Living in Mpumalanga

Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey

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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.

Other CSS reports in this series:

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Living in Northern Province. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (forthcoming, 1998)
Living in North West. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (forthcoming, 1998)
Living in Western Cape. Selected findings of the 1995 October household survey (forthcoming, 1998)

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 Mpumalanga in particular, during 1995.

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Section 1
Introduction

Background

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 to bring about such improvement can best be measured through household surveys, and the Central Statistical Service's (CSS's) annual *October household survey* (OHS) gives detailed information about the living conditions and life circumstances of all South Africans, nationally and in each province.

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

The first comprehensive CSS household survey in the country was conducted in October 1993, excluding the former 'TBVC' states. It was repeated in 1994 and 1995, with modifications to the questionnaire to cover the entire country.

This report is a summary of the findings of the 1995 OHS. It paints a demographic, social and economic picture of Mpumalanga. Comparisons are also drawn between the province and South Africa as a whole.

Mpumalanga occupies approximately 7% of the country's land mass – (79 000km^2). It also contains approximately 7% of the total population of the country. It has a population density of approximately 38 people per square kilometre, which is slightly higher than that of the country as a whole. The vast majority of the people in the province (69%), live in non-urban areas. Its main economic activities are: manufacturing (25% of the provinces gross geographic product), electricity generation (20%), and mining and quarrying (20%).

The research process

With this background in mind, we now examine how the population in Mpumalanga lives. But first, we describe the research methodology of the 1995 OHS.

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

- Questionnaire design
- Drawing a sample
- Fieldwork
- Data capture

- Weighing 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 section completed for each individual in the household, questions are asked on age, gender, education, marital status, migration, economic activity, unemployment, employment and self-employment.

In the household section, questions are asked about type of dwelling (or 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.

The questionnaire also examines health issues in Mpumalanga, including the extent of disability. The type of questions asked deal with access to health services in urban and rural areas.

Questions are also asked on births and deaths in the household, but these are not discussed in the present report.

Drawing a sample

In 1995, information was obtained from 30 000 households nationally, of which 2 560 households were from Mpumalanga.

- Altogether, 256 Mpumalanga enumerator areas (EAs) were drawn in the sample of the total of 3 000, and ten households were visited in each EA.

- The 1995 sample was stratified by urban and non-urban areas[1] and by 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:

[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.

- The former 'TBVC states' were excluded in the 1991 census. Consequently, their size had to be estimated when drawing samples of households. This did not directly affect the sample in Mpumalanga.

- Certain parts of the country, particularly rural areas in the former 'self-governing territories' 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. Several of the former homelands, or parts of them, are now situated in Mpumalanga. This method of census-taking applied to them.

⇒ In some areas of the country, and in the province, 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. This had some slight effect on Mpumalanga, in the urban areas.

⇒ No allowance was made for new informal settlements, which were springing up all over South Africa, to be incorporated into a sampling frame.

In the 1995 OHS, some attempts were made to overcome sampling problems occurring as a result of the above problems with the 1991 population census. For example, magisterial districts, where a 'sweep census' had taken place, were subdivided into smaller units, and new informal settlements were incorporated into the boundaries of existing enumerator areas. However, when implementing the sampling, 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 as CSS staff were busy demarcating new EA boundaries for the 1996 census. As a consequence, during fieldwork for the OHS, old 1991 census and new 1996 census EA boundaries were sometimes confused.

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

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 (37,9 million) than was previously thought, and that urbanisation has become more rapid. The new census numbers may affect some of the weights used in this report. Therefore, the findings reported here should be regarded as indicative patterns rather than definitive numbers.

The fieldwork

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 of 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 IES. The

fieldworkers first administered the OHS questionnaire, and returned at a later date to administer the questionnaire for the IES.

Problems were experienced in returning to the same household, particularly in informal settlements and in 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 of 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 the education, employment and the 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 finalising data capture.

Weighting the sample

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

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

Please note that the weights for the OHS and IES are different because relative scaling by age and gender were applied to the OHS but not the IES. In the OHS we were concerned with the education and occupation of the head of the household. However, in the IES we worked with household incomes.

The original aim was to weight the data by magisterial district, but this was not possible, because of the EA boundary problems, as previously described. Boundary problems could only be overcome by weighting the sample to a higher level, namely the provincial level.

All further discussions in this report are based on weighted figures.

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 the 1994 data

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

Since different methodologies were used for drawing the samples 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 province during two consecutive years. However, there are indeed 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. On the basis of the two surveys, we cannot, as yet, calculate whether variations in answers are due to genuine developmental changes, or to sampling error, or to other sources of error such as misunderstanding of questions. As more household surveys are conducted over time, however, it should become increasingly possible to compare the data, particularly if the 1996 population census yields a better sampling frame.

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Section 2
The main findings regarding individuals

The population of Mpumalanga

Before discussing the population of Mpumalanga, the population of South Africa is described. Figure 1 indicates that more than three-quarters (76%) of all South Africans are Africans, while fewer than one in seven (13%) are white. Approximately one in every ten (9%) South Africans are coloured and one in every thirty (3%) are Indian. (The totals of the percentages in this report may not, as a result of rounding, add up to exactly 100%).

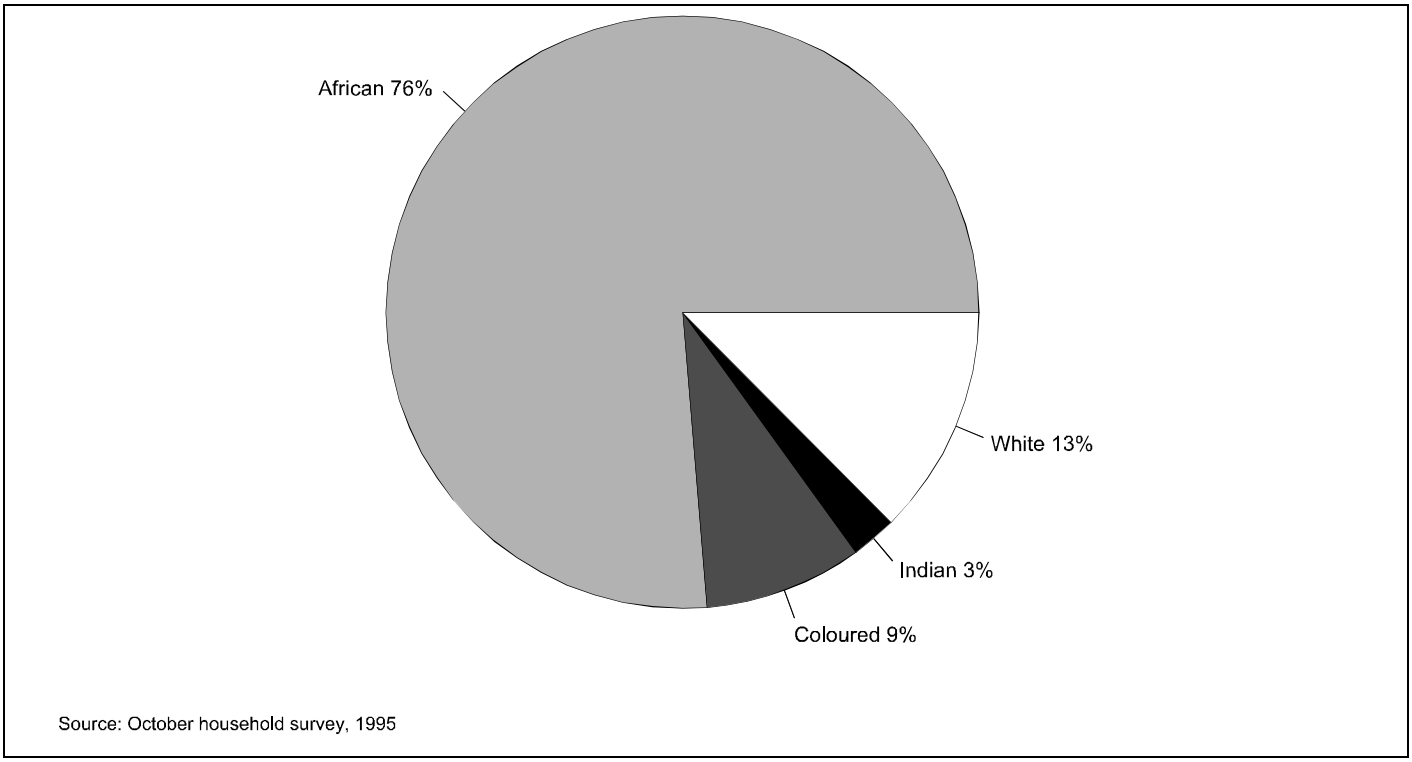


Figure 1: Population of South Africa by race

The population size of Mpumalanga is estimated at approximately three million people. Figure 2 indicates that 89% of the population are African, and 10% are white, while fewer then 1% are coloured or Indian. The African proportion in this province is larger than the national proportion.

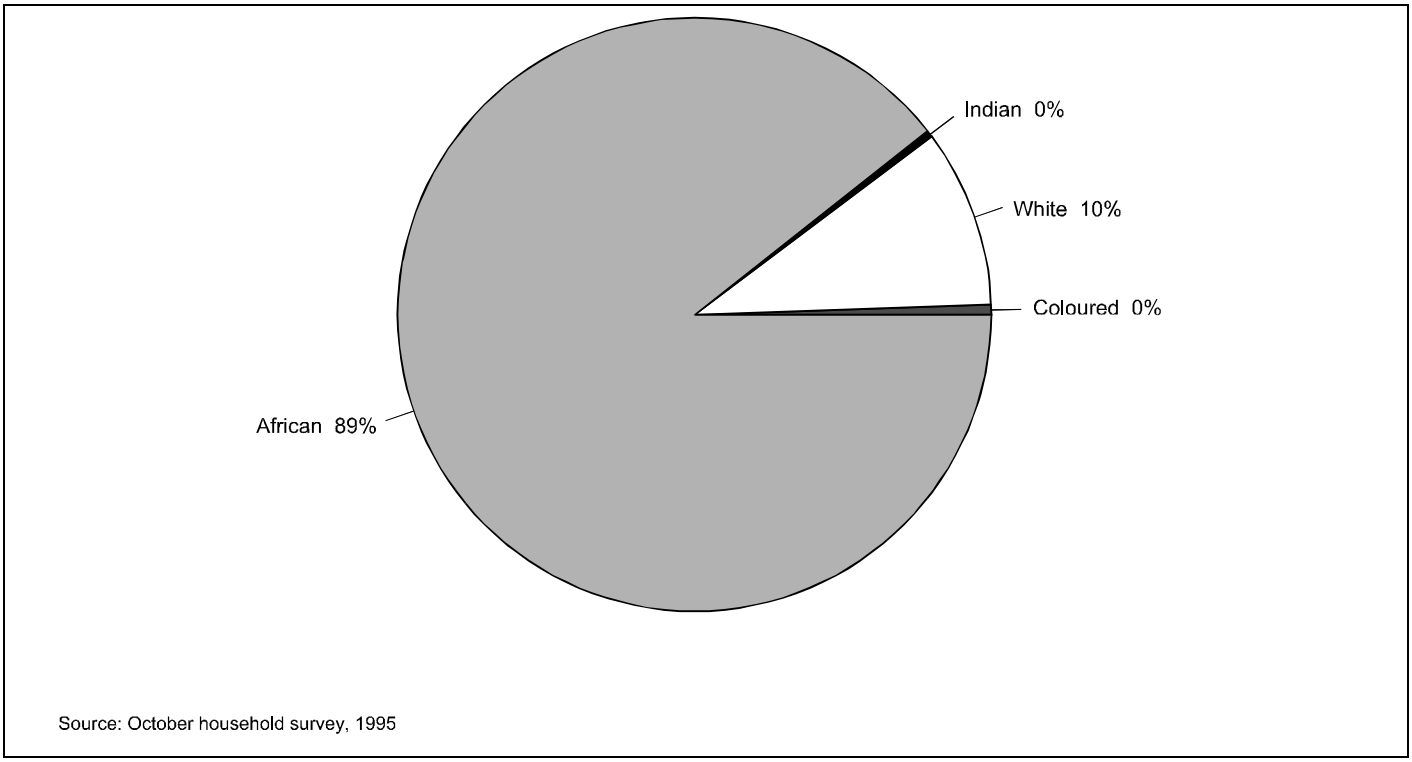


Figure 2: Population of Mpumalanga by race

Because the proportion of coloureds and Indians in the province is so small, these population groups are excluded from further discussion as separate groups. They are, however, included in all discussions of the total population of Mpumalanga.

The results from the OHS also show that in Mpumalanga, more than two-thirds (69%) of the population live in non-urban areas and only 31% live in urban areas. Three-quarters of all the Africans live in non-urban areas, compared to only 18% of whites, as indicated in Figure 3. Compared to South Africa as a whole, Mpumalanga is more non-urban, including the white population, since only 9% of the total South African white population lives in non-urban areas.

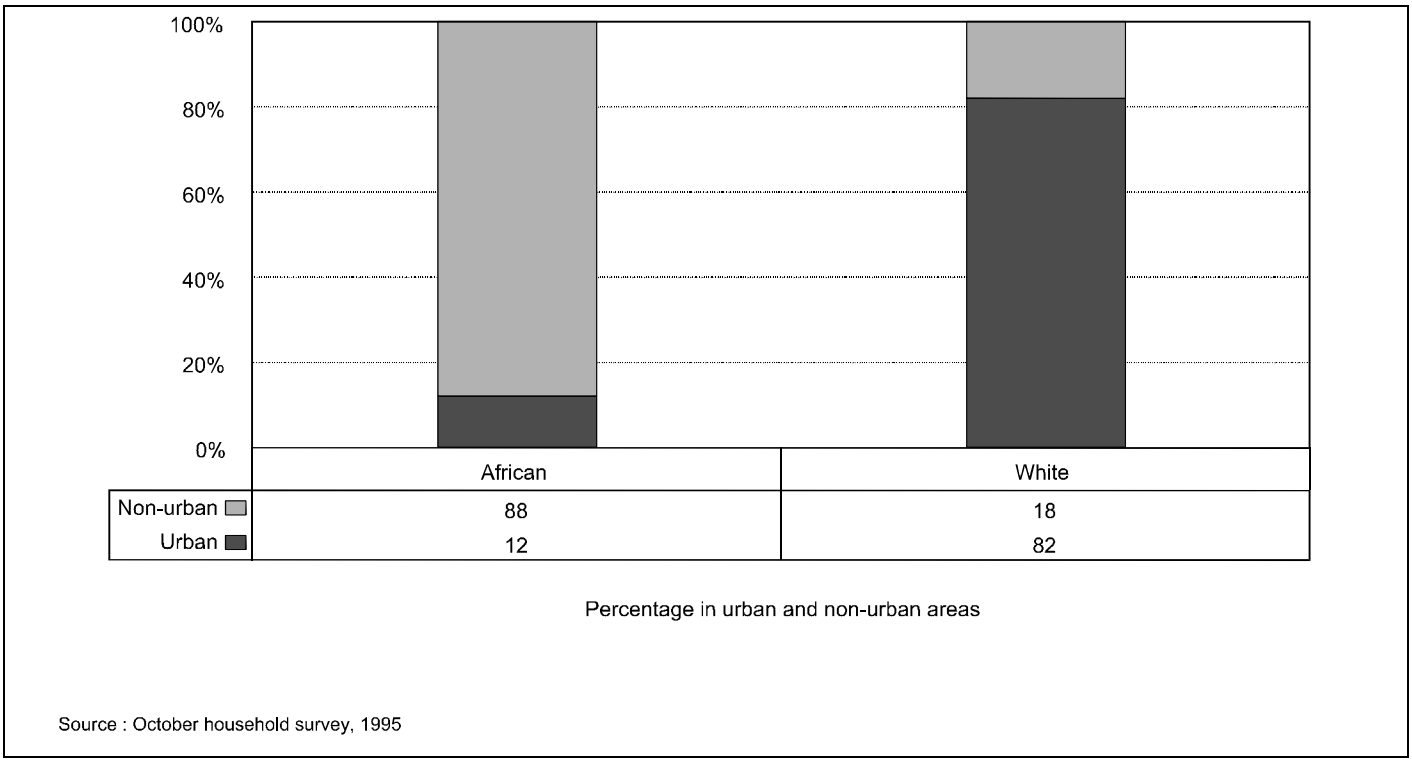


Figure 3: Percentage of the population of Mpumalanga in urban and non-urban areas by race

The age distribution of the population of Mpumalanga

The age distribution of the population in Mpumalanga varies by population group. Figure 4 shows the age distribution of Africans in Mpumalanga. It reflects the process of underdevelopment imposed by the policy of apartheid. A large proportion (39%) of the population is under the age of 15 years, and there are relatively few (3%) people aged 65 years and above. Fifteen percent of the population is aged between 0-4 years, 13% are aged between 5-9 years, and 12% are between 10 and 14. This type of pyramid is typical of a 'young' population found in a less developed or developing country that has not yet undergone the demographic transition. 'Young populations' have less than 4% of persons 65 years and older. The age distribution of Africans in Mpumalanga is very similar to that in the whole of South Africa.

Figure 4: Among Africans in Mpumalanga, age of the population by gender

One would expect the age distribution of the white population in Mpumalanga, and South Africa as a whole, to be similar to that of other more developed countries (MDCs). According to Ferreira *et al* (1992), the United Nations classifies an aged population structure as one in which 7% or more of the population is aged above 65. With an aged population structure, there are proportionately fewer infants, pre-school children and children of school going age, compared to the other population groups, while the proportion of older people is increasing.

In Mpumalanga, the aging process of the white population is, however, not yet typical of an aged population structure. Figure 5 shows that 28% of the population is below 15 years of age, while 6% of the population is aged 65 years or more. According to these results, the white population is younger than the white population for the country as a whole. The national OHS report states that 8% of white males and 12% of white females are aged 65 and above (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1996). In Mpumalanga these figures are 5% and 7% respectively. In addition, only 22% of the white population is below the age of 15 in the country as a whole.

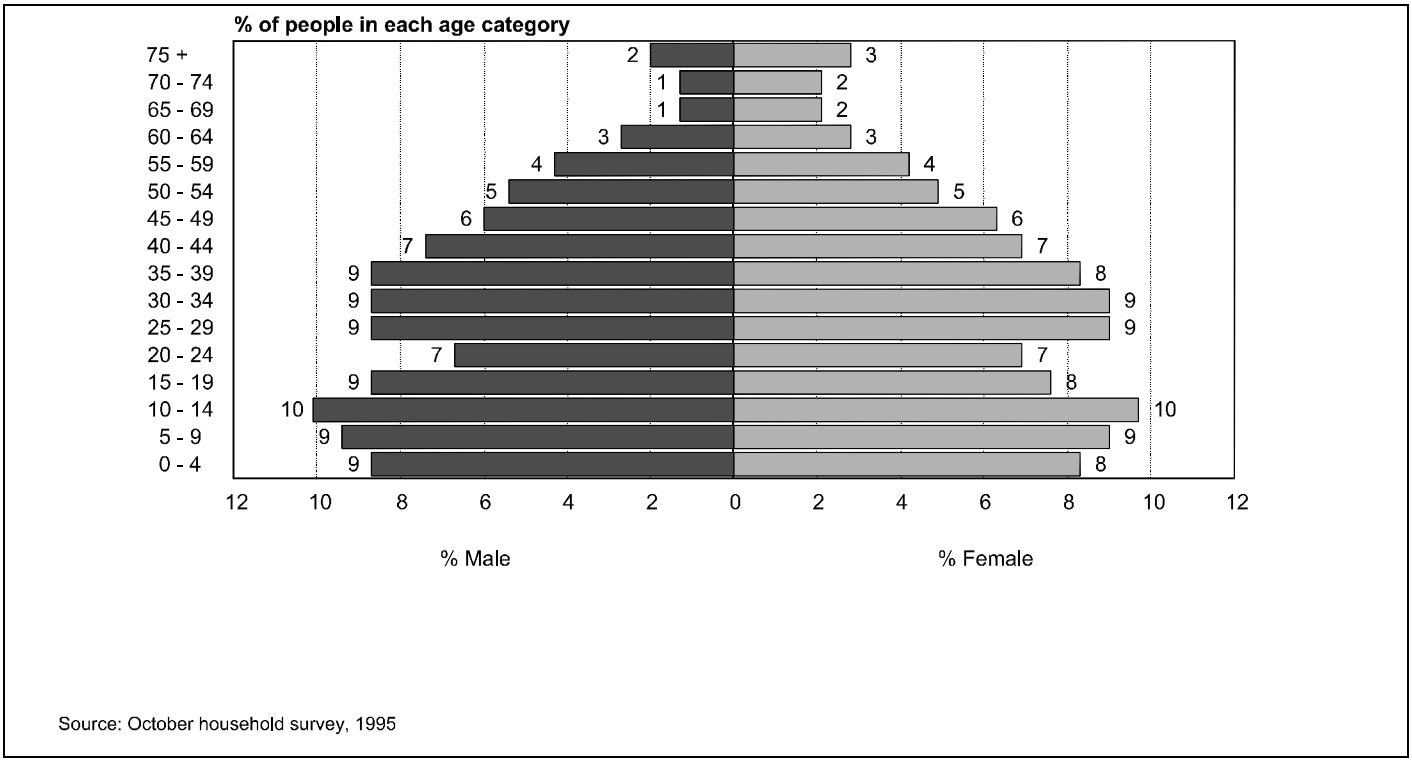


Figure 5: Among whites in Mpumalanga, age of the population by gender

Figure 6 examines the population distribution within four broad age categories. The proportionately younger African population, and the proportionately older white population, is clearly shown. Ninety-three percent of all people aged 0-4 years in Mpumalanga are African, decreasing to 92% of those aged 5-9 years and 88% of those aged 15-64 years. Hence, as the age increases, the proportion of whites increases and that of Africans decreases. Among those aged 65 years or more, 18% of the population is white. At the national level, 28% of the population aged 65 years or more is white.

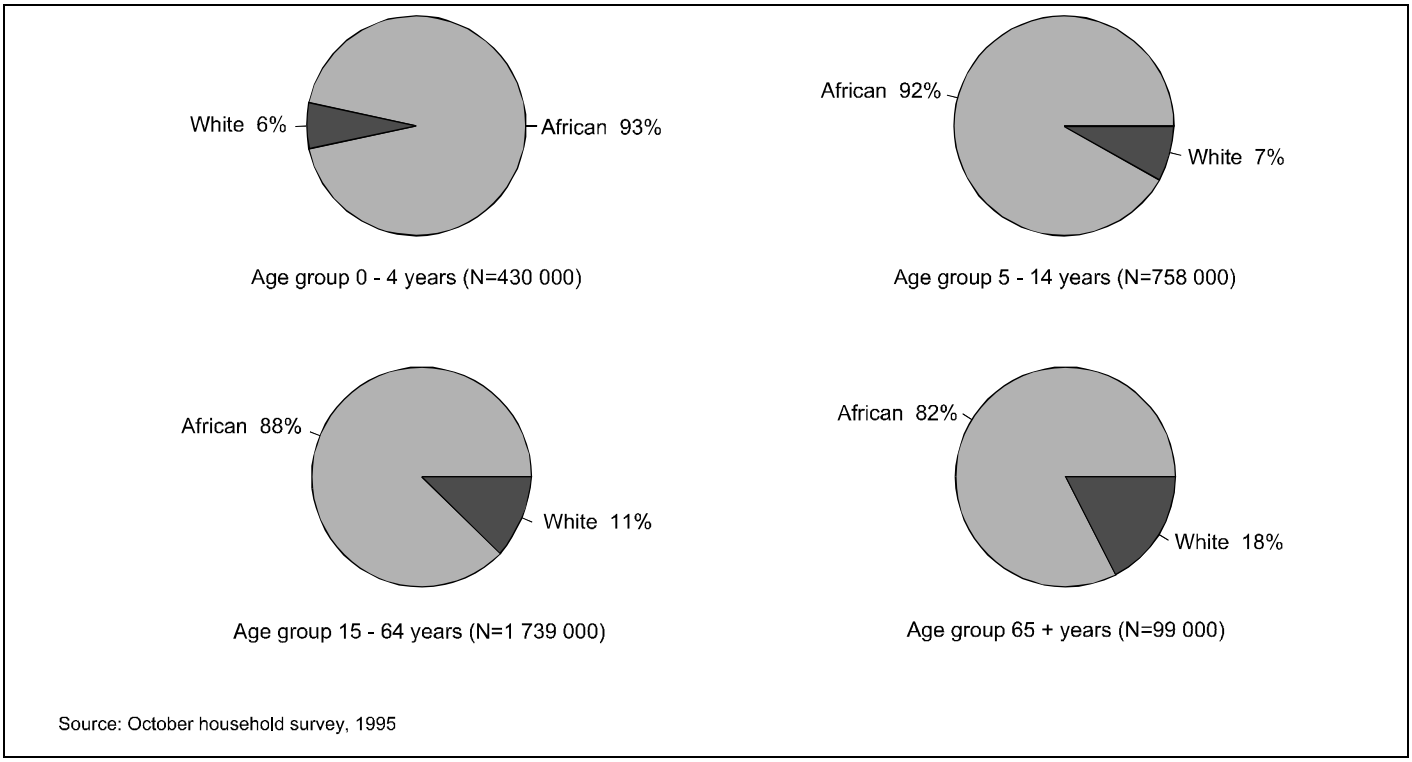


Figure 6: Population of Mpumalanga by age and race

The youth dependency ratio is defined as the number of persons under 15 years of age divided by the number of persons aged 15-64. Among Africans in Mpumalanga, it is 0,72. This means that for every 100 people aged 15 to 64 years, there are 72 people below the age of 15. In comparison, the youth dependency ratio of whites in the province is only 0,42.

Migration between the provinces

We now examine migration between Mpumalanga and the other provinces, and we note that there is relatively little in-migration to the province. What in-migration there is, is mainly from Gauteng.

Eight in every ten (81%) people presently living in Mpumalanga were born there, and 19% of those living in Mpumalanga at the time of the survey were not born there. Of those presently living in Mpumalanga, 8% were born in Gauteng and 5% in the Northern Province. The remaining 6% came from other provinces.

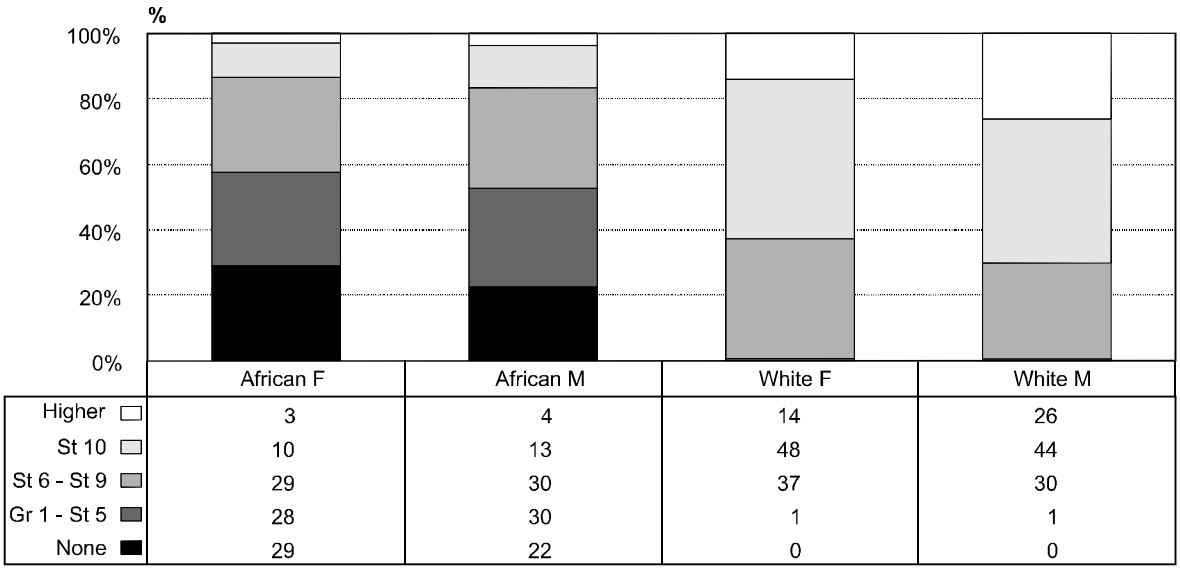
However, the pattern of migration varies by population group. Eighty-five percent of Africans who are presently living in Mpumalanga were born there, compared to only 45% of whites.

The distribution of education among the population of Mpumalanga

In the past, access to education was not equally available to all South Africans. It varied by both race and gender. Often, if it was available, its quality, in terms of the qualifications of teachers, access to facilities and the impact of political authority, meant that some pupils were not given the opportunity to reach their full capabilities.

Small differences between Mpumalanga, and the country as a whole, are found when comparing level of education. In Mpumalanga itself, a slight discrepancy in educational status between urban and non-urban residents is found. However, at a national level, there is no difference between urban and non-urban areas regarding educational status of the people.

Figure 7 indicates that among those aged 20 years or more, African females have the lowest educational attainment in Mpumalanga, followed by African males, while white females and males have the highest educational attainments. Twenty-eight percent of African females have received no education at all, compared to 22% of African males. In stark contrast, all white males and females have had some education. Education was made compulsory for whites between the ages of 7 to16 years during the apartheid era.



Source: October household survey, 1995

Figure 7: Level of education by race and gender among those aged 20 years+ living in Mpumalanga

At the upper end of the educational scale, almost all whites (99%) aged 20 years and older, living in Mpumalanga, have received at least some secondary school education (standard 6 or higher), while 26% of white males and 14 % of white females in this age category have obtained post-school qualifications. Only 4% of African males and 3% of African females have attained a post-school qualification.

Employment and unemployment in Mpumalanga

The economically active population

> *The term 'economically active' refers to all those who are available for work. It includes both the employed and the unemployed. People who are not available for work, for example, those under the age of 15 years, students, scholars, housewives or homemakers, retired people, pensioners, disabled people and others who are permanently unable to work are excluded from the definition of the economically active population. They are generally regarded worldwide as being outside the labour market (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1996:14).*

In South Africa, in October 1995, based on estimates from the 1991 census, there were approximately 26,4 million people aged 15 years or more. Of these, approximately 12 million said that they were not economically active, and about 14,4 million people said that they were. Of these economically active people, 10,2 million said they were gainfully employed, either in formal or informal work, while 4,2 million indicated that they were unemployed.

In Mpumalanga, there were approximately 1,8 million people aged 15 years or older. Of these people, approximately 865 000 (48%) stated that they were not economically active, and about 52%, stated that they were. Of the economically active people, 67% stated that they were gainfully employed, either in formal or informal work, while 33% stated that they were unemployed, which is slightly higher than the unemployment rate for the country as a whole (29%).

A composite figure of employment and unemployment obscures the racial and gender differences that exist with regard to these two variables, as discussed below.

Erasmus (1994) gives an idea as to why the unemployment is so high in Mpumalanga. He states that a large proportion of the population has limited access to the economy. This is due to a combination of technological and institutional factors, such as high capital intensity and historical restrictions on farming and other entrepreneurial activities.

The unemployed

> *At least two definitions of unemployment are used in South Africa, the strict and the expanded one. Both definitions include people who are aged 15 years or older, and who are not employed, but who are available for work. However, they differ from each other in the following way. A requirement of the first or strict definition is that a given individual has taken specific steps to seek employment in the four weeks*

prior to a given point in time. The second or expanded definition focuses on the desire and availability for work, irrespective of whether or not the person has taken active steps to find work (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1996:15).

On the basis of the strict definition, 16% of the economically active population of Mpumalanga was found to be unemployed, compared with 33% when using the expanded definition.

Figure 8 compares the unemployment rates of males and females among African and white population groups in Mpumalanga, using both the strict and the expanded definitions of unemployment The figure indicates that, among African women, 52% could be counted as being unemployed when using the expanded definition, compared with 27% when using the strict definition. Similarly, 15% of white women could be counted as being unemployed when using the expanded definition compared with 11% when using the strict definition.

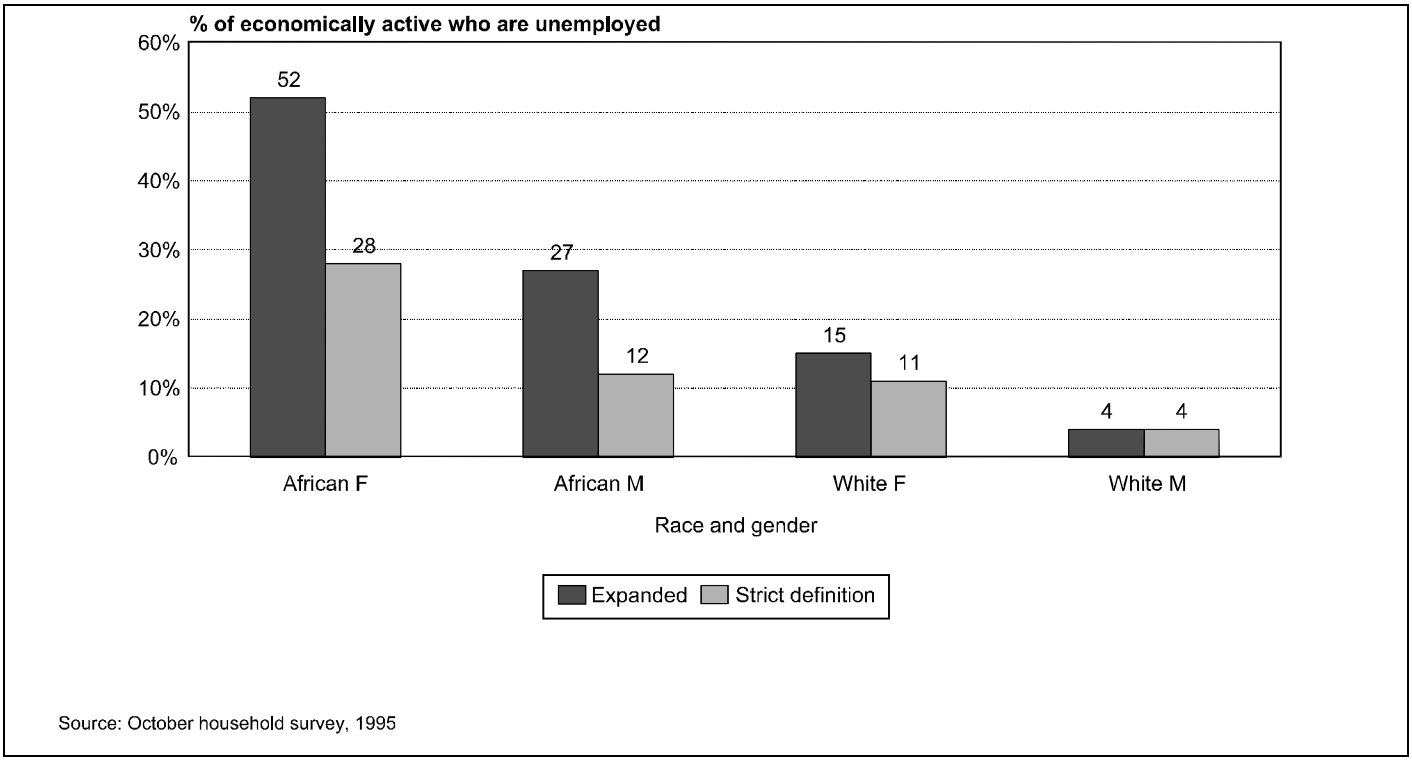


Figure 8: Unemployment rates in Mpumalanga by race and gender. Strict definition compared with expanded definition

Figure 8 also indicates that 27% of African males are unemployed, using the expanded definition, while 12% are unemployed using the strict one. Among white males, however, 4% of people could be classified as unemployed when either the expanded or strict definition are used. White males are more likely to be able to seek work when unemployed.

It has been widely recognised that the strict definition is too limited in the present South African context, where employment opportunities are extremely limited and many unemployed people have actively ceased to seek work. Transport and other costs entailed in job seeking, often with negative results, have discouraged people from going out and seeking work.

In other words, there are people who would readily accept work, but who have given up seeking it, because it is often too costly to do so. The World Bank calls these people the 'discouraged unemployed'. This applies mainly to women, particularly those in rural areas, where employment or income-generating activities are scarce, and transport is expensive. The unemployment rate is consequently defined by the CSS in terms of the expanded definition. It is the proportion of people in the economically active population who are not in paid employment or self-employment at a given point in time, but who are available for work or for other income-generation activities, and who want to be employed or self-employed. Accordingly, the following graph is based on the expanded definition of unemployment.

Using the expanded definition, 24% of males and 48% of females are unemployed in the province of Mpumalanga.

The OHS data for Mpumalanga shows that unemployment is 30% in urban areas, compared to 35% in non-urban areas. In South African urban areas as a whole, 25% of the economically active population are unemployed, which is lower than the rate in urban Mpumalanga. But in non-urban areas countrywide, the unemployment rate of 38% is higher than in Mpumalanga.

Figure 9 examines the distribution of unemployment in Mpumalanga by race, gender and age group. The results show that the highest proportion of the unemployed among the African population is found in the age category of 25-34 years (45% of males and 43% of females).

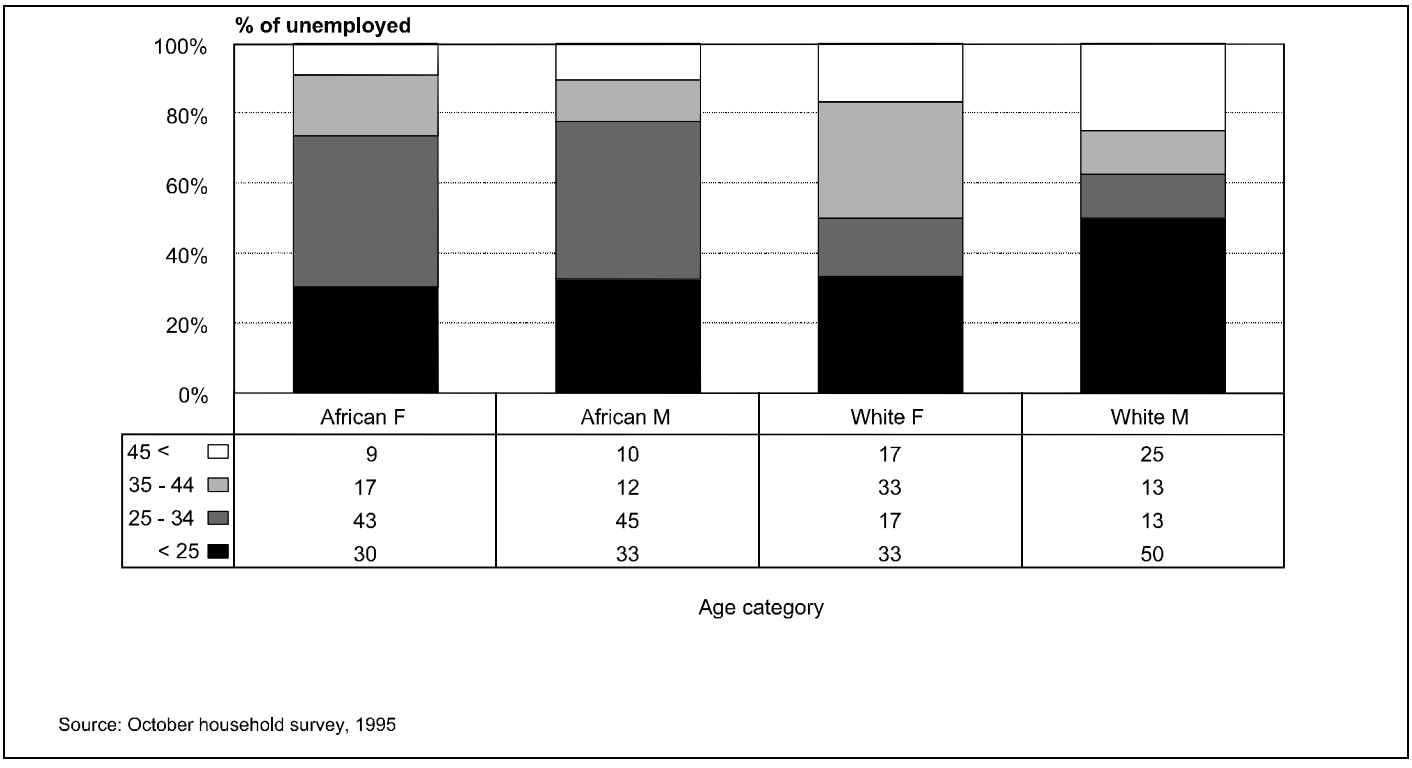


Figure 9: Distribution of the unemployed in Mpumalanga by age and gender among Africans and whites

Amongst the white population, the situation is quite different. Half of all unemployed white males (50%) are under the age of 25. However, the sample is small and therefore the results could be misleading.

The most significant result shows that, in Mpumalanga, the majority of the unemployed (77%) had no previous occupation, indicating that it may be extremely difficult for people to enter into the labour market. Once entry has occurred, however, then the chances of becoming unemployed are decreased.

The employed

The type of work done by employed people in Mpumalanga varies by race and gender.

The type of occupation, by race is very similar to the country as a whole, for both Africans and whites. Mpumalanga is therefore a microcosm for the whole of South Africa.

Figure 10 shows that, amongst employed Africans, 35% of males and 68% of females are working in elementary occupations such as cleaning, agricultural labour and garbage collecting. Just over 30% of African males and 4% of African females are in operator, assembler and related occupations. Only 1% of males and 2% of females are in senior official or managerial posts. In addition, only 1% of Africans are professionals, and just over 5% are associate professionals or technicians.

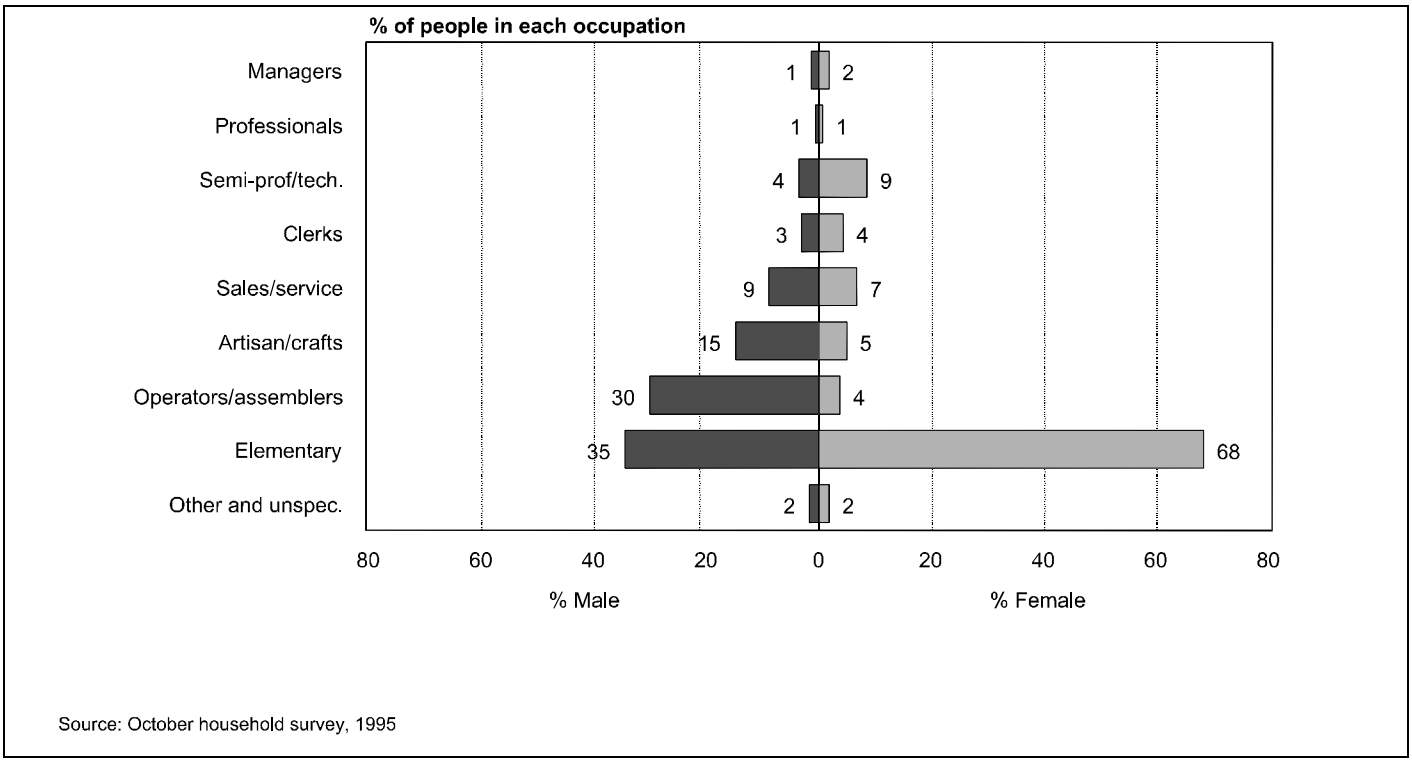
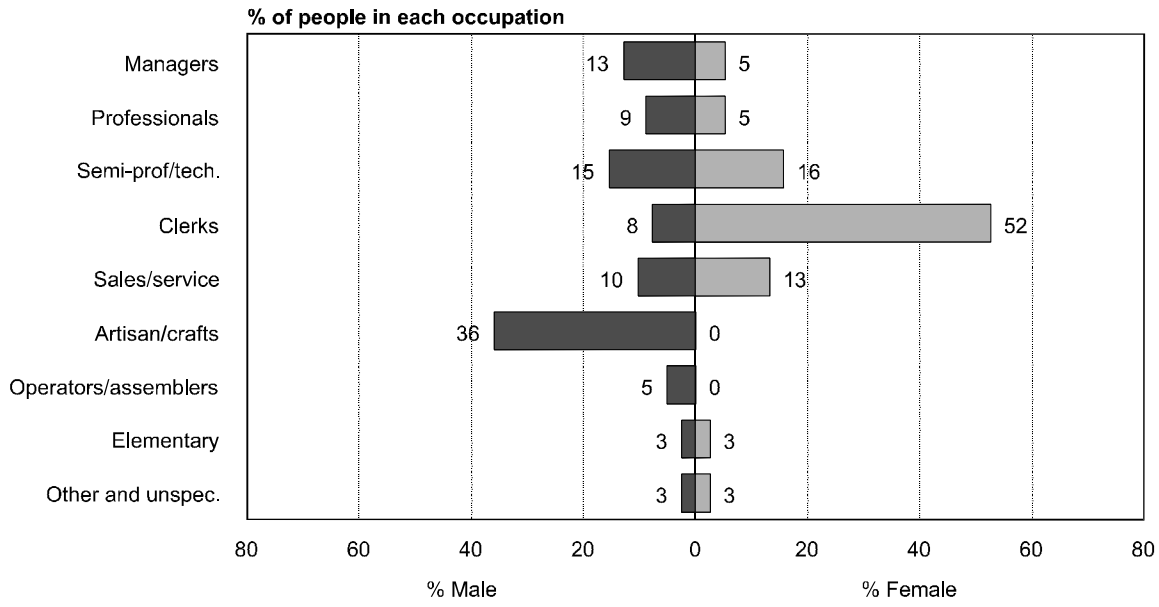


Figure 10: Occupation of employed Africans in Mpumalanga by gender

By contrast, Figure 11 shows that, in the white population, only 3% of both males and females are found in elementary occupations, while 10% (13% of males and 5% of females) are senior officials or managers. In addition, 23% (24% of males and 21% of females) are professionals, semi-professionals or technicians. In addition, no white females are employed in the artisan or craft occupations or as operators/assemblers.

The most striking feature is that more than half of the employed white females in the province (53%), are in clerical occupations. This is slightly higher than the national percentage (47%).



Source: October household survey, 1995

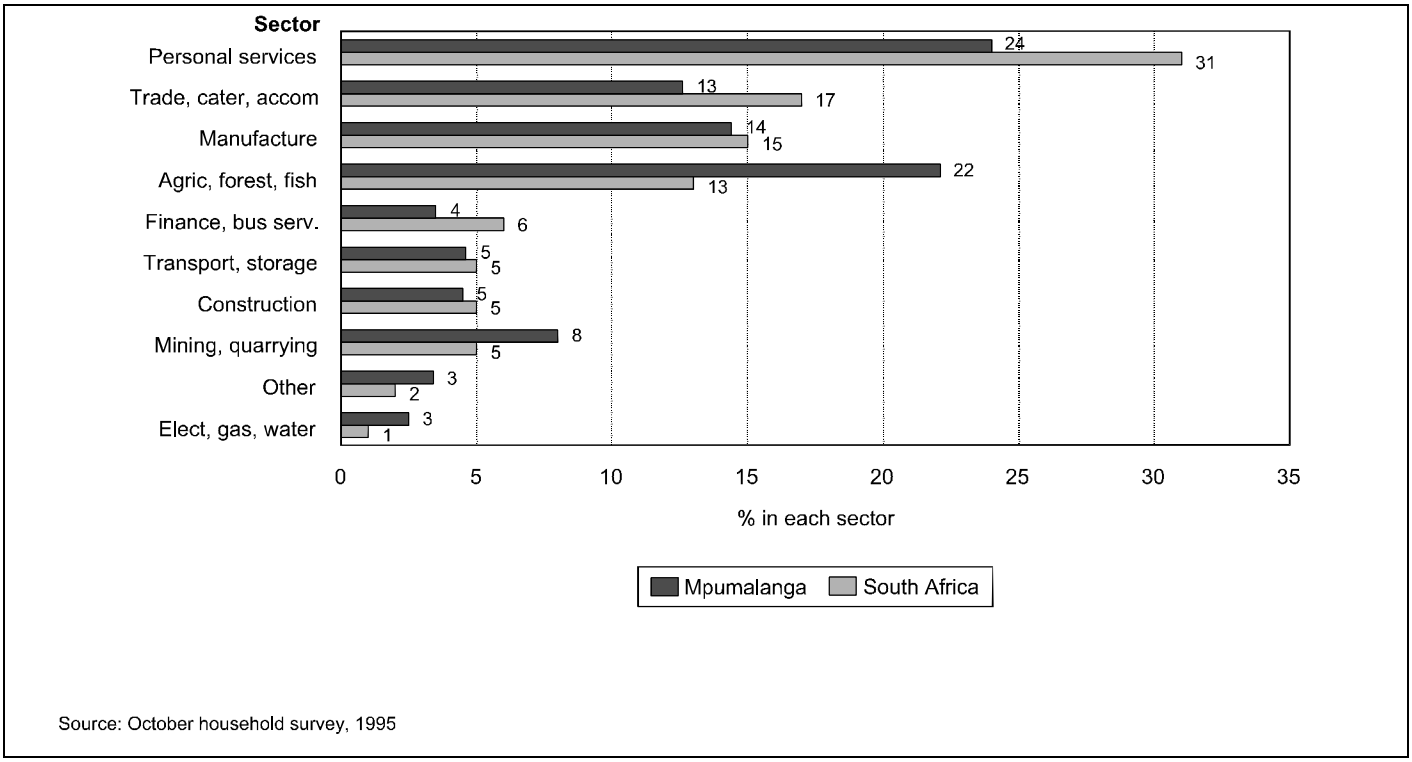
Figure 11: Occupation of employed whites in Mpumalanga by gender

Among males, differences in levels of occupation occur by race. For example, Figure 10 shows that 30% of all employed African males in Mpumalanga are plant and machine operators and assemblers. Only 5% of white males are in this occupation, as shown in Figure 11.

Economic sector

In this section we will examine the economic sector in which employed people work.

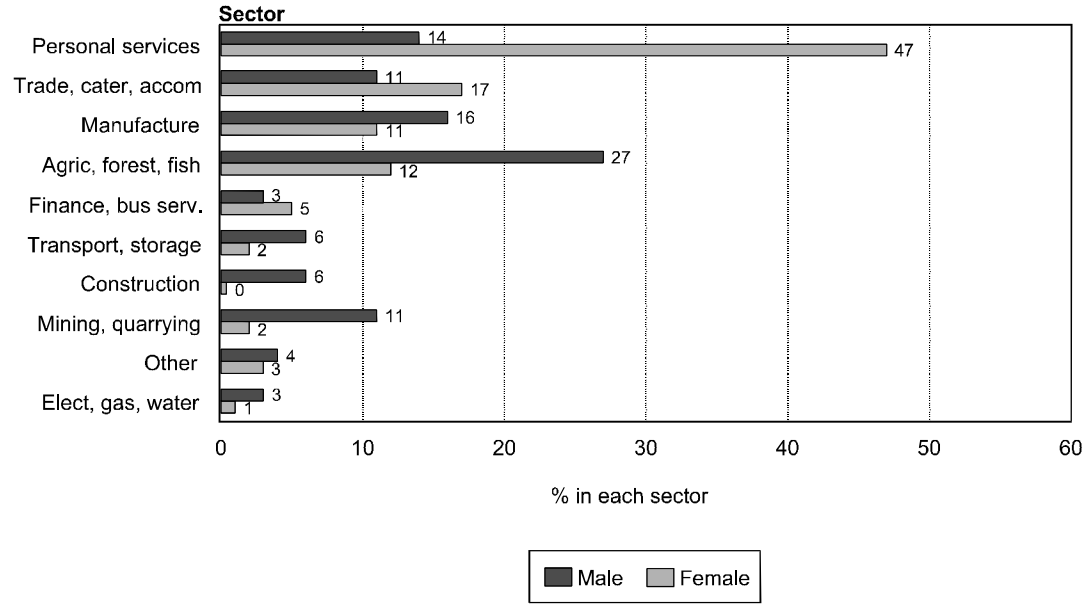
Figure 12 indicates that in Mpumalanga 24% of workers are in the personal services sector, while as many as 22% work in the agricultural, forestry and fisheries sector. An additional 13% work in trade, catering and accommodation. Fourteen percent work in the manufacturing sector. In South Africa, the shift from the primary and secondary sectors to the tertiary sector is more marked than in Mpumalanga. Thirty-one percent are in personal services, 17% in trade, catering and accommodation, and 15% in manufacturing. However, the largest difference between South Africa and Mpumalanga is that only 13% of people in South African as a whole are employed in the agricultural sector, compared to 22% in Mpumalanga.



Source: October household survey, 1995

Figure 12: Economic sector of employer amongst all those who are working. Mpumalanga compared to South Africa

Gender is also important when analysing workers by the industry in which they work. The 1995 OHS shows that women are concentrated in certain industries, and men in others. Figure 13 illustrates that 47% of female workers are employed in the personal services industry, compared to only 14% of males. In contrast, only 12% of females are employed in agriculture, compared to 27% of males.



Source: October Household Survey, 1995

Figure 13: Economic sector of the employer of all those who are working in Mpumalanga

Employment in the informal sector

In South Africa, approximately 12% of the economically active population work in the informal sector. African women, in particular, predominate in this sector. In Mpumalanga, the same percentage (12%) of the economically active work in the informal sector and 78% of all people employed in the sector are female, compared to 70% nationally.

Work in the informal sector takes place mainly in certain economic sectors. For example, Figure 14 shows that 82% of females working for themselves in the informal sector tend to be found in the personal services sector. However, men are found in more diverse sectors. Twenty-four percent are found in the trade, catering and accommodation sector while 19% are found in the personal services sector. As with the country as a whole, relatively few males (14%) and females (6%) are in small-scale informal manufacturing.

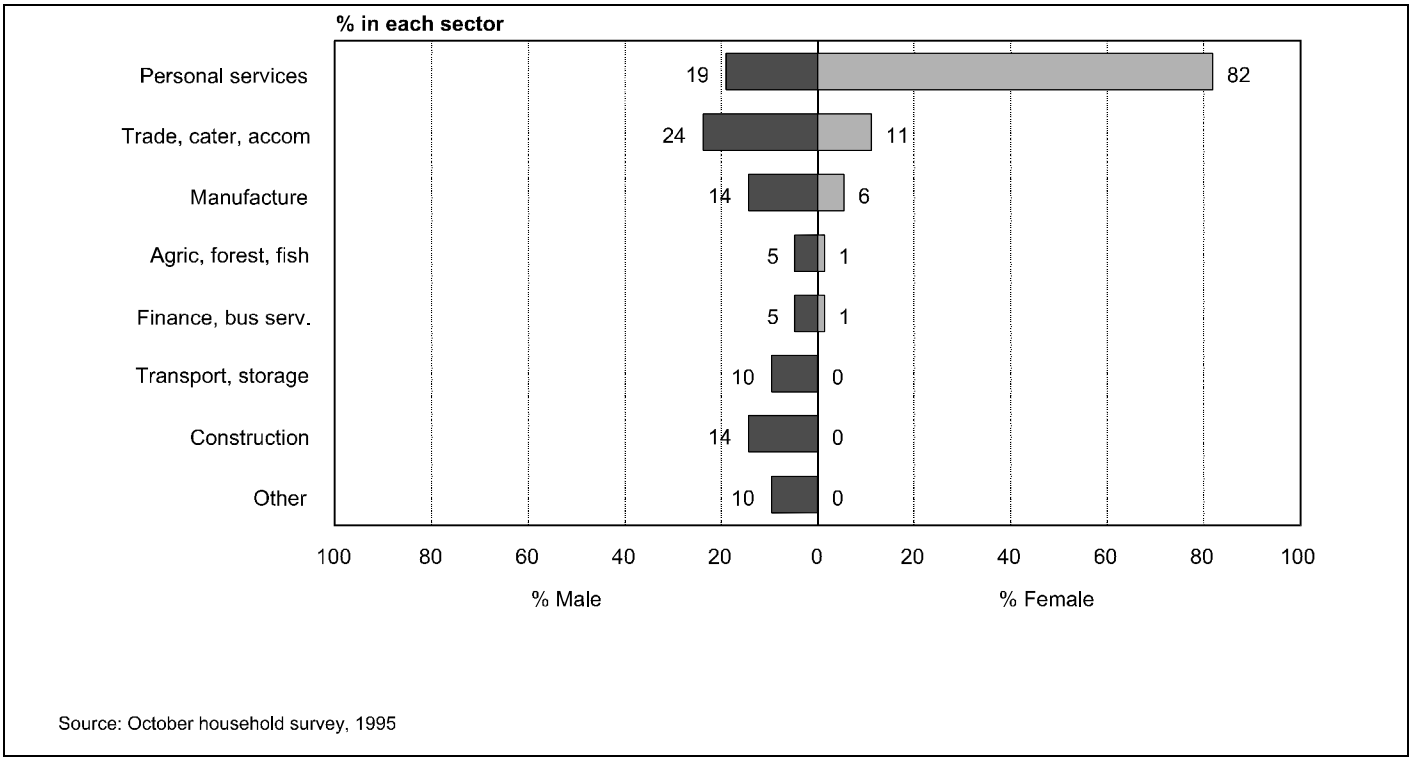


Figure 14: Workers for own account in the informal sector in Mpumalanga by economic sector and gender

Figure 15 focuses on workers for their own account in the informal sector by occupation and gender. The figure shows that 89% of females are in elementary informal occupations such as street vending, domestic work and scavenging, while males are found in more diverse occupations. Thirty-four percent of males are found in artisan and craft activities such as building, house-painting and wood-working. It might seem strange that 15% of males stated that they were managers, but this involved management of a micro-business such as a taxi business or hawker's kiosk.

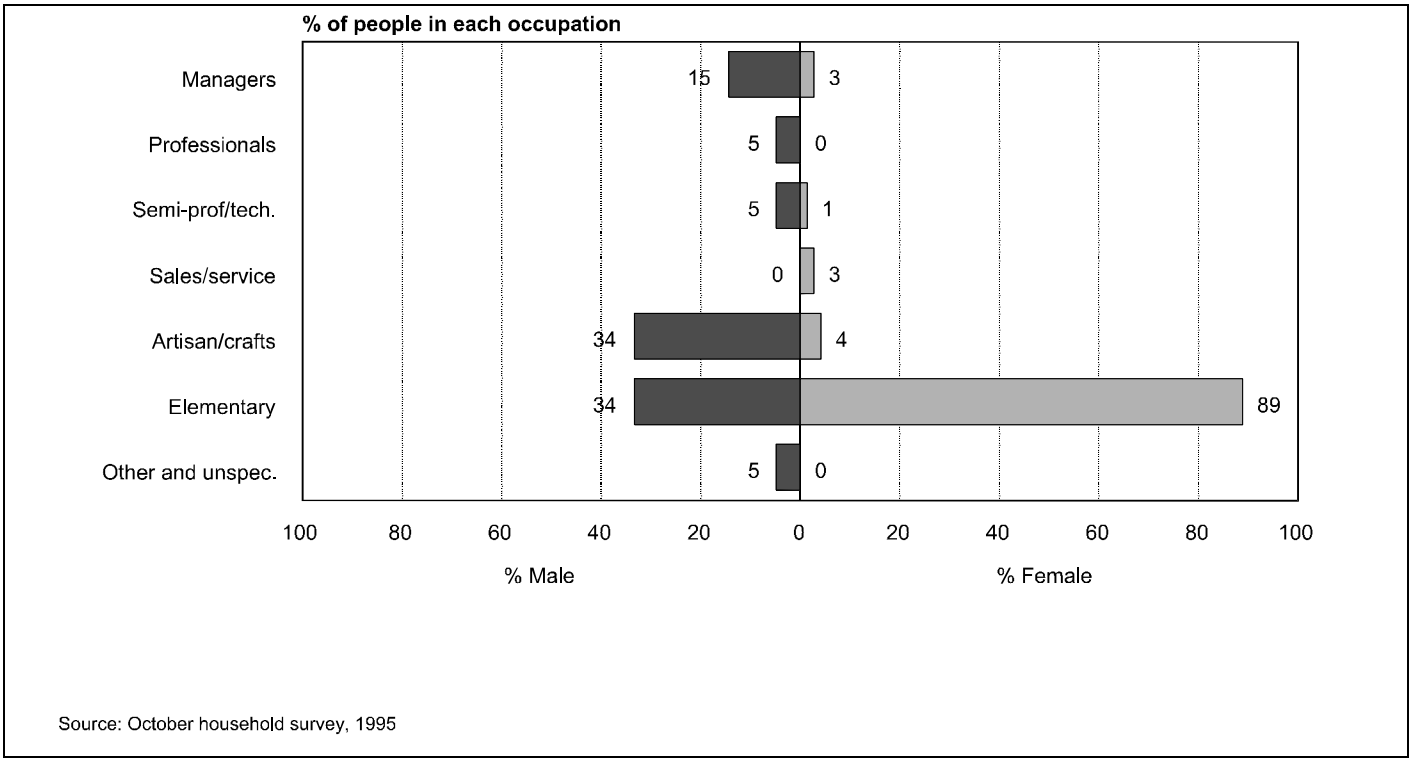


Figure 15: Workers for own account in the informal sector in Mpumalanga by occupation and gender

Section 3
The main findings regarding households

As already discussed in Section 1, different weighting procedures were used in the OHS as against the IES. We therefore focus on percentages, rather then absolute values, when comparing the two data sets.

Types of dwellings in which households live

Households in Mpumalanga tend to be large. There are on average just below 5,7 people per household, compared to the national average of 4,7 people. About 70% of these households are found in formal brick structures, such as a house/townhouse or flat or backyard room. Approximately 17% of people live in a traditional dwelling, 8% in shacks and 5% in hostels, compounds or single rooms in buildings. At national level the figures are similar to that of Mpumalanga. Seventy-three percent live in formal brick structures, 7% in traditional dwellings, 7% in shacks and 5% in hostels, compounds or single rooms in a building.

The type of dwelling that people inhabit varies between non-urban and urban areas. For all population groups in the urban areas of Mpumalanga, almost 90% of people live in formal brick structures, as compared to about 69% in the non-urban areas.

The distribution of dwellings among households not only varies by non-urban and urban areas, but also by race. Among Africans, 64% of households live in formal brick structures (including 13% in backyard rooms), while 21% live in traditional dwellings, 9% in shacks and 6% in hostels, compounds or single rooms in a building. All white households live in formal brick structures in Mpumalanga.

Among Africans, Figure 16 clearly shows that the type of dwelling in which the household lives varies by urban and non-urban areas. As many as 24% of dwellings in non-urban areas are traditional, compared to only 11% in the urban areas. By contrast, in urban areas, 83% of dwellings are formal brick structures compared to only 56% in non-urban areas.

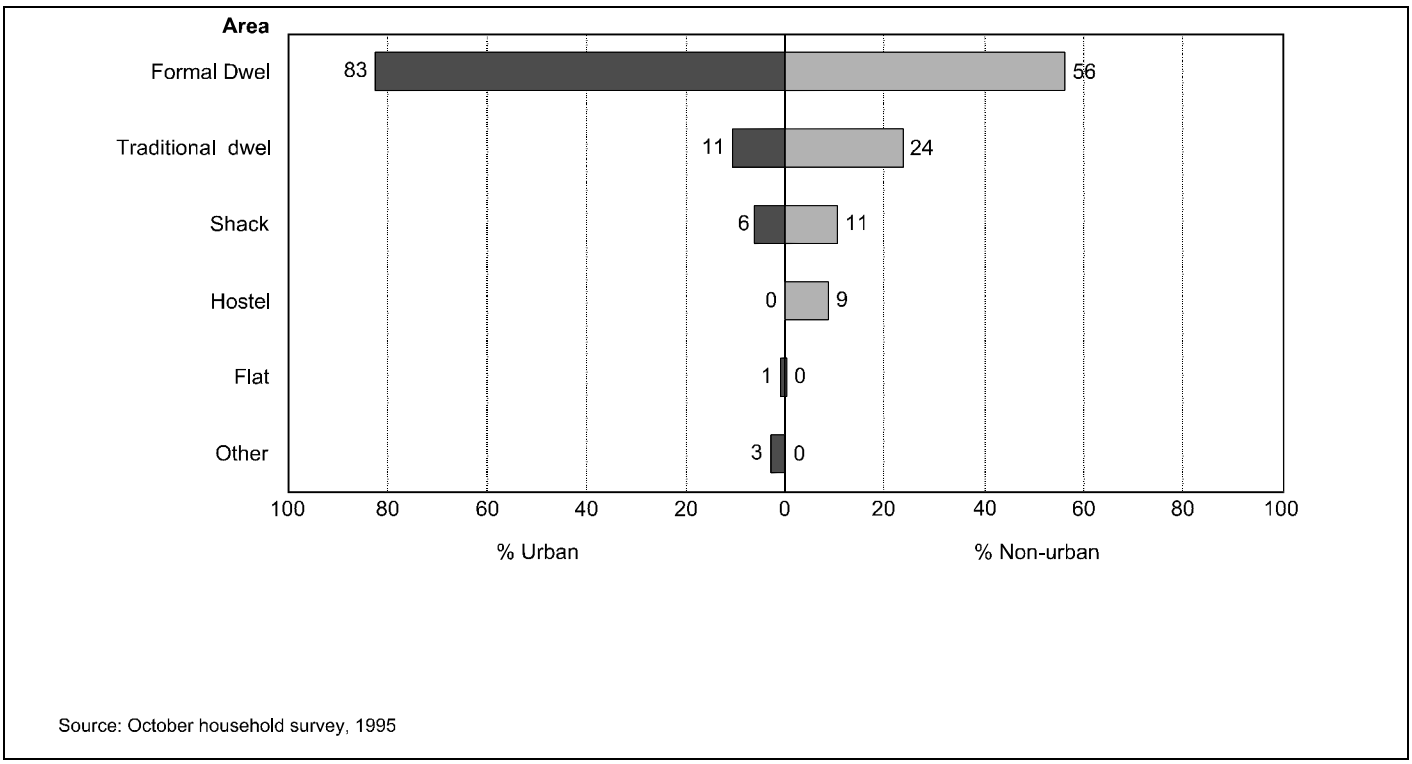


Figure 16: Type of dwelling in which African households live in urban and non-urban areas

The type of dwelling found in Mpumalanga varies by size. Cairncross *et al* (1990) state that the size of the dwelling varies with the owner's socio-economic status. Thus whites, with a higher socio-economic status than Africans, live in larger dwellings. Figure 17 shows that nearly 70% of Africans live in dwellings with 5 rooms or less. In contrast, only 27% of whites live in dwellings of 5 rooms or less.

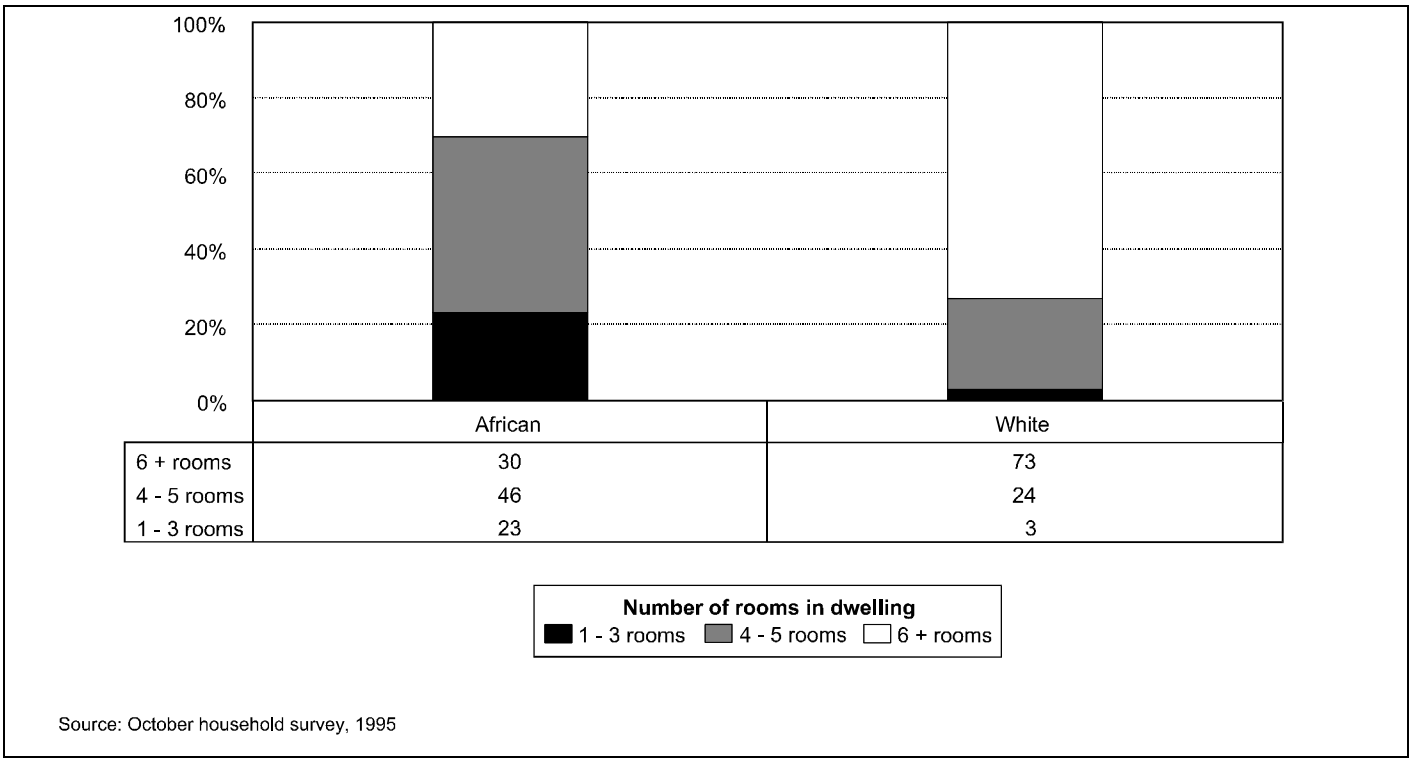
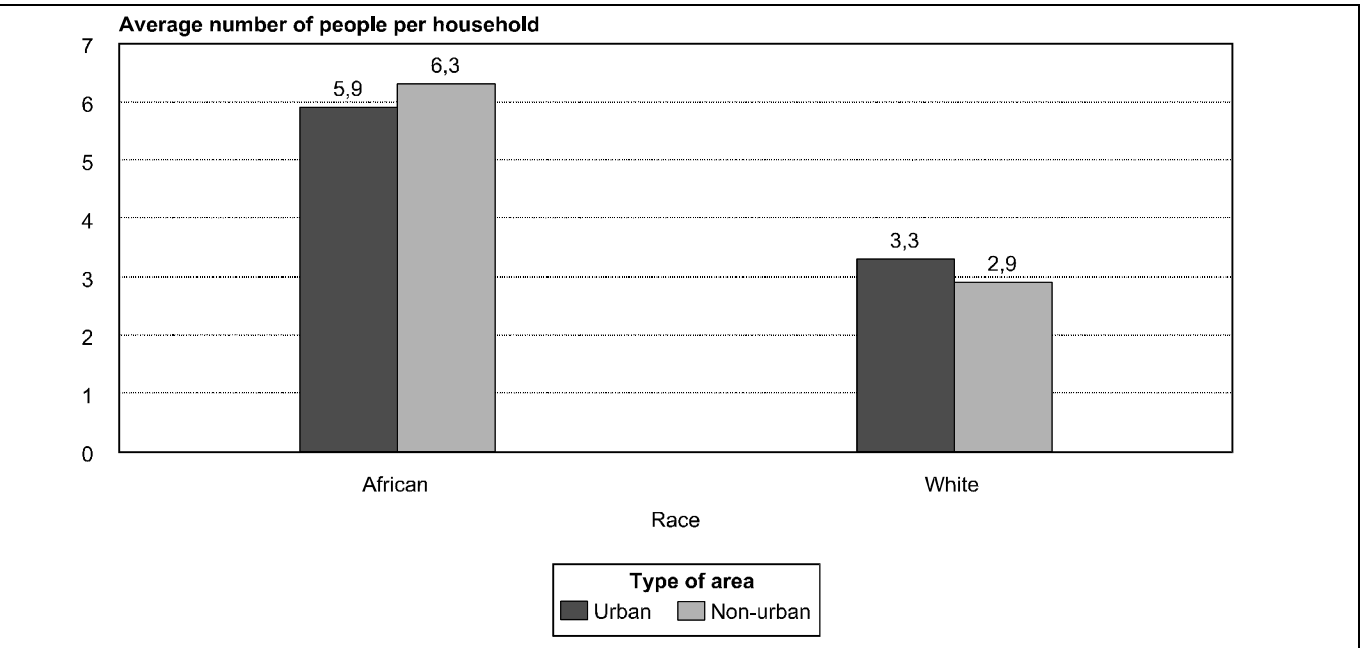


Figure 17: Size of dwelling in Mpumalanga by race of head of household

While white households tend to live in larger dwellings, they are also more likely to contain fewer people. On average, white households in Mpumalanga in both urban and non-urban areas each consist of 3,2 people per dwelling while African households contain an average of 6,2 people per dwelling. However, differences occur between urban and non-urban areas. These are shown in Figure 18.



Source: October household survey, 1995

Figure 18: Average number of people per household in urban and non-urban areas in Mpumalanga by population group

Another measure that can be used to show differences in living conditions between Africans and whites in Mpumalanga is the average estimated value of dwellings. The average estimated value of a dwelling inhabited by an African is R17 000, while for whites it is R129 000.

For formal dwellings or houses on separate sites, the inequality is also marked. For the African population, the average estimated value of this type of dwelling is R25 000, while for white households its value is R129 000.

When comparing South Africa as a whole with Mpumalanga, the average estimated value of dwellings is lower in the province than it is nationally. The national average estimated value of a dwelling for African households is R32 000, some R 14 000 (or 45%) higher than in Mpumalanga. For white households the difference is R39 000 or 23% higher than in Mpumalanga.

Access to facilities and services

In this section, access to facilities and services such as electricity and piped tap water in the dwelling will be discussed. Not only race differences, but also urban/non-urban discrepancies, are also apparent. Comparisons will also be made with the whole of South Africa.

Access to electricity

Electricity for heating, cooking and lighting is unevenly distributed by race in Mpumalanga. Only 31% of all African households use electricity as their main energy source for cooking, while 29% use it for heating, and about 50% use it for lighting. In comparison, 99% or more of white households use electricity as their main energy supply for cooking, heating and lighting.

Differences in access to electricity are found in urban compared to non-urban areas among African households. Figure 19 shows that 65% of African households in urban areas use electricity as their main source of energy for lighting, compared to 38% of non-urban households. Figure 20 shows that 53% of urban African households use electricity as their main energy source for cooking, compared to 23% in non-urban areas.

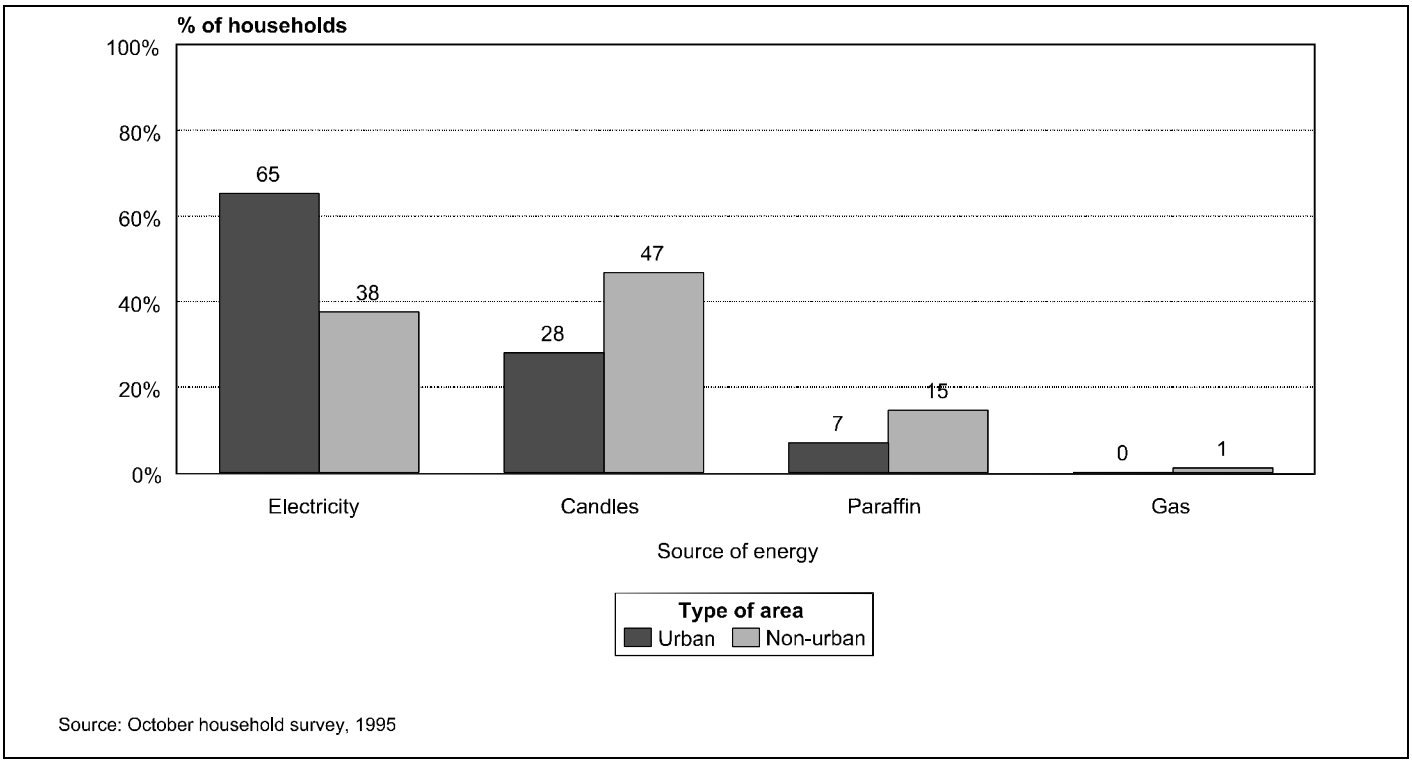


Figure 19: Source of energy for lighting in urban and non-urban African households in Mpumalanga

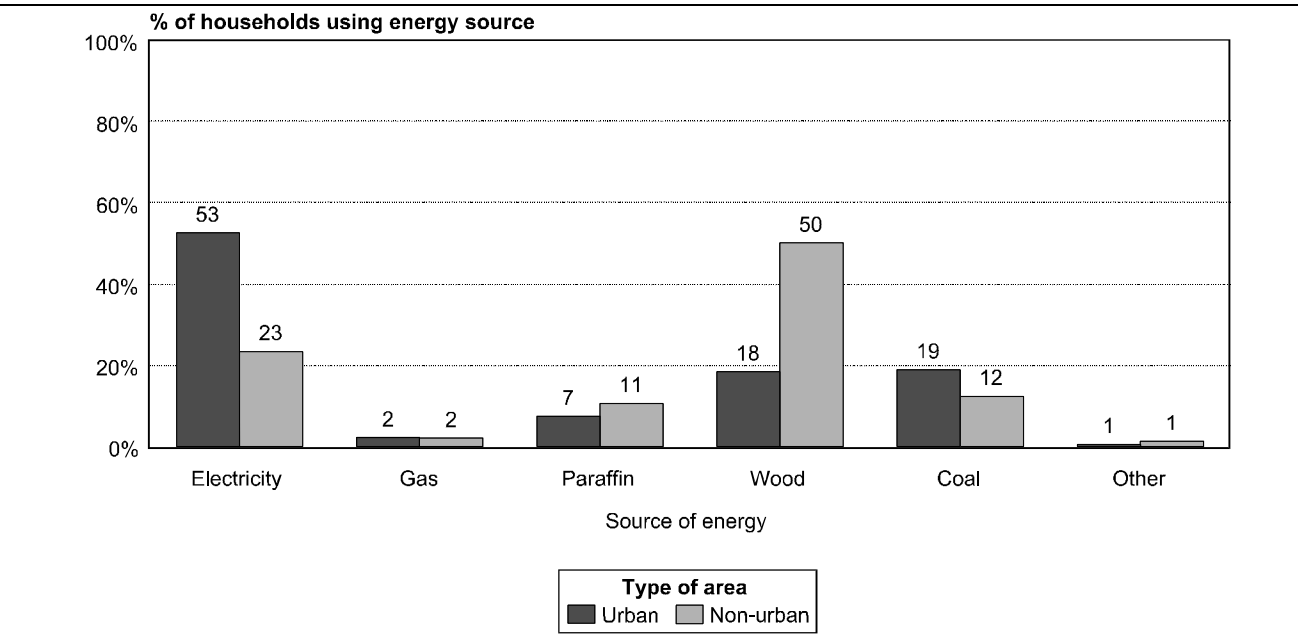


Figure 20: Sources of energy for cooking in urban and non-urban African households in Mpumalanga

In Mpumalanga, the most common of additional sources of energy besides electricity are paraffin, wood and coal. In urban areas, 7% of all households use paraffin as their main source of energy for cooking while 19% use coal, and 18% use wood (Figure 20). In non-urban areas, however, 11% use paraffin and 12% use coal for cooking. Wood is the most commonly used energy source for cooking (50%) in non-urban areas.

The figures are similar to the position of cooking when comparing the energy sources used for heating in urban and non-urban areas of Mpumalanga. In urban areas, over 70% use electricity, while 11% use wood and 12% coal. In non-urban areas, only 25% of dwellings use electricity for heating, while 51% use wood and 13% use coal.

According to Cairncross *et al* (1990), coal emits gases and chemicals such as carbon monoxide, sulphur and nitrogen oxides which are related to a high incidence of acute respiratory infections, particularly amongst infants and children.

A large proportion of households that use wood as an energy source obtain it from the veld (46%) and woodlots (21%). Relatively few people obtain wood from indigenous forests (9%), commercial plantations (12%) or merchants (8%). Over 35% of Africans who fetch wood travel more than a kilometre to fetch it in Mpumalanga. Regular payment for wood is infrequent in Mpumalanga: 26% of households who use this source of energy always pay for wood, 14% sometimes pay and 60% never pay.

Water for drinking

Cairncross *et al* (1990) note that the quantity and quality of drinking water is probably the most important determinant of the health of individuals, especially of infants and children.

In South Africa as a whole, only 33% of African households have the use of tap water inside the dwelling, as against 97% of white households (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1995). Amongst African households, differences are found between urban and non-urban areas. In urban areas, 56% of African households have a tap inside their dwelling and a further 34% have a tap on site. In non-urban areas, only 12% of African households have a tap inside the dwelling and 21% have a tap on site.

In Mpumalanga, 41% of African households have running tap water inside their dwelling, compared with 97% of white households. About 25% of Africans have running tap water on site. The other sources of water for Africans are tankers (3%), public taps (6%) and boreholes (11%).

Among African households in Mpumalanga, urban and non-urban differences regarding water source used for drinking purposes are noteworthy. Figure 21 indicates that, in urban areas, 65% of African households have a tap inside the dwelling, while a further 22% have a tap on site.

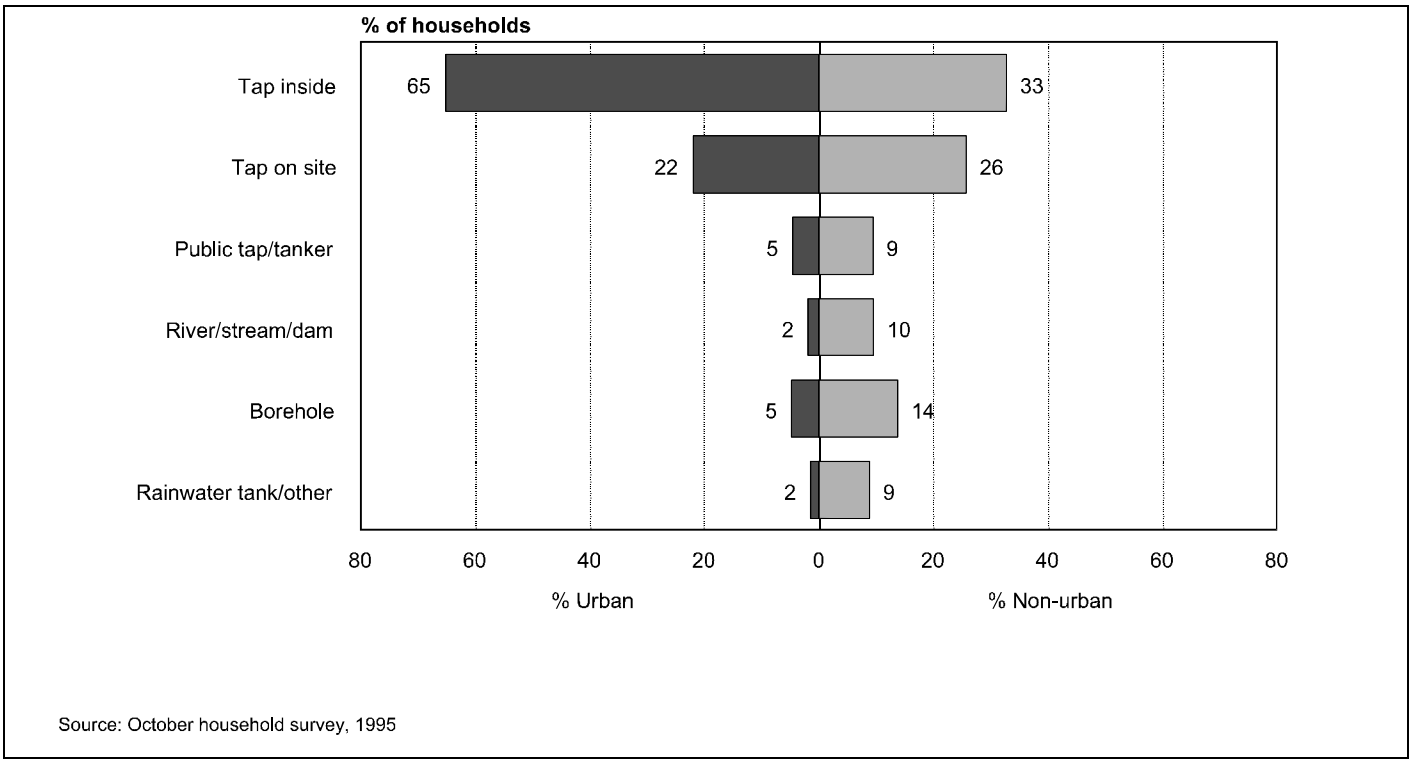


Figure 21: Where water for drinking is obtained in urban and non-urban African households in Mpumalanga

In non-urban areas, however, only 33% of African households have a tap inside the dwelling, and a further 26% have a tap on site. Ten percent obtain water from a river, stream, dam or well, and almost 14% obtain water from a borehole.

In Mpumalanga, in urban areas, just over 6% of African households have to travel at least one kilometre to fetch water from a source. In non-urban areas, this figure increases to just over 9%, as compared to 17% on a national level.

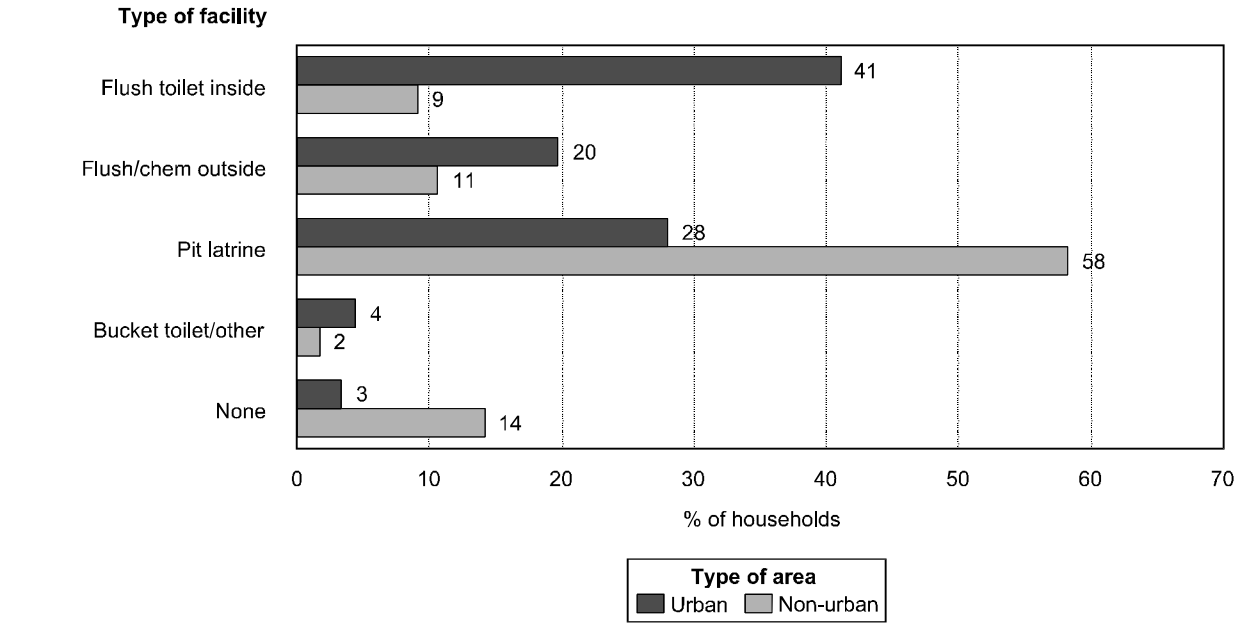
Sanitation

The occurrence of communicable and infectious diseases is related to the type of sanitation facilities. Omar (1993:26) studied the relationship between diarrhoeal prevalence and the type of toilets used. He found that people living in households with a flush toilet present had the lowest prevalence of diarrhoeal diseases, while the highest prevalence was found among people living in households using pit latrines. Omar (1993: 27) also studied the prevalence between diarrhoeal diseases and the number of people per toilet, in Accra, the capital city of Ghana. The greater the number of people per toilet, the higher the diarrhoeal prevalence.

Flush toilets inside the dwelling are found in almost all white households (99%) in Mpumalanga but in only 17% of African households. On the other hand, 12% of African households have a flush toilet on site, 50% have a pit latrine and 3% have a bucket or chemical toilet on site. Six percent have access to toilet facilities off site, and just over 11% do not have access to any sanitation facilities at all.

The African population of Mpumalanga is worse off than South Africa as a whole regarding sanitation. At the national level, 22% of African households have flush toilets inside the dwelling, 18% have a flush toilet on site, 35% have a pit latrine, 6% have a bucket or chemical toilet on site, 7% have access to toilet facilities off site, and 11% do not have access to any facilities at all (CSS, 1996).

The difference in access to sanitation among African households in Mpumalanga is once again clear-cut along the urban/non-urban divide. Figure 22 shows that 41% of urban African households have a flush toilet inside their dwelling, as against 9% of non-urban ones. In South Africa as a whole the trend is similar, with 42% of urban African households having a toilet inside their dwelling, as against 5% of non-urban ones (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1996).



Source: October household survey, 1995

Figure 22: Type of sanitation used among African households in urban and non-urban areas in Mpumalanga

Refuse disposal

Lack of regular refuse disposal or removal is also a possible health hazard. Cairncross *et al* (1990) state that accumulation of garbage is associated with diseases such as malaria in areas where this disease may occur.

Almost all white households (92%) have their refuse removed by a local authority. Amongst African households the situation is different. In urban areas, 71% of African households have their refuse removed by using a local authority, compared to 17% in non-urban areas. Almost all (92%) of those households which have garbage removed by the local authority have it removed once a week. In non-urban areas, garbage is dealt with by a household having its own refuse dump (50%) or by having no method at all (29%).

Nationally, the situation is similar for white households, where 92% of refuse disposal is removed by the local authority. In urban areas, 85% of African households use the local authority, compared to just 6% in non-urban areas.

Telephones

In Mpumalanga, a small percentage of households (20%) have a telephone inside the dwelling. This figure is substantially less than the national average of 32%. Seventy-one percent of white households in the province have a telephone inside their dwelling, compared to only 9% of African households, but 20% of African households in urban areas and only 4% in non-urban areas have telephones. Fifty-eight percent of Africans in non-urban areas have no access to a telephone at all, and 34% have access to a public telephone or a telephone at a clinic.

Household income

The household incomes discussed in this section are based on data contained in the 1995 income and expenditure survey (IES). This survey grouped incomes into five income quintiles, based on South Africa as a whole, notably, very low, low, medium, high and very high. Each quintile contains approximately 20% of all households.

At the national level, African households tend to be the poorest in the country. Twenty-six percent have incomes which fall into the lowest quintile (between R0 and R6 839 per annum), compared with only 12% of coloured, and 2% of both Indian and white households. With regard to the top quintile of R53 092 or higher, we find that 64% of white households are in this category, compared with 45% of Indian, 16% of coloured and 9% of African households (Hirschowitz and Orkin, 1996).

Population group differences

In Mpumalanga differences between incomes in white and African households are also significant. Figure 23 shows that 20% of all African households in Mpumalanga earn between R0 and R6 868 per annum, the lowest quintile, compared to less than 1% of white households. At the other extreme, 64% of white households have an income of R52 800 or more per annum (the highest quintile), compared to 5% of African households.

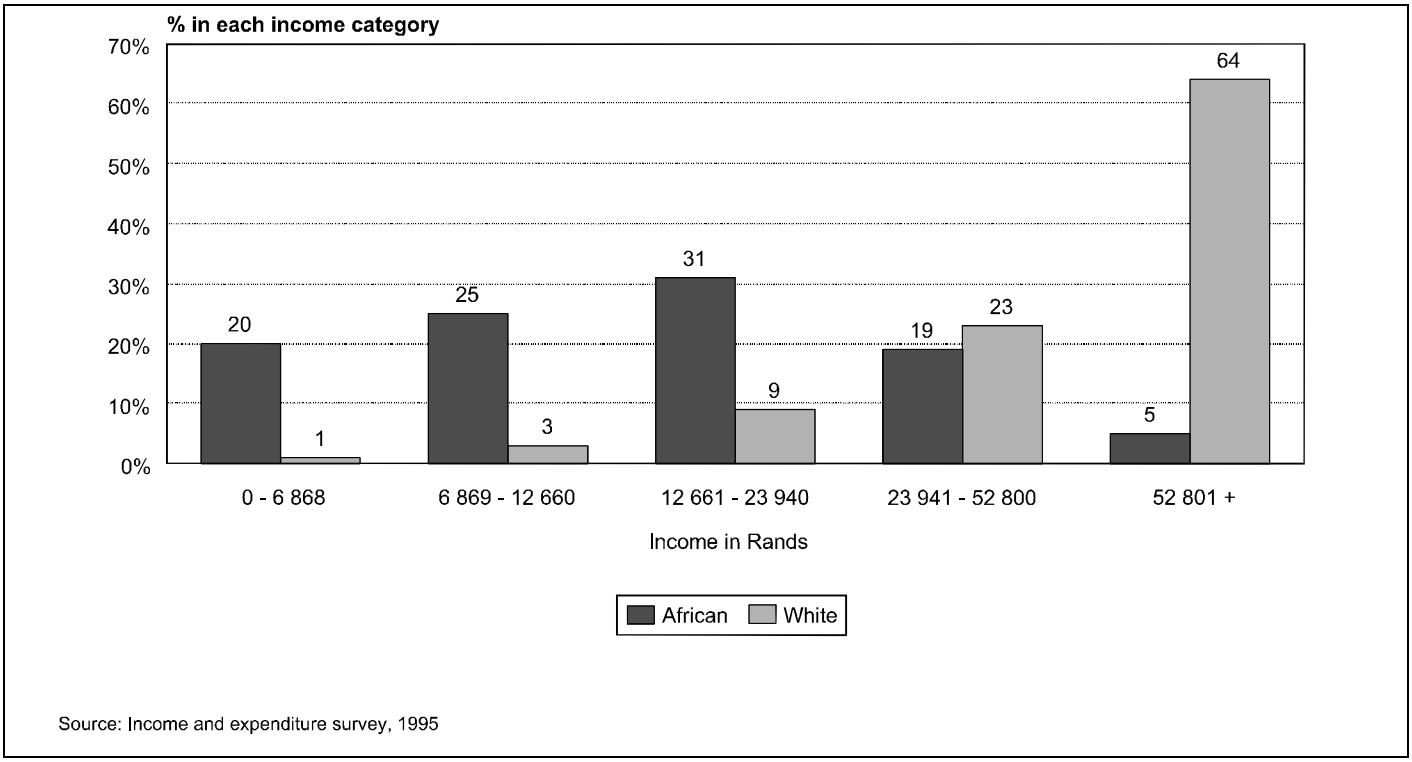


Figure 23: Percentage of households in Mpumalanga in each income category by race

Urban/non-urban income differences

Figure 24 shows that in Mpumalanga, incomes in African households in urban areas are higher than those in non-urban areas. For example, 21% of non-urban households are in the lowest, and 26% are in the second lowest income quintiles, compared to 15% in the lowest and the 18% in the second lowest in urban areas. At the upper end of the scale, there are only 4% of African households in the top income quintile in non-urban areas, compared with 11% in urban areas.

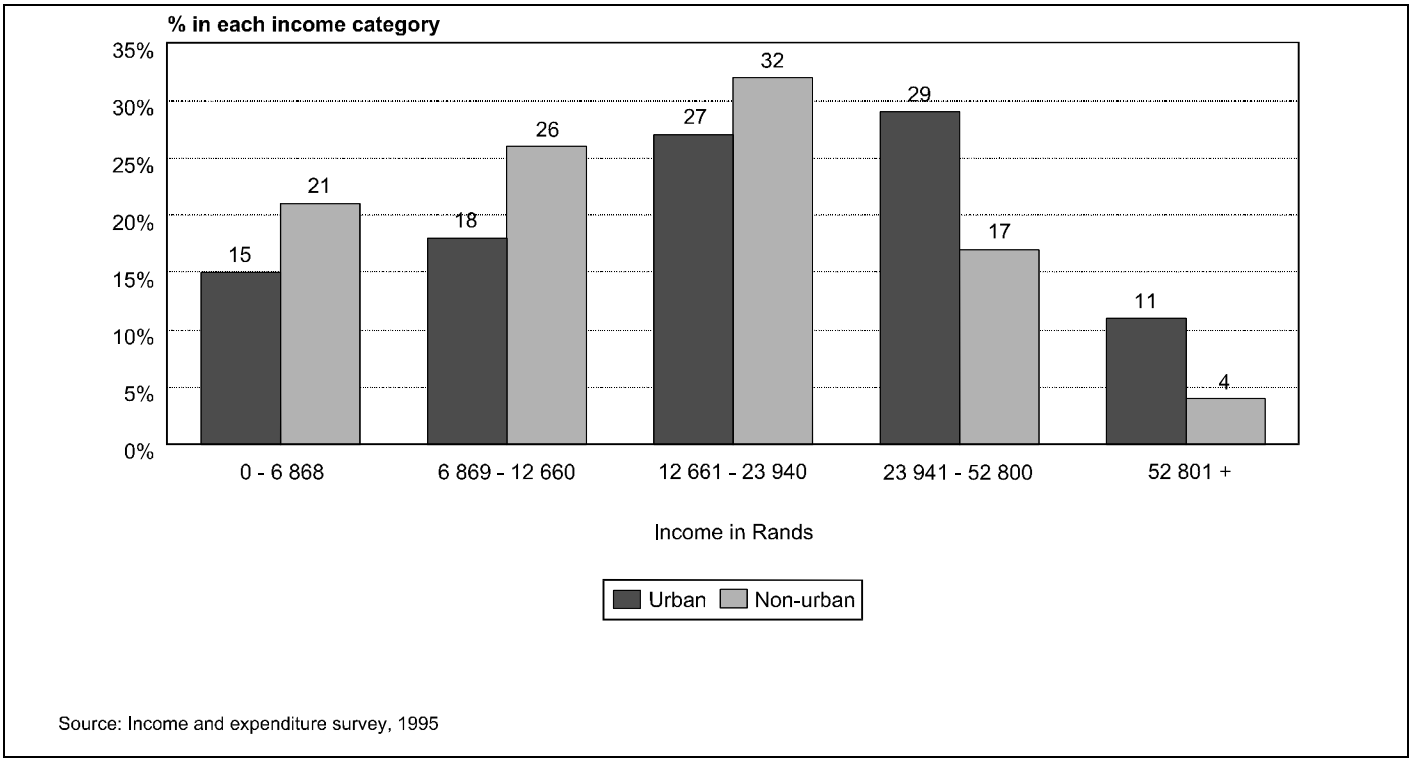


Figure 24: Percentage of African households in Mpumalanga in each income category in urban and non-urban areas

Feelings of safety and security

High unemployment and high levels of crime tend to go hand in hand. High crime rates may influence the degree of feeling safe in one's own neighbourhood by household members. At the national level, 45% of Africans stated that they felt very safe and 36% felt rather safe in their neighbourhood. Nationally, 32% of whites felt very safe and 52% felt rather safe in their neighbourhoods. Less than 19% of the total population of South Africa felt 'rather unsafe' or 'very unsafe' in their neighbourhoods.

Figure 25 shows that Mpumalanga follows a similar pattern to that of the country as a whole. The only slight difference between Mpumalanga and South Africa as a whole is that 6% of the total population in South Africa felt 'very unsafe' in their own neighbourhood, compared to 3% in Mpumalanga.

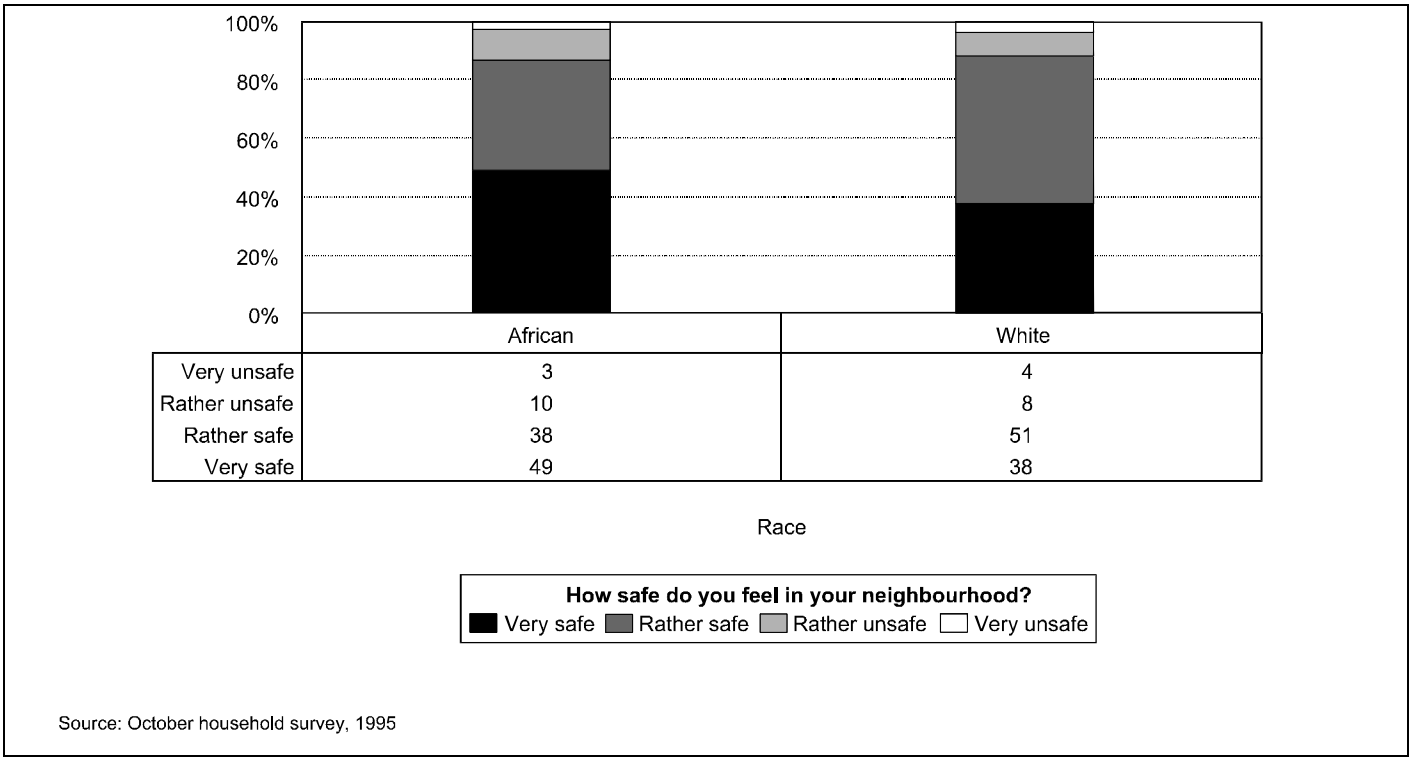


Figure 25: Feeling safe in one's own neighbourhood by race of head of household in Mpumalanga

Figure 26 shows that in Mpumalanga, feeling safe in one's own home follows the same pattern as feeling safe in the neighbourhood. The vast majority of both Africans and whites feel very safe or rather safe in their own home. This is a similar picture to the national one.

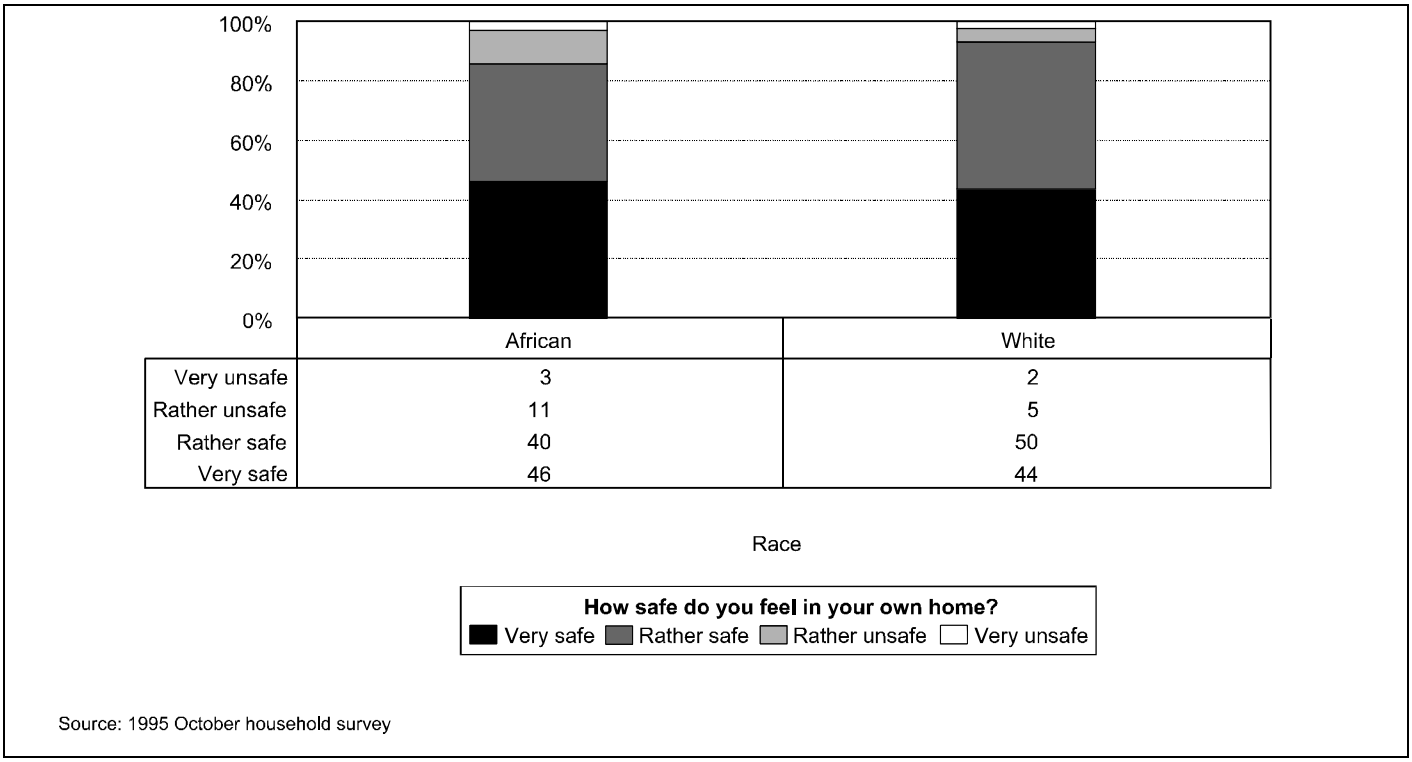


Figure 26: Feeling safe inside one's own home by race of head of household in Mpumalanga

Section 4
Health and disability in Mpumalanga

Health in Mpumalanga

In this section, access to health facilities in Mpumalanga and the types of medical services available in urban and non-urban areas are discussed.

When examining the use of public versus private health facilities, the vast majority of African households (72%) go to public facilities, compared to only 28% of white households, which tend to go to private institutions (mainly doctors).

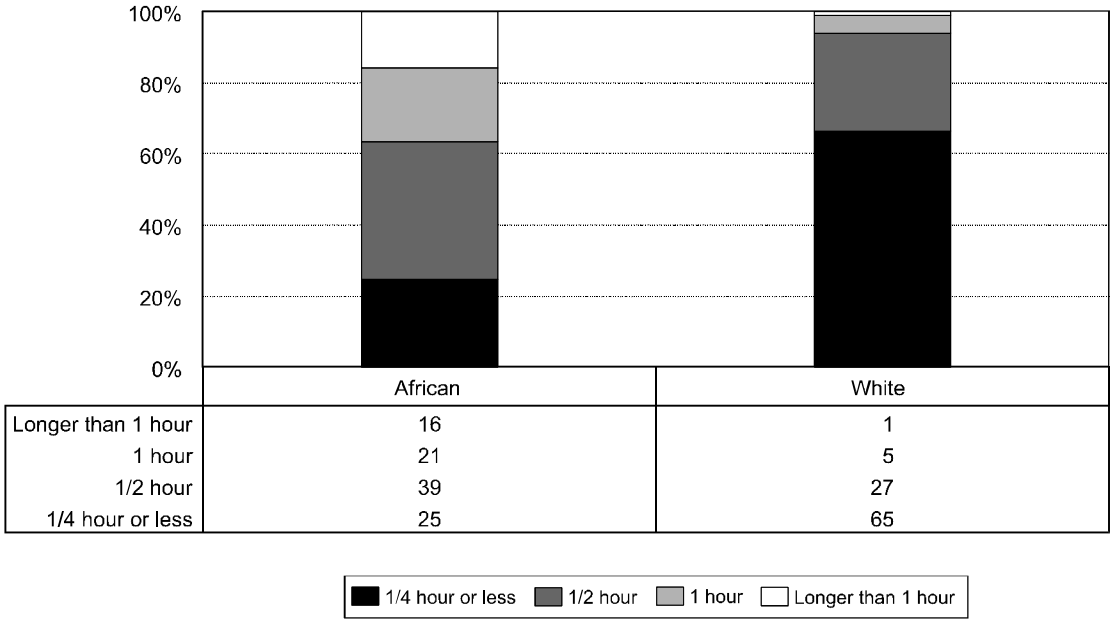
At a national level, proportionately more (81%) Africans go to public health facilities than in Mpumalanga, compared to only 21% of white households.

When comparing the case of hospitals versus clinics in the public sector, 45% of African households who use public facilities go to a hospital, 51% go to a clinic and only 4% go to either facility.

This pattern in Mpumalanga is very similar to that found at the national level.

When visiting the source of health-care, the distances that have to be travelled by the African population are very similar to those of whites. Among the African population, 25% reported that the nearest medical service is less than 1 km away, 38% stated that it is between 1 and 5 km, and 37%, 5 km or more. The comparative figures for the white population are 33%, 37% and 30%.

However, it takes Africans far longer to reach a health facility than it takes whites. Figure 27 shows that only 25% of Africans travel about a quarter of an hour or less to reach the nearest medical facility; for whites the figure is 65%. At the other end of the time scale, 36% of Africans have to travel for about an hour or more to reach the nearest medical service. Only 6% of whites have to travel for this amount of time.



Source: October household survey, 1995

Figure 27: Time of journey to nearest medical facility among Africans and whites

Breathing problems related to pollution in winter

In total, 50% of the respondents in Mpumalanga stated that their breathing was not affected by pollution in winter, while 13% found breathing very difficult.

However, the totals obscure the population group differences that occur. Africans were more adversely affected than whites. This is illustrated in Figure 28. Fifteen percent of Africans reported that pollution makes breathing difficult compared to 3% of whites. Conversely, 82% of whites reported that pollution does not effect their breathing at all, compared with only 43% of Africans.

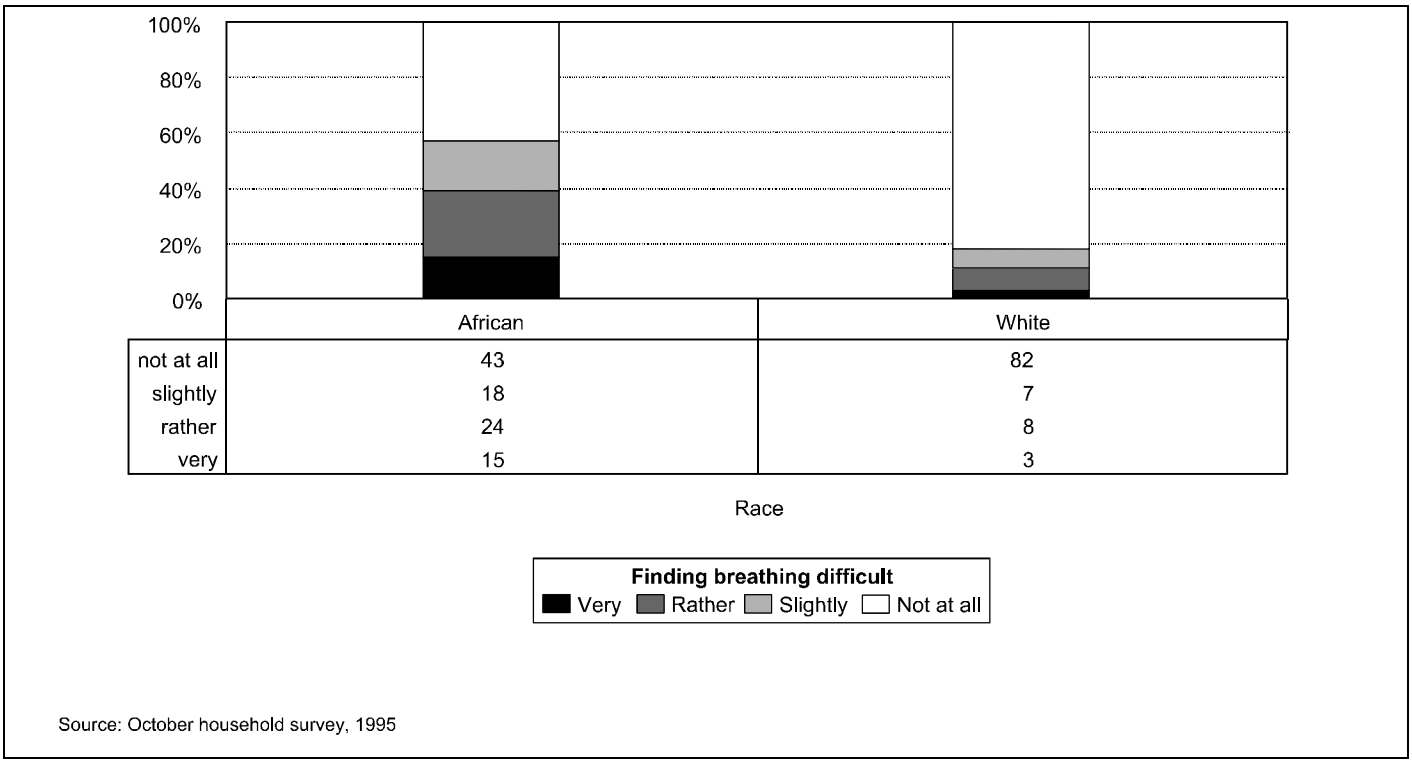


Figure 28: The effect on breathing of smoke and pollution in winter in Mpumalanga by race

Disability in Mpumalanga

Approximately one in every 20 (5%) people in South Africa are reported as being disabled.

In Mpumalanga only 3,4% of the population are reported as being disabled. The types of disabilities are as follows (percentages are given to one decimal place, because of the small proportions involved)

- 1,7% of the population has a visual disability;
- 0,4% of the population has a hearing or speech disability;
- 1,0% of the population has a physical disability;
- 0,2% of the population has a mental disability.

Therefore, in Mpumalanga province, proportionately fewer people are disabled compared to the national picture.
These proportions may be an undercount, because of a possible stigma attached to certain types of disabilities. A similar proportion of males and females, Africans, coloureds, Indians and whites and those living in urban and non-urban areas are disabled in Mpumalanga, and in the country as a whole.

Section 5
Conclusion

There are a number of issues in Mpumalanga that have been brought into sharp focus through the 1995 OHS. These include racial and gender disparities in many spheres of life, as well as large differences in life circumstances along the urban/non-urban divide. In addition, the extent of unemployment in the province, and the type of employment opportunities that are available, have also been highlighted.

The 1995 OHS has shown that vast inequalities exist in Mpumalanga. As these inequalities are addressed, not only racial differences, but also discrepancies in urban and non-urban life circumstances, will require careful monitoring. This report has shown that inequalities exist both at the individual and household levels.

Among individuals, important differences were found between Africans and whites regarding income, education and occupation. The distribution of income showed that Africans were mainly in the lowest income quintiles, while whites were in the highest. The major difference with regard to education was the small percentage of Africans who had tertiary education, compared to that of whites. Whites were predominantly found in skilled occupations and Africans the unskilled occupations. A large proportion of the economically active population in Mpumalanga was unemployed.

Unemployment is high, particularly among Africans. But this should be related to the life circumstances imposed on former 'homelands' by the forced removal policy of the previous apartheid government. There is little, if any, land for agriculture for most households.

To measure employment and unemployment in future, the CSS will be required to redefine its methodology to take alternative type of situations into account. For example, work is not necessarily waged work, and householders may be involved in such activities as subsistence agriculture, exchange of goods and services or fuel gathering. In addition, low unemployment does not necessarily mean the absence of poverty, i.e. most people may be gainfully employed, but for very meagre returns – in Bangladesh, one of the poorest countries in the world, unemployment is measured at 2%.

With regard to households, this report has shown that African households in non-urban areas in Mpumalanga have extremely limited access to basic amenities such as electricity, tap water, flush toilets and telephones. An attempt was made to link environmental variables and to show how they are interdependent and could possibly influence health of particularly infants and children.

In the future, the CSS will be required to ensure that it enlarges its scope with regard to household surveys. The CSS should ensure that it:

- develops appropriate indicators to measure change in the life circumstances among all South Africans and inhabitants of Mpumalanga over time; and that
- it improves its sampling methods for household surveys, and undertakes additional household survey-based research including time-use, informal sector and subsistence agricultural surveys.

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