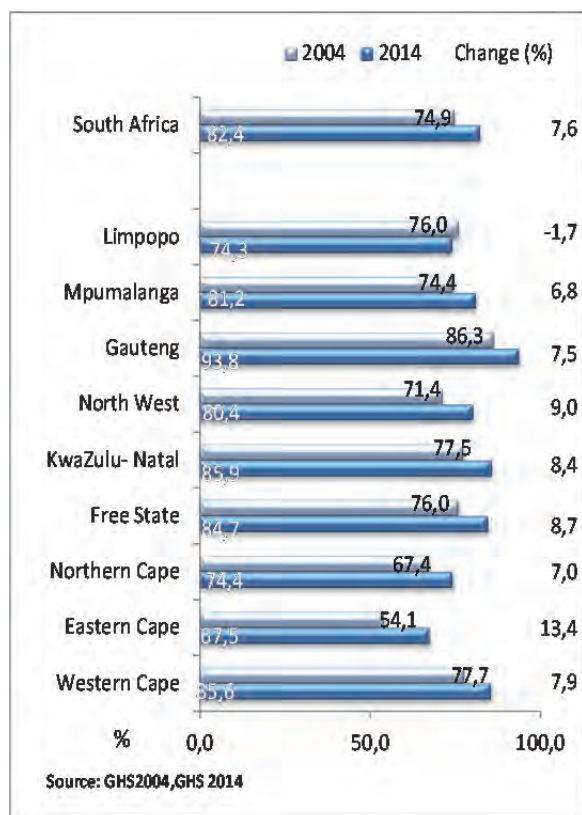
Figure 3.2b: Female lower secondary education attainment rate (cohort 3–7 years above official age) by province, 2004 and 2014

Source: GHS2004,GHS 2014

Source: GHS 2004,GHS 2014
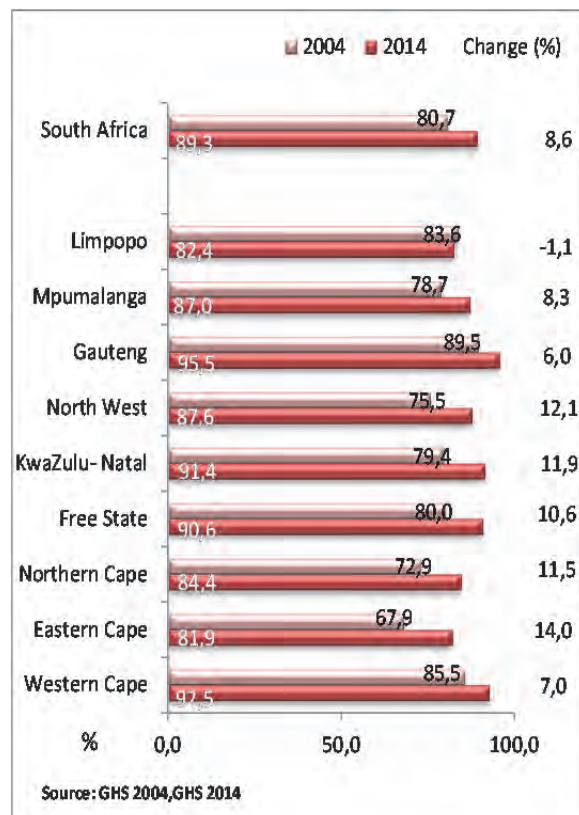
The lower secondary attainment rate for a specific age cohort (i.e. 18–22 years) is defined as the measure of long-term trends in participation in lower secondary education by the cohort of interest. The value (rate) indicates the percentage of the cohort which completed at least lower secondary schooling.

Figures 3.2a and b depict male and female attainment rates across all provinces for the age group 18–22 years (age cohort 3–7 years above the official age of last grade in lower secondary school).

In general, attainment rates for both male and female groups increased between 2004 and 2014 by 7,6 and 8,6 percentage points respectively. Females showed higher attainment rates across all provinces when compared to their male counterparts. Over the period 2004 and 2014, increases in attainment rates occurred for both males and females across all provinces except in Limpopo, where there was a decline of more than one percentage point for both sexes (i.e. 1,7% and 1,1% respectively).

Among males, Gauteng maintained a higher rate both in 2004 and 2014 when compared to other provinces with rates of 86,3% and 93,8% respectively for both years of reporting. On the other hand, the Eastern Cape maintained the lowest rates for the age cohort in both years (54,1% in 2004 and 67,4% in 2014). The trend remained the same among females, with females residing in Gauteng showing higher attainment rates in 2004 and 2014 (89,5% and 95,5% respectively). Similar to the trend observed among males, females in the Eastern Cape had lower secondary attainment rates in both years when compared to the other provinces.

National Senior Certificate Examination

The analysis below looks at gender differentials for those who have achieved their National Senior Certificate (NSC)[22]. This is important since attaining a National Senior Certificate enables individuals to enrol in higher education institutions which subsequently leads to better job prospects and better earnings[23].

Table 3.4: Total number of candidates who passed in NSC by sex and province, 2004 and 2014

Provinces	Male			Female		
	Total wrote	Passed	Passed	Total wrote	Passed	Passed
	Thousand		%	Thousand		%
Western Cape	17	15	85,9	22	18	84,3
Eastern Cape	28	15	55,2	36	19	52,1
Northern Cape	3	3	85,0	4	3	82,0
Free State	12	9	80,4	13	10	77,1
KwaZulu-Natal	95	82	85,8	58	43	73,9
North West	17	11	65,7	20	13	64,1
Gauteng	32	25	76,4	39	30	77,2
Mpumalanga	17	11	64,3	20	12	59,6
Limpopo	36	26	74,4	42	28	67,5
South Africa	**258**	**198**	**76,7**	**253**	**176**	**69,5**
2014						
Western Cape	21	17	83,2	27	22	81,5
Eastern Cape	30	20	67,8	37	23	63,5
Northern Cape	4	3	76,8	5	4	76,0
Free State	12	10	84,4	14	11	81,4
KwaZulu-Natal	65	46	70,6	75	51	68,9
North West	12	11	87,3	14	11	82,3
Gauteng	45	38	85,5	55	46	84,0
Mpumalanga	21	17	81,3	25	19	77,1
Limpopo	34	26	76,6	39	27	69,6
South Africa	**243**	**188**	**77,5**	**290**	**216**	**74,4**

Source: DBE 2004, 2014
*The devisor is the total of learners who wrote matric.

The main measuring technique of learning achievement in South Africa is the NSC, which takes place at the end of Grade 12. This examination, which is written at the end of a learner's school career, has been historically the most important mechanism used for assessing the quality of the education system (Education for all country report: South Africa 2008)[24].

Table 3.4 shows the levels of candidates who participated in writing the National Senior Certificate (NSC) examinations and those who managed to pass the exams in 2004 and 2014. In general, there was an improvement in the proportion of males and females who passed the examinations, with increases of 0,8 and 4,9 percentage points respectively between 2004 and 2014. However, in 2014 the percentage of females who passed across all provinces were slightly lower than their male counterparts

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[22] Final examination was called the Senior Certificate (SC). It was replaced with effect in 2008 with the National Senior Certificate (NSC).
[23] McCormick M. Why a High School Diploma is Important to Your Future. http://classroom.synonym.com/
[24] Education for All (EFA) country report: South Africa, 2008. Retrieved from www.education.gov.za

2014 figures show that among females, the highest percentage of females who passed their NSC was found in Gauteng (84,0%). This was closely followed by those residing in North West (82,3%) and the Western Cape (81,5%). For males who passed their NSC, North West had the highest percentage (87,3%), followed by Gauteng (85,5%) and the Free State (84,4%).

Although there were improvements across most provinces (including the Eastern Cape) over the past ten years, the Eastern Cape maintained the lowest pass rates for both males and females (67,8% and 63,5% respectively) in 2014. The largest improvements among males and females were found in North West (21,6 and 18,2 percentage points respectively), Mpumalanga (17,0 and 17,5 percentage points respectively) and the Eastern Cape (12,6 and 11,4 percentage points respectively). On the other hand, noticeable declines among males who passed their NSC were observed for those residing in KwaZulu-Natal and Northern Cape (down by 15,2 and 8,2 percentage points respectively). Among females, significant decreases were also noted in the same provinces i.e. KwaZulu-Natal (5,0 percentage points) and Northern Cape (6,0 percentage points). However, the decline among males in both was more than three times the decline observed for females

Figure 3.3: Percentage of candidates who passed NSC with endorsements by sex and province, 2004 and 2014
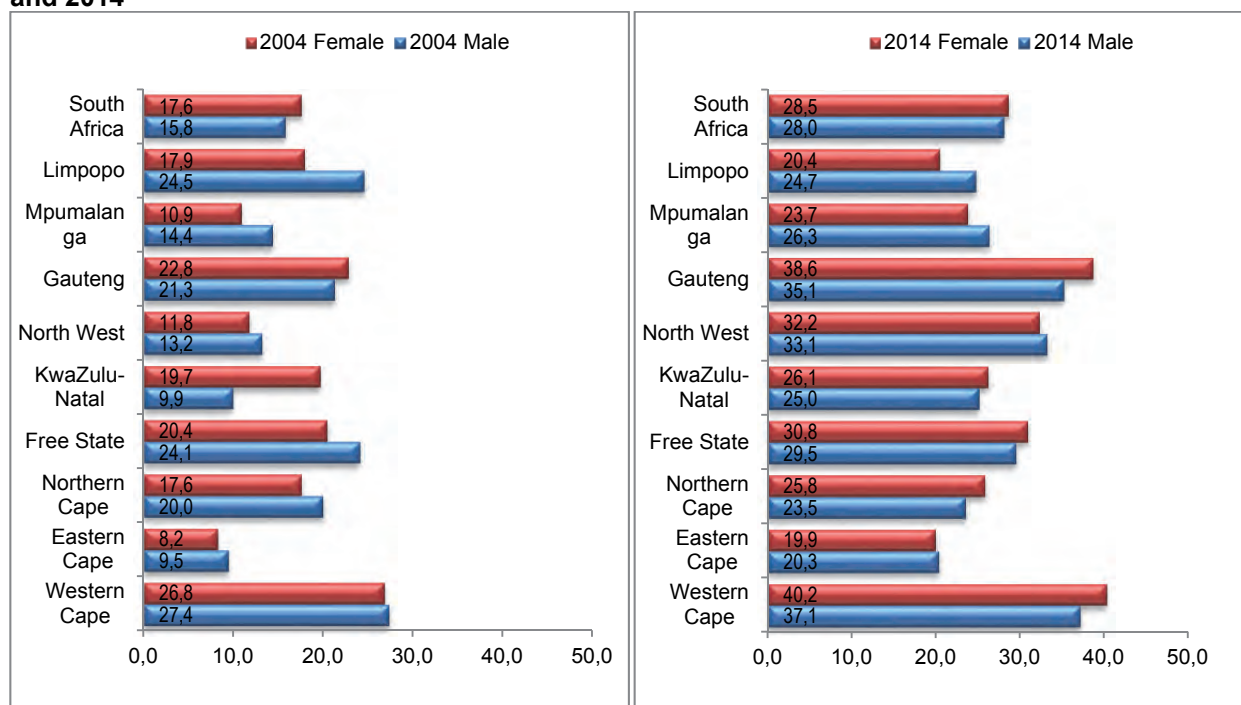
Source: DBE 2004, 2014

According to the 2014 National Senior Certificate (NSC)[25] technical report, the performance of candidates in the NSC ranks as one of the indicators of quality in the schooling system. Together with endorsement passes, they measure a country's education quality. Figure 3.3 illustrates endorsement passes amongst leaners in different provinces who wrote their Senior Certificate Exams in 2004 and 2014. The national percentage of endorsements had always been high for females. However, although females maintained a slightly higher percentage of those with matric endorsements compared to males in 2014 (28,5% vs 28,0%), males recorded higher increases (12,2 percentage points) than females (10,9 percentage points).

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[25] National Senior Certificate technical report 2014, retrieved from www.education.gov.za

During 2014, improvements in endorsement passes were observed in all provinces, with the highest achievers among males and females living in Western Cape, followed by Gauteng. The highest percentage difference between 2004 and 2014 among females was recorded in North West with 20,4 percentage points, followed by Gauteng at 15,8 percentage points. Limpopo showed the least improvement among females at 2,5 percentage points. Girls in the Eastern Cape remained the lowest with 19,9% of endorsements. In 2014, progress made among males who obtained endorsements was driven by North West and KwaZulu-Natal at 19,9 and 15,1 percentage points respectively.

Table 3.5: Average percentage scores for learners who passed matric by subject, school quintile status and province

SUBJECT	QUINTILE STATUS	EC	FS	GT	KZN	LP	MP	NC	NW	WC	RSA
ACCOUNTING	1	34,2	38,8	36,2	30,8	35,3	34,1	29,5	35,9	32,9	34,0
	2	33,9	39,9	37,0	32,2	37,4	36,9	33,4	36,8	33,0	35,0
	3	32,2	47,6	35,4	32,9	39,9	39,3	37,0	50,3	37,6	35,1
	4	33,4	58,7	38,9	38,5	50,1	48,1	53,3	61,5	55,1	39,4
	5	48,3	49,2	56,1	51,4	55,2	56,0	48,1	49,7	59,5	53,9
ECONOMICS	1	32,0	33,4	38,2	33,3	33,3	31,4	35,9	39,5	38,0	33,4
	2	32,7	33,3	38,7	35,4	35,4	32,3	39,5	41,2	37,2	35,1
	3	32,8	38,6	37,6	35,9	37,8	32,7	37,8	44,4	39,5	36,3
	4	33,0	42,8	38,2	40,7	49,5	32,3	46,4	57,3	50,8	38,7
	5	34,9	35,0	46,3	47,0	55,9	46,6	51,3	42,7	61,6	45,6
MATHEMATICS	1	24,0	32,2	34,3	22,2	31,9	30,7	32,6	33,9	30,7	27,5
	2	24,6	34,1	34,6	24,3	32,9	32,5	33,0	32,1	31,5	28,8
	3	25,7	37,5	35,1	24,6	36,1	33,0	32,7	41,9	32,5	29,6
	4	30,6	51,9	36,4	29,2	47,7	42,6	48,2	55,7	52,0	34,0
	5	42,4	40,3	50,4	40,8	51,6	50,2	38,0	40,9	53,9	47,5
PHYSICAL SCIENCE	1	28,8	34,9	34,6	29,2	35,0	33,8	34,1	35,3	30,5	32,4
	2	29,0	36,7	34,5	30,4	36,7	34,4	33,5	33,9	30,6	33,1
	3	30,1	38,1	35,4	30,6	39,3	34,5	32,7	41,7	30,7	33,6
	4	34,1	50,0	36,2	34,9	48,9	41,1	44,1	57,0	51,0	36,6
	5	42,7	40,4	50,0	45,2	48,7	47,9	31,6	39,1	52,9	48,0

Source: DBE 2014

Table 3.5 shows provincial figures of average percentage matric result scores obtained by learners by subject and quintile status of the school for the year 2014. The results show a positive relationship between average scores achieved and the quintile status of schools. In other words, increases in average scores were accompanied by the higher the quintile status of a school,

irrespective of both subject field and province. However, the narrowest gaps in average scores obtained between low and high quintile schools were recorded in the subjects of mathematics and science, suggesting overall difficulties across the country. This was particularly true in provinces such as Northern Cape, North West and the Eastern Cape.

When average scores for accounting by province and quintile status were observed, the results showed an average score which is below 50% for the majority of schools. This was irrespective of the quantile status of schools and provinces. The few schools that obtained average scores of more than 50% were mainly from quintile 4 and 5, with only one in quintile 3. The North West was the only province with the average score above 60%, which was for accounting in quintile 4 schools.

The patterns for Economics were similar to that observed for Accounting with most schools, irrespective of province and quantile status, achieving an average of less than 50%. The table also shows that only four provinces managed to obtain average scores above 50%, with the highest average score of 61,6% recorded in the Western Cape.

The average scores were even lower for mathematics, with a highest score of just above 50% recorded in the North West province. KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape recorded the lowest scores for quantiles 1, 2, 3 and 4 schools with average scores that barely reached 30%.

Table 3.6: Learners who achieved an overall bachelor's pass and who studied mathematics as a subject by sex, 2014

	Male						Female					
Province	**Q1**	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Q5**	**Male total**	**Q1**	**Q2**	**Q3**	**Q4**	**Q5**	**Female total**
Eastern Cape	31,1	34,3	41,6	50,2	60,2	**42,3**	26,1	30,1	37,8	48,7	66,6	**41,5**
Free State	46,2	41,0	46,2	49,5	67,3	**50,7**	47,0	40,0	40,6	48,6	74,5	**52,1**
Gauteng	56,1	51,5	53,9	54,6	67,3	**60,3**	57,3	52,6	51,6	56,2	76,2	**64,1**
KwaZulu-Natal	32,4	39,6	41,9	47,7	62,7	**45,6**	30,6	37,0	39,1	50,5	71,4	**46,7**
Limpopo	41,3	43,7	50,7	61,8	64,3	**46,3**	34,1	36,0	45,9	59,4	75,0	**41,2**
Mpumalanga	43,1	44,3	49,7	45,8	58,6	**46,1**	39,1	41,3	48,6	52,1	66,6	**45,2**
Northern Cape	33,3	46,2	41,9	42,5	56,6	**48,0**	37,3	43,2	35,4	48,3	69,0	**52,8**
North West	50,5	58,8	49,8	54,5	76,4	**54,4**	45,0	48,0	47,2	61,9	87,5	**55,2**
Western Cape	51,8	47,0	56,9	44,9	74,4	**67,7**	48,5	48,5	53,1	56,9	83,0	**74,6**
RSA	**39,2**	**42,5**	**46,9**	**50,8**	**66,6**	**50,3**	**35,3**	**38,3**	**43,7**	**53,9**	**74,9**	**50,9**

Source: DBE 2014

Table 3.6 shows the proportion of learners who achieved an overall bachelor's pass and took mathematics as a subject. The data is shown for each province by schools' quintile statuses and the sex of learners. Generally in all provinces, females in quintile 5 schools who achieved a bachelor's pass were more likely to study mathematics than their male counterparts in matric. In quintile 1 schools, males were more likely to be enrolled in the subject in all provinces except Northern Cape (4,0 percentage points), Free State and Gauteng.

Eastern Cape, Mpumalanga and Northern Cape had the lowest share of bachelor pass students who studied mathematics in the country, for both poor and rich schools. North West had the highest proportion of males (76,4%) and females (87,5%) in quintile 5 schools with learners who had a bachelor's pass and mathematics as one of their subjects. Gauteng and Western Cape remained the provinces with the highest uptake of the subject in quintile 1 and quintile 5 schools for both sexes.

Table 3.7: Learners who achieved an overall bachelor's pass and who studied physical science as a subject, 2014

	Male						Female					
Province	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Male total	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Female total
Western Cape	54,9	43,0	51,5	42,2	76,2	**67,4**	49,0	38,1	46,3	52,0	83,4	**70,6**
Eastern Cape	34,1	37,2	43,0	53,1	61,5	**44,8**	28,5	35,5	41,5	52,2	68,0	**45,0**
Northern Cape	28,0	55,1	41,1	42,5	59,3	**48,9**	24,7	50,6	37,4	46,1	73,0	**53,3**
Free State	44,4	41,3	43,7	51,4	66,8	**49,5**	44,8	38,0	40,1	49,6	74,6	**50,0**
KwaZulu-Natal	35,9	43,4	45,8	50,4	68,1	**49,7**	34,1	39,7	42,2	51,5	76,1	**49,5**
North-West	49,9	56,3	49,9	55,3	78,7	**54,0**	42,7	46,1	45,9	60,4	89,4	**52,2**
Gauteng	54,4	47,2	51,6	52,5	69,1	**59,0**	53,0	52,8	49,2	54,2	77,0	**61,7**
Mpumalanga	42,7	44,6	51,0	47,0	58,8	**46,2**	40,7	42,2	49,2	56,9	66,8	**46,1**
Limpopo	41,8	44,0	51,5	61,7	66,4	**46,9**	33,7	36,7	46,9	60,9	74,8	**41,4**
RSA	**41,0**	**43,9**	**48,1**	**51,8**	**68,9**	**51,6**	**36,9**	**40,2**	**44,9**	**54,0**	**76,3**	**51,2**

Source: DBE 2014

Table 3.7 above shows that in all provinces, females who achieved a bachelor's pass in quintile 5 schools were more likely to study physical science in matric than their male counterparts. Generally, in quintile 1 schools, more males studied the subject than their female counterparts, with the exception of Free State with a small difference of 0,4 percentage points. When the geographic area and learners with bachelor passes who studied physical science were compared, learners in rural provinces like Northern Cape and Eastern Cape were less likely to fall in this category. However, the gap between these two provinces and other provinces was narrower in more affluent schools with 59,3% for males, 73,0% for females (Northern Cape) and 61,5% for males and 68,0% for females (Eastern Cape).

Table 3.8: Learners who achieved an overall bachelor's pass and who enrolled for mathematics by population group and school's quintile status, 2014

Population group	Males						Females					
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total males	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total females
Black African	39,2	42,3	46,8	49,2	52,3	44,8	35,3	38,2	43,4	50,7	62,9	44,2
Coloureds	35,7	48,0	48,9	44,4	61,9	56,6	51,4	52,9	51,3	56,0	73,9	68,6
Indian/Asian	0,0	90,0	51,2	64,1	69,4	68,2	0,0	75,0	73,0	74,9	81,6	80,4
White	0,0	88,2	58,2	67,1	78,8	77,7	0,0	100,0	57,7	82,5	88,4	87,7
RSA	**39,2**	**42,5**	**46,9**	**50,8**	**66,5**	**50,2**	**35,3**	**38,3**	**43,7**	**53,9**	**74,9**	**50,9**

Source: DBE 2014

Table 3.8 illustrates that, among males and females who took mathematics as a subject and achieved a bachelor's pass, the proportion of learners who enrolled for the subject continue to be highest across quintile 5 schools for all population groups. White and Indian/Asian students (irrespective of the school's quintile status) were more likely to take up mathematics and pass with endorsements across all school categories. Moreover, a higher proportion of Indian/Asian and white females took mathematics as a subject and achieved a bachelor's pass when compared to their male counterparts. This was true, particularly for schools in quintiles 4 and 5. Males in lower quintile schools (1–3) were more likely to study mathematics. The converse is true for richer schools (quintiles 4 and 5), where a higher percentage of their females who passed matric with endorsements also studied mathematics. Irrespective of the socio-economic status of the school, coloured females who passed Grade 12 with a bachelor's pass were more likely to take mathematics as a subject than their male counterparts.

Table 3.9: Learners who achieved an overall bachelor's pass and who enrolled for physical science by population group and school's quintile status, 2014

Population group	Males						Females					
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total male	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Female total
Black African	41,0	43,7	48,3	50,0	54,5	**46,2**	36,9	40,1	44,8	51,3	64,1	**45,2**
Coloureds	43,5	54,2	41,9	42,1	63,3	**56,4**	39,1	57,4	43,1	50,4	73,9	**66,3**
Indian/Asian	0,0	90,9	63,6	70,5	74,7	**73,8**	0,0	75,0	82,4	77,2	84,5	**83,2**
White	0,0	88,9	41,3	67,9	79,4	**77,8**	0,0	100,0	49,0	85,2	90,7	**89,7**
RSA	**41,0**	**43,9**	**48,1**	**51,8**	**68,9**	**51,5**	**36,9**	**40,2**	**44,9**	**54,0**	**76,3**	**51,2**

Source: DBE 2014

The table above shows the proportion of male and female leaners that enrolled for physical science and achieved a bachelor's pass for the 2014 academic year. As illustrated in the table, irrespective of population group, a higher percentage of learners that enrolled for the subject were

observed in quintile 5 schools. As in Table 3.8, white and Indian/Asian learners were more likely to enrol for physical science and pass with endorsements across all school categories. Moreover, a higher percentage of white and Indian/Asian female students in quintiles 3, 4 and 5 who achieved matric bachelor's degree endorsements took up physical science compared to their male counterparts. Of interest also is to note that the gender gap between black African males and females who studied physical science and achieved a bachelor's pass was the narrowest (particularly in quintiles 1–4) when compared to that observed for learners belonging to other population groups.

Not attending school

Children who are not attending school, including those who've never been to school, are negatively affected in a number of ways. For example, the literature shows that dropouts are more likely to be unemployed and require public assistance. Even if they do find a job, dropouts earn substantially less than those with matric. Finally, children who are not attending school have also been found to be more likely to be faced with other social problems such as crime and teenage pregnancy (Rumberger, 2011)[26]. This section accordingly looks at children who are not attending school who may potentially be at risk as discussed above. The section groups these children into three main groups, i.e. the NEET, children who are out of school (used as a proxy for dropouts) as well as those who never went to school.

Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEET)

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines the NEET as persons aged between 15–24 who are Not in Education, Employment or Training to describe youth who are disengaged from both work and education and are arguably at a high risk of labour market and social exclusion. This section uses data from the QLFS collected during the first quarters of 2013 and 2014 to analyse gender differences of the NEET population by geographical area.

Figure 3.4: Percentage of youth not in education, employment or training (15–24-year-olds) by sex and geo-type, 2013 and 2014

	Males	Females
RSA	45,2	54,8
Rural formal	38,6	61,4
Tribal areas	45,1	54,9
Urban informal	41,6	58,7
Urban formal	46,5	53,4

Source: QLFS Q1: 2013

	Males	Females
RSA	46,6	53,4
Rural formal	45,6	54,4
Tribal areas	46,4	53,6
Urban informal	42,8	57,2
Urban formal	47,5	52,5

Source: QLFS Q1: 2014

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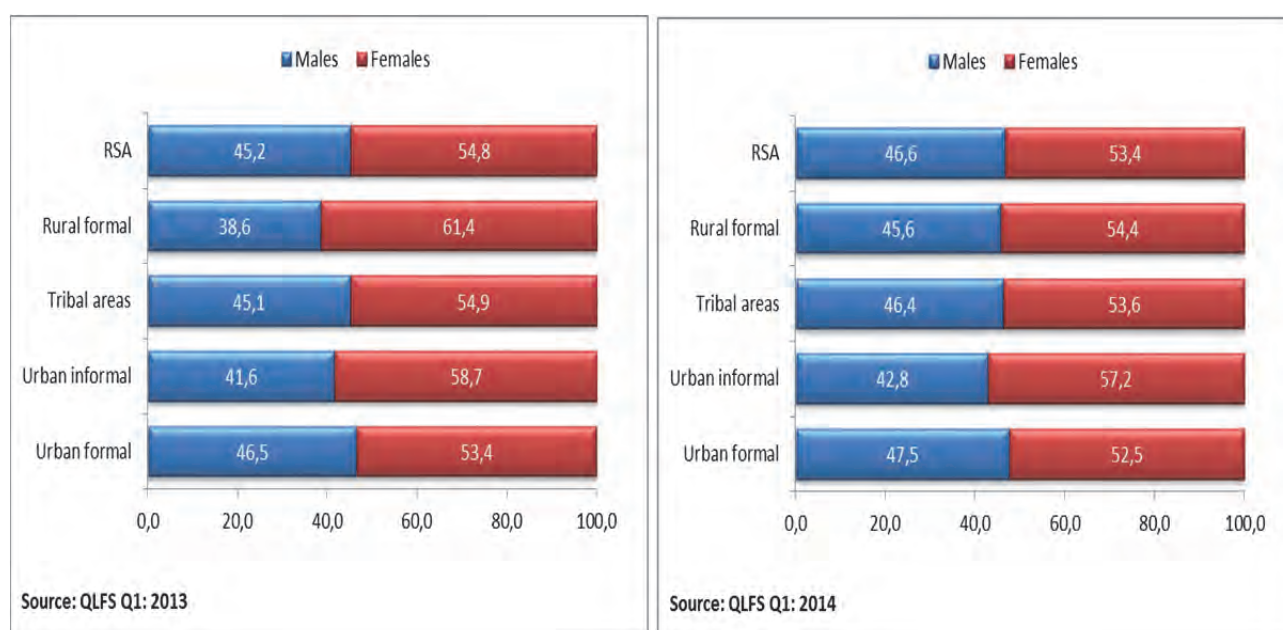
[26] Rumberger, R.W. 2011. Dropping Out. *Harvard University Press.*

Figure 3.4 above shows the distribution of male and female NEET youth by geographic type in 2013 and 2014. The analysis focused on youth aged 15–24 years in South Africa. Between 2013 and 2014, the national number of the NEET decreased from 3,4 million to 3,2 million. During both years, the NEET rate was higher for females than their male counterparts. Since 2013, the highest rates amongst females were observed for those living in rural formal areas at 61,4% and 54,4% respectively for 2013 and 2014, followed by those in urban informal areas at 58,7% and 57,2% for 2013 and 2014 respectively.

Nationally, the NEET rate for females declined, while that of males increased. The drop in the female NEET rate was mostly driven by decreases observed among those residing in rural formal and urban informal areas, which declined by 7,0 and 1,5 percentage points respectively.

Gender gaps (GPRs), with regard to the NEET, showed a general narrowing across all geographical types between 2013 and 2014; with ratios indicating that females were more likely to fall into the NEET category than their male counterparts. In 2013, the largest gender gap was recorded in rural formal areas (GPR: 1,59) while the smallest gender gap was recorded in urban formal areas with a GPR of 1,15. Although urban formal areas remained least likely to show gender disparities for the NEET (GPR: 1,11) in 2014, with a GPR of 1,34, gender disparities in urban informal areas were higher compared to other geography types.

Children who are out of school

The official school-going age for South African children is 6–15 years; all children within this age group should be attending school. The analysis below focuses on children who were not in primary and lower secondary school amongst this group during 2001 and 2011.

Table 3.10a: Percentage of primary aged 6–13 years out of school boys and girls by age and province, 2001 and 2011

Province	2001						2011					
	Boys		Girls		Both		Boys		Girls		Both	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Western Cape	8	9	8	8,9	16	8,9	11	10,3	11	10,4	21	10,3
Eastern Cape	17	18,7	15	17,6	32	18,2	14	13,3	13	12,8	27	13
Northern Cape	2	2,1	2	2	4	2	3	2,6	3	2,6	5	2,6
Free State	5	5,6	5	5,9	10	5,7	4	3,5	4	3,8	8	3,6
KwaZulu-Natal	24	25,8	22	26	46	25,9	39	36,7	37	36,9	76	36,8
North West	8	8,4	7	8,2	15	8,3	6	6	6	5,5	12	5,8
Gauteng	13	14,6	13	15,4	27	15	17	16,3	17	16,8	34	16,6
Mpumalanga	5	5,9	5	6,1	11	6	7	6,4	6	6,3	13	6,4
Limpopo	9	10	8	9,9	18	10	5	4,9	5	5	10	4,9
SA (OOS population)	**92**	**2,3**	**85**	**2,1**	**177**	**2,2**	**106**	**2,8**	**101**	**2,8**	**207**	**2,8**
SA (Primary school aged population)	**3 977**		**3 994**		**7 970**		**3 757**		**3 664**		**7 421**	

Source: Census 2001, 2011

Note: The primary school age population was used as the divisor when calculating percentages for totals.

Table 3.10a shows children who were out of school within the primary school-going age (6–13 years), in 2001 and 2011. In 2001, a slightly higher percentage of boys were out of school compared to their female counterparts (2,3% vs. 2,1%). The number of out of school boys increased by 14 000 (0,5 of a percentage point) while that of their female counterparts rose by 16 000 (0,8 of a percentage point) during the 10-year period of reporting.

Amongst boys and girls of primary school age who were out of school, KwaZulu-Natal had the highest proportion in both years. In 2001 it accounted for more than a quarter of the target population compared to more than third of the target population in 2014. This was followed by Eastern Cape (18,7% in 2001) and Gauteng (16,6% in 2011). However, both out of school boys and girls in Eastern Cape showed significant decreases of 5,4 and 4,8 percentage points respectively between 2001 and 2011, followed by Limpopo with declines of 5,1 and 5,0 percentage points respectively.

Table 3.10b: Percentage of lower secondary (14–15 years) out of school boys and girls by age and province, 2001 and 2011

Province	2001						2011					
	Boys		Girls		Both		Boys		Girls		Both	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Western Cape	7	13,6	7	12,0	14	12,8	6	12,7	5	11,5	11	12,1
Eastern Cape	10	19,7	10	16,8	20	18,2	7	16,5	7	14,8	14	15,6
Northern Cape	2	2,9	2	3,0	3	2,9	2	3,4	1	2,8	3	3,1
Free State	3	5,6	3	5,8	6	5,7	2	4,3	2	4,8	4	4,5
KwaZulu-Natal	12	23,6	14	25,1	27	24,4	13	29,6	14	30,4	27	30,0
North West	5	9,0	5	8,7	10	8,8	3	7,7	3	7,4	7	7,5
Gauteng	6	11,9	7	11,9	13	11,9	6	14,5	7	15,0	13	14,7
Mpumalanga	3	5,2	4	6,5	6	5,9	3	5,9	3	7,0	6	6,4
Limpopo	5	8,6	6	10,1	10	9,4	2	5,0	3	6,1	5	5,5
*SA (OOS population)	**52**	**5,3**	**57**	**5,6**	**109**	**5,5**	**44**	**4,6**	**46**	**4,9**	**90**	**4,7**
SA (Lower secondary school age population)	**981**		**1 004**		**1 985**		**971**		**948**		**1 919**	

Source: Census 2001, 2011
Note: Lower secondary school age population was used as the divisor when calculating percentages for totals.

Table 3.10b shows children who were out of school at lower secondary school age (14–15 years) in 2001 and 2011. The total number of boys and girls who were not in school lower secondary age decreased by more than 17,0 percentage points from 109 000 to 90 000 during the ten-year period. The data above shows that nationally, for both years of reporting, girls were more likely not to attend school than boys. However, in 2011 a higher proportion of boys in provinces such as the Eastern Cape, Western Cape, North West and the Northern Cape were out of school compared to their female counterparts.

In 2001, the highest percentage of boys and girls not attending school were found in KwaZulu-Natal (24,4%), followed by Eastern Cape (18,2%) and Western Cape (12,8%). KwaZulu-Natal also recorded the highest proportions of both boys and girls who were out of school (23,6% and 25,1% respectively). Ten years on, KwaZulu-Natal not only maintained its position of having the highest number of out of school children, but it also had an increase of about 5,0 percentage points. This was followed by those living the Eastern Cape and Gauteng with percentage shares of 15,6% and 14,7% respectively. The year 2011 also saw the biggest increases of boys and girls not attending school being recorded in KwaZulu-Natal, with increases of 6,1 and 5,3 percentage points respectively from 2001.

Reasons for not attending an educational institution

The analysis depicted below examines reasons for not attending school. The General Household Survey asks for the main reason why household members aged five years and above are not currently attending an educational institution. Respondents are then provided with a list of reasons to choose from, i.e. violence at school, family commitment, lack of performance etc.

Table 3.11: Reason for not attending an educational institution for persons aged 5–18 years

Reason	Male		Female		Total	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Male	Female
Do not have time/too busy	5,6	1,6	3,6	1	3,7	2,3
Family commitment (e.g. child minding)	3,1	0,8	36,7	30,4	2	33,6
Education is useless or not interesting	24,4	22,3	22,6	10,1	23,4	16,4
Unable to perform at school	19,1	28,8	5,6	11,6	23,7	8,6
Pregnancy	0	0	6	15,5	0	10,7
Failed exams	7,3	11,4	5,4	6,4	9,2	5,9
Got married	0	0	0	2,6	0	1,3
Disability	12,0	25,1	5,5	18,1	18,2	11,8
Violence at school	2,7	0	-	-	1,4	0
He or she is working at home or business/job	25,9	10,1	14,6	4,2	18,4	9,4
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

Source: GHS 2014

Table 3.11 above illustrates reported reasons for school non-attendance by persons aged 5–18 years for both sexes. Responses (reasons for non-attendance) were further disaggregated by geo-type with the expectation that conditions for boys and girls may differ with respect to rural and urban geographical areas.

The results show that in 2014, boys – especially those living in urban areas – were more likely not to attend school due to looking for work. The table also shows that significantly higher proportions of boys in both geo-types perceived education to be useless/not interesting. This might be linked to the fact that a considerable share of boys, particularly those living in rural areas, also reported an inability to perform at school and failing exams as a reason for non-attendance. These findings may be associated with literature indicating that individuals are more likely to perform better in areas that they value or have a liking towards.[27] The results also show that violence at school is more of a concern for boys than for girls.

Interesting to note also, is that girls are more likely to stay at home due to family commitments such as child minding, which seems to have a bigger impact on girls living in urban areas as opposed to rural areas. Pregnancy and marriage also act as social gender-specific obstacles that hinder access to education for girls, particularly those from rural areas.

Disability, it would seem, serves as a barrier to school attendance to a greater extent for boys than girls. Disability alone accounted for over a quarter of responses given by rural boys in this table, which is more than two times the proportion given for boys living in urban areas. This confirms findings of other studies which suggest that boys may be more susceptible to biological factors that influence disability such as autism.[28]

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[27] Student attitudes and their academic performance: is there any relationship? Liddell[1], Davidson S.K.
[28] Gender in Special Education. Zorigan, K.; Job, J.

Pregnant girls aged 12–19 years not attending school

The General Household Survey asks wether any female household member between the ages of 12 and 50 fell pregnant in the past 12 months. In 2014, almost half a million (473 159) girls aged between 12–19 years were not attending school and 18,0% (85 182) of them reported to have fallen pregnant sometime during the past 12 months.

For the purpose of the analysis below, the percentage of girls aged between 12–19 years who had fallen pregnant and were not attending an educational institution were computed.

Table 3.12: Girls aged 12–19 years who fell pregnant and were not attending an educational institution by population group

	Female population aged 12–19 not attending school	Fell pregnant and not attending school	Per cent
Black African	378	73	19,3
White	20	0*	0,0
Indian/Asian	11	1	9,1
Coloured	64	10	15,6
***RSA**	**473**	**85**	**18,0**

Source: GHS 2014

* Please note that the figure for white females (12–19) who fell pregnant and are not attending school is less than 1 000.

* Note the female population aged 12–19 not attending school was used as the divisor when calculating percentages for the total.

When comparing the number of girls aged 12–19 years who fell pregnant by population group, the highest proportion of girls not attending school was reported amongst the black African population group (19,3%). This was followed by figures reported amongst the coloured and Indian/Asian population groups with 15,6% and 9,1% respectively.

Figure 3.5: Pregnant girls aged 12–19 years not attending an educational institution by province

	North West	KwaZulu-Natal	Western Cape	Gauteng	Free State	Limpopo	RSA	Mpumalanga	Eastern Cape	Northern Cape
■ %	12,3	12,6	14,9	16,3	16,9	17,0	18,0	20,4	29,7	32,8
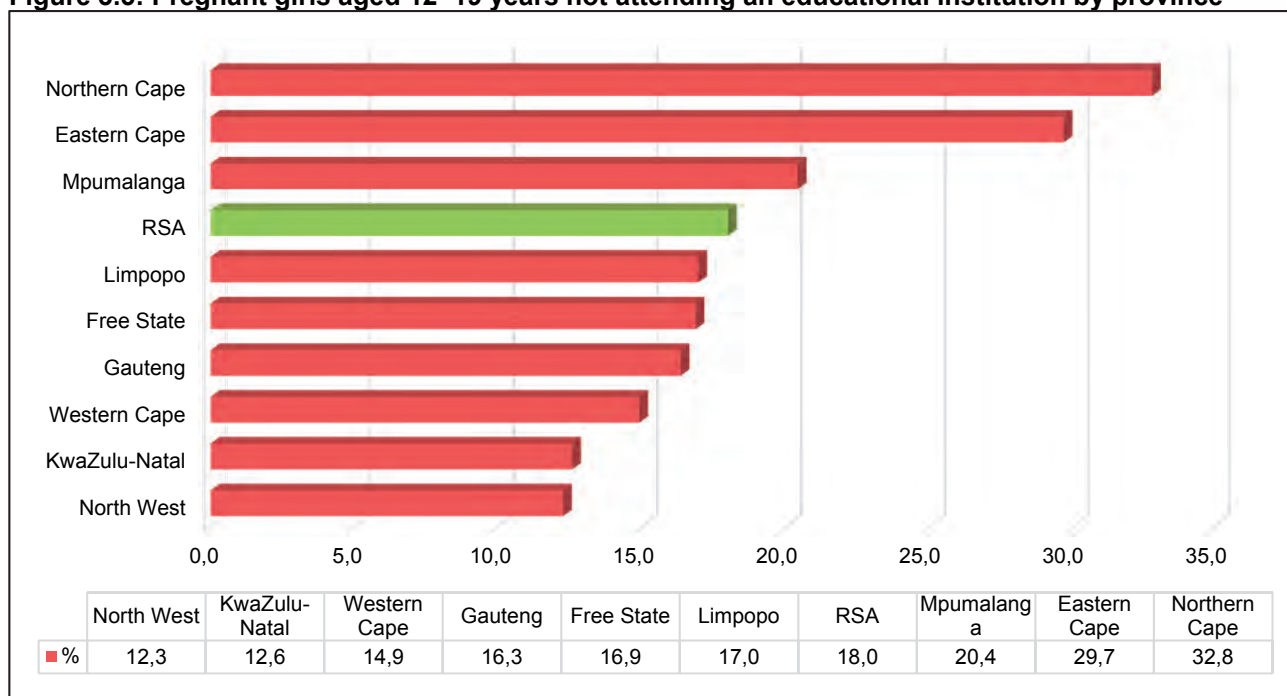
Source: GHS 2014

* Note: the female population aged 12–19 not attending school per province was used as the divisor when calculating total percentage shares within each province.

The figure above shows clearly that in 2014, Northern Cape had the highest proportion of non-attending pregnant girls, followed by the Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga; these proportions exceeded that which was recorded for the country as a whole as well.

Children who never went to school

While the analysis in the previous section looked at a group of girls and boys who are currently not attending school, of greater concern are those who have never attended school (never went to school). Data examined in the analysis below accordingly uses Census data collected in 2001 and 2011 to ascertain gender and geographic differences for children aged 16–19 years of age who have never been to school.

Figure 3.6a: Percentage distribution of males and females aged 16–19 years living in urban areas who never went to school, 2001 and 2011

Source: Census 2001,

Figure 3.6b: Percentage distribution of males and females aged 16–19 years living in rural areas who never went to school, 2001 and 2011

Source: Census 2001,
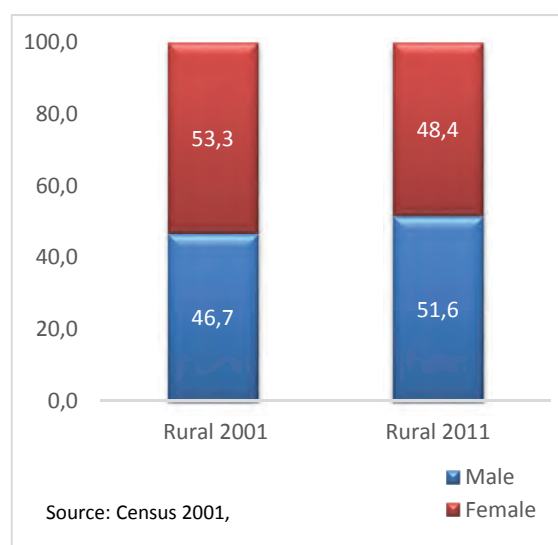
Figure 3.6c: Percentage distribution of the male and female population aged 16–19 years living in urban areas, 2001 and 2011

Source: Census 2001, Census 2011

Figure 3.6d: Percentage distribution of the male and female population aged 16–19 years living in rural areas 2001 and 2011

Source: Census 2001, Census 2011
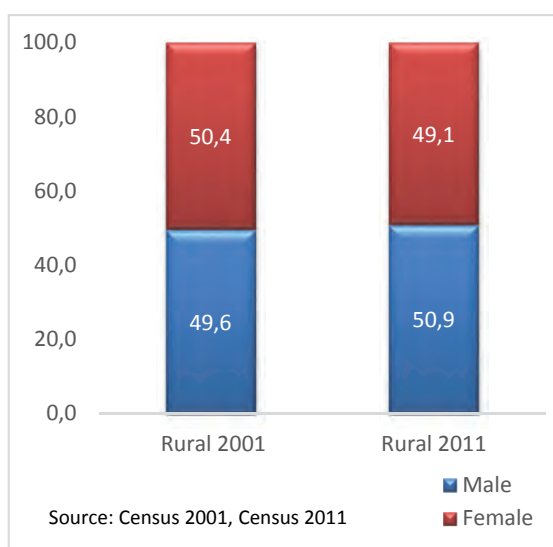
Figures 3.6a and b illustrate percentage distributions of males and females aged 16–19 years residing in urban and rural areas who never went to school between 2001 and 2011. Figures 3.6c and d on the other hand shows percentage distributions of the male and female population, of the same age group, who were residing in urban and rural areas during the same years of reporting (2001 and 2011).

In general, between 2001 and 2011, the population of persons aged 16–19 years who were residing in urban areas increased by 186 000 from about 2 million to 2,2 million persons, while that of their counterparts in rural areas showed a decline of 137 000 from about 1,9 million to 1,8 million in the same time period.

In 2001, of the population of about 2 million persons residing in urban areas and 1,9 million persons in rural areas aged 16–19 years, females were the slight majority amongst both these groups with percentage shares of 51,1% and 50,4% respectively when compared to their male counterparts (Figures 3.6c and 3.6d). In 2011, although urban males showed a slight percentage share increase of about one-third (0,3%) of a percentage point, they still contributed less to the 16–19 urban population. In contrast, males residing in rural areas demonstrated a relatively higher percentage share in 2011 compared to their female counterparts, with percentage shares of 50,9% and 49,1% respectively.

Keeping in mind the population structures of persons aged 16–19 years in urban and rural areas, Figure 3.6a indicates that urban males were more likely to have reported that they have never gone to school in both years (2001 and 2011) – with the situation having worsened from 2001 (50,4%) to 2011 (54,7%), an increase of 4,3 percentage points. However, amongst those residing in rural areas, notable changes occurred between 2001 and 2011 amongst those who had never been schooled. In 2001, females (aged 16–19 years) living in rural areas were more likely (53,3%) to have never gone to school. This declined by 4,9 percentage points to 48,4% in 2011. In 2011, the opposite occurred with males who never went to school having a slightly higher percentage share (51,6%), which represents an increase of 4,9 percentage points.

CHAPTER 4: LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Understanding the learning environment of girls and boys is critical for three reasons. Firstly, the learning environment helps us to assess appropriate conditions which enable learning[29]. Secondly, by researching learners' environments, access to education is examined holistically. Lastly, one is also able to pull out and ascertain conditions that could influence gender differences in educational outcomes for girls and boys possibly influenced by the learning environment. For example, research shows that the lack of sanitary facilities at schools is likely to affect both boys and girls. However, where no adequate sanitary and water facilities are provided at school, girls are more likely to miss school during their menstrual cycles (Muvea, 2011)[30].

Population distribution of learners attending Grades 1–12

The analysis below provides a context to this chapter by indicating population distribution of learners attending primary and secondary education.

Table 4.1: Population distribution of learners attending in Grades 1–9 and 10–12 by sex and province, 2014 (attending formal schools)

Province	Male		Female		Both		GPR
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	
Grade 1–9							
Western Cape	437	48,6	461	51,4	897	100	1,05
Eastern Cape	789	52,8	706	47,2	1 495	100	0,89
Northern Cape	112	50,4	110	49,6	222	100	0,98
Free State	272	54,5	227	45,5	499	100	0,83
KwaZulu-Natal	1 150	51,1	1 102	48,9	2 253	100	0,96
North West	333	49,6	338	50,4	671	100	1,02
Gauteng	960	52,9	855	47,1	1 815	100	0,89
Mpumalanga	446	52,6	402	47,4	848	100	0,90
Limpopo	618	52,3	563	47,7	1 180	100	0,91
South Africa (Gr 1-9)	**5 116**	**51,8**	**4 763**	**48,2**	**9 880**	**100**	**0,93**
Grade 10–12							
Western Cape	120	43,9	153	56,1	273	100	1,28
Eastern Cape	213	48,2	229	51,8	442	100	1,08
Northern Cape	26	47,2	29	52,8	55	100	1,12
Free State	78	45,9	92	54,1	171	100	1,18
KwaZulu-Natal	358	49	373	51	731	100	1,04
North West	92	47,2	103	52,8	194	100	1,12
Gauteng	288	49,4	296	50,6	584	100	1,03
Mpumalanga	118	46,2	137	53,8	255	100	1,16
Limpopo	238	48,1	257	51,9	495	100	1,08
South Africa (Gr 10-12)	**1 531**	**47,9**	**1 668**	**52,1**	**3 199**	**100**	**1,09**

Source: GHS 2014

Table 4.1 summarises the population of learners attending formal schools by province. Amongst those who were attending Grade 1–9, there were more males (51,8%) than females (48,2%), with the widest gender gaps noticeable in the Free State (GPR 0,83), the Eastern Cape and Gauteng (GPR 0,89 respectively). For the Further Education and Training (FET) phase (Grades 10–12), the situation changes with girls outnumbering boys (52,1% vs. 47,9%). The largest gender gaps (in

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[29] Postareff, L., Parpala, A., & Lindblom-Ylänne, S. 2015. Factors contributing to changes in a deep approach to learning in different learning environments, Learning Environments Research, 18 (3), 315-333.
[30] Muvea, F. Mar 2011. Menstruation a Hindrance to Girls Education in Kenya. EzineArticles.com. Education-in-Kenya&id=6064293 Accessed 17 Sept. 2015.

favour of females) were observed amongst those living in the Western Cape (GPR 1,28), Free State (GPR 1,18) and Mpumalanga (GPR 1,16).

Table 4.2: Population distribution of learners attending in Grades 1–9 and 10–12 by sex and geo-type, 2014 (attending formal schools)

	Male		Female		Both	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Province	Grade 1–9					
Urban	2 728	51,6	2 564	48,4	5 293	100,0
Rural	2 388	52,1	2 199	47,9	4 587	100,0
South Africa (Gr 1–9)	**5 116**	**51,8**	**4 763**	**48,2**	**9 880**	**100,0**
	Grade 10–12					
Urban	810	47,9	880	52,1	1 690	100,0
Rural	721	47,8	788	52,2	1 509	100,0
South Africa (Gr 10–12)	**1 531**	**47,9**	**1 668**	**52,1**	**3 199**	**100,0**

Source: GHS 2014

Table 4.2 displays the population distribution of learners attending formal schools by geo-type. This analysis reflects a similar trend to that observed in the provincial table (Table 4.1). Amongst those attending Grades 1–9, males had higher percentage shares than females across all geo-types, i.e. 51,6% in urban areas and 52,1% in rural areas. In contrast, amongst those attending Grades 10–12, females dominated across all geo-types, i.e. 52,1% in urban areas and 5,2% in rural areas.

School infrastructure

School infrastructure has been linked to having some impact on access to education and learning outcomes for boys and girls. According to the Education for All Global Monitoring Report for the year 2000, 164 governments including South Africa agreed to "create safe, healthy, inclusive and equitably resourced educational environments conducive to excellence in learning, with clearly defined levels of achievement for all". This section accordingly examines five school infrastructures as published by the Department of Basic Education's National Education Infrastructure Management System (NEIMS) report. These facilities may play a role in influencing girls' and boys' educational outcomes. The five facilities examined in this report are poor security conditions, lack of electricity, water and ablution facilities and computer centres.

Electricity, laboratories and computer centres

As previously discussed, a significantly low proportion of females are qualified in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) subjects relative to their male counterparts. While the lack of electricity, laboratories and computers at schools equally has a negative impact on the learning ability of boys and girls, one of the ways in which the gender gap among those choosing to study STEM subjects or qualified in STEM can be narrowed is in increasing interest and exposure to STEM at school level for girls (ASSA, 2010)[31]. This could result in having a bigger pool of girls available taking up STEM subjects at the level of post-school education and training. In this sense, access to electricity, laboratories and computer centres at schools therefore becomes crucial.

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[31] Academy of Science of South Africa, 2010. Increasing Participation of Girls in Science in sub-Saharan Africa Policy-makers' Booklet. http://www.interacademies.net/File.aspx?id=25087 Accessed 17 Sept. 2015.

Figure 4.1: Percentage of schools with electricity supply, stocked laboratories and stocked computer centres, 2011
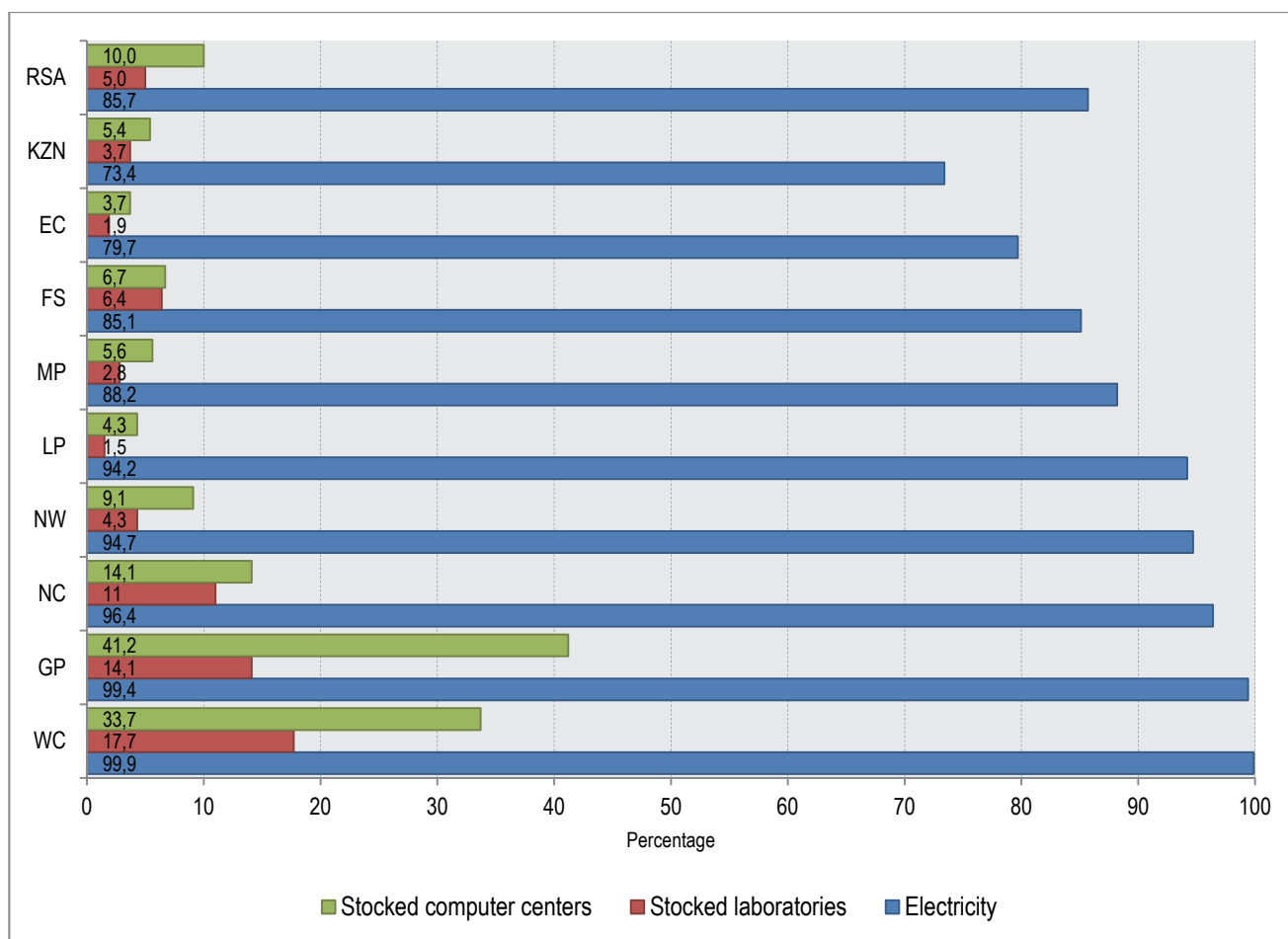
Source: NEIMS report, 2011

Figure 4.1 above shows the percentages of schools with electricity supply, stocked laboratories and stocked computer centres for the year 2011. As shown in Figure 4.1, electricity supply in schools across all nine provinces was above 70% with national proportions at 85,7%. KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape had the lowest proportions at 73,4% and 79,7% respectively, while other provinces recorded more than 85% each. Only the Western Cape (99,9%) and Gauteng (99,4%) had achieved almost 100% electricity coverage at schools in 2011.

In terms of the availability of stocked laboratories at schools, Figure 4.1 shows that the percentage of schools with stocked laboratories were low across the country with national proportions at only 5%. The provinces with highest proportions were the Western Cape (17,7%) and Gauteng (14,1%). The Northern Cape had the third highest proportional access (11,0%) while other provinces were at less than 7% each.

Data showing proportions of schools with stocked computer centres show that high income provinces were more likely to have stocked computer centres in their schools than their poorer counterparts. Gauteng and the Western Cape had the highest proportions with 41,2% and 33,7% respectively while the Eastern Cape (3,7%) and Limpopo (4,3%) had the lowest rates. This pattern tends to be reflected in the Senior Certificate examination results, pointing to the fact that resources have an impact on the manner in which schools perform as indicated in Chapter 5, where richer provinces showed significantly higher matric pass rates.

The lack of electricity, well-equipped laboratories and computer centres at the level of basic education is of great concern. These resources form part of the factors that are crucial to not only the learning of students, but also to their exposure to related subjects such as STEM subjects. As mentioned in the introduction, early exposure and the availability of an enabling environment – particularly for the girl child – can assist in increasing their up-take of STEM subjects at post-school level.

Security

Schools have been increasingly targeted by criminals such as gangs and thieves. Such attacks and threats have been found to have a ripple effect, causing a decline in attendance rates and poor achievement both among boys and girls (Braun, 2007)[32]. Insecurity has also been seen as one of the most significant obstacles to girls' education due to the high probability of girls being sexually assaulted or harassed during attacks (Juvone, 2001)[33]. The analysis below accordingly looks at the extent to which schools in the country provide security measures with respect to the availability of secured fencing.

Figure 4.2: Percentage of schools without fencing, 2011
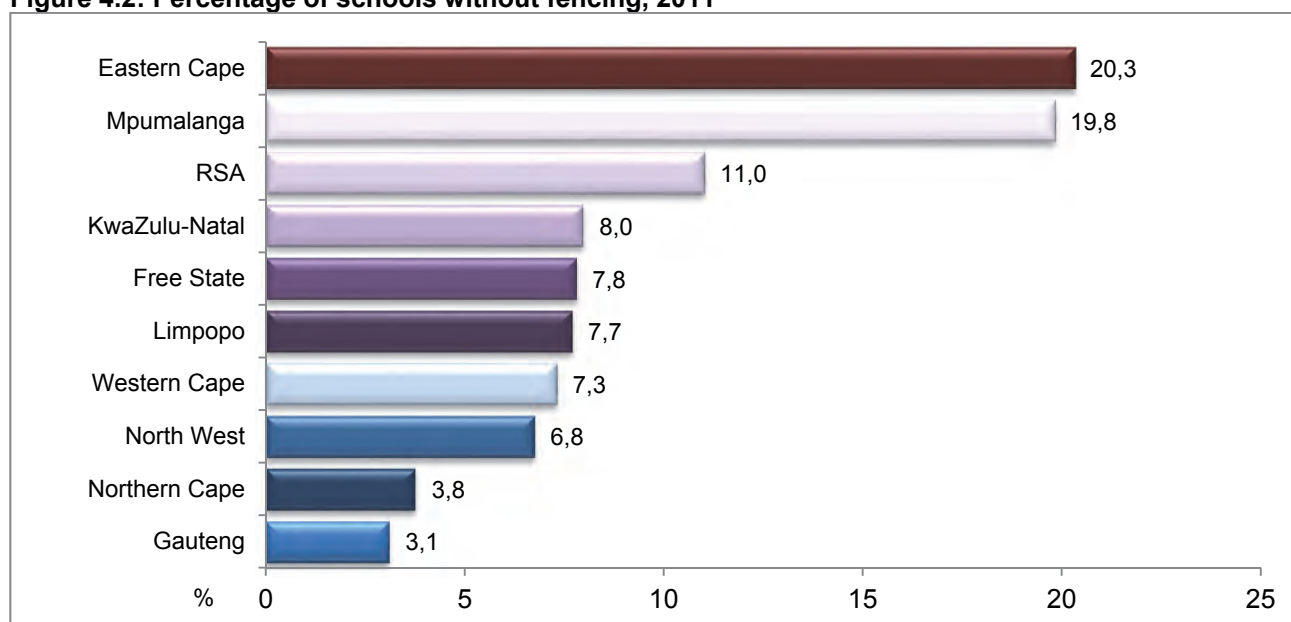
Source: NEIMS report, 2011

The analysis in Figure 4.2 above shows the proportions of schools that do not have fencing. As the figure shows, 11,0% of schools in South Africa were reportedly without fencing in 2011. The provinces that contributed more to this figure were the Eastern Cape (20,3%) and Mpumalanga (19,8%). As reported earlier, safety in schools impacts positively on school attendance and achievement. These proportions are therefore troubling as the absence of fencing points to easy and uncontrolled access to schools, thus increased insecurity. Gauteng and the Northern Cape had lowest proportions of schools that did not have fencing with only 3,1% and 3,8% respectively.

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[32] Braun, C. 2007. School Safety Initiatives in the Western Cape, Kroc Institute for International Peace Studies of the University of Notre Dame.
[33] Juvonen, J. 2001. School violence: prevalence, fears, and prevention, Rand cooperation research
http://www.rand.org/pubs/issue_papers/IP219/index2.html

Water and ablution facilities

Limited access to safe, convenient ablution facilities for dealing with menstruation for adolescent girls has been found to restrict their access to education (Muvea, 2011)[34]. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO, 2011) estimates that one in ten African adolescent girls miss school during their menstrual cycles. The report also finds that girls eventually drop out of school because of menstruation-related issues, which include amongst other concerns, limited access to water and sanitation facilities (including the lack of separate sanitation facilities for boys and girls) and social taboos related to menstruation. The data below therefore ascertains access to water and ablution facilities in South African schools.

Table 4.3: Ablution facilities* in schools, 2011

	No. of schools	Municipal flush		Other		No facility	
		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Western Cape	1 464	1 391	95,0	272	18,6	5	0,3
Eastern Cape	5 676	951	16,8	4 509	79,4	551	9,7
Northern Cape	611	307	50,2	390	63,8	3	0,5
Free State	1 615	718	44,5	949	58,8	80	5,0
KwaZulu-Natal	5 931	1 294	21,8	5 264	88,8	160	2,7
North West	1 674	539	32,2	1 389	83,0	37	2,2
Gauteng	2 031	1 879	92,5	211	10,4	6	0,3
Mpumalanga	1 868	505	27,0	1 648	88,2	35	1,9
Limpopo	3923	322	8,2	5 347	136,3	36	0,9
RSA	**24 793**	**7 906**	**31,9**	**19 979**	**80,6**	**913**	**3,7**

Source: NEIMS report, 2011

* Please note, a site/school can have more than one or a combination of different types of ablution facilities, hence the percentages that exceed 100%.

Table 4.3 shows types of ablution facilities available in schools. National proportions indicate that in 2011, more than two-thirds of schools across provinces were without flush facilities. A further 80,6% used other ablution facilities (this included facilities such as septic tanks, environmental loos, pit latrines and chemical facilities) while only 3,7% had no facilities at all.

Schools with flush facilities were more likely to be found in provinces such as the Western Cape (95%), Gauteng (92,5%) and Northern Cape (50,2%). On the other hand, Limpopo (136,3%), and KwaZulu-Natal (88,8%) had high proportions of those using other alternative ablution facilities. The complete lack of ablution facilities was most prevalent in the Eastern Cape (9,7%) and the Free State (5,0%). This is troubling as the lack of ablution facilities could be a health hazard for all learners. The girl child is even more impacted for reasons alluded to in the introductory paragraph.

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[34] Muvea, F. Mar. 2011. Menstruation a Hindrance to Girls Education in Kenya. EzineArticles.com. Education-in-Kenya&id=6064293 Accessed 17 Sept. 2015.

Figure 4.3: Water supply in schools, 2011

Eastern Cape: No water supply 19,3; Unreliable water supply 5,7
Free State: No water supply 14,7; Unreliable water supply 3,3
KwaZulu-Natal: No water supply 10,6; Unreliable water supply 19,9
RSA: No water supply 9,7; Unreliable water supply 10,5
Mpumalanga: No water supply 6,9; Unreliable water supply 11,0
Limpopo: No water supply 6,6; Unreliable water supply 16,2
North West: No water supply 2,6; Unreliable water supply 4,5
Northern Cape: No water supply 1,0; Unreliable water supply 9,8
Gauteng: No water supply 0,1; Unreliable water supply 3,3
Western Cape: No water supply 0,0; Unreliable water supply 0,6

■ No water supply
■ Unreliable water supply

Source: NEIMS report, 2011

Figure 4.3 depicts schools that had either no water supply or unreliable water supply for the year 2011. As the figure shows, nationally only around 10% of schools reported no water supply (10,5%) or unreliable water supply (9,7%). The Eastern Cape had the highest proportions of schools which did not have water (19,3%). It was followed by Free State and KwaZulu-Natal with 14,7% and 10,6% respectively. Even though Free State had the second highest proportions for no water supply, only 3,3% of its schools reported unreliable water supplies and the Eastern Cape, which was highest among provinces with no water supply, recorded only 5,7% for unreliable water supplies. This indicates that at least in schools where water was available, it was reliable. KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo and Mpumalanga, recorded the highest proportions of unreliable water supply with 19,9%, 16,2% and 11% respectively.

Water supply at schools in the Western Cape and Gauteng province was at almost 100%. These two provinces also recorded the lowest proportions for unreliable water supply, with only 0,6% for the Western Cape and 3,3% for Gauteng.

The analysis above points to significant problems, mostly related to health, for all learners at school. However, as mentioned earlier, the lack of adequate sanitary and water facilities can have an added negative impact for the girl learner due to their sanitary needs. This matter therefore needs to be given cognisance if the drive to make education accessible to both girls and boys is to succeed.

Children who are not attending a school nearest to their homes

One of the major strategies for the Department of Basic Education is to increase access to education by ensuring that children attend the nearest schools in their communities. Where possible, government has ensured that children should be given access to a state school within 5 kilometres of their home[35]. Given the above, all children should therefore theoretically be attending

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[35] Education Policy: Admission and school fees http://www.etu.org.za/

a school closest to their homes, however, it is known that this does not happen in practice. Tables analysed in this section focus on those children who are not attending the nearest school and investigate reasons provided for not attending the nearest school by sex and geographical disaggregation.

Table 4.4: Main reasons for not attending the nearest school, by sex and geo-type, 2014

Reasons	Sex	Urban		Rural		GPR	
		'000	%	'000	%	Urban	Rural
Population of learners who do not attend nearby schools (2014)		643	49	310	51,5		
		669	51	292	48,5		
		1 312	**100**	**602**	**100**		
Mismanagement of school / Poor quality of teaching / Lack of discipline at school / Lack of safety	Male	101	46,9	99	51,4		
	Female	114	53,1	93	48,6	1,1	0,9
	Both	**215**	**100**	**192**	**100**		
Lack of resources or equipment / Inadequate facilities	Male	63	51,2	17	49,6		
	Female	60	48,8	17	50,4	1,0	1,0
	Both	**122**	**100**	**35**	**100**		
Overcrowded classes	Male	14	32,7	1	30,1		
	Female	30	67,3	3	69,9	2,1	3,0
	Both	**44**	**100**	**4**	**100**		
No / few extra-mural activities	Male	6	38,4	2	100		
	Female	10	61,6	0	0	1,7	0,0
	Both	**16**	**100**	**2**	**100**		
Preferred courses / subject not offered	Male	96	51,2	28	43,5		
	Female	91	48,8	36	56,5	0,9	1,3
	Both	**186**	**100**	**64**	**100**		
Current institution better than closest	Male	203	50,5	66	56,5		
	Female	199	49,5	51	43,5	1,0	0,8
	Both	**403**	**100**	**117**	**100**		
Not accepted in the nearest school	Male	56	54,2	21	60,8		
	Female	47	45,8	13	39,2	0,8	0,6
	Both	**103**	**100**	**34**	**100**		
Other reasons	Male	44	43,6	20	49,8		
	Female	57	56,4	20	50,2	1,3	1,0
	Both	**100**	**100**	**40**	**100**		
Unspecified	Male	61	49,8	55	49,2		
	Female	61	50,2	57	50,8	1,0	1,0
	Both	**122**	**100**	**112**	**100**		

Source: GHS 2014

Table 4.4 shows the number (and percentage shares) of boys and girls, from urban and rural areas, who were not attending the nearest school by reasons for not attending a school nearest to their home. Over 19 000 learners reported to not be attending the nearest school. Girls and boys residing in urban areas were more like to not be attending the nearest school compared to their rural counterparts. While a slightly higher number of girl learners (699 000) living in urban areas were not attending the nearest school (643 000), an opposite trend was observed in rural areas. More boys than girls in rural areas reported not attending the nearest school (310 000 vs. 292 000).

The most mentioned reason for not attending the nearest school in urban areas was related to the perception that the school being attended was better than the nearest school. In total, 403 000 learners in urban areas cited this reason, with boys (203 000) more likely to report than girls

(199 000). In contrast, learners in rural areas were most dissatisfied with issues relating to mismanagement (192 000). This was the second most mentioned reason in urban areas where a slightly higher proportion of females (53,1%) in urban areas were likely to report dissatisfaction with school mismanagement issues than their male counterparts (46,9%). In contrast, boy learners in rural areas showed more dissatisfaction than girls, i.e. 51,4% and 48,6% respectively.

Across all geographical areas, one of the most reported reasons provided for not attending a nearby school (the third highest for both urban and rural areas) were those related to the lack of preferred subjects/courses being offered at a nearest school (186 000 in urban and 64 000 in rural areas). While boys in urban areas were slightly more dissatisfied (51,2%), it was largely girls in rural areas who provided this reason (56,5%).

The biggest gender gap in reasons provided for not attending the nearest school in urban areas were amongst those related to overcrowding, where the number of females who cited this reason was more than twice that of boys in urban areas (GPR 2,1) and three times more in rural areas (GPR 3,0). This was followed by gender differences amongst those who gave reasons relating to the lack of extra-mural activities. Again, girls showed more dissatisfaction than their male counterparts with gender parity ratios of 1,7 and 0,0 in urban and rural areas respectively. An alarming 100% of girls in rural areas cited dissatisfaction with the lack of extra-mural activities at a nearby school. The third largest gender differences in reasons provided for not attending the nearest school for learners residing in rural areas were amongst those mentioning the lack of preferred courses/subjects (GPR 1,3) and those regarding the furthest school to be better (GPR 0,8). While a higher percentage of girls than boys in rural areas (GPR 1,3) cited reasons relating to the lack of preferred courses/subjects, it was mainly boys in urban areas who were dissatisfied for the same reason (GPR 0,9).

Problems experienced by learners at current school

As alluded to earlier in this chapter, a conducive learning environment is crucial to optimise the process of learning amongst students. The data below look at problems experienced at current school as reported by learners for the year 2014. The analysis is further disaggregated by sex and geo-type in order to ascertain differences provided by learners given their gender and geographic location.

Table 4.5: The share of learners attending formal schools (Grades 1–12) who reported having experienced problem at schools by sex and geo-type, 2014

Sex	Total attendees* '000	Reported problems* '000	Share* %	GPR
Urban				
Male	3 538	458	12,9	
Female	3 444	458	13,3	1,00
Both	**6 982**	**916**	**13,1**	
Rural				
Male	3 109	280	9,0	
Female	2 987	289	9,7	1,03
Both	**6 096**	**569**	**9,3**	
Total				
Male	6 647	737	11,1	
Female	6 431	747	11,6	1,01
Both	**13 079**	**1 485**	**11,4**	

Source: GHS 2014

Note: * Total attendees refer to the total number of learners attending formal schools (Gr 1–12) disaggregated by sex and geo-type.
  * Reported refers to the number of learners attending formal schools who reported that they experienced problems.
  * Share refers to the percentage share of those who reported having experienced problems within the total number of attendees.

In order to provide context to Table 4.6 below, Table 4.5 above shows figures for the total number of learners attending formal schools (Grades 1–12) who reported having experienced problems at schools by sex and geo-type. In 2014, of the 6,9 million learners attending formal schools (Grades 1–12) in urban areas, 916 000 or 13,1% reported experiencing some kind of problem at a school being attended. The figure in rural areas was 347 000 lower than that recorded for learners in urban areas. Over the same period of reporting, of the 6,1 million girls and boys attending formal schools in rural areas, 569 000 or 9,3% cited experiencing problems at schools. Proportionally, for both rural and urban areas, girls were more likely to record problems at school than boys, with the largest proportional gender difference recorded amongst learners in rural areas (0,7 of a percentage point). However, gender parity ratios show virtually no gender differences between boys and girls citing experiencing problems at school, irrespective of geographical location.

Tabled 4.6: Problems experienced by learners at their current schools by sex and geo-type, 2014

Reason	Sex	Urban		Rural	
		'000	%	'000	%
*Total	**Male**	**3 640**		**3 171**	
	Female	**3 533**		**3 053**	
	Both	**7 173**		**6 224**	
Lack of books	Male	123	3,4	100	3,2
	Female	140	4,0	115	3,8
	Both	**263**	**3,7**	**215**	**3,5**
Poor quality of teaching / Lack of teachers / Teacher absence / Teacher strikes	Male	246	6,8	172	5,4
	Female	263	7,5	196	6,4
	Both	**509**	**7,1**	**367**	**5,9**
Bad conditions at school (i.e. inadequate facilities/services)	Male	103	2,8	95	3,0
	Female	110	3,1	94	3,1
	Both	**213**	**3,0**	**189**	**3,0**
High school fees	Male	206	5,7	48	1,5
	Female	201	5,7	45	1,5
	Both	**407**	**5,7**	**94**	**1,5**
Overcrowded classes	Male	141	3,9	78	2,5
	Female	144	4,1	83	2,7
	Both	**285**	**4,0**	**161**	**2,6**

Source: GHS 2014

* Note: the total for both sexes for each problem cited was used as the divisor when calculating percentages.

Table 4.6 depicts the number of school learners living in urban and rural areas who reported that they have experienced problems at their current schools for the year 2014.

Across all geo-types, the most prevalent problems cited by learners were those related to either poor quality of teaching; lack of teaching staff; absence of teachers; or teachers going on strikes – accounting for 7,1% and 5,9% in urban and rural areas respectively. In urban areas, the second most encountered problem was that of high school fees (5,7%), while in rural areas the lack of books and bad conditions in schools (i.e. inadequate facilities/services) dominated. A higher proportion of girls in both geographical areas (urban and rural) reported poor teaching conditions, overcrowding and lack of books than boys. However, the gender gap amongst those dissatisfied with the three aforementioned issues was slightly narrower in rural than in urban areas.

Bullying at school

Bullying at schools is a global phenomenon that has the potential to impact on children not only physically, but also psychologically. In South Africa countless children fall victim to bullying, harassment and abuse at schools (Laas & Boezaart, 2014)[36]. Data in Figure 4.4 show physical and emotional abuse experienced by learners in South African schools between 2009 and 2014.

Figure 4.4: Percentage of students experiencing bullying by sex and geo-type, 2009 and 2014
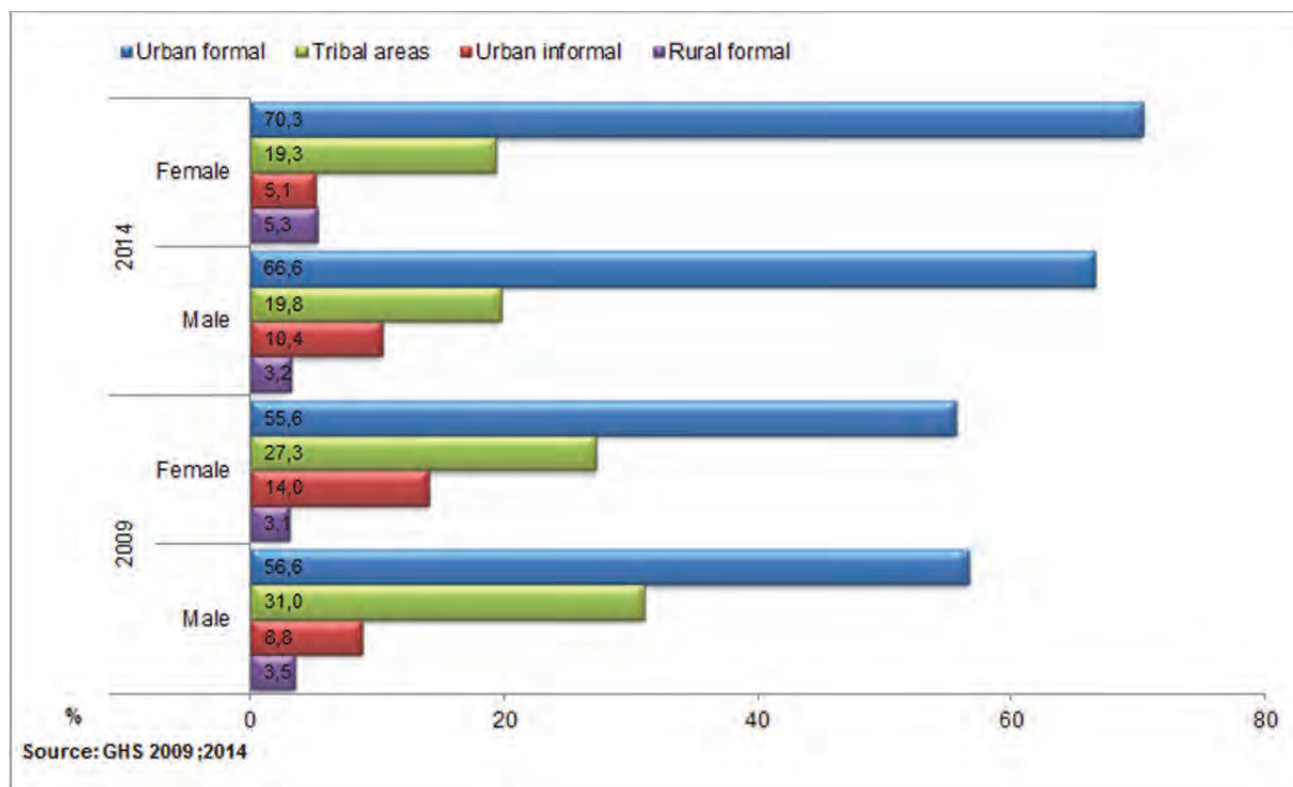
The period 2009 to 2014 saw a decline in the number of girls and boys who experienced physical and emotional abuse (i.e. from 367 000 in 2009 to 209 000 in 2014). In general, boys were more likely to experience bullying than girls. Also, the largest drop in bullying over the 5-year period was recorded amongst boys.

Boys in urban formal areas reported the highest percentages of bullying both in 2009 and 2014. In 2009, 56,6% of boy learners reported abuse, which increased to 66,6% in 2014. This was followed by those in tribal areas. However, a significant decrease was observed for boy learners who reported experiencing abuse among those living in tribal areas i.e. from 31,0% to 19,8% respectively for both years of reporting (2009 and 2014).

In 2014, the percentage of girls who reported being bullied in urban formal and rural formal areas was larger than that of boys at 70,3% and 66,6% respectively. When 2009 and 2014 are compared, figures show that in 2014, more girls were bullied in urban formal schools than they were in 2009 increasing by 14,7 percentage points. Similarly, the percentage of bullied boys increased by 10,0 percentage points during the same period.

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[36] Laas, A. & Boezaart, T. 2014. The legislative framework regarding bullying in South African schools. *PER: Potchefstroomse Elektroniese Regsblad*, *17*(6), 2667-2702. Retrieved from http://www.scielo.org.za/

Learning material

The availability of learning material is one of the important aspects when determining access to education. The tables below accordingly measure access to education by examining learners' access to learning materials for girls and boys attending Grades 1–12.

Table 4.7a: Learner access (in Grades 1–9) to mathematics and language workbooks by sex and province, 2014

Province	Male		Female		Both		
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	
	Access to language workbooks						GPR
Western Cape	422	96,7	442	96,0	864	96,3	0,99
Eastern Cape	752	95,2	675	95,6	1 426	95,4	1,00
Northern Cape	107	95,8	106	96,5	214	96,2	1,01
Free State	259	95,3	216	95,4	476	95,3	1,00
KwaZulu-Natal	1 089	94,7	1 037	94,1	2 127	94,4	0,99
North West	312	93,8	311	92,1	623	93,0	0,98
Gauteng	890	92,7	770	90,1	1 660	91,5	0,97
Mpumalanga	413	92,7	367	91,2	780	92,0	0,98
Limpopo	599	97,0	531	94,4	1 130	95,8	0,97
*South Africa	4 844	94,7	4 456	93,6	9 300	94,1	0,99
	Access to mathematics workbooks						
Western Cape	410	93,9	436	94,6	846	94,2	1,01
Eastern Cape	751	95,2	667	94,5	1 418	94,9	0,99
Northern Cape	104	92,6	103	93,7	207	93,2	1,01
Free State	260	95,7	215	94,9	476	95,3	0,99
KwaZulu-Natal	1 075	93,4	1 020	92,6	2 095	93,0	0,99
North West	309	93,0	316	93,5	625	93,2	1,01
Gauteng	868	90,5	719	84,1	1 587	87,5	0,93
Mpumalanga	410	91,8	370	92,1	780	92,0	1,00
Limpopo	591	95,7	524	93,2	1 116	94,5	0,97
*South Africa	4 779	93,4	4 371	91,8	9 150	92,6	0,98

Source: GHS 2014

Note: The overall population of learners attending Grades 1–9 (as calculated in Table 4.1) was used as the divisor when calculating percentages.

Table 4.7a depicts the level of learners in Grades 1–9 who reported having access to mathematics and language workbooks as well as percentage shares (refer to Table 4.1) of all learners attending Grades 1–9 by province.

In general, of all the 9,9 million learners attending Grade 1–9 (see Tables 6.7a and 6.7b), 94,1% of them stated that they had access to language workbooks while 92,6% of them indicated that they had access to mathematics workbooks. In terms of gender parity amongst those who reported having access to workbooks, there are indications that there is parity with regard to accessing workbooks. However, with gender ratios of 0,97 respectively for Gauteng and Limpopo, female learners residing in the two provinces were marginally less likely to have access to language books than their male counterparts. Furthermore, at 0,93 the gender gap ratio of learners reporting access to mathematics workbooks in Gauteng was widest (in favour of boys) compared to those living in other provinces. This was again closely followed by those residing in Limpopo with a ratio of 0,97.

Table 4.7b: Learner access (in Grades 10–12) to textbooks by sex and province, 2014

	All textbooks		Some textbooks		No textbooks				
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female			
Province	**Thousand**								
Western Cape	102	120	10	20	1	4			
Eastern Cape	154	167	44	44	7	7			
Northern Cape	24	23	2	3	0	1			
Free State	68	80	4	6	0	0			
KwaZulu-Natal	202	209	129	129	5	6			
North West	68	70	16	20	1	1			
Gauteng	213	211	22	36	4	12			
Mpumalanga	75	101	24	25	1	1			
Limpopo	189	208	29	30	1	2			
South Africa	**1 094**	**1 189**	**281**	**314**	**20**	**34**		**GPR**	
	Per cent						**All textbooks**	**Some textbooks**	**No textbooks**
Western Cape	85,3	78,8	8,5	13,0	0,9	2,5	0,92	1,53	2,76
Eastern Cape	72,1	73,0	20,7	19,3	3,1	3,0	1,01	0,93	0,96
Northern Cape	92,0	80,2	6,5	11,5	0,5	2,2	0,87	1,76	4,10
Free State	86,5	86,3	4,9	7,0	0,0	0,3	1,00	1,43	-
KwaZulu-Natal	56,4	56,1	36,1	34,6	1,5	1,7	0,99	0,96	1,14
North West	74,2	68,1	17,4	19,3	1,0	1,1	0,92	1,11	1,06
Gauteng	73,8	71,4	7,6	12,2	1,2	4,2	0,97	1,60	3,41
Mpumalanga	63,3	73,3	20,5	18,5	1,0	0,7	1,16	0,90	0,65
Limpopo	79,6	80,9	12,3	11,7	0,3	0,9	1,02	0,95	2,99
South Africa	**71,5**	**71,3**	**18,3**	**18,8**	**1,3**	**2,1**	**1,00**	**1,03**	**1,61**

Source: GHS 2014
Note: excludes unspecified cases.
* The overall population of learners attending Grades 10–12 (as calculated in Table 4.1) was used as the divisor when calculating percentages.

Table 4.7b shows levels of male and female learners in Grades 10–12 who reported access to text books as well as percentage shares from the overall population of learners who are in the same grades (refer to Table 4.1). Amongst both male and female learners in Grade 10 through 12, more than 70% had access to all required textbooks (71,5% for boys and 71,3% for girls). Less than 3 per cent, i.e. 1,3% and 2,1% for boys and girls respectively, reported no access to textbooks.

Amongst those who indicated that they have all the required textbooks, the highest percentages for both male and female learners were observed in Northern Cape and Free State with percentage shares of 92,0% and 86,3% respectively, while those reporting the least percentage shares were found in KwaZulu-Natal (56,4% for males and 56,1% for females). Amongst those with no textbooks, the highest percentage shares of male and female learners were observed in the Eastern Cape and Gauteng with percentages of 3,1% and 4,2% respectively.

Full access to textbooks

Table 4.7b above shows that nationally, gender parity has been met (GPR: 1,00) amongst those learners who reported to have access to all required textbooks. However, there appeared to be provincial GPR variations, with girl learners residing in the Northern Cape (0,87), the Western Cape (0,92) and North West (0,92) least likely to report full access to textbooks compared to their male counterparts.

Some access to textbooks

National figures show that boys and girls were equally likely to report "some access" to textbooks. However, significant gender gaps were again observed in the Northern Cape, followed by Gauteng (1,60) and the Western Cape (1,53).

No access to textbooks

A similar trend was observed amongst those who reported no access. Enormous gender gaps (in favour of females) were observed, both nationally and provincially relative to no access to textbooks. Female learners were particularly disadvantaged in provinces such as Northern Cape (4,10), Gauteng (3,41), Limpopo (2,99) and the Western Cape (2,76).

The analysis above shows that in cases where enough textbooks were available at a school, both sexes had equal access as reflected in Table 4.7b. Gender parity was observed amongst learners reporting full access to textbooks. Even where parity was not completely achieved within provinces, minimal gender gaps were observed. In contrast, figures above point to a gender bias where not enough textbooks are available. Not only were girl learners most likely to report some or no access, GPR indicated some of the largest inequalities found in this report.

CHAPTER 5: POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Higher educational attainment, in terms of recognised qualifications, is associated with a range of positive outcomes, including better income, employment, and health. Skaggs (2011)[37] suggested that, as the requirements for many jobs and the expectations of employers are rising, education that provides the necessary skills and knowledge has become essential for full participation in society and a productive workforce. This chapter accordingly looks at gender variations in post-school education and training by assessing enrolments, type of Post-school Education and Training (PSET) institution attended and qualification attainment. Several demographic and social variables are used to report on trends observed.

Gross enrolment ratios at PSET

Figure 5.1: Gross enrolment ratio by population group for males in post-schooling education and training, 2001–2014
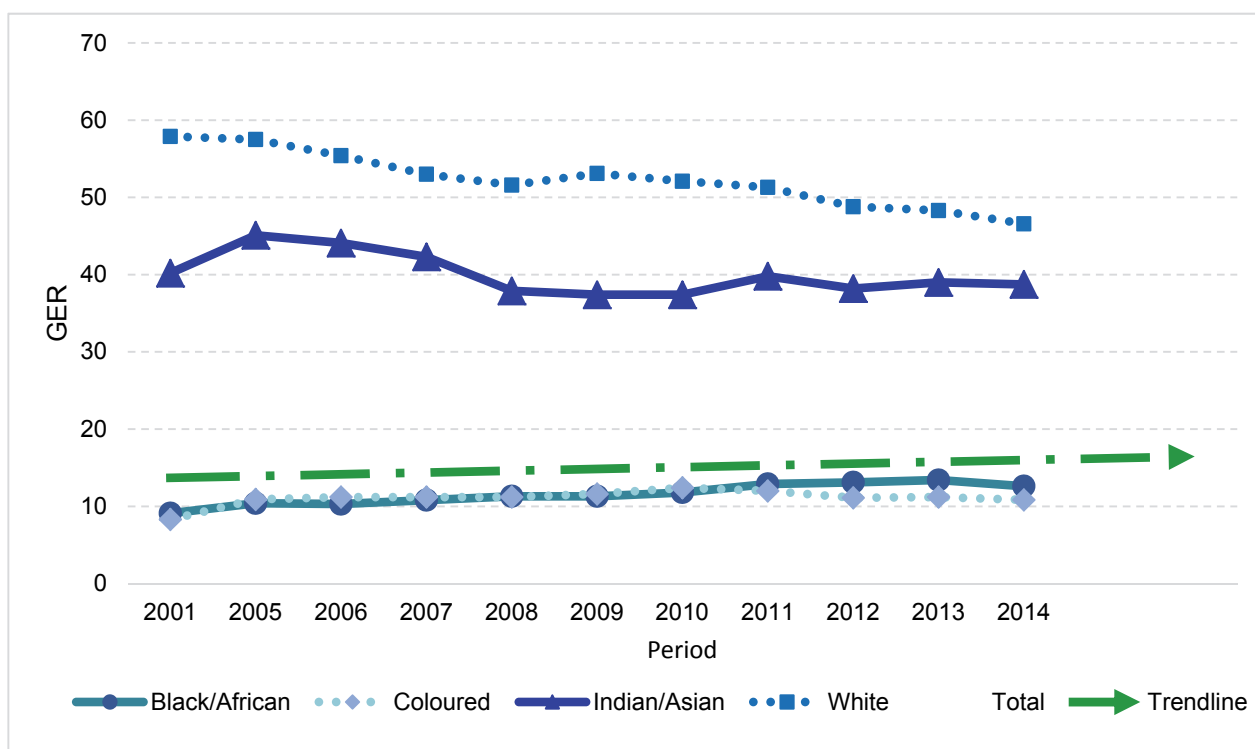
Figure 5.1 illustrates GERs by population group for males from the period 2001 to 2014. Linear forecasting using the national male GER for this particular group was employed as a method to analyse the trend. The analysis shows that the two population groups (white and Indian/Asian) that recorded a GER that lies above the trendline during this period have shown an overall decrease overtime. That is, the gross enrolment of white and Indian/Asian males in post-school education and training (expressed as a ratio of the 20–24-year age group) has decreased during this period. The opposite is true for black African and coloured males who recorded GERs below the trendline, but exhibited an overall increase in GER over time. Lastly, the positive slope of the trendline is indicative of a steady increase in male gross enrolment into post-school education and training over time.

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[37] Skaggs, J. 2011. *Making the Blind to See: Balancing STEM Identity with Gender Identity*, University of Kentucky.

Figure 5.2: Gross enrolment ratio by population group for females in post-schooling education and training, 2001–2014
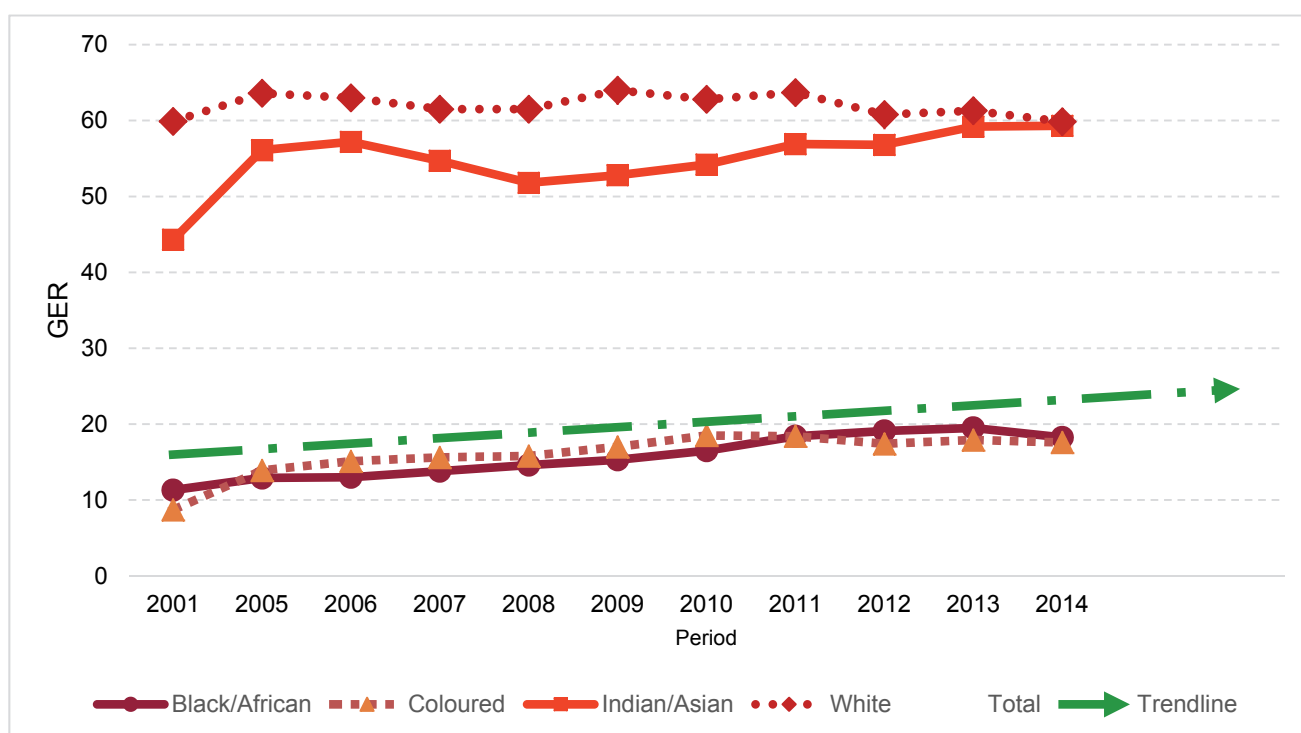
Figure 5.2 above depicts an analysis of the GER for females in post-school education and training. Similar to their male counterparts, white and Indian/Asian females recorded a GER that lies above the trendline; this implies that participation for these population groups generally outperformed that of the nation as a whole between 2001 and 2014. However, contrary to their male counterparts who recorded a decrease during this period, the GER for white females increased over the last 14 years (i.e. 2001–2014). On the other hand, little variations were observed regarding participation trends of black African and coloured females when compared to their male counterparts.

The degree of inclination of the trendline is indicative of the rate of change over time in GER. The fact that the female trendline is steeper than that of their male counterparts, suggests that females increased their participation in PSET at a more rapid rate (than males) over the years 2001 to 2014.

Post-school education and training enrolment and type of institution

The South African government has set out strategies to improve capacity of Post-school Education and Training (PSET) systems to meet the country's needs (the White Paper for PSET 2014)[38]. This section looks at the gender differences in the choice of institution and the field of study. Women represent the majority of young university graduates but are still underrepresented in Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics and Computer Sciences (STEM) fields (Darcy, 2013[39]).

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[38] White Paper for PSET 2014, Department of Higher Education and Training.
[39] Darcy Hango, December 2013. Gender differences in science, technology, engineering, mathematics and computer science (STEM) programs at university.

Figure 5.3a: Post-school and training enrolment by type of institution: males, 2009 and 2014
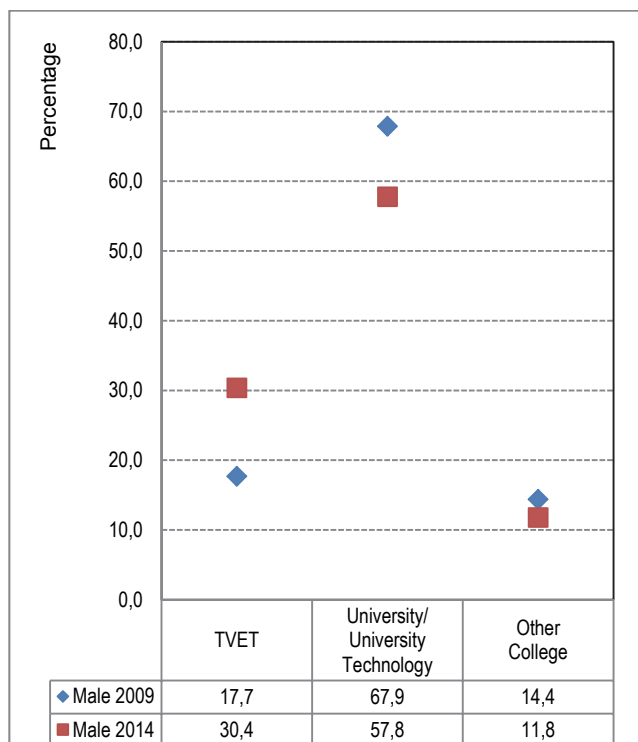
Figure 5.3b: Post-school education and training enrolment by type of institution: females, 2009 and 2014

	TVET	University/ University Technology	Other College
◆ Male 2009	17,7	67,9	14,4
■ Male 2014	30,4	57,8	11,8

	TVET	University/ University Technology	Other College
◆ Female 2009	18,2	65,5	16,4
■ Female 2014	29,5	58,8	11,7
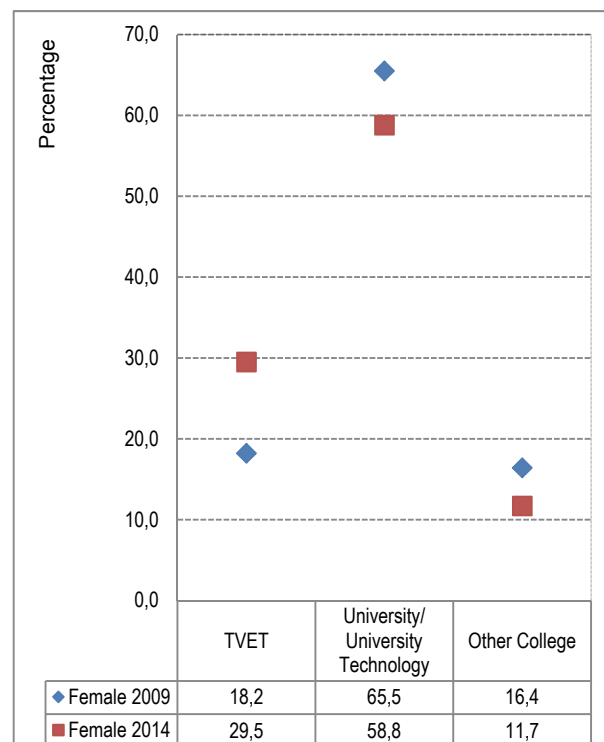
Source: GHS 2009, 2014

Figures 5.3a and 5.3b show male and female PSET enrolment by type of institution. In 2014, a higher proportion of both males and females were enrolled in different PSET institutions compared to 5 years earlier. Between 2009 and 2014, both male and female students were equally most likely to be enrolled at a university/university of technology. Although university/university of technology enrolments dropped amongst both sexes over the 5-year period of reporting, the decline was largest amongst males (10,2 percentage points compared to 6,7 percentage points). The figures above also show a marked uptake of enrolments in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) among students. Increases of 12,7 and 11,3 percentage points were recorded respectively among both males and females.

Table 5.1: Gender ratios: PSET enrolments by type of institution, 2009 and 2014

Type of PSET	2009	2014
TVET	1,0	1,0
University/university technology	1,0	1,0
Other college	1,1	1,0

Source: GHS 2009, 2014

Gender gap ratios depicted in Table 5.1 above show that gender parity in terms of enrolments in different PSET institutions has been reached over the 5-year period of reporting.

Table 5.2: PSET enrolments by geo-type, 2011

Type of PSET	Male		Female	
	Urban area	Rural area	Urban area	Rural area
TVET	180 054	40 188	199 851	55 968
University/university of technology	439 077	68 892	520 683	95 730
Other college	77 301	11 394	99 429	19 278
Total	696 435	120 471	819 966	170 976
Per cent				
TVET	25,9	33,4	24,4	32,7
University/university of technology	63,0	57,2	63,5	56,0
Other college	11,1	9,5	12,1	11,3
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Source: Census 2011

The above table illustrates enrolments of males and females in different types of PSETs and the distribution of enrolments by geo-type. In 2011, females had the highest enrolment uptake across the different types of PSET and for both urban and rural areas when compared to their male counterparts. The highest uptake across different institutions was at university/university of technology at over 520 000. The figure above also shows that a higher percentage amongst students in both settlement types was more likely to enrol at a university/university of technology. Virtually equal proportions amongst urban males (63,0%) and females (63,5%) were enrolled at a university/university of technology. Similar trends were also observed for males and females living in rural areas.

Figure 5.4a: Student enrolment by type of PSET and geo-type: males, 2009 and 2014

	2009		2014	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
■ TVET	17,8	20,0	26,9	42,6
■ University/University of Technology	67,7	53,6	62,6	39,4
■ Other College	14,4	26,4	10,5	17,9
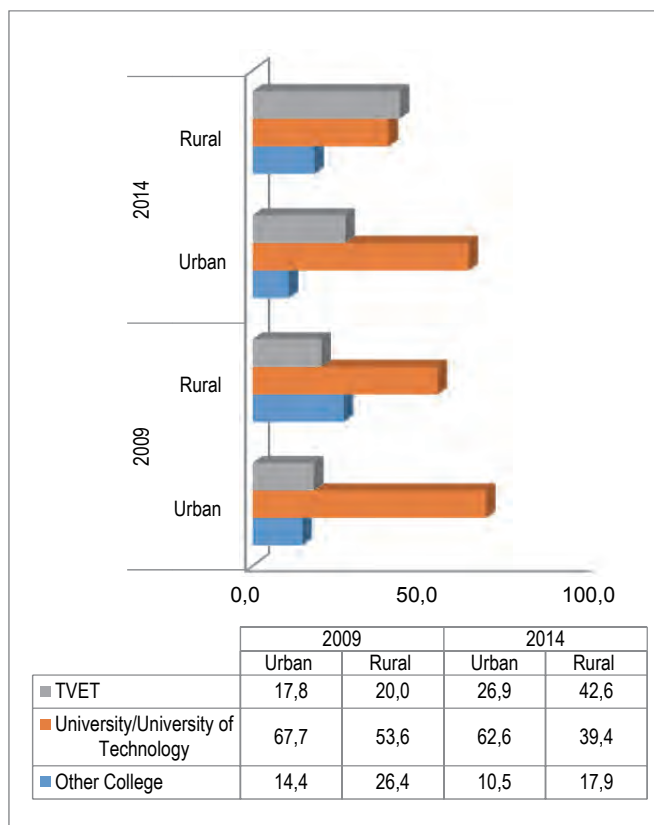
Figure 5.4b: Student enrolment by type of PSET and geo-type: females, 2009 and 2014

	2009		2014	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
■ TVET	16,4	27,0	28,1	44,5
■ University/University of Technology	70,3	51,2	60,8	39,5
■ Other College	13,3	21,8	11,1	16,1
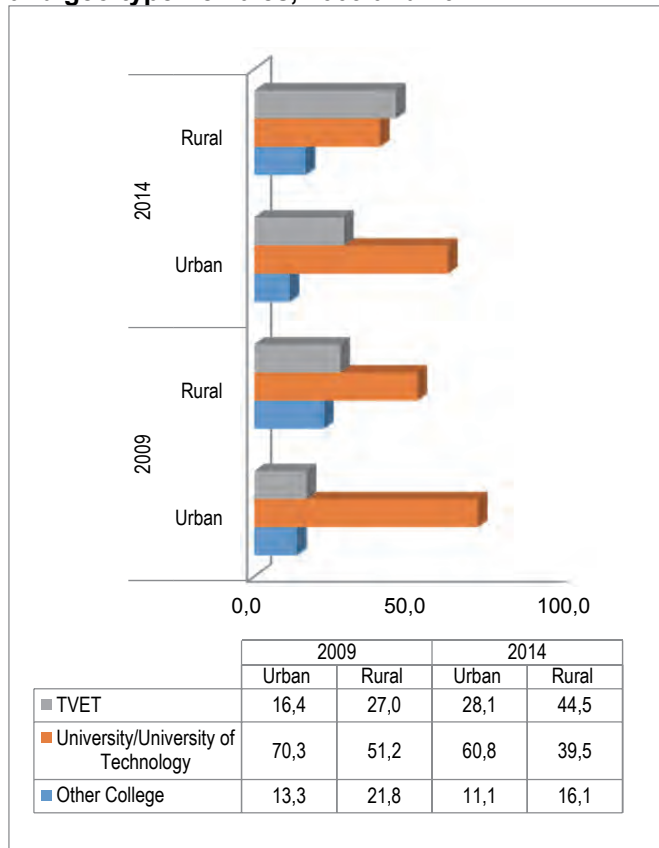
Source: GHS 2009, 2014

Figures 5.4a and 5.4b depict distributions of enrolments across different types of PSET institutions disaggregated by geographic type between 2009 and 2014. Student enrolment in TVET showed positive improvements in 2014 among both sexes. These findings suggest that initiatives that have been put in place to catalyse TVET enrolments have had some success in terms of luring school leavers to consider these institutions as an option after completing matric. In 2014, a considerable number of students were enrolled in TVETs in both geographic areas compared to five years earlier. However, the highest proportion of students attending TVET for both sexes was found in rural areas. Furthermore, males living in rural areas were more likely than their female counterparts to attend TVETs.

Between 2009 and 2014, female enrolments in university/university of technology declined with 9,5 and 11,7 percentage points in urban and rural areas. However, this type of PSET remains the most preferred by students after completing matric despite dropping between 2009 and 2014. The same pattern is observed for males, with males in urban areas recording a decline that is above 4 percentage points lower than that recorded among their male counterparts (declines of 5,1 and 9,5 percentage points respectively).

The "Other colleges" category is composed of all private colleges such Rosebank College, Boston College, Damelin, etc. In 2014, these institutions had the least enrolments within both geographic areas and among both sexes.

Table 5.3: PSET enrolments by province: males, 2011

Province	TVET		University/ university of technology		Other college		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	%	Number
Western Cape	19 149	21,9	57 594	65,9	10 683	12,2	100	87 426
Eastern Cape	16 614	28,3	36 816	62,6	5 358	9,1	100	58 791
Northern Cape	2 961	37,8	3 783	48,4	1 080	13,8	100	7 824
Free State	10 689	28,9	22 644	61,2	3 654	9,9	100	36 987
North West	11 823	32,1	20 940	56,9	4 068	11,0	100	36 828
KwaZulu-Natal	44 289	27,1	102 966	63,0	16 062	9,8	100	163 314
Gauteng	78 021	23,4	216 402	65,0	38 406	11,5	100	332 832
Mpumalanga	18 507	37,4	25 485	51,5	5 493	11,1	100	49 488
Limpopo	23 085	36,9	33 387	53,4	6 108	9,8	100	62 574
RSA	**225 138**	**26,9**	**520 017**	**62,2**	**90 912**	**10,9**		**836 064**

Source: Census 2011

Table 5.3 illustrates PSET enrolments amongst males by province. In 2011, the highest concentration of male TVET enrolments were within provinces such as Northern Cape (37,8%), Mpumalanga (37,4%) and Limpopo (36,9%). University/university of technology enrolments for males were highest amongst those in the Western Cape (65,9%), Gauteng (65,0%) and KwaZulu-Natal (68,0%). This can be expected since most universities in the country are located in these three provinces. On the other hand, males attending "Other colleges" were most likely to be found in Northern Cape (13,8%), Western Cape (12,2%) and Gauteng (11,5%).

Census 2011 also revealed that amongst males, university/university of technology had the highest uptake with more than half a million in enrolments, which made it the most preferred type of institution across all provinces. Student enrolment in TVET was more than 200 000 over the same period.

Table 5.4: PSET enrolments by province: females, 2011

Province	TVET		University/ university of technology		Other college		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	%	Number
Western Cape	23 271	23,1	64 398	63,9	13 059	13,0	100	100 728
Eastern Cape	23 418	27,5	53 142	62,5	8 490	10,0	100	85 047
Northern Cape	3 186	35,3	4 650	51,5	1 188	13,2	100	9 027
Free State	12 780	29,8	25 131	58,5	5 031	11,7	100	42 945
North West	13 644	30,8	25 395	57,4	5 199	11,8	100	44 241
KwaZulu-Natal	54 156	24,8	140 958	64,5	23 475	10,7	100	218 592
Gauteng	84 009	22,3	245 439	65,1	47 505	12,6	100	376 953
Mpumalanga	19 917	35,6	28 404	50,8	7 632	13,6	100	55 950
Limpopo	26 496	34,4	40 908	53,2	9 516	12,4	100	76 920
RSA	**260 877**	**25,8**	**628 425**	**62,2**	**121 095**	**12,0**		**1 010 403**

Source: Census 2011

Table 5.4 illustrates PSET enrolments amongst females by province. In 2011, similar to males, the highest female TVET enrolments were found in provinces such as Mpumalanga (35,6%), Northern Cape (35,3%), and Limpopo (34,4%). These proportions were, however, on average 2,3 percentage points lower than those observed for their male counterparts. Again, similar to their male counterparts, female university/university of technology enrolments were highest in Gauteng (65,1%), KwaZulu-Natal (64,5%) and Western Cape (63,9%). Virtually equal proportions of males and females among those residing in Gauteng were enrolled at universities or universities of technology. In the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal, the proportion of females enrolled in these institutions was lower when compared to that observed for their male counterparts (differences of 2,0 and 3,5 percentage points respectively). The largest percentages of females attending "Other colleges" was found in Mpumalanga (13,6%), Western Cape (13,0%) and Gauteng (12,6%).

Observations in Tables 5.3 and 5.4 above also show that in 2011, more than 100 000 more females were enrolled at universities/universities of technology compared to males (i.e. 628 425 as opposed to 520 017 for males). Similarly, there were over 30 000 more females who were registered at TVETs (35 739) and "Other colleges" (30 183). While no significant gender gaps existed between males and females for universities or universities of technology enrolment, the proportion of male and female TVET and "Other colleges" enrolment differed by 1,1 percentage points.

Figure 5.5a: Changes in student enrolment by type of PSET and province: males, 2009 and 2014
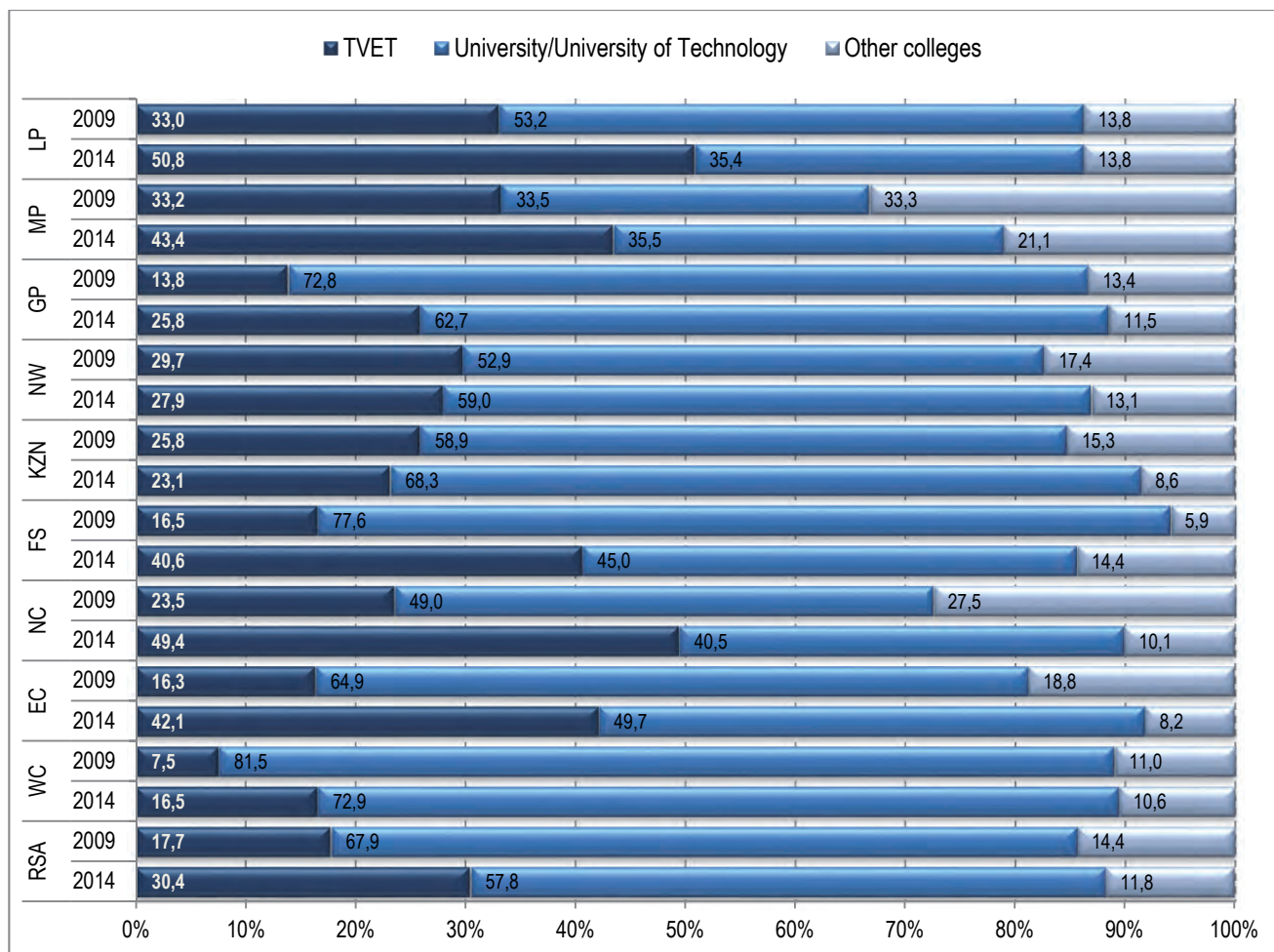
Source: GHS 2009, 2014

Figure 5.5a above shows changes in student enrolment by type of PSET and province amongst males. According to the GHS, male-TVET enrolments increased by over 50% in the provinces of Western Cape, Eastern Cape, Northern Cape and Free State between 2009 and 2014. KwaZulu-Natal is the only province that experienced a decline in enrolments over the same period.

There has been a decline in male university/university of technology enrolments in most provinces between the years 2009 and 2014, however, these institutions continue to be the preferred institution across all the provinces. Free State had the largest decline of 32,6 percentage points, whilst KwaZulu-Natal experienced the largest increase of 9,4 percentage points in enrolments. This was followed by North West (6,1 percentage points) and Mpumalanga (2 percentage points) respectively.

Enrolments in other colleges among males declined in most provinces over the 5-year period of reporting. Free State is the only province that saw an increase (8,5 percentage points), while enrolments in Limpopo remained constant. The variation in decline was notably higher in the Northern Cape with 17,4 percentage points.

Figure 5.5b: Changes in student enrolment by type of PSET and province: females, 2009 and 2014

Legend: ■ TVET ■ University/University of Technology ▨ Other colleges

Province	Year	TVET	University/University of Technology	Other colleges
LP	2009	24,6	49,7	25,7
LP	2014	43,3	45	11,7
MP	2009	24,6	52,5	22,9
MP	2014	31,1	49,0	19,9
GP	2009	17,6	62,7	19,7
GP	2014	20,2	67,8	12,0
NW	2009	29,0	57,4	13,6
NW	2014	35,7	57,6	6,7
KZN	2009	11,5	76,1	12,4
KZN	2014	32,7	55,4	11,9
FS	2009	18,6	72,8	8,6
FS	2014	47,1	43,7	9,2
NC	2009	15,9	59,2	24,9
NC	2014	46,5	42,9	10,6
EC	2009	23,9	65,9	10,2
EC	2014	35,6	50,5	13,9
WC	2009	15,6	72,1	12,3
WC	2014	26,0	65,6	8,4
RSA	2009	18,2	65,5	16,3
RSA	2014	29,5	58,8	11,7

Source: GHS 2009, 2014

Figure 5.5b depicts changes amongst female PSET enrolments by province using GHS 2009 and 2014 data. Similar to their male counterparts, female-TVET enrolments increased in all provinces. This included KwaZulu-Natal where male-TVET enrolments declined. Again, similar to males, female-TVET enrolments more than doubled in Northern Cape and Free State. With a proportional increase of 21,2 percentage points, the increase observed in KwaZulu-Natal was not only more than 50% but also the third largest. The increase for females in Gauteng (2,6 percentage points) was lowest. Their male counterparts experienced an increase of 12,0 percentage points.

Over the five-year reporting period (2009 and 2014), university/university of technology enrolments amongst females also declined for most provinces. Free State recorded the highest decrease of 29,1 percentage points compared to other provinces. This was followed by KwaZulu-Natal (20,7 percentage points), Northern Cape (16,3 percentage points) and Eastern Cape (15,4 percentage points). Gauteng (5,1 percentage points) and North West (0,2 of a percentage point) were the only provinces that observed an increase in their enrolments, even though North West increased by a small margin. The decline in female university/university of technology enrolments was similar to the pattern observed amongst males for the same period. However, contrary to their male counterparts, females experienced an increase of 5,1 percentage points in Gauteng, while males observed a decline of 10,1 percentage points. Both sexes experienced an increase in North West, although males observed an increase of 5,9 percentage points higher than that of females.

Other college enrolments showed a general decline across most provinces over the 5-year period of reporting. Increases were recorded only in the Eastern Cape (3,7 percentage points) and the Free State (0,6 of a percentage point).

Table 5.5: Student enrolments by type of PSET, sex and age, 2009 and 2014

Age groups	Male						Female					
	2009			2014			2009			2014		
	TVET	Univ/ univ of tech	Other colleges	TVET	Univ/ univ of tech	Other colleges	TVET	Univ/ univ of tech	Other colleges	TVET	Univ/ univ of tech	Other colleges
18 - 24	20,2	65,8	14	35,5	54,2	10,3	19,5	65,2	15,3	34,5	57,5	8
25 - 34	17,6	71,2	11,2	30,8	60,8	8,5	21,7	60,4	18	26,3	61,4	12,3
35 - 44	5,5	82,5	12	11,8	75,4	12,8	9,8	80,2	10	19,7	69,8	10,5
45+	19,3	73,2	7,5	12,9	81,3	5,8	8,2	76,5	15,3	17,7	76,1	6,3

Source: GHS 2009, 2014

Table 5.5 shows variations in male and female PSET enrolments by different age group categories. In 2014, the highest TVET enrolments among males and females were observed for those aged 18–24 (35,5% and 34,5% respectively). Older males and females (aged between 35–44 years) were more likely to be enrolled at universities and universities of technology than their younger counterparts. However, male university/university of technology enrolments in this age group was higher than that of females (75,4% vs. 69,8%). TVET enrolments amongst males showed a general increase in all age groups. The highest increases in enrolments were observed in the age groups 18–24 and 25–34 (by 15,3 and 13,2 percentage points respectively). The same pattern is observed for females, although the increase observed among males was mainly 9 percentage points higher than of female in the age group 25–34 years.

Between 2009 and 2014, university/university of technology enrolments among males decreased in most age group categories, except for those aged 45+ who experienced an increase of 8,1 percentage points. Enrolments for the age groups 18–24 and 25–34 declined with 11,6 and 10,4 percentage points respectively while enrolment amongst males aged 35–44 declined by 7,1 percentage points. This is in contrast with the increase observed in TVET enrolments among males of the same age group (35–44 years). These findings suggest that a movement between institutions occurred during the reference period, particularly for male students. Female university/university of technology enrolment also declined in most of the age group categories, with the largest decline (of 7,7 percentage points) observed among those aged 18–24 years. However, even though the same pattern is observed for both sexes, it is worth noting that while males 45 years or older experienced an increase of 8,1 percentage points, enrolments amongst females dropped by 0,4 of a percentage point. Within the age group 25–34, females experienced an increase of one percentage point in enrolment, while male enrolments of the same age group declined by more than 10 percentage points.

Between 2009 and 2014, a general decline in male and female enrolments in "Other colleges" took place, except among those in the age group 35–44 years. The decrease was notably higher for females within the age group 45 years or more (9 percentage points). The increase shown amongst the 35–44 year category was experienced by both sexes, but was slightly higher for males (0,8 percentage points) than for females (0,5 percentage points).

Table 5.6: Male PSET enrolment by type of institution, and population group, 2009 and 2014

Population group	2009				2014			
	TVET	University/unv of tech	Other college	Total	TVET	University/unv of tech	Other college	Total
Black African	21,0	62,0	17,0	100,0	35,9	51,5	12,6	100,0
White	11,0	80,0	8,0	100,0	11,3	80,5	9,2	100,0
Indian/Asian	10,0	82,0	8,0	100,0	20,1	72,6	7,3	100,0
Coloured	9,0	79,0	12,0	100,0	30,7	53,4	15,9	100,0

Source: GHS 2009, 2014

Table 5.6 shows PSET enrolments of males by different population group categories over the period 2009 and 2014. According to Table 5.6, in 2014, black African males were more likely to be enrolled at TVET institutions than other population groups. The percentage of TVET enrolments increased amongst all population groups between 2009 and 2014. Amongst the population groups, coloureds and black Africans observed the largest increase of 21,7 and 14,9 percentage points respectively. The lowest increase at TVET was observed among the white population group, which marginally increased by 0,3 of a percentage point.

Between 2009 and 2014, university/university of technology enrolments for males declined amongst all population groups except white males, which showed a slight increase of half a per cent. This could suggest a movement of male black African, coloured and Indian/Asian population groups to other institutions within this period, particularly to TVET institutions.

The coloured and white male population groups experienced an increase in enrolments in "Other colleges" over the 5-year reporting period (i.e. 3,9 and 1,2 percentage points respectively). In contrast, the percentage of those enrolled in "Other colleges" declined the most amongst black African males (4,4 percentage points).

Table 5.7: Female student enrolment by type of PSET and population group, 2009 and 2014

Population group	2009				2014			
	TVET	University/unv of tech	Other college	Total	TVET	University/unv of tech	Other college	Total
Black African	21,0	62,0	17,0	100,0	35,7	51,2	13,1	100,0
White	8,0	79,0	13,0	100,0	5,8	87,5	6,7	100,0
Indian/Asian	5,0	78,0	17,0	100,0	9,6	81,9	8,5	100,0
Coloured	26,0	55,0	19,0	100,0	32,9	55,4	11,7	100,0

Source: GHS 2009, 2014

Table 5.7 shows PSET enrolments of females by different population group categories. Between 2009 and 2014, similar to their male counterparts, black African females were more likely to be enrolled at a TVET institution than females belonging to other population groups. However, unlike for males, the increase observed in female TVET enrolments was accompanied by increases

recorded amongst only the black African, coloured and Indian/Asian populations groups. TVET enrolments among white females decreased by 2,2 percentage points. Among the population groups that recorded increases, black Africans and coloureds observed the largest increases of 14,7 and 6,9 percentage points respectively.

Over the five-year reporting period (2009 and 2014), university/university of technology enrolments for females declined by 10,8 percentage points amongst black Africans, while increases were noted for the other three population groups. The highest increase was observed amongst white females (8,5 percentage points). This was followed by Indian/Asian females with an increase of 3,9 percentage points, whilst coloured female enrolments only increased by 0,4 of a percentage point.

Female enrolment patterns at university/university of technology are different from male enrolments in that females experienced a general increase among all population groups, except for black Africans. However, the increase observed amongst white females is significantly higher than that noted amongst their male counterparts (0,5 for males vs. 8,5 for females). These findings suggest that a higher proportion of females in population groups other than black Africans still opted for university/university of technology enrolments after completing their matric.

"Other college" enrolments amongst females experienced a general decline of between 4 and 9 percentage points in all population groups between the period 2009 and 2014. The largest decline was observed for Indians/Asians (8,5 percentage points) and coloureds (7,3 percentage points). Although enrolments in "Other colleges" were generally low for both sexes, the decline amongst females exceeded that of males across all population groups.

University/university of technology enrolments and qualification attainment

In 2004 South Africa started reforming its higher education system by merging and incorporating small universities and technikons into larger institutions. These institutions were renamed after the amalgamation. The analyses below examine student enrolment at various universities and universities of technology by fields of study for learners using data from DHE's Higher Education Management Information System (HEMIS). Of note, however, is that due to the amalgamation of certain institutions post-2004 as mentioned above, the HEMIS database was not comparable pre-2005. Hence the reporting period used to assess trends for this section focuses on the years 2005 to 2013.

Enrolment into universities or universities of technology

The analysis below uses data from the Department of Higher Education's HEMIS data to ascertain student enrolment at universities and universities of technology over the period 2005 and 2013.

Table 5.8: Enrolment into university/university of technology by sex, area of specialisation and qualification type, 2013

		SET	Business and Commerce	Education	Other Humanities	Total
Occasional	**Male**	3 177	3 529	144	2 307	**9 157**
	Female	3 380	4 762	341	5 550	**14 032**
UG[40] Diploma/Certificate	**Male**	56 003	38 117	10 424	17 721	**122 265**
	Female	33 735	55 519	38 887	26 916	**155 056**
1st Bachelor's degree	**Male**	71 618	62 561	19 413	55 851	**209 443**
	Female	69 011	78 590	60 563	105 822	**313 986**
Honours / NH dip	**Male**	5 467	7 667	6 160	3 543	**22 836**
	Female	5 171	9 012	16 902	8 189	**39 274**
Masters / Masters dip	**Male**	12 420	6 278	1 383	6 398	**26 479**
	Female	11 036	4 412	2 203	8 087	**25 738**
Doctorate	**Male**	4 620	997	806	2 603	**9 025**
	Female	3 313	556	907	2 236	**7 011**
Other Postgrad[41]	**Male**	1 307	3 850	4 924	702	**10 783**
	Female	3 363	4 105	9 933	1 201	**18 601**
Total[42]	**Male**	**154 611**	**122 998**	**43 255**	**89 124**	409 988
	Female	129 009	156 954	129 736	158 000	573 698
GPR		0,83	1,28	3,00	1,77	1,40

DHET, HEMIS 2013
Note: Numbers are in fractional counts.

In 2013, roughly a million students enrolled in university/university of technology institutions with the majority being females. More females than males enrolled for Business and Commerce, Education and Other Humanities study fields, with Education having the highest gender disparities, followed by Other Humanities (3,00 and 1,77 GPIs respectively).

GPR figures of less than 1 were only observed in the field of Science, Engineering and Technology (SET), suggesting a stronger lean towards male enrolment at university/university of technology educational institutions across South Africa (GPR 0,83).

The table also illustrates that enrolment towards a first bachelor degree accounted for the highest number of university/university of technology enrolments by both sexes. Doctoral qualifications accounted for the least enrolments. Of interest is to note the trends between the hierarchy of educational echelons and male and female enrolments. The table shows that more females than males enrolled for qualifications lower than Masters and Doctorate degrees. However, males were more likely than females to enrol in Masters and Doctorate studies.

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[40] Undergraduate
[41] Postgraduate Bachelor degrees/Diploma and Post Diploma/Certificate
[42] Totals in fractional counts

Table 5.9: Gender parity ratios: Enrolments by qualification type and major field of study, 2005 and 2013

Qualification type	GPR 2005				GPR 2013			
	SET[43]	Business and Commerce[44]	Educa-tion	Other Humaniti es[45]	SET	Business and Commer ce	Educa-tion	Other Humaniti es
Occasional[46]	0,7	0,7	1,8	1,4	0,7	0,9	1,5	1,6
UG Dip/Cert[47]	0,5	1,2	2,1	1,0	0,5	1,1	2,9	1,2
1st Bachelor degree[48]	0,7	0,9	2,3	1,2	0,6	0,8	2,1	1,3
Other Postgraduate[49]	1,2	0,6	1,4	0,5	1,5	0,6	1,2	1,0
Honours/NH dip	0,5	0,6	1,6	1,1	0,5	0,7	1,6	1,3
Masters/Masters dip	0,9	0,6	1,6	1,3	0,9	0,7	1,6	1,3
Doctorate	1,0	0,6	1,6	1,0	0,9	0,7	1,4	1,1

Source: DHET HEMIS 2005; 2013

The gender gap ratios depicted in Table 5.9 above show that between 2005 and 2013, universities and universities of technology experienced large enrolment gender gaps. Gender disparities were observed for almost all qualification types as well as within each major field of study. Between 2005 and 2013, enrolment disparities in Science, Engineering and Technology (SET) and Business and Commerce were more inclined towards males. Gender gaps between males and females enrolled in SET subjects were widest among those enrolled at universities/university of technology up to Honours/NH Dip level. Of concern is that the ratio of females to males enrolled for SET subjects at all levels of qualification virtually remained the same over the 8-year period of reporting, with a slight decline observed (in favour of males) amongst those enrolled for doctorate degrees in 2013. Although males were also more likely to be enrolled in business and commerce subjects, slight improvements in the gender gap were observed for those enrolled from Honours/NH Dip up to doctorate.

Larger gender disparities were more particularly observed for those enrolled in education and other humanities (in favour of females). For example, with gender parity ratios (GPRs) of 2,1 and 2,3, there were two females for every male enrolled in Education at undergraduate level (diploma/certificate and first degree, respectively) in 2005. Eight years on, the gender gap increased to three females for every male (GPR = 2,9) for those enrolled for undergraduate diplomas/certificates, while the gap for the first degree remained the same.

The differences observed in the table above highlights gender differentials in the fields of study chosen by males and females. No noticeable improvements were achieved in the 8-year period of reporting. Irrespective of field of study, larger disparities were observed amongst those studying at undergraduate level (entry into universities/universities of technology). This is of concern, since it impacts on future prospects of achieving gender equality in the various aforementioned fields of study. Gender disparities in technical fields (currently dominated by males) require added focused

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[43] Note 1: SET majors = majors in science, engineering and technology. These include majors in engineering, health science, life science, physical science, computer science and mathematical science.

[44] Note 2: Business majors include accounting, management and all other business-related majors, such as marketing.

[45] Note 3: Other Humanities majors include languages and literary studies, fine arts, music and social science.

[46] Note 4: Occasional students are students who are taking courses that are part of formally approved programmes, but who are not registered for a formal degree or diploma.

[47] Note 5: "Undergraduate Certificates and Diplomas" includes national certificates and diplomas.

[48] Note 6: 1st Bachelor Degree professional bachelor's degrees which have an approved formal time of more than three/four years. Examples are B Tech, BSc, MBCHB, BFA.

[49] Other Postgraduate: includes postgraduate and post-diploma diplomas, postgraduate bachelor's degree.

intervention if females are to become part of addressing developmental challenges related to business, technology, mathematics, engineering and science both at national and global level.

Table 5.10: Gender parity ratios: Enrolments by major field of study and population group, 2013

Major field of study	Black African	Coloured	Indian/Asian	White
SET	0,6	0,7	0,6	0,6
Business and Commerce	1,0	0,8	0,8	0,8
Education	1,9	2,1	3,9	3,7
Other Humanities	1,2	1,3	1,8	1,6

Source: DHET: HEMIS, 2013

Table 5.10 above depicts gender gap ratios in terms of enrolments by major field of study at university/university of technology by race. In 2013, gender disparities were noticeably high in education amongst all population groups (in favour of females). The second widest gaps among Indian/Asian and white population groups were observed for those enrolled in other humanities, while the second largest gender gap between black African and coloured males and females was found in those studying SET subjects. Gender parity for black Africans was reached for those studying business and commerce. The table above also shows that in 2013, gender disparities between males and females enrolled for SET were virtually the same, irrespective of race, with a minor improvement amongst the coloureds. Those enrolled in the field of Education had the highest gender imbalance in favour of females amongst all population groups. However, the gap was much wider for whites (3,7) and Indians/Asians (3,9).

Table 5.11: Distribution of headcount enrolment by population group, major field of study and sex, 2013

	Female									
Major field of study	Black African	%	Coloured	%	Indian/Asian	%	White	%	National	%
SET	86 845	21,4	8234	21,9	8 180	25,5	24 755	26,1	129 009	22,5
Business and Commerce	113 158	27,9	9 862	26,3	10 964	34,2	22 410	23,6	156 954	27,4
Education	98 201	24,2	6 810	18,1	5 618	17,5	18 356	19,4	129 736	22,6
Other humanities	106 986	26,4	12 618	33,6	7 328	22,8	29 333	30,9	158 000	27,5
Total	**405 189**	**100,0**	**37 524**	**100,0**	**32 089**	**100,0**	**94 854**	**100,0**	**573 698**	**100,0**

	Male									
	Black African	%	Coloured	%	Indian/Asian	%	White	%	National	%
SET	101 956	35,9	7 923	33,7	8 778	40,5	34 438	44,7	154 612	37,7
Business and Commerce	82 143	28,9	7 414	31,5	9 198	42,4	23 560	30,6	122 998	30,0
Education	35 815	12,6	2 049	8,7	968	4,5	4 073	5,3	43 255	10,6
Other humanities	64 397	22,7	6 123	26,0	2 754	12,7	15 002	19,5	89124	21,7
Total	**284 310**	**100,0**	**23 509**	**100,0**	**21 698**	**100,0**	**77 073**	**100,0**	**409 988**	**100,0**

Source: DHET: HEMIS, 2013

Table 5.11 above illustrates enrolments for males and females in different fields of study at universities/universities of technology. In 2013, more black African females (405 189) were enrolled compared to males and females belonging to other population groups. Indian/Asian males (21 689) had the least enrolments. The table above also illustrates that males, irrespective of race, were most likely to be enrolled in SET and Business and Commercial subjects than their female counterparts, while females were mostly concentrated in Education and "Other humanities". These findings are in line with gender parity ratios computed in Tables 5.9 and 5.10.

The highest proportion of those enrolled in SET subjects was found amongst white males (44,7%), followed by Indian/Asian males (40,5%). On the other hand, the lowest proportion for those enrolled for the same subjects (SET) were observed amongst black African (21,4%) and coloured (21,9%) females.

Indian/Asian males (42,4%) were most likely to be enrolled in Business and Commercial subjects. Indian/Asian females were the second most likely at 34,2%, followed by white males (30,6%). At 23,6%, white females were the least likely to be enrolled in Business and Commercial subjects.

Uptake in Education was highest among black African female students (24,2%), followed by white (19,4%) and coloured (18,1%) females. Of note, however, is that although males were generally less likely to be enrolled in Education than females, relatively large male uptakes were observed amongst black African males (12,6%).

Females were generally more likely to be enrolled in Humanities, with largest uptakes observed amongst coloured and white females (i.e. 33,6 and 30,9% respectively). However, in 2013, more than a quarter of coloured males (26,0%) were also enrolled in Humanities studies.

Table 5.12: Distribution of headcount enrolment by population group, qualification type and sex, 2013

Female										
Qualification type	**African**	**%**	**Coloured**	**%**	**Indian/Asian**	**%**	**White**	**%**	**National**	**%**
Occasional	9 380	2,3	723	1,9	569	1,8	2 574	2,7	140 32	2,4
UG Dip/CERT	138 012	34,1	7 238	19,3	2 838	8,8	64 00	6,7	155 056	27,0
1st Bachelor degree	202 243	49,9	23 955	63,8	22 274	69,4	64 132	67,6	313 986	54,7
Other Postgraduate	11 700	2,9	1 350	3,6	1 306	4,1	4 151	4,4	18 601	3,2
Honours/NH Dip	28 094	6,9	2 001	5,3	2 094	6,5	6 582	6,9	39 274	6,8
Masters/Masters Dip	12 947	3,2	1 817	4,8	2 326	7,2	8 109	8,5	25 738	4,5
Doctorate	2 813	0,7	440	1,2	682	2,1	2 906	3,1	7 011	1,2
TOTAL	**405 189**	**100,0**	**37 524**	**100,0**	**32 089**	**100,0**	**94 854**	**100,0**	**573 698**	**100,0**

Males										
	African	**%**	**Coloured**	**%**	**Indian/Asian**	**%**	**White**	**%**	**National**	**%**
Occasional	5842	2,1	489	2,1	427	2,0	2 041	2,6	9 157	2,2
UG Dip/CERT	102 695	36,1	6 358	27,0	3 273	15,1	9 578	12,4	122 265	29,8
1st Bachelor degree	133 849	47,1	12 750	54,2	13 693	63,1	47 828	62,1	209 443	51,1
Other Postgraduate	6 993	2,5	756	3,2	680	3,1	2 282	3,0	10 783	2,6
Honours/NH Dip	15 188	5,3	1 260	5,4	1 216	5,6	4 848	6,3	22 836	5,6
Masters/Masters Dip	14 546	5,1	1 468	6,2	1 870	8,6	7 902	10,3	26 479	6,5
Doctorate	5 197	1,8	428	1,8	539	2,5	2 594	3,4	9 025	2,2
TOTAL	**284 310**	**100,0**	**23 509**	**100,0**	**21 698**	**100,0**	**77 073**	**100,0**	**409 988**	**100,0**

Source: DHET: HEMIS, 2013

Table 5.12 above illustrates enrolments of males and females at different levels at universities and universities of technology. In 2013, more females (573 698) were enrolled at university and universities of technology than males (409 988) at various levels. A higher proportion of females were enrolled for their first degree (54,7%) and Honours (6,8%) levels when compared their male counterparts (51,1% and 5,6%). However, those enrolled in higher degrees (Masters and Doctorates) were more likely to be male. Amongst males, 6,5% and 2,2% were respectively enrolled in Masters and Doctorate programmes compared to 4,5% and 1,2% amongst their female counterparts.

Enrolments for both sexes were more concentrated in undergraduate diploma/certificate (UG Dip/Cert) and 1st bachelor degree amongst all population groups. Contrary, white females had the lowest enrolment uptake for UG Dip/Cert. On the other hand, in 2013, the highest percentage of students enrolled for their first bachelor degree was found amongst Indian/Asian females (69,3%) and white females (67,6%). This was followed closely by figures reported amongst coloured females and Indian/Asian males, with each group reporting figures around 63%.

Findings from the table above also show that across all population groups, fewer students were enrolled in Master and Doctorate programmes. However, the highest percentages of students enrolled in these programmes were observed amongst white males (10,3%), followed by Indian/Asian males and white females with 8,6% and 8,5% respectively. Black African and coloured females were least likely to be enrolled for the same programmes. In terms of enrolment in doctoral degrees, the national percentage for males of 2,2% was driven by that observed among white (3,4%) and Indian/Asian (2,5%) males, while their female counterparts (3,1% amongst white and 2,1% amongst Indian/Asian females) contributed the most towards the overall national percentage for females enrolled for Doctorates (1,2%). Again, the lowest percentages of students enrolled for doctoral degrees were observed among black African and coloured females, with 0,7% and 1,2% respectively.

University/university of technology qualification attainment

The following analysis focuses on gender disparities in terms of qualifications obtained at universities and universities of technology by type of field of study.

Table 5.13: University/university of technology graduate by sex, area of specialisation and qualification type, 2013

		SET	Business and Commerce	Education	Other Humanities	Total
UG diploma/Certificate	**Male**	7 835	5 563	3 275	2 431	**19 104**
	Female	6 238	9 223	11 982	4 368	**31 810**
1st Bachelor's Degree	**Male**	12 096	9 698	2 062	7 446	**31 302**
	Female	12 965	12 657	6 512	15 700	**47 834**
Honours/National Higher Diploma	**Male**	2 956	3 029	1 789	1 739	**9 513**
	Female	2 975	3 514	4 785	4 038	**15 311**
Masters/Masters Diploma	**Male**	2 479	1 497	199	1 278	**5 453**
	Female	2 247	1 004	377	1 728	**5 356**
Doctorate	**Male**	630	99	100	327	**1 156**
	Female	446	60	116	274	**895**
Other Postgrad	**Male**	610	1 212	2 139	355	**4 316**
	Female	1 700	1 496	4 877	701	**8 773**
Total	**Male**	**26 606**	**21 097**	**9 564**	**13 576**	70 844
	Female	**26 571**	**27 953**	**28 648**	**26 807**	109 979
GPR		**1,00**[50]	**1,32**	**3,00**	**1,97**	**1,55**

DHET, HEMIS 2013
Note: Numbers are in fractional counts.

More than 180 000 students fulfilled the requirements for a qualification from universities and universities of technology across South Africa in 2013, with more than 60% of graduates being female. Nationally, the gender gap amongst graduates was largest (in favour of females) in the fields of Business and Commerce, Education and "Other humanities" study fields than males. Education and "Other humanities" carried the highest gender disparities (3,00 and 1,97 GPIs respectively).

Differences were observed between gender analyses discussed previously for university and universities of technology enrolments, as well as for graduates. Gender trends observed in enrolment were not necessarily reflected in graduation. This could be seen in that, although males were more likely to be enrolled in SET and Business and Commercial subject fields, equal GPIs were calculated between male and female students who graduated in SET subjects in 2013. On the other hand, with a GPR of 1,3, the gender gap between those who graduated favoured females.

Once more females dominated the lower echelons whilst males dominating the peak of the education hierarchy. More females than males graduated from qualifications below Masters and Doctoral studies in 2013. Contrary, more males than females graduated from Masters and Doctoral studies, except in the field of Education.

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[50] 0,998675 to six decimal places

Figure 5.6: Changes in enrolment and graduation by sex, 2005–2013

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Enrolment Male	334	333	338	349	360	380	395	398	410
Enrolment Female	401	409	422	451	478	513	543	555	574
Graduate Male	50	51	52	54	57	60	64	66	71
Graduate Female	71	74	75	80	88	93	97	100	110
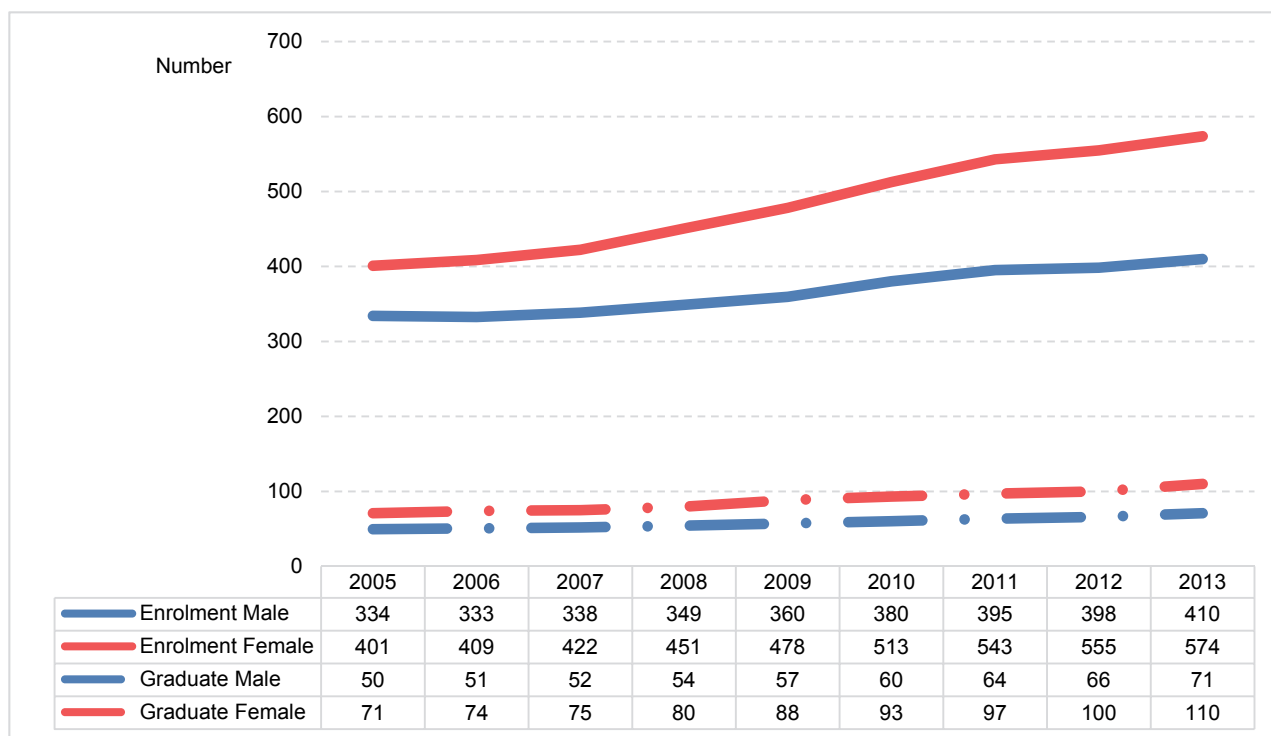
DHET, HEMIS 2013
* Note: Numbers in thousands.

In Figure 5.6, time series analysis is used as a means to monitor university/university of technology enrolment and graduation by both sexes between 2005 and 2013. Over time, a steady increase in both enrolment and graduation is observed for both sexes. Female enrolment and graduation outnumbered that of males during every year of the reference period.

Between 2005 and 2013, female enrolment rates increased at a rate of 0,43, which is higher than that of their male counterparts who recorded an increase of 0,23; the significant difference in the rate of change in enrolment between the sexes explains the consistent widening of the gender gap over time that is noted in the figure above. Males and females recorded rates of increase in graduation of 0,43 and 0,55 respectively; this is mirrored in the figure above where we note a virtually parallel trend between male and female graduates with a slight widening of the gap towards 2013.

Table 5.14: Gender parity for attainment in various study fields of study by population group, 2013

	Black African	White	Indian/ Asian	Coloured	Unspe- cified[51]	Total
SET	1,04	0,82	1,23	1,33	0,67	**1,00**[52]
Business and Commerce	1,53	0,93	1,20	1,32	0,99	**1,32**
Education	2,75	4,69	5,03	2,98	2,17	**3,00**
Other humanities	1,80	2,20	3,28	2,31	2,06	**1,97**

DHET, HEMIS 2013

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[51] Students with unspecified race on HEMIS database.
[52] 0,998675 to six decimal places

Table 5.14 focuses on gender imbalances in the various fields of study within each population group for the year 2013. White and Indian/Asian students who graduated in the field of Education recorded large disparities in favour of females, i.e. 4,69 and 5,03 respectively. Gender disparities in favour of males were only observed among white graduates in SET and Business and Commerce study fields. On the other hand, black African attainment in SET reached parity.

Table 5.14: Distribution of attainment in various fields of study by population group and sex, 2013

	Black African		White		Indian/Asian		Coloured		National	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
SET	35,1	22,6	43,8	27,0	40,6	30,4	33,7	25,7	37,6	24,2
Business and Commerce	27,6	26,0	32,4	22,7	43,1	31,6	32,1	24,3	29,8	25,4
Education	17,3	29,3	5,6	19,8	5,2	15,8	12,7	21,7	13,5	26,0
Other Humanities	20,0	22,1	18,3	30,4	11,1	22,2	21,5	28,4	19,2	24,4
Total	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**	**100**

DHET, HEMIS 2013

Table 5.14 illustrates the proportion share of each field of study by race and sex. Interesting variations are noted for females in different population groups. For instance, the majority of black African females graduated in Education studies, white and coloured females in Other Humanities studies, and Indian/Asian females from the male dominated SET field of study.

The table above also shows that there were higher proportions of males (over 30 per cent) in each population group who fulfilled the minimum requirements for a qualification in SET than in any other study field. That is, in 2013, at least three out of ten males who graduated from university/university of technology attained a qualification in SET. This is also reflected in the national figure. Education was the least likely to be studied by males, particularly amongst white and Indian/Asian population groups.

The highest proportion of male SET graduates was found among the white population group (43,8%), followed by Indians/Asians (43,8%). With respect to females, black Africans and coloureds were least likely to have attained both SET and Business and Commercial tertiary qualifications. Amongst black African females, 22,6% and 26,0% graduated in SET and Business and Commercial fields respectively, while approximately a quarter of coloured females graduated in SET (25,7%) and Business and Commercial (24,3%) fields.

Nationally, female attainment of post-school education and training was, however, almost equally dispersed across the four fields of study, although the Education field of study recorded the highest proportion in attainment by a marginal fraction, followed by Business and Commerce.

Table 5.15: Changes in attainment in various fields of study by population group and sex, 2005 and 2013

	Black African		White		Indian/Asian		Coloured		National	
	Male	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**	**Male**	**Female**
SET	1,03	1,11	0,10	0,04	0,07	0,25	0,46	0,67	0,53	0,62
Business and Commerce	1,11	1,40	0,09	0,10	0,34	0,46	0,68	0,66	0,61	0,86
Education	0,18	0,23	0,56	0,55	0,47	1,11	0,10	0,81	0,21	0,33
Other Humanities	0,47	1,09	-0,24	-0,07	-0,22	0,11	0,14	0,49	0,16	0,50
Total	**0,71**	**0,79**	**0,03**	**0,08**	**0,14**	**0,36**	**0,38**	**0,64**	**0,42**	**0,55**

DHET, HEMIS 2013

Table 5.15 shows a national increase in the attainment of qualifications in all fields of study between the years 2005 and 2013. This may be as a result of the constant increase in the number of students graduating from universities/universities of technology over time; as was illustrated in Figure 5.6. The highest increase nationally was observed for attainment in Business and Commercial studies qualifications by both sexes.

We note, however, declines in attainment only in the number of white males and females as well as Indian/Asian males graduating in "Other Humanities". These groups also recorded the least overall rates of change in attainment in university/university of technology qualifications during this period. The largest growth of graduates were observed amongst black African females qualifying in Business and Commercial fields (1,40) as well as among black African male and female SET graduates (1,11 respectively) and among Indian/Asian females who attained qualifications in Education (1,11).

SECTION 2: MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS

CHAPTER 6: PREDICTORS OF EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT FOR MALES AND FEMALES

Examining the variables that influence the attainment of a tertiary qualification

Education has increasingly become important to society. For example, in the labour market, job opportunities are available to individuals with higher levels of education. Similarly, education has also been found to be an extremely important determinant in earnings (Labour Market Dynamics, 2014). However, descriptive analyses discussed in Section 1 of this report showed variations in education attainment according to different socio-economic and demographic variables. For example, females were more likely to have higher levels of educational attainment than their male counterparts. In addition, levels of education were also found to be higher for persons residing in urban areas and among those belonging to older age-group categories. In educational and economic studies, it has been found that background variables such as household income, household size, and parents' education are determinants of education attainment (Rosetti, 2000)[53]. The objective of this chapter therefore, is to determine factors contributing to the educational outcomes of males and females.

The analysis below uses binary logistic regression as a technique to determine predictors of education using Census 2011 data for persons aged 25 years and above. The age 25 was particularly selected as a lower boundary with the supposition that if age is the only underlying factor (holding all other influences constant), one would have had enough time to attain a National Senior Certificate or some form of tertiary qualification.

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[53] Rosetti, Stefania; Tanda, Paola. "Human Capital, Wages and Family Interactions." Labour. 14 (2000): 5-34.

Table 6.1: Binary Logistic Regression examining the variables that influence the attainment of a National Senior Certificate by sex for persons aged 25–64

Variable		Male	Female	Both
Sex	**Male®**			**1**
	Female			0,9775***
Race	**African/Black®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Coloured	0,8033***	0,8748***	0,8392***
	Indian/Asian	1,7126***	1,7184***	1,7157***
	White	1,6911***	2,2220***	1,9457***
Age	**25-34®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	35-44	0,7485***	0,6410***	0,6969***
	45-54	0,3866***	0,3153***	0,3519***
	55-64	0,2565***	0,2040***	0,2310***
Marital status	**Married®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Living together like husband and wife	0,8564***	0,7580***	0,8125***
	Never married	0,9671***	1,0914***	1,0183***
	Widow/widower	0,7693***	0,7231***	0,6996***
	Separated	0,7710***	0,7625***	0,7523***
	Divorced	1,1684***	1,1539***	1,1415***
Geotype	**Urban®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Rural	0,6822***	0,7188***	0,6984***
Household size	**Less than four®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Four to six	1,0897***	1,0495***	1,0670***
	More than 6	0,9827***	0,9857***	0,9852***
Minors present in household	**Yes**	0,9400***	0,8919***	0,9270***
	No®	**1**	**1**	**1**
Access to electricity	**Yes**	1,7893***	1,8219***	1,8079***
	No®	**1**	**1**	**1**
Access to internet	**Yes®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	No	0,7066***	0,7383***	0,7225***
Annual household income	**No income®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	R1 to R153 600	0,9940**	0,8753***	0,9422***
	R153 601 to R307 200	1,2353***	1,0239***	1,1355***
	R307 201 to R614 400	0,7877***	0,6672***	0,7317***
	R614 401 or more	0,4415***	0,4076***	0,4281***

Source: Census 2011, 10% sample
Legend: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001
® Reference category

Of the 11 million males and 12 million females between the ages 25 and 64, 28 and 27 per cent respectively reported to have matric as their highest level of education. These figures exclude individuals who completed matric and then went on to obtain a tertiary qualification.

Interpreting the odds ratios (Exp (B)):

The model shows a higher likelihood of males attaining a National Senior Certificate than their female counterparts.

The population variable reveals interesting results. The odds of Indian/Asian males attaining at most matric were higher than that recorded for other population groups, particularly higher than coloureds whose likelihood was 90% less than that of Indians/Asians. For females, however, whites carried the highest odds of attaining at most a National Senior Certificate. For both sexes, coloureds recorded the lowest odds of all population groups.

Younger persons were more likely to have at most a National Senior Certificate than the older generation. That is, the odds of achieving at most matric decreased as age increased for both sexes.

Divorced persons of both sexes were most likely to have attained matric as their highest qualification. In contrast to this, widows and widowers were the least likely.

Typically, both males and females from urban areas were more likely than their urban counterparts to acquire at most a National Senior Certificate. Also, having more than six people living in the household reduced the odds of achieving at most matric for both males and females.

Access to electricity and internet and having no minors in the household increased the likelihood of attaining at most matric for both sexes.

Interesting results are noted from the annual household income variable. The model suggests that for high earning households (R307 201 and more), the odds of a household member attaining at most matric were substantially reduced. Contrary, the odds were highest for those earning within the R153 601 and R307 200 per annum income bracket. This was true for both sexes. This is most likely because individuals from high-earning households do not only complete matric but also proceed to complete some form of tertiary education, as can be seen in the table on the next page.

Table 6.2: Binary Logistic Regression examining the variables that influence the attainment of a tertiary qualification by sex for persons aged 25–64

Variable		Male	Female	Both
Sex	**Male®** **Female**			1 1,1342***
Race	**African/Black®** **Coloured** **Indian/Asian** **White**	1 0,5208*** 0,9323*** 1,2446***	1 0,4686*** 0,7939*** 1,0644***	1 0,4928*** 0,8597*** 1,1511***
Age	**25-34®** **35-44** **45-54** **55-64**	1 0,9662*** 0,7489*** 0,5914***	1 0,9362*** 0,6048*** 0,4346***	1 0,9683*** 0,6892*** 0,5212***
Marital status	**Married®** **Living together like husband and wife** **Never married** **Widow/widower** **Separated** **Divorced**	1 0,5929*** 0,7656*** 0,6726*** 0,8542*** 1,1587***	1 0,5428*** 1,0331*** 0,8984*** 0,9465*** 1,4742***	1 0,5729*** 0,8961*** 0,7960*** 0,8905*** 1,3165***
Geotype	**Urban®** **Rural**	1 0,7922***	1 0,8270***	1 0,8095***
Household size	**Less than four®** **Four to six** **More than 6**	1 0,6663*** 0,3590***	1 0,5990*** 0,3234***	1 0,6325*** 0,3407***
Minors present in household	**Yes** **No®**	1,033*** 1	0,9378*** 1	1,0082*** 1
Access to electricity	**Yes** **No®**	2,6828*** 1	2,5320*** 1	2,6088*** 1
Access to internet	**Yes®** **No**	1 0,3278***	1 0,3661***	1 0,3476***
Annual household income	**No income®** **R1 to R153 600** **R153 601 to R307 200** **R307 201 to R614 400** **R614 401 or more**	1 1,5947*** 6,9641*** 12,3141*** 21,3025***	1 1,6448*** 8,1542*** 12,8221*** 18,9525***	1 1,6429*** 7,6647*** 12,7422*** 20,3337***

Source: Census 10% sample
Legend: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001
® Reference category

Interpreting the odds ratios (Exp (B)):

Among the 25–64 age group, the odds of having attained a tertiary qualification were 13 per cent higher for females than males. For both sexes, the odds of meeting the minimum requirements for a tertiary qualification were highest for whites, followed by black Africans. Coloureds were the least likely to have tertiary education.

As was the case with matric, younger persons were more likely to have attained tertiary qualifications than the older generation. For both males and females, the likelihood of achieving a tertiary qualification decreased with age.

For males, being divorced carried the highest likelihood of having a tertiary qualification, followed by being married. Females who were divorced had the highest chances of having a tertiary qualification, followed by those who had never been married. For both sexes, however, cohabiting carried the highest likelihood of not attaining a tertiary qualification.

Not surprisingly, for both sexes, the odds of attaining a tertiary qualification were higher for persons living in urban areas as compared to rural areas.

The results in the model also show that the odds of attaining a post-school qualification decreased, as the number of household members increases.

The presence of minor children in the household has an opposite effect for males and females. For males, the odds of having a post-school qualification were higher if there was a minor child living in the household. The opposite was true for females.

Access to electricity and the internet also increased the likelihood of attaining a tertiary qualification for both sexes.

Annual household income accounted for the most significant influence in the model. It is interesting to note the fraction of increase of the odds of attaining a tertiary qualification by stretching the household income. For both sexes, a higher household income significantly increased the odds of the household members having a tertiary qualification.

Table 6.3: Binary Logistic Regression examining the influence of fertility and related indicators on attainment of a tertiary qualification for females of child-bearing age (25–50) by marital status

Variable		Married/ Living together like husband and wife	Never been married	Both
Marital status	**Married®**			**1**
	Never been married			0,5486
Age at first birth	**15-19®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	20-24	2,3065***	1,9068***	2,1109***
	25-29	5,9966***	3,2513***	4,8343***
	30-34	8,7625***	3,9772***	6,8761***
	35-39	7,6383***	3,9226***	6,2100***
	40-44	4,7138***	4,0094***	4,3892***
	45-50	3,3335***	1,1596*	2,8611***
Total children born	**1 to 2®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	3 or more	0,7183***	0,5485***	0,6697***
Minor present in the household	**No®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Yes	0,8064***	0,5728***	0,7311***

Source: Census 2011, 10% sample
Legend: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001
® Reference category

For this model, only females of childbearing age who had ever given birth to a live child were considered. The group was further disaggregated by marital status. Those that reported that they were married or living together as husband and wife were grouped together with the supposition that they face more or less common social circumstances. The null hypothesis was that fertility does not influence educational attainment, particularly the attainment of a tertiary qualification. The model was significant and we reject the null hypothesis. Therefore, it is concluded that an association exists between the variables and tertiary qualification attainment for both females that are married or cohabiting and those that were never married.

For this age group, only 11 per cent of the 4 million women who had never been married reported to have attained a post-schooling qualification by 2011. However, 16 per cent of the 4 million married or cohabiting female counterparts had met the minimum requirements for a tertiary qualification.

Interpreting the odds ratios (Exp (B)):

According to the model, the odds of attaining a tertiary qualification were 45 per cent less for females who had never been married than for those who were either married or cohabiting.

The results also show that married or cohabiting females who had their first child at the age of 30–34 had the highest odds of attaining a tertiary qualification. Contrary, females who had never been married had the highest odds of having tertiary education if they had their first child at the age of 40–44 years. For both groups, the odds of attaining a tertiary qualification were lowest for those who bore their first child between the ages of 15 and 19 years.

For both groups, the more children born, the lower the odds of attaining a tertiary qualification. Holding other variables in the model constant, this has a higher effect on females who had never been married compared to their married or cohabiting counterparts (45 per cent and 28 per cent less chances of attaining a tertiary qualification respectively).

The presence of minor children in the household showed a negative impact on never married females than those that are married/cohabiting. The model reveals that single mothers with minors in the household were 40 per cent less likely to have attained a tertiary qualification than those without minors in the household. Contrary, married/cohabiting women living under the same conditions were roughly 20 per cent less likely to have some sort of tertiary qualification.

Measuring the relationship between educational attainment and employment outcomes for males and females

Having determined factors associated with education attainment for males and females, this sub-section attempts to determine the relationship between education and employment outcomes. It was reported earlier in this report that a higher percentage of persons with tertiary-level education are employed and that females were more likely to have a tertiary-level education than males. However, employment absorption rates for females are significantly lower than for males. Therefore, the trends observed above naturally lead to the following research question. If education is positively related to employment, and females are more likely to have higher education attainment, why is it that females continue to have lower employment absorption rates than males? Is education alone a significant predictor of employment or are other factors at play? This sub-section accordingly employs cohort analyses and a regression model to ascertain factors contributing to being employed controlling for education and other socio-demographic variables.

Using Cohort Analysis

As mentioned above, the objective of this section is to look at the relationship between education and employment outcomes. Research shows that the absorption rates of newly qualified students into employment differs significantly across fields of study. The variations are largely influenced by demands in the labour market and are also related to the fields of study for those who are newly qualified (Maharasoa, M and Hay, D)[54]. Using cohort analysis, persons aged 15 years and above were extracted from the National Income Dynamics Study (NIDS) panel data. The panel survey was conducted by the Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit (SALDRU) and ran between 2008 and 2012. The data that was analysed consists of graduates and those individuals holding certificates and diplomas who reported in 2008 that they were studying in 2007, but were no longer continuing with their studies in 2008, citing various reasons. The group, when weighted, consists of 46 000 graduates and 142 000 persons in possession of certificates and diplomas.

About NIDS

NIDS is a panel study that has, to date, conducted three successive surveys (Waves 1–3). The waves (1 through 3) were implemented in 2008, 2010/2011, and 2012 respectively and covered approximately 7 305 households at the beginning of the first wave (2008), which were then weighted to be representative of the overall population of the country in 2008, with re-weighting also taking place between waves in response to Mid-year population estimates. Linking the successive waves required the use of derived link files comprising of both individual and household identifiers. More information on the methodology and other technical notes regarding the NIDS panel study is provided on the NIDS website[55].

NIDS limitations

Limitations which were encountered while working with the NIDS data were those which tended to reduce the sample for the cohort study. These ranged from the availability of data on variables of interest such the fields of study for individuals during a particular wave, and the in-depth classification of industries for the purpose of the cohort study, hence limiting other forms of analyses for this study. Therefore, as highlighted by the rates of attrition in the NIDS user manuals of waves two and three, caution should be taken when making any form of inference from this cohort study due to sample attrition.

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[54] Maharasoa, M. and Hay, D. 2001. Quality in Higher Education, Vol 7, No. 2, Tylor & Francis Ltd.
[55] http://www.datafirst.uct.ac.za/dataportal/index.php/catalog/central/about

Education dynamics of the group

Table 6.4: Individuals who were enrolled at educational intuitions in 2007, but not in 2008 by fields of study, highest level of education, and sex, 2008

Field of study	Male		Female		Both	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Graduates						
Social studies/health sciences	*	-	*	-	*	-
Arts/education/hospitality	1	3,0	5	18,1	6	12,3
Economic and management Sciences (EMS)	17	97,0	*	1,6	18	37,9
Physical/Mathematical Sciences/Engineering	*	-	12	40,2	12	24,9
Other	*	-	12	40,0	12	24,8
Total	**18**	**100,0**	**29**	**100,0**	**46**	**100,0**
Certificate/Diploma holders						
Social studies/health sciences	2	3,5	25	28,9	27	19,1
Arts/education/hospitality	6	11,1	*	-	6	4,3
Economic and management Sciences (EMS)	8	14,3	18	21,2	26	18,5
Physical/Mathematical Sciences/Engineering	13	24,2	15	17,0	28	19,8
Other	26	46,8	29	33,0	54	38,3
Total	**54**	**100,0**	**87**	**100,0**	**142**	**100,0**

Source: NIDS panel study; wave 1, 2008
Note: Excludes missing cases.
     Table only includes persons who were enrolled in 2007 and were no longer enrolled in 2008.
     Figures less than 1 000 are represented as (*).

Table 6.4 shows males and females who reported that they were enrolled at educational institutions in 2007, but were no longer enrolled in 2008, by their respective fields of study and levels of education attainment.

Amongst graduates, the majority were spread across fields related to Economic and management studies (37,9%), Physical/Mathematical/Engineering studies (24,9%), and Agricultural studies (24,8%), while less than a thousand persons reported having graduated in Social/health sciences. Amongst those in possession of either Certificates or Diplomas, fields related to Agricultural/Other studies had a higher percentage share of 38,3%, followed by Physical/Mathematical/Engineering studies (19,8%) and Economic and management studies (18,5%), with fields of Arts/Education/Hospitality demonstrating the lowest share (4,3%).

Table 6.5: Reasons for not being enrolled at an educational institution in 2008 by level of education attained and sex, 2008

	Male		Female		Both	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Reasons	Graduates					
Finished school in 2007.	15	84,5	*	-	15	32,1
Was attending in 2007, but is now employed.	*	-	*	-	*	-
Was attending in 2007, but is now looking for employment.	3	15,5	5	18,1	8	17,1
Other	*	-	24	81,9	24	50,8
Total	**18**	**100,0**	**29**	**100,0**	**46**	**100,0**
	Certificate/Diploma holders					
Finished school in 2007.	3	5,1	28	31,9	31	21,6
Was attending in 2007, but is now employed.	10	18,9	1	0,6	11	7,7
Was attending in 2007, but is now looking for employment.	19	34,5	5	6,0	24	16,9
Other	23	41,4	54	61,4	76	53,8
Total	**54**	**100,0**	**87**	**100,0**	**142**	**100,0**

Source: NIDS panel study; wave 1, 2008
Note: Excludes missing cases.
   Table only includes persons who were enrolled in 2007 and were no longer enrolled in 2008.
   Figures less than 1 000 are represented as (*).

Table 6.5 displays the reasons why persons in Table 6.5 did not enrol at their current or any other institution in the 2008 academic year of study by their respective level of education attainment – the main reasons of interest for the cohort analysis are shown explicitly.

Amongst the reasons given by graduates, 32,1% of the 46 000 persons reported that they have finished their academic programmes, while 17,1% indicated that they were searching for employment. Less than 1 000 persons reported being currently engaged in employment. Of the 142 000 persons who held certificates or diplomas, 21,6% of these individuals reported they had finished their academic programmes, while 16,9% stated that they were searching for employment and 7,7% were employed

The labour dynamics of the group

This subsection covers labour market activities reported to have taken place throughout the waves of the NIDS survey.

Figure 6.1a: Employed graduates by sex, 2008–2012
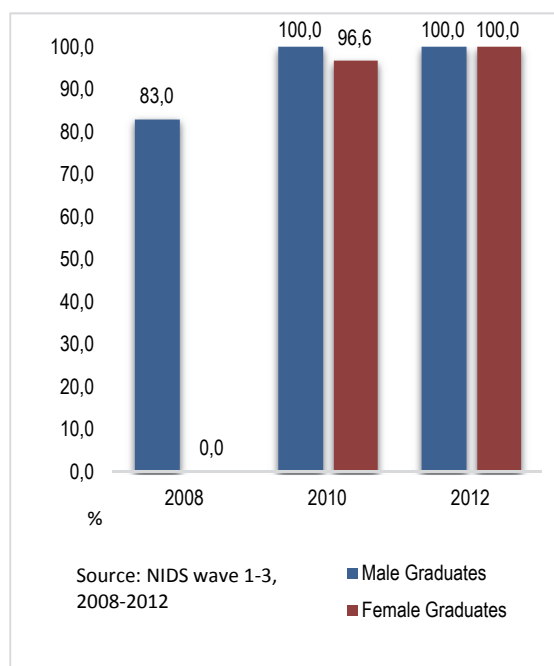
Figure 6.1b: Employed certificate and diploma holders by sex, 2008–2012

Source: NIDS wave 1-3, 2008-2012

■ Male Graduates
■ Female Graduates

Source: NIDS wave 1-3, 2008-2012

■ Male Certficate/Diploma holders

■ Female Certficate/Diploma holders
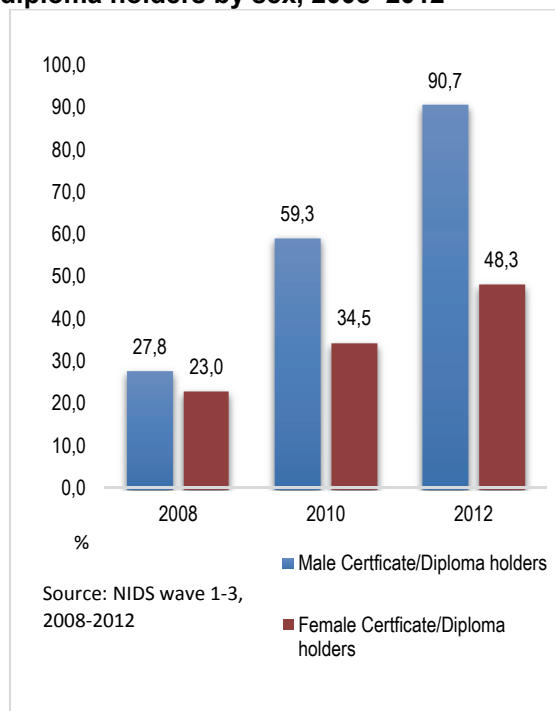
Figure 6.1a shows percentage shares of male and female graduates while Figure 6.1b displays percentage shares for those in possessions of certificates and diplomas.

When considering the 46 000 graduates (18 000 males and 29 000 females) and the 142 000 (54 000 males and 87 000 females) certificate and diploma holders reported on in Figures 6.1a and 6.1b, general increase in employment was witnessed amongst all males and females regardless of the type of qualification obtained throughout the time period from 2008 to 2012 (Figures 6.1a and 6.1b). Virtually all male graduates were absorbed (100,0%) in the labour market by 2010 and all females by 2012.

At the beginning of the study (2008), less than a thousand female graduates reported being employed compared to about 83,0% male graduates.

Employment for males and females with certificates and diplomas increased by 27,7 and 25,3 percentage points respectively for the group between 2008 and 2012.

Figure 6.2a: Unemployed graduates by sex, 2008–2012
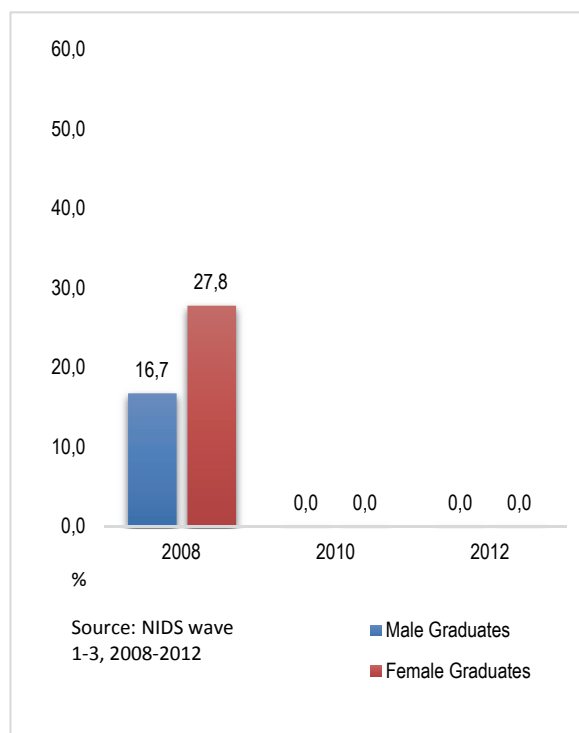
Figure 6.2b: Unemployed certificate and diploma holders by sex, 2008–2012

Source: NIDS wave 1-3, 2008-2012

■ Male Graduates

■ Female Graduates

Source: NIDS wave 1-3, 2008-2012

■ Male Certficate/Diploma holders

■ Female Certficate/Diploma holders
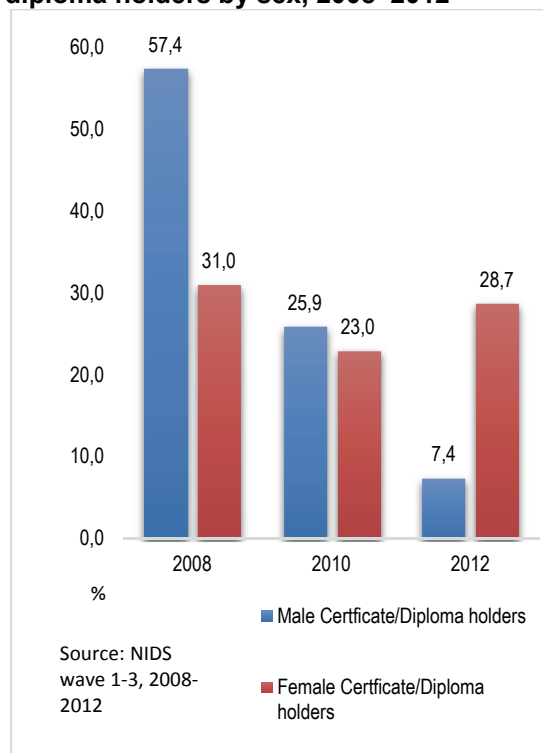
Figures 6.2.a and 6.2.b display the unemployment trends for male and female graduates and those who hold certificates and diplomas, respectively. Figures 6.2a and 6.2b generally complement the results depicted in Figures 6.1a and 6.1b above in that unemployment amongst both males and females across all types of qualifications decreased throughout the period of 2008–2012, with fluctuations observed for females with certificates and diplomas.

At the beginning of the study in 2008, male graduates were less likely to be unemployed (16,7%) than female graduates (27,8%). However, throughout the remainder of the study (2010 and 2012) levels of unemployment amongst graduates decreased to 0 for both males and females.

Amongst certificate and diploma holders, unemployed males had higher percentage shares in 2008 and 2010 (57,4% and 25,9% respectively) relative to their female counterparts. However, the situation changed in 2012 where unemployed females had a higher percentage share compared to males (28,7% vs. 7,4%).

Figure 6.3: Discouraged males and females who have certificates and diplomas, 2008–2012

Source: NIDS wave 1-3, 2008-2012
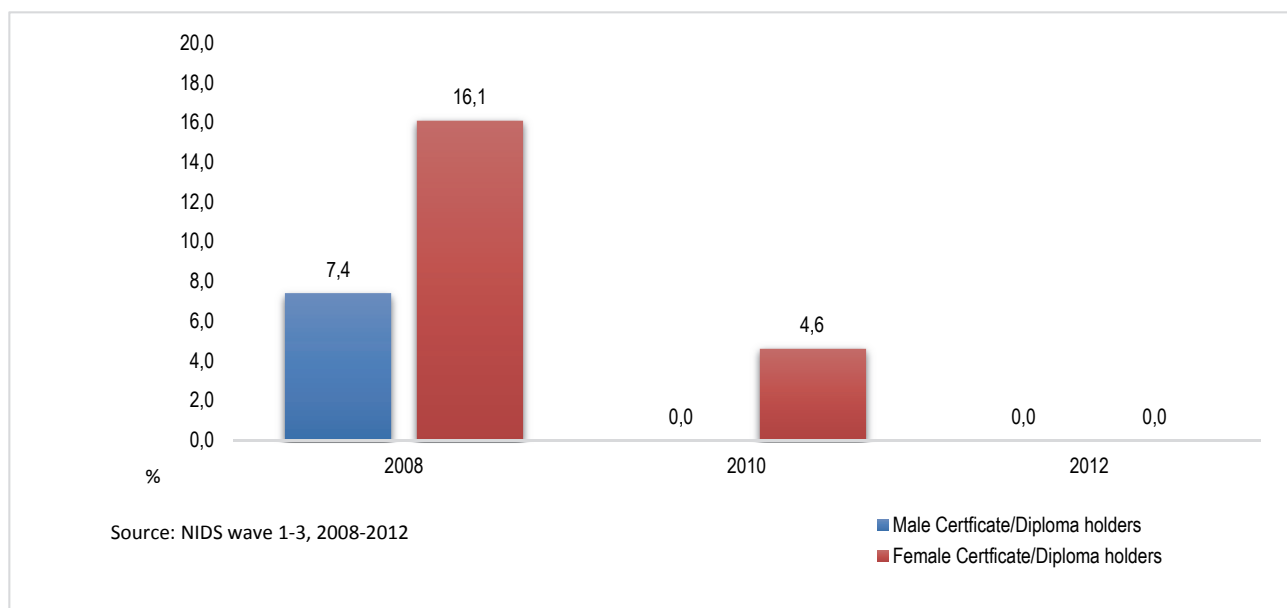
Figure 6.3 depicts males and females with certificates and diplomas who reported that they were discouraged in seeking employment. It should be noted that amongst graduates in the cohort study, less than a thousand males and females cited discouragement. Amongst males and females with certificates and diplomas who reported discouragement, females had a higher percentage share in both 2008 and 2010 compared to their male counterparts (16,1% vs. 7,4% and 4,6% vs. 0,0% respectively). Percentage shares, however, dropped significantly throughout the time period (2008–2012) for both males and females as it was witnessed in 2012.

Predicting the likelihood of being employed using education and other socio-demographic variables

The previous section has provided some evidence of a relationship between educational attainment and being employed. The model works on the assumption that for both males and females, the variable education will be the best predictor of being employed when all other variables are held constant. For this model, only persons of working age were considered.

Table 6.6: Binary Logistic Regression examining the variables that influence whether someone is employed by sex for persons aged 15–64 years

Variable		Male	Female	Both
Sex	**Male®**			**1**
	Female			0,6262***
Race	**African/Black®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Coloured	1,5291***	1,5631***	1,5692***
	Indian/Asian	1,9844***	1,1290***	1,4323***
	White	2,5071***	1,4858***	1,8448***
Age	**15-24®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	25-34	4,9867***	4,4175***	4,6740***
	35-44	6,7067***	7,0288***	7,4958***
	45-54	5,0046***	6,8578***	7,0267***
	55-64	1,2838***	2,0999***	2,0580***
Marital status	**Married®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Living together like husband and wife	0,8196***	1,1825***	1,0851***
	Never married	0,2850***	0,8691***	0,5967***
	Widow/widower	0,5823***	1,2505***	1,0413**
	Separated	0,4323***	1,1787***	0,8241***
	Divorced	0,5298***	1,5969***	1,0887***
Geo-type	**Urban®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Rural	0,6658***	0,6236***	0,6365***
Highest level of education	**Less than matric®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Matric	1,1447***	0,9034***	1,1215***
	Tertiary	1,7989***	2,1217***	1,9517***
Field of study	**Social studies/Health sciences®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Arts and Education/Hospitality	1,1183***	1,1593***	1,1357***
	Economic and management sciences	0,9833*	0,8447***	0,8967***
	Physical and mathematical sciences/Engineering	0,9440***	0,6875***	0,8315***
	Agriculture	1,1771***	0,9043***	1,0783***
Minors present in household	**No®**	**1**	**1**	**1**
	Yes	0,8125***	0,7187***	0,7943***

Source: Census 2011, 10% sample
Legend: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001
® Reference category

For this analysis, variables such as geo-type, highest level of education and field of study were recoded into more concise categories. The null hypothesis was that the variables sex, population group, age, marital status, geo-type and field of study do not influence employment outcomes. All variables in the model passed the significance test (95% confidence level). Therefore, we accept that there was an association between the likelihood of being employed and the independent variables.

Interpreting the odds ratios (Exp (B)):

Among the working-age population, females have lower odds of being employed as compared to their male counterparts (i.e. females are 40% less likely to be employed than males). The model above shows that in 2011, the best predictor for being employed for both males and females was age. Persons aged 35–54 were seven times more likely to be employed compared to the reference group i.e. those between the ages of 15–25 years. Population group was the second highest predictor amongst males. The odds of white males being employed were more than twice that of the reference group (black African males). In contrast, education was the second highest predictor of being employed amongst females, with those with tertiary education twice more likely to be employed than the reference group (i.e. females with less than matric). Education was only the third highest predictor for males being employed, while marital status contributed the third highest predictor amongst females.

Further detailed analyses of the model show that:

In terms of highest level of education, among both males and females, there exists a direct relationship between educational attainment and employment. That is, the more educated, the higher the likelihood of being employed. This pattern is also mirrored in the last column where both sexes are included in the model. However, males were more likely to be employed, irrespective of their level of educational attainment. For females, however, those with matric or less than matric were less likely to be employed. Whilst males with tertiary education are almost 70 per cent more likely to be employed than those with less than matric, females with tertiary education were twice as likely as those with less than matric to be employed.

For both sexes, a qualification in Arts and Education/Hospitality carried the highest odds of employment. However, males qualified in Agriculture were also more likely to be employed.

Population group variations show that non-black African population groups have higher odds of being employed. However, for males, whites were likely to be employed and amongst females, coloureds were the most likely to be employed.

Males who reported to have never been married had the lowest odds of being employed whereas their female counterparts were most likely to be employed. Males were most likely to be employed if they were married whereas females were most likely to be employed if they were divorced.

Lastly, the model suggests that the presence of minors in the household influences employment outcomes of females to a higher degree than for males. Males with minors present in their households were almost 20 per cent less likely to be employed than males without minors in the household. Contrary, females with minors present in the household were approximately 30 per cent less likely to be employed than females without minors in the household.

CHAPTER 7: FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH SCHOOL NON-ATTENDANCE

This chapter looks at factors associated with school non-attendance for children between the ages of 6 and 18 years, who have not acquired either a secondary or tertiary qualification. This population represented 24,7% of the total population of South Africa during 2014. It consists of 50,2% males and 49,8% females, sub-divided as follows among the sexes and different population groups (Table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Distribution of persons of school-going age by sex and population group

Population group	Male %	Female %	Total %
Black African	42,3	41,8	84,1
Coloured	4,3	4,3	8,6
Indian/Asian	0,9	0,9	1,9
White	2,7	2,8	5,5
Total	50,2	49,8	100,0

Source: GHS 2014

Attendance and non-attendance

Of children who have not completed the equivalent of matric, 3,4% are not attending an institution of learning (3,5% males and 3,3% of females). Figure 7.1 shows the proportion of non-attendance by population group and sex.

Figure 7.1: Non-attendance of school by population group and sex
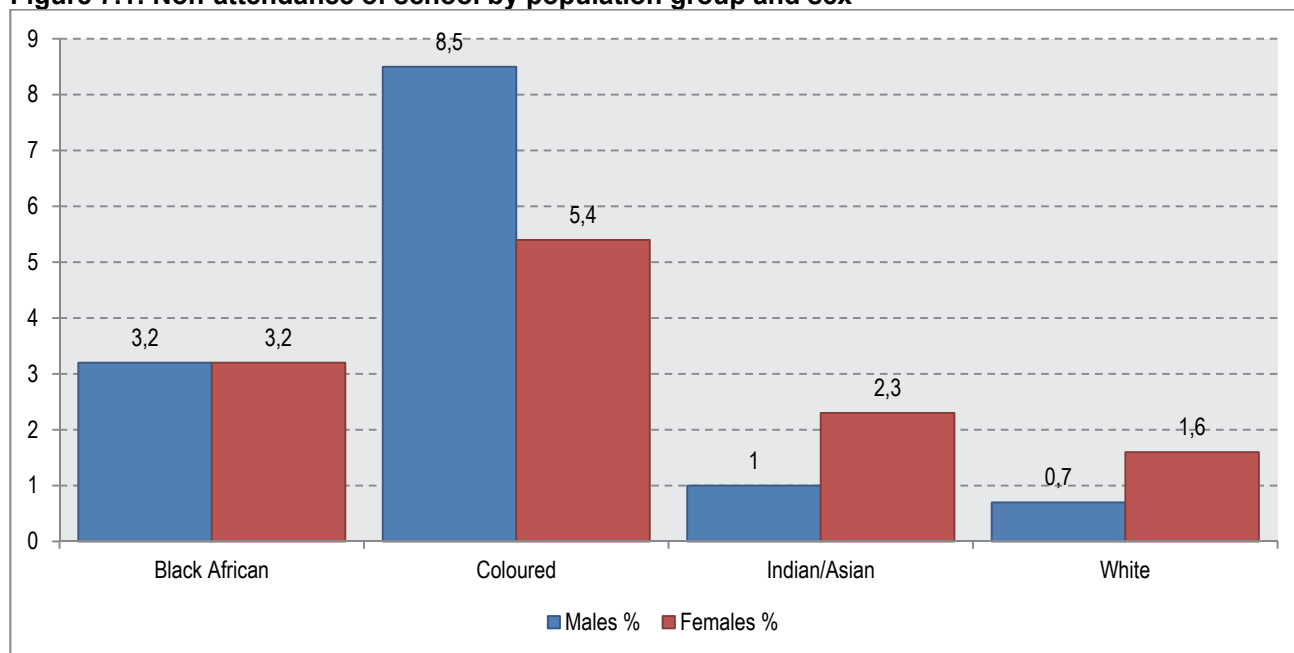
Source: GHS 2014

It can be seen that the highest proportion of non-attendees are found within the male coloured group at 8,5%. White males were the least likely to not attend educational institutions (0,7%).

Reasons for not attending school

The overall main reasons given for not attending school are given as:

- No money for fees – 13,7%
- Education is useless – 11,2%
- Family commitments – 9,7%

- Unable to perform at school – 9,3%
- Disability – 8,2%
- Unspecified reasons – 11,6%

The reasons have, however, been found to differ by gender and population group.

The main reasons given by black African males are: no money for fees (17,6%), unable to perform at school (14,8%), education is useless (11,1%) and disability (10,7%). Specific reasons were not provided by 10,6%. Of black African females, 20,7% have family commitments, 13,0% do not have money for school fees and 12,5% did not give reasons.

Of coloured male non-attendees, 20,8% consider education to be useless, 19,1% say that they have completed their education and 14,9% say that they are either too old or too young. No reasons for their non-attendance were given by 11,0%. Of coloured females, 33,5% consider education to be useless, while 18,0% consider their education to be complete.

At 49,4%, the main reason given by Indian/Asian males for not attending school is that they have family commitments. The other 50,6% did not give reasons for their non-attendance. Of Indian/Asian women, 48,0% are working at home. The other 52,0% did not give any reasons.

Of white males, 60,3% do not have money for fees, 11,7% are working at home or a business and 28,0% did not give reasons. For white females, 38,3% cannot afford school fees, 32,2% have family commitments and 20,9% consider themselves to be too old or too young.

Educational level of household head and school attendance

It is shown in the following table that there is a relationship between the highest level of educational of the household head and school attendance. Table 7.2 shows that lower educational levels of the household head are generally associated with higher levels of non-attendance.

Table 7.2: Highest level of education of household head in respect of school non-attendance

Education of household head	Non-attendance	Attending school	Total
		%	
No schooling	4,9	95,1	100
Some primary	4,7	95,3	100
Completed primary	3,6	96,4	100
Some secondary	3,7	96,3	100
Secondary completed	1,4	98,6	100
Tertiary	0,2	99,8	100

Source: GHS 2014

A similar trend is found for females in general and for black African and coloured females. However, the data show that of the 11,7% of Indian females who do not attend schools, all have household heads with some secondary education. For all other levels of education, there is a 100% attendance. White females tend not to attend school where the head of the household has either some secondary or has completed his/her secondary education, 3,9% and 2,0% respectively. The highest proportion of non-attendance is found with coloured females: 13,6% and 9,3 where the head of the household has no schooling or some primary, respectively.

These trends are, however, not independent from the educational levels found among the household heads of different population groups and the above findings should not be interpreted without taking these into account.

Table 7.3: Highest level of education of household heads by population group

Education of household head	African/ Black %	Coloured %	Indian/ Asian %	White %	Total %
No schooling	15,4	2,4	1,4	0,1	13,2
Some primary	21,9	16,3	2,3	0,3	19,8
Completed primary	7,4	7,9	1,5	0,2	6,9
Some secondary	33,0	40,0	18,2	12,4	22,5
Secondary completed	18,8	29,2	56,8	56,7	22,5
Tertiary	3,6	4,2	19,8	30,3	5,4
Total	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table7.3 shows that the educational levels of black Africans are mostly some secondary, some primary, secondary completed and no schooling. Those of coloureds are found mostly in some secondary and secondary completed, and the remainder mainly have some primary. The educational levels of Indian/Asians and whites are mostly upper some secondary, secondary and tertiary. The educational levels of household heads thus have a moderating effect on the educational levels of household heads in respect of those children not attending an educational institutional.

The presence of both parents in the household

The majority of families of persons of school age do not have both parents living in the household. Both parents do not live at home for 67,6% of male and 68,1% of female non-attendees. This difference between the sexes is relatively small as is the difference between the non-attendance rate of males and females, namely 4,1% and 3,9% when both parents do not live at home.

A lower non-attendance rate of 2,2% was found where both parents were part of the household, compared to a higher rate of 4,0% where both parents were not living at home.

The proportion of families who do not have both parents living at home are 73,7% of black Africans, 46,1% of coloureds, 21,4% of Indians/Asians and 34,1% of whites.

Table 7.4 shows a comparison of the differences in the non-attendance rates for females of different races when both parents were at home and when both parents were not at home.

Table 7.4: Percentage of female non-attendees by population group: both parents part of or not part of household

Population group	Both parents part of household %	Both parents not part of household %	Point difference %
Black African	2,2	3,6	1,1
Coloured	3,1	8,1	5,1
Indian/Asian	1,5	5,3	6,4
White	0,5	3,7	0,9

Source: GHS 2014

From the above information, it appears that higher non-attendance rates are found in respect of all races when both parents are not part of the household.

Marital status of female household heads

The highest rate (6,0%) of non-attendance was found where female household heads are cohabiting, followed by those who are separated, but still legally married. The lowest drop-out rate was found where the female household heads are legally married (2,0%). This pattern does not

differ between male and female scholars except that the rate of non-attendance for divorced male household heads is higher than that of female heads. The trend for non-attendance for black African female scholars was found to be similar to that of the general female population. The highest rate of non-attendance for coloured female scholars was found where the head of the household is widowed (13,1%) followed by those cohabiting (11,3%). The highest non-attendance rate for Indian/Asian females was found where the household head was single and had never been married (a rate of 28,2%). Aside from a rate of 1,5% where the household heads were legally married, no non-attendance was found where the household heads were of another marital status. The highest non-attendance rate for whites was where the female household head was cohabiting (11,0%). A rate of 4,9% was shown against heads that were divorced. Table 7.5 summarises this information for the different population groups.

Table 7.5: Proportion of non-attendance of females by marital status of household head and population group

Marital status of female heads of households	All races %	Black African %	Coloured %	Indian/ Asian %	White %
Legally married	2,0	1,9	3,0	1,5	0,9
Cohabiting	6,0	5,5	11,3	0,0	11,0
Divorced	3,1	2,7	2,7	0,0	4,9
Separated but still legally married	5,7	6,2	0,0	0,0	0,0
Widowed	3,7	3,2	13,1	0,0	0,0
Never been married	4,0	3,9	5,3	28,2	0,0

Source: GHS 2014

Multivariate analysis using logistic regression

This section examines the effects of various demographic and socio-economic variables on the likelihood of both boys and girls of school-going age not attending school. Table 7.6 shows the effects on black Africans and Table 7.7 shows the effects on coloureds, Indians/Asians and whites. The split was necessary because the disparity in the distribution of data among the different population groups resulted in perfect predictions of failure, and coloureds, Indians/Asians and whites were combined because of their relatively small sub-populations. However, predictions in respect of girls in this latter group still remained a problem. Previous analysis shows that all other population groups have lower odds of their children being out-of-school as compared to black Africans.

Table 7.6: Black African population: Logistic regression results (odds ratios) of school non-attendance by children between 6 and 18 years, demographic and socio-economic characteristics, South Africa, 2014

Variable	All children	Boys	Girls
Education of household head			
No schooling	1,000	1,0000	1,0000
Some primary	0,8825	0,7186	1,0664
Primary	0,6463*	0,6949	0,5836
Some secondary	0,6753*	0,6919	0,6468
Secondary	0,3742***	0,3964*	0,3450**
Tertiary	0,1728*	0,1763*	0,1519
Have meals been skipped	1,3397*	1,3973*	1,2835
Number of working adults in household	0,9970	0,8802	1,1351
Marital status of head of household			
Legally married	1,000	1,0000	1,0000
Cohabiting	1,9701***	1,7488*	2,2846***
Divorced	1,6264	2,0462	1,1779
Separated but living together	1,4397	0,6845	2,7306
Widowed	0,8757	0,7494	1,0389
Never been married	1,3702	1,2583	1,5200*
Access to electricity	0,5490***	0,4670***	0,6520*
Number of persons living in the household	1,0231	1,0351	1,0061
Both parents part of the household	0,6499*	0,5382*	0,7762
Suffer from a severe disability	4,6960***	5,1033***	4,2361***
Ill health	1,1897***	1,1332**	1,2700*
Monthly household income	1,0000	1,000	1,000

Source: GHS, 2014
Legend: * p<0,05; ** p<0,01; *** p<0,001

In respect of the black African population, Table 7.6 shows that the odds of a person not attending school decrease as the educational level of the household head increases. The odds of a child not attending school when a household head achieves a secondary education is 0,3742 that of a household head with no education at a significance level of p<0,001. This is true for both boys and girls, but slightly higher for girls. There is a decrease of 0,2923 in the odds of girl children being out-of-school. Table.7 shows the same trends for the other population groups, but no statistical significance was found.

Among black Africans, the likelihood of being out of school increases by a factor of 1,3397 (odds value) at a p-value of <0,05 when meals are being skipped. The odds increased for all population groups and both sexes.

The number of working adults in the household was shown to be insignificant for all population groups.

The lowest odds of children attending school is when the household head is legally married. The highest odds of children being out of school were found where household heads were cohabiting. This was true for all population groups (Table 7), but only significant for black Africans, especially girls. Odds values could not, however, be obtained for girls within the non-black African group because of the problem described above.

The odds of not attending school when there is no access to electricity was found to be highly significant for all racial groups, but the effect was lower for black Africans (p<0,01) than for the other population groups (p<0,001).

The number of persons residing in a household did not affect school attendance significantly.

It was found that the absence of both parents in the home was significant for all population groups, but higher for the non-black African group (p<0,001) than for black Africans (p<0,01).

Suffering from a severe disability had a negative effect on school attendance for all population groups at a significance level of p<0,001. The odds of a black African child not attending school was 4,6960 when suffering from a severe disability. That of a non-black African child was 3,8137.

Suffering from ill health also prevented children from attending school. A significant value of p<0,001 was found for all population groups. The odds of a black African child not attending school was 4,6960 and that for a child from other population groups was 3,8137.

When household income was combined with other selected variables, the variable had no effect on school attendance. An odds value of 1,000 was found for all population groups.

Table 7.7: Population other than black Africans: Logistic regression results (odds ratios) of school non-attendance by demographic and socio-economic characteristics, South Africa, 2014

Variable	All children	Boys	Girls
Population group			
Coloured	1,0000	1,0000	1,0000
Indian/Asian	1,0402	0,4741	1,4101
White	0,9510	0,3175	1,2954
Education of household head			
No schooling	1,000	1,0000	
Some primary	0,9435	1,1915	
Primary	0,7280	0,9597	
Some secondary	0,8323	0,9093	
Secondary	0,3034*	0,3018	
Tertiary	0.0000	0,0000	
Have meals been skipped	1,7832*	1,6915	1,8850
Number of working adults in household	0,9481	0,8888	1,0658
Marital status of head of household			
Legally married	1,000	1,0000	1,0000
Cohabiting	1,5418	1,4493	2,1453
Divorced	0,8838	1,0743	0,9235
Separated but living together	0,9078	1,3245	0,0000
Widowed	1,1323	1,2473	1,3178
Never been married	1,0385	1,4746	0,7453
Access to electricity	0,2810**	0,6005	0,1444**
Number of persons living in the household	1,0974*	1,0693	1,1321*
Both parents part of the household	0,5138**	0,6815	0,3914*
Suffer from a severe disability	3,8137***	4,1869**	3,2025
Ill health	1,8832*	2,1956***	0,8471
Monthly household income	1,000	1,000	1,000

Source: GHS, 2014
Legend: * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSION

This report focused on gender gaps in education. Secondary data from Stats SA, and administrative data obtained from the Departments of Basic and Higher Education were used in this investigation. Gender differences in several areas were assessed. These included: educational attainment, access to education and school attendance and quality in education as measured by assessing pupils' learning environment, results in national senior examinations and post education and training. In this way, the analysis in this report looked at the inter-relationship between access and quality of education through a gender lens in order to better inform policy. In addition, throughout the report, demographic, geographic and socio-economic variables were used to further explain variations observed in analyses.

The analyses covered trends over a 10-year period (2004 and 2014). However, the period of data analysis largely depended on the availability of data as well as survey/administrative data collection cycles both for internal and external data sources. Statistics presented in the report revealed two main trends. On the one hand, the country has indeed made significant progress towards achieving universal access and equal education for both boys and girls. On the other hand, the data are indicative of challenges around a number of issues. These include the inadequacy of the learning infrastructure, particularly amongst boys and girls attending quintile 1–3 schools; low levels of performance and large gender variations in National Senior Certificate examinations – again, socio-economic status plays a significant role in levels of variations observed; disconcerting trends in school non-attendance; as well as persistent racial and gender inequalities in post education and training.

As the assessment of commitments made by different countries during the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000 draws to an end (i.e. 2015), one of the objectives of this report was to examine South Africa's status in terms of Dakar's six priority goals. Figures analysed in this publication for the year 2014 point towards irrefutable achievements in three of the six priority goals, that is: (ii) Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality; (iv) Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults; and (v) Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality. As mentioned earlier, the country appears to be facing some challenges in terms of goal number six i.e. "(vi) Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills". The first goal, i.e. "Improving comprehensive early childhood care and education", was not the focus of this current publication and thus not measured, while not enough data were analysed to adequately assess progress made towards goal three, i.e. "(iii) Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes".

Chapter 8 accordingly concludes the report by highlighting critical areas of achievement and challenges as discussed in the main report.

Section 1: Descriptive statistics

Education attainment

Data analysed in this report generally showed little gender differences in the educational attainment of males and females. Nationally, literacy rates increased between 2009 and 2014, while persons with higher levels of education (secondary and tertiary education) were also observed over a 10-year period, i.e. between 2001 and 2011. Of note, however, is that the proportion of literate males and females between the ages of 15–24 years declined between 2009 and 2014. When literacy data were disaggregated by geographical area, figures revealed that rural young males between ages 15–24 accounted significantly for the decrease observed with proportions decreasing by 29,6 percentage points. However, literacy among older females increased slightly more for those aged 35–44 and 45–54 years living in rural areas (1,5 and 1,1 percentage points respectively), while that observed among their urban counterparts remained virtually unchanged. Overall gender ratios showed that gender disparities (in favour of females) were more prevalent among males and females residing in rural areas.

Although levels of education attained for those with higher levels of education increased between 2001 and 2011, when education attainment and geographic area were compared, the data also showed that between 2001 and 2011 rural females still had the highest proportion of people who had no schooling. Although this figure decreased from 30,5% in 2001 to 14,0% in 2011, it was still significantly higher when compared to males and females residing in both urban and rural areas. In contrast, the proportion of persons with tertiary education increased by 11,1 percentage points between 2001 and 2011. The biggest increase was observed among females residing in urban areas (up by 4,8 percentage points). Nationally, females were more likely to hold a tertiary-level education qualification than their male counterparts. Tertiary education attainment was lowest among males residing in rural areas (4,1% and 4,9% respectively) for 2001 and 2011. When assessing gender parity for highest level of education attained, gender parity ratios leaned towards female education attainment in nearly all age categories.

As discussed in the beginning of this chapter, a relationship was found between individuals' socio-economic standing and levels of education attained. Persons (male and female) residing in households headed by graduates were also likely to have obtained a university degree or higher irrespective of the sex of the household head (70,3% for male-headed households and 67,0% for female-headed households). However, data analysed also indicated a gender match between the educational attainment of the household head and members of the household. Males living in households headed by graduated male household heads were more likely to be graduates compared to their female counterparts (88,9% among males vs. 47,4% among females). A similar trend was observed for females. These findings suggest that the level of education of the household head plays a significant role in the educational outcomes of same sex household members.

Still on socio-economic status, the data showed that, irrespective of estimated household income, gender parity has been reached for males and females whose highest level of education is matric. For households with incomes falling in the lowest quintile 1, gender parity is also evident amongst those with lower than matric. In terms of tertiary-level education, females were most likely to have tertiary qualifications than males. This was true for all four quintiles. However, with a GPR of 1,6, a considerable larger gender gap was observed amongst graduates in quintile 1. Gender parity was reached amongst graduated males and females residing in households with incomes falling in the highest quintile (quintile 4).

Due to persistent gender inequalities at home, which are mainly exacerbated by perceptions around traditional female responsibilities, gender differences in educational attainment was also analysed by the amount of time males and females spent on non-SNA activities. Data showed that among males, little differences were notable in the amount of time spent on non-SNA activities by educational attainment. For example, males with tertiary education spent only 1 minute more on non-SNA activities than those with less than matric and spent 9 minutes less than those who had obtained Grade 12. Among females, however, time spent on non-SNA activities was negatively related to levels of educational attainment. Females with tertiary education spent the least amount of time engaging in non-SNA activities compared to those with lower levels of educational attainment.

Access to education and school attendance

Data discussed in Chapter 4 of the report indicated that the decrease in the overall population aged 6–15 years was reflected in a decline of levels of new entrants into the first grade of school (between the years 2004 and 2013). Percentage changes of 9,2 and 6,0 percentage points were observed respectively for boys and girls. This drop was mainly driven by declines in KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, and North West. However, although levels of new entrants decreased during the reference period, gender gaps (GPR) across all provinces improved. Significant improvements were observed in Northern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal with declines of 0,06 and 0,05 units respectively.

One of the measures of quality in education explored in this report was the assessment of the National Senior Certificate Examinations. In general, there was an improvement in the proportion of males and females who passed the examinations, with increases of 0,8 and 4,9 percentage points respectively between 2004 and 2014. However, in 2014, the percentages of females who passed across all provinces were slightly lower than their male counterparts. 2014 figures also showed that among females, the highest percentage of females who passed their NSC was found in Gauteng (84,0%). North West had the highest percentage (87,3%) of males. Noticeable declines among both males and females who passed their NSC were observed among those residing in KwaZulu-Natal and Northern Cape and the decline among males in both provinces was higher than that recorded for females. In fact, the drop recorded for males in KwaZulu-Natal was more than three times the decline observed for their female counterparts. The decline in NSC passes in KwaZulu-Natal should be seen against the backdrop of a significant increase over time of the number of students who sat to write the exams in this province. In other provinces such as neighbouring Eastern Cape, the number of students who wrote actually declined in some years, but for the most part increased slightly or remained fairly constant, possibly pointing to 'gatekeeping' activities that prevent students who may fail to sit the exam and in so doing improve the pass rates in the province.

In terms of passes with endorsements during 2014, improvements in endorsement passes were observed in all provinces with the highest achievers among both males and females found in Western Cape, followed by Gauteng. The highest percentage difference between 2004 and 2014 for females was recorded in North West with 20,4 percentage points, followed by Gauteng at 15,8 percentage points. Limpopo showed the least improvement among females with 2,5 percentage points. Overall, girls in the Eastern Cape were the least likely to pass with endorsements with only one in five achieving an endorsement. In 2014, progress made among males who obtained endorsement was driven by North West and KwaZulu-Natal at 19,9 and 15,1 percentage points respectively.

The analyses in this chapter also looked at proportions of learners who achieved an overall bachelor's pass and studied mathematics and physical science. This analysis was disaggregated by population group and school's quintile status. With respect to both subjects, white and Indian/Asian students (irrespective of the school's quintile status) were more likely to take up mathematics and pass with endorsements across all school categories. Moreover, a higher proportion of Indian/Asian and white females took mathematics as a subject and achieved a bachelor's pass when compared to their male counterparts. This was true, particularly for schools in quintiles 4 and 5. Males in lower quintile schools (1–3) were more likely to study mathematics. The gender gap between black African males and females who studied physical science and achieved a bachelor's pass was the narrowest (particularly in quintiles 1–4) when compared to learners belonging to other population groups.

Girls and boys not attending school

A concern highlighted in the current report is children who are out of school. The period 2001 and 2011 saw an increase in the number and percentage of primary-aged (6–13 years) boys and girls who were out of school (up by 30 000 or 0,6 of a percentage point). While in 2001, a slightly higher percentage of boys were out of school compared to their female counterparts (2,3% vs. 2,1%), in 2011, equal percentages of boys and girls were out of school (2,8% respectively). KwaZulu-Natal had the highest proportion in both years. In 2001 it accounted for more than a quarter of the target population while it accounted for more than a third of the target population in 2014. This was followed by Eastern Cape (18,7% in 2001) and Gauteng (16,6% in 2011). However, both out of school boys and girls in Eastern Cape showed significant decreases of 5,4 and 4,8 percentage points respectively between 2001 and 2011, followed by Limpopo with declines of 5,1 and 5,0 percentage points respectively.

With respect to primary-aged (14–15 years) out of school children, i.e. those at lower secondary, the number decreased by more than 17,0 percentage points from 109 000 to 90 000 during the ten-year period. The data, however, showed that nationally, girls were more likely not to attend school than boys, both in 2001 and 2011. However, in 2011 a higher proportion of boys in provinces such as the Eastern Cape, Western Cape, North West and the Northern Cape were out of school compared to their female counterparts.

When the reasons for not attending school were interrogated, boys, especially those living in urban areas, were more likely not to attend school due to looking for work. Significantly higher proportions of boys in both geo-types also perceived education to be useless/not interesting. On the other hand, higher proportions of girls were staying at home due to family commitments such as child minding. Pregnancy also acted as a social gender-specific obstacle hindering access to education for girls, particularly those from rural areas. The study also showed that in 2014, Northern Cape had the highest proportion of non-attending pregnant girls, followed by the Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga; also, the likelihood that pregnancy was given as a reason for non-attendance was higher in these provinces than the country as a whole. When comparing the number of girls aged 12–19 years who fell pregnant by population group, the highest proportion of girls not attending school was reported amongst the black African population group (19,3%), followed by coloured females (15,6%).

The learning environment

The students' learning environment was also analysed as another aspect of quality of education. This section looked at various factors such as schools' infrastructure, the proximity of school attended, problems experienced at schools and access to learning material.

In terms of infrastructure, data revealed a severe inadequacy of stocked laboratories and computers at schools. The lack of security was another issue of concern, with 11,0% of schools in South Africa without fencing in 2011. The provinces that contributed more to this figure were the Eastern Cape (20,3%) and Mpumalanga (19,8%).

The main reasons provided by children for not attending the nearest school showed that girls and boys residing in urban areas were more likely to not be attending the nearest school compared to their rural counterparts. While a slightly higher number of girl learners (699 000) living in urban areas were not attending the nearest school (643 000), more boys than girls in rural areas reported not attending the nearest school (310 000 vs. 292 000). The biggest gender gaps in reasons provided for not attending the nearest school in urban areas were amongst those related to overcrowding where the number of females who cited this reason was more than twice that of boys in urban areas (GPR 2,1) and three times more in rural areas (GPR 3,0). This was followed by gender differences amongst those who gave reasons relating to the lack of extra-mural activities. Again, girls showed more dissatisfaction than their male counterparts in both urban and rural areas.

Chapter 4 also looked at possible problems that children are experiencing at schools. The results revealed that across all geo-types, the most prevalent problems cited by learners were those related to either poor quality of teaching; lack of teaching staff; and absence of teachers or teachers going on strikes. In urban areas, the second most encountered problem was that of high school fees (5,7%), while problems stated in rural areas also dominated the lack of books and bad conditions in schools (i.e. inadequate facilities/services). A higher proportion of girls in both geographical areas (urban and rural) reported poor teaching conditions, overcrowding and lack of books.

Another interesting observation made in the assessment of quality of education was that relating to learner access to textbooks (amongst those in Grades 10–12). The analysis showed that in cases where enough textbooks were available at a school, both sexes had equal access, i.e. gender parity was observed amongst learners reporting full access to textbooks. Even where parity was not completely achieved within provinces, minimal gender gaps were observed. In contrast, figures pointed to a gender bias where not enough textbooks are available. Not only were girl learners most likely to report some or no access, GPR indicated some of the largest inequalities found in this report.

Post-school Education and Training (PSET)

Higher educational attainment in terms of recognised qualifications is associated with a range of positive outcomes, including better income, employment, and health. The analyses done in Chapter 5 of this report accordingly focused on educational outcomes in tertiary education.

Enrolments

In terms of gross enrolment ratios (GERs), data revealed that GERs in PSET for white and Indian/Asian males decreased between 2001 and 2014. The opposite was true for black African and coloured males who, although they recorded GERs below that observed for their white and

Indian/Asian counterparts, showed an overall increase in GER over time. Similar to their male counterparts, white and Indian/Asian females recorded PSET participation higher than both the national average over the same period of reporting. However, contrary to their male counterparts, the GER for white females increased over the last 14 years (i.e. 2001–2014). Little variations were observed regarding participation trends of black African and coloured females when compared to their male counterparts. The degree of inclination of the trendline observed was indicative of the rate of change over time in GER, i.e. females increased their participation in PSET at a more rapid rate than males over the years 2001 to 2014.

Distribution of attainment in various fields of study

Chapter 5 showed that in 2013, except in the field of Education, females dominated the lower echelons (i.e. up to Honours level) and males dominated the peak of the education hierarchy (Masters and Doctorates). A larger proportion of black African females graduated from Education studies, while white and coloured females from ''Other Humanities''. Indian/Asian females mostly graduated from the male-dominated SET field of study. With respect to males, data showed that at least three out of ten males who graduated from university/university of technology attained a qualification in SET. This was also reflected in the national figure. Education was the study field that carried the least proportion of males, particularly amongst white and Indian/Asian population groups. The highest proportion of male SET graduates was observed among the white population group (43,8%), followed by Indians/Asians (43,8%). With respect to females, black Africans and coloureds were least likely to have attained both SET and Business and Commercial tertiary qualifications.

Gender differentials in PSET enrolments were also analysed by major field of study and population group. The period 2005 and 2013 saw universities and universities of technology struggling with large gender gaps. Gender disparities were observed for almost all qualification enrolment types as well as within each major field of study. Between 2005 and 2013, enrolment disparities in Science, Engineering and Technology (SET) and Business and Commerce were more inclined towards males. Gender gaps between males and females enrolled in SET subjects were widest among those enrolled up to Honours/NH Dip level. Of concern is that the ratio of females to males enrolled for SET subjects at all levels of qualification virtually remained the same over the 8-year period of reporting, with a slight decline observed (in favour of males) amongst those enrolled for doctorate degrees in 2013. Although males were also more likely to be enrolled in Business and Commerce subjects, slight improvements in the gender gap were observed for those enrolled from Honours/NH diploma up to Doctorate.

Larger gender disparities were more particularly observed for those enrolled in Education and Other Humanities (in favour of females). For example, with gender parity ratios (GPRs) of 2,1 and 2,3, there were two females to one male enrolled in Education at undergraduate level (diploma/certificate and first degree, respectively) in 2005. Eight years on, the gender gap increased to three females to one male (GPR = 2,9) for those enrolled for undergraduate diplomas/certificates, while that of first degree remained the same.

Irrespective of field of study, larger gender disparities were observed amongst those studying at undergraduate level (entry into universities/universities of technology). This is particularly unsettling, since this directly impacts future prospects towards achieving gender equality in the various aforementioned fields of study. Gender disparities in technical fields (currently dominated by males) require added focused intervention if females are to become part of addressing developmental challenges related to business, technology, mathematics, engineering and science both at a national as well as global level.

In terms of racial differences, in 2013 gender disparities were noticeably high in education amongst all population groups. Wide gaps were observed among Indian/Asian and white population groups enrolled in Other Humanities, while the largest gender differences between black African and coloured males and females was found among those studying SET subjects.

Enrolment by type of PSET institution

Lastly, the type of PSET institutions where males and females were enrolled was also analysed. Figures showed that the period between 2009 and 2014 saw a notable decline in enrolments in university/university of technology for both males and females in favour of TVETS. However, this type of PSET still remained the most preferred by students after completing matric despite dropping between 2009 and 2014. In 2014, a considerable number of students were enrolled in TVETs in both urban and rural areas compared to five years earlier. However, the highest proportion of students attending TVET was observed in rural areas. The percentage among males observed in rural areas was two percentage points higher than that of their female counterparts. These findings suggest that initiatives that have been put in place to catalyse TVET enrolments have had some success in terms of luring school leavers to consider these institutions as an option after completing matric.

Section 2: Multivariate statistics

Chapters 6 and 7 of the report employed methods of multivariate statistics to provide insight into educational outcomes for males and females as influenced by various socio-economic and demographic variables. Chapter 6 focused on factors associated with obtaining a National Senior Certificate and tertiary level education respectively, while controlling for socio-demographic factors. An additional analysis included in this chapter was determining the role education played in predicting employment outcomes for males and females respectively. Given the negative socio-economic impact associated with children dropping out of school – as discussed previously in Chapter 3 of this report – Chapter 7 paid close attention to children who are not attending school between the ages 6–18 years.

When predicting for the attainment of a National Senior Certificate, Census 2011 data showed that variables such as population group, access to electricity and geo-type carried the largest contribution for predicting the attainment of matric. With odd ratios of 0,80 when compared to the reference group (black African males), coloured males were least likely to attain matric. Access to electricity and internet and having no minors in the household increased the likelihood of attaining at most matric for both sexes. Lastly, persons residing in rural areas were less likely to have matric. The odds of males residing in rural areas attaining matric were lowest when compared to the reference group (urban males).

In terms of predicting for tertiary education, among males, being divorced carried the highest likelihood of having a tertiary qualification, followed by being married. Females who were divorced had the highest chances of having a tertiary qualification, followed by those who have never been married. For both sexes, however, cohabiting carried the highest likelihood of not attaining a tertiary qualification. While most variables used for predicting matric and tertiary education followed a similar trend, the results of the presence of minor children in a household varied between predicting for matric and tertiary education. For example, for males, the odds of having a post-school qualification were higher if there was a minor child living in the household. The opposite was true for females. On the other hand, although the presence of minor children negatively affected females more than males, both males and females with minor children present in the

household were less likely to have matric. Annual household income accounted for the most significant influence for predicting the attainment of a tertiary education.

Having determined factors associated with education attainment for males and females, Chapter 6 also attempted to determine the relationship between education and employment outcomes. The results showed that in 2011, among the working-age population, females had lower odds of being employed as compared to their male counterparts (i.e. females are 40% less likely to be employed than males). The best predictor for being employed for both males and females was age. Persons aged 35–54 were seven times more likely to be employed compared to the reference group, i.e. those between the ages of 15–25 years. Population group was the second highest predictor amongst males. The odds of white males being employed were more than twice that of the reference group (black African males). In contrast, education was the second highest predictor of being employed amongst females, with those with tertiary education twice more likely to be employed than the reference group (i.e. females with less than matric). Education was only the third highest predictor for males being employed, while marital status contributed the third highest predictor amongst females.

The objective of Chapter 7 was to identify the factors associated with the likelihood of children not attending school. Analysis showed that in 2014, 3,4% of children who have not completed the equivalent of matric were not attending an institution of learning (3,5% of males and 3,3% of females). The highest proportion of non-attendees were found within the male coloured group at 8,5%. Reasons for not attending school varied by population group and sex, with black African males citing the lack of money for fees (17%), while their female counterparts mentioned family commitments (20,7%). Of the coloured population group, 20,8% of coloured girls and 33,5% of boys considered education to be useless.

The logistic regression models developed in Chapter 7 indicated that household structural factors such as education and marital status of the head of the household as well as living arrangements of parents predicted positively for children being out of school. Irrespective of population group, children belonging to households where the head had lower levels of education and where both parents were not part of the household, were more likely to be out of school. However, among black African children, the absence of both parents as part of the household was significant for predicting out of school boys only. The inverse was observed for non-black African children where the results significantly predicted out of school girls only. Marital status was a significant predictor only for out of school black African children. Black African children who lived in households were the head was cohabiting were more likely to be out of school when compared to those where the head was legally married (the reference group). The odds of being out of school was highest for girls, with those residing in households where the head was cohabiting twice as likely to be out of school than the reference group.

In terms of service delivery and access to food, children who lived in households without access to electricity and those who skipped at least one meal during the year of the interview (2014), were also less likely to attend school (irrespective of race).

On an individual level, negative physical and mental well-being were predictors of being out of school. In terms of disability, the odds of black African girls and boys reporting severe disabilities being out of school, were four and five times higher, respectively, than those not reporting severe disabilities. The results also showed that the negative impact of suffering from a severe disability amongst non-black Africans was significant only for boys with odds ratios of 3,8. A similar trend was observed when ill-health was factored into the model. All black African children with ill-health

were less likely to attend school, while amongst non-black African children the results were significant only for boys.

Recommendations

This section concludes the report by highlighting a few areas for policy intervention.

Increase the school leaving age

The analysis in the report showed that in 2014, 3,4% of children between the ages of 6 and 18 years who have not completed the equivalent of matric were not attending an institution of learning (3,5% of males and 3,3% of females). The highest proportion of non-attendees were found within the male coloured group at 8,5%. According to the South African Schools Act of 1996, schooling is compulsory for all South Africans from the age of seven (grade 1) to the age of 15, or the completion of grade 9 (http://www.southafrica.info/services/education/edufacts.htm). Results in this report also showed that the number of the children who complete matric is lower than those who enter grade 1. While there are many reasons contributing to the issues above, it is suspected that one of the reasons children do not finish school could be related to the fact that they are not forced by law to attend school after the age of 15 years. It is therefore hypothesised that increasing the official school leaving age will compel them to finish school and ensure that a relatively similar number of children who enter grade 1 also complete matric.

- This report accordingly recommends that the official school leaving age be increased to 18 years considering the fact that those under 18 years are regarded as minors in other areas (e.g. cannot enter into marriage contracts) and need guidance of their parents and guardians. This notion is supported by Section 29 (1) of South Africa's Constitution which reads: "Everyone has the right to a basic education, including adult basic education; and to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible."

Strengthening focus on poor communities

The analysis in this report showed that the average percentage of learners who passed matric was lowest in poor schools (quintile 1) suggesting that socio-economic conditions continue to play a role in the access to ad quality f education. Likewise, the percentage of learners who achieved bachelor passes who took up maths and physical science was lowest among females in quintile one schools within most provinces. Trends of relative lower performance for learners in poorer geographic locations were also true for other areas of academic achievement. For example literacy proportions were lowest among those residing in rural areas. The plight of rural provinces was also reflected when endorsement passes were analysed. Provinces such as Limpopo showed the least improvement for females while girl-learners in the Eastern Cape recording the lowest endorsements.

- It is therefore recommended that a renewed focus should be placed on the development of poor communities. This would provide pupils with learning environments that affords them equal chances of achieving educational success.

Reassess PSET through a gender lens

The findings in this report also revealed that some of the widest gender gaps between males and females were recorded for those enrolled in STEM subjects, holding back the country's STEM workforce and productivity growth.

The proportion of females taking up STEM related subjects represented at different stages of schooling (basic and higher education) is of great concern. A significant consequence of this is that female adult numeracy remains below that of their male counterparts. Also, in terms of the national economy, it is widely recognised that weak participation by women in STEM fields is handicapping the country's productivity and competitive advantage. While it is encouraging that gender parity has been achieved in access to education, the findings in this report argue that true gender equality will be reflected when the male and female working age population is equally equipped, skilled and capable. The report accordingly suggests the following recommendations to increase women's participation in STEM fields

- Training of unqualified teachers of school mathematics and secure the supply of future qualified maths teachers. Figures in the report showed that regardless of a school's quintile status, pupils' performance in mathematical and science subjects were low.
- Create an enabling environment and increase the number of girls studying maths and science. The report showed very low percentages of schools with access to stocked computer centres and laboratories. While the lack of these facilities equally have negative impacts on the learning ability of boys and girls, the lack of interest and exposure to STEM at school level is more detrimental for girls whose numbers in these fields are already too low. Increased exposure could result in having a bigger pool of girls available for taking up STEM subjects during post-school education and training.
- Engender bursaries and scholarship. For example in some African countries (e.g. Uganda), females are encouraged to enrol by allocating two points extra APS (Admission Point Score) scores for certain fields of study.
- Enhance the engagement of key stakeholders e.g. academia, government and private business in building research that looks at contextualising STEM-based research through gender lenses.

Similarly, the results also showed a gender biased hierarchy of education echelons with significantly lower proportions of females observed for those enrolled for higher level qualifications (Masters and Doctorates). This can be addressed in the following manner:

- Encourage the equal sharing of household responsibilities to free up the time of females to study further. This report found that while the engagement of non-SNA activities amongst males made no impact on educational attainment, among females, time spent on non-SNA activities was negatively related to levels of educational attainment.
- Achieve gender equality at higher learning institutions for those in decision making positions. This could encourage same-sex mentorship – could encourage other female learners - and the promotion of gender sensitive policies.

APPENDIX 1

GENDER PARITY (F/M) RATIOS

EDUCATION ATTAINMENT

Analysis: Proportions of persons aged 20 years and above who are literate by sex, age and geo-type, 2009 and 2014.

	Gender parity ratio			
	2009		**2014**	
Age group	**Urban**	**Rural**	**Urban**	**Rural**
15-24	1,00	1,01	1,00	0,99
25-34	0,96	1,14	0,96	1,03
35–44	1,01	1,27	0,96	1,22
45 54	1,03	1,26	1,05	1,34
Total	**0,99**	**1,12**	**0,99**	**1,08**

Analysis: Literacy statuses of persons aged 20 years and above living in households with income in the 1st quintile (estimated monthly income of R1 500) by sex and population group, 2014.

	Gender parity ratio
Population group	**2014**
Black African	1,06
Coloured	1,42
Indian/Asian	0,90
White	1,45

Analysis: Literacy statuses of persons aged 20 years and above living in households with income between the 2nd and 3rd quintile (estimated monthly income between R2 880 and R5 460) by sex and population group, 2014.

	Gender parity ratio
Population group	**2014**
Black African	1,04
Coloured	1,11
Indian/Asian	0,97
White	1,40

Analysis: Literacy statuses of persons aged 20 years and above living in households in the 4th quintile (estimated monthly income of R14 000) by sex and population group, 2014.

	Gender parity ratio
Population group	**2014**
Black African	0,98
Coloured	1,04
Indian/Asian	0,98
White	1,04

Analysis: Education levels of persons aged 20 years and above, living in households with an income in quintile 1 (estimated monthly income up to R1 500) by sex, 2014.

	Gender parity ratio
Highest level of education	**2014**
Less than matric	1,00
Matric/Grade 12	1,00
Other tertiary	1,30
Graduates	1,60
Total	**1,00**

Analysis: Education levels of persons aged 20 years and above, living in households with incomes between the 2nd and 3rd quintiles (estimated monthly income between R2 880–R5 460) by sex, 2014.

	Gender parity ratio
Highest level of education	**2014**
Less than matric	0,90
Matric/Grade 12	1,10
Other tertiary	1,20
Graduates	1,10
Total	**1,00**

Analysis: Education levels of persons aged 20 years and above, living in households in the 4th quintile (estimated monthly income of R14 000 and above) by sex, 2014.

	Gender parity ratio
Highest level of education	**2014**
Less than matric	0,80
Matric/Grade 12	1,00
Other tertiary	1,20
Graduates	1,00
Total	**1,00**

ACCESS TO EDUCATION AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Analysis: Percentage of youth not in education, employment or training (15–24-year-olds) by sex and geo-type, 2013 and 2014.

Geo-type	Gender parity ratio 2014
Rural formal	1,19
Tribal areas	1,16
Urban informal	1,34
Urban formal	1,11
South Africa	**1,15**

LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Analysis: Population distribution of learners attending in Grades 1–9 and 10–12 by sex and province, 2014 (attending formal schools).

	Gender parity ratio	
	2014	
Province	Grade 1-9	Grade 10–12
Western Cape	1,05	1,28
Eastern Cape	0,89	1,08
Northern Cape	0,98	1,12
Free State	0,83	1,18
KwaZulu-Natal	0,96	1,04
North West	1,02	1,12
Gauteng	0,89	1,03
Mpumalanga	0,90	1,16
Limpopo	0,91	1,08
South Africa	**0,93**	**1,09**

Analysis: Main reasons for not attending the nearest school, by sex and geo-type, 2014.

Reason(s)	Gender parity ratio	
	2014	
	Urban	Rural
Mismanagement of school / Poor quality of teaching / Lack of discipline at school / Lack of safety.	1,10	0,90
Lack of resources or equipment / Inadequate facilities.	1,00	1,00
Overcrowded classes.	2,10	3,00
No / few extra-mural activities.	1,70	0,00
Preferred courses / subject not offered.	0,90	1,30
Current institution better than closest.	1,00	0,80
Not accepted in the nearest school.	0,80	0,60
Other reasons.	1,30	1,00
Unspecified	1,00	1,00

Analysis: The share of learners attending formal schools (Grades 1–12) who reported having experienced problem at schools by sex and geo-type, 2014

Geo-type	Gender parity ratio
	2014
Urban	1,00
Rural	1,03
Total	**1,01**

Analysis: Learner access (in Grades 1–9) to mathematics and language workbooks by sex and province, 2014.

Province	Gender parity ratio	
	2014	
	Access to language workbooks	Access to mathematics workbooks
Western Cape	0,99	1,01
Eastern Cape	1,00	0,99
Northern Cape	1,01	1,01
Free State	1,00	0,99
KwaZulu-Natal	0,99	0,99
North West	0,98	1,01
Gauteng	0,97	0,93
Mpumalanga	0,98	1,00
Limpopo	0,97	0,97
South Africa	**0,99**	**0,98**

Analysis: Learner access (in Grades 10–12) to textbooks by sex and province, 2014.

Province	Gender parity ratio		
	2014		
	All textbooks	Some textbooks	No textbooks
Western Cape	0,92	1,53	2,76
Eastern Cape	1,01	0,93	0,96
Northern Cape	0,87	1,76	4,1
Free State	1	1,43	-
KwaZulu-Natal	0,99	0,96	1,14
North West	0,92	1,11	1,06
Gauteng	0,97	1,60	3,41
Mpumalanga	1,16	0,90	0,65
Limpopo	1,02	0,95	2,99
South Africa	**1,00**	**1,03**	**1,61**

POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (PSET)

Analysis: Gender ratios: PSET enrolments by type of institution, 2009 and 2014.

Type of PSET	Gender parity ratio	
	2009	**2014**
TVET	1,00	1,00
University/university technology	1,00	1,00
Other college	1,10	1,00

Analysis: Enrolment into university/university of technology by sex, area of specialisation and qualification type, 2013.

Area of specialisation	Gender parity ratio
	2013
SET	0,83
Business and Commerce	1,28
Education	3,00
Other Humanities	1,77
Total	**1,40**

Analysis: Gender parity ratios: Enrolments by qualification type and major field of study, 2005 and 2013.

Qualification type	Gender parity ratio							
	2005				**2013**			
	SET	**Business and Commerce**	**Education**	**Other Humanities**	**SET**	**Business and Commerce**	**Education**	**Other Humanities**
Occasional	0,70	0,70	1,80	1,40	0,70	0,90	1,50	1,60
UG Dip/Cert	0,50	1,20	2,10	1,00	0,50	1,10	2,90	1,20
1st Bachelor degree	0,70	0,90	2,30	1,20	0,60	0,80	2,10	1,30
Other Postgraduate	1,20	0,60	1,40	0,50	1,50	0,60	1,20	1,00
Honours/NH dip	0,50	0,60	1,60	1,10	0,50	0,70	1,60	1,30
Masters/Masters dip	0,90	0,60	1,60	1,30	0,90	0,70	1,60	1,30
Doctorate	1,00	0,60	1,60	1,00	0,90	0,70	1,40	1,10

Analysis: Gender parity ratios: Enrolments by major field of study and population group, 2013.

| Major field of study | Gender parity ratio | | | |
| | 2013 | | | |
	Black African	Coloured	Indian/ Asian	White
SET	0,60	0,70	0,60	0,60
Business and Commerce	1,00	0,80	0,80	0,80
Education	1,90	2,10	3,90	3,70
Other Humanities	1,20	1,30	1,80	1,60

Analysis: University/university of technology graduate by sex, area of specialisation and qualification type, 2013.

| Major field of study | Gender parity ratio |
	2013
SET	1,00
Business and Commerce	1,32
Education	3,00
Other Humanities	1,97

Analysis: Gender parity for attainment in various study fields of study by population group, 2013.

| Field of study | Gender parity ratio | | | | |
| | 2013 | | | | |
	Black African	White	Indian/A sian	Coloured	All*
SET	1,04	0,82	1,23	1,33	**1,00**
Business and Commerce	1,53	0,93	1,20	1,32	**1,32**
Education	2,75	4,69	5,03	2,98	**3,00**
Other humanities	1,80	2,20	3,28	2,31	**1,97**

* GPR also includes those who did not specify their population groups.

APPENDIX 2

EDUCATION DYNAMICS

2.1 EDUCATION ATTAINMENT

Table 2.1.1: Literacy by sex and age.

	Male				Female				Male				Female			
	Literate		Illiterate		Literate		Illiterate		Literate		Illiterate		Literate		Illiterate	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Age	**2009**								**2014**							
15 - 24	4738	34,7	101	18,1	4756	33,7	57	8,8	5078	32,9	68	15,0	5060	32,3	47	10,2
25 - 34	4125	30,2	130	23,3	4186	29,6	102	15,8	4614	29,9	108	24,0	4535	28,9	62	13,5
35 - 44	2922	21,4	131	23,4	3131	22,2	177	27,5	3558	23,1	115	25,4	3637	23,2	116	25,3
45 - 54	1888	13,8	196	35,2	2055	14,5	309	47,9	2180	14,1	161	35,7	2438	15,6	234	51,0
Total	**1367 3**	**100, 0**	558	**100, 0**	**1412 8**	**100, 0**	645	**100, 0**	**1542 9**	**100, 0**	452	**100, 0**	**1567 0**	**100, 0**	459	**100, 0**

Source: GHS 2009, GHS 2014

Table 2.1.2: Literacy by Sex and Province (15+).

	Male				Female				Male				Female			
	Literate		Illiterate		Literate		Illiterate		Literate		Illiterate		Literate		Illiterate	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Province	**2009**								**2014**							
Western Cape	1849	46,7	57	1,4	1987	50,2	64	1,6	2144	97,5	56	2,5	2298	98,1	45	1,9
Eastern Cape	1752	41,7	198	4,7	2014	48,0	235	5,6	1910	91,7	174	8,3	2196	91,6	200	8,4
Northern Cape	324	42,8	38	5,0	344	45,4	51	6,7	364	90,1	40	9,9	386	90,8	39	9,2
Free State	815	42,7	73	3,8	923	48,3	99	5,2	912	95,3	45	4,7	979	93,2	72	6,8
KwaZulu-Natal	2776	42,9	170	2,6	3213	49,6	313	4,8	3155	95,3	157	4,7	3492	91,1	341	8,9
North West	1035	45,4	116	5,1	998	43,8	131	5,7	1144	90,7	117	9,3	1186	90,9	119	9,1
Gauteng	4303	50,1	106	1,2	4064	47,3	120	1,4	4950	98,1	96	1,9	4801	97,8	110	2,2
Mpumalanga	1118	43,3	103	4,0	1170	45,3	193	7,5	1311	93,8	86	6,2	1306	87,7	183	12,3
Limpopo	1374	41,6	98	3,0	1578	47,7	256	7,8	1657	94,5	96	5,5	1782	87,2	262	12,8
RSA	**15347**	**45,1**	**959**	**2,8**	**16290**	**47,8**	**1461**	**4,3**	**17546**	**95,3**	**868**	**4,7**	**18425**	**93,1**	**1371**	**6,9**

Source: GHS 2009, GHS 2014

Table 2.1.3: Literacy by Sex and Geo-type.

	Male								Female							
	Literate				Illiterate				Literate				Illiterate			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Age							2009									
15 - 24	2698	29,3	2040	45,8	34	17,4	67	18,5	2689	29,4	2067	41,6	27	12,3	30	7,0
25 - 34	2897	31,4	1228	27,5	47	23,7	83	23,0	2787	30,4	1399	28,1	42	18,9	60	14,1
35 - 44	2197	23,8	725	16,3	39	20,0	91	25,3	2212	24,2	919	18,5	58	26,4	119	28,0
45 - 54	1422	15,4	465	10,4	76	38,9	120	33,2	1468	16,0	587	11,8	94	42,4	215	50,9
Total	9214	100,0	4459	100,0	197	100,0	361	100,0	9156	100,0	4972	100,0	221	100,0	424	100,0
							2014									
15 - 24	3016	28,3	2062	43,1	25	13,3	42	16,2	3024	28,8	2036	39,5	21	12,8	26	8,8
25 - 34	3229	30,3	1385	28,9	47	24,9	61	23,3	3106	29,5	1430	27,7	27	16,8	35	11,8
35 - 44	2712	25,5	846	17,7	49	26,0	65	24,9	2608	24,8	1029	20,0	41	25,2	75	25,4
45 - 54	1684	15,8	496	10,4	68	35,7	94	35,6	1776	16,9	663	12,9	73	45,3	161	54,1
Total	10641	100,0	4789	100,0	190	100,0	262	100,0	10513	100,0	5157	100,0	161	100,0	297	100,0

Source: GHS 2009, GHS 2014

Table 2.1.4: Education attainment of 21 and above by sex and age group.

Highest level of education	Male								Female							
	21 - 34		35 - 44		45 - 54		55 - 64		21 - 34		35 - 44		45 - 54		55 - 64	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
2008																
No schooling	105	1,8	80	3,0	150	7,6	193	14,8	96	1,5	144	4,8	278	12,2	310	19,4
Grade R/0	5	0,1	2	0,1	4	0,2	4	0,3	4	0,1	3	0,1	8	0,4	7	0,5
Grade 1-11	3255	55,3	1422	53,1	1158	58,9	773	59,1	3258	52,4	1661	55,3	1370	60,1	969	60,6
Matric	1984	33,7	765	28,6	375	19,1	195	14,9	2214	35,6	734	24,4	356	15,6	176	11,0
Graduates	124	2,1	126	4,7	113	5,8	70	5,4	162	2,6	148	4,9	99	4,4	45	2,8
Other tertiary	413	7,0	284	10,6	165	8,4	73	5,6	490	7,9	313	10,4	169	7,4	91	5,7
Total	5886	100,0	2678	100,0	1965	100,0	1308	100,0	6224	100,0	3004	100,0	2280	100,0	1598	100,0
2014																
No schooling	65	1,0	83	2,3	119	5,2	174	11,7	61	0,9	107	2,9	189	7,2	275	15,3
Grade R/0	25	0,4	10	0,3	7	0,3	5	0,3	9	0,1	6	0,2	7	0,3	9	0,5
Grade 1-11	3449	52,1	1798	50,0	1345	58,7	843	57,1	3087	47,2	1921	52,1	1585	60,2	1086	60,2
Matric	2359	35,6	1113	31,0	468	20,4	229	15,5	2527	38,6	1053	28,6	489	18,6	235	13,0
Graduates	231	3,5	219	6,1	159	7,0	111	7,5	283	4,3	227	6,2	150	5,7	83	4,6
Other tertiary	495	7,5	369	10,3	194	8,5	116	7,9	571	8,7	373	10,1	210	8,0	115	6,4
Total	6624	100,0	3593	100,0	2292	100,0	1477	100,0	6538	100,0	3687	100,0	2631	100,0	1803	100,0

Source: QLFS Q1 2008, QLFS Q1 2014

Table 2.1.5: Education attainment of males aged 21 and above by employment status.

Highest level of education	Employed		Unemployed		NEA*		Total		Employed		Unemployed		NEA*		Total	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
	2008								2014							
No schooling	311	37,6	93	11,2	423	51,1	827	100,0	188	28,4	75	11,3	398	60,3	661	100,0
Grade R/0	11	34,3	8	25,0	13	40,7	31	100,0	18	34,7	17	33,8	16	31,5	51	100,0
Grade 1-11	4112	56,8	1630	22,5	1502	20,7	7244	100,0	3885	48,9	2230	28,1	1834	23,1	7948	100,0
Matric	2310	68,8	636	18,9	412	12,3	3358	100,0	2563	59,7	1065	24,8	668	15,6	4296	100,0
Graduates	507	82,6	39	6,3	68	11,1	614	100,0	646	82,2	49	6,3	91	11,5	786	100,0
Other tertiary	735	84,8	77	8,9	55	6,3	867	100,0	958	78,4	168	13,8	96	7,8	1222	100,0
Total	7986	61,7	2482	19,2	2473	19,1	12941	100,0	8257	55,2	3604	24,1	3102	20,7	14963	100,0

Source: QLFS 2008, QLFS 2014
*NEA (Not Economically Active)

Table 2.1.6: Education attainment of females aged 21 and above by employment status.

Highest level of education	Employed		Unemployed		NEA*		Total		Employed		Unemployed		NEA*		Total	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
	2008								2014							
No schooling	285	19,6	120	8,2	1049	72,2	1454	100	182	15,5	98	8,3	897	76,2	1177	100
Grade R/0	8	22,1	6	16,3	23	61,6	38	100	12	34,8	8	22,0	16	43,3	36	100
Grade 1-11	2836	34,7	2076	25,4	3257	39,9	8169	100	2770	32,2	2313	26,9	3521	40,9	8604	100
Matric	1688	51,0	806	24,4	815	24,6	3309	100	2108	47,0	1084	24,2	1296	28,9	4488	100
Graduates	428	81,9	23	4,4	71	13,7	523	100	583	74,5	53	6,8	146	18,6	782	100
Other tertiary	798	73,4	136	12,5	153	14,1	1087	100	903	66,7	209	15,4	242	17,9	1353	100
Total	6043	41,4	3168	21,7	5369	36,8	14579	100,0	6559	39,9	3764	22,9	6116	37,2	16439	100

Source: QLFS 2008, QLFS 2014
*NEA (Not Economically Active)

Table 2.1.7: Education attainment of individuals aged 21 and above by sex and geo-type.

	Male				Female				Male				Female			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
Highest level of education	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
	2008								2014							
No schooling	330	3,6	496	13,3	491	5,1	963	19,4	249	2,3	411	9,6	363	3,3	814	15,4
Grade R/0	13	0,1	18	0,5	17	0,2	21	0,4	28	0,3	23	0,5	16	0,1	20	0,4
Grade 1-11	4738	51,5	2507	67,1	5075	52,8	3094	62,3	5104	47,7	2843	66,7	5336	47,9	3268	61,6
Matric	2805	30,5	553	14,8	2661	27,7	648	13,1	3520	32,9	776	18,2	3599	32,3	888	16,8
Graduates	572	6,2	42	1,1	475	4,9	47	1,0	737	6,9	49	1,1	712	6,4	70	1,3
Other tertiary	746	8,1	121	3,2	898	9,3	189	3,8	1059	9,9	163	3,8	1113	10,0	240	4,5
Total	9205	100,0	3736	100,0	9617	100,0	4962	100,0	10698	100,0	4266	100,0	11139	100,0	5300	100,0

Source: QLFS Q1 2008, QLFS Q1 2014

Table 2.1.8: Primary education attainment rate (cohort 3-7 years above official age) by sex and province.

	2004						2014					
	Male		Female		Both		Male		Female		Both	
Province	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Western Cape		88,5		96,5		92,3		96,1		98,4		97,3
Eastern Cape		72,1		79,8		75,8		87,7		95,2		91,4
Northern Cape		86,1		84,6		85,4		93,4		96,4		94,9
Free State		89,0		92,8		91,0		95,4		96,4		95,9
KwaZulu- Natal		89,1		90,5		89,9		95,7		97,6		96,7
North West		85,8		86,6		86,2		90,6		94,7		92,7
Gauteng		92,1		96,3		94,4		98,6		98,1		98,3
Mpumalanga		86,3		92,5		89,5		92,8		95,1		93,9
Limpopo		89,7		94,9		92,3		95,4		96,9		96,2
Total		**86,5**		**91,3**		**88,9**		**94,4**		**96,8**		**95,6**
SA (persons aged 16-20 yrs. with at least primary education).	**2037**		**2217**		**4254**		**2405**		**2463**		**4868**	
SA(population of cohort 16-20 years)	**2355**		**2429**		**4784**		**2548**		**2543**		**5091**	

Source: GHS 2004, GHS 2014

Table 2.1.9: Lower secondary education attainment rate (cohort 3-7 years above official age) by sex and province.

Province	2004						2014					
	Male		Female		Both		Male		Female		Both	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Western Cape		77,7		85,5		81,7		85,6		92,5		89,1
Eastern Cape		54,1		67,9		60,8		67,5		81,9		74,5
Northern Cape		67,4		72,9		70,5		74,4		84,4		79,1
Free State		76,0		80,0		78,1		84,7		90,6		87,6
KwaZulu- Natal		77,5		79,4		78,5		85,9		91,4		88,7
North West		71,4		75,5		73,3		80,4		87,6		84,0
Gauteng		86,3		89,5		87,9		93,8		95,5		94,7
Mpumalanga		74,4		78,7		76,6		81,2		87,0		84,0
Limpopo		76,0		83,6		79,9		74,3		82,4		78,3
Total		**74,9**		**80,7**		**77,8**		**82,4**		**89,3**		**85,9**
SA (persons aged 18-22yrs with at least lower secondary education).	**1770**		**1992**		**3761**		**2095**		**2278**		**4372**	
SA (population of cohort18-22 years)	**2364**		**2469**		**4833**		**2541**		**2551**		**5092**	

Source: GHS 2004, GHS 2014

Table 2.1.10: Upper secondary education attainment rate (cohort 3-7 years above official age) by sex and province.

Province	2004						2014					
	Male		Female		Both		Male		Female		Both	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Western Cape		40,4		46,6		43,6		46,8		56,5		51,8
Eastern Cape		28,2		21,4		24,8		30,3		37,2		33,7
Northern Cape		32,4		40,4		36,7		43,9		48,5		46,2
Free State		44,7		39,3		41,9		50,1		49,8		50,0
KwaZulu- Natal		43,5		37,8		40,4		50,8		58,8		55,0
North West		33,5		36,2		34,8		42,7		53,6		48,1
Gauteng		53,4		60,7		56,8		60,9		74,9		67,6
Mpumalanga		32,4		37,3		35,1		44,6		51,4		47,9
Limpopo		32,3		30,2		31,1		40,6		43,5		42,1
Total		**41,0**		**40,9**		**40,9**		**48,3**		**56,7**		**52,5**
SA (persons aged 18-22yrs with at least lower secondary education).	**910**		**950**		**1859**		**1198**		**1388**		**2586**	
SA (population of cohort 18-22 years)	**2220**		**2321**		**4541**		**2482**		**2447**		**4929**	

Source: GHS 2004, GHS 2014

Table 2.1.11: Total number of candidates who passed the Senior Certificate Examination (SCE) by sex and province.

	2004						2014					
	Male			Female			Male			Female		
	Total Wrote	Passed		Total Wrote	Passed		Total Wrote	Passed		Total Wrote	Passed	
Provinces	'000	'000	%	'000	'000	%	'000	'000	%	'000	'000	%
Western Cape	17	15	85,9	22	18	84,3	21	17	83,2	27	22	81,5
Eastern Cape	28	15	55,2	36	19	52,1	30	20	67,8	37	23	63,5
Northern Cape	3	3	85,0	4	3	82,0	4	3	76,8	5	4	76,0
Free State	12	9	80,4	13	10	77,1	12	10	84,4	14	11	81,4
KwaZulu- Natal	95	82	85,8	58	43	73,9	65	46	70,6	75	51	68,9
North West	17	11	65,7	20	13	64,1	12	11	87,3	14	11	82,3
Gauteng	32	25	76,4	39	30	77,2	45	38	85,5	55	46	84,0
Mpumalanga	17	11	64,3	20	12	59,6	21	17	81,3	25	19	77,1
Limpopo	36	26	74,4	42	28	67,5	34	26	76,6	39	27	69,6
South Africa	258	198	76,7	253	176	69,5	243	188	77,5	290	216	74,4

Source: DBE 2004, DBE 2014
Note: excludes those awaiting results

Table 2.1.12: Percentage (and levels) of candidates who passed0 the SCE with endorsements by sex and province.

	2004						2014					
	Male			Female			Male			Female		
	Total Wrote	Endorsements		Total Wrote	Endorsements		Total Wrote	Endorsements		Total Wrote	Endorsements	
Provinces	'000	'000	%	'000	'000	%	'000	'000	%	'000	'000	%
Western Cape	17	5	27,4	22	6	26,8	21	8	37,1	27	11	40,2
Eastern Cape	28	3	9,5	36	3	8,2	30	6	20,3	37	7	19,9
Northern Cape	3	1	20,0	4	1	17,6	4	1	23,5	5	1	25,8
Free State	12	3	24,1	13	3	20,4	12	4	29,5	14	4	30,8
KwaZulu-Natal	95	9	9,9	58	11	19,7	65	16	25,0	75	20	26,1
North West	17	2	13,2	20	2	11,8	12	4	33,1	14	4	32,2
Gauteng	32	7	21,3	39	9	22,8	45	16	35,1	55	21	38,6
Mpumalanga	17	2	14,4	20	2	10,9	21	5	26,3	25	6	23,7
Limpopo	36	9	24,5	42	8	17,9	34	8	24,7	39	8	20,4
South Africa	258	41	15,8	253	44	17,6	243	68	28,0	290	83	28,5

Source: DBE 2004, DBE 2014
Note: excludes those awaiting results

Table 2.1.13: Learners who achieved an overall bachelor's pass and who studied mathematics as a subject by sex and Quintile status, 2014

	Male						Female					
Province	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total
Eastern Cape	31,1	34,3	41,6	50,2	60,2	**42,3**	26,1	30,1	37,8	48,7	66,6	**41,5**
Free State	46,2	41,0	46,2	49,5	67,3	**50,7**	47,0	40,0	40,6	48,6	74,5	**52,1**
Gauteng	56,1	51,5	53,9	54,6	67,3	**60,3**	57,3	52,6	51,6	56,2	76,2	**64,1**
KwaZulu-Natal	32,4	39,6	41,9	47,7	62,7	**45,6**	30,6	37,0	39,1	50,5	71,4	**46,7**
Limpopo	41,3	43,7	50,7	61,8	64,3	**46,3**	34,1	36,0	45,9	59,4	75,0	**41,2**
Mpumalanga	43,1	44,3	49,7	45,8	58,6	**46,1**	39,1	41,3	48,6	52,1	66,6	**45,2**
Northern Cape	33,3	46,2	41,9	42,5	56,6	**48,0**	37,3	43,2	35,4	48,3	69,0	**52,8**
North-West	50,5	58,8	49,8	54,5	76,4	**54,4**	45,0	48,0	47,2	61,9	87,5	**55,2**
Western Cape	51,8	47,0	56,9	44,9	74,4	**67,7**	48,5	48,5	53,1	56,9	83,0	**74,6**
RSA	**39,2**	**42,5**	**46,9**	**50,8**	**66,6**	**50,3**	**35,3**	**38,3**	**43,7**	**53,9**	**74,9**	**50,9**

Source: DBE 2014

Table 2.1.14: Learners who achieved an overall bachelor's pass and who studied Physical science as a subject, 2014

Province	Male						Female					
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Total
Western Cape	54,9	43,0	51,5	42,2	76,2	**67,4**	49,0	38,1	46,3	52,0	83,4	**70,6**
Eastern Cape	34,1	37,2	43,0	53,1	61,5	**44,8**	28,5	35,5	41,5	52,2	68,0	**45,0**
Northern Cape	28,0	55,1	41,1	42,5	59,3	**48,9**	24,7	50,6	37,4	46,1	73,0	**53,3**
Free State	44,4	41,3	43,7	51,4	66,8	**49,5**	44,8	38,0	40,1	49,6	74,6	**50,0**
KwaZulu-Natal	35,9	43,4	45,8	50,4	68,1	**49,7**	34,1	39,7	42,2	51,5	76,1	**49,5**
North-West	49,9	56,3	49,9	55,3	78,7	**54,0**	42,7	46,1	45,9	60,4	89,4	**52,2**
Gauteng	54,4	47,2	51,6	52,5	69,1	**59,0**	53,0	52,8	49,2	54,2	77,0	**61,7**
Mpumalanga	42,7	44,6	51,0	47,0	58,8	**46,2**	40,7	42,2	49,2	56,9	66,8	**46,1**
Limpopo	41,8	44,0	51,5	61,7	66,4	**46,9**	33,7	36,7	46,9	60,9	74,8	**41,4**
RSA	**41,0**	**43,9**	**48,1**	**51,8**	**68,9**	**51,6**	**36,9**	**40,2**	**44,9**	**54,0**	**76,3**	**51,2**

Source: DBE 2014

Table 2.1.15: Average percentage scores for learners who passed matric by subject, school quintile status and province.

Subject	Quintile status	EC	FS	GT	KZN	LP	MP	NC	NW	WC	RSA
Accounting	1	34,2	38,8	36,2	30,8	35,3	34,1	29,5	35,9	32,9	34,0
	2	33,9	39,9	37,0	32,2	37,4	36,9	33,4	36,8	33,0	35,0
	3	32,2	47,6	35,4	32,9	39,9	39,3	37,0	50,3	37,6	35,1
	4	33,4	58,7	38,9	38,5	50,1	48,1	53,3	61,5	55,1	39,4
	5	48,3	49,2	56,1	51,4	55,2	56,0	48,1	49,7	59,5	53,9
Economics	1	32,0	33,4	38,2	33,3	33,3	31,4	35,9	39,5	38,0	33,4
	2	32,7	33,3	38,7	35,4	35,4	32,3	39,5	41,2	37,2	35,1
	3	32,8	38,6	37,6	35,9	37,8	32,7	37,8	44,4	39,5	36,3
	4	33,0	42,8	38,2	40,7	49,5	32,3	46,4	57,3	50,8	38,7
	5	34,9	35,0	46,3	47,0	55,9	46,6	51,3	42,7	61,6	45,6
Mathematics	1	24,0	32,2	34,3	22,2	31,9	30,7	32,6	33,9	30,7	27,5
	2	24,6	34,1	34,6	24,3	32,9	32,5	33,0	32,1	31,5	28,8
	3	25,7	37,5	35,1	24,6	36,1	33,0	32,7	41,9	32,5	29,6
	4	30,6	51,9	36,4	29,2	47,7	42,6	48,2	55,7	52,0	34,0
	5	42,4	40,3	50,4	40,8	51,6	50,2	38,0	40,9	53,9	47,5
Physical Science	1	28,8	34,9	34,6	29,2	35,0	33,8	34,1	35,3	30,5	32,4
	2	29,0	36,7	34,5	30,4	36,7	34,4	33,5	33,9	30,6	33,1
	3	30,1	38,1	35,4	30,6	39,3	34,5	32,7	41,7	30,7	33,6
	4	34,1	50,0	36,2	34,9	48,9	41,1	44,1	57,0	51,0	36,6
	5	42,7	40,4	50,0	45,2	48,7	47,9	31,6	39,1	52,9	48,0

Source: DBE 2014
Note: Quintile 1, 2, 3 are no fee paying schools subsidised fully by government, while 4 and 5 are fee paying schools.

2.2 ACCESS TO EDUCATION AND SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Table 2.2.1: Distribution of primary schools by province and quintile status.

	Quintile 1		Quintile 2		Quintile 3		Quintile 4		Quintile 5		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Province	**2004**											
Western Cape	273	24,4	102	9,1	172	15,4	253	22,6	317	28,4	1117	**100,0**
Eastern Cape	1773	37,0	1545	32,2	915	19,1	332	6,9	230	4,8	4795	**100,0**
Northern Cape	71	21,4	108	32,5	75	22,6	35	10,5	43	13,0	332	**100,0**
Free State	998	70,5	147	10,4	124	8,8	85	6,0	62	4,4	1416	**100,0**
KwaZulu-Natal	1448	35,3	930	22,7	946	23,1	447	10,9	333	8,1	4104	**100,0**
North West	566	40,7	269	19,3	499	35,9	29	2,1	28	2,0	1391	**100,0**
Gauteng	119	9,1	139	10,6	438	33,3	347	26,4	271	20,6	1314	**100,0**
Mpumalanga	318	26,5	327	27,3	248	20,7	186	15,5	120	10,0	1199	**100,0**
Limpopo	924	38,0	819	33,7	554	22,8	96	3,9	39	1,6	2432	**100,0**
Total	**6490**	**35,9**	**4386**	**24,2**	**3971**	**21,9**	**1810**	**10,0**	**1443**	**8,0**	**18100**	**100,0**
	2014											
Western Cape	292	24,9	144	12,3	146	12,5	259	22,1	330	28,2	1171	**100,0**
Eastern Cape	1755	37,6	1450	31,1	1314	28,2	58	1,2	88	1,9	4665	**100,0**
Northern Cape	150	33,9	105	23,7	93	21,0	55	12,4	40	9,0	443	**100,0**
Free State	632	59,6	148	13,9	156	14,7	65	6,1	60	5,7	1061	**100,0**
KwaZulu-Natal	1493	34,6	1281	29,6	834	19,3	403	9,3	310	7,2	4321	**100,0**
North West	441	39,9	221	20,0	355	32,1	75	6,8	13	1,2	1105	**100,0**
Gauteng	218	15,0	186	12,8	414	28,4	344	23,6	295	20,2	1457	**100,0**
Mpumalanga	731	54,8	421	31,5	94	7,0	39	2,9	50	3,7	1335	**100,0**
Limpopo	1035	40,4	1076	42,0	400	15,6	9	0,4	40	1,6	2560	**100,0**
Total	**6747**	**37,2**	**5032**	**27,8**	**3806**	**21,0**	**1307**	**7,2**	**1226**	**6,8**	**18118**	**100,0**

Source: DBE 2004, DBE 2014
Note: Quintile 1, 2, 3 are no fee paying schools subsidised fully by government, while 4 and 5 are fee paying schools.

Table 2.2.2: Distribution of secondary schools by province and quintile status.

	Quintile 1		Quintile 2		Quintile 3		Quintile 4		Quintile 5		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Province	**2004**											
Western Cape	29	6,0	36	7,4	108	22,3	135	27,9	176	36,4	484	**100,0**
Eastern Cape	1379	41,8	979	29,7	617	18,7	178	5,4	147	4,5	3300	**100,0**
Northern Cape	32	18,2	56	31,8	41	23,3	21	11,9	26	14,8	176	**100,0**
Free State	238	44,5	96	17,9	96	17,9	54	10,1	51	9,5	535	**100,0**
KwaZulu-Natal	590	32,2	437	23,8	430	23,5	213	11,6	163	8,9	1833	**100,0**
North West	216	33,5	125	19,4	270	41,9	17	2,6	16	2,5	644	**100,0**
Gauteng	37	6,3	66	11,2	185	31,5	164	27,9	135	23,0	587	**100,0**
Mpumalanga	118	21,4	111	20,1	152	27,5	101	18,3	70	12,7	552	**100,0**
Limpopo	562	43,2	370	28,5	293	22,5	53	4,1	22	1,7	1300	**100,0**
Total	3201	34,0	2276	24,2	2192	23,3	936	9,9	806	8,6	9411	**100,0**
	2014											
Western Cape	44	9,4	53	11,3	95	20,3	109	23,3	166	35,5	467	**100,0**
Eastern Cape	1191	42,1	789	27,9	742	26,3	50	1,8	54	1,9	2826	**100,0**
Northern Cape	70	28,8	52	21,4	49	20,2	40	16,5	32	13,2	243	**100,0**
Free State	212	41,4	99	19,3	118	23,0	33	6,4	50	9,8	512	**100,0**
KwaZulu-Natal	628	30,3	638	30,8	419	20,2	219	10,6	168	8,1	2072	**100,0**
North West	175	32,5	113	21,0	185	34,3	59	10,9	7	1,3	539	**100,0**
Gauteng	100	14,3	84	12,1	184	26,4	174	25,0	155	22,2	697	**100,0**
Mpumalanga	336	48,2	238	34,1	74	10,6	21	3,0	28	4,0	697	**100,0**
Limpopo	584	40,6	590	41,0	232	16,1	10	0,7	23	1,6	1439	**100,0**
Total	**3340**	**35,2**	**2656**	**28,0**	**2098**	**22,1**	**715**	**7,5**	**683**	**7,2**	**9492**	**100,0**

Source: DBE 2004, DBE 2014
Note: Quintile 1, 2, 3 are no fee paying schools subsidised fully by government, while 4 and 5 are fee paying schools.

Table 2.2.3: Level of entry of learners into grade 1 by sex and province.

	2004						2013					
	Male		Female		Both		Male		Female		Both	
Province	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Western Cape	48	8,3	46	8,7	94	8,5	47	8,9	46	9,1	92	9,0
Eastern Cape	128	22,2	115	21,6	243	21,9	84	16,1	78	15,6	163	15,9
Northern Cape	8	1,5	8	1,4	16	1,4	12	2,4	12	2,3	24	2,3
Free State	28	4,9	26	5,0	55	5,0	27	5,2	26	5,3	54	5,3
KwaZulu-Natal	133	23,0	118	22,3	251	22,7	113	21,5	106	21,2	219	21,4
North West	39	6,8	37	7,0	76	6,9	31	5,9	30	6,1	62	6,0
Gauteng	74	12,9	70	13,1	144	13,0	100	19,0	97	19,3	196	19,2
Mpumalanga	44	7,7	41	7,8	86	7,7	43	8,3	41	8,2	85	8,3
Limpopo	74	12,8	70	13,1	143	12,9	66	12,6	64	12,8	130	12,7
Total	**577**	**100,0**	**532**	**100,0**	**1109**	**100,0**	**524**	**100,0**	**500**	**100,0**	**1024**	**100,0**

Source: DBE 2004, DBE 2013

Table 2.2.4: Upper Secondary education enrolment for 25-64 year olds (ABET) by age and sex.

	Male		Female		Total	
Age	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
25 - 34	4	33,5	8	66,5	11	100,0
35 - 44	6	47,2	7	52,8	12	100,0
45 - 54	*	-	5	100,0	5	100,0
55 - 64	*	-	2	100,0	2	100,0
Total	10	32,1	20	67,9	30	100,0

Source: GHS 2014.
Note: Figures less than 1000 are represented by (*).

Table 2.2.5: Private School enrolment by sex and province

Province	Male '000	Male %	Female '000	Female %	Total '000	Total %
Western Cape	24	49,6	25	50,4	49	100,0
Eastern Cape	28	49,0	29	51,0	58	100,0
Limpopo	27	48,8	28	51,2	55	100,0
Mpumalanga	12	50,0	12	50,0	24	100,0
North West	8	49,8	8	50,2	16	100,0
Northern Cape	2	47,4	2	52,6	4	100,0
Gauteng	121	49,0	126	51,0	247	100,0
Free State	8	50,4	8	49,6	16	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	34	48,2	36	51,8	70	100,0

Source: DBE 2014

Table 2.2.6: Private school enrolment by sex and level of education

Level of education	Male '000	Male %	Female '000	Female %	Total '000	Total %
Lower Primary	1974	51,3	1876	48,7	3851	100,0
Higher Primary	1492	51,4	1408	48,6	2899	100,0
Lower Secondary	1471	49,4	1505	50,6	2976	100,0
Higher Secondary	1119	46,8	1273	53,2	2392	100,0

Source: DBE 2014

Table 2.2.7: Youth not in education, employment or training (15- 24 year- olds) by sex and geo-type.

Geo-type	2004 Male '000	Male %	Female '000	Female %	Both '000	Both %	2014 Male '000	Male %	Female '000	Female %	Both '000	Both %
Urban formal	745	46,5	855	53,4	1601	**100,0**	799	47,5	883	52,5	1682	100,0
Urban informal	155	41,6	219	58,7	373	**100,0**	125	42,8	166	57,2	291	100,0
Tribal areas	600	45,1	731	54,9	1331	**100,0**	573	46,4	663	53,6	1236	100,0
Rural formal	39	38,6	62	61,4	101	**100,0**	40	45,6	48	54,4	88	100,0
Total	**1539**	**45,2**	**1867**	**54,8**	**3406**	**100,0**	**1537**	**46,6**	**1760**	**53,4**	**3297**	**100,0**

Source: QLFS Q1 2013, QLFS Q1 2014

Table 2.2.8: Children who were never in school (age cohort 3-6Yrs above official primary school age) by sex and province.

| | 2004 | | | | | | 2014 | | | | | |
| | Male | | Female | | Both | | Male | | Female | | Both | |
Province	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Western Cape	7	36,3	1	5,3	8	24,4	1	7,6	0	0,0	1	5,2
Eastern Cape	5	26,3	3	25,9	8	26,1	3	19,5	3	38,2	6	25,3
Northern Cape	0	0,6	1	5,5	1	2,5	0	1,1	0	0,0	0	0,8
Free State	1	3,2	0	3,4	1	3,3	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0
KwaZulu-Natal	3	15,3	4	34,6	7	22,7	2	11,0	3	42,8	5	20,9
North West	1	3,8	1	8,6	2	5,6	2	11,0	0	0,0	2	7,6
Gauteng	1	5,3	1	10,4	2	7,3	5	34,7	0	0,0	5	23,9
Mpumalanga	0	0,9	0	3,2	1	1,8	0	3,1	1	8,1	1	4,7
Limpopo	2	8,4	0	3,1	2	6,4	2	12,0	1	10,9	3	11,6
SA (Never schooled)	**20**	**1,0**	**12**	**0,6**	**32**	**0,8**	**15**	**0,7**	**7**	**0,3**	**22**	**0,5**
SA(16-19 yrs population)	**1885**		**1929**		**3814**		**2097**		**2081**		**4178**	

Source: GHS 2004, GHS 2014

Table 2.2.9: Children who were never in school (age cohort 3-6Yrs above official primary school age) by sex and geo-type.

| | 2004 | | | | | | 2014 | | | | | |
| | Male | | Female | | Both | | Male | | Female | | Both | |
Geo-type	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Urban formal	2	12,4	3	20,9	5	15,6	6	42,3	1	14,8	7	33,7
Urban informal	8	39,7	1	5,9	8	26,7	0	2,8	2	24,1	2	9,5
Tribal areas	8	41,9	7	59,4	15	48,6	7	48,8	4	61,1	12	52,6
Rural formal	1	6,0	2	13,9	3	9,0	1	6,1	0	0,0	1	4,2
SA (Never schooled)	**20**	**100,0**	**12**	**100,0**	**32**	**100,0**	**15**	**0,7**	**7**	**0,3**	**22**	**0,5**
SA(16-19 yrs population)	**1885**		**1929**		**3814**		**2097**		**2081**		**4178**	

Source: GHS 2004, GHS 2014

Table 2.2.10: Number of out of school boys and girls by age and province.

	Primary aged (6-13yrs)											
	2004						2014					
	Male		Female		Both		Male		Female		Both	
Province	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Western Cape	4	15,9	0	0,0	4	9,6	2	12,1	1	7,6	3	10,3
Eastern Cape	4	16,4	3	19,8	7	17,8	0	2,1	3	21,9	3	10,2
Northern Cape	0	1,0	1	3,5	1	1,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0
Free State	1	5,7	1	7,9	3	6,6	2	8,8	0	1,5	2	5,8
KwaZulu-Natal	8	30,4	6	33,4	13	31,6	5	28,3	3	23,7	9	26,4
North West	2	8,5	2	12,4	4	10,1	1	6,8	4	27,9	5	15,4
Gauteng	1	5,4	0	0,3	1	3,4	5	23,7	0	3,0	5	15,3
Mpumalanga	2	5,9	2	14,3	4	9,2	2	8,5	1	11,4	3	9,7
Limpopo	3	10,8	1	8,4	4	9,9	2	9,7	0	2,9	2	6,9
SA(OOS population)	**25**	**100,0**	**16**	**100,0**	**42**	**100,0**	**19**	**0,5**	**13**	**0,3**	**32**	**0,4**
SA(primary school aged population)	**4130**		**4122**		**8252**		**4076**		**4020**		**8096**	
	Lower secondary aged(14-15yrs)											
	2004						2014					
Western Cape	3	9,4	3	10,4	6	9,8	4	22,5	2	11,9	6	17,5
Eastern Cape	9	24,9	3	10,6	11	18,9	4	20,3	3	19,1	7	19,8
Northern Cape	2	4,7	0	1,1	2	3,2	1	5,2	0	1,6	1	3,5
Free State	1	3,9	1	2,7	2	3,4	0	2,3	2	9,7	2	5,9
KwaZulu-Natal	8	22,3	10	39,9	18	29,7	4	21,3	2	11,6	6	16,7
North West	2	5,6	3	11,5	5	8,1	2	11,2	3	19,0	5	14,9
Gauteng	6	15,8	4	14,6	9	15,3	1	7,9	2	14,0	4	10,8
Mpumalanga	2	4,8	0	1,8	2	3,5	1	5,7	1	3,9	2	4,8
Limpopo	3	8,6	2	7,3	5	8,0	1	3,5	2	9,1	2	6,2
SA(OOS population)	**35**	**100,0**	**25**	**100,0**	**61**	**100,0**	**19**	**1,9**	**17**	**1,7**	**36**	**1,8**
SA(Lower secondary school aged population)	**1033**		**970**		**2003**		**1013**		**1014**		**2026**	

Source: GHS 2004, GHS 2014

Table 2.2.11: Number of out of school boys and girls by age and geotype.

Geo-type	Primary aged (6-13yrs)											
	2004						2014					
	Male		Female		Both		Male		Female		Both	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Urban formal	4	16,8	3	16,4	7	16,6	8	41,4	3	22,8	11	33,8
Urban informal	3	12,7	2	12,3	5	12,6	3	15,7	3	21,7	6	18,1
Tribal areas	15	59,9	9	54,2	24	57,6	7	37,4	6	46,7	13	41,2
Rural formal	3	10,6	3	17,1	6	13,2	1	5,5	1	8,8	2	6,8
SA(OOS population)	**25**	**100,0**	**17**	**100,0**	**42**	**100,0**	**19**	**100,0**	**13**	**100,0**	**32**	**100,0**
SA(primary school aged population)	**4130**		**4122**		**8252**		**4076**		**4020**		**8097**	
	Lower secondary aged(14-15yrs)											
	2004						2014					
Urban formal	7	21,1	11	43,7	19	30,6	9	48,4	7	41,2	16	45,0
Urban informal	6	15,8	3	10,3	8	13,5	2	9,2	2	9,4	3	9,3
Tribal areas	17	48,6	7	29,2	24	40,4	8	40,2	7	42,9	15	41,5
Rural formal	5	14,5	4	16,7	9	15,4	0	2,2	1	6,5	2	4,2
SA(OOS population)	**35**	**100,0**	**25**	**100,0**	**61**	**100,0**	**19**	**100,0**	**17**	**100,0**	**36**	**100,0**
SA(Lower secondary school aged population)	**1033**		**970**		**2003**		**1013**		**1014**		**2026**	

Source: GHS 2004, GHS 2014

Table 2.2.12: Gross enrolment rate (GER) by sex and level of education.

Level of education	Male		Female	
	'000	GER (%)	'000	GER (%)
Lower Primary		115,9		107,1
Higher Primary		107,3		104,8
Lower Secondary		114,1		109,0
Higher Secondary		99,9		109,4

Source: GHS 2014

Table 2.2.13: Gross enrolment ratio (GER) by sex, level of education and geo-type.

Level of education	Male				Female			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
	'000	GER (%)	'000	GER (%)	'000	GER (%)	'000	GER (%)
Lower Primary		113,0		119,5		103,5		111,8
Higher Primary		101,4		114,8		103,7		106,1
Lower Secondary		105,6		125,2		102,3		117,8
Higher Secondary		99,3		100,7		105,1		114,5

Source: GHS 2014

Table 2.2.14: Gross intake ratio (GIR) to grade 7 by sex and geo-type, 2014

Geo-type	Male		Female		Total	
	'000	GIR (%)	'000	GIR (%)	'000	GIR (%)
Urban formal		90,0		92,8		91,4
Urban informal		91,5		75,3		81,7
Tribal areas		104,7		104,0		104,3
Rural formal		94,0		104,4		99,6
Total		**95,9**		**95,9**		**95,9**

Source: GHS 201

Table 2.2.15: Gross intake ratio (GIR) to grade 12 by sex and geo-type,2014

Geo-type	Male		Female		Total	
	'000	GIR (%)	'000	GIR (%)	'000	GIR (%)
Urban formal		65,6		73,5		69,8
Urban informal		55,6		74,5		63,3
Tribal areas		54,1		65,4		59,6
Rural formal		64,3		38,5		47,4
Total		**59,5**		**68,8**		**64,2**

Source: GHS 2014

Table 2.2.16: Net enrolment rate (NER) by sex and level of education.

Level of education	Male		Female	
	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)
Lower Primary		86,7		86,2
Higher Primary		62,5		72,5
Lower Secondary		44,5		57,2
Higher Secondary		47,5		61,1

Source: GHS 2014

Table 2.2.17: Net enrolment rate (NER) by sex , level of education and geo-type.

Level of education	Male				Female			
	Urban		Rural		Urban		Rural	
	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)
Lower Primary		86,2		87,5		85,3		87,2
Higher Primary		64,3		60,1		73,8		71,0
Lower Secondary		50,2		37,1		59,7		54,1
Higher Secondary		54,1		40,1		64,8		56,6

Source: GHS 2014

Table 2.2.18: Primary adjusted net enrolment rate (NER) by sex and province.

Province	2004						2012					
	Male		Female		Both		Male		Female		Both	
	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)	'000	NER (%)
Western Cape		98,3		99,8		99,0		99,1		99,6		99,4
Eastern Cape		96,5		98,1		97,3		98,7		99,4		99,0
Northern Cape		97,5		98,7		98,1		99,4		99,4		99,4
Free State		95,8		98,0		96,9		99,2		99,9		99,5
KwaZulu-Natal		97,2		97,0		97,1		98,7		99,6		99,1
North West		97,9		97,5		97,7		99,3		98,6		98,9
Gauteng		99,6		99,2		99,4		98,7		99,4		99,0
Mpumalanga		98,6		98,8		98,7		99,4		99,4		99,4
Limpopo		98,9		99,5		99,2		99,6		99,3		99,5
Total		**97,9**		**98,4**		**98,1**		**99,0**		**99,4**		**99,2**

Source: DBE 2004, DBE 2012

2.3 POST-SCHOOL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (PSET)

Table 2.3.1: Student enrolment by type of PSET, sex and province.

Province	Male TVET '000	Male TVET %	Male University/ University of Technology '000	Male University/ University of Technology %	Male Other College '000	Male Other College %	Female TVET '000	Female TVET %	Female University/ University of Technology '000	Female University/ University of Technology %	Female Other College '000	Female Other College %	Total '000	Total %
2009														
Western Cape	5	3,5	58	38,6	8	5,2	12	8,2	57	38,0	10	6,5	150	100,0
Eastern Cape	7	7,4	26	29,6	8	8,6	11	13,0	32	35,8	5	5,5	88	100,0
Northern Cape	2	13,2	3	27,6	2	15,5	1	6,9	3	25,9	1	10,9	11	100,0
Free State	6	6,8	28	31,9	2	2,4	10	10,9	37	42,9	4	5,1	87	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	18	11,5	42	26,3	11	6,8	10	6,4	67	42,2	11	6,8	158	100,0
North West	4	12,5	8	22,3	3	7,3	6	16,8	12	33,3	3	7,8	35	100,0
Gauteng	30	6,4	159	33,9	29	6,3	44	9,4	157	33,5	49	10,5	467	100,0
Mpumalanga	7	15,9	7	16,1	7	15,9	6	13,0	12	27,2	5	11,9	46	100,0
Limpopo	12	15,1	19	24,4	5	6,3	11	13,3	21	26,9	11	13,9	79	100,0
RSA	**91**	**8,1**	**349**	**31,2**	**74**	**6,6**	**110**	**9,8**	**397**	**35,4**	**99**	**8,9**	**1121**	**100,0**
2014														
Western Cape	12	7,6	55	33,7	8	4,9	23	14,0	57	35,3	7	4,5	163	100,0
Eastern Cape	18	15,2	21	18,0	3	3,0	26	22,7	37	32,2	10	8,9	116	100,0
Northern Cape	5	25,0	4	20,5	1	5,1	5	23,0	5	21,2	1	5,3	22	100,0
Free State	19	21,0	22	23,3	7	7,4	21	22,7	20	21,1	4	4,5	93	100,0
KwaZulu-Natal	18	9,1	55	26,9	7	3,4	40	19,8	68	33,6	15	7,2	204	100,0
North West	10	12,1	20	25,4	4	5,6	16	20,3	26	32,7	3	3,8	79	100,0
Gauteng	53	10,9	129	26,5	24	4,9	57	11,7	191	39,2	34	7,0	486	100,0
Mpumalanga	13	17,7	10	14,4	6	8,6	13	18,4	21	29,1	8	11,8	72	100,0
Limpopo	28	25,7	19	17,9	8	7,0	23	21,4	24	22,2	6	5,7	107	100,0
RSA	**176**	**13,1**	**335**	**25,0**	**68**	**5,1**	**225**	**16,7**	**449**	**33,4**	**89**	**6,6**	**1342**	**100,0**

Source: GHS 2009, GHS 2014

Table 2.3.2: Student enrolment by type of PSET and sex.

Type of PSET	Male Urban '000	Male Urban %	Male Rural '000	Male Rural %	Female Urban '000	Female Urban %	Female Rural '000	Female Rural %
2009								
TVET	74	16,4	17	27,0	91	17,8	20	20,0
University/University of Technology	317	70,3	33	51,2	344	67,7	53	53,6
Other College	60	13,3	14	21,8	73	14,4	26	26,4
Total	**451**	**100,0**	**64**	**100,0**	**509**	**100,0**	**98**	**100,0**
2014								
TVET	140	28,1	36	44,5	172	26,9	53	42,6
University/University of Technology	303	60,8	32	39,5	400	62,6	49	39,4
Other College	55	11,1	13	16,1	67	10,5	22	17,9
Total	**499**	**100,0**	**81**	**100,0**	**638**	**100,0**	**124**	**100,0**

Source: GHS 2009, GHS 2014

Table 2.3.3: Student enrolments by type of PSET, sex and age.

	Male								Female							
	18 - 24		25 - 34		35 - 44		45+		18 - 24		25 - 34		35 - 44		45+	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Type of PSET	2009															
TVET	58	20,2	21	17,6	3	5,5	5	19,3	68	19,5	26	21,7	8	9,8	3	8,2
University/ University of Technology	190	65,8	86	71,2	51	82,5	20	73,2	228	65,2	72	60,4	65	80,2	29	76,5
Other College	40	14,0	13	11,2	7	12,0	2	7,5	54	15,3	21	18,0	8	10,0	6	15,3
Total	288	100,0	121	100,0	62	100,0	27	100,0	350	100,0	119	100,0	81	100,0	38	100,0
	2014															
TVET	119	35,5	42	30,8	8	11,8	3	12,9	153	34,5	48	26,3	16	19,7	5	17,7
University/ University of Technology	181	54,2	83	60,8	48	75,4	20	81,3	255	57,5	112	61,4	55	69,8	23	76,1
Other College	35	10,3	12	8,5	8	12,8	1	5,8	36	8,0	22	12,3	8	10,5	2	6,3
Total	335	100,0	137	100,0	63	100,0	25	100,0	444	100,0	183	100,0	79	100,0	30	100,0

Source: GHS 2009, GHS 2014

Table 2.3.4: Student enrolment by type of PSET, sex and population group

	Male								Female							
	African/Black		White		Indian/Asian		Coloured		African/Black		White		Indian/Asian		Coloured	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Type of PSET	2009															
TVET	73	21,2	10	11,4	4	10,1	3	8,8	87	21,1	9	7,8	1	4,7	13	26,3
University/University of Technology	213	61,7	73	80,4	34	82,1	29	79,4	255	62,0	93	79,0	23	78,3	27	54,5
Other College	59	17,1	7	8,2	3	7,8	4	11,8	69	16,9	15	13,2	5	17,1	10	19,2
Total	345	100,0	91	100,0	42	100,0	36	100,0	411	100,0	117	100,0	29	100,0	50	100,0
	2014															
TVET	149	35,9	12	11,3	4	20,1	11	30,7	198	35,7	7	5,8	4	9,6	16	32,9
University/University of Technology	213	51,5	87	80,5	15	72,6	19	53,4	284	51,2	107	87,5	31	81,9	27	55,4
Other College	52	12,6	9	8,2	2	7,3	6	15,9	72	13,0	8	6,7	3	8,5	6	11,7
Total	413	100,0	109	100,0	21	100,0	36	100,0	555	100,0	123	100,0	37	100,0	48	100,0

Source: GHS 2009, GHS 2014

Table 2.3.5: Graduates by sex and age (21 and older).

Age group	Male		Female		Total	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
21-24	35	6,5	51	9,3	86	7,9
25-34	152	28,2	179	32,7	330	30,5
35-44	143	26,6	149	27,3	292	27,0
45-54	103	19,3	100	18,3	203	18,8
55+	104	19,3	68	12,4	171	15,8
Total	**537**	**100**	**547**	**100**	**1083**	**100**

Source: GHS 2013

Table 2.3.6: Enrolled of males by major fields of study and type of institution.

Field of Study	TVET		University / University of Technology		Other College		TVET		University / University of Technology		Other College	
	African/Black						White					
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Social studies/ Health sciences	4	11,2	10	12,1	1	7,3	*	0,0	11	41,8	*	0,0
Arts and education/Hospitality	2	4,4	10	12,8	1	13,0	*	0,0	1	5,0	*	0,0
Economic and management sciences	10	26,5	28	34,3	1	14,7	*	0,0	6	21,4	*	0,0
Physical and mathematical sciences / Engineering	23	57,5	26	32,3	6	65,0	4	100,0	6	22,5	*	0,0
Agriculture	*	0,0	2	2,9	0	0,0	*	0,0	2	7,0	*	0,0
Other	*	0,4	5	5,6	0	0,0	*	0,0	1	2,2	*	0,0
Total	**39**	**100,0**	**81**	**100,0**	**9**	**100,0**	**4**	**100,0**	**27**	**100,0**	*****	**0,0**
	Indian/Asian						Coloured					
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Social studies/ Health sciences	*	0,0	2	17,6	*	0,0	*	0,0	1	40,5	*	0,0
Arts and education/Hospitality	*	0,0	1	11,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0
Economic and management sciences	*	0,0	3	34,5	*	0,0	*	0,0	1	47,7	1	90,2
Physical and mathematical sciences / Engineering	*	0,0	4	36,9	*	0,0	*	100,0	*	11,7	*	0,0
Agriculture	*	0,0	0	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0
Other	*	0,0	0	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	9,8
Total	*****	**0,0**	**10**	**100,0**	*****	**0,0**	*****	**100,0**	**3**	**100,0**	**2**	**100,0**

Source: QLFS Q1 2014
Note: Figures less than 1000 are represented by (*).

Table 2.3.7: Enrolled females by major fields of study and type of institution.

Field of Study	TVET		University / University of Technology		Other College		TVET		University / University of Technology		Other College	
	African/Black						White					
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Social studies/ Health sciences	7	15,1	29	33,0	5	27,2	*	0,0	9	36,3	*	0,0
Arts and education/Hospitality	5	9,3	22	24,8	1	3,7	*	0,0	5	20,7	*	0,0
Economic and management sciences	22	44,2	19	21,8	5	27,4	*	0,0	7	27,2	1	55,1
Physical and mathematical sciences / Engineering	13	26,4	13	14,4	6	28,4	*	0,0	4	14,1	1	44,8
Agriculture	*	0,8	1	1,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	1,8	*	0,0
Other	2	4,2	4	5,0	3	13,4	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0
Total	**49**	**100,0**	**88**	**100,0**	**20**	**100,0**	*	**0,0**	**26**	**100,0**	**2**	**100,0**
	Indian/Asian						Coloured					
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Social studies/ Health sciences	*	0,0	2	35,4	*	0,0	1	33,2	2	19,9	*	21,4
Arts and education/Hospitality	*	0,0	2	37,3	*	0,0	*	0,0	4	49,5	*	22,2
Economic and management sciences	*	0,0	1	11,8	1	100,0	1	66,8	2	24,6	*	32,4
Physical and mathematical sciences / Engineering	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	5,9	*	0,0
Agriculture	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0
Other	*	0,0	1	15,5	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	0,0	*	24,0
Total	*	**0,0**	**6**	**100,0**	**1**	**100,0**	**2**	**100,0**	**8**	**100,0**	**1**	**100,0**

Source: QLFS Q1 2014
Note: Figures less than 1000 are represented by (*).

Table 2.3.8: Enrolled males by major field of study and population group.

Field of study	African/Black		White		Indian/Asian		Coloured	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Social studies/ Health sciences	245	19,6	125	17,0	22	17,1	22	14,6
Arts and education/Hospitality	197	15,7	69	9,4	19	15,4	23	15,0
Economic and management sciences	294	23,5	177	24,1	39	31,1	34	22,5
Physical and mathematical sciences / Engineering	413	33,1	286	38,8	39	30,7	53	34,6
Agriculture	14	1,1	28	3,9	1	0,8	1	0,7
Other	86	6,9	51	6,9	6	5,0	19	12,5
Total	**1248**	**100,0**	**736**	**100,0**	**126**	100,0	**152**	**100,0**

Source: QLFS Q1 2014

Table 2.3.9: Enrolled females by major field of study and population group.

Field of study	African/Black		White		Indian/Asian		Coloured	
	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%	'000	%
Social studies/ Health sciences	363	24,9	170	27,2	32	29,9	37	25,5
Arts and education/Hospitality	376	25,7	186	29,7	23	21,3	44	30,6
Economic and management sciences	383	26,2	163	26,1	33	31,3	33	22,8
Physical and mathematical sciences / Engineering	223	15,3	60	9,5	12	11,2	9	6,6
Agriculture	9	0,6	3	0,5	0	0,4	2	1,7
Other	107	7,3	44	7,0	6	5,9	18	12,8
Total	**1459**	**100,0**	**625**	**100,0**	**107**	**100,0**	**144**	**100,0**

Source: QLFS Q1 2014

Table 2.3.10: NSFAS funded: Summary of total number of students assisted.

		2010	2011	2012	2013
Sex		University			
Female	**Number**	87448	103751	116240	172511
	%	58,9	59,7	59,8	55,9
Male	**Number**	60938	70173	78258	129371
	%	41,1	40,3	40,2	41,9
Not Defined	**Number**	0	2	2	6969
	%	0,0	0,0	0,0	2,3
		TVET Colleges			
Female	**Number**	34344	66022	109698	123917
	%	55,2	57,3	58,2	50,1
Male	**Number**	27860	49289	78777	121643
	%	44,8	42,7	41,8	49,1
Not Defined	**Number**	0	1	135	1948
	%	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,8

Source: DHET 2013

Table 2.3.11: Number of Lectures by province and gender.

	Female		Male		Both	
Province	**Number**	**%**	**Number**	**%**	**Number**	**%**
Eastern Cape	571	49,6	580	50,4	**1 151**	**100,0**
Free State	299	49,4	306	50,6	**605**	**100,0**
Gauteng	984	47,2	1 102	52,8	**2 086**	**100,0**
KwaZulu-Natal	1 052	45,8	1 247	54,2	**2 299**	**100,0**
Limpopo	425	40,9	615	59,1	**1 040**	**100,0**
Mpumalanga	268	44,7	332	55,3	**600**	**100,0**
North West	288	47,2	322	52,8	**610**	**100,0**
Northern Cape	69	38,3	111	61,7	**180**	**100,0**
Western Cape	838	54,6	697	45,4	**1 535**	**100,0**
South Africa	**4 794**	**47,4**	**5 312**	**52,6**	**10 106**	**100,0**

Source: DHET 2013

Table 2.3.12: TVET enrolment by type of TVET programme, sex and province.

	NC (V)				Occupational Qualifications				Other				Report 191 (N1 to N6)				Report 550/NSC			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
Province	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
WC	6 628	10,2	6 943	9,1	3 272	53,8	4 055	46,2	1 032	11,2	322	6,0	1 900	9,9	4 098	14,8	*	-	*	-
EC	6 301	9,7	9 490	12,4	584	9,6	999	11,4	517	5,6	646	12,0	3 028	15,8	3 857	14,0	*	-	*	-
LP	10 071	15,5	12 902	16,8	78	1,3	253	2,9	159	1,7	105	2,0	552	2,9	559	2,0	1	0,1	2	0,2
MP	2 905	4,5	4 565	6,0	219	3,6	721	8,2	203	2,2	53	1,0	889	4,6	1 004	3,6	*	-	-	-
NW	4 358	6,7	5 051	6,6	226	3,7	639	7,3	1 013	11,0	656	12,2	321	1,7	600	2,2	2	0,3	13	1,3
NC	1 456	2,2	1 520	2,0	220	3,6	925	10,5	171	1,9	47	0,9	6	0,0	38	0,1	*	-	*	-
GP	18 504	28,6	13 001	17,0	267	4,4	312	3,6	3 761	40,8	2 071	38,5	10 439	54,3	13 016	47,1	267	38,7	404	40,4
FS	2 135	3,3	2 777	3,6	8	0,1	113	1,3	530	5,7	395	7,3	158	0,8	619	2,2	*	-	*	-
KZN	12 445	19,2	20 447	26,7	1 212	19,9	760	8,7	1 842	20,0	1 081	20,1	1 924	10,0	3 834	13,9	420	60,9	580	58,1
SA	64 803	100	76 696	100	6 086	100	8 777	100	9 228	100,0	5 376	100,0	19 217	100,0	27 625	100,0	690	100,0	999	100,0

Source: DHET 2013
Note: - Figures less than 1000 are represented by (*).
  - WC: Western Cape; EC: Eastern Cape; LP: Limpopo; MP: Mpumalanga; NW: North West; NC: Northern Cape; GP: Gauteng Province; FS: Free State; KZN: KwaZulu-Natal.