Some Structural Changes in Educational Enrolment and Attainment Levels within the Female Population of South Africa (2004-2007)

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Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to the Lord God my creator who gave me the strength every day of my life. Special thanks to my loving family (my parents, Makatiso and Tiisetso, sisters, Nkatiseng and Itumeleng, and my brother, Karabo) for the wonderful support in everything I do, and my parents for being the excellent role models. To people who are precious in my life that I had to put aside in order to complete this dissertation such as Sithembiso Matiso I deeply appreciate everyone.

Declaration

I declare that *Some Structural Changes in Educational and Attainment Levels within the Female Population of South Africa (2004-2007),* is my own work, that has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledge by complete references.

Nkutloeleng Mary Corda Ramaipato November 2009

Signed: …….

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ACRONYMS

GHS – General Household Survey

HSRC – Human Science Research Council

Stats SA – Statistics South Africa

DoE – Department of Education

HRW – Human Rights Watch

UNESCO – United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation

TVE – Technical and Vocational Education

NGOs – Non Governmental Organisations

MDGs – Millennium Development Goals

GPI – Gender Parity Index

GER – Gross Enrolment Ratio

CS – Community Survey

UN – United Nations

GEM – Girls Education Movement

SA WISE – South African Women in Science and Engineering

UNDP – United Nations Development Programme

ANC – African National Congress

SASA – South African Schools Act

HE – Higher Education

OBE –Outcome Based Education

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to investigate patterns in educational enrollment and attainment in educational levels among women in South Africa. Some evidence from the literature suggest a slow increase in women's education and employment opportunities in South Africa. However, little is known about the way in which this slow pattern reflects at all levels and fields of education with special reference to the female population in South Africa. The thesis aims at examining changes of attainment in women's education from a socio-demographic perspective between 2004 and 2007. Factors affecting women's education in South Africa are also considered as they play major roles in women's enrollment and completion at school. The study focuses on women through different social and demographic attributes, by taking account of variables such as age, education attainment, geographic areas, population group to name but a few. All educational institutions are covered and two female groups are considered, women at school and women who left school. The study makes use of already existing data from General Household Survey conducted in 2004 and 2007 respectively, to bring some comparative perspective. The scope of the study is national in that, all the nine provinces are covered making distinction of rural and urban areas.

Keywords: Educational enrollment, Education Attainment level, General household Survey, Primary education, Secondary education, Tertiary education, Demographics, Educational institutions, Educational policy, School dropout

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background to the study

Education remains an important factor in the development of a country (Community Survey, 2007). According to the Gender Initiative Institute (2004), in Africa, South Africa has the highest levels of female education at all stages. However, this does not make distinction of different characteristics of women. The above stated sources also note that females' combined enrollment in primary and secondary schools is now at 99 % as of 1996 compared with 95 % for males. Conversely, the study revealed access to tertiary education by South African women account for about 7 %. This figure indicates a severe shortfall which might have resulted from various underlying factors affecting females' education in South Africa.

Rowena (1997) confirms that girls of all races account for around half of senior secondary school enrollments, yet minority of these women later enrolled in universities. She further points out that although the number of women in higher education has increased over the years, it has not reached a position of equal access to these higher institutions with their male counterparts. However, the above study failed to account for those South African women enrolled in distance-learning education and those whose studies are completed through part-time studies. Above all, there are no statistical indicators presenting the dynamics and structural changes that are gradually taking place in South African education.

According to a report of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) of South Africa, education in rural areas of the country has received low priority due to the monopoly of the urban constituencies whom are more organized and vocal than rural ones hence, succeeded

substantially in getting attention from the government (HSRC, 2005). More so, the study indirectly verifies that the universal framework employed in government and policy documents is insufficiently sensitive to the specific conditions and needs of the rural poor, especially those of women. The report further notes that education cannot compensate for poverty and inequality, and hence, social inequalities needed to be addressed before a change can be seen in rural education. However, this study falls short in examining females' enrollment in South African education in both rural and urban areas.

Enrollment rate is one of the more common educational indicators used internationally, providing useful information on access to education, by gender, population group and province. Hence, a study carried out by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) using Census 1996, 2001 and Community Survey of 2007, where respondents were asked whether they were presently attending an education institution, which although does not translate precisely into attendance, provided close estimates of enrollment in schools and other educational institutions. Here, the data on school attendance focuses on the 5-24 year olds age group, which is the age group that is mostly currently attending school in South Africa (Stats SA, 2007).

The South African School's Act (1996) made schooling compulsory for children aged 7 to 15 years, while the Education Laws Amendment Act (2002) set the age admission into Grade 1 as the year in which the child turns seven. Statistics South Africa made a comparative study between Census 1996 and 2001, as well as the Community Survey 2007 showed up to age 12, there was an increase between 1996 and 2001 in the percentage of school attendance, but from age 13 and older years the percentage decreased. However, the Community Survey of 2007 illustrated an increment of school attendance up to age 17 but showed a decline for those aged 18 years and older. This indicated that there is high attendance rate in ages 16

years and younger. The pitfall of this study is that it lacks gender and provincial illustrations on school attendance. Therefore, it is difficult to evaluate if there is indeed any transformation in women's education in South African between 2004 and 2007 (Stats SA, 2007).

The progress of South African women's education has been impeded by several factors of which cultural and socio-economic factors remain major players. The "girl-child" education is taken as less important than of boys by most parents, especially in rural areas of the country. More so, the inherent social expectation contribute to low enrollment figures and particularly, to high dropout rates for females. South Africa currently has the highest number of rapes in the world and the major victims are school girls who are raped by both their male teachers at school and their male peers (Rowena, 1997).

Another factor pertaining to difficulties experienced by women in education is said to be geographic. Hence, it can be argued that the localization of South Africa's secondary schools in isolated areas far away from where people live especially in rural areas, contributes to the low enrollment of girls, and the resultant reduction in the number of potential higher education candidates. Brock & Cammich (1997) stressed that lack of resources, lack of boarding facilities and scholarship schemes which enables professional education participation is weak and coupled with the current systems open to girls in this field are particularly unhelpful.

According to Grant & Hallman (2006), the combined effects of increasing levels of school enrollment, delayed school entry, grade repletion and periods of temporary withdrawal from school lead many young women to remain enrolled at the primary or junior secondary level well past puberty and into their teens, thus increases the risk of pregnancy-related school

disruption (also cited in Lloyd *and al.,* 2000). According to (Rowena, 1997) teenage pregnancy also accounts for the high drop-out rate among girls in South Africa, especially at the secondary school level. This phenomenon reduces their availability for education pursuits, particularly at the higher education level.

Rowena (1997) further notes that female's participation in education is well developed in urban areas as compared to rural areas. Nonetheless, there are some gaps within the study that need to be explored further. There is a lack of comparative perspective in literature to be able to determine the trends and patterns of female's participation in the education sector. Furthermore, there is no in depth analysis of structural changes such as enrolment and attendance. The demographic perspective is also not well covered in the literature. Additionally, although the study is on females the analysis includes males to compare the participation and some structural changes, as literature fails to do so.

1.2 Statement of the problem

In South Africa, females do not have equal educational opportunities as their male peers. Despite concerted efforts at addressing this inequality, access to education particularly higher education still remain a gender-sensitive issue. Females are lacking in this level of education, the few there are has less access to 'traditionally male dominated fields' such as science and law. In rural areas, females still experience discrimination and domination in education, in which case, boys are motivated to attend school while girls are expected to stay home and take care of domestic affairs.

1.3 Research questions

- How does highest level of education attained by women in South Africa vary across the provinces?
- Which educational institutions do South African women attend the most?
- Is female attendance in educational institutions the same in Rural and Urban areas?
- What method of education (class attendance, correspondence or distance educational institution) do South African women generally prefer in acquiring educational degree?
- What are the reasons for girls to leave school in South Africa?

1.4 Hypotheses

The questions raised have generated the following working hypotheses to be tested.

- More rural girls leave school than urban girls.
- Across the nine provinces in South Africa, females' enrolment increased from 2004 to 2007.
- The likelihood of not reaching higher education is higher in rural areas than it is in urban areas.
- In South Africa, pregnancy is the main reason for girls to leave school.

1.5 Objectives/ aims of the study

The study has pursued the following objectives:

- To examine any changes of attainment in female's education in both rural and urban areas between 2004 and 2007.

- To find out types of degrees that South African women usually attend or do.
- To find out how many women or girls get enrolled, and how many are still studying, and how many actually completed their studies.
- To determine factors affecting the education of women in South Africa.
- To examine occupational opportunities for educated women in South Africa.

1.6 Significance of the study

The study contributes to finding out the progress of females' participation in the education system in South Africa. The major purpose is to be acquainted with the trends and patterns of women's access and enrolment in education. The thesis enlightens the developments in education pertaining to females since the government claims to have tremendously improved this sector. This study also looks at the ways in which education policies can be improved in favour of females' involvement in education.

1.7 limitation of the study

The study only focuses on females and their participation in education. Although, male's participation was discussed in chapter four, they are not of interest in this research. The essence of conducting this is to draw some gender-based comparisons. The study also focuses on South Africa only not the rest of the continent. However, within female's participation in education system there are other factors that are not discussed like female's passing rate, curriculum and many more other factors that are not highlighted in the thesis.

1.8 Definition of Keywords

Educational enrolment: This is taken as the period when a child or people enter a system of formal education (school) during their early childhood. Here, the children are taught how to read and write. This is done following a curriculum given by the Department of Education in South Africa. The age of admission to Grade 1 is 5 years or in a situation whereby the child turns six on or before 30 June in their Grade 1 year. This also relates to people entering other education institutions such as higher education, and further education and training, as they are enrolled.

Educational Attainment level: This refers to the highest level of education an individual has completed. This may assist in determining the overall educational standard of the population of a country.

General Household Survey: This is a survey conducted by the Office of National Statistics for instance, Statistics South Africa. The General Household Survey (GHS) offers researchers method of exploring the relationships between income, housing, family, and education. The data on education analyzed in study was acquired through this survey.

Demographics: It refers to selected population characteristics as used in government, marketing or opinion research, or the demographic profiles used in such research. It can also be defined as the statistical data that describes the make-up of a given user base, and this includes information such as age range, gender, education levels, and average household income.

Education Institution: Any institution providing education, whether early childhood education, primary, secondary, or higher education such as a university or technikon. This can also be defined to include an institution providing specialized, vocational, adult, distance or community education.

Educational Policy: A collection of laws and rules governing the operation of education systems. Through these policies, educational guiding principles are followed to a course of action arrived at by decision-makers to address particular issues relating to educational progress.

School dropout: An individual who has stopped attending school because of some reasons hindering her from continuing. There are many reasons that result in girls dropping out of school, which includes: financial problems, social factors and geographic factors. This phenomenon may result from lack of time, loss of interest, and especially, failure to achieve goals which seems to be critical factors. The study dwells on most of these reasons.

Primary education: In South Africa, primary schooling occupies the first seven years of education. Primary education is the beginning of a systematic set of studies in reading and writing. It is the first stage of compulsory education, which is preceded by pre-school or nursery education. Formal and non-formal primary education for children includes all elementary and first cycle systematic instruction; provision of learning materials. This level of education begins from Grade One to Grade Seven.

Secondary education: This is the stage of education directly following primary school. Secondary education is generally the final stage of compulsory education. However, secondary education in some countries includes a period of compulsory and a period of non-

compulsory education. In South Africa, this level of education continues from primary level as stated above starting from Grade Eight to Grade Twelve.

Tertiary education:

Tertiary education also referred to as third stage, third level, and /or post-secondary education, is the educational level following the completion of secondary schooling. Higher education refers to a level of education that is provided by universities, vocational universities, community colleges and technikons.

1.9 Thesis outline

This study is subdivided into six chapters. Chapter 1 provides the background to the study. It presents the statement of problem, objectives, research questions, hypotheses and the significance of study. Keywords are defined and the thesis outline is given in this chapter. In chapter 2, reviews of literature are discussed in the following order: theoretical literature, empirical literature and conceptual framework for assessing females' participation in education. Chapter 3 explains the research design, methodology and data collection. Chapter 4 provides the results of the data analysis. Chapter 5 discusses the results. The 6 concludes and proffer recommendations to education policy makers.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2. 1 Introduction

The chapter deals with the literature review pertaining to trends in women's education in South Africa focusing on the structural changes that have taken place between 2004 and 2007. This task is executed by analysing data from both 2004 and 2007 General Household Surveys (GHS). A compilation of studies conducted by Statistics South Africa, from Census 1996, Census 2001 and Community Survey 2007. Education mainly focuses on women's attainment, attendance and reasons for not attending or participating according to ages, and provinces according to population groups. The chapter is divided into three main parts: theoretical literature, empirical literature and conceptual framework.

2.2 Theoretical literature

The study dwells on different theoretical frameworks such as Liberal and Social Learning theory to describe and analyse female's position in education system, however, liberal feminism is the focus. Liberal feminism as a branch of feminism is a school of thought that seeks to change the traditional role and image of women to end sexism, and to attain for women equal rights with men (Mackenzie, 1993 cited in Mkuchu, 2004). Furthermore, liberal feminism under the umbrella of feminism proposes the need to expose and critique possible male bias in the schooling system that might perpetuate the exclusion or subordination of women in the society. Ringrose (2007) showed another effect of gender gap is that most girls are still experiencing male-dominated classrooms, and cultures; leaving girls to simply make the best of things.

From a theoretical viewpoint, feminist research on education has been an important ingredient to the success of liberal feminism and has contributed to gender justice policy formation across the years. Mkuchu (2004) notes liberal feminism has been influential in using research and research findings to clarify many dimensions of educational inequalities between the sexes, thus exploring alternative educational possibilities. This further demonstrates the realities of female unequal participation and power in education sector. Mkuchu (2004) further posited liberal feminism produces an important political input at the institutional and government levels in persuading those in authority of the injustice of the situation, the need to make changes and the possible form those changes might take.

Furthermore, Mkuchu (2004) showed education is supposed to change attitudes, beliefs and values and bring about gender equality, but liberal feminism focuses on socialisation, gender roles and gender stereotyping. Therefore, according to this framework, girls and boys are socialised into traditional attitudes and orientations. It is argued that the impact of such socialisation discourage the full participation of males and females in the development process. Because in societies particularly rural societies girls are generally expected to take care of the households at early ages while, boys are taken to school to further their education. Therefore, this indicates that girls and boys are expected to play certain roles within the society.

Conversely, social learning theory is associated with the acquisition of identity in different spheres including gender. Mkuchu (2004) showed different social theorists confirmed the importance of reinforcement and imitation in the acquisition of gender identity. This means that character identification led students to mould their own behaviours after role models. More so, the social learning theory predicted children learn what constitutes gender-

appropriate behaviours from gender role expectations and role models they observe around them. Girls experience this more because of less representation of females in higher education who are role models, which might be one of the reasons children in rural areas mostly, discontinue after secondary level. The resultant effect of this is that female students cannot simply find relevant role models because of their fewer representatives in education particularly in higher education. If female characters are depicted in limited stereotyping roles, like inability to access certain fields of study e.g. science and technology, law and other male-dominated subjects or learning areas, female students tend to limit their own aspirations.

Education has the capacity of perpetuating inequality but it also has the power to redressing it (Mkuchu, 2004). This therefore makes liberal feminism to have potentially dramatic implications in the field of education where it emphasises the need to expose and critique possible male bias in educational theory and practice that might perpetuate the subordination of women. It is for this reason that liberal feminists have been active in challenging sexism in schools. They have also concerned themselves with eliminating sexist instrumental materials and encouraging girls to pursue predominately male careers as those in science and technology.

Liberal feminism's focus in education has been on gender socialisation (Acker, 1987 cited in Mkuchu, 2004). The socialisation process made through instructional materials, curricula counseling, school organization and the general school atmosphere, leading into girls and boys being socialised into traditional attitudes and orientations, which result in limiting roles. Socialisation process can be used to correct disadvantages against women and girls because they are conditioned to passivity and subservience. Furthermore, socialisation can be

detrimental to the full development and participation of both females and males in the society. It has been argued as such that it encourages patterns of interpersonal relationship between males and females which largely work to the disadvantage of females. The end result is that females are socialised and placed in a position of dependence which further perpetuates gender inequality (Stromquist, 1990 cited in Mkuchu, 2004).

Mkuchu (2004) discussed some strategies employed by liberal feminists in education which showed true equality of opportunity can only be brought about through elimination of gender role stereotyping in the schooling system and the society at large. According to this framework, the best way to achieve this end is through education. It is through education that traditions and belief, which reinforce inequality between the sexes, are challenged thereby helping to break down the legacy of discrimination handed over from one generation to the next. Furthermore through education, attitudes of pupils, teachers, parents and employees can be changed.

Furthermore, Diko (2007) affirmed despite the country's historical bias against women, South Africans do not generally believe there is gender inequality in the education sector. Their misconception stems largely from the fact that there are more girls in South African schools than boys. It is vital therefore that women's continued oppression in education be exposed with a view to dismantling male privilege, ending the tension between policy and practice, and bringing about meaningful social change. Moreover, the social change and development in education sector can be brought about by addressing issues such as the ones discussed in this review.

2.2.1 Factors affecting female participation in education

This section of theoretical literature discusses factors that affect female's participation in the educational system. These factors somewhat hinder females' progress within the education levels e.g. there is evidence that girl's dropout proportions are at peak at the secondary school level. These factors are discussed according to categories such as educational setting, geographical, socio-cultural, economic, health, legal and political/administrative factors.

2.2.1.1 Educational setting

Brock and Cammish (1997) affirmed education itself can be a limitation to female participation in schooling. For instance, difficulties of accessibility, lack of resources and teacher quality and moral are prevalent. In particular, lack of female primary teachers in rural areas is a real problem. In some countries, parents are very reluctant to send their daughters to school if there are no female teachers, and the facilities for the accommodation and security of such teachers. Brock and Cammish (1997) then suggested that at secondary level, in addition to the lack of accessible places and problems of cost, there is a considerable need for more single-sex (girls) schools with secure boarding facilities and scholarship schemes to enable participation. Vocational education is weak and schemes if opened to girls in this field are particularly useful.

Infrastructure is another factor that affects educational participation. Kgobe (2009) noted that fairly large number of small schools, 1-4 classrooms (6137 in total, 25 %) are located in areas that are not densely populated thereby minimising distance between home and school. The Eastern Cape has close to 3200 schools with fewer than nine classrooms and 70 % of schools in the Free State are small (Education Foundation, 2006, cited in Kgobe, 2009). Furthermore, Kgobe (2009) verified the difference between gross and net classroom shortages, showing there is a problem with the distribution of classrooms. Poor infrastructural planning resulted

in schools built in areas where population was declining or there was not really a demand in the first place. The resultant effect is the massive learner migration from qualitatively worse to better schools (DoE, 2003:98 cited in Kgobe, 2009).

2.2.1.2 Geographical

Rowena (1997) showed South Africa secondary schools mainly in rural areas tend to be located far from where people live and this may lead to them developing attitude against the enrolment of girls at this level and undoubtedly reduces the number of potential higher education candidates. Furthermore, Brock and Cammish (1997) observed significant spatial inequality and in some cases, the incompleteness of institutional provision (even at primary level) directly rated to difficulties of physical access which adversely affect girls more than boys. Hence, there is an overall and profound urban/rural dichotomy which favours towns and cities, especially in secondary school provision for girls, patterns of transportation and migration which affect educational condition. Rowena (1997) shared similar thoughts about young girls traveling to and from school especially in rural areas, again normally disadvantaging female and in some cases extreme physical difficulties, such as flooding and other dangerous act in the same way. Moreover, HSRC (2005) verified that long distance to school increase the chance of school girls being harassed and raped on their way to school.

The 2002 School Register of Needs Survey reported that 34 % of schools had no access to water, 16.6 % had no access to toilets, and 34 % had no access to telephones. In addition, the survey reported a decline (compared to 1996 figures) in the number of schools buildings in good and excellent condition, but showed 12,000 buildings are in need of repair. While there are wide variations from province to province, these national statistics provide an overview of the extent of the challenges facing the education sector.

2.2.1.3 Socio-cultural

A major limitation to female taking up and following through educational opportunities (even when these are available) is a near universal fundamental cultural bias in favour of males (Brock and Cammish, 1997). The widespread of patriarchal systems of social organization; customary early marriage; incidence of early pregnancy; heavier domestic and subsistence duties for females (especially in rural areas); a generally lower regard for the value of female life; all combine though differentially in each case, to adversely affect the participation of girls and women in formal education. These constraints result in lack of female role models that could challenge the traditional one that is clearly acquired by both sexes at a very early age. Brock and Cammish (1997) propose that the influence of this factor can only be overcome, entirely by a profound change of attitude on the part of influential males; and in some countries of traditionally-minded powerful females in key family positions.

According to Human Rights Watch (HRW, 2001) South African girls often encounter violence in their schools. For them, violence and abuse are inevitable part of the school environment. Although girls in South Africa have better access to school than many of their counterparts in other sub-Saharan African states, they are confronted with high level of sexual violence and sexual harassment in schools that obstruct their access to education (HRW, 2001). The central government has also recognised that violent crime is a major social issue in South Africa, causing a threat to school safety, and education policy-makers maintaining that they are committed to ending sexual violence in schools. Sexual violence and harassment in South African schools raise a discriminatory barrier for young women and girls seeking education. Government's failure to protect girl children and respond effectively

to violence violates not only their bodily integrity but also their right to education (HRW, 2001).

HSRC (2005) states schools are not happy or safe havens for many learners. They suffer maltreatment, abuse and discrimination at the hands of both peers and teachers. HSRC (2005) and HRW (2001) agreed there is extensive evidence of sexual harassment and frequent beatings by teachers and bullying. Many learners drop out of school because of poor educational experiences and discouragement from their teachers. The above studies evidenced that violence within schools and violence against girls is a serious problem. Going to and from schools, girls are at risk of harassment, beating and rape. Also inside schools, relationships between male teachers and female learners can find expression in everything from the 'sugar daddy' phenomenon to girls being humiliated and treated as less than equal in classrooms (HSRC, 2005). Further, the inaccessibility of the criminal justice system in rural areas compounds the difficulties that girls and families face in reporting such abuse and in obtaining justice (cited from children first, 2003 in HSRC, 2005).

HSRC (2005) showed concern about school drop-out and young people roaming the streets during school hours. The study argued that in rural communities, the social system has failed rural learners as a consequence of poverty, unemployment, lack of money to pay school fees and other costs for further education. The Community Survey 2007 data showed money for fees has the highest percentage of 30 % and more as one of the reasons for learners not attending educational institutions in 2007. As a result, very few learners in rural areas are likely to proceed with education beyond secondary school. Even those with good matriculation passes and higher education qualifications are unlikely to find employment if they remain in the villages.

Grant & Hallman (2006) confirmed pregnancy is one of the major factors that are responsible for school dropouts amongst school girls in South Africa. The higher education is not exempt of learners not completing their study programs. Higher Education South Africa (HESA), a body representing all 23 public universities in South Africa reported a disturbingly high dropout rate, even reaching up to 35 % in recent years at some universities, showed the bulk of those leaving being first-year students. The report also referred to the Human Sciences Research Council's (HSRC) recent study of about 34 000 students which showed that of this amount, only 14 000 students graduated with some 20 000 dropping out of their courses, most of them being in their first year or midway through their second year of study (Van Wyk, 2009; EduLoan, 2009).

Two major factors are shown to contribute to the issue of school drop-out. The first is lack of information in final year of high-school. Here, these students are not provided with enough information or guidance regarding which subjects or area of study they could decide to take that will lead them to their pathways. Hence, where this information is not provided, it can become a very costly mistake, both in terms of 'wasting' time and finances, as well as students then losing interest in their tertiary studies and dropping out (EduLoan, 2009). Girls are predominantly affected by this lack of information that can effectively broaden the choice in the study programmes.

The other factor is the lack of finance. The HSRC revealed that many students enrolled at South African tertiary institutions are from extremely poor homes with a combined household income of between R400 and R 1 600 per month. Hence, these students take up part-time jobs to meet both their educational and daily survival obligations, with their studies invariably

being affected and them ultimately dropping out altogether. Therefore, this means that without proper education, these people will, however, not be able to contribute positively to the future of the South African economy (EduLoan, 2009).

Women in general and black women in particular, have remained clustered in disciplines such as teaching and nursing. Rowena (1997) states black as well as white women continue to be strikingly lacking from courses such as law, architecture, and engineering, although the proportion of black women enrollment lacking in these courses is far greater than that of white women. Comparing the modules studied by women in higher education and the categories of institutions, she confirmed greater differences were noted in South African Technikons and Universities. She further stated that in 1988, only African women in technikons were studying industrial subjects and none were studying engineering. Kwesiga (2002) shared the idea that women are still concentrating in 'traditional' subjects or professions. Females constituted 72 % and 66 % of enrolments in universities and technikons respectively in 2004. The data further revealed seven in ten teacher education students enrolled in higher education were females; attesting to increasing female dominance of graduate output with teaching qualifications (Paterson & Arends, 2008).

Rowena (1997) reflected on enrolment statistics in general and in particular, enrollment statistics for scientific and technological fields. The most severe inequalities in South African higher education existed among African women. Research showed African women are enrolled in part-time courses of study in education, languages and the humanities. The lack of female scientists in South Africa is particularly troubling given the country's skill shortages in science and engineering. Rowena further argued girls were often actively discouraged from studying science and from considering careers in science (Rowena, 1997).

The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) confirmed a far smaller number of girls than boys opt for science and mathematics stream. This coupled with a relatively inferior quality of teaching of science and mathematics in most schools led to weaknesses in these subjects. In addition, lack of adequate foundation in science and mathematics further limits the girls' choices for courses requiring knowledge and application of science and technology. It has been shown that even in countries where all types of courses are made available to girls; the number of girls opting for non-traditional courses is still very low, meaning the males dominated these courses. The result is a large percentage of females' enrollment in Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) being still traditional female-oriented trades. It is also noted that women's participation in technical profession is significantly lower (UNESCO, accessed February, 2009).

Moreover, Minister of Higher Education and Training, Dr. Blade Nzimande at the 2009 World Conference on Higher Education; emphases that there's still a gender imbalance throughout higher education systems especially in leadership positions. He continued by stating that currently, leadership in higher education across Africa is dominated by males. *'Underlying this though is still the deep interconnectedness of racial, ethnic, class and gender inequalities in higher education in our continent'*. Furthermore, he stated that governments together with institutions need to develop mechanisms to tackle these imbalances (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2009).

2.2.1.4 Economic

Brock and Cammish, (1997) reasoned economic factors are probably the most adversely influential in affecting female participation in education, especially in rural areas. In addition

to such economic circumstances, both direct and hidden costs of family sending daughters to school are perceived by parents to be prohibitive in terms of the provision of books and uniforms as well as the loss of vital help at home. They argued in most cases, the contribution of females is less considered and they may have little or no experience of the handling money which further reduces their status and power, but increases their vulnerability. Due to patriarchal predominance, investment in girl's schooling is considered wasteful since it benefits the family into which the girl marries rather than her own. The more privileged classes' investment in the education of females may be an advantage in "marrying well", which further increases the urban/ rural gap (Brock & Cammish, 1997).

2.2.1.5 Health

Brock and Cammish (1997) posited that the effect of poverty and malnutrition on the health of school age children falls harder on girls than boys. Boys may get preferential feeding, while girls (who have a heavier domestic work load) are more likely to be undernourished. Even if they get to school, this adversely affects their performance and ultimately, retention rate. Health problems associated with pregnancy, especially for adolescent girls, obviously have a negative effect, as do rising trends of sexual activity in the younger generations where these occur. They further noted that problems associated with family size and family planning are widespread in relation to possible participation in education and imply the need for sex/health education at school level. It is clear that health factor, though partly hidden and indirect in effect is a very significant one in respect of the quality of (young) female participation in education as well as the quality of it (Brock and Cammish, 1997).

Pregnancy plays a major role as an effect of school leaving. Teenage pregnancy accounts for high drop-out rate among African girls in South Africa, especially at the secondary school

level. In some circumstances, pregnant girls are required to leave school, and many never return (Rowena, 1997; Bourque & Warren, 1990; King & Hill, 1993). Grant & Hallman (2006) agreed with Rowena (1997) that frequent pregnancies are also high among African women, thus reduced their availability for educational pursuit, particularly at the higher education level. HSRC (2005) also confirmed teenage pregnancy contributes to drop-out in a number of important ways. In addition, many girls who fall pregnant hope to return to school since school policy permits this, but they may find it difficult to go back to school after having a child because there is no one at home to care for that child. Even if they do, they are unable to concentrate on their studies as they spend most of their time thinking about the problem they are facing at home.

2.2.1.6 Legal

Most countries have now legislated for equal status in respect of sex, but this is usually a recent innovation and traditional authorities still often operate unchallenged. However, there are still important areas where the law could be reformed further to encourage compliance and the system of justice strengthened to ensure that actually happens. In many rural areas long standing societal rules constraining females are still operative, as is the case with conditioning early marriage. Furthermore, the acquisition of minimum legal knowledge and support in areas such as gaining justice and compensation for assault; understanding letters and contracts; arguing for educational provision according to the law; and challenging disadvantageous pressures in respect of marriage, divorce and inheritance could be very helpful to the female cause. More so, there should be concern over the legality of the employment of (young) children, particularly girls and the dominance of males in the legal profession. The encouragement and support for more females to seek the legal and develop

careers in various areas of profession could be a very significant development in respect of female participation in education (Brock and Cammish, 1997).

2.2.1.7 Political/Administrative

Brock and Cammish (1997) affirmed although policies exist in most cases for developments such as universal primary education, equal educational opportunities in terms of gender and the eradication of gender bias from texts and other materials, the political will to carry these through seems to be weak in the face of severe economic constraints. The creation of Ministries of Women's Affairs appears to be counterproductive, and the poor quality of local administrative/advisory staff and resources renders such government initiatives as they occur, relatively ineffective. The record of NGOs is markedly better and those government that enable NGOs to operate in favour of increased female participation are to be commended. In the some cases where strong political dichotomies or other such disparities existed, even elite/privileged females may be disadvantaged by being in the 'wrong' camp and their potential contribution to national development and the role of females in general to that end may be lost. Language policies can adversely affect female participation in that where vernaculars have no status and schooling is either absent or very poor women and girls remain 'trapped'. As with the churches, political leaders are almost always male, and until considerably more women break into the most influential echelons of power, the question of low female participation in education and its implications for national development may well remain on the sidelines.

Education throughout the African continent is characterized by low enrollment, inconsistent quality, and restricted economic returns (Rowena, 1997). South Africa is confronted with disturbing set of circumstances of apartheid. It is vital to identify factors that delay the

progress of South African women especially, in the sciences, in terms of both enrollment and retention. The author maintains that historical factors play a significant role, but also cultural and socio-economic factors should also be considered. Furthermore, although it is necessary to examine any educational system for prejudices against females, it is important to do so within the context of a society's norms and ideologies.

According to HSRC (2005) lack of educational opportunities outside schools, or offered through schools for adults and out-of-school youth, form part of this wider picture of educational deprivation. As to be expected, the literacy levels of adults and the educational attainments of children in rural areas are among the lowest in the country and the projected future for the majority is unemployment, as it is the case at the moment.

The importance of arguing for rural education is that the constitution requires it. The constitution of South Africa states that the nation is founded on the principles of *"human dignity, the achievement of equality and the advancement of human rights and freedoms"* (HSRC, 2005). It maintained *"everyone has the right to a basic education in particular women and girl children, including adult basic education; and to further education, which the state, through reasonable measure, must make progressively available and accessible"*. Education is a popular demand in the rural areas of KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo. The HSRC (2005) elaborated *"South Africans living in rural areas believe in education, want more of it and want its quality to be good as possible"*. Nevertheless, this study failed to elaborate evidently how important it is for females to acquire education in South Africa.

HSRC (2005) recommended an integrated approach that centers on access to basic good quality, equitable, well-managed and democratically-organized education for all; including early childhood education, giving special attention to the conditions of girls. Development of non-formal educational opportunities for adults and out-of-school youths, giving special attention to women and girls was also recommended. Lastly, rural development policies that give priority to basic education and strategies that recognize the special needs of the rural environment.

Moreover, as regards educational opportunities for South African women, Rowena (1997) verified limited educational and occupational opportunities are not unique to South Africa. Whereas only very small numbers of South African women are employed in highly paid professional occupations such as engineering, accounting, architecture and law, there is evidence of marked horizontal and vertical segregation in many developed countries. Globally, women predominate in service and support occupations including clerical, caretaking, and retail fields. In manufacturing sector, women are concentrated at the unskilled and semiskilled levels. Even well-educated women tend to enter the teaching and nursing professions rather than management or scientific and technical occupations (Rowena, 1997).

Despite the increased educational opportunities, changing economic and political pressures have opened to South African women. Rowena (1997) posited the extent of educational deprivation is greater among black women, further indicating that the privileges white women enjoy through access to political and economic power ensure that they are in a much better position to secure employment in professional areas closed to black women.

An illustration of inequality among professions, even though the rates of women in science is increasing, women are still more deprived in this field. Comparing women and men in the medical profession, the South African medical profession remains predominantly male, although there is a change. Breier & Wildschut (2008) showed registered female medical practitioners increased by 24 % in period 2002-2006, compared to 6 % for male doctors increased from 27-30 % during the same period. It is predicted that at the current rate of growth of female numbers, it will take about 22 years for female doctors to outnumber male doctors.

Breier and Wildschut (2008) showed in the 7-year period 1999- 2005, enrolments at the eight medical schools (University of Limpopo, University of Cape Town, Medunsa, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Walter Sisulu University, Stellenbosch University, University of Free State and Wits University) increased by 17 % for females whereas enrolment for males declined 10 %. White and Indian female enrolments dropped by 12 % and 7 % respectively, while coloured female enrolments almost doubled and black female enrolments increased by nearly two-third.

The theoretical literature discussed above assisted in answering some of the research questions and also assisted in testing the hypotheses given in Chapter 1 of this thesis. Although, more information is still needed, some of these questions and hypotheses are not clearly discussed in the previous works. Predominantly, the factors stated above make the fundamental argument of this study and important issues relating to the study are tackled. More variables may be included in the GHS data that may assist in addressing some of the research questions and hypotheses raised in this study e.g. having more variables looking at the gap between urban and rural areas and how it can be improved.

2.3 Empirical literature

This section of the thesis discusses some observations or studies giving evidence to literature relating to the study. It is divided into three main sub-topics such as literacy (female's level of literacy), patterns and trends of women's education in South Africa and ways in which female's education can be improved in South Africa.

2.3.1 Literacy

Traditionally, literacy is commonly defined as the ability to read and write at an adequate level of proficiency that is necessary for communication. The educational background of an individual is determined by literacy level. Literacy rates in South Africa are very low. Thirty percent of adults are functionally illiterate, and one of the basic causes of this is the lack of money to fund education. Although, up to 20 % of the nation's budget is spent on educational programmes, resources are not sufficient to provide every learner with the opportunity to become a confident reader and writer. Inequitable funding structures, disparities in school fees, insufficient teacher training, lack of supplementary materials in indigenous African languages, and inability to access to books are typically seen as the causes of low literacy rates. While these are certainly key factors, experts also point out that South Africa does not have a "reading culture."

To address this subject, the former Minister of Education, Ms. Naledi Pandor launched "The South African Literacy Campaign" on April 14, 2008. According to her, the campaign was intended to address more than the basic learning needs of the poor, but that through literacy; people would fully participate in the government's developmental programmes and enjoy the benefits of the young democracy. These extended benefits of literacy would also go a long way towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) on poverty reduction, women's empowerment, HIV and AIDS eradication and environmental conservation.

Nonetheless, it would in fact be difficult to achieve developmental goals without addressing the literacy challenge. In addition to being a fundamental human right, education is also an enabling right, since it creates the conduit through which other rights might be claimed and protected.

2.3.2 Patterns and trends of women's education in South Africa

According to Census 1996, there were 10.1 million children aged 5-15 years in South Africa, of whom fractionally more than half were girls. Altogether, 79 % of all children in this age group were attending schools. Among those aged 7-15 years, which is the new compulsory school-going age, 89 % were attending schools. On the other hand, there were approximately 7.9 million persons in the group 16-25 years. The female proportion was also above half (51 %). African people dominated the population at 80 %, while 46 % of this age group were living in rural areas (Statistics South Africa, 2001).

Furthermore, a comparison of the proportion of children studying at different ages across the four population groups were carried out. The results illustrated in a form of a graph showed the curve for African children was very similar to that for all the children combined, reflecting the dominance of African children in the children population. The illustration also suggested that Indian children tended to start school at a young age than those of other age groups. More so, by the age of 7 years, a smaller proportion of African children were attending school than for all other population groups. This pattern continued until the age of 14 years. At age 15, the coloured group had the lowest percentage of children attending school (Statistics South Africa, 2001). In terms of urban/rural dichotomy, it is indicated that among children aged between 6-15 years, a higher proportion of urban than rural children were attending schools. The relative difference between urban and rural children was most

marked among children aged 7-8 years, suggesting that rural children rural tend to start schooling at a later age than children in urban areas (Statistics South Africa, 2001).

Kgobe (2009) using Census 2001 showed there were 17.38 million children in South Africa below the age of 18 years. African children constituted the majority of these at 83.6 % (14.5 million), followed by coloured children at 8.5 % (1.49 million), whites at 5.9 % (1.03 million) and Indians at 1.8 % (328 505). Of the stated proportion, girls constituted a slight majority at 50.2 %. Furthermore, out of the 17.38 million children in South Africa, 13 million were in the age category of 5-17 years.

School enrolment from 1991-2004 increased by 16 %, but growth in primary enrolments was at 3.5 %. Only three grades show an overall decline during this period. Grade 1 enrolment showed the highest decline (13.4 %), followed by Grade 2 and Grade 5 at 2.5 % and 2.3 % respectively. The highest decline recorded in Grade 1 is probably as a result of the introduction of age-grade norms and the partial introduction of Grade R. Conversely, the highest increase was recorded at secondary level, with nearly 50 % growth. It was noted that the numbers peaked in 1998, and gradually declined following the introduction of the age-specific enrolment requirements in the late 1990s, leading to a number of inappropriately aged children (under-age and over-age) being removed from the system (Kgobe, 2009).

According to Bot (2003) cited in Kgobe (2009), girls start out as a slight minority in the early primary grades (48 % of enrolment) but constitute 50 % of enrolment by Grade 6 and 55 % of enrolment in Grade 12. Using the Gender Parity Index (GPI), a significant improvement in since the mid 1990s was observed. In 1997, a primary GPI of 0.88 was recorded, which had improved to 0.95 by 2001. The gender parity index (GPI) from 2000-2004 showed significant

improvements in the Eastern Cape, Free State, Limpopo and the Western Cape, which showed GPI of more than 1.00 for the 5 year period in Grades 1-12. This indicates that in proportion to the appropriate school-age population, there were more female learners than males in the ordinary school system (DoE, 2005:17 cited in Kgobe, 2009).

The Gender Parity Index (GPI) is defined as Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for females divided by GER for males. This index is used to indicate the level of access of females to education, compared to that of males e.g. a GPI >1 indicates that, in proportion to the appropriate school-age population, there are more females than males in the school system (Education Statistics 2004; 2007).

On the other hand, Community Survey, 2007 has compiled the data complied from the Community Survey of 2007 on percentages of persons aged 5-24 years attending an educational institution by province and sex showed females are less compared to males in educational attendance across the nine provinces (74.2 % males and 73 % females). Limpopo had the highest percentage of persons attending of 82 % whilst Western Cape had the lowest attendance of 65.8 %.

Looking at educational attainment for persons aged 20 years and above, gender is again included with the results in not being able to determine women's attainment in South African education share similar details pertaining this data. The majority of people in South Africa who seemed to have completed secondary school have a percentage ranging from 33.8-36 % from 2004-2007. Given the fact that there is no gender distribution, it cannot be categorically stated that majority of South African women do not acquire higher education. However, there is an increase in Grade 12 attainment which is 23.4 %, but persons who completed primary

have a low rate of attainment of 6 % throughout that period. Gender distribution is only noted in percentages of persons aged 20 years and older with no formal education. This part of the survey showed majority of females has no formal education because when comparing males and females, females have higher percentages in this regard. The percentages of males ranges from 8.8 % in 2004, and decreasing to 7.1 % in 2007; while females on the other hand, ranges from 12.4 % in 2004 to 11.3 % in 2007 with no formal education (CS, 2007). In conclusion, South Africa women lack education because they are beyond the average range of 10 % of persons with no formal education.

Moreover, at the 4th Annual Women's Parliament Conference in Cape Town on August 28th 2007, former Deputy President of South Africa Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka announced *"Educating a woman, you educate a nation"*. According to UN statistics, South Africa of all African regions today has the highest percentage of children who are given greater access to education at the primary level. It was stated that children attending school at the primary level go from 96 to 70 % at the secondary level, and then there is a drastic drop of 7 % in the female participation at the college level. However, it is unfortunate that girl's and women's participation is in less numbers than the UN statistics show, as many girls are kept from school to work and many girls marry and are encouraged to give up their education to have children (Anzia, 2007).

2.3.3 Improving female's education in South Africa

Anzia (2007) noted that organizations like Girls Education Movement (GEM) attempted to turn the tide that makes it so hard for girls to stay at school under conditions such as early marriages, and the stereotype that girl's education is not seen as an investment. Those who happen to attend school travel long distances to get to and from school, while at school they being at risk of sexual harassment and exploitation from teachers and fellow students. The GEM work to improve these conditions and guide girls in school to continue on, especially to receive a higher education. Furthermore, it is stated that education for girls and women has many positive effects. Girls learn and become more involved in the society and leadership as they become women. They also gain more self-esteem from greater knowledge itself and greater access to knowledge.

Anzia (2007) affirmed GEM is taking action to promote the education of mathematics, science and all new technologies to girls to help them step into the modern world in ways that are active and encourage girls and women to participate in the world. Worthy reference is made of the promise by Oprah Winfrey to the former President Nelson Mandela who has since opened a school in January 2007 for disadvantaged girls that were not given opportunities to study but was determined despite their background.

More so, the Association of South African Women in Science and Engineering (SA WISE) is another association working to encourage girls towards higher education in becoming scientists and engineers. Anzia (2007) stated the objective of the organization is that girls should be encouraged to take science subjects, not only those who might pursue a scientific or technological career, but also those who would then be enabled to apply scientific concepts

in their daily lives. In addition, it is noted that this field of study should not only be seen as a vocation but as the means to develop the scientific and technological culture necessary for development.

Moreover, education is a vital basic right for all children. Education for girls gives women more power in society. It enabled girls and women to improve the conditions of living that many of them are still facing today in South Africa. Furthermore, women in South Africa today can create power for themselves through the safe availability of greater education. Therefore, the gaining of status for women as they acquire greater education offers a vast improvement in their own personal world and society. Consequently, these improvements, too improve life globally, and they impact life at all levels today for all people (Anzia, 2007).

2.4 Educational policies in South Africa

DPMN Bulletin (2003) emphasized education is important for nation building, health and governance. It is also noted that as the demand for education increases, Africa's ability to supply education to its citizens seems to be in relative decline. It is further stated that the United Nations Development Programme indicates that Africa has the lowest index of educational development in the world (UNDP, 2002).

2.4.1 Some features of the transition out of apartheid

According to HSRC (2005), after the election of the African National Congress (ANC) into power in South Africa's first ever democratic election in 1994, the total annual expenditure on education was high by international standards, as was the government's shortfall in budget. At that time, spending on education was racially determined inefficient and

overwhelmingly public. Access to education was good across board, even though blacks had only recently begun to enjoy this access (Crouch & Patel, 2006).

Meanwhile, in addition to the different resources schools traditionally received, it was possible that the complex processes required to change organizational cultures and the dynamics required for all departments to fall under one unified department were not adequately exposed. Accordingly this may have also affected performance at some schools as lack of focus on organizational dynamics may have meant these schools did not adjust effectively to being places of learning (HSRC, 2005). Jansen (2001) suggested *"although the policies may have been produced through processes that paid an excessive amount of attention to formal participation in the policy processes, there was insufficient attention given to the implementation of these policies and a lack of understanding of the factors that may undermine effective policy change"*.

2.4.2 Changes and continuity in South African Education in race and gender

Griffin (2002) showed the philosophical, constitutional and legislative position in South Africa is quite clear that racism, sexism and other contraventions of human rights should have no part to play in the new South Africa and that schooling should be in the forefront in the elimination of such prejudice and discrimination. More so, desegregation of South African schools has begun although it is a one-way process, with African students going to formally all-white or Indian schools. Griffin (2002) argued African schools remain *'as mono-racial as ever'*. At the same time, desegregation has not been welcomed everywhere and in some Afrikaans-medium schools there has been active resistance. However, the key problem in the majority of schools is not plain resistance to desegregation but a failure to address change and promote integration (Griffin, 2002).

Griffin (2002) further noted gender issues are also of crucial importance in South African education. Research has shown that a woman is raped every 90 seconds in South Africa. Relying on the police for help can be problematic. A study by the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) revealed every two and a half days a policeman rapes woman (The Guardian, 1999). The survey revealed that one in three Johannesburg schoolgirls have been raped or sexually assaulted but that just 12 % knew that it was illegal. More so, more than one in ten schoolboys admitted to having raped or sexually assaulted a girl. In addition, nearly half said they believe a girl means *'yes'* when she says *'no'* while 16 % believe girls enjoyed being raped and almost one-third said the victims *'ask for it'* (McGreal, 1999).

2.4.3 South African Schools Act (SASA)

The subject of educational transformation in South Africa has been closely tied to the struggle against apartheid and all the inequalities and oppression that it fostered as mentions earlier. Policy statements with regard to education (and other sectors) have been made with view to changing past practices and in this way addressing the concerns and needs of those most disadvantaged by apartheid policies. The South African Schools Act (No.84 of 1996) referred to as SASA, is a culmination of efforts to reform education in such a way that it would be of benefit to most, if not all the citizens of the country. The preamble to the Act states that:

…this country requires a new national system for schools which will redress past injuries in educational provision, provide an education of progressively high quality for all learners and in so doing lay a strong foundation for the development of all our people's talents and capabilities…

SASA is a product of extensive and intensive debate and discussions as captured in various investigations, reports, commission, committees, draft white paper, draft bill and penultimately, the South African Schools Bill. The South African Schools Act (Act No.84 of

1996) applied to all the nine provinces, but as Sayed (1997a) pointed out, provinces have certain options which they can exercise in terms of their educational provision. These are:

- Provinces are free to adapt their existing education regulations to conform to that of the National Act i.e. SASA.
- Provinces can draw up their own educational legislation (provided it stays within the framework of SASA and the Constitution of the country).

According to Section 34(1) of the Act, the state *"must fund public schools from public revenue on an equitable basis in order to ensure the proper exercise of the rights of learners to education and the redress of past inequalities"*. The Act, however, required the establishment of elected governing bodies in all schools (Motala and Pampallis, 2001).

The main necessities of the South African Schools Act are as follows:

- The multiple school models of the various apartheid education departments have been replaced by two legally recognized categories of schools: public school and independent schools.
- The Act makes schooling compulsory for all children between the ages of 7 and 15 years.
- The Act provides for the establishment of governing bodies with considerable powers at all public schools. The governing bodies must be composed of the principal and elected representatives of parents, teachers, non-teaching staff and (in secondary schools) learners; governing bodies may also have co-opted members without voting rights. Governing bodies are juridical persons.

2.4.4 Higher Education Act

Motala and Pampallis (2001) stated the preface to the Higher Education Act (RSA, 1997b) refers to a variety of 'desirable' intentions- the establishment of a 'single coordinated system'; the transformation of progammes so that they can 'respond better to the human resource, economic and development needs of the Republic'; the need to redress discriminatory practices in respect of representivity and access; and various freedoms and values regarding scholarship, international standards and academic quality.

According to the Act, it is *"desirable for higher education institutions to enjoy freedom and autonomy in their relationship with the state within the context of public accountability and the national need for advanced skills and scientific knowledge"* (RSA, 1997b: Preamble). In addition, this Act like many other pieces of legislation in education refers to a duality of issues- past discriminatory practices and the need to address them, and the question of human resources and economic development. The Education with White Paper 3: A programme for the Transformation of Higher Education (DoE, 1997), which preceded the Act, listed the fundamental principles guiding the transformation of higher education institutions. These principles include:

- Equity and redress 'a critical identification of existing inequalities and a programme of transformation with a view to redress'.
- Democratization 'the system of higher education should be democratic, representative and participatory and characterized by mutual respect and tolerance; and that those taking and implementing decisions are accountable for the manner in which they perform their duties and use resources.
- Development to enable the higher education system 'to contribute to the common good of society through the production, acquisition and application of knowledge'.

- Quality ‘maintaining and applying academic and educational standards in the sense of ideals of excellence that should be aimed.
- Effectiveness and efficiency to enable institutions to function in ways that lead to ‘desired outcomes and do things correctly in terms of making optimal use of available means’ (Motala & Pampallis, 2001).

2.4.5 Education and training policy

2.4.5.1 Education

Motala and Pampallis (2001) stated the Department of Education and Labour have produced policy papers with remarkably different emphasis. The Green Paper on Higher Education Transformation (DoE, 1996a) appeared to be more concerned with locating the current system of higher education within the concerned global capitalism, in particular the production of globally equivalent skill. More so, the availability of employment opportunities is mentioned less regarding higher education graduates within the labour market. As a result, no attempt is made to translate the consequences of the globalization logic into consequences for courses or for employment planning. In fairness, the Department of Education’s preliminary report, the National Commission on Further Education (DoE, 1997), made mention of linkages between further education and small, medium and micro enterprises as well as the dire strait of employment opportunities facing graduates. However, there is little acknowledgement that a very large number of students may be unable to find suitable employment and may therefore be forced to engage in some form of self-employment or informal economic activity (Motala and Pampallis, 2001).

2.4.5.2 Training

Motala and Pampallis (2001) stated the restructuring of South Africa's industrial education and training has been the central characteristic of the government of national unity's post-election initiatives. The Green Paper on Skills Development released in March 1977, resonated with many of the proposals adopted by the radical democratic movement over the past decade (DoL, 1997). However, in the context of the economic restructuring that the country is undergoing, many of these proposals have been stripped of their initial radical content. On the other hand, the authors confirm that in the early 1990s, The Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) was a key advocate of the establishment of a National Qualification Framework (NQF) as part of a set of proposals aimed at restructuring education and training. They claimed NQF would unite the education and training systems into a unified, outcomes-based qualification net that would cover all specialties of learning from primary school to post-doctoral degrees. According to this, accreditation would be obtained from experience-based learning through recognition of prior learning, thus facilitating the progress of learners from the non-formal to the formal education system (Motala and Pampallis, 2001).

2.5 Conceptual Framework

In this section, the focus will be on the formulation of a conceptual framework drawn from theoretical literature, the empirical literature and the overall policy appraisal previously undertaken. The conceptual framework provides the basis of what is argued in the thesis.

From the review, it emerges that female's participation in education system is affected by different factors. They all play crucial roles in hindering or improving the level of women in

education. The environment where a girl lives, for instance a province, determines her progress in educational levels like access to higher education. This is in relation with the infrastructure as in rural areas there are less resources, classes are fewer and located far from the households. As stated in literature and in the results, there's still a gap between rural and urban education. Girls leaving in these areas experience educational barrier differently, e.g. attendance obstacles of rural girls and urban girls are not the same. Hence, the difficulties females experience in education are not of the same nature.

The other factors are of socio-cultural nature. In South Africa, stereotypes of categorizing women still exist for instance, the assumptions that females take a second place when it comes to education. There is less investment in girls in terms of education as they are expected to remain at home and take care of the households while boys are given some preference to attend school. However, there are misconceptions about equality in school since there are more girls than boys in South African schools as stated in the literature. Moreover, when looking at the positions held in the management sectors either at school level or in higher education the representation of females in those ranks is lacking. Thus, according to the society it assumed that females should be at home and take of children and the family.

Other fundamental factors prohibiting female's progress in education include economic factors. It is one of the main reasons why girls drop-out of school due to inability to afford school fees, uniforms and books. Looking at the current economic conditions, this factor is still going to remain the most dominant factor that prohibits girls from pursuing their studies further. Pregnancy as a health factor is a major cause in the non-attendance of girls particularly in secondary level. Although, the Department of Education policy states that young women who become pregnant should be given time off to give birth and then should

be able to continue schooling, often these girls are not able to go back to school because there is no one to look after the baby. In most cases, the mother (meaning the girl with a child) cannot afford raising the child and going to school at the same time due to finance. The above mentioned factors provide the justification of hypothesis stated in chapter 1. The methodology underlying the study is now presented.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology of the study, ways in which the information utilized were acquired and methods of analysis. It consists of subsections highlighting the way the data were collected, the instruments that were utilized and how data were analyzed. Along these lines it also looks at other characteristics that contribute to methodology such as sample size and participants.

3.2 Type and perspective of the study

The nature of this research follows a quantitative perspective and more specifically the study makes use of a cross-sectional design. This design is identified with survey research by carrying out a random sample of individuals and asking some questions; hence the data was collected from individual households within the sample through the General Household Survey. This type of research is important to utilize since it facilitates the purpose of this study that is to examine some structural changes in educational enrollment and attainment level within the female population in South Africa between 2004 and 2007.

In this study the measurements of variables will also be defined and the statistical methods will be used to test the relationship between the variables. Thus the significance of the study is descriptive analysis, which establishes associations between variables. As the research is concerned about the enrollment rate, attendance rate and many other factors related to females' educational attainment in South Africa between 2004 and 2007.

3.3 Context and access

The study was conducted in all the nine provinces of South Africa including both urban and rural areas specifically looking at some structural changes in educational enrollment and attainment level within the female population of South Africa in 2004 and 2007. The research was carried out utilizing data from two General Household Survey by comparing data in 2004 and 2007, which is the period of interest in the study. This data were accessed from General Household Survey 2004-2007 hence according to the methodology and pro-coding underlined by Statistics South Africa. GHS files were obtained in SPSS format and this made it possible to run statistical methods on the data files which refer to sections of the questionnaire. The data file is that of person file.

Most questions in the General Household Survey questionnaire were pre-coded, therefore there were limited set number of choices from which one or more must be selected. For open-ended 'write-in' questions, the explanation noted that post-coding occurred and explained how this was done. Most variables were coded from the questionnaire and were not repeated in the variable description. Where the coding was not noticeable, the description either provided the code or indicated where code lists are found.

The coverage area of the GHS is the sample that was drawn from the master sample utilized by Statistics South Africa. The target population is private households in all nine provinces of South Africa, and residents in workers' hostels. Unit of data collection is the household and unit of analysis is the person inside the household. Further details on the GHS methodology are outlined in the appendix 10,11, and 12.

3.4 Participants and how they were selected

The focal point of the study is on the education of females in South Africa, specifically looking at how many are enrolled, how many are attending and the attainment of the women in general. The study also focuses on those females who are not attending and the reasons for not attending. The age group of interest in this study is between 6-30 years since most people in these ages are still attending school. In addition, this study emphasizes the attainment of females by focusing on higher education, for instance, how many women attain higher education.

3.5 Instrumentation

The design of the study is a cross-sectional design since it is identified with survey research. The sample of the research was also randomly selected provincially amongst females' enrolled and still attending school in ages 6-30 years. Statistics South Africa conducted a survey by utilizing a questionnaire to acquire data and individuals were randomly selected to respond to the set of questions about their backgrounds, past experiences and attitudes.

3.6 Data collection

The General Household Survey 2004 was collected by drawing sample from the master sample. The master sample was drawn from the database of enumeration areas (EAs) established during the demarcation phase of Census 1996. As part of master sample, small EAs consist of fewer than hundred households were combined with adjacent EAs to form primary sampling units (PSUs) of at least hundred households, to allow for repeated sampling of dwelling units within each PSU. The sampling procedure for master sample involved explicit stratification by province and within each province, by urban and non-urban areas. Within each stratum, the sample was allocated disproportionately. A Probability Proportional

to Size (PPS) sample of PSUs was drawn in each stratum, with the measure of size being the number of households in the PSU. Altogether approximately 3 000 PSUs were selected. In each selected PSU a systematic sample of ten dwelling units was drawn, thus, resulting in approximately 30 000 dwelling units. All households in the sample dwelling units were enumerated.

On the other hand, the sample General Household Survey 2007 was also based on a master sample (MS) that was designed during 2003 and used for the first time in 2004. This master sample was developed specifically for household sample surveys that were conducted by Statistics South Africa between 2004 and 2007. These included survey such as the annual General Household Survey (GHS). A multi-stage stratified area probability sample design was used. Stratification was done per province (nine provinces) and according to district council (DC) (53 DCs) within provinces. These stratification variables were mainly chosen to ensure better geographical coverage, and to enable analysts to disaggregate the data at DC level.

The design included two stages of sampling. Firstly PSUs were systematically selected using Probability Proportional to Size (PPS) sampling techniques. During the second stage of sampling, Dwelling Units (DUs) were systematically selected as Second Sampling Units (SSUs). Similar to GHS 2004 above, in GHS 2007 a PPS sample of PSUs was drawn in each stratum, with the measure of size being number of households in the PSU. Again altogether approximately 3 000 PSUs were selected. In each selected PSUs systematic sample of ten dwelling units was drawn, thus resulting in approximately 30 000dwelling units. All households in sampled dwelling units were enumerated.

Furthermore, the data was collected by asking particular questions pertaining to education, beginning with the ability to read and write at least in one language and the responses can be either yes or no according to the codes. Questions relating to reading and writing are on the literacy of the members of the household and they are applicable to each member of the household. Directed to education are the questions like 'what is the highest level of education that a particular member has completed?' There are also answers coded to choose from no schooling, grade zero to highest degree and others that may not be included in the answers.

The question 'is the respondent currently attending school or any other educational institution?' enable us to find out the number of people who are still currently attending any institution including distance and correspondence education. The question 'which of the following institutions does the respondent attend?' Answers were stated according to the institutions available in the education system. This question allows us to determine the type of institution the female population is enrolled at under distance and correspondence education. At the same time we will be able to compare if there are any changes in institutional attendance between 2004 and 2007.

These questions included a question that looks at repetition of grades and the reasons for that 'is the respondent doing the same grade as last year? And why is s/he doing the same grade as last year?' This question is applicable to people aged 6 and 30 years and currently attending any kind of educational institution. For the participants who answered "yes" the possible answers are provided to choose. The purpose of this question is to know the rate of participation and attendance amongst females that are currently enrolled.

There are factors affecting attendance of females which may also lead to them leaving school. 'What is the main reason why the participant left school?' There are many possible reasons

that include finished studies, pregnancy, failed to reach minimum pass requirements and many more. There are also questions like ‘does the respondent intend going back to school? And when does the respondent intend going back?’ By having this information we are able identify structural changes within female’s educational attainment between 2004 and 2007 to mention but a few.

3.7 Data analysis

This section of research deals with the analysis of information collected for this study. It focuses on handling of the information gathered from the method of observation. The aim of this is to compare observed findings with expected findings. The research questions and hypotheses of the thesis are each utilized in the analysis focusing on univariate descriptive analysis and bivariate analysis. To analyze the data, the statistical program SPSS, is used to conduct descriptive and inferential statistics. Focusing on frequency distribution and cross-tabulation; Chi-square, Phi and Cramer’s V, Lambda and Eta are utilized to test the statistical relationship between the variables.

The research questions that the analysis will be based on are:

- What highest level of education is usually attained by women in South Africa?

This question will be examined through a descriptive analysis by doing frequency distribution of ordinal variable ‘highest education level’. This analysis enables us to determine the highest level of education that females in South Africa generally obtain. The cross-tabulation statistics that can be carried out between two ordinal variables ‘highest education level’ and ‘age’ to ascertain the age that females generally acquire the highest level of education. This can also be determined provincially by doing cross-tabulation between ‘highest education

level and ‘province’. At the same time, the research seeks to find out if there were any transformations pertaining to these variables during the period between the 2004 and 2007.

- Which educational institutions do South African women attend?

In this question the analysis is executed by frequency distribution of variable ‘education institution’. This variable can be cross-tabulated by utilizing nominal variables ‘education institution’ and ‘population group’. This analysis tests the significance of association through chi-square. Since a nominal does not have order and direction, Cramer’s V statistic is excellent at measuring the strength. This analysis will enable us to ascertain whether females in South Africa advance to higher education.

- Is female attendance in educational institutions the same for both rural and urban areas?

The bivariate analysis aims to establish associations between two variables, of which one is the dependent variable and the other one is the independent variable. In this case the association is between the nominal variables ‘currently attending school’ and province (rural and/or urban areas). This will be carried out by doing cross-tabulations between these variables. These variables will enable us to acquire the educational attendance by having the variable ‘currently attending’ as the numerator and the population of females between the ages 6-30, this population is selected according to this age group because people with these ages are still expected to be attending school according to the (GHS 2004), then multiply all that by hundred. The purpose of this analysis is to obtain the rate of attendance in South African educational institutions across the nine provinces including both urban and rural areas.

- What method of education do South African women generally acquire? (Class attendance, correspondence or distance educational learning).

This question will be analyzed according to univariate analysis using the frequency distribution with a variable 'distance learning classes'. The two nominal variables 'distance learning classes' and 'population group' will be cross-tabulated to test the association and measurement of strength through Cramer's V statistics. The purpose of this analysis is to find out if the majority of females as according to research are attending through correspondence and/or distance educational institutions in South Africa.

- What are the reasons for South African girls to leave school?

The nominal variable 'main reason left' utilized in this question will be analyzed by applying frequency distribution. Cross-tabulation will be carried out to ascertain the association between the variables 'main reason left' and 'age' in order to determine the main reason that results in high rate of school leaving for many girl or females in South Africa. The focus will also be on changes, if there are any that occurred during the period between 2004 and 2007 concerning that main reason.

3.7.1 Education rates to be calculated

The enrollment rates by ages that are applied in this study are in accordance with the South African educational system. The rate of enrollment is going to be executed by focusing on all nine provinces including both rural and urban areas.

$$\text{Rate of enrollment} = \frac{\text{all females enrolled at school}}{\text{Total population of females between ages (6-18)}} * 100$$

Rate of enrollment:

$$\text{Primary level (grade 1-7)} = \frac{\text{enrolled girls aged (6-13)}}{} * 100$$

Population of girls aged (6-13)

Secondary level (grade 8-12) = enrolled girls aged (14-18) *100
Population of girls aged (14-18)

In South Africa, the enrollment age for tertiary education is debatable given the history of apartheid; some population groups did not have equal education opportunities. However, in tertiary institutions the expected enrollment ages are between 19 years old to 24 years old depending on the duration of the degree/diploma and the age at which grade 12 was completed.

Attendance rate is calculated by looking at all nine provinces of South Africa including rural and urban areas. This will be implemented through identifying the population that is attending and not attending whereas eligible to be attending according to the age. The attendance rate is computed according to the education institutions.

Rate of attendance = Population of females attending *100
Pop. Attending + Pop. Not Attending

Rate of Non-Attendance = Population Not Attending *100
Pop. Att. + Pop. Not Att.

Rate of attendance:

Primary level (grade 1-7) = attending females aged (6-13) *100

Pop. of Att. females + Not Att. females aged (6-13)

Secondary level (grade 8-12) = attending females aged (14-18) *100
Pop. of Att. Females + Not Att. females aged (14-18)

3.7.2 The structure of data to be used and variables of the study

3.7.2.1 Educational variables

The questionnaire used was quite lengthy; for the sake of space it cannot be included in this report as an appendix. As a result this section provides a detailed description of instrumental variables used in the GHS questionnaire to collect information on education.

3.7.2.1.1 Ability to read

The first question that was asked pertaining to education was 'can the participant read in at least one language?' and the provided answers with codes were 1=yes and 2=no. The purpose of this question is to acquire information about the literacy of the members of the household and is therefore applicable to each member of the household. The person who is considered to read must be able to read simple sentences, meaning a person who can only read his name is not regarded as being able to read. The information on literacy is vital in this study because it is the foundation of a participant's educational capacity.

3.7.2.1.2 Ability to write

The next question was on the ability to write; 'can the respondent write in at least one language?' Possible responses stated 1=yes and 2=no, and the purpose was to obtain information about the literacy of the household members and their ability to write not only their names and surnames. One must be able formulate at least a simple sentence, thus confirming the ability to write. This information is also important in acquiring the background of the respondent pertaining to his or her education. Through this knowledge we can determine who is literate or illiterate.

3.7.2.1.3 Highest education level

Particular questions pertaining to education included ‘what is the highest level of education that the respondent has completed?’ Possible responses provided were 00=no schooling; 01=Grade R/0; 02=Sub/Grade 1; 03=Sub B/Grade 2; 04=Grade3/ Standard 1; 05=Grade4/Standard 2; 06=Grade 5/Standard 3; 07=Grade 6/Standard 4; 08=Grade 7/Standard 5; 09=Grade 8/Standard6/Form1; 10=Grade 9/Standard 7/Form2; 11=Grade 10/Standard 9/Form 3; 12=Grade 11/ Standard 9/ Form4; 13=Grade12/Standard 10/Form 5/Matric; 14=NTC 1; 15=NTC 2; 16=NTC 3;17=Certificates with les than grade 12/Std 10; 18=Diploma/Certificate with less than Grade 12/Std 10; 19= Certificate with Grade 12/ Std 10; 20= Diploma with Grade12/ Std 10; 21=Bachelor Degree; 22=Bachelor Degree and Diploma; 23=Honours Degree; 24=Highest Degree (Masters, Doctorate); 25= Other, specific in the box at the bottom; 26=Don’t know.

The answers were provided according to the selection of the participant. The question was applicable to every member of the household and the intention was to identify only those with qualifications already obtained therefore they must be the ones who must be entered by the enumerators. This means the current level, whereby a person is still busy with is not applicable. According to this questionnaire it is very important to complete each record even if the person has not attended school. Furthermore, diplomas and certificates must be at least of six months duration. This question determines the attainment, which is one of the focal points of this thesis. This variable is also vital in the study because it will facilitate us to determine the acquired level of education of which we can be able identify the changes or trends in female’s education in South Africa. This means through this variable, female’s educational accomplishments can be acknowledged.

3.7.2.1.4 Currently attending school

This variable was obtained from the question 'is the respondent currently attending school or any other educational institution?' Coded answers were 1=Yes and 2=no. This question is interested in discovering the number of people who are currently attending any educational institution despite their qualifications. Distance and correspondence were included in this question since they are both regarded as part of education. This question enables us to examine the literature that the majority of females are enrolled and attending in educational institutions. This variable is significant to this study hence it will enable us to find out how many females are currently attending school. Therefore, we can be able to ascertain females' enrollment by looking at those attending and the population of females who are supposed to be at school between 2004 and 2007.

3.7.2.1.5 Education institution

The question that was asked was 'which of the following educational institutions does the participant attend?' It is including both distance and correspondence education, selecting from 1=Pre-school (including day care, crèche, pre-primary); 2=School; 3=University; 4= Technikon; 5=College; 6=Adult basic education and training / literacy classes; 7=Other adult educational classes; 8=Other than any of the above. This question was directed to members of the household who were currently attending an educational institution and answered yes to the above question about attendance. To substantiate the responses enumerators were instructed not to make assumptions by taking people's ages with the level of education, but rather consider what the response gives. Information on a person's educational institution is important because through that knowledge we are able to detect how many females or girl study through to higher education. Thus higher education is the top of first step of educational hierarchy/ladder. This means we can ascertain the educational institution that majority of

women generally obtain. Through this knowledge we can detect if are there any changes between 2004 and d 2007.

3.7.2.1.6 Distance learning classes

The above question was followed by ‘is it correspondence/distance educational institution?’ Reply 1=yes and 2=no this question is intended for participants attending in correspondence/distance education whereby tuition is outside formal lecture halls. Communication for concerned parties is usually through the use of media, such as e-mail, telephone etc. People of interest in this question were only those who were registered with correspondence/distance educational institutions. Research affirms that majority of females study through distance/correspondence compared to males. This variable assists us to examine this literature therefore we will be able to ascertain accuracy by comparing the evidence within the period of the study.

3.7.2.1.7 Reason for not attending school

The question asked stated ‘what is the main reason why the participant is currently not attending school or any other education institution?’ these options were 01=too old/young; 02=has completed school/education; 03=school/education institution is too far way; 04=no money for fees; 05=S/he is working (at home or job); 06=education is useless or uninteresting; 07=illness; 08=pregnancy; 09=failed exams; 10=got married; family commitment (child minding, etc.) 12=other, specify in column underneath. The purpose of the question was to know the reasons why people were not attending school or any educational institution. It was applying to all members of the household who were at the age between 5 and 24 old. The respondent was required to give the reason why s/he was not attending school or any educational institution. For any other reason that was not pre-coded

in the question, respondents were requested to specify them in the provided space. This variable will enable us to facilitate constraining environment for school attendance. Meaning we will be able to identify problems that are faced by females who are not attending.

3.7.2.1.8 Main reason for leaving school

The question that was asked regarding the reason for leaving school was 'what is the main reason why the respondent left school?' The responses were 01=failed to reach minimum pass requirements; 02=finished studies; 03=to work at home; 04= to work away from home; 05= health reasons; 06= pregnancy; 07=teacher's decision; 08=parent's decision; 09= learner's decision; 10=expelled due to lack of discipline; 11=absconded; 12=no money for fees; 13=lack of school facilities; 14=other, specify. The motive for asking this question from the household members was to find out the main reason why the respondent left school. According to the questionnaire if there was more than one reason, only the main reason was taken. This variable will enable us to examine the attendance by means of identifying females who left school. We can also ascertain the main reasons for leaving school.

3.7.3 Socio-demographic variables of the study

3.7.3.1 Age group

This study mainly focuses on ages 02=5-9years; 03=10-14years; 04=15-19years; 05=20-24 years because they are still expected to be attending school.

3.7.3.2 Population group

The study is looking at all population groups 1=African/Black; 2=Coloured; 3=Indian/Asia; 4=white; 5=other, specify and structural changes amongst them in women's education.

3.7.3.3 Provinces

All nine provinces namely, 1=Western Cape-urban; 2=Western Cape-non-urban; 3=Eastern Cape-urban; 3=Eastern Cape urban; 4=Eastern Cape-non-urban; 5=Northern Cape-urban; 6=Northern Cape non-urban; 7=Free State-urban; 8=Free State-non-urban; 9=KwaZulu-Natal-urban; 10=KwaZulu-Natal-non-urban; 11=North West-urban; 12=North West non-urban; 13=Gauteng-urban; 14=Gauteng-non-urban; 15=Mpumalang-urban; 16=Mpulanga-non-urban; 17=Limpopo-urban; 18=Limpopo-non-urban in South Africa are covered because we are interested in national trends.

3.7.3.4 Attendance

In this variable, we will be focusing on females who are currently attending and those who are not attending an education institution. We will determine this variable by having those who are attending as our numerator and our denominator as those are attending and non-attending. For those who are not attending, we will consider the reasons why they are not attending. The study will include all nine provinces focusing on rural and urban areas across cultures.

3.7.4 Facilitating/constraining environment for school attendance

The purpose of this variable is to determine the problems that females are having or facing while they are attending school. These problems might be the lack of resources like having educational institutions very far from where they live/households or inadequate books at school. The problems of interest are those facing females who are not attending school and the reasons that result in them not attending/going to school, for example shortage of money for school fees.

Chapter 4: Results of the Data Analysis

4.1 Introduction

Improving and expanding educational provision for all, especially the poor and those who are still discriminated against or otherwise disadvantaged (like females) and overcoming barriers to existing access are vitally important; but not enough in South Africa. Increased access to education however, does not automatically translate into better quality education; due to broader social factors both outside and inside schools which often prevent children, especially girls from taking advantage of opportunities on offer (Kgobe, 2009). Hence, this chapter focuses on analyzing both demographic and educational variables, and drawing comparison between the GHS data of 2004 and 2007. The objective therefore, is to discover possible answers to research questions and test hypotheses set out in the study by examining the trends and patterns during those periods. This will be carried out by first examining the literacy levels of males and females, enrolment, attendance and other supporting variables that manifest in determining the trends on educational enrolment and attainment amongst the female population of South Africa. Although males are included as well in the analysis, the analytical focus is on females, to illustrate the inequalities between and within both genders as regards access to education. Some statistics tests will be run to explore the relationship between variables. Due to their big format, some of the tables have been reported in appendices.

4.2 Ability to read and write by population groups and gender

The South African Literacy Campaign launched by the former Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor in 2008, was intended to enable 4.7 million adults become literate between 14 April 2008 and 31 December 2012. Through this campaign, the state welcomed new learners to the portals of learning. *Kha ri gude*, Tshivenda for *let us learn*, invites those adults who missed out on schooling and who cannot read or write, to join one of about 20 000 literacy classes that will be held all over South Africa and which started opening their doors on the 14 April 2008.

The *Kha ri Gude* literacy campaign was developed as a national campaign to end illiteracy among South African adults. As an apex programme of the government, which was announced by former President, Thabo Mbeki in his 2008 State of the Nation address; the Campaign was seen as one of the important developmental ways through which the state prioritize the needs of the poor and address the rights of all citizens to basic education in the official language/s of their choice. This indicates the need for literacy in South Africa especially females in rural areas as they are the ones mostly affected. The results from the GHS 2004 and 2007 data examine this issue as it is of concern in South Africa. Hence, the results serve as the basis of access to education because it gives information on the literacy level of individuals, which is linked to their educational background.

Ability to read and write by gender and population groups were analyzed and a comparison drawn between the 2004 and 2007 GHS data. The trends and patterns of educational enrolment and attainment amongst women in South Africa can be determined by the literacy level as shown in Table 1. Literacy levels as regards ability to read in 2004 among Blacks/Africans showed females (84 %) were able to read more than males (81 %); similar pattern was observed in 2007. More so, higher proportion of Coloured females (81 %) was

able to read than the males (79 %) in 2004; while similar pattern was observed in 2007 among this population group. The Indians are the most literate of all the population groups. In 2004, Indian women who were literate in terms of reading accounted for 94 % while 90 % of males were able to read in the same year. Ability to read among Whites in 2004 is at 89 % for females and 87 % for males. In 2007, similar pattern was observed among the Whites. On the whole, it can be concluded from the results that aside from the Blacks/African females, ability to read declined among females from other population groups between 2004 and 2007. It is also worthy to note that aside from the Indians in 2004, across all population groups, the proportion of males who could read was higher that than of females in both 2004 and 2007.

As mentioned earlier, literacy can also be accessed within the domain of being able to write as also shown in Table 1. The outcome of been able to write as shown is comparable, if not the same as the ability to read e.g. Black/African females have the same proportion for been able to read and write for both 2004 and 2007 at 84 %. The same applies to the rest of the population groups. Similar proportions could be seen when comparing females and males in all the population groups. As a result, the Indian/Asian population group still has more people who are literate in terms of ability to read and write across both years. The reason for these results might be because Indians are motivated in terms of education attendance more than the rest of other population groups in South Africa. Hence, it can be concluded that females are generally able to read more than males meaning their literacy levels are higher than those of males. Comparatively, there is a slight decrease in the proportions from 2004 to 2007 i.e. there are fewer people who were able to read and write in 2007 as compared to 2004. This is indicative that more work still needs to be done with regards to literacy in South Africa as highlighted by the former Education Minister, Naledi Pandor during the Literacy Campaign Launch in 2008.

Another possible factor that may result in the decrease of ability to read and write from 2004 to 2007 might be due to the curriculum that was utilised during that period. For instance, OBE curriculum learners were motivated to do practical projects mostly using their hands and less of reading in classes. This indirectly might have an effect in the ability to read and write as it is something that they do almost every day at school.

Table 1: Ability to read and write by gender and population group 2004 and 2007

Gender	Ability to read	Population group (2004)				Population group (2007)			
		Black	Coloured	Indian	White	Black	Coloured	Indian	White
Males	Yes	16038 81.1%	2060 79.3%	381 90.3%	1158 86.8%	18124 81.4%	2661 78.2%	362 93.1%	851 87%
	No	3729 18.9%	537 20.7%	41 9.7%	176 13.2%	4131 18.6%	741 21.8%	27 6.9%	127 13%
	Total	19767 100%	2597 100%	422 100%	1334 100%	22255 100%	3402 100%	389 100%	978 100%
Females	Yes	16881 83.8%	2231 81.2%	406 93.5%	1149 88.6%	19627 83.8%	2731 79.5%	377 90.8%	778 87.4%
	No	3268 16.2%	516 18.8%	28 6.5%	148 11.4%	3788 16.2%	704 20.5%	38 9.2%	112 12.6%
	Total	20149 100%	2747 100%	434 100%	1297 100%	23415 100%	3435 100%	415 100%	890 100%
	Ability to write								
Males	Yes	16016 81%	2055 75.1%	380 90%	1158 86.8%	18065 81.2%	2653 78%	359 92.3%	845 86.4%
	No	3751 19%	542 20.9%	42 10%	176 13.2%	4188 18.8%	749 22%	30 7.7%	133 13.6%
	Total	19767 100%	2597 100%	422 100%	1334 100%	2253 100%	3402 100%	389 100%	978 100%
Females	Yes	16851 83.6%	4279 80.1%	404 93.1%	1148 88.5%	19587 83.7%	2719 79.2%	377 90.8%	777 87.3%
	No	3297 16.4%	1065 19.95	30 6.9%	149 11.5%	3826 16.3%	714 20.8%	38 9.2%	113 12.7%
	Total	39915 100%	5344 100%	434 100%	1297 100%	23415 100%	3433 100%	415 100%	890 100%

4.3 Education institution attended by gender and population groups

The educational institution refers to Pre-school, School, University, Technikon, College, Adult basic education and other adult education. Since 1994, the South African educational system has been engaged in a process of transformation. This involved all areas of the system, including governance and management, curriculum development, movement towards learner-centred approaches and outcome-based education. A national core curriculum was published in 1997, which was followed by a revised version in 2002. In 2006, a new curriculum for Grades 10-12 was implemented (Newsportal, cited May 25, 2009).

The data from Census 1996, 2001 and Community Survey of 2007 indicated there are minimal differences between males and females who attended educational institutions. However, disparities existed amongst population groups of those who attended education institutions. In the different years the data was collected, the white population group had the highest attendance; while the Coloureds had the lowest proportion of education attendance. On the other hand, attendance amongst Blacks/Africans increased steadily from 71 % in 1996 to 72 % in 2001 and 75 % in 2007; while the proportion of those attending decreased amongst the Indian/Asian population from 70.1 % in 1996 to 69.3 % in 2001 and 68 % in 2007 (Statistics South Africa, 2007; 2001; 1996). These previous results did not, however, emphasize the type of education institutions that were more accessible to females. Hence, the data from GHS 2004 and GHS 2007 was used to fill this gap.

Table 2 showed educational institutions that females are more likely to attend across the population groups. Generally, school has higher attendance in all population groups for both males and females, meaning there are more people attending school as an educational institution. Africans and Coloureds have high pproportion of school attendance in both

genders compared to Indians and Whites; this is constant for both 2004 and 2007. The attendance of African/Black males at school in 2004 is 1 % higher than that of females, while in 2007 the attendance for both genders in the same educational institution is equal. Among the Coloureds, there is higher attendance in schools for females than males. However, school attendance among female Coloureds stabilized between 2004 and 2007. School attendance among Indians' altered between 2004 and 2007; in which there were more females (83 %) than males (81 %) in 2004 whereas the reverse is the case in 2007 whereby 78 % females and 81 % males attended school. This indicates that fewer girls attend school compared to boys over the years. When comparing Whites in the same years and education institution, the table shows similar outcome as that of Indians because they alter with time.

In higher education, Blacks attending University have similar proportion of attendance for both males and females in 2004 and 2007. For Coloureds, there is a 2 % attendance for females and 1 % attendance for males in 2004 but in 2007, the proportions are reversed with the males' attendance being 2 % while that of female plummeted to 1 %. Further observation show Indians and Whites have more attendance in the university than the other two population groups. Mores so, there are more females attending university among the Indians in both years, although the percentages declined between 2004 and 2007 and the same applies to males. In the White population group, females attended more in 2004 and males attended more in 2007. Generally, the attendance for adult education is higher in females in both years across population groups. The attendances seem to be decreasing in 2007 which is indicative of fewer people are attending educational institutions; therefore this outcome raises questions about education at large. This implies that policies on further education should be implemented especially as they are intended for females, particularly in rural areas.

Table 2a: Education institution attended by population group and gender 2004 and 2007

		2004			2007		
Population Group	Education institution	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total
Africans/ Black	Pre-school	190 1.5%	177 1.4%	367 1.4%	190 1.3%	197 1.3%	387 1.3%
	School	12429 95.1%	11798 94%	24227 94.6%	14020 95.3%	13887 94.5%	27907 94.9%
	University	119 0.9%	153 1.2%	272 1.1%	152 1.0%	192 1.3%	344 1.2%
	Technikon	146 1.1%	120 1.0%	266 1.0%	97 0.7%	92 0.6%	189 0.6%
	College	149 1.1%	233 1.9%	382 1.5%	204 1.4%	241 1.6%	445 1.5%
	Adult basic education	9 0.1%	27 0.2%	36 0.1%	13 0.1%	43 0.3%	56 0.2%
	Other adult education	9 0.1%	15 0.1%	24 0.1%	3 0.0%	26 0.2%	29 0.1%
	Other than any above	22 0.2%	25 0.2%	47 0.2%	30 0.2%	18 0.1%	48 0.2%
	Total	13073 100%	12548 100%	25621 100%	14709 100%	14696 100%	29405 100%
Coloureds	Pre-school	28 1.9%	16 1.1%	44 1.5%	26 1.4%	17 0.9%	43 1.1%
	School	1366 93.5%	1403 95.2%	2769 94.3%	1810 94.3%	1843 95.4%	3653 94.9%
	University	21 1.4%	24 1.6%	45 1.5%	37 1.9%	27 1.4%	64 1.7%
	Technikon	29 2.0%	10 0.7%	39 1.3%	14 0.7%	4 0.2%	18 0.5%
	College	13 0.9%	11 0.7%	24 0.8%	23 1.2%	25 1.3%	48 1.2%
	Adult basic education	0 0.0%	3 0.2%	3 0.1%	5 0.3%	9 0.5%	14 0.4%
	Other adult education	2 0.1%	1 0.1%	3 0.1%	1 0.1%	5 0.3%	6 0.2%
	Other than any above	2 0.1%	6 0.4%	8 0.3%	4 0.2%	1 0.1%	5 0.1%
	Total	1461 100%	1474 100%	2935 100%	1920 100%	1931 100%	3851 100%

Table 2b: Education institution attended by population group and gender 2004 and 2007

	2004	2007					
Indians	Pre-school	3 1.2%	0 0.0%	3 0.6%	7 3.3%	5 2.2%	12 2.7%
	School	194 80.8%	198 82.5%	392 81.7%	172 81.1%	179 78.2%	351 79.6%
	University	28 11.7%	31 12.9%	59 12.3%	19 9.0%	27 11.8%	46 10.4%
	Technikon	9 3.8%	5 2.1%	14 2.9%	4 1.9%	4 1.7%	8 1.8%
	College	6 2.5%	5 2.1%	11 2.3%	9 4.2%	13 5.7%	22 5.0%
	Other than any above	0 0.0%	1 0.4%	1 0.2%	1 0.5%	0 0.0%	1 0.2%
	Total	240 100%	240 100%	480 100%	212 100%	229 100%	441 100%
Whites	Pre-school	23 2.7%	21 2.6%	44 2.7%	10 1.6%	12 2.3%	22 1.9%
	School	699 82%	647 81.2%	1346 81.6%	498 81.1%	442 82.9%	940 82%
	University	73 8.6%	78 9.8%	151 9.2%	70 11.4%	50 9.4%	120 10.5%
	Technikon	27 3.2%	18 2.3%	45 2.7%	9 1.5%	6 1.1%	15 1.3%
	College	27 3.2%	24 3.0%	51 3.1%	18 2.9%	17 3.2%	35 3.1%
	Other than any above	3 0.4%	9 1.1%	12 0.7%	7 1.1%	6 1.1%	13 1.1%
	Total	852 100%	797 100%	1649 100%	614 100%	533 100%	1147 100%

4.4 Distance learning classes by gender and province

As part of the Government's commitment to quality education and improving access to education, the Ministry of Education expressed its commitment to open learning and distance education in the White Paper on Training of 1995. It identified distance education as an essential mechanism for achieving these goals. The National Department of Education has also demonstrated its commitment to distance education. The Centre of Educational Technology and Distance Education has launched a project aimed at promoting flexible and resource-based learning as well as distance learning, in an open learning system (Education policy cited June 2009). Despite all the efforts of government, data from GHS 2004 and 2007 indicated this method of institutional attendance still has low percentages in terms of attendance hence, there are fewer people attending in both years across the various provinces.

Table 3 shows distance learning classes according to gender across the nine provinces of South Africa in 2004 and 2007. Results from the data will enable us to determine the method of education acquired by females/women in South Africa in terms of class attendance, correspondence or distance educational institution. Gauteng was shown to have the highest proportion of people attending distance learning classes. Comparing attendance by distance learning in Gauteng, females have high proportion than males using this type of education for both year 2004 and 2007. This result is agreement with the literature that more females' tend to attend distance learning classes as compared to males. The province with least percentages of attendance in 2004 is Limpopo and the Free State in 2007 for both genders. Overall, there are less people attending distance learning classes than those who are not. There are numerous possibilities for these results. On the one hand, Gauteng Province has higher percentages of people attending distance learning classes possibly because it is predominantly an urban, working or industrial city. Therefore, it is easy for both males and females to access

education hence, they can correspond through internet. On the other hand, Limpopo is one of the poorest provinces in South Africa and therefore it is to be expected that this method of attendance could be problematic. Scarcity of resources is still one of the major setbacks in females' access to education.

Table 3: Distance learning classes by gender and province

	(2004)									
Gender	Distance learning	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L
Males	Yes	16 1.2%	26 1.0%	9 1.5%	10 0.9%	28 1.0%	13 0.9%	70 4.1%	24 1.6%	10 0.4%
	No	1322 98.8%	2514 99%	604 98.5%	1092 99.1%	2827 99%	1439 99.1%	1620 95.9%	1493 98.45	2525 99.6%
	total	1338 100%	2540 100%	613 100%	1102 100%	2855 100%	1452 100%	1690 100%	1517 100%	2535 100%
Females	Yes	24 1.8%	29 1.2%	10 1.6%	12 1.1%	32 1.2%	15 1.0%	78 4.9%	33 2.2%	10 0.4%
	No	1342 98.2%	2355 98.8%	616 98.4%	1127 98.9%	2629 98.8%	1440 99%	1504 95.1%	1469 97.8%	2344 99.6%
	total	1356 100%	2384 100%	626 100%	1139 100%	2661 100%	1455 100%	1582 100%	1502 100%	2354 100%
	(2007)									
Males	Yes	16 1.1	17 0.7	13 1.4	4 0.3	56 1.1%	11 0.8	37 3.0%	33 2.2%	24 1.1%
	No	1403 98.9	2466 99.3	948 98.6	1214 99.7	5099 98.9%	1322 99.2	1199 97%	1452 97.8%	2165 98.9%
	Total	1419 100	2483 100	961 100	1218 100	5155 100%	1333 100	1236 100%	1485 100%	2189 100%
Females	Yes	17 1.2	13 0.5	15 1.6	10 0.8	78 1.5%	12 0.8	48 3.8%	28 2.0%	15 0.7%
	No	1362 98.8	2442 99.5	933 98.4	1180 99.2	5067 98.5%	1422 99.2	1216 96.2%	1367 98.0%	2177 99.3%
	total	1379 100	2455 100	948 100	1190 100	5145 100%	1434 100	1264 100%	1395 100%	2192 100%

WC= Western Cape; EC= Eastern Cape; NC= Northern Cape; FS= Free State; KZN= KwaZulu-Natal; NW= North West; G= Gauteng; M= Mpumalanga; L= Limpopo (South African Provinces).

4.5 Educational institution attended by age and gender

Previously, an overall evaluation of educational institution attended was presented provincially. According to educational access in South Africa, age patterns often vary between girls and boys. The South African case confirmed girls carry on (continue) longer through the higher grades, contrary to results from other developing countries. While pre-school provision is the subject of formal policy commitment in South Africa, the problem of over-enrolment of under-age children in Grade 1 persists. Grade R roll-out appears to be long way off. It may also have to be made fee-free if it is to reach out to all children. This is one of the factors that may increase school attendance because as reviewed in Chapter 2, money for fees is one of the main reasons children are not attending.

Nonetheless, comparing data from Census 1996, 2001 and Community Survey 2007; up to the age of 13 there was an increase in the percentage attending an educational institution between 1996 and 2001, but from age 14 years and older the proportion decreased. On the contrary, the Community Survey 2007 shows an increase (from 1996 and 2001) up to age 17, with a steep increase among those aged 5 & 6 years. However, amongst those aged 18 and above, the percentage decreased slightly in 2007 from 1996 and 2001. Regulation of age patterns is fundamental in this study to determine education access and attainment. This includes determining the failure rates and which age or age group females usually drop-out of school.

Appendices 1a, 1b, 1c and 1d showed variation of educational institutions attended according to age of both genders in 2004 and 2007. In 2004, 28 % of males' compared to 26 % of females aged 6 years are attending Pre-school. The attendance in 2007 of both males and females aged 6 years amounted to 18 %, which is indicative that there were more children

attending pre-school at age six in 2004 than 2007. Amongst the two genders, males are the ones that attended more when compared to females. In South African educational policy, there are still arguments on the exact age for children to start Grade 1. However results showed there is a consistent attendance of 95-99 % in males and females attending school in 2004 and 2007. Therefore, this information implies that both genders are well represented in this level of educational institution. It is also the educational institution with the highest attendance.

From empirical patterns, it emerges that as the age increases proportion of attendances decreases for both genders in 2004 and 2007. A possible explanation to that could be that some people may have left school for higher education. Another one could be related to learners repeating same classes or left for working. The drop in percentages is not the same for males and females and the proportions of females' decline are much higher than those of males in 2004. This may be associated with various factors affecting females' education and two of those could be pregnancy and girls getting married at young ages especially in rural areas.

In 2007, the decrease in proportion is the same at 46 % for both males and females. According to the total comparison between 2004 and 2007, there are more people leaving the education institution in 2007 than 2004. Evidence in literature also reveals that females do not have the same opportunities as males. There is an increase in females' percentages that can be noted when analyzing age 22 in higher education. It is noteworthy that people at this age are generally expected to be attending higher level of education. Studies suggested females are still less represented in higher institutions and this is one of the questions of interests raised in Chapter 1. One of the objectives of this research is to find out if females

and males have the same educational opportunities i.e. if they are equally represented or if there are still male-traditionally dominated subjects at school, for example, sciences.

On the contrary, school still has higher percentages than the rest of other educational institutions raising questions to the appropriate age of people who are supposed to be attending higher education. In higher education, males have higher percentages of people attending university than females attending the same institution. For example, at age 30 years; university attendance of males and females in 2004 and 2007 is not the same and in both years males have higher attendances than females. Males' attendance in 2007 is 10 % higher than that of males in 2004 indicating that the attendance at age 30 years decreased during this period. Females on the other hand, showed an increase between 2004 and 2007 with 32 % and 33 % university attendance respectively at that age. For adult basic education in both genders, females are mostly attending those institutions compared to males. Extended social responsibilities on the shoulders of women might explain why the proportion of women is lesser than that of men.

The outcome indicated the level of education is decreasing as the results from data from GHS 2004 and GHS 2007 show. There are also some indications that proportion of attendance are dropping as the years increase meaning that there are many people attending school than higher education. Females are still outnumbered by males when it comes to attendance, particularly in higher education. This implies that government still needs to work hard in improving education standards, for example, providing resources to facilitate education especially for women.

4.6 Highest education level completed by province and gender

High gross enrolment rates in basic education suggest that South Africa is close to achieving universal primary access, a key Millennium Development Goal. However, numbers begin to drop quite dramatically in secondary school and achievement levels become alarmingly low. Learners are moving through the grade but without necessarily attaining the learning outcomes prescribed by the curriculum.

In 2005, the Department of Education estimated that there were approximately 280 000 children and youth outside the education system. There are arguments that the difference between those enrolling and those reaching Grade 5 are largely due to high repetition rates, especially at Grade 1 level, despite the age-grade norms introduced in the 1990s. Research further indicated such repetition is not reported as repetition; especially since there are high over enrolment rates at Grade 1 because of lack of access to early childhood development opportunities in many communities (Kgobe, accessed on 31 June 2009).

Tables in the Appendices 2a, 2b, 2c and 2d illustrate the highest educational level attained by women and men in South Africa according to the provinces, focusing on no schooling to post/higher degree in both 2004 and 2007. Children with no schooling showed 1 % higher proportion in 2004 than 2007; males have a higher proportion of no schooling in 2004 while females have the same proportion at this education level for both years. More so, Grade 7 Western Cape males have the highest proportion of education level in 2004 and 2007 which was 21 % and 17 % respectively, while the Western Cape females with 18 % and 16 % have Grade 7 as the highest level of education in 2004 and 2007 respectively.

According to the results, Grade 12 is the highest level of education in both genders across all the provinces for year 2004 and 2007. In both years, Gauteng has the highest proportion of males and females with Grade 12 as the highest education level. In 2004, Gauteng males and females have the same proportion of 42 % while in 2007, 39 % of females and 35 % of males have attained Grade 12. This is in contrast to what is said in the literature that females drop out frequently when attending secondary school. Limpopo has the lowest number of females (20 %) with Grade 12 as their highest education level. While the proportion of males and females in 2004 is the same, a lesser proportion of males in 2007 (18 %) achieved Grade 12. This might be one of the factors resulting in low attendance in higher education since Grade 12 is the major requirement to access higher education. In South Africa, there is still a high demand for education, especially in regards to females as they are the most disadvantaged. There were some disparities with regards to the analyses carried out regarding higher education. The 2004 and 2007 data available could not be analyzed because they had different variables; and more so, some educational levels were combined in the 2007 data, which is not so for 2004.

The section on highest education level completed by province and gender assists in answering the research question *'How does highest level of education attained by women in South Africa vary across the provinces?'* Outcomes from 2004 and 2007 data utilized in the research indicate that there is a trend of predominantly urban provinces having highest level of education generally. For instance, when looking at grade 7 as the highest level of education Western Cape is the province with highest education level completed and again when looking at grade 12 as the highest level of education Gauteng has the highest proportion while provinces with lowest/least proportions are Limpopo, Eastern Cape and Mpumalanga. With regards specifically to gender, females have similar if not the same proportions with

males in this regard. The disparities in provinces are mainly an effect of the background environment as provinces such as Eastern Cape and Limpopo have limited resources and opportunities. Pertaining higher education the 2004 and 2007 data available could not be analyzed due to difference in their variables, therefore, the research question could not be answered in that sector or in those levels.

4.7 Current school attendance across the provinces by gender

The gender differences in South Africa are not as skewed as in other Sub-Saharan countries because in South Africa girls in primary and secondary do not experience gender-based discrimination with regards to access to education, which is commonly seen in other parts of the world (Berry & Rudolph, 2006). Girls start out as a slight minority in the primary grades (48 % of enrolment); they constitute 50 % of enrolment by Grade 6 and 55 % enrolment in Grade 12. Using the Gender Parity Index indicator (GPI), improvements in the GPI was suggested since the mid 1990s.

Gender Parity Index reflects females' access to education compared to that of males' access. It is calculated from each school phase. A GPI of less than 1 indicates that there are fewer females, in proportion to the appropriate school-age population, than males in the formal education system (Department of Education, 2005). In 1997, a primary GPI of 0.88 was recorded, but this improved to 0.95 by 2001 (Kgobe, accessed on 31 June 2009). South Africa had a combined GPI of 1.00 for primary and secondary school levels in 2004 (Berry & Rudolph, 2006).

The GPI from 2000 to 2004 shows some significant improvements in the Eastern Cape, Free State, Limpopo and Western Cape, which showed GPI ratios of more than 1.00 for the five

years period in Grade 1 to 12 (Kgobe, 2009). This indicates that in proportion to the appropriate school-age population, there were more female learners than males in the ordinary school system. The GPI is determined by knowing the number of people who are currently attending school. Hence, the trends in the education system are ascertained through this variable. The GPI can also be utilized to determine the patterns of females' access to education during 2004 and 2007 period.

Appendices 3a and 3b indicate that students that are currently attending school according to educational levels in males and females across the nine provinces in 2004 and 2007. Limpopo Province dominated the rest of other provinces with both males and females that are attending primary school in 2004 and 2007. The attendance in 2004 is 2 % higher for both genders than that of 2007. This is in agreement with the fact that girls and boys are exposed to equal educational opportunities at early age. As according to South African policy each and every child has a right to education from 7 years till the age of 15.

Furthermore, there seem to be some disparities between the secondary and primary levels. Primary levels have higher attendance percentages than secondary levels meaning there are more children attending primary school. However, at the secondary level, Limpopo Province still dominates other provinces as regards the proportion of males and females attending secondary level. Results showed that in Limpopo, males attending secondary schools in 2004 accounted for 61 % and females 53 %; while in 2007, males' attendance remains the same but a 2 % decline in attendance was evident in females. Evidence in literature verified most females/girls drop-out of school at this level of education and this explains why women are mostly less represented in higher education.

Higher education accounted for higher degree of males and females that are not attending any institution across the provinces. In 2004, KwaZulu-Natal had the highest proportion (28 %) of males attending higher education institutions, while Mpumalanga had 27 % females as the highest attendance of higher institutions across the provinces. In 2007, the highest of males (25 %) and females (29 %) attending higher institutions can be found in Gauteng. Furthermore, there is development in terms of women in higher education as they are dominating in 2007's data compared to 2004. The non-attendance in higher educational level was overwhelmingly high in both genders indicating that generally, higher education attendance in low in South Africa. A lot still needs to be done to motivate students in progressing to higher education particularly in rural areas. For those who are currently attending schools, the attendance rates is vital as to be able to substantiate the progress made during the period between the two years being studied.

Overall, there are some surprising details in the attendance at primary level. It is indicated that there has been a decrease of attendance at this level from 2004 to 2007. This raises some questions in terms of educational policies and implementation hence, the government claims to be progressing with regards to service delivery and supporting children's need but the reality on ground does not show that.

4.8 Attendance rates between 2004 and 2007

Education is a critical socio-economic right that provides the foundation for children's life-long learning and working opportunities. At national level, the high proportion (96 %) of children of schooling-going age (7-17 years) attending some form of school or educational facility in 2005 is extremely positive. Unfortunately, this figure does not tell us about the regularity of children's school attendance (Berry & Rudolph, 2006).

Access to education by children as shown by the Children's Institute (Berry & Rudolph, 2006) revealed three provinces have attendance rates that are slightly lower than the national average; the Northern Cape, North West and Western Cape which each have rates of 95 %. There appears to be very little variation in the provincial attendance rates between 2004 and 2005. However, Children's Institute for Access to Education (2009) implied differences between the two years' data should be viewed with caution as confidence intervals for the data were not available (cited from Budlender, 2006). Data from GHS 2004 and 2007 then set out to determine attendance rates specifically in terms of age. Hence, the analysis carried out according to age clarifies the determination of the problem i.e. where the attendance decreases can be detected at particular ages. Fig. 1 and 2 statistically showed rate of attendance according to ages.

The analysis of rates of attendance focuses on the 6-30 year-old age group, which is the age group most likely to be currently attending school. The South African Schools' Act (1996) made schooling compulsory for children aged between 7 and 15. Subsequently, the Education Laws Amendment Act (2002) set the age admission into Grade 1 as the year in which the child turns 7 years. A Constitutional Court challenge to the Bill in 2003, however, culminated into the reduction of school-going age to 5 years, or if the child turns 6 years on or before 30 June in their grade one year. Using the starting age of school at 6 years, the likely age of completing grade 12 would be 18 years. The age group is widened to include those who are beyond the compulsory school-going age, but are still attending, as well as those attending tertiary institutions. However, the analysis carried out according to age clarifies the determination of the problem, meaning where the attendance decreases can be detected simply because of the ages.

Appendix 6, Fig. 1 and 2 showed attendance rate for both males and females according to their ages in 2004 and 2007. At age 6 years, there seem to be 2 % higher rate of attendance in females than in males both in 2004 and 2007 hence, it can be a concluded that females are enrolled more than males at school. As illustrated, there are constant rates of attendance for both males and females between the ages 8 and 16 in both years. Furthermore, the attendance rates are at peak within these ages meaning that there is a high level of attendance for both genders, which is of the same magnitude. From age 18, there is a decrease in females compared to males which indicates that females are less represented in higher education institutions. In Fig. 1&2, as the age increases there seem to be less attendance rates. Therefore, it can be concluded there is more attendance at school than other educational institutions. However, there are other vast explanations for the low rates in attendance, for instance, there might be high failure rates in schools, and most people have completed or are working.

Furthermore, the rate of attendance in males is higher than that of females. Overall, there is a very slow progress between 2004 and 2007, and the attendance rates are more or less the same in a period of three years. These results indicate a non-progressive system of education, especially for females as they are still generally outnumbered by males' in attendance levels.

Figure1: Rates of attendance for males and females between ages 6-30 years 2004

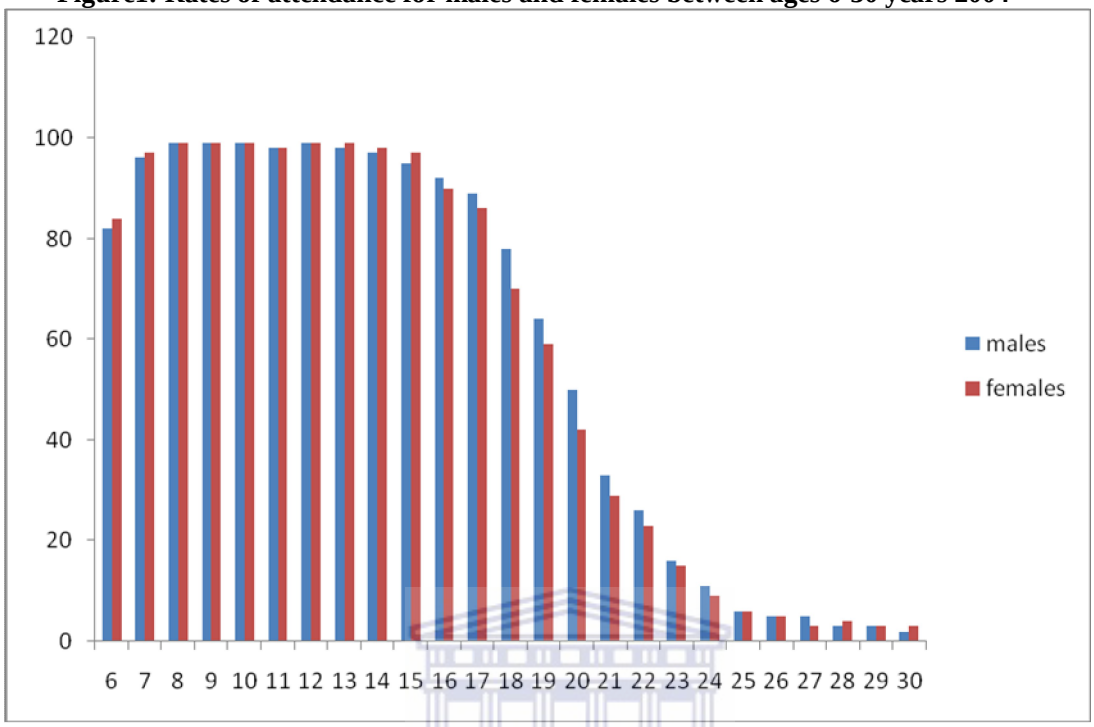
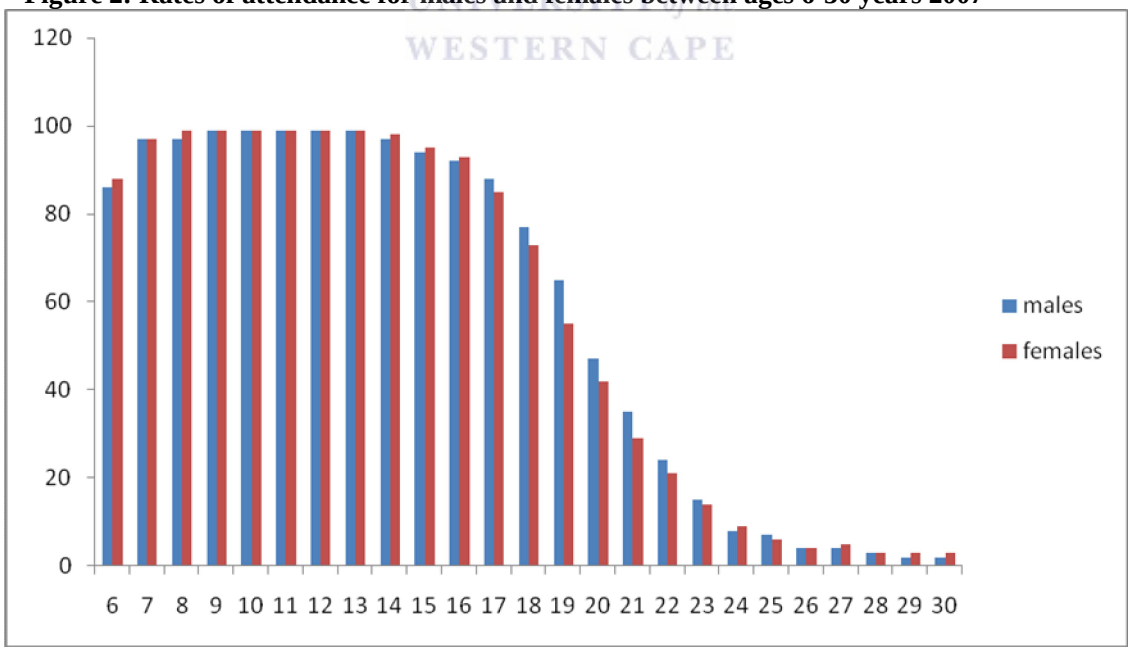


Figure 2: Rates of attendance for males and females between ages 6-30 years 2007



4.9 Main reason for not attending school by age and gender

According to a survey conducted by Statistics South Africa, children who were employed at that time gave different reasons for not attending school. The primary reasons were inability to afford school fees, illness, pregnancy and child-rearing and lack of interest because of poor school quality. Significantly, less than 1 % of children engaged in economic activity who missed school cited their involvement in work as their reason for being out of school (Motala *and al.*, 2007).

Despite almost full enrolment ratio for the compulsory education phase (Grade 1-9), there are still over 200 000 in the 7-15 years age group, who do not attend any education institution. Majority of these 7-15 year age group cite school fees as the main reason for not attending an education institution. Education fees are also the main reason provided by 16-18 years olds (Ischinger, 2008). Similar results have been acquired in both 2004 and 2007 GHS showing how this factor continues to be an obstacle in educational attendance.

Appendices 4a, 4b, 4c and 4d showed the main reason for leaving school according to age and gender for 2004 and 2007. Between the ages 6 to 18 years in 2004 and 2007, majority of males and females who were not attending school did so because they did not have money for fees. In both males and females, there are other reasons resulting in children leaving school. There are more males and females who left school because they had completed in 2004 than 2007. Males leave school dominantly because they have completed school as compared to females. No money for fees is the dominating reason that results in both males and females not attending school. In 2004, the analysis of the variable: main reason for not attending school ends at 24 years and as such, the comparison between the two years could not be carried out.

However, since the study focuses on females, it is important to investigate factors that affect females particularly, like pregnancy as the main reason for not attending school. Pregnancy is still one of the main reasons why girls are not attending school. Supporting evidence regarding this came from Statistics South Africa (2004), which showed that in 2002, 11.8 % of teenage girls between the ages 13 to 19 years who were not in an educational institution reported pregnancy as the main reason. In comparison, 2 % of the teenage girls reported pregnancy as the main reason in 2002, which rose to 2.6 % in 2004. This is indicative of the importance of this problem as the proportion increases, this factor needs to taken into consideration as it lowers female's progress in education system in general.

4.10 Main reason for not attending school by province and gender

There are some debates in South Africa on the extent and nature of the primary school drop-out. The most negative reports suggested approximately 65 % of children who enrolled at primary level reached Grade 5. Reports have shown that as much as 35% of children leave school before they can attain basic levels of functional literacy as they do not get to Grade 5. There are no accurate statistics on the numbers of children who are out of school; however, the Office of the Deputy President estimated 5 % of children aged between 10 to 16 years are not attending school. More so, the Education Atlas reports that over 1.2 million children of school-going age are not attending school, while some 40 000 attend on a part-time basis. Those attending school irregularly include those working on farms, learners attending school part time because of work or family circumstances, street children, children with disabilities who cannot access schools that accommodate their needs and children who leave school early for other reasons.

With educational infrastructure in place, provincial inequities play a role in hindering children's access to basic education. Many children living in poverty report being denied access to basic education because they cannot afford to pay school fees or purchase school uniforms. Females are mostly affected by these inequities mainly those in rural areas. Provinces like the Eastern Cape, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal are the ones at risk as they are primarily rural and have fewer resources.

Tables in Appendices 5a and 5b highlighted some of the main reasons for not attending school for males and females across the nine provinces both in 2004 and 2007. In 2004, 25 % of males and 30 % of females were not attending schools mostly because they have completed. It is noteworthy that more females completed school/education than males in 2004. However, in 2004 females were not attending mainly because they did not have money for fees in Eastern Cape. In 2007 a total of 11 % females were not attending school because they have completed school, while this figure was much higher (17 %) in females not attending due to completion in 2004; however, non-attendance rates were higher in 2004 than in 2007. It can be deduced males and females completed school more in 2004 than 2007. This raises questions on the attainment in education system.

Eastern Cape has the lowest percentage of 7 % of males who were not attending because they have completed school/education and females with 5 % in 2004. More so, the Eastern Cape in 2007 is the province having the least number of females (5 %) not attending due to completion, while 5 % of males in the province cited completion as the main reason for not attending. Overall, it can be concluded that provincially, Eastern Cape has high proportion of people who did not complete school/education. There are several reasons that may result in this outcome; one of which remained the predominantly rurality of the province with scarce resources while still densely populated.

4.11 Main reason for not attending school by rural-urban stratum and gender in 2004

Although 90 % of students had paid less than R500 in annual school fees in 2001, lack of books, followed by lack of money were cited as leading barriers to education among 7 to 18 year olds in 2003. Other reasons cited include relatively high numbers of both males and females, were that education was useless or uninteresting, that the individual was too old or too young or the individual was prevented by illness. One in ten female students cited pregnancy as being their main reason for not attending school. Females were also far more likely to not attend an educational institution due to family commitments, which included child-minding than males (Mahlangu, 2006). In rural areas, girls are usually at risk of being violated and harassed due to the distance they walk to school since educational institutions are mostly situated far from the households.

A study conducted by Nelson Mandela Foundation (NMF) in 2005 into rural schools in three provinces provided a picture of the barriers that prevent access. While few respondents in the survey of 599 households mentioned the cost of schooling as a reason for absenteeism or drop-out, educator respondents pointed to poverty as an important barrier to access, since a high percentage of children were kept at home to help with domestic and farm work, like cultivation and dipping cattle. As highlighted above, there are some provincial inequalities within South African; which results in school children not obtaining the same education access. Due to these inequalities, children in rural areas are mostly affected because of geographic factors (Motala and al, 2007).

Appendix 7 is conducted from the 2004 data only, since the 2007 data does not include the variable of stratum (province demarcated according to urban and rural) focusing on both males and females. Across the provinces both in urban and rural areas, no money for fees was the major reason for males and females not attending school. Provinces that are mostly affected are firstly, Eastern Cape with higher proportion of 42 % urban, 39 % rural for males and females 47 % urban, 41 % rural. People living in urban areas are mostly affected by this reason than those living in rural and amongst them females are predominantly the ones affected. Eastern Cape is followed by KwaZulu-Natal also with males who are not attending because they do not have funds. However, the females in Limpopo are the ones most not attending due to this reason.

The second main reason why people are not attending school is because they have completed school/education. Urban areas in the Western Cape are the ones with high percentages of both males and females who are not attending because they have completed. More so, the Western Cape females are the ones who complete more than males with 33 % and 30 % respectively. In rural areas, females also complete school/ education more than males with 23% and 11%, respectively. This is in contrast with literature in chapter two stating females drop-out more than males particularly in secondary level and, thus females are less represented in higher education. The reason for this outcome might be due to the fact that there are more females attending further education compared to males. This explains why more females in rural areas complete their education more than males.

4.12 Currently attending school by rural and urban stratum and gender in 2004

Southern African communities are dominated by western developmental strategies that promote industrialization at the expense of rural communities. The rural communities are neglected by the governments hence, the education system therefore suffer. Graduates from the education institutions are educated away from their communities resulting in economic drain from rural communities (Lalendle, 1998).

Recent data on geographical differences is scarce, but an analysis undertaken by Statistics South Africa based in 1996 suggested that as much as 66 % of children aged 7 years in rural areas were attending school, compared to 82 % of children in the same age group in urban areas. Amongst 8 year olds, the figure for urban and rural areas was 90 % and 76 %, respectively. Overall, the gap between urban and rural areas narrowed as the age increased, with 95 % and 91 % of urban and rural children respectively aged 15 attending school (Kgobe, 2009).

Appendix 8 also utilizes the 2004 data only because of the stratum variable. It focuses on males and females who were/are currently attending schools across provinces both in rural and urban areas. Overall, in both males and females there is a higher attendance than non-attendance in rural and urban areas. Urban Limpopo accounted for the highest proportion with 71 % of males currently attending school and the same applies to rural males with 77 %. This indicates that males in rural areas attend school more than males in urban areas in Limpopo. For females, urban areas of Limpopo also have more people attending school while the rural areas of the Eastern Cape reported more females currently attending school. The attendance of females from both areas is equivalent to 68 %. In comparison, males and females, males attended school more than females from both rural and urban in 2004.

Statistical relationships between the variables: education institution attended and population groups; education institution attended according to age; currently attending school according to province and education levels; main reason for not attending according to population group and age; main reason for not attending school according to rural-urban stratum were tested and shown in Appendix 9. The stratum variable was only tested using the 2004 data since; it was not included in GHS 2007 data as mentioned above. Chi-square, Phi, Cramer's V and Lambda tests were utilized to test the association. Results indicated there was a significant relationship between the variables, with exception of Chi-square which indicated a weak relationship because it has minimum expected account in cells (see appendix 9 in page 139).

Chapter 5: Discussion of Results

5. 1 Introduction

The study emphasis was on the females' education in South Africa and it looked specifically at enrolment, attendance and attainment educational levels among women in general. Factors affecting women's education that may result in school dropout were also fundamental in the study. The age group of interest in this study was between 6-30 years since they are expected to be attending school at that age according to GHS 2004. Therefore, this chapter discusses the findings of the analysis carried out in the previous chapter pertaining to the aim of the study. Like the other chapters, it is divided into sections and each section elaborates on the significance of this study.

5.2 Major procedures followed in the research design

This research was quantitative and it focused mainly on descriptive design. It is noteworthy that the utilization of General Household Survey was done to achieve the objectives of the study. As a quantitative research, the relationship between identified independent and dependent variables was determined. The independent variables were demographic variables such as age, gender, population group and province. On the other hand, the dependent variables were education institution attended, highest education level and reasons for not attending, to mention but a few. This research establishes associations between variables and that is how the data was analyzed in this study. The measurements of variables were defined and the statistical methods were used to test the relationship between the variables. This type of research was important since it facilitated the purpose of this study that was to examine

structural changes in educational enrolment and attainment level within the female population of South Africa between 2004 and 2007.

The design utilized in this study was a cross-sectional design which is generally identified with survey research. The sample was randomly selected provincially amongst females enrolled and still attending school in the ages between 6 -30 years and the survey conducted by Statistic South Africa was carried out utilizing questionnaires to acquire data from the respondents with questions relating to their backgrounds, past experiences and attitudes. Data were analyzed with the statistical program SPSS by means of descriptive and inferential statistics. In cross-tabulation, statistical relationships were tested by utilizing Chi-square, Phi and Cramer's V, Lambda and Eta to test the association amongst the variables.

All the nine South African provinces were incorporated in the analysis of the study including both rural and urban areas. In this study, the data from the two General Household Surveys were utilized comparing the years 2004 and 2007. GHS files were obtained in SPSS format and this made it possible to run statistical methods and the data files were expected from the sections of the questionnaire related to person files. The study focused on the females' education in South Africa, particularly the enrolment, attendance and attainment of women in general. Furthermore, it looked at non-attendance and the associated reasons that resulted in that situation. Female individuals of concern were of ages between 6-30 years. Female's attainment in higher education also reserved attention and that was done by examining their access to higher education. Overall, the purpose of the study is to examine changes in females' education between 2004 and 2007 in South Africa.

5.3 Ability to read and write according to population groups controlling for gender

Literacy is a major fundamental determinant of the country's level of education. The results from the observations in the fourth chapter indicated that generally females have predominantly higher levels of literacy compared to males at both dates of surveys. Although that was the case, females still need to be motivated in terms of acquiring literacy skills as the former education Minister Naledi Pondor suggested during her literacy campaign in 2008. This might be the possible explanation to the fact that females are still less represented in the education sector generally.

The explanation of the relationship between the ability to read and write and the population group provided somewhat assistance in attempting to respond to the research question that was proposed in the first chapter. The question was "*what method of education do South African women generally acquire?"* That question made it possible to determine whether one was enrolled in any education institution or not. Therefore, one's literacy levels could be acquired. The explanation of these variables contributes or highlights the way forward in improving females' education in South Africa among disadvantaged groups especially when taking into consideration the literacy levels in South Africa across all population groups; as the determinants of the trends and patterns of educational enrolment and attainment for females.

According to the outcome of the analysis conducted from 2004 and 2007 GHS data, African/Black, Coloured and Indian females from these population groups are more literate than males. On the contrary, White males are more literate than females. The possible explanation to those results could be the fact that there were more African, Coloured and

Indian females who took part in that survey compared to males. Nonetheless, the analysis indicated that there were more literate females as compared to males during that period.

5.3.1 Education institution attended according to Population groups controlling for Gender

Overall, observations presented the school as the highest institution attended compared to the other educational institutions in for both genders. The possible explanation to this observation was the fact indicated by the data that the education institution "school" was not properly differentiated into "primary", "secondary" and "high" school. Therefore, for that reason one could presume that there would be more attendance. In addition, the results below are discussed in accordance with education institution attended pertaining to population groups and they were all controlled for gender.

Results of the analysis contained in table 4.2 attempted to answer the research question, '*which educational institutions do South African women attend the most?*' The question was also implemented in relation to population groups. The purpose of this question was to determine the attendance of females in the education sector according to the population groups. Hence, evidence in literature maintains that there is a shortage of females' participation/attendance in the education system in South Africa. After the variables were re-coded in the analysis, results indicated that primary school level displayed the highest attendance in all population groups for both genders than other educational institutions. The main possible reason for that result was related to the policy stating that all children in the ages between 7 to 15 years have a right to education. The majority of children in these ages were in primary level and one could presume that the primary level had more girls attending this education institution.

Through examining structural patterns in school attendance for both years, it can be deduced that Africans and Coloureds had higher attendance proportion compared to Indians and Whites. That information was accurate given the history of this country and the quality of education offered in the majority of schools attended by the girls from the population groups in question. The possible explanation for that was their heavy representation in the sample. Therefore, that did not tell us anything about the quality of schooling institutions attended.

When focusing specifically on females' institution attendance, Africans and Coloureds dominate the Indians and Whites at primary school level. However, as the level of education institution increased, the attendance for Indians and Whites increased, while that of Coloureds and Africans dropped. The drop suggested that the weak representation of females in the higher education might be associated with the decline in those two population groups. There were numerous possible reasons for that outcome, for instance, the two population groups (Africans and Coloureds) were primarily from areas where opportunities were not the same for the other two population groups (Indians and Whites). The population group of Black people was the most disadvantaged given the apartheid history of this country.

To look at the statistical relationship between the variables education institution attended and population groups controlled for gender, Chi-square, Phi, Cramer's V and Lambda tests were utilized. The results indicated that there was a significant relationship between the variables, although Chi-square indicated that the relationship was not as strong (refer to table 12 chapter four). However, to rectify the limitations of Chi-square, Lambda was utilized as it does not assume the rule of minimum expected account in cells.

5.3.2 Distance learning classes according to province controlling for gender

The discussion in this section is an attempt to answer the research question, '*what method of education do South African women generally acquire? (Class attendance, correspondence or distance educational institution)'*. Women seemed to be dominating in the variable distance learning classes compared to males. Although this dominance was higher in certain provinces that were known to be urban or densely industrialized areas, in provinces that were primarily non-urban there were low attendances regarding that method. That factor raised some questions towards government service delivery and the implementation of policies. Industrialized provinces such as Gauteng and Western Cape provinces somewhat tended to be benefiting because of the resources they possess. On the other hand, provinces like Eastern Cape have fewer resources to carry out the method mentioned above.

The national Department of Education and The Centre of Educational Technology and Distance Education improve and promote flexible and resource-based learning as well as distance learning. Nonetheless, the method of attendance still needed enormous improvement as testified by the results observed in the period 2004 to 2007 during which a slight decrease was observed. This indicates that this method of attendance needs to be properly implemented or should be revised. That could be done by developing the method of correspondence in rural areas particularly because women in those areas have some difficulties with regard to education attendance. As mentioned in the literature review education institutions are situated far from the households. When looking in terms of gender as highlighted in the study, females in predominantly urban provinces such as Gauteng have higher proportions of attendance in distance learning classes.

Results regarding distance learning classes according to provinces were controlled for gender and particularly focused on women's patterns. They indicated that mostly females attended classes through this method when compared to males as mentioned above. This was observed in 2004 as well as in 2007. Provincially amongst females, Gauteng province has the highest attendance. One of the reasons is the already stated fact that Gauteng is one of the predominantly industrialized provinces in South Africa. In addition, provinces like Gauteng have more access to better resources such as computers. Therefore, this method of attendance was somewhat easier for females in that province to study through. In the final analysis distance education emerges as the major method for females.

5.3.3 Education institutions attended according to age controlling for gender

The results of the presented study indicated that out of all education institutions attended, the school institution (by school it is referred to primary and secondary) has the highest percentage of female attendance. The two categories were combined as it was provided in the data. Therefore, school level had highest percentages of attendance, particularly in younger ages. The results were not clear since they were not showing which level had more attendance in girls (in primary, secondary, higher level). Moreover, regarding the ages, percentages were declining as the ages increased at the same time they were increasing in higher education as the ages increased which indicated a normal pattern. According to school level, in ages between 10 to 18 years, girls' attendance percentages were ranging between 98 and 99 percent. Nonetheless, at school level, females' attendance was similar if not the same with that of males in general, while in higher education, looking at ages between 21 and 28 years females' attendance, percentages were ranging from 13 to 30 percent and more. The above results were similar for both years 2004 and 2007, even though in comparison, 2004 had higher percentages than 2007.

Furthermore, when looking at higher education results indicated that females were less represented compared to males. Rowena (1997) and other scholars share the same sentiments. Females still need to be empowered with regards to access to education, especially higher education. By contrast, females dominate in lower institutions and adult basic education. In my opinion those results had both positive and negative implications. Positive in the sense that, women were somewhat empowered given their participation in adult basic education and negative in the sense that they are less represented in higher education, which indicated a lack of motivation among females in general.

The research question in chapter one, *'which educational institutions do South African women attend the most?'* This question is not directly answered in any particular section in the research. The study however indicates that females' attendance in primary level is the same as that of males but begins to drop drastically in secondary level given factors such as health, economic, socio-cultural factors that tend to affect girls more than boys. However, looking at higher education there is also a less representation of females in the sector, especially because there is still lack of females in traditionally male-dominated fields. Moreover, one may conclude that more females attend school in comparison to tertiary educational institutions; more females still need to be motivated and encouraged to attend higher education and complete it.

Statistical association regarding this segment of population indicated some interesting outcomes with regards to education institution attended and age controlled for gender (refer to table 12, chapter four). Comparable tests were carried out as in the first section above. Furthermore, *Eta* was included since age is an interval scale. Results from this observation also showed significant association within the variable education institution attended versus

age controlled for gender. Similar to the claim referred to above, Chi-square indicates a weak relationship within the variables. To remedy this, other tests like Lambda, Phi and Cramer's V were executed to substantiate the association. The results of this statistical testing suggest a relationship between education institution attended and age (refer to table 12, chapter four). Moreover, it could be presumed that there was a strong association since, Lambda, Phi and Cramer's V testing nominal variables produced strong relationship between those variables.

5.3.4 Highest education level completed according to province controlling for gender

How does highest level of education usually attained by women in South Africa vary across the provinces?', is one of the research questions pointed out to execute the purpose of this study. The outcome of the analysis in the previous chapter assisted in answering the above research question. With regards to the results from all nine provinces in South Africa, Northern Cape Province had more females having primary level as their highest level of education. On the other hand, Gauteng province had higher percentages of females having secondary education as the highest level of education. Particularly when looking at grade 7 and grade 12 the province was dominating followed by Western Cape Province with grade 12 as the highest level of education in females. Those provinces were both predominantly urban. Education for girls studying in those provinces is somewhat easier to access because schools are many and nearer to the households unlike in rural areas. On the other hand, provinces with least percentages with grade 12 for instance, as the highest level of education were Eastern Cape and Limpopo. They are also known as primarily rural dominated provinces. Therefore, one can conclude that females in rural areas are still disadvantaged due to numerous factors affecting their participation in education, such as geographic, socio-cultural, infrastructural, lack of resources and many others.

When comparing female's results from both 2004 and 2007 there was a decrease, meaning there were more female learners with grade 12 as the highest level of education in 2004 than there was in 2007. This raise questions on the level of education as one would expect that as the years proceed there would also be some developments in the level of education. The raising of questions is inevitable because government and the Department of Education claim to be implementing effective policies to improve the standard of education in South Africa but the reality on the ground is proving otherwise.

However, there have been some complexities relating to the analysis of higher education with regards to higher education level completed. Since this is a comparative study, it is noteworthy that there have been some changes in the data from GHS 2007 in terms of recording. Therefore, this section could not be compared with GHS 2004 data because variables were not the same. For instance, Diploma and Certificate less than grade 12 were combined in 2007, while in 2004 they were presented/ coded separately. Again when looking at Bachelors degree and Diploma were combined in 2007 and separated in 2004. Therefore, the outcomes could not be compared since, the results would be inaccurate.

5.3.5 Currently attending school according to province, education level controlling for gender

The issue around current attendance was taken on in this research to test the hypothesis (stated in chapter one) *'across the nine provinces in South Africa female's enrolment increased from 2004 to 2007'*. The variable "currently attending" also enabled us to determine the enrolment rate. With regards to the provinces, there were some disparities regarding females who were currently attending. In both dates (2004 and 2007) Limpopo province had higher percentages of females who were currently attending. Possible explanation to the result might be that there are more girls attending this primary level in that

province as compared to males. This is also according to the survey run Statistics South Africa (2001). It was followed by Gauteng in 2004 GHS and in 2007 GHS it was Mpumalanga. Nonetheless, there was a decline in those who were currently attending from GHS 2004 to GHS 2007.

Furthermore, in secondary level Limpopo province again has higher percentages of females who were currently attending school. As mentioned above one may assume that Limpopo province had the highest enrolment hence, there were more girls currently attending. It was followed by Mpumalanga and Eastern Cape in 2004 and 2007 respectively. When compared to males, females' attendance was less and that result partially answered to the hypothesis stating *'predominantly females in rural areas attain secondary level in South Africa'*. Conversely, one would expect a province like Western Cape to have higher percentages of females currently attending basing on the assumption that the province is well-resourced. It was interesting to find out that that was not the case instead; it was the province with the least percentages of females who are currently attending school.

Empirical statistics in higher level of education indicated that percentages have dropped in females who were currently attending. The most possible explanation for this result was the fact that the majority of females were not attending school because they had no money for fees. The other reason was that mostly girls left school in secondary level because of pregnancy; and because of social factors might not go back to school. Therefore, secondary attendance makes an effect in the higher level of attendance since it is the preceding level. There were many more other reasons that resulted into these implications. This is in line with evidence from literature stated in chapter two of this thesis.

As already mentioned in this study, females are less represented in higher education due to numerous factors such as lack of access to certain fields of study that are male-dominated (or traditionally male) fields, for example, sciences and law. Looking at percentages according to provinces, Mpumalanga and Gauteng had the highest percentages of females who were currently attending higher level of education. Comparing females' and males' results, the outcomes were similar to the ones stated above; males' attendance dominating in higher education. On the other hand, Limpopo province had the least percentages of females who were currently attending higher level of education possibly because higher educational institutions are not as many as in the other two provinces mentioned above. This might result in girls less motivated to continue with their studies since there is a shortage of institutions and role models to motivate them.

There were very interesting results indicated in this section in relation to the type of relationships obtained. Contrary to what was observed in other sections, Chi-square indicated a strong significant association between these variables. Same applies to other tests carried out in the sections above. They all confirm that there was a significant relationship between currently attending school in terms of education levels after controlling for gender. Given the results, one could presume that there were more females currently attending school compared to those not attending despite the factors affecting females' participation in education. Moreover, it can be concluded that there was a strong association between currently attending school according to province and education level controlled gender.

5.3.6 Main reason for not attending school according to age controlling for gender

Data indicates that there is a high decline in school attendance from primary level to secondary level particularly in girls. According to many previous studies such as Rowena

(1997)a major reason that results in this outcome is pregnancy. This was one of the fundamental questions that needed to be closely looked at to improve female's participation in the education sector. With regards to the economic factors, females are further on disadvantaged as more girls leave school. That factor is in relation with the issue of less investment in girls. These issues somewhat attempt to answer the question, *'what are the reasons for girls to leave school in South Africa?'* By knowing reasons behind the non-school attendance in girls, government and the Department of Education may be able to assist in improving female's participation in the education system.

Furthermore, the information might also assist in regulating the patterns and trends of female progress in the education sector. It was interesting to find out that pregnancy was not the only absolute reason for girls to leave or drop-out of school as it would be expected. The results from analysis carried out in the previous chapter, were in line with the literature from the survey conducted by Statistics South Africa (2001), which indicated that no money for fees lead as the reason for not attending school. The empirical results in chapter four suggested, in females no money for fees had the highest percentages of the reasons for not attending school. However, the two factors are related, for instance, a girl that has dropped out of school has a high potential of getting pregnant compared to those attending school, since she would not be preoccupied with anything. This issue was argued by HSRC highlighting that there is a relationship among these factors.

As mentioned above, observed results revealed that pregnancy was the second highest main reason why girls leave school. This segment is in line with the null hypothesis claimed in chapter one, *'In South Africa pregnancy is the main reason for girls to leave school'*. The empirical results showed that the percentages of pregnancy begin at teenage. That generally

corresponds to the stage in which most girls enter secondary school. It is the same period in which girls enter the life development cycle. According to Rowena (1997), pregnancy results in girls' failure to go back to school. African girls are the ones mostly affected. This effect reduces their availability to complete for higher education (Grant & Hallman, 2006). This finding suggested that teenagers were mostly at the risk of dropping out of school. As the ages increase, the percentages slowly decreased, that might be because as the people grow older they become aware of what to do in particular situations. Thus, intervention is needed to educate girls in preventing pregnancy.

This section could not be analyzed properly because there were some disparities in the 2004 GHS and 2007 GHS data due to the differences in the formation of instrumental variables (leading to different results). Disparities were with regards to age, GHS 2004 data produced results up until 24 years while, GHS 2007 produced results up to 30 years of age. Therefore, the analysis could not be carried out since, the results were incomparable.

The outcome of the empirical statistics observed regarding the statistical relationship between the reasons for not attending school according to age (controlling for gender), indicated that there was a significant relationship between the variables stated above. However, Chi-square demonstrated a weak association between these variable. On the contrary, Lambda indicated a somewhat strong association between the variables because it had less coercive requirements. Therefore, one may conclude that the statistical relationship between these variables was significant (refer to table 12, chapter four). Therefore, the results indicated that there is association between reasons for not attending school according to age. Overall, one may presume that these results are in line with the argument by Rowena (1995) that

emphasizes that the majority of girls dropout of school in their teenage stages due to pregnancy.

5.3.7 Main reasons for not attending school according to province controlling for gender

This section deals with the same issue presented above but at a provincial level. As already noted, the above the argument was about age. However, in this subsection the same factors are looked at in relation to provinces. This segment assists in determining which provinces are dominantly affected by these reasons or factors. Since the study is interested in the geographic differences, this section attempts to reveal such differences. Similarly, there are provinces that are known to be predominantly urban and others rural. It is important to note that such differences may be determined through these factors.

Similar reasons noted in the above segment as the main reasons for females not to attend school were noted in this section. It is argued that provincial inequalities had an effect in the participation of females in the education system. Females in disadvantaged regions encounter more problems in education compared to those leaving in more resourced provinces. Disadvantaged females were massively found in provinces such as the Eastern Cape, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal mainly because of inadequate educational infrastructure in the provinces in question. Girls travelled long distance to get to school and they were on the risk of being violated sexually and otherwise. This situation needs to be addressed through adequate bus transport services. Motala et al (2007) highlighted in the study carried out by Statistics South Africa (LFS 2001, LFS 2003) that the majority of primary and secondary school children travelled on foot to school. Furthermore, it has been observed that children mostly affected are those from rural areas, as the majority of them cannot pay for the transport cost.

Despite the discrepancies that were observed across provinces, the acute shortage of money for fees was systematically the fore most reason for females not to attend school. There were other reasons that hindered females in attending school more than pregnancy, like those who had completed, not attending because of family commitment and those who were working. With regards to the provinces there was a decrease from 2004 to 2007 in the percentages as it has been mentioned in almost all the sections above.

Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal had more girls who were not attending school because they were pregnant. There are several possible explanations for these results. Given that both provinces are predominantly rural it is highly possible that young girls might not have enough information or not enough facilities to educate them about family planning. These provinces are also predominantly traditional in terms of cultural environment and girls are married at very young ages. Unfortunately, because of the absence of adequate data, it cannot be determined exactly at which level of school (primary or secondary) this health-related problem occurs the most. This could assist in targeting intervention in teenage pregnancy.

On the other hand, Western Cape Province mostly had the percentage of females who were not attending because they have completed their studies/education. One may conclude that there is some progress in females' education attendance in the Western Cape. On the other hand, Eastern Cape was the province with the least percentage of females who were not attending school because they have completed studies. In Limpopo, according to the percentages, the majority of girls did not attend school because of family commitments. Given the fact that Limpopo is one of the predominantly rural provinces girls may be expected to stay at home to take care of the household. Money for fees was the most

dominating factor resulting in non-attendance for girls. Eastern Cape and Gauteng provinces were the ones with higher percentages of girls not attending for both 2004 and 2007, respectively.

Running the same tests on the same variable main reason for not attending school but in relation to the provinces both controlled for gender, the results showed that there was a significant relationship between these variable in all the tests. Conversely, when considering the outcomes of males and females, particularly in Chi-square, females' results indicated that there was a strong association while males' results indicated a weak relationship between the variables mentioned above. Therefore, it could be assumed that females were affected by these reasons compared to males.

5.3.8 Main reason for not attending school according to rural-urban stratum controlling for gender

This part of the study was in relation to data from GHS 2004 because GHS 2007 data did not include the variable stratum (rural and urban areas) and consequently variables could not be compared to the ones in 2004. Statistics South Africa changed the format basing on the 1996 data that had always had a gap between the attendance in rural and urban areas. Urban areas have always had more attendance compared to rural areas. This brings about the research question, *'Is female attendance in educational institutions the same for both rural and urban areas?'*

Generally, there were more females currently attending compared to those that were not attending in both urban and rural areas. However, when compared to males there were less females currently attending. In comparing urban and rural areas the level of educational

institutions attended by females is higher in the former than in the later. The Limpopo province had more females currently attending in urban areas whereas the Eastern Cape had more people currently attending in rural areas. Therefore, these results raised some questions as to whether the variable currently attending school was affected by the geographic area as stipulated in the research question above. The following discussion looks at possible reasons resulting in non-attendance in girls, particularly with regards to geographic differences (rural and urban areas).

The reasons for not attending are practically the same as the ones referred to in the above section and the difference is that they were analyzed in terms of rural and urban areas. Again, not attending school because there is no money for fees was the leading reason amongst all the reasons provided by the respondents in this research.

The empirical results from chapter four indicated that mainly girls were not attending school because they were pregnant in the non-urban area of Gauteng and non-urban area of Mpumalanga. This observation is in line with the hypothesis claiming that *'more rural girls leave school compared to urban girls'*. The same reasons indicated that girls in rural areas were mostly affected because of geographic and social factors. The shortage of class rooms and girls getting married at early ages were some of the factors that affected females in rural areas the most.

As noted in the above discussion, the empirical results obtained from the analysis in the previous chapter focus on data from 2004, hence the variable stratum was not included in 2007 data. Therefore, the relationship between these variables mainly dealt with the 2004 data. Like in other similar attempts, there was a significant association between these

variables. Put aside the fact that Chi-square showed a weak association, the other tests namely Phi, Cramer's V and Lambda, tended to suggest the presence of association. Moreover, one may assume that there was a strong relationship between those variables.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1 Confirmation of hypotheses

This section of the thesis attempts to summarize the overall empirical outcomes from the research relating to this study and how it was carried out. The study was carried out according to subsections such as literacy rates, school attendance, education attainment, school dropout, educational barriers and policies related to the study. The above factors are of significance to the study as they assist in attempting to answer the hypothesis and research questions proposed in the first chapter of this study.

Through analyzing the statistical data on literacy patterns, it can be deduced that generally females are more literate than males. However, there are some disparities with regards to the females themselves when analyzed in terms of population groups. African and Coloured females are less literate than Whites and Indians. This outcome is somewhat predictable given the apartheid history of these population groups and their standards of living in terms of social class. The possible explanation for these results holds true even if these population groups (Africans and Coloureds) are more represented in the sample than Whites and Indians. When looking at geographic relations there are disparities between urban and rural areas in terms of literacy in acquisition. The majority of females in rural areas are illiterate mainly because of the environment they live in. When compared to males there is not much difference in this regard but disparities are still there with regards to literacy within females themselves. Therefore, geographic factors play a big role in hindering the development of females in South Africa.

Regarding attendance rates, the results for this study indicated that there were more Africans and Coloureds compared to Indians and Whites who attended school at educational institutions. As mentioned above, these results were somewhat misleading because they did not address the fact that the two population groups were strongly represented in the sample. Facts such as quality of education were not considered and given the South African history these results can be easily criticized. Inequalities in school attainment and attendance still persist. Nonetheless, school attendance has the highest attendance and girls are not different from boys. However, as the ages and levels increase there is a decline in attendance. When comparing by gender, observations indicate lower percentages for females' representation at the higher level of education. As the study indicated in chapter two, the majority of girls dropout of school at secondary level mostly due to social, economic, geographic and other factors that affect the education of females in South Africa.

As highlighted above there was a decrease in education attendance in the institutions from 2004 to 2007 across population groups generally. A possible explanation might be the fact that in South Africa the Department of Education is somewhat not constant in terms of which curriculum is suitable for the learners in this country. It has been changed or revised many times of which that might have an effect on the standard or the development of the education sector as whole. If one system or curriculum would be figured out to work better, somehow there might be a positive effect even on Matric results in the country. Gender disparity is also one of the factors that needs to be looked at in terms of what can be done to improve the level of education generally.

Generally, females in rural areas are affected more than those in urban areas, with regards to the factors mentioned above. Rural girls are discouraged from continuing with their education

because the education institutions are far from residence. On the other hand, girls are expected to manage domestic matters and their education is not considered as an investment.

Furthermore, with regards to the main reasons why girls do not attend school (relating to dropout), it was interesting to find out that in terms of percentages, pregnancy was not the main reason with highest percentages as one would presume regarding females. Instead, people are experiencing more economic difficulties given that for both genders children reported that the main reason they are not attending school is because they do not have money for fees. Pregnancy is the second highest reason. Nonetheless, as mentioned in the discussion chapter, to some extent these two variables are related. Girls that are not attending school may be because they do not have money for fees are mostly at the risk of getting pregnant because they are not occupied. The other dominant reasons that account for the failure by girls to attend school are family commitments and completion of studies.

Comparing the outcomes from both GHS 2004 and GHS 2007 data, there is a drop from 2004 to 2007 in terms of all variables that have been utilized in the study. For instance, when looking at attendance and highest level of education completed, there is a higher proportion of females attending in 2004 compared to 2007. This brings about some questions about the level of education in South Africa. As years are proceeding, percentages of people in the education system are also declining. Observing from the general patterns, almost all variables produce the similar result but GHS 2004 data had more attendance compared to GHS 2007 data. Furthermore, there is a decrease from 2004 to 2007 as highlighted above due to the fact that poverty is deepening, and also due to the lack of service delivery. Therefore, the hypothesis was not confirmed. This is not surprising because data also indicates that there is a decrease. This somewhat indicates that policy implementation does not reach the targeted

population. This decrease underlines all the shortcomings in reaching, the second and third Millennium goals stating 'Universal primary education by 2015 and more concerted efforts to reduce the withdrawal of children in schools as a vulnerability coping mechanism'.

Overall, the attempts undertaken to explore the statistical relationships between the variables, resulted in the identification of some noticeable associations among the variables. To mention the few, there was a strong association between the variables education institution attended according to population groups, currently attending school according to province, education level and main reasons for not attending school according to province (all controlling for gender). Pertaining to the tests, Chi-square is the only one that indicated a weak association with almost all of the tests. Therefore, one may conclude that Lambda, Phi and Cramer's V are more suitable for the study. Due to these tests some research questions were attempted and some hypotheses were tested in the study. There are some disparities in the GHS 2004 and GHS 2007 data regarding the variables and some important variables were left out in GHS 2007. Therefore, certain results of the study are not addressed properly including some research questions and hypotheses. This is an issue that needs to be taken care of in the future resources of GHS.

Overall, the study has attempted to answer the research question, *'how does highest level of education usually attained by women in South Africa vary across the provinces?'* As the results revealed that there are disparities in attainment across the provinces. The disparities indicated that females living in largely urban (Gauteng, Western Cape) provinces have higher chances of attaining highest levels of education compared to those living in predominantly known as rural provinces (KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape). Therefore, one can conclude that there are still inequalities in provinces with regard to education. This outcome is also related

to the question *'Is female attendance in educational institutions the same for both rural and urban areas?'* However, the study could not dwell on this question because data from GHS 2007 did not include stratum (rural and urban areas). Nonetheless, literature indicates that there are inequalities between these areas. Girls attending school in rural areas face more difficulties in their participation in education. They are mostly affected by socio-cultural, socio-economic and geographic factors as compared to those attending in urban areas.

'Which educational institutions do South African women attend?' is another question that was tackled in this thesis. This study indicated in terms of literature that there are more girls enrolled in primary level as much as boys. However, the attendance of girls declines in secondary level mostly due to pregnancy because after pregnancy some girls tend not to go back to school. This also relates to the question, *'What are the reasons for girls for leaving school in South Africa?'*. Despite the fact that there is a policy stating that they have a right to return to school after pregnancy, some girls do not go back to school because of finances and social factors. This leads to a lack of balanced representation of females in higher education. Nevertheless, it is also indicated that there are more females than males attending adult basic education. This shows that the government is somewhat implementing its policies by developing females' participation in the education sector. The question *'What method of education do South African women generally acquire? (Class attendance, correspond or distance educational institution)* is partially attempted. However, an in-depth analysis of this aspect was not done because it was beyond the scope of this research.

Regarding the hypotheses stated in this study *'More rural girls leave school than urban girls'* and *'Predominantly females in rural areas attain secondary level in South Africa',* it should be noted that these could not be answered because the variable stratum (rural and urban) was

not included in GHS 2007. Therefore this opens up more research to be carried out and GHS data also needs to be revised. Nonetheless, the hypothesis *'In South Africa pregnancy is the main reason for girls to leave school'* was answered by utilizing *Lambda, Phi, Cramer's V and Chi-square* to test statistical relationship between main reason for not attending school according to age controlled for gender. The outcome revealed that with the exception of *Chi-square* which indicated weak association; *Lambda, Phi and Cramer's V* indicated that the association was very strong. This is also in line with the reviewed literature which emphasizes that girls in secondary level leave school mostly because of pregnancy.

The hypothesis *'across the nine provinces in South Africa female's enrolment increased from 2004 to 2007'* was indirectly answered utilizing variables such as 'attendance rates according to ages' (refer to table seven) since the data did not provide enrolment variable in the data. The outcome from that analysis indicated that overall, rates showed decline from 2004 to 2007. Therefore, one may question the standard of education because as the years proceed one would expect some developments in the education system in this regard. Such questioning is inevitable mostly because government and the Department of Education claim to have developed the standard of education in South Africa.

6.2 Some Recommendations

Given the issues discussed in the previous chapters, I recommend that more research should focus on improving factors that affect females in the education system. These factors highly contribute in hindering the participation of women in the education sector, particularly in higher education. Even though government has made some improvements in education, more policies relating to women and girls need to be formulated. The ones that are there also need to be revised and properly implemented. These new policies should include factors relating to females' access to education.

According to results obtained, lack of money for fees is the main reason for non-attendance in girls. This is a significant issue as it affects girls massively. The South African Government and the Department of Education should come up with strategies that may assist in improving the financial situation of the parents of the learners or rather financially invest in girls by providing more financial aids in schools. In most cases girls from rural areas are mostly affected by such factors. Moreover, when looking at this issue on a provincial note, provinces like Limpopo, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal need more attention with regards to educational development in general. There are inadequate resources including human resources. Teachers, for instance are not enough since teachers colleges were closed and those that are there are under qualified. If the Department of Education may revise these problems the results and the level of education may improve in those provinces.

Further research should take into account the participation of females in the education sector. More projects/campaigns are needed to motivate girls to pursue their education further, especially in higher education. Girls need role models that they can look up to, so that they can be inspired to continue with their studies. Same sex role models are more important than

the opposite sex to encourage a development in children. The significance of literacy particularly in rural areas should be encouraged since the majority of rural females in South Africa are still illiterate. As the government has already begun with motivating women to read, further encouragement is needed such as providing more libraries in communities particularly non-urban communities.

Rural area infrastructure is one of the major factors that need to be addressed. Geographically, schools are situated in areas that are far from the households and this increases chances of girls to be harassed while travelling to school. This can be improved by building more schools. The government and communities should also work together in executing this task. There are also schools that do not have electricity, sanitation and water in rural regions. Some schools do not have enough classrooms, for instance, in provinces like Eastern Cape school children are taught in huts build with mud. This indicates that some children are still facing difficulties in acquiring education. Girls compared to boys are the ones affected the most by health factors like pregnancy. Therefore, the subject of sex education also needs to be revised in school, especially because adolescence is the stage in life where children are sexually curious, they begin experimenting mostly with risky sexual relations.

Furthermore, with regards to the GHS data of both 2004 and 2007, some problems were noted in coding of variables making it difficult to analyze in a systematic way the differences or similarities. There are variables in the GHS data for 2004, vital for the study that were excluded in 2007 data, for instance the stratum (rural and urban). Because of this some of the research questions and hypotheses could not be addressed properly. When comparing the results from the two data sets, one would expect to see some progress (meaning percentages

increasing) in terms of attendance rates from 2004 to 2007, but that is not the case, instead there is a decline predominantly in all the results from 2004 to 2007. This outcome raises some concerns regarding the level of education generally. It is therefore recommended in future to include some important variables left out in the most recent GHS.

Moreover, with regards to the variable education institutions attended, results of the analysis on the school as an education institution are not clear. Since, school has different levels such as primary, secondary and high school (senior secondary), results from part of the analysis were not properly discussed because results were misleading as it was not clear which one amongst (primary, secondary, and higher levels) had more attendance. Therefore, as mentioned above, issues such as these need to be revised and properly coded for future research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1a: Education institution attended by Age and Gender 2004 from ages 6-18

Gender	Education institution	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Males	Pre-School	203 28.1%	36 3.5%	1 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%
	School	520 71.9%	1001 96.5%	1027 99.9%	1017 99.9%	1103 99.9%	1073 99.8%	1157 99.9%	1157 99.8%	1258 99.6%	1075 99.8%	1045 99.1%	929 98.3%	890 95.3%
	University	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 0.2%	1 0.1%	14 1.5%
	Technikon	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	4 0.4%	13 1.4%
	College	0 0.05	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 1.0%	1 0.1%	8 0.8%	16 1.7%
	Adult basic educ.	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%
	Other adult education	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%
	Other than any above	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	5 0.4%	1 0.1%	5 0.5%	2 0.2%	1 0.1%
	Total	723 100%	1037 100%	1028 100%	1018 100%	1104 100%	1075 100%	1158 100%	1159 100%	1263 100%	1077 100%	1054 100%	945 100%	934 100%
Females	Pre-School	192 25.9%	19 1.9%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%
	School	548 74%	961 98.1%	973 99.9%	991 99.7%	1081 99.9%	1053 99.5%	1133 99.8%	1179 99.7%	1207 99.8%	1012 99.6%	974 99.6%	901 97.9%	744 92.5%
	University	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	4 0.4%	25 3.1%
	Technikon	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 0.3%	11 1.4%
	College	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.0%	2 0.2%	7 0.8%	20 2.5%
	Adult Basic educ.	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	3 0.4%
	Other adult education	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 0.2%	0 0.0%
	Other than Any above	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 0.2%	0 0.0%	2 0.2%	2 0.2%	3 0.3%	2 0.2%	3 0.3%	1 0.1%	2 0.2%	1 0.1%
	Total	741 100%	980 100%	974 100%	994 100%	1082 100%	1055 100%	1135 100%	1183 100%	1209 100%	1016 100%	978 100%	920 100%	804 100%

Appendix 1b: Education institution attended by Age and Gender 2007 from ages 6-18

Gender	Education institution	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Males	Pre-school	160 17.8%	49 4.2%	4 0.4%	4 0.3%	3 0.2%	3 0.3%	3 0.2%	2 0.2%	0 0.0%	0 0.05	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%
	School	738 82.2%	1105 95.8%	1069 99.6%	1156 99.5%	1239 99.5%	1194 99.7%	1267 99.7%	1308 99.8%	1371 99.5%	1086 99.4%	1245 99.3%	1145 98.6%	958 94%
	University	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 0.2%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	27 2.7%
	Technikon	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	2 0.2%	8 0.8%
	College	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 0.2%	6 1.5%	17 1.7%
	Adult basic education	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%
	Other adult Education	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%
	Other than Any above	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 0.2%	2 0.2%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	3 0.2%	5 0.5%	3 0.2%	4 0.3%	2 0.2%
	Total	898 100%	1154 100%	1073 100%	1162 100%	1245 100%	1198 100%	1271 100%	1311 100%	1378 100%	1093 100%	1254 100%	1161 100%	1012 100%
Females	Pre-school	173 18.4%	37 3.2%	1 0.4%	2 0.2%	4 0.3%	2 0.2%	2 0.2%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%
	School	769 81.6%	1104 96.7%	1081 99.5%	1188 99.7%	1284 99.6%	1181 99.7%	1266 99.7%	1339 99.8%	1355 99.5%	1182 99.7%	1261 99.3%	1091 98.6%	829 93.1%
	University	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 0.1%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	21 2.4%
	Technikon	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	2 0.2%	9 1.0%
	College	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	2 0.1%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	10 0.9%	28 3.1%
	Adult basic Education	0 0.0%%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%
	Other adult Education	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%
	Other adult Any above	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	0 0.05	2 0.1%	1 0.1%	5 0.4%	2 0.2%	1 0.1%
	Total	942 100%	1142 100%	1086 100%	1192 100%	1289 100%	1184 100%	1270 100%	1342 100%	1362 100%	1186 100%	1270 100%	1107 100%	890 100%

Appendix 1c :Education institution attended by Age and Gender 2004 from ages 19-30

Gender	Education institution	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total
Males	Pre-School	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%
	School	601 86.4%	359 80.5%	217 70.9%	139 57.4%	65 50.8%	38 45.2%	13 28.3%	10 27.8%	1 2.9%	5 22.7%	1 6.2%	0 0.0%	272 43.9%
	University	34 4.9%	31 7.0%	24 7.8%	39 16.1%	16 12.5%	21 25%	13 28.3%	7 19.4%	18 52.9%	7 31.8%	10 62.5%	5 41.7%	136 21.9%
	Technikon	30 4.3%	23 5.2%	37 12.1%	32 13.2%	23 18%	13 15.5%	11 23.9%	8 22.2%	10 29.4%	4 18.2%	1 6.2%	4 33.3%	106 17.1%
	College	28 4.0%	29 6.5%	24 7.8%	31 12.8%	19 14.8%	9 10.7%	7 15.2%	6 16.7%	4 11.8%	5 22.7%	3 18.8%	3 25%	87 14%
	Adult basic educ.	1 0.1%	2 0.4%	1 0.3%	0 0.0%	3 2.3%	1 1.2%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 2.9%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	5 0.5%
	Other adult education	2 0.3%	1 0.2%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.8%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	4 11.1%	0 0.0%	1 4.5%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	6 1.0%
	Other than any above	0 0.0%	1 0.2%	3 1.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.8%	2 2.4%	1 2.2%	1 2.8%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 6.2%	0 0.0%	6 1.0%
	Total	696 100%	446 100%	306 100%	242 100%	128 100%	84 100%	46 100%	36 100%	34 100%	22 100%	16 100%	12 100%	620 100%
Females	Pre-School	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%
	School	505 82.2%	332 73.3%	197 66.1%	135 60.5%	67 46.9%	29 35.4%	12 27.3%	10 25%	4 16.7%	1 3.2%	5 20.8%	0 0.0%	263 41.5%
	University	46 7.5%	43 9.5%	40 13.4%	28 12.6%	27 18.9%	15 18.3%	12 27.3%	11 27.5%	4 16.7%	14 45.2%	10 41.7%	7 31.8%	128 20.1%
	Technikon	17 2.8%	27 6.0%	25 8.4%	18 8.1%	16 11.2%	11 13.4%	8 18.2%	5 12.5%	6 25%	3 9.7%	2 8.3%	2 9.1%	71 11.2%
	College	39 6.4%	43 9.5%	33 11.1%	35 15.7%	27 18.9%	18 22%	8 18.2%	12 30%	9 37.5%	8 25.8%	4 16.7%	6 27.3%	127 20.1%
	Adult Basic educ.	1 0.2%	1 0.25	0 0.0%	3 1.3%	4 2.8%	4 4.9%	2 4.55	1 2.5%	1 4.2%	4 12.9%	1 4.2%	4 18.2%	24 3.8%
	Other adult education	1 0.2%	4 0.9%	1 0.3%	2 0.9%	1 0.7%	3 3.7%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 9.1%	8 1.3%
	Other than Any above	5 0.8%	3 0.7%	2 0.7%	2 0.9%	1 0.7%	2 2.4%	2 4.55	1 2.5%	0 0.0%	1 3.2%	2 8.2%	1 4.5%	12 1.9%
	Total	614 100%	453 100%	298 100%	223 100%	143 100%	82 100%	44 100%	40 100%	24 100%	31 100%	24 100%	22 100%	633 100%

Appendix 1d :Education institution attended by Age and Gender 2007 from ages 19-30

Gender	Education institution	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total
Males		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Pre-school	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
		627	441	277	137	73	28	25	13	5	5	1	1	288
	School	87.8%	81.4%	72.7%	58.3%	50.3%	40%	41%	39.4%	16.7%	27.8%	5.9%	6.7%	46.2%
		37	36	35	36	30	20	15	9	10	3	6	8	137
	University	5.2%	6.6%	9.2%	15.3%	20.7%	28.6%	24.6%	27.3%	33.3%	16.7%	35.5%	53.3%	22%
		13	23	21	21	10	5	6	4	4	1	4	2	57
	Technikon	1.8%	4.2%	5.5%	8.9%	6.9%	7.1%	9.8%	12.1%	13.3%	5.6%	23.5%	13.3%	9.1%
		32	35	42	36	27	14	14	6	9	7	4	2	119
	College	4.5%	6.5%	11%	15.3%	18.6%	20%	23%	18.2%	30%	38.9%	23.5%	13.3%	19.1%
	Adult basic	3	4	1	3	2	3	0	1	1	1	0	0	11
	education	0.4%	0.7%	0.3%	1.3%	1.4%	4.3%	0.0%	3%	3.3%	5.6%	0.0%	0.0%	1.8%
	Other adult	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Education	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.9%	0.0%	0.3%
	Other than	2	3	3	1	3	0	1	0	1	1	1	2	10
	Any above	0.3%	0.6%	0.8%	0.4%	2.1%	0.0%	1.6%	0.0%	3.3%	5.6%	5.9%	13.3%	1.6%
		714	542	381	235	145	70	61	33	30	18	17	15	624
	Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	105	100%
Females		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Pre-school	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
		511	364	235	148	79	40	23	8	10	8	4	4	324
	School	84.5%	75.2%	67.3%	62.7%	51.6%	44.4%	37.1%	23.5%	22.2%	28.6%	16.7%	13.3%	46.2%
		32	53	35	38	30	20	12	5	18	4	7	10	144
	University	5.3%	11%	10%	16.1%	19.6%	22.2%	19.4%	14.7%	40%	14.3%	29.2%	33.3%	20.5%
		11	13	23	10	13	9	4	3	3	4	0	1	47
	Technikon	1.8%	2.7%	6.6%	4.2%	8.5%	10%	6.5%	8.8%	6.7%	14.3%	0.0%	3.3%	6.7%
		43	45	45	29	20	14	16	11	8	6	7	11	122
	College	7.1%	9.3%	12.9%	12.3%	13.1%	15.6%	25.8%	32.4%	17.8%	21.4%	29.2%	36.7%	17.4%
	Adult basic	1	5	9	6	4	4	4	4	2	5	5	3	37
	Education	0.2%	1.0%	2.6%	2.5%	2.6%	4.4%	6.55	11.8%	4.4%	17.9%	20.8%	10%	5.3%
	Other adult	7	3	1	3	5	2	2	2	3	0	1	0	18
	Education	1.2%	0.65	0.3%	1.3%	3.3%	2.25	3.2%	5.9%	6.7%	0.0%	4.2%	0.0%	2.6%
	Other adult	0	0	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	10
	Any above	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%	0.8%	1.3%	1.1%	1.6%	2.9%	2.2%	3.6%	0.0%	3.3%	1.4%
		605	484	1349	236	153	90	62	34	45	28	24	30	702
	Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	1005

Appendix 2a: Highest Education Level by Province for males 2004 and 2007

		Province 2004										Province 2007									
Gender	Highest Educ. level	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total
M	No Schoolng	90	208	47	77	128	86	56	59	98	849	71	123	64	52	244	84	65	60	75	838
	%	3.9	5.6	4.4	4.4	2.9	2.3	1.9	2.6	2.9	3.5	2.6	3.4	3.9	2.8	3.4	4.0	2.7	2.7	2.9	3.1
	Grade0	114	280	66	93	267	121	122	129	210	1402	146	205	73	103	386	118	79	112	136	1358
	%	10.9	12.7	12.4	11.6	12.3	10.6	11.4	11.3	12	5.8	12.3	10.3	9.1	11.1	10.4	11.9	9.6	10.2	9.6	5.0
	Sub A/ Grade 1	105	255	57	83	247	130	124	146	194	1341	129	218	79	128	394	116	78	142	179	1463
	%	10	11.6	10.7	10.7	11.4	11.4	11.5	12.8	11.1	5.6	10.9	11	9.8	13.8	10.6	11.7	9.4	12.9	12.2	5.4
	Sub B/ Grade 2	102	263	45	80	208	141	100	120	222	1281	111	234	101	98	406	129	94	121	176	1470
	%	9.8	11.9	8.5	10.3	9.6	12.3	9.3	10.5	12.7	5.3	9.4	11.8	12.5	10.5	10.9	13	11.4	11	12	5.4
	Grade 3/ Std. 1	120	290	57	90	249	128	128	126	213	1401	13	267	97	107	488	113	111	153	184	1651
	%	11.5	13.2	10.7	11.6	11.5	11.2	11.9	11	12.2	5.8	11.1	13.4	12	11.5	13.1	11.4	13.4	13.9	12.6	6.1
	Grade 4/ Std. 2	112	268	56	80	249	123	120	152	182	1342	144	262	102	120	500	111	114	141	192	1686
	%	10.7	12.2	10.5	10.3	11.5	10.8	11.2	13.3	10.4	5.6	12.2	13.2	12.7	12.9	13.4	11.2	13.8	12.8	13.1	6.2
	Grade 5/ Std. 3	117	255	76	86	283	159	148	131	209	1464	140	276	110	102	504	123	111	136	180	1672
	%	11.2	11.6	14.3	11	13.1	13.9	13.8	11.5	12	6.1	11.8	13.9	13.6	11	13.5	12.4	13.4	11.5	12.3	6.2
	Grade 6/ Std. 4	160	301	91	130	294	159	161	156	249	1701	182	260	118	134	473	134	102	146	179	1728
	%	15.3	13.7	17.1	16.7	13.6	13.9	15	13.7	14.3	7.1	15.4	13.1	14.6	14.4	12.7	13.5	12.3	13.3	12.2	6.4
	Grade 7/ Std. 5	215	290	83	137	370	183	171	181	264	1894	202	266	126	138	576	145	138	158	239	1985
	%	20.6	13.2	15.6	17.6	17.1	16	15.9	15.9	15.1	7.9	17	13.4	15.6	14.8	15.4	14.7	16.7	14.4	16.3	7.3
	Grade 8/ Std. 6	235	251	96	130	354	170	172	157	273	1879	246	279	136	149	601	167	175	174	253	2180
	%	18.3	17.3	18.6	14.1	15.4	15.2	10.2	13	16.4	7.8	18.2	20.3	19	17.5	17.5	17.4	12.7	17.5	20	8.1
	Grade 9/ Std. 7	256	332	106	189	410	212	228	230	324	2014	265	315	141	138	630	211	200	186	294	2380
	%	19.9	22.8	20.6	20.5	17.8	19	13.5	19	19.4	8.4	19.6	23	19.7	16.2	18.4	22	14.5	18.7	23.2	8.8
	Grade 10/ Std. 8	199	298	107	154	36	181	261	211	407	1945	241	219	138	182	633	167	249	197	273	2299
	%	15.5	20.5	20.8	16.7	17.2	16.2	15.5	17.4	24.4	8.1	17.8	16	19.3	21.4	18.4	17.4	18	19.8	21.6	8.5
	Grade 11/ Std. 9	162	267	62	164	420	176	315	252	329	1655	208	267	87	136	670	166	271	174	214	2193
	%	12.6	18.7	12	17.8	18.2	15.8	18.7	20.8	19.7	6.9	15.4	19.5	12.2	16	19.5	17.3	19.6	17.5	16.9	8.1
	Grade 12/ Std. 10	434	307	144	284	726	376	713	362	333	3214	394	292	213	245	910	248	486	266	232	3286
	%	33.7	21.1	28	30.8	31.5	33.7	42.2	29.9	20	13.3	29.1	12.3	29.8	28.8	26.4	25.9	35.2	26.7	18.3	12.1

Appendix 2b: Highest Education Level by Province for males 2004 and 2007 continues…

		Province 2004										Province 2007									
Gender	Highest Educ. level	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total
M	NTC 1	2	2	2	0	5	0	7	5	2	25	7	7	3	2	14	4	9	3	7	56
	%	4.3	3.8	8.3	0.0	6.6	0.0	5.0	9.6	2.7	0.1	10.6	10.9	6.5	4.3	11.7	7	7.6	4.5	11.1	0.2
	NTC 2	4	2	1	0	6	2	4	3	3	25	3	3	1	3	4	3	9	0	3	28
	%	8.7	3.8	4.2	0.0	7.6	4.2	2.8	5.8	4.1	0.1	3	4.7	2.2	6.4	3.3	5.3	7.6	0.0	4.8	0.1
	NTC 3	7	6	1	5	9	0	20	6	4	58	5	6	6	3	9	5	10	5	1	50
	%	15.2	11.5	4.2	13.9	11.8	0.0	14.2	11.5	5.4	0.2	7.6	9.4	13	6.4	7.5	8.8	8.4	7.5	1.6	0.2
	Cert. less than G 12	4	1	1	0	2	3	8	1	10	30	4	6	1	2	12	3	3	4	6	41
	%	8.7	1.9	4.2	0.0	2.6	6.2	5.7	1.9	13.5	0.1	6.1	9.4	2.2	4.3	10	5.3	2.5	6	9.5	0.2
	Dipl. Less Than G 12	2	5	1	1	4	1	11	6	4	35										
	%	4.3	9.6	4.2	2.8	5.3	2.1	7.8	11.6	5.4	0.1										
	Cert. With Grade 12	6	14	6	11	19	11	30	11	11	119	1	1	2	3	7	4	4	8	3	33
	%	13	26.9	25	30.6	25	22.9	21.3	21.2	14.9	0.5	1.5	1.6	4.3	6.4	5.8	7	3.4	11.9	4.8	0.1
	Dipl. With Grade 12	21	22	12	19	31	31	61	20	40	257										
	%	45.7	42.3	50	52.8	40.8	64.6	43.3	38.5	54.1	1.1										
	Bachelor/ Degree	9	4	2	6	12	4	42	3	8	90	23	16	13	14	22	22	32	29	24	195
	%	37.5	66.7	66.7	46.2	48	50	70	75	61.5	0.4	34.8	25	28.3	29.8	18.3	38.6	26.9	43.3	38.1	0.7
	Bachelor/ Diploma	3	0	1	5	7	2	5	1	2	26										
	%	12.5	0.0	33.3	38.5	28	25	8.3	25	15.4	0.1										
	Honours Degree	7	2	0	2	4	0	9	0	2	26	24	25	20	20	52	16	52	18	19	246
	%	29.2	33.3	0.0	15.4	16	0.0	15	0.0	15.4	0.1	36.4	39.1	43.5	42.6	43.3	28.1	43.7	26.9	30.2	0.9
	Masters, Doctorate	5	0	0	0	2	2	4	0	1	14										
	%	20.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	8	25	6.7	0.0	7.1	0.1										
	Total	2322	3715	1060	1751	4366	2279	2969	2293	3332	24087	2727	3573	1641	1890	7571	2111	2439	2236	2886	27074
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Appendix 2c: Highest Education Level by Province for females 2004 and 2007

		Province 2004										Province 2007									
Gender	Highest Educ. level	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total
F	No Schooling	63	131	52	68	135	85	60	49	103	746	54	115	51	44	235	73	50	76	76	774
	%	2.6	3.6	4.7	3.7	3.6	3.6	2.1	2.1	3.0	3.0	2.1	3.1	3.1	2.3	2.9	3.1	2.1	3.4	2.4	2.7
	Grade 0	114	235	51	99	213	130	115	132	202	1291	121	185	89	88	364	106	97	96	146	1292
	%	11.5	12.3	9.7	12.4	10.6	12	12.5	12.4	13.2	5.2	11.4	10.2	12	10.5	9.8	9.8	12.6	10.3	10.5	4.6
	Sub A/ Grade 1	90	194	55	75	222	134	112	111	154	1147	114	189	94	95	377	136	74	88	134	1301
	%	9.0	10.1	10.5	9.4	11.1	12.4	12.1	10.4	10	4.7	10.9	10.4	12.7	11.3	10.2	12.6	9.6	9.4	9.6	4.6
	Sub B/ Grade 2	101	214	37	74	240	112	89	97	161	1125	113	215	82	78	415	127	96	101	169	1396
	%	10.2	11.2	7	9.3	12	10.4	9.6	9.1	10.5	4.6	10.6	11.9	11.1	9.3	11.2	11.8	12.5	10.8	12.2	5.0
	Grade 3/ Std. 1	116	214	62	79	198	97	93	138	192	1189	112	202	86	111	484	128	90	123	176	1512
	%	11.7	11.2	11.8	9.9	9.9	9	10.1	12.9	12.5	4.8	10.5	11.2	11.6	13.2	13.1	11.9	11.7	13.2	12.7	5.4
	Grade 4/ Std. 2	87	258	61	83	221	100	100	117	151	1178	135	217	84	102	453	118	93	116	176	1494
	%	8.7	13.5	11.6	10.4	11	9.2	10.8	11	9.8	4.8	12.7	12	11.3	12.1	12.2	10.9	12.1	12.4	12.7	5.3
	Grade 5/ Std. 3	139	219	73	107	262	169	106	123	189	1387	129	252	72	96	512	141	94	128	179	1603
	%	14	11.4	13.9	13.4	13.1	15.6	11.5	11.5	12.3	5.6	12.1	13.9	9.7	11.4	13.8	13.1	12.2	13.7	12.9	5.7
	Grade 6/ Std. 4	164	302	88	139	298	163	143	167	198	1662	168	257	102	129	507	156	95	143	198	1755
	%	16.5	15.8	18.7	17.4	14.9	15.1	15.5	15.7	12.9	6.8	15.8	14.2	13.8	15.4	13.7	14.4	12.3	15.3	14.3	6.2
	Grade 7/ Std. 5	184	277	98	142	348	177	165	181	287	1859	172	294	132	141	596	168	132	139	211	1985
	%	18.4	14.5	18.7	17.8	17.4	16.4	17.9	17	18.7	7.6	16.2	16.2	17.8	16.8	16.1	15.6	17.4	14.9	15.2	7.6
	Grade 8/ Std. 6	235	251	96	130	354	170	172	157	273	1838	222	294	147	132	640	151	144	176	257	2163
	%	18.3	17.3	18.6	14.1	15.4	15.2	10.2	13	16.4	7.8	15.9	17.7	18	13.1	15.9	13.6	10.3	15.2	16.1	7.7
	Grade 9/ Std. 7	256	332	106	189	410	212	228	230	324	2287	264	358	182	190	680	204	197	194	328	2597
	%	19.9	22.8	20.6	20.5	17.8	19	13.5	19	19.4	9.3	18.9	21.6	22.3	18.9	16.9	18.3	14	16.8	20.5	9.2
	Grade 10/ Std. 8	199	298	107	154	396	181	261	211	407	2214	288	309	145	190	754	213	243	228	353	2721
	%	15.5	20.5	20.8	16.7	17.2	16.2	15.5	17.4	24.4	9.0	20.6	18.6	17.8	18.9	18.7	19.2	17.3	19.6	22.1	9.7
	Grade 11/ Std. 9	162	267	62	164	420	176	315	252	329	2147	205	337	111	211	818	202	268	224	341	2717
	%	12.6	18.7	12%	17.8	18.2	15.8	18.7	20.8	19.7	8.7	14.7	20.3	13.6	21	20.3	18.2	19.1	19.4	21.4	9.6
	Grade 12 Std. 10	434	307	144	284	726	376	713	362	333	3679	416	360	230	282	1136	342	551	336	318	3971
	%	33.7	21.1	28	30.8	31.5	33.7	42.2	29.9	20	15	29.8	21.7	28.2	28.1	28.3	30.8	39.3	29.1	19.9	14.1

Appendix 2d: Highest Education Level by Province for females 2004 and 2007 continue…

		Province 2004										Province 2007									
Gender	Highest Educ. level	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total
F	NTC1	7	10	1	1	5	4	6	4	2	40	7	4	1	6	20	1	8	5	6	58
	%	13	11.8	7.1	2.1	5.6	7.3	3.7	7.4	2	0.2	10	6.1	2.9	12.8	12.5	1.7	6.6	7.8	6.8	0.2
	NTC2	0	6	0	3	7	0	3	1	1	21	1	2	0	1	1	0	2	0	1	8
	%	0.0	7.1	0.0	6.4	7.9	0.0	1.9	1.9	1.0	0.1	1.4	3	0.0	2.1	0.6	0.0	1.6	0.0	1.1	0.8
	NTC3	0	10	0	3	8	2	9	9	4	45	4	2	1	2	3	2	8	4	7	33
	%	0.0	11.8	0.0	6.4	9	3.6	5.6	16.7	4.0	0.2	5.7	3	2.9	4.3	1.9	3.4	6.6	6.2	8	0.1
	Cert. less Grd.12	5	2	1	0	4	1	8	0	2	23	2	1	3	3	13	2	3	6	7	40
	%	9.3	2.4	7.1	0.0	4.5	1.8	4.9	0.0	2.0	0.1	2.9	1.5	8.8	6.4	8.1	3.4	2.5	9.4	8	0.1
	Dipl. less Grd.12	2	7	1	0	2	2	7	4	8	33										
	%	3.7	8.4	7.1	0.0	2.2	3.6	4.3	7.4	7.9	0.1										
	Cert. with Grd.12	13	17	3	11	24	17	33	13	27	158	5	7	2	3	11	4	5	6	3	46
	%	24.1	20	21.4	23.4	27	30.9	20.4	24.1	26.7	0.6	7.1	10.6	5.9	6.4	6.9	6.9	4.1	9.4	3.4	0.2
	Dipl. With Grd.12	27	33	8	29	39	29	96	23	57	341										
	%	50	38.8	57.1	61.7	43.8	52.7	59.3	42.6	56.4	1.4										
	Bachelor Degree	19	13	2	8	17	1	40	1	11	112	20	22	7	8	47	18	36	19	35	212
	%	59.4	81.2	66.7	47.1	56.7	25	64.5	25%	84.6	0.5	28.6	33.3	20.6	17	29.4	31	29.5	29.7	39.8	0.8
	Bachelor/ Diploma	4	1	0	2	7	1	8	2	2	27										
	%	12.5	6.2	0.0	11.8	23.3	25	12.9	50	15.4	0.1										
	Honours Degree	5	2	1	6	6	1	7	0	0	28	31	28	20	24	65	31	60	24	29	312
	%	15.6	12.5	33.3	35.3	20	25	11.3	0.0	0.0	0.1	44.3	42.4	58.8	51.1	40.6	53.4	49.2	37.5	33	1.1
	Master, Doctorate	4	0	0	1	0	1	7	1	0	14										
	%	12.5	0.0	0.0	5.9	0.0	25	11.3	25	0.0	0.1										
	Total	2430	3600	1109	1851	4562	2341	2896	2385	3417	24591	2607	3674	1651	1952	8171	2343	2391	2236	3164	28189
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Appendix 3a: Currently Attending School by Province, Education Levels and Gender 2004

2004			Province									
Gender	Education levels	Currently attending	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total
Males	Primary	Yes	857 82.2%	1831 83.2%	423 79.7%	672 86.3%	1867 86.2%	973 85.1%	949 88.4%	1004 88%	1590 91.2%	10166 86%
		No	186 17.8%	371 16.8%	108 20.3%	107 13.7%	300 13.8%	171 14.9%	125 11.6%	137 125	153 8.8%	1658 14%
		Total	1043 100%	2202 100%	531 100%	779 100%	2167 100%	1144 100%	1074 100%	1141 100%	1743 100%	11824 100%
	Secondary	Yes	422 37.2%	603 47.7%	178 38.6%	378 44.4%	931 46.7%	439 43.9%	684 40.6%	486 45.9%	871 61%	4992 55.9%
		No	711 62.8%	660 52.3%	283 61.4%	474 55.6%	1064 53.3%	560 56.1%	1002 59.4%	572 54.1%	556 39%	5882 54.1%
		Total	1133 100%	1263 100%	461 100%	852 100%	1995 100%	999 100%	1686 100%	1058 100%	1427 100%	10874 100%
	Higher	Yes	13 19.4%	12 24.5%	6 23.1%	7 15.6%	23 28.4%	13 23.6%	38 23.5%	10 24.4%	7 10.1%	129 21.7%
		No	54 80.6%	37 75.5%	20 76.9%	38 84.4%	58 71.6%	42 76.4%	124 76.5%	31 75.6%	62 89.9%	466 78.3%
		Total	67 100%	49 100%	26 100%	45 100%	81 100%	55 100%	162 100%	41 1005	69 100%	595 100%
Females	Primary	Yes	831 83.6%	1643 85.9%	410 78.1%	700 87.7%	1666 83.3%	942 87.1%	833 90.2%	927 87%	1389 90.5%	9341 86.2%
		No	163 16.4%	270 14.1%	115 21.9%	98 12.3%	335 16.7%	140 12.9%	90 9.8%	139 13%	145 9.5%	1495 13.8%
		Total	994 100%	1913 100%	525 100%	798 100%	2001 100%	1082 100%	923 100%	1066 100%	1534 100%	10836 100%
	Secondary	Yes	469 36..2%	649 43.6%	198 38.2%	394 42.5%	962 41.3%	481 42.9%	686 39.9%	549 44.6%	884 52.5%	5272 42.8%
		No	825 36.8%	841 56.4%	320 61.8%	533 57.5%	1366 58.7%	641 57.1%	1033 60.1%	981 55.4%	799 47.5%	7039 57.2%
		Total	1294 100%	1490 100%	518 100%	927 100%	2328 100%	1122 100%	1719 100%	1230 100%	1683 100%	12311 100%
	Higher	Yes	22 26.8%	17 23%	5 26.3%	10 16.4%	11 11.1%	5 9.6%	39 19.9%	13 27.1%	10 10%	132 18.1%
		No	60 73.2%	57 77%	14 73.7%	51 83.6%	88 88.9%	47 90.4%	157 80.1%	35 72.9%	90 90%	599 81.9%
		Total	82 100%	74 100%	19 100%	61 100%	99 100%	52 100%	196 100%	48 100%	100 100%	731 100%

Appendix 3b: Currently Attending School by Province, Education Levels and Gender 2007

Males	Primary	Yes	1027 71.8%	1859 82%	740 78.6%	901 83.5%	3708 85.7%	944 81.7%	783 78.3%	1106 86.9%	1513 88.1%	12581 82.8
		No	404 28.2%	408 18%	201 21.4%	178 16.5%	617 14.3%	212 18.3%	217 21.7%	167 13.1%	205 11.9%	2609 17.2%
		Total	1431 100%	2267 100%	941 100%	1099 100%	4325 100%	1156 100%	1000 100%	1273 100%	1718 100%	15190 100%
	Secondary	Yes	351 31.1%	550 49.3%	195 32.9%	298 41.7%	1334 46.2%	353 43.5%	396 31.9%	339 40.2%	622 60.2%	4438 42.8%
		No	776 68.9%	566 50.7%	397 67.1%	416 58.3%	1554 53.8%	458 56.5%	844 68.1%	504 59.8%	411 39.8%	5926 57.2%
		Total	1127 100%	1116 100%	592 100%	714 100%	2888 100%	811 100%	1240 100%	843 100%	1033 100%	10364 100%
	Higher	Yes	11 11.6%	12 18.5%	4 10%	6 13.6%	21 21.6%	14 23.7%	32 25.2%	11 18.6%	13 23.6%	124 19.3%
		No	84 88.4%	53 81.5%	36 90%	38 86.4%	76 78.4%	45 76.3%	95 74.8%	48 8.4%	42 76.4%	517 80.7%
		Total	95 100%	65 100%	40 100%	44 100%	97 100%	59 100%	127 100%	59 100%	55 100%	641 100%
Females	Primary	Yes	991 77.1%	1759 83.6%	707 79.6%	802 82.6%	3630 83.5%	1019 82.8%	770 84.2%	958 86.3%	1449 88%	12085 83.4%
		No	295 22.9%	344 16.4%	181 20.4%	169 17.4%	717 16.5%	212 17.2%	145 15.8%	152 13.7%	197 12%	2412 16.6%
		Total	1286 100%	2103 100%	888 100%	971 100%	4347 100%	1231 100%	915 100%	1110 100%	1646 100%	14497 100%
	Secondary	Yes	350 29.4%	607 44%	218 32.3%	359 40.5%	1436 41.8%	389 40.1%	426 33.2%	399 39.9%	694 50.9%	4878 40%
		No	842 70.6%	772 56%	457 67.7%	527 59.5%	1999 58.2%	581 59.9%	859 66.8%	602 60.1%	670 49.1%	7309 60%
		Total	1192 100%	1379 100%	675 100%	886 100%	3435 100%	970 100%	1285 100%	1001 100%	1364 100%	12187 100%
	Higher	Yes	10 14.5%	19 26.8%	5 13.5%	7 14.6%	23 16.4%	9 13.2%	40 28.8%	7 14.6%	7 9.1%	127 18.2%
		No	59 85.5%	52 73.2%	32 85.6%	41 85.4%	117 83.6%	59 86.8%	99 71.2%	41 85.4%	70 90.9%	570 81.8%
		Total	69 100%	71 100%	37 100%	48 100%	140 100%	68 100%	139 100%	48 100%	77 100%	697 100%

Appendix 4a: Main Reasons for not attending School in 2004 by gender and Age between 6-18

		Age												
Gender	Main reason Not att.	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Males	Pregnancy	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0	0 0.0%	1 4.2%	1 2.9%	1 1.7%	0 0.0%	1 0.9%	0 0.0%
	Has completed	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 1.7%	25 9.5%
	Family commitment	3 2.5%	1 3.2%	0 0.0%	1 7.7%	1 11.1%	0 0.0%	1 7.7%	1 4.2%	1 2.9%	0 0.0%	2 2.1%	1 0.9%	6 2.3%
	No money For fees	15 12.4%	9 29%	3 23.1%	3 23.1%	3 33.3%	6 37.5%	8 61.5%	7 29.2%	12 34.3%	18 30%	31 32.3%	41 35.3%	90 34.1%
	He/ She is working	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 11.1%	1 6.2%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 2.9%	5 8.3%	7 7.3%	13 11.2%	30 11.4%
	Others	103 85.1%	21 67.7%	10 76.9%	9 69.2%	4 44.4%	9 56.2%	4 30.8%	15 62.2%	20 57.15	36 60%	56 58.3%	58 50%	113 42.8%
	Total	121 100%	3 100%	13 100%	13 100%	9 100%	16 100%	13 100%	24 100%	35 100%	60 100%	96 100%	116 100%	264 100%
Females	Pregnancy	0 0.05	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 10%	18 17.1%	29 19.5%	56 16.6%
	Has completed	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	4 3.8%	4 2.7%	45 13.3%
	Family commitment	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 18.8%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 12%	2 6.7%	4 3.8%	17 11.4%	27 8%
	No money For fess	13 11.4%	7 28%	3 21.4%	4 44.4%	6 54.6%	4 25%	1 12.5%	5 38.5%	13 52%	11 36.7%	40 38.1%	47 31.5%	118 34.9%
	He/ She is working	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.05	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.05	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 3.3%	4 3.8%	4 2.7%	13 3.8%
	Other	101 88.6%	18 72%	11% 78.6%	5 55.6%	5 45.5%	9 56.2%	7 78.5%	8 61.5%	9 36%	13 43.3%	35 33.3%	48 32.2%	79 23.4%
	Total	114 100%	25 100%	14 100%	9 100%	11 100%	16 100%	8 100%	13 100%	25 100%	30 100%	105 100%	149 100%	338 100%

Appendix 4b: Main Reasons for not attending School in 2007 by gender and Age between 6-18

2007														
Gender	Main reason Not att.	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Males	Pregnancy	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.6%	2 0.7%
	Has completed	1 0.7%	0 0.0%	1 3.6%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 1.6%	2 1.9%	7 4.5%	33 10.9%
	Family commitment	0 0.0%	1 2.9%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 7.1%	0 0.0%	3 8.1%	1 1.6%	5 4.9%	6 3.9%	11 3.6%
	No money For fees	5 3.4%	2 5.9%	3 10.7%	1 9.1%	1 9.1%	1 7.7%	4 28.6%	6 31.6%	9 24.3%	15 24.2%	28 27.2%	59 38.3%	93 30.7%
	He/ She is working	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 5.4%	6 9.7%	5 4.9%	20 13.0%	49 16.2%
	Others	139 95.9%	31 91.2%	24 85.7%	10 90.9%	10 90.9%	12 92.3%	9 64.3%	13 68.4%	23 62.2%	39 62.9%	63 61.2%	61 39.6%	115 38.0%
	Total	145 100%	34 100%	28 100%	11 100%	11 100%	13 100%	14 100%	19 100%	37 100%	62 100%	103 100%	154 100%	303 100%
Females	Pregnancy	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 6.7%	7 10.8%	18 18.0%	32 17.0%	41 12.6%
	Has completed	0 0.0%	1 3.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 2.0%	10 5.3%	36 11.0%
	Family commitment	0 0.0%	1 3.0%	0 0.0%	1 7.7%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 7.1%	0 0.0%	6 9.2%	14 14.0%	27 14.4%	42 12.9%
	No money For fees	8 6.1%	4 12.1%	3 20%	4 30.8%	3 21.4%	2 16.7%	0 0.0%	3 21.4%	8 26.7%	19 29.2%	17 17.0%	47 23.0%	105 32.2%
	He/ She is working	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 3.1%	10 10.0%	14 7.4%	26 8%
	Others	123 93.2%	27 81.8%	12 80%	12 80%	10 71.4%	10 83.3%	5 100%	9 64.3%	20 66.7%	31 47.7%	39 39.0%	58 30.9%	76 23.3%
	Total	132 100%	33 100%	15 100%	15 100%	14 100%	12 100%	5 100%	14 100%	30 100%	65 100%	100 100%	188 100%	326 100%

Appendix 4c: Main Reasons for not attending School in 2004 by gender and Age between 19-30

		Age												
Gender	Main reason Not att.	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total
Males	Pregnancy	1 0.3%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	3 0.4%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%							9 0.2%
	Has completed	60 15.4%	82 18.3%	129 20.9%	143 20.6%	156 23.4%	147 22.8%							744 17.4%
	Family commitment	6 1.5%	10 2.2%	3 0.5%	4 0.6%	15 2.2%	8 1.2%							64 1.5%
	No money For fees	150 38.5%	108 37.6%	220 35.7%	251 36.1%	225 33.7%	223 34.6%							1479 34.7%
	He/ She is working	46 11.8%	49 11%	96 15.6%	103 14.8%	111 16.6%	108 16.8%							570 13.4%
	Others	127 32.6%	138 30.9%	169 27.4%	191 27.5%	159 23.8%	158 24.5%							1399 32.8%
	Total	390 100%	447 100%	617 100%	695 100%	667 100%	644 100%							4265 100%
Females	Pregnancy	72 17.6%	72 12%	73 10.2%	77 10.3%	62 8.2%	61 7.9%							522 10.8%
	Has completed	71 17.1%	105 17.5%	136 18.9%	145 19.4%	140 18.6%	169 21.9%							818 16.9%
	Family commitment	26 6.3%	50 8.3%	68 9.5%	55 7.4%	60 8%	64 8.3%							378 7.8%
	No money For fess	145 34.9%	228 38.1%	253 35.2%	264 35.2%	268 35.6%	264 34.2%							1692 34.9%
	He/ She is working	24 5.8%	29 4.8%	47 6.5%	64 8.6%	74 9.8%	69 8.9%							327 6.7%
	Other	76 18.3%	115 19.2%	142 19.7%	142 19%	149 19.8%	144 18.7%							1113 22.9%
	Total	415 100%	599 100%	719 100%	747 100%	753 100%	771 100%							4850 100%

Appendix 4d: Main Reasons for not attending School in 2007 by gender and Age between 19-30

2007														
Males	Pregnancy	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 0.3%	3 0.4%	2 0.3%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	1 0.1%	2 0.3%	1 0.2%	2 0.3%	19 0.2%
	Has completed	39 10.3%	59 9.7%	83 12.0%	95 12.8%	109 13.6%	73 9.1%	94 11.2%	71 9.9%	67 8.9%	63 9.5%	64 9.7%	64 8.4%	926 9.9%
	Family commitment	10 2.7%	23 3.8%	30 4.3%	25 3.4%	25 3.1%	26 3.2%	32 3.8%	33 4.6%	43 5.7%	33 5%	33 5%	50 6.5%	391 4.2%
	No money For fees	123 32.6%	215 35.3%	221 31.9%	252 33.8%	243 30.4%	243 30.4%	246 29.4%	217 30.2%	204 27.2%	172 25.9%	149 2.7%	147 19.2%	2659 28.5%
	He/she is Working	73 19.4%	142 23.3%	155 22.4%	192 25.8%	231 28.9%	263 32.9%	285 34%	253 35.2%	292 38.9%	262 39.4%	280 42.6%	338 44.2%	2847 30.5%
	Other	132 35.0%	170 27.9%	201 29.0%	178 23.9%	189 23.7%	194 24.2%	180 21.5%	143 19.9%	143 19.1%	133 20%	130 19.8%	164 21.4%	2504 26.8%
	Total	377 100%	609 100%	692 100%	745 100%	799 100%	800 100%	838 100%	718 100%	750 100%	665 100%	657 100%	765 100%	9346 100%
Females	Pregnancy	59 12.3%	81 12.4%	68 8.1%	73 8.6%	62 6.8%	56 6.5%	52 5.6%	32 4.2%	29 3.5%	36 3.4%	27 3.5%	27 3%	693 6.6%
	Has Completed	62 12.9%	85 13%	110 13.1%	108 12.7%	123 13.4%	90 10.4%	116 12.4%	81 10.8%	80 9.7%	73 9.5%	84 11%	73 8.2%	1134 10.8%
	Family Commitment	59 12.3%	80 12.3%	101 12.0%	91 10.7%	112 12.2%	112 13%	125 13.4%	96 12.7%	122 14.8%	118 15.3%	131 17.2%	145 16.3%	1384 13.2%
	No money For fees	157 32.6%	193 29.6%	279 33.2%	303 35.6%	293 32%	284 32.9%	300 32.1%	235 31.2%	248 30.1%	209 27.2%	199 26.1%	233 26.1%	3156 30.1%
	He/ She is working	52 10.8%	84 12.9%	108 12.9%	118 13.9%	141 15.4%	162 18.8%	184 19.7%	154 20.5%	180 21.9%	191 24.8%	164 21.5%	215 24.1%	1807 17.2%
	Other	92 19.1%	129 19.8%	174 20.7%	158 18.6%	186 20.3%	158 18.3%	158 16.9%	155 20.6%	164 19.9%	152 19.8%	157 20.6%	199 22.3%	2309 22%
	Total	481 100%	652 100%	840 100%	851 100%	917 100%	862 100%	935 100%	753 100%	823 100%	769 100%	762 100%	892 100%	10483 100%

Appendix 5a: Main reason for not attending School by Province and Gender in 2004

		Province									
Gender	Main reas. Not att.	WC	EC	NC	FS	KZN	NW	G	M	L	Total
Males	Pregnancy	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.3%	3 0.4%	2 0.5%	3 0.4%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	9 0.2%
	Has Completed	141 25.4%	49 7.3%	49 19%	71 21.7%	127 18.4%	98 22.4%	89 17.6%	73 19.3%	47 10.6%	744 17.4%
	Family Commitment	16 2.9%	12 1.8%	3 1.2%	2 0.6%	9 1.4%	5 1.1%	10 2%	3 0.8%	4 0.9%	64 1.5%
	No money For fees	103 18.6%	268 40.2%	69 26.7%	109 33.3%	287 41.5%	146 33.4%	194 38.3%	138 36.4%	165 37.2%	1479 3.9%
	He/ She is Working	117 21.1%	40 6%	51 19.8%	43 13.1%	69 10%	57 13%	88 17.4%	47 12.4%	58 13.1%	570 13.4%
	Other	178 32.1%	298 44.7%	86 33.3%	101 30.9%	197 28.5%	129 29.5%	122 24.1%	118 31.1%	170 38.3%	1399 32.8%
	Total	555 100%	667 100%	258 100%	327 100%	692 100%	437 100%	506 100%	379 100%	444 100%	4265 100%
Females	Pregnancy	25 4.3%	78 11.4%	43 15.5%	27 7.4%	139 15%	41 9%	57 10%	73 16.5%	39 7.2%	522 10.8%
	Has Completed	174 29.9%	34 5%	56 20.2%	62 16.9%	166 17.9%	99 21.8%	106 18.6%	78 17.6%	43 7.9%	818 16.9%
	Family Commitment	47 8.1%	30 4.4%	10 3.6%	34 9.3%	44 4.7%	45 9.9%	38 6.7%	29 6.5%	101 18.6%	378 7.8%
	No money For fees	132 22.7%	297 43.3%	77 27.8%	107 29.2%	349 37.6%	151 33.2%	210 36.8%	148 33.4%	221 40.8%	1692 34.9%
	He/ She is Working	83 14.3%	24 3.5%	22 7.9%	25 6.8%	49 5.3%	19 4.2%	67 11.8%	22 5%	16 3.0%	327 6.7%
	Other	121 20.8%	223 32.5%	69 24.9%	112 30.5%	181 19.5%	100 22%	92 16.1%	93 21%	122 22.5%	1113 22.9%
	Total	582 100%	686 100%	277 100%	367 100%	928 100%	455 100%	570 100%	443 100%	542 100%	4850 100%

Appendix 5b: Main Reasons for not attending School by Age and gender in 2007

2007											
Males	Pregnancy	1 0.1%	2 0.2%	1 0.2%	1 0.2%	7 0.3%	6 0.8%	0 0.0%	1 0.1%	0 0.0%	19 0.2%
	Has Completed	158 12.2%	54 5.0%	87 13.1%	57 8.6%	332 14.2%	68 8.9%	46 4%	78 10.5%	46 6.9%	926 9.9%
	Family Commitment	49 3.8%	36 3.3%	13 2.0%	48 7.2%	111 4.8%	30 3.9%	49 4.3%	27 3.6%	28 4.2%	391 4.2%
	No money For fees	153 11.8%	406 37.7%	106 15.9%	171 25.8%	707 30.3%	265 34.7%	405 35.4%	234 31.5%	212 31.7%	2659 28.4%
	He/ She is working	598 46.1%	266 24.7%	252 37.9%	212 32%	503 21.6%	192 55.2%	455 39.8%	228 30.6%	144 21.5%	2848 30.5%
	Other	335 25.9%	314 29.1%	206 31%	174 26.2%	670 28.8%	202 26.5%	188 16.4%	176 23.7%	239 35.7%	2504 26.8%
	Total	1292 100%	1078 100%	665 100%	663 100%	2330 100%	763 100%	1143 100%	744 100%	669 100%	9347 100%
Females	Pregnancy	43 3.5%	90 7.6%	20 2.9%	62 8.3%	258 8.8%	49 5.5%	43 4%	63 7.6%	65 6.9%	693 6.6%
	Has completed	206 17.1%	55 4.6%	96 14.2%	71 9.5%	395 13.5%	82 9.1%	64 5.9%	102 12.3%	63 6.7%	1134 10.8%
	Family Commitment	143 11.8%	155 13%	109 16.1%	113 15.1%	302 10.4%	151 16.8%	145 13.4%	102 12.3%	164 17.5%	1384 13.2%
	No money For fees	161 13.3%	433 36.4%	126 18.6%	207 27.7%	867 29.7%	347 38.7%	466 43%	258 31.1%	291 31.1%	3156 30.1%
	He/ She is Working	388 32.1%	184 15.5%	129 19%	114 15.3%	445 15.3%	102 11.4%	209 19.3%	127 15.3%	109 11.6%	1807 17.2%
	Other	267 22.1%	272 22.9%	198 29.2%	180 24.1%	649 22.3%	166 18.5%	156 14.4%	177 21.4%	245 26.1%	2310 22%
	Total	1208 100%	1189 100%	678 100%	747 100%	2916 100%	897 100%	1083 100%	829 100%	937 100%	10484 100%

Appendix 6: Attendance rates for males and females 2004 and 2007

	2004						2007					
Age	N Males	D Males	Rate of att. Males	N Females	D Females	Rates of Att. females	N Males	D Males	Rate of Att. Males	N Females	D Females	Rates of Att. Females
6	723	880	82%	741	878	84%	900	1053	86%	942	1076	88%
7	1037	1076	96%	980	1012	97%	1154	1191	97%	1143	1180	97%
8	1028	1044	99%	974	989	99%	1074	1105	97%	1087	1103	99%
9	1018	1033	99%	994	1004	99%	1164	1177	99%	1192	1207	99%
10	1104	1116	99%	1082	1094	99%	1245	1257	99%	1291	1307	99%
11	1075	1095	98%	1055	1073	98%	1199	1213	99%	1184	1199	99%
12	1158	1172	99%	1135	1143	99%	1271	1289	99%	1271	1281	99%
13	1159	1185	98%	1183	1198	99%	1313	1332	99%	1343	1360	99%
14	1262	1299	97%	1209	1235	98%	1378	1415	97%	1366	1400	98%
15	1077	1139	95%	1016	1046	97%	1095	1161	94%	1187	1255	95%
16	1054	1152	92%	978	1085	90%	1254	1364	92%	1274	1378	93%
17	945	1067	89%	920	1070	86%	1160	1317	88%	1107	1301	85%
18	934	1202	78%	804	1149	70%	1014	1319	77%	893	1230	73%
19	696	1094	64%	614	1036	59%	715	1102	65%	606	1100	55%
20	448	904	50%	454	1075	42%	543	1158	47%	484	1152	42%
21	306	937	33%	298	1036	29%	381	1089	35%	350	1213	29%
22	242	946	26%	224	990	23%	235	1000	24%	236	1102	21%
23	128	817	16%	143	927	15%	145	961	15%	155	1093	14%
24	84	757	11%	82	875	9%	70	886	8%	90	981	9%
25	46	783	6%	44	807	6%	62	921	7%	62	1009	6%
26	36	717	5%	40	770	5%	33	766	4%	35	809	4%
27	34	713	5%	24	774	3%	32	794	4%	45	884	5%
28	22	668	3%	31	779	4%	18	699	3%	28	814	3%
29	16	645	3%	24	733	3%	17	694	2%	24	799	3%
30	12	701	2%	22	846	3%	15	798	2%	30	938	3%
Total	15645	24142	65%	15071	24624	61%	17487	27061	65%	17425	28171	62%

N= Numerator & D= Denominator

Appendix 7: Main reason for not attending School by Stratum and Gender 2004

		Stratum																		
gender	Main reason	WC urban	WC rural	EC urban	EC rural	NC urban	NC rural	FS urban	FS rural	KZN urban	KZN rural	NW urban	NW rural	GP urban	GP rural	M urban	M rural	L urban	L rural	Total
M	Pregnancy	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	1	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	9
	%	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2
	Has Completed	126	15	41	8	33	16	50	21	77	50	41	57	87	2	38	35	21	26	744
	%	30.1	10.9	15.8	2.0	21.7	15.1	25.8	15.8	25.2	13	26.6	20.1	17.6	18.2	24.4	15.7	20.4	7.6	17.4
	Family commit	14	2	1	11	2	1	1	1	2	7	1	4	10	0	1	2	1	3	64
	%	3.3	1.5	0.4	2.7	1.3	0.9	0.5	0.8	0.7	1.8	0.6	1.4	2	0.0	0.6	0.9	0.1	0.9	1.5
	No money For fees	83	20	110	158	43	26	66	43	125	162	46	100	189	5	57	81	31	134	1479
	%	19.9	14.6	42.3	38.8	28.3	24.5	34	32.3	40.8	42	29.9	35.3	38.2	45.5	36.5	36.3	30.1	39.3	34.7
	He/ She is working	63	54	17	23	19	32	20	23	37	32	21	36	87	1	25	22	24	34	570
	%	15.1	39.4	6.5	5.7	12.5	30.2	10.3	17.3	12.1	8.3	13.6	12.7	17.6	9.1	16	9.9	23.3	10.6	13.4
	Other	132	46	91	207	55	31	57	44	63	134	44	85	119	3	35	83	26	144	1399
	%	31.6	33.6	35	50.9	36.2	29.2	29.4	33.1	20.6	34.7	28.6	30	24	27.3	22.4	37.2	25.2	42.2	32.8
	Total	418	137	260	407	152	106	194	133	306	386	154	283	495	11	156	223	103	345	4265
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
F	Pregnancy	16	9	26	52	33	10	18	9	55	84	13	28	53	4	19	54	9	30	522
	%	3.8	5.5	9.5	12.6	16.3	13.3	8.6	5.7	14.6	15.2	6.8	10.6	9.6	23.5	10.4	20.8	11.0	6.5	10.8
	Has completed	137	37	29	5	51	5	40	22	81	85	48	51	105	1	33	45	17	26	818
	%	32.7	22.7	10.6	1.2	25.2	6.7	19.1	13.9	21.5	15.4	25.3	19.2	19	5.9	18	17.3	20.7	5.7	16.9
	Family commit	32	15	11	19	7	3	15	19	15	29	25	20	37	1	8	21	10	91	378
	%	7.6	9.2	4.0	4.6	3.5	4.0	7.2	12	4.0	5.3	13.2	7.5	6.7	5.9	4.4	8.1	12.2	19.8	7.8
	No money For fees	108	24	127	170	53	24	63	44	138	211	63	88	205	5	72	76	24	197	1692
	%	25.8	14.7	46.5	41.2	26.2	32	30.1	27.8	36.7	38.2	33.2	33.2	37.1	29.4	39.3	29.2	29.3	42.8	34.9
	He/ She is working	46	37	16	8	10	12	19	6	27	22	7	12	64	3	15	7	4	12	327
	%	11	22.7	5.9	1.9	5.0	16	9.1	3.8	7.2	4	3.7	4.5	11.6	17.6	8.2	2.7	4.9	2.6	6.7
	Other	80	41	64	159	48	21	54	58	60	121	34	66	89	3	36	57	18	104	1113
	%	19.1	25.2	23.4	38.5	23.8	28	25.8	36.7	16	21.9	17.9	24.9	16.1	17.6	19.7	21.9	22	22.6	22.9
	Total	419	163	273	413	202	75	209	158	376	552	190	265	553	17	183	260	82	460	4850
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Appendix 8: Currently attending School by Stratum and Gender 2004

		Stratum																		
gender	Currently attending	WC urban	WC rural	EC urban	EC rural	NC urban	NC rural	FS urban	FS rural	KZN urban	KZN rural	NW urban	NW rural	GP urban	GP rural	M urban	M rural	L urban	L rural	Total
M																				
	Yes	1049	290	816	1724	504	109	745	357	1045	1811	620	832	1655	36	675	842	498	2037	15645
	%	58.2	54.6	60.2	72.8	65	37.6	65.8	57.5	59	69.7	65.6	62.1	57	50	65.9	66.1	70.5	77.4	64.8
	No	753	241	539	643	217	181	387	264	726	789	325	507	1251	36	350	432	208	594	8497
	%	41.8	45.4	39.8	27.2	35	62.4	34.2	42.5	41	30.3	34.4	37.9	43	50	34.1	33.9	29.5	22.6	35.2
	Total	1802	531	1355	2367	775	290	1132	621	1771	2600	945	1339	2906	72	1025	1274	706	2631	24142
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
F	Yes	1072	294	828	1556	532	94	773	366	942	1721	659	796	1548	50	668	834	473	1881	15071
	%	57.7	51.1	60.2	69.7	59.9	41.6	63.5	57.5	53.1	61.7	62.6	61.8	54.7	34	61.7	63.7	67.9	69.1	61.2
	No	786	281	548	676	356	132	445	270	833	1057	394	492	1282	50	415	476	224	842	9553
	%	42.3	48.9	39.8	30.3	40.1	58.4	36.5	42.5	46.9	38.3	37.4	38.2	45.3	34	38.3	36.3	32.1	30.9	38.8
	Total	1858	575	1376	2232	888	226	1218	636	1775	2788	1053	1288	2830	68	1083	1310	697	2723	24624
	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Appendix 9: The Statistical Relationship in 2004 and 2007

Females		**2004**								**2007**							
Bivariate relations	Variable Controlled	Chi-square	Value	Lambda	Value	Phi	Value	Cramer's V	Value	Chi-square	Value	Lambda	Value	Phi	Value	Cramer's V	Value
Education Inst. Att. VS Population group	Gender	P<0.05* .000	5.368 E2	P<0.05* .000	.000	P<0.05* .000	.189	P<0.05* .000	.109	P<0.05* .000	4.436 E2	P<0.05* .000	.000	P<0.05* .000	.160	P<0.05* .000	.092
Education inst.att. VS age	Gender	P<0.05*.000	1.005 E4	P<0.05*.001	.024	P<0.05* .000	.817	P<0.05* .000	.309	P<0.05* .000	9.428 E3	P<0.05* .001	.091	P<0.05* .000	.736	P<0.05* .000	.278
Currently att. School VS Province & educ. level	Gender	**P** P<0.05* .000 **S** P<0.05* .000 **H** P<0.05* .012	**P** 89.202 **S** 1.022 E2 **H** 19.674	**P** P<0.05* .000 **S** P<0.05* .003 **H** P<0.05* .000	**P** .000 **S** .006 **H** .000	**P** P<0.05 .000 **S** P<0.05 .003 **H** P<0.05 .012	**P** .091 **S** .091 **H** .164	**P** p<0.05 .000 **S** P<0.05 .000 **H** P<0.05 .012	**P** .091 **S** .000 **H** .164	**P** P<0.05 .000 **S** P<0.05 .000 **H** P<0.05 .006	**P** 79.921 **S** 1.793 E2 **H** 21.659	**P** P<0.05* .000 **S** P<0.05* .003 **H** P<0.05 .011	**P** .000 **S** .002 **H** .025	**P** .000 **S** .000 **H** .006	**P** .074 **S** .121 **H** .176	**P** .000 **S** .000 **H** .006	**P** .074 **S** 173 **H** 176
Main reasn not att. VS age	Gender	P<0.05* .000	6.162 E2	P<0.05* .005	.022	P<0.05* .000	.356	P<0.05* .000	.159	P<0.05* .000	1.151 E3	P<0.05* .003	.022	P<0.05* .000	.331	P<0.05* .000	.148
Main reasn not att. VS province	Gender	P<0.05* .000	5.506 E2	P<0.05* .006	.026	P<0.05* .000	.337	P<0.05* .000	.151	P<0.05* .000	7.852 E2	P<0.05* .002	.020	P<0.05* .000	.274	P<0.05* .000	.122
Main reasn not att. VS stratum	Gender	P<0.05* .000	5.013 E2	P<0.05* .005	.034	P<0.05* .000	.386	P<0.05* .000	.173								

P=primary; S=secondary; H=highe

Appendix 10: Females covered in the data collection 2004 and 2007

Years	Females covered			
	Females	%	Total population	%
2004	24647	50.5	48798	100
2007	28198	51	55263	100

Appendix 11: Sample of institutions covered by type 2004 and 2007

Sample of institutions covered				
	2004		2007	
Education Institution	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Pre-school	459	0.9	465	0.8
School	28756	58.9	32884	59.5
University	529	1.1	574	1.0
Technikon	367	0.8	231	0.4
College	468	1.0	550	1.0
Adult basic edu.	39	0.1	73	0.1
Other adult edu.	27	0.1	35	0.1
Other than abv.	68	0.1	67	0.1
total	30713	62.9	34879	63.1

Appendix 12: Geographic coverage 2004 and 2007

Geographical coverage (Provinces)				
	2004		2007	
Province	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Western Cape	4780	9.8	5334	9.7
Eastern Cape	7330	15.0	7248	13.1
Northern Cape	2179	4.5	3294	6.6
Free State	3608	7.4	3842	7.0
KwaZulu-Natal	8941	18.3	15744	28.5
North West	4627	9.5	4457	8.1
Gauteng	5886	12.1	4831	8.7
Mpumalanga	4693	9.6	4472	8.1
Limpopo	6757	13.8	6050	10.9
Total	48801	100	55272	100