

GENDER PAPER

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICY INFLUENCE
TOWARDS RADICAL TRANSFORMATION OF WOMEN'S
SOCIO-ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT AND RIGHTS

POLICY DISCUSSION DOCUMENT

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1. INTRODUCTION

The advent of democracy presented the South African government with the opportunity to change the life trajectory of women and the most vulnerable members of society. Emphasis was placed on an equitable society and meeting the socio-economic rights of citizens, particularly those who had been historically excluded from participating in the mainstream of society. Women remained the majority of the population after 1994 and continue to live longer than men despite the many lifestyle challenges post 1994. The political will to positively influence the lives of all women was demonstrated through the establishment of an enabling environment to achieve gender equality.

As we move from a democratic transition towards consolidation, it is important to continue monitoring the policy space in assessing the extent to which women's empowerment and gender equality has been achieved in South Africa. The situation for women today was influenced by a multitude of socio-economic, cultural and political factors of the past, and lessons learnt will shape the future for women in achieving the kind of lives we choose to live. Thus, opportunity to influence the gender policy landscape and mould South Africa's future trajectory is embraced.

This document posits an analytical framework aimed at providing a high level approach to assessing the gains made over the past twenty years in the socio-economic empowerment of and rights for women and the challenges that persist, and defines what policy influences are needed to move the women's agenda forward.

A reflection on the journey since the advent of democracy is critical in the face of an internationally renowned and progressive legislative framework to improve the lives of women and girls in the country and address their socio-economic exclusion. The lessons learnt and the barriers identified indicate that the challenges need to be overcome by doing things differently and by conceptualising these challenges differently. Given the political impetus towards a radical socio-economic transformation by the fifth democratic administration, doing things differently to accelerate women's socio-economic advancement would mean that radical measures are needed. Hence influencing policy decisions is not sufficient in and by themselves – what is needed are policy proposals that are extraordinary, astonishing and beyond the realms of 'business as usual'. A gender-based analysis of policies and policy gaps, programmes and interventions will thus assist in this process, as it questions the assumptions made by gender-blind and gender-neutral policies that both men and women can be treated in the same way as they are affected equally by these interventions.

2. PROGRESS IN CONTEXT

The progress made by South Africa in women's empowerment and gender equality, despite the several challenges that we still encounter, is globally comparable, and in some instances the advances we have made are making us global leaders in the sector. The World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development, published by the World Bank, highlights that the lives of women around the world have improved dramatically, at a pace and scope difficult to imagine even 20 twenty years ago. Women have made unprecedented gains in rights, education, health, and access to jobs and livelihoods. More countries than ever guarantee equal rights in property, marriage and other domains. Gender gaps in primary schooling have closed in many countries; while in a third of all countries girls now outnumber boys in secondary school. More young women than men attend universities in 60 countries. Women are using their education to participate more in the labour force: they now make up for 40% of the global labour force and 43% of its farmers. Moreover, women now live longer than men in every single region of the world.

Despite the progress at the global level, gaps remain in many areas, showing similarities with the situation in South Africa. The World Bank Report 2012 indicates that in some areas progress towards gender equality has been limited: girls and women who are poor, live in remote areas, are disabled, or belong to minority groups continue to lag behind. Women still fall behind in earnings and productivity, and in the strength of their voices in society. Women are more likely to die – relative to males – in many low- and middle-income countries than their counterparts in rich countries – especially in childhood and during their reproductive years. Primary and secondary schooling enrollments for girls remain much lower than for boys in many Sub-Saharan African countries and some parts of South Asia, as well as among disadvantaged populations. Women are more likely than men to work as unpaid family labourers or in the informal sector; to farm smaller plots and grow less profitable crops; operate in smaller firms and less profitable sectors; and generally earn less. Women – especially poor women – have less say over decisions and less control over household resources. In most countries, fewer women participate in formal politics than men and are underrepresented in the upper echelons of power.

3. UNDERSTANDING WHAT WE MEAN BY GENDER EQUALITY

Gender refers to the social, behavioural and cultural attributes and expectations, and norms associated with being a woman or a man. Gender equality refers to how these aspects determine how women and men relate to each other and to the resulting differences in power between them. There are three key dimensions of gender equality identified:

- the accumulation of endowments (health, education, and physical assets);
- the use of these endowments to take up economic opportunities and generate incomes; and
- the application of those endowments to take action, or agency, affecting individual, household and family well-being.

These are aspects of equality where shortfalls of choice are reflected in shortfalls of welfare. They matter in and of themselves. But they are also closely interlinked.

Gender inequality is both similar to and different from inequality based on other attributes such as race or ethnicity. Three differences are of particular relevance to the analysis of gender equality:

- The welfare of women and men living in the same household and / or family is difficult to measure separately, which is compounded by the paucity of data on outcomes in the household / family.
- Preferences, needs and constraints can differ systematically between women and men, reflecting both biological factors and “learned” social behaviours.
- Gender cuts across distinctions of income and class.

Hence the important point to bear in mind is should gender equality be measured as equality of opportunities or equality of outcomes?:

- Where if it was a case of equality of opportunities it would allow one to distinguish between inequalities that arise from circumstances beyond the control of individuals and those that stem from differences in preferences and choices.
- Where if it was a case of equality of outcomes then differences in preferences and attitudes are largely ‘learned’ and not inherent – that is they are the result of culture and environment that lead men and women to internalize social norms and expectations. Persistent differences in power and status between men and women can become internalized in aspirations, behaviours and preferences that perpetuate inequalities.

It is thus difficult to define equality of opportunity without also considering how actual outcomes are distributed. Only by attempting to equalize outcomes can one break the vicious cycle of low aspirations and low opportunity. It is therefore difficult in practice to measure opportunities separately from outcomes as they are both tightly interlinked. However what is critical is that gross manifestations of gender inequality have to be eliminated.

4. UNDERPINNINGS OF THIS PAPER

Women have reason to seek not just happiness but also knowledge, understanding and empowerment, and can therefore hardly ignore their own history. The intellectual contributions of women and social movements have shaped thinking about development. In South Africa, there is a rich history of the women’s struggles chronicled from way back in the early 1900’s. Milestones such as the Women’s Charter of 1954, the 1956 historic Women’s March to the bastion of apartheid, and the 1994 Women’s Charter for Effective Equality lend credence to the role women have played and continue to play in development issues in the country. The social movements included strong women’s movements such as the ANC Women’s League, South African Women in Dialogue (SAWID) and the Progressive Women’s Movement of South Africa (PWMSA).

There are four ways women's ideas have had an impact on development and advancement of women:

- They have altered how issues are perceived and identified agendas for action
- They have prodded thinking and defining interests in relation to gender issues
- They have created new prospects for forming coalitions of political and institutional forces to achieve change
- They have become embedded in institutions to carry these issues forward.

A particular difficulty comes from attempting to understand what are "women's issues" and the changing context and dynamics in a deeply unequal world that we live in. Previously women's movements may have been primarily concerned with working toward achieving better treatment for women. The focus was mainly on women's well-being, and since that was a greatly neglected subject, it was indeed a good corrective. However over the years the aims and objectives of the women's movement have gradually evolved and broadened from a "welfarist" approach to incorporate a fuller understanding of the active role of women's agency. No longer treated as passive recipients of welfare-enhancing assistance, women are increasingly seen – by men as well as women – as active agents of change and as dynamic promoters of social transformation that can alter the lives of both women and men. When Queen Victoria complained about the 'mad, wicked folly of "woman's rights"', she might have really underestimated the power of the "wicked folly". The role and extensive reach of women's agency has had a profound impact all over the world, affecting the lives of all: women, girls, men and boys.

Women also face the dilemma of how to proceed most effectively – would separate space enable them to achieve their goals or would it produce a marginalized 'ghetto'? Conversely should they enter the mainstream or would that dilute their momentum? These are key concepts that the women's sector in South Africa must grapple with now. How do we arrive at that middle ground that is still able to deliver for women, putting them into the mainstream as equal citizens, yet still providing them the leverage for continuation of their own agency? Additionally the paper raises the issue that the women's sector must also begin to address that "result" of their struggles that they did not desire or wish for – a "not this, definitely not this" moment. Some of this could even be called "unintended consequences". Together with this must ensue a discussion on the backlash to women's empowerment and gender equality.

Women also show that the division between the private and the public space is artificial or that economic and social security cannot be divided – hence a socio-economic transformation is critical for women's development – one which address gross inequalities and patriarchal practices in the private space as part and parcel of the solutions to be found with the public spaces. E.g. Domestic Violence; issues of household decision-making such as early and forced marriages, ukuthwala and the persistence of female genital mutilation and practices of "virginity"/chasteness, etc.

This paper seeks to ensure that the creation and dissemination of knowledge continues to be the way women work with each other. Women's questioning of the knowledge base should be our contribution to eliciting the change we want to see. We need to confront hard-core theorems of epistemology and classificatory systems and address the hierarchies embedded within them with an attitude of "not this, not this" but rather "that". We must continue to challenge the dichotomies of development and rights, public and private, theory and practice, women's rights and human rights, home and workplace. Our collective voices of those who work in communities and those who challenge the academy are greatly significant for us to eradicate inequality at the center of all spaces.

One of the most critical concepts we must grapple with is what kind of ideology that must be constructed that would encompass the seemingly opposed concepts that women are both different from and equal to men and how must this ideology effectively unfold at the implementation level to ensure that we move women's development, women's rights, equality of opportunities and equality of outcomes for women forward.

What is also important is that there is a critical acceptance of moving away from perceiving women as recipients of welfare and being consumers of the national income to one where women are seen as economic contributors. Hence it is important to include women in the process of planning and making decisions of how development should unfold. The development of women must be based on their roles as producers and not necessarily as consumers or home managers. This concept of "producer" incorporates women's roles as unpaid care givers, as mothers, as home makers, as subsistence providers, etc.

This paper therefore makes the conjecture that the crux of the socio-economic transformation of women lies indeed in the economic position of women, her right to own or hold or inherit or acquire property; carry on any trade, profession or vocation; or accepts any remunerative employment. So long as this fundamental right is not fully conceded, and actually realized in daily life, all talk of relief, remedy or reform will just be hot wind. The discussion must center on what constitutes women’s work – the roles and responsibilities allotted to women and even those claimed by women themselves – much of which remains invisible.

5. HOW DOES SA FARE?



The Census 2011 data indicates that the South African population is predominantly female. Women constitute 51.3% (i.e. 26 581 769) of the population while men constitute 48.7% (i.e. 25 188 791). Of the total population of 51 770 560, children (0-18 years) make up 36.8% and people with disabilities constitute 10.3%. Older persons comprise less than 8% of the country’s population, but this group is growing rapidly¹.

¹ Statistics SA: December 2011, Social Profile of Vulnerable Groups in South Africa 2002-2010

How old is the population...



The Census Survey 2011 shows that more people in South Africa are living in urban areas than in rural areas.



Of the total population in the country, more women can be found in urban areas (i.e. 62.5%) as compared to 37.5% in rural areas. However, men outnumber women in urban areas while there are more women than men in rural areas. This can be attributed to migratory labour patterns in the country.

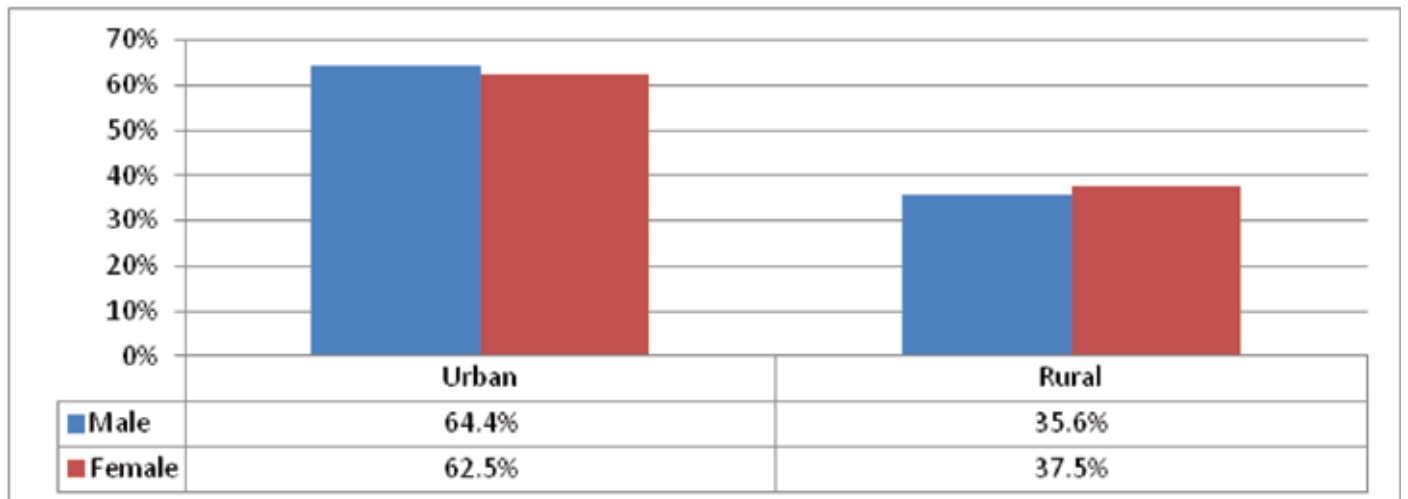
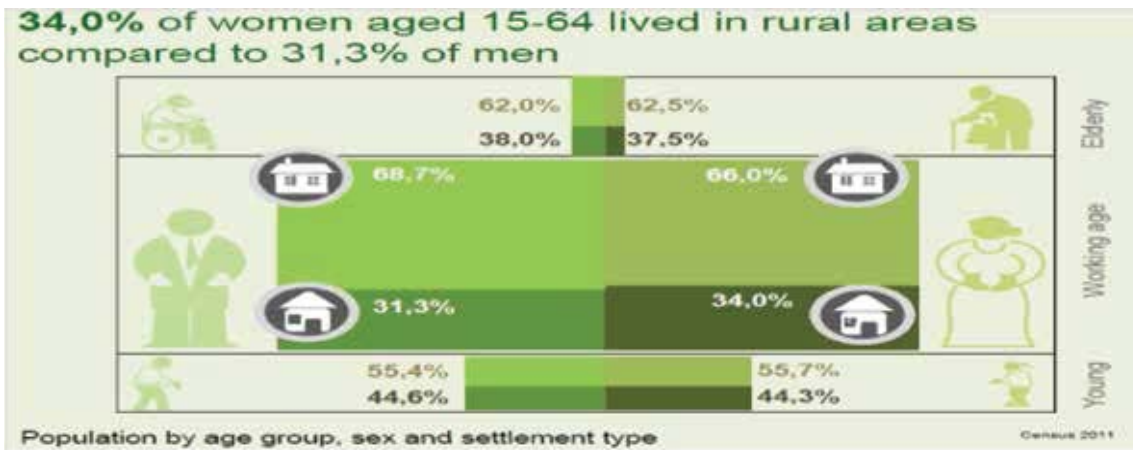
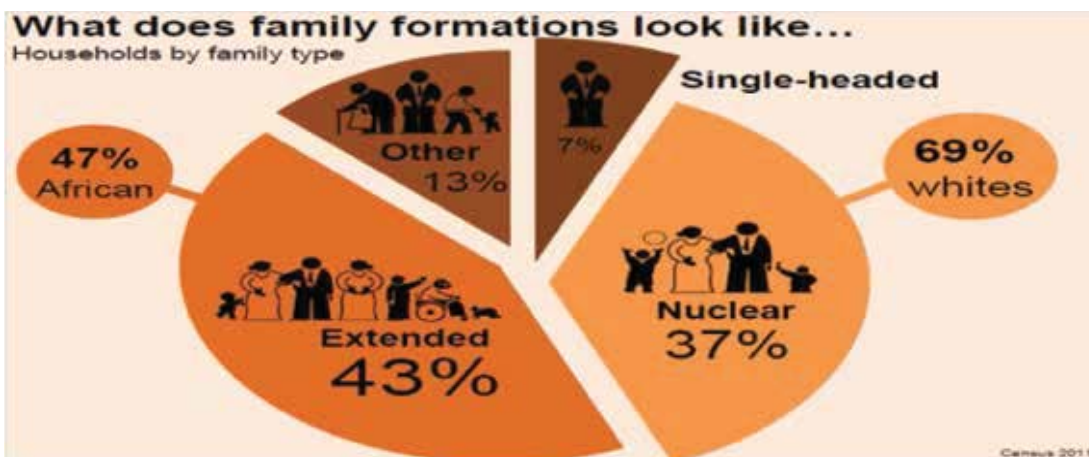


Fig 1: Geographic distribution of males and females, 2011: Source: Stats SA.2012. Census 2011 statistician release P0304.1

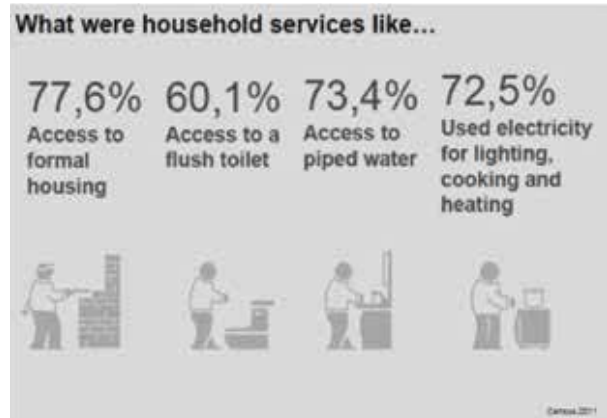


According to Census 2011, 41.2% of households were headed by females in the country. The percentage of female heads of households increased with age, peaking at 60.2% for heads aged 70 years and older. In the 18-34 year age group, there were 34.4% households headed by women, while in the 35-59 year age group there were 40.2% women heading households. At the 60-69 year age group, 47.7% households were headed by women, increasing to 60.2% at the 70+ year age group.



Female headed households generally contain more dependents and have a larger average household size than male headed households in South Africa. Approximately 10% of female headed households are skip-generation households (where grandparents, especially grandmothers care for orphaned or grandchildren from absent parents), compared to 3.2% of male headed households². The percentage of skip generation households is even larger among older persons (15.1%). Census 2011 also found that extended families comprised 31.8% of female headed households compared to 18.4% of households headed by males. Women headed households in general tend to be predominantly responsible for the care of children.

Where childcare is not available outside the family, it is usually the female members of the household who are responsible for this task

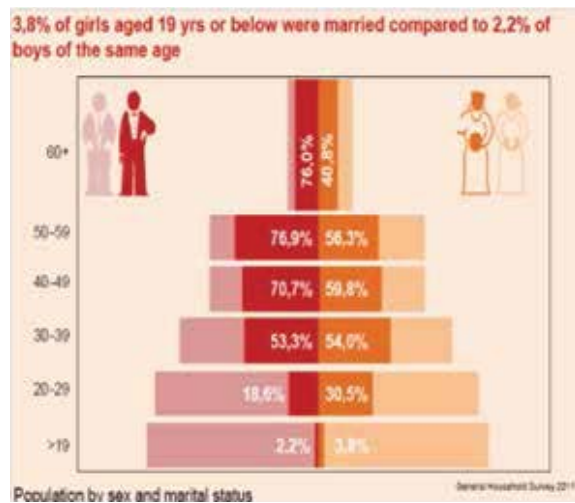


Poverty patterns in South Africa continue to be gendered. Female-headed households are consistently more likely to be poor, more likely to have low incomes, more likely to be dependent on social grants, and less likely to have employed members. More than half (51.4%) of female-headed households are poor compared to 29.5% of male-headed households. 44.3% of female-headed households were without a single employed member compared to 23.5% of male-headed households. Child-inclusive female-headed households are much more likely to experience hunger and food insecurity than other households.

The Living Conditions Survey (LCS) 2008/9 found that female-headed households, at the food poverty line (R305 per capita per month in 2009 prices) were almost twice as likely to be poor (22,7% were below the poverty line) than male-headed households (where 11,9% were below the poverty line). At the upper level (R577 per capita in 2009 prices), 49.9% of households headed by women were found to be poor, compared to 30.4% of male-headed households³. As a result of their longer life-expectancy, elderly females are much less likely to be (still) married than younger females, leaving them vulnerable to poverty and food insecurity, quite often compounded by being primary care-givers to grandchildren.

Differences in patterns for women and men can be explained by...

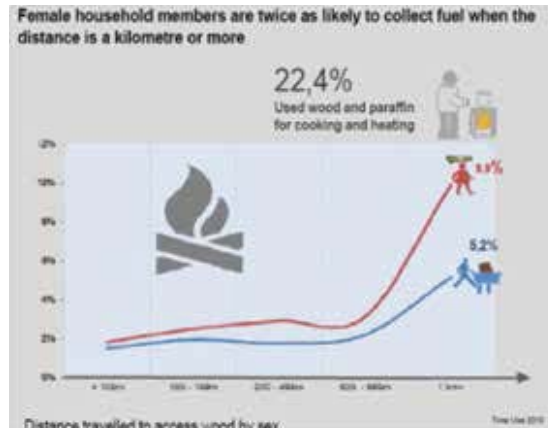
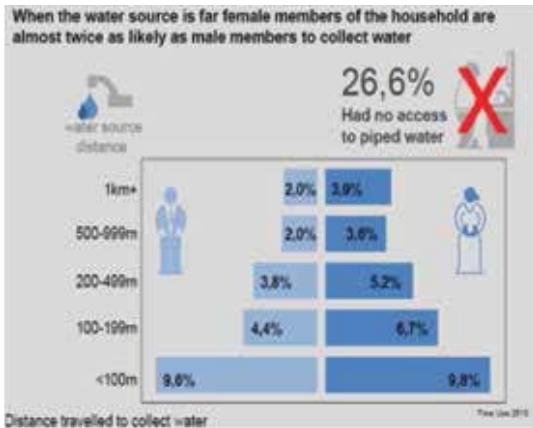
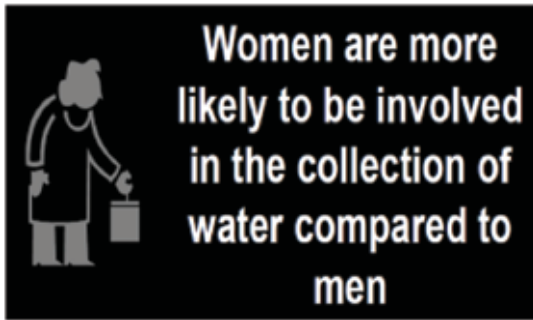
- Different ages at marriage, men marry younger partners
- Differences in longevity



Women’s living conditions and quality of life are directly affected by the basic services their households receive. In addition to being responsible for securing basic needs (such as fetching water and fire-wood), women are often primary care-givers to more than just their own offspring in families. This role is compounded by increasing numbers of child orphans and the HIV and AIDS pandemic. The persistent lack of access to basic services increases these poor households’ vulnerability to disease. Larger percentages of household income is often spent on increasingly less diverse and less nutritious sources of food, which does not promote the health situation in female-headed households (Altman et al 2009)⁴.

3 Statistics SA, 2013: Men, Women and Children: Findings of the Living Conditions Survey 2008/9. Pretoria

4 Statistics SA: December 2011, Social Profile of Vulnerable Groups in South Africa 2002-2010: page 62



6. OVERVIEW OF ACHIEVEMENTS

Great strides have been made in women’s emancipation in South Africa by guaranteeing rights and access to services. There are major shifts in the status and conditions of women and that to some degree there is a narrowing of the gender gap, while there is the widening of the inequality gap in general between the haves and have-nots. There is a particular highlight with regard to de jure equality or equality in the eyes of the law, where law reform has seen to the removal of various discriminatory laws and enactment of laws that foster an enabling environment for the advancement of women and the achievement of gender equality. With regard to de facto equality, significant progress has been made but there is still much to be done especially with the full and effective implementation of laws, policies and strategies.

Significant change is particularly noted in areas such as legal status, attitudes, women’s involvement in decision-making, especially at the political level, in employment, education, ownership of homes and businesses, the justice system, and economic participation. However the pace of change appears to be rather slow, and trends indicate a very gradual achievement towards real non-sexism and substantive gender equality.

6.1 LEGISLATIVE AND POLICY ENVIRONMENT

Some of the formal sector specific laws and reforms cover the following issues: (i) criminal justice on violence to address public and private gender violence, including against marginalized sectors such as the lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex community, and against trafficking in women and girls; (ii) customary marriages; (iii) succession under customary law; (iv) employment and conditions of service including entrepreneurship, small business development, cooperative formations as well as informal trading and equity in access to government procurements and tenders; (v) housing, access to land and ownership, including farms and enabling emerging farmers; (vi) access to finance; (vii) traditional, religious and cultural leadership and practices; (viii) education; (ix) access to credit and business support; (x) social security; (xi) local governance; (xii) health and health care services including sexual and reproductive health and rights and HIV and AIDs prevention, treatment, care and support; and (xiii) job creation and related poverty alleviation measures.

The law prohibits gender and related forms of discrimination. Avenues such as the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC); the Commission for Gender Equality (CGE); Equality Courts; the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA); the Office of the Public Protector; Sexual Offences Courts; Family Courts; Land Commission; and the Land Claims Courts are available for challenging discrimination and obtaining recourse.

One of the key successes on women empowerment and gender equality has been the creation of an enabling environment through favourable laws, policies and encouraging informal policy pronouncements. One of the key policy instruments in this regard is the National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality (2000) adopted by the South African Government. This Gender Policy Framework sets the tone in the country for gender mainstreaming across all sectors of society while at the same adopting an approach for women's empowerment and gender equality. It furthermore outlines a National Gender Machinery (NGM) to support gender transformation as well as priorities and structural arrangements towards women's empowerment and gender equality in the country. The NGM WAS established following the adoption of the National Gender Policy Framework of 2000 AND was regarded as an international best practice. The NGM operated at its peak between the years 2003-2005, but its effectiveness gradually waned over the years.

6.2 WOMEN IN POLITICAL AND DECISION-MAKING POSITIONS

Since the democratic elections in 1994, South Africa has seen a number of women taking up leadership positions in areas previously dominated by men. One of the success stories of our democracy is that of the representation of women in political and decision-making positions. Involving women in governance processes constitutes one of South Africa's globally acclaimed success stories. The election of Dr Nkosazana Dlamini-Zuma in July 2012 as the first women in Africa to chair the African Union Commission; the appointment of Dr. Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka, former Deputy President of the country, as the Under-Secretary-General and Executive Director of UN Women; and the positioning of other South African women such as Ms. Geraldine Frazer-Moleketi, Special Gender Envoy to the African Development Bank; Ms Rashida Manjoo, Special Rapporteur on Violence against women, its causes and consequences; and Judge Navi Pillay as the former High Commissioner for Human Rights and formerly as a judge in the International Criminal Court (ICC) is an indication of the impact that women in decision-making have in winning the trust and confidence of citizens in South Africa, on the continent and internationally.

South Africa is also proud of the strides it has made in the representation of women ministers in Cabinet. As at June 2014, women ministers comprise 43% of the Cabinet, and women deputy ministers make up 45.9% of the total number of deputy ministers. There is a 41% representation of women in the National Assembly.

Prior to 1994, South Africa had only one woman (White) Judge, whilst today women judges make up almost 36% of the Judiciary. Women are making inroads into business leadership and heading up global giants in the country. Women own conglomerates in the country with some business women being millionaires. Women also can be found as Chairpersons of corporate boards in the country, while others are entering and leading in previously male dominated territories, for example, the head of the Paleaontology Department in the University of Cape Town is a woman, and the South African Airways (SAA) now has women pilots, some flying international bound flights. Women are in the defence force, navy and air force in South Africa. In fact women make up almost 40% of the Senior Management Service in the public service and overall women comprise more than 50% of employees in the Public Service.

Women in Cabinet

There has been a steady growth in the representation of women at Cabinet level since the first democratic elections held in 1994. South Africa reached the target of 30% representation of women in political decision-making positions in line with the SADC target in 2003. In 2005 South Africa adopted the 50% gender parity principle in line with the AU Commission target, and in 2008 with the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development. The representation of women in Cabinet level following the 2014 general election stands at approximately 43%.

The table below highlights the trends in the pattern of representation of women Cabinet Ministers from 1994 to 2014

Women Cabinet Ministers from 1994 to 2014

	1994	1996	2003	2004	2009	2014
No. of Women Ministers	3	4	9	12	14	15
No. of Male Ministers	24	21	18	16	20	20
Total No. of Ministers in Cabinet	27	25	27	28	34	35
% representation of Women Ministers	11%	16%	33.3%	42.8%	41%	42.85%

Women Deputy Ministers

The representation of women Deputy Ministers currently is 45.9%. The table 5 below highlights the trends in the pattern of representation of women Deputy Ministers from 1994 to 2014.

Women Deputy Ministers from 1994 to 2014

	1994	1996	2003	2004	2009	2014
No. of Women Deputy Ministers	3	8	8	10	11	17
No. of Male Deputy Ministers	9	5	8	10	17	20
Total No. of Deputy Ministers in Cabinet	12	13	16	20	28	37
% representation of Women Deputy Ministers	25%	62%	50%	50%	39%	45.9%

It is also important to note that following the 2014 elections, the country has seen increase in appointment of persons with disabilities in Cabinet, with Ministers at 2, 8% and Deputy Ministers at 5, 4%. This has exceeded the 2% employment of people with disabilities that government set itself.

Women in Parliament

The table below indicates the representation of women members of parliament and provincial legislature over the five elective periods 1994-2014.

	1994	1999	2004	2009	2014
% women in Parliament	27.8%	30%	32.8%	43.3%	41%
% women in Provincial Legislature	23.5%	27.7%	31.7%	41.5%	37%

Women in Local Government Level

The Local Government level is showing steady progress in the representation of women. Following the 2011 Local Government Elections, the representation of females on Local Government Councils is at 38.4% compared to 28.2% in 2000. The table below indicates the trends in the representation of women members of local government councils per major local government elections

Women members of local government councils 2000-2011

	2000	2009	2011
	%	%	%
Proportional representation	38%	42.4%	43.3%
Ward	17%	36.6%	32.9%
Overall	28.2%	39.7%	38.4%

According to the South African Local Government Association (SALGA), the number of women councillors increased from 29% to 42% between 1994 and 2006 due to its 50/50 campaign that contributed significantly to this increase. As the country continues to advocate for equity, women in local government levels have organised themselves and have formed the SALGA Women's Commission.

The table below summarizes gender and local government election results over four municipal elections.

Gender and local government election results 1995-2011

Year	% Women ward	% women PR	% women overall
1995	11	28	19
2000	17	38	29
2006	37	42	40
2011	33	43	38

Source: Gender Links 2011

Table above highlights the steady progress made over the first three local government elections, with women’s representation increasing from 19% in 1995 to 29% in 2000. Following the adoption by the ANC of the 50/50 quota at a party level in 2006, this figure rose dramatically to 40% in the 2005 Local Government Elections. There is however a slight decline in the representation of women in ward seats to 33% in 2011, as well as a corresponding overall 2 percentage point decline of women representation.

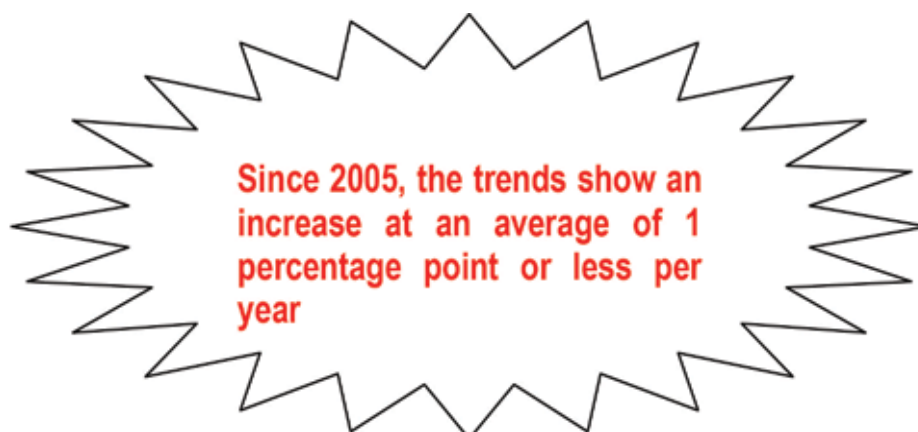
Representation of Women in Senior Management Service in the Public Service

The Public Service comprises a Senior Management Service (SMS) which is made up of four categories ranging from levels 13 at the entry level to SMS i.e. Director; to level 16, at the topmost level i.e. Directors-General or Heads of Departments, also commonly known as Accounting Officers. The data provided is obtained from the Persal System of Government

Currently there is 49% representation of women in Senior Management Service in the Public Service. The table below indicates trends in representation of women within management positions in government from 2005 to date, with an average of approximately 1 percentage point increase annually.

Trends in the percentage representation of women in Senior Management Service in Government: 2005-2014

YEARS	PERCENTAGE REPRESENTATION OF WOMEN IN SMS LEVELS
December 2005	30%
December 2008	34.3%
March 2009	34.8%
March 2010	36%
March 2011	37%
March 2012	38.1%
March 2014	39.8%
June 2014	40%



The table below indicates the representation in actual numbers and percentage of women in senior management by race and gender as at June 2014. African females make up 28.91% of the total SMS membership.

Race	Gender		Total	% women per population group	% women per total SMS members
	Female	Male			
African	2728	3980	6708	40.66%	28.91%
Asian	240	348	588	40.81%	2.54%
Coloured	293	493	786	37.27%	3.10%
White	520	832	1352	38.46%	5.51%
Total	3781	5653	9434		40.07%

Representation of SMS levels by gender as at June 2014

Salary Level	No of women	No of Males	Total No	% of women
13	2722	3915	6637	41.01%
14	792	1252	2044	38.74%
15	226	377	603	37.48%
16	41	109	150	27.33%
Grand Total	3781	5653	9434	40.07%

The figures in the table above indicate that women in the senior management service of government tend to be aggregated at the entry level of management (i.e. level 13) at 41.01%, and tapers, in line with the typical global trends and patterns, towards the more senior decision-making positions in the public service (i.e. level 16) at 27.33%. This level represents where Directors-Generals and Heads of Departments are located.



Female DGs in the following National Departments

- HEALTH
- JUSTICE & CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT
- ENVIRONMENTAL AFFAIRS
- WOMEN
- ENERGY
- SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE
- COMMUNICATION
- ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT
- AGRICULTURE, FORESTRY AND FISHERIES
- NATIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Out of the 9 434 SMS positions filled as at June 2014, 3 781 (40.07%) were filled by women and 5 653 (59.93%) were filled by men. The table below indicates that of the total number of African females at the senior management level (i.e. 2728 or 28.91%), majority of them (i.e. 1969 or 72.18%) are located within the entry level of the management levels (i.e. level 13), while only 33 (i.e. 3.85%) out of the total of 2728 are at the top-most level of management.

Level	Male				Female				Male Total	Female Total	Total
	White	Asian	Coloured	African	White	Asian	Coloured	African			
13	597	221	319	2778	379	174	200	1969	3,915	2,722	6,6037
14	155	90	130	877	106	49	68	569	1,252	792	2,044
15	64	31	37	245	31	17	21	157	377	226	603
16	16	6	7	80	4	0	4	33	109	41	150
Grand-Total	832	348	490	3980	520	240	293	2728	5,653	3,781	9,434
Percentage									59.93%	40.07%	100%

Representation by Gender and Disability at SMS for 2012/13

Table : Representation by Race and Gender at SMS level					
Race	Gender				Total
	Female		Male		
	Av no	%	Av no	%	
African	1387	26.91	1950.33	37.84	3337.33
Asian	55.33	1.07	86	1.67	141.33
Coloured	168	3.26	287	5.57	455
White	508	9.86	712	13.82	1220
Total	2118.33	41.1	3035.67	58.9	5154

DPSA: PERSAL

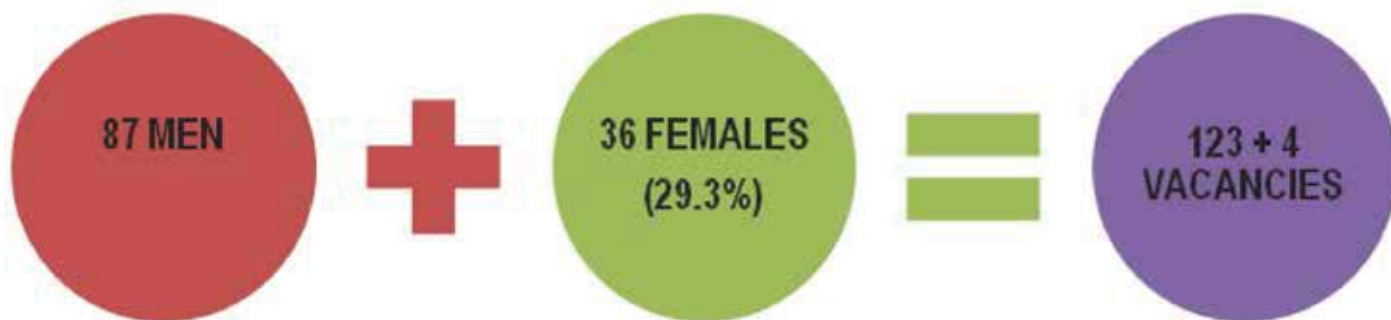
Table showing representation of women at SMS levels per Province and gender as at July 2014

Province	Gender		Total	%	Ranking
	Female	Male			
Eastern Cape	260	416	676	38.4%	5
Free State	107	232	339	32%	10
Gauteng	327	412	740	44.1%	1
Kwa-Zulu Natal	225	341	566	39.7%	3
Limpopo	195	303	498	39.1%	4
Mpumalanga	120	204	324	37%	6
National Departments	2205	3117	5322	41.4%	2
North West	113	213	326	34.6%	8
Northern Cape	89	170	259	34.3%	9
Western Cape	140	244	384	36.4%	7
Grand-Total	3781	5653	9,434	100.00%	

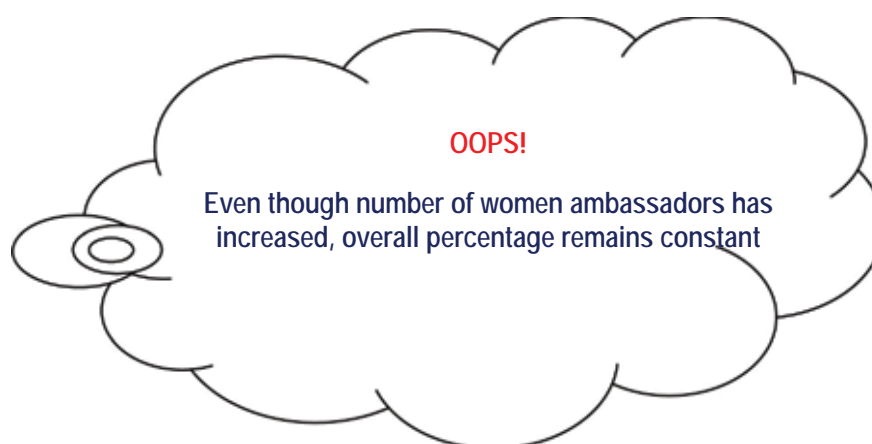
The scenario is very similar at the provincial level in respect to the representation of women at senior management levels. The table above indicates that Gauteng is the best performing province with respect to the representation of women at the SMS levels, at 44.1% representation, which is also higher than the national departments together which stand at 41.4% representation of women at SMS levels. Given that the total representation of women at SMS levels in the country is 40.07%, only Gauteng and the national departments as a whole are performing above this. The worst performing provinces with respect to representation of women in management levels in Government are the Northern Cape Province at 34.3% and North West Province at 34.6%.

Representation of Women in the Foreign Service

Diplomatic appointments of women have equally increased dramatically. In 2001, only 8 women, constituting 17.4% of the total number, were serving as Heads of Missions abroad. This number increased to 24.2% in 2005. In 2008, women accounted for 26% of appointed Ambassadors, High Commissioners and Consul-Generals, increasing to 29.13% in August 2012 to 29.3% in 2013.



AMBASSADORS AND HIGH COMMISSIONERS					
	Male	Female	Vacant	TOTAL	% of women
August 2012	73	30	10	113	29.13
April 2013	87	36	4	127	29.3



Representation of women in the Judiciary

Women were first allowed to enter legal practice in South Africa in 1923. From then, it took seventy years before the country saw the first woman judge (a white woman) who was appointed to the judiciary in 1993. The first black woman judge joined the judiciary in 1994 following the end of apartheid.

Since then, the entry of women into the judiciary has been somewhat accelerated. In 2005, women comprised 28 (i.e. 13.52%) of the 207 judges in the country, one of whom was a Deputy Judge President. By 2008, the number of women judges had risen to 30% of the total number of judges in the country, increasing to approximately 36% in 2014.

In order to assist the judiciary to address gender transformation, the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development facilitated the establishment and launch of the South African Chapter of the International Association of Women Judges (IAWJ). The IAWJ was launched on 8 August 2004. Members of the IAWJ are magistrates and judges. The idea behind the establishment of SAC- IAWJ is to cooperate with the association in order to evaluate progress made in the transformation of the South African Judiciary with a view to equalising opportunities between women and men. Advocates and attorneys in private practice are eligible to join the organisation as Friends of the Chapter. The membership (members in good standing) of the Chapter stood increased from one hundred and thirty four (134) as at 8 August 2011 to 143 as on 15 July 2013. The aims of SAC-IAWJ is empowerment of women judicial officers through continued judicial education, skills development and mentoring programs in order to pursue the ideal of justice and the rule of law, and also to contribute to the empowerment of women in general.

There has been significant progress over the years; however much more needs to be done to increase the number of women in the judiciary. Special attention is required to create opportunities at all level of the judiciary including the Supreme Court of Appeal and the Constitutional Court. There is a need to identify emerging trends in the annual intake of women and men into the judiciary and their promotion in both the lower and higher courts, looking at all levels from prospective magistrate and acting judges to Judges Presidents in order to determine implications and extent of compliance with s174 (2) of the Constitution.

Table showing Permanent Judges as 30 June 2014

COURT	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Constitutional Court	8	2	10
Supreme Court of Appeal	18	7	25
Northern Cape Division	3	3	6
Eastern Cape Division	8	2	10
Eastern Cape Local Division	3	4	7
Eastern Cape Local Division	1	2	3
Eastern Cape Local Division	4	3	7
Western Cape Division	19	11	30
North West Division	3	3	6
Free State Division	8	5	13
Gauteng Division	35	15	50
Gauteng Local Division	23		33
Gauteng PTA (Limpopo Local)	1	0	1
Gauteng PTA (Limpopo Division)	0	0	0
Gauteng PTA (Mpumalanga Division)	0	0	0
Kwa Zulu Natal Division	13	4	17
Kwa Zulu Natal Local Division	7	6	13
Labour Court	8	3	11
Labour Appeal Court	0	0	0
Competition Appeal Court	1		1

At present there are approximately 40% women magistrates in South Africa, with most of them located as Regional Court Presidents (i.e. 50%). Overall women magistrates exceed the 30% mark in all categories of the Magistracy.

Post Class	African		Coloured		Indian		White		Total	%
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female		
Regional Court President	3	1		1				1	6	50%
Regional Magistrate	74	42	13	8	8	17	109	36	307	33.55%
Chief Magistrate	6	3	1	1	1	2	3	2	19	42.11%
Senior Magistrate	41	9	2	2	1	3	22	18	98	32.65%
Magistrate	317	211	61	42	52	67	334	190	1274	40.03%
Grand Total	441	266	77	64	62	89	468	247	1704	39.08%

Table showing representation of Magistrates according to gender as at October 2013

Post Class	Total Males	Total Females	Total
Regional Court President	5	4	9
Regional Magistrate	212	112	324
Chief Magistrate	9	9	18
Senior Magistrate	70	40	110
Magistrate	742	508	1250
Percentages	61	39	100
Grand Total	1038	673	1711

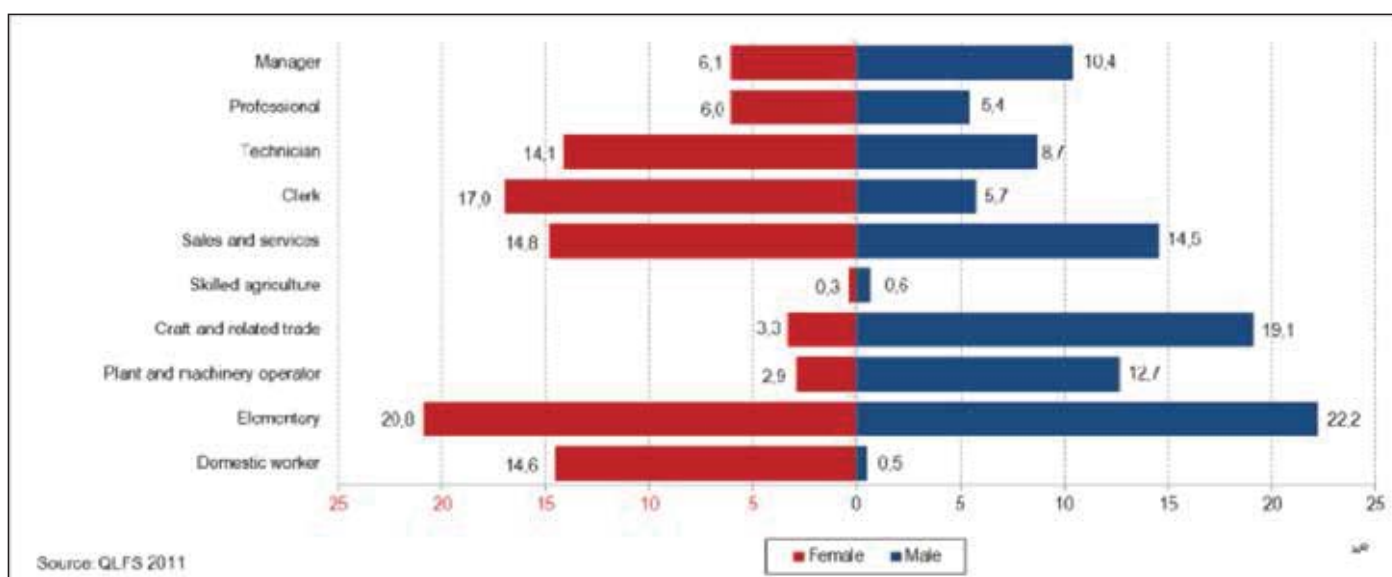
Representation of Women in the Private sector

The representation of women in decision-making positions such as corporate boards and as Chairpersons of Boards or CEOs of corporate companies in South Africa is obtained from the South African Women in Leadership Census conducted annually since 2004 by the Businesswomen’s Association (BWA). The most recent statistics that is available is that of the 8th Women in Leadership Census Survey, undertaken in 2013 and released in 2013 which provides a comprehensive analysis of women on boards, and in executive management of companies in the private sector in South Africa., especially Johannesburg Stock Exchange listed companies.

Women in Corporate Position: 2008- 2012

Representation of Women in Corporate Positions	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Chief Executive Officers / Managing Directors	3.9%	3.6%	4.5%	4.4%	3.6
Chairpersons	3.9%	5.8%	6.0%	5.3%	5.5
Directorships	14.3%	14.6%	16.6%	15.8%	17.1
Executive Managers	25.3%	18.6%	19.3%	21.6%	21.4

The Gender Statistics in South Africa, 2011 Report released in 2013 by Statistics South Africa highlights that the percentage distribution of women aged 15-64 years by occupational category indicates that 6% of women are in the professional category as compared to 5.4% males but 6.1% females are in the managerial category as compared to 10.4% males, suggesting that men are more likely to be decision-makers in their jobs compared to women.



6.3 EDUCATION

The National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 and the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 promote access to education for all. The Further Education and Training Colleges Act 16 of 2006 regulates further education and training and advancement of women in previously male-dominated fields. The Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 provides for upgrading and new skills for employment. Universal primary education is already effectively a reality. The report on “Education for All”, 2009 indicates that gender parity access to primary and secondary education including ECD has almost been achieved. Completion rates of primary education improved from 90.1% in 2002 to 96.1% in 2011 for girls. A major challenge that poses a threat to the retention of girls in education is teenage pregnancy. One other concern is the high levels of GBV, especially sexual violence, and has sought to reform laws and policies regarding gender-based violence. Priority has been accorded to sexual offences and domestic violence.

Progress in Higher Education and Training

Significantly women now outnumber male enrolments in higher education. In 1993 women made up 43% of enrolments in universities and technikons (Council on Higher Education, 1999). By 1997, the proportions were almost even, with women then stretching ahead as the majority of higher education individuals. By 2011, women made up 54% of all students (938 201 students in total) enrolled in contact university programmes and 63% of those enrolled in distance education programmes. (DHET, 2013)

In 2011 women have significantly shifted towards business, commerce or management science (26,1%) and away from education, training and related fields(19,8 %), the former dominant field. Women, especially black, were under represented in science, engineering and technology, as well as in business and commerce programmes- the critical areas needed in the country. Black Women, especially African women are underrepresented in postgraduate studies which are dominated by white males.

The NSFAS provides financing opportunities to address poverty as challenges for young women accessing higher education and training with the disbursed amount increasing from R3.5 billion in 2009 to R7.4 billion.

Government has made huge strides in increasing access to higher education and as many as 991 759 student beneficiaries received R25 million in National Student Financial Aid Scheme loans and bursaries between 1991 and 2011. However lack of disaggregation in data does not show how many young women benefitted.

Opportunities for education and training have opened up. By 2009, 85% of unemployed people were trained on learner-ships and of those completing the training 54% were women.

Approximately 45000 staff members were employed by the higher education sector where women tend to be generally under-represented and only constituted 34% of the staff complement (OECD 2008).

6.4 VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN AND GIRLS

South Africa is concerned about the high levels of gender-based violence, especially sexual violence and has sought to reform its laws and policies regarding gender-based violence. Priority has been accorded to sexual offences and domestic violence, trafficking in women and children and child pornography. Among the recently adopted legislation include the Protection from Harassment Act 17 of 2011 which aims to protect victims of harassment (including sexual harassment), and the Prevention and Combating of Trafficking in Persons Act 7 of 2013 which provides for a single statute that tackles human trafficking holistically and comprehensively. The Sexual Offences and Crime Unit in the National Prosecuting Authority highlight that in 2010/2011 there was an increase in capacitation of prosecutors. In order to capacitate police officers in handling of Sexual offences, police officers were trained in the Sexual Offences First Responders course aimed at first responders to sexual offences. Victim Support Rooms are rooms at police stations that police officers are using for interviews, statement taking and consultations with victims of sexual offences, child abuse and domestic violence. Service Charter for Victims of Crime in South Africa (known as the Victims Charter) was developed to ensure that victims remain central to the justice process to eliminate secondary victimization. Victim support is provided through the Thuthuzela Care centres which are 24-hour one-stop centres offering a victim-friendly environment that helps eliminate secondary victimization to rape victims. The centre provides all services such as the police, counseling, doctors, court preparation and prosecution.

The Domestic Violence Act was enacted to afford the victims of domestic violence the maximum protection from domestic abuse that the law can provide. The Act defines domestic violence in broad terms to include physical, threatened violence, stalking; sexual, emotional, verbal and psychological abuse, economic abuse, etc. The main strength of the legislation lies in protection orders against perpetrators and the possibility of imprisonment of recidivist offenders.

There are often unintended consequences of the law which impact negatively on women. For example, the Domestic Violence Act 1998 has many implementation challenges. One of the major deficiencies of the act is the absence of built-in measures to address the underlying causes and influencing factors in domestic violence situations and recidivism. In many instances victims continue to endure abuse despite having secured protection orders. In some of these cases the abuse can progress to murder or “intimate femicide”.

The Criminal Law Amendment (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Act 32 of 2007 seeks to protect women and children by, inter alia, criminalizing a wide range of acts of sexual abuse and exploitation. It repeals the common law offence of rape and replaces it with a new expanded statutory offence of rape, applicable to all forms of sexual penetration without consent, irrespective of gender. It also repeals the common law offence of indecent assault and replaces it with a new offence of sexual assault, which contains a wider range of acts of sexual violation without consent. Moreover, the Act targets for punishment sexual predators that prey on children and people with disabilities. It criminalizes sexual exploitation or grooming of children and people with disabilities, exposure or display of child pornography or pornography to children and the creation of child pornography.

Other legislations in place include the following:

- The Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1997
- Criminal Procedure Second Amendment Act 75 of 1995: Deals with, among other things, bail guidelines that cover violence against women
- Film and Publications Act 65 of 1996: provides for the establishment of the Film and Publication Board whose role includes combating child pornography and the negative stereotyping and representation of women
- Criminal Procedure Second Amendment Act 85 of 1997: tightens bail provisions relating to serious crimes, including violence against women.
- The Firearms Control Act 60 of 2000: Enables the State to remove illegally possessed fire arms from society, control supply, possession, storage and transportation and use of firearm and to detect and punish the negligence and criminal use of firearms.
- Criminal Law (Sentences) Amendment Act, 38 of 2007: to provide that certain circumstances shall not constitute substantial and compelling circumstances justifying the imposition of a lesser sentence when a sentence must be imposed in respect of the offence of rape;

Acknowledging the scourge of gender based violence, South Africa has since 1994 introduced several interventions to address gender-based violence and sexual offences against vulnerable groups, in particular women and children. These interventions included the following:

- Specialised courts dedicated to sexual offences;
- Thuthuzela Care Centres to help prevent secondary trauma for victims of these crimes;
- Introducing specialised police units (such as family violence, child protection and sexual offences units);
- Resourcing and establishing victim-friendly rooms at police service points;
- Empowering prosecutors, police officers, magistrates and doctors with specialized skills; and
- Keeping dangerous sexual offenders under long-term supervision on release from prison.

Thuthuzela Care Centres were established for rape victims and victims of sexual and domestic violence. These centres which are 24-hour one-stop centres assist victims of rape by offering a victim-friendly environment that helps eliminate secondary victimization. At these centres rape victims have access to all services such as the police, counseling, doctors, court preparation and prosecution. The number of Thuthuzela Care Centres (TTCs) in the country has increased from 10 in 2007-2008, 17 in 2008-2009, 28 in 2009-2010, and about 35 fully operational sites during 2011- 2012 year. Table below indicates the activities of the TTCs over the period of four financial years.

Within the judiciary, the Sexual Offences Courts have been introduced in 1993 to particularly in responding to and preventing the increasing figures of rape cases reported in the country. The prosecution of these cases reached its huge success as it maintained the conviction rate of up to 80% over a period of a year, and by the end of 2005, there were 74 Sexual Offences Courts countrywide. Even though these courts recorded considerable success, they were reduced to only fifty (50) in 2008-2009 due to concerns over the proliferation of specialized courts being better resourced than mainstream courts and latter demised. A Task Team was set up in June 2012 to look at the reestablishment of the Sexual Offences Courts and already 57 Regional courts has been identified for

upgrading and equipment with modern technology to operate as Sexual Offences Courts. It is believed that these sexual offences courts will help address the growing challenge of sexual offences in the country, particularly rape and sexual crimes against vulnerable groups such as the LGBTI community. To date several of these courts have been re-opened and are operational.

These dedicated services use intermediaries, audio-visual equipment and specialised training, among other measures. A strategy to address gender-based and sexual orientation-based violence against lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and intersex people is being developed. More work still needs to be done on the National Register for Sex Offenders. While the national register is not open to the public, employers in the public or private sectors, such as schools, crèches and hospitals, are accorded the right to check whether a job applicant is fit to work with children or mentally disabled people.

The National Council Against Gender-Based Violence (NCAGBV) established in 2011, has been mandated to provide high-level strategic guidance and coherence of strategies across sectors to address the high levels of gender based violence and integrates, strengthen and mobilise structures of society for the reduction of gender-based violence through the implementation of coherent strategies. The action will include addressing violence against the LGBTI community. The members of the Council are representatives from government and civil society organizations that are working on areas of gender based violence. This Council is currently being reviewed by the 5th administration in governance.

6.5 HEALTH

The health system improved following the end of apartheid. The Constitution introduced a human rights approach to health and health care services guaranteeing access to health-care services, including reproductive choice, and free maternal and child health-care, amongst others. The Policy on Universal Access to Primary Health Care, introduced in 1994, paved the way for effective health care delivery programmes. It provides for free health care to pregnant and lactating women as well as children under the age of six.

The state is aware of the specific health problems facing rural women such as physical access to the hospitals or clinics and information on healthcare options therefore hampering them in seeking treatment for treatable problems. This is being corrected by mobile clinics and extensive information campaigns. Improved reproductive health services have resulted in a reduction in illness and death amongst women and access to and utilization of antenatal care services.

In 1994 Life expectancy amongst:

- whites was 69 years for males and 76 years for females
- Africans was 60 years for males and 67 years for females

In 1995 infant mortality rate amongst Africans was 48.3 per 1 000 live births – 6 times higher than that of whites (7.4 per 1000 live births)

Rise in HIV epidemic was the single most important challenge for the health sector in the past two decades. It played a significant role in preventing optimal improvements in maternal and child health.

Over 6.4million adults are currently infected with HIV. In 1990 less than one in a 100 (1%) pregnant women was infected and this rose significantly to around 30 in a 100 pregnant women (30%) by 2004 when the rate stabilized. The absence of a decline comparable to scale in most countries was largely associated with mother to child transmission of HIV.

In 1996, the SA Health Review indicates that the mortality rate for Africans was 23 per 100 000 while for white women it was 3 per 100 000.

In 1994/95 the provision of primary care facilities to communities was inadequate. There were only 0.8 clinics per 10 000 population as compared to the WHO recommended norm of 1 clinic per 10 000 people in rural areas. There were several small, dilapidated and collapsing hospitals located in close proximity to each other, while other geographic areas lacked health facilities. In 1996, following Government's Hospital Strategy Project was established and in 2003/4 a Hospital Revitalization Programme

was designed. Since then a total of 18 hospitals have since been newly built or refurbished across the country. However this is still significantly inadequate to meet the public health demands in the country.

Empirical evidence indicates that there is an unequivocal significant improvement in the health status of South Africans. Life expectancy has increased by 3.5 years for both males (57.2 years by 2011) and females (62.8 years by 2011).

There has been a decline in fertility as well as crude birth and death rates.

The Antiretroviral treatment (ART) programme and the prevention of mother to child transmission (PMTCT) programmes have had the most profound impact on the health outcomes of SA.

The Rapid Mortality Surveillance system of the Medical Research Council of SA in 2012 reflects that there was a 25% decrease in child and infant mortality rates between 2009 and 2011. In the under-5 mortality rate per 1000 live births was 56 per 1000 live births in 2009 and decreased to 42 per 1000 live births by 2011. The infant mortality rate was 40 per 1000 live births in 2009 and decreased to 30 per 1000 live births in 2011.

In 2013, life expectancy at birth for males was 57.7 years while it was 61.4 years for females; the infant mortality rate was at 41.7 per 1000 live births and the under-five mortality rate was at 56.5 per 1000 live births.

The ART Programme grew exponentially from 47 500 patients receiving ARTs in the public sector in 2004 to 1.79 million patients on ARTs in 2011 to 2.4 million patients by the end of June 2013. In 2004, of the total number of patients receiving ARTs women comprised 25 600 and children (under 15 years) 4200. In 2011, of the total figure of 1 793 000 patients, women comprised 1 090 000 and children under 15 years, 152 000.

Where SA in 2005 was one of only four countries in the world with an under-five mortality rate higher than the 1990 baseline for the MDGs, latest empirical data indicates that the country has achieved one of the fastest rates of child mortality reduction in the world.

SA achieved an average annual rate of decline of child mortality of 10.3% between 2006 and 2011. The ART programme has ensured that adults are living for longer – hence the increasing trend of the so-called “AIDS orphans” has been halted. Parents are living longer and taking care of their children.

The percentage of women whose live birth occurred in a health facility increased from 62.2 % in 2001 to 88.3% in 2009. Maternal mortality remains a challenge: in 2007 the MMR stood at 625 per 100 000 live births. Care of pregnant HIV infected women has focussed on preventing transmission of HIV to the baby and PMTCT. The program has been highly successful. The recent HIV guidelines indicating that ART to be given to all pregnant women living with AIDS at 14 weeks of pregnancy is likely that we will see a decline in maternal mortality from HIV in the next 3-6 years.

6.6 ECONOMIC SOCIAL AND CULTURAL RIGHTS

Women are now able to live independently of men which in all probability can be ascribed to their emancipation, empowerment, socio-economic and educational status as well as the choices they can make regarding how many children, the spacing of children and whether to have them or not. However, statistics points out to increasing burden on women as head of households and families, and points to the increasing levels of poverty of such households.

6.6.1 RIGHT TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT INCLUDING THE RIGHT TO PROPERTY AND ACCESS TO LAND

Implementation of labour market transformation aiming at equalizing access to employment opportunities since 1994. The focus is on implementation of the new legislative framework to transform labour market relations with a view to affirming women and enabling them to enter and advance in enclaves of the labour market that were previously closed to them. In 1996 and 1999, the female share of wage employment was 43% if agriculture was excluded. The share showed a mild stepwise increase to 44% in 2005 and then 45% in 2010. Measures are in place to ensure food security coordinated by several government departments. The proportion of people who are living below the food poverty line has been decreasing over the years, Statistics of people living below the food poverty line of R148 in 2000 and R209 equivalent in 2006 declined from 28.5 to 24.8 respectively. The same downward trend was observed in 2000 and 2006 from 26.7% for males to 22.9% and for females it declined from 30.2% to 26.4%. However, the proportion of females living below the food poverty line remains high compared to that of males.

6.6.2 ENVIRONMENTAL SUSTAINABILITY AND OWNERSHIP OF LAND

South Africa recognizes the link between gender and the environment, and the role of women in the planning, management and preservation of the environment. The National Environmental Management Act specifically provides that 'the vital role of women and youth in environmental management and development must be recognised and their full participation therein must be promoted'. Women have been reasonably represented in environmental policy development. The South African White Paper on Land Reform laid the policy framework for the abolition of all laws that discriminated against women in relation to property ownership. Approximately 13.3 % of the total number of households that benefited from the Land Redistribution and Tenure Reform Programmes during the period 1994 to December 2007 was female-headed households. Efforts to address gender imbalances are mainly targeted at land reform as this presents more meaningful opportunities for women for sustainable development.

South Africa has set targets to increase the proportion of women who own land to 30% by 2015. 4,313,168 million ha under Land Redistribution benefited 233,250 of which 50,473 are women, 32,589 are youth and 674 are people with disabilities as of 31 March 2014. The dawn of democracy in 1994 opened the possibility for the creation of a society based on the values of human dignity, equality, human rights and freedoms, non-racism and non-sexism. Since then, the country has made tremendous progress in the elimination of laws and practices that discriminated against women and in the general promotion and protection of the rights of women, however, the ideal society to which South Africans aspire has not yet been fully realized. Challenges that still impair the achievement of equality between men and women, relate to attitudes, beliefs, and cultural and religious practices that entrench patriarchy while demeaning women.

6.6.3 ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT

South Africa's economic growth improved dramatically with the transition to democracy and has been reasonably robust and stable throughout the democratic era. It grew for 40 quarters between the fourth quarter of 1998 and the third quarter of 2008, and has grown steadily from the third quarter of 2009 to the third quarter of 2013 – that is, for 17 quarters so far.

In 2013, the unemployment rate was approximately 25%. The unemployment rate has increased between 1994 and 2013, despite the large growth in employment over the period, which could be ascribed to the high number of people entering the labour market as well as the high number of people being counted in the labour market. The number of people entering the labour market has increased both due to population growth and due to the ending of apartheid. More people began actively seeking work, particularly in urban areas, as the restrictions placed on black people, especially women, were removed.

There has since 1994 been a broad and comprehensive legislative framework developed which is aimed at transforming and reforming the economy whilst dismantling the effects of the apartheid legacy. Many of them have been in place before 2009 and are implemented and reviewed where necessary, such as the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998; Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997; Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995, and the Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, the Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act, the Cooperatives Act, among others.

The National Empowerment Fund (NEF) was established by Act No 105 of 1998, as a driver and a thought-leader in promoting and facilitating black economic participation through the provision of financial and non-financial support to black empowered businesses, as well as by promoting a culture of savings and investment among black people with a vision to become the leading provider of innovative transformation solutions for an economically inclusive South Africa.

The NEF's role is to support Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BB-BEE). As the debate concerning what constitutes meaningful and sustainable BB-BEE evolves, the NEF anticipates future funding and investment requirements to help black individuals, communities and businesses achieve each element of the Codes of Good Practice. These include a focus on preferential procurement, broadening the reach of black equity ownership, transformation in management and staff and preventing the dilution of black shareholding. Together with affirmative procurement in both the public and private sectors, this has resulted in a large increase in the number of small and medium sized black-owned companies operating in a range of industries, such as construction, private security, catering and transport.

The Black Economic Empowerment Act 53 of 2003, including related regulations (the Codes and Sector Codes) are aimed at the following among others:

- Increasing the extent to which communities, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises own and manage existing and new enterprises and increasing their access to economic activities, infrastructure and skills training;
- Increasing the extent to which black women own and manage existing and new enterprises, and increasing their access to economic activities, infrastructure and skills training.

In 2007 the Codes of Good Practice were published to assist and advise both the public and private sectors in their implementation of the objectives of the BBEE Act. The Codes also provide principles and guidelines that would facilitate and accelerate the implementation of broad-based empowerment in a meaningful and sustainable manner. The Preferential Procurement Policy Framework Act 5 of 2000 provides a framework for preferential treatment of historically disadvantaged groups (such as women and people with disabilities) in procurement transactions.

South Africa recognises that public procurement can serve as an important policy instrument for advancing marginalised groups, such as women-owned businesses. Study findings show that public procurement constitutes 10-15% of GDP in developed countries and up to 20% in developing countries. In South Africa it is estimated that around 38% of businesses are owned by women⁵, and that the country has made use of preferential procurement policies to create greater opportunities for women to promote their access and visibility in public procurement spending. However, women-owned businesses still face various barriers in accessing government procurement and supply chains.

In South Africa, women-owned businesses are still underrepresented in public procurement when compared to their male counterparts, and are unlikely to account for more than 25% of procurement spend⁶ in the country. Over the 2011/12 financial year, the study undertaken by the Business Women's Association of South Africa indicates that women-owned businesses were recipients of R16.56 billion in government procurement spending out of a total of R183.3 billion in the research sample (which represents only 30% of total procurement spend in this year), thus accounting for only 9% of the total procurement spend in the sample studied.

The National Industrial Policy Framework was published in 2007, followed by a series of rolling three-year implementation plans known as the IPAP. Since then, the automotive, clothing and textiles, film and television, business-process services, and metals and engineering industries have registered some progress

5 Wits Business School Journal, 2011 – as quoted in the research study by the Business Women's Association of South Africa (BWASA), 2013: "The Current Status of Policies, Practices, Measures and Barriers regarding Women-Owned Businesses in Government Procurement".

6 Ibid

Over the past two decades, South Africa's core industrial policy goals have been as follows:

- Target labour-intensive sectors and enhance the competitiveness of capital-intensive sectors.
- Ensure that our rich natural resources are increasingly used in local industry so as to ensure that they stimulate employment creation and value added.
- Promote competition by limiting the abuse of dominant market power and encouraging smaller and emergent enterprise and new forms of ownership, including through broad-based black economic empowerment (B-BBEE).
- Strengthen industrial finance as central to catalysing new industries and activities so as to diversify the economy and deepen industrialisation.
- Strengthen trade relationships with fast growing developing economies, notably in the context of BRICS, while contributing to development in the African region.
- Enhance technology and innovation.
- Increase skills development and target it to meet emerging skill needs

The establishment and success of small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs), including survivalists and co-operatives, is globally recognised as critical to address the challenges of job creation, poverty alleviation, socio-economic conditions and equality for all. This is especially the case in South Africa where the role of SMMEs is vital to drive economic growth, employment, innovation and competitiveness. It is estimated that South Africa has some 5.9 million SMMEs which generate 40% of its gross domestic product and 60% of employment in the country. Women enterprises are largely represented in SMMEs.

Women-owned businesses tend to be smaller than their male counterparts, they tend to operate in the informal sector in low-value areas, and they tend to grow at a much slower rate. A persistent struggle faced by women business owners is that of access to finance that is affordable and appropriate to meet their business needs despite that micro-lending programmes are widely available for women in the country. Women SMME owners face several challenges such as lower levels of education and financial literacy, socio-cultural constraints, lower income levels, lack of tangible assets or collaterals, time and mobility constraints, inter-role conflicts from juggling domestic and professional roles and lack of market exposure.

The Finscope survey conducted in South Africa in 2010 shows that there are 5.6 million owners of micro and small enterprises in the country with 58% being female owned. The Centre for Inclusive Banking in Africa at the University of Pretoria highlights that these women fall into one of three categories: survivalist, mid-level and small. At the lower end of the scale, they found that 60% of these businesses, or 3.3 million, operate at a survivalist level, with owners tending to be black, female and poorly educated, and are mainly informal traders whose businesses are not registered⁷.

Government has implemented various approaches to supporting SMMEs which include; measures to reduce the tax compliance burden, providing dedicated credit facilities, establishing support and extension agencies and incubators, and diversifying procurement towards emerging enterprises where possible. In 2012, the various national small business finance agencies (Khula, samaf and the IDC's small business activities) were consolidated into the Small Enterprise Financing Agency (sefa), which was housed in the Industrial Development Corporation (IDC). This was initiated after the adoption of the New Growth Path (NGP) in 2010 which identified enterprise development as a key priority. Resultant policies aim to promote small business and entrepreneurship by improving access to and efficiency of government funding and making more resources available to SMMEs. Small Enterprise Financing Agency's mandate is to foster the establishment, survival and growth of SMMEs and contribute towards poverty alleviation and job creation.

South Africa has put on measures to encourage women to start their own business and also form cooperatives which will further open employment opportunities to other women. Several initiatives are in place to assist women who want to start their own business.

7 UNDP: Draft Report: Inclusive Finances – Exploring the Finance Pipeline for Women Owned SMMEs in South Africa, 2012. Unpublished

The Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA) is an agency of the South African Department of Trade and Industry (the dti). SEDA was established in December 2004, through the National Small Business Amendment Act, Act 29 of 2004 with the mandate to:

- Implement National Government's small business strategy;
- Design and implement a standard and common national delivery network that must uniformly apply throughout the Republic in respect of small enterprise development; and
- Integrating all government funded small enterprise support agencies across all tiers of government.

SEDA's mission is to develop, support and promote small enterprises throughout the country, ensuring their growth and sustainability in co-ordination and partnership with various role players, including global partners, who make international best practices available to local entrepreneurs.

Isivande Women's Fund (IWF) is an exclusive fund that aims to accelerate women's economic empowerment by providing more affordable, usable and responsive finance than is currently available. The IWF targets formally registered, 60% women-owned and/or managed enterprises that have been in existence and operating for two or more years with a loan range of R30 000 to R2 million.

The B'avumile skills development programme is a women's empowerment initiative aimed at enhancing talent in the arts and crafts and textiles and clothing sectors among women. It consists of a formal training programme to develop women enterprises' expertise in production of marketable goods and creation of formal enterprises in the creative and clothing and textiles industry. This initiative provides the country with an opportunity to fast-track rural women's economic empowerment, as well as grows number of women owned enterprises that are integrated into the economic mainstream.

Technology for Women in Business (TWIB) is an initiative aimed at enhancing the accessibility of Science and Technology in particular in Small, Medium and Macro Enterprises (SMMEs). This programme was initiated in 1998, with the emphasis on the application of science and technology solutions to achieve business growth in women-led enterprises and consequently move women-led enterprises from the side-lines towards the mainstream economy.

The objectives of TWIB are facilitating focused action by women entrepreneurs at all levels; reating successful role models; unlocking solutions to progressive approaches to doing business in a global economy; and exploiting partnerships with government, corporates and women focused organisations.

The TWIB programme also holds annual awards ceremony to recognize and reward women entrepreneurs who have successfully used appropriate technologies to improve the performance of their businesses. The national programme focuses on female entrepreneurs at all levels of business, from SMMEs. It aims to accelerate business growth through partnerships, education, mentoring and training.

Many women's enterprises are established as cooperative supported by the Co-operative Incentive Scheme (CIS). This is a 100% grant for registered primary co-operatives (a primary co-operative consists of five or more members). The objective of the CIS is to improve the viability and competitiveness of co-operative enterprises by lowering their cost of doing business through an incentive that supports Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment. The objectives are as follows:

- Promote co-operatives through the provision of a matching grant;
- Improve the viability and competitiveness of co-operative enterprises by lowering the cost of doing business;
- Assist co-operatives to acquire their start up requirements;
- Build an initial asset base for emerging co-operatives to enable them to leverage other support; and
- Provide an incentive that supports broad-based black economic empowerment.

Visit to women owned/managed enterprises has proved that there are different levels at which these women entrepreneurs operate their businesses, each facing different challenges. The Women who have less educational backgrounds tend to continually seek government support in understanding how to run a business yet these women can support their businesses with the income generated from the business itself so they need to be given training in this regard. The monitoring visits also identified overall that those women entrepreneurs with a savvy business background, usually need marketing support for their businesses to take them into higher level of wealth creation.

It was also identified that the level at which these women entrepreneurs aspire to grow their businesses also differs. It was found in the main that most of the women use their businesses as a means of income generation to feed their families. However, some of the women are seeking ways to make the business grow and spread to other parts of the country. They wish to also seek other measures to process their products in-house. This means that training is required as well as access to resources which would expand their businesses.

6.6.4 WOMEN AND POVERTY

The laws and policies that South Africa has put in place to address poverty in women are two-fold: these include addressing women in abject poverty to meet the human rights need as well as measures that are used to empower women for entrepreneurship, employment opportunities and for their economic independence and sustainability.

There are various ways in which poverty can be measured; however, the use of an absolute measure that conceptualizes poverty as lacking the income to purchase a minimum basket of food and non-food items was adopted in the discussion of MDG1 by South Africa. Several international poverty thresholds have been adopted, with one dollar per person per day being one that reflects the most extreme condition of poverty.

With each passing year South Africa has seen visible improvements in the life circumstances of its citizens. Whilst there still seem to be so much doom and gloom, statistics indicate that as far as poverty is concerned the country has made a lot of progress and yet we are aware that the levels of poverty among vulnerable groups such as children and women, which is higher than the poverty levels for the general population, still remain a major challenge.¹

South African, more importantly, has a policy that provides for strategies addressing the vulnerable groups. Halving the share of the population earning less than \$1.25 (PPP) per person per day is already achieved, while the share of those experiencing hunger has also been halved, at least in terms of self-reported hunger. Despite this progress, there are disturbing trends in terms of the differentiation of poverty outcomes according to generation and gender: in particular, youth and women remain disproportionately vulnerable to all forms of poverty.

The poverty narrative and how South Africa is addressing it would therefore not be complete without discussing the unique impact of a targeted social wage on the triple challenge of poverty, unemployment and inequality. Social wages in South Africa are packaged in different targeted forms. In the list of these are the following: free primary health care; no-fee paying schools; social grants, (such as old age pensions, and child support grants) and RDP housing; provision of basic and free basic services in the form of reticulated water; electricity; sanitation and sewerage as well as solid waste management to households and in particular those categorised as indigent. In this regard and since 2001 the indigent household is entitled to a monthly free six kilolitres of water, fifty kwh of electricity, R50 worth of sanitation, sewerage and refuse removal.

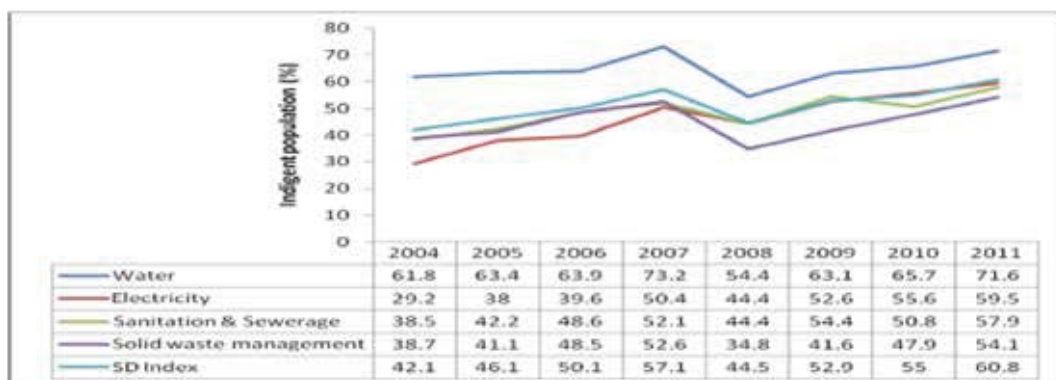


Figure on Access to Free Basic Services for Indigent Households

The figure on Access to Free Basic Services for Indigent Households above indicates that for all four services outlined above, a significant improvement has been made from 2004 to 2011. The proportion of indigent households with access to free water, electricity, sanitation and sewerage as well as solid waste management increased by the following percentage points 9.8, 30.3, 19.4 and 15.4 respectively from 2004 to 2011. These basic services illustrate the extent to which the poor in South Africa access different types of services and have their living conditions cushioned against debilitating vicissitudes of poverty.

South Africa has done a lot to improve the living conditions of all citizens as indicated, however the Living Conditions Survey 2008/2009 showed that females had a higher poverty headcount (27.3%) than males (25.2%) during the survey period when using the food poverty line. The table below indicates that the poverty headcount for females was 2.1% higher than that of males. A similar pattern is observed when using the upper-bound poverty line, yielding 54.1% for females and 50.4% for males. The percentage difference for male and for females using the upper-bound poverty line was higher at 3.7%.

Poverty indicators by sex

Sex	Food poverty line (R305)			Lower-bound poverty line (R416)			Upper-bound poverty line (R577)		
	P0	P1	P2	P0	P1	P2	P0	P1	P2
Male	25.2	8.1	3.6	37.3	14.3	7.2	50.4	22.7	12.3
Female	27.3	8.8	3.9	40.4	15.5	7.8	54.1	24.5	13.8
RSA	26.3	8.5	3.8	38.9	15.0	7.5	52.3	23.6	13.3

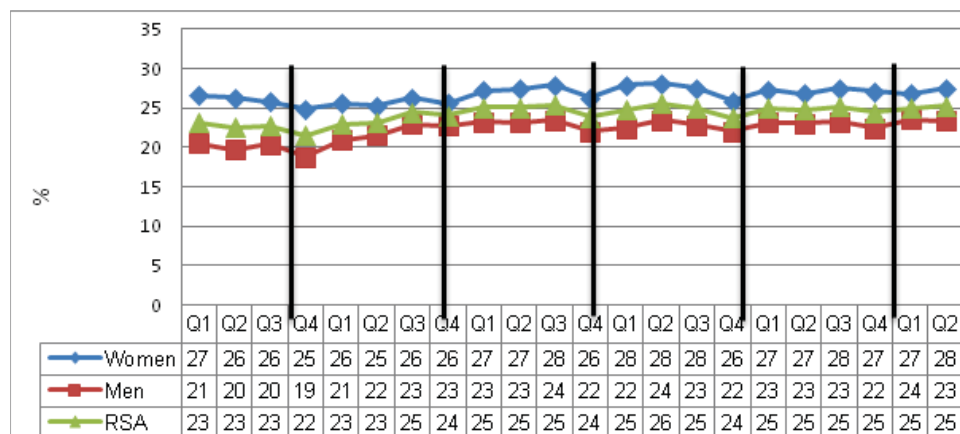
The poverty gap for males was also lower than that of females, indicating that males living below the poverty line were closer to the poverty line as compared to females living below the same poverty line. The severity of poverty estimates further highlighted this pattern in gender poverty.

Percentage share of poverty by sex

Sex	Food poverty line (R305) (%)	Lower-bound poverty line (R416) (%)	Upper-bound poverty line (R577) (%)	RSA (%)
Male	46.2	46.2	46.4	48.2
Female	53.8	53.8	53.6	51.8
RSA	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

In general, the total number of females in the country is estimated to be greater than that of males by roughly 3.6%. However, looking at the poverty shares using the upper-bound poverty line, the proportion of the female population living below the poverty line exceeded that of males by 7.2% during the period September 2008 to August 2009; while the proportion of the female population living below the food poverty line exceeded that of males by 7 and 6%.⁸

The low rate of participation of women in employment is another reason why majority of women are living in poverty although this trend is improving according to the Quarterly Labour Force Survey of 2013 as indicated below.



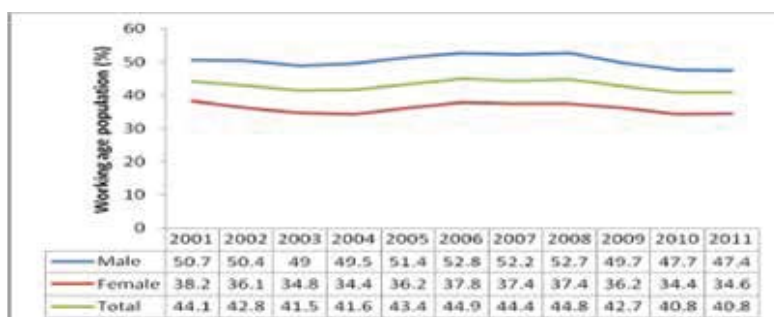
The pattern of higher unemployment rate among women than men is maintained over time. Moreover, many women are doing unpaid work such as being care givers in the home, which is not recognised as employment. Women are also commonly found in particular informal sectors such as street hawking which is not considered as employment in statistics.

Employment grew by approximately 5.6 million between 1994 and 2013, or by 60%. While there has been a large increase in the number of people employed, this has been offset by a larger increase in the number of people looking for work. The reasons for this include population growth, increasing urbanisation (which in turn was partly a result of the dismantling of the homeland system and the removal of the pass laws) and increasing numbers of women looking for work, due to advances in gender equality. Considerable progress has been made in ensuring greater equality in employment in terms of race and gender, although challenges persist. In 1994, just 34% of working-age Africans was employed and only 26% of African women. In contrast, 66% whites and 51% Coloured and Asians were employed. By 2013, African employment had climbed to 43%, and 38% of African women had paid work.

An ongoing concern is the disparity between men and women in earned income. In 2001, the average annual income of households headed by women was R27 864, compared with R63 626 for households headed by men. By 2011, despite an increase in the average income for females, households headed by women still earned less than 50% of households headed by men. The median earnings for a white man were six times as high as for an African woman. The disparity was mostly not a result of unequal pay for the same kinds of work, although that remained a factor. The main reason for pay differentials was that Africans, and especially African women, were more likely to be employed in lower-level jobs. As a result of this disparity in employment, the average income for females remains far less than their male counterparts' salaries. Inequalities in access to work and pay are also reflected in household incomes.

The figure below indicates the proportion of a country's working-age population that is employed, which remained around 41-45%. The trend shows a slight decrease between 2008 and 2009 which may be attributed to the global financial crisis mentioned earlier. The ratio is higher for males compared to females indicating better employment prospects for males as opposed to females. For both males and females, the ratio declines between 2008 and 2009.

Employment-to-population ratio



Labour Force Survey (2001 - 2007); Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2008 - 2011), Statistics South Africa

The goal to half extreme poverty has effectively been comfortably dealt with but there is deep concern that relative inequality remains high. This is so in part because of the high unemployment rate and the low labour force participation rate in our country.

The Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) is one of many programmes contributing towards supporting employment generation. It provides short-term job opportunities for the unemployed (to unskilled unemployed people in particular). In addition, the aim of the EPWP is to provide training for participants. Due to the short nature of most EPWP projects, this training has generally been at a basic level. Most EPWP work opportunities result from using more labour-intensive construction and maintenance methods in public infrastructure projects. Further upscaling the EPWP resulted in more than 3 million work opportunities being created between 2009 and the end of March 2013. This included the introduction of the Community Works Programme (CWP) in 2009, with funding for employment creation projects prioritised by communities.

The employment created through the EPWP programmes is still small compared with the number of unskilled unemployed people. Nevertheless, public employment programmes are crucial income-supporting programmes. Both the EPWP and the CWP have been successful in targeting women, the youth and people with disabilities. In addition to providing income, the opportunity to work provides dignity and meaning in the lives of participants in public works programmes. Generally, besides accessing income, public works programmes help reduce the negative effects of unemployment, which include social isolation, erosion of self-esteem, drug and alcohol abuse, as well as a loss of knowledge, skills and habits associated with having a job.

6.6.5 WOMEN, THE MEDIA AND ICTS

The South African government has developed progressive legislations and regulatory frameworks to ensure meaningful participation of women in the media. A legislative framework has been put in place, which considers the under-served areas as priority areas, and makes an effort to ensure significant ownership of and involvement, by previously disadvantaged groups including women.

The Independent Communications Authority of South Africa (ICASA) Act, 2000 (Act 13 of 2000), which is a significant tool in the empowerment of women and promotion of other disadvantaged groups is an important piece of legislation towards meaningful participation of women in media. The law enables the Authority to promote and encourage the ownership and control of telecommunication and broadcasting services by people from historically disadvantaged groups including women.

Section 5 (9) (b) of the Electronic Communications Act (Act 36 of 2006) stipulates that the Authority must, in granting a licence— (b) promote the empowerment of historically disadvantaged persons including women and the youth and people with disabilities, in accordance with the requirements of the ICT charter.

The South African Gender Baseline Study released in 2010 found that only 19% of news sources were women, and black women made up only 7% of that total. The voices which have predominated within the South African media are male voices. In looking at the situation of media practitioners, the Gender and Media Baseline Study found that women, especially black women were still heavily underrepresented in South African news-rooms. They were best represented as television presenters and worst presented in the print categories and as for radio reporters, the trend is moving towards parity.

The study on the Understanding of What is Happening in ICT in South Africa found that there is little difference between the number of males and females who own mobile phones, with about 86% of males and 82% of females stating that they owned at least one mobile phone. However, more males (59%) than females (44%) stated that they have a mobile phone capable of browsing the internet, and more males use the mobile phone to browse the internet (33%) and to access Facebook (29%) than women (at 23% and 22% respectively).

More females (46%) than males (43%) stated that they own a desktop computer. However, more males (39%) than females (29%) stated that they own a laptop. The study also found that a higher percentage of males (36%) than females (23%) use a computer. Meanwhile, among computer users, females are more likely (64.6%) than males (59%) to use a computer at home, and more females (31%) than males (28%) use computers at internet cafes. More males (48%) than females (30%), among the computer users, use a computer at work.

More males (40%) than females (29%) stated that they use the internet. Among internet users, there are more males (72%) than females (57%) who first used the internet on a computer, while there are more females (43%) than males (28%) who first used the internet on a mobile phone.

It was also found that most males (71%) and most females (70.9%) were found to have primarily accessed the internet via the mobile phone in the previous 12 months. More males use the internet at work (45%) and at home (46%) than females (at 38% and 25% respectively). Meanwhile, more females access the internet via a commercial internet access facility (36%) and place of education (22%) than male (at 30% and 20% respectively).

South Africa’s Information Communications Technology (ICT) industry is slowly transforming to be more welcoming and accessible to women. Over the past few years, a number of senior female executives have moved up the ranks, but the numbers, compared to male counterparts are still low.

Statistics released by the Institute of Information Technology Professionals (IITPSA) state that 56% of global ICT professional jobs are held by women, but in South Africa – where women comprise 55% of the country’s entire workforce – only 20% of the ICT workforce are women.

Women in the ICT workforce

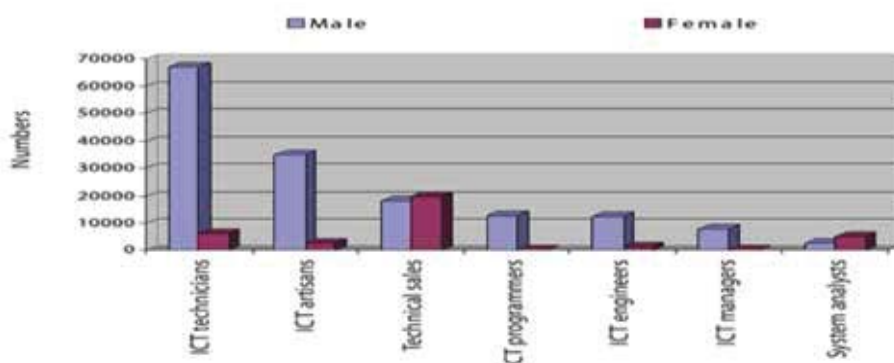
The status of women and men in the ICT sector is reflected in the results from two recent surveys: 1) the Labour Force Surveys and 2) the dti/ISETT SETA skills audit (2005). These two surveys differ radically in terms of the conclusions reached on size, composition and available skills levels in the ICT sector. The Labour Force Surveys consistently show that ICT work is not engendered, with marked differences between men and women core ICT workers.

The charts below show gender in the ICT workforce



Core ICT Occupations by Gender

Although 44.2% of women core ICT workers had higher education and training qualifications in 2005, very few women, compared to men, were employed as ICT managers, engineers, programmers, technicians and artisans. Women make up the majority in ICT technical sales and systems analyst occupations, as shown in Figure 8.9. The ICT manager component by gender, however, does not reflect all ICT managers, as there are no separate codes for all ICT managers (except for computing service managers) in the LFS. ICT managers were only calculated according to the manager: professional ratio to determine the total high-level core ICT component in the ICT workforce



It has been reported that more than 68% of South African women have enrolled in the ICT related courses at tertiary institutions in the last few years. Most tertiary institutions’ science and technology faculties are also dominated by female students these days.

The South African Broadcasting Act, 1999 (Act 4 of 1999), provides that the public service delivered by the South African public broadcaster shall strive for a broad range of services, targeting women and the previously disadvantaged groups. As a result, policies have been put in place to give guidance on how matters of discrimination and stereotyping are to be dealt with. Arising out of this, the public broadcaster must strive to ensure that when judged, its programming does not:

- Promote violence against women
- Depict women as passive victims of violence and abuse
- Degrade women and undermine their role and position in the society
- Reinforce gender oppression and stereotypes

The implementation of this legislation is monitored through ICASA. Through the Films and Publication Act, 1996 (Act 65 of 1996), that it is a legal transgression to distribute publications or films which advocate hatred based on race, gender, ethnicity or religion and which incite others to harmful practices. Furthermore, to ensure that women and girls are not portrayed or depicted adversely through advertising in the media, the Advertising Authority (ASA) has been set up to monitor all complains.

When taking media coverage on issues affecting women into account, it is interesting to note that stories on empowerment of women are generally covered in a balanced to positive manner. This comes as no surprise, when considering that government's track record on the promotion of women empowerment and gender equality has surpassed expectations.

On the other hand, media has managed to expose and heighten awareness on the issue of violence against women. In this section results from public perception research on issues affecting South African women are explored.

Media coverage on gender equality and women empowerment appears to be seasonal and event driven, increasing during Women's Month (August) each year and dropping in the subsequent months. From February 2013, reporting on issues affecting women has shifted from that of empowerment to issues of violence against women, i.e. rape. This was further fuelled by high profile cases of violence against women and children.

The tone of coverage on government pertaining to women empowerment varies depending on the issue. The appointment of leading South African women to international institutions and organisations has been covered extensively by the media and the coverage on these appointments has generally been positive and complimentary.

The media continue to play a pivotal role in profiling issues of violence against women and calling on the criminal justice system to take stringent action against perpetrators.

The ICT services and information are seen as tools to develop young women in the country. Government put in place projects that support young girls in the country to provide them with opportunities to use ICTs for their empowerment. There is growing realisation that women with access to ICT services increase their ability to generate income and plays a role to empower other women, especially young women who are more open to the use of technologies.

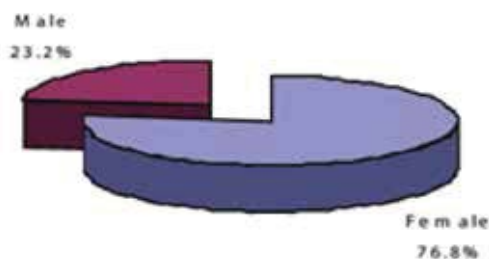


Figure 6.2 Ratio of men to women who graduate in information processing at FET colleges, 2005

The pie-graph above indicates that more young women graduate in information processing at Further Education and Training Colleges in South Africa, yet fewer women than men actually have leadership or ownership positions in the ICT fields.

6.6.6 DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL WOMEN

In terms of addressing women's economic and rural development, Government has implemented several programmes. The Agricultural Women Empowerment programme includes the Agricultural Development Finance programme where a total number of 29538 community members of which 20 078 are women against a total number of 9460 men across all provinces benefited from the co-operatives initiatives as community projects.

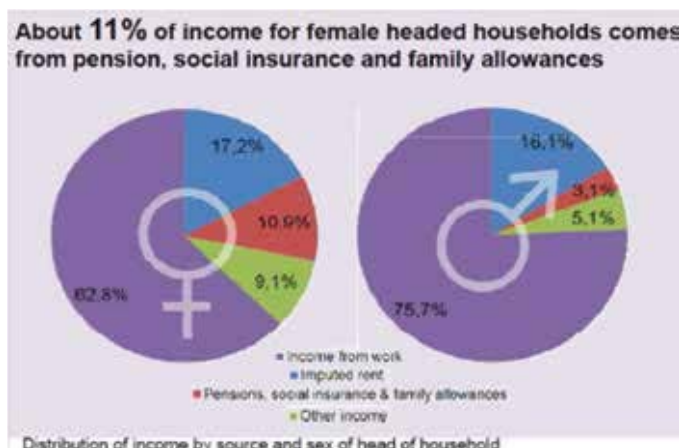
The MAFISA programme benefited 7229, of which 744 were women, to an amount of R65 million. A total of R22 222 333, 00 was allocated for various projects under women's leadership. Land Care projects are responsible for empowering communities targeting women. A total number of 634 518 community members benefited from these programmes of which 411 167 were women as against a total number of 223 351 men. The Food Security measures included a total number of 43 200 community projects and 162 food production packs. A total number of 157 694 community members across the country of which 115 929 were women as against a remaining total number of 36 597 of men has benefited from these projects.

The Comprehensive and Agricultural Support Programme (CASP) benefited a total number of 165 679 community members of which 28 709 were women against a total number of 55 075 of men, from all nine provinces. In the Financial Assistance Land Administration (FALA) programme a total number of 34 women benefited with 18 women benefiting through the NCERA FARM projects. An amount of R21 261 000,00 for 23 projects were allocated in terms of entrepreneurship development and 21 of these projects were under on women's leadership and a total number of 212 women were beneficiaries of these projects.

Government will be up scaling programmes to develop women in rural areas such as subsidizing the sharing of ownership of commercial farms with farm workers as well as the one hectare-one women programme. Disaggregation by gender shows that women have not benefited equally to men and the country will be strengthening.

7. OVERVIEW OF CHALLENGES

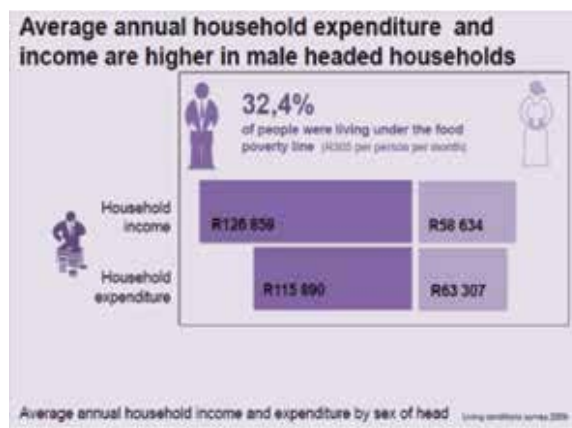
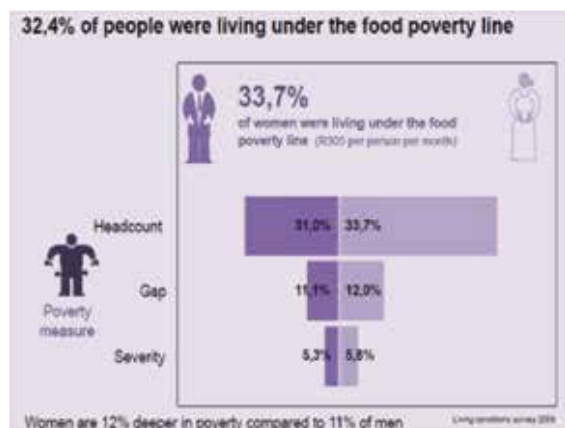
Despite the many gains that have been made with regard to women's empowerment and gender equality, several challenges still persist.



High levels of maternal death remain a key challenge for the health sector. Various factors contribute to overcoming this challenge. These range from the uneven quality of public healthcare service delivery, health infrastructure, human resources for health, delayed health-seeking behaviour by women, violence, substance abuse, lack of accountability by professionals and a high burden of disease, particularly HIV/Aids. Evidence of African females (20 to 34 years) having the highest prevalence of HIV in the country has to be understood within the context of South Africa's history of racial and gender discrimination.

Despite the achievement of gender parity in basic education, the quality of educational services, combined with societal norms and values that emphasise the reproductive and nurturing roles of women, leads to many women not accessing further or higher educational opportunities. Many of the women who have been able to complete higher education are not able to pursue their chosen careers due to breaks from child-rearing. Evidence suggests that the informal employment sector continues to be dominated by women, mainly through domestic services. These women are faced with precarious working conditions and difficulty in making long-term plans and commitments. This is reflected in the large disparity in earned income between men and women, as demonstrated in the GGI. It is also contributing significantly to income inequality as reflected in the Gini coefficient for South Africa.

Improved access to basic services has led to improved participation rates by women exercising their citizens' rights. It has even enabled women to gain some control in their bargaining power over men. Yet, the deeper social strata upon which women are required to fulfil their roles on a day-to-day basis has not been fundamentally influenced or transformed. Access to basic services requires ownership of assets, especially land and homes, to realise the goal of empowerment. Employment, which leads to job security and the ability to earn a decent income, is needed to equalise the opportunities between men and women in the economic sector. From being dependent on male partners for resources, services and assets in the past, women from female-headed households may have shifted the role of provider onto the state. In addition, access to productive resources provides a critical step in the right direction to reduce women's dependency on abusive men, which impacts on GBV.



Access to information on entitlements, rights and responsibilities is a challenge for rural women, especially those who are unable to read in at least one language. At the local level, the argument against using the household as a unit of analysis is taken further to consider structures of power not only within the home, but also in the area of communities, local markets and local government, which impacts directly on the lives of marginalised women. Over the years, the growing understanding of the multidimensional nature of poverty has been strongly influenced by feminist and gendered insights. It includes access to social networks and agency to empower women to live the lives they choose to live.

Gender-based violence is a pervasive social ill evident in many societies. The difficult journey for South Africa in dealing with GBV has demonstrated the complexity of the issue at various levels. At an individual level, there is an interdependence of various social, cultural and economic factors, including changing social trends that lead to the alienating impact of modern culture on women, while at the institutional level, including family, marriage, community and state institutions, various structures, processes and systems influence the extent to which gender equality is perceived and practised. Based on research, there are 3 main drivers of GBV:

- Continued patriarchal societal norms result in unequal power relations between men and women. Although equality is affirmed in the legal domain, it is not widely extended to the private domain of South African family life and society.
- Individual factors associated with GBV include alcohol use, drugs and child abuse. Men who were abused as children are more likely to be violent partners.
- Cultural norms and practices violate the rights of women

The challenge of under-reporting and the actual conviction rate of violence against women and children, remains a cause for concern, resulting in the prevalence rates not yet being ascertained nationally to understand the full scope of the problem. The number of domestic violence cases cannot be determined, as there is no category to capture this in the current monitoring system. In addition, it is difficult to quantify how often homophobia translates into violent acts against those regarded as transgressors. This is because hate crimes do not form part of South African official statistics

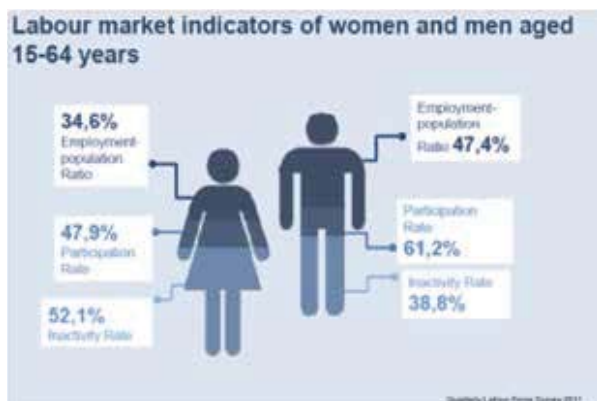
Religion and culture influence the role of women in a profound way in South African society and strongly shape social identity. However, legislation that promotes the rights of women, alongside the right of cultural practice, has been an unresolved debate post-1994, leading to women from traditional communities still continuing the struggle of cultural versus citizen's rights being fulfilled.

Women with disabilities (mental and physical) have become an emerging social group with particular vulnerabilities that are compounded by the challenges already experienced by women in the mainstream. Discourses on the social model of disability and feminism challenge the social structures that shape identity and power relations based on men and able-bodied people. The needs of women with disabilities are further complicated by inadequate facilities, additional expenses, inaccessible transport and the costs of childcare or family members who are ill. It requires greater societal awareness and an understanding of rights and responsibilities to challenge the dominant cultural practices of social exclusion, which are still widely practised at local levels.

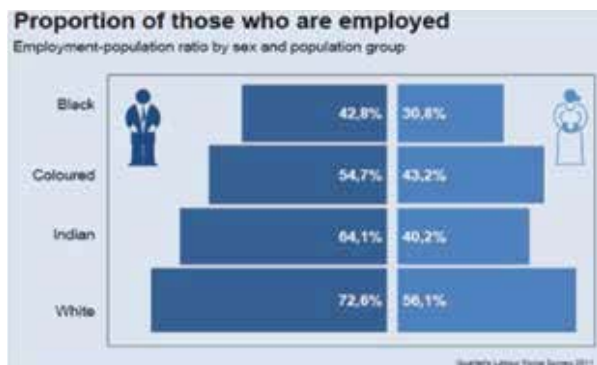
Increased literacy rates among women, combined with reduced fertility rates, access to housing and ownership of assets, have resulted in majority younger women (20-34 years) migrating to cities in search of an improved quality of life. Increased participation by urbanised women in civic activities, less dependence on male figures and freedom of movement have resulted in shifting power dynamics between men and women – with fewer women compelled to enter the institution of marriage as a safety net. An emphasis on the establishment of social networks and social support structures that are not tied to family members, however, poses its own social risks. A shift in gender relations requires men and women to redefine the way in which they construct social norms and structures, and thereby influence the development of a new value system based on the recognition of rights and equality.

The effect of labour migration, declining marriage rates, single parenting and orphaning has had a significant change on the nature of vulnerability since 1994, and extends vulnerability from individuals to families. Survey results show a decline in the proportion of children who live with both parents. This decreased from 42 percent in 1993 to 33 percent in 2011.

The care of young children and illness among family members, within the context of high burdens of disease and a lack of adequate care facilities, have resulted in women remaining locked in their reproductive and nurturing roles. The care economy has been overlooked or, where considered, is approached in an individualistic, private manner, which requires family members to deal with the need. International research highlights the importance of care as a development issue, and findings suggest that the unequal cost and responsibility of care is the major barrier to gender equality (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 2012).



Men were more likely to be employed than women: regardless of race

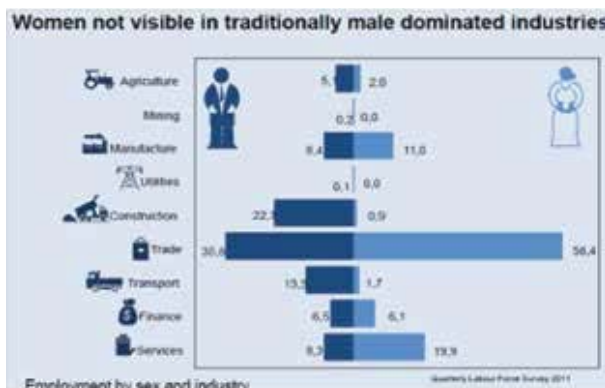


The percentage employed is highest among white men and lowest among black African women

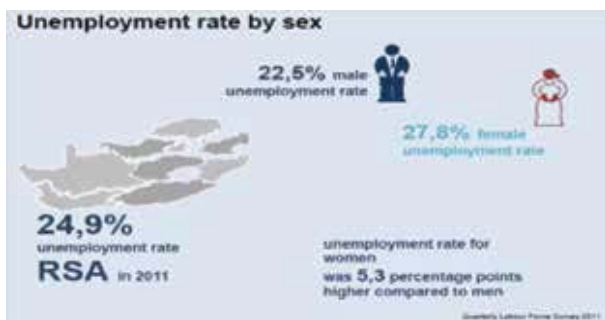
Men more likely to be employers, while women are more likely to be own account workers and domestic workers



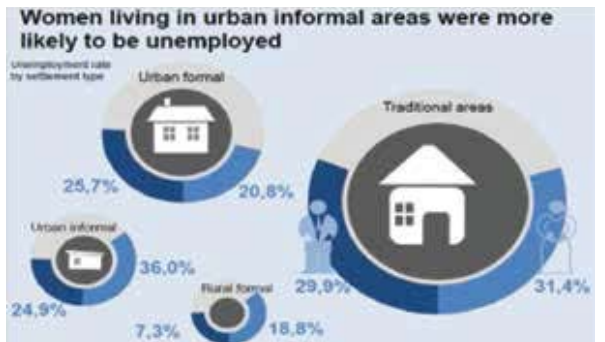
24,5% of employed men are in mining, construction and transport industries, while only 5,1% of women are in these industries



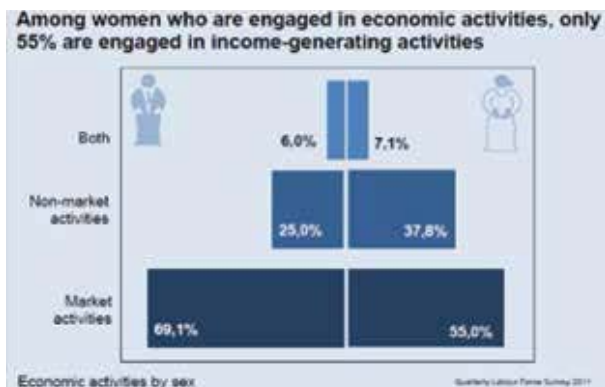
The unemployment rate of women is 2,9 percentage points higher than the national average

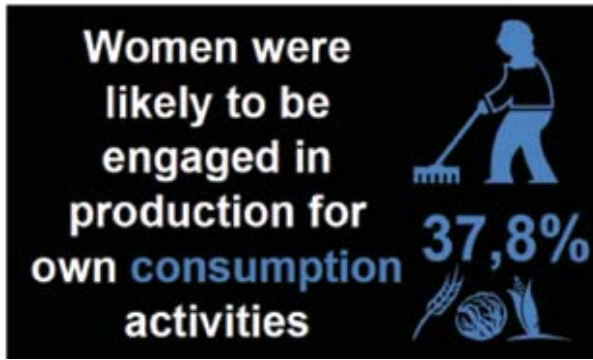


Gender differences in unemployment rates were notable in rural formal and urban informal areas



Almost 70% of men engaged in economic activities were in income generating activities





Reviewing Gender mainstreaming as a strategy

Evidence shows that gender mainstreaming as a strategy through the establishment of gender focal points, has not been effectively converted into programmes with adequate resources, capacity and leadership to drive the process. Those who are expected to influence the mainstreaming process are not strategically positioned to influence change at all levels of government.

Similarly, affirmative action policies and targeted programmes, despite their achievements in highlighting the needs of women, have not been effective in meeting employment equity targets. Evidence shows that effective targeting has been achieved for vulnerable children for example, through the CSG as a social assistance measure to improve the lives of children primarily. However, in specific cases, rural communities have not enjoyed the benefits of targeted programmes due to language barriers, access to information and poor service delivery at local levels.

A starting point is to understand the differing needs of women. Women are not a homogenous group. Rural women have much more in common with rural men in their experience of poverty and social exclusion than they do with women from urban areas. Women in rural areas and women with disabilities are particularly vulnerable, with specific needs to be addressed, in comparison with women who have been victims of gender-based violence. Thus, the accurate targeting of beneficiaries has to be reviewed in social interventions if any real impact is to be made.

8. WHERE HAVE GENDER INEQUALITIES PERSISTED AND WHY?

Change has come slowly or not at all for many women and girls in many dimensions of gender equality. Health disadvantages that reveal themselves in the form of excess relative mortality of girls and women fall into this category. So do other persistent gender disparities, including segregation in economic activity, gender gaps in earnings, male-female differences in responsibility for house and care-work, gaps in asset ownership, and constraints to women’s agency in both the private and public spheres. Progress in these domains is difficult to see, despite many advances in women’s rights and legislative frameworks. Many of these gender disparities remain salient even among the better off in society.

Gender disparities persist in these domains for three main reasons:

- There may be only a single institutional or policy “fix”, which can be difficult and easily blocked. This can be illustrated in the problem with excess female mortality.
- Disparities persist when multiple reinforcing constraints combine to block progress. This is illustrated by the disparities in the economic sphere (persistence of gender earnings gaps and gender segregation in employment) and in agency (differences in societal voice and household/family decision-making).
- Gender differences are particularly persistent when rooted in deeply entrenched gender roles and social norms – such as those about who are responsible for care and household work in the home, and what is “acceptable” for women and men to study, do, and aspire to. And these gaps tend to be reproduced across generations.

9. ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

Closing these persistent gender gaps matters because gender equality is a core development objective in its own right. But it is also about smart economics. Greater gender equality can enhance productivity and improve development outcomes for the coming generations, and make institutions more representative. Building on the growing body of knowledge that economics of gender equality and development both intrinsically and in terms of their potential development payoff – and where growth alone cannot solve the issues, four priorities can be identified for public action:

- Reducing gender gaps in human capital: reducing excess female mortality and closing education gaps where they remain
- Improving access to economic opportunities, earnings and productivity for women
- Increasing women's voice and agency in the household, in the family and in society
- Limiting the reproduction of gender inequality across generations.

These are all areas where higher incomes by themselves do little to reduce gender gaps, but focused policies can have a real impact. Thus policies and public actions need to focus on the underlying determinants (or root causes) of gender gaps in each priority area. In some priority areas – such as excess female mortality in infancy and early childhood as well as in the reproductive years – improving service delivery (especially of clean water and sanitation, and maternal care) is of primary importance. For other priority areas – such as gender gaps in earnings and productivity – policies need to tackle the multiple constraints that originate in the workings of the markets and institutions to limit progress. Policy makers will need to prioritize these constraints and address them simultaneously or sequentially.

While domestic policies are central to reducing gender inequalities, development partners should focus on complementing these efforts in each of the four priority areas, and on supporting evidence-based public action through better data, evaluation and learning. This will require a mix of more funding, efforts to foster innovation and learning and broader partnerships. Investments are needed to improve the availability of better gender-disaggregated data and support more experimentation and systematic evaluation. Partnerships should involve the private sector, development agencies and civil society organizations.

UNDERSTANDING PROGRESS AND PERSISTENCE

Income growth by itself does not deliver greater gender equality on all fronts. Where gender gaps have closed quickly, it is because of how markets and institutions – formal and informal – have functioned and evolved, how growth has played out, and how all these factors have interacted through household decisions. For example, in education, income growth (by loosening budget constraints), markets (by opening new employment opportunities for women) and formal institutions (by expanding schools and lowering costs) have all come together to influence the household decisions in favour of educating girls and young women.

Gender gaps persist where girls and women face other disadvantages. For poor women in poor places, sizable gender gaps remain. They become even larger when poverty combines with other forms of exclusion, such as remoteness, disability, HIV and AIDS and gender based violence.

Markets, institutions, and households can also combine to limit progress. Gender gaps in productivity and earnings are pervasive. And they are driven by deep seated gender differences in time use (reflecting social norms about house and care work), in rights of ownership and control over land and assets, and in the workings of markets and formal institutions, which work in ways that disadvantage women.

Globalization can help. In today's globalized world, forces such as trade openness and the spread of cheaper information and communications technologies have the potential to reduce gender disparities by connecting women to markets and economic opportunities, reshaping attitudes and norms among women and men about gender relations, and encouraging the promotion of gender equality. This needs effective domestic public action and policies.

Hence it is critical that we target the determinants of the gender gaps of concern, and not necessarily the outcomes. For example:

Reducing gender gaps in human capital endowments (health and education) such as excess in female mortality at specific periods of the life cycle and pockets of gender disadvantage in education requires fixing the institutions that deliver public services. Providing basic services in a timely manner to expectant mothers and improving the availability of clean and sanitation to households will go a long way to closing the gender gaps in excessive mortality. Education services need to focus on improving access for the significant population groups that are currently disadvantaged by poverty, gender, race, or geography. Such a focus will help address the “gender inequality traps” that affect the poor and excluded in society. These solutions can come from either the demand or supply side but they cannot be gender blind. They must factor in explicitly, both for design and implementation, the drivers of gender inequality that cause the gender gaps in health and education outcomes to persist. And it must bring into the policy design and implementation the voices of those that the policy is trying to reach – excluded women and girls, and the men and boys who live with them.

Improving women’s economic opportunities: women and men access economic opportunities – whether in wage employment, agriculture, or in entrepreneurship – in fundamentally different ways. Women tend to occupy very different parts of the economic space from men and are disproportionately concentrated in lower productivity activities, self-employment, and the informal sector. Even in the formal wage sector, women cluster in certain occupations and industries, usually lower paying. Three factors drive these patterns: (i) women and men have very different responsibilities for care and housework, and as a result very different patterns of time use, which impinge directly on choices of employment and economic activity; (ii) women and men face differential access to productive inputs and often differential treatment by markets and institutions; and (iii) these mutually reinforcing constraints can generate a “female productivity trap”. This means paying attention to policies on child-care and parental leave; improvements in infrastructure services (energy/electricity, water, public transport, proper roads, etc); reducing transaction costs associated with accessing markets; strengthening women’s land and ownership rights; access to agricultural inputs and resources; and improving the functioning of and access to credit services and information; training, placement and other support to enable women to enter or re-enter the wage employment sector/workforce; enforcement of the 50/50 gender parity principle in representation based on the notion that affirmative action works best if it is mandatory.

Reduce and eliminate gender based violence: which requires action on multiple fronts. The goal is to prevent violence before it happens. Prescribing of mandates and duties for enforcement and investigation, raising societal awareness and signaling clearly government’s commitment to addressing gender based violence is critical in this regard and in ensuring that laws need to make these efforts more specific and actionable. Also critical is to shift norms and behaviours among both men and women around gender based violence especially on domestic violence to emphasize prevention. Increasing women’s bargaining power in their households – by improving women’s economic opportunities and enhancing their control over resources and their ability to leave violent environments – can also change behavior. Keeping in mind that a backlash can result from this measure, specific mitigation measures need to be put in place to deal with the issue. When violence does occur, victims need timely and effective services and assistance ranging from the police and judiciary to health and social services. Hence there is a need to bring these services closer to women and girls who are the main victims of gender based violence.

CONCEPTUAL CONSIDERATIONS

Policy redesign, implementation strategies and programmatic responses aimed at improving the lives of women is depended on the adoption and understanding of different conceptual underpinnings. The following concepts need to be taken into consideration as it guides how progress is measured:

(i) **Development agenda**

- Economic policies impacting on national development goals
- International and national influence on social transformation – in South Africa social transformation is about the transition from exclusion to inclusion in social, political and economic opportunities, structures and power.
- Capability approach as reflected in both the Gender Policy Framework post 1994 and the National Development Plan towards vision 2030

- Differentiation between women’s empowerment; gender equity and gender equality – where the dynamics and power relations between men and women is acknowledged

(ii) **Public policy**

- Policies that are aimed at improving broader public good, redistribution and equitable resource allocation depends on state resources where targeting versus mainstream strategies are adopted.
- Consensus on what constitutes public goods which promotes women empowerment .e.g. ECD; access to basic services; etc

(iii) **Governance**

- The establishment of appropriate governance structures necessary for the representation of women in decision-making and the policy space.
- Reviving active citizenry - Weakened women’s movements have a negative impact on citizens holding Government accountable
- Is the common purpose to improve women empowerment or a fight for resources?

(iv) **Implementation theory**

- How are policies and legislation impacting on women, translated into action?
- What strategies inform the design of programmes or interventions to improve the lives of women within rights based framework? Is there a comprehensive audit/review?
- Roles and responsibilities between spheres of government requires effective coordination

(v) **Planning, monitoring, evaluation and research**

- Gender sensitive planning instruments: short term/medium term and long term
- Availability of data, information and monitoring systems in place which track the extent to which programmes and interventions are meeting objectives
- The extent to which evidence generated from program evaluations research studies on what works and what needs to change.
- What are the knowledge gaps?

(vi) **Institutional context**

The functioning of the institutional framework outlined in the GPF and operationalized over the years, had been put to the test over the past 18 to 20 years. In dealing with both the critical and emerging issues, the related structures responded according to their individual mandates. However, evidence suggests that problems exist within and between structures, i.e. split between national and provincial offices, problems of communication, accountability, workload and strategic leadership. The Public Service Commission also found that tensions existed between the CGE and OSW around their respective mandates and functioning.

- The inclusion of complementary institutions and structures that impact on gender equality requires a deeper understanding of social policy in South Africa. The institution of “family” and “marriage” has been overlooked in the achievement of gender equality and the wellbeing of families.
- Other community structures, such as legal aid centres and formal or informal social networks, play an important role at the local level to access information, understand constitutional rights and entitlements, and provide supportive mechanisms to practise these rights.

- The institutions of representative democracy, such as Parliament, the provincial legislatures and municipal councils, are generally well established. However, there is a need to strengthen their ability to fulfil their oversight roles to contribute to the building of an accountable and responsive state. Independent oversight bodies reporting to Parliament (the Chapter 9 institutions) have been robust in holding the executive and bureaucracy to account.
 - Traditional courts, if regulated according to democratic principles, have the potential to serve more than 20 million South Africans living under traditional law. They are potentially valuable local institutions to resolve social disputes. The courts have administrative powers to decide over land, natural resources, health, education, safety, marriage, death and birth certificates, which inherently puts women at a disadvantage, given the patriarchal system that is still rife in rural communities.
- Thus, conducting a comprehensive institutional review of the National Gender Machinery in South Africa will be critical to inform appropriate medium-term frameworks to meet the visionary goals of the NDP relating to gender equality.

AGENDA FOR ACTION AT A GLANCE

Priority areas	Initiatives that need focused attention
Closing gender gaps in human endowments	Increasing access to education for women and girls
	Increasing access to clean water
	Increasing access to specialized maternal services
	Strengthening support for prevention and treatment of HIV/AIDS
Promoting women's access to economic opportunities	Increasing access to child care and early child development
	Investing in rural women
Closing gender gaps in voice and agency	Increasing women's access to the justice system
	Shifting norms regarding violence against women and girls
Preventing intergenerational reproduction of gender inequality	Investing in adolescent girls and boys
Supporting evidence-based public action	Generating new and disaggregated data and information through monitoring, evaluation and research undertakings.
	Facilitate knowledge sharing and learning

(Endnotes)

1 MDG Country report 2013. The South Africa I know, the Home I understand

