



Living in Free State

Selected findings of
the 1995 October
household survey

CSS

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Living in Free State

**Selected findings of the 1995
October household survey**

**Central Statistics
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The detailed statistical tables on which this publication is based are available as 'October household survey', CSS statistical release **P0317** (South Africa as a whole), and **P0317.1** to **P0317.9** (the nine provinces). These can be ordered from Central Statistics, Pretoria, in both printed and electronic format.

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Preliminary estimates of the size of the South African population, based on the population census conducted in October 1996, were issued by the CSS in July 1997. These indicate that there are fewer people (37,9 million) in the country, and that urbanisation (55%) has been more rapid, than was previously realised.

The new census numbers may have an effect on some of the weights and raising factors that were used in this report, since these are presently based on projections of population and household size to 1995, using the 1991 census estimates as baseline.

The new CSS management believes that the model used to adjust the actual count of people found in the 1991 census probably overestimated population growth rates in the country, hence overestimating the size of the population and number of households.

The number of people, the number of households and the percentages reported here will therefore probably need to be modified at a later date when the CSS has more complete information about household size and distribution of the population by race and age from Census '96. Nevertheless, these overall trends should be accepted as indicative of the broad patterns in households in South Africa in general, and the Free State in particular, during 1995.

Contents

	Page
Section 1	
Introduction	1
The research process	1
The questionnaire	2
Drawing a sample	2
The fieldwork	3
Data capture	3
Weighting the sample	4
Data analysis and report writing	4
Comparison with 1994 data	5
Section 2: The main findings regarding individuals	
Population distribution of the Free State	7
Age and sex distribution of the population of the Free State	10
Pattern of education in the Free State	15
Economically active population	16
The unemployed	17
The employed	19
Economic sector	20
The informal economy	21
Section 3: Findings regarding households	
Types of dwellings in which households live	23
Access to facilities and services	26
Main source of water for drinking	27
Sanitation	28
Telephones	29
Health services	30
Household income	31
Safety and security	34
Section 4: Disability in the Free State	
Section 5: Conclusion	

List of Tables

	Page
Table 1: Population of the Free State compared with South Africa	8
Table 2: Percentage distribution in broad age groups by population group	14

List of Figures

Figure 1: Population of the Free State by population group	7
Figure 2: Population of the Free State living in urban and non-urban areas by population group	9
Figure 3: Free State five-year age and sex distribution (all population groups)	10
Figure 4: Free State, urban five-year age and sex distribution (all population groups)	11
Figure 5: Free State, non-urban five-year age and sex distribution (all population groups)	11
Figure 6: Five-year age and sex distribution of Africans in the Free State	12
Figure 7: Five-year age and sex distribution of whites in the Free State	13
Figure 8: Population of Free State in broad age groups by population group	14
Figure 9: Level of education among males aged 20 years and above by population group	15
Figure 10: Level of education among females aged 20 years and above by population group	16
Figure 11: Percent unemployed among the economically active population in the Free State by population group	18
Figure 12: Percent unemployment among the economically active population in the Free State by population group and gender	19
Figure 13: Occupational category of employed Africans and whites in the Free State	20
Figure 14: Industry in which employed Africans and whites work in the Free State	21
Figure 15: Type of dwelling in which households live in the Free State	23
Figure 16: Type of dwellings in which households live in urban and non-urban areas in the Free State	24
Figure 17: Number of rooms in dwellings in the Free State by population group	25
Figure 18: Average household size in the Free State by population group in urban and non-urban areas	25
Figure 19: Main source of energy for cooking in households in the Free State in urban and non-urban areas	27
Figure 20: Source of water for dwellings in the Free State among African households in urban and non-urban areas	28

Figure 21: Type of toilet facility used in the Free State by African households in urban and non-urban areas	29
Figure 22: First source of health-care used by households in the Free State by population group	30
Figure 23: Income group of households in the Free State by population group	31
Figure 24: Income group of African households in the Free State in urban and non-urban areas	32
Figure 25: Income group of white households in the Free State in urban and non-urban areas	33
Figure 26: Feelings of safety and security in own neighbourhood in the Free State	34

Section 1

Introduction

The Free State is one of the nine provinces that constitute South Africa. The province is landlocked and occupies about 11% of the total land mass of the country. It has a relatively low population density, estimated at 21 people per square kilometre, and consists largely of small towns. The largest urban area is Bloemfontein, its capital city. There are, however, several large-scale commercial towns in the province. The main contribution to gross geographic product (GGP) is mining and quarrying, followed by community, social and personal services. The Free State ranks fifth among all the provinces in terms of GGP per capita; its GGP per capita is below the national average.

South Africa's first democratically-elected government is committed to a better life for all. The extent of change that is required in the country generally, and in the Free State in particular, to bring about such improvement can best be measured through household surveys, and the Central Statistical Service's (CSS) annual October household survey (OHS) programme gives detailed information about the living conditions and life circumstances of all South Africans.

A programme of household surveys should make it possible not only to describe the situation in a country or in a particular province at a given point in time, but also to measure change in people's life circumstances as and when new government policies are implemented.

The first comprehensive CSS household survey in the country was conducted in October 1993. It was repeated, with modifications to the questionnaire, in 1994 and 1995. The former TBVC states (Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei) were originally excluded but, in 1994 and 1995, the entire country was included.

This report examines the life circumstances of the people in the Free State, compared with South Africa as a whole.

The research process

The following steps constituted the research process for the 1995 OHS:

- Questionnaire design.
- Drawing a sample.
- Fieldwork.
- Data capture.
- Weighting the sample back to the population.
- Data analysis.
- Report writing.

Each step is discussed in more detail below.

The questionnaire

The 1995 OHS questionnaire, in the same vein as the previous ones, contains questions about the household as a whole, as well as on all individual members. In the household section, questions are asked about type of dwelling (dwellings) in which the household lives, access to facilities such as electricity, tap water, toilets and regular refuse removal, access to health and social welfare services, and the safety and well-being of the household. We describe the living conditions of households in the Free State, on the basis of responses to these questions.

In the section completed for each individual in the household, questions are asked on age, gender, education, marital status, migration, use of health services, economic activity, unemployment, employment and self-employment. We describe the life circumstances of individuals living in the Free State on the basis of responses to these questions.

Questions are also asked on births and deaths in the household, but these are not discussed in the present report. We plan to describe fertility and mortality in later publications.

Drawing a sample

In 1995, information was obtained from a national sample of 30 000 households, representing all households in the country; of these, 3 288 households were in the Free State. Altogether, 3 000 enumerator areas (EAs) were drawn for the national sample, of which 329 were in the Free State, and ten households were visited in each EA. This was an improvement compared with 1994, when only 1 000 EAs were selected, and information was obtained from 30 households per EA.

The 1995 sample was stratified by province, urban and non-urban¹ areas and race. The 1991 population census was used as a frame for drawing the sample. However, this census had certain shortcomings, affecting the drawing of all OHS samples between 1993 and 1995:

- The former 'TBVC states' were excluded in the 1991 census. Consequently, their size had to be estimated when drawing samples of households. This exclusion affected the Free State sample since a small portion of the former Bophuthatswana was incorporated into its borders.
- Certain parts of the country, particularly rural areas in the former self-governing territories, such as QwaQwa which was incorporated into the Free State, were not demarcated into clearly defined EAs and the households in these districts were not listed. Instead, a 'sweep census' was done, covering an entire magisterial district. In other areas of the country, particularly in informal settlements, aerial photography was used to estimate population size, backed by small-scale surveys among households in areas where the photographs were taken.
- No allowance was made to incorporate new informal settlements, which were springing up all over South Africa, into the sampling frame.

¹ An urban area is defined as one where there is a fully established local government. A non-urban area, on the other hand, does not have an established local authority. The area could, for example, be run by a tribal authority or a regional authority.

In the 1995 OHS, some attempts were made to overcome sampling problems occurring as a result of the above difficulties with the 1991 population census. For example, magisterial districts where a sweep census had taken place were sub-divided into smaller units, and new informal settlements were incorporated into the boundaries of existing enumerator areas. However, when implementing the sampling plan, certain difficulties were experienced in the field. Fieldworkers became confused about the exact boundaries of a particular EA in relation to the above changes.

In addition, the fieldwork for the 1995 OHS took place at the same time that CSS staff were demarcating new EA boundaries for the 1996 population census. As a consequence, 1991 and 1996 census EA boundaries were, on occasion, confused.

These problems were taken into account in the weighting procedures, as discussed in a later part of this report.

The fieldwork

In the 30 000 households sampled throughout South Africa, including the Free State, information was collected through face-to-face interviews. During these interviews, fieldworkers administered a questionnaire to a responsible person in each household.

The fieldwork of the 1995 OHS was combined with the fieldwork for an *income and expenditure survey* (IES), used primarily for calculating weights for household purchases for the consumer price index. The same households were visited for both the OHS and the IES. The fieldworkers first administered the OHS questionnaire, and they returned at a later date to administer the questionnaire for the IES.

Difficulties were experienced in returning to the same household, particularly in informal settlements and rural areas, where addresses were not available, and where demarcation of the EA or listing of households had not been undertaken for the 1991 census. These problems were solved, as far as possible, during the data-capture process by matching responses to common questions in the two surveys.

Data capture

Data capture for both the 1995 OHS and the IES took place at the head office of the CSS. This process involved linking the information contained in the 1995 OHS with that contained in the IES. The linking of the two data sets was regarded as an important exercise, because details concerning household income and expenditure patterns (IES) could be added to details about education, employment and overall life circumstances (OHS), thus giving a more comprehensive socio-economic description of life in South Africa.

Problems were, however, encountered when attempting to link the two data sets. For example, information in the OHS on type of dwelling, household income and access to services did not always coincide with the IES data. These problems were generally solved by identifying the incompatibilities and adjusting the data within head office, but sometimes revisits to households had to be made. The linking of the two data sets caused considerable delays in data capture.

Weighting the sample

Data concerning households were weighted by the estimated number of households in the country in the various provinces, according to the proportions found in urban and non-urban areas, and by the race of the head of the household. First, we weighted the data on individuals, and the weight assigned to the head of households was used as the weight for the household.

Data on individuals within households were weighted by age, race and gender, according to CSS estimates of the population living in urban and non-urban areas in the nine provinces.

The original aim was to weight the data by magisterial district, but this was not possible because of the problems with EA boundaries, as detailed above. Boundary problems could only be overcome by weighting the sample to a higher level, namely that of provinces.

All further discussions in this report are based on weighted figures. The weights and raising factors used are based on estimates from the 1991 population census. However, preliminary estimates of the size of the South African population, based on the population census of October 1996, indicate that there are fewer people in the country than was previously thought, and that urbanisation has been more rapid than originally anticipated. The number of people in the Free State, the number of households and the percentages reported here may therefore need to be modified at a later date when the CSS has more complete information. Nevertheless, the trends reported here can be regarded as indicative of broad patterns of life circumstances in the Free State.

Data analysis and report writing

The data were made available for report writing as a series of tables and cross-tabulations. This summary report is based on these tables.

Comparison with 1994 data

The CSS is still grappling with sampling issues, based on attempting to use the incomplete sampling frame generated by the 1991 population census.

Since different methodologies were used for drawing the sample in 1994 and 1995, and since diverse problems were encountered as a result of these varying sampling techniques, the 1994 and 1995 OHS data sets are not directly comparable in all respects. They are essentially separate snapshots of different parts of the country during two consecutive years. However, there are certain similarities between these two surveys when looking at overall broad patterns. For example, access to water and toilet facilities remains problematic in non-urban areas in both surveys. Unemployment remains high, and the proportion of Africans in elementary occupations such as cleaning and garbage removal remains similar.

When there is a more accurate sampling frame on the basis of which to draw samples, and when we have a standardised methodology for sampling, then it may be more possible to compare household survey results over time.

However, in this report, we have avoided making comparisons between 1994 and 1995 because, on the basis of two surveys, we cannot calculate whether variations in answers are due to genuine developmental changes, to sampling error, or to other sources of error such as misunderstanding of questions. As more household surveys are conducted over time, it should become increasingly possible to compare the data, particularly if the 1996 population census yields a better sampling frame.

The following sections of this report summarise the main findings from the 1995 OHS regarding individuals, households and disability in the Free State.

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Section 2

The main findings regarding individuals

Population distribution of the Free State

The Free State constitutes about seven per cent of the population of South Africa, according to CSS estimates. The data from the 1995 October household survey suggest that, in line with the national pattern, Africans form the largest population group (84%) in the Free State. The next largest group is the white population (13%), while coloureds and Indians constitute less than three percent of the Free State population² (see Figure 1 and Table 1).

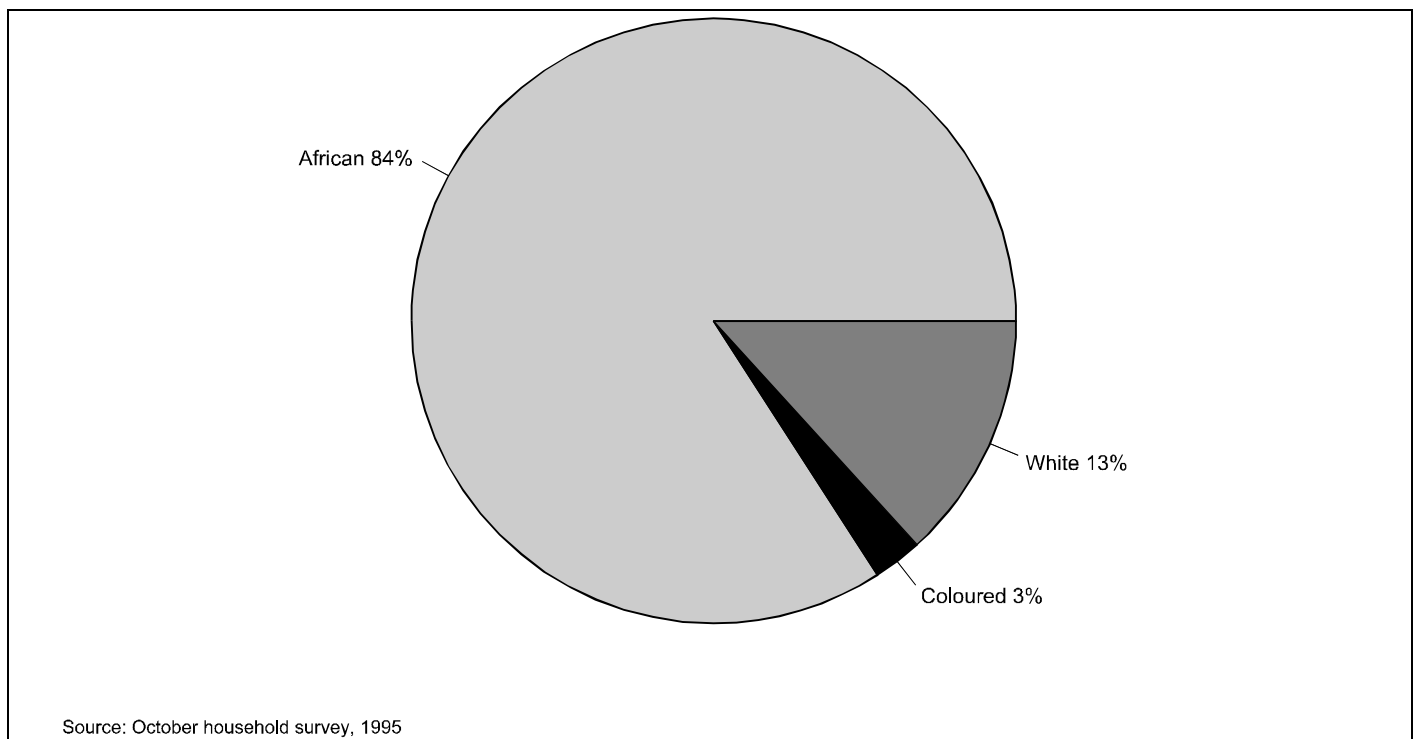


Figure 1: Population of the Free State by population group

The number of Indians in the Free State is too small for further analysis as a separate group, although they are included in the total. During most of the apartheid era, Indians were forbidden the right of residence in the Free State. The coloured population is also excluded from further analysis: it constitutes about three percent of the total population in the province, and the sample size is too small for further analysis of coloureds as a separate group, although they are included in the total.

² The apartheid-based racial classification of South Africans as African, coloured, Indian and white is retained in this report as a classification variable to enable the CSS to monitor change in the life circumstance of those who were disadvantaged during the apartheid era.

In South Africa as a whole, 50% of the population lives in urban areas. However, as Table 1 shows, in the Free State, relatively more people (59%) live in areas classified as urban.

However, there is a large difference between the proportions of different population groups living in urban areas. As can be seen in Table 1 and illustrated in Figure 2, over nine in ten whites in the Free State live in urban areas, while only about five in ten Africans live in urban areas.

Table 1: Population distribution of Free State compared with South Africa

Percentage distribution by population group						
	Free State			South Africa		
Population group:	%			%		
Total	100,0			100,0		
African	84,0			76,3		
Coloured	2,7			8,7		
Indian	0,0			2,5		
White	13,0			12,5		
Percentage distribution by place of residence						
	Free State			South Africa		
Place of residence	%			%		
Total	100,0			100,0		
Urban	59,2			49,7		
Non-urban	40,8			50,3		
Percentage distribution by population group and place of residence						
	Free State			South Africa		
Population group	Urban	Non-urban	Total	Urban	Non-urban	Total
African	52,9	47,1	100,0	37,4	62,6	100,0
Coloured	93,3	6,7	100,0	83,8	16,2	100,0
White	92,4	7,6	100,0	91,5	8,5	100,0
Source: October household survey, 1995						

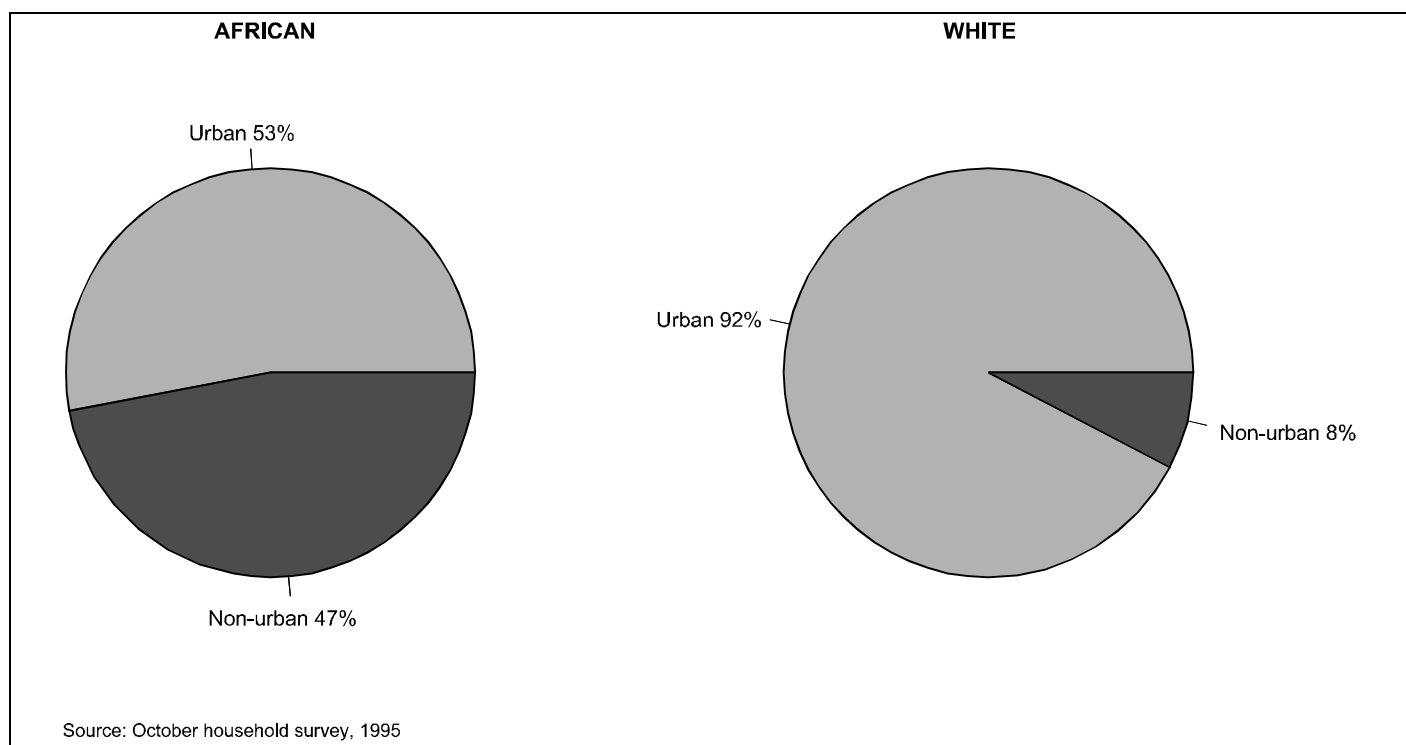
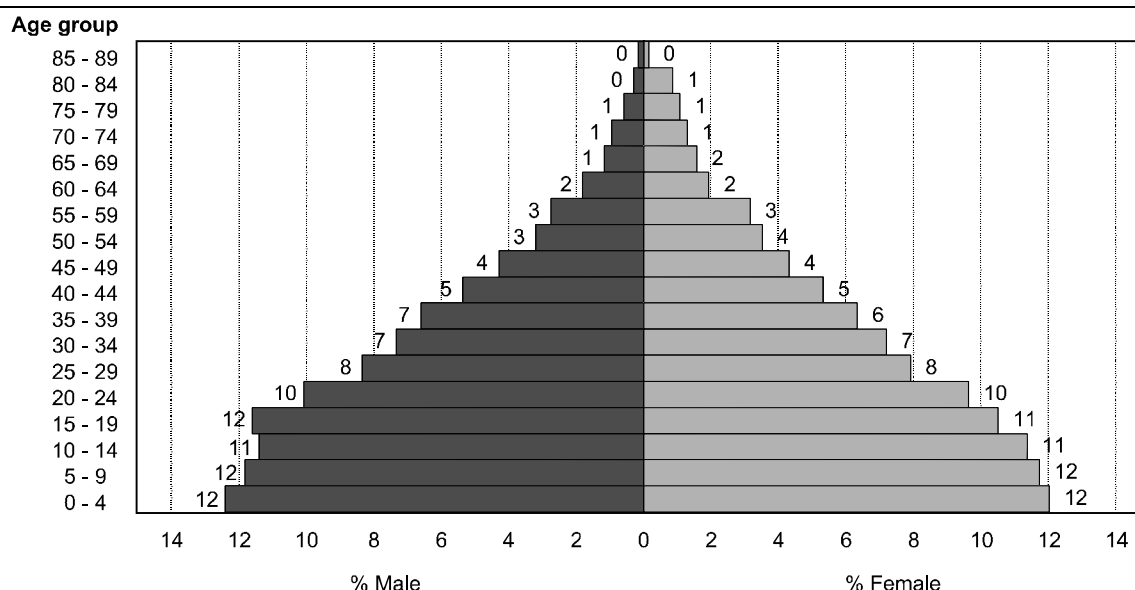


Figure 2: Population of the Free State living in urban and non-urban areas by population group

Age and sex distribution of the population of the Free State

Figure 3 shows the reported age distribution of the population of the Free State in five-year age groups by sex. The distribution is typical of the youthful population found in less developed countries. There is a relatively large proportion of young people in the population, and hence a high dependency burden. In general, the shape of the age distribution in the Free State is similar to the national pattern – broad-based and rapidly tapering with increasing age. The Free State age distribution suggests some age mis-reporting among males as evident from the bulge in the 15-19 age group relative to the 10-14 and 20-24 age groups.



Source: October household survey, 1995

Figure 3: Free State five-year age and sex distribution (all population groups)

Figure 3 masks important differences in age distributions among subgroups of the population such as differences among those living in urban and non-urban areas, and among population groups. Figure 4 shows the age distributions of those living in urban areas while Figure 5 shows this distribution in non-urban areas in the Free State. The graphs indicate that the non-urban areas of the Free State have a more youthful population than the urban areas and hence a higher dependency burden. This is not surprising because fertility is usually higher in non-urban than in urban areas.



Figure 4: Free State, urban five-year age and sex distribution (all population groups)

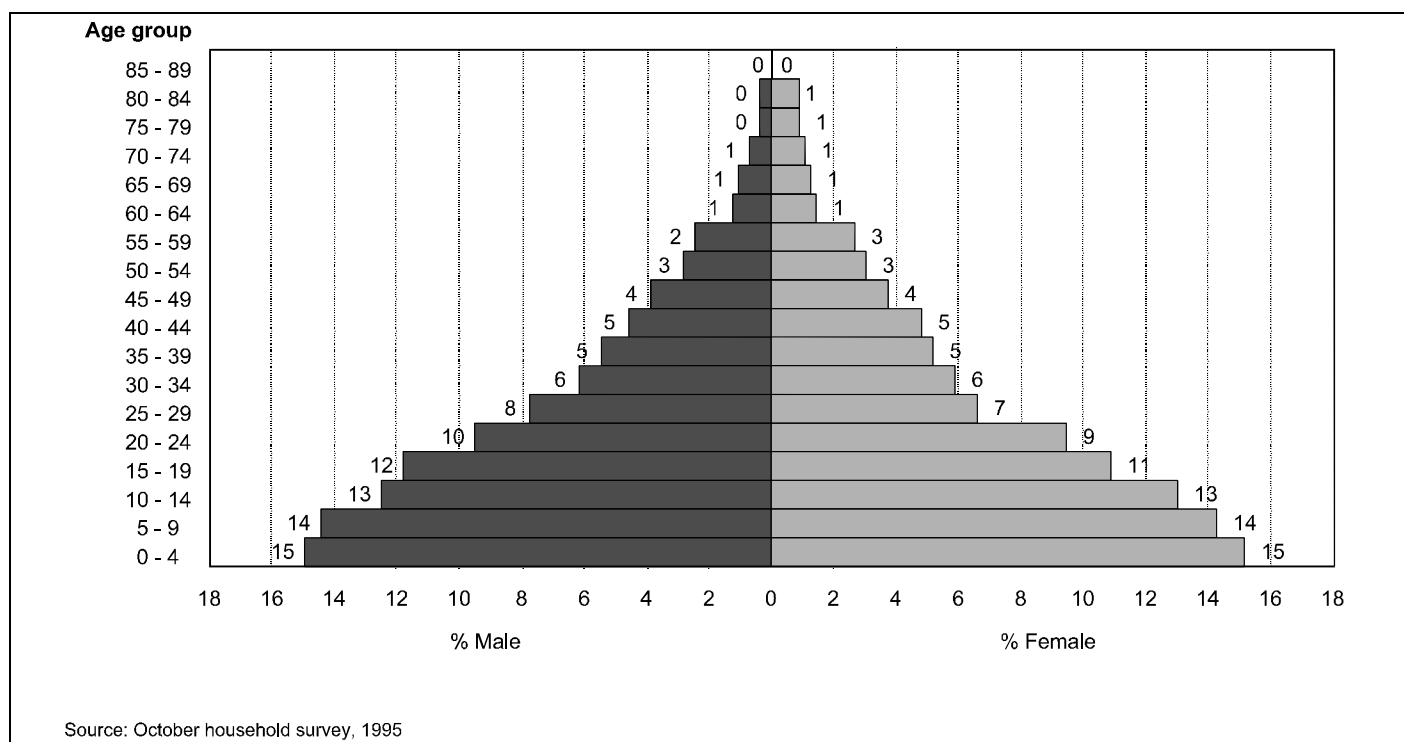
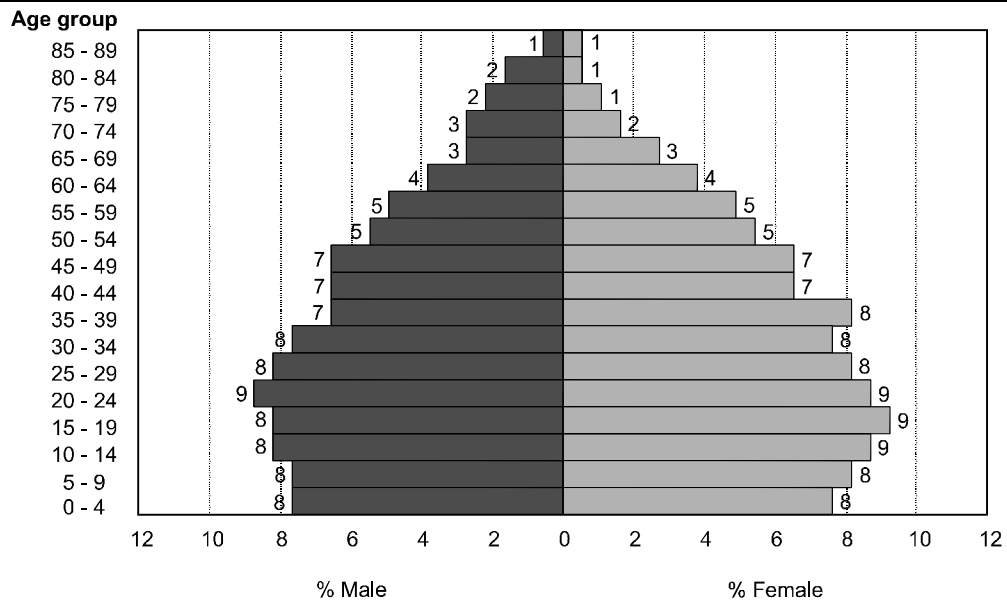


Figure 5: Free State, non-urban five-year age and sex distribution (all population groups)

Figures 6 and 7 show the age distributions of Africans and whites living in the Free State. The shapes of the graphs indicate that, in sharp contrast with Africans, the age distribution of whites in the province is that of an ageing population, due to low fertility and mortality. This age pattern among whites is typical of populations in the more developed countries.



Figure 6: Five-year age and sex distribution of Africans in the Free State



Source: October household survey, 1995

Figure 7: Five-year age and sex distribution of whites in the Free State

Looking at the age distribution in broad age groups, Table 2 and Figure 8 show that, similar to the national pattern, whites in the Free State have a higher proportion of persons aged 65 years and over (8%) compared to Africans (4%). Whites also have a lower proportion of children aged 0-4 compared to Africans. These characteristics reflect an aging population of whites, as described above. Note also that whites have a higher proportion of persons (68%) in the working age group (15-64) compared to Africans (59%). Thus, Table 2 indicates that, similar to the national pattern, whites in the Free State have a lower dependency burden compared to Africans.

Table 2: Percentage distribution in broad age groups by population group

	Free State					South Africa				
	Age group					Age group				
Population group	0-4	5-14	15-64	65+	Total	0-4	5-14	15-64	65+	Total
African	13,0	24,2	59,3	3,5	100,0	14,1	25,4	56,9	3,6	100,0
White	7,6	16,6	67,7	8,1	100,0	6,9	14,6	68,9	9,6	100,0
Total	12,2	23,1	60,5	4,2	100,0	13,0	23,6	59,3	4,1	100,0

Source: October household survey, 1995

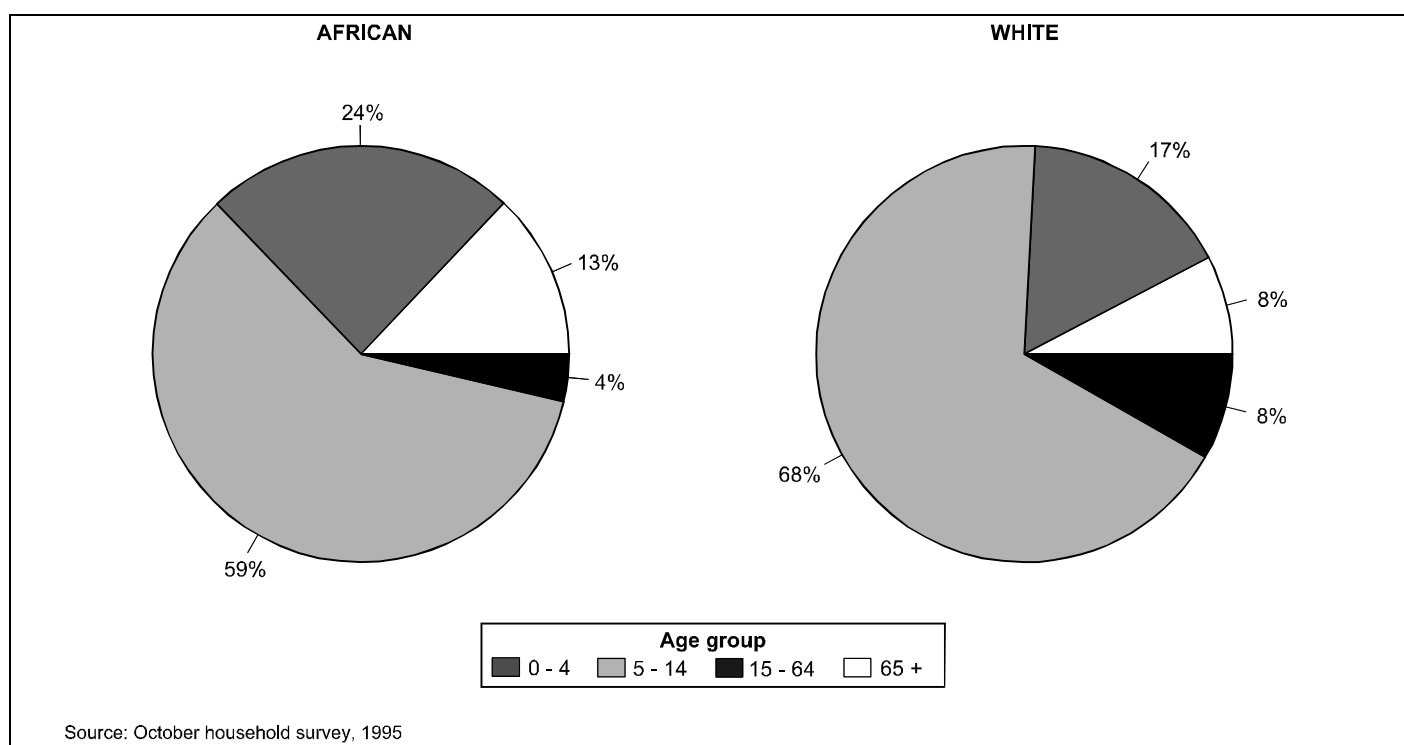
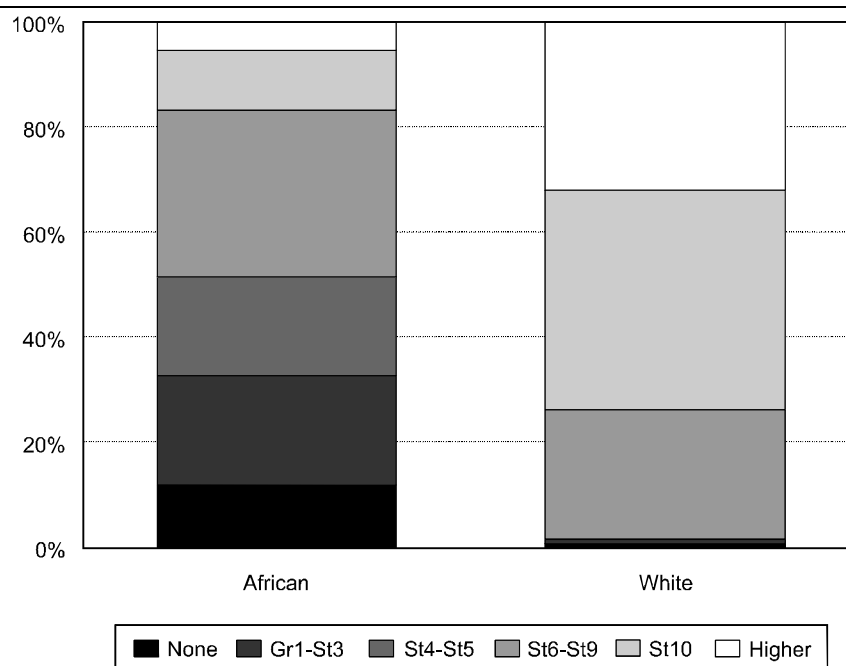


Figure 8: Population of Free State in broad age groups by population group

Pattern of education in the Free State

Educational attainment is influenced, among other factors, by access to education at each stage of the educational system. Social inequalities can have negative impact on access to education. In South Africa, patterns of educational attainment are a reflection of social inequalities among the various population groups in the society.

Figures 9 and 10 highlight some aspects of educational attainment in the Free State. They show a distinct pattern in educational attainment between African and white males (Figure 9) and females (Figure 10) aged 20 years and over. Whereas the percentage with standard 10 or higher level of education (i.e. certificate, diploma or degree) is very low among Africans (17% of African males and 13% of African females), it is much higher among whites (74% of white males and 70% of white females). Correspondingly, the percentage with a very low level of education (i.e. less than standard 4) is much higher among Africans (33% among African males and 38% among African females) than among whites (less than 2% for both males and females). Less than a third of African males and females aged 20 years and over in the Free State had attained standards 6-9 level of education at the time of the survey. In contrast, over a third of whites had attained standard 10. As can be seen from Figures 9 and 10, the disparity in educational attainment between males and females in the Free State within each population group is rather small. The main factor influencing educational attainment is race.



Source: October household survey, 1995

Figure 9: Level of education among males aged 20 years and above by population group

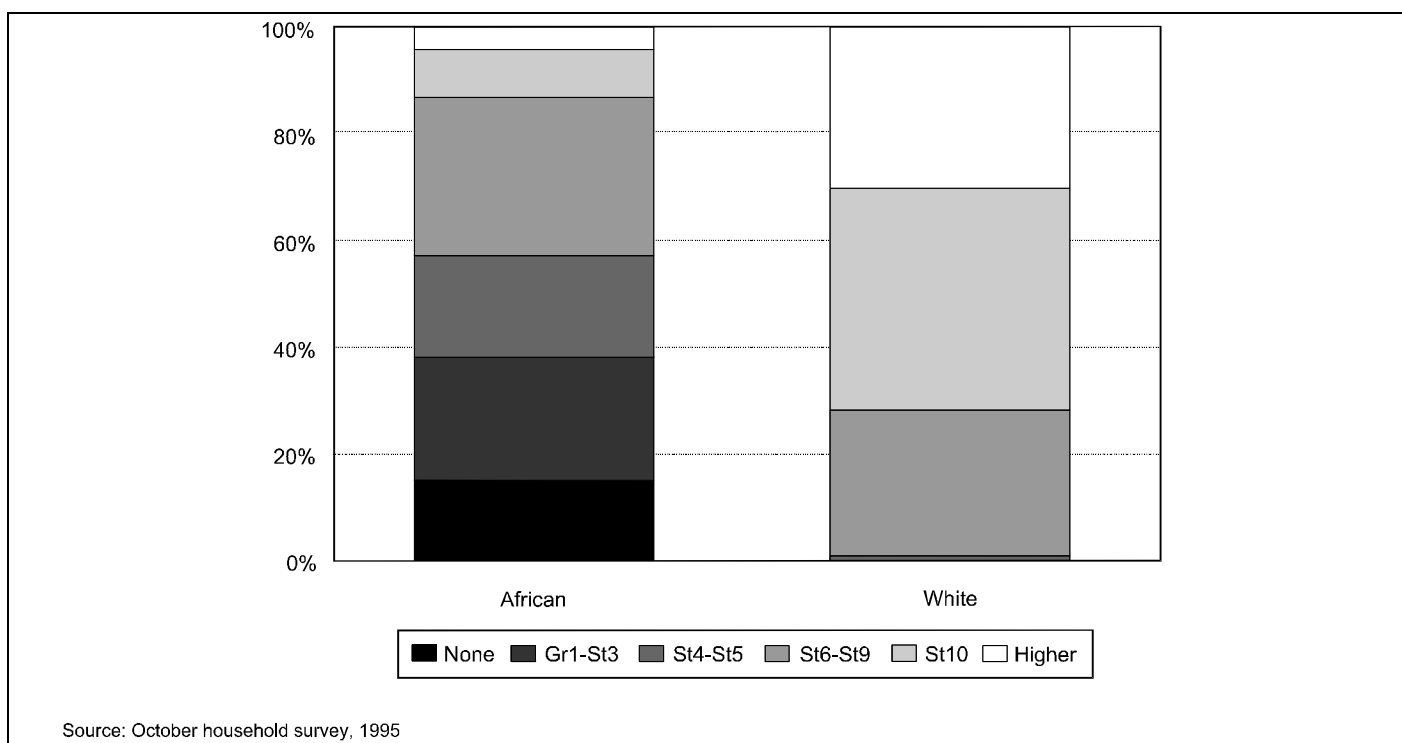


Figure 10: Level of Education among females aged 20 years and above by population group

Economically active population

The economically active population, as defined in the 1995 OHS, comprises all people aged 15 years or older who are working or are available for work within the next week. According to this definition, about 38% of the population of the Free State is economically active. This is broadly similar to the corresponding proportion in the country (35%). The proportions of the economically active populations of the total populations in the urban and non-urban areas in the Free State are similar – 38% and 37% respectively – but divergent from the national pattern. The proportion of the economically active population in the urban areas of the country is 44% compared with 25% in non-urban areas of the country. Thus, in the Free State, over one-third of people in urban and non-urban areas are available for work. But in the country as a whole, whereas only one-quarter of the non-urban population is available for work, nearly one-half of the urban population is available for work.

About 74% of the economically active population in the Free State is employed – slightly higher than the proportion for the entire country (71%). Unlike the national pattern, the proportion of the economically active population employed is higher in non-urban than in urban areas of the province. The proportions are 82% in non-urban areas and 68% in urban

areas of the province. The corresponding proportions in the country are about 62% and 76% respectively. This pattern is probably due to the employment opportunities for elementary workers on commercial farms in the non-urban areas and the relatively fewer job opportunities (formal and informal) in the urban areas of the province, since most urban areas are small towns, compared with the urban areas of the country as a whole.

The unemployed

The unemployment data from the 1995 OHS can be disaggregated in terms of the strict and expanded definitions of unemployment used in South Africa. Both definitions include persons aged 15 years and above who are not employed but are available for work. The strict definition, however, requires that the individual has taken specific steps to seek employment during the four weeks preceding the interview. The expanded definition only requires a desire and availability for work, irrespective of whether or not the person has taken specific steps to find work. Using the strict definition, the unemployment rate as at the time of the survey in the Free State was about 12% compared with about 17% for the whole country.

Hirschowitz and Orkin (1996)³ have drawn attention to the limitations of using the strict definition of unemployment in the South African context. In view of the difficulties experienced in seeking work, unemployment is defined in accordance with the expanded definition. The following discussion is consequently based on the expanded definition of unemployment.

The unemployment rate, using the expanded definition, was about 26% in the Free State in October 1995 compared with 29% in the entire country. Unemployment is more prevalent in the urban areas (32%) compared with the non-urban areas (18%) of the Free State.

³ R Hirschowitz and M Orkin, *Living in South Africa. Selected Findings of the 1995 October Household Survey*, CSS, Pretoria, 1996, p. 16.

The proportion of the economically active population who are unemployed varies among the population groups in the Free State. As can be seen in Figure 11, similar to the national pattern, unemployment rates are higher among Africans (29%) than among whites (6%). Unemployment also varies among males and females. Similar to the national pattern, the unemployment rate is higher among females in each population group in the province. The rate among females in the province ranges from a low of 7% among white females, to a high of 40% among African females. Among males, it ranges from a low of 6% among white males, to a high of 21% among African males (see Figure 12).

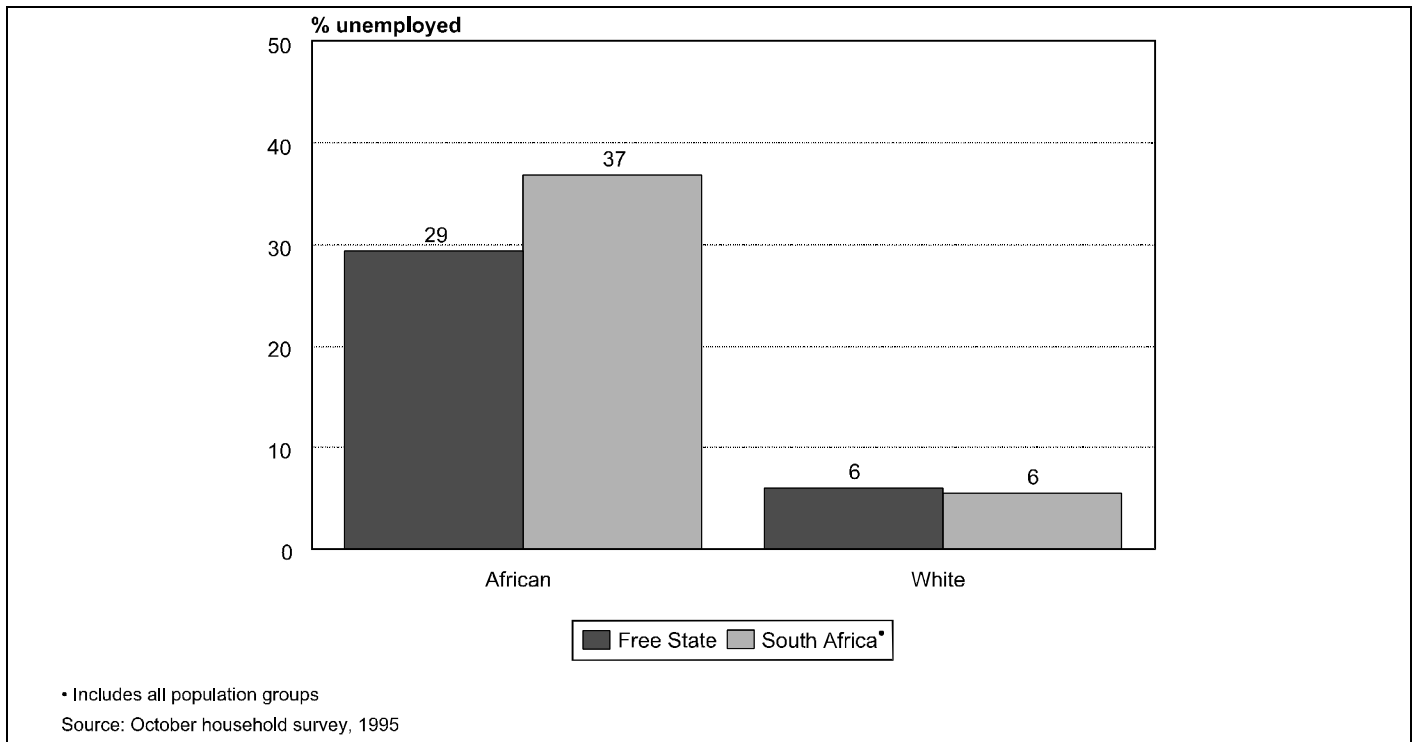


Figure 11: Percent unemployed among the economically active population in the Free State by population group

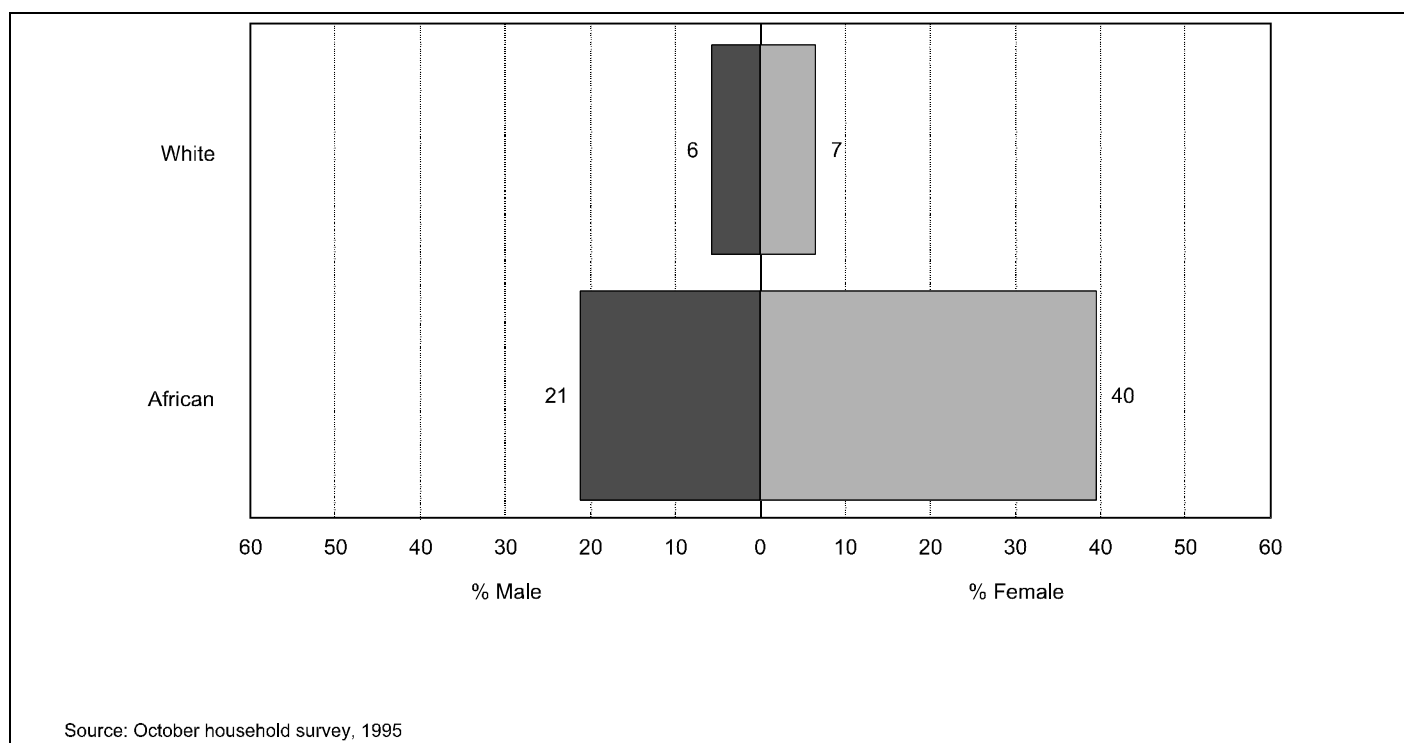


Figure 12: Percent unemployment among the economically active population in the Free State by population group and gender

Unemployment is attributable to a combination of factors including lack of appropriate skills, inadequate education, lack of job opportunities, and lack of capital (to start one's own business).

The employed

The employed in the Free State, and in the country as a whole, are engaged in a wide spectrum of occupations. Using broad groupings of these occupations, almost one-half (48%) of the employed in the Free State are in elementary occupations such as domestic work, street vending, shoe cleaning, building cleaning, garbage collecting, agriculture, mining, manufacturing, transport and labour. In contrast, only about 15% of the employed are managers, professionals, semi-professionals and technicians. The national pattern is somewhat less gloomy – whereas about 30% of the employed are in elementary occupations, about 20% are managers, professionals, and semi-professionals and technicians.

The occupations of the employed in the Free State vary by population group. As can be seen in Figure 13, over one-half (60%) of employed Africans in the province are engaged in elementary occupations, while the corresponding proportion among employed whites is 2%. On the other hand, whereas 36% of employed whites are managers, professionals, and semi-professionals and technicians in the province, only about 9% of employed Africans are managers, professionals, and semi-professionals (see Figure 13). A relatively high proportion (24%) of employed whites are clerks; in contrast, only about 4% of employed Africans are clerks (4%).

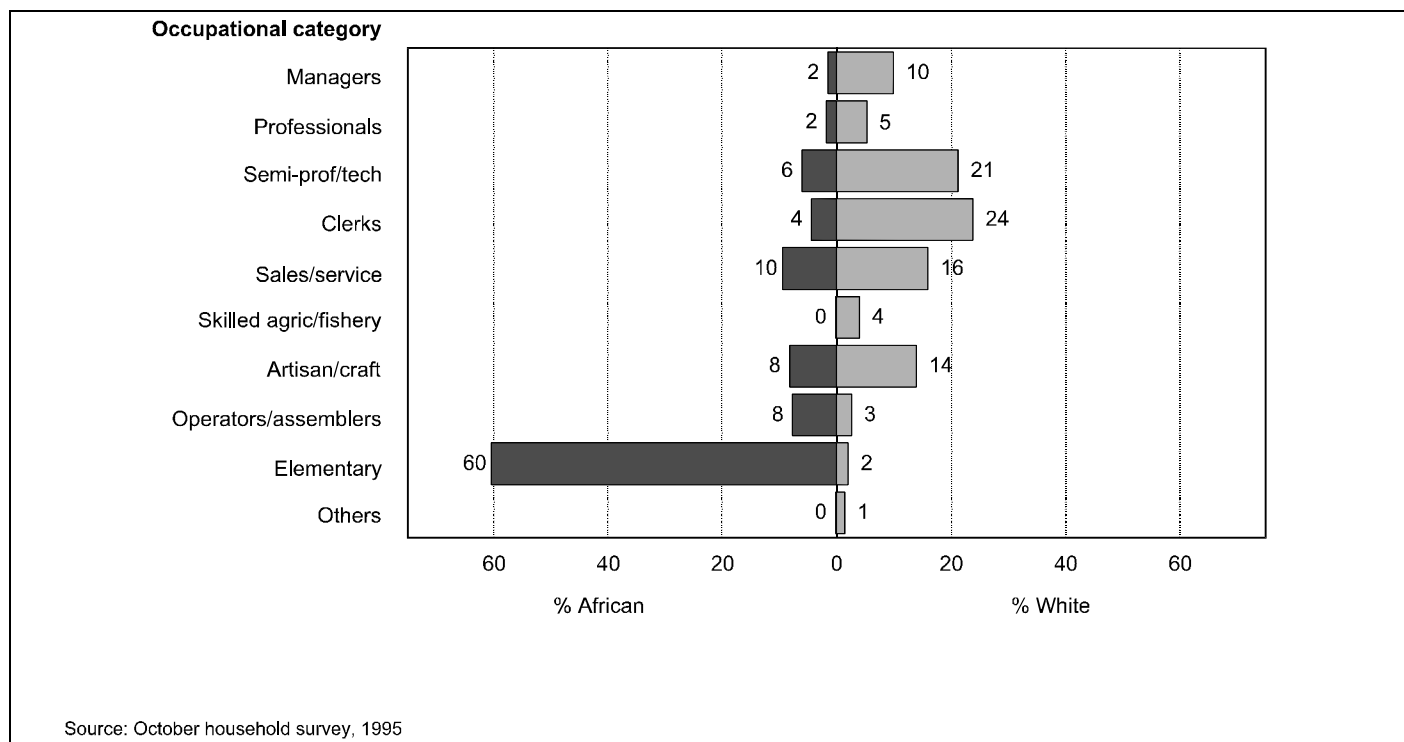


Figure 13: Occupational category of employed Africans and whites in the Free State

Economic sector

The employed in the Free State work in three main sectors – (1) community, social and personal services (38%, including general government), (2) agriculture (26%, including hunting, forestry and fishing), and (3) wholesale and retail trade (13%, including catering and hotel services). The proportion of the employed in these sectors in the country are 31% for personal services, 13% for agriculture and 17% for wholesale and retail trade while manufacturing absorbs about 15% of the employed in the country. Manufacturing only absorbs about 6% of the employed in the Free State. The difference in agricultural sector employment nationally and provincially may be due to the many large-scale commercial farms in the province which offers employment to elementary workers.

The proportions of the employed in the various industry groups varies among Africans and whites in the province, as shown in Figure 14. For example, while about 31% of employed Africans work in the agricultural sector or related activities, only about 6% of employed whites work in this sector. Furthermore, while about 10% of employed Africans in the province work in the wholesale and retail trade, catering and accommodation services sector, about 23% of employed whites in the province work in this sector. Note, however, from Figure 14 that almost equal proportions of employed Africans and whites work in the community, social and personal services sector – 39% among employed Africans and 35% among employed whites.

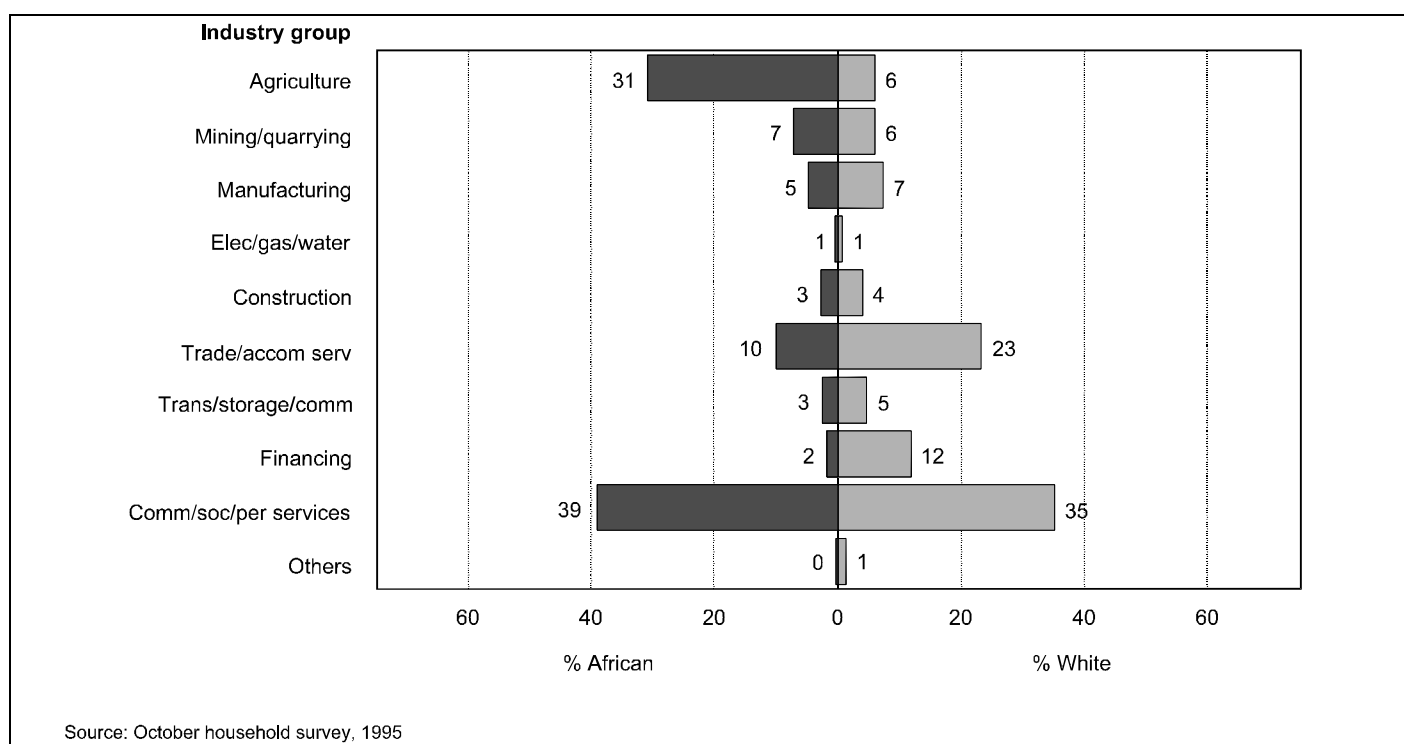


Figure 14: Industry in which employed Africans and whites work in the Free State

The informal economy

A universally acceptable operational definition of the informal economy is illusive. Writers on the subject often present a description of the characteristics rather than an operational definition of the informal sector. This poses measurement problems concerning the size of the informal sector, and is further compounded by what May (1993)⁴ and others have referred to as forward and backward linkages with the formal sector. In an attempt to measure the size of the informal sector in South Africa, the CSS in the 1995 OHS defined the informal sector as consisting of ‘people or businesses which are not registered and/or who defined themselves as being in the informal sector at the time of the survey’.

⁴ J May, ‘Commerce as an economic sector within region E: the informal sector and micro-enterprises’. Input paper prepared for RDAC study on the Economic Development of Region E, 1993, p. 7.

Relating this definition to the economically active population, those working in the informal sector constitute about 12% of the economically active populations of the country as a whole and 16% of those in the Free State. A break-down of informal sector employees by population group is not possible from the 1995 OHS data because we asked employers how many people they employ. We did not ask for a racial breakdown. Of those working in the informal sector in the Free State, about 91% work for own account (self-employed) compared with 76% for the country as a whole. Among Africans who are self-employed in the Free State, 92% are females while only 8% are males. In contrast, the corresponding proportions among whites are 43% and 57% respectively. About 85% of the self-employed in the Free State work in the community, social and personal services sector, including subsistence farming and domestic work.

In both urban and non-urban areas of the Free State, females constitute the bulk of the self-employed. Of the self-employed in the urban areas, 80% are females while 20% are males; the corresponding proportions in the non-urban areas are 97% and 3% respectively. Given that certain occupations in the informal sector are illegal (such as drug dealing), and various definition problems, the size of the informal sector noted above may be regarded as the lower limit.

Section 3

Findings regarding households

Types of dwelling in which households live

According to CSS estimates, about 8% of households in the country were in the Free State in 1995. As can be seen in Figure 15, seven in every ten (69%) households in the Free State live in formal brick structures. This percentage is similar to the country as a whole (73%). The other households in the Free State live in traditional dwellings (12%), shacks (10%) and hostels (9%). Workers on the gold mines in the northern part of the Free State account for the relatively high proportion of hostel dwellers. However, the type of dwellings in which households live varies between urban and non-urban areas, and by population group. Figure 16 shows that, while about 86% of households in urban areas in the Free State live in formal brick structures, only about 44% of households in non-urban areas live in these brick structures. About 29% of households in non-urban areas in the Free State live in traditional dwellings and 23% live in hostels. Shacks are more common in urban areas compared with non-urban areas in the Free State, probably reflecting a recent move from non-urban into urban areas.

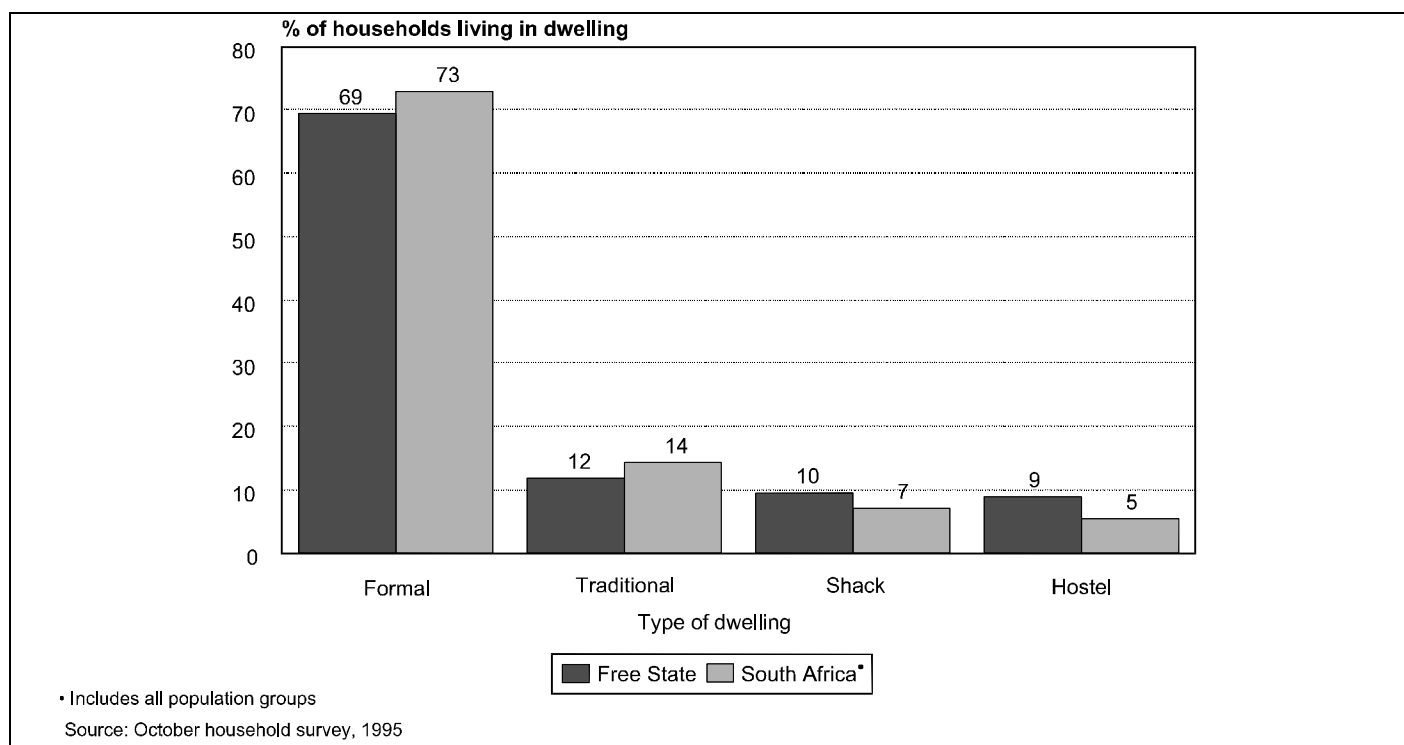


Figure 15: Type of dwelling in which households live in the Free State

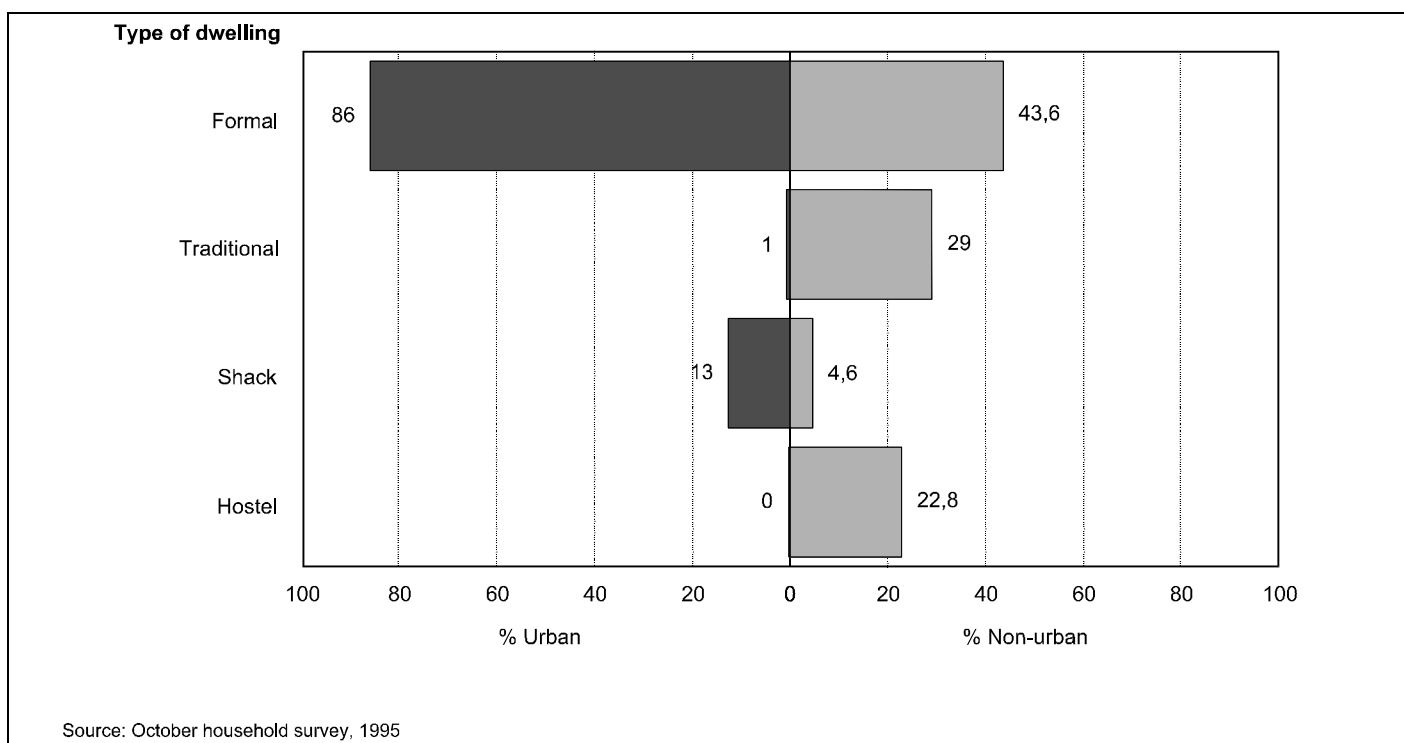


Figure 16: Type of dwellings in which households live in urban and non-urban areas in the Free State

Among whites, 98% of households, compared with 61% of African households, live in formal brick structures in the Free State. The remaining 39% of African households live in traditional dwellings, shacks and hostels.

The average household size in the Free State is 3,9 rooms compared with 4,3 rooms for the whole country. Although white households in the Free State tend to have more rooms compared to African households (Figure 17), the average number of persons per household is larger among African than among white households. For instance, Figure 17 shows that, while about 69% of white households live in dwellings with six or more rooms, only 13% of African households have six or more rooms in their dwellings. The average household size among Africans in urban areas is 4,3 people compared with 2,7 among white households. In non-urban areas it is 3,5 people in African households and 3,0 in white households (see Figure 18). In the country as a whole, average household sizes are 4,7 and 2,9 among African and white households respectively. In the urban areas of the country average household size is 3,9 compared with 4,9 in non-urban areas.

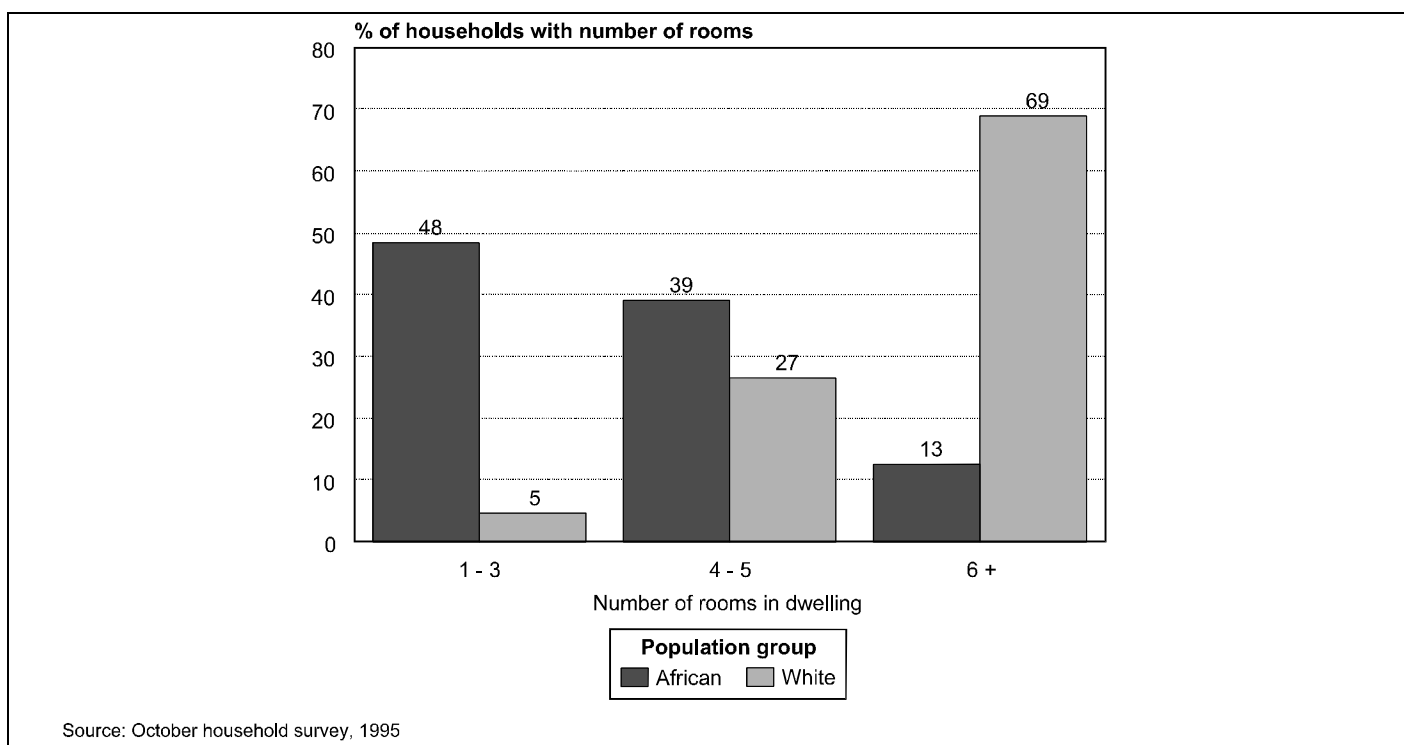


Figure 17: Number of rooms in dwellings in the Free State by population group

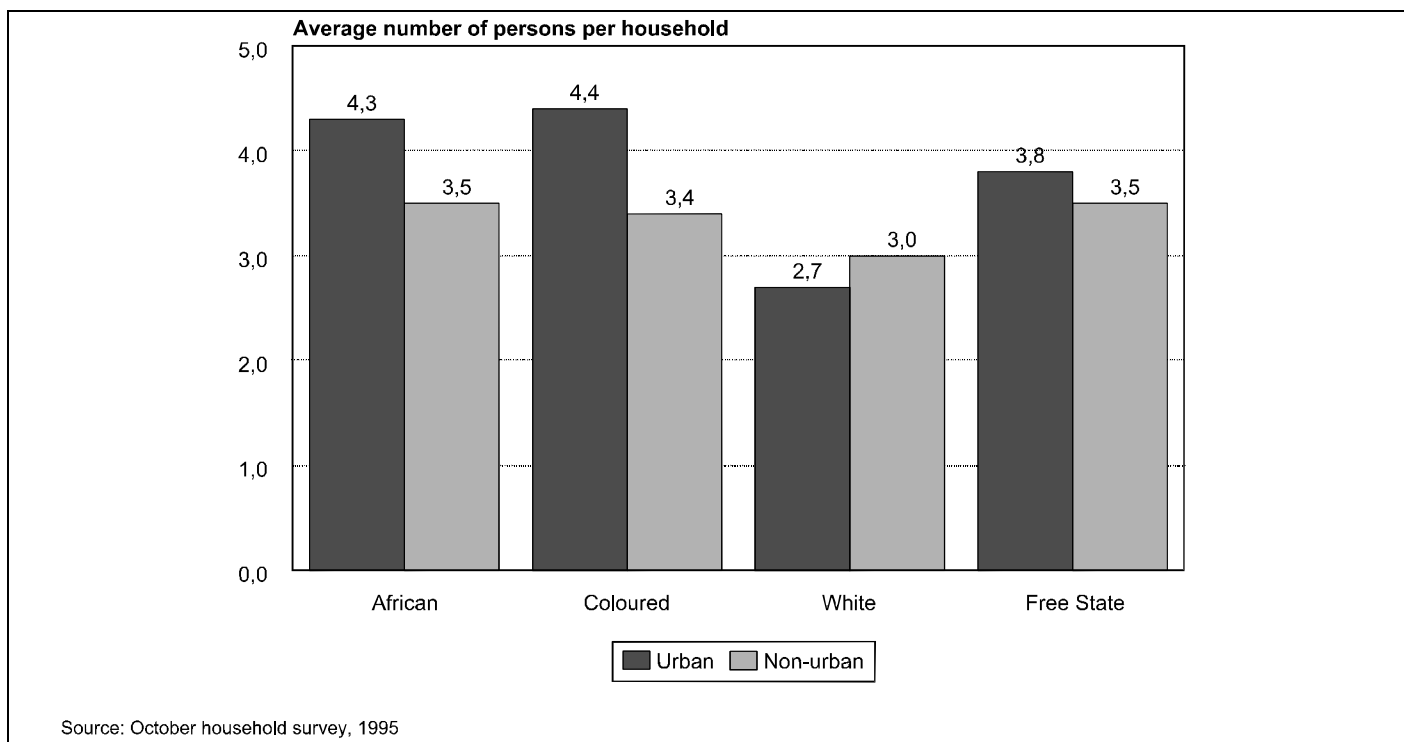


Figure 18: Average household size in the Free State by population group in urban and non-urban areas

The relatively small number of people on average, in non-urban households among Africans in the Free State is surprising, but it may be explained, at least in part, by the existence of informal settlements in areas around small towns, which have not been incorporated into the town council areas. Our definition would classify these people as non-urban.

Access to facilities and services

Main source of energy for domestic use

The 1995 October household survey findings indicate that the proportions of households in the Free State using electricity for cooking, heating and lighting are 56%, 54% and 71% respectively. After electricity, wood is the next major source of energy for domestic use in the Free State. About 22% of households use it for cooking while 25% of households use it for heating. The third major source of energy is paraffin; the proportions of households using paraffin for cooking, heating and lighting are 15%, 12% and 4% respectively. Gas is seldom used by households as a source of energy; only about 4% of households use it for cooking, while 2% of households use it for heating, and less than 1% of households use it for lighting.

Within this general pattern, there are variations in the main source of energy for cooking, heating and lighting by households in urban and non-urban areas. Figure 19 shows that about 70% of urban households use electricity as their main source of energy for cooking, compared with 35% of households in non-urban areas. A similar pattern was observed with regard to the main energy source for heating and lighting: about 71% of urban households use electricity as their main source of energy for heating compared with 28% of households in non-urban areas. Furthermore, while over three-quarters of urban households use electricity as their main source of energy for lighting, less than half of non-urban households use this energy source for lighting.

While about 3% of urban households use wood as their main energy source for cooking, the corresponding proportion in the non-urban households is 52%. This is similar to the national pattern. In the country as a whole, the proportions of households using electricity for cooking, heating and lighting are 58%, 57% and 65% respectively. In the urban areas of the country, about 83%, 81% and 89% of households use electricity for cooking, heating and lighting respectively. The corresponding proportions in the non-urban areas of the country are 21%, 19% and 30% respectively.

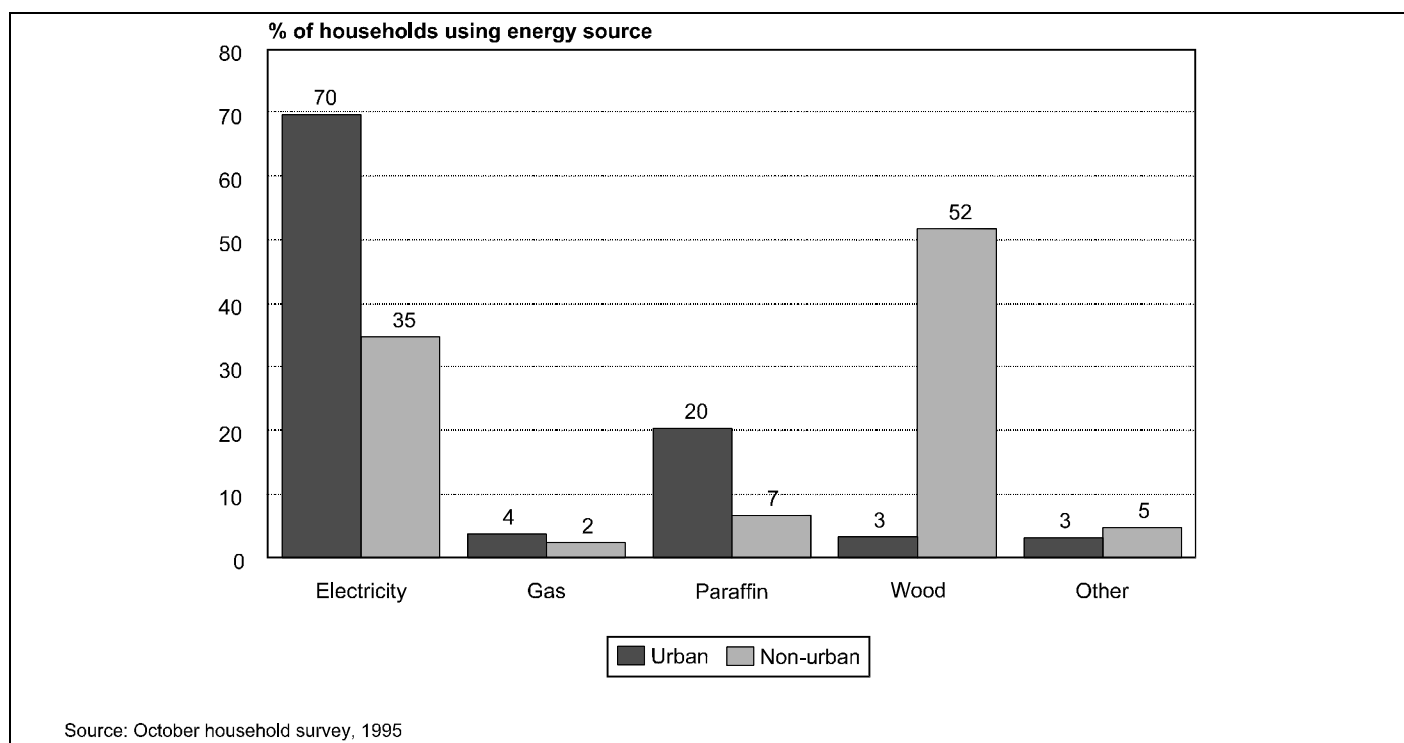


Figure 19: Main source of energy for cooking in households in the Free State in urban and non-urban areas

There are marked differentials among African and white households in terms of their main energy source for domestic use in the Free State. Over 90% of white households use electricity as their main energy source for cooking, heating and lighting whereas relatively fewer African households use electricity as their main energy source for cooking (32%), heating (24%) and lighting (46%). Furthermore, while 53% of African households use wood for cooking and 57% use wood for heating, the corresponding proportions for white households are much smaller (5% for cooking and 3% for heating).

About 82% of African households that use wood as their main energy source for cooking or heating in non-urban areas obtain the wood from the *veld* and about 21% of these households travel 1 km or more to fetch the wood.

A similar pattern is evident in the national figures. For example, a small percentage of African households nationally use electricity for cooking (16%), heating (14%) and lighting (24%), while almost all white households use electricity for these purposes.

Main source of water for drinking

Tap water is the main source of water for drinking in the Free State, and over 80% of households in the province use this source. However, while about 98% of white households in the Free State have tap water inside their dwelling for drinking, this applies to only 27% of African households. About 9% of African households use bore-holes as their main source of water for drinking, compared with less than 1% of white households.

There are also differences between urban and non-urban households in the Free State with regard to their main source of water for drinking as can be seen in Figure 20. The graph shows that about 35% of urban households in the province have tap water in their dwelling for drinking, compared with 17% of non-urban households. Although about 44% of non-urban households have tap water on site for drinking (compared with 57% of urban households), close to 20% of non-urban households still resort to the use of bore-holes as their main source of water for drinking. Rain water, streams, dams, wells, and springs are also used as sources of water in the province. These constitute the main source of water for drinking in about 2% of urban households and 6% of non-urban households in the province.

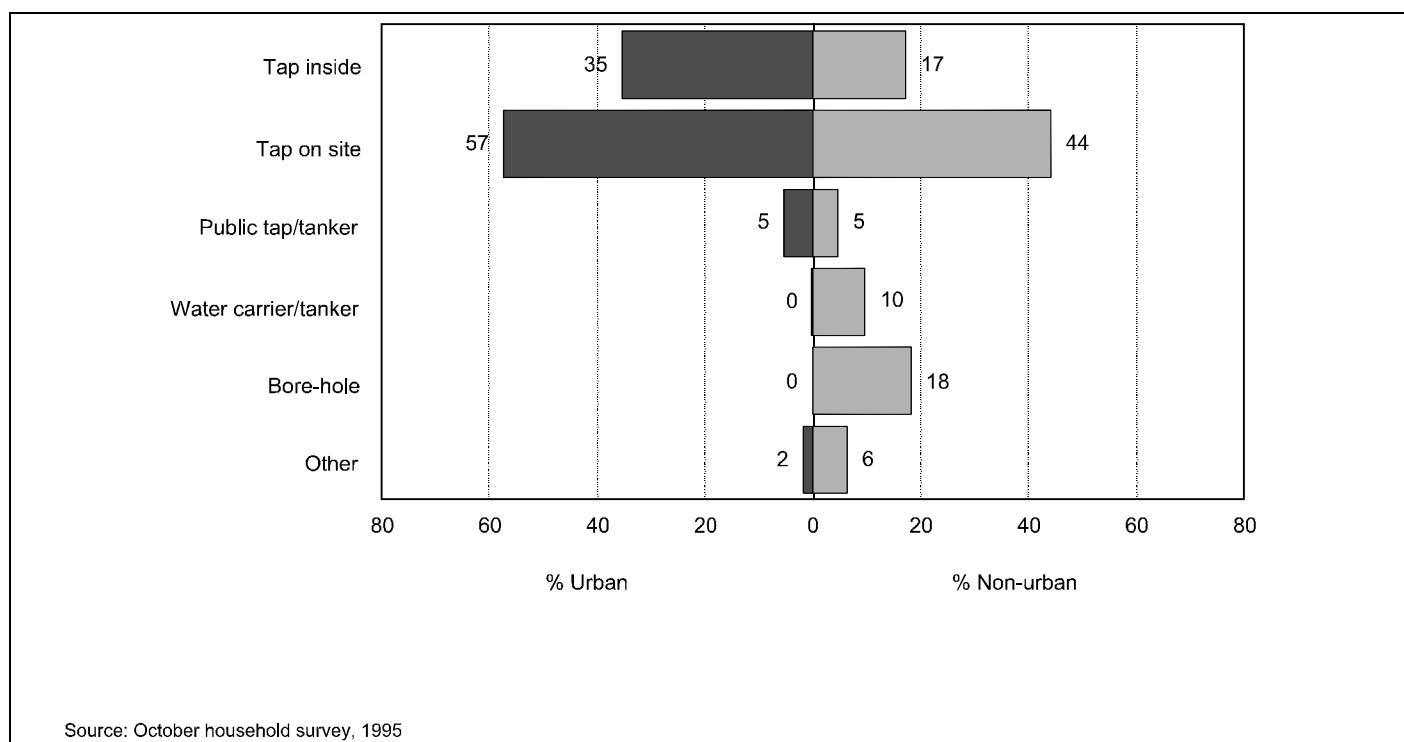


Figure 20: Source of water for dwellings in the Free State among African households in urban and non-urban areas

Sanitation

The 1995 October household survey data indicate that the type of toilet facility used by households in the Free State varies by population group. While about 98% of white households have a flush toilet in their dwelling, only 16% of African households have this facility. About 22% of African households have a flush or chemical toilet on site, compared with only 2% of white households. While less than 1% of white households have a pit latrine on site, 20% of African households have a pit latrine on site; 12% of African households do not have any toilet facility. A similar variation by population group is also evident at the national level. In the country as a whole, while about 98% of white households have a flush toilet in their dwelling, only 22% of African households have this type of facility. Furthermore, while less than 1% of white households have a pit latrine on site, over one-third of African households in the country have this kind of toilet.

There are differences among African households in urban and non-urban areas in the province regarding the type of toilet facility they use, as shown in Figure 21. The graph indicates that about 25% of African households in urban areas have flush toilet in their dwelling, as against only 6% of African households in non-urban areas. The main type of toilet facility used by African households in urban areas in the province is a bucket toilet on site – about 40% of African households use this facility. On the other hand, a pit latrine on site is the main type of toilet facility used by African households in non-urban areas in the province – about 37% of African households in the province use this facility. Note also from Figure 21 that about 24% of African households in non-urban areas in the Free State do not have any toilet facility compared with less than 1% of African households in urban areas.

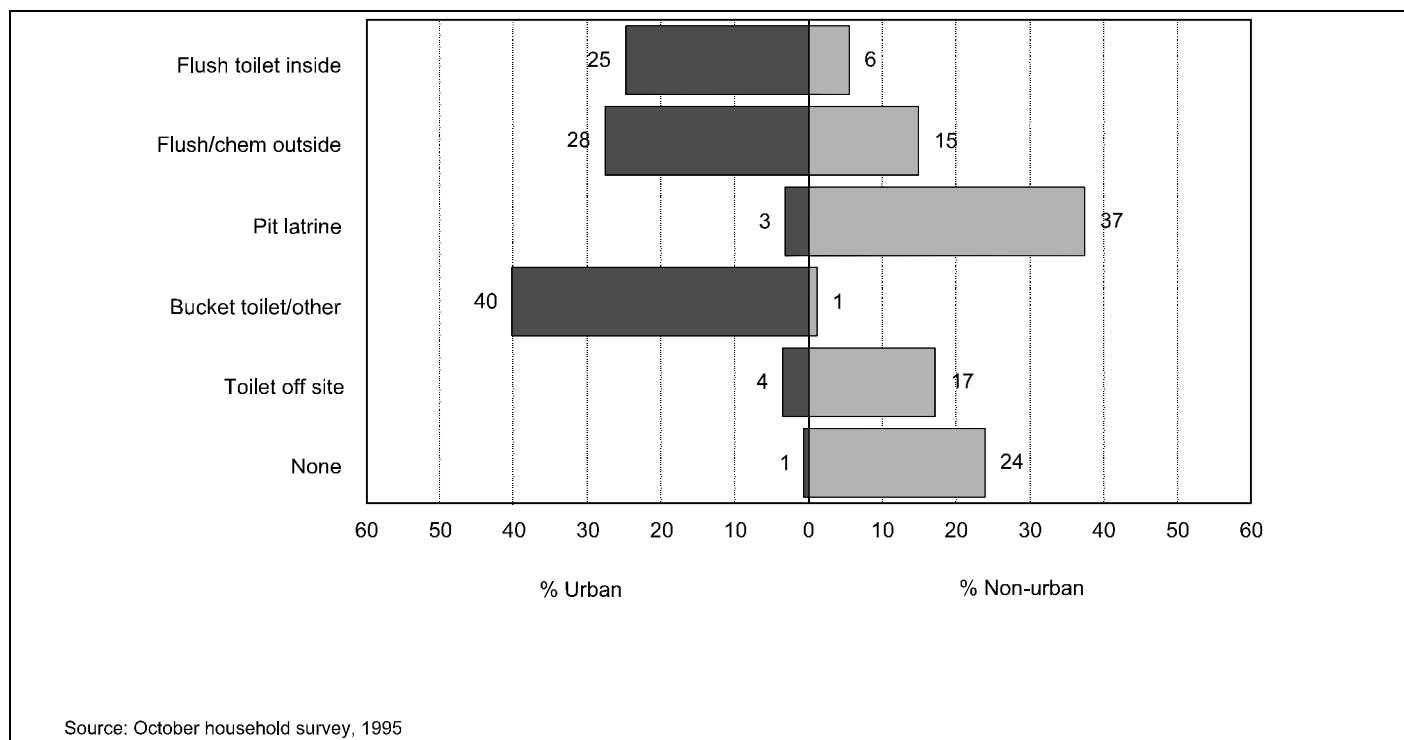


Figure 21: Type of toilet facility used in the Free State by African households in urban and non-urban areas

Telephones

About 25% of households in the Free State have a telephone in their dwelling, compared with 32% of households in the whole country, in October 1995. There is a marked disparity among population groups with regard to having a telephone in the household in the Free State. Whereas 77% of white households have a telephone, only 11% of African households have one. Furthermore, while about 3% of white households use a neighbours' telephone, the corresponding proportions for African households is 25%. About 12% of white households have no access to telephones compared with 42% of African households. This disparity is also present at the national level. For example, while about 76% of white households in the country have a telephone in their dwelling, only 13% of African households had one.

Only 6% of households in non-urban areas in the province have a telephone in their dwelling compared with 36% of households in urban areas. The pattern is similar at the national level (the corresponding proportions are 7% and 45% respectively). About 52% of households in the non-urban areas in the Free State do not have access to a telephone at all compared with 25% of households in the urban areas. The corresponding proportions at the national level are 52% and 32% respectively.

Health services

Figure 22 shows the main source of health-care used by households by population group in the Free State. The graph indicates that, while nearly three-quarters of African households in the Free State utilise public sector health services, less than a third of white households in the province use this source. On the other hand, 71%, of white households compared with 28% African households use private sector health services. At the national level, while over three-quarters, and over one-half of African households utilise public sector health services, less than a quarter of white households use this source.

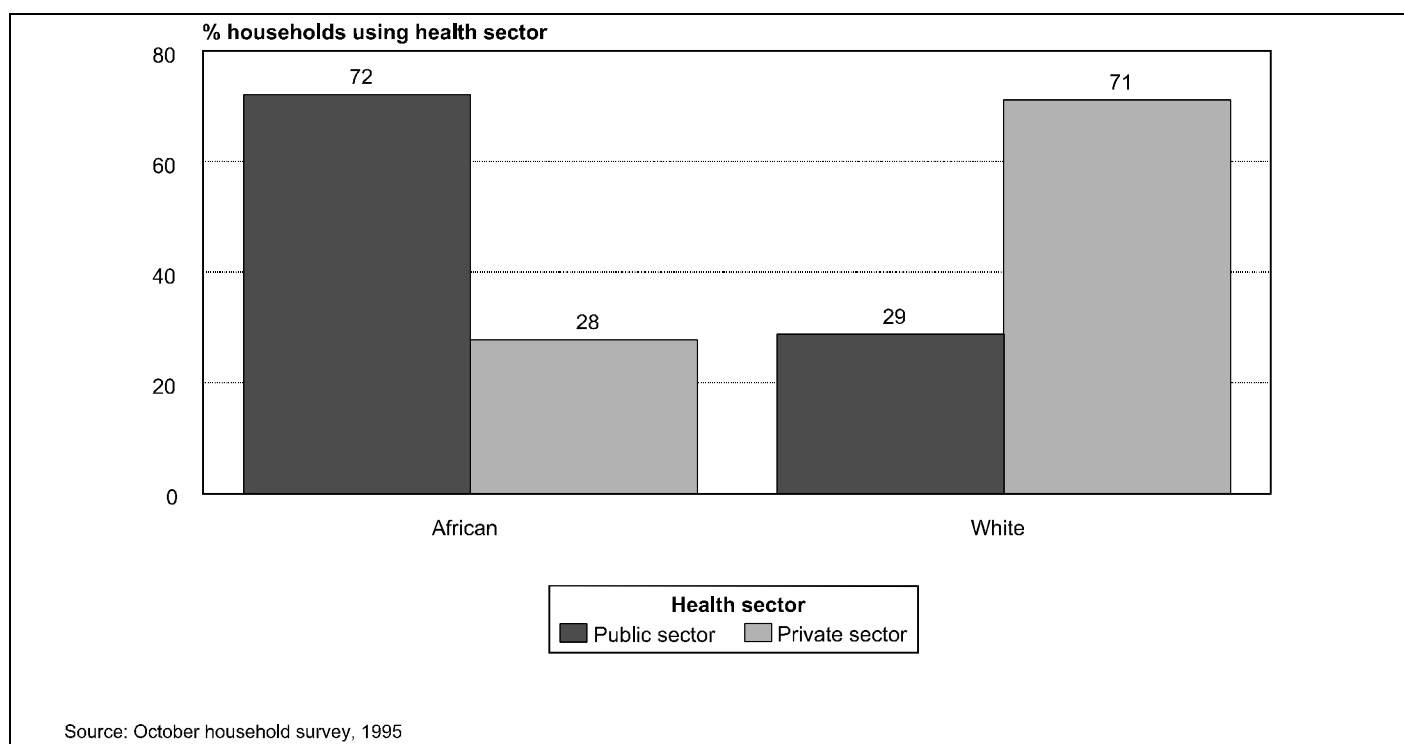


Figure 22: First source of health-care used by households in the Free State by population group

The distance to the medical service usually consulted varies among households in urban and non-urban areas in the Free State. For example, the medical service usually consulted by about 79% of African households in urban areas is within four kilometres of their dwelling, whereas only 34% of African households in non-urban areas are within four kilometres of the medical service they usually consult.

Household incomes

The results on household incomes presented below are based on the *income and expenditure survey* (IES) data. Figure 23 shows the income group (in quintiles) of households by population group in the Free State. Each quintile consists of approximately 20% of households in the country from poorest to most affluent. It is evident from the graph that, similar to the national pattern, African households are the poorest in the Free State while white households are the richest. About 38% of African households in the province have an annual income of between R0-6 868, (the poorest quintile) and only 4% of African households have an annual income of R52 800 and above, (the richest quintile). In contrast, while only 2% of white households have an annual income of between R0-6 868, over one-half of white households have an annual income of R52 800 and above.

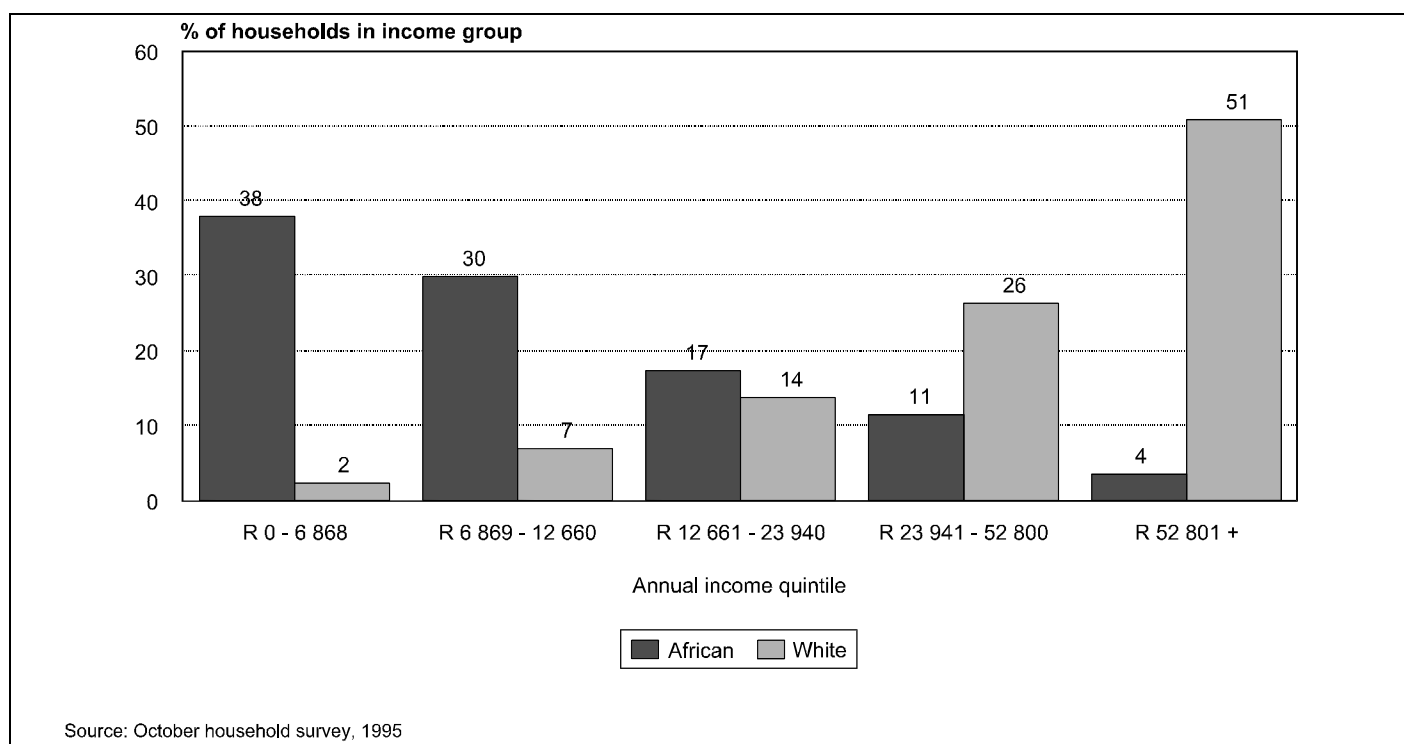


Figure 23: Income group of households in the Free State by population group

Figures 24 and 25 show that there are disparities in annual household incomes between urban and non-urban areas within each population group in the Free State. In general, non-urban households tend to be poorer than urban households. However, the pattern is distinctly different looking at urban and non-urban household incomes, when comparing households on one hand, and white households on the other. The poorest households in the province are African non-urban ones, since 51% are found in the lowest income category. The most affluent households, on the other hand are white non-urban ones, since 63% are in the top income category. But the small sample size of white non-urban households should be borne in mind when interpreting Figure 25.

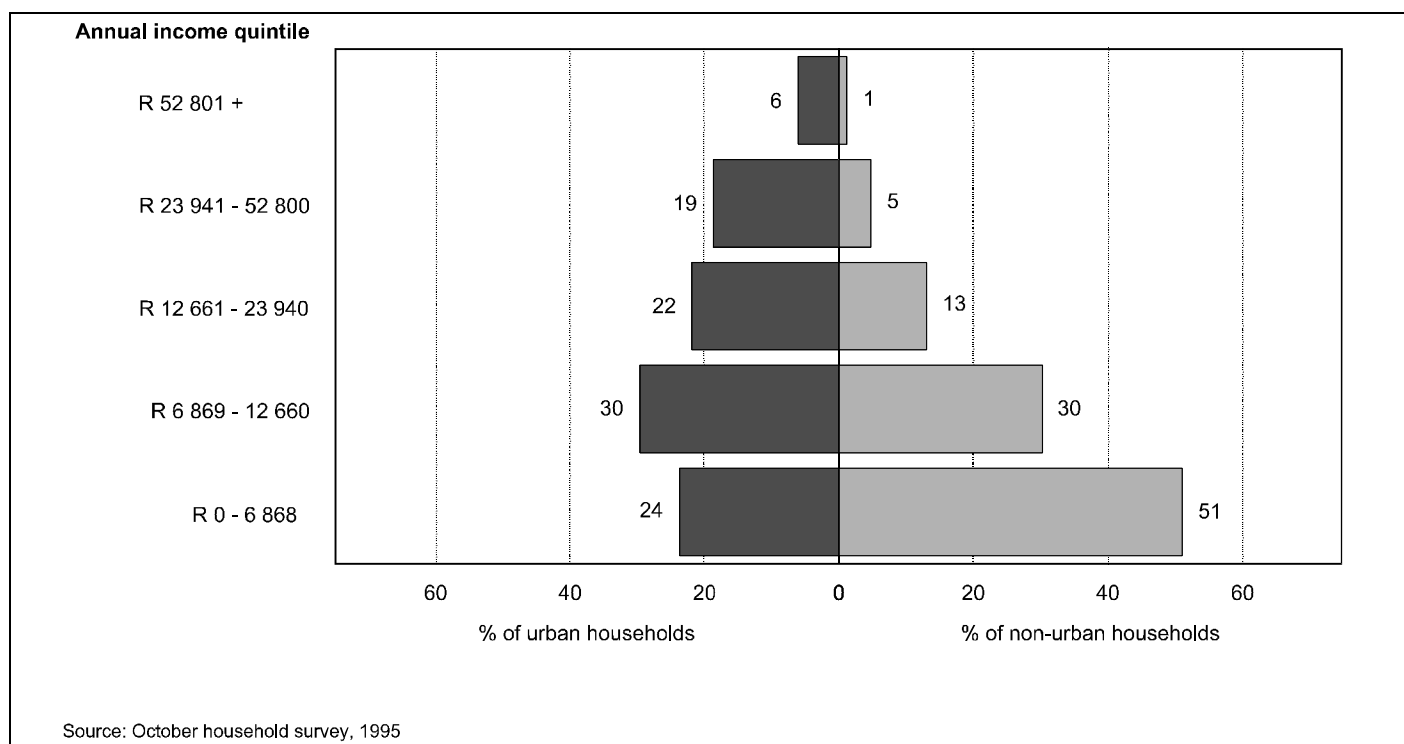


Figure 24: Income group of African households in the Free State in urban and non urban areas

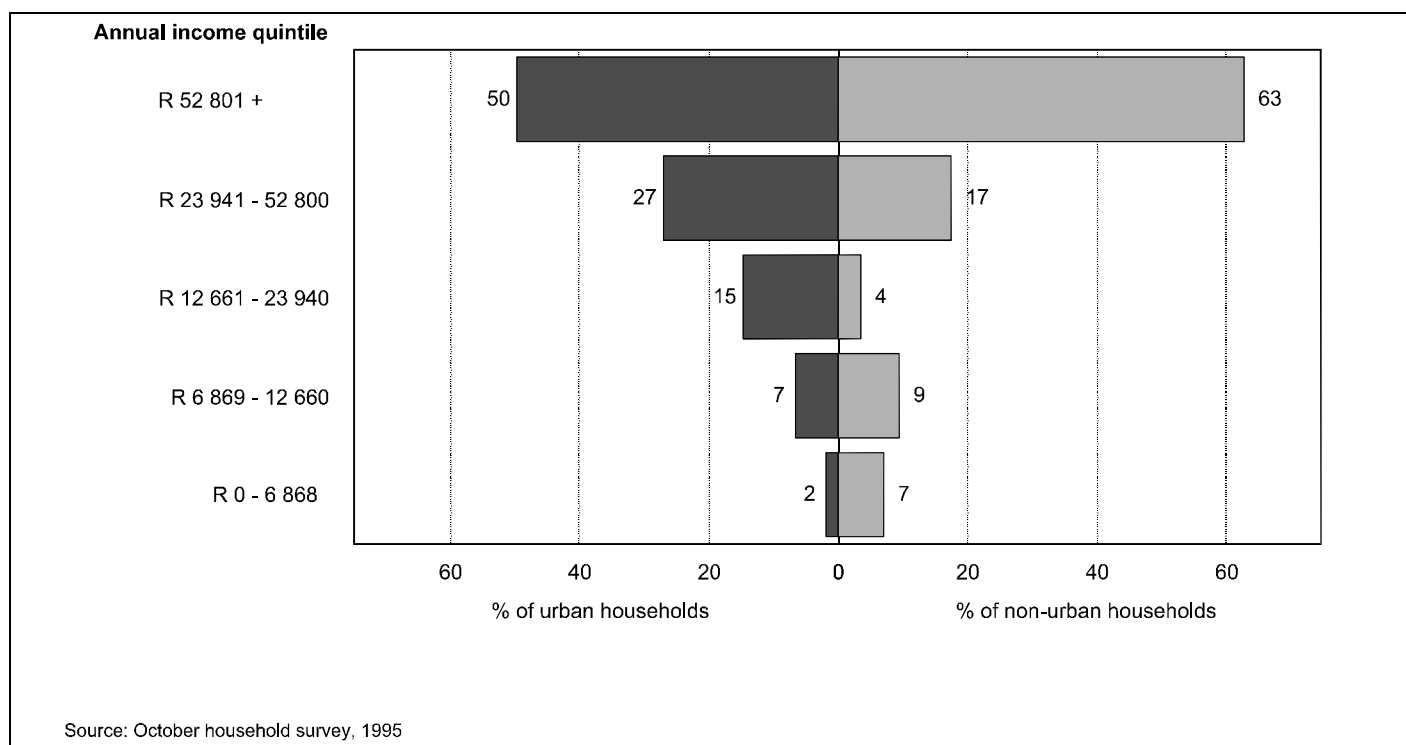


Figure 25: Income group of white households in the Free State in urban and non-urban areas

Safety and security

Figure 26 shows that about 56% of the people in the Free State feel very safe while only 2% of people in the province feel very unsafe in their neighbourhood. While 60% of African households felt very safe in their neighbourhood, the perception about safety in the neighbourhood is somewhat different among whites in the province. Only 39% of white households in the province feel very safe in their neighbourhood.

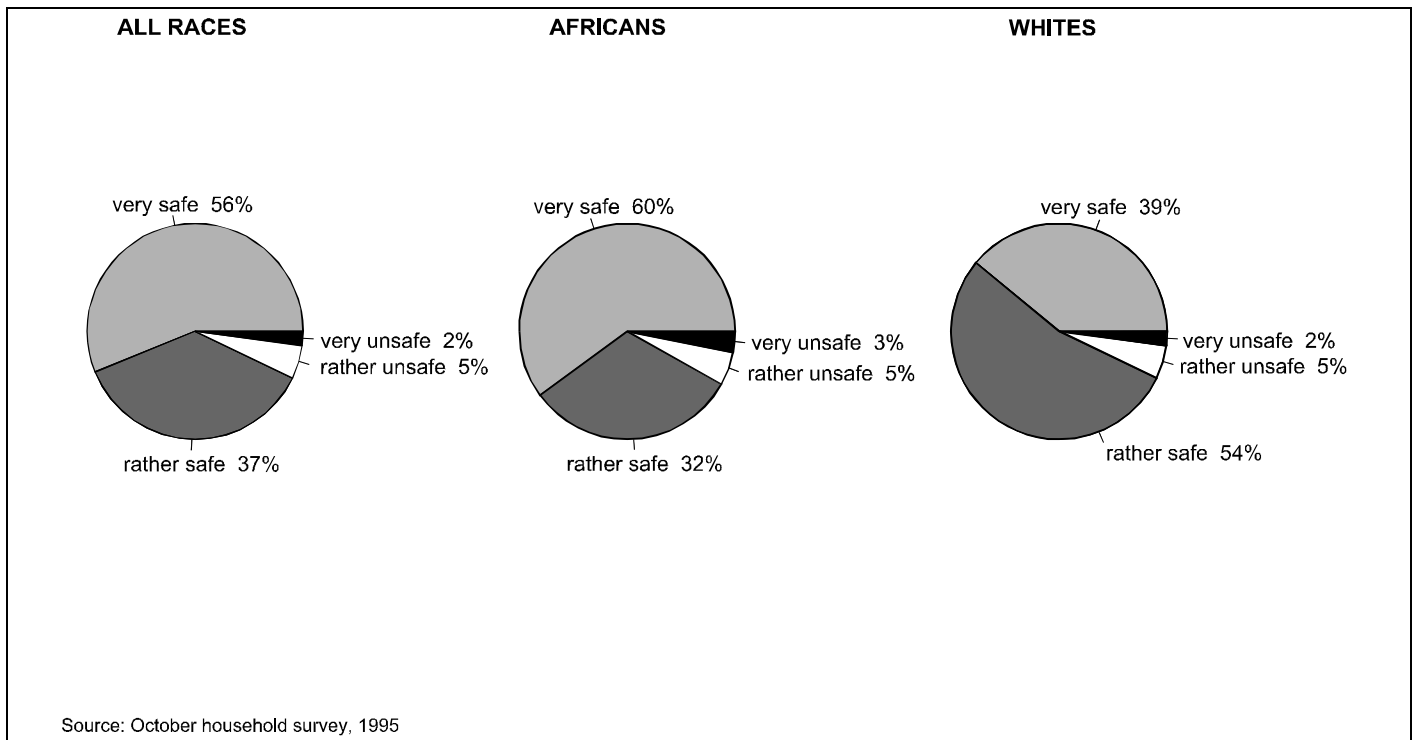


Figure 26: Feelings of safety and security in own neighbourhood in the Free State

Section 4

Disability in the Free State

The level of disability (percentage of the population disabled) varies from one country to another. Estimates of disability provided by the United Nations (1990)⁵ based on data from 55 countries varies between 0,2% and 20,9%. This variation is partly attributable to differences in definition and reporting of disability. Ebrahim (1987)⁶ has estimated that about 10% of the world's population is disabled.

Data from the 1995 October household survey suggest that about 5% of South Africa's population are disabled. This is lower than the world's average, but it may be due to the stigma attached to certain forms of disability. Evidence from the 1995 October household survey suggests that about 9% of the population of the Free State is disabled. This means that the reported level of disability in the Free State is almost twice the reported national level and almost the same as the world's average.

The reported level of disability varies among the population groups in the Free State. About 3% of whites in the Free State were reported as disabled compared with 9% of the African population. This comparison needs to be interpreted with caution. Observed variation in disability among population groups partly reflects true differences in the level of disability. It also reflects differences among population groups in willingness to report disability and perceptions about the definition of disability. Within each population group in the Free State, females were reported to have a slightly higher level of disability compared with males. For example, among the African population, while about 9% of males were reported to be disabled, 10% of females were reported disabled. Among the white population, 3% of both males and females were reported as disabled.

The evidence from the survey suggests that the most common form of disability in the Free State is serious eye defect. About 4% of the entire population of the Free State was reported to have serious eye defects. Disability of the eyes thus accounted for about 51% of all the disabilities reported in the province during the survey. Certain forms of disability (e.g. sight, hearing) increase with age but age-related disability could not be examined in the present data for the province due to small numbers.

⁵ United Nations, *Disability: Statistics compendium*. U. N., New York, 1990, pp. 25-27.

⁶ G.J.Ebrahim 'Disability: its prevention and rehabilitation'. *Journal of Tropical Paediatrics*, vol. 33(1), 1987, pp. 2-3.

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Section 5

Conclusion

The results of the 1995 October household survey presented above indicate that there are disparities in certain measures of living in the Free State. These reflect social inequalities (particularly among population groups, and urban and non-urban areas) in access to education, social services and facilities.

Whites in the Free State generally have a higher level of education than Africans. Differences in educational attainment among population groups are partly attributable to unequal access. In this context, access has several dimensions, including geographical (due to location of educational institutions), and cost (due to the level of income of parents relative to institutional costs of education).

Unemployment is more prevalent among Africans than among whites in the Free State. While the majority of Africans employed in the Free State are in elementary occupations, whites employed in the province are in higher levels of occupation.

Whereas nearly all whites living in the Free State live in formal brick structures, over a third of Africans in the province live in traditional dwellings, shacks and hostels. In contrast with white households, whose main source of energy for domestic use is electricity, over one-half of African households, still depend on wood as their main source of energy for domestic use.

Nearly all households (92%) in urban areas have access to potable water either in their dwelling or on site. In contrast, close to 20% of non-urban households depend on bore-holes as their main source of water for drinking.

The disparities observed in the 1995 October household survey noted in this report highlight some of the social inequalities in the Free State, but need to be seen within the context of social inequalities in the country as a whole. In general the pattern of inequalities observed in the Free State is similar to the national pattern, although there are some differences in proportionate levels. In order to know the extent of change over time in the pattern of inequalities in the Free State described above, constant monitoring of the life circumstances of individuals in the province is essential; the October household surveys are a valuable instrument for doing this.