

A photograph of four business professionals (three women and one man) standing in a line in a modern office hallway. They are all smiling and dressed in business attire. A large teal diagonal graphic is overlaid on the left side of the image.

NBI

National Business Initiative

GENDER PAY GAP PILOT REPORT 2021



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1. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The National Business Initiative's (NBI's) strategy of driving social and economic transformation aims to address the structural barriers to create an equitable and just society. Given our history and our current context of continued discrimination and exclusion, we recognise that fundamentally addressing gender inequality is a critical lever for change.

In 2019, the NBI published a report, [Gender Equity in the Workplace](#), in which we unpacked complex societal and economic inequity, as well as explored how these dual dynamics affected women. Both challenges result in, and contribute to, entrenched pay disparity and income inequality. In the report, we noted that 42.6% of households are headed by women. These households have a higher dependency ratio. In simple terms, that means women shoulder greater responsibility for children and other dependents.

As such, it is concerning that, in 2015, 57.2% of female-headed households were poor. Equally worrying is that women are experiencing higher levels of unemployment, while those who are employed are paid 19% to 37% less than men.

There is no doubt that COVID-19 and the attendant lockdowns have worsened women's plight both economically and in society. The latest unemployment data reflects this. The figures indicate that women are disproportionately bearing the brunt of job losses. They are also faced with the scourge of rising gender-based violence.

This Gender Pay Gap Pilot study intends to contribute to the growing work on pay disparity. It does so by using available employee data and testing methodologies to present a fact-based analysis of the pay gap. We have partnered with the Southern Centre for Inequality Studies (SCIS) at the University of the Witwatersrand (Wits) to ensure a rigorous process, utilising relevant econometric models for the analysis. The NBI, along with four of our member companies, was pleased to participate in the pilot.

The study results reveal several salient points detailed in [Chapter 4 | Key Findings](#). There are also insights worth highlighting.

The gender pay gap across firms ranges from 9 to 35%, which results in a quantifiable amount of R72.44 to every R100.00 earned by men according to the data generated from the study. For companies to understand and plan in the short to medium term, knowing the financial aspects of closing the gender pay gap is important.

That is one aspect of driving the impetus of transformation, which entails focused effort and is a long-term project.

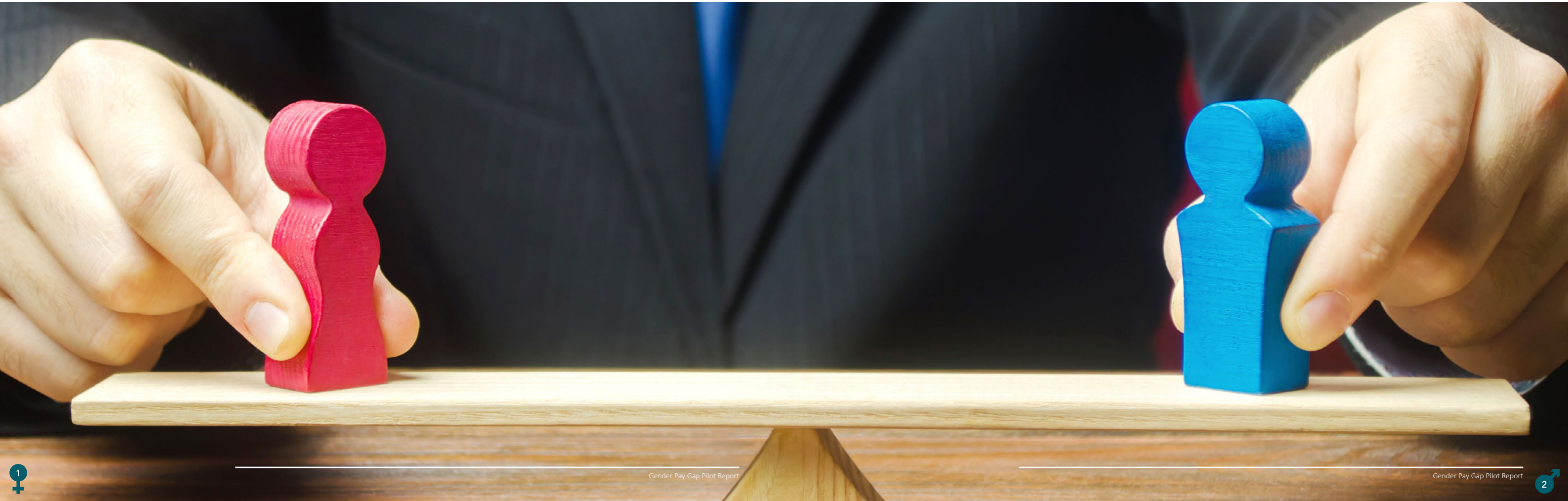
When male characteristics are applied to female employees, men's earnings remain elevated above those of women. There is another dimension: overall, white men are the highest earners, the study finds. This not only points to the gendered nature of work and pay in South Africa's private sector, but also its racialised reality.

This issue, amongst others, informs and underpins the NBI's robust endeavour in steering the agenda to close the gender pay gap. The information garnered from this study, as well as others before it in the NBI's series on the topic, is a pragmatic tool that companies can use to address gender inequality in their workplaces. There is little doubt that taking proactive and corrective action will have meaningful socio-economic benefits.

Therefore, we call on companies to commit to transformation that will disrupt the patterns which reinforce and perpetuate the gender pay gap by engendering pay equity and contribute towards closing the gender pay gap.

On behalf of the NBI, I would like to thank: our partner, SCIS; our member companies for participating; the South African Rewards Association for the support; and the Social Transformation team.

JOANNE YAWITCH
CEO



2. INTRODUCTION

Prior to 1994, the South African economy was characterised by gender imbalances manifesting in skewed access to opportunities and resources (Posel, 2000).¹ Furthermore, these structural distortions correlated with women’s lower participation in formal economic activity and employment rates compared to men. Indeed, where employed, women were often overrepresented in low-skill jobs, whose wages were measly. This saw women-headed households facing higher poverty rates (Bhorat & Van der Westhuizen, 2010).²

Despite evidence showing that both male- and female-headed households have experienced a decline in poverty levels as measured by the headcount index, women remain the most likely candidates of economic strife. Although advances have been made in the post-apartheid context, there remains a yawning gap in women’s participation in the formal economy. Hence, the National Development Plan (NDP) deliberately seeks to promote gender equality, and the development and provision of greater opportunities for women in rural and urban areas.³

It is against this backdrop that the 2018 Presidential Jobs Summit was convened. The objective of the Summit was to unearth solutions, opportunities and challenges faced by social partners with reference to job creation and skills retention to ensure South Africa’s skillset and employment profile resembled the country’s gender, racial and spatial composition (Presidency, 2018).⁴ Emerging from this Summit was the business-led proposal to address the gender wage gap, which was identified as an impediment in achieving inclusion and equity at firm level and the broader economy. Current Employment Equity reporting structures require firms to report salary information, but inconsistencies in measurement and calculation make it difficult to compare trends over time and among firms.

Parties to the 2018 Jobs Summit proposed a pilot project devised to comprehend contributing factors and how to address the gender pay gap. Such a pilot project would have three objectives:



2.1. WHAT IS THE GENDER PAY GAP?

In this study, we define the gender pay gap as the difference between the average hourly median earnings of a company’s male and female employees. We distinguish between two types of gender pay gaps. In the first, men and women who have similar characteristics, except gender, earn different wages. Where a firm, for instance, calculates a 10% gender pay gap, this translates into women earning R90 for every R100 paid to men. For such an organisation, a negative gender pay gap would imply that men earned less than women to the magnitude of the calculated difference.

The second type of gender pay gap is defined as vertical wage inequality. It arises when men and women earn different wages. In this scenario, women earn less than men because the former are clustered in low-paying jobs, which demand lower skills relative to men (Espí et al., 2019).⁵ Although there are variable justifications for these differences, gender is often the common denominator.

2.1.1. CONTRIBUTING FACTORS TO THE GENDER PAY GAP

Various reasons are cited for this persistent gender wage gap. In male-dominated sectors such as mining and utilities, which tend to have a high prevalence of union activity, male workers are often unionised. This partly explains the gender wage gap, Mosomi suggests.⁶ Moreover, differences in sectors of employment and occupations are referenced as supplementary factors that contribute to the pay gap. It is commonplace for women to be employed in low-wage positions and sectors. The opposite tends to be true for men.⁷ This segregation is most pronounced among Black and Coloured female workers, who swell the ranks of most low-paying occupations.

Previous work in the area of gender wage gaps has relied almost exclusively on administrative data – not firm-level data. It is the latter which we utilise for our analysis. The advantage of firm-level data is that wage information is more reliable because it is prepared, and verified, by a third party. Additional payments, such as bonuses and other remuneration, may be omitted from survey instruments. This would have the effect of understating the gender pay gap. The omission can be corrected through the use of actual payments made to employees.

2.1.2. GLOBAL GENDER PAY GAP REPORTING








This paper proposes a simple, standardised methodology that is applied to a selection of firms to calculate the gender wage gap. To complete this benchmarking exercise for South Africa, we now review the experience of other countries – Australia, Germany, Iceland, Ireland, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom (UK) – that have implemented gender pay gap reporting.

Growing literature on gender pay gaps has gained momentum across the globe, with different determinant factors noted. In Switzerland, occupational segregation is mentioned as one of the main reasons for the gender pay gap, according to Schmid (2016).⁸ Female and male individuals working in female-dominated occupations have lower wages than those who work in male-dominated and integrated occupations. The noted existence of a positive, and persistent, gender pay gap in international literature has necessitated the establishment of dedicated institutional offices, tasked with reporting on the gender pay gap. This phenomenon is found in a growing number of states, including the ones cited above. Table 1 summarises in-country reporting requirements and identifies the respective institutions reporting on the gender pay gap.



¹ Posel, D. (2000). ‘Gender Inequality’ in May, J. (Ed.). *Poverty and Inequality in South Africa: Meeting the Challenge*. Zed Books.
² Bhorat, H. & Van der Westhuizen, C. (2010). *Poverty, Inequality and the Nature of Economic Growth in South Africa*. Development Policy Research Unit: University of Cape Town.
³ National Planning Commission. (2012). *National Development Plan 2030*.
⁴ Presidency. (2018). *Presidential Jobs Summit Framework Agreement*.
⁵ Espí, G., Francis, D. & Valodia, I. (2019). Gender Inequality in the South African Labour Market: Insights from the Employment Equity Act Data. *Agenda*, 33(4), 44-61.
⁶ Mosomi, J. (2019). *Distributional Changes in the Gender Wage Gap in the Post-Apartheid South African Labour Market*. World Institute for Development Economics Research.
⁷ Casale, D. & Posel, D. (2005). Women and the Economy: How far have we come? *Agenda*, 19(64), 21-29.

TABLE 1:
SUMMARY OF BENCHMARK COUNTRIES' GENDER
PAY GAP REPORTING REQUIREMENTS

| Country & Institution Reporting on Gender Pay Gaps | Institutional Mandate | Reported Variables | Minimum Firm Size to Report | Description of the Gender Pay Gap |
|---|--|--|-----------------------------|--|
|  <div>Australia Workplace Gender Equality Agency</div> | Arising from the Workplace Gender Equality Act 2012, its purpose is to promote and improve gender equality in employment and workplaces across Australia (WGEA, 2018). | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Share of women in the organisation.Workforce participation rate among those aged between 15-64 years.Full-time weekly ordinary earnings.Full-time annualised basic salary.Full-time average hourly ordinary time cash earnings for non-managerial women against non-managerial men.The median undergraduate starting salaries.The median superannuation balances at retirement.Paid parental leave provided to male and female workers.Share of women in leadership positions. | 100 | The female average earnings are subtracted from the male average then expressed as a percentage which forms the pay gap (Kee, 2006). |
|  <div>Germany The Federal Statistical Office</div> | Formed in 1953, its purpose is to provide qualitative statistical information in an objective and independent manner to the public (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2020). | <ul style="list-style-type: none">Gross wages paid to full-time employees covered by social security insurance.The proportion of women in each industry.The calculated gender pay gap for salaried employees.The median hourly gross wage. | 5 | The gender pay gap is the difference in the average (mean/median) hourly gross wage of all men and women in a workplace (Maier, 2007). |
|  <div>Iceland Centre for Gender Equality</div> | Formed in September 2000, its purpose is to handle administration in the field of gender equality in accordance with Icelandic legislation (Jafnrettisstofa, 2000). | <ul style="list-style-type: none">The mean gross hourly wage.The proportion of women in an organisation.The differences in educational attainment between women and men.The mean number of years of work experience. | 25 | The gender pay gap is calculated as the difference in the mean gross hourly wage between male and female workers (Plantenga, Remery, 2006). |
|  <div>Ireland Gender Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Task Force</div> | | <ul style="list-style-type: none">The mean gross hourly wage.The proportion of women in an organisation.The differences in educational attainment between women and men.The mean number of years of work experience. | 50 | The gender pay gap is calculated as the difference in the mean gross hourly wage of all men and women in a workplace (Plantenga, Remery, 2006). |
|  <div>New Zealand Ministry for Women</div> | Formed in 1984, with the purpose of advising the government on issues and policies that directly affect women (Ministry for Women, 2020). | <ul style="list-style-type: none">The mean log hourly wages.The differences in educational attainment between men and women.The proportion of women in each industry.The proportion of females acting as the sole parent. | 100 | Statistics New Zealand calculates the pay gap as the difference between the mean hourly earnings of men and women in both full-time and part-time work (Pacheco et al., 2017). |
|  <div>Switzerland Federal Office for Gender Equality</div> | Legislation was introduced effective 1 July 2020 with the purpose of addressing the gender pay gap (FOGE, 2020). | <ul style="list-style-type: none">The log gross hourly wage.The proportion of women in an organisation.Workforce participation rate among those aged between 20-62 years.The mean number of years of work experience.The proportion of women in managerial positions. | 100 | The gender pay gap is the difference in the logarithm gross hourly wage, which includes the 13th and 14th month salary, bonuses and gratifications of all men and women (Bonjour, Gerfin, 2000). |
|  <div>UK Government Equalities Office</div> | | <ul style="list-style-type: none">The mean gender pay gap.The median gender pay gap.The mean bonus gender pay gap.The median bonus gender pay gap.The proportion of men in the organisation receiving a bonus payment.The proportion of women in the organisation receiving a bonus payment.The proportion of men and women in each quartile pay band. | 250 | The gender pay gap is the difference in the average (mean/median) hourly wage of all men and women. |

3. DATA OVERVIEW

To calculate the gender pay gap, we requested, and obtained, anonymised data from five participating firms. The anonymised data is categorised according to gender; race; age; education level; occupational level; number of hours worked monthly; employment status, whether the individual is employed full time or part time/permanent or on contract; wages paid monthly; and any contributions made by the employer, as well as any other remuneration made in that given year, for example, bonuses.

3.1.1. METHODOLOGY

So far, the gender gaps discussed provide a crude measure of discrimination. This is so because there is no account of the simultaneous effects of other influences on wages earned. **A second essential step is determining the extent to which women and men who have similar characteristics are remunerated differently.** Hence, we apply various econometric techniques to calculate the gender wage gap further at firm level.

Comprehensive assessments of gender wage gaps should be based on the wage distribution among male and female workers, and not rely solely on differences in average wages. Such targeted studies are necessary to understand the South African gender wage gap. It is for this reason **we propose the use of ordinary least squares (OLS), quantile regression (QR) and the Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition methodology** to investigate the gender differential in wages within and across firms.

Ordinary Least Squares: We estimate a linear wage equation for male and female workers where the dependent variable is the hourly wage that is regressed on a vector of observable characteristics such as age, experience, sector of employment, educational level and the occupational level. From this, we would determine coefficients that would tell us the extent to which these variables listed above determine male and female wages. The results of this calculation will enable us to interpret the average change to male and female wages from a unit increase in any of the dependent variable. While this is useful, we are aware that women across the wage distribution possess different characteristics and it would be important to determine how they interact with the various independent variables.

Quantile Regression: A QR model depicts the relationship between a set of independent variables and specific percentiles (quantiles) of the dependent variable. Consequently, it provides a more comprehensive and robust estimation of the wage differential. Particularly, it enables us to verify whether the advantage that males have over females persists throughout the conditional distribution of the wage distribution.

Oaxaca-Blinder Decomposition: Following Oaxaca and Blinder's work, it is proposed that the gender wage gap at the mean can be decomposed into two, one part is due to differences in the means of variables entered into the earnings functions and a part due to differences in the estimated coefficients on those factors. The former term of this decomposition is referred to as the 'explained' component (that is due to differences in the average of the dependent variables) and the latter term is the 'unexplained' component of the gender wage differential. This proportion is often the share attributed to sex discrimination in female wages.

Taken together, these three methods will enable us to answer three questions:

- i. **Given similar characteristics, how do average wages vary for male and female workers?**
- ii. **Analyse the evolution of the gender wage gap across the distribution for both male and female workers; and**
- iii. **Where wage gaps are observed, to what extent are these differences explained by differences in observable characteristics?**

The benefit of this study is that it will be undertaken at firm level and allow for comparison using actual wages paid.

3.1.2. PILOT DATA

The dataset consists of five anonymised firms: Firm A, Firm B, Firm C, Firm D and Firm E. Two of the five firms are classified as belonging to the secondary economic sector and the other three fall under the tertiary sector. The full dataset contains 28,646 observations, with participants 65 and older excluded from the study. The official retirement age in South Africa is 65. While conventional labour studies include individuals aged 15 and above, these being formal sector firms, the minimum age of employment is 18. Our full sample includes individuals aged between 18-64. The firms' descriptive statistics are summarised in Table 2.



TABLE 2:
SELECTED FIRM CHARACTERISTICS AND NATIONAL
DEMOGRAPHICS, (%)

| | Firm A | Firm B | Firm C | Firm D | Firm E | National Average |
|---|----------|-----------|----------|----------|-----------|------------------|
| Total | 2 642 | 25 331 | 25 | 21 | 627 | - |
| Sex | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Female | 62 | 24 | 68 | 90 | 52 | 51 |
| Male | 38 | 76 | 32 | 10 | 46 | 49 |
| Race | | | | | | |
| Black | 54 | 64 | 52 | 71 | 37 | 81 |
| Coloured | 12 | 3 | 16 | 0 | 17 | 8 |
| Indian/Asian | 11 | 4 | 8 | 0 | 7 | 3 |
| White | 23 | 28 | 24 | 29 | 37 | 8 |
| Foreign | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | - | - |
| Age | | | | | | |
| 18-24 | 4 | 1 | - | 10 | 10 | - |
| 25-34 | 36 | 24 | 36 | 52 | 17 | - |
| 35-44 | 33 | 37 | 28 | 24 | 33 | - |
| 45-54 | 19 | 23 | 20 | 14 | 30 | - |
| 55-64 | 08 | 15 | 16 | - | 17 | - |
| Median age (years) | 37 | 41 | 39 | 33 | 44 | 27 |
| Employment Equity (EE) Occupational levels | | | | | | |
| Unskilled | 0 | 3 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 19 |
| Semi-skilled | 22 | 32 | 8 | 0 | 42 | 39 |
| Junior Management | 52 | 45 | 16 | 38 | 0 | 29 |
| Middle Management | 21 | 16 | 28 | 19 | 49 | 10 |
| Senior Management | 5 | 4 | 28 | 19 | 5 | 2 |
| Top Management | 0 | 0 | 20 | 14 | 3 | 1 |
| Sector | | | | | | |
| Primary | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Secondary | - | Secondary | - | - | Secondary | - |
| Tertiary | Tertiary | - | Tertiary | Tertiary | - | - |
| Total | 2 642 | 25 331 | 25 | 21 | 627 | - |

TABLE 3:
HOURLY MEDIAN WAGES ACROSS FIRMS (IN
RANDS)

| | | Firm A | | Firm B | | Firm C | | Firm D | | Firm E | |
|-------------------------|--|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| | | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male |
| Race | | | | | | | | | | | |
| African | | 128.87 | 167.12 | 138.93 | 116.38 | 166.63 | 160.56 | 190.36 | 224.97 | 108.05 | 62.04 |
| Coloured | | 186.10 | 243.30 | 189.89 | 203.50 | 346.09 | - | - | - | 137.87 | 103.70 |
| Indian/Asian | | 265.21 | 394.22 | 327.31 | 327.25 | 218.41 | - | - | - | 192.97 | 239.70 |
| White | | 285.19 | 472.39 | 249.39 | 255.40 | 729.56 | 593.88 | 318.77 | 303.70 | 213.80 | 325.52 |
| Foreign | | - | - | 307.91 | 66.33 | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Age | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 18-24 | | 21.88 | 34.38 | 82.92 | 82.92 | - | - | - | - | 107.91 | 117.79 |
| 25-34 | | 130.21 | 169.19 | 138.28 | 115.38 | 172.47 | 160.56 | 54.80 | 224.97 | 112.94 | 128.51 |
| 35-44 | | 207.99 | 290.99 | 189.57 | 147.46 | 281.91 | 421.25 | 176.51 | - | 164.53 | 162.12 |
| 45-54 | | 265.19 | 444.13 | 243.04 | 195.28 | 279.38 | 482.56 | 297.35 | 303.70 | 208.66 | 191.75 |
| 55-64 | | 220.68 | 358.16 | 236.75 | 172.04 | 651.24 | - | 639.46 | - | 145.65 | 159.48 |
| Youth | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Youth | | 21.88 | 48.44 | 82.92 | 82.92 | | | | | 108.44 | - |
| Non Youth | | 184.22 | 255.51 | 186.97 | 145.92 | | | | | 161.57 | 162.12 |
| Occupational level | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Unskilled | | - | - | 57.65 | 58.31 | 89.88 | 43.75 | 25.96 | - | 51.94 | - |
| Semi-skilled | | 85.66 | 72.65 | 75.71 | 66.96 | - | - | 28.84 | - | 103.32 | 50.61 |
| Junior Management | | 185.45 | 197.09 | 182.58 | 182.00 | 151.00 | 155.41 | 148.64 | 224.97 | 190.13 | 169.52 |
| Middle Management | | 466.83 | 498.41 | 406.25 | 428.55 | 260.13 | - | 253.81 | 303.70 | 299.07 | 326.43 |
| Senior Management | | 990.72 | 999.64 | 684.59 | 686.96 | 320.63 | 396.25 | 297.35 | - | 590.58 | 555.73 |
| Top Management | | 2 085.10 | 2 097.50 | 1 340.18 | 1 660.65 | 651.24 | 602.28 | 605.68 | - | 819.79 | 974.39 |
| Highest Education level | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Matric | | | | | | 89.88 | 43.75 | 25.96 | 303.70 | | |
| Degree | | | | | | 273.63 | 150.25 | 210.55 | 224.97 | | |
| Postgraduate | | | | | | 451.09 | 396.25 | - | - | | |
| Province | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Gauteng | | 186.83 | 244.95 | | | | | | | 173.08 | 162.42 |
| Non- Gauteng | | 159.57 | 238.41 | | | | | | | 127.63 | 157.31 |
| Union Status | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Yes Union | | | | 82.92 | 103.14 | | | | | | |
| No Union | | | | 253.05 | 323.07 | | | | | | |
| Median | | 177.34 | 244.80 | 186.52 | 144.54 | 273.13 | 322.19 | 205.46 | 264.33 | 159.86 | 159.34 |
| Median GPG (%) | | 72.44 | | 129.05 | | 84.77 | | 77.73 | | 100.32 | |
| Mean GPG (%) | | 68.88 | | 116.28 | | 104.26 | | 95.49 | | 75.98 | |

4. KEY FINDINGS

The data shows that, regardless of race, males constitute the majority of employees across all skills levels, except the unskilled worker category. Indian and white employees are overrepresented in the top four skills levels – junior, middle, senior and top management – while Black employees are classified as mostly semi-skilled and unskilled. Although the unskilled employees are predominantly Black and female, top management is mostly white and male.

From the data, we observe several findings;

- First, male employees earn more than females in Firms A, C and D. Of interest is that females make up about 25% of employees at Firm B, but they earn more than their male counterparts.
- Second, Black employees, gender notwithstanding, earn the least among all the racial groups. White workers earn the most across all four firms, except Firm B, where Indian/Asian workers have the highest median hourly wage. We also observe the White-Black earning gap is highest in Firm C, where white workers earn four times the Black median wage; and is lowest in Firm D, where white workers earn about 1.5 times more. Furthermore, in Firm B foreign female workers earn almost 4.6 times more than foreign male workers.
- Third, wages increase with age, a proxy for experience. For most individuals, wages peak at between 45-54.
- Fourth, education levels and skills are significant determinants of earnings in South Africa. In Firm C, which makes a distinction between an undergraduate and a postgraduate qualification, workers possessing the latter earn the most. This is by a significant margin of between five and nine times the earnings of female and male holders of matric.
- A figure less than 100% indicates that males earn more than females. This ranges from females earning R72.44 to every R100.00 earned by males in Firm A to females earning R84.77 in Firm C. Based on these unconditional estimates, the best-paid workers are male, older, white or Indian/Black. In terms of skills, these high earners have a degree or a postgraduate qualification. Viewed through the prism of experience, they are classified as above middle management, ideally senior or top management.

- Wages rise as skills increase relative to semi-skilled workers. Workers classified as top management earn the most, followed by senior management and so the trend continues. Although the findings in Firm D are not significant, the coefficients increase with skills – following a similar pattern observed in the other firms.

As a percentage of the total difference, the explained component is larger than the unexplained part, which is an indicator of the presence of discrimination at these firms. Therefore, even when we apply male characteristics to female employees, we observe that men still earn more than female employees.



5. CALL TO ACTION

The NBI will develop an online tool using the econometric methodologies from this pilot. The tool will assist companies to track and measure income disparities.

The secure platform will enable companies to submit employee datasets, without limits on size or sector. Thereafter, entities will receive a quantified measure of their pay gaps. Companies’ commitment to participate is crucial.

The tool will also outline the social and economic importance of closing the gender pay gap, as well as underscore the social factors permitting this issue to persist. Companies not only have a responsibility to transform as part of national and global development objectives, but also to resolve income disparities in South Africa.

The NBI will be embarking on a journey to engage member companies about closing the gender pay gap by 2030, through dialogues and sharing knowledge on research supporting the social and economic benefits of eradicating the pay gap.

6. OUR TEAM



Gugu McLaren-Ushewokunze, Head: Social Transformation

Gugu McLaren-Ushewokunze leads the NBI’s Transformation and Social Cohesion programme. McLaren-Ushewokunze’s responsibilities include developing and implementing the NBI’s programme to engage business in driving social transformation, with the aim of addressing inequality and inequity. The programme focuses on companies’ internal transformation, creating diverse and inclusive organisations, and businesses’ relationship with society.

She has more than 14 years’ experience in social and sustainable development, having worked across sectors and industries. She built most of her career in the corporate sector, where she steered the development and implementation of sustainable development strategies. McLaren-Ushewokunze spent six years at Discovery, where she supported the company’s shared value business model and crafted innovative and award-winning annual reports.

During the course of her career, McLaren-Ushewokunze has focused on strategy, research, project management and reporting in globally relevant organisations.

McLaren-Ushewokunze successfully read for two qualifications from the University of Cape Town: a Master of Social Science in Gender and Development and a Bachelor of Social Science (Honours) in Gender and Transformation. She has also obtained numerous sustainable development qualifications.



Bridgette Mdingayi, Programme Manager: Social Transformation

Bridgette Mdingayi is the NBI’s Programme Manager in the Social Transformation Unit. Mdingayi is responsible for driving the unit’s strategy and programme implementation, with a focus on the Transformation and Equity, and Social Cohesion programmes.

Mdingayi has amassed 12 years’ experience in cross-sectoral project and programme management, having worked in multiple segments. She is well-versed in project formulation/development, resource mobilisation, capacity building, contract and grants management – pre- and post-award grant processes – social advocacy and development communications, strategic planning, and stakeholder management. Mdingayi has expertise status in the listed areas.

Bridgette is a PMP (Project Management Professional)® candidate through the Project Management Institute (PMI). She recently completed studies towards a Strategic Leadership Accreditation at the Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS). She holds an NDip in Sports Marketing and Management (Tshwane University of Technology), a BA Degree in Communication Science (University of South Africa) and an Advanced Project Management Certification (Monash University (SA) – IIE MSA).



Khanyisa Nomoyi, Project Manager: Social Transformation

Khanyisa Nomoyi is the Social Transformation Project Manager at the NBI. Nomoyi obtained an Honours Degree in Political and International Studies from Rhodes University. At the NBI, she is responsible for content development, research, analysis, project manager and stakeholder engagement on transformation. Current areas of focus include the gender pay gap, LGBTQIAP+ employees in the workplace, economic inclusion, small and medium enterprises and supplier development. Nomoyi provides support on the development of intergenerational leadership and gender-based violence pathways.

Nomoyi has experience and is skilled in policy analysis, qualitative research on philanthropy and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in Southern Africa. She also has capabilities in monitoring and analysis of national government frameworks on access to healthcare, education, gender equity, and developments in international affairs.

Previously, she worked as Research Co-ordinator in philanthropy under SGS Consulting and has interned at the Centre for the Advancement of Community Advice Offices South Africa (CAOSA), MSF South Africa and SECTION27.

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7. SCIS TEAM

Professor Imraan Valodia, Deputy Director:
Southern Centre for Inequality Studies

Professor Imraan Valodia an economist, is Dean of the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management at Wits University. His research interests include inequality, competition policy, employment, the informal economy, gender and economic policy, and industrial development. Imraan has led the initiative at Wits to establish the Southern Centre for Inequality Studies – a multi-disciplinary, cross-country initiative to promote research and policy change to promote greater equality in the global South. In addition to his duties as Dean, Imraan leads the SCIS. Imraan has led and participated in a number of large national and international studies. He is recognised nationally and internationally for his research expertise in economic development. Imraan is a part-time member of the Competition Tribunal in South Africa. He is also a commissioner of National Minimum Wage Commission, and a member of the Academy of Science of South Africa (Assaf) Standing Committee on Science for the Reduction of Poverty and Inequality. In August 2016 Professor Valodia was appointed by President Cyril Ramaphosa to chair the Advisory Panel on the National Minimum Wage. This led to the introduction of a National Minimum Wage in South Africa. In early 2018, he was appointed to a Panel to advise the Minister of Economic Development on amendments to the Competition Act, which were introduced into law in 2019. He was also appointed by the Minister of Finance to a Panel of Experts to advise on Value-Added Taxes.

Arabo Ewinyu, Research and
Engagement Manager: Southern
Centre for Inequality Studies

Arabo Ewinyu has a Master of Commerce in Economics. Ewinyu specialises in regulatory economics, applied Black Economic Empowerment, and small business development and education.

Prior to joining Wits, she consulted for Simanye and worked as Senior Researcher at the University of Cape Town in the Development Policy Research Unit.

Ewinyu has cross-sector experience on corporate social responsibility, and sustainability and economic development.

Londiwe Masina is a member of the Golden Key International Honour Society. She holds a Bachelor of Commerce Honours in Economics from the University of the Witwatersrand and a Bachelor of Commerce in Economics and International Trade from the North West University. Her research interests include economic growth, governance and public policy, and public finance.



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